

1 **Calibrating Wiedemann-99 Model Parameters to Trajectory Data of Mixed**  
2 **Vehicular Traffic**

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 We propose a new methodology for calibrating Wiedemann-99 vehicle-following parameters for  
3 mixed traffic (different conventional vehicle classes) based on trajectory data. The existing  
4 acceleration equations of the Wiedemann model are modified to represent more realistic driving  
5 behavior. Exploratory analysis of simulation data revealed that different Wiedemann-99 model  
6 parameters could lead to similar macroscopic behavior, highlighting the importance of calibration at  
7 the microscopic level. Therefore, the proposed methodology is based on optimizing performance  
8 measures at the microscopic level (acceleration, speed, and trajectory profiles) to estimate suitable  
9 calibration parameters. Further, the goodness of fit for the observed data is sensitive to the numerical  
10 integration method used to compute vehicles' velocity and position. We found that the calibrated  
11 parameters using the proposed methodology perform better than other approaches for calibrating  
12 mixed traffic. The results reveal that the calibrated parameter values and, consequently, the  
13 thresholds that delineate closing, following, emergency braking, and opening regimes, vary between  
14 two-wheelers and cars. The window (in the relative speed vs. gap plot) for the unconscious following  
15 is larger for cars while the free flow regime is more extensive for two-wheelers. Moreover, under the  
16 same relative speed and gap stimulus, two-wheelers and cars may be in different regimes and display  
17 different acceleration responses. Thus, accurate calibration of each vehicle's parameters is essential  
18 for developing micro-simulation models for mixed traffic. The calibration analysis results of strict and  
19 overlapping staggered car-following signify an impact of staggered car-following compared to strict  
20 car-following which demands separate calibration for strict and staggered following.

21 **Keywords:** "mixed traffic", "Wiedemann-99 model", "VISSIM", "microscopic calibration",  
22 "trajectory data".

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## 1 1. INTRODUCTION

2 Microscopic traffic flow models represent traffic in greater detail and generate more performance  
3 measures than macroscopic or mesoscopic models. They enable evaluating a wide range of traffic  
4 interventions and scenarios prior to their implementation. Moreover, they reflect the dynamic and  
5 random nature of the transportation system (1). Therefore, they are robust and cost-efficient tools for  
6 modeling them.

7 A microscopic traffic flow model consists of sub-models that describe human driver behavior such as  
8 gap-acceptance, speed adaptation, lane-changing, ramp merging, overtaking, and car-following. The  
9 latter, on which we focus here, describes the interactions with preceding vehicles in the same lane  
10 including the special case of free flow with no interactions (2).

11 One of the critical elements of using microscopic models is calibration. The value of the simulation  
12 models' various parameters is determined to match the observed real traffic behavior. As no single  
13 traffic model can represent all the traffic conditions, every model must be adapted to local needs using  
14 real-world data. Hence, parameter calibration in simulation applications is critical to replicate field  
15 driving behavior. This study focuses on calibrating a widely-used psychophysical vehicle-following  
16 model (Wiedemann-99 (W-99) model) for India's mixed traffic conditions using vehicle trajectory  
17 data.

18 The W-99 (3) model has been widely used in traffic microsimulation for both lane-based and  
19 non-lane-based conditions (1, 4-12). However, this model's use in non-lane-based states will  
20 be substantially different from lane-based conditions and requires careful calibration. These  
21 differences arise, in particular, from the presence and composition of additional vehicle types  
22 such as (two-wheelers or auto-rickshaws, different static and dynamic characteristics of  
23 vehicles, and a lack of strict lane discipline. As a result, vehicles are free to occupy any  
24 available lateral position on the road space. Moreover, smaller vehicles (two-wheelers) often  
25 utilize gaps between larger vehicles in the traffic stream (13). Another critical aspect of the  
26 non-lane-based mixed traffic condition is the possible difference in the following behavior  
27 when the subject vehicle is strictly behind a leading vehicle versus when it is overlapping and  
28 staggered compared to the vehicle ahead (14).

29 A recently proposed model for lane-free mixed traffic (15) provides a generalized framework for  
30 extending conventional car-following models (including the Wiedemann car-following model) to a  
31 fully two-dimensional microscopic model. In the presence of multiple leaders and staggered  
32 following, this framework assumes, with good results, that the longitudinal dynamics depends on the  
33 leader with the strongest interaction, only, and that the repulsive force remains unchanged as long as  
34 there is a lateral overlap, i.e., the longitudinal acceleration reverts to that of the underlying car-  
35 following model. One goal of the present analysis is to test this assumption by distinguishing between  
36 the strict and staggered following.

37 The key feature for calibration of mixed traffic conditions is the response of the driver of a subject  
38 vehicle to the vehicles present in the neighborhood and their maneuvers. One should note that the  
39 model parameters may vary based on leader, follower, and surrounding vehicle types and their speeds  
40 and positions (16). There is a growing body of work on the calibration of various microscopic models  
41 for mixed traffic using multiple models (5, 6, 8-13, 16-20). The analytical forms of some of the  
42 Wiedemann model equations are not easily accessible in the literature, making the calibration at the  
43 trajectory level difficult. As a result, very few of these studies attempted to analyze the errors entailed  
44 in the calibration process of a Wiedemann model and its impacts on the accuracy of results at the  
45 trajectory level (21).

46 In light of the above motivations and gaps in the literature, this paper investigates the following  
47 objectives.

- 1 • Propose and implement an optimization-based procedure for calibrating the W-99 model  
2 vehicle-following parameters using trajectory data of mixed traffic
- 3 • Propose modifications of the acceleration equations to represent more realistic driving  
4 behavior.
- 5 • Evaluate alternative numerical integration methods for prediction of speed and position at the  
6 trajectory level
- 7 • Evaluate the proposed calibration with other calibration methods reported in the literature
- 8 • Analyze differences in the vehicle-following behavior of two-wheelers and cars in mixed  
9 traffic.
- 10 • Investigate differences in parameters between ‘strict’ and ‘overlapping’ following situations  
11 for selected vehicle types
- 12

13 The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 provides a brief review of the W-99 model and a  
14 synthesis of the literature with this study's objectives. The rationale for calibration of the W-99 model  
15 using trajectory data is presented in Section 3. In Section 4, we describe the data, and in Section 5 the  
16 calibration methodology. The salient results and findings are discussed in Section 6, followed by a  
17 few concluding remarks in Section 7.

## 18 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

19 The W-99 model is first presented in Section 2.1, followed by a synthesis of the literature on the  
20 calibration of car-following models in Section 2.2.

### 21 2.1 Wiedemann Car-Following Model

22 As a psychophysical model, the W-99 model (3) uses thresholds or action points, where the driver  
23 changes his/her behavior at discrete time points. Drivers change their response to the local situation  
24 (gap, speed, or relative speed) only when these thresholds are reached (2). This model's concept is  
25 that the faster moving drivers approaching slower vehicles start decelerating when they reach their  
26 perception threshold. However, due to imperfections in estimating speeds, the speed may become  
27 smaller than that of the leader. So, the driver may accelerate slightly again after reaching another  
28 threshold (7). The combined effect of the thresholds and estimation errors leads to a hysteresis when  
29 plotting the trajectory in the space given by the relative speed and the gap. Wiedemann (22) defined  
30 the relative speed between the lead and following vehicles as the stimulus, which triggers the  
31 following vehicle's reaction. Using different perception thresholds, four different driving regimes  
32 were proposed.

33 In the **free-flow regime**, the subject vehicle is not influenced by any other leader; the driver tries to  
34 maintain the desired speed and uses a speed-dependent maximum acceleration to reach the desired  
35 speed.

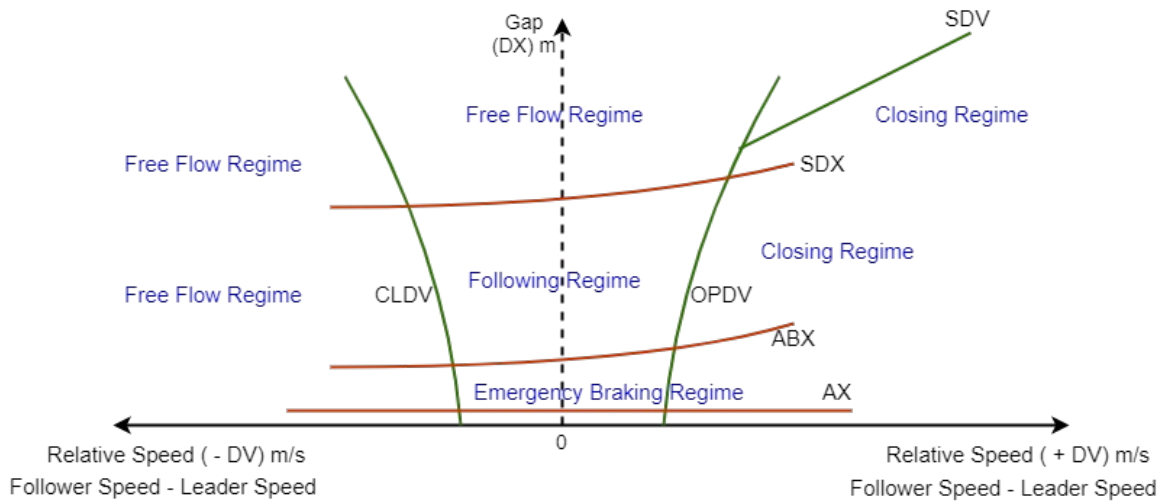
36 In the **closing-in regime**, the driver has perceived a slower leader and continuously decelerates till the  
37 speed matches the leader's speed (the relative speed becomes *zero*), and the gap equals the desired  
38 gap. Then, the driver enters the following regime.

39 In the **following regime**, the driver of the subject vehicle unconsciously follows the leader trying to  
40 maintain an ideal gap and zero relative speed using comparatively low accelerations or decelerations.

41 In the **emergency braking regime**, if the following distance falls below a critical threshold, the driver  
42 reacts by applying the maximum deceleration (within vehicular capabilities) to avoid a potential  
43 collision.

44 Figure 1 shows the boundaries of these regimes, which are defined by following six different  
45 perceptual thresholds:

- 1 • AX: the desired distance between two vehicles in a stopped condition,
- 2 • ABX: the desired minimum safe following distance in moving state, as a lower limit of the
- 3 following regime,
- 4 • SDX: the maximum following distance as the upper limit of the following regime,
- 5 • SDV: the points at long distances (more than SDX) where drivers perceive that they are
- 6 approaching slower vehicles,
- 7 • CLDV: the points at short distances (less than SDX) where drivers perceive that their speeds are
- 8 higher than their lead vehicle speeds and
- 9 • OPDV: the points at short distances (less than SDX) where drivers perceive that they are traveling
- 10 slower than their leader.



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13 **Figure 1 Schematic representation of Wiedemann Model (22)**

14 The W-99 model (3) is calibrated using the driving behavior parameters (CC parameters); these  
 15 parameters are defined based on regime classification thresholds. The description and the default  
 16 value of CC parameters are given in Table 1.

17 **Table 1: Wiedemann-99 parameters (1, 4, 7)**

Parameters	Description	Default Value(1)
CC0	The desired gap between two vehicles in a stopped condition	1.5 m
CC1	Time gap following the driver keeps in for a safety in moving state	0.9 s
CC2	Range of gap between vehicles in the following regime	4 m
CC3	The time between the beginning of deceleration after perceiving of slow-moving leader to start the unconscious-following behavior	-8 s
CC4	Speed difference during the following process. CC4 controls speed differences during the opening process (Negative relative speed),	-0.35 m/s
CC5	Speed difference during the following process. CC5 controls speed differences in the closing process (Positive relative speed).	0.35 m/s
CC6	Influence of distance on speed oscillation during the following condition	11.44 (ms) <sup>-1</sup>

<b>CC7</b>	Actual acceleration during oscillation in the unconscious-following regime	<b>0.25 m/s<sup>2</sup></b>
<b>CC8</b>	Desired acceleration when the vehicle starting from the standing condition and	<b>3.5 m/s<sup>2</sup></b>
<b>CC9</b>	Desired acceleration at 80km/hr. However, it is limited by maximum acceleration for the vehicle type.	<b>1.5 m/s<sup>2</sup></b>

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### 3 **2.2 Calibration of Wiedemann Car-following Models in Heterogeneous Traffic**

4 Many studies (1, 4, 7, 23) have calibrated the Wiedemann parameters for homogeneous traffic flow  
5 data. Some of them have calibrated a single parameter set for all vehicle classes. In most studies (8-  
6 12, 17, 18) calibration procedures are based on matching the macroscopic performance measures from  
7 a simulation package (e.g., VISSIM) such as flow, density, speed, or delays with field data, primarily  
8 due to data limitations of cross-sectional video measurements. Other studies (24-26) used test track  
9 data or synthetic data for calibration of the vehicle-following models, and hence the applicability of  
10 the parameters to real-world traffic is unclear.

11 While trajectory data have been used to calibrate other vehicles following models such as the Gipps  
12 model (27) or the IDM (28), presumably due to the more straightforward equations involved, very few  
13 studies (23) focus on calibrating Wiedemann car-following models using trajectory data based on  
14 microscopic performance measures such as speed profiles of individual vehicles. This lack of studies  
15 is attributable partly due to limitations of data collected using location-based sensors, which give  
16 measurements at only selected cross-sections.

17 About mixed traffic, a growing number of studies have investigated the calibration of various vehicle-  
18 following models such as Krauss (29), Gipps (27), IDM (28), and W-99 (3). Again, the majority are  
19 based on macroscopic measures of performance. The mixed traffic flow model (MTM) is proposed as  
20 a generalized framework for car-following (15). A few other studies (13, 16, 19, 20) aim to calibrate  
21 other models, such as Gipps's model and the IDM using field data. Still, they do not explicitly capture  
22 the differences in driving behaviors across regimes (following, closing, Emergency braking, opening,  
23 and free flow) sufficiently. Very few studies (6, 7) have used microscopic trajectory data for  
24 calibrating W-99 models in mixed traffic but use heuristic or data-driven procedures to estimate  
25 vehicle-following parameters. Two essential concerns with these procedures include: the parameter  
26 estimates are not directly linked to differences between observed and computed trajectories at the  
27 microscopic level (position, speed, acceleration profiles of individual vehicles over time), and the  
28 quality of the resulting parameters is difficult to assess. Thus, there is a need for using optimization-  
29 based procedures to calibrate psychophysical models for mixed traffic using trajectory data. This will  
30 enable evaluating the effect of the model parameters on the deviation between observed vs. estimated  
31 speed, acceleration, and position profiles. Furthermore, in the context of mixed traffic, there is a need  
32 to understand whether, and to what extent, the W-99 parameters vary with the vehicle type (two-  
33 wheelers, cars, etc.) Another question is whether the parameter values found by trajectory calibration  
34 are comparable to those found with macroscopic calibration. Finally, the influence of the kind of  
35 following (strict and staggered), specifically regime thresholds, also needs investigation in the context  
36 of the W-99 model.

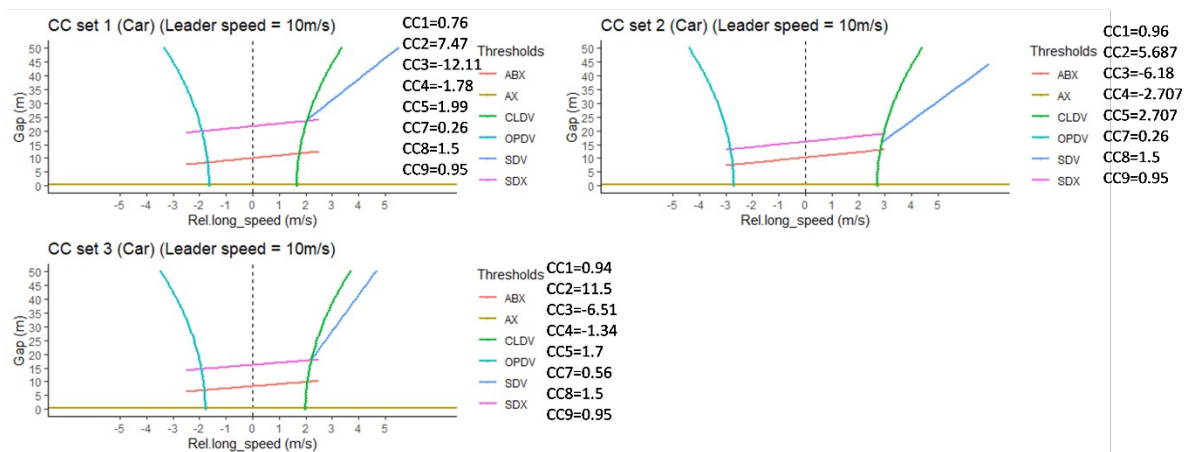
37 In light of the above gaps, this study focuses on the W-99 car-following model's calibration using  
38 real-world trajectory data under heterogeneous and non-lane-based (mixed traffic) conditions. In this  
39 study, the W-99 model's acceleration equations are used for trajectory estimation rather than VISSIM

1 generated data. W-99 parameters are calibrated by microscopic criteria such as the deviation between  
 2 observed vs. estimated speed, acceleration, and position profiles at a microscopic level in mixed  
 3 traffic data.

### 4 3. RATIONALE FOR CALIBRATING W-99 MODEL USING TRAJECTORY DATA

5 This section analyses the effect of different sets of microscopic vehicle-following parameters for  
 6 mixed traffic on the resulting macroscopic traffic flow performance measures (average speed, flow,  
 7 densities).

8 A study stretch (245 m) from a three-lane midblock section (described in Section 4) is considered for  
 9 this analysis. Three different sets of the calibrated parameters values are input into the VISSIM traffic  
 10 simulation software and macroscopic and microscopic measures (vehicle level position, speed, and  
 11 acceleration profiles) are obtained for each set. Parameter sets 1, 2, and 3 (cf. Figure 2) are obtained  
 12 by applying heuristics based on macroscopic criteria as reported in the literatures (6, 7, 30). The  
 13 vehicular composition and vehicle dimensions (average length and width of each vehicle class) are  
 14 taken from Kanagaraj et al. (31). Kinematic parameters (Maximum acceleration/deceleration, desired  
 15 acceleration/deceleration, free-flow speed) are taken from Arasan and Koshy (32), Asaithambi et al.  
 16 (17), and Kashyap et al. (14). The differences in the CC parameters and associated threshold values  
 17 across the sets are depicted in Figure 2 (for a constant leader speed of 10 m/s).



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19 **Figure 2. Wiedemann thresholds plots for different CC parameters**

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**Table 2: Kinematic Parameters of Mixed Traffic Flow**

Vehicle class	TW	Car	Bus	LCV	3W
Maximum Acceleration (m/s <sup>2</sup> )	2.5	2.1	1.4	1.4	1.1
Desired Acceleration (m/s <sup>2</sup> )	1.35	1.5	0.89	0.89	1.01
Maximum Deceleration (m/s <sup>2</sup> )	-4.8	-4.2	-4	-4	-3.8

Desired Deceleration (m/s <sup>2</sup> )	-4	-3.2	-2.8	-2.8	-3.4
Free Flow Speed (m/s)	13.8	13.6	12.5	12.5	11.5

1 The simulation model is run for a study period of 30 minutes for 100 different random seeds for a  
2 given set of Wiedemann parameters. The volume, density, and average speed for each vehicle class  
3 are calculated, and the procedure is repeated for different sets of Wiedemann parameters.

4 A set of pair-wise *t*-tests are performed for equal means of speed and density. In all sets, the equality  
5 of mean speed cannot be rejected (*p*-values were 0.2, 0.36, and 0.16 for CC set 1 and CC set 2, CC set  
6 1 and CC set 3, CC set 2 and CC set 3, respectively). The mean densities are also not significantly  
7 different across the parameter sets (*p*-values were 0.58, 0.54, and 0.34, respectively, for the above  
8 pairs). Thus, the different cc parameter sets yield statistically similar macroscopic performance  
9 measures, despite the significant difference in microscopic behavior.

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12 Trajectories of simulated data generated using the same input volume, speed, and acceleration  
13 distributions as explained above with the same random seed and different W-99 parameters (CC Sets  
14 1, 2, and 3) are plotted in Figure 3. These trajectories are for the same single lane and for the same  
15 time interval for all sets of W-99 parameters. The macroscopic measures such as average speed,  
16 density, and volume of 100 replications of each set of CC parameters for three lanes study stretch  
17 (described in Section 4) are noted in the following plot. Major differences in the trajectories at the  
18 same time across different CC sets are marked with circles A, B, and C.

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20 From left-hand circles (A) of each trajectory plot, we can see that,

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- 21 1A – Trajectories are close to each other
- 22 2A- Trajectories are very scattered than 1A and 3A.
- 23 3A – There is a difference in the slope of some trajectories also some vehicles with some delay at  
24 the start.

26 From Central circles (B) of each trajectory plot, we can see that,

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- 27 1B – Trajectories are very close to each other and some vehicles are crossing trajectories of other  
28 vehicles
- 29 2B – Vehicles in the circle have varied speed, some vehicle is showing delay at time 750.
- 30 3B – Vehicles are scattered as compared to 1B and 2B.

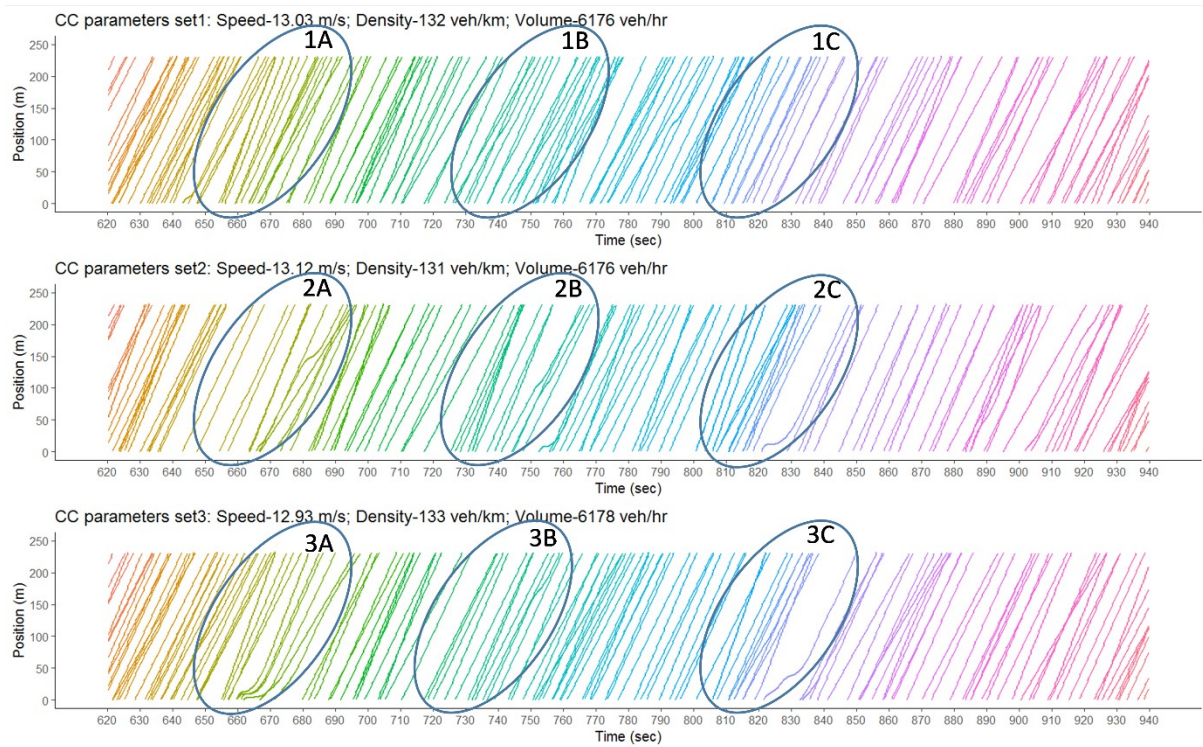
32 From the Right-Hand side circles (C) of each trajectory plot, we can see that,

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- 33 1C – Most vehicles are moving at the same speed as trajectories are parallel, some vehicles are  
34 crossing trajectories of other vehicles
- 35 2C – Vehicles are very close to each other for time 810 to 820 and there is some lag in a vehicle  
36 starting at time 820
- 37 3C – Vehicles are close to each other than 1C but less close than 2C and lagged behavior of  
38 vehicles started at 820 is different from 2C.

40 These results indicate that different CC parameters show significantly different microscopic behavior  
41 but result in similar macroscopic behavior. Therefore, CC parameters need to be calibrated at a  
42 microscopic level to have consistency at that level.





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2 **Figure 3. Trajectory Plots of Simulated Data for different sets of CC parameters**

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4 **4. DATA COLLECTION**

5 Video data were collected from a six-lane divided urban arterial road at the Maraimalai Adigalar  
6 Bridge in Saidapet, Chennai, India by Kanagaraj et al. (31). The selected section (Figure 4) is a bridge  
7 with a uniform road width. There are no nearby intersections, bus stops, parked vehicles, and other  
8 side friction that may affect drivers' behavior. Furthermore, there is no interaction between the  
9 vehicle traffic and pedestrians; the study section's width is 11.2m, and the length of the study section  
10 is 245m.



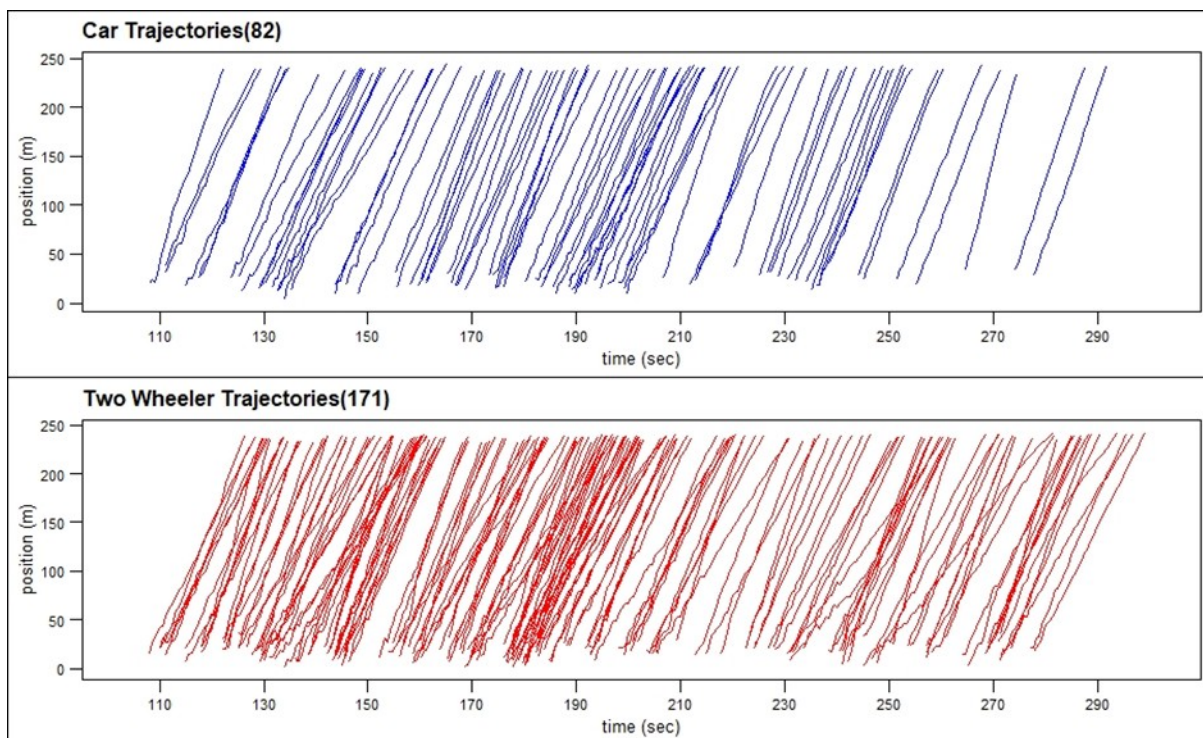
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12 **Figure 4. Snapshot of study section (31)**

13 The coordinates, dimensions, and class of all vehicles in the video sequences for 30 minutes between  
14 2:45 PM and 3:15 PM were obtained using a trajectory extractor. Data consists of a total of 3016  
15 vehicles of 6 different classes. Data were recorded at a resolution of 0.52 s. (31)

#### 1 4.1 Descriptive Statistics of Data

2 Traffic data consists of 1703 (57%) motorised two-wheelers (TW), 802 (27%) Car, 367 (12%)  
3 auto/three-wheelers, 95 (3%) Bus, 40 (1%) Light Commercial Vehicles (LCV) and 9 (0.29%) Heavy  
4 Commercial Vehicles (HCV). The collected dataset includes 3016 vehicle trajectories with a total of  
5 130137 data points.

6 For the given data, vehicular trajectories are drawn as time-space plots. Figure 5 shows sample 82  
7 trajectories of cars and 171 trajectories of two-wheelers for the same period. The vehicle trajectories  
8 have different slopes reflecting different speeds. Intersecting trajectories denote passing on either side.  
9 From both plots, we can see that there is different behavior of both vehicle classes; there is much  
10 variation in TW trajectories' slopes while that of the cars are comparatively steady. Furthermore, TWs  
11 have other values for the desired speed, the accelerations, and the longitudinal gaps (Section 3).  
12 Hence, TWs and cars have distinctively different longitudinal behavior.



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**Figure 5. Trajectories Plot**

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#### 18 4.2 Leader-Follower Pair Identification

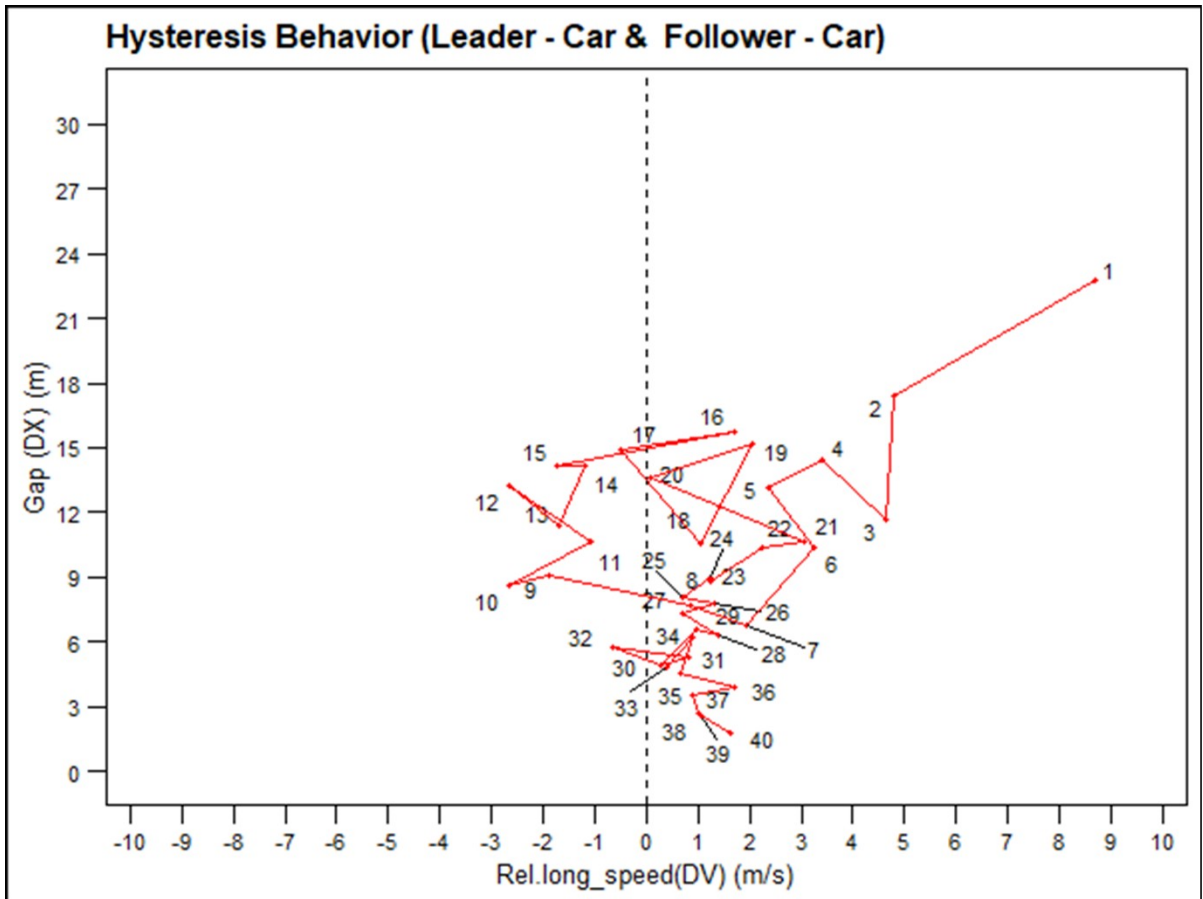
19 The influence area method by Anand et al. (16) is selected for identifying the tentative leader-follower  
20 pairs. Using this method, a total of 2130 pairs are identified consisting of (TW:1056, Car:695,  
21 3W:280, Bus:62, LCV:37) as subject vehicles.

22 Two features are essential in defining the following behavior. First, the follower can perceive the  
23 changes in the leader's speed/acceleration or gap when the leading vehicle is within certain limits and  
24 responds by changing his acceleration, speed, and position. Second, the following behavior must  
25 continue for a sufficient time duration.

1 Accordingly, the ‘actual’ or ‘true’ leader-follower pairs are identified based on the following criteria.  
2 The maximum longitudinal gap should be less than 30 m. No other vehicle should be present between  
3 an identified leader and follower. There must be lateral overlap between leader and follower. The  
4 following behavior (above three criteria) must be present for a duration greater than 5 seconds.

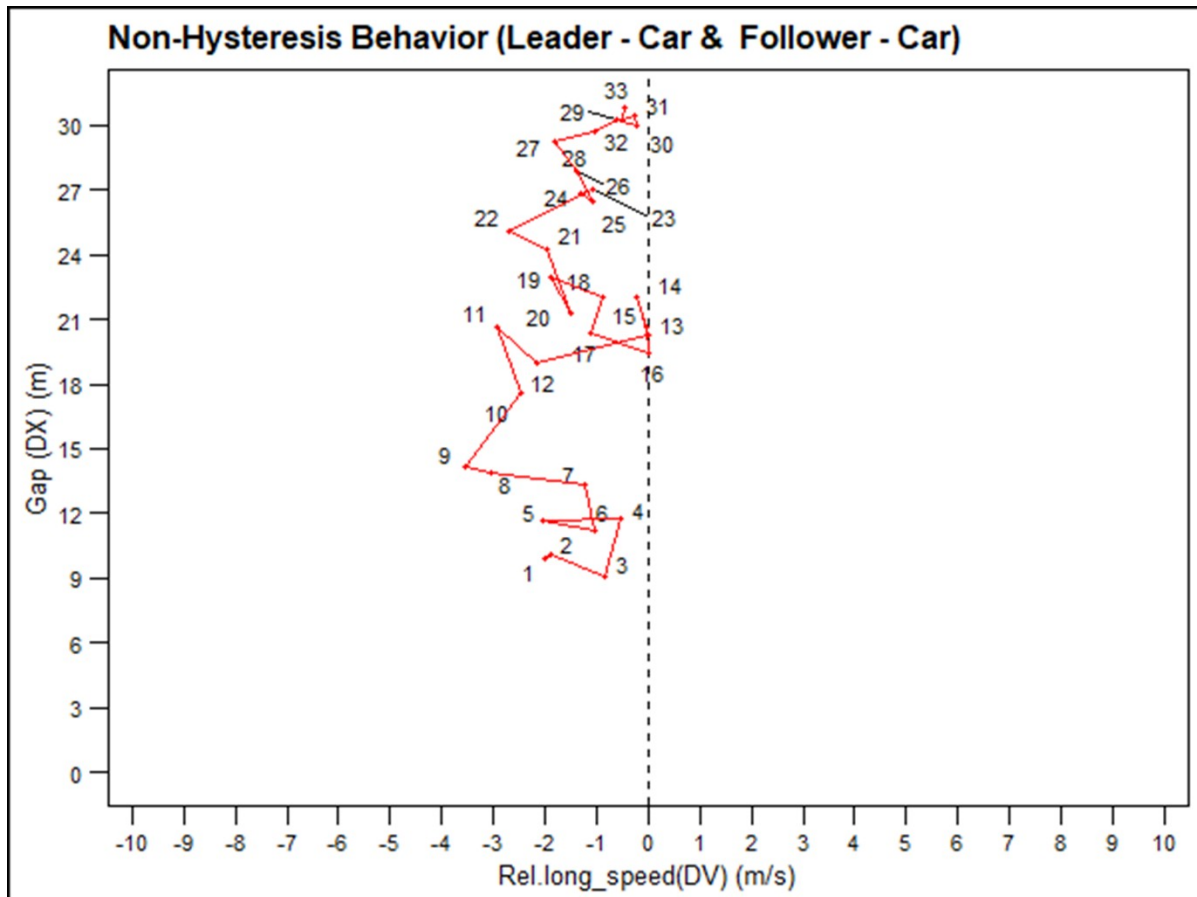
5 Pairs must show the hysteresis behavior i.e oscillations of relative speed and the gap from the  
6 unconscious following behavior as defined in the Wiedemann model to capture responsiveness of the  
7 follower to lead vehicle, sample hysteresis plots of relative speed (X-axis) and gap (Y-axis) are shown  
8 in Figure 6. The vehicle pair on Figure 6 (a) exhibits symmetric oscillations or hysteresis around the  
9 X-axis, in this regime, the follower tries to keep the same speed as the leader i.e. a relative speed near  
10 to zero, but the speed may become lesser/higher than that of the lead vehicle speed as a result of the  
11 driver’s imperfection in the estimation of the lead vehicle speed. So, the driver will  
12 accelerate/decelerate slightly again after reaching another threshold. This results in an iterative  
13 process of acceleration and deceleration leading to hysteresis due to drivers’ imperfections to  
14 determine the exact speeds of the leader; hence relative speed oscillates near zero, which is shown in  
15 the hysteresis plot Figure 6(a).

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17 In contrast, as shown in Figure 6 (b) non-hysteresis behavior, there are no oscillations of the relative  
18 speed around zero in the following regime.  
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21 **Figure 6 (a) Gap-Relative speed plot displaying hysteresis behavior**



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**Figure 6 (b) Gap-Relative speed plot displaying non-hysteresis behavior**

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After applying the above conditions to the 2130 tentative leader-follower pairs, a total of 1236 (TW:544, Car:480, 3W:155, Bus:35, LCV:22) pairs are identified as true leader-follower pairs. Among these, very few cases with multiple leaders are identified (63 pairs out of 1024 pairs). For the calibration and analysis, subsequently, multiple leaders are considered as separate leaders. The following response can be taken as the most conservative response of the subject vehicle to these leaders. For all the regimes in multiple leaders' cases, a conservative braking approach is considered; i.e., for a data point, the smallest of predicted acceleration by all leaders is considered.

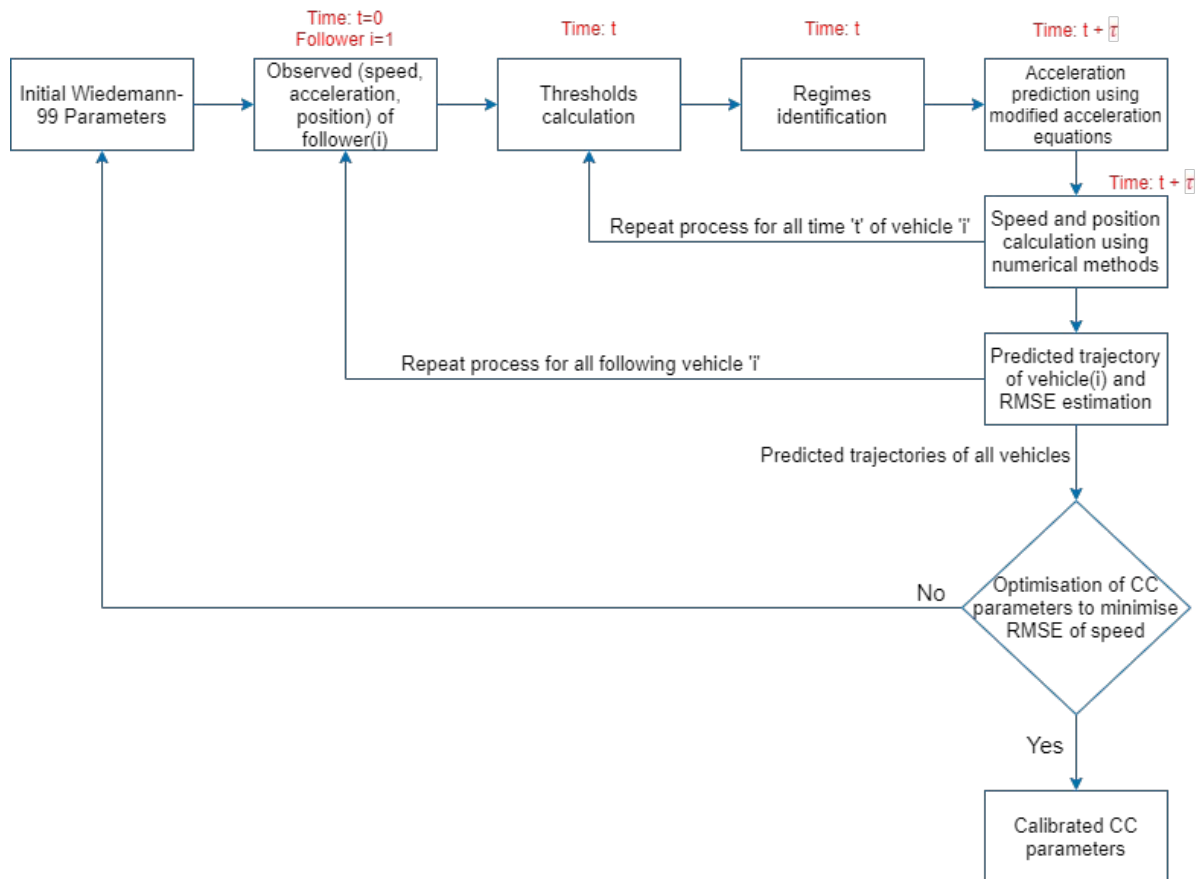
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**5. PROPOSED SCHEME FOR CALIBRATING W-99 PARAMETERS USING TRAJECTORY DATA IN MIXED TRAFFIC**

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This section explains the optimization-based procedure for calibrating W-99 following parameters using vehicle trajectory data in mixed traffic. Figure 7 gives an overview of the calibration methodology.

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**Figure 7. Calibration Methodology**

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For the assumed initial following parameters (CC), starting time  $t$  is set to  $t_0$  (the initial time when following begins).

Step 1: Perpetual Threshold (as defined in Section 2.1) computations are performed at time  $t$ .

Step 2: Based on thresholds in Step 1, regimes are identified at time  $t$ .

Step 3: Based on the regimes in Step 2, the acceleration is computed for the follower at time  $t + \tau$  (where  $\tau$  is reaction time) using modified equations given in Section 5.2

Step 4: Speed of the following vehicle is computed at time  $t + \tau$  by numerical integration of accelerations in Step 3 using equations given in Section 5.3.

Step 5: The position of the following vehicle is determined at time  $t + \tau$  by numerical integration of acceleration in Step 3 and speed in Step 4.

Step 6: The longitudinal gap and speed difference are updated for time  $t + \tau$  based on Steps 4 and 5.

Step 7: The time step is incremented.

The above process is repeated to predict all points of the given vehicle and then predicted trajectories of all vehicles for the given set of following parameters.

1 The deviation between observed and predicted acceleration, speed, and position are computed using  
 2 root mean squared error (RMSE) for all ‘actual’ leader-follower pairs. The CC parameters are  
 3 calibrated by optimizing the Wiedemann model with an objective function to minimize RMSE  
 4 between observed and predicted speeds.

5

## 6 **5.1 Regime Classification Procedure**

7 The clear gap  $DX$  and relative speed (follower speed minus leader speed)  $DV$  are computed at time  $t$ ,  
 8 the driving regime of follower at time  $t$  is determined based on the following conditions as per  
 9 Aghabayk et al. (1)

10 Case 1: IF [  $DX(t) \geq SDX(t)$  &  $DV(t) \leq SDV(t)$ ] OR IF [  $DV(t) < OPDV(t)$ ] then regime at time  $t$  is  
 11 free flow regime

12 Case 2: IF [  $DX(t) > ABX(t)$  &  $DX(t) < SDX(t)$  &  $DV(t) > CLDV(t)$ ] OR IF [  $DX(t) \geq SDX(t)$  &  
 13  $DV(t) > SDV(t)$ ], then the follower is in closing regime at time  $t$ .

14 Case 3: IF [  $DX(t) > ABX(t)$  &  $DX(t) < SDX(t)$  &  $DV(t) > OPDV(t)$  &  $DV(t) \leq CLDV(t)$ ] then regime  
 15 at time  $t$  is following

16 Case 4: IF [  $DV(t) \geq OPDV(t)$  &  $DX(t) \leq ABX(t)$  &  $DX(t) > AX(t)$ ], then regime is emergency  
 17 braking at time  $t$

18 The threshold equations for the above regime classification are as follows:

$$19 \quad AX = CC_0 \quad (1)$$

$$20 \quad ABX = CC_0 + CC_1 * V_{slow} \quad (2)$$

$$21 \quad SDX = ABX + CC_2 \quad (3)$$

$$22 \quad CLDV = CC_5 + \frac{CC_6}{17000} * DX^2 \quad (4)$$

$$23 \quad OPDV = CC_4 - \frac{CC_6}{17000} * DX^2$$

$$24 \quad (5)$$

$$25 \quad SDV = CC_5 + \frac{DX - SDX}{CC_3}$$

$$26 \quad (6)$$

27 The driving regime at time  $t$  is identified using the above conditions and thresholds, and for the  
 28 identified regime, the acceleration is computed for the follower at time  $t + \tau$ .

29

## 30 **5.2 Modification in Wiedemann Acceleration Equations**

31 The difficulties with existing acceleration equations in the literature and proposed modification are as  
 32 follows:

### 33 **i. Free flow regime**

1 The existing acceleration equation in the free-flow regime is

2 If ( $DX > ABX$ )

3 For  $v \leq 22.22$  m/s,  $B_{max}(t+\tau) = CC8 - \frac{(CC8 - CC9) * v_n(t)}{22.22}$

4 (7)

5 Otherwise,  $B_{max}(t+\tau) = CC9$  (8)

6 If ( $DX \leq ABX$ )

7  $B_{max}(t+\tau) = 0$  (9)

8 The existing acceleration equation assumes a constant free-flow speed of 22.22m/s, but it is  
9 unrealistic to have the same free-flow speed for all vehicles and road conditions. Also, it assumes that  
10 acceleration will be non-negative (CC9) for a speed more than 22.22m/s, but the vehicle should  
11 decelerate at higher speeds.

12 The following equation is used to reflect two modifications:

- 13 1. instead of the fixed free-flow speed of 22.22 m/s, vehicle and road type-specific free-flow  
14 speed from observed data is considered (using  $vm_i$ , which is specific for vehicle type i)  
15 2. the  $\alpha$  value is set as 0.4, which ensures that at speeds higher than the road's design speed,  
16 acceleration should be negative to achieve the design speed.

17  $B_{max}(t+\tau) = CC8 * \left( 1 - \frac{(\alpha) * v_n(t)}{v m_i} \right)$

18 (10)

19 where  $v_n(t)$  = current speed in m/s &  $vm_i$  = free-flow speed for vehicle type i in m/s

20 If ( $DX \leq ABX$ )

21  $B_{max}(t+\tau) = 0$  (11)

## 22 ii. Closing regime

23 The existing acceleration equation is

24  $B_n(t+\tau) = \text{Max} \left( -0.5 \frac{DV(t)^2}{DX(t) - ABX(t)}, B_{min} \right)$

25 (12)

26 Where,  $B_{min} = -10 + \sqrt{v_n(t)}$  (13)

27 In the existing equation, when the gap ( $DX$ ) is close to  $ABX$ , then the  $B_n$  value increases sharply and  
28 will be restricted to  $B_{min}$ ; this corresponds to an artificial and 'virtually solid wall' at the transition  
29 between the following and the emergency braking regime. Also, by the equation of  $B_{min}$ , it can have  
30 practically unachievable value at lower speeds.

31 To address these issues, the following modifications are suggested:

- 32 1)  $ABX$  in the denominator is replaced with  $CC0$ , which allows the driver to go closer to the leader  
33 than the original formula to match leader speed. This also means that the safety margin is  
34 reduced with respect to the original W99 which is partially compensated for by the next

1 modification. Moreover, we simulated the modification extensively and could not observe  
 2 accidents.

3 2) The first term's denominator is limited to values greater than 0.01m to avoid zero denominators  
 4 and discontinuous accelerations.

5 3)  $B_{min}$  is treated as a vehicle-specific quantity for mixed traffic.

$$6 \quad B_n(t+\tau) = \text{Max} \left( -0.5 \frac{DV(t)^2}{\max(DX(t) - CC0, 0.01)}, B_{min}^i \right)$$

7 (14)

8  $B_{min}^i$  = Max desired deceleration of follower vehicle class i

### 9 iii. Following regime

10 The existing acceleration equation is  $B_n(t+\tau) = -CC7$  if the vehicle enters the following regime by  
 11 crossing CLDV or SDX (i.e.,  $B_n(t) \leq 0$ ), and  $B_n(t+\tau) = CC7$  if it enters the following regime by  
 12 crossing OPDV or ABX thresholds (i.e.,  $B_n(t) > 0$ ).

13 In the existing acceleration equation,  $CC7$  can take a value greater than  $B_{max}$  which is physically not  
 14 possible. The modification proposed is:

15 If  $DV(t) < 0$

$$16 \quad B_n(t+\tau) = \min(+CC7, B_{max}) \quad (15)$$

17 If  $DV(t) \geq 0$

$$18 \quad B_n(t+\tau) = -CC7 \quad (16)$$

### 19 iv. Emergency braking regime

20 The existing acceleration equation per (23) is:

$$21 \quad B_n(t+\tau) = \text{Max} \left( -0.5 \frac{DV(t)^2}{DX(t) - CC0} + B_{(n-1)}(t), B_{min} \right) \quad (17)$$

$$22 \quad \text{Where, } B_{min} = -10 + \sqrt{v_n(t)} \quad (18)$$

23 In the existing equation, when the relative speed is near 0, then there are chances of  $B_n$  to become  
 24 positive as the leader can have any acceleration value. Also, it assumes that the driver will decelerate  
 25 even if the leader is accelerating, i.e., for negative relative speed.

26 Modifications 2 and 3 from the closing regime are also applicable here. Two more modifications  
 27 include:

28 1. For negative relative speed, there is no need for the follower vehicle to decelerate (so  
 29 acceleration is set to zero).

30 2. An additional term  $\left( \frac{B_{min} * ABX(t) - DX(t)}{ABX(t) - CC0} \right) i$ , is added to the equation, which gives extra braking

31 motivation when relative speed is near 0 and acceleration computed by the existing equation  
 32 greater than zero. So, the chance of  $B_n$  to become positive when the leader is accelerating is  
 33 reduced. This term was initially given in W-74 but was removed in W-99.

34 If  $DV < 0$

$$35 \quad B_n(t+\tau) = 0 \quad (19)$$



1 Otherwise,

$$2 \quad B_n(t+\tau) = \text{Max} \left( -0.5 \frac{DV(t)^2}{\max(DX(t) - CC, 0, 0.01)} + B_{(n-1)}(t), B_{min}^i \right)$$

3 (20)

4 If  $\dot{v}$ , then

$$5 \quad B_n(t+\tau) = \text{Max} \left( -0.5 \frac{DV(t)^2}{\max(DX(t) - CC, 0, 0.01)} + B_{(n-1)}(t) + \frac{B_{min} * ABX(t) - DX(t)}{ABX(t) - CC}, B_{min}^i \right)$$

6 (21)

7  $B_{min}^i$  = Max desired deceleration of following vehicle class.

8 Once the acceleration values are estimated for the regimes, the speed and position are calculated using  
9 numerical integration methods.

### 10 5.3 Numerical Integration Methods for Speed and Position Calculation:

11 For calculation of speed and position from acceleration, numerical integration equations are used.  
12 Several popular methods such as the Euler Cromer method, Midpoint method, Velocity Verlet  
13 method, and Beeman method have been reported in the literature to be suitable for computing speed  
14 and positions from Newton's equation of motion (33). The most appropriate can be problem-specific  
15 and needs to be evaluated on the desired dataset. Thus, these numerical integration methods are  
16 applied to predict leaders' speeds and positions based on observed acceleration profiles. The results  
17 are discussed in Section 6.3.

18

19 The equations for various methods are shown below: (33)

20 Euler Cromer Method:

$$21 \quad v(t+1) = v(t) + B(t) * dt \quad (22)$$

$$22 \quad x(t+1) = x(t) + v(t+1) * dt \quad (23)$$

23 Midpoint Method:

$$24 \quad v(t+1) = v(t) + B(t) * dt \quad (24)$$

$$25 \quad x(t+1) = x(t) + \frac{1}{2} [v(t) + v(t+1)] * dt \quad (25)$$

26 Velocity Verlet Method:

$$27 \quad v(t+1) = v(t) + \frac{1}{2} [B(t) + B(t+1)] * dt \quad (26)$$

$$28 \quad x(t+1) = x(t) + v(t) * dt + \frac{1}{2} B(t) * dt^2 \quad (27)$$

29 Beeman Method:

$$30 \quad v(t+1) = v(t) + \frac{1}{6} [2B(t+1) + 5B(t) - B(t-1)] * dt \quad (28)$$

$$x(t+1) = x(t) + v(t) * dt + \frac{1}{6} [4B(t) - B(t-1)] * dt^2 \quad (29)$$

where,

- v(t+1) – speed at next time step x(t+1) – position at next time step  
B(t) – acceleration at current time step B(t+1) – acceleration at next time step  
B(t-1) – acceleration at previous time step dt – time step.

#### 5.4 The Goodness of Fit Function Used for Calibration

The goodness of fit function for calibration is the deviation between observed and computed speeds. Thus, calibration is formulated as an optimization problem to determine the best set of model parameter values, which minimizes this RMS error.

$$\text{Min } Z = \text{RMSE (inst.speed)} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T (\text{speed}_{\text{deviation}}(i, t))^2}}{N} \quad (30)$$

$$\text{speed}_{\text{deviation}}(i, t) = v^{\text{obs}}(i, t) - v^{\text{pred}}(i, t)$$

$v^{\text{pred}}(i, t)$  is obtained from numerical integration of B(i,t) as per equation 28. B(i,t) is a non-linear function  $f(CC, DV, DX, V, B)$ , as given in section 5.2

Thus  $v^{\text{pred}}(i, t)$  is  $f(CC0, CC1, CC2, \dots, CC9)$  but is non-smooth and non-differentiable due to the presence of maxima and minima. Hence analytical optimization techniques cannot be used. The optimization is done using the metaheuristics such as the Nelder-Mead method in R-studio software.

In this study, out of 10 W-99 parameters (CC0-CC9), Seven parameters are calibrated. CC1, CC2, CC3, CC4, CC5, CC7, and CC8 are calibrated. CC0 is determined by measuring the gaps in a drone image of the stopped vehicles at a signal. CC0 for TW is taken as 0.4m, and 0.66m for cars, the default value of CC6 is adopted in this study like in Raju et al. (6) Durrani et al. (7), and CC9 is not used in the modified equations.

Other fixed values used in calibration include the desired speed, maximum deceleration rates (cf. Table 2), and the reaction time ( $\tau$ ) is taken as 1.0 s. based on empirical analysis conducted by authors.

The optimization-based calibration process determines a set of CC parameters for a given class that yields the minimum RMSE. This procedure is done separately for the vehicle classes TW and cars. For the calibrated values of cc parameters, RMS errors for acceleration and position are also computed based on the deviation between the observed and predicted values.

28

## 6. Results and Discussion

### 6.1 Analysis Methodology

For the calibration and validation purpose, leader-follower pairs are randomly divided into 70% (Pairs: TW=250, Car=200 with Datapoints: TW=6710, Car=5748) for the estimation and 30% holdout data for the validation. The model is calibrated using the estimation dataset and validate by calculating performance measures with the calibrated model on the holdout dataset.

This study is analyzed as per the following methodology:

- 1 i) The W-99 model is calibrated by using existing acceleration equations and proposed  
2 acceleration equations to evaluate the effect of equations' modifications.
  - 3 ii) Alternative numerical integration schemes are evaluated to find the method which gives  
4 accurate predictions for acceleration, speed, and position over time.
  - 5 iii) The proposed W-99 calibrated model is compared with other calibrated W-99 models by  
6 evaluating the performance measures, RMSE of acceleration, instantaneous speed, and  
7 position.
  - 8 iv) Different driving behavior of TW and cars are evaluated from their CC-values and Gap-  
9 Relative speed plot.
  - 10 v) Leader-follower pairs are classified into Strict and overlapping staggered following based  
11 on the lateral overlap, and calibration analysis is done for these pairs.
- 12 Table 3 shows the calibrated CC parameter by existing acceleration equation and proposed  
13 acceleration equations, CC parameters by heuristic methods, and goodness of fit of these parameters  
14 and for validation data set for TW and cars.

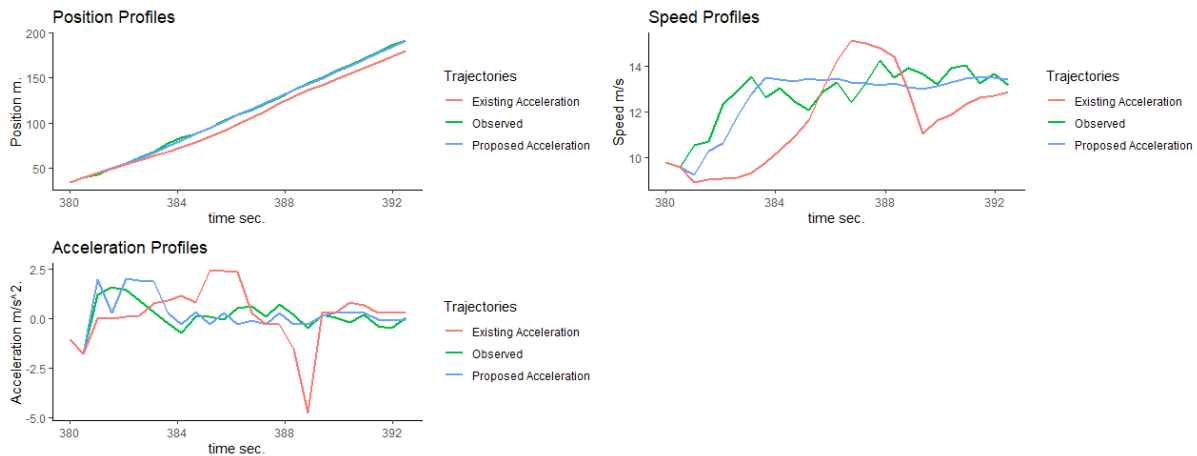
1 **Table 3 Calibrated CC parameters and Goodness of Fit using existing and proposed acceleration equations and heuristic methods.**

Two-Wheeler						Car				
Parameters	Existing Acceleration (optimization)	Proposed acceleration (Optimization)	Validation	Heuristic 1 (w/o Optimization) (6)	Heuristic 2 (w/o Optimization) (7)	Existing n Acceleration (optimization)	Proposed Acceleration (Optimization)	Validation	Heuristic 1 (w/o Optimization) (6)	Heuristic 2 (w/o Optimization) (7)
CC1 (s)	1.78	1.39	Same as column 2	0.81	1.021	1.13	1.48	Same as column 7	0.76	0.96
CC2 (m)	8.27	9.75		7.66	5.29	11.62	14.02		7.74	5.687
CC3 (s)	-11	-9.45		-8	-5.9	-6.94	-11.4		-12.11	-6.18
CC4 (m/s)	-0.84	-1.56		-1.65	2.69	-0.9	-1.95		-1.78	-2.7
CC5 (m/s)	1.14	1.31		2.04	2.692	1.11	1.61		1.99	2.7
CC7 (m/s <sup>2</sup> )	0.3	0.29		0.24	0.24	0.26	0.33		0.24	0.24
CC8 (m/s <sup>2</sup> )	3	2.78		3	3	3.15	3.15		3.15	3.15
RMSE (Acceleration) m/s <sup>2</sup>	1.17	1.08	1.01	1.4	1.67	1.21	1.08	0.97	1.26	1.47
RMSE (Inst Speed) m/s	1.9	1.56	1.49	2.51	3.26	2.99	1.64	1.45	2.16	3.74
RMSE (Position) m	7.96	5.25	4.96	9.09	11.63	12.3	7.79	5.6	9.58	16.85

- 2
- 3 The results of calibration by existing acceleration equations (columns 1 and 6) and by proposed acceleration equations (columns 2 and 7) are explained in
- 4 Section 6.2
- 5 The results of calibration by Heuristic 1 (column 4 and column 9) and Heuristic 2(column 5 and column 10) are explained in Section 6.4
- 6 **Performance on the holdout set**
- 7 For the holdout data (30%), the performance measures are computed using the CC parameters obtained after calibration using the proposed equations; the
- 8 result is given in columns 3&8 in Table 3. From the results, the calibrated model parameters also perform well on the validation dataset.

## 1 6.2 Use of Modified Acceleration Equations

2 Position, speed, and acceleration profiles predicted by existing acceleration equations and the  
3 proposed acceleration equation are plotted along with observed profiles for a sample follower in the  
4 following Figure 8.



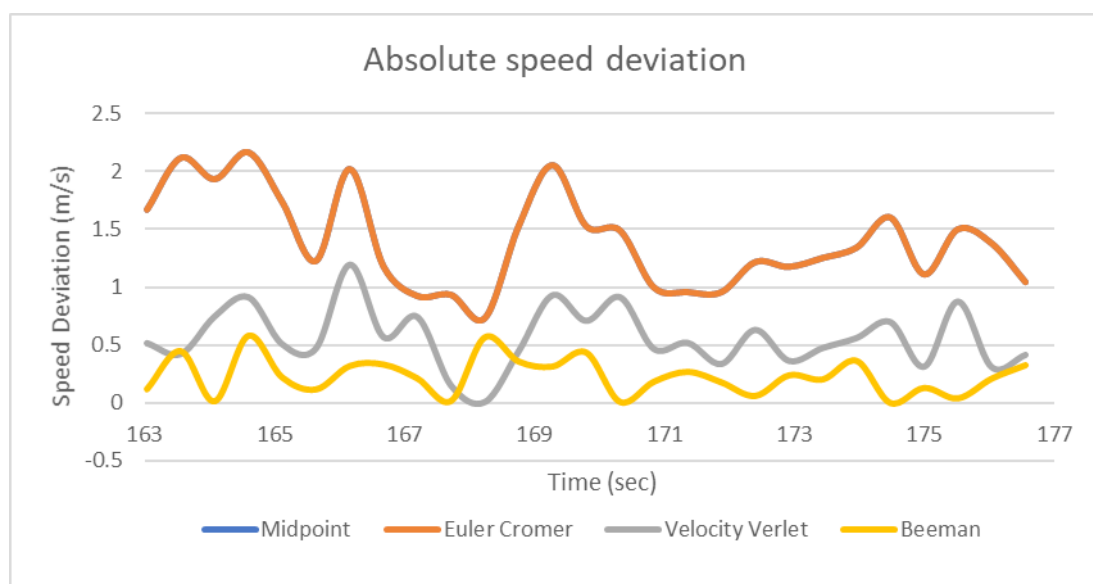
5

6 **Figure 8. Trajectory Profiles with modified and existing acceleration equations**

7 From Figure 8, the model with proposed acceleration equations predicts the observed trajectories  
8 better than the model with existing acceleration equations. This is also observed in Table 3, where  
9 RMSE of the proposed acceleration equations are lower for speed (RMSE (m/s): 1.56 vs. 1.9),  
10 position (RMSE (m): 5.25 vs. 7.96), and acceleration (RMSE (m/s<sup>2</sup>): 1.08 vs. 1.17) than for the  
11 existing equations for two-wheelers. Similar trends are observed for cars as well.

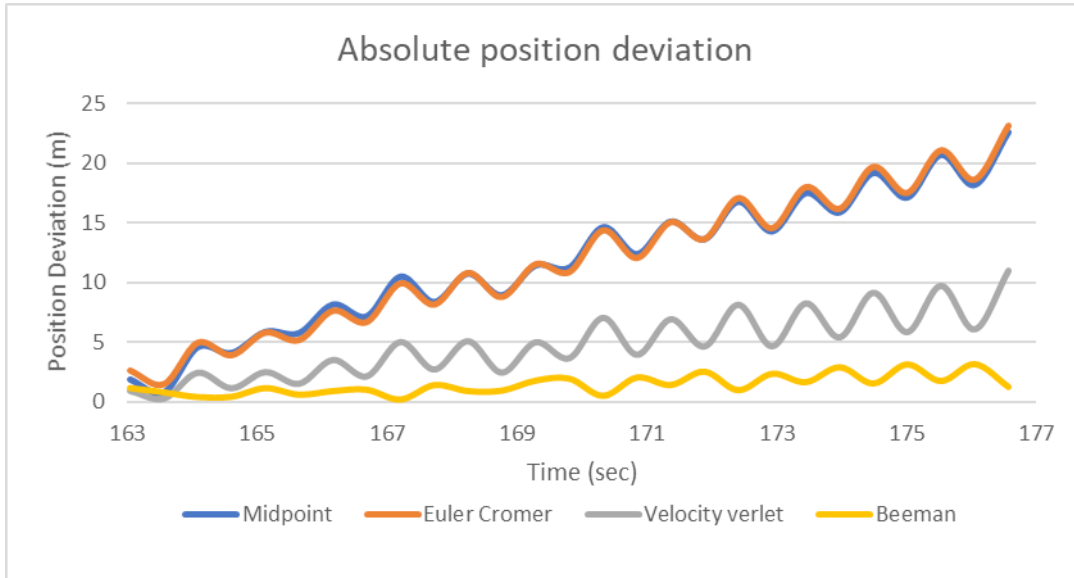
## 12 6.3 Evaluation of Numerical Integration Methods for Trajectory Computation

13 Numerical integration methods from section 5.3 are evaluated based on deviation speed and position  
14 profiles relative to the observed trajectories. Figure 9 (a) and (b) shows the plot of absolute deviation  
15 of speed and absolute deviation of position by the different methods with observed speed and position  
16 of a sample leader respectively. The goodness of fit is measured by the root mean square error  
17 (RMSE) of predictions.



18

19 **Figure 9 (a). Absolute speed deviation for different numerical integration methods**



**Figure 9 (b). Absolute position deviation for different numerical integration methods**

The average RMSE between observed values and calculated values of speed & position are computed for all different methods across all different leaders.

RMSE of speed for Midpoint Method: 1.438 m/s, Euler Cromer Method: 1.438 m/s, Velocity Verlet Method: 0.606 m/s, and for Beeman Method: 0.282 m/s.

RMSE of position for Midpoint Method: 12.701 m, Euler Cromer Method: 12.701 m, Velocity Verlet Method: 5.345 m, and for Beeman Method: 1.692 m.

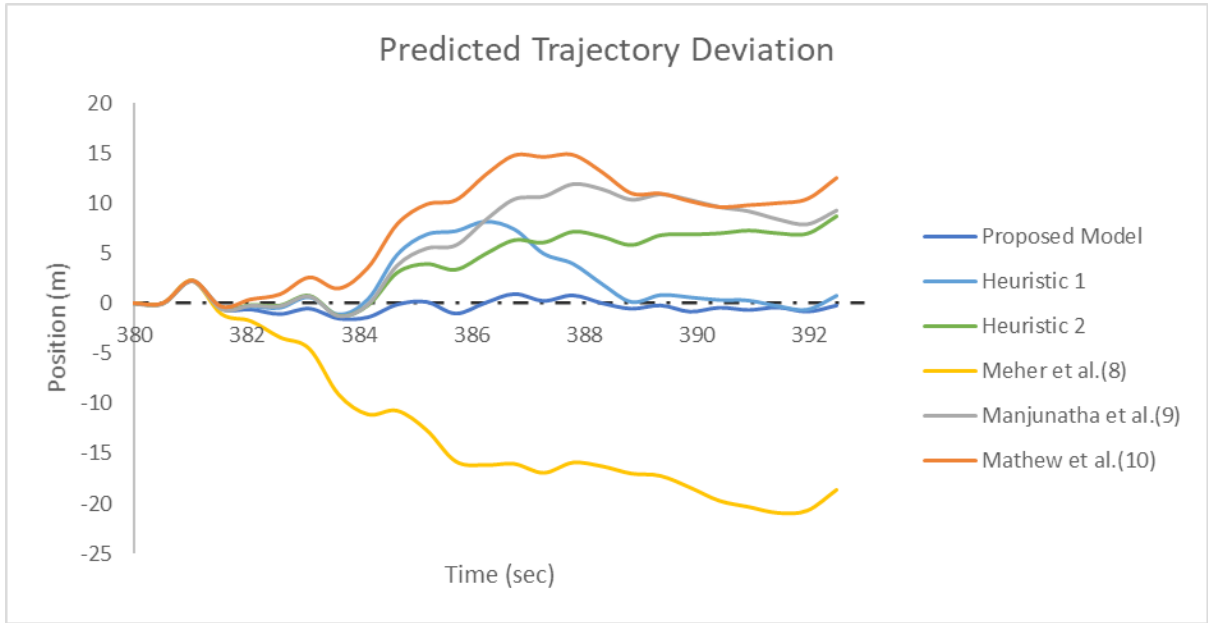
The RMSE is smallest for Beeman's method for both speed and position computations and hence this method is used subsequently.

#### 6.4 Comparison with other W-99 Models

W-99 parameters are calibrated for the given dataset using procedures provided by Raju et al. (6) and Durrani et al. (7), denoted as the heuristic method 1 and 2, respectively. The heuristic 1 method is chosen because they have used the same data as in this paper to calibrate the W-99 model; heuristic 2 is considered as they have considered heterogeneity across the vehicle types and pairs. As noted earlier, these heuristic methods calculate W-99 parameters without minimizing the deviation from observed field data.

For comparison, the proposed parameters and fit functions were compared with other calibration results in the literature for multi-lane mixed traffic conditions based on macroscopic performance measures.

Following Fig.10 shows the deviation of the sample predicted trajectory of the follower (TW) by different W-99 models with observed trajectory.



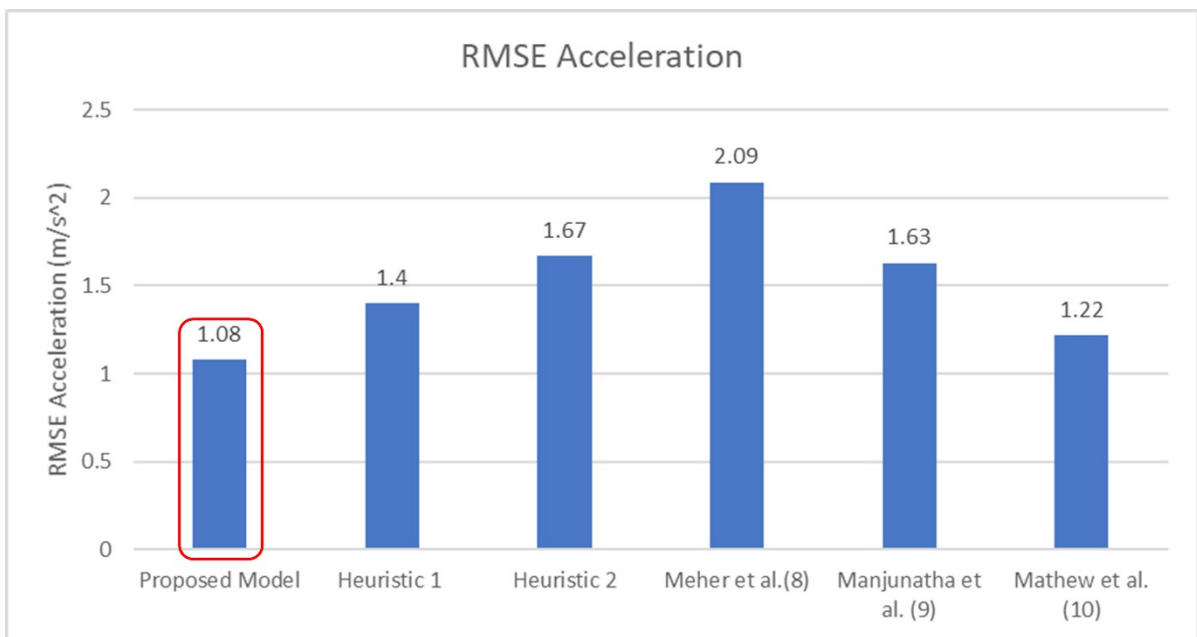
1

**Figure 10. Predicted Trajectory Deviation**

2

3 The results of performance measures by the proposed model, heuristic models, and other calibration  
 4 results in the literature are plotted in Figure 11.

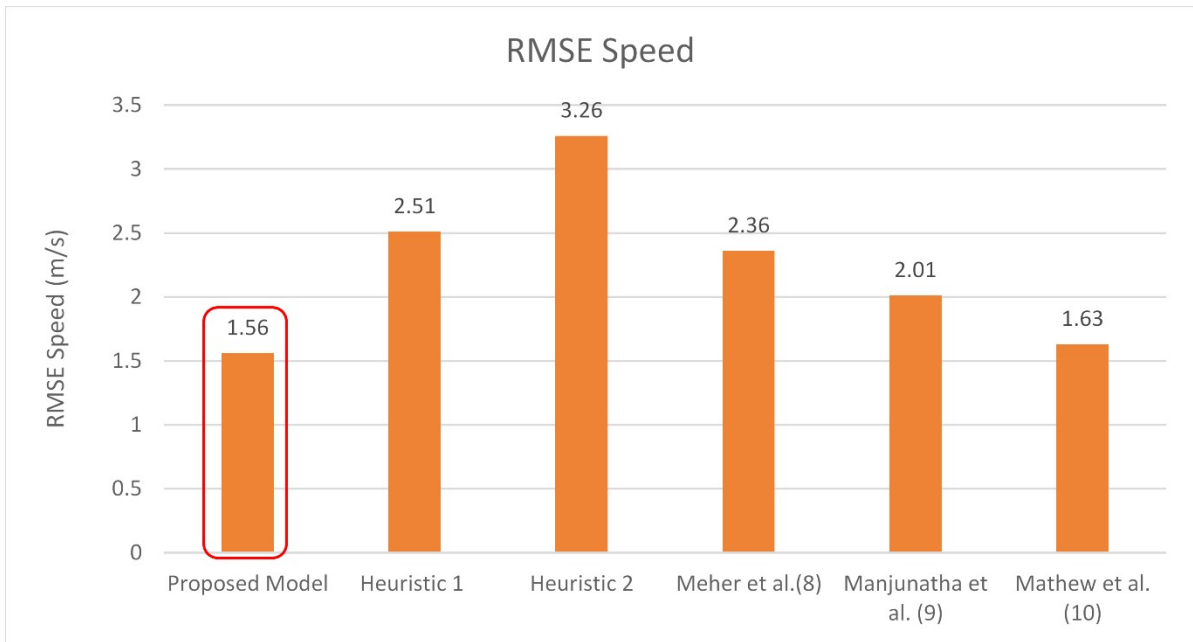
5 Following plot 11 (a), (b), (c) shows the RMSE of acceleration, speed, and position respectively for  
 6 different calibrated W-99 Models for TW as a class of follower.



7

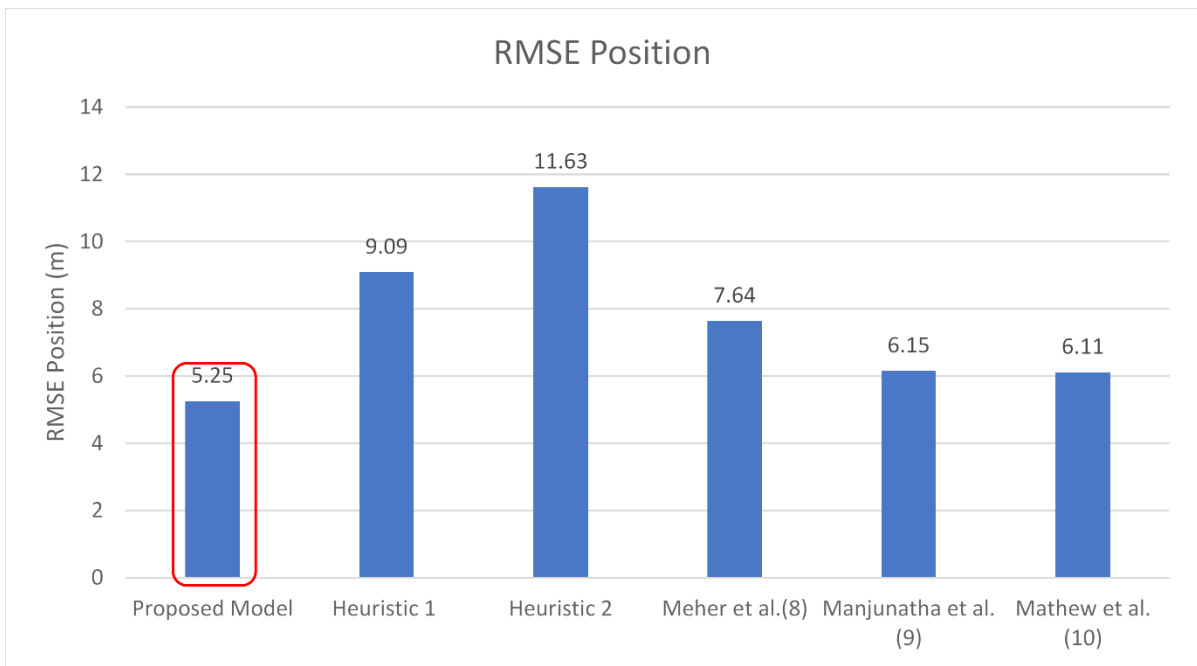
**Figure 11 (a) RMSE Acceleration for different W-99 Models**

8



1  
2

**Figure 11 (b) RMSE Speed for different W-99 Models**



3  
4  
5

**Figure 11 (c) RMSE Position for different W-99 Models**

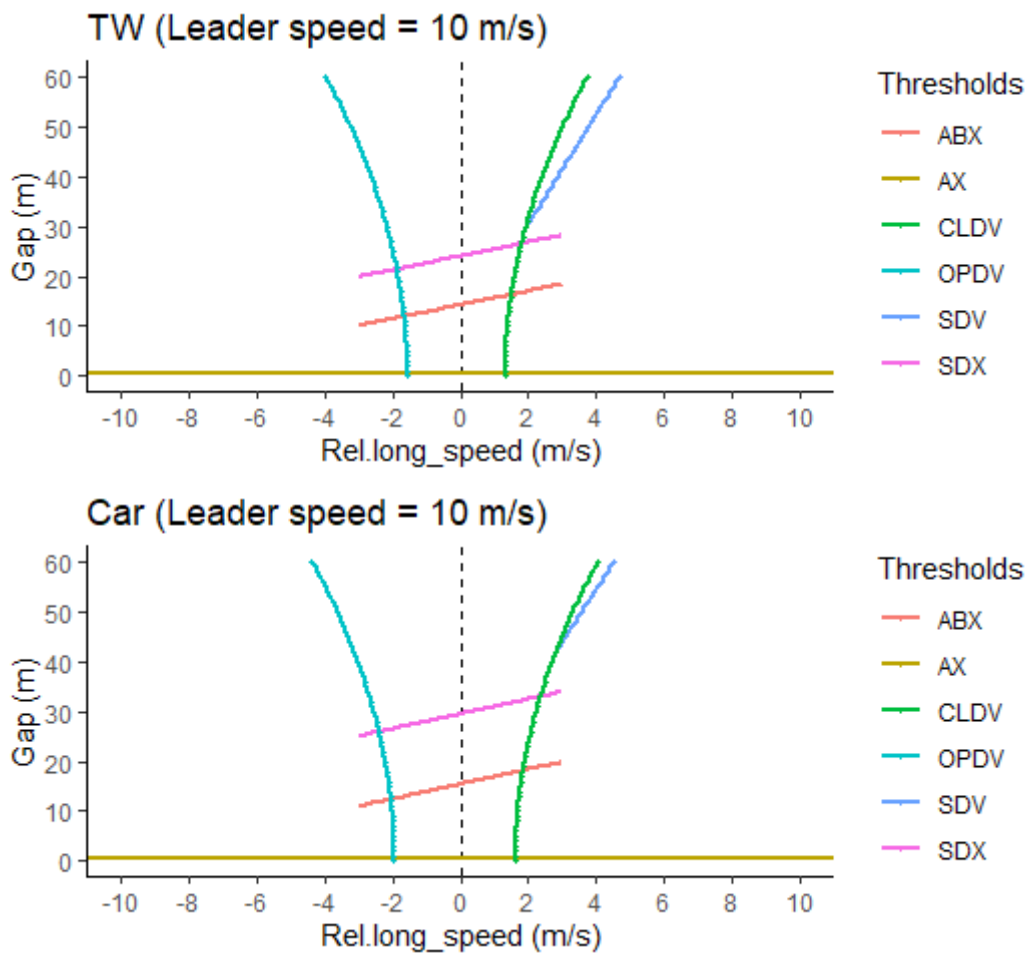
6 From the above RMSE results, it can be seen that the performance measures by the proposed method  
7 offer a significant improvement in predicting acceleration, speed, and positions at the microscopic  
8 level.

9

10 **6.5 Difference in Vehicle-Following Parameters and Thresholds between TW and Car**



1 Figure 12 shows the gap-relative speed plots with thresholds of regime identification, calculated for  
 2 the CC parameters by the proposed method is given in Table 3, for a constant leader speed of 10 m/s.  
 3



4  
 5 **Figure 12 Wiedemann Threshold Plots for TW and Car**

6 From the calibrated W-99 parameters for TW and cars in Table 3 (columns 2 and 7) and threshold  
 7 plots of the same parameters in Figure12, we can see that the threshold diagram and the CC  
 8 parameters are quantitatively different for these two vehicle classes.

9 CC1 of cars is larger than that for TW, which is evident as car drivers keep more gap to the leader  
 10 than TW. Hence, ABX for TW will be lower than that for cars. Consequently, a lower percentage of  
 11 TW points will be in the emergency braking regime than is the case for cars.

12 CC2 decides the range of the following regime; the value difference shows that cars have a longer  
 13 following regime than TW, as SDX will be higher. Hence, car drivers can sense the change in leader  
 14 behavior at a longer gap than TW drivers. Consequently, the chance of TW drivers being in the free-  
 15 flow regime is higher compared to that of car drivers.

16 CC3 for TW is lower in magnitude than that for cars, which we can see as the slope of the SDV line in  
 17 the threshold plot; hence TW drivers perceive a slow-moving leader and decelerate earlier than car  
 18 drivers.

19 CC4 & CC5 gives the OPDV & CLDV thresholds; for TWs, both CC4 and CC5 are smaller in  
 20 magnitude than that for cars; hence TW is more sensitive to change in leader's speed.

1 CC7 is acceleration in the following regime; car drivers apply higher acceleration values than TW  
 2 drivers while following the leader unconsciously.

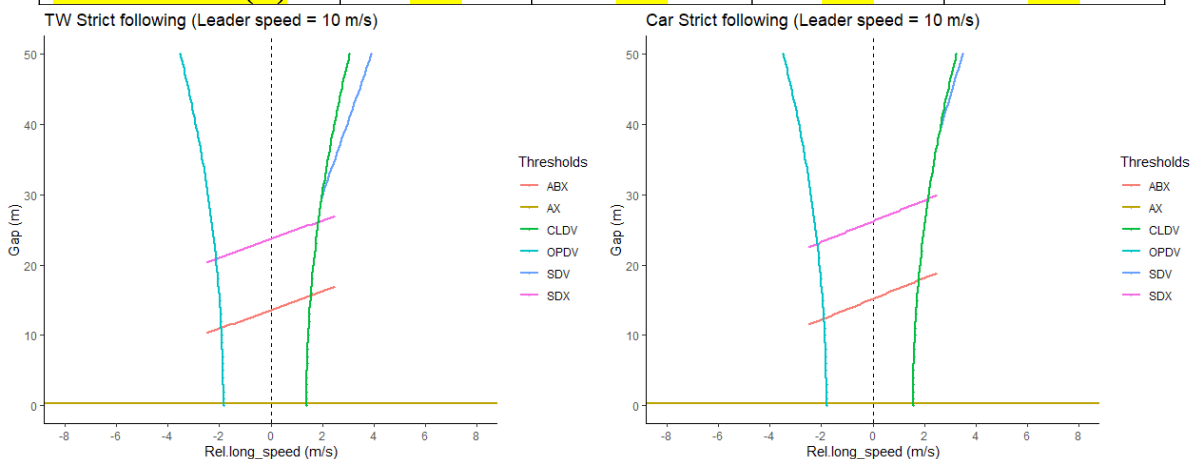
3 The most important observation is that, under the same relative speed and gap stimulus, two-wheelers,  
 4 and cars may be in different regimes and display different acceleration responses. Thus, accurate  
 5 calibration of each vehicle's parameters is essential for developing micro-simulation models for mixed  
 6 traffic.

7 **6.6 Analysis of Following Behavior between Strict and Overlapping-Staggered Following**

8 A follower is considered to belong to the strict following regime if its overlapping width is more than  
 9 0.25m for TW and more than 0.75m for cars (i.e., 50% of the average width) for at least half of the  
 10 observed time interval or if the smaller of the pair has a full overlap. Otherwise, the follower is  
 11 considered to be in the overlapping-staggered following regime, **these criteria are based on empirical**  
 12 **analysis conducted by authors**. 276 two-wheelers and 328 cars were in the strict following regime,  
 13 whereas 268 two-wheelers and 152 cars were classified into the staggered following regime. The  
 14 calibration analysis is done for strict and overlapping-staggered. The calibrated parameters and the  
 15 Goodness of fit [RMSE (acceleration) m/s<sup>2</sup>, RMSE (speed) m/s, RMSE (position) m] for the above  
 16 four sets of CC's are given in Table 4.

17 **Table 4 Calibrated CC parameters and Goodness of Fit for Strict and Overlapping Staggered**  
 18 **following**

Parameter	TW		Car	
	Strict Following	Overlapping Staggered Following	Strict Following	Overlapping Staggered Following
Pairs	276	268	328	152
CC1	1.32	1.13	1.48	1.13
CC2	10.1	11.97	11.02	13
CC3	-9.09	-10.02	-10.4	-10.67
CC4	-1.84	-1.64	-1.8	-1.7
CC5	1.38	1.31	1.56	1.47
CC7	0.29	0.29	0.26	0.35
CC8	2.33	2.57	2.91	3.11
RMSE Acceleration (m/s <sup>2</sup> )	0.97	1.1	0.94	1.11
RMSE Speed (m/s)	1.46	1.6	1.41	1.65
RMSE Position (m)	4.88	5.26	5.17	7.52

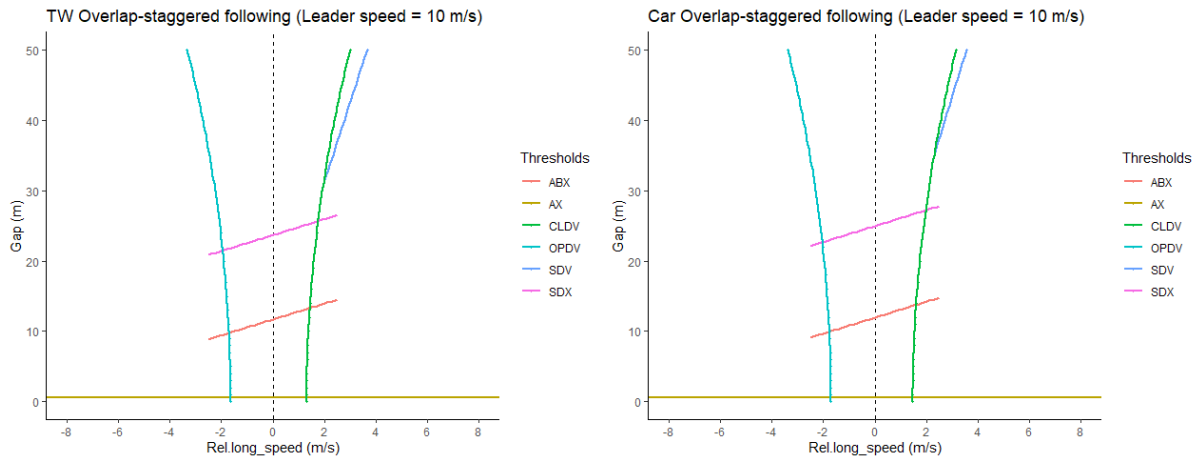


19

1

2

**Figure 13 (a) Wiedemann Threshold Plots - Strict following for TW and cars**



3

**Figure 13 (b) Wiedemann Threshold Plots - Overlapping-Staggered following for TW and cars**

5

6 Figure 13 (a) and (b) shows the gap-relative speed plots with thresholds of regime identification for  
7 the CC parameters of Strict and Overlap-Staggered following for TW and car as given in Table 4  
8 respectively, for a constant leader speed of 10 m/s.

9 The calibration results indicate that the driving behavior in a staggered car-following situation is  
10 different from that of strict car-following. This is particularly true for the safety indicator time to  
11 collision, i.e., the ratio of gap (DX) and relative speed (DV) (34) Therefore, different parameter sets  
12 are to be calibrated for strict and staggered following.

13 The CC1 values for strict and staggered following imply that drivers keep a smaller gap in staggered  
14 following compared to the strict following. The found CC4 and CC5 values imply that, in the  
15 staggered following, drivers are more sensitive to changes in leader's speed than the strict following.  
16 There are also differences with respect to the vehicle classes: TW drivers are found to keep lower  
17 gaps and to be more sensitive to speed changes of a leader than car drivers.

## 18 7. CONCLUSION

19 This paper proposes and implements a calibration procedure for the Wiedemann-99 model based on  
20 RMSE between simulated and observed trajectories of mixed traffic consisting predominantly of  
21 motorized two-wheelers and cars. The proposed modifications of the Wiedemann acceleration  
22 equations allowed for a more realistic representation of driving behavior under these conditions.  
23 Alternative numerical integration schemes for computing speed and position over time are evaluated.  
24 The performance of the proposed calibration method is compared with other heuristic trajectory-based  
25 calibration methods. The calibrated parameters may help understand the dynamics of mixed traffic  
26 flow. Particularly, we found differences in the car-following behavior between motorized two-  
27 wheelers and cars as well as between strict and overlapping staggered following.

28 The following key findings and observations emerge from this study. The simulation-based analysis  
29 demonstrates that different microscopic W-99 parameters can lead to similar macroscopic  
30 performance measures. Thus, the psychophysical (Wiedemann model) calibration using macroscopic  
31 and aggregate performance measures may not uniquely determine microscopic behavior or  
32 performance.

1 Existing acceleration equations reported in the context of W-99 models can lead to some  
2 inconsistency and unrealistic driving behavior characteristics. These include the inability to capture  
3 vehicle type-specific features and a wrong sign for acceleration in some cases. Modifications are  
4 proposed to these equations to be consistent with observed driving behavior.

5 The microscopic performance of the above model in computing trajectories depends on the calibration  
6 parameters and is also quite sensitive to the numerical integration technique. Five different methods  
7 were evaluated, and it was observed that Beeman's integration scheme provides the best fit with the  
8 observed data.

9 An optimization-based scheme is used to calibrate the W-99 model for mixed traffic with the above  
10 modifications. The proposed calibration scheme is found to outperform other calibration methods  
11 based on trajectory data (but without optimization) in terms of RMS errors for speed, position, and  
12 acceleration. The calibrated parameter values for thresholds and boundaries for regimes turned out to  
13 be behaviourally more realistic than those produced with other methods. Visual comparison of the  
14 regimes across models confirms these differences.

15 Not only do the parameters and the regime boundaries vary across calibration methods, but they also  
16 differ between two-wheelers and cars in mixed traffic. These differences are quantified and illustrated  
17 using sample plots of relative speed and gap across vehicle classes. The results reveal that the  
18 calibrated parameter values and, consequently, the thresholds that delineate closing, following,  
19 emergency braking, and opening regimes vary between two-wheelers and cars. The window (in the  
20 relative speed vs. gap plot) for the unconscious following is larger for cars, while the free flow regime  
21 is more extensive for two-wheelers. Under the same relative speed and gap stimulus, two-wheelers  
22 and cars may be in different regimes and display different acceleration responses.

23 The study's findings have direct and vital applications for the calibration and development of mixed  
24 traffic micro-simulation models. This study is based on calibration from a mid-block section in a  
25 divided six-lane arterial in Chennai. Extending this study to other locations **and considering extended**  
26 **car-following behavior such as vehicle platooning case** is a direction for continuing research.  
27 Extending the analysis to consider other facility types (four-lane divided urban roads, two-lane  
28 divided and undivided roads) as well as intersections by choosing suitable performance measures is an  
29 exciting and challenging direction for future work.

30 This work can be extended to other simulation platforms, including Sumo, Aimsun, Simtraffic, etc.  
31 since all models belong to the same class of car-following models (local time-continuous models or  
32 iterated maps with speed, relative speed, gap, and sometimes acceleration as exogenous variables).  
33 More systematic studies that relax the conditions to identify leader-follower pairs (in terms of  
34 duration of the following or extent of lateral overlap) allowing to analyse more diverse leader-  
35 follower pairs are being investigated currently by the authors and will be reported in future studies.  
36 Furthermore, the analysis can be extended to model, not just the leader but the whole local traffic  
37 environment as explicit input allowing for many other maneuvers beyond this particular study's  
38 scope.

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## 43 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

44 The authors confirm contribution to the paper as follows:

45 Study Conception and Design: A. Chaudhari, K. Srinivasan, B. Chilukuri, M. Treiber, O. Okhrin

46 Analysis and interpretation: A. Chaudhari, K. Srinivasan, B. Chilukuri, M. Treiber, O. Okhrin.

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2 All authors reviewed the results and approved the final version of the manuscript.

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20 **Figure Legends:**

- 21 1. Figure 1 Schematic representation of Wiedemann Model (22)
- 22 2. Figure 2. Wiedemann thresholds plots for different sets of CC parameters
- 23 3. Figure 3. Trajectory Plots of Simulated Data for different sets of CC parameters
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- 36 16. Figure 12 Wiedemann Threshold Plots for TW and Car

- 1 17. Figure 13(a). Wiedemann Threshold Plots Strict following for TW and cars
- 2 18. Figure 13(b). Wiedemann Threshold Plots Overlapping-Staggered following for TW and cars
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