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A Study on Driving Performance Along Horizontal Curves of Rural Roads

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5 Several studies have indicated that road crashes are more likely to occur on horizontal 6 curves than on straight roadway segments for a good number of reasons, the most 7 important of which is associated with the driver's behavior along the curve depending 8 on his or her perception of the road geometry. However, the evaluation of the effects 9 of curve features on driving performance still remains a critical issue for road safety 10 and design. The main objective of this study is to investigate driver's behavior and 11 his perception of road curves, which is directly related to road safety. Specifically, 12 the effects of some curve features (radius, transition curve, visibility, cross-section) 13 on driving performance are investigated through a multifactorial experiment based on 14 driving simulation. The driving speeds and trajectories of a sample of 34 drivers were 15 statistically processed over 72 different curves distributed along three test scenarios. The 16 main and interaction effects of the independent variables are described and discussed 17 in the Results section providing a significant improvement of the actual knowledge in 18 this field of research. In general, the results confirm that driving simulation can disclose 19 the relationships between road design features and driver behavioral aspects that are 20 crucial issues in creating a safer road infrastructure.

21 Keywords

22 **1. Introduction**

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23 The evaluation of the effects of curve features on driving performance still remains a critical issue for road safety and design. Several studies (Brenac et al., 1996; National Highway 24 25 Traffic Safety Administration [NHTSA], 2008; Safetynet, 2009) have indicated that crashes 26 are more likely to occur on horizontal curves than on tangent sections of roadway because 27 of the increased demands placed on the driver and the vehicle that could lead to a wrong choice of speed and trajectory (Charlton, 2007; Hummer et al., 2010). Traffic crash statistics 28 29 (NHTSA, 2008) have consistently demonstrated that the average crash rate on horizontal 30 curves is significantly higher than that on tangent sections. In 2008, the crash rate in the 31 United States for horizontal curves was about 3 times higher than that of other types of 32 highway segments and, about three- fourths of curve-related fatal crashes involved single 33 vehicles leaving the roadway and striking trees, utility poles, rocks, or other fixed objects, or

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overturning. Other studies (Safetynet, 2009; Srinivasa et al., 2009) have basically confirmed
 these findings on other countries:

• the crash rates on curves varied from 1.5 to 4 times higher than on tangent sections

• 25% to 30% of fatal crashes occurred on horizontal curves

38 39

• single vehicle run-off-the-road accidents yielded approximately 60% to 70% of all fatal crashes on curves.

40 Among the curve features that mostly affect road safety by means of increasing the 41 crash rates, one can name low curve radii, narrow lanes, and cross-sections (which include 42 shoulders and lanes) that are frequently found as the most significant factors. Several 43 negative relationships between curve radius and crash rate have been established in the 44 literature, especially for run-off-the-road crashes recorded along curves (Choueiri et al., 45 1994; Takeshi & Nozomu, 2005). Moreover, some correlations between individual curve 46 geometric characteristics and safety performance were established (American Association 47 of State Highway Transportation Officials [AASHTO], 2010; Strathman et al., 2001; Zegeer 48 et al., 1992). Other researchers (Findley et al., 2012; Hummer et al., 2010) attributed the high crash rates often recorded on curves to the centripetal force exerted on a vehicle 49 50 while passing through a curve. It could cause an additional driving task to be more difficult 51 to manage by the driver that, consequently, may more easily cause a mistake and/or an 52 accident.

53 To handle these problems, especially those related to speeding and vehicle control along a curve, and improve road safety, several in-vehicle systems and road treatments have 54 been developed over the years, most commonly categorised as enforcement, education, 55 56 or engineering interventions (McGee & Hanscom, 2006; Srinivasa et al., 2009). Nonetheless, several crashes are still being recorded along curves, mainly caused by the driver 57 58 behavior that, according to the most shared and consolidated current approach to road 59 safety issues (Carsten, 2002), is strongly affected by road geometries, the traffic, and the 60 environment.

For this reason many researchers have concentrated their efforts to study the drivers'
behavior on horizontal curves (Benedetto et al., 2009; Charlton, 2007; Martens et al., 1997;
Zakowska, 2010).

64 According to Charlton (2007) drivers' mistakes related to horizontal curves could 65 be caused by the interaction of three main driver's behavioral problems: the inability to meet increased attentional demands, the misperceptions of speed and curvature, and the 66 incapacity to maintain a correct lane position. Several human factors studies based on the 67 analysis of the relationship between the driver performance and road design (Brenac, 1996; 68 Said et al., 2009) have associated such behavioral problems to the geometric features of 69 curves, to the extra effort required in lane keeping, and to the reduction in the visibility 70 71 distances along the road axis often associated with curves. The width of shoulders and 72 lanes combined with the radius of curve have been found to be significant factors that affect sight distances and vehicle operations (Choueiri et al., 1994). The effects of using 73 74 spiral curves (clothoids) in tangent-curve transition have been widely investigated (Craus 75 & Polus, 1977) to determine the desirable length of spiral curves based on data collected 76 over driver steering behavior (Said et al., 2009) or driving path (Perco, 2006) to incorporate 77 the actual driving performance on road design. The reduced visibility along curves limits the driver's ability to anticipate the course of the road ahead and, consequently, increases 78 79 the uncertainty and leads to driving mistakes (Martens et al., 1997) especially in terms of using inappropriate speed and trajectory to negotiate a curve. In a pilot study Zhao 80 et al. (2013) investigated how curve information could affect driver performance using a 81

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cognition model. The authors found that the process of the drivers' behavior on curves could be explained by the cognition theory (Anderson et al., 1997), according to which the driving performance consists of three phases: information perception (i.e., the basis for the cognition), driving decision, and operation execution. The more exact the transformed information is, the easier the driver can make appropriate decisions and correct operations. Zhao et al. concluded that, to avoid any driving mistakes along a curve, it is essential to give the appropriate warning information well in advance.

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Nowadays, one of the main instruments that is recognized as the most effective tool for 89 90 studying driving behavior, evaluating the interactions between driver, vehicle and road environment by means of an interdisciplinary approach, is the driving simulator (Bella, 2009). 91 92 The driving simulator allows the study of variability of the driver's behavior under different 93 conditions (e.g., geometries and traffic flows) and offers a very promising perspective for 94 road safety design and management, thus overcoming the problems (e.g., safety, cost, ex-95 perimental control) of field studies. Moreover, the driving simulator allows the researcher to collect and process continuous speed and trajectory profiles instead of only spot data, thus 96 97 avoiding the deficiencies encountered in spot data collection (Bella et al., 2014a, 2014b; Bella & Calvi, 2013; Calvi, Benedetto, & De Blasiis, 2012; Calvi & D'Amico, 2013; Calvi 98 99 & De Blasiis, 2011; Pérez Zuriaga et al., 2010). In simulated settings it is also possible 100 to develop experiments in a controlled environment and under pre-established conditions that are applicable to all participants, collect driving performance data, and investigate the 101 interactions between drivers and road features, especially the geometric characteristics of 102 the road alignment. By all means, the main reason behind an increasing interest in driving 103 simulator is that several studies have demonstrated that this tool provides the driver with 104 105 enough visual information to allow him or her to correctly perceive speeds and distances (Bella, 2009; Kemeny & Panerai, 2003; Törnos, 1998; Yan et al., 2008). The research 106 107 that compares drivers' behavior in virtual reality and in the real world is called "driving 108 simulator validation studies." Specifically, Blaauw (1982) defined the absolute validity of 109 simulators as the numerical correspondence between behavior in the driving simulator and 110 that in the real situation, and the relative validity as the correspondence between effects 111 of different variations in the driving situation. According to Törnos (1998), the relative 112 validity is necessary for a simulator, though the absolute validity is not essential, because research questions usually deal with matters that are related to the effects of independent 113 114 variables, with experiments that investigate the difference between a control scenario and other experimental scenarios. Such validity could be verified even if the driver behavior in 115 116 simulated settings is not totally analogous to the behavior in the real world, due essentially to the lack of motivational and emotional context (Engström & Aust, 2011). 117

118 Using a driving simulator, Van Winsum and Gosthelp (1996) studied the effect of road 119 design on driving performance. Their findings indicated that stricter curve radii increase 120 the demands on vehicle control with the consequence of the driver's need to correct more 121 and more the trajectory of the vehicle. On the contrary, when the speed was lowered, vehicle control improved. In another driving simulator study, Comte and Jamson (2000) 122 123 demonstrated that a high percentage of curve crashes are caused by a driver speeding along a curve that subsequently results in him or her losing control of the vehicle or being forced 124 125 into a skid.

The research presented in this article is the continuation of two previous pilot studies (Benedetto et al., 2009; Zakowska, 2010) aimed at investigating the driver's perception of road curves and behavior in relation to curve characteristics. These pilot studies validated the sample of drivers and the simulation tests and provided preliminary results on a smaller number of geometric conditions. Their findings demonstrated that advanced techniques of **Q3**

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131 visualization and simulation of road space can disclose the relationships between design

road parameters and behavioral aspects important to create safer road infrastructures. In this article the effects of several geometric characteristics of curves on driving performance are investigated and statistically analyzed, taking into account the main and interaction effects of several factors related to curves such as the radius, the clothoids, and visibility, evaluated for different roadway configurations. A full comprehensive study is presented that compared all the effects of several independent variables that include roadways and curves characteristics on selected dependent measures of driving performance.

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140 **2. Method**

A multifactorial experiment was conducted using the advanced driving simulator of the Inter-Universities Research Centre for Road Safety (CRISS) at Roma Tre University. The overall aim was to evaluate the effects of different curve features on driving speed and lateral positions (trajectories) along a curve.

145 2.1. Participants

The sample of participants that took part in the study included 34 volunteers (20 men and 147 14 women with a mean age of 26 years, and an age range of 22 – 35 years), recruited from 148 students and staff of the Department of Engineering at Roma Tre University. Participants 149 had to respect the following requirements: no experience with the driving simulator, at least 150 4 years of driving experience, and an average annual driven distance on rural roads of at 151 least 3000 km.

152 Three participants, having completed the driving, experienced a degree of discomfort 153 as revealed from the questionnaire that each volunteer had to fill out at the end of the 154 tests and, consequently, and were excluded from the postprocessing of data. Among the 155 sample of drivers, consideration was also given to outliers; that is, drivers whose average speed values along the alignment were higher than three standard deviations (SDs) from the 156 sample's average speed. Under such condition, one driver was excluded from the analysis. 157 Thus, the sample used for the analysis consisted of 30 licensed drivers (18 men and 12 158 159 women) with an average age of 26.2 years (SD = 4.9 years), and an age range of 23 to 160 35 years. Their average driving experience was 8.6 years. In terms of driving exposure, 13.5% of the participants drove between 4,000 and 8,000 km/year, 43.7% drove between 161 162 8,000 and 12,000 km/year, 33.5% drove between 12,000 and 20,000 km/year, and 9.3% indicated that they drove for more than 20,000 km/year. 163

164 2.2. Apparatus

165 The experiment was conducted in the simulation laboratory of the CRISS at Roma Tre 166 University, using an interactive fixed-based driving simulator that includes a complete 167 vehicle dynamics model, specifically designed for research on road safety. Figure 1 shows 168 the CRISS driving simulator.

The simulator consists of a real car with a force-feedback steering wheel, brake pedal, and accelerator. The driving simulator is positioned in front of three angled projection surfaces that produced a 135° (horizontal) $\times 60^{\circ}$ (vertical) forward view of the simulated scenario from the driver's position inside the car. The resolution of the visual scene is



Figure 1. Inter-Universities Research Centre for Road Safety driving simulator.

173 1024×768 pixels with a refresh rate of 30 to 60 Hz depending on scene complexity and 174 traveling conditions of the vehicle.

The driving simulator provides haptic feedback from the steering wheel. The audio system of the car is linked with the simulator software so that it can accurately simulate surround environment sounds for engine noise, external road noise, and sounds for other traffic interactions and thus further enhancing the realism of the driving experience.

The system was widely validated in previous studies (Bella, 2005, 2008) and used for evaluating driving performance in terms of speed, acceleration, and trajectory under different driving conditions and road environments (Bella & Calvi, 2013; Calvi, Benedetto, & D' Amico, 2012; Calvi, Benedetto, & De Blasiis, 2012; Calvi, Benedetto, & Messina, 2012; Calvi & D'Amico, 2013; Calvi & De Blasiis, 2011; Calvi, De Blasiis, & Guattari, 2012; Guattari et al., 2010).

The data recording system acquires all the parameters of driving performance like position, speed, acceleration, and braking at rates up to 20 Hz. All the features of the simulator are designed to enhance the verisimilitude of participants' virtual driving experience in the study to ensure the effectiveness and reliability of results.

The experiments were developed excluding other vehicles along the driving direction of participants, with light traffic in the opposite lane to induce the driver to avoid occupying temporarily the opposite lane, limiting curve cutting, or any similar behavior (especially for the two road configurations that represent two-lane rural roads). The characteristics of the simulated vehicle were of a standard medium class car with automatic transmission. The driver could see the speed on the speedometer projected on the front screen.

195 2.3. Tests Alignment

196 Three different scenarios were designed and implemented in virtual reality environment 197 (Figure 2), each one representing a typical Italian road configuration characterized by

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Road A

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Road C

Figure 2. Simulation frames of road configurations.

different cross-section: a two-lane rural road with no shoulder, a two-lane rural road with 198 wider lanes and shoulders, and a highway with divided carriageways (two lanes for each 199 200 driving direction). Each scenario (corresponding to a test and to one of the three road 201 configurations) is composed of 24 horizontal curves manipulated with three different radii 202 (sharp, medium, and shallow), both directions for each curve (left and right), two conditions of visibility (unrestricted and restricted, using steep side slopes along the road at the inner 203 204 edge of curves), and two conditions of the transition curve (with or without clothoid). 205 The characteristics of the curves were the same for each one of the three test scenarios. Moreover the order in which the curves appeared to the participants was the same for 206 207 each test scenario, whereas the sequence of the three scenarios was counterbalanced across 208 participants. The simulated roads were designed so that two horizontal curve sections were 209 separated by one straight section. The length of the straight section was between 300 and 500 meters. The overall aim of implementing these straight sections between curves 210 consisted in preventing, or at least limiting, that driver performance (speed and trajectory) 211 212 along a curve could be biased by the previous curve of the road alignment.

213 Although in all the scenarios low traffic was present in the opposite lane, the drivers were not constrained by vehicles ahead. No vertical signs were displayed to allow the 214drivers to choose the speed they desired, without any other constraints than what the road 215 216 environment could suggest them.

217 The length of each experimental scenario was 14.3 km and the vertical alignment was 218 flat. Also, the terrain surrounding all the roads was flat and uniform with no houses, trees, 219 or other landscape elements, except for those curves whose visibility was restricted by a cut slope at the inner edge of the curve. 220

221 2.4. Independent Measures

222 Four independent measures were manipulated in this study: road configuration, geomet-

223 ric element, visibility condition and transition curve, for a total of 72 horizontal curves

224 investigated in terms of driver's speeds and trajectories.

225 2.4.1. Road Configuration. Three levels of road configuration, whose characteristics are 226 common to most of the Italian existing road network, were reproduced in the driving

227 simulator. These three road categories were associated with the speed limit, the function of

228 the road, and the cross-section geometry as follows:

• Road A: two-lane rural road, characterized by a cross-section of 6.00 meters, con-
sisted of two lanes of 3.00 meters wide and gravel shoulders, central line painted,
no edge lines painted. The Italian speed limit on this road is typically 60 km/h;
• Road B: two-lane rural road, characterized by a cross-section of 10.00 meters,
consisted of two lanes of 3.50 meters wide and two paved shoulders of 1.50 meters
wide, central, and edge lines painted. The Italian speed limit on this road is usually
80 km/h:
• Road C: highway composed of a dual carriageway with two lanes for each driving
direction (each lane was 3.50 meters wide). The shoulders were 2.00 meters wide
and the median was 2.00 m. The Italian speed limit on this road is usually 110 km/h
and the median was 2.00 m. The randin speed mint on this foad is usually 110 km/n.
2.4.2. Geometric Element. Three levels of curve radius were investigated for each road
configuration: 200 m radius (referred to in this experiment as sharp curve), 500 m radius
(referred to as medium curve), and 1000 m (referred to as shallow curve). All the radii
were investigated for left and right curves. Therefore, the roadway geometry manipulation
included six options: right sharp curve, left sharp curve, right medium curve, left medium
curve, right shallow curve, and left shallow curve.
2.4.3. Visibility Condition. According to the design speed assumed by the Italian guide-
lines (Ministry of the Infrastructures and Transports [MIT], 2001) for each curve on each
road configuration, two levels of curve visibility restriction were analyzed manipulating the
steep side slopes along the road at the inner edge of curves (good, unrestricted visibility, and
poor, restricted visibility). As a consequence, the visibility was considered "unrestricted"
when the driver could see in front of him or her a road segment longer than the stopping

sight distance, calculated according to Italian guidelines (MIT, 2001), based on the design speed of the specific curve. The visibility was "restricted" when such distance was not

253 perceivable, meaning that the available visibility was lower than the stopping sight distance. 254 In this last case, the roadside elements (steep side slopes) were designed and implemented 255 in such a way that the driver should adopt a speed of about 30% lower than the design 256 speed of the curve to drive on under safe conditions (stopping sight distance \leq available

257 visibility).

258 2.4.4. *Transition Curve*. Two levels of transition curve over a tangent-curve configuration
259 were considered: with and without clothoids. The clothoids were designed, according to
260 Italian guidelines (MIT, 2001), differently for each curve.

261 2.5. Dependent Measures

The dependent measures considered for evaluating the effects of the independent measures on driving performance were:

- Driving speed
- Pathologic discomfort (PD)
- Dispersion of trajectory (DT).

2.5.1. Driving Speed. The driving speeds were analyzed to obtain the average driver's
speed evaluated from the beginning to the end point of each curve. Then, the average
speed and SD of the sample of drivers was computed for each curve. Among the different
speed-related parameters of literature, the average speed is considered a surrogate measure



Figure 3. Pathologic discomfort (PD).

for safe driving (Moreno & García, 2013; Yan et al., 2008), able to indirectly assess road 271 272 safety management where historical crash data are limited or unavailable.

2.5.2. Pathologic Discomfort. The PD is a surrogate measure of safety presented and 273 discussed in previous articles, where its correlation with accident rate was established and 274 275 validated under different driving conditions, in simulated (Calvi, 2010; Calvi & D'Amico, 2006, 2013) and real (Casolo et al., 2008) environments. 276

277 Pathologic discomfort takes into account the local variability of lateral acceleration, 278 consequence of the driver's need for correcting his trajectory to follow the geometry of the 279 road axis. In other words, PD is based on the self-explaining road concept: a participant who 280 drives on a self-explaining road assumes a correct and safe trajectory, and the local lateral 281 accelerations depend only on the curvature of the road geometry. If the driver corrects 282 the vehicle's trajectory more than what the road curvature imposes, the road is not self-283 explaining and, consequently, it can be unsafe. If the local lateral accelerations do not only depend on the actual road curvature, they are biased by the driver's corrections of trajectory. 284 285 The repeated local oscillations of lateral acceleration represent a violation of driver expectancy. Pathologic discomfort was computed for each curve of the alignments using 286 287 Equation (2):

$$PD = \int_{x=0}^{x=L} \left| a_t(x) - \frac{v^2(x)}{\rho(x)} \right| dx$$
(1)

where, x is the instantaneous distance from the start position of the curve considering that 288 289 the vehicle is traveling along the curve driven by the specific driver, a_t is driver's lateral 290 acceleration, v is the average speed of the driver along the curve, ρ and L are the radius and the length of the curve respectively. Figure 3 shows a graphical representation of PD that 291 292 corresponds to the colored area between the two curves of the driver's lateral acceleration 293 and of the theoretical lateral acceleration, based on the average speed and the real curvature 294 of the road.

295 Pathologic discomfort was then homogenized, divided by the length L of the curve in 296 order to allow a comparison among curves characterized by different lengths.

297 2.5.3. Dispersion of Trajectory. The dispersion of trajectory (DT) is an indicator related 298 to the vehicle's position within the driving lane. It implicitly takes into account the average 299 value of lateral position and SD that are frequently used for evaluating the lateral control



Figure 4. Dispersion of trajectory (DT).

300 of vehicles. Dispersion of trajectory can be considered as a surrogate measure of safety, as 301 the lack of harmonized lane position is a primary cause of single-vehicle run-off the road 302 crashes and head-on collisions, specifically on horizontal curves (Rosey et al., 2008; Yan 303 et al., 2008). Moreover, according to McGehee et al. (2004), the lane position variability, that can be evaluated using DT, provides a measure of driving performance that describes 304 305 the safety relevance of changes in driving behavior. DT corresponds to the dispersion of driver's trajectory along a curve, evaluated as the area between the curve that represents 306 307 the driver's local trajectory (i.e., the vehicle lateral position [LP], or displacements along the road) and the line corresponding to the driver's average lateral position along the same 308 309 curve (Figure 4). The higher the indicator is, the more difficulties the driver will experience in perceiving the road geometry. DT was computed for each curve of the alignments using 310 311 Equation (1):

$$DT = \int_{x=0}^{x=L} |LP(x) - LP_a| dx$$
(2)

where, *x* is the instantaneous distance from the start position of the curve considering that the vehicle is traveling along the curve driven by the specific driver, *LP* is the local lateral position of the driver (distance of the centre of the vehicle from the road axis), LP_a is the average driver's lateral position along the curve, and *L* is the length of the curve. DT was then homogenized, divided by the length *L* of the curve to allow a comparison among curves characterized by different lengths.

318 2.6. Procedure

Upon arrival at the laboratory, each participant was firstly briefed on the experimental procedure. Some general instructions were communicated to the driver about the duration of the driving and the use of the steering wheel, pedals, and automatic gear. More specifically, drivers were instructed to drive as they normally would in the real world, maintain a comfortable, reasonable and safe speed according to road conditions, and remain in the right lane only.

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Then the participants read and signed an informed consent form, besides a demographic questionnaire with personal data (e.g., gender, date of birth), years of driving experience, and average annual mileage driven.

Subsequently, the participants completed a practice drive on a training scenario for approximately 10 minutes to familiarize themselves with the simulator controls. During the practice drive, the participants were encouraged to adjust their seat position so as to be comfortable.

Following this, each participant drove all three routes, with a break of 20 minutes after each run to reestablish psychophysical conditions similar to those at the beginning of the test. Finally, the driver was asked to fill out a questionnaire about the discomfort encountered during driving, to eliminate from the sample those participants that experienced some kinds of discomfort (nausea, giddiness, fatigue, other) during the tests.

The sequence of the three scenarios was counterbalanced across participants to avoid any biases due to the repetition of the same order in the experimental conditions. Each full experiment lasted for about 1 hour.

340 3. Results and Discussion

Each dependent variable was analyzed using the repeated measures ANOVA $3 \times 6 \times 2$ 341 342 \times 2 with the road configuration (two-lane rural road with 6 m of cross-section, two-lane 343 rural road with 10 mof cross-section, highway), the geometric element (three curve radii 344 and two directions), the visibility (unrestricted and restricted), and the transition curve 345 (with and without clothoid) as within-subject factors. Before performing the analyses of 346 variance, all data were subjected to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test to determine whether they 347 were normally distributed (i.e., one of the main assumptions needed to correctly apply the 348 ANOVA test). As well, the evaluation of sphericity assumption was needed too for verifying the multivariate normal assumption (Lewis, 1993). When the sphericity assumption was 349 violated (in this study, when the Mauchly test was significant) adjustments were made to 350 351 the results of the ANOVA using the Geisser-Greenhouse epsilon that provides an F test 352 using a much more stringent criterion (Geisser & Greenhouse, 1958). Therefore, where 353 the within-subject variables violated the sphericity assumption, the Geisser-Greenhouse 354 probabilities were reported. Additional post-hoc tests performed on each dependent measure 355 allowed investigation of interaction and main effects on the driver performance due to the independent measures. A significance level of 0.05 was adopted for all the significance 356 357 tests.

358 3.1. Descriptive Statistics

359 Tables 1, 2, and 3 present summaries of driving speeds, PD, and DT (homogenized) in 360 terms of their average values and SDs for every combination of the three manipulated 361 factors (geometric element, visibility condition, transition curve) on roads A, B and C (the 362 fourth factor considered was road configuration) respectively. In this section, the values of PD and DT refer to the homogenized values, meaning that the parameters were divided by 363 the length of each corresponding curve to allow the comparison of the dependent measures 364 amongst curves characterized by different lengths. 365 366 Finally, Table 4 summarizes the main and interaction effects of the independent vari-

ables on each dependent variable.

Average and standard	deviation of speed, PD,	, and DT for e	Table very combinat Road	1 ion of geome A	stric elemer	ıt, visibility c	ondition, ar	nd transition	curve on
				Speed (km/h)	D/L (I	m/s ²)	DT/L	(m)
Road Configuration	Geometric Element	Visibility	Clothoid	Average	SD	Average	SD	Average	SD
Road A	Sharp	yes	yes	85.20	14.81	0.198	0.088	0.080	0.032
Two-lane rural road	right curve		ou	83.06	12.74	0.244	0.056	0.138	0.045
2×2.75 m lanes		no	yes	85.79	12.05	0.144	0.074	0.097	0.046
no shoulder			ou	85.88	14.10	0.263	0.069	0.137	0.039
	Sharp	yes	yes	88.86	12.94	0.144	0.056	0.066	0.030
	left curve		ou	82.59	11.89	0.260	0.085	0.111	0.034
		no	yes	87.27	14.92	0.140	0.061	0.079	0.041
			ou	85.01	14.57	0.244	0.075	0.118	0.055
	Medium	yes	yes	90.87	13.19	0.109	0.044	0.094	0.047
	right curve	ſ	ou	95.22	11.40	0.233	0.070	0.134	0.044
	1	no	yes	95.40	15.87	0.128	0.056	0.089	0.041
			no	90.02	16.10	0.182	0.061	0.159	0.055
	Medium	yes	yes	88.37	14.38	0.129	0.058	0.084	0.037
	left curve		ou	91.29	12.88	0.168	0.052	0.104	0.031
		no	yes	93.57	15.46	0.114	0.061	0.070	0.032
			ou	91.02	14.94	0.176	0.069	0.102	0.037
	Shallow	yes	yes	99.99	14.51	0.143	0.051	0.140	0.030
	right curve		ou	99.87	14.43	0.144	0.049	0.141	0.032
		no	yes	97.81	15.70	0.131	0.053	0.133	0.042
			no	77.79	15.68	0.133	0.054	0.134	0.040
	Shallow	yes	yes	99.87	14.12	0.133	0.041	0.118	0.031
	left curve		no	99.83	14.09	0.134	0.042	0.119	0.030
		no	yes	95.90	16.08	0.101	0.035	0.103	0.033
			ou	95.89	16.10	0.103	0.034	0.105	0.032

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PD = Pathologic discomfort; DT = dispersion of trajectory; L = .

				Speed (1	km/h)	PD/L (m/s ²)	DT/L	(m)
Road Configuration	Geometric Element	Visibility	Clothoid	Average	<u>SD</u>	Average	SD	Average	SD
Road B	Sharp	yes	yes	88.01	13.99	0.149	0.084	0.109	0.051
Two-lane rural road	right curve		no	88.92	15.16	0.343	0.173	0.162	0.076
2×3.25 m lanes		no	yes	88.03	11.40	0.126	0.050	0.108	0.060
with shoulder			no	85.46	13.54	0.290	0.104	0.157	0.072
	Sharp	yes	yes	91.82	15.22	0.183	0.080	0.107	0.062
	left curve		no	86.89	14.59	0.341	0.159	0.218	0.104
		no	yes	89.33	12.44	0.153	0.080	0.105	0.072
			ou	88.02	10.79	0.317	0.100	0.147	0.065
	Medium	yes	yes	97.12	16.09	0.128	0.070	0.111	0.070
	right curve		ou	96.30	13.72	0.256	0.090	0.199	0.061
		no	yes	96.20	11.46	0.112	0.046	0.104	0.050
			ou	91.95	14.27	0.196	0.081	0.158	0.067
	Medium	yes	yes	95.89	16.62	0.128	0.065	0.121	0.069
	left curve		ou	95.98	14.45	0.192	0.065	0.168	0.095
		no	yes	95.37	11.92	0.102	0.068	0.082	0.040
			ou	91.93	12.39	0.155	0.035	0.130	0.047
	Shallow	yes	yes	102.40	15.04	0.160	0.064	0.172	0.048
	right curve		ou	102.35	15.06	0.162	0.063	0.173	0.050
		no	yes	98.11	14.58	0.100	0.034	0.166	0.065
			no	98.07	14.63	0.101	0.033	0.168	0.062
	Shallow	yes	yes	105.31	14.58	0.131	0.059	0.148	0.041
	left curve		ou	105.28	14.62	0.133	0.058	0.149	0.039
		no	yes	97.88	14.59	0.093	0.034	0.105	0.034
			no	97.84	14.63	0.094	0.033	0.106	0.033

Table 2

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PD = Pathologic discomfort; DT = dispersion of trajectory; L = length.

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				Speed (1	km/h)	PD/L (m/s ²)	DT/L	(m)
Road Configuration	Geometric element	Visibility	Clothoid	Average	SD	Average	SD	Average	SD
Road C	Sharp	yes	yes	105.71	15.64	0.329	0.188	0.050	0.023
Highway	right curve	·	ou	66.66	15.64	0.452	0.186	0.282	0.163
$4 \times 3.50 \mathrm{m}$ lanes		no	yes	99.40	12.57	0.227	0.120	0.104	0.090
with shoulder			ou	98.64	17.79	0.436	0.214	0.254	0.176
	Sharp	yes	yes	103.10	17.64	0.266	0.111	0.111	0.051
	left curve		no	98.53	16.42	0.457	0.155	0.275	0.131
		no	yes	103.22	14.02	0.252	0.134	0.052	0.030
			ou	99.92	15.29	0.446	0.158	0.276	0.129
	Medium	yes	yes	108.53	16.13	0.121	0.055	0.122	0.083
	right curve		no	108.61	15.76	0.271	0.110	0.219	0.124
		no	yes	108.89	13.05	0.143	0.070	0.146	0.092
			no	104.09	18.51	0.232	0.079	0.241	0.135
	Medium	yes	yes	114.40	16.80	0.154	0.069	0.120	0.076
	left curve		no	108.23	16.00	0.272	0.106	0.264	0.130
		no	yes	110.06	15.01	0.146	0.078	0.106	0.063
			no	104.01	15.87	0.245	0.101	0.198	0.087
	Shallow	yes	yes	114.40	14.79	0.159	0.055	0.193	0.084
	right curve		no	114.35	14.76	0.160	0.056	0.195	0.085
		no	yes	110.16	16.71	0.127	0.048	0.196	0.120
			no	110.10	16.75	0.129	0.047	0.201	0.117
	Shallow	yes	yes	116.15	14.68	0.136	0.047	0.175	0.108
	left curve		no	116.05	14.71	0.138	0.048	0.178	0.105
		no	yes	110.80	16.58	0.123	0.039	0.139	0.069
			no	110.66	16.60	0.124	0.040	0.141	0.071

. : ¢ Table 3 F

PD = Pathologic discomfort; DT = dispersion of trajectory; L = length.

		Dependent Variables	
IV Effects	Driving Speed	PD	DT
Main Effects			
Road configuration	F = 11.14, p < .001	F = 19.60, p < .001	F = 26.80, p < .001
Geometric element	F = 103.34, p < .001	F = 210.80, p < .001	F = 12.96, p < .001
Visibility	F = 18.74, p < .001	F = 119.80, p < .001	F = 19.15, p < .001
Transition curve	F = 36.99, p < .001	F = 477.64, p < .001	F = 300.67, p < .001
Interaction Effects			
Road Configuration * Geometric Element	F = 1.09, p = .445	F = 1.75, p = .168	F = 1.19, p = .295
Road Configuration * Visibility	F = 3.91, p = .025	F = 4.57, p = .014	F = 8.61, p = .001
Road Configuration * Transition Curve	F = 2.55, p = .098	F = 10.64, p < .001	F = 33.54, p < .001
Geometric Element * Visibility	F = 3.98, p = .011	F = 1.42, p = .220	F = 1.98, p = .153
Geometric Element * Transition Curve	F = 6.26, p < .001	F = 100.44, p < .001	F = 57.44, p < .001
Visibility * Transition Curve	F = 2.45, p = .128	F = 1.09, p = .445	F = 1.13, p = .432

Table 4	n and interaction effects data
	Main a

IV =; PD = Pathologic discomfort; DT = dispersion of trajectory.Other interaction effects between three and four variables were not significant.

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368 3.2. Driving Speed

The effects of road configuration, geometric element, visibility condition, and transition curve on average driving speed along a curve were examined, using within-subjects ANOVA with repeated measures. All the driving speeds along each curve were normally distributed (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was performed for each distribution). Bonferroni correction was used for the multiple comparisons.

ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of road configuration, F(2, 58) = 11.14, p < .001, partial Eta squared = .278, observed power = .989; geometric element, F(2.77, 80.40)376 = 103.34, p < .001, partial Eta squared = .781, observed power = 1.000; visibility, F(1, 29) = 18.74, p < .001, partial Eta squared = .393, observed power = .987; and transition 378 curve, F(1, 29) = 36.99, p < .001, partial Eta squared = .561, observed power = 1.000.

ANOVA showed also a significant interaction effect between road configuration and visibility, F(2, 58) = 3.91, p = .025, partial Eta squared = .119, observed power = .683; between geometric element and visibility, $\underline{F}(2.95, 85.45) = 3.98$, p = .011, partial Eta squared = .121, observed power = .814; and between geometric element and transition curve, F(5, 145) = 6.26, p < .001, partial Eta squared = .178, observed power = .996. No other significant interaction effects were found.

385 Post-hoc comparisons with Bonferroni correction allowed the evaluation of the main effects of the independent variables, as well as their interaction effects, on the average 386 387 driving speed. For the main effect of road configuration, pairwise comparison based on 388 post-hoc tests indicated that the average speeds recorded along the two-lane rural roads 389 were not significantly different (average difference = 2.82 km/h, p = 1.000), with speed on Road A (91.94 km/h) lower than that on Road B (94.76 km/h). On the contrary, the 390 average speed on Road A was significantly lower than that on Road C (107.41 km/h). A 391 392 significant difference was revealed also when comparing the speed on Road B with that on 393 Road C. Drivers adopted almost the same speed on curves along the two-lane rural roads 394 but drove with higher speeds when the cross-section was wider. The speed significantly increased on the highway where the cross-section was characterized by wider lanes and 395 divided carriageways; this induced drivers to adopt higher speeds along the same curve 396 397 geometries.

398 Pairwise comparisons that were performed to investigate the main effect of the geometric element revealed significant differences between all the curves investigated, except 399 for those characterized by the same radius but different directions. In fact, the maximum 400 speed difference recorded between right and left curves of the same radius was 0.87 km/h 401 402 for sharp curves, demonstrating that the curve direction did not affect the average speed 403 of drivers. As expected, the lowest speeds were recorded on sharp curves (91.61 km/h), 404 followed by medium curves where the average speed was significantly higher (98.47 km/h) 405 than the speed on sharp curves but lower than that on shallow curves (104.02 km/h). As 406 can be expected, there was a significant difference (12.41 km/h) in speeds on shallow and 407 sharp curves. Therefore, the results corresponded to those expected when considering the 408 main effect of the geometric element: the average speed on the curve increased when the 409 curve radius was wider. Conversely, the direction of the curve did not affect driver's speed choice that depends on the radius. 410

411 With respect to the main effect of visibility, it was found that the average speed on 412 curve with unrestricted visibility (99.15 km/h) was significantly higher than that adopted 413 when the visibility was restricted by the steep side slope (96.92 km/h). In the latter case, 414 the lower speed is clearly an example of the compensatory behavior of driver for the lower 415 available visibility in front of him. However, it should be stressed that this decrement in



Figure 5. The interaction effects of independent variables on driving speed.

416 speed was not enough to guarantee the safe driving condition, as the stopping sight distance 417 was still longer than the available visibility.

Finally, the drivers adopted an average speed (98.85 km/h) that was significantly higher along the curves that presented clothoidic transition than that along curves where the clothoids were absent (97.22 km/h).

Post-hoc pairwise comparisons of the interaction effect of road configuration * visibility 421 422 demonstrated that the visibility has an influence on driving speed for Roads B and C (that 423 means for roads with higher speed limit) but not for Road A. Driving speeds on curves with 424 restricted visibility were lower than those on curves where visibility was not restricted; it 425 occurred for all road configurations. Figure 5a shows the interaction effect between road configuration and visibility. The average difference in speeds was not significant for Road A 426 427 (0.32 km/h) probably because of the lower speed already adopted by drivers on the smaller 428 road section.

Pairwise comparisons performed on the geometric element * visibility interaction effect revealed that the restriction used for limiting the driver's visibility induced drivers to adopt lower speeds along all the curves (except for the sharp left curve where the speed was higher under a restricted condition of visibility, by only 0.16 km/h). However, the differences were significant for only the shallow curves (right: 3.60 km/h, p = .014; left: 5.60 km/h, p < .001). Moreover, the speed differences between the curves with different radius were significant for the visibility conditions, as illustrated in Figure 5b.

436 Another significant interaction effect on driving speed was found between geometric 437 element and transition curve. Pairwise comparisons revealed that by using a transition curve the driver always adopted a higher speed along the same curve radius, indicating 438 439 less need to decelerate, probably due to an improved perception of the geometric element. 440 However, the increments were found significant along sharp curves (right: 1.70 km/h, 441 p = .049; left: 3.77 km/h, p < .001) and medium curves (right: 1.80 km/h, p = .019; left: 442 2.53 km/h, p = .003; no statistical significance was found for the shallow curves (for left and right: 0.06 km/h, p = 1.000), probably because of the wider radius that neglected 443 444 the effectiveness of implementing the transition curve. Moreover, the speed differences 445 between the six curves (except for curves with the same radii) were found to be significant in both cases, with or without the transition curve, as illustrated in Figure 5c. 446

447 3.3. Pathologic Discomfort

The effects of road configuration, geometric element, visibility restriction, and transition 448 449 curve on PD experienced by drivers along curves were examined, using within-subjects 450 ANOVA with repeated measures. All PD homogenized data were normally distributed 451 according to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Bonferroni correction was used for the multiple 452 comparisons. ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of road configuration, $F_{(1.42)}$ 41.22) = 19.60, p < .001, partial Eta squared = .403, observed power = .999; geometric 453 454 element, F(3.43, 99.41) = 210.80, p < .001, partial Eta squared = .879, observed power = 1.000; visibility, F(1, 29) = 119.80, p < .001, partial Eta squared = .805, observed power 455 456 = 1.000; and transition curve, F(1, 29) = 477.64, p < .001, partial Eta squared = .943, observed power = 1.000. 457

ANOVA showed a significant interaction effect between road configuration and visibility, F(2, 58) = 4.57, p = .014, partial Eta squared = .136, observed power = .755; between road configuration and transition curve, F(2,58) = 10.64, p < .001, partial Eta squared = .268, observed power = .986; and between geometric element and transition curve, F(5, 145) = 100.44, p < .001, partial Eta squared = .776, observed power = 1.000. No other significant interaction effects were established.

464 In analyzing the main effect of road configuration on PD using pairwise comparisons it was revealed, as previously described for driving speed, that PD values along the two-lane 465 rural roads were not significantly different (average difference = 0.010 m/s^2 , p = .518), 466 467 with PD on Road A lower than that on Road B. Conversely, PD on Road A (0.163 m/s^2) 468 was significantly lower than that on Road C (0.231 m/s²). A significant difference was also shown when comparing PD on Road B (0.173 m/s^2) with that on Road C. Overall, the 469 results show that the PDs on curves along the two-lane rural roads were almost similar but, 470 471 when the cross-section became wider, the PD increased too.

472 Pairwise comparisons revealed significant differences between PD recorded along all the curves investigated, except for those characterized by the same radius but different 473 directions. Specifically, it was found that the lower the radius is, the higher the PD is, 474 demonstrating that along sharp curves drivers experienced more difficulties to follow the 475 road axis geometry, whereas the same behavior was found between left and right curves. 476 477 The highest average PD was recorded on sharp curves (0.267 m/s^2) and the lowest on shallow curves (0.130 m/s²); on medium curves it was 0.170 m/s². All of the differences 478 479 were significant at p < .001.

Pathologic discomfort on curves with unrestricted visibility (0.202 m/s²) was signif-480 icantly higher than that recorded when visibility was restricted (0.176 m/s²). It can be 481 482 reasonably explained by a less need for drivers to correct their trajectories when visibility 483 is restricted as they paid more attention when the difficulty of driving became higher (a sort 484 of compensatory behaviour as described in the case of speed reduction). These results were 485 fully consistent with previous findings (Calvi, 2010; Calvi et al., 2012; Calvi & D'Amico, 486 2013) that demonstrated how the visibility restriction of the tunnel walls could determine 487 a guidance effect that helped drivers to correctly perceive and read road geometry.

Finally, the transition curves seem to help the driver in correctly following the trajectory. In fact, it was found that with transition curves the PD was significantly lower (0.149 m/s^2) than that recorded without the transition element (0.228 m/s^2) . This result demonstrates the effectiveness of using transition curve.

492 Post-hoc pairwise comparisons for the interaction effect of road configuration * vis-493 ibility revealed that PD values recorded along the curves with restricted visibility were 494 significantly lower than those on curves with unrestricted visibility for all three road **Q8**



Figure 6. The interaction effects of independent variables on pathologic discomfort (PD).

configurations. It was revealed that, under unrestricted visibility, PD on Road A was significantly lower than PD on Road B (average difference = 0.022 m/s^2). However, the difference was not significant when visibility was restricted, as the road configuration of two-lane rural roads did not affect PD for curves with restricted visibility. The other comparisons showed significant differences. Figure 6a shows the interaction effect between road configuration and visibility on PD.

501 Post-hoc tests revealed that the transition curve had PD values that were significantly 502 lower than those recorded along the curves where no transition element was designed, 503 confirming the effectiveness of clothoid in terms of safety (as demonstrated in previous 504 studies (Calvi, 2010; Calvi & D'Amico, 2006; Casolo et al., 2008) that showed that lower PDs yielded lower crash rates for all the road configurations). Moreover, it was found 505 506 that without clothoid PD on Road A was significantly lower than PD on Road B (average 507 difference = 0.024 m/s^2). The same difference was not significant when the transition 508 element was present, as the road configuration of two-lane rural roads did not affect PD 509 on curves with clothoids. The other comparisons showed significant differences. Figure 6b shows the interaction effect between road configuration and transition curve on PD. 510

511 According to the previous results that demonstrated the effectiveness of clothoid for 512 improving the safety of driving, pairwise comparisons on the significant interaction effect of 513 geometric element * transition curve revealed that PD values along curves with clothoid were 514 always lower than the PD values along the same curves without clothoid. The differences were statistically significant for both of the sharp curves (right: 0.142 m/s^2 , p < .001; left: 515 0.154 m/s², p < .001) and both of the medium curves (right: 0.105 m/s², p < .001; left: 516 0.072 m/s², p < .001), but not significant for the shallow curves (right: 0.001 m/s², p =517 1.000; left: 0.002 m/s², p = .986) for which the clothoid seems to lose its effectiveness, 518 probably because the wider radius is easier to be correctly interpreted by the drivers (as 519 520 also demonstrated by the lower values of PD along curves with wider radii). Moreover, the 521 differences between the PD values along the six curves (except for curves with the same 522 radius) were found to be significant in both cases, with or without the transition curve, as 523 illustrated in Figure 6c.

524 3.4. Dispersion of Trajectory

525 The effects of the four independent variables on the DT parameter computed along curves 526 were examined, using within-subjects ANOVA with repeated measures. All DT data were normally distributed according to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Bonferroni correction was used for the multiple comparisons. Also, for this parameter ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of road configuration, F(1.32, 38.27) = 26.80, p < .001, partial Eta squared = .480, observed power = 1.000; geometric element, F(3.48, 100.94) = 12.96, p < .001, partial Eta squared = .309, observed power = 1.000; visibility, F(1, 29) = 19.15, p < .001, partial Eta squared = .398, observed power = .988; and transition curve, F(1,29) = 300.67, p < .001, partial Eta squared = .912, observed power = 1.000.

ANOVA showed a significant interaction effect between road configuration and visibility, F(2, 58) = 8.61, p = .001, partial Eta squared = .229, observed power = .960; between road configuration and transition curve, F(1.37, 39.64) = 33.54, p < .001, partial Eta squared = .536, observed power = 1.000; and between geometric element and transition curve, F(5, 145) = 57.44, p < .001, partial Eta squared = .665, observed power = 1.000. No other significant interaction effects were established.

Post-hoc analysis indicated that the DT along the curves on Road A (0.111 m) was significantly lower than that on Road B (0.141 m) and on Road C (0.177 m). The latter two values of DT were also significantly different from each other. This means that the dispersion of trajectories increased when the road cross-section became wider, probably due to the increase in speed that yielded, under the same condition of driver's path correction, a greater DT.

Pairwise comparisons revealed significant differences in DT recorded along most of 546 the curves, with significant differences also between curves with the same radius but in 547 opposite directions. Specifically, it was revealed that right curves showed higher DTs than 548 left curves (average difference = 0.160 m). Moreover, for right curves the smaller the 549 550 radius significantly the smaller the DT (0.140 m, 0.148 m, and 0.168 m for sharp, medium, and shallow right curve, respectively), whereas for left curves the differences were not 551 significant (0.139 m, 0.129 m, and 0.133 m for sharp, medium, and shallow left curve, 552 553 respectively).

The values of DT recorded along curves with unrestricted visibility (0.149 m) were significantly higher than those recorded when visibility was restricted (0.137 m), confirming once more a reduced need for drivers to correct their trajectories when visibility is restricted, probably due to a higher driver's level of attention under more difficult driving conditions, when the perceived risk was higher.

Finally, also in this case, the transition curves seem to help the driver in maintaining a constant trajectory. In fact, it was found that DT recorded along curves with clothoid was significantly lower (0.115 m) than that recorded along curves without the transition element (0.171 m).

Pairwise comparisons performed over road configuration * visibility interaction effect revealed that DT values on curves with restricted visibility were always lower than those on curves with unrestricted visibility. However, the difference was significant for Road B only (average difference = 0.025 m, p < .001) but not for Road A (0.000 m, p = .957) and C (0.011 m, p = 0.069). Conversely, a wider cross-section had a significantly higher DT under both visibility conditions. Figure 7a shows the interaction effect between road configuration and visibility on DT.

The presence of the transition curve resulted in DT values that were significantly lower than those recorded along the curves where clothoids were not present. This occurred for each roadway configuration, as revealed by the pairwise comparisons developed over the road configuration * transition curve interaction effect. This confirms once more the effectiveness of clothoid in lowering the dispersion of drivers' trajectories. Moreover, it was found that, without clothoid, DT was significantly different among the three configurations;



Figure 7. The interaction effects of independent variables on dispersion of trajectory (DT).

specifically, DT increased with the cross-section of the road. The same occurred for curves
with a transition element, but the difference between DT values was lower (between Roads
B and C, but not significant), as illustrated in Figure 7b which shows the interaction effect
between road configuration and transition curve on DT.

580 Pairwise comparisons on the significant interaction effect geometric element * transition curve showed that the DT values along a curve with clothoid were always lower than 581 582 the DT values along the same curve without clothoid. The differences were significant for the sharp curves (right: 0.097 m, p < .001; left: 0.104 m, p < .001) and the medium curves 583 584 (right: 0.074 m, p < .001; left: 0.064 m, p < .001) but not significant for the shallow curves 585 (for right and left curves: 0.002 m) according to previous results of PD. Moreover, the dif-586 ferences between DT values along the curves with same radii but with different directions were significant for medium and shallow curves in both cases, with or without a transition 587 588 curve, with higher values for right curves, as illustrated in Figure 7c.

589 4. Conclusions and Further Research

This driving simulator study was developed to increase knowledge about the effects of the road design features of horizontal curves on driving performance.

The road cross-section, the radius of curve, the visibility condition, and the presence of a transition curve significantly influence driving speeds and the way a driver negotiates a curve in terms of trajectories and consequently lateral acceleration.

595 It was found that drivers adopted almost the same speed on curves along the two-lane 596 rural roads but drove with higher speeds when the cross-section was wider. Moreover the 597 average speed on the curve increased when the curve radius was wider. Conversely, the direction of the curve did not affect driver's speed choice. With respect to the visibility, 598 599 it was found that the average speed on curve with unrestricted visibility was significantly 600 higher than that adopted when the visibility was restricted. This can be considered as an 601 example of driver's compensatory behavior for the lower available visibility in front of 602 him that, however, did not guarantee safe driving conditions, as the stopping sight distance remained still longer than the available visibility. Finally, it was found that the average 603 604 speed on curves with clothoid was higher than that on curves where clothoids were not present, probably due to an improved perception of the geometric element. However, this 605 606 was not revealed on shallow curves.

607 The results of the analysis on PD show that the PDs on curves along the two-lane rural 608 roads were almost similar; but, when the cross-section became wider, the PD increased too. Moreover, the lower the radius the higher the PD, meaning that along sharp curves 609 drivers experienced more difficulties to follow the road axis geometry. Similar PDs were 610 found between left and right curves. Pathologic discomfort on curves with unrestricted 611 visibility was higher than that recorded when visibility was restricted, where the driver had 612 to pay a greater attention for the higher difficulty of driving (again, a sort of compensatory 613 behavior). Finally, the effectiveness of using transition curve for helping the driver to 614 615 correctly follow the trajectory was once more demonstrated, as PDs on curves with transition 616 were significantly lower than those recorded on curves without transition. It occurred only 617 on sharp and medium curves, confirming that for shallow curves the implementation of the transition curve seems to be not effective. 618

619 The DT increased when the road cross-section became wider, probably due to the increase in speed that yielded, under the same condition of driver's path correction, a 620 621 greater DT. Significant differences in DT were found between curves with different radii 622 (for right curves, the smaller the radius significantly the smaller the DT, whereas for left curves the differences were not significant) and also with the same radius but opposite 623 624 directions (right curves showed higher DTs than left curves). The values of DT recorded 625 along curves with unrestricted visibility were significantly higher than those recorded when visibility was restricted, confirming the lower need of drivers to correct trajectories when 626 visibility is restricted. Finally, also in this case, the transition curves seem to help the driver 627 in maintaining a constant trajectory. In fact, it was found that DT recorded along curves 628 with clothoid was significantly lower than that recorded along curves without the transition 629 630 element.

The results of this study are surely promising and show the effectiveness of the driving simulation for road design recommendations. However the limitations of the results presented here should be acknowledged as well as the recommendations for further researches.

635 The main limit of simulation tests is related to the lower risk perceived by drivers 636 during the driving due to the possible occurrence of a virtual crash that does not cause 637 any kind of damages. Although the drivers are immersed in a simulated environment that is very consistent with the real one, their perceptions and behaviors can be different 638 639 than those on a real road, mainly because of the lack of motivational and emotional context. Therefore it is essential to verify the validation of driving simulation. Although 640 641 the CRISS simulator has been already successfully validated for different driving situations 642 (Bella, 2005, 2008), a validation study is needed to enable its use for in depth analysis of driving performance along different road configurations and geometries, for proposing 643 effective design guidelines that take into consideration drivers' behaviors, before any design 644 recommendations or applications of results for legislative purposes. 645

In this study a homogeneous sample of participants was selected (mean age of 26 years, range 22 – 35 years). As many studies demonstrated that driving performances are mostly affected by age and the goal here was to assess how horizontal curves characteristics influence drivers' performance, a homogeneous sample of participants was preferred, in such a way any bias from sample heterogeneity was reasonably negligible or strongly limited. In future programs, it would be expected to test other categories of drivers to extend the results as much as possible.

Moreover, though the curves here investigated were quite numerous, a wider sample of geometries (curve radii, cross-sections, different parameters of curve transitions, visibility conditions) should be considered, analyzing also the location of a curve in relation to other

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curves to provide results based on spatial considerations that are not typically included in 656 657 the safety analysis of a roadway design.

Finally further studies with varying traffic volume are planned in order to confirm the 658 659 findings and strengthen and generalize the results. Particularly the investigation of driving performance should be enlarged among different traffic conditions to promote the use of 660 driving simulators among the road design community and provide practical applications in 661 662 traffic engineering.

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