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1 **Right-Hook Crash Scenario: Effects of Environmental Factors on Driver's Visual**
2 **Attention and Crash-Risk**

3
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12
13 **ABSTRACT**

14 A right-hook (RH) crash is a common type of bicycle-motor vehicle crash that occurs between a
15 right-turning vehicle and through-moving bicycle at an intersection in right hand driving
16 countries. Despite the frequency and severity of this crash type, no significant driver-
17 performance based evidence of the causes of RH crashes at signalized intersections was found in
18 the literature. This study examined the driver's visual attention in a right-turning scenario at
19 signalized intersections with bicycle lanes but no exclusive right-turning lanes while interacting
20 with a bicyclist to develop an understanding of RH crash causality. Fifty-one participants in 21
21 simulated road scenarios performed a right-turning maneuver at a signalized intersection while
22 conflicting with traffic, pedestrians and bicyclists. Overall, a total of 820 (41*20) observable
23 right-turn maneuvers with visual attention data were analyzed. The results show that in the
24 presence of conflicting oncoming left-turning vehicular traffic, drivers spent less visual attention
25 on the approaching bicyclist, thus, making them less likely to be detected by the driver. The
26 presence of oncoming left-turning traffic and the, bicyclist's speed and relative position, and
27 conflicting pedestrians were found to likely increase the risk of RH crashes. The results of the

28 current study will help to identify effective crash mitigation strategies which may include
29 improving the vehicle-human interface or the implementation of design treatments in the road
30 environment to improve driver and bicyclist performance.

31 **Keywords: Bicycle-motor vehicle Crash, Right hook crash, Bicyclist, Road safety, Driving**
32 simulator, Driver behavior

33 **BACKGROUND**

34 Most bicycle-motor vehicle (BMV) crashes occur at intersections in urban areas—with crashes
35 involving right-turning vehicles and through moving bicycles, which are commonly termed as
36 “right-hook (RH) crashes” (see Fig. 1). According to the Oregon (OR) Bicycle Manual, “A RH
37 crash occurs when a right-turning driver crosses the path of a through bicyclist at an intersection”
38 (Oregon Department of Transportation (ODOT) 2016). The United States National Highway
39 Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA) categorized this crash type as “parallel path” crash
40 under “driver turn/merge into path of bicyclist” subgroup in NHTSA Manual Accident Typing
41 (MAT) for Bicyclist Accidents Coder's Handbook (Karsch et al. 2012; Hunter et al. 1995), when
42 the driver was making a right-turn and the bicyclist was riding in the same or opposite direction
43 of traffic. RH crashes at intersections can occur as the result of several scenarios of traffic
44 control and lane geometries at the intersection. This study examined the specific case of RH
45 crashes after the start-up period at a signalized intersection with no dedicated turning lane. In this
46 scenario (sometimes referred to as “stale” green) both conflicting vehicles (the bicyclist and the
47 car) are moving. A RH crash in this condition can occur when a bicyclist overtakes a slow-
48 moving vehicle on the right and the vehicle unexpectedly makes a right-turn, or when a fast-
49 moving vehicle overtakes the bicyclist and then tries to make a right-turn directly in front of the
50 bicyclist.

51 NHTSA reports that there were 840 fatal bicycle-related crashes in 2016, which
52 accounted for 2.2% of transportation-related fatalities. NHTSA reported that 71% of fatal bicycle
53 crashes occurred in urban areas in 2016, with 30% of them at intersections. The literature
54 identifies intersections as hot-spots for bicycle-motor vehicle-related crashes (Korve and
55 Niemeier 2002; Wachtel et al. 1994; Wang and Nihan 2004; Weigand 2008).

56 To safely accomplish the dynamic and multifaceted driving task, drivers need to perceive,
57 identify, and correctly interpret the elements of the current traffic situation including
58 immediately adjacent traffic, road signs, route direction, and other inputs, while being vigilant
59 for obstacles and making predictions of near future traffic conditions to maintain control,
60 guidance, and navigation of the vehicle (Baumann et al. 2007).

61 Improper allocation of visual attention has been recognized for some time as a causal
62 factor in vehicular crashes (Treat et al. 1979). A NHTSA study confirmed that 55.7% of
63 intersection-related crashes occurred due to drivers' recognition errors such as inattention,
64 internal and external distractions, or inadequate surveillance (NHTSA 2010). The most
65 frequently assigned critical reason was found to be inadequate surveillance, which constituted
66 44.1% of all intersection-related crashes. Inadequate surveillance occurs when the driver is in a
67 situation where they need to scan a certain location to safely complete a maneuver and they
68 either fail to look in the appropriate place or looks but does not see. This failure can occur at an
69 intersection when the driver looks in the required direction before making a turn but fails to see
70 the approaching traffic (Dingus et al. 2006); or when the driver fails to identify the visual cue on
71 time, since the visual cue is in an unexpected location or incompatible with the driver's schemes
72 (Borowsky et al. 2008).

73 Driver's visual attention was also found to be a factor in the case of motor-bicycle
74 crashes. One of the major contributing factors to this crash type is the improper allocation of
75 driver's visual attention while making turns at an intersection. Before making a right turn, drivers
76 focus their visual attention on the cars coming from the left and fail to detect the bicyclist
77 coming from their right early enough to respond safely, even when the bicyclist could be easily
78 detected (Summala et al. 1996; Wachtel et al. 1994). In the case of a bicyclist coming from an
79 unexpected direction, prior research found that even if drivers looked in the relevant direction
80 and noticed the bicyclist, often the identification was too late to effectively stop or yield
81 (Räsänen and Summala 1998).

82 It is worth noting that although the topic of right-turning vehicle crashes with bicycles
83 appears in the literature with some frequency (Summala 1988; Wachtel et al. 1994; Weigand
84 2008), comparably little substantive research has been conducted on this topic. Improper
85 allocation of drivers' visual attention and inadequate surveillance methods were demonstrated as
86 factors contributing to crashes between a driver turning right and a bicyclist from previous
87 studies. A safe right-turning maneuver requires that the driver will look and detect the bicyclist,
88 so their decision to make the right turn will be based on that information and corresponding
89 conditions at the intersection. It was the goal of this study to measure the driver's visual attention
90 in these cases to identify the scenarios that increase the risk of a RH crash. The study hypothesis
91 was that right-turning driver's visual attention would be influenced by the relative position of
92 bicyclists and other visual cues in the driving environment; thereby bicyclists' relative position
93 and speed would increase the crash risk. The primary failure mechanism would be drivers who
94 fail to detect the bicyclist when approaching from behind in the driver's blind spot as compared
95 to when the bicyclist is riding in front of the driver in her focal vision.

96 **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

97 **Participants**

98 A total of 67 individuals, primarily from the community surrounding Corvallis, OR, participated
99 in the driving simulator study. The responses recorded from 16 participants who exhibited
100 simulator sickness, were excluded from the original data set. As such, the results of 51
101 participants (30 males, 21 females) aged 19-69 (mean=30.24) were included in the analysis. All
102 participants had a valid driving license with at least one year driving experience and were
103 required to declare that they were still mentally and physically fit to drive at the time of the
104 experiment. Participants were given \$20 compensation in cash for participating in the
105 experiment.

106 **Apparatus**

107 *The driving simulator*

108 The Oregon State University (OSU) Driving Simulator is a high-fidelity, motion-based
109 simulator, consisting of a full 2009 Ford Fusion cab mounted above an electric pitch motion
110 system capable of rotating ± 4 degrees (see Fig. 1. Schematic description of a right-hook crash.

111

112 **Fig. 2).** The vehicle cab is mounted on the pitch motion system with the driver's located at the
113 center of the viewing volume. The pitch motion system allows for the accurate representation of
114 acceleration or deceleration (Oregon State University 2011). Three projectors with a resolution
115 of 1,400 by 1,050 are used to project a front view of 180 degrees by 40 degrees on three adjacent
116 screens, measure 3.4 meters by 2.3 meters each. A digital light-processing projector is used to
117 display a rear image for the driver's center mirror and the two side mirrors have embedded liquid
118 crystal displays (LCD). The simulator is equipped with a surround sound system that produces

119 ambient and driving sounds. The simulator software is capable of capturing and outputting
120 highly accurate values for performance measures such as speed, position, brake, and
121 acceleration. The virtual environment was developed using Simcreator simulator software
122 package by Realtime technologies (RTI), Internet Scene Assembler (ISA) and Google Sketchup.

123 *Eye-tracking*

124 Eye-tracking data were collected with the Mobile Eye-XG platform from Applied Science
125 Laboratories (ASL) as displayed in Fig. 3. This platform allows the user to have both
126 unconstrained eye and head movement. A sampling rate of 30 Hz was used, with an accuracy of
127 0.5-1.0 degrees (Oregon State University 2011). The participant's gaze was calculated based on
128 the correlation between the participant's pupil position and the reflection of three infrared lights
129 on the eyeball. The system records a fixation when the participant's eyes pause in a certain
130 position for more than 100 milliseconds.

131 *Eye-Fixation Data Reduction*

132 The eye fixation data analysis process was performed on 25 second video clips capturing each
133 participant's approach to an intersection preparing to and completing a right turn. Each video
134 clip started from the point when the participant approached the intersection and ended when the
135 participant completed the right-turn maneuver. The participant's eye movement data was
136 analyzed with ASL Results Plus software. For this process, researchers watched each collected
137 approach video (20 per participant) and drew AOI (area of interest) polygons on individual video
138 frames in a sequence separated by intervals of approximately 5-10 frames. Once the researcher
139 manually situated each AOI, the Results Plus software automatically identified the fixations
140 inside each AOI (i.e., traffic signals (overhead and post-mounted), pedestrians, bicyclists,
141 mirrors (rear and driver's right side), and oncoming left turning vehicles) (See Fig. 4). At the end

142 of the process a data set was exported from the Results Plus software that summarizes the
143 fixations data during a single 25-second intersection approach video for further statistical
144 analysis. The data included: the number of fixations, total fixation durations (secs), average
145 fixation durations (secs), and time of the first fixation within each AOI created during an
146 intersection approach and right-turn maneuver. Fixations outside of coded AOIs were universally
147 defined as OUTSIDE and were not analyzed further.

148 **Driving scenarios**

149 Twenty-one different right-turning road scenarios within seven different driving tracks were
150 constructed in a typical suburban-like virtual environment where shops and housing buildings are
151 placed along the sides of the road. In each, a cross section of the roadway included three 3.6
152 meters traffic lanes with 1.7 meters bicycle lanes in each direction was presented. In the driver's
153 direction of travel, the intersection approach was a single shared through and turning lane. In the
154 opposing direction, there were two lanes. No exclusive left-turn or right-turn bay was provided at
155 the intersection. The receiving roadway for the right turn had a single receiving lane. The
156 intersection approaches had a posted speed limit of 15.65 meter/second (m/s) (35 miles/hour
157 (mph)) (see Fig. 5). The scenarios introduced a combination of four independent variables
158 resulted in 20 right-turning scenarios that were presented to the participant. The scenarios
159 introduced a variation of on-coming traffic, crossing pedestrian, and traveling bicyclist's position
160 and speed (see study design). The movements of the other dynamic actors in the scene were
161 initiated with proximity sensors coded in the simulation in response to the position and speed of
162 the subject vehicle. The oncoming left-turning vehicles start their movement on the green light,
163 while the driver is waiting at the red light at the intersection. As the driver approached the
164 signalized intersection, the pedestrian entered the conflicting crosswalk to cross the road. The

165 movement of the bicycle ahead was synced with the movement of the vehicle, so, when the
166 driver was approaching the intersection the bicyclist ahead of him was also moving toward the
167 intersection. The bicyclists from behind condition was designed in a way that they were visible
168 in drivers' rear view or side mirror while the drivers were approaching the intersection. The
169 simulated environment was designed in a way that drivers could not see the bicyclists pulling
170 onto the bike lane from the adjacent lane behind them (though they would have passed other
171 bicyclists in the tangent sections so were aware bicycles were present in the simulation).

172 The design and sequencing of the 20 scenarios was influenced by a need to minimize the
173 occurrence of simulator sickness. Therefore, the experimental driving was divided into seven
174 individual driving tracks of intersections and each included 2-4 right-turning scenarios. Each
175 scenario was assigned a position on a grid based on the assignment of random number
176 generation. The order of presentation of driving tracks 1 to 6 was partly counterbalanced (i.e.
177 there were four possible sequences of presentation to the driving tracks) to minimize the practice
178 effect on driver performance and made it more difficult for participants to predict when the
179 simulation would stop. Each participant was randomly assigned to drive the tracks in one of
180 those orders. To provide more variability in the sequence of right turning scenario presentations,
181 the start and finish locations of these driving tracks were not consistent. Also, the scenarios were
182 interrupted by through movements at intersections that were not experimental scenarios to
183 prevent participants anticipating the motivation for the study and to reduce simulator sickness.
184 Participants were given the instruction to turn right at an intersection through an automated voice
185 command saying: "Turn Right at the Next Intersection", 100 meters upstream of the intersection.
186 This voice command was automatically generated on the vehicle approach to the intersection.
187 Fig. 6 shows an example driving track layout of three right-turning scenarios (e.g., tracks 1, 2

188 and 7). The “Path” in the figure indicates the sequence of maneuvers participants were asked to
189 perform.

190 **Experimental procedure**

191 Upon arrival, the participant was presented with an informed consent document that provided a
192 general description of the entire experiment and the opportunity to ask clarifying questions.
193 Participants were informed that they could stop the experiment at any time for any reason and
194 still receive full compensation. Participants were not told of the specific research objective or the
195 associated hypotheses. Participants completed a prescreening demographic survey, including
196 questions related to: age, gender, driving experience, highest level of education, use of corrective
197 glasses or contact lenses, as well as their prior experience with both driving simulators and
198 motion sickness.

199 At this stage, participants were required to perform a 3- to 5-minute practice drive to
200 acclimate to the operational characteristics of the driving simulator, and to confirm if they
201 experienced simulator sickness at any point during the practice drive. Once seated in the vehicle,
202 participants were allowed to adjust the seat, rear-view mirror, and steering wheel to maximize
203 comfort and performance while driving in the experiment. Participants were also instructed to
204 drive and follow all traffic laws as they normally would. The calibration drive was conducted in
205 a generic city environment, as previously described, and drivers were required to make several
206 right turns. If a participant reported simulation sickness during or after the calibration drive, their
207 experimental work was stopped, they were fully compensated, and any recorded data was
208 excluded from further analysis.

209 Before starting the experimental drive, participants were instrumented with a head-
210 mounted eye tracker and performed a short calibration process. After that, participants received a

211 brief instruction about the test environment and the tasks they were required to perform.
212 Participants were asked to perform right-turning maneuvers at signalized intersections. As noted
213 in the introduction, all participants approaching the intersection were presented a green signal
214 and were in motion. Participant's eye movements were collected while driving through 20
215 typical right-turning intersections in the simulated environment. As previously stated, the entire
216 experiment was divided into seven driving tracks that were presented in a random order and
217 random starting and ending points within each track. The virtual driving course took participants
218 20 to 30 minutes to complete. The entire experiment, including the consent process, eye tracker
219 calibration and post-drive questionnaire, lasted approximately 50 minutes.

220 **Study design**

221 To measure participant's visual attention during the course of the right-turn maneuver, the
222 average total (summed) fixation duration (ATFD) was documented for each predefined dynamic
223 area of interest (AOI) in each scenario. Fig. 7 shows examples of different AOIs that drivers
224 fixated on during the experiment.

225 Analysis of fixations was conducted to investigate the percentage of drivers who fixated
226 on the bicyclist before turning right at the intersection. The determination of the fixation on a
227 bicyclist was limited to when a driver fixated directly on the bicyclist AOI. For example, a driver
228 who fixated on the rear view or side mirror, but did not fixate directly on the bicyclist coming
229 from behind and then turned-right without yielding to the bicyclist - these cases indicated that
230 driver failed to detect the bicyclist and were coded as "not fixated" in the analysis.

231 *Independent variables*

232 The relative position and speed of bicyclist, presence of oncoming left-turning vehicular traffic,
233 and conflicting pedestrian in the crosswalk may influence drivers' visual attention while turning
234 right. Therefore, all these factors were included as independent variables.

235 The first independent variable "relative position of bicyclist" had three levels – 1) no
236 bicyclist, 2) bicyclist approaching from behind the driver, and 3) bicyclist riding ahead of the
237 driver. The second independent variable, bicyclist's speed had two levels – 1) lower (5.36 m/s
238 (12 mph)), and 2) high (7.15 m/s (16 mph)). The third independent variable was the "presence of
239 oncoming left-turning vehicular traffic", which had two levels – 1) no oncoming (zero) vehicles
240 and 2) three oncoming vehicles. The last independent variable was the "presence of a conflicting
241 pedestrian in the crosswalk, which also had two levels – 1) no (zero) pedestrian and 2) one
242 conflicting pedestrian walking towards the participant.

243 *Research Hypotheses*

244 One of the common features of BMV crashes at intersections includes drivers' learned routine of
245 failing to account for an adjacent bicyclist before turning (Räsänen & Summala, 1998). It was
246 hypothesized that right-turning driver's visual search would be influenced by the relative
247 position of bicyclists. It was inferred that the driver would fail to detect the bicyclist when
248 approaching from behind in the driver's blind spot as compared to when the bicyclist is riding in
249 front of the driver in his/her/their focal vision. Two hypotheses were formulated to address this:

250 $H_{0(VSP1)}$: Relative positions of adjacent bicyclists' have no effect on the right-turning drivers'
251 mean total fixation duration on areas of interest in the driving environment.

252 $H_{0(VSP2)}$: There is no difference in the proportion of drivers who fixate on an adjacent bicyclist
253 during the right-turn maneuver at signalized intersections as the relative position of the bicyclist
254 changes.

255 It has also been suggested that before turning right, drivers tend to focus their attention on the
256 cars coming from the left and fail to notice bicycles coming from their right early enough to
257 respond safely (Summala, Pasanen, Räsänen, & Sievänen, 1996). Therefore, it was hypothesized
258 that driver's visual attention will be influenced when an oncoming car turns left in front of the
259 driver. Also, a study on bike boxes in Portland, Oregon suggested that the speed of bicyclists
260 overtaking the right-turning vehicle was a contributing factor to the occurrence RH crash (Dill,
261 Monsere, & McNeil, 2012). It was inferred that bicyclist's speed would have an effect on the
262 visual attention of drivers while turning right during the latter portion of the green phase. Again,
263 the Institute of Transportation Engineers (ITE) Transportation Planning Handbook states that one
264 of the most common pedestrian crashes is the vehicle turn/merge conflict type (Meyer, 2009).
265 This conflict type occurs when a pedestrian and vehicle collide while the vehicle is conducting,
266 preparing, or has just completed a turning movement (Hurwitz & Monsere, 2013). Considering
267 this finding, it was also hypothesized that the presence of a pedestrian in the conflicting
268 crosswalk might influence the visual attention of a right-turning driver.

269 $H_{0(VSP3)}$: The speed of adjacent bicyclists have no effect on right-turning drivers' mean total
270 fixation duration on areas of interest in the driving environment.

271 $H_{0(VSP4)}$: The presence of oncoming left-turning vehicular traffic has no effect on the right-
272 turning drivers' mean total fixation duration on areas of interest in the driving environment.

273 $H_{0(VSP5)}$: The presence of pedestrian in the conflicting crosswalk have no effect on the right-
274 turning drivers' mean total fixation duration on areas of interest in the driving environment.

275 **Data Analysis**

276 Fifty-one participants successfully completed the driving simulator experiment. However, due to
277 eye-tracker calibration issues, completely usable data was only collected from 41 participants
278 representing a total of 820 (41*20) observable right-turn maneuvers with visual attention data.

279 To test the five hypotheses stated above, for each of the four independent variables
280 (bicyclist's position, bicyclist's speed, oncoming vehicle presence, and pedestrian's presence) an
281 analysis of variance test (ANOVA) was conducted to statistically determine if there was any
282 difference in the ATFDs. However, when the variances were not equal (determined by Levene's
283 test) indicating the violation of the assumption of homogeneity of variance, the Welch's Robust
284 test or Omnibus F were used to interpret the F-statistic. Finally, pairwise comparisons were
285 calculated with Tukey's Honest Significant Difference (HSD) test.

286

287 **RESULTS**

288 Forty-one participants (in total of 820 observable right-turn maneuvers with visual
289 attention data). To detect crashes, the driving task in the simulated environment was observed
290 continuously from the simulator's operator station and records were taken at the moment a crash
291 occurred. Drivers were also asked at the end of the experiment if they were involved in any
292 crashes during the experiment. The recorded crash data was further validated by checking the
293 locations of the subject vehicle and bicycle centroid, recorded as a dynamic variable data in the
294 driving simulator. In most cases, drivers could not notice when a crash occurred due to their
295 inadequate surveillance behavior and overloaded working memory during turning maneuver. A
296 Chi-square test was conducted for each of the independent variables to reveal significant
297 differences in the risk of a crash.

298 Fig. 8 shows the ATFD values and 95% CIs for four AOIs at an intersection scenario
299 where the driver was presented with no pedestrians, no oncoming vehicles, and no bicyclists.

300 This particular intersection is the most basic of all intersections shown to the participants. This
301 scenario presented the simplest driving scenario to the driver.

302 Fig. 9 shows the ATFDs from all participants at an intersection where the bicyclist was
303 approaching from behind the driver at 7.15 m/s, oncoming vehicles were present, and a
304 pedestrian was present in the conflicting crosswalk. This case includes the greatest number of
305 experimental variables, and is one of the most visually complex scenario.

306 **Bicyclist's relative position**

307 Three possible conditions existed for the bicyclist's position, the bicyclist was either riding ahead
308 of the driver, approaching from behind the driver, or there was no bicyclist. The first two
309 conditions were included in eight experimental scenarios each and the third level (no bicyclist)
310 resulted in four experimental scenarios. The dataset was aggregated this way to isolate the
311 impact of individual variable levels. Fig. 10 shows boxplots of ATFDs on each AOI for the
312 bicyclist conditions. The boxplots display the distribution of ATFD in quartiles and indicate the
313 mean and median of those distributions. The results of the ANOVA and pairwise comparisons
314 presented in Table 1 shows that ATFDs on the bicyclist, pedestrian, right-side mirror, and
315 oncoming vehicles had statistically significant differences. A two-sided Welch's two sample t-
316 test indicated a statistically significant difference in ATFDs on bicyclists with respect to
317 bicyclists' position. Drivers spent more time fixating on bicyclists when they were riding ahead
318 as compared to when bicyclists were approaching from behind. The ATFD for the pedestrian
319 AOIs was different when the bicyclist was riding in front vs when the bicyclist was approaching
320 from behind with statistical significance. This finding revealed that in the presence of a bicyclist
321 in the forward field of view, drivers spent less time fixating on the pedestrian compared to when
322 the bicyclist was approaching from the behind. Similar findings were observed in the case of the

323 oncoming vehicle AOI. However, a statistically significant difference in the ATFDs on the right-
324 side mirror and corresponding pairwise comparison showed that drivers spent more time fixation
325 on the right-side mirror when a bicyclist was approaching from behind compared to when there
326 was no bicyclist present at the intersection. No other significant differences were found with
327 95% confidence.

328 Thirteen crashes occurred when the bicyclist approached from behind and in the
329 remaining two crash incidents the bicyclist was riding ahead of the driver. A Chi-square test
330 revealed a statistically significant difference between these two bicyclist positions ($p < 0.01$) with
331 respect to the occurrence of a crash.

332 **Detecting the bicyclist**

333 As summarized in Table 2 there were 328 (41 participants*8 turns) right-turns scenarios for each
334 bicyclist position. When the bicyclist was riding ahead of the driver in the forward field of view,
335 in 87% of the cases the drivers fixated on the bicyclist, i.e. actively scanned for the bicyclist
336 before turning right. However, when a bicyclist was approaching from behind, in only 44% of
337 the scenarios did a driver fixate on the bicyclist before turning right. A Chi-square test revealed a
338 statistically significant difference ($p\text{-value} < 0.001$) between the frequencies of driver fixation on
339 the bicyclist with different bicyclist positions.

340 **Speed of Approaching Bicyclist**

341 A comparison of ATFDs with respect to the bicyclist's speed was also conducted. Bicyclists
342 traveled at either 7.15 m/s or 5.36 m/s. These two conditions consisted of eight experimental
343 scenarios each. The boxplot of ATFDs on AOIs by bicyclists speed is presented in Fig. 11.

344 Table 3 presents the results of two-sample, two-sided t-tests that were conducted to
345 determine the difference in the ATFDs with respect to bicyclist's speed. A statistically

346 significant difference was found only in the ATFDs on the rear-view mirror with changes in the
347 bicyclist's speed. When bicyclist's speed was lower (5.36 m/s), drivers spent more time scanning
348 the rear-view mirror compared to higher (7.15 m/s) speed scenarios. This was likely because the
349 bicyclist required more time to travel the same distance before reaching the intersection in the
350 lower speed condition compared to the higher speed condition, while the driver yielded for the
351 bicyclist to pass.

352 In 12 out of the 15 crashes occurred when the bicyclist approached at 7.15 m/s speed and
353 in the remaining three crashes had bicyclists approaching at 5.36 m/s speed. A Chi-square test
354 revealed a statistically significant difference between bicyclist speeds (p -value <0.05).

355 **Presence of oncoming left turning vehicle**

356 There were two levels of oncoming left turn vehicular traffic in the experiment (No vehicles and
357 3 vehicles). These two conditions consisted of 10 experimental scenarios each. Fig. 12 shows the
358 boxplot of ATFDs on AOIs by the presence of oncoming left turn vehicular traffic. Table 4
359 presents the results of two-sample, two-sided t-tests that were conducted to determine the
360 difference in the ATFDs with respect to presence of oncoming vehicle. Statistically significant
361 differences indicated that drivers spent less time fixating on pedestrians, bicyclists riding ahead
362 of the driver, and the side signal when there were oncoming left-turn vehicles as compared
363 to when there was no oncoming left-turn vehicle present.

364 Eight crashes occurred when oncoming left-turning vehicles were present, and seven
365 crashes occurred when no oncoming vehicle was present. No statistically significant difference
366 was found for the presence of oncoming vehicles with respect to crash outcome.

367 **Presence of pedestrian**

368 Ten experimental scenarios presented a single pedestrian in the crosswalk and ten experimental
369 scenarios had no pedestrian present on the crosswalk. Fig. 13 shows the boxplot of ATFDs on
370 AOIs by the presence of a conflicting pedestrian.

371 From the result of two-sample, two-sided Students or Welch's t-tests, the only statistical
372 significant different in ATFD was found in the bicyclist behind AOI with the presence of a
373 pedestrian (Table 5). Results indicated that drivers spent more time fixating on the bicyclist
374 approaching from behind when a conflicting pedestrian was present in the crosswalk as
375 compared to when no pedestrian present. No statistically significant difference was found for the
376 presence of pedestrian with respect to crash outcomes.

377 **DISCUSSION**

378 This study investigated driver's visual attention and the risk of crash in a simulated virtual
379 environment while performing a right turn at a signalized intersection when a bicyclist is present
380 and in different circumstances (i.e. a pedestrian in the conflicting crosswalk and oncoming left
381 turn vehicles) that might affect the driver's visual attention. The aim of this study was to identify
382 scenarios in the driver's visual search that increase the risk of a RH crash with the bicyclist. The
383 ATFD within a prescribed AOI was used to measure driver's visual attention on different targets.
384 Findings related to each research question on driver's visual attention are summarized below.

385 Aligned with the study hypothesis, a statistically significant difference (p -value < 0.001)
386 was found in the ATFDs on adjacent bicyclist between when a bicyclist was approaching from
387 behind and when a bicyclist was riding ahead of the driver. This circumstance also increases the
388 crash risk. This finding is consistent with the finding of Falzetta (Falzetta, M. (2004). A
389 Comparison of driving performance for individuals with and without Attention-Deficit-
390 Hyperactivity Disorder. Unpublished Masters Thesis, Clemson University, Psychology

391 Department, Clemson, SC.), where it was found that participants detected forward events more
392 successfully than rear events, and the location effect was consistent with an attention allocation
393 strategy that gave higher priority to the road ahead. A statistically significant difference (p-value
394 < 0.001) was observed between the frequencies of driver fixations on the bicyclist when the
395 bicyclist was approaching from behind (44%) vs. when bicyclist was riding ahead (87%). Such
396 scanning behavior places bicyclists approaching from behind in a more vulnerable situation
397 where they are not detected by a driver at an intersection, contributing to the occurrence of RH
398 crashes.

399 Statistically significant differences were also observed in the visual attention allocated to
400 conflicting pedestrians and oncoming left turn vehicles with respect to bicyclist's position. This
401 finding might suggest that when a bicyclist was riding ahead in the driver's visual field, drivers
402 anticipated a potential risk of collision with them more so than when they were approaching
403 from behind. However, when the bicyclist was approaching from behind, drivers spent more time
404 fixating on other traffic elements immediately relevant to the safe operation of the vehicle.
405 Another statistically significant finding was observed in the ATFDs on the right-side mirror
406 when the bicyclist was approaching from the behind compared to when there was no bicyclist.
407 This suggests that when drivers detected a bicyclist approaching from behind in the right-side
408 mirror, they spent more time fixating on the right-side mirror while waiting for the bicyclist to
409 pass through the intersection compared to when there was no bicyclist present. Bicyclist's speed
410 when approaching from behind had a statistically significant effect only on the visual attention
411 allocated to the rear-view mirror. A bicyclist that was detected in the rear-view mirror would
412 require more time to travel the same distance before reaching the intersection at the lower speed.

413 Therefore, it can be assumed that the total fixation duration on checking the rear-view mirror in
414 search of the bicyclist was higher when the bicyclist traveled at a lower speed.

415 Oncoming left-turning traffic had a meaningful effect on the driver's visual attention
416 spread, demonstrated in the ATFDs on the side traffic signal, crossing pedestrian, and a bicyclist
417 riding ahead. Results suggest that in the presence of oncoming traffic, drivers spent less time
418 checking on other traffic elements in their focal vision, such as scanning for the pedestrian,
419 checking for the traffic signal status, or fixating on the bicyclist ahead. In the presence of
420 oncoming vehicular traffic, drivers spent a significant part of their time fixating on the oncoming
421 traffic, to the expense of the other traffic elements. The preferential visual attention oncoming
422 traffic gets from the driver over other road users and elements was observed in other
423 circumstances. In previous laboratory experiment it was observed that drivers' visual attention
424 was drawn to the oncoming traffic on the expense of pedestrians (Hurwitz & Monsere, 2013),
425 and left turning drivers at signalized intersections were less likely to seek out for additional cues
426 from the road environment in the presence of opposing traffic (Knodler and Noyce 2005). In the
427 analysis of bicycle-car collisions at non-signalized intersections in the Helsinki City area,
428 Finland, by assessing the visual scanning behavior of drivers, researchers had found that drivers
429 develop a visual scanning strategy which concentrates on detection of more frequent and major
430 dangers, such as conflicting vehicles but ignores and may even mask visual information on less
431 frequent dangers, such as bicyclists (Summala et al. 1996). The driver possesses only a limited
432 capacity for visual attention, and so in accordance with the results from the current and previous
433 studies (Hurwitz S and Monsere 2013; Knodler and Noyce 2005; Summala et al. 1996) the
434 presence of oncoming vehicles perceived by the driver as posing more of a collision risk as

435 compared to other objects in the road environment (like the bicyclists), and as a result of that the
436 driver consistently spends more time fixating on the oncoming vehicles.

437 The presence of pedestrians also affected the driver's visual attention to the bicyclist
438 approaching behind him, yet not the risk of a crash. Results were suggestive that when drivers
439 were waiting for the conflicting pedestrian to pass through the intersection, they spent more time
440 on fixating on the bicyclists approaching from behind compared to when there was no
441 pedestrian, but not on the bicyclist that ride ahead from the driver. This was likely because while
442 drivers were waiting for the pedestrian to pass through the intersection, they had more time to
443 fixate on the bicyclist approaching from behind compared to when there was no crossing
444 pedestrian.

445 Overall, this research provides valuable insights on the causal factors of RH crashes after
446 the start-up period at a signalized intersection with no dedicated turning lane. These findings can
447 help roadway engineers and planners while designing roadway sections and locations where
448 bicycles are likely to be routinely overtaking motor vehicles on the right, especially at higher
449 speeds. This can occur either in congested vehicle traffic or when bicycles have the advantage of
450 a downgrade, as found in earlier studies. Findings from this study emphasizes the need for other
451 design considerations to reduce RH crashes, for example additional pavement markings or signs
452 may increase driver awareness. Other designs, such bending out the bicycle lane at the
453 intersection or separating the bicycle movement with a separate signal phase may be feasible
454 options. In bicycle-lane markings or minor speed humps may be effective at slowing bicycle
455 speeds if other solutions are not feasible. To some degree, interactions at closely spaced
456 signalized intersections in urban areas can be managed with careful thought of the bicycle and
457 vehicle progression in platoons from upstream signals. This could be accomplished with a

458 leading bicycle interval at the upstream signal that allows the majority of the bicycle platoon to
459 arrive ahead of vehicles (Kothuri et al. 2018).

460 **CONCLUSIONS**

461 The results indicate that bicyclist approaching from behind the driver in the blind spot is the most
462 vulnerable situation for a right-turning driver to fail to detect the bicyclist, potentially leading to
463 a RH crash. The presence of oncoming left-turning traffic and pedestrian at the crosswalk are
464 likely to increase the risk of RH crash, as they draw the driver's visual attention away from other
465 objects (e.g. the bicyclist). Results also indicate that higher speed bicyclists are likely to
466 contribute to the risk of RH crash.

467 As with any driving simulator experiment, while the various driver performance metrics
468 are measured robustly, it is not yet clear how to map the magnitudes of the differences to
469 expected crash outcomes. More work is needed to connect visual attention metrics and crash
470 outcomes. Additional variables could be included in the experiment to determine their effects on
471 the occurrence of right-hook crashes, for example the conspicuity of bicyclist, and time of day.
472 The assumption of constant speed of the approaching bicyclist is also limiting; in reality some
473 people on bicycles would slow down to avoid a collision or near collision. A study that included
474 dynamic bicycle approach speeds would be an improvement. Finally, one of the fundamental
475 limitations of within-subject design is fatigue effects that can cause participant's performance to
476 decline over time during the experiment. To mitigate this a larger sample of shorter drives might
477 reduce the risk of fatigue effect and simulator sickness, the experiment could be conducted in
478 two trials on two different days. Finally, the design of the experiment could be modified with
479 navigation tasks or other workloads enhancements so that the driver workload is more
480 representative of actual conditions.

481 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

482 Some or all data, models, and code generated or used during the study are proprietary or
483 confidential in nature and may only be provided with restrictions (e.g. anonymized data).
484 Specifically, driver’s visual attention data (number of fixations and durations) for each scenario
485 aggregated by area of interest is available.

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493

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552 **Table 1.** ANOVA analysis of difference in ATFDs by bicyclist position.

Area of Interest	Relative position of bicyclist			ANOVA	Tukey's HSD for pairwise comparisons of means w.r.t bicyclist positions								
	Ahead	Behind	None	All	Ahead vs Behind			Ahead vs None		Behind vs None			
	ATFD			p-value	p-value	Sig	Diff	p-value	Sig	Diff	P-value	Sig	Diff
Bicyclist	1.40	0.25	N/A	N/A	<0.001 +	Yes	1.15		N/A				N/A
Pedestrian	3.28	4.02	3.85	0.03 *	0.039	Yes	-0.74	0.28	No	-0.57	0.89	No	0.17
Signal (overhead)	0.13	0.16	0.18	0.16 *	0.4	No	-0.03	0.17	No	-0.06	0.74	No	-0.02
Signal (side)	0.14	0.13	0.14	0.83	0.82	No	0.014	0.99	No	0	0.95	No	-0.01
Rear view mirror	0.43	0.40	0.43	0.82	0.83	No	0.03	0.99	No	0	0.9	No	-0.03
Side mirror	0.39	0.45	0.29	0.03 *	0.53	No	-0.06	0.302	No	0.1	0.049	<u>Yes</u>	0.16
Oncoming veh	1.42	2.01	1.48	0.002 *	0.002	Yes	-0.59	0.95	No	-0.06	0.53	No	-0.03

553 + No multiple comparisons required. P-value reflects a two-sided Welch's two sample t-test.

554 * P-value reflects a Welch F test.

555

556 **Table 2.** Detecting of a bicyclist.

Frequency of fixation	Bicyclist position ⁵⁵⁷	
	<i>Ahead</i>	<i>Behind</i>
Total (n)	328	328 ⁵⁵⁸
Fixated	284	145
%	87%	44%

559 **Table 3.** Two-sample *t*-test of ATFDs by bicyclist speed.

Areas of Interest	Speed of Bicyclist		Two sample two tail <i>t</i> -test	
	7.15 m/s	5.36 m/s	7.15 m/s vs 5.36 m/s	
	ATFD (sec)		p-value	Significant
Pedestrian	3.61	3.68	0.83	No
Bicyclist ahead	1.43	1.38	0.78	No
Bicyclist behind	0.20	0.30	0.98	No
Signal (overhead)	0.14	0.14	1.00	No
Signal (side)	0.14	0.13	0.91	No
Rear view mirror	0.36	0.47	0.03 +	Yes
Side view mirror	0.39	0.46	0.23 +	No
Oncoming veh	1.89	1.54	0.06	No/Suggestive

+ P-value reflects a two-sided Welch's two sample *t*-test

560

561 **Table 4.** Two-sample *t*-test of ATFDs comparing AOIs by oncoming left turn vehicles condition.

Areas of Interest	Oncoming Vehicle		Two sample two tail <i>t</i> -test	
	3 Veh	No Veh	3 Veh vs No Veh	
	ATFD (sec)		p-value	Significant
Pedestrian	3.11	4.26	<0.001 +	Yes
Bicyclist ahead	1.20	1.61	0.01 +	Yes
Bicyclist behind	0.21	0.29	0.09 +	No
Signal (overhead)	0.16	0.14	0.57	No
Signal (Side)	0.11	0.16	0.02 +	Yes
Rear view mirror	0.38	0.46	0.11 +	No
Side view mirror	0.39	0.40	0.87	No
Oncoming veh	1.67	N/A	N/A	N/A

+ P-value reflects a two-sided Welch's two sample *t*-test

562

563

Table 5. Two-sample t-test of ATFDs comparing AOIs by Conflicting Pedestrian.

Areas of Interest	Pedestrian		Two sample two tail <i>t</i> -test	
	Ped	No Ped	<i>Ped vs No Ped</i>	
	ATFD (sec)		p-value	Significant
Pedestrian	3.69	N/A	N/A	N/A
Bicyclist Ahead	1.39	1.42	0.88	No
Bicyclist Behind	0.38	0.12	<0.001 +	Yes
Signal_Overhead	0.14	0.16	0.35	No
Signal_Side	0.17	0.10	0.72	No
RV_Mirror	0.47	0.38	0.06 +	Suggestive
Side_Mirror	0.40	0.39	0.76	No
Oncoming veh	1.67	1.66	0.99	No

565 + P-value reflects a two-sided Welch's two sample *t*-test

566 **Captions and Notes for Figures**

567 **Fig. 1.** Schematic description of a right-hook crash.

568

569 **Fig. 2.** The OSU Driving Simulator from inside (a) and outside (b) the vehicle.

570

571 **Fig. 3.** OSU researcher demonstrating the Mobile Eye XG recording unit (image by David S.

572 Hurwitz).

573

574 **Fig. 4.** The ASL Results Plus software. In this frame the driver was fixating on a bicyclist before

575 turning right. This figure also includes heat maps (shaded circular patterns) for the conflicting

576 pedestrian AOI crossing the intersection and the side traffic signal AOI with green indication in

577 driver's field of view.

578

579 **Fig. 5.** Screen capture of intersection approach in the simulated environment, this scenario

580 includes the presence of oncoming left-turning vehicles waiting in the queue, and a bicyclist

581 riding ahead of the right-turning driver at the latter portion of green phase.

582

583 **Fig. 6.** Example driving track layout for tracks 1, 2 and 7 with three right-turning scenarios –

584 path Start-Thru-Right-Thru-Right-Thru-Right-Finish.

585

586 **Fig. 7.** Examples of Different AOIs Drivers Fixated On During the Experiment

587

588 **Fig. 8.** ATFDs with 95% CIs for Control Case (No Bicyclists, No Vehicles, No Pedestrians)

589

590 **Fig. 9.** ATFD with 95% CIs for One of the Most Visually Complex Scenario (Bicyclist
591 Approaching From Behind at 7.15 m/s, Three Vehicles, One Conflicting Pedestrian)

592

593 **Fig. 10.** Box plot of ATFDs at all intersections by bicyclist position.

594

595 **Fig. 11.** Box plot of ATFDs at all intersections, according to bicyclist's speed.

596

597 **Fig. 12.** Box plot of ATFDs at all intersections, according to the presence of oncoming left turn
598 vehicle.

599

600 **Fig. 13.** Box Plot of ATFDs at all Intersections by the Presence of Pedestrians.