

# Assessing the Impact of Bicycle Infrastructure Treatment Type on the Frequency of Right-Hook Conflicts Between Bicyclists and Motorized Vehicles at Signalized Intersections

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## Abstract

Bicycle infrastructure treatments are implemented to enhance bicyclist mobility and safety. However, crashes between motorized vehicles and bicycles still occur at locations where these treatments are present, indicating the need to further investigate their safety impact. This paper aims to assess the impact of three segment-level bicycle treatments, namely: (1) conventional bike lanes, (2) protected bike lanes, and (3) sharrows (i.e., shared vehicle-bicycle traffic lanes) and two intersection-level bicycle treatments, namely (1) intersection crossing markings and (2) bike boxes, on right-hook conflicts, which is a common unsafe interaction between right-turning vehicles and through—bicycle at signalized intersections. Video data were collected from ten intersections in Boston, Cambridge, and Somerville, Massachusetts. Video recordings were processed to identify interactions between right-turning vehicles and through bicycles that corresponded to a Post Encroachment Time (PET) of less or equal to four seconds. Poisson models

were developed to relate the number of traffic conflicts with the number of right-turning vehicles, through bicycles, and the treatment type. However, the latter was not found to affect conflict frequency. Further analysis of the PET thresholds showed that there is a significant difference in the recorded PET values depending on the user sequence in the conflict area. Specifically, when a motorized vehicle was followed by a bicycle, PETs of 1 second were more frequent compared to when a bicycle was followed by a motorized vehicle. This observation suggests that different thresholds for bicycle-leading or bicycle-following PETs may be considered to account to advance conflict-based bicycle safety approaches. The outcome of this research can inform practitioners on the selection of appropriate bicycle treatments and other countermeasures for improving intersection safety for bicyclists.

*Keywords:* bicycle safety, protected bike lane, conventional bike lane, sharrows, bike box, surrogate safety measures, post encroachment time

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## 1. Introduction

2     Increasing bicycling mode share is gaining popularity as it has been as-  
3 sociated with environmental and multiple public health benefits, while also  
4 being an effective way to address congestion in highly crowded areas. The  
5 implementation of bicycle treatments has the potential to increase bicycle  
6 mode share by improving safety and convenience. While there is evidence  
7 that bicycle treatments improve bicyclist safety, bicycle-motorized vehicle  
8 crashes still occur at locations where treatments are present (DiGioia et al.,  
9 2017; Thomas and DeRobertis, 2013). This highlights the need to further  
10 explore the safety impacts of bicycle treatment types and provide guidance

1 on the most appropriate treatment for different roadway environments and  
2 vehicles and bicycle demands.

3 Crash statistics from the United States (U.S.) suggest that a significant  
4 portion of bicycle-motorized vehicle crashes take place at urban intersec-  
5 tions (Pedestrian and Bicycle Information Center, 2019). Furthermore, some  
6 evidence from countries around the globe like the U.S., Canada, and Ger-  
7 many suggests that signalized intersections are associated with a higher risk  
8 for bicyclists compared to unsignalized intersections (Strauss et al., 2015;  
9 Hurwitz et al., 2015; Liu and Marker, 2020). A common crash type be-  
10 tween bicyclists and motorized vehicles at intersections is the “right-hook”  
11 crash (Cantisani et al., 2019; Foldberg Steffensen and Gaardbo, 2016; Hur-  
12 witz et al., 2015), where a right-turning vehicle collides with a through-going  
13 bicycle; Figure 1 illustrates this collision type. Right-hook conflicts are also  
14 very common compared to other conflicting interactions (Cantisani et al.,  
15 2019). Right-hook conflicts (and in turn, crashes) occur when right-turns  
16 are allowed during the green phase at intersections where bicyclists and mo-  
17 torists coexist. While both right-turning vehicles and through-bicycles are  
18 traveling as indented, their paths can cross. Given that the placement of the  
19 bicycle with respect to the motorized vehicle affects both the occurrence and  
20 severity of right-hook crashes (Warner et al., 2017; Jannat et al., 2018), it is  
21 critical to study the specifics of the interactions between bicyclists and mo-  
22 torists performing the aforementioned movements in the presence of bicycle  
23 treatments.

24 Segment-level treatments such as protected and conventional bike lanes  
25 and sharrows affect bicyclist placement with respect to motorized vehicles.

1 Protected and conventional bike lanes separate bicyclists from motorized ve-  
2 hicles. In the former case bicyclists and motorized vehicles are physically  
3 separated via various objects (e.g., bollards, parked vehicles, etc.) while in  
4 the case of conventional bike lanes pavement marking is used to indicate  
5 where bicyclists should ride. Sharrows on the other hand, allow mixed-traffic  
6 conditions and bicyclists can share the exact same road space as motorized  
7 vehicles. When protected or conventional bike lanes are implemented, bicy-  
8 clists are usually on the right on motorists. Due to the physical separation  
9 that protected bike lanes offer, drivers might be driving closer to protected  
10 bike lanes compared to when driving next to conventional bike lanes. When  
11 sharrows are implemented bicycles could be found to the right or left of  
12 motorized vehicles at intersections.

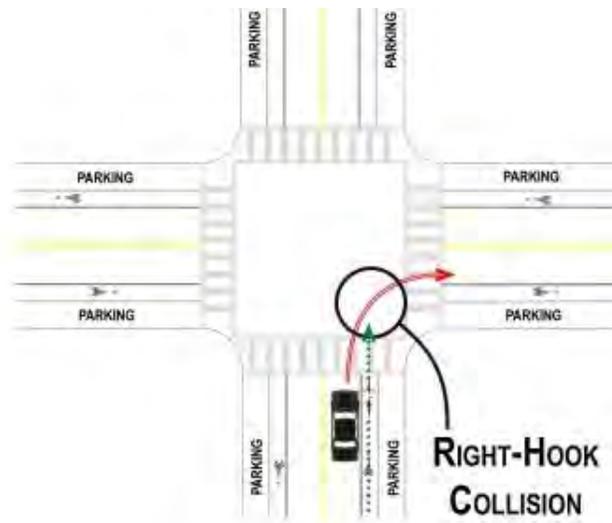


Figure 1: Right-hook collision between a bicycle and a right-turning vehicle (Adopted from Fournier et al. (2020))

13 In addition to segment-level treatments, it is becoming common for cities

1 to implement intersection-level treatments, such as intersection crossing mark-  
2 ings and bike boxes. Intersection crossing markings indicate how bicyclists  
3 should navigate through an intersection and inform drivers about the po-  
4 tential of a bicyclist being present within that space. Intersection crossing  
5 markings are placed in both signalized and unsignalized intersections. Bike  
6 boxes are a dedicated to bicyclists area located just upstream of signalized  
7 intersections where bicyclists can get ahead of the car queue and wait during  
8 a red signal phase (Loskorn et al., 2013; Goodman and Christopher, 2015;  
9 Federal Highway Administration, 2016). This improves bicyclist visibility  
10 and provides some level of priority to bicyclists. Various combinations of  
11 intersection- and segment-level treatments exist in the real world; for ex-  
12 ample, intersection-crossing markings can be combined with protected and  
13 conventional bike lanes. While existing research has focused on assessing  
14 the safety impact of various intersection-level treatment types, it has not as-  
15 sessed the safety impacts of those treatments when combined when various  
16 segment-level treatments.

17 This study contributes to existing literature by using field data to assess  
18 and compare the safety impact of the following bicycle treatment types at  
19 signalized intersections: (i) three segment-level treatments, namely protected  
20 bike lanes, conventional bike lanes, and sharrows, and (ii) two intersection-  
21 level treatments, namely intersection crossing markings and bike boxes. The  
22 analysis focuses on right-hook conflicts between through-going bicyclists and  
23 right-turning motorists assessed using surrogate safety metrics. The primary  
24 objective of this work is to determine whether there is correlation between the  
25 frequency of traffic conflicts and the bicycle treatment type while accounting

1 for exposure metrics, in particularly right-turning vehicle and through-bicycle  
2 volumes. Emphasis is given on user sequence, e.g., a bicyclist followed by  
3 a motorized vehicle and vice versa, to assess whether it has an impact on  
4 the chosen threshold used to determine existence of a conflict. The following  
5 section presents literature on the safety impacts of bicycle treatments. Next,  
6 the methodological framework is presented focusing on data collection, traffic  
7 conflict definition and extraction, as well as the choice and development  
8 of the appropriate regression models. The models are presented next and  
9 the obtained insights and implications for real-world implementations are  
10 discussed. The final section includes the conclusions of this study as well as  
11 recommendations for future work.

## 12 **2. Literature review**

13 Bicycle treatments can be separated into segment-level (e.g., bike lanes  
14 and protected bike lanes) and intersection-level (e.g., bike box and intersec-  
15 tion crossing markings). In North America, segment-level treatments can  
16 be broadly separated into two categories: those that separate bicyclists and  
17 motorized vehicles, e.g., conventional, buffered, and protected bike lanes,  
18 and those that do not, such as sharrows and bicycle boulevards (of City  
19 Transportation Officials, 2014). Subsection 2.1 focuses on studies that have  
20 evaluated segment-level treatments at intersections. Subsection 2.2 presents  
21 safety-related findings from studies that have focused on bike boxes and inter-  
22 sections crossing markings. Finally, subsection 2.3 summarizes the findings  
23 from the literature and highlights existing research gaps.

1 *2.1. Segment-level treatments at intersections*

2 While an array of studies has assessed the safety impact of segment-  
3 level treatments, the focus of this section is to summarize studies that have  
4 evaluated the safety impact of these treatments at the intersection level, e.g.,  
5 intersections where bike lanes (protected or conventional) or sharrows are  
6 present just upstream of the intersection. Table 1 summarizes the bicycle  
7 treatment types that have been studied, the type of intersection control,  
8 and the findings of studies that have assessed the impact of segment-level  
9 treatments on intersection bicycle safety. Note that findings are expressed  
10 as the outcome that was observed when such treatments were in place (i.e.,  
11 reduced crash risk implies a reduction in crash risk when the noted bicycle  
12 treatment(s) was in place versus when not unless otherwise specified).

13 Several aspects were taken into consideration while reviewing the relevant  
14 literature; the following decisions were made regarding the inclusion or not of  
15 relevant studies. The listed studies (Table 1) are consistent in that they all  
16 account for bicycle and motorized vehicle demand as exposure terms; studies  
17 that did not account for either type of exposure (Morrison et al., 2019) were  
18 excluded. This is because recent findings on bicycle research have shown  
19 the need of incorporating both types of exposure in bicycle safety analy-  
20 sis (Fournier et al., 2017; Nordback et al., 2014). Additionally, studies that  
21 only considered unsignalized intersections (e.g., (Schepers et al., 2011)) were  
22 excluded as paper's focus is on signalized intersections. It is also worth noting  
23 that due to the fact that these studies were conducted in various countries,  
24 there is some inconsistency in the treatment type and configuration. Euro-  
25 pean and Canadian studies consider protected and conventional bike lanes,

Table 1: Summary of research studies that have assessed the presence and/or type of segment-level bicycle treatments on intersection bicycle safety

Study (Country)	Treatment	Traffic Control	Findings
Hamann & Peek-Asa, 2016 (U.S.)	CBL <sup>a</sup> , Sharrows	Signalized & Unsignalized	Up to 60% reduced crash risk
Turner et al., 2011 (Australia, N.Zealand)	CBL configurations	Signalized	Reduced crash risk
Strauss et al., 2013 (Canada)	CBL, PBL <sup>b</sup>	Signalized	No statistically significant difference in injury risk
Kondo et al. 2018 (U.S.)	CBL simple and green-colored, sharrows	Signalized & Unsignalized	Treatment effectiveness depends on intersection configuration and traffic volume
Saad et al., 2019 (U.S.)	CBL	Signalized & Unsignalized	Reduced crash risk
Liu & Marker, 2020 (Germany)	CBL, PBL,	Signalized	CBL lower crash risk than PBL
Chen et al., 2020 (U.S.)	Not specified	Signalized & Unsignalized	Increased crash risk at minor street
Zangenehpour et al., 2016 <sup>1</sup> (Canada)	PBL	Signalized	Reduced risk of right-hook conflicts

<sup>a</sup> Conventional bike lane, <sup>b</sup> Protected bike lane

1 while the ones in the U.S. mostly include conventional bike lanes and shar-  
2 rows, as protected bike lanes had not been widely implemented until recently.  
3 In Australia and New Zealand, there are several different configurations of  
4 conventional bike lanes (e.g., using a dotted versus a continuous line to de-  
5 note the bike lane) as demonstrated in (Turner et al., 2011; Morrison et al.,  
6 2019). All studies except for one (Zangenehpour et al., 2016) used crash  
7 records to evaluate bicycle safety; Zangenehpour et al. (2016) used field data  
8 of right-hook traffic conflicts between bicyclists and motorized vehicles.

9 Overall, existing literature is inconclusive with respect to the impact of

1 different treatments on bicycle safety at signalized intersections when ac-  
2 counting for exposure. Even though studies included test sites with differ-  
3 ent bicycle treatments the developed models only considered the presence of  
4 such treatments as a binary variable (i.e., whether a treatment was present  
5 or not) (Hamann and Peek-Asa, 2013; Saad et al., 2019; Kondo et al., 2018;  
6 Chen et al., 2020). This approach does not allow for a comparison between  
7 the different treatment types, e.g., are intersection approaches with conven-  
8 tional bike lanes versus with sharrows safer? From the remaining studies, i.e.,  
9 those that differentiated among treatment types, one concluded that there is  
10 no difference between the presence of conventional bike lanes versus protected  
11 bike lanes (Strauss et al., 2013), while another one found that conventional  
12 bike lanes enhance safety compared to protected bike lanes (Liu and Marker,  
13 2020). In addition to the fact that the results of the aforementioned studies  
14 do not agree, neither of them considered sharrows in their analysis. As a  
15 result, there is no comparative analysis on the safety impacts of conventional  
16 bike lanes, protected bike lanes, and sharrows.

## 17 *2.2. Intersection-level treatments at intersections*

18 Several studies have assessed the impact of intersection-level treatment  
19 types on bicyclist safety by analyzing historic crash records or field data or  
20 through driver simulation experiments. The present section reviews those  
21 studies that include intersection crossing markings and/or bike boxes (see  
22 Figure 2 and Figure 3).

23 Bike boxes is a treatment time that is implemented only at signalized  
24 intersections (National Association of City Transportation Officials, 2014);  
25 therefore, the following studies include by default only such intersections.



Figure 2: Example of green-colored intersection crossing markings (Seattle, WA)



Figure 3: Example of bike box (Cambridge, MA)

1 Research findings related to the impact of bike boxes are conflicting. Two  
2 different studies have analyzed bicycle-motorized vehicle crash records before  
3 and after the installation of bike boxes in Portland, OR (DiGioia et al., 2017)  
4 and in New Zealand (Newman et al., 2002); in Portland, OR there was a 50%  
5 increase to the number of crashes in the after period while in New Zealand

1 there was a reduction in the observed crashes. Increased yielding rates to  
2 bicyclists from motorists turning right and reduced conflicts (and avoidance  
3 maneuvers by bicyclists) have also been reported when bike boxes are imple-  
4 mented in the U.S. (Dill et al., 2012; Loskorn et al., 2013) and the United  
5 Kingdom (UK) (Allen et al., 2005; Wall et al., 2003). In one study colored  
6 pavement appeared to have a negative impact on the avoidance maneuvers  
7 compared to the white outlined bike box (Loskorn et al., 2013). Finally, a  
8 driver simulator study concluded that drivers who are also bicyclists are more  
9 likely to behave as intended when encountering a bike box (i.e., stopping be-  
10 hind the stop line and not encroaching on the bike box) (Fournier et al.,  
11 2020). While there is some agreement in the research findings related to the  
12 occurrence of non-crash events at intersections where bike boxes are present,  
13 it is unclear how “conflicts” and “maneuvers” are defined and detected in  
14 the aforementioned studies, therefore, limiting the ability to compare find-  
15 ings across different studies.

16 Intersection crossing markings indicate the area where bicyclists should  
17 move while crossing the intersection. Usually they connect bike lanes up-  
18 stream and downstream of the intersection (National Association of City  
19 Transportation Officials, 2014) and they are placed in both signalized and  
20 unsignalized intersections. Crossings may be green colored to enhance drivers  
21 visibility.

22 Research on the impact of intersection crossing markings is limited com-  
23 pared to bike boxes. Intersection crossing markings’ impact on bicyclist  
24 safety has been evaluated in various contexts and thus, existing findings can-  
25 not be synthesized in a comprehensive and conclusive manner. A driver

1 simulator experiment found that intersection crossing markings designed  
2 as white-dotted line markings outperformed the ones that included green-  
3 colored crossing markings in terms of increasing drivers' ability to detect  
4 bicyclists while approaching an intersection to turn right (Warner et al.,  
5 2017). A Danish study correlated the number of intersection approaches per  
6 intersection where blue-colored intersection crossing markings had been in-  
7 stalled with crash frequency; in particular, intersections with one approach  
8 with blue-colored crossings reduces the number of intersection crashes, while  
9 more approaches with crossings increase that number (Jensen, 2008).

### 10 *2.3. Summary of the literature*

11 Findings that related to the impacts of segment-level treatment on bicy-  
12clist safety at the intersection are inconclusive; the impact can be either posi-  
13tive or negative. Additionally, there is no study up to date assessing all three  
14types of treatments, namely, conventional bike lanes, protected bike lanes,  
15and sharrows. Research on bike boxes does not explicitly show whether these  
16treatments impact crash occurrence, while in cases where non-crash events  
17have been studied the definition of metrics used, e.g., conflict, is not clear or  
18consistent across all studies. Finally, research that simultaneously assesses  
19the impact of segment-level and intersection-level treatments on bicyclist  
20safety is limited.

21 The great majority of the studies assessing the impact of segment-level  
22treatments that were reviewed rely on crash records while this is the case  
23for a significant number of the studies focusing on the safety impacts of  
24intersection-level treatments. Crashes are rare and random events, therefore,  
25often limiting the ability to perform statistical analysis. The fact that they

1 are are rare events is even more apparent in bicycle safety research. Bicycle-  
2 motorized vehicle crashes tend to be underreported especially when they do  
3 not result in an injury or property damage (Stutts et al., 1990; Pucher and  
4 Dijkstra, 2000; Doom and Derweduwen, 2005; De Mol and Lammar, 2006).  
5 As a result, crash analysis might be an ineffective method in the sense that  
6 it requires many years of data to establish a representative crash frequency  
7 estimate for a site. Data availability is more limiting when a specific crash  
8 type is of interest, e.g., right-hook crashes. Consequently, alternatives to  
9 crash-based analyses have been developed; these approaches are denoted as  
10 surrogate safety methods.

11 Several studies have used surrogate safety methods to assess bicycle safety  
12 at intersections. One area of surrogate safety studies relies on the defini-  
13 tion and use of objectively defined and identified safety performance metrics,  
14 known as surrogate safety indicators. Such indicators describe how close  
15 two or more road users approach in time and space, whether a collision is  
16 likely to occur and lastly, what would the injury severity of that collision  
17 be. An array of field studies has been conducted with the objective to assess  
18 the effectiveness of intersection-level bicycle treatments (Sayed et al., 2013;  
19 Madsen and Lahrman, 2017) and control strategies such as Leading Bicycle  
20 Interval (Kothuri et al., 2018; Russo et al., 2020), as well the effect of disconti-  
21 nities in the bicycle network on bicycle safety (Niaki et al., 2019). However,  
22 there is no study that differentiates on the different treatment types such  
23 as conventional and protected bike lanes and sharrows that simultaneously  
24 accounts for intersection-level treatments such as bike boxes and intersection  
25 crossing markings.

### 1 **3. Methodology**

2 This section first presents the experimental design in terms of site se-  
3 lection and video data collection. Video data processing to extract rele-  
4 vant interactions between through-bicyclists and right-turning motorists is  
5 explained next. Statistical models are then developed to relate the observed  
6 traffic conflicts with bicycle and motorized vehicle demand as well as with  
7 the bicycle treatment type.

#### 8 *3.1. Site selection and video data collection*

9 Video data were collected from ten signalized intersection approaches  
10 located in Boston (3), Cambridge (6), and Somerville (1), Massachusetts to  
11 investigate and compare the safety impact of the three segment-level and two  
12 intersection-level bicycle treatments on right-hook conflicts. Data collection  
13 took place in November and October of 2019 for the Cambridge sites and  
14 October and November 2020 for the Boston and Somerville sites. Cambridge  
15 data were recorded using a GoPro Hero7 camera mounted on a tripod while  
16 video data collection for Boston and Somerville was facilitated by cameras  
17 provided by Street Simplified, which were mounted on traffic or light poles.  
18 At each site the camera was placed to capture the studied approach and, in  
19 particular, the area containing potential crossing paths of through-bicyclists  
20 and right-turning vehicles.

21 Table 2 provides details on the data collection sites. The column “Period  
22 (Hours)” describes the peak period of the day for which data was collected  
23 and analyzed (total hours of data collection). The “Segment” and “Inter-  
24 sectio” columns contain information on the segment and intersection bicycle

1 treatments. The extraction of traffic conflicts (i.e., column “Conflicts”) is  
2 explained in the following subsection. The data collection sites are also il-  
3 lustrated in Figures 4-11. The bike path (whether it is on a protected or  
4 conventional bike lane or shared with motorized vehicles) is noted with a  
5 yellow arrow. The path of right-turning vehicles is noted with a red arrow.  
6 Finally, the light blue rectangular area marks where the traffic conflicts be-  
7 tween right-turning vehicles and through-bikes might occur (i.e., where the  
8 aforementioned paths are crossing).

9 In Cambridge, data were collected during weekdays and specifically on  
10 Tuesdays, Wednesdays, and Thursdays of October and November 2019 during  
11 clear weather conditions (e.g., no snow or rain). For each bicycle treatment  
12 type, i.e., sharrows (one intersection), conventional (two intersections) and  
13 protected bike lanes (three intersections), data were collected approximately  
14 between 8:30-10:30 AM and 5:00-7:00 PM, resulting in a total of about four  
15 hours of data per treatment type. The selected intersections have consis-  
16 tency in terms of design: (1) when present conventional and protected bike  
17 lanes are located to the right of the traffic lanes, (2) there are no bicycle  
18 signals, and (3) turning right on red is not permitted. The later is important  
19 as it prohibits drivers from moving during red and enter the location where  
20 bicyclists wait to cross the intersection. Overall, a total of four intersec-  
21 tion approaches were observed during the morning peak hours in Cambridge  
22 (one with a sharrow, two with protected bike lanes, and one with a con-  
23 ventional bike lane) and three during the evening peak hours (one with a  
24 sharrow, one with a conventional bike lane and one with a protected bike  
25 lane). Of the seven intersection approaches four had intersection crossing

1 markings as their intersection-level treatment and the rest had none. The  
2 decision to select different intersection approaches for the AM and PM data  
3 collection stems from the need to ensure sufficient bicycle and car demand  
4 was present, allowing for more interactions between bicyclists and motorists  
5 to be observed. These approaches were typically not located at the same  
6 intersection as that did not always feature the same bicycle treatments; in-  
7 stead intersection approaches along the same main corridor were considered.  
8 The only exception was the intersection that featured sharrows as there was  
9 no other intersection in Cambridge (during the data collection period) where  
10 a sharrow was present. Lastly, due to very low bicycle demand during the  
11 AM period at Binney Street, additional data was collected from the Western  
12 Avenue and Memorial Drive intersection on a different day during the AM  
13 period.

14 Video recordings from Boston and Somerville sites were collected during  
15 weekdays in November 2020. Morning peak and afternoon peak periods were  
16 analyzed for the scope of this study. With respect to bike boxes, data was  
17 collected from the sites during both time periods (AM and PM) as it was not  
18 always possible to find similar sites and use one for the AM period and one for  
19 the PM period. In total, data were collected at three intersection approaches  
20 that featured conventional bike lanes upstream the intersection and one with  
21 a protected bike lane upstream the intersection. Two of the conventional bike  
22 lane sites and one of the protected bike lane ones also presented a bike box  
23 at the intersection approach and two of those were in combination with bike  
24 boxes. Finally, one intersection approach in Boston presented a combination  
25 of conventional bike lanes and a bike box at the intersection.

Table 2: Data collection sites

Site (City)	Period (Hours)	Segment	Intersection	RT Vehicles <sup>a</sup>	Thru-bikes <sup>b</sup>	Conflicts
Cambridge & Springfield St (Cambridge)	AM, PM (3)	Shar-row	None	186	126	36
Binney & First St (Cambridge)	AM (2)	PBL <sup>c</sup>	Crossing Markings	109	13	3
Binney & Third St (Cambridge)	PM (1.5)	PBL	Crossing Markings	79	36	10
Western Ave & Memorial Dr (Cambridge)	AM (1.5)	PBL	None	122	40	9
Massachusetts Ave & Albany St (Cambridge)	PM (1.5)	CBL <sup>d</sup>	Crossing Markings	162	241	43
Massachusetts Ave & Sidney St (Cambridge)	AM (2)	CBL	Crossing Markings	114	257	30
Cambridge St & Sudbury St (Boston)	AM, PM (2)	CBL	Bike box	142	41	5
Massachusetts Ave & Beacon St (Boston)	AM, PM (4)	PBL	Bike box & Crossing Markings	514	238	69
Massachusetts Ave & Commonwealth Ave (Boston)	AM, PM (2)	CBL	Crossing Markings	103	171	22
Beacon St & Park St (Somerville)	AM, PM (2)	CBL	Bike box & Crossing Markings	147	60	10

<sup>a</sup> Right-turning vehicle, <sup>b</sup> Through-bikes, <sup>c</sup> Protected bike lane, <sup>d</sup> Conventional bike lane



Figure 4: Cambridge Street at Springfield Street (Cambridge, MA). [Segment: sharrows; Intersection: None]

1 *3.2. Traffic conflict extraction*

2 Surrogate safety methods focus on the interactions between two road  
 3 users, i.e., a right-turning vehicle and a through-bicycle in this case. More  
 4 specifically, interactions between two road users should align with one of the  
 5 following definitions in order to be considered as conflicts: “an observable  
 6 situation in which two or more road users approach each other in time and  
 7 space to such an extent that there is a risk of collision if their movements  
 8 remain unchanged” (Amundsen and Hyden, 1977), or a “situation when two  
 9 road users unintentionally pass each other with a very small margin, so that  
 10 the general feeling is that a collision was “near”, (Laureshyn et al., 2010).

11 Different time-based indicators have been developed to objectively quan-  
 12 tify the proximity aspect of two interacting users; the most commonly used  
 13 ones are the Time to Collision (TTC) and the Post Encroachment Time  
 14 (PET) (De Ceunynck, 2017). TTC is appropriate when users are in a col-  
 15 lision course, meaning that one user needs to change their path or speed to  
 16 avoid the collision. Essentially, TTC can be detected only when such action



(a) Binney & First St

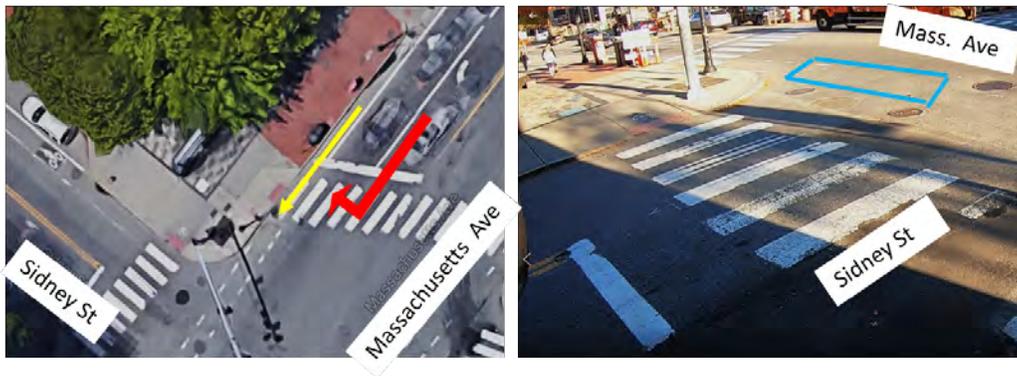


(b) Binney & Third St

Figure 5: Binney street (Cambridge, MA). Bicycle treatment type: protected bike lanes with green-colored intersection crossing markings



Figure 6: Western Ave at Memorial Drive (Cambridge, MA). [Segment: protected bike lanes; Intersection: None]



(a) Massachusetts Ave & Sidney St



(b) Massachusetts Ave & Albany

Figure 7: Massachusetts Avenue at... (Cambridge, MA). Segment: conventional bike lane; Intersection: crossing Markings]



Figure 8: Cambridge Street at Sudbury Street (Boston, MA). [Segment: conventional bike lane; Intersection: bike box]



Figure 9: Massachusetts Avenue at Beacon Street (Boston, MA). [Segment: protected bike lane; Intersection: bike box and crossing markings]



Figure 10: Massachusetts Avenue at Commonwealth Avenue (Boston, MA). [Segment: conventional bike lane; Intersection: bike box and crossing markings]

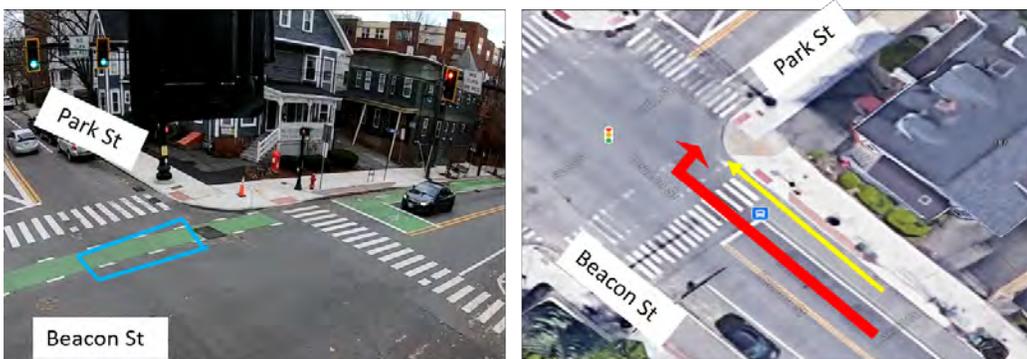


Figure 11: Beacon Street at Street (Somerville, MA). [Segment: conventional bike lane; Intersection: bike box and crossing markings (not visible on Google Maps imagery due to recent installation)]

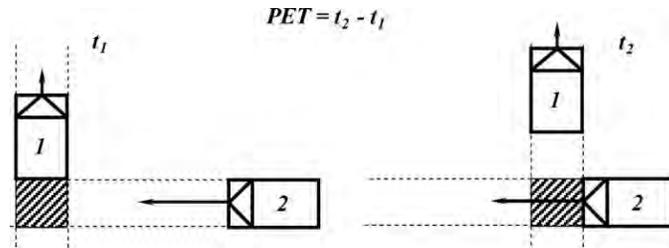


Figure 12: Post Encroachment Time graphical representation; adopted from (Allen et al., 1978)

1 (i.e., change in speed or path or in other words evasive maneuver) is observed  
 2 and it is estimated as the time difference between the moment of the evasive  
 3 maneuver until the time one of them would reach the collision point. On  
 4 the other hand PET, which is defined as the time difference between the  
 5 moment that the first user leaves the path of the second road user and the  
 6 moment when the second user reaches the path of the first road user (Allen  
 7 et al., 1978), is appropriate for cases where the user paths are crossing (or  
 8 in other words, are perpendicular) by default and so a user does not aim at  
 9 changing their path to avoid another one. Since in the present context of  
 10 right-hook conflicts right-turning vehicles cross paths with through-going bi-  
 11 cyclists, PET is the appropriate as it can be estimated without the existence  
 12 of evasive maneuvers. Figure 12 graphically illustrates the definition of the  
 13 PET indicator.

14 Surrogate safety methods and in particular, the time-based indicators  
 15 have a proven association with traffic safety. As summarized in the review  
 16 of Johnsson et al. 2018, eight studies have correlated the number of observed  
 17 traffic conflicts that have been identified using the PET definition with crash  
 18 occurrence. In bicycle safety research several studies have used PET to assess

1 the impact of bicycle treatments on right-hook conflicts between bicyclists  
2 and right-turning vehicles (Zangenehpour et al., 2016; Kothuri et al., 2018;  
3 Russo et al., 2020).

4 The recorded videos were reviewed to manually extract the following in-  
5 formation. A 15-minute interval was used as the time unit for the number  
6 of: (1) right-turning motorized vehicles, (2) through-bicyclists, (3) traffic  
7 conflicts, at each intersection approach. This interval was considered appro-  
8 priate since it is usually used in volume studies. Smaller intervals such as 5  
9 min. would have greater variability to the number of conflicts and recorded  
10 volumes depending on the occurrence of red phase per 5 min. As mentioned  
11 earlier, traffic conflicts are identified using the PET as the surrogate safety  
12 indicator. The number of traffic conflicts was further grouped by (a) PET  
13 value (i.e., 1, 2, 3, and 4 seconds), and (b) the road user sequence in terms  
14 of who is arriving first at the conflict area, i.e., a bicycle arrives first and is  
15 followed by a motorized vehicle or vice versa.

16 For each site the conflict area was defined as the area where the through-  
17 bicycle and right-turning vehicle paths were crossing. This area is illustrated  
18 with a blue rectangle in Figures 4-11. The total number of observed traf-  
19 fic conflicts during the data collection period were grouped per treatment  
20 type. The total number of detected traffic conflicts along with the respective  
21 volumes are shown in Table 2.

22 Smaller PET values indicate a closer chance of collision in the sense that  
23 users have approached each other closer in time and space. This is because  
24 a slight increase in the second user's speed (see Figure 12) would result in  
25 collision. Different time thresholds have been proposed in the literature to

1 (a) define which interactions are severe enough to be considered as traffic  
2 conflicts, and (b) differentiate these interactions to severe and less severe  
3 ones. Some studies suggest to only consider events with PET values lower or  
4 equal to 4 seconds (Laureshyn et al., 2017) while others analyzed events with  
5 a PET threshold of 5 seconds (Kothuri et al., 2018; Zangenehpour et al.,  
6 2016). Events reporting a PET value equal to the threshold, i.e., 4 or 5  
7 seconds, are considered to be of mild severity. For this study, very few  
8 interactions were observed where PET was equal to 5 seconds. In addition,  
9 video analysis revealed that these interactions did not appear to be unsafe.  
10 As a result, the upper PET value used for the study was 4 seconds.

11 User sequence was also obtained for each PET value smaller than 4 sec-  
12 onds. In particular, conflicts that occurred when a bicyclist was the first  
13 user or the second user, i.e., the first or the second one to arrive at the con-  
14 flict area, were counted separately. The focus on the user sequence might  
15 reveal some further information with respect to the user behavior and allow  
16 for assessing whether bicyclists and motorists have different preferences with  
17 respect to the gap they leave between themselves and the leading vehicle.

### 18 *3.3. Model formulation*

19 The objective of this study is to correlate the number of conflicts per 15  
20 minutes with the types of bicycle treatments that are present (both at the  
21 segment- and the intersection-levels), as well as the right-turning motorized  
22 vehicle and through-bicycle volume for the respective time period.

23 The dependent variable, i.e., the number of traffic conflicts per 15 min-  
24 utes, is a positive integer and conflicts are random events. As a result, count  
25 data models, which can model discrete outcomes, are the appropriate family

1 of models to consider (Lord and Mannering, 2010). In traffic safety lit-  
2 erature, count data models have been used to model crash frequency data,  
3 however, more recently, they have also been used to model traffic conflicts for  
4 motorized vehicles (Essa and Sayed, 2018), between bicycles or pedestrians  
5 and motorized vehicles (Johnsson et al., 2018; Kothuri et al., 2018; Russo  
6 et al., 2020; Dill et al., 2012).

7 The Poisson distribution is appropriate for a set of observations where its  
8 mean and variance are approximately equal (Lord and Mannering, 2010); for  
9 the observed traffic conflicts this relation holds although variance is slightly  
10 higher than the mean (the mean and variance are 2.69 and 3.56 respectively).  
11 On the other hand, the Negative Binomial (NB) distribution is flexible, since  
12 it can represent observations where the variance exceeds the mean. Poisson,  
13 is a subcategory of NB, when the error term has zero variance. N

14 According to the NB distribution, the average expected number of events  
15  $\lambda_i$  (e.g., traffic conflicts) is given by the following equation:

$$\lambda_i = \exp(\beta X_i + \varepsilon_i) \quad (1)$$

16 where  $X_i$  is a vector of explanatory variables for the  $i^{th}$ -observation and  
17  $\beta$  is a vector of estimable parameters. The term  $\varepsilon_i$  is the error term that  
18 follows the gamma distribution with *mean* = 1 and *variance* =  $\alpha$ , where  
19  $\alpha$  is the dispersion parameter. The addition of the gamma-distributed er-  
20 ror term allows the observations' variance to be greater than the mean; the  
21 physical meaning is that some sites experience quite higher or lower events  
22 (e.g., traffic conflicts or crashes) compared to the mean across all sites. Equa-  
23 tion 1 represents the average expected frequency of events given by a Poisson

1 distribution.

2 The NB probability distribution has the following form as determined by  
3 Long (1997):

$$P(y_i|X_i) = \frac{\Gamma(1/\alpha + y_i)}{\Gamma(1/\alpha)y_i!} \left(\frac{1/\alpha}{(1/\alpha) + \lambda_i}\right)^{1/\alpha} \left(\frac{\lambda_i}{1/\alpha + \lambda_i}\right)^{y_i} \quad (2)$$

4 where  $y_i$  is the number of events (e.g., traffic conflicts) for the  $i^{th}$ -observation,  
5  $\Gamma(\cdot)$  is a gamma function, and  $\alpha$  is the dispersion parameter.

6 Finally the variance of the NB probability distribution is given by:

$$Var(y_i|X_i) = \lambda_i + \frac{\lambda_i^2}{1/\alpha} \quad (3)$$

7 In this study given that the mean and variance are close, both Poisson  
8 and NB distributions were considered to model traffic conflict frequency. The  
9 final selection of the distribution relies on statistical criteria; essentially, the  
10 objective is to keep the models that fit the data better. The Akaike In-  
11 formation Criterion (AIC) and Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) were  
12 estimated for each model. The model that showed the lower AIC and BIC  
13 values was the one presenting a better fit for the available data. The pa-  
14 rameters of the developed count data models were estimated by maximizing  
15 the log-likelihood function. All of the analyses were conducted by using  
16 the *statsmodel* module of the Python programming language (Seabold and  
17 Perktold, 2010).

18 As mentioned earlier, the recorded traffic conflicts were also categorized  
19 based on different PET values, and the road user sequence, i.e., whether a  
20 bicyclist was followed by a motorist or vice versa. Different time thresholds,

1 e.g., PET of one versus two seconds, correspond to a higher probability of  
 2 collision. These data collection would allow for a better understanding of the  
 3 frequency and type of more and less severe conflicts.

#### 4 **4. Results**

##### 5 *4.1. Traffic conflict model*

6 The first model that was estimated was the “base model” which relates the  
 7 number of traffic conflicts per 15 minutes to the exposure terms, i.e., right-  
 8 turning motorized vehicles and through-bicycles, and excludes any other in-  
 9 dependent variable. Note that the natural logarithm of each exposure term  
 10 is used for the model instead of the actual count. This transformation al-  
 11 lows us to model the following relationship between the dependent variable  
 12 and the exposure terms: when either of the exposure terms is zero, then the  
 13 dependent variable is zero as well. The traffic conflicts per 15 min are given  
 14 by the following equation ( 4):

$$N_i = RT_i^{\beta_1} TB_i^{\beta_2} e^{\beta_0} \quad (4)$$

15 where  $N$  is the number of conflicts per 15 minutes observed during the  $i^{th}$   
 16 interval,  $RT_i$  is the number of right-turning motorized vehicles during the  
 17  $i^{th}$  interval,  $TB_i$  is the number of through-bicycles observed during the same  
 18 interval, and  $X_4$  is the nominal variable for the bicycle treatment type.

19 The model as defined by Equation 4 was estimated by fitting the Poisson  
 20 and NB distributions. The Poisson distribution was found to have lower  
 21 AIC and BIC values ( $AIC_{Poisson} = 268$  and  $BIC_{Poisson} = 275$ ) compared to  
 22 the NB one ( $AIC_{NB} = 269$  and  $BIC_{NB} = 279$ ), meaning that the Poisson

Table 3: Base model

	Coefficient	Std error	$p$ -value	Conf. Intervals (95%)
Intercept	-3.5922	0.556	0.000***	[-4.682, -2.503]
Right-Turning Veh.	0.9084	0.171	0.000***	[0.573, 1.244]
Through-Bicyclists	0.7057	0.088	0.000***	[0.533, 0.879]

\*\*\* Statistically significant 99% confidence level

1 distribution is more appropriate in terms of fitting. The model specifications  
 2 of the Poisson model are shown in Table 3.

3 The base model reveals that both the number of right-turning motorized  
 4 vehicles and the number of through-bicycles are significantly and positively  
 5 associated with the number of conflicts at signalized intersections. These  
 6 findings align with existing research on bicycle-motorized vehicle collisions  
 7 at signalized intersections (Nordback et al., 2014). The developed model was  
 8 assessed in terms of goodness-of-fit (GoF) using the chi-square statistical  
 9 test. The GoF results revealed that the Poisson distribution fits the conflict  
 10 data with a chi-square value of 38.53 and a  $p$ -value of 0.273.

11 The base model was then extended to consider the variables for the bicycle  
 12 treatment presence. Specifically, the variables indicate whether a treatment  
 13 is present in the studied intersection approach or not: the segment-level treat-  
 14 ment type was treated as nominal variable with three levels (i.e., CBL, PBL,  
 15 and sharrows); the variable Crossings indicates whether there are intersec-  
 16 tion crossing markings, and finally the Bike Box variable indicates whether a  
 17 bike box is present. Both bike boxes and intersection crossing markings can  
 18 be present at an approach. The model form (Equation 5) and specifications  
 19 (Table 4) are presented below:

$$N_i = RT_i^{\beta_1} TB_i^{\beta_2} e^{\beta_0 + \beta_3 CBL + \beta_4 PBL + \beta_5 Crossings + \beta_6 BikeBox} \quad (5)$$

1 where  $N$  is the number of conflicts per 15 minutes observed during the  $i^{th}$   
2 interval,  $RT_i$  is the number of right-turning motorized vehicles during the  $i^{th}$   
3 interval,  $TB_i$ s is the number of through-bicyclists observed during the same  
4 interval, and CBL, PBL, Crossings, and BikeBox are the variables for the  
5 various bicycle treatment types.

Table 4: Traffic conflicts model with bicycle treatment type

	Coefficient	Std error	$p$ -value	Conf. Intervals (95%)
Intercept	-3.0417	0.622	0.000***	[-4.260, -1.824]
Right-Turning Veh.	0.8484	0.224	0.000***	[0.409, 1.288]
Through-Bicyclists	0.6927	0.137	0.000***	[0.424, 0.962]
CBL	-0.7046	0.371	0.057*	[-1.431, 0.022]
PBL	-0.5342	0.402	0.184	[-1.322, 0.254]
Crossings	0.3851	0.308	0.210	[-0.218, 0.988]
Bike Box	-0.1313	0.166	0.429	[-0.457 0.194]

\*,\*\*,\*\*\* Statistically significant at the 90%, 95%, and 99% confidence level

6 The exposure variables (i.e., right-turning vehicles and through-bicycles)  
7 and the constant are statistically significant at the 99% confidence level.  
8 However, the treatment variables, are not statistically significant at the 95%  
9 significant level or higher. This finding suggests that the studied bicycle  
10 treatment types, at the segment or the intersection, do not affect the fre-  
11 quency of right-hook conflicts. However, the chi-square test results show  
12 that this model fits the Poisson distribution well ( $\chi^2 = 37.49$ ,  $p$ -value =  
13 0.231). The only treatment that appears to have an impact, although at the  
14 90% confidence level is the conventional bike lane. Compared to sharrows,  
15 this segment-level bicycle treatment reduces right-hook conflicts.

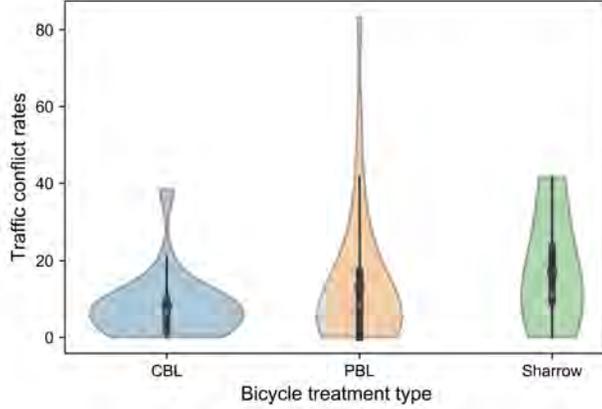


Figure 13: Conflict rates per bicycle treatment type

1 Conflict rates (Equation 6) were estimated for every 15 minutes interval  
 2 and then, grouped by segment treatment type.

$$C_{Ri} = \frac{100 * Conflicts}{TB_i * RT_i} \quad (6)$$

3 where  $C_{Ri}$  is the conflict rate estimated for the  $i^{th}$  interval,  $RT_i$  is the number  
 4 of right-turning motorized vehicles during the  $i^{th}$  interval, and  $TB_i$  is the  
 5 number of through-bicycles observed during the same interval.

6 Figure 13 shows three violin plots displaying the conflict rates per segment-  
 7 level bicycle treatment. Violin plots summarize information in a succinct  
 8 manner and show the probability density of the data at different values.  
 9 These violin plots reveal that lower conflict rates are associated with inter-  
 10 sections where conventional bike lanes are present compared to intersections  
 11 with protected bike lanes and sharrows.

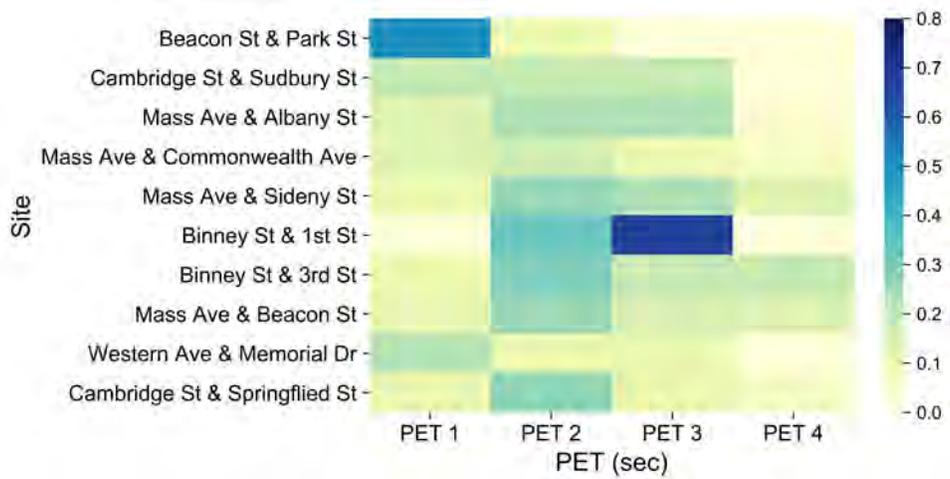
1 *4.2. User sequence and PET values*

2 This part of the analysis examined the observed right-hook conflicts in  
3 terms of road user sequence. There are two potential user sequences: a bicy-  
4 clist is user 1 and the motorist is user 2 and so, the bicycle is followed by the  
5 motorized vehicle, or the opposite. As noted earlier, while the observed con-  
6 flicts were recorded, the user sequence was recorded as well. While analyzing  
7 the data it became apparent that bicyclists tend to have smaller PET values  
8 when follow motorized vehicles compared to when they are being followed.

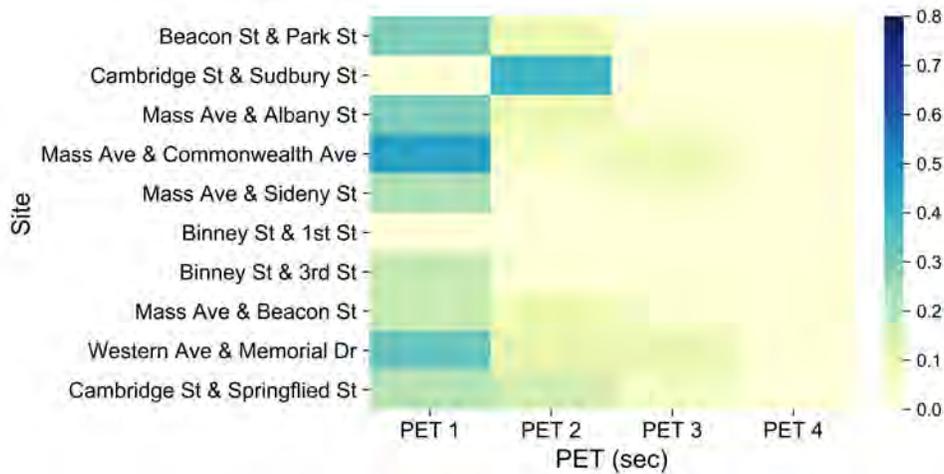
9 For the two different user sequences a heatmap was created to illustrate  
10 how PET values vary depending on the user sequence; see Figure 14. Each  
11 cell on the heatmap corresponds to the percentage of traffic conflicts per PET  
12 value and site over the total number of number of conflicts.

13 The heatmaps reveal that right-hook conflicts where a bicyclist is followed  
14 by a motorist tend to have PET values of 2 or 3 seconds, while when mo-  
15 torists are followed by bicyclists, PET values are more likely to be equal to 1  
16 second. Further statistical analysis was conducted to test whether there are  
17 statistically significant differences between the occurrence of conflicts at the  
18 various PET values and the user sequence. The data per group, i.e., per PET  
19 value and per user sequence, are not normally distributed, according to the  
20 Shapiro-Wilk test (Shapiro and Wilk, 1972). Therefore, the Kruskal–Wallis  
21 test (Kruskal and Wallis, 1952) was used to assess whether the two user se-  
22 quence groups per each PET value, i.e., 1, 2, and 3 seconds, are significantly  
23 different. The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test are presented in Table 5.

24 Findings from this analysis showed that there is a statistically significant  
25 difference between the reported PET values between the two different groups:



(a) Conflicts where a bicycle is followed by a motorized vehicle



(b) Conflicts where a motorized vehicle is followed by a bicycle

Figure 14: Heatmaps for the percentage of the number of traffic conflicts per PET value and per site over the total conflicts

Table 5: Kruskal-Wallis test results for different PET values and user sequence

PET value (sec)	Statistic	$p$ -value
PET = 1	3.871	0.049**
PET = 2	13.055	0.000***
PET = 3	12.151	0.000***
All PET	5.436	0.020**

\*\* *Statistically significant at the 95% level*

\*\*\* *Statistically significant at the 99% level*

1 conflicts where a bicyclist was followed by a motorized vehicle or was following  
 2 one. Bicyclists tend to maintain smaller distance between themselves and  
 3 the vehicle in their front that is turning right, while motorists maintain a  
 4 relatively larger distance. This finding could impact on the way PET is  
 5 recorded.

## 6 5. Discussion

7 Overall, the bicycle treatment type does not appear to have a significant  
 8 impact on the frequency of right-hook conflicts. Conventional bike lanes  
 9 showed promising results for improving safety compared to sharrows, but  
 10 more research is needed to conclude whether they are indeed capable of  
 11 reducing the frequency of right-hook conflicts. With respect to the other  
 12 treatment types, a few considerations are listed below in an effort to explain  
 13 their lack of impact on reducing right-hook conflicts between bicyclists and  
 14 motorists.

15 Intersection-level treatments, such as bike boxes and intersection crossing  
 16 markings, can indeed be beneficial for improving bicyclist safety as concluded  
 17 by previous studies (Dill et al., 2012; Loskorn et al., 2013; Fournier et al.,  
 18 2020; Warner et al., 2017). However, their safety impact is not necessarily

1 related to reducing right-hook conflicts and it is reasonable to infer that addi-  
2 tional countermeasures are needed to reduce (or even eliminate) right-hook  
3 conflicts at signalized intersections. Bike boxes and intersection crossing  
4 markings should be placed at intersections to improve bicycle safety and in-  
5 crease driver awareness on bicyclist presence in general, however, it is critical  
6 for practitioners to understand which safety aspect they intent to improve  
7 by implementing those treatments and whether additional signage or other  
8 control devices are needed to enhance the safety impact of such treatments  
9 specifically on reducing right-hook crashes.

10 Another reason that explains why the particular treatments at the seg-  
11 ment and the intersection levels are not strongly impacting right-hook con-  
12 flicts is bicyclist behavior when going through the intersection. Anecdotally,  
13 bicyclists often chose to wait in front of motorized vehicles and particularly  
14 right after the crosswalk (regardless the presence of intersection treatments),  
15 ensuring that they would be the first to proceed through the intersection once  
16 the light turned green, thus, eliminating any potential conflicts. This was  
17 observed at sites with and without bike boxes and/or intersection crossing  
18 markings. Bicyclists crossing the intersection during the red signal indication  
19 was also a relatively common phenomenon. The presence of bicycle signals  
20 would be beneficial for bicyclists in terms of safety and convenience.

21 Finally, in the studied sites there are also considerable pedestrian vol-  
22 umes due to the fact that all sites were located in the downtown areas. More  
23 pedestrians and bicyclists improve safety for pedestrians and bicyclists, creat-  
24 ing the “safety-in-numbers” effect (Jacobsen, 2015) something also observed  
25 (but not recorded) during the video data analysis. Motorized vehicles turn-

1 ing right yield to pedestrians and during those moments bicyclists can also  
2 proceed through the intersection without interacting with the motorized vehi-  
3 cles. Right-turning motorized vehicles are stopped ahead of the segment-level  
4 treatments or bike boxes during this time, which in turn reduces the poten-  
5 tial for right-hook conflicts. The “Yield to Bicycles” sign that is placed in  
6 most of the studied intersections, might also have a strong impact on driver  
7 situational awareness and consequently, driver behavior. A driving simulator  
8 study found that the presence of “Yield to Bicycles” signs attracted drivers’  
9 glances (Warner et al., 2017). An increase in the time drivers spent looking  
10 at their right mirror before making a right turn was also observed in the  
11 presence of such signs (Warner et al., 2017).

12 In addition to evaluating the safety impact of bicycle treatment types  
13 on right-hook conflict occurrence at signalized intersection, the analysis also  
14 centered on the different PET values reported for the two user sequence  
15 types. PET values for conflicts that involve bicyclists followed by motorized  
16 vehicles are lower compared to the opposite user sequence and it was found  
17 that this difference is statistically significant for all the PET intervals (1, 2, 3,  
18 and 4 seconds). It seems that bicyclists feel safer while the conflicting vehicle  
19 is in their front and so they do not consider it important to for example slow  
20 down so that they can increase their distance from the right-turning vehicle.  
21 This finding could motivate research on the appropriate thresholds to classify  
22 the detected conflicts as more or less severe.

## 1 **6. Conclusions**

2 This study aimed to assess the safety impact of five bicycle treatments  
3 at signalized intersections focusing in particular, on right-hook conflicts be-  
4 tween right-turning motorized vehicles and through-going bicycles. Poisson  
5 regression was used to model the observed traffic conflicts while additional  
6 analysis focused on the impact of user sequence, i.e., a bicyclist arrives first  
7 at the conflict and is followed by a motorized vehicle or vice versa, in  
8 relation to the PET values.

9 The developed model found a strong positive association between the ob-  
10 served number of conflicts and the exposure terms, i.e., right-turning vehicles  
11 and through-bicycles, but did not find a statistically significant relationship  
12 between the conflicts and the bicycle treatment type; conventional bike lanes  
13 appear to improve safety for bicyclists however, this finding was significant  
14 at the 90% confidence level.

15 The observations collected through the video recordings also concluded  
16 that lower PET values correspond to cases where a motorized vehicle is fol-  
17 lowed by a bicycle. This suggests that bicyclists tend to maintain a smaller  
18 distance from the motorized vehicle in their front and potentially, different  
19 PET thresholds should be defined for this user sequence in an effort to capture  
20 the potential severity of a conflict. Intuitively, it is riskier when a motorized  
21 vehicle maintains a small distance from the leading bicycle compared to the  
22 opposite.

23 Possible limitations of this study is the relatively small number of sites  
24 hours of the overall data collection effort; across the different sites 22 hours  
25 of data were analyzed. However, an effort was made to ensure consistency,

1 e.g., data collection took place only on weekdays of October and November,  
2 during the peak hours of the day and during clear weather conditions. An-  
3 other limitation is the lack of considering the presence and impact of control  
4 devices. For example, this study did not include signal timing considera-  
5 tions such as phasing sequence and signal timings or the presence of signage  
6 that could be affecting bicyclist and motorist behavior. Bicyclist and mo-  
7 torist behavior could also be affected by the level of familiarity with certain  
8 treatments, some of which are fairly new in the study area.

9 Overall, existing literature on surrogate safety techniques and specifically  
10 on traffic conflict studies using indicators such PET or TTC, is inconclusive  
11 regarding the amount of data is needed to accurately assess safety using such  
12 metrics. But even with this uncertainty, data collection used for surrogate  
13 safety studies is more easily acquired and more informative compared to  
14 crash record datasets; video data collection provides data for traffic conflict  
15 analysis but also allows us to study other factors, e.g., user compliance with  
16 the bicycle treatment and intersection control.

17 Future research should focus on several aspects to better understand the  
18 crash mechanism behind right-hook crashes by studying right-hook conflicts.  
19 First, the occurrence of traffic conflicts should be studied in relation to user  
20 compliance, i.e., given the lack of bicycle signals bicyclists tend to cross the  
21 intersection during red, which potentially eliminates the potential of conflicts.  
22 The presence of other intersection treatments, e.g., protected intersections,  
23 that are specifically placed to protected bicyclists from right-turning vehi-  
24 cles (Deliali et al., 2020) should also be evaluated using surrogate safety  
25 methods. It is also important to consider sites where intersection treatments

1 in addition to bicycle signals are present and develop recommendations to  
2 guide their implementation based on bicycle and vehicle demand levels and  
3 intersection geometric characteristics; there is some research on this field but  
4 it is again limited in terms of the studied treatment types and control strate-  
5 gies (Kothuri et al., 2018; Russo et al., 2020). Finally, future research should  
6 focus on the user sequence when assessing conflicts between bicycles and  
7 motorized vehicles, leading to recommendations on the appropriate thresh-  
8 olds needed to determine safe and unsafe interactions between motorists and  
9 bicyclists.

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