European Transport Safety Lecture
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Distracted Driving

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Driver distraction constitutes an important factor of increased risk of road accident worldwide.

In existing research, it was revealed that approximately 30% of drivers that were involved in a road accident reported some source of distraction before the accident occurred.

Distraction sources may be considered as a typical part of everyday driving.

The penetration of various new technologies inside the vehicle, and the expected increase of use of such appliances in the next years, makes the further investigation of their influence on the attention of drivers, on traffic flow and on road safety very essential.
Purpose and Structure of the Lecture

Purpose of the Lecture

To provide a comprehensive picture of the impact of driver distraction to road safety. Both internal and external distraction factors are considered.

Particular focus is put on mobile phone use (internal) and advertising signs (external) related distraction.

Structure of the Lecture

- Review of international literature and results synthesis
- Presentation of results from experiments in Greece
- Proposals for countermeasures
Basic Questions on Distracted Driving

What is distracted driving?
What is the difference between driver distraction and driver inattention?

How critical risk factor is distracted driving?
Which are the in-vehicle distraction factors?
Which are the external distraction factors?

What is the effect of distracted driving
- to driver attention?
- to traffic behaviour?
- to accident risk?

Can distracted driving be prevented?

What's on a driver's mind?
Driver Attention Models

• Existing attention models applied in the driving domain are generally based on the notion of attention as a resource with limited capacity, subject to overload in demanding conditions.

• Such models have mainly focused on dual task interference in experimental situations.

• Driving tasks: visual, auditory, manual and cognitive.

• Is multitasking while driving possible? Can drivers accomplish secondary tasks with optimal focus and effectiveness?

• Attentional deficits due to neurological / neuropsychological factors may further impair drivers.
Driver distraction and driver inattention are inconsistently defined, and the relationship between them is unclear.

Taxonomically, two points of view:
- driver distraction is a form of driver inattention;
- driver distraction is different from driver inattention; there is a triggering event, there is a competing activity, the competing activity may compel and induce an attentional shift, and the competing activity is externally generated (i.e., is not generated from within the mind).
Driver inattention

DREAM
Driver Reliability and Error Analysis Method: (Wallén Warner, Ljung Aust, Sandin, Johansson, & Björklund, 2008)

“Any condition, state or event that causes the driver to pay less attention than required for the driving task”

Can be brought about by any of several “Specific Genotypes”:
- “driving-related distractors inside vehicle”;
- “driving-related distractors outside vehicle”;
- “non-driving-related distractors inside vehicle”;
- “non-driving-related distractors outside vehicle”;
- “thoughts/daydreaming”.

“A diversion of attention away from activities critical for safe driving toward a competing activity”
(Lee, Regan & Young., 2008)

Driver distraction occurs
“whenever a driver is delayed in the recognition of information needed to safely accomplish the driving task, because some event, activity, object, or person within [or outside] his vehicle, compelled or tended to induce the driver’s shifting of attention away from the driving task”
(Treat, 1980)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distraction</th>
<th>Inattention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• diversion of attention away from driving, or safe driving;</td>
<td>• lack of attention, insufficient attention, cursory attention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• competing activity, inside or outside the vehicle, driving-related or not;</td>
<td>• selection of irrelevant information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• the competing activity may compel or induce the driver to divert attention toward it;</td>
<td>• orienting of attention on internalised thoughts and daydreams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• safe driving is adversely effected.</td>
<td>• engagement in activities secondary to driving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• symptoms of drowsiness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• looking away from the forward roadway</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Inattention and distraction - Definitions

**driver inattention**
- “insufficient, or no attention, to activities critical for safe driving”

**driver distraction (diverted attention)**
- “The diversion of attention away from activities critical for safe driving toward a competing activity, which may result in insufficient or no attention to activities critical for safe driving.”

*Driver distraction is just one form of attentional failure that can result in inattention.*
Road Accident Contributory Factors – Human Factors

- Human factors are the basic causes of road accident in 65-95% of road accidents.

- Human factors include a large number of specific factors that may be considered as accident causes, including:
  - driver injudicious action (speeding, traffic violations etc.),
  - driver error or reaction (loss of control, failure to keep safe distances, sudden braking etc.),
  - behaviour or inexperience (aggressive driving, nervousness, uncertainty etc.),
  - driver distraction or impairment (alcohol, fatigue, mobile phone use etc.).
Impairment or distraction factors account totally for 12% of all contributory factors.
## Road Accident Contributory Factors related to Impairment or Distraction

*Source: GB 2008, Department for Transport*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Road accident contributory factors*</th>
<th>Fatal accidents (%)</th>
<th>Total accidents (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Road environment</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle defects</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Injudicious action</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Driver/rider error or distraction</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impairment or distraction</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drugs</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatigue</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illness or disability</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobile phone use</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-vehicle distraction</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External distraction</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour or inexperience</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision affected</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedestrian accident</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The sum of percentages may exceed 1 due to multiple contributory factors per accident*

Internal distraction factors account for 2/3 of the total distraction factors.
## Road Accident Contributory Factors

*National Motor Vehicle Crash Causation Study (NMVCCS), USA, 2008*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Sub category</th>
<th>Percent of crashes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recognition error</td>
<td>Inadequate surveillance</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In-vehicle distraction</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>External distraction</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inattention (daydreaming)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other/unknown</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision error</td>
<td>e.g., too fast</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance error</td>
<td>e.g., overcompensation</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non performance error</td>
<td>e.g., asleep</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other/unknown</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# Driver Distraction Factors

*Source: Regan et al., 2005*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In-vehicle</th>
<th>External</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Passengers</td>
<td>Traffic control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication devices</td>
<td>Other vehicle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment system</td>
<td>Looking for destination / location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle systems</td>
<td>Pedestrian / Bicyclist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eating / drinking</td>
<td>Accident / incident outside the vehicle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smoking</td>
<td>Police / Fire brigade / Ambulance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animal / insect in the vehicle</td>
<td>Landscape / Buildings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coughing / sneezing</td>
<td>Animal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Driver stress</td>
<td>Advertising sign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daydreaming</td>
<td>Road signs and markings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sun / vehicle lights</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Driver Distraction Impacts

Driver distraction may have an impact to:

- Driver attention
  • Hands-off the wheel
  • Eyes-off the road

- Driver behaviour
  • vehicle speed
  • headway
  • vehicle lateral position
  • driver reaction time

- Driver accident risk
Distraction accident risk – Key elements

• **Attentional demands**: The amount of resources required to perform the distraction task.

• **Exposure**: How often and when drivers engage in the task. Driver strategies (if any) to compensate for distraction.

• **Risk compensation**: can the additional mental or motor workload be counterbalanced by adjusting driving behaviour?
Distraction accident risk – Mechanism

- The decrease in speed and the increase in the distance from the central axis, during distracted driving might be considered beneficial for road safety.
- However, they cannot always counter-balance the driver's distraction.
- This leads to increased reaction times, and eventually increased accident probability, especially at unexpected incidents.
## Influence of In-vehicle Distraction Factors

*Odds ratio for secondary tasks in the 100-Car naturalistic driving study (Source: NHTSA. July, 2008)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Secondary Task</th>
<th>Odds Ratio*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reaching for a moving object</td>
<td>8.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insect in vehicle</td>
<td>6.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>3.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applying makeup</td>
<td>3.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialling hand-held device</td>
<td>2.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inserting/retrieving CD</td>
<td>2.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eating</td>
<td>1.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reaching for non-moving object</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking/listening to a handle-held device</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drinking from open container</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other personal hygiene</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusting the radio</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Passenger in adjacent seat</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.50</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passenger in rear seat</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child in rear seat</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Only factors in bold are statistically significant*

Reaching for a moving object is the most risky behaviour observed, increasing crash risk by more than eight times that of just driving.
The highest perceived risk ratings are associated with the use of mobile phones. The lowest perceived risk ratings are associated with listening to music.
More than 90 studies on driver distraction have been reviewed

**Statistical methods**
1. Before and after studies
2. Comparison of the number of crashes
3. Comparison of the number of near-crashes

**Field studies**
4. Recording driver’s behaviour with roadside observations
5. Recording driver’s behaviour with in-vehicle observations
6. Recording driver’s behaviour with in-vehicle observation with special tracking systems (naturalistic driving studies)
7. Questionnaires

**Laboratory studies**
8. Driver simulator and eye tracking systems
In-vehicle distraction – Mobile phone use

- Earlier and recent studies agree that mobile phone use while driving may significantly affect driver's behaviour and safety.

- Research results suggest that mobile phone use may be the most important in-vehicle distraction source for drivers.

- Drivers tend to reduce their speed during a mobile phone conversation.

- Although reduced speed is generally associated with lower accident risk, drivers using their mobile phone while driving present up to 4 times higher accident risk, most probably as a result of increased workload and delayed reaction time.
In-vehicle distraction – Mobile phone use – handheld vs. hands-free

- Although the physical distraction associated with handling the phone can present a significant safety hazard, the cognitive distraction associated with being engaged in a conversation can also have a considerable effect on driving.

- Many studies have found that conversing on a hands-free phone while driving is no safer than using a hand-held phone (Haigney et al., 2000; Matthews et al. 2003; Redelmeier & Tibshirani, 1997; Strayer, Drews, Albert & Johnston, 2003).

- When drivers were engaged in a phone conversation using either a hand-held or hands-free phone, they demonstrated similar driving deficits (Strayer et al. 2003).

- Drivers tend to overestimate the ease of using hands-free phones while driving. (Mazzae et al. 2004.)
In-vehicle distraction - Mobile phone use: texting

• Important distinction: texting is amenable to resumption after selective disengagement, while conversation may be more difficult to interrupt and resume, once initiated.

• The question of whether drivers actually modulate texting engagement is not well addressed in the literature.

• Results indicated that drivers were particularly impaired when sending text messages and less so when receiving (Hosking et al. 2009).

• When texting, participants express greater following variability, greater lateral variability, reduced response time to the lead vehicle, and increase in collision frequency. (Drews et al. 2009)

• A recent naturalistic driving experiment suggests that the effects of texting may be significantly underestimated in previous (simulator) experiments. (Cooper et al. 2011)
In-vehicle distraction – Mobile phone and other factors

• Driving environment: Impairment due to mobile phone use may increase in more complex road environments (e.g. urban areas, unfamiliar environment), more traffic density, adverse weather conditions. (Cooper & Zheng, 2002; Strayer et al. 2003)

• Driver age: Research has consistently found that older people have a decreased ability to share attention between two concurrent tasks while driving than younger drivers.

• Driving experience: Young novice drivers may also be relatively more vulnerable to the effects of distraction than experienced drivers. (Young & Regan, 2007).
• Complex conversation (e.g. recalling information, solving arithmetical problems, emotional conversation) is associated with more impaired driving, due to higher cognitive demands. 
(McKnight and McKnight, 1993; Pattel et al. 2005)

• In naturalistic conversation experiments, however, the differences between simple and complex conversation were less striking than in simulator experiments. 
(Rakauskas et al., 2004)

• Repeated experience may lead to learning effects. Over the course of repeated sessions, the negative effects of the phone tasks on driving performance may diminish. 
(Shinar et al. 2005)
In-vehicle distraction – Entertainment systems

• Few studies have specifically studied the distracting effects of operating vehicle radios or other entertainment systems.

• Turning on or simply listening to the radio while driving can distract a driver and degrade driving performance.

• Research has also suggested that operating a CD player while driving may be equally distracting to dialling a mobile phone.
In-vehicle distraction – Navigation systems

• In-vehicle route-guidance, navigation systems (e.g., GPS) or other ADAS are designed to assist drivers, but have the potential to distract drivers in several ways.

• Entering the destination into the navigation system is considered the most distracting component of using in-vehicle navigation systems (Young et al. 2003).

• Voice activated systems are not proved to be safer in terms of distraction, as they result in increased eye-glances.
In-vehicle distraction – Conversation with passengers

• The frequency of driver distraction from conversation with the passengers may be almost equal to the frequency of distraction by the use of mobile phone.  
(Stutts et al. 2003)

• The results of the 100-car naturalistic driving study revealed that a driver-passenger interaction was observed in 20% of accident, near-misses and incidents recorded.  
(Neale et al., 2005).

• Effects may depend on the nature of the conversation (“simple” vs. “complex” conversation).

• A more demanding conversation was associated with increased accident risk.  
(Yannis et al. 2011)

• Comparison phone conversation vs. passenger conversation suggests that phone conversation is more cognitively demanding.
In-vehicle distraction – Eating, drinking

- Around half of all drivers in the USA admit that they are systematically eating or drinking while driving at around one third of their trips. \(\text{(NHTSA, 2003)}\).

- 4.2% of distraction related accidents in the US are due to eating or drinking. \(\text{(Glaze & Ellis 2003)}\)

- Respective related results from New Zealand range at around 3% \(\text{(Gordon, 2005)}\).

- Eating and drinking increased the hands-off-the-wheel time while driving and contributed to a difficulty in keeping vehicle lateral position. \(\text{(Stutts et al. 2005)}\)

- Simulator experiments show little effect of eating or drinking on driver behaviour and safety. \(\text{(Jenness et al. 2002; Young et al. 2007)}\)
In-vehicle distraction – Smoking

- On the basis of the CDS -Crashworthiness Data System, 1% of accidents are due to driver smoking. (Stutts et al. 2001)

- The 100-car naturalistic driving study associated 2% of distraction or inattention related accidents with smoking (Neale et al. 2005)

- 2.2% of accidents in New Zealand are due to smoking-related distraction. Furthermore, about half of these accidents took place while reaching out for a cigarette, another one fourth while lighting a cigarette and another one fourth while searching for a dropped cigarette (Gordon, 2005, Road Safety Committee, 2006)

- Simulator experiments found no effect of smoking on accident probability (Yannis et al. 2011)
Most studies agree that advertising signs do attract the attention of the majority of drivers, for a non negligible proportion of their driving time.

Research on labels and advertising signs is not conclusive so far as regards their impact on accident risk.

The location and position of labels and advertising signs might have different impact to the distraction of driver attention.

Labels and advertising signs resembling (in size and form) to traffic signs or other traffic indicators create confusion.

Blinking and animation objects have proven to be difficult-to ignore, dynamically changing advertising and information are ill-advised.
External distraction - Others

- No dedicated studies on other external distractions.

- In the 100-Car study, looking at external object and not looking at forward roadway were associated with increased odds of crashes / near crashes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Secondary Task</th>
<th>Odds Ratio*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Looking at external object</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialling hand-held phone</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inserting/retrieving CD</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eating</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking/listening on phone</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking with passenger, front seat</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cumulative eyes off forward roadway&gt;2 sec in 5 sec prior and 1 sec after event</td>
<td>2.37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Only factors in bold are statistically significant
Pedestrians distraction

• The degree to which handheld multimedia devices may distract pedestrians, especially young people, is increasingly examined in the literature.

• Recent findings from observational research suggest pedestrians who are distracted by phone conversations or other activities (e.g., eating, listening to music) take greater risks when road crossing. (Bungum et al., 2005; Hatfield and Murphy, 2007; Nasar et al. 2008)

• Pedestrians who listened to music or texted while crossing the street experienced more hits by vehicles in a virtual pedestrian environment than pedestrians who were not distracted. (Schwebel et al. 2011)

• The use of hands-free devices is not associated with reduced risk. (Hatfield & Murphy 2007; Schwebel et al.2011)
Results of related research in Greece

• The results of three studies on the effect of mobile phone use on road safety in Greece are presented, on the basis of different methods:
  - in-vehicle observations
  - a roadside survey
  - a simulator experiment.

• The results of two studies on the effect of other in-vehicle distractions are presented (conversation at mobile phone, with passengers, eating, smoking, listening to music).

• The results of a before-and-after study on the effect of advertising signs on road safety in Greece are discussed.
• 9% of car drivers in Greece use their mobile phone while driving
• Mobile phone use rate is increased for young car drivers (16 - 24)
• Mobile phone use rate is increased inside built-up area
• PTW riders present very low mobile phone use rates, except for young females (12%)
Mobile phone use, driver speed and headways

In-Vehicle observations, NTUA, 2007

- Effects of mobile phone use while driving on traffic speed and headways, focused on young drivers.

- Experiment with 37 participants took place in NTUA Campus area, under either free flow or interrupted flow conditions.

Field survey area and routes

- Separate models were developed for average free flow, interrupted flow, as well as for total average speed.
### Best fitting models for vehicle speed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Total average speed ($V_t$)</th>
<th>Free flow average speed ($V_f$)</th>
<th>Interrupted flow average speed ($V_d$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\beta_i$</td>
<td>Relative effect</td>
<td>$\beta_i$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$e_i$</td>
<td>$e_i$</td>
<td>$e_i$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobile phone use</td>
<td>-0.047</td>
<td>0.017</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-0.032</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Driving experience</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual distance</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average headways</td>
<td>-0.033</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>10.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Mobile phone use leads to statistically significant reduction of traffic speeds
  - Total average speed, $V_t$: $\downarrow$ 15.6% ± 0.1%
  - Free flow average speed, $V_f$: $\downarrow$ 14.3% ± 0.6%
  - Interrupted flow average speed, $V_d$: $\downarrow$ 16.4% ± 1.0%

- Experienced drivers (annual distance travelled exceeds 10,000 per year) drive faster while talking on mobile phone.
Mobile phone use, driver speed and headways
Roadside observations, NTUA, 2008

- Impact of mobile phone use on vehicle traffic speed and headways.
- Field survey in real traffic conditions, Katehaki ave., in which 3,048 vehicles were captured by means of a video camera and a speed gun.

Field survey site

- 2 linear regression model models were developed for vehicle speed and headspace.
The use of mobile phone is a significant additional determinant of vehicle speeds and headspaces, although other driver and traffic characteristics are the main determinants.

Moreover mobile phone use:
- brings a slight decrease of vehicle speed
- leads to a reduction of vehicle headspaces
Mobile phone use, driver speed and accident probability

Driving Simulator Experiment, NTUA, 2010

- Investigation of the interrelation between mobile phone use, driver speed and accident probability.

- The research focuses on the behaviour of 30 young drivers aged between 18 and 30 years old.

- A driving simulator experiment took place, in which participants drove in:
  - different driving scenarios
  - urban / interurban areas
  - good / rainy weather conditions
  - with / without the occurrence of an incident

- Binary logistic regression methods were used to analyse the combined influence of mobile phone, driver speed and other parameters on the probability of an accident.
Mobile phone use leads to:
- Significant decrease of mean speed in urban and interurban environment
- Increase of accident probability
Participants: 42 drivers aged between 18 and 30 years, out of which 20 were males and 22 were females (all were smokers).

The experiment included 3 simulated drives in a rural road environment during good weather conditions.

- Simple conversation with passenger: basic questions on driver’s characteristics (age, name, job, hobbies, news, ..)
- Complex conversation with passenger: questions requiring some concentration, as well as some logical and mathematical reasoning.
- Smoking one cigarette.
- Eating a light snack provided by the surveyor.
- Unexpected incidents (i.e. presence of an animal) scheduled to occur at fixed points.
Conversation, smoking and eating, driver speed and accident probability

Driving Simulator Experiment, NTUA, 2010

Statistically significant decrease in speed is associated with all four distraction factors.

Only the complex conversation has significant effect on vehicle’s lateral position and reaction time at unexpected incidents.

Only complex conversation may lead to accident probability increase at incidents.
Participants: 48 drivers aged between 19 and 27 years, out of which 29 were males and 19 were females. The experiment included 3 simulated drives in a rural road environment during good weather conditions.

- Simple mobile phone conversation: basic questions on driver’s characteristics (age, name, job, hobbies, news etc.)
- Complex mobile phone conversation: questions requiring some concentration, as well as some logical and mathematical reasoning
- Listening to music

Simple and complex mobile phone conversations were associated with reduced speeds.

Listening to music was associated with increased speeds

Only complex mobile phone conversation was associated with reduced reaction times and increased accident risk at unexpected incidents.
Effect of advertising signs on road safety

Before-and-after analysis, NTUA, 2010

- A statistical analysis was carried out in eight different road axes within the greater Athens area.

- A before-and-after analysis technique with control groups was applied (odds-ratio method).

- Control groups were neighbouring or not road axes, with very similar geometric and traffic characteristics.

- Before and after periods vary from 2.5 to 6 years depending on the date of the placement / removal of advertising signs.
Effect of advertising signs on road safety

Before-and-after analysis, NTUA, 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advertising signs</th>
<th>Placement</th>
<th>Removal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accidents 'Before' in the treatment sites</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>1.334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accidents 'After' in the treatment sites</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>1.307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accidents 'Before' in the control sites</td>
<td>527</td>
<td>1.331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accidents 'After' in the control sites</td>
<td>523</td>
<td>1.452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>weighted mean effect</td>
<td>1.125</td>
<td>1.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>safety effect</td>
<td>-12.5%</td>
<td>-5.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lower limit</td>
<td>-34.9%</td>
<td>-15.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>upper limit</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- The estimated safety effects are non significant, given that their confidence intervals are too large and thus not acceptable.

- In the road axes selected, drivers are overloaded by information (traffic signs, directions signs, shops labels, pedestrians and other vehicle traffic, etc.), so that the additional information load from the advertising signs may not worsen their concentration on driving.
Driver Distraction factors - Summary

- The distraction caused by interacting with in-vehicle devices while driving seems to impair drivers on the road more than external distractions.

- Mobile phone use (handheld or hands-free) and complex conversation (at mobile phone or with passengers) appear to be the most critical in-vehicle distraction factors.

- The complexity of the secondary task being performed and of the driving environment, as well as driver characteristics (age and driving experience) can all influence the potential for non-driving tasks to distract drivers.

- Distraction factors may affect driver behaviour (speed, lateral position, headways) and safety (reaction time, accident probability).

- Compensatory strategies may fail, especially when unexpected incidents occur.
Measures against driver distraction - Driver

- Enforcement of traffic rules
  - not use of mobile phones
  - position and characteristics of signs

- Driver awareness campaigns
  - risk associated to mobile phone use
  - risk associated to driver distraction in general

- Driver training and education
  - traffic education at school
  - for novice drivers
  - for all drivers
  - re-integration courses of frequent offenders
Measures against driver distraction - Driver
# Measures against driver distraction - Legislation

**IGES Institut, ITS Leeds, ETSC (2010)**

## Mobile Phone Use

| Country | AT | BE | BG | CY | CZ | DE | DK | EE | EL | ES | FI | FR | HU | IE | IT | LT | LU | LV | MT | NL | PL | PT | RO | SE | SI | SK | UK | CH | IS |
|---------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| Legislation requires | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Complete ban | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| use of hands free equipment | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| Hand-held phone is prohibited if | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| engine is running | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| vehicle is moving | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| Requirement to use | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| headset/Blue tooth | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| additionally fixed phone | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| Hands-free required when using | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| phone function | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| other function | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| Forbidden to use | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| texting function | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| all functions that involve continuous handling | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| headphones | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| Requirements concerning | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| location of mounting | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| way of fixing | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
# Measures against driver distraction - Legislation

*IGES Institut, ITS Leeds, ETSC (2010)*

## Portable Nomadic Devices

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The table above outlines the legislative measures against driver distraction, focusing on portable nomadic devices. The measures include complete bans, user restrictions, and prohibitions based on the engine being running or the vehicle being in motion. The table also details what functions are prohibited, such as media player and other functions, and the location and way of fixing these devices. For each country, the table indicates whether these rules apply (X) or not ( ).
Measures against driver distraction - Technology

- Steering mounted buttons systems to input information;
- Systems which rely on voice activation for input.
- Tactile marks on the phone key pad buttons to give each button a distinct feel, reducing the need for drivers to look away from the road;

- Negative impacts on safety of voice-activated systems have been identified, and the potential safety impact of other systems are unknown. (Jeanne Breen, 2009)

- Blocking phone calls while driving is a rapidly developing technology, but currently not supported by all phone types.

- More ergonomic design of the human-machine interface of in-car information systems to allow safe use. The current trend of miniaturisation of mobile phones may lead to safety problems.
Measures against driver distraction - Roadway

There are no roadway countermeasures directed specifically at distracted drivers.

Many effective roadway design and operation practices that improve traffic safety in general, such as edge line and centreline rumble strips, can warn distracted drivers or can mitigate the consequences of distracted driving.

- Creation of less demanding traffic conditions
  - interventions on infrastructure
  - interventions on traffic management
Distracted Driving - Future Research

- identify functions behind distraction activities
- focus on mobile phones use
- separate impact from the various distraction factors
- examine the combined effect of all distraction factors

- **link distraction-associated driver behaviour with accident risk**
- cross validation through experiments (driving simulator, naturalistic driving) and epidemiological studies
- ergonomic design of devices to minimise distraction
- develop universally agreed definition of driver distraction
Distracted Driving - Future Challenges

• Research on remedial measures should concern separately visual, auditory, manual and cognitive distraction.

• Legislation for compulsory improved human-machine interfaces at both the vehicle and the mobile phone industries should not be delayed.

• Drivers should learn to manage distraction:
  - avoid risky behaviour (texting, handheld phones, distraction overload),
  - interrupt the discussion when there is driving overload (either discussion with passengers or through mobile phone),
  - stop the vehicle if it is necessary to continue the discussion,
  - learn to use hands-free devices.
European Transport Safety Lecture
Athens, 7 November 2011

Distracted Driving

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Associate Professor
National Technical University of Athens