

1 **Effect of Motorcycle Lighting Configurations on Drivers' Perceptions of Closing**

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Abstract

20 **Objective:** The aims were to better understand how drivers perceive an approaching set of
21 motorcycle headlights during nighttime driving and to determine whether alternative motorcycle
22 headlight configurations improve drivers' perceptual judgments of closing for an oncoming
23 motorcycle.

24 **Background:** Motorcyclists account for a disproportionate number of roadway fatalities,
25 especially at night. One potential cause of this is drivers' misjudgments of a motorcycle's
26 approach.

27 **Method:** The first experiment examined whether drivers were more sensitive to horizontal or
28 vertical optical expansion and whether drivers could integrate these two dimensions to achieve a
29 lower looming threshold. A second experiment built on these results to test whether alternative
30 headlight configurations that maximized size were better than other motorcycle headlight
31 configurations and a car's headlights. In both experiments, participants were instructed to press a
32 button to indicate when they first perceived an oncoming vehicle to be closing under nighttime
33 driving conditions.

34 **Results:** Headlight orientation did not affect when drivers perceived closing, and drivers were
35 not able to integrate optical expansion from multiple dimensions in a way that achieves a lower
36 looming threshold. However, the alternative motorcycle headlight configurations that
37 accentuated the full extent of a motorcycle's size resulted in drivers perceiving closing sooner
38 than other motorcycle headlight configurations but not sooner than as a car.

39 **Conclusion:** Drivers perceive closing sooner for larger headlight configurations unless the
40 headlight configurations are relatively small.

- 41 **Application:** Drivers' perceptual judgments of motorcycles may improve when motorcycles
42 have headlights that span its full height.
- 43 **Keywords:** vehicle design, nighttime visibility, vision, driver behavior, accident analysis.

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1. Introduction

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Motorcyclists account for a disproportionate number of roadway fatalities. Although motorcycles made up only 0.63% of total vehicle miles traveled in 2017, motorcyclists accounted for 13.92% of the 37,133 fatalities on the roadway, and the fatality rate per vehicle mile travelled was 27 times higher for motorcyclists compared to passenger car occupants (National Highway Traffic Safety Administration, 2019). Night driving is especially dangerous for motorcyclists because even though 35.96% of motorcycle crashes occur at night, this is when 49.00% of fatal motorcycle crashes occur (National Highway Traffic Safety Administration, 2020). This is likely because the entire motorcycle and rider is visible during daylight, but only the lights on the motorcycle are visible at night (Cavallo et al., 2015). Thus, the configuration of these lights is especially important for night driving.

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Crashes between a motorcycle and another vehicle are often caused by the other vehicle violating the motorcycle's right-of-way such as when a vehicle pulls out in front of a motorcycle at an intersection (Hurt et al., 1981; Pai, 2011). One major cause of this is drivers' failures to detect the motorcycle because of its low conspicuity and relatively low frequency on the roadway, resulting in automobile drivers not expecting to see them (Hurt et al., 1981; Pai, 2011). However, even when drivers successfully detect the presence of a motorcycle, crash risk is not eliminated. In fact, drivers can violate a motorcycle's right-of-way and cause a crash if they misjudge the approach of an oncoming motorcycle. Such violations have been identified as another major cause of drivers violating a motorcycle's right-of-way (Pai, 2011) that occur about as often as detection failures (Maruyama et al., 2009). For example, prior research has shown drivers judged smaller vehicles (e.g., a motorcycle) as arriving later than larger vehicles (e.g., a

68 full size car) even though they actually arrived at the same time (Caird and Hancock, 1994;
69 Horswill et al., 2005), an effect known as the size-arrival effect (DeLucia, 1991, 2013; DeLucia
70 & Warren, 1994). Such errors increase the likelihood of a crash in a left-turn-across-path
71 scenario when the oncoming vehicle is a motorcycle compared to when the oncoming vehicle is
72 a car or truck. These errors are likely exacerbated at night when the roadway is not illuminated
73 and the motorcycle only has a standard single headlight configuration because the visual size of
74 the motorcycle is comprised of only the size of the single headlight (Thomson, 1980).
75 Alternative motorcycle lighting configurations may help drivers better judge the approach of an
76 oncoming vehicle, which was the focus of the current research.

77 **1.1 Alternative Motorcycle Lighting Configurations**

78 Prior research on alternative motorcycle lighting configurations indicated that a larger
79 lighting configuration improves drivers' judgments about the approach of an oncoming
80 motorcycle in terms of speed discrimination (Gould et al., 2012a, 2012b) and gap acceptance
81 (Cavallo et al., 2015; Tsutsumi and Maruyama, 2007). However, much of it lacked insight into
82 whether drivers are equally sensitive to changes in size in the horizontal and vertical dimensions,
83 which is important because drivers may be more sensitive to horizontal changes, but motorcycles
84 are much narrower than other vehicles. Moreover, none of the prior research on motorcycle
85 lighting configurations measured the effect of motorcycle lighting configurations on looming
86 thresholds even though drivers use looming information, such as rate of optical expansion, to
87 perceive the driving environment (Mortimer et al., 2014; Muttart et al., 2005). Consequently, one
88 important theoretical question has not yet been adequately addressed: are drivers equally
89 sensitive to horizontal and vertical optical expansion? If drivers are equally sensitive to both
90 directions, then the logical conclusion would be to accentuate the longer dimension of the

91 vehicle because optical expansion is larger for larger objects when all else is equal. However,
92 Gould et al. (2012a) suggested that drivers are more sensitive to looming in the horizontal
93 dimension, which would be particularly bad for motorcycles because they are so much narrower
94 than other vehicles on the roadway. Gould et al. (2012a) found that a vertical motorcycle
95 headlight configuration had a descriptively higher (i.e., worse) speed discrimination threshold
96 compared to a horizontal motorcycle headlight configuration, providing some evidence for the
97 hypothesis that drivers are more sensitive to looming along the horizontal dimension. These
98 findings are seemingly at odds with basic perceptual research indicating that the size-arrival
99 effect did not depend on orientation (DeLucia & Warren, 1994).

100 The current work posits one plausible theoretical explanation that accounts for both of
101 these findings: drivers have undergone perceptual learning such that they have learned to base
102 their perceptual judgments more on horizontal optical expansion than vertical optical expansion,
103 causing an increase in sensitivity for optical expansion along the horizontal axis relative to the
104 vertical axis. Because perceptual learning involves task- and stimuli-specific improvements
105 (Goldstone, 1998), drivers' purported increased sensitivity to looming in the horizontal
106 dimension would be specific to driving and not generalize to observers' perceptions more
107 broadly.

108 Drivers may have learned to base their perceptual judgments more on horizontal optical
109 expansion because they learned that there is less variability in the width of vehicles compared to
110 the height of vehicles. For instance, the width of the Honda Civic, the most popular compact car
111 in 2018 (Wardlaw, 2019), is 5.91 ft (Honda, n.d.), and the maximum width of commercial motor
112 vehicles permitted by the Federal Highway Administration (2004) is 8.5 ft. However, the height
113 of the Honda Civic is 4.58 ft (Honda, n.d.), and most states set height limits for commercial

114 motor vehicles to 13.5 to 14 ft (Federal Highway Administration, 2004). Hence, the height of
115 vehicles on the roadway varies much more than the width of vehicles on the roadway. In
116 addition, headlights and taillights are located close to the sides of the vehicle, thereby
117 accentuating the vehicle's width, but these lights often do not accentuate a vehicle's full height.
118 Such a lighting configuration further increases the variability of the visual size of the height of
119 vehicles but not the width. Consequently, drivers may become familiar with a vehicle's width
120 because of its consistency, but this is not the case for the vehicle's height. The implication is that
121 a vehicle's width provides the depth cue of familiar size, but its height does not provide this
122 depth cue. Consequently, drivers may have learned to base their perceptual judgments on
123 horizontal expansion more than vertical expansion. Indeed, drivers based their judgments more
124 on horizontal expansion than vertical expansion (Muttart et al., 2005).

125 Although Gould et al. (2012a) suggested drivers are more sensitive to horizontal optical
126 expansion, their results showed the difference between horizontally-oriented and vertically-
127 oriented lighting configurations was not statistically significant; findings could have been due to
128 either chance probability or to a real effect that went undetected by the statistical test due to
129 insufficient statistical power. Further, Gould et al. (2012a) measured drivers' speed
130 discrimination thresholds instead of drivers' looming thresholds. The current research aimed to
131 address the theoretical question of whether drivers are equally sensitive to horizontal and vertical
132 optical expansion by measuring drivers' optical expansion rate thresholds to horizontally-
133 oriented and vertically-oriented headlights on a motorcycle with enough participants to ensure
134 adequate power.

135 **1.2 Achieving a Lower Threshold with Vertical and Horizontal Dimensions**

136 Another theoretical question that is particularly relevant to judging the approach of an
137 oncoming motorcycle is whether drivers can achieve a lower looming threshold when both the
138 horizontal and vertical dimensions are visible simultaneously compared to when only one of
139 these dimensions is visible. This question is relevant because if drivers can achieve a lower
140 optical expansion threshold when both are visible, both dimensions should be accentuated by a
141 motorcycle's lighting configuration to maximize drivers' ability to perceive them accurately and
142 sooner at night. On the other hand, if drivers cannot achieve a lower optical expansion threshold
143 when both are visible, only one dimension needs to be accentuated with lights, and with fewer
144 lights, the motorcycle lighting configuration would cost less. Even if drivers base their
145 perceptual judgments on horizontal optical expansion more than vertical optical expansion as
146 previously suggested by the perceptual learning explanation, drivers could still integrate vertical
147 optical expansion with horizontal optical expansion to achieve a lower threshold. Thus, the
148 perceptual learning explanation only predicts that drivers will not base their perceptual
149 judgments upon only vertical optical expansion when all other factors are kept constant (e.g.,
150 size of the horizontal and vertical dimension). However, prior research offers more specific
151 predictions.

152 Gould et al. (2012a) compared horizontally-oriented and vertically-oriented motorcycle
153 headlight configurations to a triangular motorcycle headlight configuration. Speed discrimination
154 was better for the triangular configuration compared to the vertical configuration, but the
155 difference between the triangular and horizontal configurations was not statistically significant.
156 Consequently, it is unclear whether drivers integrate horizontal and vertical optical expansion or
157 base their perceptual judgments upon one dimension alone. Further complicating the

158 interpretation of these results, the triangular lighting configuration had a different height than the
159 vertical configuration, which introduced a confound of size.

160 Mortimer (1970) also examined whether lighting configurations that have both width and
161 height affect when drivers perceive closing, but he focused on the taillight configuration of cars
162 instead of motorcycles. Drivers perceived closing sooner for cars with combined horizontal-
163 vertical taillight configurations compared to horizontal-only taillight configurations, suggesting
164 that drivers can integrate horizontal and vertical optical expansion to achieve a lower threshold.
165 However, taillight configuration was confounded with the number of taillights and the total
166 luminous flux from the taillights because the number of taillights and total luminous flux from
167 the taillights systematically varied with the taillight configurations. Therefore, it cannot be
168 determined whether the results were due to a change in the horizontal and vertical dimensions,
169 the number of taillights, or the total luminous flux. Additionally, Mortimer did not have a
170 vertical-only taillight configuration condition, and thus could not tease apart the effect of only
171 the vertical dimension from the effect of both the horizontal and vertical dimensions. The current
172 research aimed to address the shortcomings of Gould et al. (2012a) and Mortimer (1970) by
173 comparing the optical expansion rate thresholds for a horizontal headlight configuration, vertical
174 headlight configuration, and combined horizontal-vertical headlight configuration while
175 controlling for size, number of headlights, and total luminous flux from the headlights.

176 **1.3 Current Studies**

177 Broadly, the aims of the current studies were to better understand how drivers perceive an
178 approaching set of motorcycle headlights and to determine whether alternative motorcycle
179 headlight configurations improve drivers' perceptual judgments of closing for an oncoming
180 motorcycle. A key contribution of the current research was to examine whether drivers were

181 more sensitive to horizontal optical expansion compared to vertical optical expansion, which
182 would be consistent with the notion that drivers have undergone perceptual learning. Further, the
183 current work examined whether drivers achieve a lower looming threshold when the horizontal
184 and vertical dimensions are both visible compared to when only one of these dimensions is
185 visible. Finally, the resulting alternative motorcycle headlight configurations were compared to
186 other motorcycle headlight configurations and a car's headlights. Results have implications for
187 motorcycle headlight design.

188 **2. Experiment 1**

189 The current research addressed two research questions in Experiment 1: (1) Are drivers
190 equally sensitive to horizontal and vertical optical expansion? (2) When the horizontal and
191 vertical dimensions are both visible, are drivers able to achieve a lower looming threshold
192 compared to when only the horizontal dimension or only the vertical dimension is visible? It was
193 hypothesized that drivers would be more sensitive to horizontal optical expansion (hypothesis 1),
194 and that drivers would achieve a lower looming threshold when both horizontal and vertical
195 optical expansion is available compared to when only one of these dimensions is available
196 (hypothesis 2).

197 **2.1 Method**

198 **2.1.1 Participants**

199 Based on a priori power analyses to detect effect sizes similar to Gould et al. (2012a)
200 with a power of at least 0.90 (see Supplemental Materials), 35 people (21 female) participated
201 (without counting outliers) and were compensated with \$15 Amazon gift cards. Age ranged from
202 19 to 70 years ($M = 34.57$, $SD = 12.86$). All participants held a driver's license from 1 to 56
203 years ($M = 18.00$, $SD = 13.39$). Almost all of the participants ($n = 33$) reported no recent

204 experience with driving a motorcycle. All but one of the participants reported normal or
205 corrected visual acuity. The one participant who did not have normal or corrected visual acuity
206 reported their eye doctor advised them their visual acuity was not poor enough to require
207 corrective lenses; additionally, this participant indicated they could see the screen clearly. This
208 research complied with the American Psychological Association Code of Ethics and was
209 approved by the Institutional Review Board at Rice University. Informed consent was obtained
210 from each participant.

211 *2.1.2 Apparatus and Displays*

212 The roadway scenes were created using the STISIM Drive driving simulator (Systems
213 Technology, 2016). STISIM Drive has been described as a medium fidelity driving simulator
214 that provides a realistic roadway environment (Braly et al., 2018; Freund et al., 2005; Levulis et
215 al., 2015). E-Prime 3.0 (Psychology Software Tools, 2016) and E-Prime Go (Psychology
216 Software Tools, 2020) were used to present video recordings of the roadway scenes to
217 participants on their own computer and record their button-press response. Participants
218 downloaded the needed experimental files at the beginning of the experiment so that E-Prime Go
219 could display the roadway scene videos without buffering and accurately record response time.
220 For all participants, the display subtended 45° of visual angle horizontally. This was achieved by
221 having participants measure the width of their screens, which the experimenter would then use to
222 calculate the correct viewing distance.

223 Each scene consisted of a flat, two-way road with one lane in each direction and a two-
224 way left turn lane in the middle. To emulate nighttime driving scenarios, the ambient lighting
225 setting was set to 5% and the diffuse and specular lighting settings were set to 0% for all
226 roadway scenes, consistent with occupational therapy work with nighttime driving conducted by

227 the developers of STISIM Drive (T. J. Rosenthal, personal communication, August 17, 2020).
228 Almost all of the participants ($n = 33$) reported the roadway scenes accurately reflected the dark
229 lighting conditions of nighttime driving on a rural highway with no streetlights. There were three
230 motorcycle headlight configurations that were replicated eight times each, producing 24 roadway
231 scenes that were presented in a random order.

232 To emulate a typical scenario in which a driver would violate the motorcycle's right of
233 way, the participant's vehicle was stopped in a two-way left turn lane at an intersection as if they
234 were going to turn left, and a motorcycle was approaching in the oncoming lane at a constant
235 velocity of 30 mph (48.28 km/h) as shown in Figure 1. When the scene started, the oncoming
236 motorcycle was 750 to 850 ft (228.60 to 259.08 m; randomly selected for each scene) from the
237 participant. Participants were instructed to press a button on their keyboard as soon as they
238 perceived the oncoming motorcycle was getting closer to them (i.e., when they first perceived
239 closing). The time at which participants pressed the button was recorded by the E-Prime Go
240 software (Psychology Software Tools, 2020) and was used to derive the oncoming vehicle's
241 optical expansion rate, the dependent variable of interest. To address the theoretical aspects of
242 the research questions, only the headlights of the oncoming motorcycle were visible to the
243 participant. Hence, the participant's vehicle's headlights were not turned on, consistent with
244 prior research (Gould et al., 2012a).

245 ***2.1.3 Motorcycle Headlight Configurations***

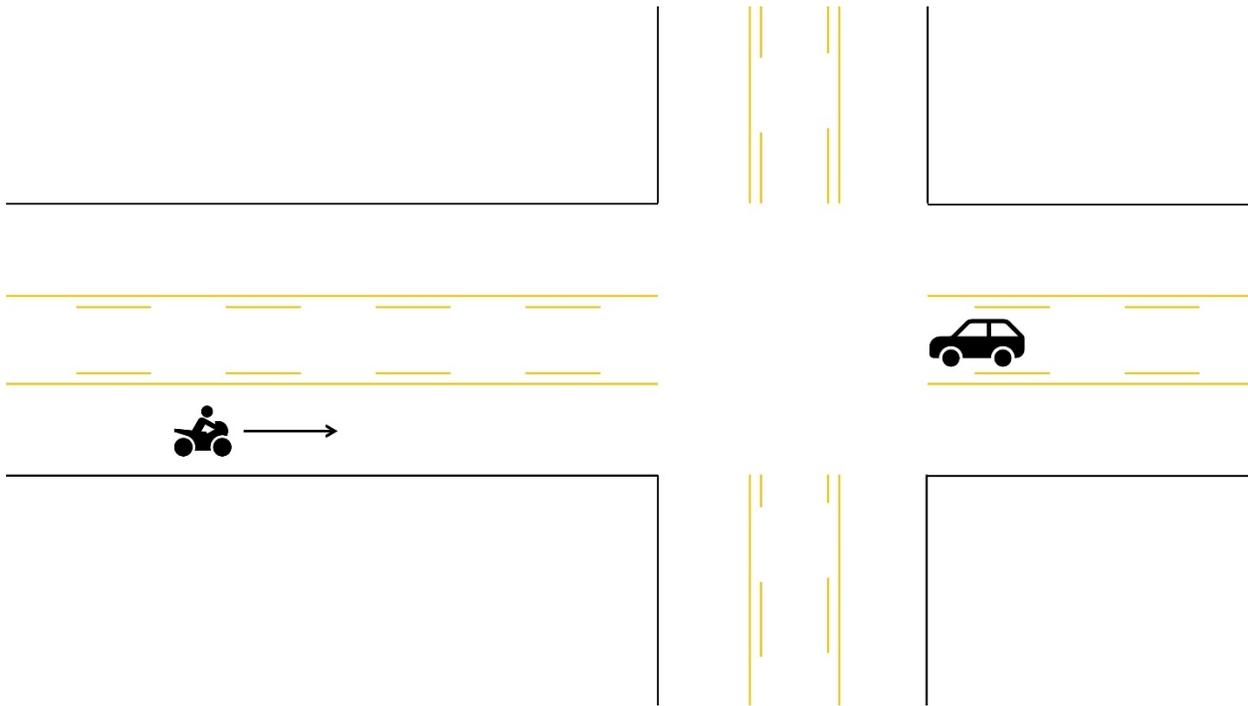
246 There were three motorcycle headlight configurations: horizontal (Figure 2A), vertical
247 (Figure 2B), and combined (Figure 2C). To control for confounds between configuration and
248 other factors (number of lights, total luminous flux, size), all three headlight configurations had
249 four circular headlights of equal size (3.94 in [10 cm] diameter, consistent with the smaller lights

250 from Gould et al. [2012a]); this kept the number of headlights and total luminous flux constant
 251 across configurations. To control for size, the width of the horizontal configuration, the height of

252

253 **Figure 1**

254 *Conceptual Representation of the Driving Scenario with Participant’s Vehicle Stopped in a Two-*
 255 *Way Left Turn Lane and Motorcycle Travelling in Oncoming Lane*

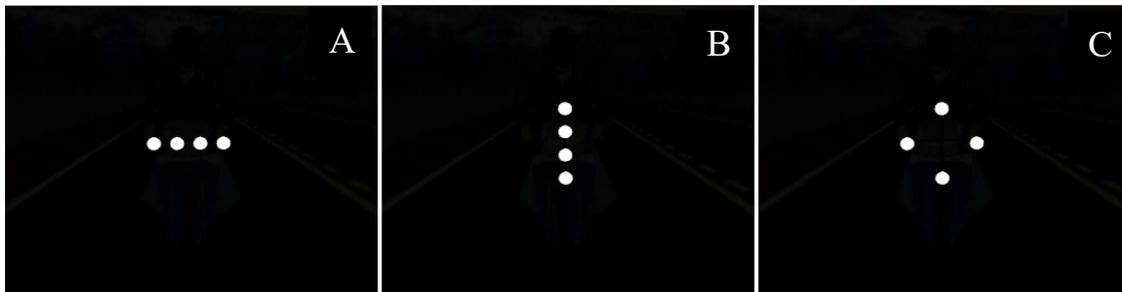


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258 **Figure 2**

259 *Experiment 1 Motorcycle Headlight Configurations Under Nighttime Conditions*



260

261 *Note.* The headlight configurations are on the same scale. Configurations shown: Horizontal (A), Vertical (B), and
262 Combined (C).

263 the vertical configuration, the width of the combined configuration, and the height of the
264 combined configuration were kept constant at 2 ft (0.61 m).

265 **2.1.4 Procedure and Design**

266 To start, participants joined a Zoom video call live with the experimenter. To achieve as
267 much consistency as possible in the remote setting and to enable the participants to see the
268 roadway scenes effectively, participants were asked to darken their room as much as possible.
269 Participants completed a practice trial with each headlight configuration and then the 24
270 experimental roadway scenes. All participants experienced all of the motorcycle lighting
271 configurations. Afterwards, they completed a post-study questionnaire through Qualtrics.

272 **2.2 Results**

273 There is a delay between the moment a driver perceives closing and the moment the
274 driver presses a button. This delay is known as perception-response time (PRT; Muttart et al.,
275 2005; Weaver et al., 2021). Consistent with prior research (Muttart et al., 2005; Weaver et al.,
276 2021), a PRT of 1.6 s was used, meaning 1.6 s was subtracted from the time of the button press
277 before calculating the optical expansion rate (Muttart et al., 2005, Equation 1). If a participant
278 responded less than 1.6 s into the roadway scene, that trial was removed from data analysis, and
279 if a participant had one or more missing cells from too many trials with a response time of less
280 than 1.6 s, that participant was replaced. This resulted in one participant being replaced and 10
281 total trials (1.19%) from the remaining 35 participants being removed. Given the nighttime
282 driving environment, the size of the headlights—in particular, the longer dimension of the
283 headlight—was used for the size when calculating optical expansion rate, which was 2 ft (0.61
284 m) for all the configurations in the current experiment.

285 For all analyses in the current paper, the significance level was set to .05. Prior to any
286 inferential statistics, the data was checked for outliers based on whether any participants had
287 mean optical expansion rates more extreme than ± 3 standard deviations from the mean (Kannan
288 et al., 2015). Using this method, five participants were identified as outliers and replaced.
289 Shapiro-Wilk tests indicated the mean optical expansion rate significantly deviated from
290 normally distributed for all three pairwise differences, but the sample size for the current
291 experiment ($n = 35$) is large enough that this violation of the normality assumption is not of
292 concern (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). Effect size is reported using Cohen's d_z for within-
293 subjects comparisons and Cohen's d for between-subjects comparisons; an effect size of 0.2, 0.5,
294 and 0.8 reflects a small, medium, and large effect size, respectively (Cohen, 1988).

295 For the first research question, a paired samples t -test indicated the mean optical
296 expansion rate was not significantly different between the horizontal headlight configuration (M
297 = 0.000279, $SD = 0.000108$ rad/s) and vertical headlight configuration ($M = 0.000265$, $SD =$
298 0.000085 rad/s), $t(34) = 1.44$, $p = .156$, $d_z = 0.243$. This result does not support the first
299 hypothesis that drivers would be more sensitive to horizontal optical expansion compared to
300 vertical optical expansion.

301 For the second research question, paired samples t -tests indicated the mean optical
302 expansion rate was not significantly different between the vertical headlight configuration and
303 the combined headlight configuration ($M = 0.000257$, $SD = 0.000082$ rad/s), $t(34) = 1.23$, $p =$
304 .226, $d_z = 0.208$, but the mean optical expansion rate was significantly smaller for the combined
305 headlight configuration compared to the horizontal headlight configuration, $t(34) = 2.30$, $p =$
306 0.028, $d_z = 0.389$. These results do not support the second hypothesis. However, when these
307 results were analyzed without replacing outliers, they changed such that the mean optical

308 expansion rate was significantly smaller for the combined headlight configuration compared to
309 both the vertical headlight configuration and the horizontal headlight configuration; this is
310 discussed later.

311 **2.3 Discussion**

312 The first hypothesis that drivers are more sensitive to horizontal optical expansion than
313 vertical optical expansion was not supported. This contradicts the suggestion made by prior
314 research (Gould et al., 2012a) that drivers are more sensitive to looming along the horizontal axis
315 relative to the vertical axis. Theoretically, this finding suggests that drivers have not undergone
316 perceptual learning for the task of judging closing on the roadway in such a way that drivers base
317 their perceptual judgments on looming in the horizontal direction more than the vertical
318 direction. Practically, this means that, when all else is kept constant, the orientation of a
319 headlight configuration does not affect when drivers perceive closing.

320 The second hypothesis that drivers achieve a lower looming threshold when both
321 horizontal and vertical optical expansion is available was not supported. Theoretically, this
322 suggests that drivers could not integrate looming from the horizontal and vertical dimensions in a
323 way that achieves a lower looming threshold and instead used looming primarily along the
324 vertical dimension. This finding is inconsistent with the perceptual learning explanation that
325 drivers base their perceptual judgments on looming in the horizontal direction more than the
326 vertical direction. Practically, these results in conjunction with the finding that drivers are
327 equally sensitive to looming along the horizontal and vertical axes mean only the vertical
328 dimension of a motorcycle needs to be accentuated to improve driver's perceptual judgments of
329 closing. Accordingly, the subsequent experiment tested a motorcycle headlight configuration that
330 accentuated the full extent of the motorcycle's vertical dimension including the motorcyclist.

354 visible size of the approaching vehicle affects the looming threshold for closing. It was
355 hypothesized that drivers are more sensitive to larger headlight configurations compared to
356 smaller headlight configurations (hypothesis 1). The dependent measure used to evaluate this
357 hypothesis was optical expansion rate of the oncoming vehicle's headlights. As the size of the
358 approaching object increases and as the optical expansion rate at threshold decreases, the
359 longitudinal bumper-to-bumper distance when the driver perceives closing increases. It was
360 hypothesized that drivers perceive closing sooner for larger headlight configurations compared to
361 smaller headlight configurations (hypothesis 2). The dependent measure used to evaluate this
362 hypothesis was longitudinal bumper-to-bumper distance between the participant's vehicle and
363 the oncoming vehicle.

364 **3.1 Method**

365 The methods for Experiment 2 were identical to Experiment 1 except that the
366 participant's vehicle had their headlights turned on to align more with actual nighttime driving
367 and there were five oncoming vehicle headlight configurations (all different from Experiment 1).
368 With five oncoming vehicles, there were 40 experimental roadway scenes (eight replicates per
369 vehicle).

370 **3.1.1 Participants**

371 Thirty-five people (25 female) participated (without counting outliers) and were
372 compensated with \$15 Amazon gift cards. Age ranged from 18 to 53 years ($M = 28.49$, $SD =$
373 9.73). All participants held a driver's license from 1 to 37 years ($M = 11.17$, $SD = 9.71$). Almost
374 all of the participants ($n = 33$) reported no recent experience with driving a motorcycle. All
375 participants reported normal or corrected visual acuity. This research complied with the

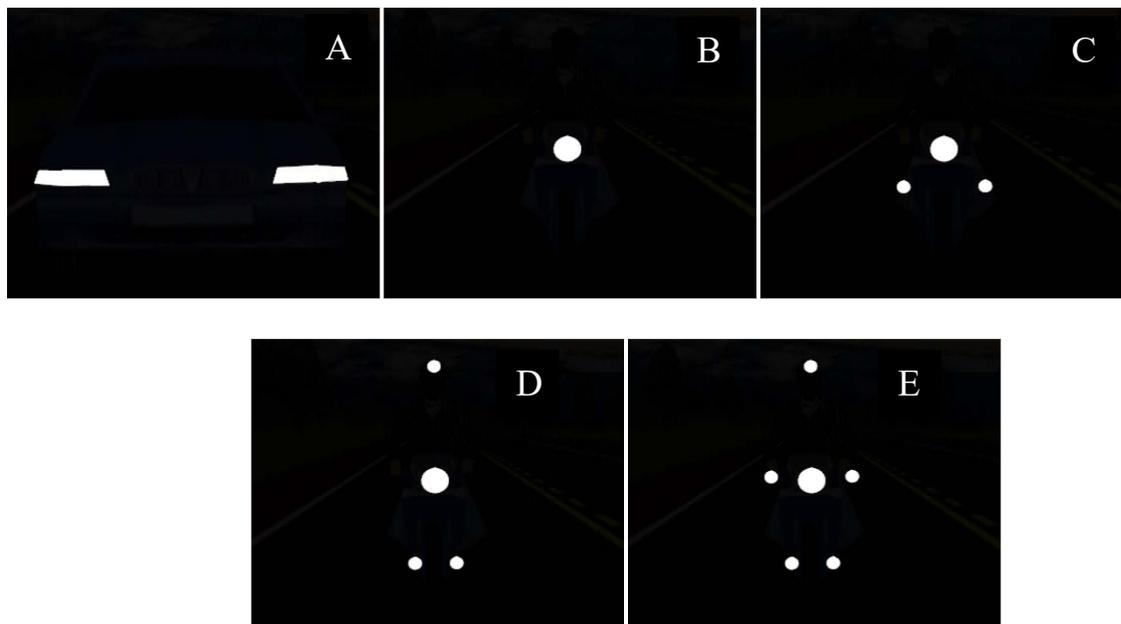
376 American Psychological Association Code of Ethics and was approved by the Institutional
377 Review Board at Rice University. Informed consent was obtained from each participant.

378 *3.1.2 Oncoming Vehicle Headlight Configurations*

379 The five oncoming vehicles were a car (Figure 3A), a motorcycle with a single headlight
380 configuration (Figure 3B; a “standard” configuration; Gould et al., 2012a), a motorcycle with a
381 tri-headlight configuration (Figure 3C; Gould et al., 2012a), a motorcycle with a fully
382 accentuated vertical headlight configuration (Figure 3D; Cavallo et al., 2015), and a motorcycle
383

384 **Figure 3**

385 *Experiment 2 Oncoming Vehicle Headlight Configurations Under Nighttime Conditions*



388 *Note.* The headlight configurations are on the same scale. Configurations shown: Car Headlight Configuration (A),
389 Motorcycle with Single Headlight Configuration (B), Motorcycle with Tri-Headlight Configuration (C), Motorcycle
390 with Fully Accentuated Vertical Headlight Configuration (D), and Motorcycle with Fully Accentuated Combined
391 Headlight Configuration (E).

392

393 with a fully accentuated combined headlight configuration (Figure 3E; Cavallo et al., 2015). The
394 car's headlight configuration was 3.6 in (9.14 cm) tall and 5.9 ft (1.80 m) wide. For all of the
395 motorcycle headlight configurations, there was a main circular headlight with a diameter of 7.87
396 in (20 cm), and for the motorcycle configurations that had additional circular headlights, these
397 headlights had a diameter of 3.94 in (10 cm), consistent with Gould et al. (2012a). Accordingly,
398 the width and height of the single motorcycle headlight configuration was 7.87 in (20 cm). The
399 tri-headlight configuration had two smaller headlights below the main headlight, resulting in a
400 width of 2.30 ft (0.70 m) and a height of 1.38 ft (0.42 m). For the fully accentuated vertical
401 motorcycle headlight configuration, headlights were mounted on the forks of the motorcycle and
402 on top of the motorcyclist's helmet. This configuration had a width of 1.33 ft (0.41 m) and a
403 height of 5.11 ft (1.56 m). For the fully accentuated combined motorcycle headlight
404 configuration, headlights were mounted on the handlebars, the forks, and on top of the
405 motorcyclist's helmet to accentuate the full height and width of the motorcycle and its rider. This
406 configuration had a width of 2.30 ft (0.70 m) and a height of 5.11 ft (1.56 m).

407 **3.1.3 Displays**

408 The lighting settings used to emulate nighttime driving were identical to Experiment 1.
409 Almost all of the participants ($n = 34$) reported the roadway scenes accurately reflected the dark
410 lighting conditions of nighttime driving on a rural highway with no streetlights. Identical to
411 Experiment 1, participants were instructed to press a button on their keyboard as soon as they
412 perceived the oncoming motorcycle was getting closer to them (i.e., when drivers first perceived
413 closing).

414 3.2 Results

415 In line with Experiment 1, a 1.6 s PRT was subtracted from the time of the button press
416 before calculating the optical expansion rate or the longitudinal bumper-to-bumper distance. If a
417 participant responded less than 1.6 s into the roadway scene, that trial was removed from data
418 analysis, and if a participant had one or more missing cells from too many trials with a response
419 time of less than 1.6 s, then that participant was replaced. This resulted in four participants being
420 replaced and 78 total trials (5.57%) from the remaining 35 participants being removed. The
421 width of each oncoming vehicle's headlight configuration was used as the size in the optical
422 expansion rate calculation, consistent with prior research (Muttart et al., 2005; Weaver et al.,
423 2021). Based on whether any participants were more extreme than ± 3 standard deviations from
424 the mean, five participants were identified as outliers and replaced (the analyses for the current
425 experiment did not change when outliers were not replaced). Shapiro-Wilk tests indicated the
426 mean optical expansion rate significantly deviated from normally distributed for all of the
427 headlight configurations except for the single motorcycle headlight configuration, but the sample
428 size for the current experiment ($n = 35$) is large enough that this violation of the normality
429 assumption is not of concern (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). Shapiro-Wilk tests indicated the
430 mean longitudinal bumper-to-bumper distance did not significantly deviate from being normally
431 distributed for any of the headlight configurations.

432 Results for mean optical expansion rate and mean longitudinal bumper-to-bumper
433 distance were analyzed with a one-way repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA). A
434 Greenhouse-Geisser correction was applied to the degrees of freedom when Mauchly's test was
435 significant, which indicates a violation of the sphericity assumption. Significant effects were
436 followed up with Holm-corrected repeated measures *t*-tests for all pairwise comparisons (Aickin

437 & Gensler, 1996; Holm, 1979; Levin, 1996). The effect size reported for an ANOVA is
438 generalized eta squared (η_G^2 ; Bakeman, 2005; Olejnik & Algina, 2003).

439 A one-way repeated measures ANOVA on mean optical expansion rate showed that the
440 effect of headlight configuration was significant, $F(4, 136) = 763.58, p < .001, \eta_G^2 = .839$. Holm-
441 corrected repeated measures t -tests indicated all pairwise comparisons were significantly
442 different as shown in Table 1. The headlight configuration with the smallest mean optical
443 expansion rate was the motorcycle with the single headlight configuration ($M = 0.000083, SD =$
444 0.000025 rad/s) followed by the motorcycle with the fully accentuated vertical headlight
445 configuration ($M = 0.000151, SD = 0.000059$ rad/s), the motorcycle with fully accentuated
446 combined headlight configuration ($M = 0.000253, SD = 0.000062$ rad/s), the motorcycle with the
447 tri-headlight configuration ($M = 0.000277, SD = 0.000082$ rad/s), and the car headlight
448 configuration ($M = 0.000557, SD = 0.000107$ rad/s). These looming thresholds are ordered by
449 the width of the headlight configuration such that larger widths had larger looming thresholds,
450 which does not support Hypothesis 1. However, as I discuss later these results may be
451 misleading because participants may have been making their judgments by incorporating other
452 cues in addition to optical expansion rate.

453 A one-way repeated measures ANOVA on mean longitudinal bumper-to-bumper distance
454 showed that the effect of headlight configuration was significant, $F(2.83, 96.31) = 39.16, p <$
455 $.001, \eta_G^2 = .116$. As shown in Table 2, Holm-corrected repeated measures t -tests indicated all
456 pairwise comparisons were significantly different except for between the motorcycle with the
457 fully accentuated combined headlight configuration and the motorcycle with the fully
458 accentuated vertical headlight configuration, and between the motorcycle with the single
459 headlight configuration and the motorcycle with the tri-headlight configuration. Descriptively,

460 **Table 1**461 *Holm-Corrected Pairwise Comparisons of Headlight Configurations for Mean Optical*462 *Expansion Rate*

Group 1	Group 2	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Adjusted <i>p</i>	Cohen's <i>d_z</i>
Car	Single	32.2	34	< .001	5.44
Car	Tri-light	28.0	34	< .001	4.73
Car	Vertical	33.8	34	< .001	5.71
Car	Combined	29.2	34	< .001	4.93
Single	Tri-light	19.7	34	< .001	-3.32
Single	Vertical	10.3	34	< .001	-1.75
Single	Combined	24.4	34	< .001	-4.12
Tri-light	Vertical	19.1	34	< .001	3.23
Tri-light	Combined	4.32	34	< .001	0.73
Vertical	Combined	18.7	34	< .001	-3.16

463 *Note.* Car = Car Headlight Configuration; Combined = Motorcycle with Fully Accentuated Combined Headlight
 464 Configuration; Single = Motorcycle with Single Headlight Configuration; Tri-light = Motorcycle with Tri-Headlight
 465 Configuration; Vertical = Motorcycle with Fully Accentuated Vertical Headlight Configuration. Cohen's *d_z* was
 466 calculated based on the difference between the specified groups in which Group 2 was subtracted from Group 1;
 467 therefore, a positive Cohen's *d_z* means Group 1 has a larger optical expansion rate than Group 2, and a negative
 468 Cohen's *d_z* means Group 1 has a smaller optical expansion rate than Group 2.

469

470 the headlight configuration with the largest (larger is better) mean longitudinal bumper-to-
 471 bumper distance was the car headlight configuration ($M = 687.69$, $SD = 58.32$ ft; $M = 209.61$, SD
 472 $= 17.78$ m) followed by the motorcycle with the fully accentuated vertical headlight
 473 configuration ($M = 644.40$, $SD = 79.76$ ft; $M = 196.41$, $SD = 24.31$ m), the motorcycle with the
 474 fully accentuated combined headlight configuration ($M = 642.82$, $SD = 70.86$ ft; $M = 195.93$, SD

475 **Table 2**476 *Holm-Corrected Pairwise Comparisons of Headlight Configurations for Mean Longitudinal*477 *Bumper-to-Bumper Distance*

Group 1	Group 2	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Adjusted <i>p</i>	Cohen's <i>d_z</i>
Car	Single	8.64	34	< .001	1.46
Car	Tri-light	8.23	34	< .001	1.39
Car	Vertical	5.58	34	< .001	0.94
Car	Combined	7.07	34	< .001	1.20
Single	Tri-light	2.03	34	.102	-0.34
Single	Vertical	5.33	34	< .001	-0.90
Single	Combined	4.58	34	< .001	-0.77
Tri-light	Vertical	4.39	34	< .001	-0.74
Tri-light	Combined	4.36	34	< .001	-0.74
Vertical	Combined	0.28	34	.778	0.05

478 *Note.* Car = Car Headlight Configuration; Combined = Motorcycle with Fully Accentuated Combined Headlight
 479 Configuration; Single = Motorcycle with Single Headlight Configuration; Tri-light = Motorcycle with Tri-Headlight
 480 Configuration; Vertical = Motorcycle with Fully Accentuated Vertical Headlight Configuration. Cohen's *d_z* was
 481 calculated based on the difference between the specified groups in which Group 2 was subtracted from Group 1;
 482 therefore, a positive Cohen's *d_z* means Group 1 has a larger longitudinal bumper-to-bumper distance than Group 2
 483 and a negative Cohen's *d_z* means Group 1 has a smaller longitudinal bumper-to-bumper distance than Group 2.

484

485 = 21.60 m), the motorcycle with the tri-headlight configuration ($M = 619.60$, $SD = 82.00$ ft; $M =$
 486 188.85 , $SD = 24.99$ m), and the motorcycle with the single headlight configuration ($M = 608.95$,
 487 $SD = 85.75$ ft; $M = 185.61$, $SD = 26.14$ m). Thus, participants perceived closing sooner for larger

488 headlight configurations compared to smaller headlight configurations except for the smallest
489 two headlight configurations. This means Hypothesis 2 was largely supported, but it may need a
490 caveat, which is discussed later.

491 **3.3 Discussion**

492 The first hypothesis that drivers are more sensitive to larger headlight configurations
493 compared to smaller headlight configurations was not supported because the headlight
494 configurations with larger widths had larger mean optical expansion rates. Hence, these results
495 appear to suggest drivers are more sensitive to smaller headlight configurations compared to
496 larger headlight configurations. However, these results may be misleading because oncoming
497 vehicles with smaller headlight configurations must be closer to the driver to reach a given rate
498 of optical expansion, which coincides with other sensory cues being stronger, and drivers may
499 incorporate other available sensory cues into their judgment. For example, drivers may
500 incorporate the change in the brightness of an oncoming vehicle as the driver's vehicle's
501 headlights illuminates it or the change in the rate of lateral movement across the driver's visual
502 field. Because oncoming vehicles with smaller headlight configurations must be closer to the
503 driver to reach a given rate of optical expansion, oncoming vehicles with smaller headlight
504 configurations would be illuminated more by the driver's vehicle's headlights and moving
505 laterally across a driver's visual field faster. This means oncoming vehicles with smaller
506 headlight configurations would exhibit a smaller mean optical expansion rate not because drivers
507 are more sensitive to smaller headlight configurations but rather because other sensory cues are
508 stronger for smaller headlight configurations at a given rate of optical expansion, which drivers
509 incorporate into their judgments. This explanation is supported by the longitudinal bumper-to-

510 bumper distance results because they largely showed oncoming vehicles with smaller headlight
511 configurations were closer to the driver before closing was perceived.

512 The second hypothesis that drivers perceive closing sooner for larger headlight
513 configurations compared to smaller headlight configurations was largely supported. The results
514 showed drivers perceived closing sooner for larger headlight configurations for all pairwise
515 comparisons except for the pairwise comparison between the tri-headlight and the single
516 headlight motorcycles. Thus, drivers perceived closing sooner for larger headlight configurations
517 compared to smaller headlight configurations unless the headlight configurations were relatively
518 small.

519 4. General Discussion

520 Broadly, the core objectives of the current research were to better understand how drivers
521 perceive an approaching set of motorcycle headlights and to determine whether alternative
522 motorcycle headlight configurations improved drivers' perceptual judgments of closing for an
523 oncoming motorcycle. The results of Experiment 1 showed that the orientation of the headlight
524 configuration did not affect the looming threshold for closing, which did not support the
525 hypothesis that drivers would be more sensitive to horizontal optical expansion than vertical
526 optical expansion. This finding provides contradicts Gould et al.'s (2012a) suggestion that
527 drivers are more sensitive to looming along the horizontal axis compared to the vertical axis.
528 Given Gould et al.'s (2012a) suggestion was based on a descriptive yet non-significant difference
529 and the current work that conducted an a priori power analysis also did not find any significant
530 difference, the available evidence suggests drivers are not more sensitive to optical expansion in
531 one direction more than another. Theoretically, this finding means that drivers have not
532 undergone perceptual learning for the task of judging closing on the roadway. This finding is

533 consistent with theories based on optic flow, such as tau (Lee, 1976), which assume that
534 sensitivity to optical expansion or tau is based on only the optical distance between two points
535 and not the orientation of the two points.

536 The results of Experiment 1 also showed the looming threshold for closing for a
537 combined horizontal-vertical headlight configuration was significantly smaller than a horizontal-
538 only headlight configuration but not significantly different from a vertical-only headlight
539 configuration. This finding does not support the hypothesis that drivers will achieve a lower
540 looming threshold when both horizontal and vertical optical expansion is available.
541 Theoretically, this means drivers are unable to integrate optical expansion from more than one
542 dimension in a way that achieves a lower looming threshold and instead base their judgment on
543 optical expansion from only one dimension, which in this case was the vertical dimension. This
544 finding is inconsistent with the perceptual learning explanation that drivers base their perceptual
545 judgments on looming in the horizontal direction more than the vertical direction.

546 This theoretical finding that drivers are unable to integrate optical expansion from more
547 than one dimension is consistent with a strict interpretation of a looming detection threshold
548 theoretical framework. This theoretical framework posits drivers perceive a given perceptual
549 event on the roadway, such as closing, only when optical expansion rate exceeds a looming
550 detection threshold. Hence, additional sensory cues, such as optical expansion along a second
551 dimension, should not affect when a driver perceives a perceptual event on the roadway. A
552 competing theoretical framework based on evidence accumulation could also account for these
553 results, though it would need a caveat. The evidence accumulation theoretical framework posits
554 that a driver makes perceptual judgments on the roadway once noisy sensory evidence has
555 accumulated enough to reach a threshold (Markkula, 2014; Markkula et al., 2020). One key

556 difference between this theoretical framework and the strict looming detection threshold
557 theoretical framework is that this theoretical framework posits drivers may base their perceptual
558 judgments on more than one sensory cue. Under the evidence accumulation theoretical
559 framework, the current work suggests that optical expansion along only one dimension should be
560 considered sensory evidence. Under both theoretical frameworks, the practical implication is that
561 motorcycles only need headlights to accentuate the full extent of only one dimension. Given that
562 the height of a motorcycle, including its rider, is longer than the width, the height should be
563 accentuated with headlights.

564 Experiment 2 examined when, and at what looming threshold, drivers perceive closing
565 for five different headlight configurations. The results of Experiment 2 showed the mean optical
566 expansion rate was smaller for the headlight configurations with smaller widths, which does not
567 support the hypothesis that drivers are more sensitive to larger headlight configurations.
568 Although these results appear to suggest drivers are more sensitive to smaller headlight
569 configurations, they may be misleading as we discussed previously because drivers may base
570 their closing judgments on multiple available cues, which is consistent with the evidence
571 accumulation model (Markkula, 2014; Markkula et al., 2020). In addition to the optical
572 expansion rate of the oncoming vehicle's headlights, drivers may base their closing judgments
573 on, for example, the change in the brightness of an oncoming vehicle as the driver's vehicle's
574 headlights illuminates it or the change in the rate of lateral movement across the driver's visual
575 field as the oncoming vehicle approaches in the adjacent lane. The results that showed drivers
576 perceived closing sooner for larger headlight configurations (except for the smallest two
577 headlight configurations) supported this explanation because it showed smaller headlight
578 configurations were closer when drivers perceived closing. Under the evidence accumulation

579 model, these additional sensory cues could be described as additional sensory evidence drivers
580 used to make their perceptual judgments, which provides a parsimonious theoretical explanation
581 for why drivers perceived closing at a smaller optical expansion rate for smaller headlight
582 configurations. Future research could pit the evidence accumulation model against a strict
583 looming detection threshold theoretical framework by manipulating the strength of different
584 sensory cues drivers might use for closing judgments during nighttime driving.

585 The second hypothesis for Experiment 2 that drivers perceive closing sooner for larger
586 headlight configurations was largely supported. The results of Experiment 2 showed drivers
587 perceived closing sooner for larger headlight configurations for all pairwise comparisons except
588 for the pairwise comparison between the tri-headlight and single headlight motorcycles. This
589 may be because drivers primarily use other sensory cues (e.g., brightness of oncoming vehicle,
590 lateral movement of oncoming vehicle) to judge closing for smaller headlight configurations
591 because smaller headlight configurations do not reach an optical expansion rate drivers can
592 detect before the accumulation of other sensory cues reaches a critical threshold. Thus, a revised
593 hypothesis may posit that drivers perceive closing sooner for larger headlight configurations
594 compared to smaller headlight configurations unless the headlight configurations are relatively
595 small in which case drivers base their closing judgments primarily upon other sensory cues.

596 **4.1 Practical Implications and Challenges**

597 One of the objectives of Experiment 2 was to benchmark how good motorcycle headlight
598 configurations that maximize its size are against a motorcycle with a “standard” single headlight,
599 a motorcycle with a tri-headlight configuration, and a car’s headlights. The results of Experiment
600 2 showed that motorcycle headlight configurations that accentuated the full extent of only a
601 motorcycle’s height or both a motorcycle’s height and width were much better (all Cohen’s $|d_z|$

602 > 0.74; perception of closing about 0.5 – 0.8 s sooner) than both a motorcycle with a single
603 headlight and a motorcycle with a tri-headlight configuration. However, the motorcycle
604 headlight configurations that accentuated the full extent of only a motorcycle's height or both a
605 motorcycle's height and width were not nearly as good as (all Cohen's $|d_z| > 0.94$; perception of
606 closing about 1 s later) the car's headlights. Thus, motorcycle headlight configurations that
607 accentuated the full extent of only a motorcycle's height or both a motorcycle's height and width
608 improved driver's perception of an approaching motorcycle relative to other motorcycle
609 headlight configurations but not enough to make it comparable to a car.

610 Although there was no difference (no statistical difference and negligible effect size, $d_z =$
611 0.05) in when drivers perceived closing between the fully accentuated vertical motorcycle
612 headlight configuration and the fully accentuated combined horizontal-vertical motorcycle
613 headlight configuration, the fully accentuated vertical motorcycle headlight configuration may be
614 better in terms of practicality because it requires fewer headlights and therefore costs less. For
615 either configuration, motorcyclists would need to wear a helmet-mounted headlight, which is not
616 a very common practice on the roadway today. Buy-in from motorcyclists would be needed.
617 Future research could examine motorcyclists' attitudes towards wearing a helmet with a
618 headlight to improve other driver's perception of them. Some previous road safety measures,
619 such as seat belts, were initially met with high resistance (Lasalandra, 1986; Wolinsky, 1985),
620 though became increasingly accepted and used (Hedlund et al., 2008; National Center for
621 Statistics and Analysis, 2019). Helmet-mounted headlights could meet this same resistance.
622 Moreover, motorcyclists turning their head would change how the oncoming motorcycle appears
623 to a driver. Future research could examine how this affects driver's perceptions.

624 4.2 Low Looming Thresholds

625 The looming thresholds observed in the current research (Experiment 1: $M = 0.000279$
626 rad/s; Experiment 2: $M = 0.000264$ rad/s) were much lower compared to the looming threshold
627 for closing typically observed in prior research of about 0.003 rad/s (Hoffmann & Mortimer,
628 1994, 1996; Mortimer et al., 2014; Weaver et al., 2021). Gould et al. (2013) also found notably
629 smaller looming thresholds for closing of about 0.000873 rad/s. One characteristic of the driving
630 scenarios unique to the current research and Gould et al. (2013) is that participants were judging
631 when they perceived closing for an oncoming vehicle. However, the majority of research on the
632 looming threshold for closing has had participants judge when they perceived closing for a lead
633 vehicle traveling in the same direction (Hoffmann & Mortimer, 1994, 1996; Mortimer et al.,
634 2014; Weaver et al., 2021). Hence, drivers may perceive closing at a lower optical expansion rate
635 when judging an oncoming vehicle compared to a lead vehicle. This could be because drivers
636 have a lower evidence accumulation threshold for oncoming vehicles, which could be because
637 there may be more uncertainty for lead vehicles. For example, lead vehicles could be getting
638 farther away, maintaining the same distance, or getting closer, but oncoming vehicles are
639 typically getting closer because they are travelling in the opposite direction. There may also be
640 additional sensory cues that indicate closing for oncoming vehicles, which are not present for
641 lead vehicles. For instance, oncoming vehicles in the adjacent lane have some lateral movement
642 across the driver's visual field when they approach, which is not present for lead vehicles in the
643 same lane.

644 Given the thresholds in the current research are low even compared to Gould et al.
645 (2013), the factors discussed so far may only partially account for why the looming thresholds in
646 the current research were low. One key difference between the current research and Gould et al.

647 (2013) was time of day. The current research had nighttime driving conditions, whereas Gould et
648 al. (2013) had daytime driving conditions. Nighttime driving scenarios may make it easier for
649 drivers to perceive closing because there is less visual clutter, which makes the oncoming vehicle
650 more salient compared to daytime driving. Future research could further examine whether these
651 factors account for the difference in observed looming thresholds.

652 **4.3 Limitations and Future Research**

653 One limitation of the current research is that the driving simulator and remote nature of
654 the experiments may not have been a perfect emulation of the dark lighting conditions of
655 nighttime driving. For example, participants may not have experienced glare from the oncoming
656 vehicle's headlights because their screen was not able to reproduce such strong light intensity in
657 a localized area. Even so, nearly all of the participants (67 out of 70) in the current research
658 reported the roadway scenes accurately reflected the dark lighting conditions of nighttime
659 driving on a rural highway with no streetlights. Future research could examine whether the
660 observed effects of headlight configuration change when studied on an actual roadway. Another
661 limitation is the method of working backward from a button press using an assumed perception-
662 response time to infer when perception took place. For example, it is possible perception-
663 response time is different for different driving conditions (e.g., daytime versus nighttime
664 driving). Future research should examine what factors affect perception-response time for use by
665 researchers and accident analysts.

666 **4.4 Conclusion**

667 The results of the current research showed drivers did not perceive closing at different
668 looming thresholds for different headlight orientations, which is inconsistent with a perceptual
669 learning framework that posits drivers become more sensitive to horizontal expansion. The

670 results also showed drivers could not achieve a lower looming threshold when both horizontal
671 and vertical optical expansion was provided, meaning drivers are unable to integrate optical
672 expansion from more than one dimension in a way that achieves a lower looming threshold. This
673 means that in terms of drivers' perceptual judgments of closing, a headlight configuration that
674 accentuates the full height of a motorcycle and its rider (its longer dimension) might be the best
675 motorcycle headlight configuration. This was shown to be true in the second experiment, but it
676 was still not as good as a car. Theoretically, the current research favors an evidence
677 accumulation model because it can give a more parsimonious account for why drivers perceived
678 closing at a smaller mean optical expansion rate for smaller headlight configurations and for why
679 the current research had lower looming thresholds compared to prior research. Future research
680 should aim to further develop the evidence accumulation model as it may better reflect how
681 drivers make perceptual judgments and subsequent driving actions on the roadway.

683

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