

This is a repository copy of Automation Preferences by Traffic Climate and Driver Skills in Two Samples From Countries with Different Levels of Traffic Safety.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper: <u>https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/189685/</u>

Version: Accepted Version

#### Article:

Öztürk, İ, Wallén Warner, H and Özkan, T (2022) Automation Preferences by Traffic Climate and Driver Skills in Two Samples From Countries with Different Levels of Traffic Safety. Transportation Research Record. 036119812211095-036119812211095. ISSN 0361-1981

https://doi.org/10.1177/03611981221109593

© National Academy of Sciences: Transportation Research Board 2022. This is an author produced version of an article, published in Transportation Research Record. Uploaded in accordance with the publisher's self-archiving policy.

#### Reuse

Items deposited in White Rose Research Online are protected by copyright, with all rights reserved unless indicated otherwise. They may be downloaded and/or printed for private study, or other acts as permitted by national copyright laws. The publisher or other rights holders may allow further reproduction and re-use of the full text version. This is indicated by the licence information on the White Rose Research Online record for the item.

#### Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7 8 9	Automation Preferences by Traffic Climate and Driver Skills in Two Samples from Countries with Different Levels of Traffic Safety
10	İbrahim Öztürk <sup>a,b,c</sup> , Henriette Wallén Warner <sup>b</sup> , Türker Özkan <sup>a</sup>
11	
12	
13	
14	
15	
16	
17	
18	
19	
20	
21	
22 23	<b>Keywords</b> : vehicle automation, automation preference, traffic climate, driver skills, hierarchical regression
24	
25 26	<sup>a</sup> Safety Research Unit, Department of Psychology, Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey.
27	<sup>b</sup> The Swedish National Road and Transport Research Institute (VTI), Linköping, Sweden.
28	<sup>c</sup> Institute for Transport Studies, University of Leeds, Leeds, UK.
29 30 31	E-mail addresses: İbrahim Öztürk (0000-0002-5113-1225, ozturki@metu.edu.tr); Henriette Wallén Warner (0000-0002-4715-8935, henriette.wallen.warner@vti.se); Türker Özkan (0000-0002-5501-9257, ozturker@metu.edu.tr)
32 33 34	Authors Note: This study is a part of the doctoral dissertation of the corresponding author. Correspondence concerning this paper should be addressed to İbrahim Öztürk, ozturki@metu.edu.tr, Safety Research Unit, Department of Psychology, Middle East Technical

35 University, Ankara, Turkey.

#### 1

#### Abstract

2 Automated systems present great capabilities with a wide range of options. In this respect, 3 vehicle preferences and factors affecting these preferences are important for the future of 4 automated systems. While automated systems offer varied features and improvements for 5 drivers and general traffic safety, the relations of drivers' perception of traffic system and driver 6 skills on the acceptance have not been studied. Therefore, the present study focuses on country 7 differences and the relationships of the traffic climate and driver skills on the preferred level of 8 vehicle automation of drivers from Turkey and Sweden. The study was conducted with 318 9 drivers (age: M = 22.41, SD = 2.77) from Turkey and 312 drivers (age: M = 28.80, SD = 8.53) 10 from Sweden in 2020. A questionnaire package including a demographic information form with 11 the preferred level of vehicle automation question, the Traffic Climate Scale (TCS) and the 12 Driver Skill Inventory (DSI) was completed. A series of ANCOVA, hierarchical regression and 13 moderated moderation analyses were tested. Drivers from Turkey preferred higher automation 14 levels than drivers from Sweden. Drivers with higher perceived safety skills, with lower perceived perceptual-motor skills or perceiving the traffic system as more externally demanding 15 16 preferred higher automation levels. Drivers' automation preference was affected by various 17 individual and country-level factors. For the first time, drivers' automation preference was elaborated in relation to traffic climate and driver skills in two countries with different levels 18 19 of traffic safety. Theoretical and practical implications of the findings were discussed in the 20 light of the literature.

Keywords: vehicle automation, automation preference, traffic climate, driver skills,
 hierarchical regression

1

#### 1. Introduction

Vehicles with various technical capabilities (such as adaptive cruise control) are now a part of
 traffic systems. The SAE International Standard J3016 defined vehicles with different levels of

4 automation from level zero (no automation) to five (full automation). The dynamic driving sub-

5 tasks and the functional capabilities of the vehicles vary for each level of vehicle automation.

6 From level zero to five, the automated vehicle systems become more able to operate different 7 driving tasks (1). Navarro (2) also highlighted that from level zero to five, while the automated

8 system's control and ability increase, the human involvement in driving decreases. Automated

9 driving systems could have various benefits for drivers, traffic systems and society. For

10 example, the implementation of automated vehicle systems could decrease the number and cost

11 of accidents and increase mobility for elderly and disabled road users (3-4).

12 Nordhoff et al. (5) discussed the importance of acceptance studies in determining the future 13 implementation of automated vehicle systems and whether the road users will use the target 14 system or not. Different sociodemographic and individual-level characteristics have been

related to the acceptance of automated vehicles. For example, young road users reported more

16 positive attitudes towards full automation than older road users (6-7). In another study, Qu et

17 al. (8) found that road users were more likely to see benefits in usefulness and less likely to

focus on system concerns and concern scenarios as age increases. In contrast, other studies have

19 reported no difference in intention, acceptance or trust because of age (9-10).

Furthermore, in different studies, male road users have been shown to have more positive attitudes and intention to use vehicles with full automation (6; 11). Similarly, Qu et al. (8) found that males perceived more benefits in the usefulness of autonomous vehicles. In addition, Syahrivar et al. (12) found that driving experience and frequency were negatively correlated

24 with Hungarian participants' automated vehicle preference.

25 In addition, driver skills are one of the crucial dimensions of driver-related human factors and have been associated with the information processing and motor skills of drivers. In a general 26 27 sense, driver skills focus on the abilities of drivers (i.e. what drivers can do) while driving (13-28 15). Driver skills were associated with various driving outcomes such as speeding behaviours 29 (16), aberrant and positive driver behaviours (17-18) and accidents (19). The Driver Skills 30 Inventory is a widely used reliable and valid measurement of driver skills under two 31 dimensions: perceptual-motor skills and safety skills (20). While perceptual-motor skills focus 32 on technical or performance aspects of driving such as "Managing the car through a skid", safety skills are more related to the drivers' safety motives or orientation such as "Avoiding 33 34 unnecessary risks" (20-21). In that respect, Sümer et al. (22) proposed a general asymmetric 35 relationship between perceptual-motor skills and safety skills with unsafe driving outcomes. 36 This asymmetry highlighted that perceptual-motor skills were positively related and safety 37 skills were negatively related to unsafe driving outcomes such as penalties.

38 Vehicle automation is of great importance for driver skills. Navarro (2) discussed that the need 39 for driver skills gradually decreases from manual driving to full automation. From the opposite 40 perspective, for the roles of driver skills in the traffic system and the potential effects of automated vehicles, driver skills may play a crucial role in the drivers' preferred level of vehicle 41 42 automation. In other words, drivers may evaluate the capabilities of vehicles and choose the 43 optimal option, which is the most compatible with their own driver skills. For example, if drivers perceive themselves lacking certain skills, they may prefer vehicles with those features. 44 Thus vehicles with new technologies could play a compensatory role for particular skills. 45

46 In addition to these individual (micro) level differences, different studies have reported 47 significant macro-level country differences in various aspects of automated vehicles (7, 12, 231 24). In one study, road users from China, Japan, Germany and the US reported different patterns
2 of automated vehicle acceptance. For instance, unlike German, Japanese and US drivers,
3 Chinese drivers had higher acceptance across different conditions (23). Syahrivar et al. (12)
4 also found that while Indonesian participants reported more desire for control and a more
5 favourable attitude towards and intention to use automated vehicles, Hungarian participants
6 preferred higher levels of automation.

7 One of the macro-level factors associated with road safety is the traffic climate (25). Özkan and 8 Lajunen (26) defined traffic climate as "the road users' (e.g., drivers') attitudes and perceptions of the traffic in a context (e.g., country) at a given point in time". The traffic climate perception 9 of road users has been measured with the Traffic Climate Scale under three dimensions external 10 11 affective demands, internal requirements and functionality (27). External affective demands 12 indicate the emotional engagement in the traffic system with items such as chaotic and 13 pressurising (28). Demands alertness and cautiousness are the example items of internal 14 requirements highlighting the required skills and abilities needed to be successfully integrated into the traffic system (28-29). Finally, functionality dimension focuses on the characteristics 15 16 of a functional traffic system like harmonious and planned (28).

17 The traffic climate involves different components such as policies and practices and is affected 18 by the existing traffic environment (30). Various studies have, for example, shown associations

19 of traffic climate with positive driver behaviour (31), dangerous driver behaviours (32) as well as violations (30-31) and accidents (31). Overall, Gehlert et al. (28) stated that a safe traffic 20 system would be low in terms of external affective demands and high in functionality and road 21 22 users' perception of traffic system would be related to their risk perception and behaviours. For 23 example, Zhang et al. (32) also reported that drivers perceiving the traffic system as high in 24 internal requirements showed more cautious and less dangerous driver behaviours. In that 25 sense, these characteristics of the traffic environment can affect various components, such as 26 the drivers' attitudes (30). Additionally, policymakers might also benefit from road users' 27 perception of traffic climate (29). For example, more functional and less demanding traffic systems could be among the core values of policy and planning strategies. 28

29 Qu et al. (8) examined the relationship between the traffic climate and autonomous vehicle

acceptance. Internal requirements and functionality were positively associated with willingness
 to use automated vehicles. Drivers with higher external affective demands showed less concerns
 about the autonomous systems. Overall, traffic climate was a strong predictor of acceptance of
 autonomous vehicles (8). Thus, it was suggested that the traffic climate perception of drivers

34 would be related to the drivers' preferred level of vehicle automation.

35 In light of the previously reported country differences in attitudes toward automated vehicles 36 (7), traffic climate (31) and driver skills (33), it is expected that the relations examined in the 37 present study would show differences across Turkey and Sweden. Various studies (33-35) and 38 reports (36) have shown significant differences between Turkey and Sweden in different aspects 39 of road safety. For instance, even though drivers from Turkey reported higher safety skills (33), 40 they also showed more violations (35) and experienced more accidents (34-35) compared to drivers from Sweden. Besides, drivers from Turkey had lower intentions to comply with the 41 42 speed limit and less positive attitudes towards complying with the speed limit (34).

In line with self-reported differences, the estimated road traffic fatality rates per 100000 population were 12.3 for Turkey and 2.8 for Sweden (36). Additionally, Sweden is one of the best-performing countries in road safety (36-37). With respect to these differences, investigating vehicle automation preferences and how different factors (traffic climate and driver skills in the present study) related to the preferred level of vehicle automation between the two countries will provide valuable information about the nature of proposed relationsacross the two countries with different road safety indexes.

## 3 **1.1. The Aim of the Present Study**

4 In light of the potential benefits of automated vehicles (3-4) and relations of the varying micro-5 and macro-level variables with road users' attitudes and perceptions of different levels of 6 vehicle automation (5, 23), it is expected that understanding the relations of individual and 7 country-level factors with the acceptance of automated systems will have a crucial role in the 8 future of vehicle automation and road safety. Despite the significance of driver skills (i.e. 20) 9 and traffic climate (i.e. 28-31) for various driving outcomes and road safety, to the best of our 10 knowledge, there has been no research on driver skills and a limited number of research on traffic climate (i.e. 8) in relations with the acceptance of vehicle automation. With respect to 11 12 that, the present study examines the relations of macro/country-level (country difference and 13 traffic climate) and micro/individual-level (driver skills) variables with the preferred level of 14 vehicle automation. The current study was designed to advance the existing research on vehicle 15 automation preference by investigating the relationships of driver skills for the first time in the 16 literature and also investigating the relations of traffic climate in two different countries with 17 different levels of traffic safety. It is believed that the present study provides a valuable contribution to the studies on the acceptance and the future of vehicle automation. 18

19 Accordingly, the three main objectives of the study were:

20 1. to compare the preferred level of vehicle automation across drivers from Turkey and Sweden,

21 2. to examine the relations of the traffic climate and driver skills with the preferred level of22 vehicle automation,

3. to investigate the moderating roles of driver skills and country in the relationship betweentraffic climate and the preferred level of vehicle automation (see Figure 1).

- 25
- 26

# Figure 1. Final Model of the Study

These aims were investigated through a series of ANCOVA, hierarchical regression and moderated moderation analyses. Following the introduction, the paper is organised into the following sections: methods, results, discussion, and finally, conclusions.

30

### 2. Methods

31 **2.1. Participants** 

The study was conducted with a total of 318 drivers from Turkey and 312 drivers from Sweden. There were 105 males and 213 females drivers between the ages of 19 and 38 years old (M = 22.41, SD = 2.77) in the sample from Turkey and 124 males, 186 females, and two other gender identity drivers between the ages of 20 and 55 years old (M = 28.80, SD = 8.53) in the sample from Sweden. At the time of the survey, all participants declared that they were university students and had a valid full driving licence for a car (type B driving license). See Table 1 for a more detailed description of the participants.

The comparisons of the samples in terms of age, license year, last year kilometres and the number of active (situations in which drivers hit any object and/or other road users) and passive (situations in which other road users hit drivers) accidents in the last three years are presented in Table 1. Overall, drivers from Sweden were older with a longer interval since obtaining a

43 license and higher last year kilometres than drivers from Turkey. In contrast, drivers from

1 Turkey experienced more passive and active accidents than drivers from Sweden. Considering 2 the demographic differences between the samples of two countries, age, gender, and license 3 year were entered into the analyses as control variables in order to control additional factors 4 due to demographic differences and driving experience.

	Turkey				Sweder	1	10		
	N	М	SD	Ν	M	SD	df	t	р
Age	318	22.41	2.77	312	28.80	8.53	374.71	-12.61	.000
Gender		(N = 105) le $(N = 213)$	)		(N = 124) le $(N = 186)$	)			
License year	318	3.03	2.47	311	9.03	8.10	366.17	-12.50	.000
Last year kilometres	303	5374.37	11938.41	252	9133.21	16635.13	444.33	-3.00	.003
Active accidents	318	0.59	1.24	312	0.21	0.49	413.43	5.11	.000
Passive accidents	318	0.25	0.58	312	0.14	0.40	564.98	2.80	.005

### 5 Table 1. Sample Characteristics of Drivers from Turkey and Sweden

6

# 7 **2.2. Materials**

8 The questionnaire was constructed in English as the common language between the researchers. 9 Previously validated instruments, if available in either language, were used while the rest of the 10 questionnaire was translated into Turkish and Swedish and then back-translated to English. The 11 study was part of the thesis of the first author and also included the Multidimensional Traffic 12 Locus of Control Scale, but these results are not within the scope of this paper, so they are not

13 presented here (For further detail, please see 38).

### 14 2.2.1. Demographic information form

15 The demographic information forms included items related to the demographic characteristics 16 of the drivers, as age, gender, license year, kilometres driven in the last year, and the number 17 of active and passive accidents.

18 2.2.2. Preferred level of vehicle automation

The level of vehicle automation preferred by the drivers was measured with a single question "Below the description of different levels of automation are given. As a driver, which of these levels do you prefer?". Six levels of automation (from 0: No automation to 5: Full automation) were presented with brief explanations regarding the capabilities of vehicles with that system and the role of the driver.

# 24 2.2.3. Traffic Climate Scale

25 The scale was developed by Özkan and Lajunen (27) to measure road users' perception of the traffic system of a country under three dimensions. External affective demands items (e.g., 26 27 annoying and aggressive) can be characterised by emotional engagement due to the external driving environment. Internal requirements items (e.g., demands alertness and demands 28 29 cautiousness) focus on the skills and abilities expected from the road user to be part of the traffic 30 system successfully. Functionality items such as planned and harmonious are the characteristics 31 of a functional traffic system. Responses are given to indicate to what degree those adjectives and statements describe the traffic system in a 6-point Likert ranging from 1 (does not describe 32 33 it at all) to 6 (describes it fully). The original version of the scale consists of 44 items. Following the suggestions of Üzümcüoğlu et al. (39), a 16-item short version was used for the analyses in
 this study. The factors and number of items were external affective demands with eight items,

3 functionality with five items, and internal requirements with three items (29). The Cronbach's

4 alpha values for Turkey and Sweden were .84 and .79 for external affective demands, .81 and

5 .80 for functionality and .85 and .74 for internal requirements. The averages of the dimensions

6 of traffic climate were 4.70 (SD = 0.81) and 2.94 (SD = 0.73) of external affective demands, 5.24 (SD = 0.75) = 1.4.20 (SD = 0.01) = 1.4.00 (SD = 0.01)

7 5.34 (SD = 0.76) and 4.29 (SD = 0.91) internal requirements and 3.12 (SD = 0.91) and 4.00 (SD = 0.77) of found is not investigated and a superscript like

8 = 0.77) of functionality for Turkey and Sweden respectfully.

# 9 2.2.4. Driver Skill Inventory

10 The measurement was developed by Lajunen and Summala (21) to measure drivers' selfevaluation of their own driver skills under the two factors of perceptual-motor skills (e.g. fluent 11 12 driving) and safety skills (e.g. avoiding unnecessary risks). In the present study, The Turkish 13 (40) and Swedish (33) adaptations of the scale were used. The scale consists of 20 items with 14 5-point Likert-type responses from 1 (very weak) to 5 (very strong). The DSI showed two factors, namely perceptual-motor skills with 12 items in Turkey and 11 items in Sweden and 15 16 safety skills with seven items in Turkey and eight items in Sweden (38). The Cronbach's alpha 17 reliabilities varied between .88 and .82 for perceptual-motor skills, and between .77 and .78 for safety skills, for Turkey and Sweden, respectively. The averages of self-reported driver skills 18 19 were 3.41 (SD = 0.64) of perceptual-motor skills and 3.95 (SD = 0.60) of safety skills for drivers

- from Turkey and 3.56 (SD = 0.53) of perceptual-motor skills and 3.70 (SD = 0.62) of safety
- 21 skills for drivers from Sweden.

# 22 **2.3. Procedure**

23 Approval for the study was granted by the Middle East Technical University Human Research Ethics Committee (Protocol Number: 511 ODTU 2019). The Swedish and Turkish versions of 24 the questionnaire were distributed using Qualtrics. Data were collected from March 2020 and 25 26 July 2020. Social media challenges were used to announce and distribute the survey links in 27 two countries by using convenience and snowball sampling methods. Additionally, in Turkey, university students were also recruited through lecturers from other universities and the 28 Department of Psychology METU Research Sign-Up System. Some of the students obtained 29 30 bonus points for their participation. In Sweden, the university students' e-mail addresses were 31 obtained from the student registration and grading document system (LADOK). A recruitment 32 e-mail was sent to the students from different universities, including a link to the online 33 questionnaire. The data collection procedure was anonymous and confidential. Participants 34 receiving bonus points were given a unique id by the system which automatically gives the 35 bonus points.

# 36 **2.4. Data analysis**

37 Data cleaning and analyses were conducted with SPSS v26 software. Respondents were 38 excluded from the study if they were not university students, did not have a valid driving 39 license, or were determined with an outlier value for age and kilometres driven in the last year 40 (z score >3.5). In the first step, the samples from both countries were compared in terms of driver characteristics. The other gender identity group was excluded from further analyses due 41 to the limited sample size (N = 2) in Sweden and in Turkey (N = 0). In order to minimize effects 42 43 due to differences between two samples (see Table 1), age, gender, and license year were used 44 as control variables in the further analysis. A one-way between-subjects ANCOVA in which 45 the statistical effects of age, gender and license year were controlled was conducted in order to examine the difference in the preferred level of vehicle automation across the two countries. 46 47 Following the country difference, the second aim of the study was examined with hierarchical

1 regression analysis. Four separate hierarchical regression analyses were tested to investigate 2 the relations of traffic climate and driver skills on the preferred level of vehicle automation of 3 the drivers. Age, gender and license year were entered as control variables in the first step. After controlling the statistical effects of demographic variables, the dimensions of traffic climate 4 5 and driver skills were entered into the model separately for Turkey and Sweden. Finally, the 6 third aim was examined with six moderated moderation analyses by using the Hayes PROCESS 7 tool (Model 3) to test the relationship between traffic climate and the preferred level of vehicle 8 automation according to driver skills in the two countries while controlling for age, gender and 9 license year. In these analyses, two independent variables (perceptual-motor skills and safety 10 skills), two moderators (traffic climate [external affective demands, functionality and internal requirements] and country [0: Turkey, 1: Sweden]) and one dependent variable (preferred level 11

12 of vehicle automation) were tested (see Figure 1).

#### 3. Results

### 14 **3.1.** Country Differences in the Preferred Level of Vehicle Automation

In terms of the automated vehicle, the preferences of the drivers from Turkey and Sweden were shown in Table 2. A one-way between-subjects ANCOVA was conducted to examine the country differences on the preferred level of vehicle automation while controlling the effects of age, gender and license year. A significant difference was determined between the countries  $(F(1, 622) = 14.07, p < .001, \Pi_p^2 = .02)$ . Drivers from Turkey (N = 318, M = 3.18, SD = 1.57) preferred higher levels of vehicle automation than drivers from Sweden (N = 309, M = 2.77, SD = 1.59).

22

13

23 Table 2. The Preference of Vehicle Automation in Samples from Turkey and Sweden

Level of Vehicle	Turkey	Sweden
Automation	N (%)	N (%)
L0 – No automation	51 (16%)	85 (27.2%)
L1 – Driver assistance	61 (19.2%)	68 (21.8%)
L2 – Partial automation	96 (30.2%)	71 (22.8%)
L3 – Conditional automation	45 (14.2%)	40 (12.8%)
L4 – High automation	20 (6.3%)	13 (4.2%)
L5 – Full automation	45 (14.2%)	35 (11.2%)

<sup>24</sup> 

### 25 **3.2.** The Roles of Country, Traffic Climate and Driver Skills on Automation Preference

According to the hierarchical regression results, in Turkey (see Table 3.), the final models together with control variables were significant for traffic climate (F(6, 311) = 2.43, p = .026) and driver skills (F(5, 312) = 6.61, p < .001). External affective demands (95% CI [.06, .70]) and safety skills (95% CI [.04, .61]) were positively, and perceptual-motor skills (95% CI [-.91, ..35]) were negatively associated with the preferred level of vehicle automation.

31 In Sweden (see Table 3.), the final models together with control variables were significant for

32 traffic climate (F(6, 302) = 2.92, p = .009) and for driver skills (F(5, 303) = 5.21, p < .001).

33 Perceptual-motor skills (95% CI [-.87, -.19]) were negatively related to automation preference.

34 In both countries, after controlling for the statistical effects of age, gender and license year,

35 drivers with lower perceptual-motor skills preferred higher levels of automation. Additionally,

36 drivers from Turkey who perceive the traffic system as more externally demanding and drivers

37 with higher safety skills preferred vehicles with higher levels of automation.

## 38 Table 3. Hierarchical Regression Analyses on Automation Preference

			Turkey					Sweden	1	
Variables	$R^2$	df	$F\Delta$	β	р	$R^2$	df	$F\Delta$	β	р
1 <sup>st</sup> Step: Demographics	.03	3, 314	2.73		.044	.05	3, 305	5.47		.001
Age				.17	.081				08	.608
Gender (0: Male, 1: Female)				12	.029				21	<.001
License year				19	.052				.17	.302
2 <sup>nd</sup> Step: Traffic Climate	.05	3, 311	2.10		.100	.06	3, 302	.39		.757
External Affective Demands				.20	.019				05	.448
Functionality				.10	.114				.02	.694
Internal Requirements				09	.241				01	.852
2 <sup>nd</sup> Step: Driver Skills	.10	2, 312	12.14		<.001	.08	2, 303	4.62		.011
Perceptual-Motor Skills				26	<.001				18	.003
Safety Skills				.12	.026				02	.690

1

Following the separate hierarchical regression analyses, the role of driver skills by country in
 the relation between traffic climate and the preferred level of vehicle automation was

4 investigated through six moderated moderation analyses. All models were statistically 5 significant (see Table 4.)

6	Table 4. The Model Summaries of the Three-Way Interactions
---	--

Model	<i>F</i> (10, 616)	$R^2$	р
External Affective Demands * Perceptual-Motor Skills * Country	6.75	.10	<.001
External Affective Demands * Safety Skills * Country	4.25	.07	<.001
Functionality * Perceptual-Motor Skills * Country	6.90	.10	<.001
Functionality * Safety Skills * Country	3.68	.06	<.001
Internal Requirements * Perceptual-Motor Skills * Country	6.73	.10	<.001
Internal Requirements * Safety Skills * Country	3.56	.06	<.001

Only one significant three-way interaction effect (see Table 5.) was found between safety skills, external affective demands, and country (b = .52, t(616) = 1.99, p = .047). The interactions of safety skills and external affective demands on the preferred level of vehicle automation were significant only for the sample from Sweden (b = .38, F(1, 616) = 3.96, p = .048). The relationship was negatively significant on low level of safety skills (b = -.33, t(1, 616) = -2.06, p = .040). In order words, external affective demands were negatively related to the preferred level of vehicle automation for drivers with lower safety skills in Sweden.

Table 5. The Parameter Estimates of External Affective Demands and Safety Skills on
 Automation Preference by Country

Variable	b	se	t	р	95% CI
EAD	2.98	1.61	1.84	.066	19, 6.15
SS	3.23	1.83	1.76	.078	37, 6.83
EAD * SS	67	.41	-1.63	.103	-1.48, .14
Country	9.07	4.12	2.20	.028	.99, 17.15
EAD * Country	-2.26	1.02	-2.21	.027	-4.26,25
SS * Country	-2.23	1.06	-2.11	.035	-4.30,16
EAD * SS * Country	.52	.26	1.99	.047	.01, 1.04
Age	.01	.03	.23	.819	05, .06
Gender (0: Male, 1: Female)	53	.13	-4.03	<.001	78,27

License year

1

2

.01 .03 .22 .829 -.05, .06

Note. EAD: External Affective Demands, SS: Safety Skills, Country (0: Turkey, 1: Sweden).

## 4. Discussion

In the present study, individual (driver skills) and country-level (traffic climate) factors affecting the preferred level of vehicle automation of drivers from Turkey and Sweden were studied. In this context, first, the differences were examined between Turkey and Sweden in terms of the preferred level of vehicle automation. Subsequently, the roles of country, traffic climate, driver skills in the preferred level of vehicle automation were examined.

8 The first aim of the current study was to compare the drivers' preferred level of vehicle 9 automation in Turkey and Sweden. First of all, contrary to general positive attitudes toward 10 automated vehicles reported in previous studies (7, 41), the majority of the drivers in both countries preferred vehicles with lower levels of automation based on the distribution of 11 12 preferred level of vehicle automation across samples. In other words, although, when each level 13 was examined separately, drivers expressed positive attitudes towards vehicles with higher 14 levels of automation, the preference was more concentrated to lower levels of vehicle 15 automation when they were requested to prefer one from options. Various studies have reported 16 some potential technical problems that might result in accidents with automated vehicles (41-17 42). For example, traffic safety, technical unreliability and moral dilemma have been reported to be the top three concerns of road users (41). Similarly, in another study (43), Portuguese 18 19 drivers mostly preferred publicly available vehicles, which correspond to SAE levels 0 to 2, 20 compared to vehicles with higher automation from level 3 to level 5. Moreover, in Turkey, Bicaksiz et al. (44) found that drivers mainly accepted vehicles with lower levels of automation. 21 22 Similarly, in the present study, a significant proportion of the drivers preferred vehicles with 23 lower levels of vehicle automation and which were also present on the roads in both countries.

24 Furthermore, similar to a previous study by Bıçaksız et al. (44), high automation was the least 25 preferred type of vehicle. Highly automated vehicles could be the least preferred due to 26 uncertainty created by the automated system and take-over requests and also limited capacity 27 compared to fully automated vehicles. Together with the higher preference toward lower levels 28 of automation, supporting the previous findings (12, 41), it could be suggested that drivers may 29 want to have a certain level of control over the vehicle and driving and might also want to 30 proactively decrease uncertainty. For example, drivers who enjoy driving may like to have control over their vehicles. Supporting previous studies (7, 12, 41, 45), significant country 31 32 differences were determined in the preferred level of vehicle automation. Drivers from Turkey 33 preferred higher levels of vehicle automation than drivers from Sweden. Various factors, some 34 of which are discussed in the present study, could be associated with that difference.

35 The second aim of the current study was to examine the association between drivers' preferred 36 level of vehicle automation with traffic climate and driver skills across Turkey and Sweden. 37 The dimensions of traffic climate did not show significant direct effects on the preferred level 38 of vehicle automation except for external affective demands in Turkey. Drivers who perceived 39 the traffic system in Turkey as more externally demanding also preferred vehicles with higher 40 levels of automation. External affective demands are related to characteristics of the external driving environment and are associated with dangerous and chaotic situations (30; 28). Qu et 41 42 al. (8) indicated that drivers perceiving the traffic system as less emotionally demanding are 43 more concerned about the problems due to automated systems. Similarly, in the present study, 44 drivers perceiving the traffic system as more externally demanding may prefer higher levels of 45 automation considering the potential benefits for the traffic system by focusing on various 46 functions and capabilities of vehicles with higher automated systems. In other words, those

1 functions and benefits might be perceived as a way to overcome the extra demands coming 2 from the external driving environment.

3 Perceptual-motor skills were negatively associated with the preferred level of vehicle 4 automation in both countries. In other words, drivers with lower levels of perceptual-motor 5 skills preferred higher levels of vehicle automation. Perceptual-motor skills focus on technical 6 skills such as controlling the vehicle (21). From that point of view, drivers who perceive 7 themselves as skilful in terms of vehicle control and other technical abilities while driving 8 preferred vehicles with lower levels of vehicle automation. Similarly, Özkan et al. (46) found 9 that drivers may resist using in-vehicle technologies that may result in losing control over driving. Navarro (2) also showed that as the level of vehicle automation increases, the need for 10 11 driver skills and driver's control over driving decreases. Considering these, drivers who were 12 confident about their perceptual-motor skills may not prefer driving vehicles that will result in 13 lower control over driving.

14 In contrast, drivers with lower levels of perceptual-motor skills may prefer higher levels of 15 vehicle automation because of the possible compensatory role of the automated system for their 16 perceived lack of skills. Navarro (2) also stated that with the increased level of vehicle 17 automation, systems would take some of the driving tasks from drivers. By driving vehicles 18 with higher levels of automation, drivers may be able to ease some of the driving duties. In 19 other words, if drivers perceive themselves as lacking some technical skills or cannot handle

20 certain aspects of driving, automated systems could help to fill that gap.

21 Contrary to the negative association between perceptual-motor skills and the preferred level of vehicle automation, safety skills were positively associated with the preference toward higher 22 23 levels of vehicle automation in Turkey. In other words, drivers with higher levels of safety skills 24 also preferred vehicles with higher levels of automation. Similarly, Özkan et al. (46) also 25 reported positive associations between safety skills and positive attitudes toward intelligent 26 speed adaptation systems. The proposed safety benefits of automated systems (42) could play 27 an essential role. For example, in a study by Hagl and Kouabenan (47), drivers reported higher 28 risk controllability and a lower chance of being involved in an accident when using advanced 29 driver-assistance systems.

- 30 The three-way interaction model tested in order to examine the third aim showed only for the 31 external affective demands, safety skills and country. For drivers from Sweden with lower 32 safety skills, higher external affective demands were associated with preferring lower levels of 33 automation. The finding is the opposite of the relations of safety skills and external affective 34 demands in Turkey. However, considering the traffic safety and climate differences between 35 the two countries where traffic climate in Sweden was perceived to be more functional and less 36 demanding (29), even though the direct relations of both variables were not significant in 37 Sweden, the significant interaction effect might indicate that further research is needed to 38 understand the dynamics between this interaction. Additionally, the lack of significant 39 interaction effects as opposed to various direct effects might be an indicator of these variables affecting the preferred level of vehicle automation in two separate ways depending on the 40
- 41 country.

42 A few critical limitations should be mentioned in the present study. First, although the results

presented significant associations, the total explained variances were relatively small. The 43

findings should be interpreted considering these, and future improvements in the models might 44

45 be needed. Moreover, the study was conducted with only university students, and there was

46 also a considerable difference in age and experience between the samples from Turkey and Sweden. From this point of view, the comparison of the findings with more representative 47

1 groups in a wider age range, taking into account other demographic variables such as income 2 that may affect automated vehicle preferences, seems to be important for the generalisability of 3 the results. Additionally, previous studies have found differences between drivers and non-4 drivers in various aspects of automated driving (8; 12). Non-drivers had more concerns about 5 automated driving than drivers (8). The samples of the present study consisted of drivers, so 6 examining the findings with different groups may provide more detailed and comprehensive 7 results for the future of automated vehicles. Finally, some of the participants received course 8 credit for their participation in the study which might be an additional motivation factor for 9 their participation. However, considering that data was collected anonymously and the outcome 10 measures were not performance measures such as rewarded memory task (48), it is reasonable to assume reward or motivational difference had little or no impact on the results. 11

12 The findings of the current study also present some important theoretical and practical 13 implications in the research and marketing of automated vehicles. Driver skills have been found to be an important factor for the preferred level of vehicle automation. Similar to the discussion 14 of Hohenberger et al. (11) on promoting positive emotions and reducing negative emotions, the 15 16 findings related to driver skills could be used to promote the future use of automated vehicles. Focusing in particular on the safety aspects of automated vehicles and potential contributions 17 to perceptual-motor skills might result in positive attitudes toward higher levels of automation. 18 19 However, more emphasis on not needing drivers or drivers' technical skills may have negative consequences, especially for drivers with higher perceptual-motor skills. Additionally, drivers' 20 inferences with higher levels of automated vehicles could play a crucial role in the future use 21 22 of the vehicles.

- 23 Besides, skill degradation might be one of the important challenges of automated systems (49). With the increased level of vehicle automation, a gradual decrease in driver skills might be 24 25 expected (2), and skills needed to operate in the traffic system may change over time with the 26 different capabilities of automated systems (2, 50). Based on that assumption, there might be a 27 need for special training focusing on special driver skills (50). Therefore, crucial changes in the internal requirements dimension of the traffic climate, perceptual-motor skills required to 28 29 operate different automation levels and general item content of DSI could be observed. For example, some additional items such as "successfully take over and stabilise the vehicle" and 30 31 "continuing to monitor the environment for potential risks while the system has control of the 32 vehicle" might be added depending on the levels of automation.
- 33 Noy et al. (42) discussed that there might be considerable changes in the traffic system with the 34 inclusion of automated vehicles. For example, Alessandrini et al. (3) reported particular benefits of automated vehicles for elderly road users and road users with mobility impairments, which 35 might increase the number of privately owned vehicles. In contrast, Stoiber et al. (51) reported 36 37 that most of the participants would prefer pooled use and shuttles over privately owned fully 38 automated vehicles. The ability to order automated vehicles might increase pooled vehicles and 39 decrease the use of private vehicles. Either way, it is believed that the implications of automated vehicles will have a gradual but substantial impact on the traffic climate of any country. 40

41 While the traffic climate is seen as an important factor in Turkey, the lack of significant effect 42 in Sweden may be related to the traffic system in Sweden being as safer. In terms of both self-43 reported measurements (29) and road safety statistics (36), the traffic system in Sweden is seen 44 as less demanding, more functional and safer compared to Turkey (and many other countries in 45 the world). For this reason, the possible benefit of higher levels of vehicle automation for the traffic system may be more obvious for road users in Turkey, while the possible benefit to 46 47 traffic climate for road users in Sweden may not have a significant effect. For the marketing of 48 autonomous vehicles, focusing on the benefits of these vehicles to the general traffic climate 1 for road users in Turkey may have a stronger effect than a similar campaign in Sweden. On the

- 2 other hand, different factors may be more important in this respect for road users from Sweden.
  - 5. Conclusions

4 In conclusion, Ashkrof et al. (52) stated that different factors such as the demographic 5 characteristics of road users might have impacts on the acceptance of automated vehicles. 6 Overall, in contrast to Sweden, vehicles with higher levels of automation were more preferred in Turkey. Driver skills had a crucial role in the preference towards certain levels of vehicle 7 8 automation. Drivers who evaluate themselves as having lower levels of perceptual-motor skills 9 and higher levels of safety skills or drivers perceiving the traffic system as highly externally 10 demanding preferred vehicles with higher levels of automation. In addition, the traffic climate might play a specific direct or indirect role in automation preferences depending on the country. 11 12 The findings of the present study showed that micro- and macro-level variables have crucial 13 relations with the preferred level of vehicle automation.

# 14 Acknowledgements

- 15 This study was funded by the Swedish Institute (SI) during the first author's scholarship period
- 16 at the Swedish National Road and Transport Research Institute (VTI).
- 17 **Funding:** This work was supported by the Swedish Institute (SI) [2019].

## 18 **CRediT Author Statement**

- 19 İbrahim Öztürk: Conceptualisation, Methodology, Formal analysis, Writing Original Draft,
- 20 Writing Review & Editing. Henriette Wallén Warner: Conceptualisation, Methodology,
- 21 Writing Review & Editing, Supervision. Türker Özkan: Conceptualisation, Methodology,
- 22 Writing Review & Editing, Supervision.
- 23 **Declaration of Interest:** The authors do not have any conflicts of interest to declare.
- 24

3

1	<b>References</b>
2	1. SAE International. SAE Standards News: J3016 automated-driving graphic update. 2019.
3	https://www.sae.org/news/2019/01/sae-updates-j3016-automated-driving-graphic
4 5 6	2. Navarro, J. A State of Science on Highly Automated Driving. Theoretical Issues in Ergonomics Science, 2019.20(3):366–396.https://doi.org/10.1080/1463922X.2018.1439544
7	<ol> <li>Alessandrini, A., A. Campagna, P. Delle Site, F. Filippi, and L. Persia, Automated Vehicles</li></ol>
8	and the Rethinking of Mobility and Cities. Transportation Research Procedia. 2015. 5:
9	145–160. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trpro.2015.01.002
10	<ol> <li>Chan, C. Y. Advancements, Prospects, and Impacts of Automated Driving</li></ol>
11	Systems. International Journal of Transportation Science and Technology, 2017. 6(3):
12	208–216. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijtst.2017.07.008
13	<ol> <li>Nordhoff, S., B. van Arem, and R. Happee. A Conceptual Model to Explain, Predict, and</li></ol>
14	Improve User Acceptance of Driverless Vehicles. Transportation Research Record:
15	Journal of the Transportation Research Board, 2016. 2602(1): 60–67.
16	https://doi.org/10.3141/2602-08
17	<ol> <li>Hulse, L. M., H. Xie, and E. R. Galea. Perceptions of Autonomous Vehicles: Relationships</li></ol>
18	with Road Users, Risk, Gender and Age. Safety Science, 2018. 102: 1–13.
19	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2017.10.001
20	<ol> <li>Schoettle, B., and M. Sivak, A Survey of Public Opinion about Autonomous and Self-Driving</li></ol>
21	Vehicles in the US, the UK, and Australia. University of Michigan, Ann Arbor,
22	Transportation Research Institute. 2014.
23	<ol> <li>Qu, W., J. Xu, Y. Ge, X. Sun, and K. Zhang. Development and Validation of a Questionnaire</li></ol>
24	to Assess Public Receptivity toward Autonomous Vehicles and its Relation with the
25	Traffic Safety Climate in China. Accident Analysis and Prevention, 2019. 128: 78–86.
26	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aap.2019.04.006
27	<ol> <li>Buckley, L., S. A. Kaye, and A. K. Pradhan. Psychosocial Factors Associated with Intended</li></ol>
28	Use of Automated Vehicles: A Simulated Driving Study. Accident Analysis and
29	Prevention, 2018. 115: 202–208. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aap.2018.03.021
30	<ol> <li>Hartwich, F., C. Witzlack, M. Beggiato, and J. F. Krems. The First Impression Counts–A</li></ol>
31	Combined Driving Simulator and Test Track Study on the Development of Trust and
32	Acceptance of Highly Automated Driving. Transportation Research Part F: Traffic
33	Psychology and Behaviour, 2019. 65: 522–535.
34	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trf.2018.05.012
35	<ol> <li>Hohenberger, C., M. Spörrle, and I. M. Welpe. How and Why Do Men and Women Differ</li></ol>
36	in Their Willingness to Use Automated Cars? The Influence of Emotions across
37	Different Age Groups. Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice, 2016. 94:
38	374–385. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tra.2016.09.022
39	<ol> <li>Syahrivar, J., T. Gyulavári. M. Jászberényi, K. Ásványi, L. Kökény, and C. Chairy.</li></ol>
40	Surrendering Personal Control to Automation: Appalling or Appealing? Transportation
41	Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour, 2021. 80: 90–103.
42	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trf.2021.03.018

- 13. Elander, J., R. West, and D. French. Behavioral Correlates of Individual Differences in
   Road-Traffic Crash Risk: An Examination Method and Findings. Psychological
   Bulletin, 1993. 113(2): 279–294. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.113.2.279
- 4 14. Lajunen, T., and T. Özkan. Self-Report Instruments and Methods. In Handbook of Traffic
   5 Psychology (B. E. Porter, ed.), San Diego, CA: Elsevier, 2011, pp. 43–59.
- 6 15. Parker, D., and S. Stradling. Influencing Driver Attitudes and Behaviour, DETR road safety
   7 research report No.17, London: DETR. 2001.
- 8 16. Ostapczuk, M., R. Joseph, J. Pufal, and J. Musch. Validation of the German Version of the
  9 Driver Skill Inventory (DSI) and the Driver Social Desirability Scales
  10 (DSDS). Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour, 2017. 45:
  11 169–182. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trf.2016.12.003
- 17. Üzümcüoğlu, Y., T. Özkan, C. Wu, and H. Zhang. Traffic Climate and Driver Behaviors:
   The Moderating Role of Driving Skills in Turkey and China. Journal of Safety
   Research, 2020. 75: 87–98. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsr.2020.08.004
- 15 18. Öztürk, İ., and T. Özkan. Genç Sürücülerde Sürücü Becerileri ve Sürücü Davranışları
  16 Arasındaki Ilişki. Trafik ve Ulaşım Araştırmaları Dergisi, 2018. 1(2): 1–15.
  17 https://doi.org/10.38002/tuad.418260
- 18 19. Özkan, T., and T. Lajunen. What Causes the Differences in Driving between Young Men
  and Women? The Effects of Gender Roles and Sex on Young Drivers' Driving
  Behaviour and Self-Assessment of Skills. Transportation Research Part F: Traffic
  Psychology and Behaviour, 2006. 9(4): 269–277.
  https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trf.2006.01.005
- 23 20. Lajunen, T., and T. Özkan. Driving Behavior and Skills. In International Encyclopedia of
  24 Transportation (Vickerman, R., ed.), San Diego, CA: Elsevier, 2021. pp. 59–64.
  25 https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-102671-7.10657-8
- 26 21. Lajunen, T., and H. Summala. Driving Experience, Personality, and Skill and Safety-Motive
   27 Dimensions in Drivers' Self-Assessments. Personality and Individual
   28 Differences, 1995. 19(3): 307–318. https://doi.org/10.1016/0191-8869(95)00068-H
- 22. Sümer, N., T. Özkan, and T. Lajunen. Asymmetric Relationship between Driving and Safety
  30 Skills. Accident Analysis and Prevention, 2006. 38(4): 703–711.
  31 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aap.2005.12.016
- 32 23. Edelmann, A., S. Stümper, and T. Petzoldt. Cross-Cultural Differences in the Acceptance
   33 of Decisions of Automated Vehicles. Applied Ergonomics, 2021. 92: 103346.
   34 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apergo.2020.103346
- 24. Kaye, S. A., I. Lewis, S. Forward, and P. Delhomme. A Priori Acceptance of Highly
  Automated Cars in Australia, France, and Sweden: A Theoretically-Informed
  Investigation Guided by the TPB and UTAUT. Accident Analysis and
  Prevention, 2020. 137: 105441. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aap.2020.105441
- 39 25. Özkan, T., and T. Lajunen. A general traffic (safety) culture system (G-TraSaCu-S).
  40 TraSaCu project, European Commission, RISE Programme. 2015.
  41 http://dx.doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.16515.20006
- 26. Özkan, T., and T. Lajunen. Person and environment: Traffic culture. In Handbook of Traffic
  Psychology (B. E. Porter, ed.), San Diego, CA: Elsevier, 2011, pp. 179–192.

- 27. Özkan, T., and T. Lajunen. Traffic Culture and Traffic Climate Scale. Unpublished
   manuscript.
- 28. Gehlert, T., C. Hagemeister, and T. Özkan. Traffic Safety Climate Attitudes of Road Users
   in Germany. Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour, 2014.
   26: 326–336. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trf.2013.12.011
- 6 29. Öztürk, İ., H. Wallén Warner, and T. Özkan. Traffic Climate Scale: Comparing Samples
  7 from Turkey and Sweden. IATSS Research, 2022. 46(1): 130–137.
  8 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iatssr.2021.11.001
- 30. Chu, W., C. Wu, C. Atombo, H. Zhang, and T. Özkan. Traffic Climate, Driver Behaviour,
  and Accidents Involvement in China. Accident Analysis and Prevention, 2019. 122:
  1111119–126. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aap.2018.09.007
- 31. Üzümcüoğlu, Y., T. Özkan, C. Wu, and H. Zhang. How drivers perceive traffic? How they
  behave in traffic of Turkey and China? Transportation Research Part F: Traffic
  Psychology and Behaviour, 2019. 64: 463–471.
  https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trf.2019.06.006
- 32. Zhang, Q., Y. Ge, W. Qu, K. Zhang, and X. Sun. The Traffic Climate in China: The
  Mediating Effect of Traffic Safety Climate between Personality and Dangerous Driving
  Behavior. Accident Analysis and Prevention, 2018. 113: 213–223.
  https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aap.2018.01.031
- 33. Wallén Warner, H., T. Özkan, T. Lajunen, and G. S. Tzamalouka. Cross-Cultural
   Comparison of Driving Skills among Students in Four Different Countries. Safety
   Science, 2013. 57: 69–74. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2013.01.003
- 34. Wallén Warner, H., T., Özkan, and T. Lajunen. Cross-Cultural Differences in Drivers'
  Speed Choice. Accident Analysis and Prevention, 2009. 41(4): 816–819.
  https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aap.2009.04.004
- 35. Wallén Warner, H., T. Özkan, T. Lajunen, and G. Tzamalouka. Cross-Cultural Comparison
  of Drivers' Tendency to Commit Different Aberrant Driving Behaviours.
  Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour, 2011. 14(5): 390–
  399. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trf.2011.04.006
- 30 36. World Health Organization. Global status report on road safety 2018. 2018.
   31 https://www.who.int/violence\_injury\_prevention/road\_safety\_status/2018/en/
- 37. European Transport Safety Council. 14th Annual Road Safety Performance Index (PIN)
   Report. 2020. https://etsc.eu/14th-annual-road-safety-performance-index-pin report/#:~:text=22%2C660%20people%20lost%20their%20lives,3%25%20reduction
   %20compared%20to%202018.&text=In%20order%20to%20reach%20the,34.5%25%
   20between%202019%20and%202020.
- 37 38. Öztürk, İ. Preferred Level of Vehicle Automation in Turkey and Sweden: In Association
   38 with Traffic Climate, Traffic Locus of Control and Driving Skills. [Unpublished
   39 Doctoral thesis, Middle East Technical University]. 2021.
- 39. Üzümcüoğlu, Y., Ö. Ersan, B. Kaçan, G. Solmazer, D. Azık, G. Fındık, T. Özkan, T.
  Lajunen, B. Öz, A. Pashkevich, M. Pashkevich, V. Danelli-Mylona, D. Georgogianni,
  E. Berisha Krasniqi, M. Krasniqi, E. Makris, K. Shubenkova, and G. Xheladini, A Short

- Scale of Traffic Climate across Five Countries. Mustafa Kemal Üniversitesi Sosyal
   Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, 2020. 17(46): 673–702.
- 40. Lajunen, T., and T. Özkan. Kültür, Güvenlik Kültürü, Türkiye ve Avrupa'da Trafik
  Güvenliği (Rapor No: SBB-3023). Ankara: Türkiye Bilimsel ve Teknolojik Araştırma
  Kurumu. 2004.
- 41. Liljamo, T., H. Liimatainen, and M. Pöllänen. Attitudes and Concerns on Automated
  Vehicles. Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour, 2018. 59:
  24–44. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trf.2018.08.010
- 42. Noy, I. Y., D. Shinar, and W. J. Horrey. Automated Driving: Safety Blind Spots. Safety
   Science, 2018. 102: 68–78. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2017.07.018
- 43. Rodrigues, R., F. Moura, A. B. Silva, and Á. Seco. The Determinants of Portuguese
  Preference for Vehicle Automation: A Descriptive and Explanatory
  Study. Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour, 2021. 76:
  121–138. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trf.2020.10.009
- 44. Bıçaksız, P., S. Şermet, and Ç. Giriş. Associations of Self-Determination and Locus of
   Control with Accepted Level of Automation Among Turkish Drivers. Mediterranean
   Journal of Humanities, 2019. IX(2): 157–168. https://doi.org/10.13114/MJH.2019.482
- 45. Payre, W., J. Cestac, and P. Delhomme. Intention to Use a Fully Automated Car: Attitudes
  and a Priori Acceptability. Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and
  Behaviour, 2014. 27: 252–263. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.trf.2014.04.009
- 46. Özkan, T., T. Lajunen, and J. Kaistinen. Traffic locus of control, driving skills and attitudes
   towards in-vehicle technologies (ISA & ACC). Proceedings of the 18th International
   Cooperation on Theories and Concepts in Traffic Safety (ICTCT). 2005.
- 47. Hagl, M., and D. R. Kouabenan. Safe on the Road–Does Advanced Driver-Assistance
  Systems Use Affect Road Risk Perception? Transportation Research Part F: Traffic
  Psychology and Behaviour, 2020. 73: 488–498.
  https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trf.2020.07.011
- 48. Bowen, H. J., and E. A. Kensinger Cash or Credit? Compensation in Psychology Studies:
  Motivation Matters. Collabra: Psychology, 2017. 3(1): 12,
  https://doi.org/10.1525/collabra.77
- 49. Saffarian, M., J. C. de Winter, and R. Happee, Automated Driving: Human-Factors Issues
  and Design Solutions. In Proceedings of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society
  Annual Meeting, 2012. Vol. 56, No. 1, pp. 2296–2300. Sage CA: Los Angeles, CA:
  Sage Publications.
- 50. Merriman, S. E., K. L. Plant, K. M. A. Revell, and N. A. Stanton. Challenges for Automated
  Vehicle Driver Training: A Thematic Analysis from Manual and Automated
  Driving. Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour, 2021. 76:
  238–268. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trf.2020.10.011
- 51. Stoiber, T., I. Schubert, R. Hoerler, and P. Burger. Will Consumers Prefer Shared and
  Pooled-Use Autonomous Vehicles? A Stated Choice Experiment with Swiss
  Households. Transportation Research Part D: Transport and Environment, 2019. 71:
  265–282. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trd.2018.12.019

 52. Ashkrof, P., G. Homem de Almeida Correia, O. Cats, and B. van Arem. Impact of Automated Vehicles on Travel Mode Preference for Different Trip Purposes and Distances. Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board, 2019. 2673(5): 607–616. https://doi.org/10.1177/0361198119841032