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Additional Information

Modelling vehicles acceleration during overtaking manoeuvres

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24 **Abstract**

25 Overtaking manoeuvre is a key issue for two-lane rural roads. These roads should provide suffi-
26 cient overtaking sight distance at certain locations to allow faster vehicles to pass slower ones.
27 However, overtaking requires occupying the opposing lane, which represents a serious safety
28 concern. Severity of overtaking related crashes is very high, compared to other manoeuvres. The
29 development of Advanced Driver Assistance Systems (ADAS) for overtaking is being a complex
30 task. Only few systems have been developed, but are not still in use. This research incorporated
31 accurate data of real manoeuvres to improve the knowledge of the phenomenon. The trajectory
32 of the overtaking vehicles on the left lane was observed. An instrumented vehicle measured the
33 overtaking time and distance, the abreast position, and the initial and final speed of 180 drivers
34 that passed it during a field experiment. Six different kinematic models (such as uniform acceler-
35 ation or linear variation of acceleration) were calibrated. Generally, drivers started to accelerate
36 before changing to the opposing lane. These models may be applied to ADAS, to estimate over-
37 taking sight distance and to improve microsimulation models.

38 1. Introduction and background

39 On two-lane rural roads, vehicles travelling at slower speeds cause delays to faster vehicles.
40 Overtaking manoeuvres allow faster drivers to travel at their own desired speed, hence minimizing
41 these delays. However, any overtaking manoeuvre requires to occupy the opposing lane to pass
42 a slower vehicle. Therefore, the risk of collision with the opposing traffic affects both operation
43 and safety.

44 The severity of accidents related to overtaking manoeuvres is usually higher than in other ma-
45 noeuvres [1]. To complete an overtaking manoeuvre, the overtaking vehicle must increase its
46 speed in order to pass a slower vehicle and return to the right lane. At the same time, an opposing
47 vehicle could be approaching at a relatively high speed. The potential collision risk during the time
48 the left lane is occupied makes driving behaviour different from other conditions, such as free-
49 flow or following situations. To ensure road safety, overtaking is only allowed in the zones where
50 available sight distance is higher than the required Overtaking Sight Distance (OSD). OSD is
51 defined as the distance required to complete an overtaking manoeuvre when an opposing vehicle
52 is approaching. OSD has been traditionally estimated using different overtaking manoeuvre mod-
53 els. The assumptions of those models, especially in relation to the overtaking vehicle acceleration
54 and its variation, vary significantly and are not verified with field data. The knowledge of the values
55 of the acceleration of the overtaking vehicle, as well as they possible variation during the ma-
56 noeuvre, is one of the key issues in determining OSD.

57 Drivers make overtaking decisions according to their own behaviour and experience, as well as
58 to road and traffic perception. According to Gray et al. [2], decisions during overtaking are based
59 on drivers' perception of distance and time to collision with the oncoming traffic. They conclude
60 that drivers tend to make more errors when their decisions are based only on the distance, after
61 a driving simulator experiment with only 18 drivers. However, the estimation of the speed of op-
62 posing vehicles is extremely difficult, because of the very low rate of expansion of objects located
63 so far from the observer. Additionally, Basilio et al. [3] and Morice et al. [4] proposed an overtaking
64 decision model based on the overtaking ability affordance, defined as the quotient between the
65 minimum speed required to overtake and the maximum speed of the vehicle at that time, depend-
66 ing on the vehicle performance. After a driving simulator experiment with only 16 drivers, they
67 evidenced that drivers accurately perceived whether a lead vehicle can be safely overtaken, since
68 overtaking attempt decreased with the real possibility to overtake. Alternatively, Farah et al. [5]
69 modelled risk during overtaking maneuvers, by predicting Time To Collision (TTC) based on a
70 driving simulator experiment with up to 100 drivers.

71 Driving simulator experiments confirmed the fact that overtaking manoeuvre is one of the most
72 difficult ones. The use of driving simulator might limit the validity of findings, as risk taken by
73 drivers depends on their immersion in the virtual world during the experiment, and the detection
74 of opposing vehicles which at long distances is complicated, due to the limited resolution of
75 screens. Besides, driving simulator usually only accounts for a very limited (or null) variability of
76 acceleration capabilities of vehicles, because only one type [3] or two types [4] of vehicle are
77 implemented. Consequently, a field study is solely able to study drivers' behaviour across a wide
78 range of vehicles in real conditions.

79

80 1.1. Overtaking models

81 In some cases, speed of overtaking vehicle was assumed to be uniform during the left lane occu-
82 pation time [6], although an acceleration stage was identified before occupying the left lane. This
83 uniform speed model proposed an average acceleration rate of 0.62 m/s². Other models have
84 used more complex kinematic equations, in order to describe overtaking vehicle trajectories [7]–
85 [10]. Those usually suggested the existence of a critical point. After the critical point, it is safer to

86 complete the overtaking manoeuvre rather than to abort it, because the time and distance re-
87 quirements for this are lower. According to these models, the overtaking vehicle accelerates at a
88 constant rate until the critical position and after that position; speed is constant and equal to the
89 design speed. Alternative formulations were: uniform acceleration models [11] uniform accelera-
90 tion until a target speed [12], or models based on a variable acceleration that decreased linearly
91 as speed increased [13].

92 On the other hand, some authors accounted uncertainty in the overtaking process using reliability
93 analysis or simulation techniques. These statistical tools could account the variability of input
94 parameters and provide a probabilistic formulation for overtaking sight distance. Sparks et al. [14]
95 used Glennon's and Liebermann's models incorporating statistical distributions of input parame-
96 ters. Hanley and Forkenbrok [15] performed a simulation with previous OSD models, incorporat-
97 ing random distributions of input parameters, too. El Khoury and Hoberika [16] proposed a Monte
98 Carlo simulation to evaluate risk level of OSD Glennon's model. The statistical distributions of
99 acceleration rates were obtained from previous research works, although they were not related
100 to overtaking manoeuvre studies. El Bassiouni and Sayed [17] developed a reliability analysis to
101 compare AASHTO OSD model [6] with driving simulator data. However, the assumptions of that
102 model remained unverified.

103 Other studies have used data of driving simulator experiments to analyse the acceleration of
104 overtaking vehicles. Jenkins and Rilett [18] characterized the distribution of time spent accelerat-
105 ing for a sample of 96 manoeuvres. It was observed that on average the acceleration time was
106 13.3 s, being the average overtaking time up to 20,0 s, clearly double as most of field data, ac-
107 cording to the authors. Besides, the acceleration capabilities of the simulated vehicles were uni-
108 form for all drivers. Rakha et al. [19] collected data of acceleration rates of different passenger
109 cars performing an experiment under controlled conditions. The relationships between accelera-
110 tion rates and speed were determined. The experiment was based on an acceleration movement
111 starting at 0 km/h. Therefore, this results cannot be directly applied to overtaking manoeuvres,
112 since acceleration rates can be different depending on the speed the manoeuvre starts and on
113 driver reaction to a potential risky situation.

114 Some field studies [20], [21] recorded overtaking manoeuvres in order to calibrate the 2001
115 AASTHO model parameters using experimental data. However, they frequently did not verify as-
116 sumptions of those models either (such as the fact that acceleration was uniform until reaching
117 the design speed). Others authors [22], [23] have used instrumented vehicles to analyse the over-
118 taking process on two-lane rural roads. Carlson et al. [22] described the evolution of overtaking
119 vehicle speed, showing an initial acceleration stage followed by a second stage (after the abreast
120 position) where acceleration was lower. However, Carlson et al. did not try to calibrate any accel-
121 eration model, and the distances to the overtaking vehicle were obtained from video data. Be-
122 sides, they did not measure instant speed values at the start and the beginning of the manoeuvre.

123 1.2. Assistance systems

124 A further step after the prediction of the required OSD is the development of Advanced Driver
125 Assistance Systems (ADAS). The benefits for ADAS may improve drivers' judgement errors, but
126 they are not as common in overtaking as in other manoeuvres, such as lane changing or car-
127 following. In fact, there are only few prototypes without real implementation.

128 As expressed by Morice et al. [4], ADAS for overtaking should be calibrated to be effective. It
129 means that they should be coherent with drivers' behaviour. Therefore, individuals would agree
130 with the system.

131 The effectiveness of ADAS has been already tested using microsimulation model RuTSim [24].
132 Those authors analysed safety benefits of an assistance system to warn drivers that were accept-
133 ing an opposing gap too small. Either the effect on road safety (measured by the Time to Collision
134 – TTC - with the opposing vehicle) or the effect on traffic operation (Average Travel Speed – ATS
135 - and delay) were limited. In absence of accurate data of overtaking manoeuvres, the authors

136 used several thresholds for TTC (equal to left lane occupation time plus a safety margin) ranging
137 from 8 to 14 s. One of the main shortcomings of the proposed system is that the overtaking
138 threshold were pre-programmed and do not depend on the current conditions.

139 A different study conducted by Milanés et al. focused on the experimental simulation of assistance
140 systems under controlled conditions [25]. The system depended on stereo vision to detect the
141 preceding vehicle and to activate the automated overtaking system. Longitudinal and lateral con-
142 trollers were tested in an experiment where the impeding vehicle was travelling at very low speed.
143 The presence of opposing traffic was not considered.

144 Isermann et al. [26] proposed an assistance system to warn driver of dangerous overtaking ma-
145 noeuvres, because of the presence of opposing vehicles. The system would detect opposing
146 vehicles when an overtaking manoeuvre has been initiated. Dangerous situations would result in
147 a warning signal (to encourage the driver to abort) or even in an emergency braking. Both over-
148 taking model and safety margins were not calibrated, though. Petrov and Nashashibi [27] devel-
149 oped a mathematical model and an adaptive controller for automated overtaking. The system was
150 tested using driving simulation, but it has not been compared with real data.

151 Lastly, Lowenau et al. [28] developed a overtaking assistance system based on the characteriza-
152 tion of the previous driving behaviour (speed, acceleration, etc.) and geographical information
153 provided by a GPS tracker. This system would encourage or discourage drivers to pass depend-
154 ing on the road and on their behaviour. However, this system does not provide information on the
155 opposing traffic presence.

156 As can be seen, most of the previous studies propose potential solutions to develop ADAS for
157 overtaking. Most of them were based only on numerical simulations [24], [26], or driving simulator
158 studies [27] and were not programmed after observing the real behaviour. Driving data in real
159 conditions is still needed to produce ADAS on the conditions that drivers may encounter in the
160 real world. Those systems that can avoid drivers' errors require determining the thresholds for
161 safe overtaking, in terms of distance travelled on the left lane and subsequently, acceleration
162 rates. In absence of an accurate estimation of this variable, it is not possible to take into account
163 the real risk of collision with opposing traffic.

164 1.3. Research motivation

165 The effects of overtaking manoeuvre on road safety and road operation motivate the improvement
166 of design and marking of two-lane rural roads and the development of ADAS. With this purpose,
167 the estimation of the duration and distance of occupation of the opposing lane is needed. The
168 knowledge of the acceleration rates of overtaking drivers is one of the most significant variables
169 that input it. The characterization of the distribution of that acceleration must depend on field data,
170 instead on driving simulation, because off the actual variability of vehicle capacities.

171 As previously commented, the calibration of ADAS that reproduces drivers' behaviour is the only
172 way to ensure they are effective. Drivers' should agree with the ADAS recommendations, so they
173 should represent how drivers perform safe manoeuvres without having such assistance systems.
174 Previous research did not provide sufficient level of detail, or was based on driving simulation
175 instead real data and, consequently, development of ADAS is still a challenge.

176 2. Objectives

177 The aim of this study was to calibrate overtaking acceleration models using field data collected
178 on two-lane rural roads, in order to provide a reliable estimation of the left lane occupation time
179 and of the evolution of the speed along it. This included:

- 180 • An improved data collection method to collect data of overtaking manoeuvres under nat-
181 uralistic conditions.

- 182 • Calibration of different kinematic models based on the assumptions from previous re-
183 search studies. In addition, proposal of new models so that some of those assumptions
184 would no longer be required.

185 3. Methodology

186 The proposed models were calibrated from observational data, collected with an instrumented
187 vehicle.

188 3.1. Field study

189 In this research work, the methodology, analysis and conclusions were based on experimental
190 data, which was collected using a recently developed methodology [29]–[31]. This method used
191 an instrumented vehicle acting as slow impeding vehicle, which was overtaken by other drivers
192 during the experiment. The vehicle collected the data of those drivers and the manoeuvres they
193 performed. Therefore, acceleration capabilities varied for each tested driver.

194 With respect of previous authors that used also instrumented vehicles [22], the proposed meth-
195 odology improved the measurement of the distance to the overtaking vehicle by using laser range-
196 finders. Besides, it allowed a more detailed information of the passing driver, including gender
197 and estimated age, although these data were not used in this paper.

198 3.1.1. Equipment

199 The instrumented vehicle travelled along five different two-lane rural road segments (of various
200 characteristics, as expressed below in Table 1) at a fixed, slightly reduced, speed with respect of
201 the operating speed of the road. If the desired speed of the other vehicles was higher, they fol-
202 lowed the instrumented vehicle and finally passed it when they found an available gap.

203 This vehicle was equipped with four Racelogic VBOX 720x576 pixels resolution digital video cam-
204 eras covering the whole trajectory of an overtaking vehicle (rear, left and front side – note that the
205 experiment was carried out under right hand driving). In addition to this, two LTI True Senses
206 S200 laser rangefinders measured the distance between the instrumented vehicle and every ve-
207 hicle located behind and in front of it, at a 12.5 Hz frequency. Since distance measurement was
208 continuous, instant speeds of those vehicles were also obtained. Rear laser rangefinder was
209 placed at the rear bumper. The front distance measurements were obtained with a laser gun
210 controlled by the co-driver. On the other hand, a Racelogic VBOX 10 Hz GPS tracker registered
211 the position and speed of the instrumented vehicle at any time.

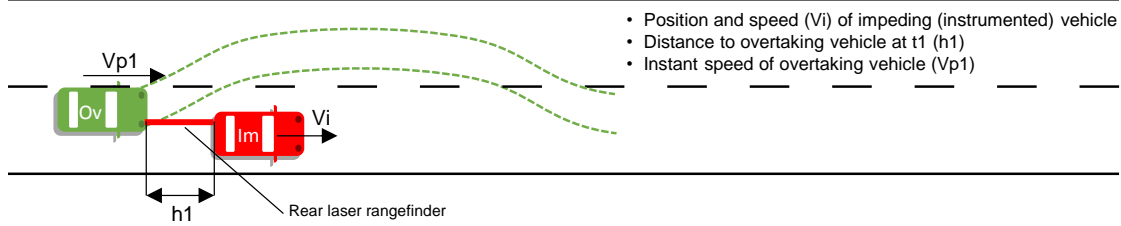
212 Equipment was adequately small that other drivers could not easily detected its presence. In ad-
213 dition to this, the vehicle drove at a uniform speed V_i , different for each segment (as shown in
214 Table 1). It was selected within normal impeding vehicle speed range, which was obtained from
215 external observations from a previous research study [29].

216 3.1.2. Overtaking manoeuvre variables

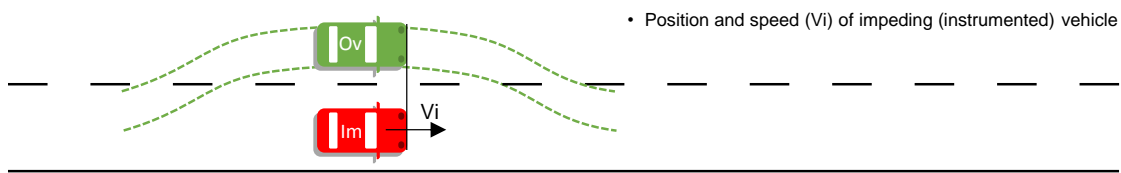
217 Although video recordings provided a continuous observation of the overtaking phenomenon, the
218 estimation of the overtaking vehicle trajectory was made from three point measurements, where
219 position of overtaking vehicle was measured accurately (see in detail in Figure 1):

- 220 • Time (t_1) at the starting time of overtaking manoeuvre (when overtaking vehicle left front
221 wheel crosses the centreline), headway between overtaking and instrumented vehicle
222 (h_1) and relative speed (dVp_1).
223 • Time (t_2) at the abreast location (when front bumper of both overtaking and impeding
224 vehicle are at the same point).
225 • Time (t_3) at the ending time of overtaking manoeuvre (when overtaking vehicle left rear
226 wheel crosses the centreline), headway between overtaking and instrumented vehicle
227 (h_3) and relative speed (dVp_3).

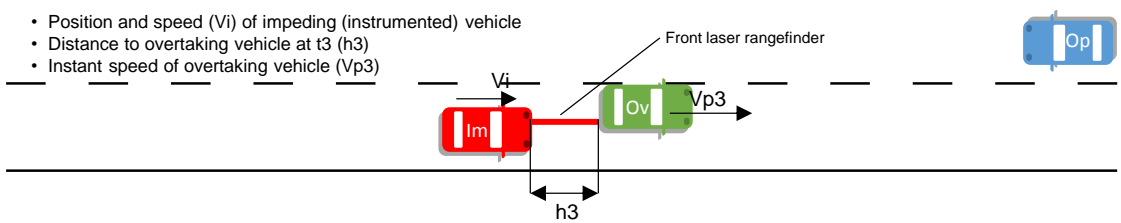
$t = t_1$: overtaking vehicle first encroaches left lane



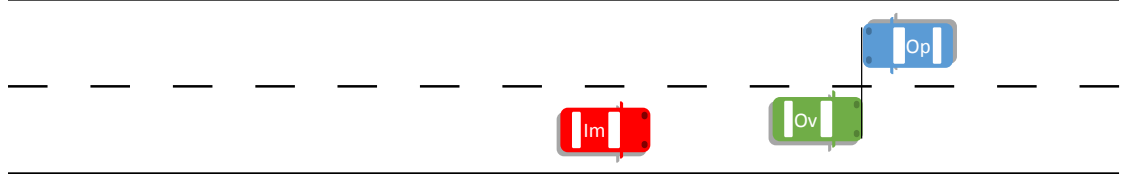
$t = t_2$: overtaking and impeding vehicle are abreast



$t = t_3$: overtaking vehicle returns to right lane

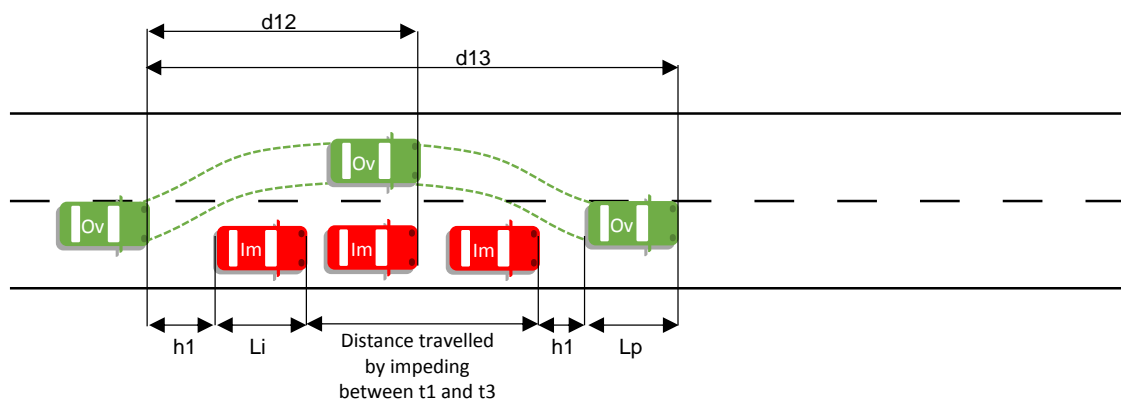


$t = t_4$: overtaking vehicle crosses with opposing vehicle



228

t_1 to t_3 : left lane occupation



229

230
231

Figure 1. Overtaking manoeuvre phases and variables (Ov: overtaking vehicle, Im: impeding vehicle/instrumented vehicle and Op: opposing vehicle)

232
233
234
235
236

The values of t_1 , t_2 and t_3 were identified by viewing video files of each manoeuvre. Distance between overtaking and impeding vehicle were obtained using the rear laser rangefinder and front laser gun, respectively. Distances travelled along the one-second intervals centred at t_1 and t_3 were considered for the relative speed calculation in order to reduce possible measurement errors.

237 In addition to this, GPS data provided the trajectory of the instrumented impeding vehicle at a 10
 238 Hz frequency. Speed of the impeding vehicle V_i was added to the relative speeds to obtain the
 239 absolute overtaking vehicle speeds. The distance travelled between t_1 and t_2 (interval t_{12}) was
 240 named d_{12} . The distance travelled from t_1 to t_3 (interval t_{13}) was named d_{13} .

241 Lastly, the time when overtaking and opposing vehicle crossed each other was called t_4 . The time
 242 interval t_{34} (equal to $t_4 - t_3$) measured the safety margin until the potential collision with the op-
 243 posing car (Time to Collision).

244 Additional data were also collected from video images and vehicle passenger annotations. The
 245 following variables were registered:

- 246 • Type of overtaking vehicle: car, truck.
- 247 • Starting mode: if the overtaking vehicle starts the manoeuvre after following the impeding
 248 at the same speed, the manoeuvre is accelerative, if the overtaking vehicles does not
 249 reduce the speed prior to overtake, the manoeuvre is flying.

250 Since all the data was obtained using this methodology, it was not possible to know the maximum
 251 speed and acceleration that can develop every overtaking vehicle. These data would depend on
 252 the power/weight ratio and was not available, due to the naturalistic characteristics of the experi-
 253 ment, which avoided any intervention during the observations.

254 3.1.3. Data collection

255 Using the described methodology, 265 overtaking manoeuvres were recorded on five two-lane
 256 rural road segments.

257 A total of 85 were discarded due to one or more of the following reasons:

- 258 • Overtaking vehicle was a truck (14 manoeuvres).
- 259 • More than one impeding vehicle was passed (40 multiple manoeuvres).
- 260 • In accelerative manoeuvres, either front, or rear or both laser distance measurements
 261 were missing or not valid (52 manoeuvres).

262 In consequence, model calibration was made using only manoeuvres involving one overtaking
 263 passenger car and one impeding vehicle (the instrumented vehicle); and with plausible laser
 264 measurements at t_1 and t_3 . The selected sample was 151 accelerative overtaking manoeuvres
 265 and 29 flying overtaking manoeuvres.

266 No aborted manoeuvres were registered during data collection. Therefore, only completed over-
 267 taking manoeuvres were modelled.

268 Table 1 summarizes characteristics of road segments and overtaking zones.

Road ID	Date	Design speed (km/h)	Number of manoeuvres	Impeding vehicle speed (V_i , in km/h)
N-225	06/02/2012	100	62	80
CV-415	13/09/2012	70	55	60
CV-415	08/11/2012	70	30	60
CV-50	08/11/2012	80	48	70
CV-405	20/11/2012	70	70	60

269 **Table 1. Selected road segments**

270 Table 2 shows recorded overtaking manoeuvre variables. First and second rows represent mean
 271 and standard deviation of each variable in columns, for accelerative passes. Third and fourth rows
 272 show the same for flying passes.

Starting mode		Variable									
		d_{12} (m)	d_{13} (m)	t_{12} (s)	t_{13} (s)	t_{34} (s)	h_1 (m)	V_{p1} (km/h)	h_3 (m)	V_{p3} (km/h)	V_i (km/h)
Accelerative (N = 115)	Mean	61.2	163.8	2.9	7.1	4.6	7.5	71.1	21.2	88.8	65.5
	SD	19.0	42.0	0.9	1.8	2.0	3.7	10.4	8.2	11.1	8.3
Flying (N = 29)	Mean	70.2	162.5	2.7	6.3	n/a	27.8	n/a	25.2	n/a	64.3
	SD	22.1	44.5	0.8	1.6	n/a	14.2	n/a	14.0	n/a	8.4

Table 2. Data summary

273

274 3.2. Models proposal

275 The aim of this study was the calibration of several overtaking vehicle acceleration models using
 276 experimental data. The field study in this research made possible the measurement of more var-
 277 iables than any other previous studies. In the past, only some authors have recorded the entire
 278 trajectory of a passing vehicle. Llorca and Garcia [29] carried out a field study based on external-
 279 static cameras transforming video images into complete trajectories. The results were limited as
 280 this method was very time-consuming. Alternative methods based on instrumented vehicles [22]
 281 acting as impeding vehicles did not collect as many data points as the present study, especially
 282 because they did not use laser rangefinders.

283 Even using the proposed method, there is still a lack of information between the times t_1 and t_2 ,
 284 and t_2 and t_3 . This justifies the procedure of fitting different models and compare the calibration
 285 errors among them, as will be explained later. Table 3 shows a list of models, starting with the
 286 simplest one (uniform overtaking vehicle speed) and following with more complex approaches.
 287 Most of recent existing OSD models in the literature have been included in Table 3. This include
 288 new model proposals, too.

289

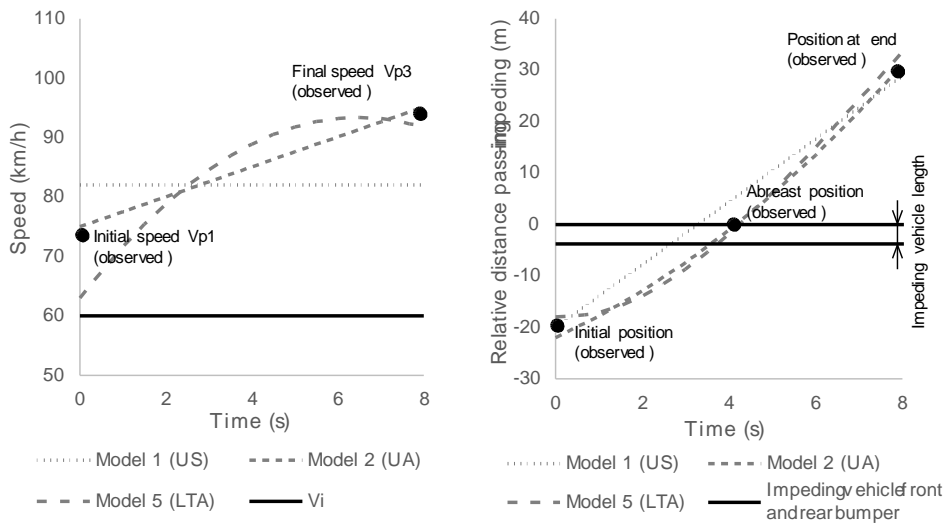
290

Achronym	Model (references)	Equations	Parameters
US	1 Uniform speed [6], [17], [20]	$a = 0$ $V = V_{pm13}$	a : acceleration rate V_{pm13} : overtaking vehicle average speed between $t1$ and $t13$
UA	2 Uniform acceleration [11]	$a = a(\text{uniform})$ $V = V_{p1} + a \cdot t$	a : acceleration rate V_{p1} : overtaking vehicle initial speed
2SUA	3 Two-stage uniform acceleration	if $t < t12$: $a = a12$ $v = V_{p1} + a12 \cdot t$ if $t > t12$: $a = a23$ $v = V_{p1} + a1 \cdot t12 + a2 \cdot (t - t12)$	$t12$: time until the abreast position $a12$: acceleration rate before abreast position $a23$: acceleration rate after abreast position V_{p1} : overtaking vehicle initial speed
UAFS	4 Uniform acceleration until reaching final speed [7], [8], [10], [12], [32]	if $t < tf$: $a = a$ $V = V_{p1} + a \cdot t$ if $t > tf$: $a = 0$ $V = V_{p1} + a \cdot tf$	tf : ending time of the acceleration stage a : acceleration rate V_{p1} : overtaking vehicle initial speed
LTA	5 Variable acceleration (linear time function)	$a = mt + n$ $V = V_{p1} + m \cdot t^2 + n \cdot t$	a : acceleration rate m : acceleration change per time unit n : initial acceleration at time 0 V_{p1} : overtaking vehicle initial speed
LSA	6: Variable acceleration (linear speed function)	$a = mv + n$ $V = \frac{n + m \cdot V_{p1}}{m} \cdot e^{-m \cdot t} - \frac{n}{m}$	a : acceleration rate m : acceleration change per speed unit n : acceleration at speed = 0 V_{p1} : overtaking vehicle initial speed

Table 3. List of models, equations and parameters

291

292



(a) Speed (b) Relative position
 Figure 2. Comparison between different overtaking models

294

295 Figure 2 shows an example of the differences between three of the six alternative models (without
 296 scale). Black dots represented measured data points. The use of different models may affect the
 297 accuracy in the estimation of initial and final speeds (Figure 2a), and distance travelled at the
 298 abreast position and at the end of the overtaking manoeuvre (Figure 2b). As can be seen, the
 299 models do not fit the data exactly, but some of them are closer than other ones. This is the basis
 300 of the calibration and comparison of up to six models.

301 The real acceleration process depended on driver's decision and ability, as well as on vehicle
 302 performance. The presented models are alternative approaches to describe this process. The
 303 potential applications of this study (microsimulation models, probabilistic OSD standards) require
 304 the formulation of simple models, where the parameters are defined as random variables. Models
 305 were defined as a set of equations, which described the evolution of the overtaking vehicle along
 306 its left lane occupation time.

307 3.3. Model calibration

308 Due to overtaking variables randomness, the objective of calibration was to estimate the model
 309 parameters for each single overtaking manoeuvre. After that, a probability function of each pa-
 310 rameter was estimated considering the entire sample. The calibration of models was carried out
 311 in two different groups. The first one included only accelerative manoeuvres, since they always
 312 involved a positive acceleration starting at a slow speed, near to impeding vehicle speed. A total
 313 of 151 overtaking manoeuvres were included in this group.

314 The second group corresponded to flying overtaking manoeuvres. In this case, overtaking vehicle
 315 trajectory was very different and starting speed was not necessary so close to impeding vehicle
 316 speed as in accelerative passes. On the other hand, during most flying overtaking manoeuvres,
 317 no rear distance measurement could be possible, since in those manoeuvres, the value of head-
 318 way $h1$ was significantly higher (an average of 27.8 m while it was 7.5 m in accelerative passes)
 319 or was out of the laser rangefinder measurement field. A total of 29 manoeuvres were included in
 320 the second group.

321 3.3.1. Accelerative manoeuvres

322 The objective of the calibration of the models of Table 3 was to estimate the value of model
 323 parameters, which determine the minimum deviation between estimated and observed overtaking
 324 vehicle trajectory.

325 Parameters estimation was performed for each individual overtaking manoeuvre and after that,
 326 they were aggregated. For each model and each recorded overtaking manoeuvre the calibration
 327 was made by minimizing the function F (Equation 1). This function is defined as a vector of four
 328 components. Each component is the relative error in the estimation of each of the overtaking
 329 manoeuvre variables.

$$330 \quad F(X_i, M_i) = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{d13_{model}(M_i) - d13_{observed}}{d13_{observed}} \\ \frac{d12_{model}(M_i) - d12_{observed}}{d12_{observed}} \\ \frac{Vp1_{model}(M_i) - Vp1_{observed}}{Vp1_{observed}} \\ \frac{Vp3_{model}(M_i) - Vp3_{observed}}{Vp3_{observed}} \end{array} \right\} \quad (1)$$

331 Where:

- 332 • $X_i = (d13_{observed}, d12_{observed}, Vp1_{observed}, Vp3_{observed})$ is a vector of the four
- 333 observed dynamic variables for manoeuvre i .
- 334 • $d13_{model}, d12_{model}, Vp1_{model}$ and $Vp3_{model}$ are functions of M_i , according to the se-
- 335 lected model, based on Table 3.
- 336 • $M_i = (mi1, mi2, \dots, miK)$ is a vector of K model parameters for manoeuvre i .

337 Each component of the function corresponded to the difference between the estimated and the
 338 observed value of the following variables: distance travelled until $t3$ ($d13$), distance travelled until
 339 $t2$ ($d12$), speed at $t1$ ($Vp1$) and speed at $t3$ ($Vp3$). These components were divided by the ob-
 340 served value of each one. The reason of this was to give the same relative importance to all of
 341 them.

342 Since number of parameters (between one and three, depending on the model) was lower than
 343 number of available data, the equation $F = 0$ (minimize the error) was solved using least square
 344 methods. Both linear and nonlinear least square procedures were applied, (depending on the
 345 linearity of model equations), using the Optimization Toolbox included in MATLAB software. The
 346 objective of these function was to minimize the terms of the function $F(X_i, M_i)$ according to the
 347 Equation 2.

$$348 \quad M_i / \min(f_1(X_i, M_i)^2 + f_2(X_i, M_i)^2 + f_3(X_i, M_i)^2 + f_4(X_i, M_i)^2) \quad \text{for } i=1 \text{ to } N \quad (2)$$

349 Where:

- 350 • $X_i = (d13_{observed}, d12_{observed}, Vp1_{observed}, Vp3_{observed})$ is a vector of the four
- 351 observed kinematic variables for manoeuvre i .
- 352 • $d13_{model}, d12_{model}, Vp1_{model}$ and $Vp3_{model}$ are functions of M_i , according to the se-
- 353 lected model, based on Table 3.
- 354 • $M_i = (mi1, mi2, \dots, miK)$ is a vector of K model parameters for manoeuvre i .
- 355 • N is the number of manoeuvres.

356 For each model, parameter probability distributions were analysed after aggregating all manoeu-
 357 vres. Table 4 summarizes the probability distribution of each parameter as well as existing corre-
 358 lations between different parameters. In every case, the distribution fitting was checked using
 359 both Chi-Square and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests. Correlations between model parameters have
 360 been analysed. Table 4 includes significant correlations (over 0.5) at the 95% confidence level.

361

Model	Parameters	Distribution and values (mean ±SD) <u>Correlation coefficients</u>
1 US: Uniform speed	V_{p1}/V_i	Lognormal (1.20 ± 0.06)
	V_{p1}/V_i	Lognormal (1.10 ± 0.05)
2 UA: Uniform acceleration	a	Lognormal (0.77 ± 0.48)
	correlations (coefficient)	not significant
3 2SUA: Two-stage uniform acceleration	V_{p1}/V_i	Lognormal (1.08 ± 0.05)
	a_{12}	Normal (1.19 ± 0.74)
	a_{23}	Normal (0.40 ± 0.54)
	correlations (coefficient)	a_{12} and a_{23} (-0.57)
4 UAFS: Uniform acceleration until final speed	V_{p1}/V_i	Lognormal (1.08 ± 0.04)
	a	Lognormal (1.31 ± 0.68)
	t_f	Normal (4.31 ± 1.73)
	correlations (coefficient)	a and t_f (-0.66)
5 LTA: Variable acceleration (linear time function)	V_{p1}/V_i	Lognormal (.08 ± 0.05)
	m	Normal (0.13 ± 0.18)
	n	Normal (1.15 ± 0.75)
	correlations (coefficient)	m and n (-0.90)
6 LSA: Variable acceleration (linear speed function)	V_{p1}/V_i	Normal (1.08 ± 0.05)
	m	Normal (-0.19 ± 0.29)
	n	Normal (5.13 ± 6.45)
	correlations (coefficient)	m and n (-0.99)

362

Table 4. Results of model calibration for accelerative passes

363

Figure 3 represents the percent root mean squared error (RMSE_j) for each calibration variable j and model. RMSE was calculated using the Equation 3.

364

$$365 \quad RMSE_j = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (f_{ij})^2} \quad (3)$$

366

Where f_{ij} is the relative error of variable j in the manoeuvre i , corresponding to a term of the function $f(X_i, M_i)$.

367

368

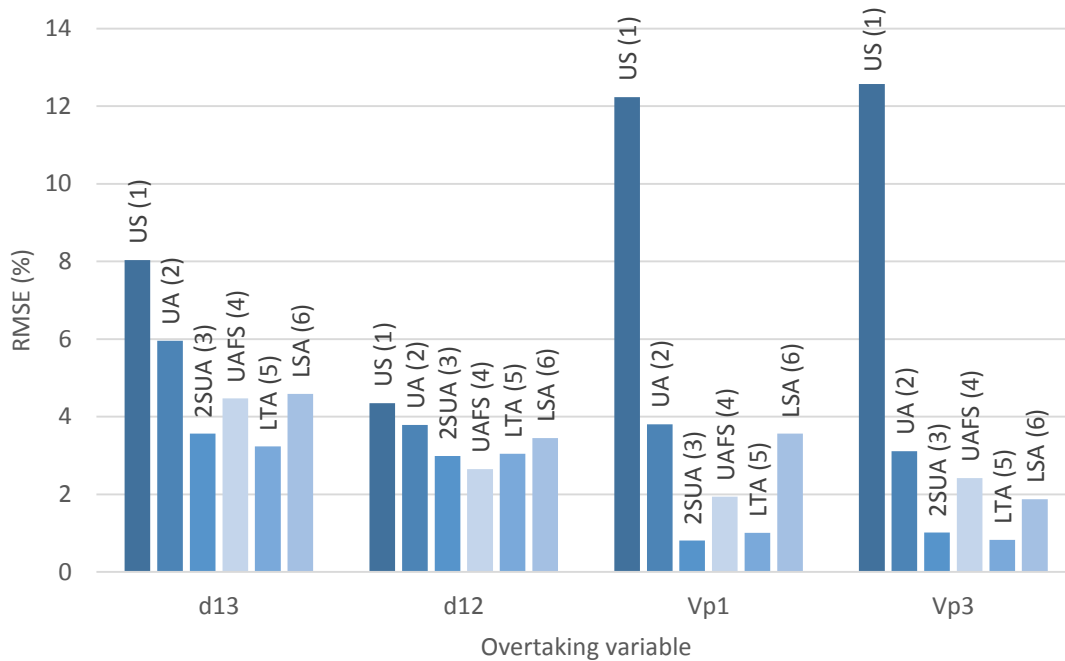
As can be seen, increasing model complexity, the estimation errors generally decrease, since models 3 (2SUA), 4 (UAFS) and 5 (LTA) had the lowest errors for each variable. In Figure 4, models are ranked according to the percentage of cases in which they are the best (and the second best) fitted model, according to the RMSE. It means, in example, that model 3 (2SUA) was the best model for 28% of the cases and was in the second place for 26%.

369

370

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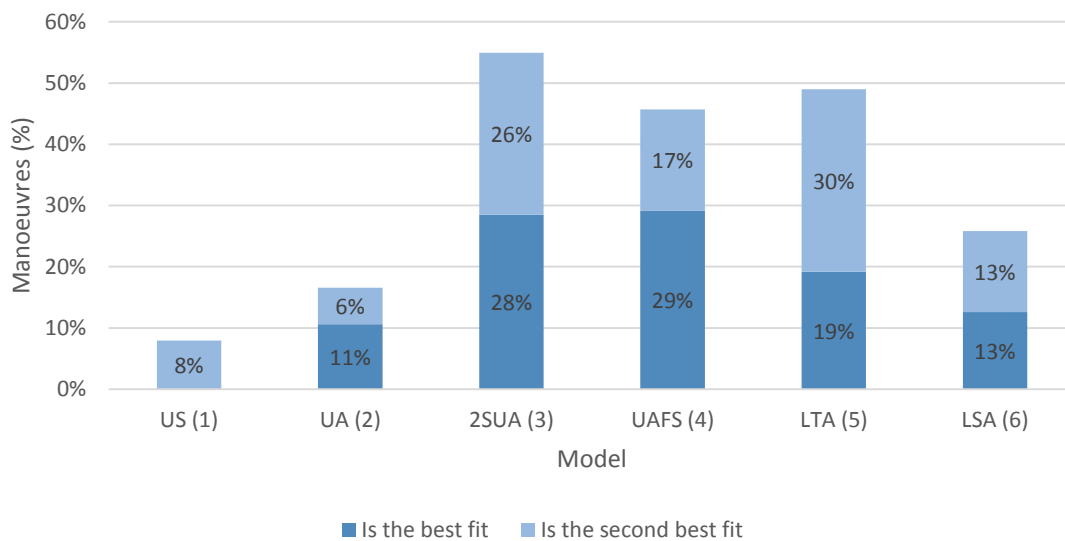
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373

374

Figure 3. Root mean square error (percent) for each model and variable

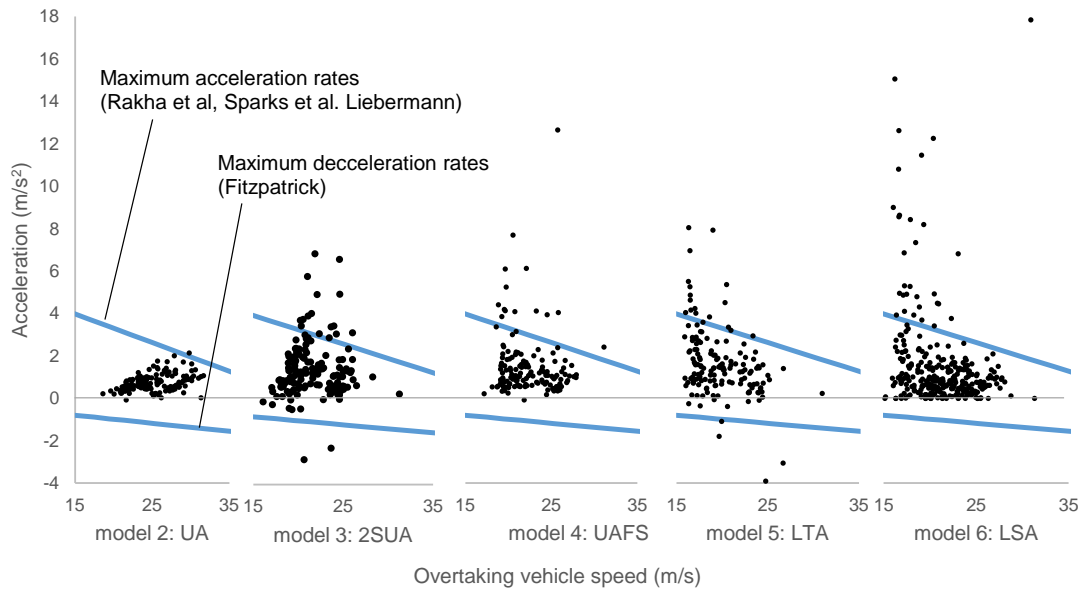


375

376

Figure 4. Best fit model

377 For each case, the estimated acceleration values were checked, in order to proof if the calibration
 378 resulted in abnormal values. Reference maximum acceleration rates were Rakha et al. [33],
 379 Sparks et al. [14], and Liebermann [13]; reference deceleration rates were Fitzpatrick et al. [34].
 380 These reference values determined whether an acceleration value exceeded the reasonable rates
 381 or not. Figure 5 shows the range of reasonable acceleration rates, as well as the estimated values
 382 for each model, depending on the overtaking vehicle speed. Acceleration rates among lower and
 383 upper thresholds were considered as valid. Otherwise, they were discarded.



384

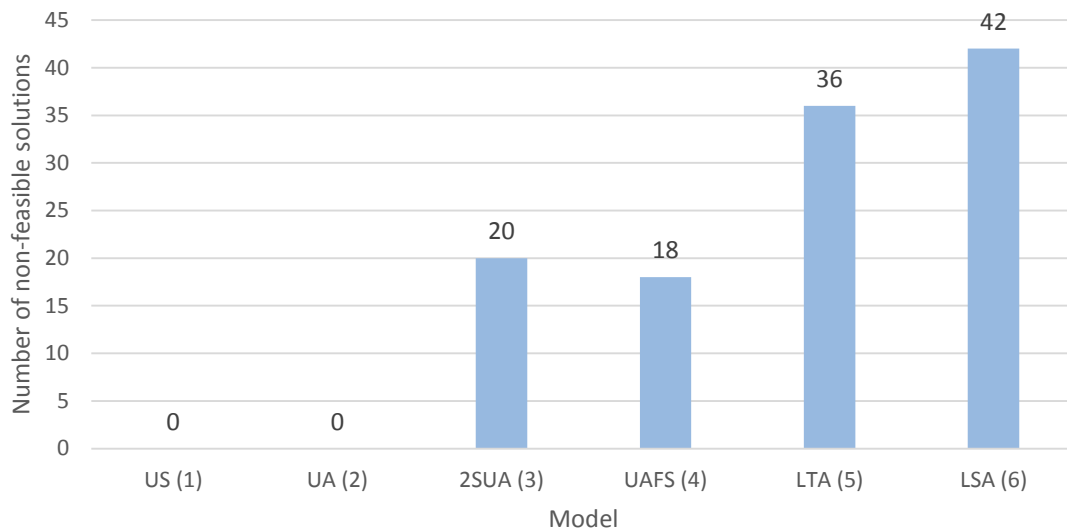
385
386

Figure 5. Acceleration (positive values) and deceleration (negative values) rate thresholds vs. estimated values

387 By increasing model complexity, some observed manoeuvres provided non-feasible solutions, as
 388 can be seen in Figure 6. Those manoeuvres were discarded when analysing parameter distribu-
 389 tions of Table 4. Models with a high number of discarded manoeuvres could not be able to explain
 390 overtaking vehicle behaviour. This case could be associated to overfitting, since the models rep-
 391 resented very well the three data points but not properly the rest of the trajectory.

392

393



394

395

Figure 6. Non-feasible solutions for each model

396 3.3.2. Flying manoeuvres

397 Flying overtaking manoeuvres represented a different behaviour, compared to accelerative
 398 passes. OSD requirements are usually lower for flying passes so they are not considered in many
 399 manoeuvre models [6]–[8]. Flying passes do not involve necessarily an acceleration process,
 400 because overtaking vehicle speed is higher once the manoeuvre has started.

401 Only one model was calibrated for the flying manoeuvres observed using the experimental meth-
 402 odology. It was the model 1 (US), corresponding to an overtaking vehicle travelling at a uniform
 403 speed. This selection was made due to the two following reasons:

- 404 • According to the definition of flying manoeuvre, the overtaking vehicle neither brakes nor
 405 accelerates, accepting an overtaking gap just after reaching the impeding vehicle.
- 406 • Overtaking vehicle trajectory measurement was more difficult in flying manoeuvres than
 407 in accelerative, since headways $h1$ and $h3$ were longer. In most cases, it was not possible
 408 to measure the overtaking vehicle speed at $t1$ and $t3$. Therefore, it was impossible to
 409 calibrate more complex models.

410 The calibration of this model was based on data from 29 manoeuvres observed with the instru-
 411 mented vehicle. Despite headways $h1$ and $h3$ could not be measured using the laser rangefind-
 412 ers, they were estimated from video images. This estimation was based on drawing reference
 413 lines on video frames at known distances, as proposed previously by Carlson et al [22] Those
 414 reference points were measured and recorded on video images before starting data collection.
 415 Accuracy of those measurements was lower, and it was not possible to calculate reliable instant
 416 speeds at $t1$ or $t3$.

417 The model 1 was calibrated minimizing the error of the distances $d12$ and $d13$, using the same
 418 procedure as for accelerative overtaking manoeuvres. Percent RMSE was 5% for both $d12$ and
 419 $d13$ distances. Table 5 shows the distribution of adjusted parameters.

Model	Adjusted parameters	Distribution & Values (mean \pm SD)
1 Uniform speed	V_{pm13}/V_i	Normal (1.43 \pm 0.10)

420 **Table 5. Parameters of overtaking model for flying manoeuvres.**

421 4. Results

422 The results of the calibration showed that the use of different models involved significant differ-
 423 ences in the estimation of overtaking vehicle trajectories.

424 Simpler models, such as model 1 (US) were not able to explain the speed evolution during the
 425 left lane occupation, in the case of accelerative manoeuvre. The RMSE of this model was over
 426 10% in initial and final speeds, and of 8 and 4% in distance $d13$ and $d12$, respectively. According
 427 to the model calibration, the average speed of the overtaking vehicle would be a 20% higher than
 428 the impeding vehicle speed.

429 Models 2 (UA), 3 (2SUA) and 4 (UAFS) were more adequate (in terms of RMSE) to estimate both
 430 $d13$ and $d12$, as well as initial and final speeds V_{p1} and V_{p3} . Model 2 (UA) explained the ma-
 431 noeuvre with a uniform acceleration movement during $t13$. Model 3 (2SUA) incorporated two
 432 stages with different acceleration rates, in order to represent the potential change in the acceler-
 433 ation rate once the abreast position was reached. Model 4 (UAFS) was similar to model 3, alt-
 434 hough it assumed, based on previous research studies, that the overtaking vehicle accelerated
 435 until a final speed was reached, keeping this speed after that. The models 2, 3 and 4 presented
 436 a low percent RMSE for the calibration variables, being always under 5%.

437 Model 5 (LTA) incorporated an additional term to represent a linear variation of the acceleration
 438 rate as a function of time. Model 6 (LSA) was based also in a linear variation, but as a function of
 439 the speed, according to Rakha et al. [33] acceleration profiles. The most complex models were
 440 not adequate to represent the entire observed data. The models 5 and 6 calibration process had
 441 as a result a relative high number of not feasible solutions, characterized by excessively high (or
 442 low) acceleration rates.

443 In models 2 to 6, the initial speed of the overtaking vehicle V_{p1} was, on average, between a 7%
 444 and 10% higher than the impeding vehicle speed, which revealed that an initial acceleration was
 445 performed before starting the overtaking manoeuvre. After this point, the different models showed
 446 different acceleration rates. The model 2 (UA) was characterized a mean uniform acceleration of

447 0.77 m/s². The model 3 (2SUA) defines two stages: before the abreast position, the mean accel-
448 eration rate was 1.18 m/s², while after this point it decreased until 0.40 m/s². The model 4 (UAFS)
449 showed an equivalent result, being the mean acceleration rate of 1.3 until the time t_f , when it
450 became zero. The mean time t_f was 0.75 times t_{13} .

451 According to model 5 (LTA), an average behaviour was characterized an acceleration rate starting
452 at 1.15 m/s² and decreasing 0.13 m/s² per second. The model 6 (LSA) explains the average
453 behaviour by an acceleration rate following the relationship $a = 5.13 - 0.19v$ (v in m/s and a in
454 m/s²).

455 A general conclusion is that an average behaviour of overtaking drivers could be modelled by a
456 decreasing acceleration rate during the overtaking time t_{13} . The reason behind this could be,
457 firstly, that maximum acceleration capacity decreased when speed increases, and second, that
458 drivers might reduce their acceleration rate as far as they observe that the manoeuvre can be
459 completed with safety.

460 On the other hand, the model 1 (US) was able to explain how a flying manoeuvre was performed.
461 In this case, it had a percent RMSE under 5% in both d_{12} and d_{13} .

462 5. Discussion

463 This research study have compared previously existing overtaking models with observational data
464 of overtaking manoeuvres on a sample of two-lane rural roads in the surrounding of Valencia
465 (Spain). Validity of results should be initially limited to this geographical area, as drivers' behaviour
466 may be different in other regions or countries. Model 1 (US) was equivalent to the previous
467 AASHTO Green Book model [6]. This model could not account for the overtaking vehicle speed
468 variation in accelerative overtaking manoeuvres, since only a uniform speed was considered.

469 Model 2 (UA) was equal to the one proposed by Rocci [11]. This author proposed an acceleration
470 value ranging between 0.27 and 2.17 m/s², with a 50th percentile of 1.11 m/s². These values are
471 slightly higher than the observed distribution. Besides, Rocci assumed that the initial speed of
472 overtaking vehicle was equal to the impeding vehicle speed. This was not observed in the present
473 study data.

474 Model 4 (UAFS) is similar to Glennon [7] and Hassan et al. [8] although those authors proposed
475 that the overtaking vehicle speed was uniform after the critical point. The model in the present
476 paper was calibrated assuming that the uniform speed started at a certain point (calibrated as
477 well) during the overtaking manoeuvre, since it is not possible to measure the critical point on the
478 field (with any type of equipment). Besides, the uniform speed, among all the other parameters
479 including the final point of the acceleration phase, were assumed to be random variables. The
480 results of the calibration showed that, in contrast to Glennon and Hassan et al. models, the over-
481 taking vehicle speed at the starting point of the manoeuvre was not equal to the impeding vehicle
482 speed. Moreover, the final speed was a random variable 10 km/h (on average) over the design
483 speed of the observed roads.

484 In relation to the acceleration rates, the AASHTO [6] model proposed similar mean values (around
485 0.62 m/s²) to those obtained from model 2 (UA) (50th percentile at 0.70 m/s²). The AASHTO
486 model defined the acceleration stage before entering the left lane, though. If extreme acceleration
487 rates are analysed, the 85th percentile obtained from Model 2 (2.25 m/s²) was close to those
488 observed by Rakha et al. [33] and to those proposed by Sparks et al. [14] at the equivalent speed
489 levels (shown in Figure 5). Similarly Basilio et al. [3] assumed a uniform acceleration model as
490 upper threshold for the driving simulator vehicles. The value of maximum acceleration for the
491 lower speed vehicle (100 km/h) was close to the 85th percentile of observations (2 m/s²).

492 6. Conclusion

493 The characterization of the trajectory of overtaking vehicles travelling on the opposing lane is
494 fundamental to calculate the left lane occupation time; which is the main variable used to calibrate
495 and further develop of ADAS, as well as to improve geometric design and marking guidelines for
496 two-lane rural roads. The values of overtaking time provide the sight distance requirements to
497 perform a safe and comfortable manoeuvre, taking into account the opposing flow.

498 This research characterized the trajectory of 180 overtaking vehicles by using kinematic models,
499 which were calibrated from observations of the real phenomenon. The main conclusions were:

500

- 501 • Accelerative overtaking manoeuvres should be represented by a model that considers
502 acceleration during the left lane occupation phase. A uniform acceleration model with an
503 average rate of 0.77 m/s^2 is recommended for them, balancing accuracy and simplicity.
504 The acceleration rate is log-normal distributed.
- 505 • Flying overtaking manoeuvres are adequately represented by a uniform speed model.
506 The speed on left lane is normal distributed, centred on an average value of 1.43 times
507 of the speed of the impeding vehicle.

508 The ability of these models to predict the manoeuvre duration, travelled distance and abreast
509 position was assessed. However, the extrapolation of this results should be taken with caution,
510 since drivers' behaviour may be different in other geographical areas. The application of the re-
511 sults to overtaking manoeuvres when the overtaken vehicle is a truck should be verified by addi-
512 tional observations.

513 Despite the above mentioned limitations, the development of ADAS should combine the results
514 of this paper, as a model to predict overtaking vehicle trajectories, with the maximum capacities
515 of the vehicles (acceleration) as well as the input of the current conditions (mainly the distance
516 and speed of the opposing vehicle).

517 The selection of the best model would depend on its intended applications. Potential applications
518 are the review of road design and marking guidelines, the calibration of traffic microsimulation
519 models and the development or calibration of assistance systems, either based on autonomous
520 driving controllers, or warning devices or mapping and geographical information systems.

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