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5 **The Role of Perceived Competence and Risk Perception in Cycling Near**
6 **Misses**

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Abstract

Cyclists' accidents account for a relatively large proportion of road fatalities and this proportion is increasing. Moreover, research suggests that crashes can be predicted by near misses, based on the assumption that they share common causes. Also in the cycling domain it has been suggested that near miss incidents may provide 'early warnings' of situations or behaviours that could lead to crashes. The aim of this study was to investigate the role played by perception of risk and control on the exposure to risky situations, such as the involvement in mixed traffic. We administered a questionnaire to 298 Italian cyclists measuring perceived competence (i.e. perceived control and overconfidence), risk perception of interactions with cars, bicycle use, avoidance of mixed traffic and recent experiences of near misses. Path analysis using Bayesian estimation showed that perceived control, mediated by overconfidence, had a positive indirect effect on bicycle use and a negative one on avoidance of mixed traffic, while it acted as a moderator in the relationship between risk perception of interaction with cars and avoidance of mixed traffic. Furthermore, the mediation paths revealed the indirect effects of perceived control on near misses through exposure. Results highlighted the importance of considering the role of individuals' perception of their ability to cycle with regard to near misses and provided new insight on how cyclists regulate their behaviour, as well as how such behaviour leads to different safety outcomes. Results have implications regarding theory, infrastructure and the application of new safety technologies.

Key terms: *Risk Perception, Overconfidence, Perceived Control, Near Miss.*

63

Introduction

64 Risk perception has been found to reduce risky behaviours and the probability of safety
65 outcomes by behavioural adaptation both theoretically and empirically (Ba et al., 2016;
66 Koornstra, 2009). Moreover, perceived competence, in the meaning of the perceived
67 capabilities that one possesses over one task, has been also proposed to be part of the
68 behavioural adaptation process influencing the level of difficulty associated with a task (Rudin-
69 Brown & Jamson, 2013). Both risk perception and perceived competence are cognitive
70 constructs of utmost importance when modelling road users' behaviour due to their
71 relationship with behavioural adaptation. The present study attempts to shed light on the
72 interactions between perceived competence and risk perception and their effect on cyclists'
73 involvement in risky situations and safety outcomes in cycling.

74 Accidents and near misses among cyclists

75 In the last decade, the amount of research investigating cycling safety has dramatically
76 increased. Several reasons might be the source of such interest. First, even though cyclists
77 represent a small minority in comparison with motorised vehicles, they account for a relatively
78 large proportion of fatalities (ERSO, 2016). In fact, in 2014 there were 2112 cyclists' fatalities
79 in the EU countries, which correspond to the 8.1% of all the road deaths (ERSO, 2016) showing
80 an increase of 0.3% compared to 2013. In addition to this, infrastructure is usually not designed
81 to provide cyclists with safety conditions comparable to other road users (e.g., car drivers),
82 therefore, their level of protection is considerably lower (Wegman et al., 2012).

83 Fatality trends and other safety outcomes (e.g., the number of non-fatal accidents) vary
84 along different EU countries. In Italy, according to the Italian National Institute of Statistics
85 (ACI-ISTAT, 2015), on a total of 17437 accidents involving at least one cyclist in 2015, 16827
86 cyclists were injured and 252 died within 30 days following the accident. These data show a
87 decrease of 3.2% in the injuries and of 7.7% in the fatalities compared to the previous year. In

88 Italy the mortality index (deaths every 100 accidents) for cyclists is 1.44, which is higher in
89 comparison with the mortality index of car users (0.88).

90 In the safety domain, using the Safety Pyramid model, accidents are on the pinnacle of
91 the pyramid, whereas the basis is composed by near misses (e.g., Phimister et al., 2003). A near
92 miss can be defined as an event that did not cause any harm and therefore has limited immediate
93 impact. In the literature, it has been suggested that accidents can be predicted by near misses,
94 based on the assumption that they share common causes (Wright, & Van der Schaaf, 2004).
95 This relationship has been studied in a broad spectrum of industries, such as the rail and air
96 transport sector, medicine, and the chemical process industry (e.g., Jeffs et al., 2012; Jones et
97 al., 1999; Phimister et al., 2003; Saleh et al., 2013; Wright, & Van der Schaaf, 2004). In
98 addition, in the road safety literature, there is evidence that near-miss accidents predict actual
99 driving accidents (Powell et al., 2007).

100 Moreover, at a theoretical level, Güttinger (1982) proposed a model in which a conflict
101 is defined as a set of initial conditions that depending on the successfulness of the evasive
102 action either develop further into a collision or resolve without any consequences. This
103 definition implies the existence of a continuum in which conflicts always precede crashes and
104 with the possibility for the crashes to develop either in a crash or in an avoided crash – near
105 miss. In other words, this model can be interpreted in a way that a conflict is a set of
106 circumstances that either results in a crash or not.

107 In the cycling domain, the relationship between near misses and crashes is yet to be
108 understood. In accordance with Güttinger's (1982) model, Aldred (2016) suggests that near
109 miss incidents may provide 'early warnings' of situations or behaviour that could lead to
110 crashes. Moreover, Aldred (2016) compared percentages of attribution of near misses and the
111 crashes in the study of Knowles' et al. (2009) and found that they were very similar, giving
112 support to the shared causation.

113 Despite these early studies, cycling near misses remain under-researched, regardless of
114 their likely contribution to injury crashes (Aldred, 2016). Nevertheless, more and more
115 innovative solutions and methodologies attempted to address such matter (i.e., Aldred &
116 Crossweller, 2015; Westerhuis & De Waard, 2016). Some studies, such as Aldred and
117 Crossweller (2015) and Joshi, Senior, and Smith (2001) in the UK and Sanders (2015) in the
118 San Francisco Bay Area, have also shown that near misses are a very common experience for
119 cyclists. For example, using an online diary methodology, Aldred and Crossweller (2015) found
120 that the 75% of participants experienced at least .75 incidents per cycled hour, with a median
121 of 1.71 per hour. Similarly, using a self-reported questionnaire, Sanders (2015) showed that
122 86% of those who bicycle at least annually in this sample had experienced some type of near
123 miss.

124 **Cycling levels and avoidance of mixed traffic as exposure**

125 Exposure is of utmost importance when it comes to studying cycling safety. Research
126 suggests that studies that intend to estimate the importance of factors other than exposure in
127 crashes and injuries must control for exposure given to its overall effect on cycling safety and
128 risk of crash and injury (Vanparijs et al., 2015). Moreover, its effect on crash and injury risk
129 has been consolidated over the years by research (Carlin et al., 1995; Bacchieri et al., 2010).

130 In the present study we consider exposure at two different levels: (1) exposure to
131 cycling in general, that is to say, use of the bicycle; and (2) cycling in mixed traffic situations.
132 The latter type of exposure allows for more opportunities for cyclists to interact with cars,
133 which is of especial importance when considering risk. Evidence shows countries and cities
134 with extensive bicycling facilities have the highest cycling modal split shares and the lowest
135 fatality rates. Those countries and cities without separate facilities have low modal split shares
136 and much higher fatality rates (Pucher, 2001; Pucher & Dijkstra, 2000). However, in emerging
137 cycling regions where cyclists are rapidly growing in number, cyclists are forced to share the

138 road with motorised vehicles due to the underdevelopment of cycling infrastructure (e.g.,
139 Pucher et al., 2011). Cyclists in urban area may have to choose between (1) cycle within mixed
140 traffic situations with shorter travel time, (2) cycle on bike lanes or segregated paths with a
141 longer travel time, and (3) use other means of transport. The two latter options would imply
142 avoiding mixed traffic and, therefore, the risk of conflicts with road users in it.

143 For this reason, in our model (fig. 1) we hypothesize that, on the one hand, avoidance
144 of cycling in mixed traffic will be negatively associated with the occurrence of near misses
145 (hypothesis 1). In other words, the more cyclists avoid mixed traffic situations, the lower the
146 probability to get involved in a conflict (i.e., near miss), especially with vehicles generally
147 involved in mixed traffic. On the other hand, concerning exposure to cycling in general and
148 according to the aforementioned, we hypothesize a positive association between bicycle use
149 and near misses (hypothesis 2).

150 **Risk Perception of Interaction with Cars**

151 Risk-adaptation theory proposes that road traffic risk perception depends on fear and
152 arousal (Koornstra, 2009). Cyclists feel most secure on road with cycle tracks and most at risk
153 on roads with mixed traffic, while cycle lanes can be considered half way: less secure than
154 cycle tracks, but considerably more secure than mixed traffic roads (Jensen et al., 2007). In
155 particular, it has been shown that the presence and the size of motor vehicles (Aldred, 2016)
156 increase cyclists' feeling of being at risk. Moreover, previous experiences set up the adaptation
157 level around which there is a range of indifference to risks (Koornstra, 2009). Such level and
158 ranges vary between individuals, therefore, one can also expect variance in the degree of risk
159 which cyclists incur depending on their own personal characteristics. This way, avoiding mixed
160 traffic is a strategy to cope with perceived risk (Chataway et al., 2014; Kaplan & Prato, 2016;
161 O'Connor & Brown, 2010) which, as other forms of behavioural adaptation, might lead to a
162 decrease of the objective probability of accident or events with potential hazards (Ba et al.,

163 2016). Therefore, we hypothesized that risk perception regarding interaction with motorised
164 vehicles will be positively associated with avoidance of mixed traffic (hypothesis 3). In other
165 words, the higher the perception of risk in interactions with motorized vehicles, the more
166 cyclists will avoid mixed traffic situations.

167 **Perceived Competence**

168 Perceived competence in riding a bicycle can be considered as a form of control over
169 one's riding (Chaurand & Delhomme, 2013). Cristea and Gheorghiu (2016) found that
170 perceived behavioural control over certain situation was a good predictor of the behavioural
171 intention to take part in such situations. Perceived behavioural control refers to the individual's
172 perception of his or her ability to execute a given behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). According to this,
173 people will likely choose to perform behaviours they think they will be capable of executing.
174 The concept of perceived behavioural control is very similar to that of self-efficacy (Bandura,
175 1982) and it captures people's perceived capability to execute a given behaviour, for example,
176 travelling to work by bicycle (Lois et al., 2015). With that said, perceived control can be defined
177 as a self-perception regarding the own capabilities and ability to control one's own action in
178 order to execute a given behaviour, in other words, how skilled and effective people perceive
179 themselves to be given particular conditions. According to this framework it is reasonable to
180 argue that perceived control will influence how much a person will engage in a certain
181 behaviour. In the context of the present study, we hypothesise that increasing levels of
182 perceived control will be positively associated with weekly rates of bicycle use (hypothesis 4).

183 Previous studies have found that the perceived control over a driving situation predicts
184 the disposition to take higher levels of risk (Horswill & McKenna, 1999). Moreover, people
185 tend to better accept controllable rather than uncontrollable risks (Nordgren et al., 2007).
186 Furthermore, in driving safety research, a reduced risk avoidance in road traffic has been found
187 when drivers' perception of control is higher (Horswill and McKenna 1999; Windsor et al.,

188 2008). Considering the inherent risk of involvement in mixed traffic and the decision to avoid
189 mixed traffic situations as a coping strategy to reduce the perceived risk (Chataway et al., 2014;
190 Kaplan & Prato, 2016; O'Connor & Brown, 2010), higher perceptions of control may influence
191 cyclist's behavioural intention to ride in a stressful traffic environment such as mixed traffic
192 scenario (Kaplan & Prato, 2016; O'Connor & Brown, 2010). Therefore, we hypothesized that
193 perceived control will be negatively associated with avoidance of mixed traffic (hypothesis 5).
194 In other words, the higher the perception of control, the more cyclists will be involved in mixed
195 traffic, since they will avoid less.

196 Perceived control may be seen as a positive trait since it is associated with self-efficacy
197 and performance therefore (Wohleber & Matthews, 2016). Nevertheless, Weinstein (1980)
198 found that when thinking about future events, situations that were perceived as controllable led
199 to motivational and cognitive factors that tended to increase the perceived likelihood that the
200 given situation would unfold the way the person wanted, therefore, it would lead to unrealistic
201 optimism (Weinstein, 1980). When such perception of control exceeds the real control a person
202 has over the bicycle, it can be labelled overconfidence (Wohleber & Matthews, 2016). Thus,
203 perception of control leading to unreasonable optimism can generate overconfidence regarding
204 the future being linked to your control, in other words, to your skills and capability to control
205 the situation and outcomes. Therefore, we hypothesized that perceived control will lead to
206 overconfidence on the person's skills because of unrealistic optimism (hypothesis 6).

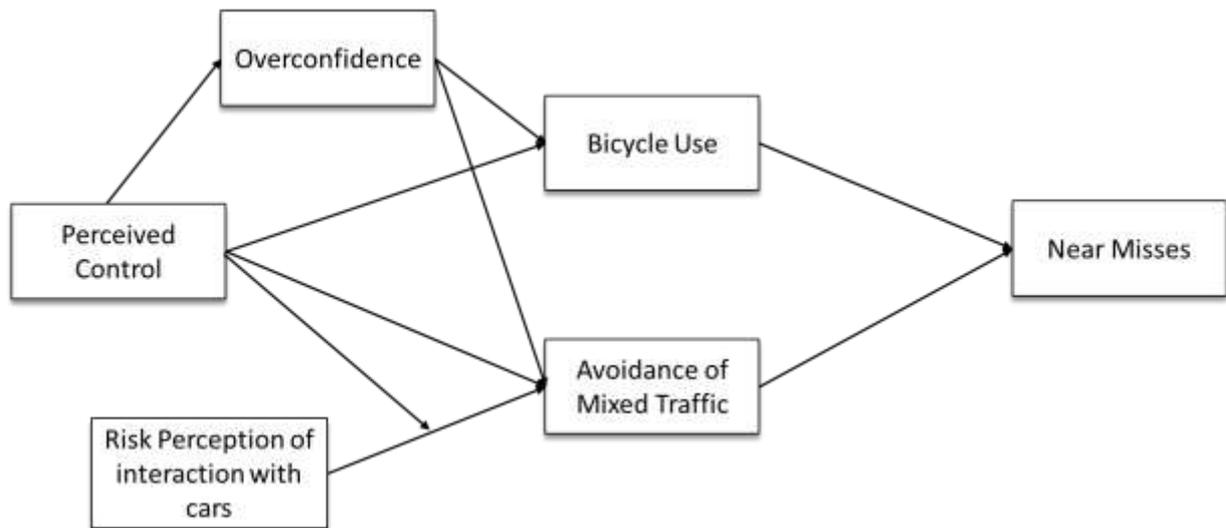
207 Moreover, in driving safety research, overconfidence has been found to be related to
208 riskier behaviours among drivers (Hatfield & Fernandes, 2009; Wohleber & Matthews, 2016).
209 Chaurand and Delhomme (2013) found that higher levels of overconfidence in one's cycling
210 skills were associated with lower risk perception. Thus, cyclists with higher overestimation of
211 their own skills might see dangerous or hazardous situations, such as committing a violation,
212 as relatively less risky. In addition, they will feel more capable to deal with them or to handle

213 the potential consequences of external sources of risk, such as interaction with other road users.
214 Therefore, perceiving oneself as more competent than one actually is may lead to not avoiding
215 situations that, otherwise, would be considered hazardous. Thus, we hypothesize that
216 increasing levels of overconfidence will be associated with lower avoidance of mixed traffic
217 (hypothesis 7) as well as with a higher rate of bicycle use (hypothesis 8). Based on the reasoning
218 presented for hypothesis 6, we established that the relationship between perceived control and
219 bicycle use is indirectly explained through overconfidence (hypothesis 9) as it is the
220 relationship between perceived control and avoidance of mixed traffic (hypothesis 10). Finally,
221 in order to further understand the relations between our variables, we expect to find an indirect
222 effect of multiple mediators on the relationship between perceived control and near misses
223 throughout the influence of overconfidence which in turn, will have an effect on near misses
224 through the parallel mediators bicycle use and avoidance of mixed traffic (hypothesis 11)

225 Research addressing perceived control and risk perception has mainly focused on their
226 relationship, raising the need for investigating the possible effect of the latter on risk
227 acceptance. Cordellieri's, et al., (2016) findings suggested that worrying about the risk might
228 influence the reduction of hazardous behaviours. Based on the assumption that trusting one's
229 skills leads unrealistic optimism (Weinstein, 1980), we propose that for people with high
230 control over one's own skills, there will be less worry about the risk even if the hazard is
231 perceived equally risky. Thus, cyclists with higher levels of perceived control might base their
232 decision to take part in the risky behaviour mainly for reasons other than the level of risk,
233 because they might be less worried about such a risk. Therefore, we propose that, while risk
234 perception might be a predictor of acceptance of the risk (i.e., interaction with mixed traffic),
235 perceived control could play a relevant role in shaping the context in which risk perception is
236 considered to be important when deciding to take such risk. That is, we hypothesize that with
237 high levels of perceived control, risk perception will not play an important role in the prediction

238 of acceptance of the risk, whereas, with lower levels of perceived control, the decision to
239 engage in the risky behaviour will be made on the basis of risk perception. In other words, we
240 hypothesize that the relationship between risk perception and avoidance of mixed traffic will
241 be moderated by perception of control (hypothesis 12).

242 Figure 1 displays the hypothesized path model.



243

244 *Figure 1.* Hypothesized Path Model.

245

Method

246 Procedure

247 Data were collected from December 10, 2015 to February 29, 2016 through an online
248 questionnaire in Italian. To attempt to reduce the self-selection bias and to reach a wide variety
249 of participants, we included groups targeting cyclists with all sorts of demographic
250 characteristics and from different locations in Italy. Cyclists associations' websites, Facebook
251 groups, and forums were found using keywords (i.e. the Italian words for "cycling" "bicycle"
252 "cyclists' association") on Google and on Facebook's search engine. Facebook groups with
253 less than 500 participants were discarded. We contacted in total 45 Facebook groups and 29
254 websites. In order to reach the selected targets two methods were used: (a) firstly, the link to
255 the questionnaire was directly posted on Facebook groups' walls or on websites bulletin boards

256 if available; (b) secondly, an email was written to the website administrators, asking to kindly
257 advertise the questionnaire directly on their website, through their social media channels or
258 inside their newsletter. Participants were offered no reward for participation.

259 Italy is a country with certain regions that have growing cycling levels but that still
260 lacks infrastructure devoted to cyclists in comparison with other European countries with
261 longer cycling traditions. Therefore, it is likely that many people may be forced to choose
262 between getting involved in mixed traffic or using other means of transportation.

263 **Participants**

264 A total of 455 participants answered the questionnaire. After considering only those
265 participants who had filled out the items for age, sex and that acknowledged to use the bicycle
266 at least once a week, the remaining sample comprised 298 (65.5%) participants. From these,
267 178 (59.7%) were male, 119 (39.3%) were female and 3 (1.0%) did not identify with male-
268 female categories. The age of the participants ranged from 19 to 72 years. The mean for females
269 was 37.1 (SD = 14.4), the mean for males was 45.8 (SD = 13.9), whereas the general mean was
270 42.5 (SD = 14.7).

271 Figure 2 displays the percentages of weekly bicycle use. Moreover, regarding the
272 frequency of use in comparison with other means of transportation, 28.2% of the participants
273 reported to use the bicycle as a primary mode of transportation. Finally, 119 (39.9%)
274 participants had not suffered any bicycle accident, 117 (39.3%) participants suffered at least
275 one accident but did not get injured, whereas 60 (20.1%) of them had been involved in a bicycle
276 accident in which they got injured.



277

278 *Figure 2. Percentages of Weekly Bicycle Use*

279 **Measures**

280 The web-based questionnaire contained questions about cyclists’ perceptions of their
 281 competence, attitudes towards cycling in mixed traffic, as well as questions on cyclists’
 282 demographics and experience.

283 *Perceived control.* Participants’ perceived control was measured in terms of perceived
 284 cycling skills regarding the use of the bicycle. Four items were taken and adapted from
 285 Chaurand and Delhomme’s (2013) Perceived Skill Scale. Participants’ were asked to indicate
 286 agreement with each statement on a 5 point Likert scale (ranging from 1= *I completely disagree*
 287 to 5= *I completely agree*). Examples of reported statements are “I’m capable of maintaining
 288 control of my bike in any traffic situation” and “I’m capable of maintaining control of my bike
 289 at high speed”. Cronbach’s alpha was .788.

290 *Overconfidence.* In order to measure participants’ overconfidence regarding their
 291 cycling skills, five items were taken and adapted from Chaurand and Delhomme’s (2013)
 292 Perceived Skill Scale. Participants were asked to rate to what extent they agreed with 5
 293 statements including “I feel I can ride my bicycle better than the average cyclist” and “I can

294 ride my bike properly even when I'm tired". Answers were given on a 5 point Likert scale
295 (ranging from 1= *I completely disagree* to 5= *I completely agree*). Cronbach's alpha was .783.

296 *Perceived risk.* Participants' perceived risk regarding the interaction with cars when
297 cycling was assessed using three items taken from Chataway et al. (2014). Examples of items
298 are "I feel unsafe due to the proximity of cars behind me" and "I feel unsafe thinking about car
299 doors being opened in my path". The items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale. Cronbach's
300 alpha was .760.

301 *Bicycle use.* Respondents were asked how many times on average per week they were
302 using the bicycle. Participants could choose between "Never", "Once", "Twice", "Three
303 times", "Four times", "Five times", "Six or more times".

304 *Avoidance to cycle in mixed traffic.* In order to assess participants' avoidance to cycle
305 in mixed traffic, we used three items. Example are "I avoid to ride the bike when I have to
306 cycle close to cars" and "When there is no separate cycle path, I prefer to use other transport
307 modes." The items were taken and adapted from Chataway et al. (2014). Participants were
308 asked to rate their agreement with the proposed statements on a 5 point Likert scale ranging
309 from 1= *I completely disagree* to 5= *I completely agree*. Cronbach's alpha was .891.

310 *Near Miss.* In order to obtain a measure of near miss, we used one single item: "In this
311 past year, have you been close to getting involved in an accident (either with other road users
312 or a single crash) while you were using your bike?" (0= *No, it never happened to me*, 1= *Once*,
313 2= *Twice*, 3= *Three times*, 4= *Four times or more*).

314 **Statistical Analysis**

315 Descriptive statistics and correlations were estimated using SPSS version 23. To
316 estimate the model we used path analysis, a technique of the Structural Equation Modeling
317 family that is used to estimate parameters of relationships between observed variables (Kline,

318 2016). Path estimates and moderation effects were estimated using MPlus version 7 (Muthén
319 & Muthén, 1998-2015).

320 Mediation responds to the question of ‘how’ or ‘by which means’ a variable exerts an
321 effect over another one (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). For instance, when M acts as a mediator
322 between the predictor X and the outcome Y , the effect of X on Y is transmitted, either partially
323 or totally, throughout the effect of X on the mediator M , and the effect of the latter on the
324 outcome Y . The effect exerted by X on Y throughout the mediator M is called *indirect effect*,
325 whereas that effect not transmitted through the mediator is called *direct effect*. The sum of both
326 indirect and direct effect is called *total effect* (Hayes, 2009; Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

327 Given continuous mediator M , predictor X and outcome Y , a mediation effect is
328 represented as:

$$329 \quad M = i_M + aX + e_M \quad (1)$$

$$330 \quad Y = i_Y + c'X + bM + e_Y \quad (2)$$

331 Where i_M and i_Y are the intercepts of M and Y respectively, e_M and e_Y are the estimation
332 errors, and a , c' , and b are the regression coefficients (Hayes, 2015). The product between a
333 and b corresponds to the estimate of the indirect effect. Moreover, an indirect effect is assumed
334 to take place when an inferential test allows for assumption that it is different from zero (Hayes,
335 2015). Then, one can say that the mediation of X on Y throughout the mediator M takes place.

336 A variable is said to moderate the effect between two other variables (i.e., predictor and
337 outcome) when such the strength or sign of such effect depends on the first variable or
338 moderator (Hayes, 2013). Finding a moderation effect of a quantitative variable does entail to
339 find a linear relationship between the moderator and the relationship between the predictor and
340 the outcome. Identifying an interaction helps understand the conditions under which the
341 relationship between the predictor and the outcome differ, in other words, it helps clarify the
342 ‘when’ a relationship differs (Hayes, 2013; 2015).

343 Considering the continuous nature of predictor X , outcome Y and moderator Z , the
344 relationship between X and Y moderated by Z is usually represented as:

$$345 \qquad Y = i_Y + b_1X + b_2Z + b_3XZ + e_Y \quad (3)$$

346 Where b_1 , b_2 , and b_3 are regression coefficients, i_Y is the intercept of Y and e_Y is the error
347 of estimation (Hayes, 2015). The relationship between X and Y is then considered to be
348 moderated by Z when the regression coefficient of XZ is statistically different from zero (Hayes,
349 2015).

350 In order to estimate effects that are both meaningful and interpretable, the variables that
351 are interacting need to be mean centred (Hayes, 2013). Therefore, when estimating the path
352 model we substituted the variables of the model by their mean centred equivalents in the Mplus
353 script. In order to calculate the region of significance, that is, the values of the moderator (i.e.,
354 perceived control) for which the relationship between predictor (i.e., risk perception) and
355 outcome (i.e., avoidance of mixed traffic) is significantly different from zero, we used the
356 online tool provided by Preacher et al. (2006).

357 Regarding the estimator, we decided to use Bayesian estimation because it can be
358 applied even when variables are not normally distributed (Muthén, 2011). Moreover, Bayesian
359 analysis estimates the lower and upper values (also known as Credibility Intervals) within
360 which, providing a confidence level in terms of probability, the actual parameter can be found
361 for the observed data (Zyphur & Oswald, 2013). Thus, if the obtained credibility intervals do
362 not include zero, one can assert that the parameter is different from it (i.e., smaller or bigger
363 than zero, depending on the sign of the parameter and confidence interval), and comprised
364 within the values of the confidence interval, provided the confidence level. Given the statistical
365 conventions, we use a 95% confidence level to estimate the confidence intervals.

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Results

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Preliminary Analyses

An exploratory factor analysis revealed that each item loaded on its respective factor, thus supporting the discriminant validity of the scales. Due to the violation of assumptions of normality distribution of all the model variables, we used Spearman rho to estimate the intercorrelations.

Table 1 displays the mean scores (with relative standard deviations) and the correlation coefficients. The internal consistency of all factors was acceptable being all above .70. We did not assess the internal consistency for bicycle use and near misses since they were single-item variables with multiple choices. The mean responses obtained for the items belonging to perceived control, overconfidence, risk perception of interaction with cars, and bike use were above the midpoint, whereas avoidance of mixed traffic and experience of near crashes in the last year were below the midpoint. All the correlations with perceived control were significant except those with age and risk perception of interactions with cars. With regard to the latter, the only significant correlations were with near crashes and age. Overconfidence was positively correlated with perceived control and bicycle use while it was negatively correlated with avoidance of mixed traffic. The latter was negatively correlated with all the variables included in the analyses, except with risk perception of interactions with car and age, which did not achieve the level of statistical significance. All the correlation coefficients with near missess reached the level of statistical significance except the ones with overconfidence and age, which were positively correlated with risk perception of interactions with cars only.

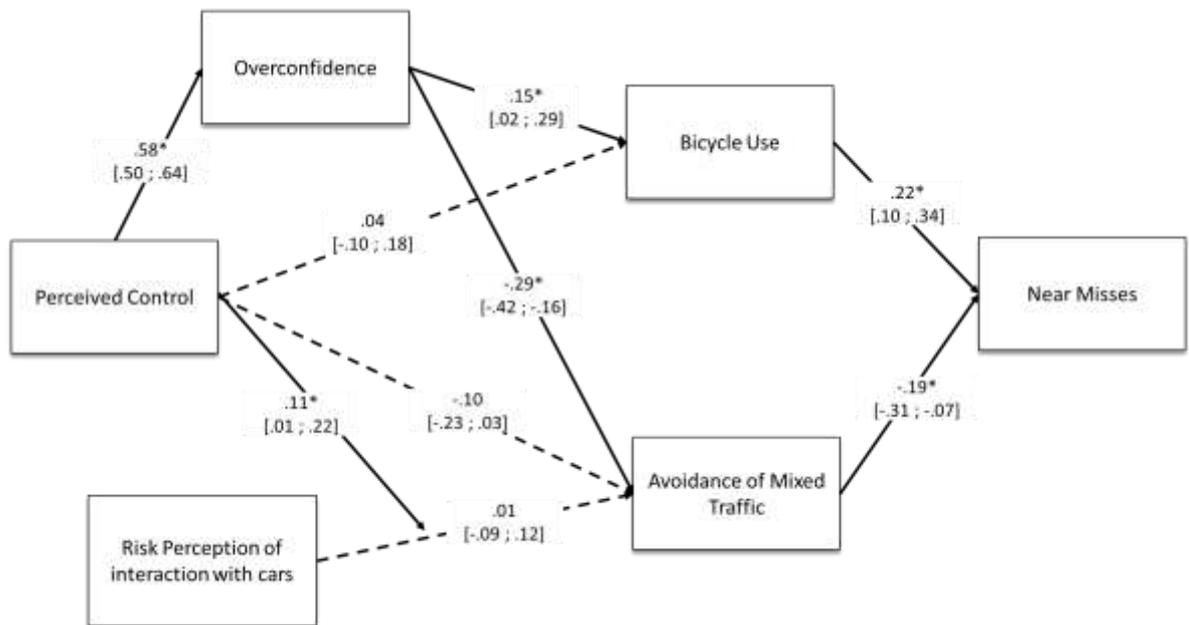
	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Perceived Control	3.61	0.79						
2. Risk Perception of Interactions with cars	3.52	0.88	-.026					
3. Overconfidence	3.71	0.69	.591**	-.031				
4. Avoidance of Mixed Traffic	2.46	1.08	-.282**	.009	-.356**			
5. Bicycle Use	5.26	1.81	.168**	.092	.167**	-.425**		
6. Near Misses	1.32	1.37	.160**	.278**	.073	-.205**	.286**	
7. Age	42.46	14.71	.056	.138*	.001	.108	.032	-.019

391 Table 1. *Correlations (Spearman rho) Between Variables in the Path Model. M=Average*
392 *(range 1=5 for 1-4). Note. * p < .05; ** p < .001.*

393 Path Model

394 Figure 3 displays the Bayesian estimates of the path analysis as well as the moderation
395 estimate. Squared brackets next to each path estimate correspond to the confidence intervals
396 obtained by Bayesian estimation. All the hypothesized paths were different from zero and the
397 relationships had the expected signs except for the paths from perceived control to bicycle use
398 (hypothesis 4) and avoidance of mixed traffic (hypothesis 5), as well as that from risk
399 perception on the latter (hypothesis 3), which were not significant.

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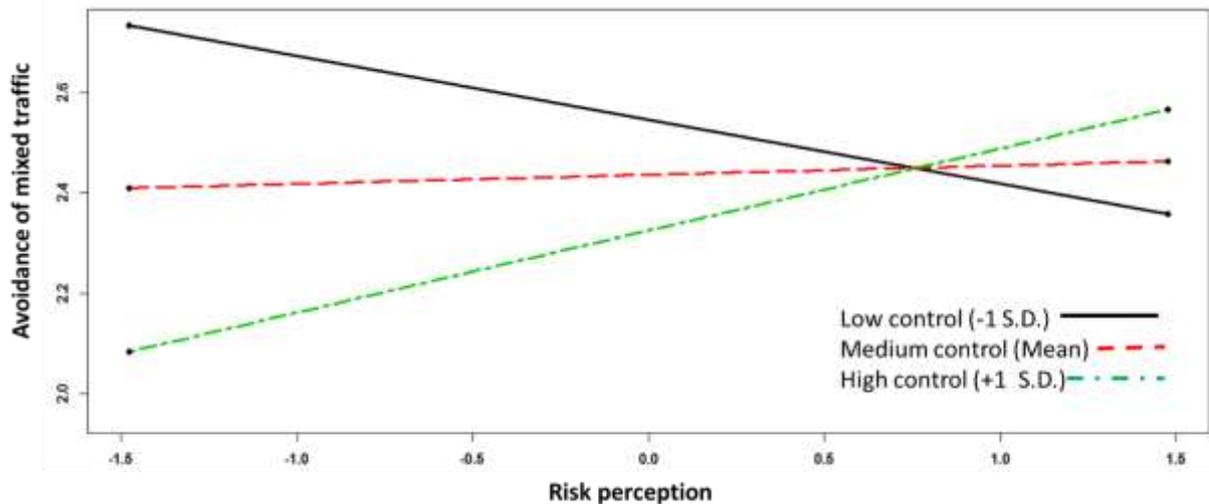
402 *Figure 3. Model with path and moderation estimates and 95% Confidence Interval.*

403

404 Furthermore, results provide support for hypotheses 9, 10, and 11, which referred to the
 405 indirect effects of control to bicycle use (Bayesian estimate= $-.24$, 95% CI $-.36$, $-.13$), and to
 406 avoidance of mixed traffic (Bayesian estimates= $-.21$, 95% CI $.02$, $.40$) throughout
 407 overconfidence, and to near misses (Bayesian estimates= $.15$, 95% CI $.07$, $.24$) through
 408 overconfidence, bicycle use and avoidance. Moreover, perceived control did not have a direct
 409 effect either on bicycle use nor on avoidance of mixed traffic, but only indirect effects
 410 throughout overconfidence.

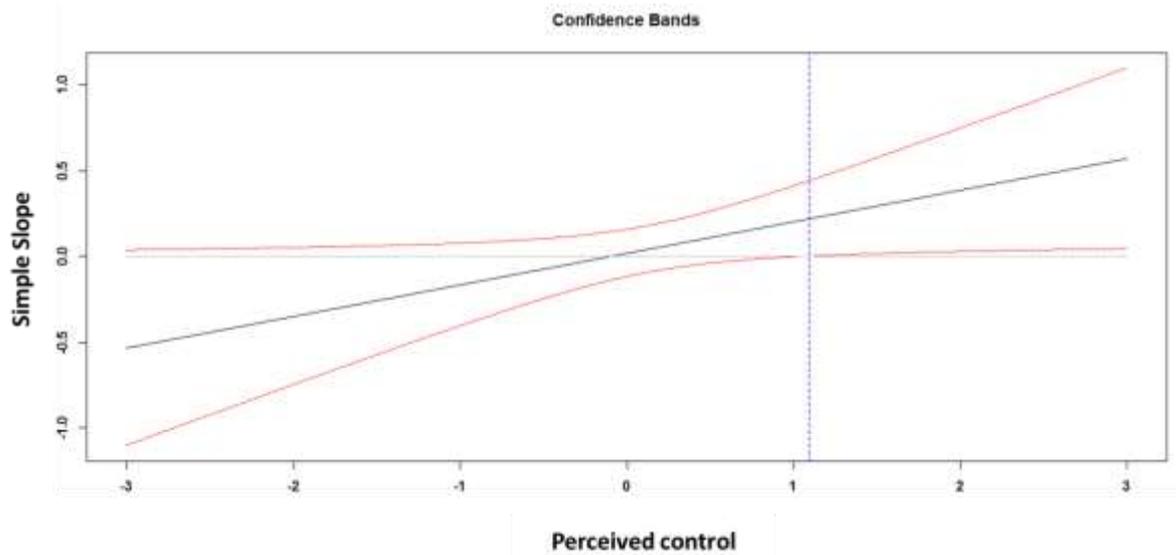
411 Moreover, results confirmed that there was a significant interaction of perceived control
 412 on the relationship between risk perception of interaction with cars and avoidance of mixed
 413 traffic (Bayesian estimate= $.11$, 95% CI $.01$, $.22$). Since hypothesis 3 was not corroborated, risk
 414 perception did not predict avoidance of mixed traffic. Nevertheless, the support provided for
 415 hypothesis 12 allows for assertion that risk perception did have a direct effect on avoidance of
 416 mixed traffic when considering it as a function of the level of perceived control. Figure 4
 417 displays the slope of the relationship between risk perception of interaction with cars and

418 avoidance of mixed traffic for three different values of the moderator (i.e., perceived control).
419 Each three values are distal 1 S.D. from the next one, being 'Medium control' the mean of
420 perceived control.



421
422 *Figure 4.* Moderating effect of perceived control.

423
424 Figure 5 displays the confidence bands (i.e., values of the moderator) from which the
425 simple slope (i.e., the regression coefficient between perceived risk and avoidance of mixed
426 traffic) is significantly different from zero. The bounds of the confidence bands were lower
427 bound = -6.89, and upper bound = 1.09. This entails that the slope would only be significant
428 for values of perceived control outside those bounds. Nevertheless, since perceived control
429 did not have values as low as the lower bound, we tailored the scale of the graph by zooming
430 in and omitting the lower bound. At this point, it is worth reminding that perceived control
431 had been mean centred for conducting the present analysis.



432

433 *Figure 5. Confidence bands and region of significance*

434

435 From these results, we can infer that only for relatively high values of perceived
 436 control the relationship between risk perception and avoidance of mixed traffic is
 437 significantly different from zero. Moreover, as can be seen in Figure 4, the sign of such
 438 relationship is positive for such values of the moderator.

439

440

Discussion

441 The present study investigated the interactions between perceived competence and
 442 risk perception and their effect on cyclists' involvement in risky situations and safety
 443 outcomes in cycling.

444 The results provided support for all the hypotheses except for hypotheses 3, 4 and 5.
 445 Path analysis showed a significant positive association between bicycle use and near misses,
 446 thus supporting hypothesis 2. This finding is in line with previous studies that highlighted a
 447 positive association between accident risk and other exposure measures such as time spent
 448 cycling, distance travelled (Carlin et al., 1995) or days per week commuting by bike (Bacchieri
 449 et al., 2010). On the other hand, the results confirmed the existence of a negative association

450 between avoidance of mixed traffic and near misses, as advanced by hypothesis 1. In other
451 words, the direct path confirmed that avoiding to cycle in mixed traffic can decrease the
452 occurrence of near misses, thus, reducing the relative risk inherent to such situations, as
453 previously found by Pucher (2001; Pucher & Dijkstra, 2000). As we mentioned, this can be
454 better understood considering the Italian context, which is a country with a relative
455 underdevelopment of cycling infrastructure and low bicycle share. Pucher and Dijkstra (2000)
456 argued that north European countries (e.g., The Netherlands and Germany) achieved reductions
457 in bicycle accidents mostly thanks to interventions aimed at decreasing the interaction between
458 non-motorised road users and motor vehicles such as an urban design sensitive to the needs of
459 non-motorists, traffic calming of residential neighbourhoods and restrictions on motor vehicle
460 use in cities. The present study supports this notion and bolster the idea that Italian (and other
461 emerging cycling countries) institutions and decision makers should strengthen their effort in
462 creating a more “cycling friendly” country. A way to do so is implementing more interventions
463 both from the infrastructural (e.g. addressing cyclists more in traffic signalling and in urban
464 planning, building cycling facilities) and traffic management (e.g. increasing traffic calmed
465 areas) perspective (see also Bonham & Johnson, 2015).

466 We advanced that perceived control would have a direct effect on the avoidance of
467 mixed traffic (hypothesis 5). Path analysis did not show such direct effect. Based on the results,
468 it may be helpful to explain this absence of a direct effect by focussing on the following
469 hypotheses (i.e., hypothesis 6). Therein we proposed that perceived control would have a direct
470 effect on overconfidence, due to a biased perception of one’s own cycling skills. Biased
471 perception of driving skills has been found to result in an illusory self-assessment of driving
472 skills (McKenna, 1993). Consistently, path analysis showed a direct effect of perceived control
473 over cycling ability on overconfidence, thus supporting the hypothesis. In other words, cyclists
474 who feel in control of the bicycle due to their ability and skills, tend to overestimate their

475 competence, both in comparison with other's ability and with their own factual competence.
476 This constitutes overconfidence and results in a biased risk assessment leading to high levels
477 of risk acceptance (Sümer et al., 2006). Path analysis showed a negative direct effect of
478 overconfidence on avoidance of mixed traffic, supporting hypothesis 7. In other words, cyclists
479 with higher perceived control over the bicycle might overestimate their own skills (i.e., more
480 overconfidence) to deal with riskier traffic scenarios, such as riding in mixed traffic, or to
481 handle the potential consequences of external sources of risk, such as interaction with other
482 road users.

483 Based on these results, we found an indirect effect of perceived control on avoidance
484 of mixed traffic situation, through overconfidence (hypothesis 10). The present study
485 contributes to enriching our understanding of the interaction between perceived control and the
486 adoption of riskier behaviour. In our case, cyclists who felt to possess the skills to accomplish
487 a task, may in the end be at higher risk because they are more prone to overestimate their ability
488 to deal with dangerous riding scenarios, such as cycling in mixed traffic. Previous research in
489 the transportation field supports the results obtained concerning the consequences of perceived
490 control. Both drivers and cyclists have shown to adopt risky behaviour as they felt to have
491 control over their behaviour on the road (Castanier et al., 2013; Cristea & Gheorghiu, 2016).
492 In our study, regardless of the direct effect, the consequences of perceived control on the
493 acceptance of riskier traffic scenario are explained through an indirect effect that mediates the
494 relationship.

495 Regarding the relationship concerning control and bicycle use, in hypothesis 4, we
496 established the role of perceived control over one's riding as a predictor of weekly rate of
497 bicycle use. Nevertheless, path analysis did not show such a direct path. As aforementioned,
498 perceived control predicted overconfidence, and path analysis showed a direct effect of
499 overconfidence on bicycle use, thus confirming hypothesis 8. In other words, cyclists with

500 higher overestimation of their own skills tend to use the bicycle more as a means of
501 transportation. This complies with the findings by Wohleber and Matthews (2016) which
502 reported a negative association between drivers' overconfidence and dislike of driving, that is,
503 the higher the overconfidence, the more drivers liked driving. This, transposed to cycling,
504 provides a possible explanation for why overconfidence might be a more important factor than
505 just perceived control in predicting the use of the bicycle. Thus, what emerged as determinant
506 in predicting the bicycle use when considering one's own ability to control a specific situation,
507 is the indirect effect of the perceived control of the bike on bicycle use through overconfidence
508 (hypothesis 9).

509 In a nutshell, considering the inherent risk of involvement in mixed traffic, this study
510 explores more deeply this relationship, highlighting the role of overconfidence as a possible
511 mediator, predicting the potentially false belief of feeling in control over the bicycle. This could
512 easily lead to a higher involvement in mixed traffic situations and more use of the bicycle,
513 which brings about a higher probability of experiencing a near crash due to reckless conduct,
514 as proposed in hypothesis 11. Path analysis showed a significant indirect effect of perceived
515 control on near misses throughout the influence of overconfidence, and consequently on
516 bicycle use and avoidance of mixed traffic.

517 In hypothesis 3, we proposed that cyclists' risk perception regarding the interaction
518 with motorised vehicles would affect their avoidance of mixed traffic, that is, the higher the
519 perceived risk in riding with motorized traffic, the less a person would cycle in those situations,
520 showing different degrees of avoidance behaviour. Path analysis did not show a significant
521 direct effect of risk perception on avoidance behaviour, thus not providing support to
522 hypothesis 3. Previous studies have investigated this relationship (Chataway et al., 2014;
523 Kaplan & Prato, 2016; O'Connor & Brown, 2010) demonstrating that sharing the road between
524 cyclists and motorists is related to the experience of negative feelings that could prompt cyclists

525 to avoid such kind of situations. Our findings suggest that risk perception regarding the
526 interaction with motorised vehicles cannot explain the adoption of avoidance behaviour by
527 cyclists on its own, but it does so under certain circumstances. These seem to be defined by
528 perceived control, in that only for higher levels of perceived control does risk perception predict
529 the actual avoidance of mixed traffic situations in the hypothesized direction (hypothesis 3).
530 This is derived from testing hypothesis 12, which proposed that perceived control would
531 moderate the relationship between risk perception and avoidance of mixed traffic. Despite
532 finding such moderation, the interpretation thereof does not comply with the directions
533 hypothesized. We had foreseen that for higher levels of control, the relationship between risk
534 perception and avoidance would have been weaker due to the higher reliance on one's own
535 skills to face hazardous situations. Nevertheless, our findings make manifest an underlying
536 cause other than expected. A possible interpretation of such effects displayed in Figure 4 and
537 5 is that only when cyclists perceive they possess enough mastery of the bicycle, they take
538 actions to avoid the risks inherent to mixed traffic as a function of the perceived risk. This does
539 not mean that they do not take any actions regarding the risky situation when they have lower
540 levels of control, it means though that in such conditions it is not a function of perceived risk.
541 As a matter of fact, as previously discussed, regardless of the levels of perceived control,
542 cyclists tend to generally avoid risks as a function of both perceived control and
543 overconfidence. In other words, cyclists with low levels of control and high levels of risk
544 perception will tend to avoid risks because of the low levels of control, but not because risk
545 perception is high. These findings help to understand the interaction between the perceived risk
546 when cycling with motorised vehicles, the perceived control over the bicycle and the avoidance
547 of those traffic situations. Moreover, the findings of hypothesis 3 do not adhere to results of
548 previous studies. For instance, Chataway et al., (2014) found that perceived risk, which they

549 named fear of traffic, was a barrier to cycling especially in urban areas (Chataway et al., 2014;
550 Kaplan & Prato, 2016), in particular for non-frequent users and recreational cyclists.

551 **Implications**

552 On the one hand, our results may enrich the interpretation around the behavioural
553 adaptation phenomenon from a theoretical point of view. Several definitions of behavioural
554 adaptation have been proposed so far. Generally, when a change occurs in the vehicle, in the
555 road environment or in the driver's own skills, a reaction to these changes is expected by the
556 driver, thus running the risk of not exploiting potential safety gains (Rudin-Brown & Jamson,
557 2013; Summala, 2005). The findings of the present study, may help to better understand the
558 adaptation to risk throughout the role of perceived control, whose effect is explained by
559 overconfidence. The more road users feel in control over their means of transport (i.e.
560 bicycle) and surrounding traffic due to experience, the more they will increase confidence in
561 their skills (Summala, 2005). Such overconfidence might lead to perceiving situations as less
562 challenging and, therefore, to raising the threshold from which situations are considered risky
563 (Rudin-Brown & Jamson, 2013). Thus, cyclists with higher overestimation of their own skills
564 may adapt their behaviour in a way that can lead to interpreting dangerous or hazardous
565 situations (e.g., committing a violation) as relatively less risky, as well as feeling more
566 capable to deal with them or to handle the potential consequences of external sources of risk,
567 such as interaction with other road users. This behavioural adaption to the perceived control
568 might backfire on safety outcomes, especially in mixed traffic scenarios.

569 On the other hand, our study has several practical implications. We have found that
570 perceived control and overconfidence put people in a more vulnerable position (i.e., at risk)
571 throughout the effect on bicycle use and avoidance of risky situations. One could think that it
572 would be good to reduce all risk no matter how. Nevertheless, it can also be argued the many
573 benefits bicycle use has, not only in terms of health (Oja et al., 2011), but also in reducing the

574 probability of crash occurrence when cycling levels increase, such as shown by the Safety in
575 Number effect (Elvik & Bjørnskau, 2017). Therefore, we advocate for finding a compromise
576 between the increase of cycling levels and the avoidance of mixed traffic. This way, one
577 would expect the decrease in interaction with motorized vehicles to lead to a reduced number
578 of crashes due to interaction with motorized vehicles, which constitute a more dangerous type
579 than those against non- motorized vehicles (Siman-Tov et al., 2010; XCYCLE, 2016). Apart
580 from the well-known suggestion for improvement of cyclists devoted infrastructure, we
581 propose that this could be attained by strategically acting upon the perceived risk in mixed
582 traffic situations. Some ways of increasing risk perception of cyclist-motorised vehicle
583 interaction could be educational campaigns (Guttman, 2015; Nathanil & Adamos, 2013). It
584 could be argued that increasing risk perception levels in the cyclist population could be
585 counterproductive because it would prompt people to use other modes of transportation.
586 Nevertheless, we propose that this should be done while providing safer urban design
587 alternatives that help reduce the interaction with motorised vehicles (Pucher & Dijkstra,
588 2000), such as traffic calming of residential neighbourhoods, restriction on motor vehicle use
589 in cities, or building more cycling tracks, which seems to be preferred by the all sorts of
590 riders in general (Aldred et al., 2017). Moreover, given the findings of the present study, one
591 could think that by not intervening on control and overconfidence, cyclists would attain
592 higher cycling levels and, therefore, they will get involved in riskier situations since control is
593 positively associated with risk taking. Nevertheless, it is now appropriate to bear in mind that
594 is it at high levels of control that risk perception has an effect in avoidance of risks.
595 Therefore, one can expect to somehow counteract the increase in risk taking brought around
596 by control and overconfidence by increasing risk awareness.

597 Another possible solution to the effect of mixed traffic on safety outcomes resides in
598 the use of new technological advancements, such as those being developed in EU-funded

599 projects like XCYCLE (<http://www.xcycle-h2020.eu/>). The advent of new safety technologies
600 and cooperative systems represent a great opportunity for helping cyclists to adopt safety
601 behaviours in mixed traffic situations. On-bike devices are spreading all over the market and
602 are becoming increasingly more accessible in terms of price and customizability. Such
603 technologies should be designed to foster the adoption of safe behaviours (e.g. reducing speed
604 in proximity of intersections or bicycle crossings, respecting a safety passing distance, etc.)
605 both by cyclists and motorized vehicle drivers.

606 **Limitations and Future Research**

607 Since this research is questionnaire based, the study features some limitations. The
608 main ones are that it relies on self-assessment, the Common Method Variance (Podsakoff et
609 al., 2003) and the memory decay of near misses (Bradburn et al., 1987; Chapman &
610 Underwood, 2000). Common Method Variance concerns the fact that when using the same
611 measurement methods for all the variables, some of the variance between them might be
612 attributable to such method.

613 With regard to suggestions for future research, the construct of perceived control has a
614 myriad of nuances. For instance, whether the control concerns the consequences of the risk or
615 the possibility to avoid it (Nordgren et al., 2007), whether control regards the specific
616 situation at hand (i.e., involvement in mixed traffic) or a more general sense of self-efficacy.
617 Therefore, we propose that future research should investigate how the different types of
618 perceived control would affect the relationship between perceived risk and avoidance of such
619 risk. Moreover, overconfidence constitutes a variegated construct as well. It is thought to be
620 composed of three different components named (1) overestimation, or the belief one's ability
621 is higher than that expressed by objective measures, (2) overplacement, or the belief that one
622 is more skilled than the rest of the people, and (3) overprecision, or the overreliance in the
623 accuracy of own beliefs (Wohleber & Matthews, 2016). Future research should address the

624 issue of how the differences within control and overconfidence are intertwined. For instance,
625 one could hypothesize that, since acceptations of control over the bicycle or cycling in general
626 are broader, they might be more strongly related to the three types of overconfidence than
627 lower level types of control (i.e., control over specific situations such as interaction with cars
628 or making a wheelie). Nevertheless, there is still plenty of room for investigation of such
629 phenomena.

630 In addition, future research should investigate whether the moderation found in the
631 present study holds up for different situations (e.g., intersections) and specific scenarios, and
632 how it could affect route choice. Moreover, future research should bear in mind the different
633 type of near misses, such as against a motorized vehicle or not, and the role of the different
634 types of perceived control on the occurrence of each type of near miss.

635 Even if it has been shown that the perception of control over certain situations can act
636 as a spur to execute a given behaviour such as riding a bike (Chaurand & Delhomme, 2013;
637 Cristea & Gheorghiu, 2016; Lois et al., 2015), other bicycle-related factors might directly
638 intervene in the relationship with bicycle use. The literature has revealed a comprehensive set
639 of variables which are relevant to use of the bicycle (Parkin et al., 2008), especially when
640 considering those people that use the bicycle as their main means of transport (Heinen et al.,
641 2010). These factors comprise: socio-economic, psychological, environmental and transport
642 related variables have been shown to influence bicycle use. It was not the intention of this study
643 to discuss on these determinants, nevertheless, to give an extended overview of the main factors
644 influencing bicycle use, future research should focus on how such factors determine the model
645 presented in the present article

646 As suggested in the implications, new safety technologies may play an important role
647 in the way cyclists interact in mixed traffic. Nevertheless, more research is needed to

648 understand to what extent each particular design brings about safer cycling and how it
649 influences the perception of risk and control.

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