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# Examining drivers' eye glance patterns during distracted driving: Insights from scanning randomness and glance transition matrix

Q3 Q2 Yuan Wang, <sup>a,b</sup> Shan Bao, <sup>b,\*</sup> Wenjun Du, <sup>b</sup> Zhirui Ye, <sup>a</sup> James R. Sayer <sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup> School of Transportation, Southeast University, 2 Sipailou, Nanjing, Jiangsu Province 210096, China

5 <sup>b</sup> University of Michigan Transportation Research Institute (UMTRI), 2901 Baxter Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA

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#### ABSTRACT

Problem: Visual attention to the driving environment is of great importance for road safety. Eye glance behavior 18 has been used as an indicator of distracted driving. This study examined and quantified drivers' glance patterns 19 and features during distracted driving. Method: Data from an existing naturalistic driving study were used. Entro- 20 py rate was calculated and used to assess the randomness associated with drivers' scanning patterns. A glance- 21 transition proportion matrix was defined to quantity visual search patterns transitioning among four main eye 22 glance locations while driving (i.e., forward on-road, phone, mirrors and others). All measurements were calcu-23 lated within a 5 s time window under both cell phone and non-cell phone use conditions. Results: Results of the 24 glance data analyses showed different patterns between distracted and non-distracted driving, featured by a 25 higher entropy rate value and highly biased attention transferring between forward and phone locations during 26 distracted driving. Drivers in general had higher number of glance transitions, and their on-road glance duration 27 was significantly shorter during distracted driving when compared to non-distracted driving. Discussion: Results 28 suggest that drivers have a higher scanning randomness/disorder level and shift their main attention from 29 surrounding areas towards phone area when engaging in visual-manual tasks. Practical applications: Drivers' 30 visual search patterns during visual-manual distraction with a high scanning randomness and a high proportion 31 of eye glance transitions towards the location of the phone provide insight into driver distraction detection. This 32 will help to inform the design of in-vehicle human-machine interface/systems. 07

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#### **42** 43

#### 45 1. Problem

Visual attention to the driving environment is of critical importance 46 to safe driving. Drivers need to scan the roads and surrounding areas 47 frequently to maintain awareness of their driving environment. Failure 48 49 to attend to appropriate locations when driving could cause critical information misdetection, and therefore increase crash risks. Engaging 50 in non-driving related activities often lead to drivers' visual attention 51 away from the road (Green, 1999). Cell phone usage while driving is 52 53 one of the most popular secondary tasks, and has been frequently reported to increase crash risks and decrease driving performance due 54 to drivers' inattention to the roadway (Bao, Flannagan, Xiong, & Sayer, 55 56 2014; Charlton, 2009; Shinar, Tractinsky, & Compton, 2005). According to the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA) data, 57 58 3179 people were killed and 431,000 were injured on U.S. roadways 59 that involved distracted driving, which accounts for 10% of all fatalities 60 and 18% of all injuries in 2014 (NHTSA, 2016). Of those, 13% of 61 distraction-affected fatalities and 8% of distraction-affected injuries in-62 volved cell phones. Thus, approximately 1.3% of all fatalities and 1.4% 63 of distraction-affected injuries that were reported were associated

\* Corresponding author. *E-mail address:* shanbao@umich.edu (S. Bao).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsr.2017.10.006 0022-4375/© 2017 Published by Elsevier Ltd. with cell phone usage as a distraction. Eye glance behavior has been 64 used in many studies as an indicator of distracted driving (Bao et al., 65 2014; Liang, Lee, & Yekhshatyan, 2012; Victor, 2005). Previous research 66 found that drivers who engaged in visual-manual tasks related to cell 67 phone usage (e.g. dialing or texting) had substantially shorter on-road 68 gaze length when compared to when they were not involved in 69 visual-manual tasks (Bao et al., 2014). Different in-vehicle tasks vary 70 somewhat for mean off-road glance duration, and considerably for the 71 number of glances away from the road and the total glance time re- 72 quired to complete the task (Dingus, Hulse, Antin, & Wierwille, 1989; 73 Wierwille, 1993). A study of in-vehicle information systems indicated 74 that, as the visual task became more difficult, drivers looked at the dis- 75 play for longer periods, and for more varied durations (Victor, Harbluk, 76 & Engström, 2005). The visual requirement (glance length and number 77 of glances) for the use of in-vehicle devices was also used in the item of 78 predicting crash rates, by incorporated with the frequency of in-vehicle 79 device use (Wierwille & Tijerina, 1998). Crash risk increases with longer 80 periods of time that drivers look away from the road (Bao et al., 2014). 81 Off-road glances exceeding 2 s during a safety-critical event doubled the 82 risk of crashes/near-crashes (Klauer, Dingus, Neale, Sudweeks, & 83 Ramsey, 2006). A simulation study, which compared drivers' eye glance 84 behavior between during in-vehicle secondary tasks and during 85 baseline driving when following other vehicles, found that increase 86

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on-road glances and shorten the entire off-road glances could reduce
the likelihood of crash and injury risks (Bärgman, Lisovskaja, Victor,
Flannagan, & Dozza, 2015).

90 Drivers' visual search pattern is also of great importance in understanding how drivers deal with the primary driving task, in-91 92 vehicle secondary tasks, and the driving surroundings. Previous experi-93 mental driving tests found that experienced or trained drivers showed 94 more extensive scanning on a demanding target section (Chapman, 95 Underwood, & Roberts, 2002; Underwood, Chapman, Bowden, & 96 Crundall, 2002). Visual search is one of the most common sub-tasks carried out with displays. Experiments were conducted to examine how 97 characteristics of in-vehicle tasks impact drivers' visual scanning, and 98 found that task priority had a significant impact on scanning (Horrey, 99 Wickens, & Consalus, 2006). Drivers looked less at the road center 100 area ahead but more often at the in-vehicle display, as the visual task 101 became more difficult (Victor et al., 2005). An on-road experiment 102 conducted to examine the effect of cognitive distraction on visual search 103 pattern found that, drivers spent more time looking centrally ahead and 104 spent less time looking to the areas in the periphery when looking 105 outside of the vehicle; drivers also reduced their visual monitoring of 106 the instruments and mirrors, with some drivers abandoning these 107 tasks entirely (Harbluk, Noy, Trbovich, & Eizenman, 2007). A probability 108 109 vector and transition proportion matrix has also been introduced and used in eye movement analysis during visual search tasks, and was 110 proved a particularly suitable measure of observer strategies in relation 111 to performance on tasks (Ponsoda, Scott, & Findlay, 1995). However, no 112 studies have been conducted to quantify eye glance patterns during 113 114 distracted driving.

This study is designed to examine, quantify, and compare drivers' 115 eye glance patterns under cell phone and non-cell phone use conditions. 116 117 Specifically, the study purposes are two-fold: to investigate drivers' vi-118 sual scanning randomness and eye glance behavior during cell phone 119 use related to distracted driving; and to quantify the corresponding probabilities between on-road and off-road glance transitions. Glances 120 were assessed for direction and duration, and the glance patterns 121 under non-distracted and distracted conditions were compared within 122 123 and across drivers. Existing naturalistic driving study data were used 124 to achieve the purposes. Naturalistic driving data has the advantages of providing more natural and detailed vehicle and driving information 125 to examine drivers' eye glance behavior associated with secondary task 126 engagement in real-world settings as compared to typical laboratory 127 128 tests using driving simulators or test tracks. It was hypothesized that when drivers engage in secondary tasks with a cell phone that they 129 have higher scanning randomness/disorder levels and reallocate their 130 131 main attention frequently while transitioning from the surrounding environment towards the cell phone. 132

#### 133 2. Method

#### 134 2.1. Data extraction

135 The data from an existing naturalistic driving study, the Integrated 136 Vehicle-Based Safety System (IVBSS) field operational test (FOT) 137 (Sayer et al., 2011) were used in this study. The IVBSS FOT was designed 138 to build and test an integrated in-vehicle crash warning system for both heavy truck and light vehicles. The integrated crash-warning system 139 140 used information gathered by inertial, video, and radar sensors, plus a global-positioning-system module and an on-board digital map. Data 141 were collected at frequencies ranging from 10 to 50 Hz. A total of 108 142 subjects from three age groups (younger, middle-aged, and older) 143 participated in the IVBSS FOT. 144

A total of 2149 cell phone-related visual/manual (VM) task events
(e.g., dialing and texting) were observed from a previous study (Xiong,
Bao, Kato, & Sayer, 2015). For this analysis, a set of five-second "distracted
event" video clips of drivers engaging in visual-manual tasks were selected and coded to identify drivers' eye glances. Additionally, corresponding

baseline five-second clips without distraction were also selected. Criteria 150 were further applied to the data extraction as follows: 151

- Events contained high-quality data (to exclude events with poor 152 glance determination due to glare or the presence of sunglasses); 153
- Cell phone-related events were at least 30 s long (to exclude very 154 short visual/manual tasks);
- Driving speed was at least six m/s (to exclude cell phone events that 156 occurred when the car was not moving);
   157
- Vehicle was traveling on known public surface streets or freeways; 158
  All selected cell phone event clips and their corresponding baseline 159
- clips matched on driver, roadway type, traffic density and time of day; 160
- Each of the drivers had at least three selected distraction events and 161 three matched baseline clips. 162

As a result, the final dataset that was used in this analysis included 164 110 event clips and 100 baseline clips from nineteen drivers. The age and gender information of the subjects is summarized in Table 1. 166

All the measures in this study were calculated based on 5 s duration 168 for each clip. In the process of coding drivers' eye glance behavior, nine 169 eye-glance locations were defined in this study as forward, phone, left 170 side mirror, rear view mirror, stack, left, right, dash and others (Fig. 1). 171 The number of glances was accumulated once drivers changed the 172 location of eye glance saccades during each selected driving clip. The 173 on-road glance duration was the total time span of drivers looking on 174 the road when driving. In this study, the mean glance duration was 175 also calculated as the mean value of time duration spent on each eye 176 glance location of. Importantly, entropy rate was used as a measure to 177 glance randomness order (Bao & Boyle, 2009). The calculation of 178 entropy rate was defined in Eq. (1).

Entropy rate = 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{D} \frac{E/E_{max}}{DT_{x_i}}$$
(1)

where *E* is the information entropy of a discrete random variable  $x_i$ , that **181** denotes the fixation location x at scan i and defined as

$$E = -\sum_{i=1}^{D} P_{x_i} \log_2 P_{x_i} \tag{2}$$

The variable  $P_{x_i}$  defines the probability of occurrence of  $x_i$  and D is the number of variables in the visual scanning sequence. The maximum 184 entropy,  $E_{max}$  is achieved when each  $x_i$  has an equal probability of 185 occurring, or at  $P_{x_i} = 1/D$ . Therefore,  $E_{max} = \log_2 D$ . The average fixation 186 duration in the visual scanning sequence is denoted as  $T_{x_i}$ . 187

The number of visual scanning areas (i.e., variable  $x_i$ ) in a consecu- 188 tive sequence, D, is based on all nine regions, shown in Fig. 1. The 189 shortest fixation of a visual scan area is defined as 0.1 s (1 frame of the 190 video footage). The entropy rate calculation measures the visual 191 scanning randomness with higher values representing greater random-192 ness. Based on the entropy rate calculation, the minimum entropy rate 193 will be zero when there is minimum randomness as defined by 194 repeated samples fixated in only one area. Conversely, if the driver 195

Table 1Drivers' information by age and gender.					t1.1 t1.2
	Younger	Middle-aged	Older	Total	t1.3
Male	7	5	1	13	t1.4
Female	4	1	1	6	t1.5
Total	11	6	2	19	t1.6

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