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4 **MOBILE PHONE USE DURING DRIVING: EFFECTS ON SPEED**
5 **REDUCTION AND EFFECTIVENESS OF COMPENSATORY**
6 **BEHAVIOUR**
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47 **ABSTRACT**

48 This study analysed and modelled the effects of conversation and texting (each with
49 two difficulty levels) on driving performance of Indian drivers in terms of their mean speed
50 and accident avoiding abilities; and further explored the relationship between the speed
51 reduction strategy of the drivers and their corresponding accident frequency. 100 drivers of
52 three different age groups (young, mid-age and old-age) participated in the simulator study.
53 Two sudden events of Indian context: unexpected crossing of pedestrians and joining of
54 parked vehicles from road side were simulated for estimating the accident probabilities. A
55 multiple linear regression model for mean speed and a binary logistic regression model for
56 accident probability were developed. Results of the models showed that in the presence of
57 conversation and texting, drivers significantly compensated the increased workload by
58 reducing their mean speed by 2.62 m/s and 5.29 m/s respectively. Logistic models for
59 accident probabilities showed that the accident probabilities increased by 3 times and 4 times
60 respectively when the drivers were conversing or texting on a phone during driving. Further,
61 the relationship between the speed reduction patterns and their corresponding accident
62 probabilities showed that all drivers compensate differently; but, among all the drivers, only
63 few drivers, who compensated by reducing the speed by 30% or more, were able to fully
64 offset the increased accident risk associated with phone use.

65 **Keywords:** *Distraction, Conversation, Texting, speed, accident probabilities,*
66 *compensatory behaviour.*

67 **INTRODUCTION**

68 Driver distraction is defined as a situation when an explicit activity competes for
69 driver's attention; and it has been identified as one of the major contributed factors to the
70 accidents (1). The main sources of driver distraction inside the vehicle are: mobile phone use
71 (for conversing and texting), conversing with passengers, eating, operating in-vehicle digital
72 devices (e.g., radio, CD-player etc.) while driving. Among all these distraction sources,
73 mobile phone use is quite prevailing (2). In a cross-sectional study conducted at 11
74 intersections in Alabama (US), it is shown that phone conversation during driving was the
75 cause for 31.4% of the distracted driving (3). Similarly, it is reported that 14.1% and 3.4% of
76 the drivers use mobile phone during driving in Spain and the United Kingdom respectively
77 (4, 5). This increased prevalence of phone use during driving has caused considerable number
78 of accidents. For instance NHTSA reported that mobile phone use during driving caused 12%
79 of fatal crashes and 6% of injury crashes of all distraction affected crashes in United States in
80 2014.

81 As the driver's attentional resources are limited, if a driver attempts to perform any
82 secondary task, then the reallocation of the attentional sources may lead to deteriorated
83 driving performance; this is measured in terms of mean speed (6), reaction time (7), situation
84 awareness (8) and lateral control (9) etc. But, research suggests that all these changes in
85 performance may not be truly impairment; in fact these are the outcomes of driver's
86 conscious or unconscious compensatory behaviours adopted for reducing the increased
87 workload (10, 11). Mainly observed compensatory behaviours are: reduction in speed (10),
88 change in the relative attention given to the driving task (11) and maintaining larger
89 headways from the front vehicles (12). Among all these compensatory measures, driver's
90 behaviour alteration is generally seen in driver's mean speed selection during distracted
91 driving conditions (6). The speed of a driver is considered as one of the most important
92 factors which influence the accident occurring probability as well as severity. Therefore, any

93 alteration in the speeding behaviour during distracted driving also affects the accident risk
94 involved in driving.

95 Though distraction effects of phone use on mean speed and situation awareness are
96 investigated by various researchers in the last two decades (7, 13), very few studies have
97 focused on both conversation and texting tasks. Moreover effect of complexity levels of
98 phone use is also not being studied well. Therefore, the present study investigates and
99 statistically models the impact of distraction due to both conversation and texting (each with
100 two difficulty levels) on mean speed and accident involvement probability. All the factors
101 such as: demographic characteristics, driving characteristics and distraction conditions, which
102 can affect the driver behaviour are considered in the present study for analysing the
103 performance of drivers. Further, the study aims to analyse how the changes in speed choices
104 of drivers affects the risk of being involved in an accident for a sudden event while being
105 distracted.

106 **STATE-OF-THE-ART LITERATURE REVIEW**

107 Mobile phone use during driving is an ongoing safety problem; and vast literature is
108 available on distraction effects of mobile phone use during driving. Before actually starting
109 the experiment for present study, various literatures have been studied for in-depth
110 understanding of mobile phone distraction effects on driving performance. As, the present
111 study concentrated on mean speed and accident risk associated with phone use, therefore the
112 following subsections of the paper summarize the literature reviewed on distraction effects of
113 mobile phone use on mean speed and accident probability. Then, the identified research gaps
114 are mentioned in the next subsection.

115 **Effect of Mobile Phone Use on Mean Speed**

116 Drivers generally try to compensate additional workload due to any driver distractions
117 (e.g., sending a text message while driving) by reducing their speed (9, 13). In large number
118 of the studies, speed reduction is a commonly documented trend when drivers use mobile
119 phones during driving (10, 14, 15). There exist various factors which can affect driver's mean
120 speed behaviour in distracted and non-distracted driving conditions. Type of the distraction
121 (visual or cognitive) is the most influencing factor for the compensatory behaviour (i.e.,
122 speed reduction). The compensatory behaviour of reducing the speed is observed in both:
123 conversation (15, 16, 17, 18) and texting (8,19), because in texting task the visual scanning of
124 the roadway gets reduced (9, 20) hence texting results in higher workload therefore larger
125 speed reductions are observed for texting while driving conditions (10, 13 19). Some of the
126 studies also accounted for the effect of age on speed of the driver (21, 22). The overall results
127 of these studies show that in distracted driving conditions older drivers tend to drive slower
128 compared to younger drivers. Additionally, it is shown that female drivers drive slowly when
129 compared to male drivers (6, 15) in distracted driving conditions. The other widely studied
130 factor which affects the mean speed of the driver is the phone use modality: hands free and
131 hand held, and it has been proven in some of the studies that even the detrimental effects of
132 phone use on lane deviation and situation awareness are equal for both the phone modes; but
133 the effects on speed is more significant for hand-held phones (18, 23). Complexity of road
134 environment also affects the speed of the drivers. It is observed that as the complexity of the
135 road environment increases, the compensation for increased workload also increases i.e. more
136 speed reduction is observed in complex road scenarios such as: urban area (8, 18), windy
137 road (17) etc. Further, the interaction effects of these complex scenarios with conversation
138 and texting tasks result in larger amount of speed reduction (17, 18). From above mentioned
139 review of existing literature, it is understood that drivers compensate distractions by reducing
140 their speed for the perceived increased workload in order to maintain the adequate safety

141 levels. But, still it is unclear that whether this speed reduction strategy is actually helping in
142 maintaining the same level of accident risk as present in non-distracted driving.

143 **Effects of Mobile Phone Use on Accident Probabilities**

144 A naturalistic study by (24) and a simulator study by (8) compared the accident
145 frequencies in distracted and non-distracted driving and found that if the driver's visual
146 attention is shifted away from driving due to phone use, then the accident probabilities
147 increases to 2 times and 8.3 times respectively in comparison to non-distracted driving. The
148 accident risk associated with phone use is assessed in terms of surrogate measures, for
149 example, (25) investigated the risk of a safety critical event (SCE) caused by phone use
150 during driving and the results showed significant increment in SCE associated with phone use
151 during driving. One of the possible reasons behind the increased crash rates is that, the
152 drivers are less likely to initiate the deceleration process as they approach hazardous
153 situations when they are conversing over the phone (14). A review study concluded that the
154 reduction in speed is the subconscious outcome of managing the supplementary load
155 produced by phone use but still impairing situation awareness abilities (12).

156 **Research Gap**

157 Overall, the studies have documented the observed speed reduction during distracted
158 driving as a compensating behaviour for the increased workload. It has also been recorded
159 that the speed reduction strategies are not helping in reducing the increased accident risk
160 associated with phone use (10, 12). If the drivers were assumed to drive at the same speed
161 during phone use as in non-distracted driving, their driving performance might become even
162 worse. Hence it can be assumed that the compensation strategy adopted by the driver might
163 be helping in reducing the increased accident risk to an extent. But surprisingly, very little
164 research has been conducted to specifically address the issue of quantifying the effects of
165 speed reduction strategies on the accident risk associated with phone use. Moreover, the
166 effect of complexity levels of the secondary tasks on driver's mean speed is still not very well
167 understood. Though in case of other distractions such as S-IVIS (Surrogate In Vehicle
168 Information Systems), the difficulty level of secondary task has been studied (9, 26) but in
169 case of phone use, very few studies have examined the effect of difficulty levels of phone use
170 task (conversation and texting) on drivers' speed and situation awareness (27,28). The other
171 important factor which is not very well studied is that how the phone-use habits of the driver
172 affects the speed behaviour and situation awareness abilities of the drivers. Moreover, most
173 of the studies have performed ANOVA test (14, 15, 16,) for finding out the significance of
174 distraction, but very few studies have actually modelled the distraction effects statistically(8).

175 Most of the research on effects of mobile phone distraction has been conducted in
176 developed countries. An online survey of 527 drivers in India revealed that 82% of the
177 drivers use mobile phone during driving and 31% of these phone users met with accidents
178 (29). Despite this huge prevalence, not much research has been devoted to distraction studies
179 in developing countries, where the traffic and driver behaviour are different from developed
180 countries.

181 Within these contexts, the present study examines the impact of conversation and
182 texting on the speed of drivers and their situation awareness abilities for responding to the
183 sudden hazardous events. To overcome the above mentioned research limitations, some
184 specific aspects are included in the present study:

- 185 1) The hazardous events designed in the simulator for testing the situation awareness of
186 the drivers, are true representative of real world events during driving in Indian
187 context.
- 188 2) Both conversation and texting effects are examined for two levels of difficulty.

- 189 3) Statistical models (linear regression for mean speed and binary logistic model for
190 accident probability) are developed to test the driving performance.
191 4) All the factors: demographic characteristics, driving history, phone use habits and
192 different distraction conditions are being considered for analysing the driving
193 performance.
194 5) More specifically, this study attempts to quantify the extent up to which the speed
195 reduction strategies are able to offset the increased accident risk associated with
196 phone use.

197 **METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION**

198 The data reported in this study are collected through a driving simulator approach.
199 Scenarios replicating the Indian rural highway road conditions are developed in the simulator
200 for investigating the impact of performing the secondary tasks associated with phone use
201 (texting and conversation, with two difficulty levels: simple and complex) during driving.
202 Mainly two performance measures are analysed in the study: speed and situation awareness
203 in terms of accident involvement probabilities for sudden events. Data is collected for 100
204 licensed drivers of three different age groups. Following subsections of the paper explain
205 each component of methodology and data collection process.

206 **Driving Simulator**

207 An open cab (fully instrumented) driving simulator shown in Figure 1 was used for
208 the study. In this simulator, a simulated road scenario is displayed in a three LED system
209 which provide a horizontal view of 150°. The simulator is equipped with power steering,
210 brake pedals and gear selector (with manual transmission) etc. and thus exhibits an
211 appropriate vehicle behaviour.



212

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Figure 1 Driving simulator used for the study.

214 **Secondary Task Design**

215 For distracted drives, participants were presented with two types of secondary tasks
216 while driving: conversing and texting on phone. For conversation task, simple questions were
217 asked to the driver (e.g., “Where did you go for your last trip?”). In order to test
218 conversations which demanded more cognitive attention of the driver, a difficulty level in the
219 conversation tasks was presented by asking complex questions like logical puzzle and
220 arithmetic problems (30). For texting tasks, the drivers were instructed to reply in short texts
221 (up to 10 characters) for questions like “What is your favourite colour?” The difficulty level
222 was presented by asking questions which required the drivers to reply in longer texts (more
223 than 10 characters) (9).

224 **Test Scenarios and Events**

225 The driving scenarios used in the present study represented a common road scenario
226 of Indian rural highways. The simulated road environment contained 4-lane (each lane of 3.5
227 m width) undivided highway, with simple geometric and traffic conditions. Each participant
228 drove for five different driving conditions: normal (without phone use), simple conversation,
229 complex conversation with increased difficulty, simple texting and complex texting with
230 increased difficulty.

231 Each of the driving case was presented for 3.5 km straight road section. To check the
232 driver's awareness to the sudden events, two different types of events were included:
233 pedestrian crossing from the sidewalk and road joining event by parked vehicles. In the
234 pedestrian crossing event, pedestrians started crossing the road in front of the subject vehicle
235 when it was 130 m away from them and in the road joining event, parked vehicles (a car and
236 a truck) started crossing the road in front of the subject driver in the same manner as stated
237 above in order to join the oncoming traffic stream. The drivers were asked to brake instantly
238 as soon as they see the event happening. If the driver failed to decelerate before the event and
239 collided to the pedestrians or the vehicles involved in the events, then it was considered as an
240 accident.

241 **Participants**

242 In total, hundred licensed drivers who belonged to three different age groups: young
243 (age<30), mid-age (30≤age<50) and old-age (age≥50), took part in the study. Out of the
244 hundred participants, twenty seven participants were professional divers, working in a
245 transport company. A questionnaire seeking details regarding demographics, driving
246 characteristics (experience and instances of crash involvement etc.) and phone use habits (in
247 everyday life as well as during driving) was presented to each of the participants when they
248 came for the experiment. These details of the participants are used as explanatory variables
249 for analysing and modelling the driving performance. Statistical details of all these
250 explanatory variables (such as mean, standard deviation (SD) and percentage distribution of
251 the sample size in each category of explanatory variables) are shown in Table 1. The data
252 show that 55%, 39% and 6% of the participants were of young age, mid-age and old-age with
253 4.5 years, 11.92 years and 34.33 years of driving experience respectively. Statistics on phone
254 use habits of the participants reveal that prevalence of *talking during driving* trend in India is
255 high. Despite the ban on phone use during driving, 36% of the participants are in a habit of
256 responding to all the calls they get while driving (*frequently conversing*) and 25% drivers
257 respond to one or two calls per day during driving (*less frequently conversing*). The data on
258 *texting during driving habits* shows that, *texting during driving* is not a prevailing trend here.

Table 1 Description and statistical details of variables from the questionnaire

Variables	Description	Type*	Levels/values	Mean	SD	Percentage
Driver demographics						
Age	Driver's age	Cat	Young**	24.14(years)	2.79	55
			mid-age	36.05(years)	5.43	39
			old-age	54.67(years)	5.04	6
Gender	Driver's gender	Cat	Female**			13
			Male			87
Driving characteristics						
Driving experience (in years)	How many years of driving experience the driver has	Con	Young	4.50	3.36	
			mid-age	11.92	8.17	
			old-age	34.33	5.89	
License owning period	How long has the driver been in possession of the driving license	Con	In years	9.078	8.81	
Trip type	Type of trip made generally	Cat	Work**			40
			Recreational			60
Traffic offence due to phone use	Whether the driver had been fined for using mobile phone in the last three years	Cat	No**			100
			Yes			0
Accidents	Whether the driver met with an accident due to distraction by mobile phone use in the last three years	Cat	No**			100
			Yes			0
Mobile phone habits						
<i>Mobile phone use in day to day life</i>						
Phone type	Which type of mobile phone the driver uses	Cat	Touch screen**			87
			Normal			13
Calls	How many calls the driver receives/makes in a day	Con	In numbers	13	15.79	-
Text messages	How many text messages the driver writes/reads in a day	Con	In numbers	60	97.97	-
<i>Mobile phone use during driving</i>						
a) Conversation						
Frequently conversing	Whether the number of calls received= at least three per day	Cat	No/ Yes			36
Less frequently conversing	Whether the number of calls received =at most two per day	Cat	No/Yes			25
Rarely conversing **	Whether the number of calls received = one or two per week	Cat	No/Yes			39
b)Texting						

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Frequently texting	Whether the number of texts sent =at least three per day	Cat	No/Yes			4
Less frequently texting	Whether the number of texts sent = once or twice per week	Cat	No/Yes			12
Rarely texting**	Whether the number of texts sent =once or twice per month	Cat	No/Yes			84

** Type: con=continuous variable, cat=categorical variable, ** Reference categories*

259 **Procedure**

260 Initially, the drivers were presented with a questionnaire covering the details
261 mentioned in Table 1. Each participant performed a trial run on the simulator before the
262 actual experiment so that the driver can become familiar with the simulator. After the
263 completion of trial run, the drivers were presented with non-distracted and distracted drives.
264 Data for mean speed and accident involvement probabilities was collected for five different
265 driving conditions: No phone use, simple conversation, difficulty level in conversation,
266 simple texting and difficulty level in texting. The order of presenting distracted and non-
267 distracted drive was randomized across all the participants. The collected data was analysed
268 for calculating impairment in the driving performance and results are presented in the
269 following section.

270 **Analysis and Results**

271 **Independent and Dependent Variables Identification:**

272 Mean speed and driver's ability to respond to sudden events (Accident/ No accident)
273 are considered as indicators for driver's performance and taken as dependent variables. As
274 the objective of the study is to examine the negative impacts of phone use during driving, the
275 main five independent variables are the categorical variables which represent all different
276 phone use conditions as: No phone use, simple conversation, difficulty level in conversation,
277 simple texting and difficulty level in texting. Additionally, other factors which are assumed to
278 affect the driver's performance (such as age, gender, driving characteristic and phone use
279 habits etc. mentioned in Table 1) are also taken as independent variables. Models for mean
280 speed and accident involvement probabilities are developed by taking into account the
281 variables mentioned in Table 1 and all the phone use conditions.

282 **Modelling Mean Speed**

283 Each driver has a tendency to go on a comfortable speed which depends on many
284 factors such as: driver's demographic characteristics, driver's driving characteristics, driving
285 conditions (road environment and presence/absence of additional workload in terms of
286 secondary tasks), and thus the choice of speed is different for each individual. The boxplots
287 shown in Figure 2 exhibit the mean speed (m/s) behaviour of the 100 participants across all
288 different driving conditions. Here, the compensatory behaviour by speed reduction can be
289 observed as the boxplots in distracted driving (for both: conversation and texting) are located
290 at lower levels compared to non-distracted driving. From the boxplots it can also be observed
291 that, in case of non-distracted driving the similarity in speed choices exist whereas in
292 distracted driving the speed choices are comparatively spread in a wider range which shows
293 the prevalence of varying levels of compensating behaviour among all the drivers.

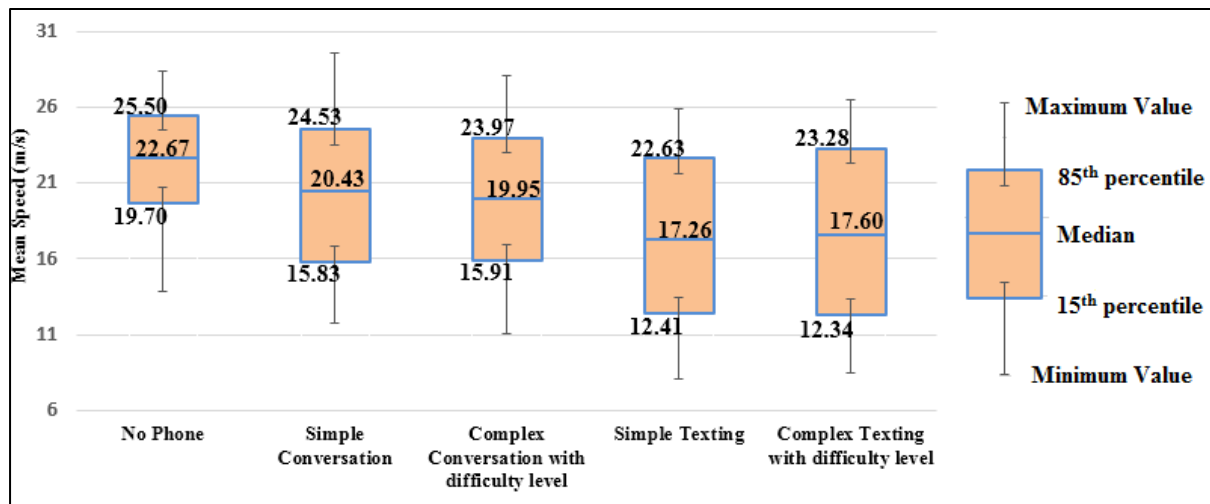


Figure 2 Boxplots of mean speeds (m/s) across different driving conditions

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297 To quantify the effects of phone use and other factors on speed, two multiple linear
298 regression models are developed for two different distraction conditions (conversation and
299 texting). All the variables mentioned in Table 1 and all phone use conditions are taken as
300 explanatory variables and mean speed (in m/s) is taken as a dependent variable. In variable
301 selection process, Pearson correlation coefficients are calculated for the variables; and
302 multicollinearity is carefully checked while developing the models. Mean speeds are
303 modelled by stepwise (forward) regression approach using R software version 3.2.3. The
304 final models shown in Table 2, present all the significant factors with their parameter
305 estimates (β), t-value and p-value along with R^2 coefficient for the model. Here, the intercept
306 shows the mean speed of the driver who has all the attributes of reference categories.

307

308 Table 2 Results of multiple linear regression models for mean speeds of the drivers

	Conversation				Texting			
Coefficients	Estimate(β)	Std. Error	t-value	Pr(> t)	Estimate(β)	Std. Error	t-value	Pr(> t)
Intercept	22.29	0.57	38.64	0.00	23.29	0.62	37.27	0.00
Gender (Male)	2.06	0.53	3.845	0.00	1.52	0.58	2.62	0.01
Mid-age	-3.29	0.37	-8.69	0.00	-4.51	0.41	-11.02	0.00
Old-age	-3.78	0.77	-4.89	0.00	-5.12	0.83	-6.11	0.00
Conversation	-2.62	0.43	-5.96	0.00	-	-	-	-
Texting	-	-	-	-	-5.29	0.47	-11.13	0.00
R-square		0.33				0.5		

309

310 The results presented in Table 2 show that both conversation and texting have
311 significant effects on the mean speed of the drivers. The model shows that texting is causing
312 more reduction in mean speed (5.29 m/s) in comparison to conversation (2.62 m/s).
313 Interestingly, in both the models the difficulty level of the secondary task did not prove to be
314 significant, these results are consistent with previous study results which tested the different
315 difficulty levels for phone conversation (27,28). One possible explanation could be that the
316 drivers were aware of being observed, and hence in-order to optimize their performance in
317 both driving and secondary task, they reduced their speed to the lowest comfortable level in
318 both the cases.

319 The model also shows that the demographic factors (such as age and gender) are
 320 significantly affecting the driver's mean speed behaviour. Mid-age and old-age drivers drive
 321 significantly slower than young age drivers in both conversation model (3.29m/s and
 322 3.79m/s) and texting model (4.52m/s and 5.13m/s); and also male drivers go at higher speeds.
 323 Interestingly, the variable *phone use habits* is not significant in both the models suggesting
 324 that the drivers who use phone more frequently perceive the same level of increased risk
 325 associated with phone use as with the drivers who rarely use phone while driving. In line with
 326 the previous research (6), the phone type (interface: touch screen / manual button) is not a
 327 significant factor.

328 Overall, it can be concluded from the models that, the drivers develop a self-
 329 regulatory behaviour of compensating the additional workload of phone use by reducing their
 330 speed. To see whether this compensatory strategy is working for all the drivers, the risk of
 331 being involved in accidents is analysed and presented in the next sections.

332 Modelling Accident Probabilities

333 Accident probability is an estimated probability for a driver to meet with an accident
 334 during sudden events. It is modelled as a binary logistic model where the dependent variable
 335 is a binary variable: *1* if accident happened due to sudden occurrence of the hazardous event
 336 and *0* other wise. Two different binary models are developed for conversation and texting
 337 distraction conditions by taking into account all the explanatory variables mentioned in Table
 338 1 and all the phone use conditions. Effect of mean speed (m/s) on accident probability is also
 339 checked by keeping mean speed as a continuous variable in both the models.

340 Table 3 Results of binary logistic models for accident probabilities in different driving
 341 conditions

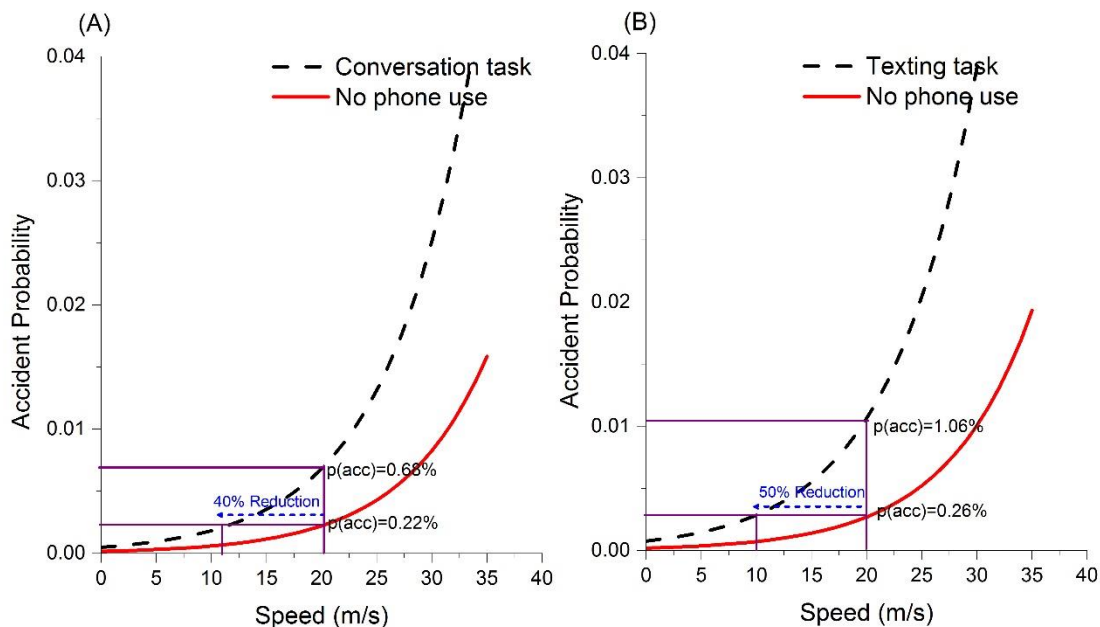
Coefficients	Conversation				Texting			
	Estimate(β)	$exp(\beta)$	t-value	Pr(> t)	Estimate(β)	$exp(\beta)$	t-value	Pr(> t)
Intercept	-5.9	0.00	-3.9	0.00	-6.01	0.00	-3.87	0.00
Speed	0.13	1.14	2.1	0.02	0.13	1.14	2.10	0.03
Conversation	1.12	3.08	2.1	0.03	-	-	-	-
Texting	-	-	-	-	1.38	3.98	2.18	0.02

342

343 Column $exp(\beta)$ in Table 3, shows the odds ratio (i.e. the percentage change in accident
 344 probability with unit increase in explanatory variable). Results indicate that for both the
 345 models the presence of secondary task (conversation and texting) is increasing the accident
 346 probability by 3 times and 4 times respectively while the level of difficulty of the secondary
 347 task is not having any significant effect on accident probability. Higher accident probabilities
 348 are associated with the texting task as during texting the frequency and duration of observing
 349 the road gets reduced significantly compared to the conversation task (31).

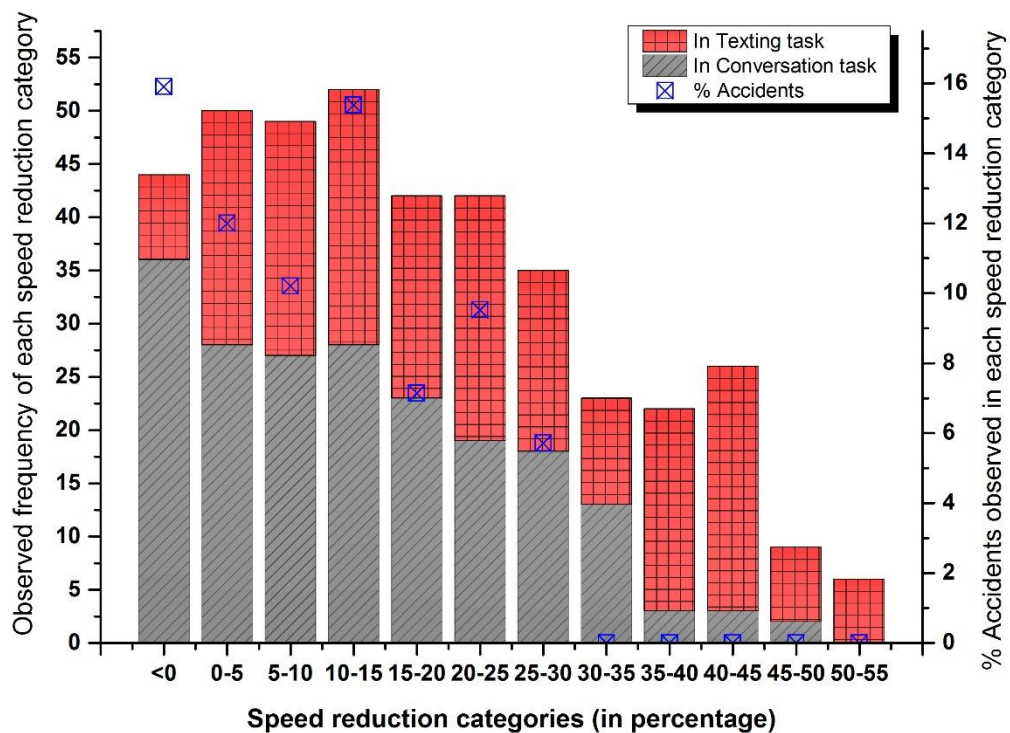
350 The generally observed fact that *the accident risk increases significantly if the vehicle*
 351 *moves at higher speed*, is proven from the present study results also. In both the models, 1m/s
 352 increment in mean speed increases the accident risk by 14%. Ideally, accident probability
 353 should reduce as the drivers compensate by reducing their speed during distracted driving.
 354 From Figure 3, it is observed that the accident probabilities are increasing with increased
 355 speed and accident probabilities are higher in distracted driving when compared to non-
 356 distracted driving at the same speed level. For example, as highlighted in Figure 3(A), one's
 357 accident involvement probability is 0.22% at 20m/s speed in non-distracted driving while this
 358 probability increases to 0.68% (3 times) if the driver does not compensate for the increased
 359 workload by reducing the speed during conversation. But, if the driver compensates for the

360 supplementary pressure of phone use by reducing the speed, then in order to maintain the
 361 similar level of accident risk as present in non-distracted driving, 40% speed reduction is
 362 required. Similarly in case of texting (Figure 3(B)), if a driver is driving at 20m/s in non-
 363 distracted driving then 50% speed reduction is required during distracted driving for
 364 maintaining the same level of risk as for non-distracted driving.



365
 366 Figure 3 Comparison of accident probabilities in non-distracted and cognitively distracted
 367 driving conditions

368 The above mentioned speed reductions are the required speed reductions (estimated
 369 from the model) for offsetting the increased risk associated with distracted driving. But,
 370 different drivers have their own perception of increased workload and hence the
 371 compensation done (by speed reduction) is also different for different drivers. Figure 4 (left
 372 y-axis) shows the frequency distribution of each speed reduction category of all the drivers
 373 for both the distracted driving conditions (conversation and texting). The Figure shows that
 374 most of the cases, speed reduction is up to 30%; and some of the cases, the drivers opted for
 375 speed reduction in the range of 30-50%; whereas in very few cases the drivers reduced their
 376 speed by more than 50%.
 377



378
379 Figure 4 Speed reduction patterns of drivers in distracted driving conditions

380 The extent to which various levels of speed reductions are offsetting the increased
381 accident risks, can be examined from Figure 4 (right y-axis), where the right y-axis shows the
382 observed percentage accident frequency in each speed reduction category for both the
383 distracted driving conditions (conversation and texting). Here, percentage accident frequency
384 is taken as the ratio of number of accident cases observed in each speed reduction category to
385 the total number of cases observed in the corresponding speed reduction category. From the
386 Figure it can be observed that the drivers who reduced their speed by more than 30% were
387 able to compensate for the increased workload safely (did not meet with an accident),
388 whereas the drivers who reduced their speed by less than 30% were still exposed to risks of
389 being involved in accident due to distraction. And up to 30% speed reduction, it can be
390 observed that as the speed reduction performed by the driver increases the associated risk
391 with phone use decreases.

392 The effect of phone use turns out to be worse when the driver does not realise the
393 increased workload by the secondary task and does not compensate for it by reducing their
394 speed; Figure 4 shows that approximately 16% drivers of this category met with an accident
395 which is the highest among all categories. Thus the compensating behaviour of the drivers is
396 not successful unless the drivers are exactly predicting that how much to reduce for a safe
397 ride. Therefore, the drivers should not take it as a fool proof strategy to avoid any critical
398 driving situations. Moreover, too much reduction in travel speed can also potentially increase
399 the chances of meeting with an accident with inattentive drivers behind the distracted driver.

400 CONCLUSIONS

401 The present study investigated the effect of mobile phone use (both: conversation and
402 texting) on driving performance of 100 Indian drivers with rural highway environment on a

403 driving simulator. The performance was checked by statistical modelling of two measures:
 404 mean speed (multiple linear regression) and probabilities of accident involvement (binary
 405 logistic regression). Results of regression models for speed showed that age, gender and
 406 distraction due to conversation and texting are the significant factors affecting the mean
 407 speed of the driver. From the models it is clear that if the drivers are distracted due to phone
 408 use they try to compensate by reducing their speed in order to maintain the adequate level of
 409 safety. To examine the success rate of this compensatory strategy, the probabilities of
 410 accident involvement are analysed with respect to speed changes. The relationship between
 411 speed and accident probabilities showed that if the drivers are driving at the same speed in
 412 both distracted and non-distracted driving, i.e. no compensation is done for the increased
 413 workload, then the accident probability increases by 3 times and 4 times during conversation
 414 and texting respectively. It is observed that to fully offset the increased accident risk, the
 415 required level of speed reduction is 30% or more. But, from the present study it was also
 416 observed that around 80% of the drivers did not compensate up to the desired level, hence
 417 most of the drivers were underestimating the increased accident risk associated with the
 418 phone use especially during sudden events.

419 The underestimation of risk, because of compensation can give the drivers a false
 420 belief of being safe when using phone while driving. The present study emphasizes that
 421 mobile phone use during driving cannot be considered to favour road safety even after
 422 adopting the compensatory measures. Moreover, the present study focused only on simple
 423 rural road geometry and normal traffic conditions, but, as the attentional workload is higher
 424 in urban and complex road environment, the consequences of phone use could be more
 425 dangerous. These results are important in explaining the fact that the speed reduction
 426 strategies would not achieve the greatest safety benefits and can be useful for education and
 427 training programmes of drivers and also in public awareness campaigns for improvement of
 428 road safety.

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