

1 How Might Connected Vehicles and Autonomous Vehicles Influence
2 Geometric Design?
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18 Abstract: With the continued research on connected and autonomous vehicles showing promise
19 for implementation, how may this influence the future of geometric design of our roads and
20 highways? This paper examines various horizontal, vertical, and cross sectional elements used
21 in design today and how they may be influenced by these new technologically advanced
22 vehicles.
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25 3137 Words + 14 Figures * 250 + 2 Tables * 250 = 7,137 Words
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28 Submitted to the Urban Street Symposium 5 on April 30, 2017
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32 TRB AND NCSITE PRESENT
**URBAN STREET
SYMPOSIUM 5**
RALEIGH, NC | MAY 21-24, 2017

33 INTRODUCTION

34 With connected vehicle (CV) and automated vehicle (AV) technologies continuing to advance
 35 and more locations permitting vehicles using such technologies on their roads, we should expect
 36 to see a vehicle fleet that contains many of these vehicles in the future. These vehicles will
 37 depend less and less on human input to maneuver. A fully-autonomous vehicle will be capable
 38 of navigating a roadway without human input. This vehicle senses everything around it and
 39 adapts to its environment (Figure 1).

40 There is much debate on the laws that are
 41 needed regarding these vehicles, how they
 42 may interact with traditional vehicles, and
 43 when this transition to a predominant
 44 composition in the fleet may occur. Much of
 45 the current research is focused on advancing
 46 the technology and infrastructure to make
 47 these vehicles a reality. This paper does not
 48 focus on those issues, instead it looks at how
 49 these vehicles, especially a full fleet of these
 50 vehicles, could impact roadway geometrics.



Figure 1 Autonomous Vehicle Source
Bigstock.com

51 There are three components to our roadway system: the road environment, the vehicle,
 52 and the road users. The road component includes physical features such as the pavement and
 53 roadway geometry; the environment such as weather and lighting; and the operational features
 54 such as speed and traffic control. The vehicle includes the vehicle's physical features such as
 55 weight, geometrical dimensions, and mechanical performance. The road users include drivers,
 56 occupants, and other users of our roadway system such as pedestrians and bicyclists. The road
 57 users have different characteristics or human factors. These include the users' knowledge or
 58 familiarity of the roadway system, their physiological characteristics such as seeing and hearing,
 59 and their skills and behavior such as the ability to act to a situation. All of these components
 60 impact the engineers' design of a road.

61 There are many types of drivers on the road today. There are those that could be
 62 considered poor drivers or even impaired drivers (see Figure 2). There are also exceptionally
 63 skilled drivers (see Figure 3).

64



Figure 2 An Impaired Driver Source: Bigstock.com



Figure 3 Highly Skilled Driver Source: Bigstock.com

65 Then there are all the drivers in between these two extremes. Much of our design criteria
 66 has been set to accommodate most vehicles and drivers that we expect to be using our road.
 67 Unfortunately, the drivers on each end of the driving age spectrum often have either undeveloped
 68 or diminished capabilities that could cause them to fall outside of the engineers' design
 69 parameters. Younger drivers have less experience, misjudge risks, and may be pressured by
 70 peers (Figure 4). Aging drivers may have decreased vision, physical abilities, and diminishing
 71 cognitive abilities (Figure 5). With the baby boomers aging, the older population is one of the
 72 fastest growing populations by percentage in the United States.

73

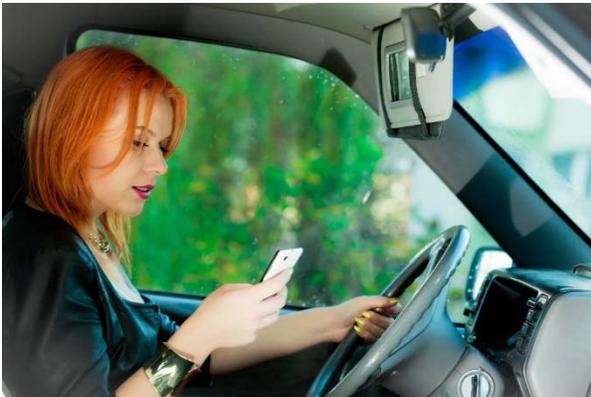


Figure 4 Younger Distracted Driver Source: Bigstock.com



Figure 5 Elderly Driver Source: FHWA

74

75 There is also a wide range of vehicles on our roads today that are in various states of
 76 condition and many have quite differing physical features. This is a variety of drivers and
 77 vehicles to accommodate and if one were to look closely at the design criteria, one would find it
 78 varies a bit by criteria, but in general, roadway engineers are designing for a below average
 79 driver and a lower performing vehicle. Even with such design guidance to the engineer, there are
 80 still many crashes and fatalities. For example, according to the Bureau of Transportation
 81 Statistics, there were 35,092 fatalities in 2015 due to crashes in the United States (BTS, 2016).
 82 Many of these crashes and fatalities are due to human error (or poor decisions). The vision is
 83 that CV and AV vehicles will significantly reduce the number of crashes and fatalities by
 84 eliminating the human factors and closely monitoring the vehicle's overall condition.
 85 Autonomous vehicles utilize numerous sensors and are driven by a computer with sophisticated
 86 software.

87 There are many types of roads. In general we have a few types that are quite different.
 88 There are higher speed roads (see Figure 6) that may have fewer access control points and there
 89 are somewhat lower speed urban roads that may have many access points (especially
 90 intersections and driveways) (see Figure 7). Let's examine some of the design criteria that could
 91 be influenced by this technology and how this may impact our road design. For this paper, only
 92 a few geometric design criteria will be examined.

93



Figure 6 Higher Speed Roadways Source: Bigstock.com



Figure 7 Urban, Lower Speed Roadways Source: USDOT

94

95 **SIGHT DISTANCE**

96

97 An important element of design is sight distance. This is the distance required for a driver to
 98 perceive an object. Sight Distance impacts the following:

- 99 • Offset of objects along the road to provide Horizontal Sight Offset distance (HSO) (See
 100 Figure 8 for an example of HSO). This includes such items as:
 - 101 ○ Bridge abutments,
 - 102 ○ Median barriers,
 - 103 ○ Crash walls, and
 - 104 ○ Parapets;

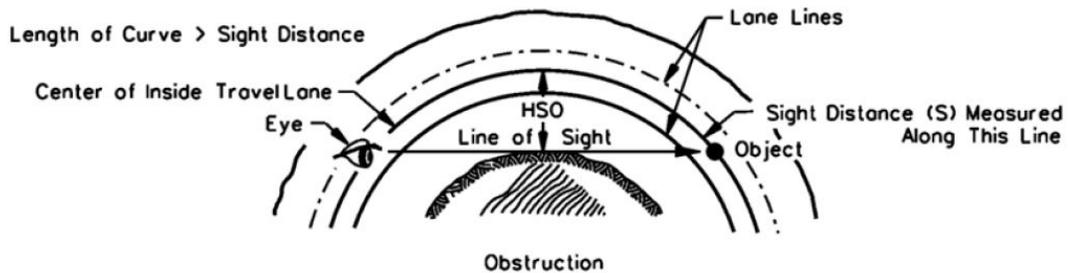


Figure 8 Example Sight Line for HSO Offset, Source: IDOT BDE 2016

105

- 106 • The road itself:
 - 107 ○ Crest curves and
 - 108 ○ Sag curves in conjunction with overhead structures;
- 109 • Distance or headway between vehicles which could influence:
 - 110 ○ Capacity of a lane,
 - 111 ○ Intersection storage, and
 - 112 ○ Turn bay lengths; and
- 113 • Intersection sight distance (ISD).

114

115 One of the most important types of sight distance is stopping sight distance (SSD). SSD
 116 is the distance required to perceive an object in a roadway and bring the vehicle to a stop. Per
 117 the AASHTO Green Book, "...the sight distance at every point along a roadway should be at
 118 least that needed for a below-average driver or vehicle to stop." SSD is used by the engineer to
 119 impact numerous components along the road. Equation 1 is the traditional formula for Stopping
 120 Sight Distance (SSD) for level roads.
 121

$$\text{SSD} = 1.47 Vt + 1.075 \frac{V^2}{a} \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

122
 123
 124
 125
 126
 127
 128

Where:
 SSD = stopping sight distance, ft
 V = design speed, mph
 t = brake reaction time, 2.5s
 a = deceleration rate, ft/s²

129 In equation 1, the brake reaction time is set as 2.5 seconds. This amount of time exceeds
 130 the 90th percentile of reaction time for all drivers per the Green Book. Unfortunately, brake
 131 reaction time increases with age, when a driver is tired or fatigued, has a complex task to
 132 maneuver, is physically impaired, or is under the influence of alcohol or other drugs. Engineers
 133 can account for the more complex situations that may require more than 2.5 seconds of reaction
 134 time. Those situations are often designed to provide Decision Sight Distance (DSD) which is a
 135 greater distance than SSD. Depending on the AV technology, the processing of data will be
 136 quite fast. At the ITE Midwest District Conference in 2016, AV technology was noted to be
 137 communicating with its environment 10 times per second under test conditions. Even faster
 138 communications would not be surprising to the author. If we remove the human driver from the
 139 SSD equation and replace that driver with the AV technology, the brake reaction time could
 140 significantly decrease. Let's take a look at reducing the brake reaction time to 1 second and to
 141 0.3 second. Utilizing the formula in Equation 1, we can compare the stopping sight distance for
 142 some sample design speeds for several brake reaction times of the current 2.5s, 1s and 0.3 s (See
 143 Table 1). The sensors are not only fast in processing the data, they are also quite sophisticated
 144 such that they are starting to allow recognition of objects that may be behind something else
 145 (such as beyond another car or over a hill).
 146

Table 1 Comparison of SSD and Brake Reaction Times of 2.5s, 1s and 0.3s

Design Speed	t	SSD Calculated	T	SSD Calculated	t	SSD Calculated
MPH	Seconds	Feet	Seconds	Feet	Seconds	Feet
40	2.5	300.6	1	212.4	0.3	171.2
50	2.5	423.7	1	313.5	0.3	262.0
60	2.5	566.0	1	433.7	0.3	372.0
70	2.5	727.6	1	573.2	0.3	501.2

147 Additional research will be needed to establish design guidelines for how SSD could be
 148 modified for use in design, but let’s take a look at what could happen. For Horizontal Sight
 149 Distance, we use an eye height of 3.5 feet and an object height of 2 feet and the driver’s eyes see
 150 in a straight line. This requires objects to be placed beyond or under the HSO sight line. Objects
 151 within this sight line would compromise the driver’s ability to stop in time. With this
 152 technology, the AV vehicle is not constrained to these dimensions and there will be an
 153 opportunity to reduce the offset distances used in design. This would allow objects to move
 154 closer to a lane. This would also allow for some sharper horizontal curves to be considered and
 155 used.

156 Looking further at Equation 1, there could be more opportunity for AV to decrease SSD.
 157 The second part of the equation $1.075 (V^2/a)$ is the distance the vehicle travels while the brakes
 158 are applied. The deceleration rate in this equation is based on 11.2 ft/s^2 which is the comfortable
 159 deceleration rate for approximately 90% of the drivers (Green Book). When there is an urgent
 160 need to stop, drivers may decelerate at a rate greater than 14.8 ft/s^2 . The AV vehicles could be
 161 programmed to provide a greater deceleration rate. Pavement and weather conditions would
 162 need to be considered, but if the deceleration rate was increased from 11.2 ft/s^2 to 12.5 ft/s^2 , as an
 163 example, SSD would further decrease. Table 2 shows an example of how the SSD could be
 164 impacted.

165

Table 2 Comparison of SSD and Brake Reaction Times of 2.5s and 0.3s; Deceleration Adjusted on Level Roadway

Design Speed	t	SSD Calculated (a=11.2 ft/s ²)	t	SSD Calculated (a=11.2 ft/s ²)	SSD Calculated (a=12.5 ft/s ²)	SSD Calculated (a=14.8 ft/s ²)
MPH	Seconds	Feet	Seconds	Feet	Feet	Feet
40	2.5	300.6	0.3	171.2	155.2	133.9
50	2.5	423.7	0.3	262.0	237.1	203.6
60	2.5	566.0	0.3	372.0	336.1	287.9
70	2.5	727.6	0.3	501.2	452.3	386.8

166

167 **LANES**

168

169 If the vehicle is fully automated, would vehicle dimensions change? Would mirrors still be
 170 needed? If the vehicles are sensing lane lines and other objects (adjacent vehicles and barriers),
 171 do we need as much space in a lane or between vehicles? How close could vehicles get to one
 172 another side by side? Could the offset between two side by side vehicles drop to one-foot or
 173 less? Most lanes are between nine and twelve feet in width. According to the AASHTO “Green
 174 Book”, the design vehicle dimension for passenger cars is 7.0 feet and most buses and trucks are
 175 on the order of 8 to 8½ feet wide. If the vehicles remain the same width, mirrors are no longer
 176 needed, and the buffer between vehicles can drop significantly, then we may be looking at

177 narrower lanes for the same amount of vehicles due to this technology (see Figure 9 for a narrow
178 flex lane). That could impact reduce what engineers use for our standard lane widths. That
179 could save on pavement. We may be able to fit more lanes in the same amount of space we
180 designed for traditional vehicles. This savings would occur in horizontal tangent sections. As
181 the horizontal alignment were to increase in curvature, off tracking of vehicles would need to be
182 evaluated and it is expected that lane widths would need to increase to accommodate such off
183 tracking.
184



Figure 9. Narrow Flex Lane. Source: FHWA,
<http://www.ops.fhwa.dot.gov/publications/fhwahop10023/chap2.htm>

185 **SHOULDERS**

186

187 Would shoulders still be needed? Perhaps the controlling factor for a shoulder would be to
188 accommodate drainage spreads or to accommodate an AV that is predicting a breakdown. The
189 shoulder would no longer needed to provide site distance. However, could the vehicles be so
190 sophisticated that they “know” not to drive on pavement by sensing a drainage spread and just
191 avoid the inside or outside lane during rain events? Or could the vehicles identify a need for
192 maintenance before it happens and avoid nearly all breakdowns on the road?
193

194 **ROADSIDE**

195

196 Most designers utilize a design publication dedicated to roadside safety, *Roadside Design Guide*
197 by AASHTO. Additional guidelines have been published to describe how to test roadside safety
198 devices (MASH). If the AV technology can sense the edges of roads, objects, other vehicles, and
199 the weather, do we still need safety devices or shoulders? We currently protect vehicles from
200 roadside objects and other vehicles. We design the roadside to be traversable and with a clear
201 zone whenever possible to accommodate errant vehicles and provide them a chance for recovery.
202 With the assumption that AV can stay in their lane, couldn't we eliminate most, perhaps all, of
203 these safety features? No more guardrail, no more attenuators, no more cable median barrier, no
204 more concrete median barrier and crash walls. We would be able to build steeper slopes without

205 clear zones or barrier (see Figure 10). This would be a tremendous cost savings on earthwork
 206 and roadside safety features.



Figure 10. Example of a Steeper Grade That May No Longer Warrant Barrier Protection

Source: FHWA <http://www.fhwa.dot.gov/engineering/geotech/pubs/nhi10024/nhi10024.pdf>

207

208 **URBAN ENVIRONMENT**

209

210 The urban environment was briefly touched on earlier. Autonomous vehicles could significantly
 211 impact the paved footprint. One location where significant changes could occur is at
 212 intersections.

213

214 **Intersections**

215

216 With the AV sensing other vehicles and communicating with other vehicles, there is the potential
 217 to eliminate stop signs and traffic signals. The vehicles could be programmed and managed for
 218 each to take the most efficient timing when passing through an intersection. As vehicles pass
 219 through an intersection, conflicting vehicles would either wait or the traffic streams could be
 220 adjusted by changing the approach speeds of vehicles to form gaps for conflicting vehicles to
 221 pass through. Intersection delay should decrease and capacity of each lane should increase.
 222 Turn bays could shorten in length or even be eliminated. Many medians used to serve as a buffer
 223 between traffic or to control turning movements, could be eliminated. Intersection sight distance
 224 would become irrelevant. The vehicles appear to be heading towards sensors that could “see”
 225 around objects in corner sight lines at intersections. Gaps would be established by the
 226 sophisticated programming and adjusting of vehicles. As with higher speed roads, urban streets
 227 could narrow, but additional space would need to be provided at locations of turns to
 228 accommodate vehicle wheel path offsets and overhangs. Traffic control costs could be
 229 significantly reduced by eliminating traffic signals and potentially signs.

230

231 **Parking**

232

233 Both the urban and suburban setting would be impacted by these vehicles. There are a few
 234 models being watched and evaluated regarding ownership of these vehicles. One possibility

235 would be that a person owns their own personal AV. Another possibility would be shared car
 236 type AVs. If the shared vehicle model plays out, there may be a few large storage locations that
 237 are fleets of AV vehicles waiting to be summoned? Would AV vehicles park at stores and other
 238 locations, or would they just drop off the occupants go to a nearby parking area and then come
 239 back and get the passengers or be rerouted to pick up others? Could this reduce the amount of
 240 on-street parking (See Figure 11)? Eliminating on-street parking could further narrow our paved
 241 foot print. If the public no longer owns personal vehicles, would driveways be needed at homes?
 242 Could many driveways be eliminated? This could really impact the guidelines used for
 243 designing access management.
 244



Figure 11 Would On-Street Parking Be Needed? Source: Bigstock.com



Figure 12 Are Driveways Needed for Vehicles? Source: Bigstock.com

245

246

247 OTHER CONSIDERATIONS

248

249 The design discussed so far has all been for permanent roads. Other impacts could be needed for
 250 temporary conditions such as work zones. There could be geometric impacts, but there may be
 251 more of a need to add things to the work zones that assist the AV (Figure 13). This will be a
 252 very important future needed area of study. We may also learn that the technology needs
 253 something more than what we design now for our roads. We may learn that pavement striping
 254 must meet very specific requirements or that signs need to have higher standards of quality or
 255 sensors may need to be placed in certain locations along or in the roads. We may learn that
 256 standards of snow removal may be required to limit the timing of snow and ice on roads or we
 257 may learn there could be requirements on how the snow and ice is removed.



Figure 13 Work Zones Source Bigstock.com

258

259 CONCLUSION

260

261 This discussion has examined potential geometric design impacts once we have a full fleet of
262 autonomous vehicles. We may not reach that point as there could be vehicles that either
263 transition much later into CV/AV technology or never do. Possible candidates are maintenance
264 vehicles, construction equipment, police cars, garbage trucks, and likely others (Figure 14).

265



Figure 14 Maintenance Vehicles Source: Bigstock.com

266

267 In the author's opinion, significant design criteria changes will not occur until the
268 traditional vehicles with drivers are separated (or even removed completely) from the CV/AV
269 vehicles. Once we start to have dedicated CV/AV lanes, we should expect to see changes to our
270 geometric design guidelines. NCHRP has commenced researching this transition to dedicated
271 lanes under NCHRP 20-102(08) "Dedicating Lanes for Priority or Exclusive Use by CVs and
272 AVs". Even under the separated conditions of CV/AV dedicated lanes, the CV/AV vehicles will
273 still need to account for traditional vehicles being in their traffic stream from time to time such as
274 for emergency vehicles, maintenance vehicles, and when traditional drivers simply choose to
275 ignore the requirement that those lanes are for the exclusive use of CV/AV vehicles. More
276 collaboration is needed between vehicle design engineers and roadway design engineers to
277 maintain current geometric design guidelines so that our future highways and streets will
278 accommodate the needs of our roadway users and our vehicles.

279

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