The Effects of Commercial Electronic Variable Message Signs (CEVMS) on Driver Attention and Distraction: An Update

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Turner-Fairbank Highway Research Center
6300 Georgetown Pike
McLean, VA 22101-2296

FOREWORD

The Highway Beautification Act of 1965 outlined control of outdoor advertising, including removal of certain types of advertising signs, along the Interstate Highway System and the existing Federal-aid primary roadway system. Since that time, most States have evolved a body of legislation and/or regulations to control off-premise outdoor advertising (billboards), and many local governments have developed similar rules.

The advent of new electronic billboard technologies, in particular the digital Light-Emitting Diode (LED) billboard, has necessitated a reevaluation of current legislation and regulation for controlling outdoor advertising. In this case, one of the concerns is possible driver distraction. In the context of the present report, outdoor advertising signs employing this new advertising technology are referred to as Commercial Electronic Variable Message Signs (CEVMS). They are also commonly referred to as Digital Billboards (DBB) and Electronic Billboards (EBB).

The present report reviews research concerning the possible effects of CEVMS used for outdoor advertising on driver safety, including possible attention and distraction effects. The report consists of an update of earlier published work, an investigation of applicable research methods and techniques, recommendations for future research, and an extensive bibliography. The report should be of interest to highway engineers, traffic engineers, highway safety specialists, the outdoor advertising industry, environmental advocates, Federal policy makers, and State and local regulators of outdoor advertising.

Michael F. Trentacoste
Director, Office of Safety
Research and Development

Gerald Solomon
Director, Office of Real Estate
Services

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16. Abstract

The present report reviews research concerning the possible effects of Commercial Electronic Variable Message Signs (CEVMS) used for outdoor advertising on driver safety. Such CEVMS displays are alternatively known as Electronic Billboards (EBB) and Digital Billboards (DBB). The report consists of an update of earlier published work, a review of applicable research methods and techniques, recommendations for future research, and an extensive bibliography. The literature review update covers recent post-hoc crash studies, field investigations, laboratory investigations, previous literature reviews, and reviews of practice.

The present report also examines the key factors or independent variables that might affect a driver's response to CEVMS, as well as the key measures or dependent variables which may serve as indicators of driver safety, especially those that might reflect attention or distraction. These key factors and measures were selected, combined, and integrated into a set of alternative research strategies. Based on these strategies, as well as on the review of the literature, a proposed three stage program of research has been developed to address the problem.

The present report also addresses CEVMS programmatic and research study approaches. In terms of an initial research study, three candidate methodologies are discussed and compared. These are: (1) an on-road instrumented vehicle study, (2) a naturalistic driving study, and (3) an unobtrusive observation study. An analysis of the relative advantages and disadvantages of each study approach indicated that the on-road instrumented vehicle approach was the best choice for answering the research question at the first stage.

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SI* (MODERN METRIC) CONVERSION FACTORS

APPROXIMATE CONVERSIONS TO SI UNITS

Symbol	When You Know	Multiply By	To Find	Symbol
		LENGTH		
in	inches	25.4	millimeters	mm
ft	feet	0.305	meters	m
yd	yards	0.914	meters	m
mi	miles	1.61	kilometers	km
		AREA		
in^2	square inches	645.2	square millimeters	mm^2
ft^2	square feet	0.093	square meters	m^2
yd^2	square yard	0.836	square meters	m^2
ac	acres	0.405	hectares	ha
mi^2	square miles	2.59	square kilometers	km^2
		VOLUME		
fl oz	fluid ounces	29.57	milliliters	mL
gal	gallons	3.785	liters	L
ft^3	cubic feet	0.028	cubic meters	m^3
yd^3	cubic yards	0.765	cubic meters	m^3
		NOTE: volumes greater than 1000 L shall be shown in m^3		
		MASS		
oz	ounces	28.35	grams	g
lb	pounds	0.454	kilograms	kg
T	short tons (2000 lb)	0.907	megagrams (or "metric ton")	Mg (or "t")
		TEMPERATURE (exact degrees)		
^oF	Fahrenheit	5 (F-32)/9 or (F-32)/1.8	Celsius	^oC
		ILLUMINATION		
fc	foot-candles	10.76	lux	lx
fl	foot-Lamberts	3.426	candela/m^2	cd/m^2
		FORCE and PRESSURE or STRESS		
lbf	poundforce	4.45	newtons	N
lbf/in^2	poundforce per square inch	6.89	kilopascals	kPa

APPROXIMATE CONVERSIONS FROM SI UNITS

Symbol	When You Know	Multiply By	To Find	Symbol
		LENGTH		
mm	millimeters	0.039	inches	in
m	meters	3.28	feet	ft
m	meters	1.09	yards	yd
km	kilometers	0.621	miles	mi
		AREA		
mm^2	square millimeters	0.0016	square inches	in^2
m^2	square meters	10.764	square feet	ft^2
m^2	square meters	1.195	square yards	yd^2
ha	hectares	2.47	acres	ac
km^2	square kilometers	0.386	square miles	mi^2
		VOLUME		
mL	milliliters	0.034	fluid ounces	fl oz
L	liters	0.264	gallons	gal
m^3	cubic meters	35.314	cubic feet	ft^3
m^3	cubic meters	1.307	cubic yards	yd^3
		MASS		
g	grams	0.035	ounces	oz
kg	kilograms	2.202	pounds	lb
Mg (or "t")	megagrams (or "metric ton")	1.103	short tons (2000 lb)	T
		TEMPERATURE (exact degrees)		
^oC	Celsius	1.8C+32	Fahrenheit	^oF
		ILLUMINATION		
lx	lux	0.0929	foot-candles	fc
cd/m^2	candela/m^2	0.2919	foot-Lamberts	fl
		FORCE and PRESSURE or STRESS		
N	newtons	0.225	poundforce	lbf
kPa	kilopascals	0.145	poundforce per square inch	lbf/in^2

*SI is the symbol for the International System of Units. Appropriate rounding should be made to comply with Section 4 of ASTM E380.
(Revised March 2003)

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The present report reviews research concerning the possible effects of Commercial Electronic Variable Message Signs (CEVMS) used for outdoor advertising on driving safety. The report consists of an update of earlier published work by Farbry et al., which consists of an investigation of applicable research methods and techniques, recommendations for future research, and an extensive bibliography.[1] The Federal Highway Administration (FHWA) has evaluated possible safety effects of CEVMS in two previous studies. The first study was completed in 1980 and the second in 2001.[1,2] Since then, CEVMS technology has evolved, in particular the expanded use of digital Light Emitting Diode (LED) arrays, as well as the implementation of new programmable formats and messages. The present report concentrates on identifying potential factors that may contribute to determining whether there are any significant safety concerns or distraction effects with regards to CEVMS used for outdoor advertising. Throughout the present report, the acronym CEVMS will be employed to refer to both the singular and plural case.

1.1 BASIC RESEARCH QUESTION

The basic research question being addressed in this report is whether the presence of CEVMS along the roadway is associated with a reduction in driving safety for the public. Increases in vehicle crashes along a certain portion of the roadway are generally regarded as an indication of a possible safety concern. Thus, the measurement of crash rates in the vicinity of CEVMS in comparison with crash rates at matched control locations without CEVMS is one possible way to determine possible safety impacts. But, the crashes are rare multicausal events which are difficult to measure. Therefore, measurements of driving behavior in near-crash situations are sometimes taken as a substitute for crashes. These safety surrogate measures may then be generalized to other driving behaviors that represent possible precursors of crashes—like sudden braking, sharp swerving, or traffic conflicts—even though no crash occurs. Usually, because these safety surrogate measures are more frequent and easier to measure, they are often employed instead of or in addition to crashes. Thus, determining the frequency of occurrence of certain relevant safety surrogate driving behaviors in the vicinity of CEVMS in comparison with the frequency of occurrence of such behaviors at matched control locations without CEVMS is another possible way to determine possible safety impacts. The validity of using such safety surrogate measures rests on the assumption that they are related to actual vehicle crashes, which seems intuitively reasonable but has not been conclusively demonstrated.

There is another approach to determining the possible safety impact of CEVMS. This approach is based upon the abstract psychological constructs of driver attention and distraction. A driver must devote a certain amount of attention to the driving task at hand, and sufficient distraction from that driving task could be associated with the higher risk of a crash. The measurement of driver eye glance behavior is often taken as an indirect indicator of attention. Thus, the driver's eye glances should be concentrated in the region of the roadway ahead, and any frequent or long eye glances away from this region toward other objects, including CEVMS, could be regarded as an indication of possible driver distraction. If the eye glances toward a certain object and away from the roadway ahead are sufficiently frequent or sufficiently long to exceed criteria established for safe driving, this outcome can be taken as an indication of a possible safety impact. The validity of using eye glance behavior measures in this manner rests on two assumptions: that eye glances are related to attention and/or distraction and that there are generally accepted safety criteria for excessive eye glances away from the roadway ahead. These assumptions are not universally accepted.

In summary, the basic research question is whether the presence of CEVMS along the roadway is associated with a reduction in driving safety for the public. The three fundamental methods for answering this question include if there is an increase in crash rates in the vicinity of CEVMS, if there is an increase in near-crashes or safety surrogate measures in the vicinity of CEVMS, and if there are excessive eye glances away from the roadway ahead in the vicinity of CEVMS.

1.2 SCOPE

In this report, a CEVMS will be defined as a self-luminous advertising sign which depicts any kind of light, color, or message change which ranges from static images to image sequences to full motion video. The CEVMS may also be referred to as an Electronic Billboard (EBB) or a Digital Billboard (DBB). The present report concentrates on the possible effects of CEVMS on driver attention, driver distraction, and roadway safety. The report is divided into 10 sections: Introduction, Literature Review Update, Key Factors and Measures, Research Strategies, Future Research Program, Recommended First Stage Study, Conclusions, References, Bibliography, and Appendices.

Investigating the possible safety effects of CEVMS is sufficiently complex so that no single experiment will answer all of the relevant scientific and engineering questions. The present report outlines a top-level broad program of potential future research, and it defines in greater detail three possible studies, any one of which could serve as a possible first step. After these discussions, a course of action is recommended. Although off-premise advertising signs constitute the main focus of FHWA attention, the influence of on-premise advertising signs will also be considered to create a more comprehensive and consistent research approach.

In parallel with the present project, a related study is being performed under National Cooperative Highway Research Program (NCHRP) Project 20-7 (256), titled “Safety Impacts of the Emerging Digital Display Technology for Outdoor Advertising Signs.” Both the present project and the NCHRP study begin with the understanding that, despite years of research, there have been no definitive conclusions about the presence or strength of adverse safety impacts from CEVMS. The two projects differ in three significant ways. First, the NCHRP study is undertaking a broad, critical review of the research literature in this field. The present project is more focused on literature update oriented toward the identification of suitable independent and dependent variables for future research. Second, the NCHRP study is reviewing current regulations and guidelines for the control of roadside advertising that may exist in foreign countries to assess their applicability to U.S. highways and streets. Aside from mention in the literature review update portion, the present report does not directly address regulations and guidelines. Third, the NCHRP study will synthesize current research results and current regulations and guidance to recommend how State and local governments might enact reasonable temporary guidance for the control of CEVMS within their own jurisdictions. Such guidance may be applicable on an interim basis pending the outcome of future, more conclusive research outlined in the present project. As a result, such interim guidance may need to change as new technical information is developed. The present report does not provide guidance to States on the control of CEVMS.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW UPDATE

2.1 BACKGROUND

The research that addresses the possible safety and distraction effects of outdoor advertising billboards has been extensive and long standing. Dating back to the 1930s, this research reached a peak in the 1950s and 1960s. Research continued at low ebb through the 1980s, and then all but ceased. With the advent of newer billboard technologies (e.g., lamp matrix, rotating disc, tri-vision, and, most recently, LED) and with the corresponding questions raised by regulators, safety researchers, and the public, research has increased again since the turn of the century. These newer billboard technologies, especially the LED technology, ushered in the increasing use of CEVMS for on-premise and off-premise advertising. The current research focuses on information that has become available since the publication of the most recent FHWA report, but it also includes earlier relevant studies not previously identified.[(1)] The present review is organized into five major categories according to the research context for the study: post-hoc crash studies, field investigations, laboratory investigations, previous literature reviews, and reviews of practice. The categories that contain empirical data have a brief discussion of potential methodological problems inherent in the types of studies characteristic of that category.

2.2 POST-HOC CRASH STUDIES

Post-hoc crash studies review police traffic collision reports or statistical summaries of such reports to understand the causes of crashes that have taken place in the vicinity of some change to the roadside environment. In the present case, the change of concern is the introduction of CEVMS to the roadside or the replacement of conventional billboards with CEVMS.

A number of studies have been conducted over the years using the crash methodology. Three such studies were not reviewed in prior FHWA studies. In a study similar to that conducted in the 1970s in Massachusetts, the Freeway Operations Unit of the Wisconsin Department of Transportation (WisDOT) analyzed bidirectional crashes on I-94 near an electronic billboard with a 5.0 s message dwell time.[(3,4)] Crash rate data were collected for 3 years prior to and 3 years after sign operation began. For eastbound traffic, total crashes increased 36 percent over the 3 year post operational period compared to the baseline preoperational condition. In addition, side-swipe crashes increased 8 percent, and rear-end crashes increased 21 percent. For westbound traffic, total crashes increased 21 percent, sideswipe crashes increased 35 percent, and rear-end crashes increased 35 percent. The authors of the WisDOT study concluded that, “it is obvious that the variable message sign has had an effect on traffic, most notably in the increase of the side-swipe rate” (p. 3).[(4)]

Stutts et al. conducted an analysis of several crash data reporting systems to identify major sources of driver distraction and the relative importance of different types of distraction as contributing factors in motor vehicle crashes.[(5)] Distraction was described as one form of inattention, and it has been implicated as a factor in more than half of the police reported inattention crashes identified by the National Highway Transportation Safety Administration.[(6)] In this study, 8.3 percent of drivers involved in police-reported crashes were identified as distracted, but 35.9 percent of these crashes were coded as “unknown.” For this and other reasons, it is believed that the reported percentage of distraction-related crashes substantially under-represents the true statistics.[5] Among the types of distractions coded in the database, the largest contributor (29.4 percent) was "outside person, object, or event," and the second largest (25.6 percent) was "other."

Smiley et al. studied the relationship between video advertising signs and motor vehicle crashes at downtown intersections and on the freeway.[7] Crash data were analyzed from three intersections before and after the introduction of video advertising signs. When the three intersections were evaluated individually, two demonstrated increases in both total and rear-end crashes; the third showed no significant increase in such crashes. The authors believe that the lack of statistical significance may be due to the small number of crashes identified. For the freeway environment, crash data on the video approach was compared to crash data for three non-video approaches, one of which was deemed the most comparable (control) segment. For this comparison, the authors report a negligible increase in injury collision crash frequencies on the video approach.

Following the design of their earlier study on conventional billboards, Tantala and Tantala analyzed police accident reports in the vicinity of seven digital billboards on interstate highways near Cleveland, OH.[8] Both their current and earlier studies were sponsored by the outdoor advertising industry. Reported crashes were analyzed for a period of 18 months prior to and after the conversion of these billboards from conventional to digital. They found essentially no statistically significant differences in crash rates before and after the conversion.

Unfortunately, all post-hoc crash studies are subject to certain weaknesses, most of which are difficult to overcome. For example, the vast majority—more than 80 percent in one study—of accidents are never reported to police; thus, such studies are likely to underreport crashes. Also, when crashes are caused by factors such as driver distraction or inattention, the involved driver may be unwilling or unable to report these factors to a police investigator. Another weakness is that police, under time pressure, are rarely able to investigate the true root causes of crashes unless they involve serious injury, death, or extensive property damage. Furthermore, to have confidence in the results, researchers need to collect comparable data in such studies before and after the change and in the after phase at equivalent but unaffected roadway sections. Last, since crashes are infrequent events, data collection needs to span extended periods of time, both before and after introduction of the change. Few studies are able to obtain such extensive data. For a more specific analysis of some possible design and methodological concerns with the study by Tantala and Tantala, see Wachtel.[8,9]

2.3 FIELD INVESTIGATIONS

The spectrum of field investigations related to roadway safety is broad. It includes unobtrusive observation, naturalistic driving studies, on-road instrumented vehicle investigations, test track experiments, driver interviews, surveys, and questionnaires. Klauer et al., in one of several papers to emerge from a National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA) project known as the "100-Car Naturalistic Driving Study," provides preliminary information about the role of driver inattention in crashes and near-crashes.[10] Although the study did not specifically address CEVMS, it represents an important methodology for investigating driver distraction. Their results show that 78 percent of crashes and 65 percent of near-crashes included driver inattention and/or distraction as a contributing factor. This contribution from inattention and distraction is larger, by a factor of three, than previous research has indicated. The authors believe that the "100-Car Naturalistic Driving Study" provides the first direct link (i.e., without reliance on crash surrogate measures) showing distraction/inattention as a contributing factor to motor vehicle crashes. In another variant of the "100-Car Naturalistic Driving Study," Klauer et al. identifies four specific unsafe behaviors that contributed to crashes and near-crashes.(11) One of these, inattention and/or distraction, is of direct relevance to the present project. This term is operationally defined by Klauer et al. as a driver looking away from the forward roadway for greater than 2.0 s. Under these conditions, the odds of a crash or near-crash are nearly twice those than when the driver attends to the forward roadway. The study stresses the importance of including near-crashes in the database for two reasons. First, the kinematics of crashes and near-crashes are similar, meaning they involved comparable levels of driver emergency actions, such as swerving and hard braking. Second, 83 percent of the crashes in this study were not reported to the police. Thus, the study indicates that relying on crash statistics alone will substantially underreport crashes due to inattention and/or distraction.

Lee, McElheny, and Gibbons undertook an on-road instrumented vehicle study on interstate and local roads near Cleveland, OH.(12) The project, conducted on behalf of the outdoor advertising industry, looked at driver eye glance behavior toward digital billboards, conventional billboards, comparison sites (sites with buildings and other signs, including digital signs), and control sites (those without similar signage). Performance measures, such as speed maintenance and lane keeping, were also recorded. Although the major data collection was done in daylight, a small pilot study was conducted at night. One of the key questions that the study sought to answer was whether longer glances consisting of over 1.6 s were associated more with any of the event types.(12) This question is based on findings from various studies, including the "100-Car Naturalistic Driving Study," which indicates that longer glances away from the road are associated with higher crash rates.(13) In discussing their results, the authors state, "…the distributions of glance duration were similar across all event types, and there was no obvious pattern of longer glances being associated with any of the event types" (p. 59).(13) The findings from the nighttime pilot study led to, "the overall conclusion, supported by both the eye glance results and the questionnaire results, that the digital billboards seem to attract more attention than the conventional billboards and baseline sites (as shown by a greater number of spontaneous comments regarding the digital billboards and by longer glances in the direction of these billboards" (p. 10).(13) However, in view of the small number of participants, these data were not analyzed. The authors suggest that at least some of these findings, "would show statistical significance" if a larger study were to be conducted (p. 64).(13)

Beijer, Smiley, and Eizenman, working on behalf of the Government of Toronto, Canada, evaluated driver eye glances toward four different types of roadside advertising signs on roads in the Toronto, Canada area.(14) The study employed an on-road instrumented vehicle approach with a head-mounted eye-tracking device. Active signs—all but traditional billboards—consistently received longer glances and more total glances than fixed signs. The study found that 22 percent of all glances were defined as long or greater than 0.75 s. Since 22 of the 25 subjects made at least one long glance at an advertising sign, the authors conclude that, "distraction…was not just an isolated incidence" (p. 101).(14) The authors suggest that active signs may result in greater distraction than past studies of the effects of commercial signing might indicate.

After a previous study raised concerns about the number and duration of glances made to video advertising signs along an expressway in Toronto, Canada, Smiley et al. conducted another study at the request of the city government.(7,15) Five different measures were taken, including eye movements, traffic conflicts, traffic speed and headway, crash data, and public surveys. The crash data results were described earlier. The results from the other measures were mixed. All of the video signs attracted attention; the probability of a driver's looking at such a sign upon approach was nearly 50 percent. The average glance duration was 0.5 s, similar to those for official traffic signs. However, one-fifth of the video sign glances lasted longer than 0.75 s, and some lasted as long as 1.47 s, which were considered unsafe amounts of time. About 38 percent of glances at the video billboards were made when headways were 1.0 s or less, and 25 percent of the glances took place when the signs were more than 20 º off the line-of-sight. These glances were also considered to be unsafe. According to the study, glances at static billboards and bus shelter ads were made at even greater angles and shorter headways.

It is noteworthy that the earlier study that led to this research, also evaluating a video billboard on an expressway in Toronto, Canada, produced dramatically different results. This study found five times the number of glances per subject and three times the glance duration than did the later 2004 study.(15) Smiley et al. attribute these differences to the longer sight distance available for the sign in the earlier study, the uninterrupted view, and the location of this sign on a curve.(7)

Smiley et al. also employed safety surrogate measures of conditions which might be precursors of a possible crash.(7) The study measured these safety surrogate indicators by means of the unobtrusive observation method. The drivers of the vehicles were not aware that they were being observed. In this context, the study measured traffic conflicts, vehicle speed, and vehicle headway. When comparing video and non-video approaches at the same intersection, at one intersection the authors found no differences in traffic conflicts; however, at the other, they found a significant increase in drivers who applied their brakes without cause on the video approach. Given the comparability of sites, they concluded, "the only reason that could be found for increased braking…was the presence of the video sign" (p. 108).(7) The speed and headway data were inconclusive.

In addition, Smiley et al. employed a "public" survey method to determine whether video advertising might be considered to have "a negative effect on traffic safety" (p. 110).(7) Participants in the survey were approached at three intersection sites which had video advertising. Of the 152 persons surveyed at the 3 locations, 65 percent felt that video advertising signs had a negative effect on the ability of a driver to attend to pedestrians and cyclists. Furthermore, 59 percent of the people said that as drivers, their attention was drawn to such signs, while 49 percent of those felt that such signs had a negative effect on traffic safety. A surprisingly large number of people—9 out of 152—stated that they personally had experienced near-crashes, and 2 had experienced actual rear-end crashes that they associated with video advertising signs. In addition, 86 percent of the respondents suggested that restrictions should be placed on those types of signs, such as their locations and brightness.

Three of the field investigations of CEVMS effects mentioned earlier employ indirect measures of driver attention (eye glances) in the context of an on-road instrumented vehicle experimental approach. Although CEVMS stimuli are real, the experimental approach suffers from a degree of artificiality in its implementation. The research participants usually drive in an experimental vehicle along a route which is contrived for experimental purposes, and the route does not serve a useful purpose in their daily lives. The research participants sometimes drive with an experimenter present in the instrumented vehicle, and they sometimes wear a head-mounted eye-tracking device. Two of the three studies cited used a somewhat intrusive but more accurate head-mounted eye-tracking device. One study used a less obtrusive but also less accurate vehicle-mounted eye-tracking device, where cameras were mounted in the vehicle cab. Although the research participants were not told the purpose of the investigation, the participants were definitely aware that they were participating in a driving experiment of some kind, and they may not have exhibited entirely natural behaviors as a result. Furthermore, eye glance behavior is difficult to measure, and it is not easy to relate directly to attention and distraction. For a more specific analysis of some further design and methodological concerns with the Lee et al. study cited above, see Wachtel.[12,9]

The unobtrusive observation method employed in the field by Smiley et al. to collect safety surrogate measures of potential crashes (e.g., sudden braking, inadequate headway, etc.) does not create an artificial environment for the driver.[7] Usually, the sensing devices (loop detectors, remote cameras, or posted human observers) are hidden in the environment, and they are not noticed by the drivers. There is no problem of artificiality; the drivers in the study are not even aware that they are part of a study. However, the safety surrogate variables being measured are usually infrequent, often multicausal, comparatively subtle, and difficult to measure. For CEVMS, these variables can also occur over great distances, adding to the difficulty in accurately and reliably capturing data relating to these variables.

Finally, the public survey method employed by Smiley et al. collected the opinions, attitudes, and feelings of passersby at intersections with video advertising signs.[7] The results, while interesting as a measure of public sentiment, are difficult to relate to the basic research question of determining whether there are any significant distraction effects or concrete safety concerns with regards to CEVMS used for outdoor advertising.

2.4 LABORATORY INVESTIGATIONS

Laboratory investigations related to roadway safety can be classified into several categories: driving simulations, non-driving simulator laboratory testing, and focus groups.

For one such investigation, a non-driving simulator laboratory testing environment was used.[16] For this study, researchers filmed a 27 minute drive and had 200 licensed drivers view the film while their eye movements were recorded. Billboards generated greater levels of visual attention than suggested by measures of recall. Billboards were viewed by individuals whether they were in the "target" audience or not and regardless of whether the billboard was of high or low interest. In addition, billboards located close to official highway signs received more attention than those that were farther away.

In a driving simulation laboratory, Crundall et al. compared street level advertisements (SLAs), such as those on bus shelters, to raised level advertisements (RLAs), which include elevated ads on poles or streetlights.[17] The study was based on the understanding that, in undemanding situations, drivers have spare attentional capacity; however, when cognitive demands increase, spare capacity diminishes. As a result, eye movements must focus on the driving task at hand.

Based on their prior research, Crundall et al. believe that if an advertisement is within the driver's visual field during a search for hazards, it will attract visual fixations and distract attention needed to safely perform the driving task.[17] Because the most relevant information for hazard detection is distributed along a horizontal plane, the authors believe that the majority of visual fixations will fall within this plane when the driver is looking for driving-relevant information. Thus, if an advertisement is located within this window, it will receive more fixations than will advertisements located outside this window. The principal research hypotheses tested were that during conditions when drivers were looking for hazards, SLAs would receive the most attention. When spare capacity was greater, the attention given to RLAs would increase. The results supported these hypotheses. A post-drive survey showed that SLAs were judged more hazardous than RLAs.

Young and Mahfoud used a driving simulator in which subjects drove three routes in the presence and absence of billboards.[18] The presence of billboards adversely affected driving performance in terms of lateral control and crashes. Billboards also had an adverse impact on driver attention in terms of the number of glances made to them, and they were associated with a higher subjective mental workload. In addition, the recall of official road signs was adversely affected by billboards, which the authors interpreted to mean that drivers were attending to billboards instead of relevant road signs. The authors reached a "persuasive overall conclusion that advertising has adverse effects on driving performance and driver attention" (p. 18).[18]

In a recent study using a driving simulator, Chan and her colleagues compared the impacts of in-vehicle versus external-to-vehicle distractors on performance of inexperienced versus experienced drivers.[19] The authors were particularly concerned with young, novice drivers because of the elevated crash risk for this segment of the driving population. They were also concerned because the researchers believed that distraction could adversely affect the novice drivers' poorly developed hazard detection and avoidance skills. Chan et al. theorized that external distraction may be more harmful than internal distraction because when drivers are looking within the vehicle, it should be obvious to them that they are not processing relevant roadway information. However, when drivers are looking at sources outside the vehicle, it is likely that the forward roadway is still somewhere within the field of view. Thus, it may not be obvious to drivers (particularly inexperienced drivers) that this important information is not being fully processed since it is peripheral, unattended, or both.

Chan et al. were primarily interested in the longest glances away from the forward roadway since these have been implicated in prior studies (e.g., Horrey and Wickens[20]) as major contributors to crashes. Thus, they used as their dependent measure the maximum time that drivers spent continuously looking away from the forward roadway during a specific distraction task. In terms of in-vehicle distractors, as hypothesized, inexperienced drivers showed a consistent pattern of looking away from the roadway for longer periods of time than experienced drivers. However, the findings about external distractions were quite different and unexpected in two key ways. There was very little difference in the duration of distraction episodes between the experienced and inexperienced drivers, and the maximum distraction durations were significantly longer for the out-of-vehicle tasks than for the in-vehicle tasks. The two experience groups showed little differences in the percentage of distraction episodes longer than 2.0 s, 2.5 s, and 3.0 s, in all cases longer for the external than for the in-vehicle distractors. The study also demonstrated that, "drivers are more willing to make extended glances external to the vehicle than internal to the vehicle" (p. 17).[19] Chan et al. conclude that, "it is likely that our out-of-vehicle tasks (which not only engage attention but also draw the eyes and visual attention away from in front of the vehicle) would have quite significant detrimental effects on processing the roadway in front of the vehicle" (p. 22).[19]

Three of the laboratory investigations of possible distraction effects mentioned above employ indirect measures of driver attention (eye glances) in the context of a driving simulation experimental approach. The interactive driving simulator approach offers considerable experimental control over stimulus parameters, like the size, number, proximity, and change rate of CEVMS or other advertising display. The simulator is also well suited for executing parametric studies of the effects of these variables on possible driver distraction. However, the approach suffers from all of the sources of artificiality found in the on-road instrumented vehicle approach for conducting field research mentioned earlier. Also, the approach adds the important source of virtual driving as opposed to real driving. Although the vehicle cab of the driving simulator may have certain degrees of motion (pitch, roll, heave, etc.) to enhance the sense of virtual driving, the vehicle cab does not move down the roadway. The visual scene passes by while the driver and vehicle remain stationary. This degree of artificiality requires considerable adaptation on the part of the research participants, most of whom need some amount of training to become accustomed to the differences between driving in a simulator and driving on a real road. Moreover, in the case of CEVMS, present driving simulators do not have sufficient visual dynamic range, image resolution, and contrast ratio capability to produce the compelling visual effect of a bright, photo-realistic LED-based CEVMS on a natural background scene.

One laboratory investigation had research participants watch films of driving scenes containing billboards while their eye movements were being recorded.[16] This study represents an example of a non-driving simulator laboratory method. It suffers from all of the aforementioned limitations of laboratory CEVMS or billboard research. In addition, it does not measure the participants' response while engaged in a driving task.

2.5 PREVIOUS LITERATURE REVIEWS

Garvey summarizes the literature on sign visibility, legibility, and conspicuity on behalf of the advertising industry.[21] One of his recommendations bears on the issue of distraction from billboards. He suggests that signs need not be detectable at distances greater than the minimum required legibility distance. Specifically, he states, "if a sign is detected before it is legible, the driver will take numerous glances at the sign in attempts to read it" before it becomes legible, and "these momentary diversions are inefficient and potentially dangerous" (p. 1).[21]

Cairney and Gunatillake, working on behalf of the Government of Victoria, Australia, undertook a review of the literature with the goal of generating recommendations for guidelines for the control of outdoor advertising in that State.[22] They cited two prior reviews by Wachtel and Netherton in the United States and by Andreassen in Australia as the basis of their review.[2,23] Since these earlier studies, the technology used for the display of roadside advertising and the addition of in-vehicle distractors has changed. Cairney and Gunatillake conclude that the principal concern remains the effects that a sign may have on a driver's visibility of other road users, the roadway, and traffic control devices, particularly at high-demand locations, such as interchanges. They suggest several research approaches, including case studies, site investigations, and laboratory simulations to address these newer technologies. They conclude that the best of the studies conducted to date demonstrate that when all confounding variables are controlled statistically, sites with advertising signs have higher crash rates than sites without them. However, large, well-controlled studies will be required to detect significant effects because the effect size is small. They further conclude that changeable message signs may have a more direct bearing on crash rate than static signs. The findings of the study suggest that unregulated roadside advertising has the capability of creating a significant safety problem. The conclusions from their review run counter to Andreassen's conclusion that, "there is no current evidence to say that advertising signs, in general, are causing accidents" (p. 4).[23]

On behalf of the Scottish government, Wallace undertook the most extensive and critical review of the literature since the two earlier FHWA studies.[24] The study concludes that driver distraction from attention-getting sources can occur even when the driver is concentrating on the driving task. Furthermore, there is abundant evidence that billboards can function as distractors, particularly in areas of visual clutter. Billboards can distract in "low information" settings, and distraction from external factors is likely to be underreported and underrepresented in crash databases.

The Dutch National Road Safety Research Institute reviewed the recent literature for the Dutch authorities and emphasized some of the stronger, more consistent points made in other studies, such as billboards should not be placed near challenging road settings, especially at or near intersections. Also, they should not resemble official traffic signs in pattern or color.[25] Furthermore, dynamic signs that display motion or include moving parts should not be permitted. A key conclusion was that, "precisely in a dangerous situation it is important for the driver to have his attention on the road; an advertising billboard can slow the driver's reaction time, which increases the chance of a crash" (p. 2).[25]

The WisDOT sponsored a study which summarizes available information about the safety impacts of outdoor electronic billboards and tri-vision signs.[26] Similar to Crundall, et al. and Wallace, the authors of this study determined that greater visual complexity associated with a high-volume location, such as intersections, required drivers to search the environment more than at lower-volume locations.[17,26] The authors stated, "it can be conjectured that additional visual stimuli such as billboards may add additional demand to driver workload in high-volume intersections" (p. 6).[26]

Bergeron, on behalf of the Government of Quebec, Canada, re-reviewed many of the studies originally examined by Wachtel and Netherton and added reviews of several studies conducted subsequent to 1980.[2,27] His findings and conclusions, similar to those of other researchers, indicate that attentional resources needed for the driving task are diverted by the irrelevant information presented on advertising signs. This distraction leads to degradation in oculomotor performance, which adversely affects reaction time and vehicle control capability. The study concludes that when the driving task imposes substantial attentional demands that might occur on a heavily traveled, high-speed urban freeway, billboards can create an attentional overload that can have an impact on micro and macroperformance requirements of the driving task.

2.6 REVIEWS OF PRACTICE

Bergeron also performed a site review at a major elevated expressway in Montreal, Canada, which was proposed for two future billboards.[28] By reviewing the scene and considering various parameters such as traffic volumes, road geometry, and traffic control devices, Bergeron concludes that this 1.1 km section was already causing excessive cognitive demands, particularly for the many unfamiliar drivers. He concluded that the billboards would be inadvisable for several reasons. First, the location creates a substantial demand on drivers' mental workloads because of its complex geometry, heavy traffic, high traffic speeds, merging and diverging traffic, and the presence of signs and signals that require drivers to make rapid decisions. Also, at the perceptual level, the billboards would add confusion to the visual environment, thus impairing drivers' visual search, tracking, and reaction time. In addition, at an attention level, billboards could distract drivers. Last, the billboards could add to a driver's mental workload in a setting where workload is already quite high. In a road situation such as this one, Bergeron concludes that the billboard is a "useless drain on limited attentional resources" (p. 5), and it could lead to reduced performance through inattention errors by overloading the driver's information processing abilities.[28]

du Toit and Coetzee address the current regulatory process for advertising signs visible from national roads.[29] The authors report that the South African government engages in careful scrutiny of proposed advertising signs before they are approved for use. All applications receive a desktop review followed by a site visit. If a decision cannot be made at this point, the authorities evaluate crash statistics for the proposed location to determine that if it is hazardous. Key questions asked as part of the review include the following:

- Will the proposed sign obscure the view of an official road sign?
- Will the sign cause a disruption of information flow to the driver?
- Will the sign's location distract the driver's attention at merge/diverge areas, curves, and interchanges?

A clear system exists in South Africa that requires certain spacing between road signs, particularly those that are close to interchanges; proposed advertising signs must fit within the parameters. This system, as codified in the South African Road Traffic Signs Manual (SARTSM), is intended, "to allow adequate time for the driver to read, interpret and react on the information on the road sign" (p. 7).[29] The authors report that for a recent review period, 86.7 percent of all applications were rejected. Of those, 40.8 percent were rejected because the advertisement was too close to existing road signs, 20 percent were rejected because the sign disrupted the flow of information to the driver, and 7.5 percent were rejected because the sign was too close to a ramp gore.

As a result of his work cited immediately above, Coetzee reviewed literature, performed a regulatory analysis, and recommended changes to regulations for outdoor advertising control in South Africa.[30] Although superficially similar to regulations in the United States, billboard control in South Africa goes much further, regulating the design and amount of information (in bits) that can be displayed on a given sign, as well as the proximity of two or more advertising signs to one another and to road features, such as official signs and interchanges. In South Africa, message sequencing, visual clutter, and sign size are restricted for different display technologies. This document includes a description of the terms *critical event* and *critical zone*, and it demonstrates how regulations would control advertising signs in these applications. Coetzee finds support from the earlier work of Ogden and the experiments of Johnston and Cole, concluding that, whereas drivers may be able to ignore advertisements when the driving task requires attention, it is possible that an attention-getting sign can assume primary importance and interfere with not only any spare capacity that a driver might have but also the information processing capacity reserved for primary task performance.(31,32) The danger arises, according to Coetzee, when processing the information on the advertisement interferes with the driver's principal vehicle control task in situations that demand attention and rapid reactions.(30) The Coetzee report is the only work in the present review of the literature that has attempted to establish the parameters of billboard location and content based on theories of information processing and cognitive demand.

2.7 CONCLUSIONS FROM LITERATURE REVIEW

2.7.1 Basic Research Question

The basic research question being addressed in the present report is whether the presence of CEVMS used for outdoor advertising is associated with a reduction in driving safety for the public. When regarded from a scientific perspective, the present literature review does not provide an adequate answer to this question. The studies reviewed are inconclusive.

The present literature review reveals a disjointed array of isolated studies revealing sometimes contradictory and inconclusive results. Some studies show statistically significant driver safety concerns or distraction effects, but not all levels of distraction have negative safety impacts. Some studies go one step further and compare a statistically significant distraction with a criterion level of distraction claimed to represent the threshold of negative safety performance. This approach represents a substantial improvement, but it depends heavily upon the veridicality of the chosen criterion level of distraction. Other studies show no statistically significant safety or distraction effects at all, or they show mixed results. Some studies which show no statistically significant safety or distraction effects have been demonstrated to have serious flaws in their experimental and/or statistical designs. These studies are often plagued with two intrinsic methodological problems. First, they may not have sufficient measurement accuracy and precision to distinguish CEVMS distraction from noise in the data. Second, they may not have sufficient statistical power to reveal a small but important distraction effect which may really exist; i.e., they have not sampled enough events, drivers, or conditions to demonstrate an effect which may be obscured by variability due to sampling. In summary, from the perspective of strict statistical hypothesis testing, the present literature review is inconclusive with regard to demonstrating a possible relationship between driver safety and CEVMS exposure. From this perspective, the more stringent restrictions on the placement of billboards found in other countries might be regarded as a conservative precautionary measure, erring on the side of protecting public health from a possible but unproven threat and not as a response to an established driving safety hazard. That is not to say that such a conservative approach is inappropriate, but it should be acknowledged as such.

The present literature review does reveal a preponderance in the number of studies (5:1) which show some driver safety effects due to traditional billboards and CEVMS in comparison with the number of studies that show no driver safety effects at all due to these stimuli. In addition, four other studies show mixed results. Three lists were prepared below to demonstrate this outcome. These lists included only empirical research studies, regardless of the methodology employed. Studies that reviewed literature or practice were not included unless they also contained an original research component. Studies previously reviewed in the earlier FHWA projects were also not included.

The following research studies reported potential adverse safety effects for all dependent measures:

- Wisconsin Department of Transportation.[4]
- Young.[16]
- Crundall, et al.[17]
- Young and Mahfoud.[18]
- Chan, et al.[19]

The research study by Tantala and Tantala[8] reported no adverse safety effect on any dependent measure.

The following research studies reported potential adverse safety effects using some dependent measures and no effects using other dependent measures:

- Lee, McElheny, and Gibbons.[12]
- Beijer, Smiley, and Eizenman.[14]
- Beijer.[15]
- Smiley et al.[7]

Such an outcome could lead one to conclude that there is more evidence for a possibly meaningful negative safety impact than evidence against such an impact. This conclusion is not warranted for at least two reasons. First, a simple tally of the number of studies which support a given research hypothesis compared with the number of studies which do not support the hypothesis may be misleading. Such a tally neglects to weight the various studies for their intrinsic strength of experimental design, statistical power, and care of execution. One strong landmark study with a robust experimental design and a sufficiently large sample of cases or drivers can topple a host of weaker investigations with fewer credentials. Yet, credentialing and weighting studies can become a subtle and subjective matter. It is difficult to judge studies on their relative strengths because it requires experience and judgment. While it may be relatively easy to identify the champion study and give that study a strong weighting, it is more difficult to evaluate the weaker studies at the middle and bottom of the list.

Second, there is a strong propensity in scientific research to search for differences. The current Western model of reductionist scientific inquiry, coupled with its reliance on the paradigm of parametric statistics, is aligned against supporting the null hypothesis. This hypothesis states that there are no observed differences between two or more different treatments, i.e., that matters under scientific scrutiny are due to chance. This propensity to search for differences is so strong that when anticipated results are small or subtle, researchers often seek out conditions in nature that are worst case examples to find any affect at all. This causes the results to suffer from a lack of generalization when the entire population becomes the frame of reference. Thus, the present literature review acknowledges a possible natural and intrinsic bias toward including more studies that show a possible distraction effect of CEVMS exposure than studies that do not. Once these two considerations are recognized—a lack of weightings for comparing studies and a propensity to emphasize differences—the present literature review realigns to its original inconclusive outcome. In summary, present scientific techniques are not adapted to providing proof that CEVMS do not distract drivers; they only afford opportunities to demonstrate that they do distract drivers and possibly to what extent. If the demonstrated extent of distraction is minor and below the accepted criterion to interfere with safe driving, then the safety impact may be considered negligible.

2.7.2 Methodological Implications

The inconclusive literature review findings suggest the need for carefully controlled and methodologically sound investigations of the relationships between CEVMS, driver distraction, and safety. The review also suggests several factors that need to be considered in future research. One plausible model posits that drivers often have spare attentional capacity, and they can afford to divert their visual attention away from the driving task to look at objects irrelevant to the driving task, such as CEVMS. According to this model, when driving demand increases because of fixed hazards (such as dangerous roadway geometry or complex interchanges) or transient hazards (such as slowing traffic, vehicle path intrusion, or adverse weather), spare capacity is reduced or eliminated, and the driver devotes more capacity to the driving task. In this model, driver workload emerges as an important issue. By applying this model, in some countries, outdoor advertisements are not allowed in areas where known fixed hazards exist. Such locations include, but are not limited to, sharp horizontal or vertical curves and areas where high cognitive demand is imposed by the roadway, traffic, or environment, like intersections, interchanges, and locations of merging or diverging traffic. In some countries, billboards are also not allowed where they might interfere with the processing of important information from official road signs. These prohibitions do not in themselves prove that distraction is worse in high driver workload situations. However, they do point to the need to consider conditions of differing driver workload in an effective future research program on possible safety effects from CEVMS exposure.

When scanning for hazards, drivers' eye movements tend to fall within a horizontal window centered on the focus of expansion in the forward view. This focus of expansion is related to the visual flow of the moving scene where points and objects all emerge from a single point. Because an attention-getting billboard may be able to attract a driver's glance even unintentionally, a CEVMS that falls within this scanning pattern can interrupt the pattern and cause a distraction at an inopportune time. Furthermore, research suggests that the distraction from a roadside billboard may be unconscious. Consequently, drivers may not be aware that they are being distracted, and they are unable to verbalize that any distraction occurred. Although where someone's eyes look may not be the same as where his or her attention is focused, a theoretical connection may be implied. Through this connection, measurements of eye glance behavior permit the researcher to gain potential entrance into this realm of unconscious allocation of attention. This allocation of attention should play an important role in an effective program for future research.

In addition, it cannot be assumed that all CEVMS are equal, even those of the same size, height, and LED technology to display their images. The impact of a CEVMS in an undeveloped area with relatively low levels of nighttime ambient lighting may be quite different from that of a CEVMS in a more urban context among other buildings and structures in an area with high nighttime illumination levels. Furthermore, characteristics of the CEVMS displays may, in and of themselves, lead to measurable differences in distraction, such as information density, colors of figure and background, character size and font, and message content. These characteristics cannot be assumed to be equivalent for purposes of comparisons. One possible solution to this problem may be for future research studies to exercise a certain degree of experimental control over the CEVMS message itself. This may require a deeper level of cooperation with the billboard industry than has been encountered in previous studies. Such increased cooperation could be beneficial in establishing a collaborative research environment among industry, government, and university stakeholders.

Finally, a frequently changing CEVMS, which can generally be seen long before it can be read, raises a particular concern for distraction. This is because drivers may continue to glance at the CEVMS to observe changes in varying content with various sizes of lettering until the sign content can be read. The implication here is that future studies may need to embrace longer viewing distances.

3.0 KEY FACTORS AND MEASURES

The study of possible CEVMS effects on driver safety represents a complex research endeavor. There are numerous key factors affecting a driver's response to CEVMS. Many of these influential factors may be designated as independent research variables in need of specification or control within a given research design. Likewise, there are numerous inferred measures of driver safety which may serve as possible dependent variables for observation and measurement. Depending upon the specific research design, some of these independent and dependent variables may swap places.

3.1 KEY FACTORS (INDEPENDENT VARIABLES)

For classification purposes, the key factors, or major independent variables, may be categorized into various types. The list of key factors shown below gives some of the independent variables which might be considered in the study of possible safety effects of CEVMS. These key independent variables were selected from a more comprehensive analysis by means of a process to be described later. This analysis grouped all of the independent variables into five major categories according to source as follows:

- Billboard.
- Roadway.
- Vehicle.
- Driver.
- Environment.

After this initial analysis, a subsequent evaluation selected only the most important, or key, factors or variables. Each category lists the key independent variables which belong to that category. The lists below contain independent variables from four of the five above mentioned categories. The vehicle category is missing because all of the variables belonging to that category were eliminated in the selection process. For cross reference purposes, the decimal number shown in brackets to the right of each variable gives the outline number from the more detailed analysis upon which the selection was based (see table 1 in appendix A). In parentheses to the right of certain variables are given some examples and explanations which serve to clarify that particular variable.

The following are the key factors relating to the billboard:

- Location [1.1] (lat./long., GPS, mile marker, survey location, reference location).
- Sight distance [1.1.3].
- Resolution [1.2.3] (dpi, LEDs/inch, crispness).

- Luminance [1.2.4] (brightness).
- Contrast ratio [1.2.4].
- Day/night settings [1.2.4].
- Change rate [1.3.2] (image changes).
- Dwell time [1.3.2].
- Change time [1.3.2].
- Sequencing [1.3.2] (apparent motion).
- Full motion video [1.3.4].
- Engagement value [1.3.5] (ability to hold attention).
- Message [1.4].

The following are the key factors relating to the roadway:

- Category [2.1.1] (two-lane rural, collector, arterial, freeway).
- Geometry [2.2.2] (curve radius: horizontal, vertical).
- Intersection [2.2.3] (signalized, stop controlled).
- Interchange [2.2.4].
- Exit [2.2.4].
- Entrance [2.2.4].
- Merge [2.2.4].
- Gore [2.2.4].
- Traffic [2.3] (average daily traffic, peak traffic, level of service).

The following are the key factors relating to the driver:

- Age [4.1].
- Gender [4.1].
- Demographics [4.1].

- Years driving [4.2].
- Route familiarity [4.2].
- State [4.3] (alert, fatigue, alcohol, drugs).

The following are the key factors relating to the environment:

- Visual clutter [5.1.1].
- Nearby billboards [5.1.1].
- Ambient lighting [5.1.1].
- Official signs [5.2] (illuminated, luminous (VMS), retro-reflective).
- On-premise signs [5.3] (conventional, tri-vision, digital, full motion video).

The combined list of key factors given above represents a subset of the most influential independent variables in terms of importance to a future program of research. This subset of variables was selected from a more extensive list of the major independent variables which might play a role. As mentioned previously, the list of all major independent variables may be found in outline form in table 1 in appendix A. The bracketed decimal numbers in the list of key factors refer to the corresponding outline numbers in table 1. In addition, the table cites some of the advantages and disadvantages of employing that particular variable. The combined list of key factors presents the 32 variables which were judged to be the most influential variables from table 1.

The more comprehensive and detailed analysis represented in table 1 identifies considerably more possible independent variables. The approximately 60 types of variables listed in the table are further broken down into 185 specific subtypes or levels of independent variables which could play an important role in studying the possible effects of CEVMS on driver distraction and roadway safety. It is encouraged to carefully examine the many independent variables and their advantages and disadvantages, as described in table 1 in appendix A, to gain a greater appreciation of the complexity of the research problem. With such a profusion of important factors affecting the study of CEVMS effects, no single experiment could possibly answer all of the relevant scientific or engineering questions.

The key independent variables were selected from the expanded list represented in table 1 by three senior research psychologists, all coauthors of the present report and familiar with CEVMS research. The criterion for selection was the importance of that factor in conducting research on CEVMS effects. Thus, the list of key factors indicates critical independent variables which need to be considered in any proposed program of research. The brightness and crispness, or photo realism, of the CEVMS images are extremely important. Any image changes, apparent motion or video motion in the CEVMS, and location parameters are also critical factors. The next level of importance relates to environmental factors. Two distinct classes of variables must be taken into account: general visual clutter and the presence of other off-premise commercial CEVMS (nearby billboards). In particular, compelling information from CEVMS used for advertising may conflict with important roadway safety information conveyed by nearby traffic control devices (official signs). The question should also be raised concerning possible enhanced distraction caused by the urgency of Amber Alerts and other public safety messages displayed on CEVMS. Any contextual links among the messages from several sequential CEVMS, as well as any specific user interactions with the CEVMS must be taken into account. Factors to consider for drivers include their familiarity with the driving route and the expected presence or absence of CEVMS. Lastly, the complexity of the roadway geometry and the volume of traffic are likely to play significant roles.

3.2 KEY MEASURES (DEPENDENT VARIABLES)

The study of driver safety is a complex area of investigation. There are numerous objective, inferred, and subjective measures of driver behavior which might serve as dependent variables in a program of proposed research on the possible safety effects of CEVMS. As demonstrated in the discussion concerning independent variables, the key measures or dependent variables may be categorized into types. The list of key measures shown below gives 28 key measures, or dependent variables, which might be considered possible safety effects of CEVMS. As was the case for the list of key factors (independent variables), the list of key measures represents a down selection from a more extensive list of the major dependent variables of interest (see table 2 in appendix A). The dependent variables are grouped into the following four major categories:

- Vehicle behavior.
- Driver and vehicle interactions.
- Driver attention and distraction.
- Crashes.

The structure of the list of key measures for dependent variables is similar to that for the list of key factors for independent variables. In the case of dependent variables, the major variable categories of driver and vehicle interactions and crashes found in table 2 are missing from the list of key measures below because all of the variables belonging to these two categories were eliminated in the selection process.

Key measures relating to vehicle behavior are as follows:

- Speed [1.1] (continuous, exceeding speed, speed variance).
- Lane position [1.2] (continuous, lane excursions, lane variance).
- Acceleration [1.3] (longitudinal, lateral, heave).
- Other vehicle interactions [1.4].
- Headway [1.4.1] (time to collision).

- Gap acceptance [1.4.2] (merge, passing).
- Conflicts [1.4.3] (near-crashes).
- Violations [1.4.4] (red light running, failure to yield, failure to stop).
- Errors [1.4.5] (missed exit, wrong lane).
- Timing [1.4.6] (late movements, premature movements).
- Infrastructure interactions [1.5].
- Response to roadway geometry [1.5.1] (swerves, sudden braking).
- Response to traffic control devices [1.5.2] (misses, delays).
- Pedestrian interactions [1.5.3] (yields).

Key measures relating to driver attention/distraction are as follows:

- Eye glance behavior [3.1.1] (number and duration of glances, glance object).
- Distractor performance [3.1.2] (secondary task).
- Visual occlusion [3.1.3].
- Feature detection [3.1.4].
- Feature recognition [3.1.5].
- Driver workload [3.1.6] (task performance).
- Head turning [3.1.7].
- Driver errors [3.1.8].
- Reaction time [3.1.9] (perception-reaction time).
- Surprise [3.2.1] (orienting response).
- Conspicuity [3.2.2] (attention grabbing).
- Search patterns [3.2.3].
- Capacity [3.2.4] (self-regulated attention, spare capacity).
- Subjective measures [3.3].

As mentioned above, the more detailed analysis underlying the combined list of key measures shown above may be found in table 2 in appendix A. Table 2 for the dependent variables has the same general structure as table 1 for the independent variables. The approximately 65 types of dependent variables listed in table 2 are further broken down into 105 specific subtypes or levels of variables which could play an important role in measuring the possible effects of CEVMS on driver distraction. As noted before, it is encouraged to carefully examine the many dependent variables and their advantages and disadvantages, as described in table 2 in appendix A, to gain a greater appreciation of the wide variety of ways that driver safety can be measured as they relate to possible influences from CEVMS. With so many potential measurement techniques available, care must be taken in selecting appropriate dependent variables for any proposed program of research.

Only the key dependent variables are listed in the combined list of 28 key measures given above. They were selected by the same process used to select the key independent variables in the list of key factors. As indicated before, the criterion for selection was importance in conducting research on CEVMS effects. Thus, the list of key measures indicates critical measures which need to be considered in future research. Eye glance behavior can serve as a particularly important potential indicator of specific visual distractions. The concept of self-regulated attention is very important for establishing excessive levels of distraction, despite difficulties in establishing a criterion threshold. This concept refers to attention that is under the driver's conscious control, as opposed to involuntary attention, which may compel the driver to glance away from the road for an excessive amount of time. Increases in driving conflicts and errors are likewise effective measures of safety. The next level of importance relates to other observations of vehicle behaviors, including determinations of acceleration, lane position, and speed. Similarly important infrastructure interactions, such as driver responses to roadway geometry and traffic control devices, need to be considered.

4.0 RESEARCH STRATEGIES

To successfully investigate the potential safety effects of CEVMS, the key factors (independent variables) and key measures (dependent variables) described in the previous section need to be selected, combined, and integrated into an effective research strategy. There are a number of possible research strategies that could address the basic research question. The list of recommended research strategies shown below lists eight key research approaches that might be considered. This list was generated from a more comprehensive and detailed analysis of the research strategies which might be of interest. This comprehensive analysis of research strategies was divided into six major groups (see table 3 in appendix A). The first group focuses on observing or counting actual motor vehicle crashes as they might occur or have occurred in the field. This field portion includes retrospective crash data base studies. The second group entails observing motor vehicle crashes as they might occur in a driving simulator. The third group involves observing safety surrogate measures as they might actually occur in the field. The fourth group focuses on observing safety surrogate measures as they might occur in a driving simulator. The fifth and sixth groups relate to social surveys and analytical studies. In this instance, the down-selection process eliminated all research strategies concerning crashes, social surveys, and analytical studies. Within the parentheses next to each strategy are some selected advantages and disadvantages associated with using that type of strategy in conducting research.

Only the key strategies are shown in the list of recommended research strategies. They were selected by the same process used to select the key independent and dependent variables, with one important exception. This exception involves the incorporation of several assumptions which were derived from the antecedent analysis of potential independent and dependent variables. First, the brightness, sharpness, photo realism, and visual context of the CEVMS are extremely important. Since these characteristics are difficult to reproduce in a laboratory, laboratory methods tended to be judged low. In addition, certain participant-related variables, in particular eye glance behavior, are highly effective measures of distraction and workload. Any research method that supported the measurement of such variables tended to be judged high. Last, crash data involve rare events with multiple causal factors, making them difficult to measure. The CEVMS technology is too new to have an adequate crash heritage. In general, crash estimation methods tended to be judged low.

After incorporation of the above assumptions, the following final list of recommended research strategies was developed. This final list included strategies from only two of the original six groups of strategies.

The recommended research strategies for the safety surrogate field group include the following:

- Unobtrusive observation [3.1] (natural driving context/no eye glance data, expensive).
- Naturalistic driving [3.2] (natural driving context/insensitive eye glance data, expensive).
- On-road instrumented vehicle [3.3] (experimental control, sensitive eye glance data, efficient, cost effective/artificial drive purpose).

- Closed-course test track [3.4] (stimulus control, efficient, cost effective/out of context driving).

- Commentary driving [3.5] (easy/artificial response, interfere with driving).

- Non-vehicle based field testing [3.6] (easy/artificial, out of context).

The recommended research strategies for the safety surrogate laboratory group include the following:

- Driving simulator [4.1] (experimental control, sensitive eye glance data, efficient/limited stimulus, artificial).

- Non-simulator laboratory [4.2] (relatively easy/artificial, out of context).

The more detailed analysis underlying the above combined list of recommended research strategies may be found in table 3 in appendix A. In the table, the more comprehensive analysis of research strategies is further broken down into approximately 55 specific categories and 165 subtypes or levels of these categories. The reader is encouraged to carefully examine the many strategies and their advantages and disadvantages, as described in the table, to gain a greater appreciation of the wide variety of potentially relevant research methods which might be employed to study possible CEVMS effects.

Table 3 can be used to discriminate among potential candidate research strategies. Certain research strategies can be eliminated from further consideration. Analytical studies cannot fill knowledge gaps and consequently often fall prey to reliance on unfounded assumptions. Social surveys are based on memory and opinion, and they are generally administered far from the event of interest both in terms of time and space. Crash rates, whether observed in the field or in the laboratory, represent extremely rare events, which are often the result of multiple complex causes and thereby difficult to evaluate. CEVMS technology has not been deployed long enough to accumulate a sufficient number of proximal motor vehicle crashes to make reliable estimates concerning population crash statistics in the field. Driving simulators used to measure safety surrogates have the advantage of careful control over stimulus parameters and testing conditions, but they suffer the disadvantage of being unnatural and artificial. More importantly, driving simulators have difficulty reproducing the luminance contrast and bright photorealism of the new CEVMS technology. In a similar manner, the closed-course test track and non-vehicle based field testing techniques represent a comparatively artificial and out-of-context experimental environment even though they are conducted in the field. Finally, commentary driving also affords natural billboard stimuli, but the driving task becomes somewhat artificial.

The three research strategies which were judged to be the most effective were the on-road instrumented vehicle, the naturalistic driving, and the unobtrusive observation method, which were all used to measure driver distraction and safety surrogates. Thus, the outcome of the present investigation of research strategies recommends three primary candidates for consideration in any program of future research to study the possible effects of CEVMS on driver distraction and roadway safety. Each of the three study methods represented has its own unique advantages and disadvantages. All three of these top candidate research strategies should be considered in developing any future research program on CEVMS effects. They provide the basis for selecting a recommended first stage study in such a program.

This is not to say that other research strategies do not have a significant role to play in a comprehensive research program directed toward a common goal. For example, if significant negative CEVMS safety effects have already been found using one of the primary research strategies, subsequent driving simulator experiments might be employed to systematically vary certain billboard location, timing, or spacing parameters in a controlled and consistent manner to establish billboard placement guidance. In addition, combinations of research strategies can result in synergistic efficiency. For example, both the unobtrusive observation and the naturalistic driving methods naturally support the simultaneous collection of crash, near-crash, or safety surrogate data. The analysis of crash data will also be needed to relate measures of driver distraction to more direct determinants of roadway safety.

5.0 FUTURE RESEARCH PROGRAM

As stated previously, it is not possible to answer all of the critical questions concerning possible attention, distraction, and safety impacts from CEVMS in a single experiment. Instead, a carefully crafted program of research needs to be conceived and implemented to embrace a series of interrelated experiments and studies directed at answering different facets of this complex issue. This section describes the important elements of a recommended research program. This research program is broadly defined to provide a background and context for more concrete alternative first stage studies outlined in section 6.0. This section describes a long-range multistudy research program covering a number of years. Section 6.0 will outline three methods for implementing the first stage of that program.

5.1 STAGES

The proposed research program would have the following three stages:

- Stage 1—The attention and distraction effects of CEVMS would be investigated to determine whether any observed or measured distractions due to CEVMS is sufficient to interfere with attentional criteria for safe driving. This stage is directed at discovering whether or not distraction from CEVMS represents a potential driving hazard. Initial CEVMS parameters must be chosen carefully so as not to bias the result from the outset.

- Stage 2—If potential interfering distraction is observed, it would be necessary to investigate the relationship between the observed distraction and various CEVMS parameters (e.g., luminance, change rate, distance, CEVMS spacing, engagement level of sign content, and road geometry) to determine possible limitations on CEVMS deployment and operation which might reduce distraction to noninterfering levels. This stage is directed at developing empirical data to support the development of possible restrictions or regulation of CEVMS to reduce potential driving hazards.

- Stage 3—As related to CEVMS, researchers would have to investigate the relationship between distraction, defined in terms of eye glance behavior and safety surrogate measures (driving conflicts, errors, etc.), and safety, defined more directly in terms of crashes, fatalities, injuries, and property damage. This stage focuses on validating the eye glance and safety surrogate measures used to infer attention and distraction effects of CEVMS through the primary safety criterion of protecting life, health, and property.

The above stages of the proposed research program are to be pursued sequentially. The initial stage is directed at determining whether or not a potentially harmful CEVMS distraction effect exists. To demonstrate such a distraction effect, an independent and objective threshold criterion of excessive distraction must be employed. If no potentially harmful distraction is shown, at least as far as driving safety is concerned, there would be little need to pursue the second stage of developing a basis for regulating CEVMS or the third stage of relating CEVMS distraction to more direct measures of safety (crashes). If potentially harmful distraction is shown in the first stage, the second and third stages would be implemented in order. The order of the last two stages may appear to be reversed. Normally, it would seem desirable to establish a relationship between CEVMS distraction and crashes before developing a basis for regulation. However, in this instance, the LED-based digital CEVMS technology is so new that it will not be possible to reliably measure crashes for some time. Meanwhile, if possible distraction is shown, the community of practitioners engaged in outdoor advertising control will need near-term technical information on the luminance, contrast, change rates, and spacing of CEVMS to minimize that distraction. For this reason, the stages have been proposed in the order given above.

5.2 APPROACH

The literature review update in section 2.0 points to some important principles that should be incorporated into the proposed program of research to enhance the probability that the program can successfully achieve its goals. These principles can be regarded as lessons learned from the experience of previous research. First, empirical studies should employ CEVMS stimuli, as well as a variety of comparison stimuli, including standard (non-digital) billboards, built objects of casual visual interest (e.g., houses, barns), and natural background control scenery (e.g., trees, fields). This principle establishes a relevant visual context against which to contrast CEVMS stimuli. Next, empirical studies should be constructed so as to compare the effects of CEVMS and the effects of the various comparison stimuli. This principle implies that some measurable (statistically significant) effect should be demonstrated for as many of the comparison stimuli as possible, at least for the standard billboards. It is necessary to show some distraction effect for both CEVMS and standard billboards relative to a baseline to be sure that the study is not just measuring random noise in the data. In addition, for the case of distraction and safety surrogate performance measures, the measured effects of CEVMS and standard billboards need to be compared with each other and with an independently determined criterion of potentially harmful consequences. The application of this criterion needs to incorporate the concept of self-regulated attention, as indicated in section 3.0. Last, to the degree possible, direct experimental control should be exerted over the CEVMS stimuli. In the first stage of determining a meaningful distraction effect, this control can be limited to turning the CEVMS on and off for predetermined periods according to a strict experimental protocol. In the second stage of establishing possible parameter limitations, this control may need to be expanded to changing the luminance, message change rate, or some other CEVMS characteristic according to an experimental protocol.

These four principles define the basic approach for implementing the proposed research program. They provide guidance and direction to the proposed program. It should be emphasized that only a systematic multiyear broad program of research can adequately answer the important questions posed by the community interested in outdoor advertising control concerning the possible distraction effects and safety implications of CEVMS. No single experiment can provide the solution. It should also be emphasized that all stages of the research program must be sensitive to the practical needs of the outdoor advertising community, which includes highway engineers, traffic engineers, the outdoor advertising industry, environmental advocates, and outdoor advertising regulators. Even though the second stage is where most of these practical needs are addressed, at all stages of the research, investigators need to try to provide practical information on the luminance, contrast, change rate, display size, display spacing, or other parameters over which the outdoor advertising community could possibly exert some control. Administrators concerned with issuing permits for billboards need practical engineering results to assist them in there daily jobs.

5.3 STRUCTURE

As outlined above, the proposed research program consists of three stages. The first stage focuses on determining the potential existence of harmful distraction effects due to CEVMS. The second stage involves determining limitations or restrictions to CEVMS parameters which could reduce or eliminate the implied potentially harmful distracting effects. The third stage focuses on relating the reduction in implied potentially harmful distraction to actual safety benefits of decreasing crashes, fatalities, injuries, and property damage on the roadway. The sections below describe these stages in more detail.

5.3.1 Stage 1—Determination of Distraction

The first stage, to determine the potential existence of harmful CEVMS distraction, may be implemented in many different ways. According to the analysis of research strategies in section 4.0, the three most effective approaches are the on-road instrumented vehicle, the naturalistic driving, and the unobtrusive observation methods.

The on-road instrumented vehicle method is sensitive to a wide range of variables, including accurate eye glance measurements. It affords the opportunity to ensure that the test participants drive by many CEVMS and comparison sites in a structured and reproducible manner.

The naturalistic driving method is similar to the on-road instrumented vehicle technique, but it has less control since the test participants drive their own vehicles according to their own personal daily schedules. As a result, the participants may pass few, if any, billboards. Furthermore, the naturalistic driving method has difficulty supporting accurate eye glance measurements, and it requires considerably more effort and expense. However, the naturalistic driving method is less artificial and has a high degree of face validity.

Although the unobtrusive observation method also involves considerable effort and expense, the data collected are based on the observation of vehicles rather than individual drivers. The unobtrusive observation method is the least artificial of the three because with this technique, research participants are generally unaware of being observed.

This first stage of the research program would employ one or more of these study approaches as a first step. A single method could be selected, or more than one approach could be combined. For example, the on-road instrumented vehicle and the unobtrusive observation method could make an effective combination, but the cost would be high. In either case, this first stage should also be designed to answer, at least in a preliminary manner to whatever degree possible, some of the practical questions of interest to the community concerned with outdoor advertising control.

5.3.2 Stage 2—Basis for Regulation

If the results of the first stage reveal a CEVMS driver distraction effect sufficient for public concern, then the second stage of the proposed research program would be implemented to provide an initial technical basis for possible regulation. This stage would consist of a series of eye glance and safety surrogate evaluations in the field and in the laboratory designed to investigate the various parameters of CEVMS which contribute to driver distraction. Although field methods can capture the realism of the CEVMS stimulus, they do not allow the researcher to independently vary a variety of CEVMS parameters one at a time so as to isolate the effect of that variable, as some of the laboratory techniques would. For example, this second stage might begin with attempts to estimate the gross effects of certain salient CEVMS parameters in the field. Throughout this section, the brightness of the CEVMS will be used as an example, but the approach can be adapted to many other relevant CEVMS characteristics. For example, many current CEVMS displays adjust their brightness for day and night. If the outdoor advertising industry would agree to adjust the brightness of several installations both during the day and at night for the purposes of experimentation, partial estimates of the effects of brightness on eye glance behavior might be elaborated for selected luminance levels.

To obtain a more complete functional relationship between eye glance distraction and CEVMS luminance, a test track or driving simulator experiment might be devised. If it were possible to erect an experimental CEVMS installation at a test track location, the test track experiment would have realistic brightness and contrast levels, as well as controlled exposure conditions. However, it would suffer from a highly constrained and unnatural driving environment. The driving simulator experiment could easily portray a wide variety of driving environments with realistic contexts, but it would suffer from a severely restricted range of luminance and contrast ratios. Nonetheless, to overcome these disadvantages, correction factors or transformations might be applied to the test track data to account for discrepancies in level of attention and to the driving simulator data to account for photometric discrepancies. The incorporation of such correction factors or transformations to relate test track and laboratory data to driving data on real roads underscores the necessity of conducting a combination of field and laboratory testing environments in this stage of the proposed research program. Some degree of field validation needs to be a part of any laboratory component of the research during this stage.

This second stage of the research program must be designed to answer, to the degree possible, the practical questions of the community interested in outdoor advertising control. This is the stage of research which addresses functional relationships regarding the effects of CEVMS luminance (brightness), change rates, size, display spacing, and other variables on driver distraction and roadway safety. These functional relationships could subsequently be translated by outdoor advertising administrators and regulators into concrete rules which protect the safety of the driving public while at the same time allowing commercial growth and the rights of the outdoor advertising industry. To be fully successful, this stage of the research program must be pursued with active participation from all stakeholders, which include industry, environmentalists, researchers, and regulators alike.

5.3.3 Stage 3—Relationship to Crashes

The third stage of the proposed research program relates changes in potentially harmful distraction effects due to various CEVMS parameters to changes in actual roadway safety (crashes and their consequent fatalities, injuries, and property damage). This stage is directed at validating the earlier findings with regard to CEVMS distraction based on eye glance and safety surrogate measures in the context of retrospective crash data. This stage of the program would likely employ the Empirical Bayes, or Bayesian, method of analyzing crash statistics. The Bayesian approach formally incorporates prior knowledge into the process of current research, and it translates probabilistic calculations into statements of belief concerning statistical hypotheses in place of the classical confidence interval concept employed in parametric statistics. The Empirical Bayes method also incorporates the crash history of other control sites with similar traits to account for extraneous factors which may be influencing the crash data at the site of interest. In short, the Empirical Bayes method possesses distinct statistical advantages over the naïve before/after technique and even the before/after technique with a simple control. The Empirical Bayes method is well suited for the task of estimating vehicle crash rates along different stretches of roadway, including those stretches with CEVMS. The prediction of baseline crash rates, and their potential increase or decrease with the introduction of CEVMS, is essential to this final stage of the proposed research program. This final stage should also be designed to answer, to whatever degree possible based on crash statistics, some of the practical questions of interest to the community concerned with outdoor advertising control. Because of the low numbers of crashes and their susceptibility to multiple determining causes, considerable effort, time, and expense will likely have to be expended on this final stage.

6.0 RECOMMENDED FIRST STAGE STUDY

The first stage of the research program, determination of distraction, provides the context for selecting the recommended next study. The first goal of this stage of the program is to determine whether any observed or measured distraction due to CEVMS is sufficient to interfere with attentional criteria for safe driving. The second goal is to provide some preliminary practical technical information that could be of help to the community interested in outdoor advertising control. This goal could consist of furnishing initial indications of the possible distraction effects produced by one or more of the concrete variables over which the community might exert some control, such as luminance (brightness), change rate, display size, and display spacing. According to the analysis summarized in section 4.0, to provide an initial answer to these types of questions, the three most effective research strategies are the on-road instrumented vehicle, the naturalistic driving, and the unobtrusive observation methods. In the present section, one possible preliminary study is briefly described using each of these three approaches. A more detailed description of each study approach is given in appendix B. This detailed description includes more specific information on the general method, factors and measures employed, advantages and disadvantages, and budgetary cost. After project initiation, a more comprehensive work plan and more in-depth budget will need to be developed. That comprehensive work plan should receive inputs from all of the important stakeholders in CEVMS research, which include industry, environmentalists, researchers, and regulators alike. After careful and thorough deliberation, the final details of that comprehensive work plan and budget may differ considerably from what is suggested in this section or in appendix B.

6.1 SUMMARY OF STUDY APPROACHES

6.1.1 On-Road Instrumented Vehicle

The on-road instrumented vehicle method employs an instrumented vehicle which is brought to the study site. The study site is a location where there are one or more CEVMS installations along a public access roadway. Each research participant drives the instrumented vehicle along a prescribed route, which includes CEVMS installations, standard (non-digital) billboards, objects of casual visual interest (e.g., houses and barns), and natural background control scenery (e.g., trees and fields). Each participant completes several such drives. The instrumented vehicle is capable of measuring vehicle speed, vehicle lane position, longitudinal acceleration, lateral acceleration, GPS time and position, and driver eye glance direction and duration. The instrumented vehicle is also equipped with accurate vehicle-mounted or head-mounted eye-tracking equipment, video cameras (forward and cab views), and a voice recorder. The major independent variable in the study is the presence or absence of CEVMS and other comparison visual stimuli along the driving path. If possible, the CEVMS should be capable of being turned off and on or changing along some other dimension like luminance or change rate, according to a prearranged experimental design. Other important independent variables are the time of day (day/night), traffic conditions (peak, nonpeak) and driver variables (age, gender, and route familiarity). The primary dependent variables are the frequency, direction, and duration of driver eye glances. Secondary dependent measures are safety surrogate indicators associated with driver errors and other measures of driver performance, such as speed changes, headway, lane deviation, and traffic conflicts. A rough budgetary estimate for conducting such an on-road instrumented vehicle study is between $400,000 and $800,000 (see appendix B for more details).

6.1.2 Naturalistic Driving

The naturalistic driving method employs a standardized instrument package which is installed in each participant's own private vehicle or in a vehicle loaned to the participant. The participant's vehicle appears and performs as it normally would. Participants drive their vehicles as part of their daily life routines, making control of CEVMS exposure difficult. The instrument package is capable of measuring speed, lane position, acceleration, GPS time and position, driver eye glance frequency, direction, and duration. However, because of the unobtrusive nature of the experimental technique, this method cannot support the use of accurate head-mounted or vehicle-mounted eye-tracking equipment. Once the participant's vehicle has been instrumented, data are collected by means of automatic wireless downloads without participant awareness or involvement. The major independent variable is the presence or absence of CEVMS and other comparison visual stimuli (standard billboards, buildings, control settings, etc.) along the driven path. If possible, the CEVMS should be controlled according to a prearranged experimental protocol. Secondary independent variables could include the type of vehicle (sedan, pickup, or SUV) and driver characteristics (age, gender, and route familiarity). The primary measures or dependent variables are the frequency, direction, and duration of the driver's eye glances. However, as a result of the lower degree of accuracy in eye movement recording, this study method depends more heavily on secondary dependent variables. Safety surrogate measures associated with driver errors and other measures of driver performance (headway, lane deviation, conflicts, and erratic maneuvers) are of increased importance in this method. Additional dependent variables may include the time of day (day/night), traffic conditions (peak, nonpeak), in-vehicle distractions (eating, cell phone use), state of fatigue, etc. A rough budgetary estimate for conducting such a naturalistic driving study is between $2 million and $4 million (see appendix B for more details).

6.1.3 Unobtrusive Observation

The unobtrusive observation method employs an array of static cameras or other sensors mounted near the locations of the CEVMS and other comparison stimuli. The cameras are capable of recording the behavior of vehicles passing the various relevant visual stimuli as a part of the natural flow of traffic. The drivers are usually completely unaware that their vehicles are being observed. Post-hoc analysis of the video recordings from these cameras can yield data similar to some of that obtained by the on-road instrumented vehicle and naturalistic driving methods including vehicle speed, lane position, acceleration, and time. However, the data from distal video cameras are usually far less accurate and reliable than what can be collected by instruments on board the vehicle. Moreover, with present measurement technology, such video recordings cannot yield any data concerning driver eye glance movements. The major independent variable is the presence or absence of CEVMS and other comparison visual stimuli (standard billboards, buildings, etc.) along the driving path. If possible, the CEVMS should be controlled according to a prearranged experimental protocol.

Some secondary independent variables might include the time of day (day/night) and traffic conditions (peak, nonpeak). This study method depends completely on safety surrogate measures associated with driver errors and other measures of driver performance (headway, lane deviation, and erratic maneuvers), and it requires a large camera array over a long distance recording for extended periods, as well as extensive data analysis. A rough budgetary estimate for conducting such an unobtrusive observation study is between $1 million and $3 million (see appendix B for more details).

6.2 COMPARISON OF STUDY ALTERNATIVES

This section has introduced and described three different candidate approaches for the recommended next study, which include the on-road instrumented vehicle method, the naturalistic driving method, and the unobtrusive observation method. Each study method would be capable of addressing the two-part basic research question to determine whether any observed or measured distraction due to CEVMS is sufficient to interfere with attentional criteria for safe driving, and to provide some preliminary practical technical information that could be of help to the community interested in outdoor advertising control. However, each method has certain advantages and disadvantages with regard to its ability to address these two questions.

The on-road instrumented vehicle method was judged the best, having the advantage of being sensitive to a wide range of participant variables, including accurate eye glance measurements with real CEVMS stimuli in natural settings. The degree of experimental control afforded by this method makes it the most productive of the three. Driving scenarios can be selected with a number of CEVMS and standard billboard stimuli along a single drive, which can be repeated both within and across research participants. To the degree that accurate measurements of visual distraction and eye glance behavior are pivotal dependent variables, the on-road instrumented vehicle method has the clear advantage. The high degree of experimental control ensures that exposure to CEVMS and to comparing visual stimuli is uniform and consistent. The on-road instrumented vehicle approach is the most productive research method for producing quality data in the shortest amount of time for the least cost.

The naturalistic driving method was judged the second best, offering some similar advantages to the on-road instrumented vehicle method. However, it suffered from less experimental control over CEVMS exposure, less ability to capture participant-related variables, and more logistical complication and expense. Both of these methods are somewhat related from the perspective of the research participant. In both cases, the research participant is driving in an instrumented vehicle on a real road. Both allow the determination of driver eye glance behavior to some degree, but the increased level of experimental control exercised in the on-road instrumented vehicle method gives this technique a distinct advantage, both in terms of more accurate eye glance measurements and more consistent driver exposure.

Finally, unobtrusive observation of safety surrogate measures involves no direct contact with the driver, thus preserving a completely natural driving environment. However, this method is not sensitive to participant variables. In particular, it is not possible to measure eye glance behavior with this method. This method depends solely on safety surrogate measures. Furthermore, since these safety surrogate measures are relatively subtle to detect at a distance, this method can be costly and time-consuming to implement.

The on-road instrumented vehicle method has a strong advantage in productivity and efficiency. The major advantage of the other two methods is the natural and unobtrusive nature of the study procedure from the perspective of the research participants. However, some degree of artificiality may be a small price to pay to gain the cost effectiveness of the on-road instrumented vehicle method. In the final analysis, the present report recommends the on-road instrumented vehicle method as the best choice for the first stage study. This recommendation is made on the basis of scientific merit, timeliness of producing a meaningful result, and cost.

7.0 CONCLUSIONS

The present report reviews the possible safety effects of CEVMS. The report consists of an update of earlier published work, an investigation of applicable research methods and techniques, recommendations for future research, and an extensive reference list and bibliography. The literature review update covers recent post-hoc crash studies, field investigations, laboratory investigations, previous literature reviews, and reviews of practice. The conclusion of the literature review is that the current body of knowledge represents an inconclusive scientific result with regard to demonstrating detrimental driver safety effects due to CEVMS exposure. This outcome points toward the importance of conducting carefully controlled and methodologically sound future research on the issue.

The present report also analyzes the key factors or independent variables affecting a driver's response to CEVMS and the key measures or dependent variables which serve as indicators of driver safety. These key factors and measures are selected, combined, and integrated into a set of optimal research strategies. Based on these strategies, as well as on lessons learned from the literature review update, a proposed long-term program of research has been developed to address the problem. This research program consists of three stages, which include determination of distraction, basis for possible regulation, and relationship of distraction to crashes.

The present report only addresses the first stage of the proposed research program in detail. For this first stage, three candidate studies, which are an on-road instrumented vehicle study, a naturalistic driving study, and an unobtrusive observation study, have been introduced and compared. An analysis of the relative advantages and disadvantages of each study indicate that the on-road instrumented vehicle study is the best choice as the recommended first stage in answering the basic research question.

APPENDIX A—EXPANDED TABLES

A.1 KEY FACTORS (INDEPENDENT VARIABLES)

Table 1. Expanded key factors (independent variables).

Variable	Ref. #	Advantages	Disadvantages
1.0 Billboard			
1.1 Location	8, 129, 38, 15, 44, 32		
1.1.1 Lat./long.; GPS; mile marker; survey location; reference location; mobile	13, 53, 160	Important to define stimulus; Easy to measure.	Likely to require travel expenses.
1.1.2 Distance from roadway; setback			Less important.
1.1.3 Sight distance; visual occlusions; distance first detected	13, 53	Determines exposure time.	
1.1.4 Orientation; angle to road; side of road; two-sided	144		Less important.
1.2 Display	144		
1.2.1 Type: Conventional; Digital; Tri-vision	125, 48	Digital type stands out.	Tri-vision likely to disappear.
1.2.2 Size; length; height; visual angle; mounting height	129, 32	Off-premise sizes somewhat standard.	On-premise sizes variable.
1.2.3 Resolution; dpi; LEDs/in	95, 48, 53	Crispness (sharpness) of image important.	
1.2.4 Luminance; contrast ratio; day/night settings	48, 53, 144	Brightness (luminance) extremely important.	Night setting may depend upon background illumination.
1.3 Dynamics	31		

Variable	Ref. #	Advantages	Disadvantages
1.3.1 Type: static; changing	158, 129, 26	Changing images extremely important. Static serves as control.	
1.3.2 Change rate; dwell time; change time; sequencing	48, 50, 158, 94	Change pattern important. Easy to measure.	
1.3.3 Special effects: wipe, dissolve, scintillate		Adds to uniqueness and conspicuity.	More difficult to measure.
1.3.4 Full motion video	125, 126	Full motion video extremely compelling.	Difficult to specify exact content seen.
1.3.5 Engagement value: ability to hold attention		Important overall distraction variable	Difficult to measure; requires subjective rating.
1.3.6 Sound			
1.4 Message	129, 44, 144, 53		
1.4.1 Type: text; graphics; mixed; targeted	32, 31	Particular message may be secondary.	
1.4.2 Text: word count; font size; color; content; legibility; affect	32, 48		Many variations. Less important.
1.4.3 Graphics: size; complexity; color; content; affect	31, 50		Difficult to specify. Many varieties.
1.4.4 Public safety alerts		Social benefit.	May be more distracting than advertising.
1.4.5 Interactive: encourages driver response		Interactive may require more attention.	
2.0 Roadway			
2.1 Type			

Variable	Ref. #	Advantages	Disadvantages
2.1.1 Category: two-lane rural; collector; arterial; freeway	13, 15 71, 54	Important determinate of driver workload.	Many variations even in single category.
2.1.2 Lanes: number; width; markings; medians; shoulders; rumble strips			Less important.
2.1.3 Speed: posted; advisory; 85th percentile; median	50	Changes urgency of correct driving responses.	
2.1.4 Condition: dry, wet, ice, rain; oil slick		Important to driver control over vehicle.	
2.1.5 Traction: coefficient of friction			
2.2 Complexity	15		
2.2.1 Tangent: level; grade			Less important.
2.2.2 Curve: horizontal; vertical	13, 44, 118	May place sudden demand on driver attention.	
2.2.3 Intersection: signalized; stop controlled	129, 38, 48	Increased driver workload.	Wide variety of intersection complexities.
2.2.4 Interchange: exit, entrance, merge, gore	26, 44, 32, 48	Controlled access. More carefully engineered.	
2.2.5 Driveway; entrance			Less important.
2.2.6 Lane change: merge; diverge; lane drop		May place sudden demand on driver attention.	
2.2.7 Other: bicycle lane; fire house			Less important.
2.3 Traffic	158, 38, 15, 113,		

Variable	Ref. #	Advantages	Disadvantages
2.3.1 Average daily traffic; peak traffic; level of service	118	Likely to increase driver workload.	
2.3.2 Traffic mix: cars, trucks, buses, motorcycles			Less important.
2.3.3 Pedestrians			Mainly only in urban settings.
3.0 Vehicle	59		
3.1 Type: automobile; SUV; truck; motorcycle		Motorcycle has least obstructed view.	
3.2 Condition: response; vehicle dynamics			Hard to determine in field.
3.3 Windshield: size; tinting; field of view		Defines some stimulus exposure characteristics.	
4.0 Driver	10		
4.1 Characteristics: age; gender; demographics	53, 23, 12, 54		Less important.
4.2 Experience: years driving; route familiarity	15, 100	Route familiarity extremely important.	
4.3 State: alert; fatigue; alcohol; drugs			Difficult to measure.
4.4 Distractions: conversation; eating; cell phone	24, 90, 25		
5.0 Environment			
5.1 Visual—general	113		
5.1.1 Visual clutter; nearby billboards; ambient lighting	160, 15, 32, 44	Complexity of visual environment extremely important.	Difficult to specify.

Variable	Ref. #	Advantages	Disadvantages
5.1.2 Day/night viewing: dawn; dusk; sun-glare	53	Nighttime viewing of bright images important.	
5.1.3 Visual flow			Less important.
5.2 Official signs	160, 2, 26, 100		
5.2.1 Type: regulatory, advisory, navigational	94	Regulatory most important.	
5.2.2 Location: left, right, overhead	44, 15	Billboard can conflict with sign.	
5.2.3 Lighting: illuminated; luminous (VMS); retro-reflective		Luminous (VMS) signs most important.	
5.2.4 Density: number in view, type mix	15		Many variations in urban settings.
5.2.5 Dynamics: change rate; motion; video		Extremely important point of possible conflict.	Motion and video not yet allowed.
5.2.6 Message: text; graphics			Less important
5.3 On-premise signs			
5.3.1 Type: conventional; Tri-vision; digital; full motion video	144	Digital and video most important.	Tri-vision likely to disappear.
5.3.2 Location: left, right, high, low	144		
5.3.3 Lighting: illuminated; luminous; LED	144	Bright, high resolution very compelling.	Difficult to measure.
5.3.4 Density: number in view, type mix		Can add to visual clutter.	Many variations possible.
5.3.4 Dynamics: change rate; motion; video; sound	144	Extremely important variable.	

Variable	Ref. #	Advantages	Disadvantages
5.3.5 Message: text; graphics; interactive		Interactive important.	Text and graphics less important.
5.4 Geographic	15		
5.4.1 Population: urban; suburban; rural	13, 71	Can affect visual clutter.	Many variations.
5.4.2 Terrain: mountain; valley; desert; hilly; near water		Can affect driver workload.	Many variations.
5.4.3 Area: city; state; region			Less important.
5.5 Meteorological			
5.5.1 Temperature; humidity; cloud cover	53		Less important.
5.5.2 Precipitation: rain; snow; fog; ice; visibility	53	Can affect driver workload.	

A.2 KEY MEASURES (DEPENDENT VARIABLES)

Table 2. Expanded key measures (dependent variables).

Variable	Ref. #	Advantages	Disadvantages
1.0 Vehicle Behavior	48		
1.1 Speed	125, 50		
1.1.1 Continuous		More accurate profile.	Large amounts of data. Expensive.
1.1.2 Discrete locations		Less data.	Cheaper.
1.1.3 Speed exceedances: high; low		Distraction indicator.	
1.1.4 Speed variance		Distraction indicator.	Best with continuous data.
1.2 Lane position	161, 48, 54		
1.2.1 Continuous		More accurate profile.	Large amounts of data. Expensive.
1.2.2 Discrete locations		Less data.	Cheaper.
1.2.3 Lane excursions: right; left	23	Distraction indicator.	More difficult to measure.
1.2.4 Lane variance		Distraction indicator.	Best with continuous data.
1.3 Acceleration	48, 54		
1.3.1 Longitudinal: hard braking; delayed acceleration; braking without cause		Excellent surrogate for distraction.	
1.3.2 Lateral: swerves	39	Good surrogate for distraction.	
1.3.3 Heave: bumps	125, 48		Not important.
1.4 Other vehicle interactions	39		

Variable	Ref. #	Advantages	Disadvantages
1.4.1 Headway (car following); time to collision	125, 48, 118	Good surrogate for distraction.	
1.4.2 Gap acceptance: merge; passing		Good surrogate for distraction.	Difficult to measure.
1.4.3 Conflicts; near-crashes	125	Extremely important measure.	
1.4.4 Violations: red light running; failure to yield; failure to stop			Low probability events.
1.4.5 Errors: missed exit; wrong lane		Good surrogate for distraction.	
1.4.6 Timing: late movements; premature movements			Difficult to measure.
1.5 Infrastructure interactions			
1.5.1 Response to roadway geometry: swerves; sudden braking	118, 15	Surrogate for distraction.	
1.5.2 Response to traffic control devices: misses, delays	15	Surrogate for distraction.	
1.5.3 Pedestrian interactions; yields			Only in urban settings.
1.6 Signals	39		
1.6.1 Brake light	125	Indication of sudden deceleration.	
1.6.2 Turn signals			Less important.
1.6.3 Other: backup lights			Not important.

Variable	Ref. #	Advantages	Disadvantages
2.0 Driver/Vehicle Interactions			
2.1 Steering			
2.1.1 Gross movements: curves; turns		Surrogate for distraction.	
2.1.2 Fine movements: lane keeping	60		Difficult to measure.
2.2 Throttle			
2.2.1 Pedal press; pedal position; duration			Less important.
2.2.2 Pedal release; duration			Less important.
2.3 Brake	125		
2.3.1 Pedal press; duration; excursion		Surrogate for distraction.	
2.3.2 Pedal release			Less important.
2.4 Shift (manual only)			
2.4.1 Gear selection (speed)			Not important.
2.4.2 Gear transitions (shifts)			Not important.
2.5 Displays	154		
2.5.1 Speedometer		Secondary visual distractor.	
2.5.2 Other: gauges; radio			Less important.
2.6 Other controls	154, 25		
2.6.1 Safety: windshield wipers; instrument lights; horn; turn signals	54		Less important, except turn signals.

Variable	Ref. #	Advantages	Disadvantages
2.6.2 Entertainment: radio; CD player	48, 24, 54	Secondary distractor.	
2.6.3 Auditory/vocal: voice actuated	154		Low probability of occurrence.
3.0 Driver Attention / Distraction	79, 113, 32, 146, 145		
3.1 Objective measures	129		
3.1.1 Eye glance behavior: eye movements; number of glances; duration of glances; glance object	129, 42, 125, 53, 160, 83, 161, 78	Excellent measure of unconscious attention / distraction.	Delicate, expensive equipment. Difficult to calibrate. Expensive to analyze data.
3.1.2 Distractor performance; secondary task	83, 53	Excellent measure of distraction.	Can increase risk in field experiments. Can be artificial.
3.1.3 Visual occlusion	15	Good measure of distraction.	Can increase risk in field experiments. Unnatural driving task.
3.1.4 Feature detection	48		
3.1.5 Feature recognition	48	Good measure.	
3.1.6 Driver workload; task performance	38, 15, 113	Excellent indicator of distraction.	Complicated to measure.
3.1.7 Head turning	78	Easy to measure.	Less important.
3.1.8 Driver errors	83	Excellent measure of distraction.	Many varieties. Low probability of occurrence.
3.1.9 Reaction time; perception-reaction time	15	Good indicator of distraction.	Difficult to measure.
3.2 Inferred measures			
3.2.1 Surprise; orienting response			Difficult to measure.

Variable	Ref. #	Advantages	Disadvantages
3.2.2 Conspicuity; attention grabbing			Difficult to measure.
3.2.3 Search patterns	15	Indicative of visual hypotheses.	
3.2.4 Capacity: self-regulated attention; spare capacity	15	Extremely important concept.	Hard to establish criterion threshold.
3.3 Subjective measures	161		
3.3.1 Conversational drive		Good possible method.	Lots of extraneous data.
3.3.2 Rating scale		Inexpensive.	Imprecise.
3.3.3 Questionnaire		Inexpensive.	Imprecise.
3.3.4 Survey	125	Relatively inexpensive.	Sampling frame difficult.
3.3.5 Focus group		Small sample. Lots of data.	Confounding social variables.
4.0 Crashes	158, 125, 26, 44, 128, 161, 95, 121		
4.1 Type: head-on; sideswipe; rear-end; backing; run-off-road; pedestrian	39	Very important discriminator variable. Related to ultimate goal.	Rare events. Many contributing factors. Difficult to estimate statistically.
4.2 Severity: fatal; injury; property damage; unreported		Important to determine impact.	Rare events. Many factors. Difficult to estimate statistically.
4.3 Method of measurement			Rare events. Hard to estimate.
4.3.1 Direct observation: simulator; field camera	42	Best studied in simulator. No chance of injury.	
4.3.2 Before/after study	39, 158	Most common study type.	No control site. Regression toward mean.

Variable	**Ref. #**	**Advantages**	**Disadvantages**
4.3.3 Before/after with control		Control adds rigor.	Regression toward mean.
4.3.4 Before/after/before		More convincing causal effect.	Regression toward mean.
4.3.5 Regression model		Directly account for multiple factors	Large amounts of data on many variables
4.3.6 Empirical Bayes		Control for regression toward mean.	More complicated statistical model.
4.3.7 Full Bayes		More complete treatment of conditional probabilities.	Not widely used.

A.3 KEY RESEARCH STRATEGIES

Table 3. Expanded key research strategies.

Method	Ref. #	Advantages	Disadvantages
1.0 Crashes: Field	97, 95, 21		
1.1 Unobtrusive observation			
1.1.1 Participant: random, uncontrolled; usually unknown	49	No sampling bias.	Do not know participant sample.
1.1.2 Experimenter: usually absent; remote observation; unknown to participant	49	No artificial participant behaviors due to experimenter.	
1.1.3 Stimuli: natural, ordinary, in context; variable, uncontrolled	49	Natural stimuli.	Stimuli not uniform; e.g., weather effects.
1.1.4 Responses: crashes; antecedent vehicle behaviors; rare; few participant variables	49	Directly related to the safety goal.	Extremely rare events; insensitive to participant variables.
1.1.5 Scenario: natural route and purpose; uses own vehicle	49	Completely natural experimental context; uses own vehicle.	Long-term monitoring required.
1.2 Naturalistic driving			
1.2.1 Participant: selected, sampled	79, 78, 42	Know participant sample.	Possible sampling bias.
1.2.2 Experimenter: absent; remote observation; known to participant	79, 78, 42		Possible artificial participant behaviors.
1.2.3 Stimuli: natural, ordinary, in context; variable, uncontrolled	79, 78, 64, 42	Natural stimuli.	Stimuli not uniform; e.g., weather effects.
1.2.4 Responses: crashes; antecedent vehicle and participant behaviors; rare	79, 78, 64, 42	Directly related to ultimate goal; sensitive to some participant variables.	Extremely rare events; difficult to collect adequate sample of crashes.

Method	**Ref. #**	**Advantages**	**Disadvantages**
1.2.5 Scenario: natural route and trip purpose; uses own vehicle	79, 78, 64, 42	Mostly natural experimental context; uses own or borrowed vehicle.	Participant aware of test status; may be injured or killed; vehicle may be damaged or destroyed; expensive.
1.3 Retrospective database: fatal, injury, property damage	87, 49, 128, 14, 58,	Directly related to ultimate goal.	Crashes are rare events; difficult to estimate.
1.3.1 Before-after study	158, 1, 130	Most common study type.	No control site; regression toward mean.
1.3.2 Before-after study with control	120	Control adds rigor.	Regression toward mean.
1.3.3 Before-after-before study		More convincing causal effect.	Regression toward mean.
1.3.4 Regression model		Directly account for multiple factors.	Large amounts of data on many variables.
1.3.5 Empirical Bayes		Control for regression toward mean.	More complicated statistical model.
1.3.6 Full Bayes		More complete treatment of conditional probabilities.	Not widely used.
2.0 Crashes: Laboratory			
2.1 Driving simulator			
2.1.1 Participant: selected, sampled	70	Know participant sample.	Possible sampling bias.
2.1.2 Experimenter: remotely present, unobtrusive observation	70	More experimenter control.	Possible artificial participant behaviors.
2.1.3 Stimuli: simulated, artificial; consistent, controlled	70	Extremely repeatable stimulus conditions.	Artificial stimuli; hard to simulate conspicuity and legibility.

Method	Ref. #	Advantages	Disadvantages
2.1.4 Responses: programmed crashes; antecedent participant and vehicle behaviors; can be more frequent crashes	70	Some control over crashes; can program more frequent crash opportunities.	Lack of negative consequences can unnaturally alter frequency of crashes.
2.1.5 Scenario: contrived route, artificial; unnatural vehicle and environment; safe from harm	70	Control over driving scenario; participant safe from harm.	Unnatural vehicle and environment; artificial scenario; simulator sickness.
2.2 Non-simulator laboratory	87		
2.2.1 Crash scenarios: movies, pictures, acting out		Relatively easy; less resources.	Artificial, out-of-context testing environment.
2.2.2 Crash reconstructions: questionnaires, focus groups		Relatively easy; focus groups more expensive.	Artificial, out-of-context testing environment; focus group social biases.
3.0 Safety Surrogate: Field	34, 85		
3.1 Unobtrusive observation			
3.1.1 Participant: random, uncontrolled; usually unknown	15	No sampling bias.	Do not know participant sample.
3.1.2 Experimenter: usually absent; remote observation; unknown to participant	15	No artificial participant behaviors due to experimenter.	
3.1.3 Stimuli: natural, ordinary, in context; variable, uncontrolled	15	Natural stimuli.	Stimuli not uniform; e.g., weather effects.
3.1.4 Responses: crash precursors; antecedent vehicle behaviors; more frequent; few participant variables	15	More frequent events than crashes; can collect more data with less risk.	Crash precursors only indirect indicators; insensitive to participant variables.
3.1.5 Scenario: natural route and trip purpose; uses own vehicle	15	Completely natural experimental context; uses own vehicle.	
3.2 Naturalistic driving			

Method	Ref. #	Advantages	Disadvantages
3.2.1 Participant: selected, sampled	79, 78, 42	Know participant sample.	Possible sampling bias.
3.2.2 Experimenter: absent; remote observation; known to participant	79, 78, 42		Possible artificial participant behaviors.
3.2.3 Stimuli: natural, ordinary, in context; variable, uncontrolled	79, 78, 42	Natural stimuli.	Stimuli not uniform; e.g., weather effects.
3.2.4 Responses: crash precursors; antecedent vehicle and participant behaviors; more frequent events	79, 78, 42	More frequent events than crashes; can collect more data with less risk.	Crash precursors only indirect indicators.
3.2.5 Scenario: natural route and trip purpose; uses own vehicle	79, 78, 118, 42	Mostly natural experimental context; uses own or long-term borrowed vehicle.	Participant aware of test status; may be injured or killed; vehicle may be damaged or destroyed; expensive.
3.3 On-road instrumented vehicle	14		
3.3.1 Participant: selected, sampled	54, 18	Know participant sample.	Possible sampling bias.
3.3.2 Experimenter: present; direct observation and interaction	83	More experimenter control; increased experiment safety.	Possible artificial participant behaviors.
3.3.3 Stimuli: selected; natural, in context	83, 18	Natural stimuli.	Stimuli not uniform; e.g., weather effects.
3.3.4 Responses: crash precursors; antecedent vehicle and participant behaviors; more frequent	54, 18	More frequent events than crashes; can collect more data with less risk.	Crash precursors only indirect indicators.
3.3.5 Scenario: natural route, artificial trip purpose; uses experimental vehicle	54, 83, 18	Semi-natural experimental context; more safe.	Artificial trip purpose; unfamiliar vehicle.
3.4 Closed-course test track			

Method	Ref. #	Advantages	Disadvantages
3.4.1 Participant: selected, sampled	136	Know participant sample.	Possible sampling bias.
3.4.2 Experimenter: present; direct observation and interaction	136	More experimenter control; increased experiment safety.	Possible artificial participant behaviors.
3.4.3 Stimuli: selected; out of context	136	Semi-natural stimuli.	Stimuli not uniform; some possible control.
3.4.4 Responses: crash precursors; antecedent vehicle and participant behaviors; more frequent	136	More frequent events than crashes; can collect more data with less risk.	Crash precursors only indirect indicators.
3.4.5 Scenario: unnatural route, artificial trip purpose; uses experimental vehicle	136	Low probability of harm to participant or vehicle.	Unnatural experimental context.
3.5 Commentary driving			
3.5.1 Participant: selected, sampled	36	Know participant sample.	Possible sampling bias.
3.5.2 Experimenter: present; direct observation; extensive interaction	36	More experimenter control; increased experiment safety.	Possible artificial participant behaviors.
3.5.3 Stimuli: selected; natural, in context	36	Natural stimuli.	Stimuli not uniform; e.g., weather effects.
3.5.4 Responses: extensive driver commentary; running verbal description; crash precursors observable		Collect large amounts of data; direct observation of gross attention.	Commentary could interfere with driving task; artificial task.
3.5.5 Scenario: natural route, artificial trip purpose		Semi-natural experimental context; more safe.	Artificial trip purpose.
3.6 Non-vehicle based field testing			
3.6.1 Roadside interviews	14, 125, 85	Relatively easy; less resources.	Artificial, distal testing environment.

Method	Ref. #	Advantages	Disadvantages
3.6.2 Fuel station, nearby mall interviews		Relatively easy; less resources.	Artificial, out-of-context testing environment.
4.0 Safety Surrogate: Laboratory	36		
4.1 Driving simulator			
4.1.1 Participant: selected, sampled	161, 4, 70, 82	Know participant sample.	Possible sampling bias.
4.1.2 Experimenter: remotely present, unobtrusive observation	161, 4, 70, 82	More experimenter control.	Possible artificial participant behaviors.
4.1.3 Stimuli: simulated, artificial; consistent, controlled	161, 4, 70, 82	Extremely repeatable stimulus conditions.	Artificial stimuli; hard to simulate conspicuity and legibility.
4.1.4 Responses: programmed crash precursors; antecedent participant and vehicle behaviors; can have more frequent events	10, 82, 4	Some control over near-crashes; can program more frequent near-crash opportunities.	Lack of negative consequences can unnaturally alter frequency of near-crashes.
4.1.5 Scenario: contrived route, artificial; unnatural vehicle and environment; safe from harm	161, 4, 70, 82	Control over driving scenario; participant safe from harm.	Unnatural vehicle and environment; artificial scenario; simulator sickness.
4.2 Non-simulator laboratory	75		
4.2.1 Pre-crash scenarios: movies, pictures, acting out	160, 36	Relatively easy; less resources.	Artificial, out-of-context testing environment; weak response measure.
4.2.2 Pre-crash reconstructions: questionnaires, focus groups	36	Relatively easy; focus groups more expensive.	Artificial, out-of-context testing environment; weak response measure; focus group social biases.
5.0 Social Survey	14, 125		
5.1 Telephone survey		Less resources; personal interviewer; more flexible.	Out of context; opinions only; more labor intensive; smaller scale.

Method	**Ref. #**	**Advantages**	**Disadvantages**
5.2 Mail survey		Less resources; standardized; larger scale.	Out of context; opinions only.
5.3 E-mail survey		Less resources; standardized; large scale.	Out of context; opinions only; internet user bias.
6.0 Analytical Study			
6.1 Literature review	53, 38, 26, 129, 52	Benefit from previous knowledge and mistakes.	Based on old information; abstract; hard to apply.
6.2 Review of practice	15, 44	Socially oriented, practical, legal.	Based on old information; not scientific; possibly misleading.
6.3 Deductive-inductive reasoning study	26	Less resources; no need for new data.	Must often make dangerous assumptions; cannot fill in knowledge gaps.

APPENDIX B—DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF STUDIES

B.1 ON-ROAD INSTRUMENTED VEHICLE APPROACH

The most effective research strategy to emerge from the analysis undertaken in section 6.0 is the on-road instrumented vehicle method. The following describes one possible study which might be conducted using this method.

B.1.1 Method

The on-road instrumented vehicle method employs an instrumented vehicle which is brought to the study site, along with a crew of about two or three researchers. The study site is a location where there is at least one CEVMS installation along a public access roadway. Preferably, there would be several CEVMS installations at the location so that a single test driving scenario might pass a few different CEVMS in the course of about half an hour of driving. The investigation should include at least two or three study sites which already have CEVMS in place. At each study site, approximately 20 to 30 research participants would be recruited from the local area.

Each research participant would drive the instrumented vehicle along a prescribed route, which includes CEVMS installations, standard (non-digital) billboards, human-constructed objects of casual visual interest (houses, barns, etc.), and natural background control scenery (trees, fields, etc.). Each drive takes less than 1 hour (preferably about 30 minutes), and each participant would return for several drives on different days. Other aspects would vary as well, such as the time of day, traffic density, and CEVMS conditions (e.g., CEVMS turned on versus CEVMS turned off). Each participant would complete between three and six such drives. The instrumented vehicle and crew would usually remain at a given study site for about 1 to 2 months. The crew would consist of an experimenter and a safety observer, who would both be present in the instrumented vehicle. The safety observer would also serve as a research assistant or technician. The instrumented vehicle is capable of measuring vehicle speed, vehicle lane position, longitudinal acceleration, lateral acceleration, GPS time and position, and driver eye glance direction and duration. The instrumented vehicle is also equipped with accurate vehicle-mounted or head-mounted eye-tracking equipment, video cameras (forward and cab views) and a voice recorder.

B.1.2 Factors and Measures

The major factors or independent variables in the study are the presence or absence of CEVMS and other comparison visual stimuli (standard billboards, buildings, etc.) along the driving path. If possible, the CEVMS should be capable of being turned off and on or changed along some other dimension like luminance or change rate, according to a prearranged experimental design. The period of time that the CEVMS is off or changed could be kept relatively brief and carefully controlled since the study will follow a strict protocol. Other important independent variables are the time of day (day/night), traffic conditions (peak and nonpeak), and driver variables (age, gender, and route familiarity). One or more of the primary CEVMS variables of interest to the community concerned with outdoor advertising control should be represented by varying levels along the driving route (e.g., different degrees of luminance, change rate, or display spacing) as much as possible. Direct experimental control would be preferable to site selection in this regard.

The primary measure or dependent variable in this study is the frequency, direction, and duration of driver eye glances, which serves as an indication of visual attention and distraction. The fundamental hypothesis is that drivers have limited attention; they self-regulate their attention to perform demanding tasks. In the case of the driving task, a certain proportion of their attention needs to be concentrated on the roadway scene ahead. To the degree that eye glance behavior can serve as a measure of visual attention, eye glances need to be concentrated on the roadway ahead. If the frequency and duration of eye glances away from the roadway ahead exceed accepted norms or criteria for keeping a driver's eyes on the road, then driver safety may be compromised. Thus, eye glance behavior is the primary dependent variable in the study. Eye glance behavior has an intuitive connection to visual attention and is sensitive to subtle visual search strategies, including those which are below the level of conscious awareness (see section 2.7.2). Depending upon the type of eye glance measuring instrumentation selected, the act of measuring eye glance behavior may prove to be a more or less significant distraction to the driver in itself. This experimentally-induced artifact can be controlled by selecting a minimally intrusive measurement method or by ensuring adequate adaptation to the instrumentation on the part of the research participant.

This study includes another class of secondary dependent variables. These are safety surrogate measures associated with driver errors and other measures of driver performance, such as speed changes, headway, lane deviation, and traffic conflicts. These secondary variables can be measured by instrumentation in the vehicle in terms of speed, acceleration, and lane position. These secondary variables can also be directly observed and noted by the experimenter and/or safety observer in the instrumented vehicle for later analysis in terms of sudden braking, inadequate headway, swerving, and conflicts. Thus, events indicative of possible driver error or other maladaptive behavior can be flagged by human observers. Also, for these events, only objective vehicle performance data needs to be analyzed, saving considerable effort and expense by eliminating the need to analyze large amounts of continuous vehicle performance data.

B.1.3 Advantages/Disadvantages

One advantage of this method is its ability to implement accurate eye-tracking measurements which afford the opportunity to observe subtle and often unconscious eye movements. This ability to measure unconscious eye movements correlates with unconscious distraction facilitates incorporation of the notion of self-regulated attention into the experimental paradigm. When a driver is attempting to concentrate on the roadway ahead, a distractor, which unconsciously diverts attention away from the roadway against the driver's will, may have a more severe safety consequence than a distractor which can be maintained under conscious and voluntary control. Thus, in addition to being able to measure distraction which is both conscious and voluntary, accurate eye-tracking determinations have the potential to probe other phenomena, such as unconscious and involuntary distraction as they relate to CEVMS exposure.

Another advantage of this method is the ability to structure driving scenarios to have an appropriate number of CEVMS, standard billboard, and other visual stimuli all located on a controlled course, which all research participants drive in a consistent manner. The ability to choose and structure the test drive assures adequate and uniform exposure to CEVMS and other relevant visual stimuli. The ability to exert experimental control is a valuable asset to this method. It facilitates a clean and robust statistical analysis of the data because all of the participants are exposed to all of the experimental conditions the same number of times in a relatively controlled manner. Experimental control ensures a high level of CEVMS exposure, thereby contributing to the productivity and cost effectiveness of this technique.

However, examined from a different perspective, such a degree of experimental control may also be regarded as a disadvantage. A certain amount of artificiality is introduced into the driving situation thereby. Research participants are definitely aware that they are participating in a controlled experiment, driving someone else's car on a contrived route which does not serve a personal purpose related to daily life. In addition, with the experimenter riding along with the participants in the vehicle, there may be a tendency for the participants to try to please the experimenter and to drive in some unnatural way. The introduction of eye-tracking equipment adds to the artificiality of the situation. Wearing head-mounted eye-tracking gear definitely represents unnatural driving attire. However, most research participants rapidly adapt to the gear with time, and they often report that they are unaware of its presence after a short drive. Vehicle-mounted eye-tracking equipment can be far less intrusive, although the tedious calibration procedures and the presence of the cameras in the car remind participants that their head and eye movements are constantly being monitored. These are all valid experimental concerns; however, none of these interventions is likely to profoundly alter the driving behavior, much less the eye glance movements, of the research participants, as long as they are not informed of the purpose of the study. The enhanced experimental efficiency that this approach has to offer far outweighs its artificiality drawbacks.

B.1.4 Budgetary Cost

A rough budgetary estimate for conducting such an on-road instrumented vehicle study is between $400,000 and $800,000. The main cost drivers for this method are the eye glance measuring technology and the crew needed to implement the experiment at the study sites. The range in this estimate relates to the number of study sites, adequacy of the sites, length of the experimental drive, number of experimental drives, number of research participants, difficulty in obtaining research participants, ability to turn the CEVMS off and on, and numerous other factors which cannot be determined without further planning.

B.2 NATURALISTIC DRIVING APPROACH

The naturalistic driving method is similar to the on-road instrumented vehicle method. The major difference is that the participants drive their own vehicles (or loaned vehicles) for their own personal purposes. The method typically employs a large number of such vehicles. The following describes one possible study which might be conducted using this method.

B.2.1 Method

The naturalistic driving method employs a standardized instrument package which is installed in the participant's own private vehicle or in a vehicle loaned to the participant. The installation is made as unobtrusive as possible so that the participant's vehicle appears and performs as it normally would. The instrument package is capable of measuring many of the same variables as the on-road instrumented vehicle, such as speed, lane position, acceleration, GPS time and position, driver eye glance frequency, direction, and duration. The instrument package is also connected to the vehicle data bus so that additional vehicle-related measures of engine, braking, and steering performance are also recorded. However, because of the unobtrusive nature of the experimental technique, this method cannot support the use of extremely accurate head-mounted or vehicle-mounted eye-tracking equipment. In the present state of technology, these accurate eye movement instruments involve careful calibration procedures with the driver. With this method, the eye-tracking system is mounted in the dashboard in a manner which involves little or no driver interaction. Once the participant's vehicle has been instrumented, data are collected by means of automatic wireless downloads without participant awareness or involvement. The instrumentation is left in the vehicle for a period of 3 to 6 months, during which time the participant drives the vehicle for normal personal or business use.

The fact that participants drive their own vehicles for their own use reduces control and adds uncertainty to the study. It is difficult to control where the participants are going to drive and when. The study site must be selected carefully so that participants are likely to drive by at least some of the target CEVMS installations. The participants must be selected carefully so that they are likely to take the selected roadway with some reasonable frequency. As a result of this increased uncertainty, the number of study sites must be increased to 4 and 5, the number of research participants selected at each site must be increased to 50 and 75, and the duration of measurement for each participant must be increased to 3 and 6. In this study, it is even more important that there are several CEVMS installations at each study site. As was the case for the on-road instrumented vehicle study, each study site needs to include CEVMS installations, standard (non-digital) billboards, objects of casual visual interest (houses, barns, etc.), and natural background control scenery (trees, fields, etc.).

B.2.2 Factors and Measures

As with the on-road instrumented vehicle study, the major factors or independent variables are the presence or absence of CEVMS and other comparison visual stimuli (standard billboards, buildings, control settings, etc.) along the driven path. If possible, the CEVMS should be turned off and on or changed in some other way, according to a prearranged experimental design. However, in this instance, the CEVMS would have to be turned off or changed for longer periods of time because it is not certain when the instrumented test vehicles might pass. These are the primary independent variables. Secondary independent variables could include the type of vehicle (sedan, pickup, or SUV) and driver characteristics (age, gender, and route familiarity). In addition, as much as possible, one or more of the primary CEVMS variables of interest to the community concerned with outdoor advertising control should be represented by varying levels in the selection of CEVMS stimuli.

As in the on-road instrumented vehicle study, the primary measure or dependent variable is the frequency, direction, and duration of driver eye glances. The fundamental hypothesis of self-regulated attention which needs to be concentrated on the roadway scene ahead remains the same. As before, if the frequency and duration of eye glances away from the roadway ahead exceed accepted norms or criteria, then driver safety is assumed be compromised. Thus, eye glance behavior is the primary dependent variable in this study, as well. However, the particular unobtrusive and disengaged dashboard-mounted eye-tracking device may not be capable of making as accurate measurements of eye-movements as can other more delicate vehicle-mounted or head-mounted devices which require periodic participant calibration. Consequently, this study method depends more heavily on secondary dependent variables. Safety surrogate measures associated with driver errors and other measures of driver performance (headway, lane deviation, conflicts, and erratic maneuvers) become increasingly important in this method. Since the participants will be driving according to their own personal schedules, additional dependent variables may include the time of day (day/night), traffic conditions (peak and nonpeak), in-vehicle distractions (eating and/or cell phone use), and state of fatigue.

B.2.3 Advantages/Disadvantages

The naturalistic driving method possesses one major advantage over the on-road instrumented vehicle method: the driving scenario, driving task, and driving purpose are all completely natural. The research participants drive their own vehicles (or ones loaned to them) on their own personal schedules along personally selected routes to meaningful destinations. Although to a lesser degree, the naturalistic driving method shares another advantage with the on-road instrumented vehicle method: its ability to implement eye-tracking measurements. In fact, the dashboard-mounted eye-tracking device is far less intrusive to the driver than the head-mounted eye-tracking device sometimes employed in the on-road instrumented vehicle method.

Unfortunately, some dashboard-mounted eye-tracking devices may not be as sensitive and accurate as a head-mounted device. Also, they may not be able to track extensive head movements or measure subtle eye glances indicative of unconscious distraction. The useful field of view can also be an issue with certain unobtrusive vehicle-mounted eye-tracking equipment. Consequently, this experimental method may be less effective in its ability to probe the subtle phenomena of unconscious and involuntary distraction as they relate to CEVMS exposure.

Another disadvantage of this method is its inherent lack of structured driving scenarios. Since participants drive whenever and wherever they want, it is difficult to ensure adequate and uniform exposure to CEVMS and other relevant visual stimuli. This lack of experimental control and higher degree of uncertainty necessitate an increase in the number of study sites, research participants, and duration of the study, which negatively impacts the productivity and cost effectiveness of the technique. For example, this method typically requires the instrumentation of a relatively large number of vehicles at any given study site instead of the instrumentation of just one vehicle which is shared by many research participants. Another minor disadvantage is that research participants are aware that they are participating in an experiment, even if the study is minimally intrusive in terms of daily life routine.

B.2.4 Budgetary Cost

A rough budgetary estimate for conducting such a naturalistic driving study is between $2 million and $4 million. The main cost drivers for this method include increasing the number of study sites, installing instruments in a large number of vehicles at a single site, and collecting and analyzing data covering a long period of time. The range in this budgetary estimate relates to the number of study sites, adequacy of the sites, number of vehicles which need to be instrumented at one time, number of research participants, difficulty in obtaining research participants, driving patterns of the research participants, length of the study at any given site, ability to turn the CEVMS off and on, and numerous other factors which cannot be determined without further planning.

B.3 UNOBTRUSIVE OBSERVATION APPROACH

The unobtrusive observation method is different from the on-road instrumented vehicle method and the naturalistic driving method. The major distinction is that no study participants are selected, and all data are obtained from the natural flow of traffic past the CEVMS and other comparison stimuli. The following describes one possible study which might be conducted using this method.

B.3.1 Method

The unobtrusive observation method employs an array of static cameras or other sensors mounted near the locations of the CEVMS and other comparison stimuli. The other sensors may include loops, tubes, or radar to measure vehicle passes and driving parameters. The present report will focus on video recording of traffic. The cameras are capable of recording the behavior of vehicles passing the various relevant visual stimuli as a part of the natural flow of traffic. The drivers are usually completely unaware that their vehicles are being observed. Post-hoc analysis of the video recordings from these cameras can yield data similar to some of that obtained by the on-road instrumented vehicle and naturalistic driving methods, which include vehicle speed, lane position, acceleration, and time. However, the data from distal video cameras are usually far less accurate than what can be collected by instruments onboard the vehicle. Moreover, with present measurement technology, such video recordings cannot yield any data concerning driver eye glance frequency, direction, and duration. The camera arrays are usually left in place for a period of several months to 1 year at each study site. There would typically be three to four such sites in the study. At each study site, separate camera arrays would need to be installed at the locations of all selected CEVMS displays, standard (non-digital) billboards, objects of casual visual interest (houses, barns, etc.), and natural background control scenery (trees, fields, etc.).

B.3.2 Factors and Measures

As in the on-road instrumented vehicle and naturalist driving studies, the major independent variables are the presence or absence of CEVMS and other comparison visual stimuli (standard billboards, buildings, etc.) along the driving path. If possible, the CEVMS should be controlled according to a prearranged experimental protocol. However, in this instance, the CEVMS would have to be changed for longer durations because it is possible to predict when vehicles might pass. In addition, one or more of the primary CEVMS variables of interest to the community concerned with outdoor advertising control should be represented by varying levels in the selection of CEVMS stimuli. These constitute the primary independent variables. Since continuous video recording will be employed, the experimenter can decide to select different times of data collection for further analysis. This capability can provide insight into some secondary independent variables such as time of day (day/night) and traffic conditions (peak, nonpeak).

In contrast to the on-road instrumented vehicle and naturalistic driving studies, the primary dependent variable is not driver eye glance behavior. Instead, this study method depends completely on safety surrogate measures associated with driver errors and other measures of driver performance (headway, lane deviation, and erratic maneuvers). These are subtle driving behaviors to measure by means of distal cameras mounted along the roadway. Unless the cameras are mounted very high, multiple vehicle images may occlude each other. For a long stretch of roadway, such as might required for CEVMS exposure, a relatively large array of cameras may be needed. Thus, a large amount of data needs to be collected and analyzed in such a study. Automatic machine vision video analysis algorithms can help in the data analysis process, but such algorithms are not yet sufficiently sensitive and robust to reliably identify all of the subtle indicators of driver errors, conflicts, or maladaptive performance which might accompany CEVMS exposure. The use of other sensors instead of or in addition to cameras may mitigate some of these data analysis problems to a certain extent.

B.3.3 Advantages/Disadvantages

The unobtrusive observation method possesses one major advantage over the other two methods: the data are derived from the natural flow of traffic. Other than erecting camouflaged camera arrays at various locations along the roadway, the experimenter does not disturb the natural flow of human driving. As opposed to the other two methods, the vast majority of drivers are completely unaware that they are part of a study depending on how well the camera camouflage works. Other sensors used for this application can also be hidden and made extremely hard to detect. This is the major advantage of the unobtrusive observation method. Another strong advantage is the large number of vehicles which pass by the CEVMS and other comparison stimuli every day. Sample sizes can be relatively large.

Like the other techniques, the unobtrusive observation method has disadvantages as well. First, with present technology, it is not possible to implement eye-tracking measurements in such a study. The inability to measure eye glance behavior makes it difficult to investigate important constructs, like self-regulated attention and unconscious distraction as they relate to CEVMS exposure. The method is left to rely on safety surrogate measures, such as driver errors and maladaptive maneuvers. These relatively subtle pre-crash and near-crash driving behaviors are difficult to measure by means of distal video cameras. Such driving behaviors also occur very seldom and need to be observed over great distances, leading to the necessity to collect large amounts of video data from extended camera arrays over long periods of time. The collection, reduction and analysis of such large amounts of data tend to make this method time-consuming and expensive.

B.3.4 Budgetary Cost

A rough budgetary estimate for conducting such an unobtrusive observation study is between $1 million and $3 million. The main cost drivers for this method include designing camera arrays which can measure subtle vehicle maneuvers, installing camera arrays to record a large extent of roadway for all CEVMS and comparison stimuli, and collecting and analyzing data covering a long period of time. The range in this budgetary estimate relates to the number of study sites, adequacy of the sites, number and location of cameras in an array, method of recognizing safety surrogate measures, length of the study at any given site, ability to turn the CEVMS off and on, and numerous other factors which cannot be determined without further planning.

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