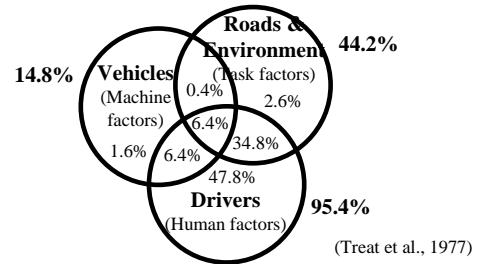


PSYC305  
**Applied Cognition & Neuroscience**

**Road Transport I**

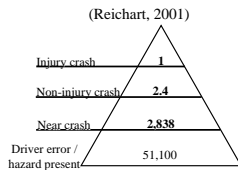
85-95% of crashes are attributed to *human error*



There is usually no single cause of a crash  
*(blaming the driver makes us feel better but the system doesn't get fixed)*

**Human Error**

**Common cause hypothesis:** errors and crashes have the same causal mechanisms – can study driver errors as proxy variables for crashes



(Dingus, 1999)

Error is ubiquitous - it's part of being human  
*(Doctors & nurses make an average 1.7 errors per patient)*

**3 Types of Error**

- Mistakes: unskilled actions, due to inexperience, intentional but *wrong*
- Violations: intentional errors, shortcuts, breaking the rules **largest cause of fatalities**
- Action slips & lapses: well-practised automatic actions (open-loop/unintentional) **largest cause of error & crashes**

Because so many errors are due to slips & lapses, regulations and reminders have limited effectiveness in error prevention  
*("Be careful" only works so far)*

**Driver Errors**

(Charlton, Newman, & Baas, 2003)

“Slips” most common, followed by “violations”, “mistakes” least frequent

Young drivers reported most “mistakes”

Women reported most “slips”

Men reported most “violations” & “aggressive violations”

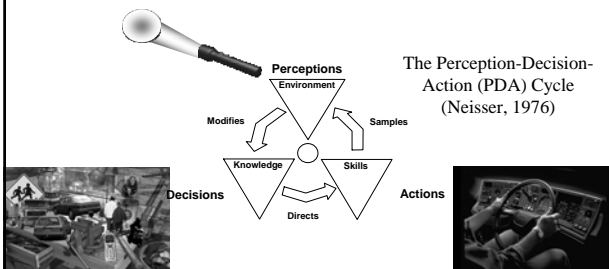
Violations negatively correlated with age and positively correlated with amount of driving

Older drivers reported fewest violations

Young + rural + male = most violations

**The Task of Driving**

*“Driving is a skill-based, rule-governed, expressive activity involving balancing capability and task difficulty to avoid loss of control and ongoing real time negotiation with co-present transient others to avoid intersecting trajectories while maintaining and enhancing your self-image”* Stephen Stradling 2005



1) Perception stage – effective field of vision

The driver’s eye cannot take in the whole roadway with acuity  
 Foveal vision is 2° - 4°

Drivers use rapid fixations to take in the scene  
 100 – 300 msec for lane position  
 2 sec for estimating speed and distance or reading road signs

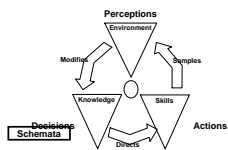
50 km/h = 14m per sec    100 km/h = 28m per sec

Horizontal field of vision = 150° at 50 km/h

Horizontal field of vision = 50° at 100 km/h

Effective field of vision becomes narrower and deeper

## The Task of Driving



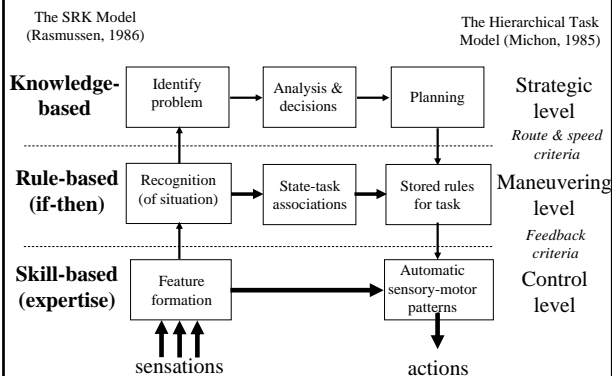
10,000 PDA cycles per hour  
on a straight road  
20,000 + on a demanding road

Highly practised tasks become automatic

Individual thoughts and actions repeated together  
often enough become combined into a single unit  
an *open-loop* (ballistic) program or script

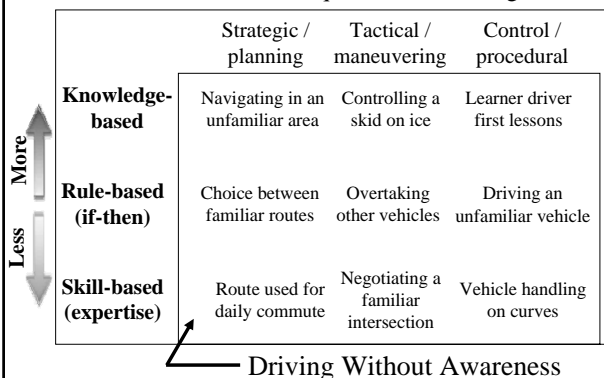
Driving Without Awareness

## Bypassing the decision stage

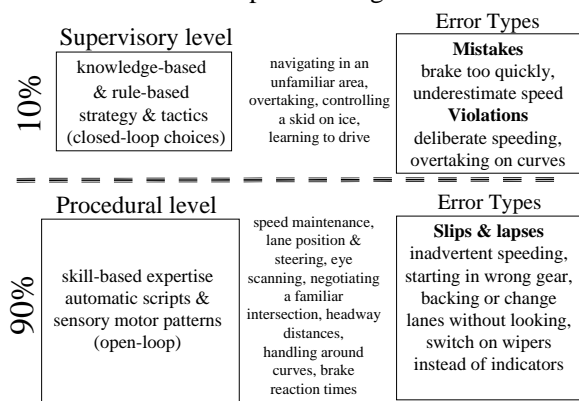


## Combining the two models (Ranney, 1994)

Conscious attention required while driving



## Percent of time spent driving at each level



## Can't we fix roads to prevent driver error?

Make roads wider, smooth out dangerous corners,  
equip cars with centre high-mounted brake lights,  
seatbelts & airbags

## The Problem of Behavioural Adaptation

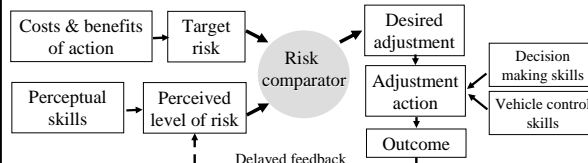
Road safety interventions often have unanticipated  
(& contrary) consequences  
e.g. result in higher speeds & shorter headway distances

## Risk Homeostasis Theory (RHT)

(Wilde, 1982)

People have a "set-point" for acceptable risk  
if current risk is perceived as below the set-point,  
people act to increase the risk

Crash rates per amount travelled remain constant despite  
improvements (*no point in improving the system?*)



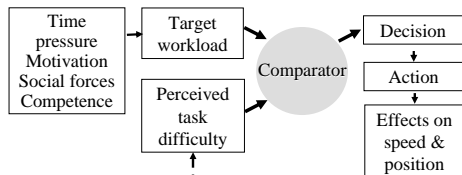
(Wilde, 1994)

## Task-Capability Interface (TCI) Model

(Fuller, 2000)

People have a “set-point” for acceptable workload if current task difficulty is perceived as below the set-point, people act to increase the difficulty

If a driver can increase speed without increasing difficulty, they will do so. If conditions exceed the workload threshold, the driver will avoid those conditions



(Fuller & Santos 2002)

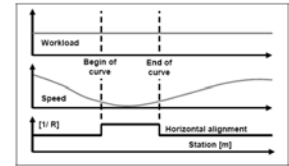
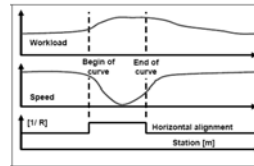
## Task-Capability Interface (TCI) Model

(Fuller, 2000)

People have a “set-point” for acceptable workload

On a poorly designed curve, as difficulty increases through the curve, workload increases, & driver quickly reduces their speed

On a well-designed curve, early cues about curve difficulty are provided & a driver can adjust their speed early to maintain desired workload level

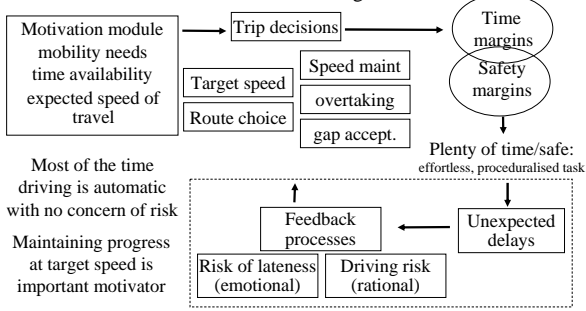


(Fuller, 2005)

## Zero Risk Theory

(Naatanen & Summala, 1976)

All drivers act to minimise risk (keep it close to zero) crashes result from underestimation of risk & overestimation of one's own driving skill



Most of the time driving is automatic with no concern of risk  
Maintaining progress at target speed is important motivator

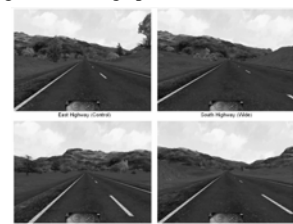
## Explicit & Implicit Processes in Behavioural Adaptation

2005 B Lewis-Evans Masters' Thesis  
(Lewis-Evans & Charlton, 2006)

*Is behavioural adaptation due to explicit decisions (risk) or implicit (automatic) perceptions of speed?*

Speeds decrease with road width, without any explicit awareness of changes in road width (or awareness of changes in driving speed)

Risk ratings (and preference ratings) change also but they are retrospective and not attributed to width changes (stated reasons include more traffic sharper curves, etc.)



## Safety Zone / Time-To-Collision (TTC)

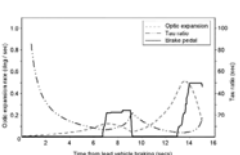
People maintain a personal safety bubble, and drivers change their relative speed and position to maintain it proxemics



Two interpretations:

Optic expansion rate: 'looming' stimulus automatically captures attention (Gibson, 1979)  
TTC Tau ratio: explicit (conscious) judgement of time-to-collision (Lee, 1976)

Following distance / braking distance study shows early braking guided by explicit TTC, distraction task interferes with early braking, automatic detection of looming stimuli happens late (too late?)



2006 H. Terry Masters' thesis  
(Terry, Charlton & Perrone, in press)

The most common engineering approach to managing drivers' speeds is via road signs

## What attracts drivers' attention?

(Hughes and Cole 1986)

### Attentional Conspicuity

1. Physical characteristics of the object, size, colour, motion, location, etc.
2. Information value (esp. unfamiliar, unexpected, or unusual).
3. Information needs of the driver.

### Search Conspicuity

1. Ratio of targets to distractors (*display size effect*)
2. Similarity of target & distractors (*featural singletons*)

## What attracts drivers' attention?

### Attentional conspicuity

50 – 70% capacity expended on driving-related objects: road, markings, traffic control devices, & other vehicles  
 "Spare" 30-50% expended on trees, buildings, rubbish containers, advertising signs, etc.  
 Traffic signs = 15 – 20% of capacity  
 but only 1 in 10 of traffic signs present (Hughes & Cole 1986)

### Memory for signs

6% correct recall, 9% correct recognition,  
 up to 16.5% at night (Drory & Shinar, 1982)

### Performance effects

56% - 72% of signs noticed are accompanied by action  
 39-43% of unnoticed signs were accompanied  
 by appropriate action (Fischer, 1992)

## Assessment of Hazard Warning Signs

(Charlton, 2006)

Participants "drove" video road scenes and signs' were assessed for attentional conspicuity, search conspicuity, implicit & explicit recognition, comprehension, & priming of hazards



### Why are so few road signs noticed?

Driving without awareness      The signs aren't novel  
 There are lots of other signs      The information may be redundant  
 They don't meet the drivers' current information needs  
 road warnings are often not noticed because the situation is not perceived as hazardous

## Some types of warning signs do appear to work

Curve warnings that highlight the perceptual features of the curve work best, particularly in cognitively demanding situations (i.e., when drivers aren't paying attention)



### Gateways & Urban Thresholds combination of physical & visual features



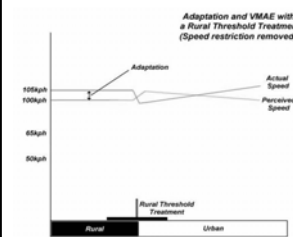
Some threshold treatments worked well  
 Some had little effect on drivers' speeds  
 Some increased drivers' speeds 'downstream'

Which features work best & why?  
*Attention vs Perception*

## Speed Change Treatments

### Gateways & Urban Thresholds combination of physical & visual features

Thresholds work even without speed restriction information (i.e., blank signs)



But, because of VMAE, 250 m after passing threshold drivers' speeds return to a level higher than before

because of VMAE a gateway placed at the 1<sup>st</sup> house in town is much more effective than a gateway placed at a city or village boundary

## Speed Change Treatments

Physical obstacles produce the largest reductions in speed, but they are unpopular (drivers will route-switch)

Combination treatments (attentional & perceptual) can also produce large speed reductions, and are more widely accepted

Downstream effects of gateways and thresholds are much more effective (3-4x) when combined with speed maintenance treatments

## Speed Maintenance Treatments

Roadside features      Lane width & road width  
 have some of the largest speed maintenance effects

Optic flow pattern  
 drivers use edge rate in the visual environment to judge their speed (preconsciously)  
 increasing the visual edge rate increases drivers' sense of speed

We can use edge rates to maintain desired speeds

Perceptual Countermeasures  
 Dragon's teeth, herring bones, transverse lines, etc.

Subject to habituation (within 250m) and visual motion after effects (VMAE)

1970s – ‘Traffic calming’ first introduced in the Netherlands and Germany

Treatments principally relied on physical obstacles

Chicanes & “build outs”



Speed humps  
(sleeping policemen)

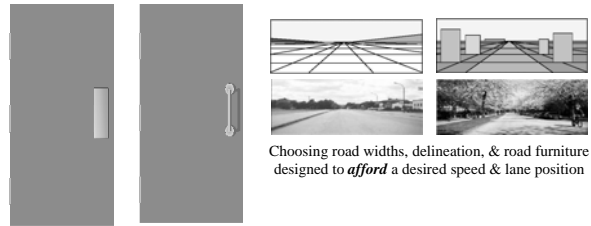


**Forcing functions** try to eliminate incorrect behaviour by means of interlocks & obstacles

People don’t like forcing functions

When confronted with a forcing function many people will find another way around

Affordances: perceptual properties that function as “built-in” instructions



Choosing road widths, delineation, & road furniture designed to **afford** a desired speed & lane position

Self-explaining roads -- Self-enforcing roads (SER)

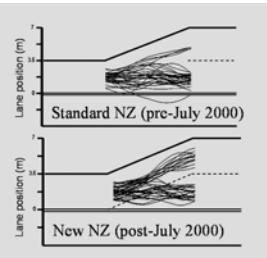
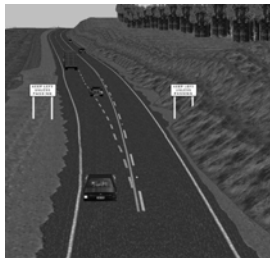
Using perceptual properties to affect the “look & feel” of a road

Perceptual properties processed *without awareness*

Self-explaining roads aren’t just for speed management

Addition of a continuity line **affords** staying left at overtaking lanes

(Charlton, 2007)



Lane delineation is used by the implicit (automatic) driving script to maintain lane position

Delineation Treatments to Improve Lane Position

South Waikato and Taupo Target (SWATT) 2010 study team identified 2 trends in crash data:

1. Drivers losing control/failing to stay on road adverse conditions combined with inattention, speed & alcohol
2. Crossing centre line/head-on crashes resulting from loss of control & inappropriate overtaking

Recommended Enhanced delineation: wider, profiled, edge & centrelines & increased use of no-passing lines

Systematic treatment approach to achieve consistent “look & feel” through corridor

Sustainable Safety – The Netherlands

Three speed management principles

**Predictability** – preventing uncertainty among road users

**Homogeneity** – preventing major variations in speed, direction and mass of vehicles (at moderate & high driving speeds)

**Functionality** – preventing unintended use of the infrastructure

Road environment hierarchy – 3 levels

**Roads with an access function** – access to homes and shops while ensuring safety of the street as a meeting place

**Roads with a distributor function** – distribution of collection of traffic to and from different districts and residential areas

**Roads with a through function** – rapid movement of through traffic

Road Hierarchy for Speed Management  
The United Kingdom

Tier 1: Through routes of national or regional importance priority given to the safe and efficient movement of vehicles

Tier 2: Mixed use roads – catering primarily to motorised traffic with a limited number of vulnerable road users and occasional access (rather than frequent access) to properties, physical separation from vulnerable road users.

Tier 3: Local roads – primarily for access, and where vulnerable road users are to be expected

“The hierarchy should be largely self-enforcing and to achieve this it is important for the designated speed environment to be obvious to road users, as well as acceptable to them.”

## Self-Explaining Roads in New Zealand

### National Speed Management Initiative

*"The emphasis is not just on speed limit enforcement, it includes perceptual measures that influence the speed that a driver feels is appropriate for the section of road upon which they are driving – in effect the 'self-explaining road'"*

National Road Safety Cttee/Ministry of Transport 2004

*Roads shouldn't need an instruction manual*

## Another (engineering) approach

*"... speaking mathematically, he (man) is best when doing least."* (Birmingham & Taylor, 1954)

### Intelligent Vehicle-Highway Automation



#### The Paradox of Automation

As the level of automation is increased, so are the consequences of any single human error.

## A Human Factors approach

Designing the system to fit human capabilities  
*and quit blaming the victims*

Our Road Transport System

Providing roads that are self-explaining & self-enforcing

Providing vehicles appropriate to the driver, decision support and safety equipment

**Vehicles**  
(Machine factors)

**Roads**  
(Task factors)

**Drivers**  
(Human factors)



Providing training and education for an engaged and safety-conscious road user population

### Laboratory assignment #1

#### Class experiment on road transport

If so many drivers insist on using cell phones while they drive, can we modify the technology to alert drivers to the presence of potential road hazards?

*Hypothesis: Hazard warning tones broadcast on cellphone frequencies will overcome the negative effects of cell phone conversations on driver performance*

### Laboratory assignment #1 Class experiment on road transport

#### Two groups of participants:

1. Drivers conversing on cellphones
2. Drivers conversing on cellphones that emit hazard warning tones

#### Materials:

TARS driving simulator equipped with hands-free cell phone

Simulated 21 km road

### Laboratory assignment #1 Class experiment on road transport

#### Procedure:

Participants self-assigned into pairs  
Participant pairs randomly assigned to each group  
Pairs drive simulated road (book sim time with me)

#### Analysis:

Record & plot speed and RT data for 5 locations on road  
(from simulator data files)  
Transcribe & count conversation elements at same 5 locations  
(from video recordings)  
Examples of both provided on Moodle

Laboratory assignment #1  
Class experiment on road transport

Report:

Locate and summarise 3 recent journal articles on the subject of cellphones & driver distractions

Describe class experimental procedure

Describe your pair's results (speed, RT, & conversation)

Compare individual results to group results

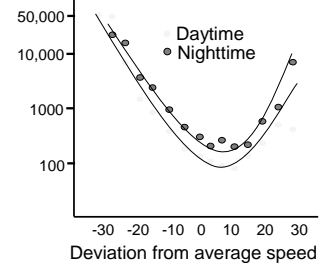
7-10 pages total (typed & double-spaced)

Data forms due 20 March (via email) – Reports due 3 April (via FIC)

Myth: If everybody else is speeding it is safer to keep up with them (Travelling faster than the surrounding traffic provides greater manoeuvrability)

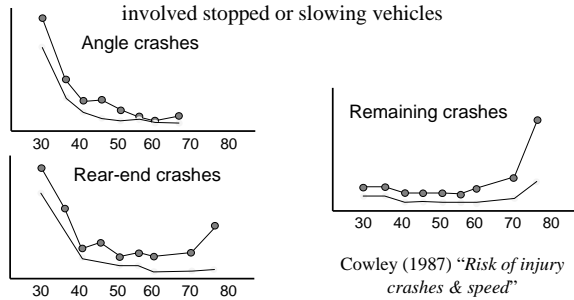
Solomon's (1964) "Accidents on main rural highways related to speed driver & vehicle"

Found a U-shaped curve of crash rates, lowest for travel speeds near the mean speed of traffic



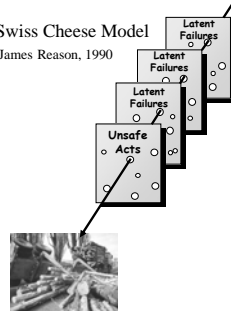
Solomon's (1964) "Accidents on main rural highways related to speed driver & vehicle"

**But...** Solomon's data were from 1950s era roads, which lacked turn lanes and passing lanes many crashes occurred at intersections and involved stopped or slowing vehicles



Latent Failures – Failures of Design

The Swiss Cheese Model  
James Reason, 1990



Latent failures set the stage for unsafe acts (active failures); appropriate safeguards are missing

Designs that fail to prevent, or contribute to, user errors

Myth: Talking on cellphones while driving is no riskier than conversing with a passenger

Conversational suppression – when the passenger sees an approaching hazard, they stop talking

SA enhancement – passengers often alert the driver to hazards, often discuss the road ahead

Intelligibility – passengers are easier for drivers to hear & understand than cellphone conversors

Myth: Talking on cellphones is similar to other distractions like radios and eating

Radio tuning & eating are self-paced and discrete  
Conversations are externally-paced and continuous

On-going & externally-paced distractions increase mental workload & decrease situation awareness

Myth: Hands-free cellphones are safer than hand-held

Cellphone conversations typically do not produce major disruptions in lane keeping & speed (automatic)

Manipulation of the phone can impair maneuvering, but is not the major source of impairment

Cellphone conversations do slow reactions to traffic & hazards

85% of cellphone owners use them while driving

Cellphone conversations slow drivers' reactions to traffic & hazards

Cellphone conversations impair memory for road signs

Cellphone conversations increase crash probability 400%

Cellphone conversations as dangerous as 0.08 BAC

Cellphone use while driving has been banned or restricted in 46 countries