

Binomial and multinomial regression models for predicting the tactical choices of bicyclists at signalised intersections

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Abstract

Bicyclists are extremely flexible road users who employ various tactical behaviours to optimise comfort, directness and time efficiency while crossing a signalised intersection. Tactical choices faced by bicyclists at signalised intersections include whether to use the bicycle lane, roadway or sidewalk, to stop at or violate a red traffic signal, to ride with or against the mandatory direction of travel and the method of executing a left turn. The outcome of these choices has a direct impact on traffic safety and efficiency at intersections. In this paper, revealed choice data from 4710 bicyclists at four intersections in Munich, Germany are used to estimate binomial and multinomial logistic regression models to predict tactical choice outcomes. Optimal predictor sets are selected from the main and two-way interaction effects of 43 independent variables describing the situation, strategic behaviour and prior tactical choices of bicyclists using recursive feature elimination. A simplified model is estimated using the statistically significant variables of the optimal predictor set. The prediction power of the resulting regression model is assessed using k-fold cross validation. The models to predict response to a red signal and the type of left-hand turn exhibit high predictive power while the prediction of infrastructure selection and the direction of travel proves to be difficult.

Keywords: Bicyclist behaviour; Tactical choice modelling; Regression analysis

27 1. Introduction

28 Bicycling is an inexpensive, non-polluting transportation mode that is often the fastest alternative
29 for trips under 5 km in cities and towns (Dekoster et al., 2000). Benefits can be realised on both the
30 personal and societal level by capitalising on the economic, health and mobility advantages of
31 bicycling. However, persisting concerns with bicyclist safety and the challenge of maintaining traffic
32 efficiency for all modes while encouraging bicycling have underlined the need for quantitative
33 research in the field of bicycle transport. Knowledge concerning the tactical behaviour of bicyclists,
34 factors motivating this behaviour and the relationship between bicyclist behaviour and overall traffic
35 safety and efficiency is necessary to support future transport planning and engineering endeavours.
36 Furthermore, the development of driver assistance systems and Intelligent Transport Systems that
37 aim to protect bicyclists requires detailed knowledge about the behaviour of bicyclists. Models for
38 predicting the behaviour of bicyclists based on previous movements and the current situation are
39 imperative inputs for such systems.

40 According to the framework defined by Michon (1985), tactical behaviour of road users
41 comprises conscious decisions made on a time horizon of seconds to minutes, such as path
42 selection and response to a red signal. Tactical behaviour is guided by strategic choices, such as
43 route choice, and is constrained by feedback from the operational level, including current speed
44 and necessary evasive actions. Tactical decisions are also influenced by situational factors, such
45 as the geometry of the intersection and the traffic signal control. The sociodemographic
46 characteristics and preferences of the bicyclist influence the interpretation of the situation and
47 determine the response.

48 To address the lack of definitive knowledge concerning the factors motivating tactical
49 behaviour, four choices faced by bicyclists at signalised intersections are investigated in this paper;
50 the choice between riding on the bicycle lane, roadway or sidewalk (infrastructure selection), the
51 reaction to a red signal, the decision to ride with or against the mandatory direction (direction of
52 travel) and the path selection when executing a left turn manoeuvre. Logistic regression models
53 are estimated to predict the outcome of these choices using strategic choices, prior tactical
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54 behaviour and situational variables as predictors. The aim of this research is to identify relationships
55 between the environment and the tactical behaviour of bicyclists in order to design infrastructure
56 and traffic signal control that encourages overall rule-conform and safe behaviour. As such, the
57 personal attributes of the bicyclist, including gender, age and bicycling experience, are not included
58 in the literature review or model development.

59 2. Literature Review

60 There is a large body of research that has examined the link between various tactical behaviours
61 of bicyclists and the occurrence of a collision. For example, riding against the mandatory direction
62 of travel has been found in many studies to increase the risk to bicyclists (Alrutz and Meewes,
63 1980; Gerstenberger, 2015; Herslund and Jørgensen, 2003; Ortlepp, 2009; Räsänen and
64 Summala, 1998; Summala et al., 1996). In addition, a number of studies have investigated the type
65 of infrastructure available for bicyclists and the risk of injury (Aultman-Hall and Hall, 1998; Lusk et
66 al., 2011; Moritz, 1998; Reynolds et al., 2009; Rivara et al., 1997; Rodgers, 1995; Teschke et al.,
67 2012). The tactical use of different parts of the road infrastructure is very likely also associated with
68 risk, although no studies were found that directly examine this link. Other tactical behaviours,
69 including violating red traffic signals and riding on the sidewalk, have been found by researchers
70 to pose significant risk to bicyclists and other road users (Lusk et al., 2011; Moritz, 1998; Reynolds
71 et al., 2009; Rivara et al., 1997; Rodgers, 1995; Schramm et al., 2008; Teschke et al., 2012).

72 Although the relationship between bicyclists' actions and resulting safety risk is relatively
73 well understood, few studies have investigated the motivating factors of these behaviours. The
74 findings of the few studies identified in the course of this review are summarised below.

- 75 • **Infrastructure Selection:** The choice between using a bicycle lane, the roadway or the
76 sidewalk is motivated by the type and width of an available bicycle lane (Alrutz et al., 2009;
77 Guo et al., 2013) as well as the quality and possible obstruction of the facility (Kuller et al.,
78 1986). Researchers have investigated the role of bicycle, pedestrian and motor vehicle traffic
79 volumes in infrastructure selection, but have come to contradictory conclusions (Alrutz et al.,

2009; Guo et al., 2013; Kuller et al., 1986). Non-observable motivating factors, such the desire to ride two abreast, preparation for upcoming manoeuvres and a feeling of safety were given by bicyclists who decided not to use an available bicycle lane (Kuller et al., 1986).

• **Response to red signal:** In their review of 16 studies pertaining to red light violations of bicyclists, Richardson & Caulfield (2015) found percentages of red light violation (or violators for self-reported surveys) to range between 6.9% and 87.5%. The infrastructure used by a bicyclist is linked to the likelihood of a red light violation (Allen et al., 2005; Johnson et al., 2011; Richardson and Caulfield, 2015). In addition, the traffic flow on the current approach as well as on the crossing road of the intersection plays an important role in red light compliance (Johnson et al., 2013, 2011; Pai and Jou, 2014). The desired manoeuvre of the bicyclist (straight, right or left turn) has been found to be related to red light violation (Johnson et al., 2013, 2011), as is the length of the signal phase (Pai & Jou, 2014).

• **Direction of travel:** Two main reasons for riding against the given direction of travel were identified by Kuller et al. (1986). First, bicyclists are more likely to violate traffic rules upon approaching their final destination or an intermediate goal and consequently ride the last few meters of the trip against the mandatory direction of travel. The second reason given for riding against the mandatory direction of travel is route simplification. No other literature was found that investigates this behaviour.

• **Left turn manoeuvre:** In comparison to motor vehicles, which are constrained to one method of carrying out a left turn, bicyclists have a number of rule conform and non-conform options for implementing this manoeuvre (depicted in Figure 1):

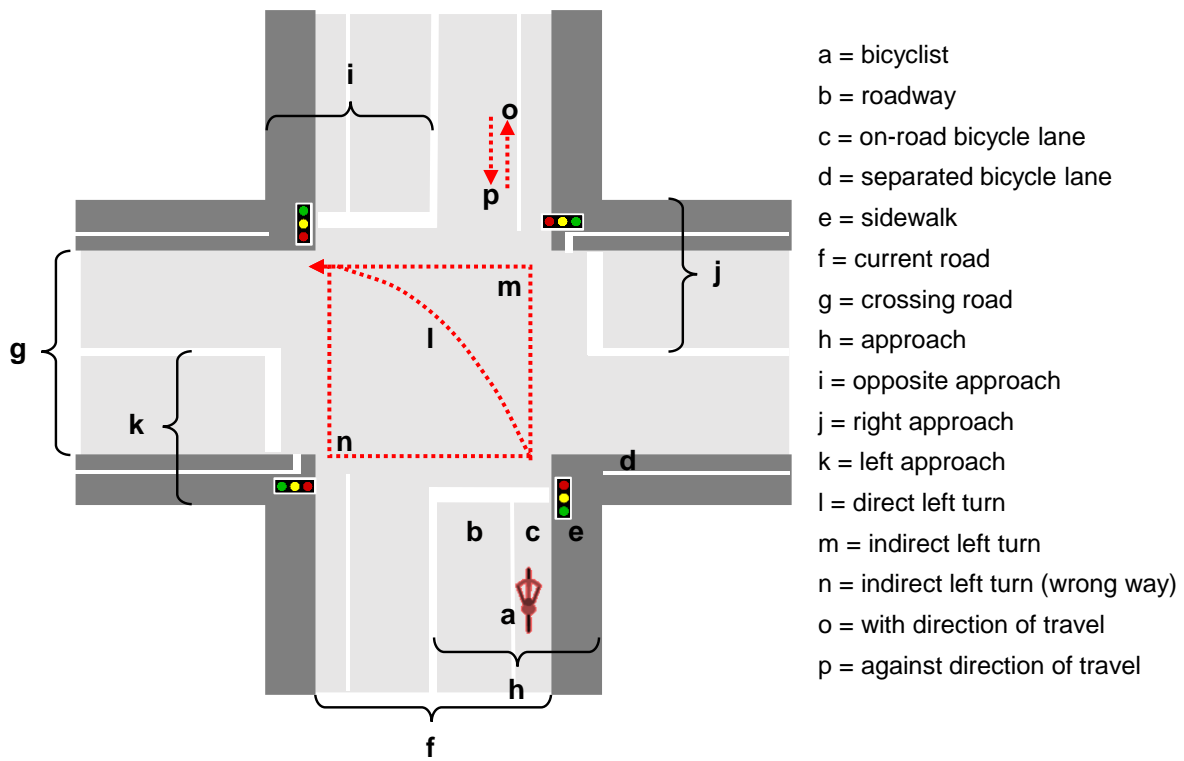
1. Direct left turn – turn with the motor vehicle traffic in one signal phase (l in Figure 1)
2. Indirect left turn – turn over two phases using a pedestrian style turn (m in Figure 1)
3. Indirect left turn (wrong way) – similar to the indirect left turn but moving against the mandatory direction of travel during both of the turning phases (n in Figure 1)

The selection of one of these paths appears to be influenced by the state of the traffic signal and the infrastructure used upon arrival (Amini et al., 2016).

107 **3. Methodology**

108 Revealed choice data from bicyclists at four research intersections in Munich, Germany are used
 109 to develop logistic regression models. Intersections were selected with differing types of bicycle
 110 infrastructure (on-road bicycle lane, separated bicycle path and no specific bicycle infrastructure),
 111 volumes of bicycle and motor vehicle traffic and road geometry. A two-hour segment of video data
 112 recorded during the morning peak hour at each intersection was selected for a detailed behavioural
 113 analysis. Detailed data describing the tactical behaviour of the bicyclists and the situation at the
 114 intersection were extracted. Finally, timing information from the traffic actuated signals was
 115 supplied by the City of Munich and was linked to the observed data using a corrected time stamp.

116 A total of 37 independent variables describing the strategic and prior tactical choices of the
 117 bicyclist as well as the situational factors are used as predictors in the logistic regression models.
 118 A visual representation of selected independent variables and dependent variables (tactical
 119 choices) is shown in Figure 1.



121 Figure 1 Graphical representation of selected tactical choice options and situational factors

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122 Adequate variation in the independent variables is assured through the selection of research
 123 intersections with approaches differing from one another in terms of traffic flow and geometry.
 124 Variables describing the presence of other road users as well as the state of the signal control at
 125 the moment a bicyclist arrives provide further variation between cases. A list of the categorical
 126 independent variables with observed frequencies is shown in Table 1. The continuous independent
 127 variables with descriptive statistics are given in Table 2.

Independent variable	Category 1	Category 2	Category 3
Strategic / prior tactical choice			
Manoeuvre	Straight N=4040 (80.4%)	Right N=454 (9.0%)	Left N=534 (10.6%)
Infrastructure selection	Bicycle lane N=3532 (94.8%)	Roadway N=67 (1.8%)	Sidewalk N=128 (3.4%)
Geometry			
Bicycle lane	None N=634 (12.4%)	Bicycle lane N=4485 (87.6%)	
Bicycle lane type	None N=634 (12.4%)	On-road N=2070 (40.4%)	Separated N=2415 (47.2%)
Parking	None N=2268 (44.3%)	Parking N=2851 (55.7%)	
Left turn lane	None N=2484 (48.5%)	Left turn lane N=2635 (51.5%)	
Centre island	None N=1729 (33.8%)	Centre island N=3390 (66.2%)	
Traffic			
Right lane occupancy	No N=1617 (33.5%)	Yes N=3214 (66.5%)	
Signal control			
Signal phase	Red N=2817 (55.6%)	Green N=2253 (44.4%)	
Specific bicycle signal	Shared signal N=2438 (47.6%)	Bicycle signal N=2681 (52.4%)	

128 Table 1 Description of categorical independent variables

129

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Independent variable	Unit	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Geometry					
Bicycle lane width	m	1.5	0.7	0.0	2.2
Sidewalk width	m	3.5	1.6	0.9	9.3
Roadway width (approach)	m	7.9	3.0	0.0	12.0
Roadway width (opposite approach)	m	5.3	1.7	0.0	10.9
Driving lanes (approach)	-	2.4	0.9	0	4
Driving lanes (opposite approach)	-	1.6	0.6	0	2
Total roadway width (current road)	m	18.3	7.0	8.8	28.6
Total roadway width (crossing road)	m	16.8	5.5	8.8	28.6
Total driving lanes (current road)	-	4.0	1.4	2	6
Total driving lanes (crossing road)	-	3.6	1.2	2	6
Traffic					
Cars in approach	-	2.5	2.0	0	10
Trucks in approach	-	0.1	0.4	0	3
Pedestrians in approach	-	1.3	1.8	0	20
Bicyclists in approach	-	1.6	2.1	0	16
Traffic volume (approach)	veh/h	646.6	309.7	0	1800
Traffic volume (crossing road)	veh/h	523.9	286.6	0	1800
Percentage HDV and buses (approach)	%	4.9	4.0	0	16
Percentage HDV and buses (crossing road)	%	5.6	4.2	0	16
Bicyclist volume (approach)	bicycles/h	337.7	201.3	0	660
Bicyclist volume (crossing road)	bicycles/h	199.4	159.2	0	660
Pedestrian volume (approach)	ped/h	255.9	238.2	0	1160
Pedestrian volume (crossing road)	ped/h	329.5	358.3	0	1160
Signal control					
Time since last phase change (red)	s	25.5	16.2	0	98
Time since last phase change (green)	s	14.8	11.8	0	102
Time until next phase change (red)	s	28.0	17.9	0	91
Time until next phase change (green)	s	17.2	16.0	0	103
Phase length	s	43.3	17.2	7	104

130 Table 2 Description of continuous independent variables

131

132 A logistic regression model for each of the tactical choices is specified and calibrated using
133 recursive feature elimination, which combines k-fold cross validation and predictor selection based
134 on the log likelihood of the model. The main effects and two-way interactions between the
135 situational variables listed in Table 1 and Table 2 are used as an initial set of explanatory variables.
136 The following steps are taken to identify the optimal set of explanatory variables for each of the
137 tactical choice models and estimate the corresponding β parameters:

138 **1. Data pre-processing:** Relevant cases are extracted from the complete dataset to analyse
139 each of the tactical choices. For example, to estimate the regression model for predicting the
140 response to a red signal, only data from bicyclists who encountered a red signal are selected
141 (N=1935). Each of these data subsets is unique and is pre-processed prior to model
142 estimation. This is done by removing variables that contain zero or near to zero variance.
143 The pair-wise correlations between the remaining variables are assessed to identify inter-
144 correlated variables. If a pair-wise correlation greater than 0.6 is identified, the variable with
145 the largest mean correlation with all other variables is removed from the dataset. Data pre-
146 processing is carried out in two phases. In the first phase, the main effects of variables listed
147 in Table 2 are assessed and variables with near to zero variance and high correlations with
148 other variables are removed from the dataset. Pair-wise interaction terms for the remaining
149 variables are created and the pre-processing procedure is repeated.

150 **2. Recursive feature elimination:** The resulting dataset is divided into $k = 10$ equal subsets
151 for the k-fold cross validation. The model is estimated using $k - 1$ of the subsets and is
152 validated using the remaining subset. This is repeated k times using each of the data subsets
153 once for validation. The backwards elimination process is carried out within each fold. The
154 model is estimated using all of the variables remaining after the pre-processing step. The
155 predictive power of the model, which is assessed using the Area Under the Curve (AUC) for
156 binomial regression and accuracy for multinomial regression, is assessed using the held back
157 dataset and the variables are ranked based on their importance. The least important variable

158 is removed and the model is re-estimated with the remaining variables. This is repeated until
159 only one variable remains in the model. The optimal set of predictors (largest AUC or
160 accuracy) is identified for each fold. The performance profiles of the variable subsets are
161 calculated over all the held back samples of the k-fold cross validation and the optimal set of
162 predictors is determined.

163 **3. Full model estimation:** The entire data subset is used to estimate the β values for the
164 identified optimal set of predictors. In order to improve the interpretability of the regression
165 models, the main effect of both variables in two-way interaction terms are added to the
166 optimal set of predictors for the final model. This is done even if the main effects do not
167 improve the predictive power of the model.

168 **4. Simplified model estimation:** The β values are re-estimated for a reduced model comprised
169 of only the predictors found to be statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) in the full model. In cases
170 where a main effect can replace an interaction term, the main effect predictor is given
171 preference to maintain model simplicity.

172 Binomial and multinomial regression models are estimated and evaluated using the statistics
173 software package R (The R Foundation, 2016). The recursive feature elimination (RFE) function of
174 the classification and regression training package caret (Kuhn, 2016) is used to identify the most
175 powerful set of predictors from the 37 variables using combined backward selection and k-fold
176 cross validation. The reduced models are presented in this paper because the detail offered is
177 deemed sufficient for application in microscopic traffic simulation.

178 The Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curve, which compares the false positive rate
179 with the true positive rate of a binary predictor at various classification thresholds, is used to assess
180 the binomial regression models and identify the optimal classification threshold. According to
181 Hosmer et al. (2013, p. 174), “this measure has now become the standard for evaluating a fitted
182 model’s ability to assign, in general, higher probabilities of the outcome to the subgroup who
183 develop the outcome ($y=1$) than it does to the subgroup who do not develop the outcome ($y=0$)”

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184 The predictive power of the model can be deduced from the Area Under the Curve (AUC), with
 185 larger areas signifying higher predictive power. AUC values range between 0.5 and 1.0, where 0.5
 186 indicates that the model is no better at predicting the outcome than random chance and 1.0 a
 187 perfect prediction. In general, AUC values between 0.5-0.7 indicate poor discrimination that is
 188 marginally better than random change, 0.7-0.8 indicates acceptable discrimination, 0.8-0.9 signifies
 189 excellent discrimination and above 0.9 shows outstanding discrimination (Hosmer et al., 2013).

190 In addition to evaluating the power of the logistic regression model, the ROC Curve is useful
 191 for selecting a well-suited cut-off point for the classification. Typically the cut-off point for a
 192 classification model is set at 0.5 such that if $P(y = 1) \geq 0.5$, the outcome is predicted to be one.
 193 This value can be shifted, however, to maximize the sensitivity and specificity of the regression
 194 model. Here, a cut-off point is selected for each of the models that is plotted on the upper most left
 195 corner of the ROC Curve.

196 Along with AUC, the following metrics derived from classification tables are used to evaluate
 197 the predictive power of the models:

- 198 • Accuracy ($\sum True\ positive + \sum True\ negative / \sum Predictions$)
- 199 • Sensitivity ($\sum True\ positive / \sum Condition\ positive$)
- 200 • Specificity ($\sum True\ negative / \sum Condition\ negative$)
- 201 • Positive Predictive Value ($\sum True\ positive / \sum Test\ outcome\ positive$)
- 202 • Negative Predictive Value ($\sum True\ negative / \sum Test\ outcome\ negative$)

203 To evaluate multinomial logistic regression models, these evaluation parameters are generalised
 204 to the Mean Sensitivity, Mean Specificity, Mean Positive Predictive Value and Mean Negative
 205 Predictive Value across all choice categories.

206 4. Results

207 The resulting reduced regression models are presented in this section. The tactical choices
 208 selected for analysis, all of which are described using nominal variables with two or three

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209 categories, are listed in Table 3 along with the number and percentage of bicyclists observed
210 carrying out each tactical option.

Tactical choice	Category 1	Category 2	Category 3
Infrastructure selection (no bicycle lane) N=451	Roadway N=428 (94.9%)	Sidewalk N=23 (5.1%)	
Infrastructure selection (bicycle lane) N=3727	Bicycle lane N=3532 (94.8%)	Roadway N=67 (1.8%)	Sidewalk N=128 (3.4%)
Response to red signal N=1935	Stop N=1552 (80.2%)	Violate N=383 (19.8%)	
Direction of travel N=4710	With direction N=4651 (98.7%)	Against direction N=59 (1.3%)	
Left turn manoeuvre N=426	Direct turn N=66 (15.5%)	Indirect turn N=166 (39.0%)	Indirect turn (wrong way) N=194 (45.5%)

211 Table 3 Tactical choices with categories and observed counts and percentages

212 For each of the tactical choices, the optimal set of predictors is identified using recursive feature
213 elimination and k-fold cross validation. The final model is estimated using predictors found to be
214 statistically significant ($p \leq 0.01$). The predictors are sorted by their predictive power within the
215 main effects and interaction effects. The most important predictors in each model are discussed
216 and compared with the findings of previous studies.

217 4.1. Infrastructure selection without bicycle lane

218 Over 95% of the observed bicyclists use the roadway on approaches with no bicycle lane. A
219 reduced model consisting of only two predictors is found to provide acceptable predictive power
220 (AUC = 0.76). Traffic attributes on the approach have an important influence on infrastructure
221 choice; the likelihood of using the roadway decreases by 1.76 (0.58^{-1}) times for each additional car
222 in the approach. This finding echoes that of Kuller et al. (1986), who found that high traffic volumes
223 discourage roadway use. The manoeuvre of the bicyclist also affects the choice outcome.
224 According to this model, bicyclists turning left are 6.09 (0.16^{-1}) times less likely to use the roadway.

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225 This finding seems counterintuitive but is due to the fact that many bicyclists turning left ride against
 226 the mandatory direction of travel (route simplification) and therefore use the sidewalk rather than
 227 the roadway.

N = 451 Sidewalk use = 0, Roadway use = 1	β	Odds ratio	Sig.
Intercept	4.24	69.20	0.000
Cars in approach	-0.54	0.58	0.000
Manoeuvre (left turn)	-1.81	0.16	0.000
Classification threshold:		0.95	
AUC		0.76	
Accuracy		0.73	
Sensitivity		0.73	
Specificity		0.78	
Positive Predictive Value		0.98	
Negative Predictive Value		0.13	

228 Table 4 Binomial logistic regression model and k-fold cross validation for infrastructure selection
 229 without bicycle lane

230 While roadway use is predicted with considerable success, the prediction of sidewalk use proves
 231 to be less reliable. This could indicate that bicyclists choose to use the sidewalk for reasons that
 232 are unobservable, such as a feeling of safety or the anticipation of upcoming manoeuvre.
 233 Additionally, the low number of sidewalk use observations limits the potential to identify patterns
 234 between the independent variables and this choice outcome. A high classification threshold of 0.95
 235 is identified, which addresses the observed skewness in decision outcomes by shifting predictions
 236 into the sidewalk category.

237 *4.2. Infrastructure selection with bicycle lane*

238 If a bicycle lane is provided, bicyclists tend to use this facility. Over 95% of bicyclists observed on
 239 approaches with a bicycle lane selected this infrastructure, which is slightly higher than the 90%
 240 found by Alrutz et al. (2009). Infrastructure selection can be framed as a discrete choice with three

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241 possible outcomes, bicycle lane, roadway or sidewalk. Initially, a multinomial logistic regression
242 model was estimated to predict infrastructure use. Although correlations were found between the
243 predictors and the choice outcome, these correlations were not strong enough to estimate a model
244 capable of predicting roadway or sidewalk use.

245 In order to capitalise on the simplicity of binomial logistic regression as well as the
246 adjustable classification threshold, the model shown in Table 5 is developed to predict whether a
247 bicyclist will use an available bicycle lane or not. The strongest predictor of bicycle lane use is a
248 right turn manoeuvre, which decreases the likelihood of using the bicycle lane by 6.03 (0.17^{-1})
249 times, due to increased sidewalk use. The width of the bicycle lane plays an important role in the
250 choice, with the likelihood of bicycle lane use increasing by 1.25 times for each additional cm of
251 width ($e^{\frac{21.56}{100}}$). This effect is moderated by the volume of bicycle traffic on the approach, which
252 decreases bicycle lane use by 1.09 times for each increase in one bicycle per hour. The presence
253 of other road users in the approach has an interesting effect on bicycle lane use. If there are only
254 cars or only pedestrians present, the likelihood of bicycle lane use is reduced. If both are present,
255 however, the interaction term increases the probability of bicycle lane use. This make intuitive
256 sense as the presence of other road users on the sidewalk and roadway likely push bicyclists into
257 an available bicycle lane. The presence of other bicyclists on the other hand, propels bicyclists from
258 the bicycle lane, particularly on separated facilities.

259 The model predicts bicycle lane use with acceptable overall accuracy. However, the
260 prediction of bicycle lane use is more reliable than that of not using the bicycle lane. This is likely
261 due to the overrepresentation of bicycle lane observations in the sample and the potential role of
262 personal attributes and unobservable factors in the choice to use the roadway or sidewalk when a
263 bicycle lane is available. The high classification threshold of 0.96 coerces the prediction of not using
264 the bicycle lane, but these predictions are often incorrect (low negative predictive values).

265 The finding of previous studies indicate that the width and type of the bicycle lane are
266 decisive in infrastructure selection while traffic conditions are unimportant (Alrutz et al., 2009; Guo
267 et al., 2013). According to the findings here, the number and type of road users in the approach

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268 have a strong influence on infrastructure choice. Previous studies found that wider bicycle lanes
 269 have a higher rate of acceptance, which is confirmed. However, unlike Alrutz et al. (2009), on-road
 270 bicycle lanes are found here to have a higher acceptance than separated facilities.

N = 3727 No bicycle lane use = 0, Bicycle lane use = 1	β	Odds ratio	Sig.
Intercept	-30.86	0.00	0.000
Manoeuvre (right turn)	-1.80	0.17	0.000
Bicyclist volume – approach (bicycles/h)	0.09	1.09	0.000
Bicycle lane width (m)	21.56	2.32e9	0.000
Bicycle lane type (separated)	-5.65	0.00	0.001
Driving lanes (same direction)	1.24	3.47	0.000
Sidewalk width (m)	-1.50	0.22	0.002
Centre island	1.81	6.10	0.010
Parking	-1.67	0.19	0.000
Pedestrians in approach	-0.16	0.85	0.033
Bicyclists in approach	-0.04	0.96	0.421
Cars in approach	-0.01	0.99	0.828
Bicycle lane width (m) * Bicyclist volume – approach (bicycles/h)	-0.05	0.95	0.000
Bicycle lane type (separated) * Bicyclists in approach	-0.28	0.76	0.000
Bicycle lane type (separated) * Sidewalk width (m)	0.75	2.11	0.056
Cars in approach * Pedestrians in approach	0.06	1.06	0.047
Classification threshold:		0.96	
AUC		0.76	
Accuracy		0.73	
Sensitivity		0.73	
Specificity		0.72	
Positive Predictive Value		0.98	
Negative Predictive Value		0.13	

271 Table 5 Binomial logistic regression model and k-fold cross validation for infrastructure selection
 272 with bicycle lane

273

274

275 4.1. Response to a red signal

276 When faced with a red traffic signal, roughly a fifth of the observed bicyclists violated the signal.
 277 The manoeuvre carried out by a bicyclist plays a very strong role in whether or not he or she will
 278 stop at a red light. Bicyclists turning right are 134.15 times more likely to run a red light than those
 279 riding straight across the intersection. On one-way roads, bicyclists turning left are 13.76 times
 280 more likely to violate a red light (Roadway width – opposite = 0). For each meter of roadway width
 281 in the opposite direction, this probability increases by 1.33 times. This is due to the fact that carrying
 282 out an indirect left turn against the mandatory direction of travel includes the violation of the first
 283 traffic signal. The time elapsed since the signal became red has a deterring effect on red light
 284 violations; bicyclists become 1.35 ($\frac{1}{e^{-0.03*10}}$) times less likely to violate the signal for each ten
 285 seconds passed since the signal became red.

N = 1935 Stop = 0, Violate = 1	β	Odds ratio	Sig.
Intercept	-1.22	0.29	0.000
Manoeuvre (right turn)	4.90	134.16	0.000
Time since signal change (s)	-0.03	0.97	0.000
Manoeuvre (left turn)	2.62	13.76	0.000
Roadway width – opposite (m)	-0.28	0.76	0.000
Manoeuvre (left turn) * Roadway width – opposite (m)	0.28	1.33	0.008
Classification threshold:		0.46	
AUC		0.92	
Accuracy		0.91	
Sensitivity		0.85	
Specificity		0.93	
Positive Predictive Value		0.74	
Negative Predictive Value		0.96	

286 Table 6 Binomial logistic regression model and k-fold cross validation for response to red signal

287 The estimated binomial logistic regression model estimates the choice outcome with high accuracy.

288 The prediction of signal compliance is slightly more reliable than that of signal violation. However,

289 the prediction rates for both suggest that this behaviour is highly influenced by observable
290 situational factors. The resulting model supports previous studies that found that turning right
291 increases the probability of violating a red light (Johnson et al., 2011). The influence of additional
292 parameters, such as the signal phase, infrastructure selection and left turn manoeuvre, are
293 identified here.

294 4.2. Direction of travel

295 The vast majority of the observed bicyclists rode in the mandatory direction of travel (98.7%).
296 According to the reduced model, bicyclists turning left are 9.25 times more likely to travel against
297 the direction of travel than those carrying out other manoeuvres. Interestingly, the availability of a
298 left turn lane discourages travelling against the direction of travel to a large extent ($6.36 \left(\frac{1}{e^{-1.85}}\right)$
299 times decrease in likelihood). Parking increases the likelihood of riding against the mandatory
300 direction of travel by 2.67 times while the presence of a separated bicycle lane decreases the
301 likelihood by $9.87 \left(\frac{1}{e^{-2.29}}\right)$ times. Together, these two factors increase the probability of riding the
302 wrong way by 8.60 times.

303 Far fewer bicyclists were observed riding against the mandatory direction of travel in this study than
304 reported by Kuller et al. (1986) and Wachtel & Lewiston (1994). The only finding that could be
305 verified in this study is that bicyclists turning left are more likely to ride the wrong way, reflecting
306 the goal of path simplification that was noted by Kuller et al. (1986).

307 The cross-validation indicates a high success rate for predicting riding with the direction of
308 travel and a low success rate for predicting those riding against the given direction of travel. The
309 very low classification threshold of 0.02 reflects the skewing in the choice observations and the low
310 positive predictive value of 0.04 reflects the inaccuracy caused by manipulating the classification
311 threshold.

312

313

N =4710 With direction = 0, Against direction = 1	β	Odds ratio	Sig.
Intercept	-4.50	0.01	0.000
Manoeuvre (left turn)	2.23	9.25	0.000
Left turn lane	-1.85	0.16	0.000
Bicycle lane type (separated)	-2.29	0.10	0.019
Parking	0.98	2.67	0.202
Parking * Bicycle lane type (separated)	2.15	8.60	0.035
Classification threshold:		0.02	
AUC		0.77	
Accuracy		0.76	
Sensitivity		0.78	
Specificity		0.76	
Positive Predictive Value		0.04	
Negative Predictive Value		0.99	

314 Table 7 Binomial logistic regression model and k-fold cross validation for riding direction

315 *4.3. Left turn manoeuvre*

316 A multinomial regression model with three choice outcomes, direct left turn, indirect left turn and
 317 indirect left turn against the mandatory direction of travel, is estimated to predict the type of
 318 manoeuvre carried out by the bicyclist. The three choice outcomes are described in Section 2 and
 319 are shown graphically in Figure 1. The estimated β parameters are in reference to the base
 320 category, which is the direct left-hand turn.

321 The most important predictor for the type of left turn is roadway use; bicyclists using the
 322 roadway are more than 60 ($\frac{1}{e^{-4.12}}$) times less likely to carry out an indirect left turn and 20.5 ($\frac{1}{e^{-3.02}}$)
 323 times less likely to carry out an indirect left turn against the given direction of travel. Two
 324 characteristics of the infrastructure design, the type of bicycle lane and the presence of car parking,
 325 influence the choice outcome. The probability of an indirect left turn increases by 3.42 times if there
 326 is only parking and 6.05 times if there is only a separated bicycle lane. If both these features are
 327 present, the likelihood of this manoeuvre increases by 4.43 ($e^{1.80+1.23+-1.54}$) times. A similar

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328 mechanism is at play for the choice to execute an indirect left turn against the mandatory direction
 329 of travel (5.18 times increase with parking only, 9.54 times increase with a separated bicycle lane
 330 only and 9.21 ($e^{2.26+1.64+-1.68}$) times with both features). The signal phase and the presence of
 331 other road users also play an important role in the left turn choice.

N = 426		β	Odds ratio	Sig.
Base category = Direct left turn				
Indirect left turn	Intercept	-0.40	0.67	0.704
	Infrastructure selection (roadway)	-4.12	0.02	0.000
	Bicycle lane type (separated)	1.80	6.05	0.052
	Parking	1.23	3.42	0.165
	Signal phase (green)	1.17	3.23	0.023
	Bicyclists in approach	0.53	1.69	0.008
	Parking * Bicycle lane type (separated)	-1.54	0.22	0.158
	Signal phase (green) * Bicyclists in approach	-0.72	0.49	0.003
Indirect left turn (wrong way)	Intercept	0.56	1.74	0.606
	Infrastructure selection (roadway)	-3.02	0.05	0.000
	Bicycle lane type (separated)	2.26	9.54	0.020
	Parking	1.64	5.18	0.076
	Signal phase (green)	-2.13	0.12	0.000
	Bicyclists in approach	0.30	1.34	0.121
	Parking * Bicycle lane type (separated)	-1.68	0.19	0.136
	Signal phase (green) * Bicyclists in approach	-1.11	0.33	0.022
Accuracy			0.73	
Mean Sensitivity			0.70	
Mean Specificity			0.85	
Mean Positive Predictive Value			0.73	
Mean Negative Predictive Value			0.86	

332 Table 8 Multinomial regression model and k-fold cross validation for left turn manoeuvre

333 In contrast to the multinomial regression model for infrastructure selection, which failed to
 334 predict roadway and sidewalk use, the multinomial regression model for the left turning manoeuvre
 335 provides exceptional predictions for all three types of turn. The predictive power of this model

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336 suggests that this decision is greatly influenced by observable situational factors at the intersection.

337 The resulting model supports the findings of a previous study that found that bicyclists using
338 the roadway often carry out direct left turns while bicyclists on the sidewalk and bicycle lane do not
339 (Amini et al., 2016). The signal stage and the time since the last stage change are also found to
340 play a role in manoeuvre selection, as previously found.

341 **5. Discussion and Conclusion**

342 The findings presented in this paper are useful for understanding the relationships between the
343 tactical choices of bicyclists at signalised intersections and the situational factors, strategic and
344 prior tactical choices of the bicyclist. This knowledge is useful for predicting the behaviour of
345 bicyclists and designing infrastructure and traffic control that takes this knowledge into
346 consideration. For example, the manoeuvre of a bicyclist is found to have a strong influence on a
347 number of tactical choices at intersections, including the reaction to a red light, direction of travel
348 and infrastructure selection. If turning rates are known for given intersections, the levels of rule
349 breaking behaviour such as red light violations and riding against the mandatory direction of travel
350 can be predicted. Additional information describing the static attributes of the intersection, such as
351 the geometry and average traffic volumes, provides further input for predicting tactical behaviour
352 without using dynamic attributes. If it is possible to determine the dynamic state of the intersection,
353 including the number of road users currently present and the state of the traffic signal, the choice
354 outcomes can be predicted with more accuracy. Possible applications of dynamic models include
355 traffic flow simulations, driver assistance systems and autonomous driving systems.

356 There is considerable variation between the predictive power of the four regression models.
357 The models estimated to predict the reaction to a red signal and the type of left turn manoeuvre
358 are capable of predicting each of the choice categories with exceptional accuracy. In contrast, the
359 infrastructure selection models and the direction of travel model have difficulty predicting seldom
360 occurring choice outcomes. Two possible explanations for this variation are suggested. First, the
361 tactical behaviours may be motivated by different types of factors. The tactical behaviours that are

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362 highly explainable using the developed regression models are likely motivated by situational factors
363 that are externally observable. The difficulty in predicting at least one of the outcomes for the
364 remaining behaviours, the direction of travel and infrastructure selection, suggests that the
365 motivation factors for these choices are intrinsic or cannot be observed in the restricted observation
366 area of one intersection. The predictive power of the estimated models is indicative of which rule
367 breaking behaviours of bicyclists can be addressed through infrastructure design and traffic signal
368 control and which are rooted in non-observable factors. The high predictive power of the models
369 for the reaction to a red signal and the type of left turn manoeuvre suggest that these behaviours
370 can be modified by altering the situation at the intersection. Riding against the given direction of
371 travel and infrastructure selection, on the other hand, may be more responsive to softer measures
372 such as safety campaigns and traffic rule enforcement.

373 A second possible explanation for the variation in predictive power is the number of
374 observations for each of the choice outcomes. The observational data for the models with higher
375 predictive power (left turn manoeuvre and red signal reaction) contained a relatively balanced
376 distribution of the choice outcomes. Conversely, the tactical choices that are dominated by one
377 outcome (e.g. using a bicycle lane and riding with the mandatory direction of travel) are found to
378 be more difficult to predict using regression models. The low number of observations for seldom
379 occurring events makes it very difficult to discern patterns in the independent variables that lead to
380 this outcome. This is compensated in this paper by selecting varying classification thresholds and
381 coercing predictions into the seldom occurring category. However, these coerced predictions are
382 often incorrect, leading to very low negative (or positive) predictive values. Integration of further
383 observations from additional intersections with differing geometric and traffic characteristics may
384 increase the predictive power of these regression models.

385 Nevertheless, in light of the high accuracy and relatively balanced prediction success for all
386 the possible outcomes, the regression models developed for the selection of a left turn manoeuvre
387 and response to a red signal could be used by researchers and practitioners to predict the outcome
388 of these choices. The effects of intrinsic factors, such as the socio-economic characteristics of the

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389 bicyclist, personality traits (e.g. aggressiveness and nervousness), as well as factors that are
390 observable over a long distance (e.g. route choice) on the tactical choices of bicyclists at signalised
391 intersections would be an interesting extension of this work for future research.

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