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5 **Glare and Light Characteristics of Conventional and**
6 **Balloon Lighting Systems**

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16 Balloon Lighting Systems

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1 **Glare and Light Characteristics of Conventional and**
2 **Balloon Lighting Systems**

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1 ABSTRACT

2 With the increasing needs to adopt nighttime construction strategies in order to avoid disruption
3 of traffic flow, state agencies are currently experimenting with a new class of light towers known
4 as balloon lights. Compared to regular lighting tower, balloon lights have been reported to
5 reduce glare significantly and to provide more uniform lighting conditions at the site. The
6 objective of this study was to measure light and glare characteristics of two balloon lighting
7 systems in the field. Glare and lighting characteristics of this new class of light towers were
8 compared to a conventional lighting system. For this purpose, field measurements were made of
9 the pavement luminance and the horizontal and vertical illuminance on a predefined
10 experimental grid. Results of this study indicated that while being comparable in terms of
11 wattage and luminous flux, the tested balloon light systems differed in terms of light and glare
12 characteristics. In addition, while conventional light tower provided greater illuminance
13 intensity at the light source than balloon lights, the disability glare was greater for conventional
14 light tower than balloon lights when mounted at the same height. Results of this study revealed
15 that optimum conditions should be sought in the work zone, through which adequate lighting
16 conditions are provided for workers while disability glare is kept below a safe threshold for
17 drive-by motorists. Plotting the maximum veiling luminance ratio (disability glare) against the
18 workable distance provides a simple approach to consider the two factors concurrently in the
19 design of work zone lighting.

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21 Keywords: disability glare, balloon lighting, nighttime construction

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1 INTRODUCTION

2 The majority of the US highway system was constructed during the 1950s and 1960s according
3 to population, travel, and freight estimates relevant to those periods. Now, however, as traffic
4 and freight loads have increased exponentially, and as aging, environmental action, use, and
5 misuse have taken their toll, these older systems have begun to deteriorate rapidly, a situation
6 that demands more effective pavement rehabilitation methodologies. Daytime repair and
7 rehabilitation of deteriorated roads result in heavy congestion and delays for the traveling public.
8 In addition, daytime road repair activities are unsafe for the workers at the site, costly, and may
9 affect the quality of the work performed under these conditions (1).

10 As a result, many state agencies are increasingly favoring that repair and rehabilitation
11 activities be performed at night. Nighttime construction offers many advantages to the public, to
12 surrounding businesses, and to state agencies. These advantages have been widely recognized
13 by researchers and practitioners in the field (2; 4). Nighttime construction minimizes congestion
14 and delay to the road users and reduces economic impacts of construction operations on the
15 surrounding businesses. In addition, it minimizes pollution from idle vehicles in work zones and
16 improves productivity at the construction site by allowing multiple activities to take place at the
17 same time. It also allows for extended working hours at night and cooler temperatures in this
18 environment are favorable for the equipment and the materials being installed.

19 Despite these many advantages, lighting conditions may affect both the work quality and
20 the safety of workers and road users. Previous research has found that nighttime construction
21 resulted in an 87% increase in accident rates (5). Inadequate lighting conditions were also found
22 to impact workers' morale and the success of traffic control measures at the work site. In
23 contrast, excessive lighting at the work site may cause glare for drivers and equipment operators.
24 Glare is defined as the sensation produced by luminance in the visual field that is sufficiently
25 greater than the luminance to which the eye has adapted to cause annoyance, discomfort, or loss
26 of visual performance and visibility (6). Controlling glare is a critical and an important issue in
27 adequately lighting highway work zones as it was reported that up to 90% of the necessary
28 information for operating a motor vehicle is visual (7).

29 With the increasing needs to adopt nighttime construction strategies to avoid disruption
30 of traffic flow, state agencies are currently experimenting with a new class of light towers known
31 as balloon lights. Compared to regular lighting tower, balloon lights have been reported to
32 reduce glare significantly and to provide more uniform lighting conditions at the site. Balloon
33 lights are also characterized by high-powered lightings that can illuminate areas from 550 to
34 1395m² in diameter and that are mounted on shorter towers compared to regular lighting
35 systems. In spite of these promising benefits, little research has been conducted to measure the
36 lighting characteristics of balloon lighting systems as compared to traditional light towers. In
37 addition, current balloon light technology has been adopted as a whole without the needed
38 supportive research to measure the glare for this new class of light systems and to quantify its
39 variation with lighting types and operational parameters such as height and setup at the work site.
40 Therefore, the objective of this study was to measure light and glare characteristics of two
41 balloon lighting systems in the field. Glare and lighting characteristics of this new class of light
42 towers were compared to a conventional lighting system.

1 BACKGROUND

2 Glare is defined as a hindrance to vision by excessive light (8); it is divided into discomfort glare
3 and disability glare. Discomfort glare is the glare that causes discomfort without necessarily
4 impairing the vision of objects. Disability glare is the glare that results in reduced visual
5 performance and visibility; it is often accompanied by discomfort glare (9). A third type of glare
6 has also been mentioned in the literature and is referred to as dazzling glare, which refers to the
7 discomfort associated with light over-exposure originating from a bright field of view such as the
8 sky or a sandy desert (8). Since it is critical to control the loss of visual performance associated
9 with nighttime construction activities, the focus of this study is given to disability glare.

10 Disability glare is quantified using the veiling luminance ratio, which is the ratio of the
11 veiling luminance to the average pavement luminance in and around the work zone (9). The
12 rationale behind using this ratio rather than the absolute veiling luminance is due that the
13 sensation of glare is not only dependent on the amount of veiling luminance reaching the driver's
14 eyes as an absolute value, but also on the lighting level at which the driver's eyes are adapted to
15 before being exposed to that amount of glare. Different models have been developed for the
16 calculation of the veiling luminance. In broad terms, the veiling luminance was defined by
17 Holladay as follows (10):

$$18 \quad \quad \quad 19 \quad \quad \quad VL = \frac{kVE}{\theta^n} \quad \quad \quad (1)$$

20 where,

21 VL = Veiling luminance (lux);

22 VE = Illuminance upon the eye by the glare source (lux);

23 k and n = constants that vary in the literature and with driver's age; and

24 θ = glare angle, between the directions of the glare source and the direction of viewing.

25
26 Pavement luminance is defined as a quantitative measure of the surface brightness measured in
27 candelas per square meter (11). Luminance controls the magnitude of the sensation, which the
28 brain receives of the pavement surface. It depends on several factors including: (1) the amount
29 of light incident on the pavement; (2) the reflection characteristics of the pavement surface; (3)
30 relative angle from which the light strikes the surface; and (4) location of the observer.

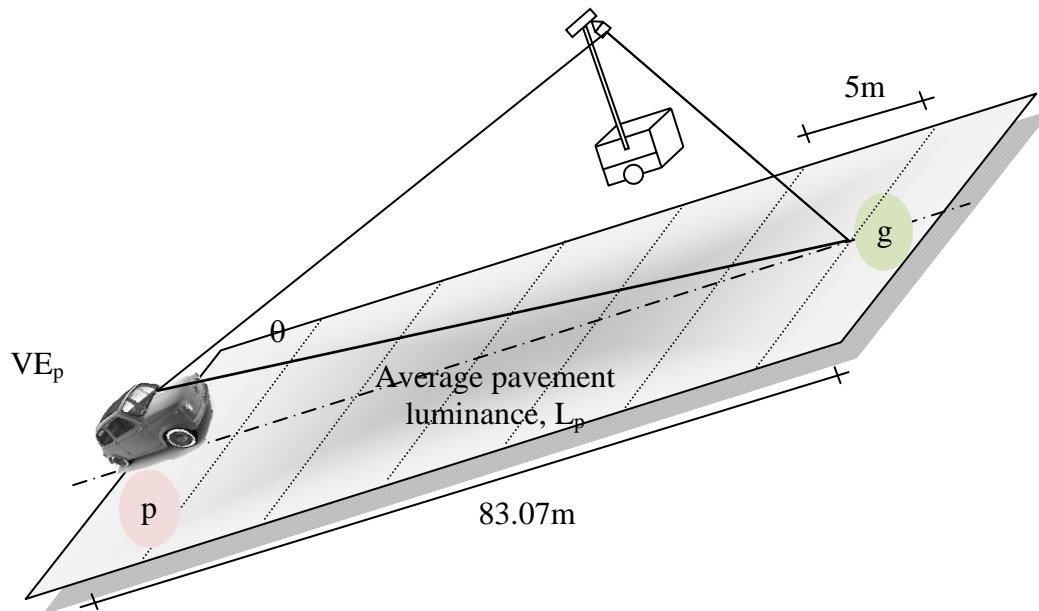
31 Most of the work conducted in the area of glare measurements and quantification as
32 related to transportation applications has been in the areas of headlamps and roadway lighting
33 (12). However, limited research has been conducted to date on the measurements of glare in
34 nighttime construction zones. Pioneer work in this area has been mainly conducted by El-Rayes
35 and co-workers (2; 13). Through a comprehensive experimental program and an analysis of
36 field sites, El-Rayes et al. developed practical models to measure and control the levels of glare
37 experienced by drive-by motorists in lanes adjacent to nighttime work zones (2).

38 EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAM

39 The objective of the experimental program was to measure and compare the glare and lighting
40 characteristics of two types of balloon lighting systems and a conventional light tower. For this
41 purpose, a field experimental setup was developed at the LSU Petroleum Engineering Research
42 and Technology Transfer Laboratory (PERTT Lab). A vehicle is operated at night in a lane
43 adjacent to a simulated construction site and measurements are made of the pavement luminance

1 and the horizontal and vertical illuminances on a predefined experimental grid. The pavement
 2 surface was a highly oxidized and bright asphalt material that may be classified as R1 according
 3 to the IESNA design guidelines (9). While pavement luminance was measured using a Minolta
 4 LS-110 Handheld Photometer, horizontal and vertical illuminances were measured using an
 5 EXTECH 401036 light meter. Measurements (illuminance and pavement luminance) were
 6 conducted along two lines of sight, the first located at 0.95m from the edge of the lane and the
 7 second located at 2.8m from the edge of the lane. These measurements were used to calculate
 8 the veiling luminance ratio (disability glare) experienced for different operational and lighting
 9 conditions.

10 To explain the calculation of the veiling luminance ratio, consider the arrangement shown
 11 in Figure 1. This experimental arrangement was developed at University of Illinois by El-Rayes
 12 and co-workers (2). As recommended by IESNA, a driver is assumed located on a line parallel
 13 to the centerline of the roadway. An average height of the driver eye was measured at 1.25m
 14 with a line of sight inclined 1° downward. Given these two geometric parameters, the observer
 15 would be located at a distance of 83.07m from the point of sight. An experimental grid was set
 16 up so that an observer point (p) is defined at a 5m interval. The vertical illuminance from all
 17 contributing luminaires is measured in the plane of the driver's eye at each observer point p
 18 using a light meter (p = 1 to P).



19
 20
 21 **Figure 1 Schematic Representation for Veiling Luminance Ratio Calculations**
 22

23 The veiling luminance experienced by the observer at point p (VL_p) from luminaire k is
 24 calculated as follows (2):
 25

$$26 \quad VL_p = 10VE_p \frac{1}{(\theta_{pk})^n} \quad (2)$$

27 where,

28 VE_p = vertical illuminance measured at point p;

1 θ_{pk} = glare angle, between the directions of the glare source and the direction of viewing at
 2 observer's point p and luminaire k; and
 3 n = a variable calculated as follows:

$$4 \quad n = 2.3 - 0.7 \log_{10} (\theta_{pk}) \quad \text{for } \theta_{pk} < 2^\circ$$

$$5 \quad n = 2 \quad \text{for } \theta_{pk} > 2^\circ$$

8 To calculate the veiling luminance ratio, the veiling luminance calculated using Equation (2) is
 9 divided by the average pavement luminance (L_p). To estimate the average pavement luminance,
 10 luminance is measured at each point in the grid shown in Figure 2 and is then averaged over the
 11 number of viewpoints G:

$$12 \quad L_p = \frac{L_{ptotal}}{G} \quad (3)$$

15 where,

16 L_{ptotal} = total pavement luminance measured at all viewpoints; and

17 G = total number of points considered in the grid.

19 Lighting Systems

20 Two types of balloon lighting systems manufactured and distributed by two companies were
 21 evaluated in this study, Figure 2. The first balloon lighting system, referred to as B1, provided
 22 wattage of 1,000W and a total luminous flux of 115,000lm. The second balloon lighting system,
 23 referred to as B2, provided wattage of 1,000W and a total luminous flux of 112,000lm. The
 24 advantage of balloon lights over regular lighting towers is that they eliminate hot spots by
 25 providing the same light intensity in all directions (14). Balloon lighting systems use a diffusion
 26 mechanism, and therefore are less prone to causing glare. Compared to regular lighting systems,
 27 balloon lights are extended light sources and are mounted on shorter towers than regular lights
 28 (up to 5.4m). The tested conventional light tower was equipped with four floodlights, each with
 29 a wattage capacity of 1,000W and a luminous flux of 110,000lm. It provided a maximum
 30 mounting height of 9m.



32
 33
 34 **Figure 2** Illustration of the Three Types of Lighting Systems

1 Experimental Cases

2 Operational parameters and lighting types were varied according to an experimental test matrix.
 3 Considered cases aimed at quantifying the experienced glare for different lighting conditions that
 4 may be encountered in construction work zones. Table 1 presents the simulated cases in this
 5 study; in total, 15 experimental cases were evaluated. As shown in this table, height of the light
 6 source was varied as well as the aiming angle of the conventional light system. To account for
 7 the interference that may be caused by external lights as well as moonlight, the last case was
 8 conducted without any sources of light at the site. Illuminance measurements for this case were
 9 subtracted from the illuminance measured for each of the experimental cases. When two
 10 floodlights were turned on, they were set in opposite directions to provide lighting before and
 11 after the light tower.
 12

13 **TABLE 1 Description of the Experimental Cases**

14

Case ID	Light Type	Height (m)	Aiming Angle (°)	Distance from Lane Edge (m)	Number of Floodlights
1	B1	2.6	NA	1.8	NA
2	B1	3.5	NA	1.8	NA
3	B1	4.0	NA	1.8	NA
4	B1	5.4	NA	1.8	NA
5	B1	4.0	NA	1.0	NA
6	B2	2.6	NA	1.8	NA
7	B1 and B2	2.6	NA	1.8	NA
8	Ltower	4.0	45	1.8	2
9	Ltower	5.0	45	1.8	2
10	Ltower	7.0	45	1.8	2
11	Ltower	8.5	45	1.8	2
12	Ltower	8.5	35	1.8	2
13	Ltower	8.5	25	1.8	2
14	Ltower	8.5	45	1.8	4
15	No light	NA	NA	NA	NA

15

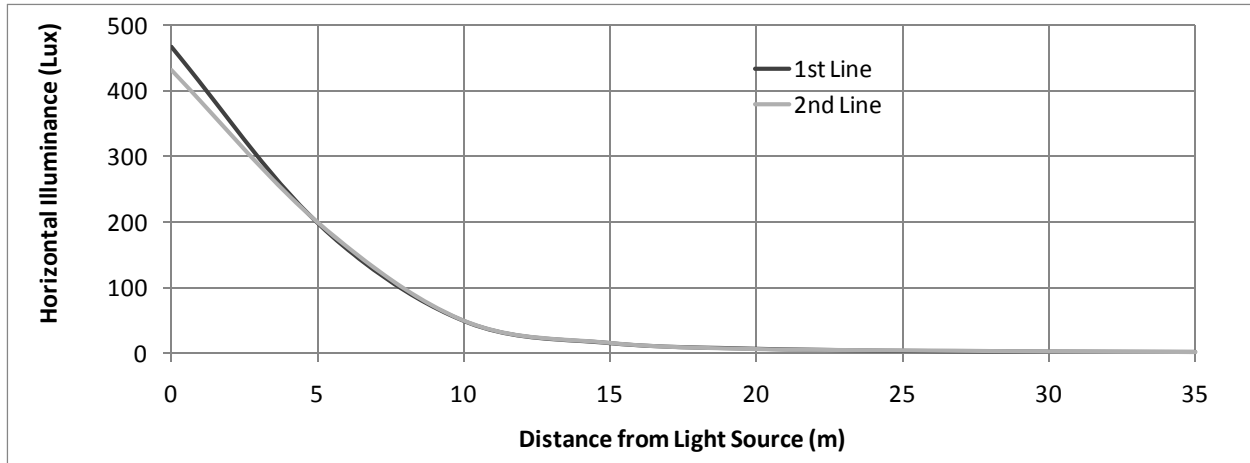
16 RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

17 Horizontal Illuminance

18 Figures 3 (a and b) compare the measured horizontal illuminance originating from a balloon light
 19 at a 4m height to a light tower mounted at the same height (i.e., Cases 3 and 8). Horizontal
 20 illuminance was measured on two parallel lines laterally distributed across the closed lane to
 21 measure the adequacy of lighting for construction operations. As shown in these figures,
 22 conventional light tower provides greater illuminance intensity at the light source when mounted
 23 at the same height. However, light uniformity, which is the ratio of average illuminance on the
 24 work area to the minimum level of illuminance, should also be considered in judging the quality
 25 of a given light. Therefore, Table 2 presents the maximum measured illuminance at the light

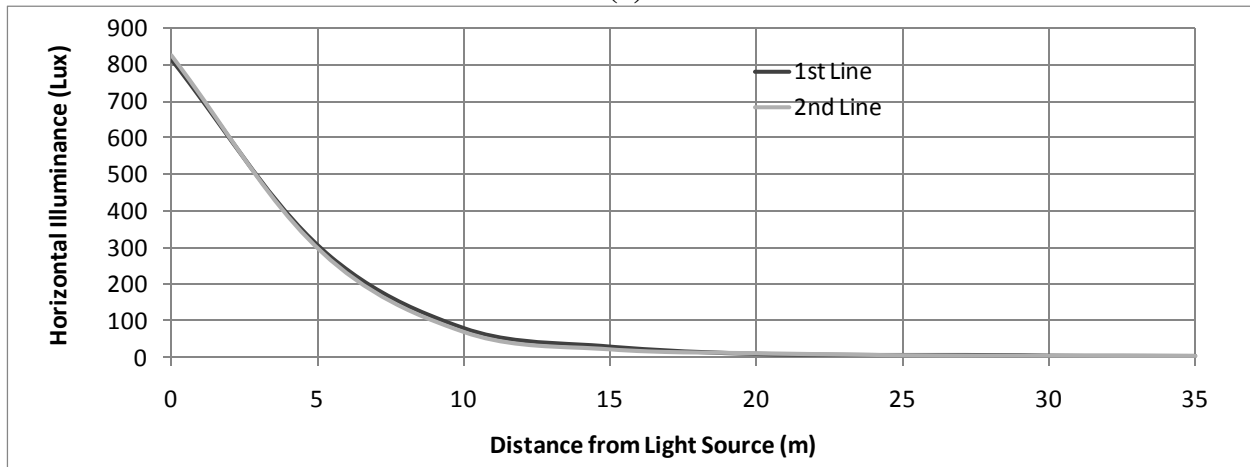
1 source as well as the light uniformity calculated for each case. A lower value for the light
 2 uniformity is indicative of better work conditions in the construction area. The work area was
 3 defined considering a minimum illuminance intensity of 54lux as specified in Louisiana for
 4 Level I activities (e.g., excavation, sweeping and cleanup). This illuminance threshold allowed
 5 defining the coverage distance for each experimental case. The coverage distance sets the
 6 maximum distance away from the light source where construction activities can take place with
 7 an illuminance of 54lux or greater. The coverage distance for each case is also presented in
 8 Table 2. Assuming that the light source is placed in the middle of the work zone, the workable
 9 distance will correspond to twice the coverage distance presented in Table 2.

10



11
12

(a)



13
14
15

(b)

16 **Figure 3 Distribution of the Horizontal Illuminance for (a) a Balloon Light and (b)**
 17 **Conventional Light Tower**

18
 19 Based on the results presented in Table 2, one may note that the two types of balloon lights differ
 20 in terms of maximum illuminance, light uniformity, and coverage distance (i.e., Cases 1 and 6).
 21 As previously mentioned, both balloon lights had the same wattage and comparable luminous
 22 flux. However, differences between the two balloon lights may be due to a number of factors.
 23 First, the geometry and the type of bulb light for the balloon light source were different. The

1 balloon diameters for B1 and B2 were 110 and 120cm, respectively. The light lamps for B1 and
 2 B2 were Hydrargyrum medium-arc iodide (HMI) and Metal halide lamps, respectively. In
 3 addition, the age characteristics of the two balloon light sources may have been different and
 4 could have an influence.

5 As expected, light uniformity of balloon lights improved with the increase in the
 6 mounting height while the coverage distance gradually decreased (Cases 1 through 4).
 7 Comparing the balloon light at a 4m height to a light tower mounted at the same height (i.e.,
 8 Cases 3 and 8), one may note that the light tower provides significantly greater light intensity
 9 and coverage distance than a single balloon light. From a practical perspective, it appears that if
 10 a 20m work zone is required, two balloon lights may be needed to provide sufficient illuminance
 11 intensity while two floodlights in a single light tower may be adequate. This means that Cases 7
 12 and 8 are practically comparable. As for the effect of the mounting height on the light
 13 characteristics of conventional light tower (i.e., Cases 8 through 11), lighting uniformity
 14 improved with the increase in the mounting height under constant aiming angle; however, it
 15 appears that the coverage distance gradually increased until it reached a peak and then started to
 16 decrease. This means that an optimum height may exist at which the coverage distance is
 17 maximum while lighting uniformity is acceptable.

18
 19 **TABLE 2 Light Characteristics for the Evaluated Experimental Cases**

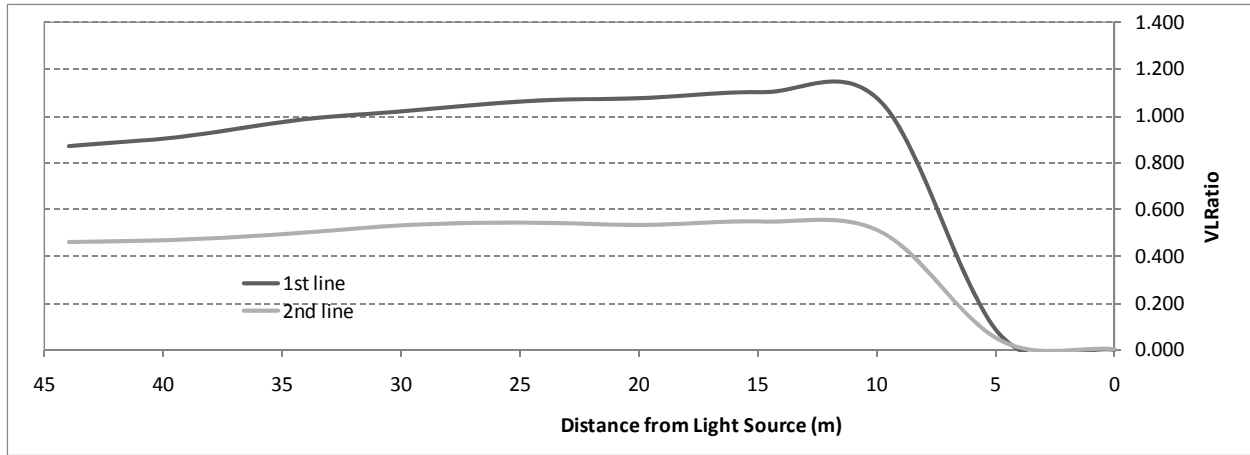
Case ID	Max. Illuminance (lux)	Light Uniformity	Coverage Distance (m)
1	640	5.5	9.3
2	540	4.8	9.0
3	467	4.3	8.7
4	215	2.4	8.4
5	450	4.3	8.2
6	425	3.8	8.7
7	920	7.3	10.3
8	825	5.8	11.5
9	735	5.4	12.1
10	385	3.5	13.6
11	305	3.1	13.1
12	215	2.6	13.8
13	212	2.3	13.2
14	600	4.8	16.3

21

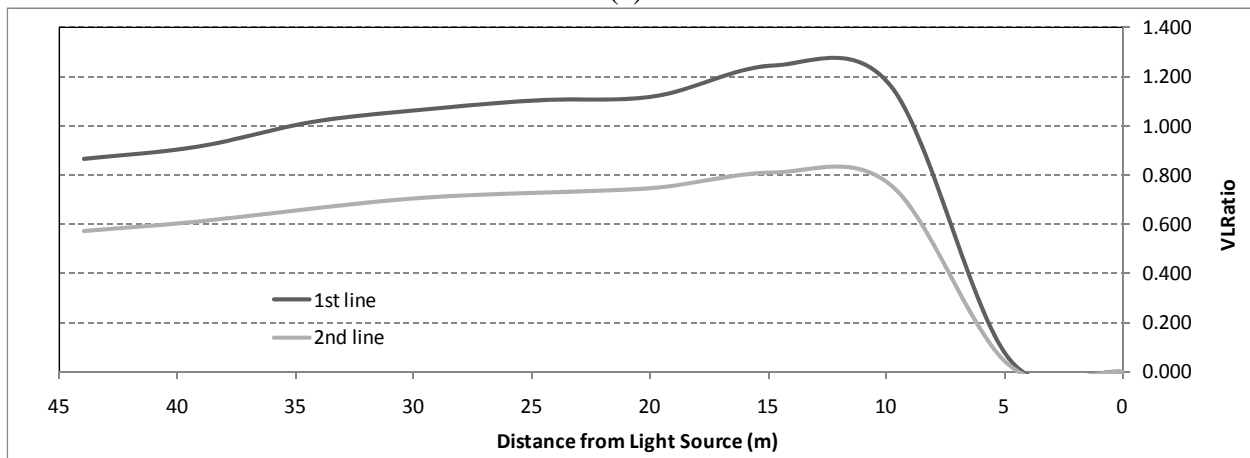
22 Disability Glare

23 Figures 4 (a and b) compare the veiling luminance ratio (disability glare) originating from two
 24 balloon lights mounted at a height of 2.6m to a light tower mounted at a height of 4.0m (i.e.,
 25 Cases 7 and 8). It was shown in the previous section that these lighting arrangements provide
 26 comparable workable coverage distances in the field. Trends shown in Figure 4 agree with the
 27 measurements reported by other investigators (2). As shown in these figures, the glare
 28 experienced by a drive-by motorist gradually increases as we approach the light source, reaches a
 29 peak, and then diminishes to become negligible at the light source. The glare experienced at the

1 first line of sight, located at 0.95m from the edge of the lane, was always greater than in the
 2 second line of sight located at 2.8m from the edge of the lane. One may note that the glare
 3 experienced due the first lighting arrangement (two balloon lights) was less than what was
 4 experienced due the second light arrangement (conventional light tower – 1.100 vs. 1.248).
 5



(a)



(b)

Figure 4 Distribution of the Veiling Luminance Ratio for (a) Two Balloon Lights and (b) a Conventional Light Tower (Cases 7 and 8)

8
 9
 10
 11
 12
 13 Table 3 presents the maximum veiling luminance ratio, the average maximum veiling luminance
 14 ratio on the two lines of sight, and the average pavement luminance for each of the evaluated
 15 experimental cases. These measurements indicate that balloon lights reduce the experienced
 16 glare in the work zone. However, the two types of balloon lights provided different levels of
 17 glare (i.e., Cases 1 and 6). Therefore, assuming that all types of balloon lights would perform
 18 similarly in the field may be misleading. These differences may be related to the aforementioned
 19 factors (i.e., light geometry and type). As expected, increasing the mounting height of balloon
 20 and conventional light systems caused a reduction in the experienced disability glare by drive-by
 21 motorists. In addition, reducing the aiming angle for conventional light towers also results in a
 22 decrease in the disability glare. However, increasing the mounting height and reducing the
 23 aiming angle will decrease the coverage distance and may result in inadequate lighting
 24 conditions in the work zone. Therefore, optimum conditions should be sought, through which

1 adequate lighting conditions may be provided while disability glare will be kept below a safe
 2 threshold for drive-by motorists.

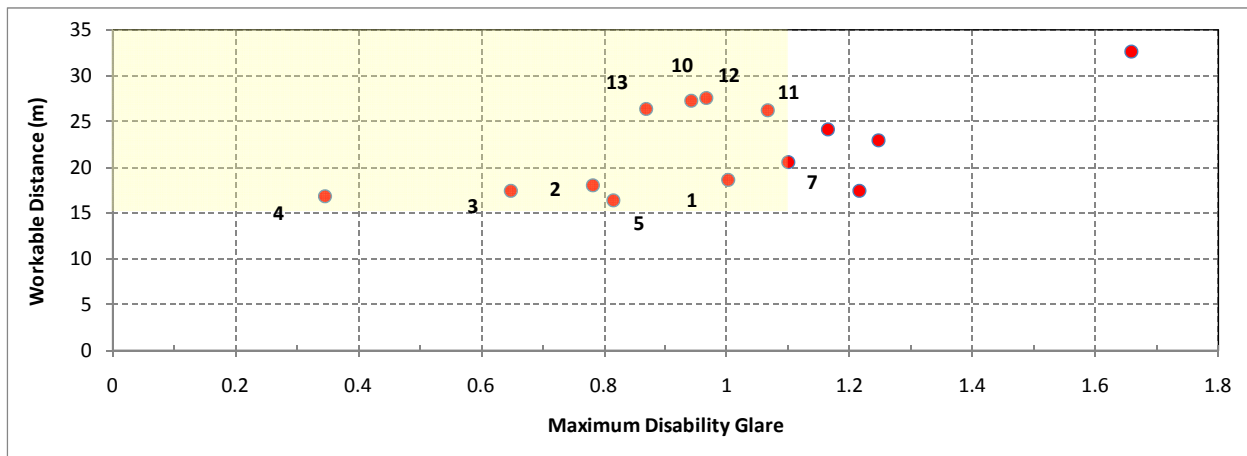
3 To illustrate how both factors may be considered in the design of work zone lighting,
 4 Figure 5 plots the maximum veiling luminance ratio (disability glare) against the workable
 5 distance in meter (the work area can be calculated by multiplying the workable distance by the
 6 lane width). The workable distance was obtained by multiplying the coverage distance by two
 7 assuming that the light source was placed in the middle of the work area. Assume that a
 8 workable distance of 15m is needed while the disability glare is to be maintained below 1.1.
 9 Under these conditions, the highlighted cases in the upper rectangle are acceptable since they
 10 provide acceptable lighting conditions while maintaining the glare below the required threshold.
 11 Similar design strategies may be implemented depending on the maximum allowable glare and
 12 the minimum workable distance at the site.

13
 14
 15

TABLE 3 Glare Characteristics for the Evaluated Experimental Cases

Case ID	Maximum VL Ratio	Average Maximum VL Ratio	Average Pavement Luminance
1	1.003	0.769	2.139
2	0.782	0.616	1.860
3	0.650	0.512	1.665
4	0.346	0.287	1.597
5	0.815	0.655	1.715
6	1.217	0.922	1.699
7	1.100	0.825	3.360
8	1.248	1.030	1.860
9	1.166	0.949	1.510
10	0.943	0.826	0.998
11	1.067	1.007	0.711
12	0.966	1.041	0.703
13	0.870	0.938	0.698
14	1.657	1.772	0.875

16



17
 18

Figure 5 Illustration of the Use of Dual Concepts in the Design of Work Zone Lighting

1 FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

2 The objective of this study was to measure light and glare characteristics of two balloon lighting
3 systems in the field. Glare and lighting characteristics of this new class of light towers were
4 compared to a conventional lighting system. Based on the analysis conducted in this study, the
5 following findings and conclusions may be drawn:
6

- 7 • While being comparable in terms of wattage and luminous flux, the tested balloon light
8 systems differed in terms of light and glare characteristics.
- 9 • Conventional light tower provided greater illuminance intensity at the light source than
10 balloon lights when mounted at the same height. However, disability glare was greater for
11 conventional light tower than balloon lights when mounted at the same height.
- 12 • Increasing the mounting height and reducing the aiming angle of light systems caused a
13 decrease in the experienced glare in the work zone but decreased the coverage distance, in
14 which construction activities can take place.
15

16 Results of this study revealed that optimum conditions should be sought in the work zone,
17 through which adequate lighting conditions are provided while disability glare is kept below a
18 safe threshold for drive-by motorists. Plotting the maximum veiling luminance ratio (disability
19 glare) against the workable distance provides a simple approach to consider the two factors
20 concurrently in the design of work zone lighting.

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