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

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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  $\pm 4$  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 <sup>557</sup>	
	<i>Ahead</i>	<i>Behind</i>
Total (n)	328	328 <sup>558</sup>
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.