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Examining teen driver crashes and the prevalence of distraction: Recent trends, 2007-2015 2

Cher Carney, ^{a,*} Karisa K. Harland, ^b Daniel V. McGehee ^{a,b} Q5 Q4

^a National Advanced Driving Simulator, The University of Iowa, 2401 Oakdale Blvd, Iowa City, IA 52242, United States

^b Department of Emergency Medicine, The University of Iowa, 200 Hawkins Dr., 1008 RCP, Iowa City, IA 52242, United States 5

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ABSTRACT

Introduction: Teen drivers crash at a much higher rate than adult drivers, with distractions found as a factor in 18 nearly six out of 10 moderate-to-severe teen crashes. As the driving environment continues to rapidly evolve, 19 it is important to examine the effect these changes may be having on our youngest and most vulnerable drivers. 20 Method: The purpose of this study was to identify types of vehicle crashes teens are most frequently involved in, 21 as well as the distracting activities being engaged in leading up to these crashes, with a focus on identifying 22 changes or trends over time. We examined 2,229 naturalistic driving videos involving drivers ages 16-19. 23 These videos captured crashes occurring between 2007 and 2015. The data of interest for this study included 24 crash type, behaviors drivers engaged in leading up to the collision, total duration of time the driver's eyes 25 were off the forward roadway, and duration of the longest glance away from forward. Results: Rear-end crashes 26 increased significantly (annual % change = 3.23 [2.40-4.05]), corresponding with national data trends. Among 27 cell phone related crashes, a significant shift occurred, from talking/listening to operating/looking (annual % 28 change = 4.22 [1.15-7.29]). Among rear-end crashes, there was an increase in the time drivers' eyes were off 29 the road ($\beta = 0.1527$, P = 0.0004) and durations of longest glances away ($\beta = 0.1020$, P = 0.0014). *Conclusions:* 30 Findings suggest that shifts in the way cell phones are being used, from talking/listening to operating/looking, 31 may be a cause of the increasing number of rear-end crashes for teen drivers. Practical applications: Understand- 32 ing the role that cell phone use plays in teen driver crashes is extremely important. Knowing how and when teens 33 are engaging in this behavior is the only way effective technologies can be developed for mitigating these crashes. 34 © 2017 National Safety Council and Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved. 35

1. Introduction 46

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47 The number one cause of teen deaths is driving or riding in a car. In 48 2014, 1,717 young drivers died in motor-vehicle crashes, with an additional estimated 170,000 injured (NHTSA, 2015a). Inexperience 49 (Greenberg et al., 2003; McKnight & McKnight, 2003; Patten, Kircher, 50 Östlund, Nilsson, & Svenson, 2006), overconfidence (Brown & Groeger, 51 52 1988; Finn & Bragg, 1986), social pressure (Allen & Brown, 2008; Farrow, 1987; Simons-Morton, Lerner, & Singer, 2005), a tendency to 53 underestimate risk (Albert & Steinberg, 2011; Evans & Wasielewski, 54 55 1983; Horrey, Lesch, & Garabet, 2008), and engaging more often in 56 risky behaviors (McEvoy, Stevenson, & Woodward, 2006; Sayer, 57 Devonshire, & Flannagan, 2005) are just some of the factors influencing 58 teen drivers.

59 Proportionally more than any other age group, teens involved in 60 fatal crashes are reported to have been distracted at the time of the crash (NHTSA, 2016), with distractions found as a factor in nearly six

Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: cher-carney@ujowa.edu (C. Carney), kari-harland@ujowa.edu (K.K. Harland), daniel-mcgehee@uiowa.edu (D.V. McGehee).

out of 10 moderate-to-severe crashes (Beanland, Fitzharris, Young, & 62 Lenné, 2013). In the context of driving, a distraction has been defined 63 as the diversion of attention from activities critical for safe driving to- 64 ward a competing activity (Regan, Hallett, & Gordon, 2011). Distractions 65 vary widely, with the most prevalent behaviors including attending to 66 passengers, cell phone use, and attending to something inside the vehi- 67 cle (Carney, McGehee, Harland, Weiss, & Raby, 2015). Those identified 68 as particularly dangerous for young drivers-peer passengers and tech- 69 nology, most notably cell phones-have been the focus of recent 70 research. 71

For teens, in particular, the cell phone has become the primary mode 72 of communication: in 2015, 92% of teens age 15-17 owned a cell phone, 73 with 76% of those owning a smartphone (Lenhart et al., 2015). With the 74 evolution of cell phones to smartphones, this technology has evolved 75 from talking into texting and engagement in social media. In a 2015 sur-76 vey, nearly 70% of drivers ages 16 to 18 reported they had talked on a 77 cell phone, 42% had read a text or e-mail, and 32% had typed/texted 78 while driving in the past 30 days (AAA, 2016). 79

However, determining what activities teens are engaging in before a 80 crash occurs is not an easy task. Previous research has largely relied on 81 survey and crash data to attempt to obtain this type of information. 82

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C. Carney et al. / Journal of Safety Research xxx (2017) xxx-xxx

While surveys can inquire about drivers' attitudes toward and frequen-83 84 cy of engaging in certain distracting activities, there are issues associated with the reliability and validity of these self-reported data. 85 86 Additionally, though crash data can be found in the large national data-87 bases, these rely on police reports in which distraction is notably 88 underreported for a variety of reasons, including: (a) reliance on driver 89 to self-report, (b) information being unavailable, and (c) variability in 90 reporting across jurisdictions. Naturalistic data provides researchers with an unbiased view inside the vehicle during the critical seconds 91 92 leading up to a crash and micro-level analyses to be conducted, providing invaluable data that would not otherwise be available. 93

The objective of this study was to use naturalistic crash data to ex-94 amine the types of crashes teens are most frequently involved in, with 95 a focus on analyzing whether the distractions or competing activities 96 leading up to those crashes have changed over time. In addition, we in-97 98 vestigated if eye glance behavior, including total eyes off road time and duration of the longest glance off road, have changed over time by crash 99 100 type and potential distractions. The current analysis expands on a previous naturalistic teen driving study (Carney et al., 2015) and broadens 101 knowledge of teen driver distractions from an earlier publication that 102 103 focused on rear-end crashes (Carney, Harland, & McGehee, 2016).

104 2. Methods

105 2.1. Study sample

Nearly 15,000 drivers ages 16 to 19 were enrolled in a teen driving
program between 2007 and 2015. The participants were licensed
drivers in Arizona, Colorado, Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, Missouri, Nevada,
and Wisconsin. The program provided teens and their families with

weekly web-based feedback regarding the young driver's performance 110 and promoted safe driving behaviors through the use of the Lytx 111 DriveCam system. This system, mounted on the inner windshield of a 112 vehicle, recorded video, audio, and accelerometer data when a crash 113 or other high g-force event (e.g., hard braking, acceleration, or impact) 114 was detected. The system afforded a view of the inside of the cab and 115 driver of the vehicle, as well as a view out the front. Each 12-second 116 video provided data from the 8 s before to 4 s after the event. 117

Between August 2007 and April 2015, 8,228 videos of teen driver 118 crashes had been collected by Lytx. These crashes were de-identified 119 and released by the families and made available for review in order to 120 further the understanding of contributing factors associated with 121 young driver crashes (Carney et al., 2015). A single teen could have mul- 122 tiple crash videos within the data but, due to the anonymous nature of 123 the videos, we were unable to control for multiple measurements 124 (videos) on the same teen. Based on a review of the data, crashes in 125 which the vehicle sustained forces less than 1 g were excluded to elim- 126 inate minor dings and curb strikes from the analysis. Additional videos 127 were excluded for other reasons, as presented in Fig. 1. A total of 128 2,229 crashes met the inclusion criteria and were analyzed: 1,034 129 vehicle-to-vehicle (V2V) and 1,195 single-vehicle (SV) crashes.

2.2. Crash coding

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The six seconds preceding each usable crash were coded for analysis, 132 as this timeframe had the most potential to be contributory and allowed 133 for comparison with previous naturalistic studies (i.e., the 100-car 134 study; Klauer, Dingus, Neale, Sudweeks, & Ramsey, 2006). The coding 135 methodology focused on identifying the factors present in crashes as 136 has been described in detail in previous publications (Carney et al., 137



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