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Calibration of Inertial Consistency Models on North Carolina Two-Lane Rural Roads

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Additional Information

1 **CALIBRATION OF INERTIAL CONSISTENCY MODELS ON NORTH CAROLINA**  
2 **TWO-LANE RURAL ROADS**

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## 1 **ABSTRACT**

2 Road crash occurrence is closely related to the geometric design consistency, which can be defined  
3 as how drivers' expectancies and road behavior fit. To this regard, the crash rate on a road segment  
4 increases as its consistency level decreases.

5 To assess this phenomenon, inertial consistency models were recently developed. These  
6 models are based on the difference between the inertial operating speed, which represents drivers'  
7 expectancies, and the operating speed, which represents road behavior. The higher the difference  
8 between both speeds, the higher the likelihood of crash occurrence.

9 This research aims to validate and calibrate these consistency models on American two-  
10 lane rural roads. For this, a total of 194 homogeneous road segments and 977 horizontal curves  
11 along 665 km in North Carolina (US) were used.

12 As a result, the geometric design consistency was identified as a major factor of crash  
13 occurrence. The higher the difference between drivers' expectancies and road behavior, the higher  
14 the crash rate. Likewise, the greater the consistency level, the greater the percentage of horizontal  
15 curves without reported crashes.

16 A Safety Performance Function was also calibrated to estimate the number of crashes on a  
17 road segment. Consistency thresholds were defined and tested to identify where these crashes are  
18 more likely to take place.

19 Finally, the results obtained in this study were compared with those obtained previously on  
20 Spanish highways. To this regard, the crash rate on an American highway was 1.85 times greater  
21 than those observed on a Spanish highway under the same risk exposure and consistency  
22 conditions.

23 Therefore, different tools were developed to enhance the assessment of road safety to the  
24 geometric design of both new two-lane rural roads and improvements of existing highways.

25  
26 *Keywords: geometric design consistency, road safety, operating speed, inertial operating speed,*  
27 *driver's behavior*  
28  
29

## 1 INTRODUCTION

2 Road safety is a public health concern due to the years of productive lives lost resulting from  
3 crashes. More than 35,000 people die in road crashes every year in the United States. Particularly  
4 in North Carolina (US), the number of fatal crashes increased by 7% between 2014 and 2015,  
5 which was similar to the mean increase in the country. In addition, 70% of fatal crashes took place  
6 on rural highways in this state (FHWA, 2015).

7 The most important factors for road crash occurrence are infrastructure, vehicle, and human  
8 factors. Particularly, the infrastructure factor is responsible for over 30% of road crashes (Treat et  
9 al., 1979). In fact, crashes tend to concentrate at certain road elements. For this, infrastructure and  
10 its interaction with human factors have been thoroughly studied in recent years through geometric  
11 design consistency, which can be defined as how drivers' expectations and road behavior relate.

12 The main objective of the geometric design consistency is to minimize the emergence of  
13 unexpected events when road users drive along a road segment. To this regard, a consistent road  
14 provides a harmonious driving free of surprises, which is associated with a low number of road  
15 crashes (Gibreel et al., 1999). On the contrary, an inconsistent road might present numerous  
16 unexpected events to drivers, leading to an anomalous behavior and increasing the likelihood of  
17 crash occurrence.

18 There are several methods to assess geometric design consistency: operating speed, vehicle  
19 stability, alignment indices, and driver workload (Gibreel et al., 1999). However, most of the  
20 consistency models are based on the analysis of the operating speed profile. Operating speed is  
21 frequently defined as the 85<sup>th</sup> percentile of the speed distribution for passenger cars under free-  
22 flow conditions with no external restrictions ( $V_{85}$ ). One important advantage of its use is the  
23 possibility to estimate it using operating speed models.

24 There are two types of consistency models: local and global. Local models focus on  
25 localized issues, such as sudden speed reductions or high differences between the design and  
26 operating speeds (Lamm et al., 1999; Llopis-Castelló et al., 2018d). Those models are ideal to  
27 identify where road crashes are more likely to take place. On the other hand, global consistency  
28 models examine the overall speed variation throughout an entire road segment (Polus and Mattar-  
29 Habib, 2004; Garach et al., 2014; Camacho-Torregrosa, 2015; Llopis-Castelló et al., 2018c).  
30 Although they do not indicate where crashes are prone to take place, they can be introduced into a  
31 Safety Performance Function (SPF) to predict the number of crashes on an entire road segment.

32 To this regard, several researchers have tried to link the number of crashes to different  
33 variables related to risk exposure (traffic volume and road length), geometry, consistency and road  
34 environment by means of SPFs. Among those studies which incorporate the consistency as an  
35 explanatory variable, all of them concluded that the level of consistency has a major influence on  
36 road crash occurrence (Anderson et al. (1999); Ng and Sayed, 2004; Awatta et al., 2006; Montella  
37 et al., 2008; Cafiso et al., 2010; de Oña et al., 2013; Quddus, 2013; Wu et al., 2013; Garach et al.,  
38 2014; Camacho Torregrosa, 2015; Montella and Imbriani, 2015; Garach et al., 2016).

39 Additionally, other studies have been developed to analyze road safety by using the  
40 relationship between transverse and longitudinal accelerations and speed. Regarding this, Eboli et  
41 al. (2016) proposed a classification of car drivers' behavior (safe and unsafe) based on the  
42 relationship between speed and the g-g diagram, which relates the lateral and longitudinal  
43 accelerations, along a road segment. This relationship, which can be considered as a surrogate  
44 measure of the objective risk, was compared with the subjective risk perceived by drivers,  
45 determined through a numerical scale from -2 (aggressive) to +2 (cautious) (Eboli et al., 2017). As  
46 a result, different levels of risk were defined as a function of the percentage of points classified as  
47 unsafe ( $p$ ) along a road segment: low ( $p \leq 5\%$ ), medium ( $5\% \leq p \leq 8\%$ ), and high ( $p \geq 8\%$ ).

1 After this brief introduction, the literature review summarizes the salient efforts from  
2 previously developed consistency models. After which, the main objective of this research effort  
3 is defined, and the methodology and data are thoroughly described. Then, the new consistency  
4 models for North Carolina two-lane rural roads are defined which includes a detailed discussion.  
5 The paper finishes with a brief section on the most important conclusions of the research.  
6

## 7 LITERATURE REVIEW

8 The most widely used local method was developed by Lamm et al. (1999). They proposed two  
9 design consistency criteria related to operating speed. Criterion I focuses on disparities between  
10 operating and design speeds; and criterion II examines operating speed differences between  
11 successive elements ( $\Delta V_{85}$ ). Different consistency thresholds were defined for both criteria,  
12 distinguishing between good, fair, and poor consistency based on average crash rates observed at  
13 several alignment layouts.

14 Although Criterion II has been incorporated into several road design guidelines, some  
15 authors proposed the use of  $\Delta_{85}V$ , defined as the 85th percentile of the individual speed reductions  
16 performed by drivers, rather than  $\Delta V_{85}$  because this criterion underestimates the actual speed  
17 reduction (Misaghi and Hassan, 2005; Castro et al., 2011; Bella and Calvi, 2013; de Oña et al.,  
18 2013).

19 The first global consistency model was developed by Polus and Mattar-Habib (2004),  
20 which was based on two parameters: relative area ( $Ra$ ) and operating speed dispersion ( $\sigma$ ). The  
21 first parameter was defined as the area bounded by the operating speed profile and the average  
22 operating speed, divided by the length of the road segment. The same parameters were used by  
23 Garach et al. (2014) to calibrate a new consistency model on Spanish two-lane rural roads.

24 Later, Camacho-Torregrosa (2015) developed another global consistency model  
25 considering two operational parameters: the average operating speed and the average deceleration  
26 rate. Additionally, this research analyzed the influence of the selection of homogeneous road  
27 segments on the estimation of road crashes.

28 In this regard, the selection of the road segment is critical for the application of global  
29 consistency models. Selected road segments must be homogeneous, because the outcomes depend  
30 mainly on the identification procedure (Resende and Benekohal, 1997; Cafiso et al., 2010; García  
31 et al., 2013a; Camacho Torregrosa, 2015).

32 However, the Predictive Method proposed by the Highway Safety Manual (HSM) tries to  
33 assess the geometric design consistency on an entire road segment through the summation of the  
34 individual estimation of the number of crashes on each road element (AASHTO, 2010). To this  
35 regard, the Crash Modification Factors do not take into account the features of the entire road  
36 segment; they are only focused on the individual features of the assessed road element. In this way,  
37 a certain road element contained in two different homogeneous road segments will estimate the  
38 same number of crashes under the same risk exposure conditions. Thus, this method is not able to  
39 properly assess the geometric design consistency of an entire road segment.

40 Therefore, none of the abovementioned consistency models include the underlying  
41 consistency phenomenon in their formulation, i.e., they do not estimate drivers' expectancies while  
42 driving along a road segment.

43 To address this weakness, García et al. (2013b) defined a new speed concept - the inertial  
44 operating speed ( $V_i$ ) - as a surrogate measure of drivers' expectancies, like previous researchers  
45 proposed the use of drivers' speed as a surrogate measure of their behavior (Lamm et al., 1988;  
46 Polus and Mattar-Habib, 2004; Garach et al., 2014; Camacho-Torregrosa, 2015). Nevertheless, this  
47 does not mean that drivers choose their speeds in a conscious way, since the driving task is defined

1 as an automatic task (Charlton and Starkey, 2011).

2 Thus, the inertial operating speed was defined as the average operating speed of the  
3 previous 1,000 meter road segment. Conversely, road behavior was associated with the operating  
4 speed ( $V_{85}$ ). A new local consistency parameter, the Inertial Consistency Index (ICI), was defined  
5 as the difference between  $V_i$  and  $V_{85}$ . Therefore, the larger this index, the greater the difference  
6 between drivers' expectations and road behavior and thus crashes are more likely to occur.

7 However, this definition of  $V_i$  does not properly match the drivers' expectation acquisition  
8 process, which is related to Short-Term Memory (STM), since the driving task is normally an  
9 unaware/automatic task that uses STM to remember and process information at the same time. To  
10 this regard, STM is gradually in decline over time, with the information lost in approximately 18  
11 seconds (Revlin, 2012).

12 Drivers do not recall all locations of the previous road section with the same intensity.  
13 Therefore, the first and final parts of the section should not be considered equally to determine the  
14 inertial operating speed. In addition, given two homogeneous road segments with different average  
15 operating speeds, the periods of time needed to travel the same distance are different. Thus,  
16 estimating  $V_i$  as the weighted average operating speed based on time would possibly allow for a  
17 more accurate estimation of the phenomenon.

18 Studies have been developed to identify which period of time and weighting distribution  
19 should be considered to better explain drivers' expectancies (Llopis-Castelló et al., 2018a, 2018b,  
20 2018c and 2018d). In this regard, periods of time from 10 to 60 seconds with a step of 5 seconds  
21 were analyzed. As a result, the inertial operating speed was defined for each point of the alignment  
22 as the weighted average operating speed of the last 15 seconds considering a linear weighting  
23 distribution. In addition, local and global inertial consistency models were proposed. The global  
24 consistency parameter was based on the difference between the inertial operating speed profile and  
25 the operating speed profile, whereas the local consistency parameter was the ICI. Likewise, a SPF  
26 was proposed to estimate the number of crashes on Spanish two-lane rural roads and different  
27 consistency thresholds were defined to identify where these crashes are more likely to take place  
28 (Table 1).

29  
30 **TABLE 1 Inertial consistency models**

Global consistency model (Llopis-Castelló et al., 2018c)		
$Y_{i,10} = e^{-6.6479} \cdot L^{1.02645} \cdot AADT^{0.86684} \cdot e^{0.14774 \cdot C}$		
Good $C \leq 2.75$ km/h	Fair $2.75$ km/h $< C \leq 4.5$ km/h	Poor $C > 4.5$ km/h
Local consistency model (Llopis-Castelló et al., 2018d)		
Good $ICI \leq 5$ km/h	Fair $5$ km/h $< ICI \leq 12.5$ km/h	Poor $ICI > 12.5$ km/h
where $Y_{i,10}$ is the number of fatal-and-injury crashes on the homogeneous road segment in 10 years; $L$ is the length of the homogeneous road segment (km); $AADT$ is the Average Annual Daily Traffic (vpd); $C$ is the consistency parameter (km/h); and $ICI$ is the Inertial Consistency Index (km/h).		

31  
32 Due to the successful performance of the inertial consistency models in Italy and Spain,  
33 the primary goal of this study was to validate their use on American two-lane rural roads. This will  
34 allow engineers to have new useful tools to assess road safety.

## 35 OBJECTIVES

1 The main objective of this research was to validate the global and local inertial consistency model  
2 comparing the difference between the inertial operating speed and the operating speed with the  
3 number of crashes on American two-lane rural roads.

4 Secondary objectives of this study were the calibration of a Safety Performance Function  
5 based on the global consistency model to estimate the number of crashes on a homogeneous road  
6 segment and the definition of different consistency thresholds to identify on which road geometric  
7 elements these crashes tend to concentrate.

## 8 9 **METHODOLOGY AND DATA DESCRIPTION**

### 10 **Methodology**

11 The methodology of this study was based on the analysis of the relationship between the inertial  
12 consistency parameters and road crashes.

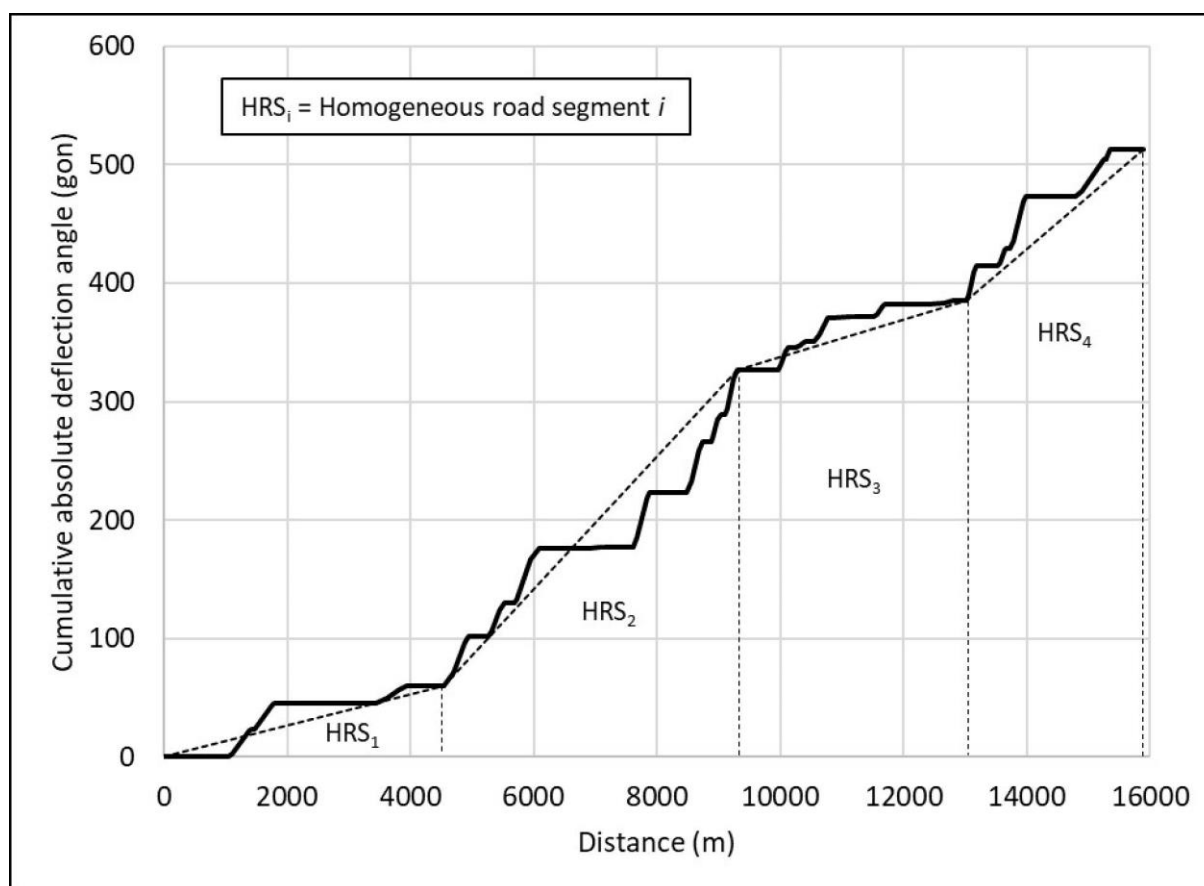
13 Two-lane rural road sections located in North Carolina (US) were selected. Next, the  
14 geometry for each road section was recreated by means of the methodology proposed by Camacho-  
15 Torregrosa et al. (2015) and the operating speed profiles were estimated considering operating  
16 speed models and acceleration and deceleration rates calibrated on American two-lane rural roads.  
17 From this, the inertial operating speed profiles were calculated for every road segment considering  
18 15 seconds and a linear weighting distribution (Llopis-Castelló et al., 2018c and 2018d). Crash  
19 and traffic data were also obtained. The analysis was focused on the study of the relationship  
20 between crash rates and consistency. Finally, a Safety Performance Function was calibrated and  
21 consistency thresholds were defined for both global and local inertial consistency models.

### 22 23 **Road segments**

24 A total of 94 two-lane rural road sections located in North Carolina (US) were selected for the  
25 study. This meant that the geometric recreation of approximately 665 km of highway produced  
26 194 homogeneous road segments, which were identified following the same procedure as for the  
27 previous research on Spanish two-lane rural roads (Llopis-Castelló et al., 2018c).

28 First, road segments were divided into sections with similar traffic volume and cross-  
29 section. Major intersections, usually associated to roundabouts or interchanges, also influence  
30 drivers' expectancies, so they were also considered for segmentation (Cafiso et al., 2010). Finally,  
31 each road section was divided according to its geometric behavior using the German methodology  
32 (RAS-L, 1995), which is based on the analysis of the Curvature Change Rate (CCR). This  
33 parameter is defined as the rate between the sum of the absolute deflection angles and the length  
34 of the road segment. Figure 1 shows how this last step is carried out: a profile of the cumulative  
35 absolute deflection angle versus the road station must be plotted. In this way, homogeneous road  
36 segments can be distinguished according to similar CCR behavior.

37



1  
2 **FIGURE 1 Identification of homogeneous road segments.**

3  
4 Table 2 shows the main geometric characteristics of the studied homogeneous road  
5 segments. Their length ranged from 575 m to 18,712 m, and their longitudinal grade did not exceed  
6 4%. Regarding cross-section, lane widths ranged from 3.00 to 3.50 m, and the shoulder width  
7 varied from 0.5 to 1.50 m.

8  
9 **TABLE 2 Features of the homogeneous road segments**

Road	Length (km)			<i>AADT</i> (vpd)		<i>CCR</i> (gon/km)		Fatal-and-injury crashes
	Total	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max	Min.	Max.	
NC41	149.6	1.8	13.0	1,325	7,040	0	56.07	211
NC42	141.8	0.8	10.9	634	5,033	0	175.80	186
NC43	87.4	1.0	18.7	1,499	6,860	0	86.20	155
NC49	109.5	0.9	11.1	788	7,300	0	92.21	162
NC96	102.7	1.2	7.3	1,230	7,700	6.59	116.32	178
NC268	73.8	0.6	4.9	378	6,880	0	490.11	124

Min=Minimum; Max=Maximum; *AADT*=Annual Average Daily Traffic; *CCR*=Curvature Change Rate.

10  
11 **Traffic and crash data**

12 Traffic volume and crash data were provided by the North Carolina Department of Transportation  
13 (NCDOT). Thus, the Annual Average Daily Traffic (*AADT*) volumes and the number of fatal-and-  
14 injury crashes were identified for each homogeneous road segment and horizontal curve.



1 *AADT* was defined as the average traffic volume from 2012 to 2016. As a result, the  
 2 homogeneous road segments had an *AADT* ranging from 378 to 7,700 vpd (Table 2).

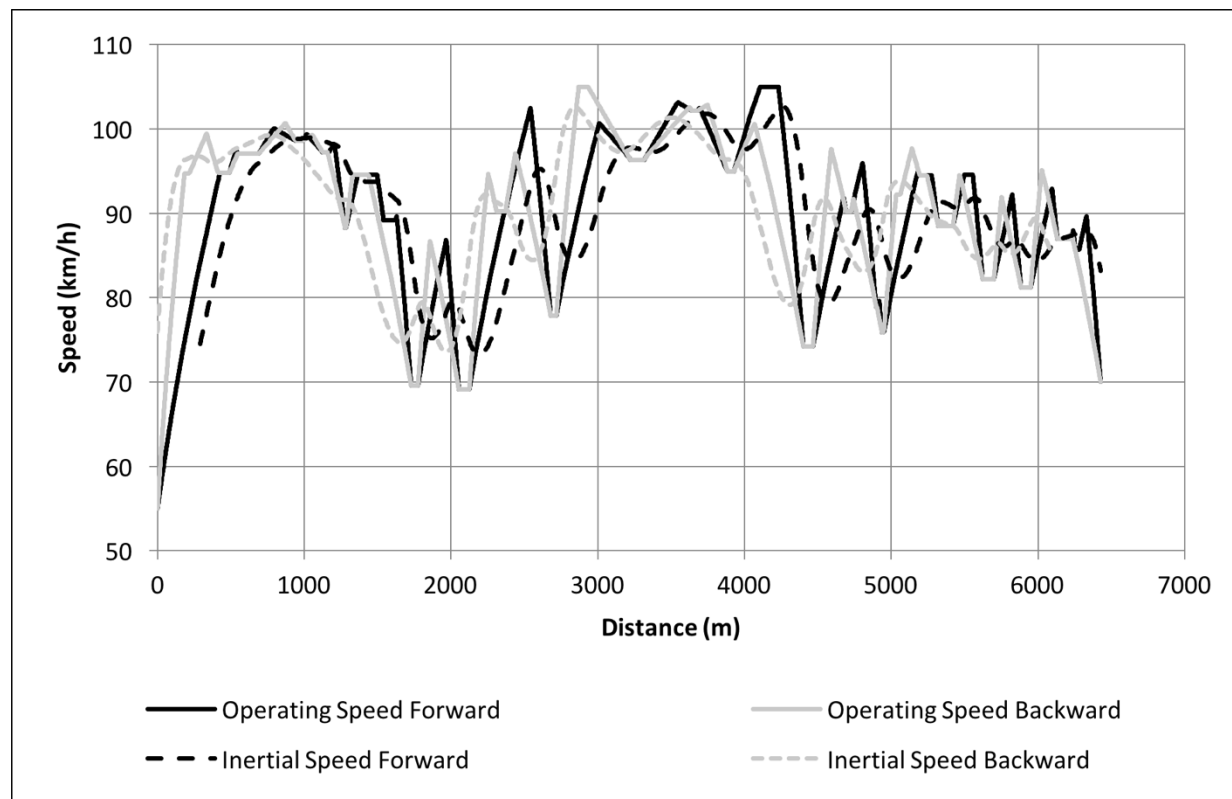
3 In North Carolina, if people are involved in a crash but there are no injuries, the drivers  
 4 only have to report the crash if the damage property value is equal to or greater than \$1,000.  
 5 Therefore, Property Damage Only (PDO) crashes are not always reported to authorities and,  
 6 consequently, to include this type of crash might lead to biased results and an inaccurate  
 7 interpretation of the phenomenon.

8 Thus, only fatal-and-injury crashes were considered over the same period of time. The  
 9 cause of every crash was reviewed, so to only include those related to geometry (e.g., crashes  
 10 caused by vehicles entering the road from minor roads or driveways were removed from the  
 11 analysis, since their cause is not the road geometry per se). As a result, a total of 1,016 reported  
 12 crashes were analyzed (Table 2).

## 13 **Speed profiles**

### 14 *Operating speed profiles*

15 The operating speed profile for each road segment was estimated using the speed model for  
 16 horizontal curves calibrated by Ottesen and Krammes (2000), the speed model for tangents  
 17 developed by Polus et al. (2000), and the acceleration and deceleration rates proposed by the  
 18 Interactive Highway Safety Design Model (Figure 2). All these models were calibrated based on  
 19 speed data collected on American two-lane rural roads. The primary reason for using these models  
 20 is that the highways considered in this study have the same general characteristics of those used in  
 21 the calibration of these models.  
 22  
 23



24 **FIGURE 2 Speed profiles**  
 25  
 26  
 27

### 1 *Inertial speed profiles*

2 The inertial operating speed profile was calculated for every road segment on the basis of its  
 3 operating speed profile. According to Llopis-Castelló et al. (2018c and 2018d), the inertial  
 4 operating speed is defined for each point of the alignment as the weighted average operating speed  
 5 of the preceding 15 seconds considering a linear weighting distribution:

$$6 \quad V_{i,k} = \frac{\sum w_j \cdot V_{85,j}}{\sum w_j} \quad (1)$$

7 where  $V_{i,k}$  is the inertial operating speed (km/h) at point  $k$ ;  $V_{85,j}$  is the operating speed at point  $j$ ;  
 8 and  $w_j$  is the weighting factor at point  $j$ .

9 To this regard, the weighting distribution ranges linearly from 0 for the furthest point to 1  
 10 for the closest point. This calculation was carried out for time intervals ( $j$ ) of 0.1 s (Figure 2).

11

### 12 **Consistency parameters**

#### 13 *Global consistency model*

14 The global consistency parameter proposed by Llopis-Castelló et al. (2018c) is calculated from the  
 15 difference between the inertial operating speed profile and the operating speed profile (Figure 3).

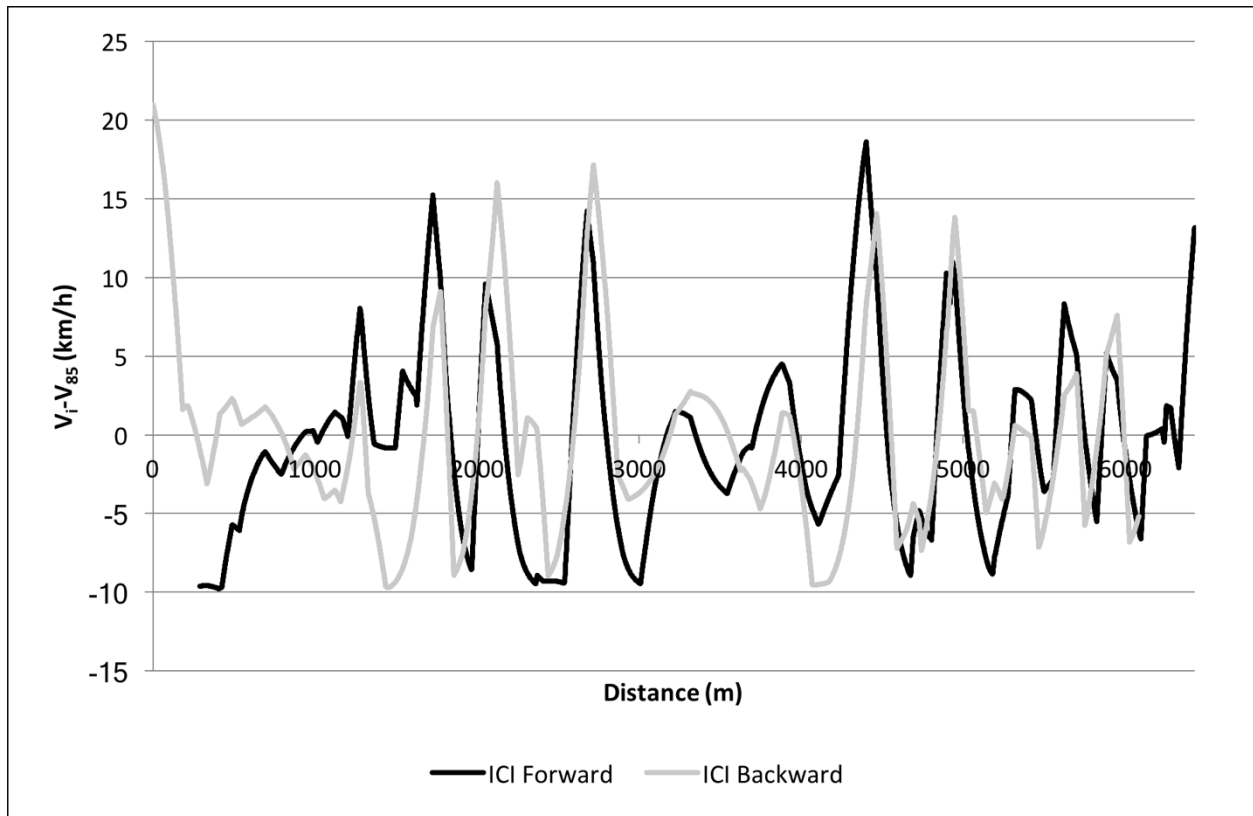
16 This parameter is defined as follows:

$$17 \quad C = \sqrt{\frac{A(+)\cdot\sigma(+)}{L(+)}} [km/h] \quad (2)$$

18 where  $C$  is the consistency parameter (km/h);  $A(+)$  is the area bounded by the difference between  
 19  $V_i$  and  $V_{85}$  and the  $x$  axis considering only the positive differences ( $m \cdot km/h$ );  $L(+)$  is the length of  
 20 the homogeneous road segment considering only the positive differences (m); and  $\sigma(+)$  is the  
 21 standard deviation of the difference between  $V_i$  and  $V_{85}$  considering only the positive differences  
 22 (km/h). Only positive differences were included to focus on locations where the inertial operating  
 23 speed ( $V_i$ ) exceeds the operating speed ( $V_{85}$ ).

24 The consistency of a homogeneous road segment is estimated as the average of the  
 25 consistency parameters calculated for the forward and backward direction.

26



1  
2 **FIGURE 3 Difference between inertial operating speed profile and operating speed profile**

3  
4 *Local consistency model*

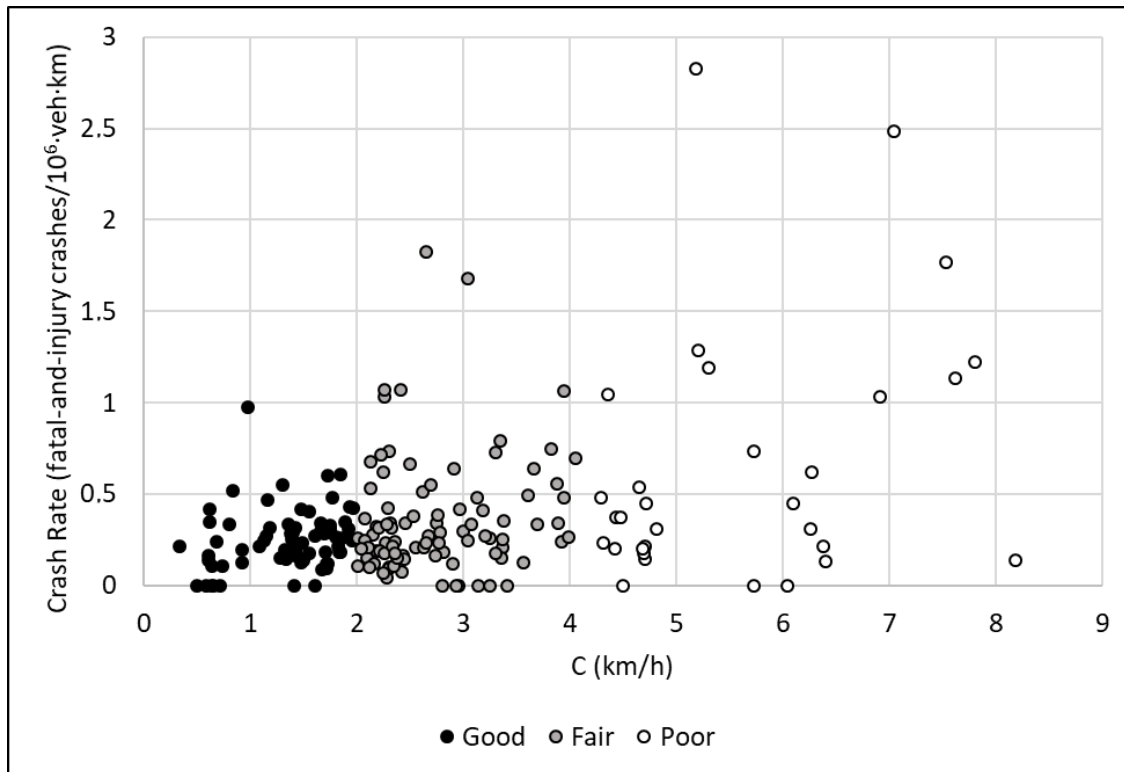
5 The local consistency parameter, called Inertial Consistency Index (ICI), is directly calculated by  
6 the difference between the inertial operating speed ( $V_i$ ) and the operating speed ( $V_{85}$ ) at the  
7 beginning point of the curve (Llopis-Castelló et al., 2018d). Specifically, a total of 977 horizontal  
8 curves were considered in this research to validate the local consistency model.

9  
10 **RESULTS**

11 **Global consistency model**

12 First, the relationship between consistency and crash rate was analyzed. Figure 4 shows that as the  
13 consistency parameter increases, the crash rate increases. These results are consistent with the  
14 phenomenon studied, since the higher the difference between drivers' expectancies and road  
15 behavior, the higher the likelihood of crash occurrence.

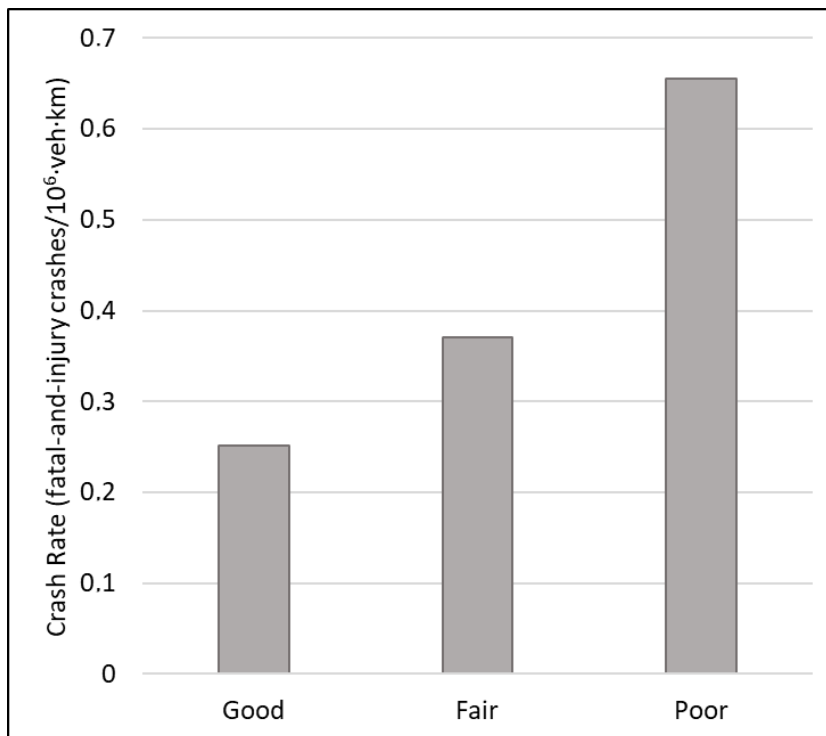
16 Then, different consistency thresholds were defined by means of a cluster analysis.  
17 Regarding this, the studied road segments were classified into three groups considering the values  
18 of the consistency parameters through a k-means clustering, which used the squared Euclidean  
19 distance as a measure of cluster scatter. As a result, a homogenous road segment presents a good  
20 consistency level when the consistency parameter ( $C$ ) is lower than 2 km/h, a poor consistency  
21 level when  $C$  is higher than 4.25 km/h, and a fair consistency level in all other cases (Figure 4).



1  
2 **FIGURE 4 Global consistency model Vs. Crash rates**

3  
4 Additionally, the average crash rate for each consistency level was calculated and  
5 statistically significant differences at a 95% confidence level between these consistency levels  
6 were identified through a hypothesis test (Figure 5).

7



8  
9 **FIGURE 5 Average crash rate Vs. Consistency level. Global consistency model.**

1  
2 Finally, a Safety Performance Function (SPF) was calibrated to estimate the number of  
3 crashes on an entire homogeneous road segment. Following common practice, generalized linear  
4 modelling techniques were used to fit a SPF that relates exposure and consistency to the number  
5 of crashes (Equation 3). A negative binomial distribution was assumed, since it is an appropriate  
6 solution with over dispersed, count data (Lord et al., 2010).

$$7 \quad Y_{i,5} = e^{\beta_0} \cdot L^{\beta_1} \cdot AADT^{\beta_2} \cdot e^{\beta_3 \cdot C} \quad (3)$$

8 where  $Y_{i,5}$  is the number of fatal-and-injury crashes on the homogeneous road segment in 5 years;  
9  $\beta_i$  are regression coefficients;  $L$  is the length of the homogeneous road segment (km);  $AADT$  is the  
10 Average Annual Daily Traffic (vpd); and  $C$  is the consistency parameter (km/h).

11 However, it is well known that crashes are highly affected by risk exposure. Indeed, several  
12 previous researchers have developed safety performance functions that only depend on risk  
13 exposure (Harwood et al., 2000; Cafiso et al. 2010). The SPF which does not consider the  
14 consistency presents the following functional form:

$$15 \quad Y_{i,5} = e^{\beta_0} \cdot L^{\beta_1} \cdot AADT^{\beta_2} \quad (4)$$

16 This model is not of major interest, but is useful to determine how important the inclusion  
17 of the consistency term is for crash estimation.

18 The results of these adjustments are summarized in Table 3. As expected, all parameters  
19 are statistically significant. The regression coefficients related to  $L$  and  $AADT$  are lower than 1, so  
20 longer homogeneous road segments and higher traffic volumes induce lower crash rates. In  
21 addition, the SPF which jointly considers risk exposure and consistency resulted in better indexes  
22 of goodness of fit than the single-exposure SPF. To this regard, the lower the value of these indexes  
23 ( $AIC$ ,  $RMSE$ , and  $MAE$ ), the better the model.

24 Although  $RMSE$  and  $MAE$  do not take into account the number of explanatory variables in  
25 their calculation, the Akaike Information Criterion ( $AIC$ ) includes a penalty for the models  
26 including more variables, thus discouraging overfitting.

27  
28 **TABLE 3 Statistical adjustment of SPFs. Global consistency model.**

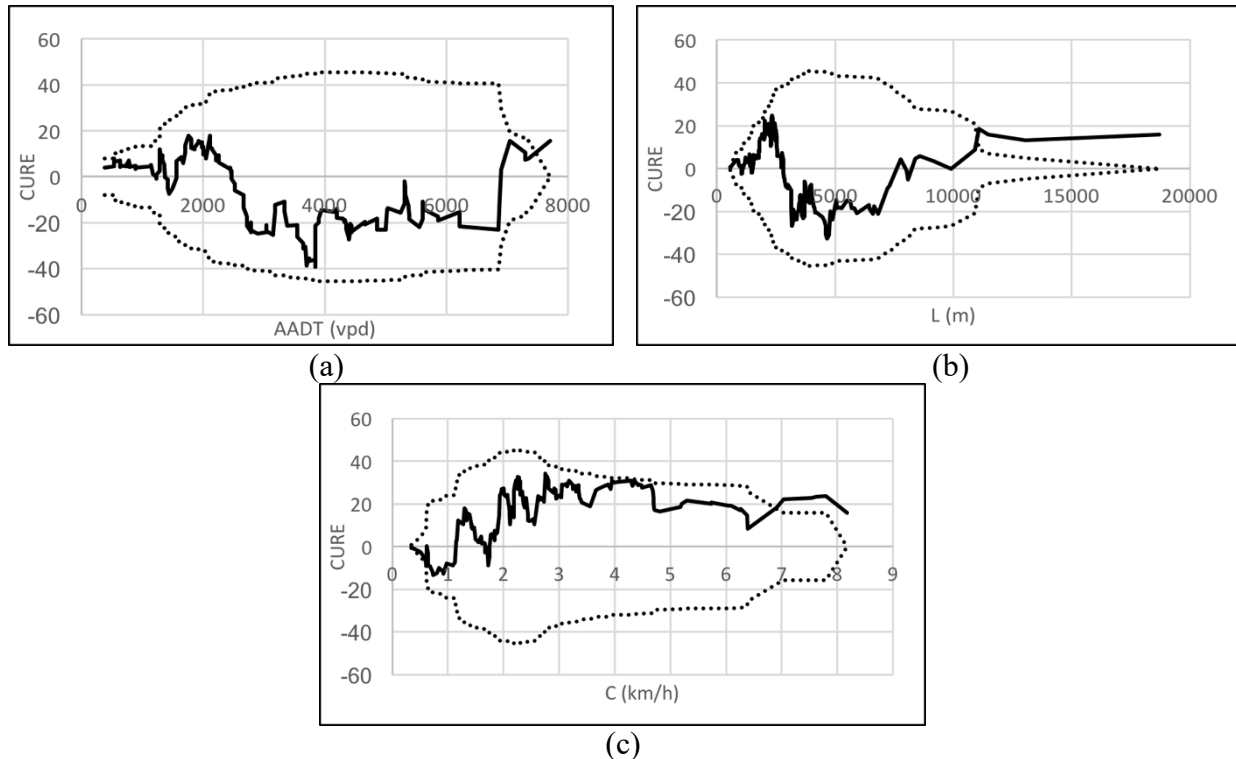
	$\beta_0$	$\beta_1$	$\beta_2$	$\beta_3$	$AIC$	$\alpha$	$RMSE$	$MAE$
	-	$\ln L$	$\ln AADT$	$C$				
Estimate	-5.46301	0.84067	0.73116	0.03055	899.98	0.1258	3.26	2.31
Pr(> z )	< 2·10 <sup>-16</sup>	< 2·10 <sup>-16</sup>	< 2·10 <sup>-16</sup>	0.000395				
Estimate	-4.62152	0.77120	0.67107		909.61	0.1420	3.34	2.35
Pr(> z )	< 5.8·10 <sup>-16</sup>	< 2·10 <sup>-16</sup>	< 2·10 <sup>-16</sup>					

$AIC$ =Akaike Information Criterion;  $RMSE$ =Root Mean Squared Error;  $MAE$ =Mean Absolute Error;  $\alpha$ =overdispersion parameter.

29  
30 The quality of fit was also studied from the Cumulative Residuals (CURE) Plots (Hauer  
31 and Bamfo, 1997; Lord and Persaud, 2000). This method consists of plotting the cumulative  
32 residuals for each independent variable. The aim is to graphically observe how well the function  
33 fits the data set. The CURE method has the advantage of not being dependent on the number of  
34 observations, as are many other traditional statistical procedures. In general, a good cumulative  
35 residuals plot is one that oscillates around 0. Thus, a good fit is given when the residuals do not  
36 stray beyond the  $\pm 2\sigma^*$  boundaries.

37 It can be observed that the plots against each explanatory variable do not stray beyond the  
38  $\pm 2\sigma^*$  boundaries, apart from a few points when  $L$  or  $C$  are high (Figure 6). It is mainly due to the  
39 limited available data for long lengths and road segments with very poor consistency. In these  
40 situations, the proposed model tends to underestimate the number of crashes. So, it is

1 recommended to use the proposed SPF for homogeneous road segments which present a length  
 2 shorter than 12 km. Despite this, the new SPF is a useful tool to estimate the number of crashes on  
 3 American two-lane rural roads.  
 4



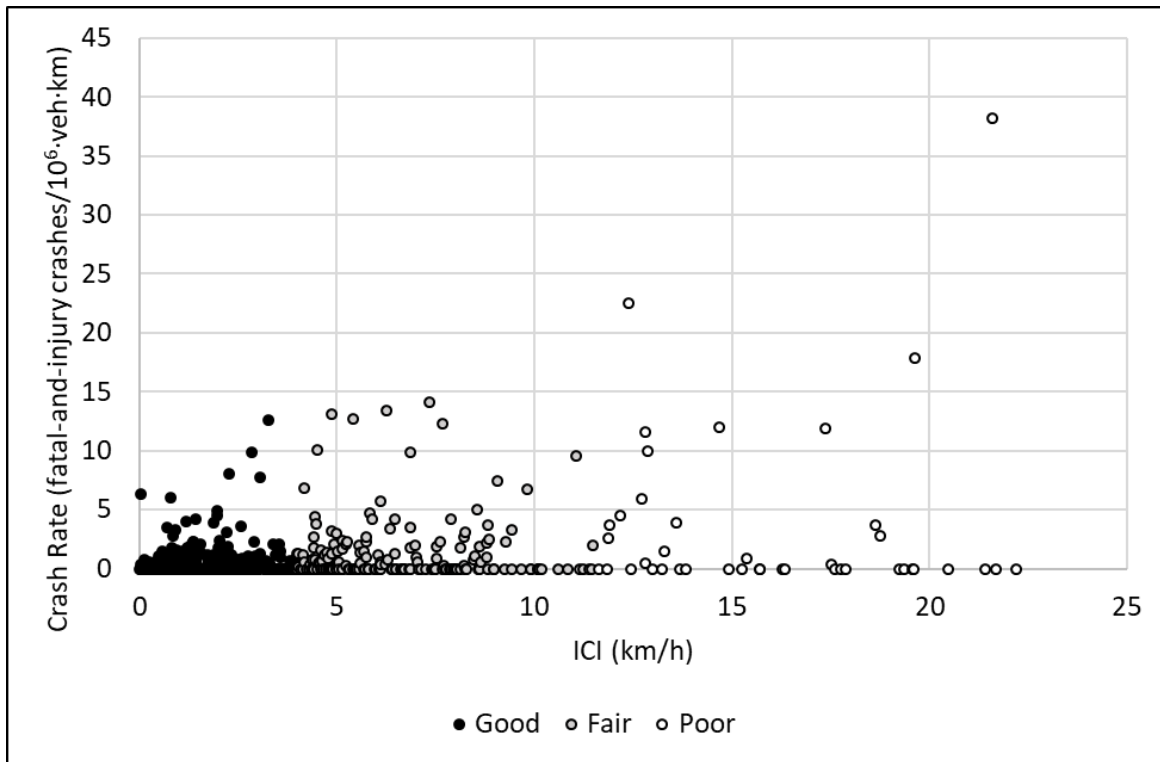
5 **FIGURE 6 CURE plots: (a) AADT; (b) Length; (c) Consistency. Global consistency model.**

6  
 7 **Local consistency model**

8 The same procedure has been followed to analyze the local inertial consistency model. Figure 7  
 9 shows the relationship between the Inertial Consistency Index (ICI) and the crash rates considering  
 10 all horizontal curves included in the studied homogeneous road segments. As expected, most of  
 11 curves did not have reported crashes ( $\approx 70\%$ ). However, a clear trend was observed: the higher the  
 12 ICI, the higher the crash rate.

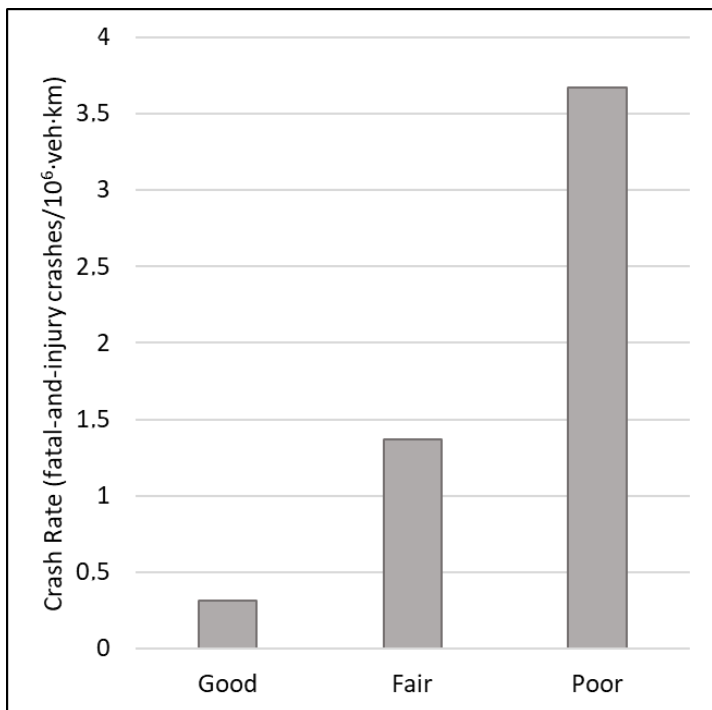
13 Different consistency thresholds were defined by means of a cluster analysis. In this case,  
 14 a horizontal curve has a good consistency level when the ICI is lower than 4 km/h, a poor  
 15 consistency level when the ICI is higher than 11.5 km/h, and a fair consistency level in all other  
 16 cases. Additionally, the percentage of horizontal curves without crashes was lower as the  
 17 consistency level worsened. Specifically, 72% of horizontal curves with good consistency level  
 18 did not have reported crashes during the study period, whereas this percentage was approximately  
 19 55% when the consistency level was poor. Therefore, the lower the consistency level, the higher  
 20 the likelihood of crash occurrence.

21  
 22



1  
2 **FIGURE 7 Local consistency model Vs. Crash rates**  
3

4 The average crash rate for each consistency level was also analyzed (Figure 8). To this  
5 regard, statistically significant differences between the consistency levels were identified at a 95%  
6 confidence level. Thus, this consistency model allows a determination of where crashes are more  
7 likely to occur.  
8



9  
10 **FIGURE 8 Average crash rate Vs. Consistency level. Local consistency model.**

1  
2 Finally, two Safety Performance Functions were developed. One of them considered only  
3 the exposure (Equation 4), whereas the other one also included the consistency (Equation 3). The  
4 main objective of this calibration is not the estimation of the number of crashes on horizontal  
5 curves, but to determine whether the consistency influences road crash occurrence or not.

6 A Negative Binomial-Generalized Exponential distribution was assumed, since it is an  
7 appropriate solution with over-dispersed crash data which are characterized by a large number of  
8 zeros (Vangala et al., 2015).

9 Table 4 shows a summary of the calibration of these SPFs. The Deviance Information  
10 Criterion (*DIC*) indicates the goodness of fit. To this regard, the lower the *DIC*, the better the  
11 model. Thus, the consistency is an important factor influencing crash occurrence, since the *DIC*  
12 value associated with the SPF, which jointly considered exposure and consistency, was  
13 significantly lower than that related to the single-exposure SPF.

14  
15 **TABLE 4 Statistical adjustment of SPFs. Local consistency model.**

	$\beta_0$ -	$\beta_1$ $\ln L$	$\beta_2$ $\ln AADT$	$\beta_3$ <i>ICI</i>	<i>DIC</i>
Estimate	-6.8065	0.3976	0.778	0.1219	1650
Estimate	-5.6941	0.283	0.6747		1718

16  
17 **DISCUSSION**

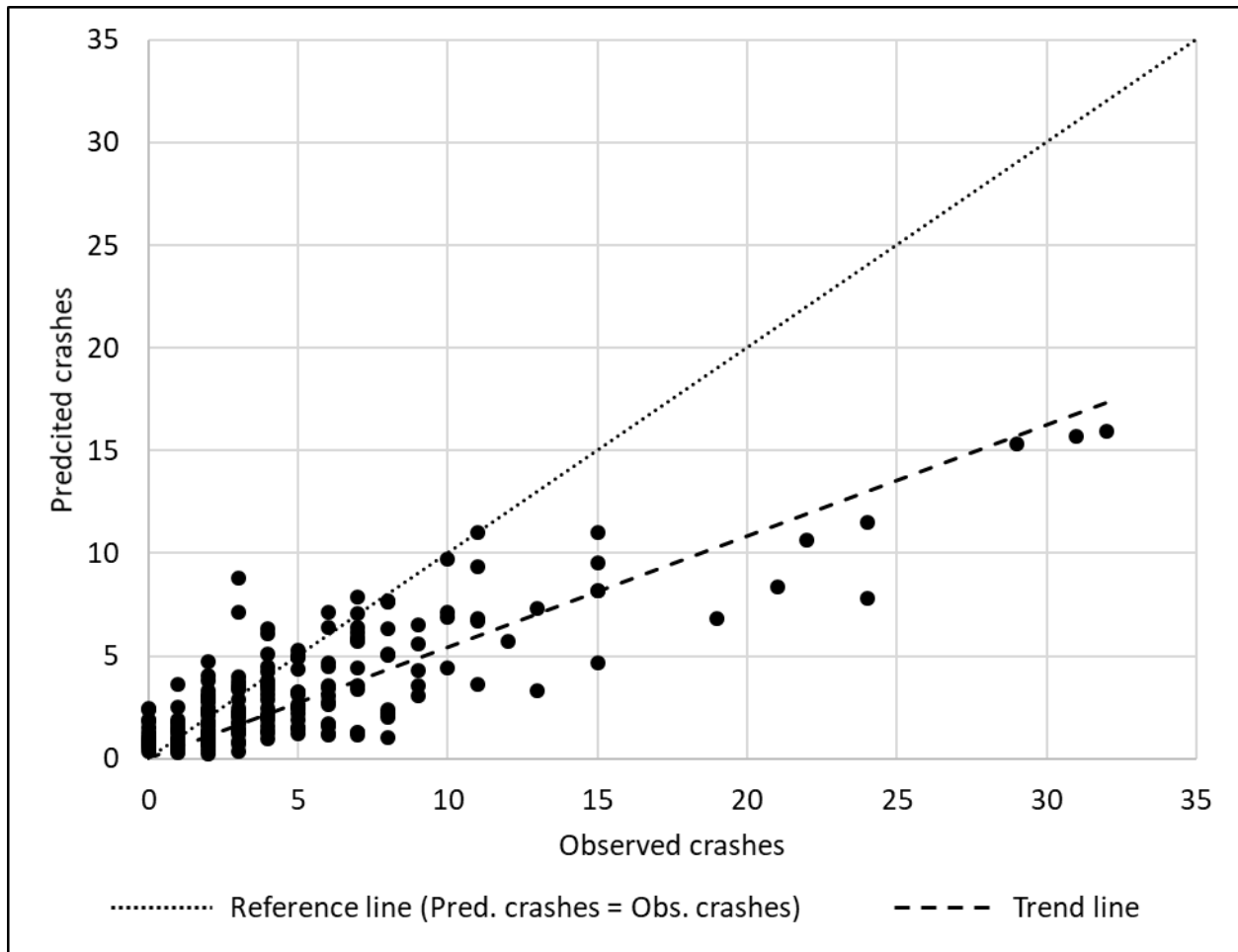
18 The inertial consistency models developed by Llopis-Castelló et al. (2018c and 2018d) have been  
19 validated for their application on American two-lane rural roads. A SPF was calibrated to estimate  
20 the number of crashes on an entire homogeneous road segment and consistency thresholds were  
21 defined for both global and local models to identify which road elements might have greater road  
22 safety problems.

23 To compare the results obtained in this research with those obtained in Spanish two-lane  
24 rural roads, the Spanish SPF (Table 1) was applied directly to American two-lane rural roads. Then,  
25 the observed crashes were compared with the predicted ones (Figure 9). As a result, this SPF  
26 underestimates the number of crashes on American highways. This means that American highways  
27 report more collisions than Spanish highways under the same risk exposure and consistency  
28 conditions.

29 Although the estimate for the consistency parameter *C* (0.03055) in the American SPF  
30 (Table 3) is lower than that estimate (0.14774) in the Spanish SPF (Table 1), this does not  
31 necessarily mean that consistency has a lower influence on American road users. This phenomenon  
32 and the influence of risk exposure (*AADT* and *L*) on crash occurrence need further research,  
33 considering the type of homogeneous road segment. Regarding this, homogeneous road segments  
34 can be divided into two categories: constrained and free (Camacho-Torregrosa, 2015). Constrained  
35 road segments are those that begin – or end – in an urban zone or major intersection. Otherwise,  
36 the road segment is free.

37





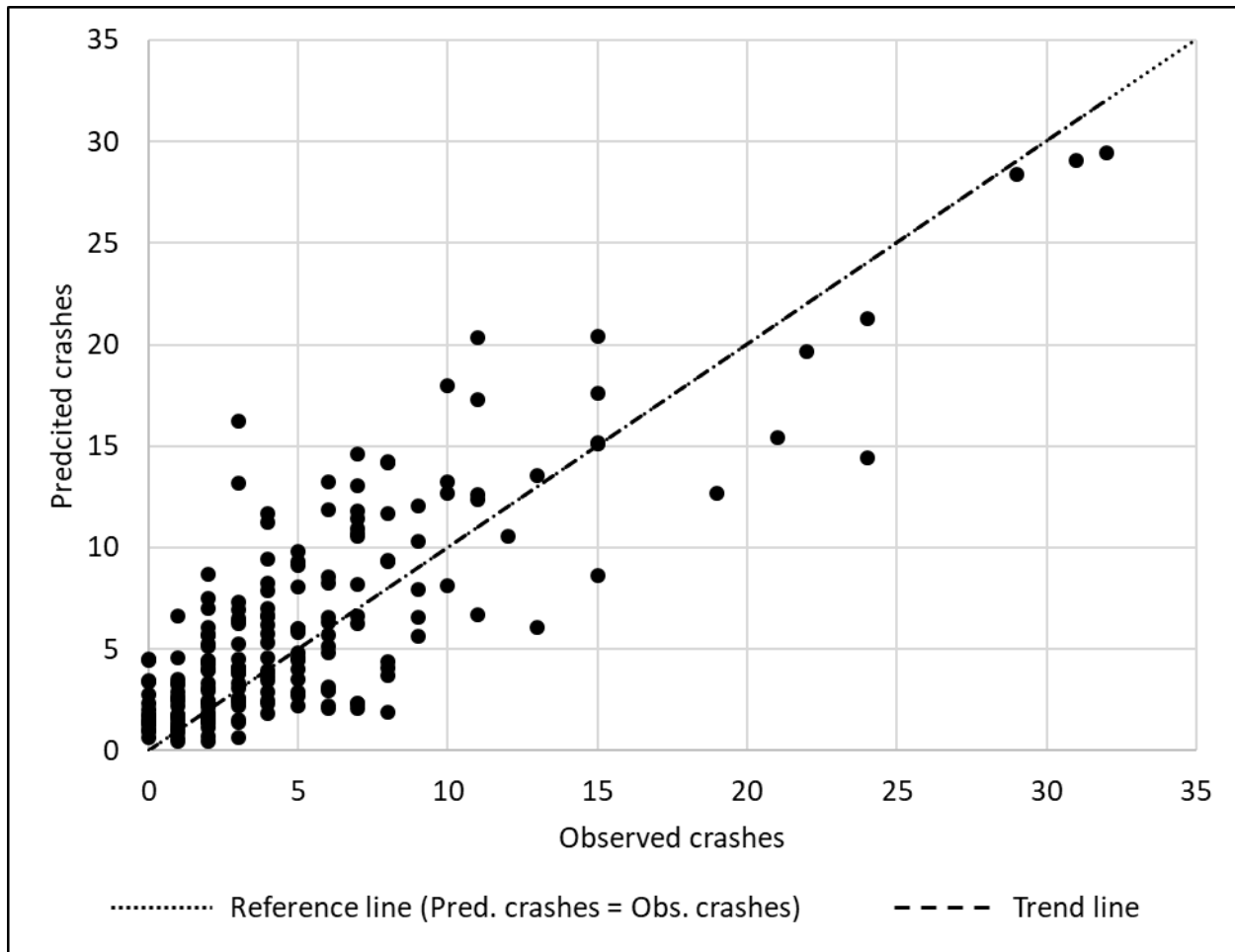
1  
2 **FIGURE 9 Observed crashes Vs. Predicted crashes (SPF<sub>SPAIN</sub>).**  
3

4 Then, the following equation to calculate the number of crashes on American highways  
5 was used:

$$6 \quad Y_{US} = \alpha \cdot Y_{SPAIN} \quad (6)$$

7 where  $Y_{US}$  is the number of crashes on American highways;  $\alpha$  is the correction factor; and  $Y_{SPAIN}$   
8 is the number of crashes estimated with the SPF<sub>SPAIN</sub> (Table 1).

9 Figure 10 shows the results obtained considering a correction factor ( $\alpha$ ) equal to 1.85. In  
10 this case, the predicted crashes were much more similar to the observed ones ( $RMSE=3.38$ ;  
11  $MAE=2.53$ ). As a conclusion, the crash rate on a specific American highway is 1.85 times greater  
12 than those obtained on a Spanish highway with the same risk exposure and consistency, which is  
13 consistent with the research developed by de Oña et al. (2013). This reveals that a consistency  
14 model developed in a specific country/region should be validated and calibrated for its use in  
15 another country/region.  
16



1  
2 **FIGURE 10 Observed crashes Vs. Predicted crashes ( $Y_{US} = \alpha \cdot Y_{SPAIN}$ ).**  
3

4 This methodology might be applied in other states or countries to estimate the number of  
5 crashes on two-lane rural roads, since the inertial consistency models have shown reliable  
6 performance in Spain (Llopis-Castelló et al., 2018c and 2018d), Italy (Llopis-Castelló et al. 2018a  
7 and 2018b), and North Carolina (US).

8 The main difference between this method and the predictive method proposed by the  
9 Highway Safety Manual (HSM) is that the method proposed in this study allows an engineer to  
10 estimate the number of crashes on an entire road segment considering drivers' expectancies,  
11 whereas the HSM predictive method aims to estimate the number of crashes on a particular road  
12 element. To this regard, none of the Crash Modification Factors (CMF) are based on the preceding  
13 section, which influences drivers' behavior. Therefore, the predicted crashes on a certain horizontal  
14 curve will be similar in different road segments where drivers' behavior might be vastly different.

15 Additionally, the regression coefficients related to the traffic volume ( $AADT$ ) and the length  
16 of the road element ( $L$ ) used by the SPF proposed by the HSM are equal to one. This means that  
17 doubling the  $AADT$  or  $L$  would double the crash rate. However, many authors have studied this  
18 phenomenon and concluded that the influence of  $AADT$  and  $L$  on crash rates is not directly  
19 proportional (Lamm et al., 1999; Himes et al., 2010; Camacho-Torregrosa, 2015; Garach et al.,  
20 2016; Imprialou et al., 2016). To this regard, regression coefficients lower than 1 were obtained in  
21 this study. Therefore, longer homogeneous road segments and larger traffic volumes lead to lower  
22 crash rates, which would be expected, as drivers become familiar with the road features and traffic

1 volume.

2 Thus, the SPF calibrated in this research should be used for the assessment of road safety  
3 rather than the predictive method proposed by the HSM.

## 4 **CONCLUSIONS**

5 The primary objective of this research effort was the validation of the inertial consistency models  
6 developed by Llopis-Castelló et al. (2018c and 2018d) on two-lane rural roads located in the United  
7 States.

8  
9 For this, a total of 194 homogeneous road segments and 977 horizontal curves located in  
10 North Carolina (US) were considered. The operating speed profile and the inertial speed profile  
11 were estimated for each homogeneous road segment to estimate the inertial consistency  
12 parameters.

13 This study found that larger global and local parameters lead to higher crash rates. This  
14 means that the likelihood of crash occurrence increases as drivers' expectancies are not achieved.  
15 Likewise, the greater the consistency level, the greater the percentage of horizontal curves without  
16 reported crashes. These results were consistent with those obtained previously on Spanish two-  
17 lane rural roads.

18 In addition, geometric design consistency was identified as an important factor for crash  
19 occurrence. Thus, a SPF was calibrated to estimate the number of crashes on American two-lane  
20 rural roads and thresholds were defined for both consistency models to identify where these road  
21 crashes are more likely to occur.

22 Finally, the relationship between the observed and predicted crashes were studied. The SPF  
23 calibrated with Spanish data underestimates the predicted crashes in North Carolina. However,  
24 interesting results were obtained by applying a correction factor to this SPF. The crash rate on a  
25 particular American highway is 1.85 times greater than that one observed on a Spanish highway  
26 under the same exposure and consistency conditions. This methodology allows an easy application  
27 of these inertial consistency models to other states or countries to estimate the number of crashes  
28 on two-lane rural roads.

29 In this way, highway engineers have more accurate tools, which are much easier to apply  
30 than most previous models and incorporate the interaction between drivers' expectancies and road  
31 behavior, to enhance the assessment of road safety to the geometric design of both new American  
32 two-lane rural roads and improvements of existing highways.

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