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Enhancing Social Closeness between Drivers by Digital Augmentation

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ABSTRACT
Driving is a social activity: Drivers need to coordinate and cooperate with each other to share the infrastructure. The relationship between drivers influences their driving behavior and experience. Lights, horn and speed are the most frequently used means to exchange information, limiting both the range and the bandwidth of the connectivity and leading to isolation, loneliness, and competition. We present \textit{\textit{iSticker}} and \textit{\textit{MusicHound}}, two concepts that aim to establish a connection by presenting similarity information between drivers. The two concepts were prototyped and evaluated with users in a driving simulator. The results showed that \textit{iSticker} and \textit{MusicHound} enhance drivers' social closeness with each other and belongingness during the journey.

1. Introduction
Humans are social by nature. The pursuit of relatedness is one of the three basic motivating principles which underlie social behavior (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). One cannot live for a long time without socializing with others. Social networks such as Facebook fulfill the need of belongingness of people (Seidman, 2013) and mobile internet services enable us to stay in touch anywhere anytime. However, from the social perspective, the car is an isolated space. While driving, people are “encapsulated in a domestic, cocooned, moving capsule, an iron bubble” (Urry, 2007). The car offers a confined space, which allows for individuality and privacy in a public space. However, it detaches drivers from their environment at the same time. This kind of detachment decreases drivers' belongingness and closeness to other drivers, which may lead to loneliness in a long journey and selfish driving behavior. The advent of everywhere available connectivity and the broad penetration of social network services offers opportunities for changing this situation (Schroeter, Rakotonrainy, & Foth, 2012).

From a previous study of Wang, Gu, Terken, and Hu (2014) in which thirty different “social car” ideas were discussed with more than twenty people, \textit{iSticker} and \textit{MusicHound} emerged as two promising concepts. \textit{iSticker} enables drivers to choose virtual stickers and see nearby drivers who have similar stickers. \textit{MusicHound} matches drivers who have a similar music taste and allows them to share music with each other and enjoy music together. In the studies reported below, the concepts were elaborated, prototyped and experiments were conducted in a driving simulator to investigate the acceptance of the applications and whether it exerted a positive influence on driving experience and social closeness on the road.

2. Related work
2.1. Mix without meet: Lack of closeness between drivers
Social closeness is defined as “the experience of positive emotions toward another individual or set of individuals” (Ratan & Tsai, 2014). While driving, a driver usually encounters tens or hundreds of other drivers on the road. However, the bandwidth of interaction is restricted to signals of cars such as horn, indicator or using the clunky movement of the vehicles as a form of body language (Juhlin, 2013). Drivers are constrained behind their steering wheels and “interact” monotonously with non-human-like machines on the road. Although people “meet” many drivers on the road, perceiving no social bonding or relationship between them will hinder the closeness between drivers (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Lack of social closeness leads to aggressive driving behavior and less belongingness during the journey (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Ratan & Tsai, 2014).

2.2. Lack of closeness between drivers contributes to aggressive driving behavior
In the CSCW (computer-supported cooperative work) domain, social closeness is an important factor that influences the collaborative willingness (Reychav, Ndicu, & Wu, 2016), task effort (Walther, 1997) and outcome (Walther & Bunz, 2005) of the online cooperation. Sharing the road is a form of cooperation (Juhlin, 2013; Renner & Johansson, 2006). As a result, social closeness between drivers also exerts influence on the drivers’ coordination with each other.

A field study by Ellison, Govern, Petri, and Figler (1995) found that drivers behave more aggressively to drivers who use tinted windows. Based on a survey and interview study,
Ratan et al. (Ratan & Tsai, 2014) supported there is a negative correlation between the social closeness and driving aggression. They suggested that when drivers feel socially closer to others, they may “drive in ways that are more considerate of others’ safety”. Research by Caspi et al. (1997) and Gulliver and Begg (2007) suggested that social closeness is a factor that contributes to risky driving behavior between young adults. A simulation study conducted by Mitrevska, Castronovo, Mahr, and Müller (2012) found that establishing social bonding through revealing common personal interests between two drivers reduces their aggressive behavior to each other. This can be explained by the relation between the social closeness and positive empathy (Morelli, Lieberman, & Zaki, 2015), tolerance (Brosnan, Schiff, & De Waal, 2005) and trust (Podobnik, Striga, Jandras, & Lovrek, 2012). This means when a driver feels closer to another one, he is more willing to understand the driver’s experience (empathy), shows more forgiveness of others’ mistake (tolerance) and believes in reciprocity (trust).

### 2.3. Lack of closeness between drivers leads to social disconnection

Being related to others is one of the basic human needs (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Rettie, 2003). However, being constrained behind their steering wheels and “interacting” monotonously with non-human-like machines on the road detaches drivers from their environment and social society, which may lead to loneliness and decrease the pleasure of the journey. According to an interview by Redshaw (2012), some drivers who commute on the same route every day complain about the boredom of spending time on such journey and describe it as a compulsory task. Nowadays, this phenomenon becomes more obvious while we are getting used to “stay always online” using our mobile devices. Therefore, while our bodies are physically constrained in the vehicle, our minds are trying to escape from the “iron cage” and regain the connection with the outside world. People engage in dangerous activities such as calling or texting their friends even though they know this activity may lead to severe distraction from their driving task. A government survey in 2011 (Petroulias, 2009) showed that, despite legislative bans, 59% of Australian drivers used their mobile, with 31% sending text messages while driving.

### 2.4. Increasing social closeness by digital augmentation

Previous research suggests that the similarity between people is related with closeness (Tesser & Campbell, 1980; Tesser & Paulhus, 1983). Liviatan, Trope, and Liberman (2008) argued that interpersonal similarity can be seen as a dimension of social closeness, based on the experiment result that similarity influences one’s judgment of others’ actions. In the driving scenario, the only clue which reveals the identity of drivers is the appearance of the vehicle. We feel little inclusion as few similarities can be found based on the styling and brand of others’ vehicles.

With everywhere available connectivity and the broad penetration of social network services, the communication between drivers on the road may change fundamentally. Firstly, quality and quantity of information can be transferred without any limitation, and rich content such as image, voice or text can be sent by digital channels. Secondly, information can be delivered to a specific driver, without being released to irrelevant drivers. As a result, based on analysis of participants’ social media profile, such as Facebook, it is possible to establish social bonding between drivers by exposing their similarity to each other. Some attempts have already made to enhance the social closeness in this way.

Motorcycling is a strikingly social activity, and motorcyclists are also explicit about their interest in other motorcyclists, which is visible in the way they often greet other bikers they meet along the road (Esbjörnsson, Juhlin, & Östergren, 2003). Esbjörnsson et al. (2003) implemented a prototype called “Hocman” which enhances brief traffic encounters between bikers by playing a sound clip and automatically exchanging personal HTML pages. Field study results showed that bikers enjoyed such added value to biking.

Yasar et al. (2010) proposed a system which could exchange traffic information, such as congestion or free parking place between drivers. By combining the social network and the vehicular network, the system enabled such information to be transferred by “a friend-of-a-friend”. This social bonding that increases the closeness between strange drivers makes the information more trustworthy.

Schroeter et al. (2012) proposed a concept of Visualizing Degrees of Separation, which would “humanize” cars. By analyzing the drivers’ social network, the degree of separation and avatar of others could be displayed in the augmented-reality windshield, for the purpose of evoking people’s “emotional” response and to decrease anti-social driving behavior. However, there is no further development of this concept, simulator nor field study.

Mitrevska et al. (2012) suggested a system which established bonding between drivers by matching the similarity of their Facebook profile to reduce anonymity. Then, this concept was prototyped into a simplified simulation game where the participants could not drive but could press four buttons (AngryComments, HornHonk, HappyFace or ThumbsUp) to other drivers. The user test showed that participants behaved more politely to the drivers who had common personal information.

So far, most of the studies are limited to concept exploration, questionnaire survey or empirical study, and there is no systematic research conducted to investigate on how digital information influences social closeness. This study tried to establish social bonding between people by matching drivers’ profiles, to increase social closeness between proximate drivers on the road.

### 3. Application

#### 3.1. Aims and research hypotheses

iSticker and MusicHound, which enable the driver to see a virtual sticker and hear the music of nearby cars, were proposed and corresponding prototypes were implemented in a driving simulator. Then, two user tests were conducted to investigate the acceptance of these concepts and whether they exerted a positive influence on social closeness. We tested three hypotheses:
H1: People hold a positive attitude toward iSticker and MusicHound.

H2: The applications have a positive influence on social closeness.

H3: The applications do not distract from the primary driving task.

In the following sections, the two studies are presented. The outcomes will be discussed jointly in conclusion section.

4. Study one: iSticker
4.1. Concepts and rationale

4.1.1. iSticker: extending the bumper sticker culture to the avatar on the road

According to social identity and social categorization theory, individuals evaluate others into various groups (Nowak & Fox, 2018), which helps people to organize and understand the social world more efficiently (Fiske, Gilbert, & Lindzey, 2010). People feel more social closeness with and respond more positively to others who are in the same category as themselves (Hornsey & Hogg, 2000; Nowak & Fox, 2018). As a result, it should be possible to enhance the closeness by creating the perception of group affiliation between drivers.

The way people group others is based on demographic features (e.g., sex, age, ethnicity, or religion), personality and interests (Fiske et al., 2010), etc. In the driving environment, bumper stickers and other signs affixed to the vehicles can be seen as a cue for the categorization process. Based on the result of investigation of bumpers stickers that communicated candidate preferences during the 1992 presidential election, Endersby and Towle (1996) suggested that: “display of bumper stickers often is an expression, not of individualism, but of group affiliation”, and drivers want to use their vehicle as a “form of identification and solidarity with a group sharing common beliefs”. However, traditional ways, such as physical bumper stickers, ornamentations or “objects” inside windshields, because of being fixed, limit the communication.

The digital form of a bumper sticker is a promising solution. In the computer-mediated environment, an avatar can be defined as a “digital representation of a human user that facilitates interaction with other users” (Nowak & Fox, 2018). It is not surprising that people also engage in similar categorization processes like face-to-face interaction when they perceive avatars as social entities (Nowak, Hamilton, & Hammond, 2009). Several studies suggested that interacting with avatars that have common features or belong to the same social categories bolsters positive impressions of partners or teammates (Nowak & Fox, 2018).

Based on previous research, we proposed iSticker, which presents similarity and cues for categorization through avatar, to enhance the social closeness between drivers. The concept of iSticker is described in the following scenario:

Peter is a Marvel hero fan. Yesterday he chose the virtual icons “Spiderman” in the “iSticker” online service for his car. Now he is on the highway to Berlin. On the road he sees several fellow drivers who have “Ironman”, “Deadpool” and “Ant-man” badges when they approach. He knows that they can see his badge as well because they chose their icons in same category.

Although the conceptual definition of avatar differs across previous studies, the most liberal definition of the term would entail any representation of any controller (Nowak & Fox, 2018), such as a photograph on a social network, a graphical icon or a 3D virtual body. iSticker enables drivers to choose various digital representations, such as movie characters, football teams or cartoon figures. Compared with physical bumpers, iSticker has two main differences: First, it does not limit the communication. Drivers can see others’ stickers clearly at far distance. Secondly, only the drivers who have similar interests can see each other’s stickers, as the sticker is only disclosed to people from the same community.

4.2. Apparatus

A prototype based on the concept, which enables participants to see to the other drivers’ “stickers” was designed, developed and integrated in a driving simulator. The driving simulator included a steering wheel, seat, pedals, gears and three 32” screens (Figure 1).

4.3. Design and prototype

For providing visual feedback, an enhanced navigation interface was shown on a 10” screen attached in a driving simulator. The interface which integrated 3D maps was designed to show three layers of information (Figure 2):

1. Geography layer: 3D model of the driving scenario (imported from the driving simulator), including roads, lanes, signs, important buildings, etc.
2. Vehicle layer: Represents the participant’s vehicle and surrounding vehicles.
3. Notification layer: Information such as speed, virtual stickers of other cars and participants’ cars.

There are two states of the interface:

State 1: If there are no drivers with stickers in the same community, the interface shows the own car as well as nearby cars on the road.
State 2: If there is a nearby car with a sticker, an icon appears on top of the representation of the corresponding car in the interface. Furthermore, a ripple animation pops up on the car with the sticker to draw the driver’s attention (Figure 3).

4.4. Evaluation

4.4.1. Evaluation setup

Forty participants took part in this experiment. The participants were divided into two groups, with Group 2 acting as a baseline condition for Connectedness and Social inclusion on the road. In order to get equal groups, we balanced gender and driving age. They had quite equal driving experience, measured in the amount of years that the participants had
a driver’s license: 5.95 (SD 2.72) for the sticker group 5.50 (SD 3.53) for the control group. For participating in the experiment, each of them received a 5-euro reward.

4.4.2. Choosing stickers
Before the test, the iSticker concept was introduced. Then, the participant was asked to select one virtual sticker to put on their car from a list (Figure 4). The list contained 119 stickers in eleven categories, which included figures from movies, TV play, cartoons, games and football teams. Each category contained at least four Stickers.

4.4.3. Scenario
A highway scenario that included curves, viaducts, entrance ramps, and exit ramps, along with low density of traffic was created for testing. The total duration of the scenario was 10 min. The navigation was disabled in this study. Participants were told to drive straight and not leave the highway.

4.4.4. Experiment procedure
Before the formal test session, each participant was invited to drive in the simulator in a free driving mode for 10 min with the purpose of getting familiar with the driving simulator. Then, each participant from the sticker group was introduced to the concept.

For each participant in the sticker group, there were three cars, each with a different sticker from the same category appearing in three different segments of the road. The participant was told that there might be some other drivers who had similar “Stickers” appearing on the road. For the other group, acting as a baseline condition, there was no car with a sticker but the interface of 3D maps remained. After the driving session, the participants of each group were asked to fill in the questionnaire and people in group 1 had a semi-structured interview.

4.4.5. Dependent variables
Four questionnaires were used to evaluate the belongingness, social closeness between participants and other drivers, mental effort of the application and the appeal of this application.

To measure belongingness, the Revised Social Connectedness Scale (SCS-R) (Lee, Draper, & Lee, 2001) was used. SCS-R was developed by Lee et al., to measure belongingness based on H. Kohut’s self-psychology theory (Baker & Baker, 1987). SCS-R includes 20 items. To reduce the length of the entire
questionnaire, the number of questions of the SCS-R scale was reduced to 6 including three positively worded and three negatively worded ones. The Connectedness score is the average of the scores for the individual items (after inverting the scores for the negatively phrased items).

To measure the social closeness between the participants and surrounding drivers on the road, the pictorial Inclusion of Community in Self (ICS) scale was used (Mashek, Cannaday, & Tangney, 2007). The scale is composed of six pictorial representations of two circles (one representing the community and the other
representing the self). Each of the pictorial representations varies from its neighbor by the size of the intersection surface. An increase in this intersection shows a closer sense of inclusion to the community. In the questionnaire, the community side was described as the other drivers.

To evaluate mental effort, the Rating Scale for Mental Effort (RSME) was adopted (De Waard, 1996). RSME is a unidimensional labeled scale. Participants rate invested effort by a cross on a continuous line running from 0 to 150 mm, and every 10 mm is indicated and labeled from “absolutely no effort” to “extreme effort”.

To measure the appeal of the driving situation, we used a semantic differential (Osgood, Suci, & Tannenbaum, 1957), which was constructed by Hassenzahl, Platz, Burmester, and Lehner (2000) and contains items such as “pleasant-unpleasant”, “attractive-unattractive” and “desirable-undesirable” (7 point scales). Participants were asked to evaluate the feeling of their experience of the journey. The Appeal score is the average of the scores for the individual items.

At last, a 11-point Likert scale about how participants liked the other cars’ “stickers” appearing in the scenario was also included, for the purpose of examining whether they liked the others’ icons.

4.5. Results

4.5.1. SCS-R scale
An independent T-test was conducted to compare the social connectedness level of the two groups. Results showed that the participants who could see others’ “stickers” felt significantly higher belongingness (Mean = 3.4, SD = 0.48) than the participants in the control group (Mean = 2.8, SD = 0.68), t (38) = 3.197, p = .003, r = 0.46 (Figure 5).

4.5.2. ICS scale
As the scale judgment represent ordinal data, non-parametric test (Mann–Whitney U) was conducted to compare social closeness of two groups. The result shows that participants in the scenarios where they could see “stickers” felt significantly higher closeness (Mdn = 3.0) between themselves and other drivers on the road than the participants in control group (Mdn = 2.0), U = 125.5, p = .036, r = 0.33 (Figure 6).

4.5.3. Mental effort
As the RSME scale judgment represents ordinal data, a non-parametric test (Mann–Whitney U) was conducted to compare the mental effort of the two groups. No significant difference was found between the two groups. The median mental effort of the group where participants could see others’ sticker was 31.0, compared with the control group whose mean was 23.0 (U = 183.0, p = .645).

4.5.4. Appeal
This measure provides insight into the appeal of this application. Based on the Independent T-test, the result of the appeal questionnaire in group 1 (Mean = 5.8, SD = 0.55) is significantly higher than in group 2 (Mean = 2.36, SD = 0.84): t (38) = 15.506, p < .001, r = 0.93 (Figure 7).

4.5.5. Liking of “stickers”
This scale, which ranges from 1 to 11, shows how participants liked the “stickers” appearing on the others’ cars. Most participants gave a high score of preference (Mean = 9.1, SD = 1.85). Only one participant gave a score below six. The result indicated that most participants liked the others’ “stickers” in the experiment.

4.6. Qualitative research
In order to gain structured insights from our study, we transcribed and analyzed the interview data by qualitative content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). In this section, we report on the results of in total 258 textual descriptions. The descriptions were coded by the first author using the following three themes: (1) Factors influencing the acceptance of the concept, (2) Factors influencing the social closeness and (3) Factors influencing the distraction from the driving task (Table 1).
4.6.1. Acceptance

Ninety-one quotes in this theme provide insight on peoples’ general idea of this application. Participants were firstly asked to “describe this application”, then to explain the reason for the descriptions. Three dominant categories were generated from the analysis of the quotes: general description, positive factors, and negative factors. Almost all of the quotes in general description were positively worded. This result supported the Appeal questionnaire, which indicated that this application got a high acceptance. After analysis of the positive and negative factors, we found two main reasons that the participants liked the concept. Firstly, it can reduce boredom, especially for a long journey. Secondly, it fulfills people’s social demands on a lonely journey. Regarding the influence of this application on driving behavior, some participants thought iSticker could induce them to drive more politely by providing identity information of anonymous drivers. The mostly mentioned negative factor is the distraction, this part is elaborated in the following “distraction” part.

4.6.2. Social bonding

This theme collected 106 quotes describing participants’ feeling of social inclusion as well as the reasons behind it. Most participants confirmed that iSticker increased their feeling of social bonding, which was in line with the quantitative data. The most mentioned factor that influenced the social bonding was the similarity. They thought that others also have the same interest when they saw the stickers. This result corresponds to the social identity theory.

However, about one-third of the participants did not feel much social bonding with other drivers. They stated that the relatedness brought just by stickers is not strong enough and that further interaction and more overlapping of their profile would increase their feeling of connectedness. Furthermore, they were willing to have further interaction with the drivers with stickers, such as saying “hi” or even starting a conversation. Actually, one-third of the participants already tried to interact with the drivers with stickers, such as following the car, intentionally overtaking the car or looking at the faces of the drivers. This result suggests that only presenting a sticker may not be enough to fulfill people’s social demand on the road.

4.6.3. Distraction

Fifty-nine quotes from 20 participants described the distraction issues, which were further separated into three sub-categorizations: general judgments, interface, and scenarios.

About one-third of the participants confirmed that they felt at least a little distraction. Two participants said that they felt moderated distraction. Many participants suggested solving this problem by novel human-computer interaction design. For example, displaying a sticker on the windshield by augmented reality technology would enable the user to map the sticker-car more quickly than just displaying an icon on the cluster screen. It was also recommended using an adaptive interface that can show the stickers only when the driver’s workload is low.

5. Study two: Musichound

5.1. Concepts and rationale

5.1.1. Musichound: Music as a social bond connecting drivers

Enjoying and creating music is often a collective activity (Håkansson, Rost, & Holmquist, 2007). Music can meet our social need and plays an important role in how we identify and express ourselves (Frith, 2002). Sharing music with others often fulfills a social function. The content of music may be used to establish new social links and maintain existing ones. Nowadays, thanks to the widespread connectivity of internet and location-based services, portable devices can also be used to connect with other people in physical space. Various projects have been conducted to investigate sharing music in urban environments.

The ethnographic project Underground (Bassoli, Brewer, Martin, Dourish, & Mainwaring, 2007) provides an application for music exchanging in London Underground. It allows artists to upload songs in specific points, and the user can download these songs from these points or from collocated users, browse profiles of users in the vicinity, and send messages. The Compass (Tanaka, Valadon, & Berger, 2007) project uses mobile phones to exchange music with collocated people. A compass metaphor is applied as user interface on the cell phone to visualize nearby networks, people, and music. The application enables users to exchange music when both users are within Bluetooth or wireless network transmission range. The mobile application Capital Music (Seeburger, Foth, & Tjondronegoro, 2012) enables real-time sharing of song choices with collected urban dwellers. People can exchange metadata of music as well as the artwork of the currently played song with nearby users. Besides, this application enables users to send text messages and “Like” messages.

As the automobile is the most popular and frequently reported location for listening to music (Brown, Sellen, & Geelhioed, 2001), we utilize the music as a media to establish social bonding on the road. The concept MusicHound is described as follow:
Donald has been driving alone for 2 hours on the highway. There are not many cars on the road at this moment, the long tedious journey makes him a little bored and lonely. He decides to opens the “Music-Around-Me” application of his car. Then the system scans his music list to analyze his preference of music for better matching. Several minutes later, when approaching a car in front of him, a slight rhythm of “Only Love” is rising in his cabin. The text indicates that the music is played by the front car. “It’s my style”, he thinks. So, he waves his hand to get the song playing in his own car. Then the two cars start to play the music together.

*Musichound* links to drivers’ social media profile and matches drivers based on their music taste. If a nearby driver is playing music, other drivers who have the same music taste can hear that and “get” the music to play in their cars.

### 5.2. Apparatus

The concept *Musichound* was prototyped in the same driving simulator as study 1 (Figure 1).

### 5.3. Design and prototype

#### 5.3.1. Interface design

Similar to study 1, the interface was designed to show three layers of information: 1) *Geography layer*, 2) *a vehicle layer* and 3) *notification layer* (Figure 8). However, instead of stickers of other cars, an icon representing the sharing-music car and the visual animation of synchronizing music was shown in the notification layer.

#### 5.3.2. Procedure of getting-music operation

After a meta-analysis of 43 studies, Burke et al. (2006) concluded that in the visual-auditory system, sound captures the user’s attention more quickly with less workload than visual cues alone and leads to quicker reaction times and better performance scores. Therefore, for the system output, an auditory-visual feedback system was adopted. Two speakers were implemented in the front of the simulator not only to play the music but also to deliver auditory feedback of two kinds of information:

1. Availability to get music. When a driver who shares music is approaching, the volume of music is increasing according to the distance between the participant and the sharing-music car.
2. Confirmation of “get” music from other vehicles: An *auditory icon* (Gaver, 1986) (sound clip) that represents a confirmation message is played as a confirmation of successful “got” other music and the volume of the music increases to standard value.

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<th>Table 1. Categorization of textual descriptions with the numbers of quotes and participants for each (sub-)category indicated within parentheses.</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Category (N of quotes/participants)</strong></td>
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<td>Theme 1: Acceptance: Which factors influence people’s attitude toward the concept?</td>
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<td>Theme 3: Which factors influence the distraction from the driving task?</td>
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For receiving music, gestural interaction was adopted using a LeapMotion sensor. The use of gestural interfaces for in-car interaction can reduce visual demand and thus increase safety (Riener, 2012). Zobl, Nieschulz, Geiger, Lang, and Rigoll (2003) suggested that a gestural command style is more intuitive and simple than knobs and touch screen command styles. Another advantage of gesture is that it does not require physical interaction with another surface (Fujimura, Xu, Tran, Bhandari, & Ng-Thow-Hing, 2013). We utilized the “wave hand in” gesture to represent the operation of getting others’ music (Figure 9).

The flow of getting others’ music can be separated into three steps (Figure 10):

Step 1: If there is no recommended music playing by surrounding drivers, the interface shows the own car as well as nearby cars on the road.

Step 2: If there is a nearby car playing music matching the driver’s music preference, an icon appears on top of the corresponding car on the map. Furthermore, the speakers of the participant start to play the recommended music in low volume.

Step 3: Participants wave their hand in front of the LeapMotion sensor to enable the other driver’s music to play in their own car. After getting the music, an auditory icon is played to confirm the transmission and the volume of the music increases at the same time. Besides, a visual effect appears and a white line between the two cars emerges to inform participants with which car they are synchronizing music.

5.4. Evaluation

5.4.1. Evaluation setup

Forty participants took part in this study. The participants were divided into two groups, with Group 2 acting as a baseline condition for Connectedness and Social inclusion on the road. In order to get equal groups, we balanced gender, driving experience and age. The average age of the first group was 25.80 (SD 3.98) and the second group 25.25 (SD 4.03). They had quite equal driving experience, measured in the amount of years that the participants had a driver’s license: 5.93 (SD 3.53) for the first group and 5.50 (SD 3.53) for the second group. For participating in the experiment, each of them received a 5-euro reward.

5.4.2. Experiment procedure

Before the formal test session, each participant was invited to drive in the simulator in a free driving mode for 10 min with the purpose of getting familiar with the driving simulator. Then, each participant from group 1 was introduced to the concept of the music sharing system. Furthermore, he/she was asked to practice “getting” music from other cars by waving the hand in front of the LeapMotion.

Before the test, participants were instructed to accept (“get”) all the music emerging in the scenario. They were told that there might be some other drivers who would play music on the road. There were three cars which played music matching the participant’s music preferences appearing in three different segments of the road for each participant in group 1. After the participant accepted the music, it played for 2 min then faded out. For group 2, acting as a baseline condition, there was no other car playing music but the music played three times at the same locations as for group 1, for the same duration. Furthermore, the interface of 3D maps remained. After the driving session, the participants of each group were asked to fill in questionnaires and people in group 1 had a semi-structured interview.

5.4.3. Recommended music

Before the test, each participant was asked to provide three songs they favored while driving. Then, these songs’ names were put into the music website Spotify (www.spotify.com). The “Recommend Songs” feature was used to generate one related song for each song, which would be played in the experiment, for the purpose of simulating the recommended music in the application.
5.4.4. Dependent variables

The same questionnaires as in study 1 were used to evaluate the belongingness, social closeness between participants and other drivers, mental effort of the application and the appeal of this application: Revised Social Connectedness Scale (SCS-R), Inclusion of Community in Self (ICS) scale, Rating Scale for Mental Effort (RSME) and Appeal questionnaire (Appendices A, B, C). Furthermore, a Likert scale about how participants liked the suggested music playing in the scenario was also included, for the purpose of examining the accuracy of the recommendation.

5.4.5. Scenario

The same highway scenario as in study 1 was used for this experiment. The total duration of the scenario was 10 min.

5.5. Results

5.5.1. Liking of music

This scale, which ranges from 1 to 11, shows how participants liked the music playing in the experiment. Most participants rated a high score of liking for both group 1 (Mean = 8.8, SD = 2.20) and group 2 (Mean = 8.7, SD = 1.84). The result indicated that most participants liked the music playing in the experiment and the preference of music in group 1 and group 2 were quite close.

5.5.2. SCS-R scale

An independent T-test was conducted to compare the social connectedness level of the two groups (Figure 11). The results showed that the participants who could see others’ music felt significantly higher belongingness (Mean = 3.4, SD = 0.69) than the participants in the control group (Mean = 2.8, SD = 0.71), t (38) = 2.793, p = .008, r = 0.41.

5.5.3. ICS scale

Based on the Mann–Whitney U Test, participants in the scenarios where they could get music felt significantly higher closeness (Mdn = 3.0) between themselves and other drivers on the road than the participants in the

[Figure 9. Wave hand in to “get” the music of other cars. The LeapMotion sensor is visible at the bottom right.]

[Figure 10. Interface of 3 steps of getting others’ music.]
5.5.4. Mental effort
As regards the mental effort of participants, which was measured by the RSME scale, no significant difference was found between the two groups based on the Mann–Whitney U Test. The mean mental effort of the group where participants could get music was 34.8 with a SD of 21.75, compared with the control group whose mean was 29.9 with a SD of 15.85.

5.5.5. Appeal
This measure provides insight into the appeal of this application. Based on the Independent T-test, the result of the appeal questionnaire in group 1 (Mean = 5.9, SD = 0.77) is significantly higher than in group 2 (Mean = 4.66, SD = 0.86): t (38) = 4.859, p < .001, r = 0.62 (Figure 13).

5.6. Qualitative research
In order to gain structured insights from our study, we transcribed and analyzed the interview data by qualitative content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). In this section, we report on the results of in total 221 textual descriptions. The descriptions were coded by the first author using the following three themes: 1) Factors influencing the Acceptance of the concept, 2) Factors influencing the Belongingness 3) Factors influencing the distraction from the driving task (Table 2).

5.6.1. Acceptance
Quotes in this theme provide insight on peoples’ general idea of this application. Participants were firstly asked to “describe this application”, then to explain the reason of the descriptions. Three dominant categories were generated from the analysis of the quotes: general description, positive factors, and negative factors.

Similar with iSticker, MusicHound got very high acceptance by people, which supported the quantitative research result. The most mentioned reason by the participants was that MusicHound enabled social activities during the journey, and music was a good media for that without releasing too much private information. Some participants also mentioned a more practical benefit: finding new music. There are a lot of music apps, such as Spotify, which can recommend new music based on Facebook friends’ listening record (Bozdag, 2013). But MusicHound provides a location-based clue for the recommendation. People are driving in the same area, in the same traffic and under the same weather condition. Furthermore, it can also collect people’s feedback (people wave hand to “get” the music) to improve the accuracy. Besides, two participants thought MusicHound could cultivate pro-social driving behavior by providing the identity of anonymous others and the music sharing could “calm them down”.

Figure 11. Mean of the result of SCS-R scale (ranges from 1 to 5).

Figure 12. Mean of the result of Appeal questionnaire (ranges from 1 to 7).

Figure 12. The result of ICS scale (ranges from 1 to 6).
5.6.2. Social bonding

This theme collected 46 quotes describing participants’ feeling of social inclusion as well as the reason behind it. Most participants confirmed that MusicHound increased their feeling of social bonding, which was in line with the quantitative data of the social inclusion questionnaire. The quotes in this theme were divided into two categories: existing social bonding and related reasons; no social bonding and related reasons.

Anonymity and lack of interaction hide the personality and identity of drivers on the road. As mentioned above, people were very interested in adding social features instead of interacting monotonously with other road users. MusicHound is a tool to expose drivers’ profile without leaking sensitive information. “Surrounding drivers become alive” when they were sharing music. The most mentioned factors that influenced social bonding was a common preference of music. They felt “attached to” others when others played the music they liked. Besides the similarity of the music taste, listening to music simultaneously with others seemed also essential for enhancing social connection. Twelve participants said that they enjoyed synchronizing music with others.

However, one-quarter participants felt little social bonding with other drivers. They enjoyed the rhythm of the music but did not care about who shared the music. Some participants even saw the visual interface that showed the source of the music as unnecessary and distracting.

5.6.3. Distraction

Seventy-four quotes in this theme described the participants’ opinion of driving distraction caused by MusicHound. Four dominant categories emerged from the analysis: general judgment, visual interface, auditory feedback, and gestural interaction. Each category contained positive and negative descriptions about the distraction by MusicHound.

Many participants confirmed that they felt a little distraction. The quotes indicate that the participants who felt distraction had less driving experience. Surprisingly, in contrast to distraction, some participants stated that the application kept them more focusing on the road, because the application could decrease boredom and draw their attention back to the driving task in a long journey.

Human-machine interaction was the mostly mentioned factor related to distraction. From an output perspective, the visual interface and the auditory feedback helped people to locate the vehicle which was broadcasting music. But both of them could be more natural. Drivers are used to mapping the roads, intersection, and buildings in the real world to the GUI (graphical user interface) elements on the screen of a navigation. However, “match the dot in the small screen to the surrounding car” increased the workload and distraction. As a result, augmented reality technology was suggested. Regarding the auditory feedback, participants mainly complained about the insufficiency of information.
that auditory feedback contained. In *MusicHound*, the volume of music could indicate the distance between the participant and the sharing-music car. But participants suggested spatial auditory feedback: the sound could be delivered spatially through multiple speakers to indicate the spatial location of the music source.

Gestural input was implemented in *MusicHound*. However, one-quarter participants held a negative attitude toward the interaction of waving the hand to get music. They were concerned about the danger of lifting one hand from the steering wheel while the car was at a high speed. Other ways of input were suggested, such as putting a button on the steering wheel or speech input.

### 5.6.4. Suggestions

Besides the three themes above, other aspects of this application were also mentioned, such as the mechanism of sharing music, privacy and whether willing to sharing music, etc. Some participants suggested that they were willing to share music and expected others to get their music as well. And they did not think the music preference is specific enough to leak their private information. Another interesting finding was the attitude of further interaction beside sharing music. Some participants were quite positive about sharing music and would like to have further social interaction on the road, for example, speeding up to pass a driver who is sharing the music and “wave hand or smile to him”. However, they all did not want further contact with these people afterward, for example, joining them on Facebook.

### 6. Conclusion and discussion

In this study, we investigated how drivers feel about establishing social bonding with anonymous other drivers by exposing their profile information. The following hypotheses were evaluated:

H1: “People hold a positive attitude toward these concepts.” H1 is supported by both quantitative data and qualitative research: Participants who can see others’ stickers or “get” music gave higher scores in the appeal questionnaire; and most of the participants held a positive attitude to these concepts.

H2: “The applications have a positive influence on social closeness.” This hypothesis is also supported. According to the result of SCS-R scale and ICS scale, people feel more social closeness and belongingness if they can see others’ stickers or “get” others’ music. The interview results also show that most of the participants felt there was social bonding between them and other drivers on the road.

H3. “The application does not distract from the primary driving task.” The results do not support H3. According to the RSME scale, there is no significant difference between two groups. However, the results of the interview show that more than one third of the participant felt certain distracted, although only few of them stated that the distraction is unacceptable and that it is unsafe to use this concept.

Nowadays, most of the car manufacturers are trying their best to improve the driving performance, comfort or styling design. The result of the experiment indicates that there are some other demands that can be fulfilled to enhance the user experience of the journey. *iSticker* and *MusicHound* got high acceptance by participants as they enable social activities and reduce boredom on the road. On one hand, human are social in nature, being related to others is a basic human need (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Social interaction has been implicated as a potential determinant of happiness (Cooper, Okamura, & Gurka, 1992). Therefore, the traffic environment can also be a public space for social activities. On the other hand, the in-depth interviews also revealed another benefit that contributes to the appeal of the application: Eliminate boredom. Mikulas (Mikulas & Vodanovich, 1993) defined boredom as a “state of relatively low arousal and dissatisfaction, which is attributed toward an inadequately stimulating environment”. Boredom is an “unpleasant” status (Geiwitz, 1966) which negatively influences the experience of a journey. Furthermore, it may lead drivers to increase their speed for seeking sensations or diverting their attention away from the driving task (Fuller, 2005). According to the interview, *MusicHound* and *iSticker* may provide stimulation to keep drivers’ attention on the road.

Regarding enhancing social closeness, the result is in line with the self-categorization theory, which suggests that the feeling of being a group member can be founded upon shared characteristics, or similarities, among their members (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987). And groups can provide their members with feelings of belonging (Gardner, Pickett, & Brewer, 2000). The quantitative result shows that there are correlations between social closeness, belongingness, and appeal of the journey. However, it seems that the social bonding is not the only factor that contributes to belongingness. According to Baumeister and Leary (1995), in addition to perceived social bonding, positive interaction and contact also contribute to the belongingness between people. In *iSticker*, there is a social bonding between participants and other drivers who are in the same sticker-community. But there is no further interaction between them in the digital layer. People tried to look at the other drivers, follow and overtake them for physical “contact”. In the following interview, almost all the participants would like to have digital interaction with other drivers, which indicates the needs of further interaction. It is also supported by the interview result of *MusicHound*, which shows that more than half of the participants appreciated the synchronization of music with others. As some participants mentioned, when they “got” others’ music and enjoyed it together with others, they felt that they were “dancing with them”.

On another side, the qualitative results suggest that the concepts reduce driving aggression by increasing social closeness between drivers, which confirms previous research (Nagler, 2013; Ratan & Tsai, 2014). By the digital augmentation, the drivers have the opportunity to establish links to the drivers that they encounter, which may evoke empathy and increase trust, and decrease the incidence of aggressive driving.
behavior. In our case, the participant feels closeness not only by receiving other’s identity information but also by exposing information: In iSticker, when people see others’ stickers, it is also indicated that other people can see their stickers; in MusicHound, when people “get” others’ music, they expose that they are in the same music group. As a result, the participants may recognize that their driving behavior affects their reputation (Ratan, Chung, Shen, Williams, & Poole, 2010). In another perspective, by exposing that they are in the same group, they may more adhere to the social norms of this group, which regularize the behavior (Hogg & Terry, 2000). However, further experiments are required to validate these assumptions.

For the aspect of distraction, these applications may draw the driver’s attention back to the road in a long and boring journey. At the same time, however, interaction with other road users may also distract from the driving task. Some novel interaction design was suggested by participants, including spatial audio interface, augmented reality display on the windshield or even disabling this feature if drivers’ workload is too high. Nevertheless, social applications such as MusicHound and iSticker may cause minimal distraction. Furthermore, advanced driver assistance systems, autonomous driving, and augmented reality may release drivers’ attention resources, which may stimulate the development of social features in vehicles.

7. Limitations and future work

This study yielded rich quantitative data and vivid qualitative information by the user test on the driving simulator. However, there are some limitations to the research. Firstly, participants’ driving behavior and emotional status may be biased by the limitations of the driving simulator. The performance of maneuvering the vehicle may be different in the real world. Moreover, “others” who share music may have been seen as a computer agent rather than a real person, which might make the simulated scenarios different from a real social situation. Thirdly, each driving session only lasted 10 min, therefore this study was not able to investigate participants’ attitude toward this application in the long term. At last, subjective questionnaires and qualitative content analysis were adopted for investigation in this study. However, several objective data such as bio-signal (heart rate variability, skin conductance, etc.), gaze tracking and facial expression recognition and driving behavior data (acceleration, speed and brake, etc.) could also be used to evaluate participants’ feedback of this application.

In this study, we utilized two novel applications as probes to explore the possibility of adding social features into connected vehicles in the future. The results indicate that the social bonding by digital augmentation may enhance the closeness and belongingness between drivers. Other insights are also generated by this study, such as reducing driving aggression and boredom by social interaction on the road. These will be further investigated in future research.

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Appendix A
Revised Social Connectedness Scale (SCS-R)

1. I don't feel related to other drivers.
   - Strongly Agree
   - Agree
   - Neutral
   - Disagree
   - Strongly Disagree

2. I see myself as a loner while driving.
   - Strongly Agree
   - Agree
   - Neutral
   - Disagree
   - Strongly Disagree

3. I feel disconnected from the drivers around me.
   - Strongly Agree
   - Agree
   - Neutral
   - Disagree
   - Strongly Disagree

4. I feel understood by other drivers.
   - Strongly Agree
   - Agree
   - Neutral
   - Disagree
   - Strongly Disagree

5. I see other drivers as friendly and approachable.
   - Strongly Agree
   - Agree
   - Neutral
   - Disagree
   - Strongly Disagree

6. I have little sense of togetherness with other drivers.
   - Strongly Agree
   - Agree
   - Neutral
   - Disagree
   - Strongly Disagree

Please answer the following questions by using the scale below them

Appendix B
Inclusion of Community in Self (ICS) scale

Please circle the picture that best describes your relationship with the other drivers around me (S = Self, C = other drivers)
Appendix C

Rating Scale for Mental Effort (RSME)

Please indicate, by making the vertical axis below, how much effort it took for you to complete the task you’ve just finished.
Appendix D

Semantic differential questionnaire

*Please indicate, by making the vertical axis below, how much effort it took for you to complete the task you’ve just finished.*

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