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ABSTRACT

DEVELOPMENT OF A TRAFFIC SAFETY INDEX FOR URBAN INTERSECTIONS

by
Jae-Hong Kang

Conventional safety analysis focuses on the accident environment at specific locations or a limited segment of highways or arterials, and attempts to identify the effects of accident contributing factors. The development of a safety index in the past was based on a statistical summary for county or statewide areas, using general indicators such as population, number of registered vehicles, vehicle miles traveled and so on. This research effort presents a state-of-the-art procedural analytical approach for the safety analysis of Manhattan intersections that are exposed to a unique urban environment. The computed index provides safety ratings that can identify potential safety problems for Manhattan intersections, on the basis of accident frequency and severity. The analytical models correlate city or borough-wide averages with an individual intersection. A user-friendly software program is developed to compute a safety index rating to evaluate the relative hazardousness of city intersections. The computer program consists of a database module and an analysis module. The analysis module identifies locations with safety problems based on a composite factor which includes accident severity and accident frequency.

**DEVELOPMENT OF A TRAFFIC SAFETY INDEX
FOR URBAN INTERSECTIONS**

by
Jae-Hong Kang

**A Dissertation
Submitted to the Faculty of
New Jersey Institute of Technology
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**

**Interdisciplinary Program in
Transportation**

May 1996

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This dissertation is dedicated to
my mother

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This research effort has been funded through the State of New York Governor's Traffic Safety Committee by a 402 Federal Highway Safety Grant.

The author wishes to express his sincere appreciation to his supervisors, Dr. Athanassios K. Bladikas and Dr. Louis J. Pignataro, for their guidance, help, and moral support throughout this research.

Special thanks to Dr. Lazar N. Spasovic, Mr. Joel Friedman, P.E., and Dr. Kyriacos C. Mouskos for serving as members of the committee.

The author is grateful to Mr. Michael Graham for providing an innovative tool for data collection and processing. Special gratitude is owed to Mr. Seung-Won Chung for his active part in data reduction and computer programming. Additional thanks go to Mrs. Claudia Joseph and Mr. David Winters who helped with the final reproduction.

And finally, much thanks to Mr. Jack Knoll of the New York State Department of Transportation's Traffic Engineering and Safety for his help.

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GLOSSARY

DOT

Department of Transportation

FARS

Fatal Accident Reporting System

VMT

Vehicle Miles Traveled

NYCDOT

New York City Department of Transportation

CASIUS

Computer-Aided Safety Index for Urban Streets

PDO

Property Damage Only

LSD

Logarithmic Series Distribution

AHI

Accident Hazard Index

PAI

Population Average Index

VAI

Vehicles Average Index

MAI

Mileage Average Index

IEI

Improvement Emphasis Index

TCT

Traffic Conflicts Technique

CSI

Corridor Safety Index

GLOSSARY
(Continued)

MEV

Million Entering Vehicles

AAA

American Automobile Association

PV

Pedestrian-Vehicle

PHI

Pedestrian Hazard Index

NSC

National Safety Council

NHTSA

National Highway Traffic Safety Administration

MAIS

Maximum Abbreviated Injury Scale

WTP

Willingness To Pay

NCSS

National Crash Severity Study

NASS

National Accident Sampling System

HC

Human Capital

FHWA

Federal Highway Administration

NYSDOT

New York State Department of Transportation

CLASS

Centralized Local Accident Surveillance System

GLOSSARY
(Continued)

TVV
Total Vehicle Volume

SCV
Sum of Critical Volume

CVV
Critical Vehicle Volume

EPDO
Equivalent Property Damage Only

DMV
Department of Motor Vehicles

HISAM
Highway Safety Analysis and Monitoring

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Historical Perspective

The history of traffic safety shares its origins with the automobiles. The nineteenth century witnessed the development of various types of transportation modes. Early in the century, comparatively slow-moving automobiles appeared with characteristics similar to those of horse-drawn carriages competing with each other on narrow streets in the industrialized urban environment. As automobiles started playing a major role in the transportation field, the roadway system was expanded and brought under mechanical traffic signal control to improve traffic safety and roadway efficiency. Accidents are an unwanted by-product of the automobile, shadowing its many conveniences. Since the advent of the automobile age, traffic accidents have become more frequent and severe. Speeding vehicles and the construction of a highway system since the days of urban sprawl in the 1960's resulted in a tremendous societal cost in terms of personal loss and property damage. After the oil embargo in the 1970's, there was a trend to reduce the average size of private motor vehicles to conserve energy and reduce air pollution. Although the argument of whether the smaller vehicles are less safe than larger ones has not been clearly settled, it is true that the size of commercial vehicles has been increasing as trucks try to compete with the railroads and become more efficient.

According to the U.S. Department of Transportation's (DOT) Fatal Accident Reporting System (FARS), 54,724 motor vehicles were involved in 36,895 fatal crashes in

1991, resulting in 41,462 deaths. Of these, 75 percent involved drivers or occupants of vehicles, and 14 percent involved pedestrians. Nationally, traffic fatalities have been declining since 1988. The fatality rate per 100 million Vehicle Miles Traveled (VMT) for 1991 was estimated at 1.9, the lowest in U. S. history, and 42 percent lower than that of 1980. This positive change is more encouraging if one considers the continuing growth of registered vehicles and licensed drivers. More vehicle crashes occur in urban than rural areas, but more motor vehicle deaths occur on rural than on urban roads (Institute for Highway Safety, 1992).

In 1991, 1,807 fatal accidents were reported out of 274,875 total accidents in New York State. In New York City during the same period, 546 fatal accidents were reported out of 105,266 accidents, accounting for 38 percent of the total State fatalities (New York State Department of Motor Vehicles, 1991). For the same year, the New York City Department of Transportation's (NYCDOT) fatality database shows 609 deaths out of 574 fatal crashes.

1.2 Problem Identification

Currently, locations perceived as dangerous in New York City are submitted for study by community, political and civic groups, and the mass media. Many traffic engineers and decision-makers in local government use the number of traffic fatalities, or severe injuries, as the sole barometer with which to compare the safety performance of specific segments of limited access highways, arterials, and local streets. This type of approach may result in subjective or misleading conclusions because the sample size per location is generally too small to draw effective conclusions.

From the area-wide perspective, however, most municipalities would have difficulty in obtaining and processing an accident database which includes all types of incidents, information on geometric characteristics and traffic parameters, and the other numerous factors contributing to traffic incidents in the subject area. New York City, for example, has approximately 38,000 intersections. The signalized intersections in most urbanized areas are exposed to generally higher vehicular and pedestrian traffic.

1.3 Purpose and Objective

Accident statistics are very important in traffic safety. They allow identification of locations for potential improvements in the areas of engineering countermeasures, public education, and enforcement. Reliable databases and complete analyses allow for a more effective allocation of limited resources. A comprehensive safety index which reflects the traffic elements and contributing factors to accidents in a study area can be used as a toolbox to implement countermeasures, as well as a planning tool for improving unsafe locations.

The approach taken in this dissertation is unique because it develops an area-wide safety index for an urban municipality. The City of New York is the biggest city in the United States, and the Borough of Manhattan, as one of the most congested urban cores in the country, has been selected for the case study. The island of Manhattan represented New York City, until the City annexed its peripheral districts during the Great Congregation in 1898. At present, 1.5 million people are estimated to reside on the 15,170 acres of the island. About 73 percent of the 3,695 intersections in Manhattan are signalized and one-third of the total citywide pedestrian accidents take place in Manhattan.

The primary objective is to develop a methodology to identify urban intersections with accident rates significantly higher than the areawide average for locations with similar traffic environments. Using this type of study will allow traffic engineers of different municipalities to: 1) prioritize safety problems by location, and 2) cope with community and political pressures in a productive way. Other by-products of this effort include a simple reference guide of accident frequency and severity by intersection and designation of target locations for safety planning, a user-friendly software program called CASIUS (Computer-Aided Safety Index for Urban Streets), an increase of the public's awareness about traffic safety, and the transferability of the methodology to other cities in the United States.

In the past, conventional safety analysis focused on the accident environment at specific locations or limited segments of arterials. For limited-access highways, accident rates were simply calculated using more general and static accident surrogates, such as vehicle-miles-traveled (VMT). For county/statewide areas, safety indices are usually based on some aggregate statistic, e.g., population, registrations, mileage, etc.

This dissertation evaluates Manhattan intersections that are exposed to the uniqueness of the urban environment, and the intersection variables reviewed are correlated with the summary for all Manhattan accidents. The developed index can provide its end-users with safety ratings for Manhattan intersections, in terms of accident frequency and severity. Furthermore, candidate intersections for further investigation of potential safety problems can be rated on a scale from 0 to 10.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Objective of Literature Review

The literature review presented here covers the three major areas of safety evaluation methods, pedestrian safety, and accident cost.

The safety evaluation method section covers comprehensive studies measuring safety performance, including an existing safety index study using less comprehensive accident parameters than those included in this dissertation. The key words used to search this area were: (intersections) accidents, traffic/hazards/near miss/accident, incident/safety management/urban accidents, traffic/accident rates/accident traffic, guidelines/accidents, traffic prevention/accidents traffic risks.

Pedestrians play a vital role in traffic accidents in urban areas because pedestrian fatalities are predominantly an urban problem. In 1990, pedestrian-involved injury/fatal accidents comprised about 17 percent of total police-reported accidents in New York City. The key words used to search this areas were: (pedestrian) accident/characteristics/counter measures/safety program/programs/protection.

Accident cost and economic analysis review can be used to develop a multiplication factor which can be used to convert fatal and injury accidents to equivalent property damage only (PDO) accidents. The key words used to search this area were (traffic) accident cost.

The literature search for each area was conducted manually and through a National Safety Council (NSC) library database search of pertinent highway safety related literature published from 1965 to the present. The primary findings of the literature review are discussed below.

2.2 Safety Evaluation Methods

Khisty (1990) listed the following seven procedures, which vary in complexity and data needs, and can be used to identify hazardous spots, sections, and elements based on accident, traffic, and highway data.

- o frequency method
- o accident rate method
- o frequency-rate method
- o rate quality control method
- o accident severity method
- o hazard index method
- o hazardous roadway features inventory

2.2.1 Frequency Method

The frequency method is used to identify and rank locations on the basis of the number of accidents. Andreassen and Hoque (1992) conducted a study to examine the distribution of “collisions between vehicles from adjacent approaches” accidents per intersection for a six year period (1973-1978) in Metropolitan Melbourne, Australia.

The study concluded that the use of aggregated accident data was inappropriate, since countermeasures usually do not have the same input on different accident types. Some accident types may be increased while others may be decreased by a countermeasure, and the distribution of the frequencies of the various accident types should be studied separately rather than by looking only at the distribution of the aggregated accidents. The negative binomial distribution did not fit the data well; however, the study indicated that a logarithmic series distribution (LSD) was found to adequately describe the observed data of intersection frequencies for the network as a whole, for the four functional road classes and for the subdivision of intersections within each road class.

2.2.2 Accident Rate Method

The accident rate method combines accident frequency with vehicle exposure. California's Office of Traffic Safety introduced an accident rate concept in 1976 based on the number of fatal and injury accidents per 1,000 population. California's accident rate method has the disadvantage of not considering other factors such as the number of registered vehicles, mileage of paved highways, and vehicle-miles traveled.

Lalani and Walker (1981) developed a correlation between accident frequency and average daily volume in 1981 for signalized intersections and urban arterial street segments. No correlation was found between accidents and volume at unsignalized intersections. Jadaan and Nicholson (1983) conducted a statistical analysis in 1983 of data relating to accidents, traffic flows and road type in the vicinity of the Christchurch Southern Arterial in New Zealand. Their study indicates that the analysis of accident, traffic volume, roadway and land-use data for urban road links resulted in statistically significant relationships

between the number of accidents and amount of travel, for certain combinations of roadway and land-use types. Nicholson (1985) also analyzed accident data for Auckland intersections in New Zealand, and found a considerable variation which was inconsistent with the "Poisson assumption".

2.2.3 Frequency-Rate Method

Shen (1982) developed a general index to measure highway safety performance in South Carolina. An Accident Hazard Index (AHI) was used to identify counties with serious highway safety problems through comparison of county accident rate indices based on Population (PAI), Registered Vehicles (VAI) and Paved Highway Mileage (MAI).

$$AHI = \frac{(PAI + VAI + MAI)}{3} \quad (2.1)$$

The Improvement Emphasis Index (IEI) supplements the AHI by incorporating more information about accidents, therefore enabling it to pinpoint the specific problem areas that were responsible for poor safety performance. Speed, pedestrian, youthful driver, alcohol, truck, driver violation, school bus, roadway and roadside hazards, passenger car, motorcycle, and bicycle accident involvements were selected as the 11 parameters to use in constructing the IEI.

2.2.4 Kansas City Study

Bhesania (1991) summarized the accident statistics and characteristics observed in Kansas City in 1991. Signalized locations experienced the largest number of accidents when compared with other forms of traffic control. The average number of accidents per year

occurring at signalized intersections was 9.6 compared with an average of about 2 per year at stop-sign or yield-sign controlled locations. Intersections without any control experienced only 1.3 accidents per year. However, uncontrolled intersections normally carry very small volumes of traffic.

The study also revealed that the most frequent type of collision at all intersections was the right-angle accident (43%) followed by the rear-end (24%) and the left-turn (14%) accident. Stop-sign-controlled intersections experienced a larger percentage of right-angle accidents and a smaller percentage of rear-end accidents when compared with intersections controlled by signals. The Kansas City intersections controlled by yield signs experienced the largest percentage of right-angle accidents. A cross-classification of accident severity and traffic control indicates that accident severity is not influenced by the type of traffic control. Injuries are found to be least likely in rear-end and side-swipe collisions. The probability of being injured in these types of accidents is at least 50 percent less than in right-angle or left-turn accidents.

The most frequent type of midblock accident in Kansas City was the rear-end type (25.9%), followed by side-swipe (18.6%) and accidents involving parked cars (17.9%). Pedestrian accidents make up 2 percent of the total collisions. The largest number of pedestrian accidents occurred in the 3 p.m. to 6 p.m. period. Children 5 to 11 years old were involved in 20 percent of the collisions.

2.2.5 Hazardous Roadway Features Inventory

Blakstad (1989) conducted two studies of accident rates in 1976-77 and 1989 on Norwegian road sections and junctions. The studies show that main roads with a high design standard

have lower accident rates than collector roads and much lower rates than access roads; accident rates in suburban areas are lower than in urban areas (i.e. city centers); 3-way intersections perform far better than 4-ways; roundabouts are the best type of junction from a traffic safety point of view; low speed limits and pedestrian facilities have a positive effect on road safety, but they can not remove the impact of poor road and environmental standards.

Poppe (1988) conducted research at 1,643 intersections in 19 different cities in the Netherlands comparing accident history with intersection geometry, traffic volume, and the priority control at the intersection. Poppe's study concludes that intersections in built-up areas cannot be categorized into groups on the basis of intersection geometry or traffic volume. In addition, the accidents happening in those intersections display a great variation on vehicle type and maneuvers, among other factors.

2.2.6 Traffic Conflicts Technique (TCT)

Glauz et al (1985) established relationships between traffic conflicts and accidents at 46 signalized and unsignalized intersections in Kansas City in 1982. The study concludes that accident/conflict ratios can be applied to comparable intersections to obtain an expected accident rate of a specific type.

$$A_0 = C_0R \quad (2.2)$$

$$\text{Var}(A_0) = \text{Var}(C)\text{Var}(R) + C_0^2\text{Var}(R) + R^2\text{Var}(C) \quad (2.3)$$

where:

A_0 = expected number of accidents,

C_0 = expected conflict rate obtained from the field study at the intersection,

R = estimate of the accident/conflict ratio for that class of intersections

Traffic conflicts of certain types were found to be good surrogates of accidents, and the TCT study is helpful especially when there is insufficient accident data to produce an estimate.

Brown (1981) studied the feasibility of predicting the accident potential at an intersection by the application of a model based on accident occurrences at individual conflict points within a four-legged intersection with two-way flow on each leg and controlled by traffic signals. Unlike prior studies of its kind, the study was to assess and predict the effect on safety performance of proposed road changes both from the point of view of the type of intersection and the volume and pattern of traffic movements at that intersection.

2.2.7 Accident Severity Method

Accident severities are classified by the National Safety Council and many states, within the following categories: (Khisty, 1990)

Fatal accident: one or more deaths (F)

A-type injury: incapacitating accident (A)

B-type injury: nonincapacitating accident (B)

C-type injury: probable injury (C)

PDO: property damage only (PDO)

Locations are ranked based on their computed EPDO (equivalent property damage only) number.

$$EPDO = 9.5(F + A) + 3.5(B + C) + PDO \quad (2.4)$$

Funawatashi (1987) supplemented the conventional accident rate method by separating injury/fatal accidents from the total accident rate. Total accident rate 'R_t' is total accident frequency divided by standard variables such as hourly volume (V).

$$R_t = \frac{A_t}{V} = \frac{A_i + A_p}{V} \quad (2.5)$$

Where 'A_i' is injury accidents, 'A_p' is property damage only, and 'A_t' indicates total accident frequency.

The proposed simple index contrasts PDO type accidents with injury type accidents.

$$I = \frac{A_p}{A_i} \quad (2.6)$$

2.2.8 Hazard Index Method

Taylor and Thomson, (1977) totaled partial hazard indices to obtain a hazard index for a particular location. Hazard factors from the raw data can be converted to an indicator value, and then multiplied by a weighing factor. Funawatashi (1987) developed an intersection safety analysis based on roadway width. Supposedly, the size of entering vehicles to the intersection has a close relationship with the number of accidents. Likewise the width of the intersection can be used as a replica of traffic volume and of expected accident frequency. However, the district with more arterials and larger roadway widths (W1 + W3) had a lower accident rate.

Chang (1982) presented an overview of exposure measures for evaluating safety at signalized intersections and comparing unsignalized with signalized intersections. He

suggested that the number of accidents is the square of the exposure measure that prevails in the highway-traffic-environment system. Unsignalized intersections and signalized intersections present different risks for different accident types. Holland (1967) added overall conflict zones within a four-leg intersection and derived the basic equation below for a range of volumes and turning flows.

$$E = KV_1^a V_2^b \quad (2.7)$$

where:

E = accident exposure per time unit,

V₁, V₂ = hourly aggregate major and minor traffic volume, and

K, a, b, = constants.

Chang assumed that different conflicting maneuvers have different accident risks. For example, crossing maneuvers at intersections may have a greater accident risk than other conflicting maneuvers and can be included in the equation in a product form while others may be included in summation form. At signalized intersections, the magnitude of accident risk depends not only on conflicting traffic volumes but also on site parameters such as signal phases, cycle length, splits, lens size, signal mountings, and the types of signal actuation. Many factors were recommended to be incorporated to distinguish varying accident experiences at signalized intersections.

Terhune and Parker (1986) tested isolated horizontal curves and unsignalized intersections on 2-lane New York state highways. Curve equations were developed from western New York.

Total accidents per 10⁶ vehicles

$$= [0.15 + 0.000026 (\text{degree of curvature} \times \text{AADT})]^2 \quad (2.8)$$

Among the surrogate variables, the degree of curvature and traffic volume were found to be the best curves, while major and minor road traffic volume, minor road average stopped delay, and percent left turns were the best predictor variables for intersections. The maximum variance in accident rates accounted for was 31 percent.

2.2.9 New York's Rate Quality Control Method

Recently, the New York State Department of Transportation (1991) formulated a corridor safety index to identify 31 limited access corridors within New York City with higher than statewide average accident rates for highway facilities.

$$\text{Accident Rate} = \frac{\text{\# of Corridor Accidents}}{\text{Cor. Length(Miles)} \times \text{AADT} \times 365} \times 10^6 \quad (2.9)$$

The calculated accident rate for each corridor was compared to the Statewide accident rate for similar roadways. The Corridor Safety Index (CSI) was computed.

$$\text{CSI} = \frac{\text{Accident Rate}}{\text{State Accident Rate}} - 1 + 0.25 \times \frac{\text{AADT}}{100,000} \quad (2.10)$$

For intersections, New York State DOT uses Mean Rate Book for intersections where volume data exist. There are 40 different intersection classes by intersection type, intersection control, and the existence of a left turn bay. Calculated mean rate includes all accidents per million entering vehicles (MEV), pedestrian accidents per intersection, and non-pedestrian accidents per intersection. However, this study covers intersections adjacent to state highways that are not in NYSDOT's region 11 (New York City area).

2.2.10 Summary

It is evident from this literature review that there have been numerous studies done based on regional traffic safety indices and on safety evaluation methods for locations. However, there have been few studies found that analyze the urban traffic environment and evaluate traffic safety in the core area of a city. Hence, the purpose of this study is to investigate contributing factors to traffic conflicts in the Manhattan area and eventually to create a comprehensive safety index to reflect New York City intersections.

2.3 Pedestrian Safety

The problem of pedestrian accidents is primarily an urban one, with approximately 83 percent of all pedestrian accidents and 74 percent of all pedestrian fatalities in the United States in 1985 occurring in urban areas (Lalani, 1992). In New York City, on the average 314 pedestrians were killed and 14,781 injured by automobiles annually during the three year period of 1989-1991. Over the past decade, pedestrian deaths comprised more than 50 percent of all traffic-related fatalities in New York City. Twenty nine percent of the citywide total pedestrian accidents took place in Manhattan, although Manhattan's population accounts for only 20 percent of the City's total population. The higher percentage of pedestrian accidents might be explained by the population and employment density of the area.

2.3.1 Pedestrian Characteristics

Pedestrian actions are less predictable and controllable than those of drivers. Pedestrians are vulnerable in a collision with a motor vehicle because of the vehicle's greater mass and higher speed. In terms of age, pedestrian accidents are most over-represented among the

young and older adult pedestrians. Based on accident data from more than 1,900 cities, the American Automobile Association (AAA) found that children between the ages of 2 and 14 (particularly ages 5 and 6) were over-represented in pedestrian-accident involvement based on their population. Numerous studies (Pfefer et al, 1982, NYCDOT, 1992) have found that persons older than 55 years of age are also over-represented in pedestrian fatalities for the most part because of the greater accident severity to pedestrians in that older age group.

Drinking contributes to pedestrian accidents. Two percent of the total pedestrian accidents in Manhattan (or Statewide) during 1990 were alcohol related. For the same year in New York City, alcohol and other drugs were detected in thirty two percent of pedestrian fatalities. The intoxicated pedestrian represents just as great a hazard to himself as to others. Another significant factor relating to pedestrian safety would be pedestrian traffic law violations.

2.3.2 Pedestrian Fatalities in Virginia

Worthington (1991) examined 216 accident reports of fatal pedestrian crashes occurring in an urban area of Virginia during 1985-1987. The study sponsored by Virginia DOT concluded that negligent pedestrian behavior contributed to urban pedestrian fatalities more than factors related to driver behavior, the roadway and environment at the crash site, or the vehicle itself. Alcohol use by the pedestrian was also found to be a major factor.

Similar to most research in this type, high-risk periods are reported to be the end of the week and weekends, late afternoon to late evening, and darkness. Elderly pedestrians have greater difficulty negotiating complex situations and are more likely than younger persons to be fatally injured when struck by a vehicle.

2.3.3 Pedestrian Accidents in the Montreal CBD

Seneviratne and Shuster (1989) reviewed pedestrian accidents in the Montreal Central Business District between 1985 and 1987. Over 40 percent of the accidents occurred during the 12-6 PM period and 80 percent of the accidents within commercial land use areas.

Accidents were classified into four general types according to the direction of travel of the vehicle. These included a)"direct hits," or conflicts that occurred when a pedestrian crossing a street was hit by a vehicle moving straight through; b)"left-turn hits", c)"right-turn hits," and d)"reverse hits," or vehicles backing up from parking spots and driveways. "Direct hits" by a vehicle moving straight through are the major direction of vehicular movements (70%) compared to the portion of accidents that occurred while a vehicle was turning. The study also hypothesized that intersections with pedestrian signals are more hazardous than those without them, considering the ratio of the number of accidents to the number of sites in each category.

2.3.4 Urban and Rural Environments

Mueller et al (1988) compared the pedestrian-vehicle collision injury and fatality rates for urban and rural areas of Washington State from 1981 through 1983. According to their study, rates of 'injuries' are higher in urban areas, even though the pedestrian 'fatality' rate in rural areas is higher for nearly all age groups, and at all posted speeds. Faster posted vehicle speeds were noted in the study, but they did not account entirely for the difference seen. The authors assume that slower rapid Emergency Medical Service care contributes to the fact, and accessibility to trauma centers is more limited in rural areas.

2.3.5 Pedestrian Exposure Measures

Knoblauch et al (1984) developed pedestrian exposure measures based on specific pedestrian trip-making characteristics, and examined the exposure measures relative to accident information to determine the relative hazardousness of various pedestrian characteristics and behaviors. Exposure measures have been used to define high-risk locations for pedestrians. Exposure can be seen as the product of pedestrian volume (P) and vehicle volume (V), $P \times V$, since pedestrian accident risk cannot occur where both pedestrian and vehicle volumes do not exist. Turning volumes, type of traffic control or violations that produce conflicts were also introduced into the pedestrian/vehicle volume ($P \times V$) concept. Relative hazardousness was determined by comparing the exposure data with pedestrian accident data. Hazard scores were developed to analyze the relationship between the occurrence of certain factors in the accident population and their occurrence in the general population at risk. The hazard scores are the ratio created by dividing the percentage of occurrence of a characteristic in either the accident population or the exposure population by the percentage of occurrence in the other population. If the accident population had the larger percentage--an indication that more hazard is associated with the characteristic--the hazard score is presented as a positive number. If the exposure population had the larger percentage, the hazard score is presented as a negative number--an indication that less hazard is associated with the characteristic. Three types of hazard scores were examined in this study: site, pedestrian volume, and pedestrian-vehicle interactions (PV).

A study on a stratified random sample of 495 sites in five randomly selected cities indicates that the majority of the pedestrian-vehicle (PV) exposure occurs in commercial (71.8%) and mixed residential (21.6%) areas. Only 6.6 percent of the exposure occurs in

areas classified as 100 percent residential. The pedestrian-vehicle (PV) score for the roadway functional classification variable indicates that both major arterials and local streets are relatively hazardous. Also shown in the report is that the traditional afternoon peak in pedestrian accidents follows a similar peak in the PV exposure measure plot. According to the study, the periods of darkness, after 8:00 p.m., represent the greatest relative hazard for pedestrians.

2.3.6 Pedestrian Crossings

Zaidel and Hocherman (1989) analyzed the accidents that occurred between 1977 and 1982 at 520 signalized intersections in Tel Aviv, Jerusalem, and Haifa. Table 2.1 shows the distribution of pedestrian accidents by direction of vehicle movement as reported in several U.S. studies and in Israel. The proportion of accidents related to turning (both left and right) in the U.S. studies and in Israel is between 30 and 45 percent. According to the U.S. data, left-turn maneuvers are generally more hazardous for pedestrians than right-turn maneuvers.

Table 2.1 Pedestrian Accidents at Signalized Intersections

<u>Study</u>	<u>Percentage of Accidents by Vehicle Direction</u>			<u>No. of Acc.</u>	<u>No. of Int.</u>
	<u>Left Turn</u>	<u>Right Turn</u>	<u>Straight</u>		
[U.S.]					
Fruin (1973) ¹	31	14	55	172	32
Habib (1984) ²	25	13	62	455	45
Zegeer (1984) ³	22	15	63	2,081	1,297
Robertson (1984) ⁴	17	12	71	202	62*
[Israel]	13	17	70	850	520

^{1,2} One-way grid intersections, Manhattan

³ Fifteen cities

⁴ Washington, D.C., area

* Of which 54 were signalized

Considering that turning vehicles are approximately 15 to 25 percent of the traffic volume approaching an intersection, the hazard associated with turning vehicles is higher than that for those going straight ahead. Nwankwor (1978) analyzed pedestrian safety at crosswalks of Manhattan's one-way grid. Left-turn accidents were about twice those associated with right-turn movements. Pedestrian direction is also significant for left-turn accidents, in a ratio of 65 to 46, or 40 percent higher for pedestrians starting from the near side of the crosswalk. From the analysis, Nwankwor also observed human characteristics which are unique to Manhattan, such as the hurried nature of New York City taxi drivers. Vehicles more often come into conflict with pedestrians while reacting too quickly to traffic light changes, and pedestrians are equally guilty of prematurely reacting when they walk into the crosswalk as soon as the walk signal changes while the vehicle has not cleared the crosswalk.

Knoblauch et al (1984) reported a lower hazard index for intersections equipped with pedestrian signals compared with intersections without. However, the report concludes that pedestrian accidents were more influenced by the factors of vehicle volume, pedestrian activity, and intersection complexity, and the various crossing types--uncontrolled, or with a pedestrian crossing phase--had little effect on the number of pedestrian accidents, and no effect on the number of vehicle collisions.

2.3.7 Intersection Ranking Methodology

Robertson and Carter (1988) developed a method of constructing a pedestrian hazard index (PHI) using the hazard indicators; number of pedestrian accidents, pedestrian accident rate, proportion of special pedestrian groups crossing (young, old, or disabled), noncompliance

with the signal, and pedestrian/vehicle conflicts. Three combinations of pedestrian and vehicle volumes were selected; vehicle volume divided by pedestrian volume, vehicle volume multiplied by pedestrian volume, and vehicle volume multiplied by pedestrian volume divided by the percentage turns.

The calculation of the correlation coefficient (r) for pedestrian accident frequency versus each of the candidate exposure measures indicated that none of the correlations were particularly strong. However, the coefficients of determination (r^2) were considerably higher for intersections with pedestrian signals. The coefficients of determination for "vehicle volume times pedestrian volume" and "vehicle volume times pedestrian volume divided by percentage turns" were consistently higher than those for pedestrian or vehicle volume alone. Based on limited data, accident rates were computed for each of the 47 intersections:

$$AR = \frac{AF \times 10^7}{P \times V} \times T \quad (2.11)$$

Where

AR = pedestrian accident rate;

AF = three-year pedestrian accident frequency;

P = pedestrian volume (10-hr period);

V = vehicle volume (10-hr period); and

T = percentage turning vehicles (10-hr period).

The raw accident data were converted from each hazard indicator into a hazard value, ranging from 0 to 100. The final step was to assign weights to each hazard indicator value to produce a pedestrian hazard index for each intersection. Overall, the method seems

logical and practical in rating intersections with respect to pedestrian safety. The authors recommended future research should explore other hazard indicators, such as accident severity, for possible inclusion in the index.

2.3.8 Application of Traffic Conflicts Technique (TCT)

Javid and Seneviratne (1991) applied their conflict technique to pedestrian safety evaluation. The study concluded that the expected conflicts can be estimated with a reasonable degree of certainty from a few measurable variables, such as traffic volume and clearance time.

$$\text{Left turn conflicts } LC = 2.7 - 0.09 \text{ CT} + 23.3 (p \times Q_L) \quad (2.12)$$

$$\text{Right turn conflicts } RC = 0.22 + 30.1 (p - Q_R) + 0.12 \text{ CT} \quad (2.13)$$

$$\text{Total number of conflicts } C = 6.2 + 3.81 (P \times Q) - 0.096 \text{ ACT} \quad (2.14)$$

Where:

LC = Left-turn conflicts, per hour

CT = Clearance time, in seconds

p = Pedestrian crossings, in thousands per hour

Q_L = Vehicles turning left, in thousands per hour

RC = Right-turn conflicts, per hour

Q_R = Vehicles turning right, in thousands per hour

C = Total conflicts, per hour

Q = Total hourly approach volume, in thousands

P = Total hourly pedestrian volume crossing all legs, in
thousands

ACT = Average clearance time considering all approaches, in seconds

Since accident rates are variable over time, the approach used a nonhomogeneous Poisson process to estimate the critical number of accidents that would occur with a certain predetermined degree of confidence. The deficiencies in this approach, however, are the unknown validity of the conflict estimation models over time and space. Secondly, establishing the threshold or critical level of confidence (significance) for identifying sites with a high accident potential is arbitrary.

Davis et al (1989) conducted a study to determine the relationship between pedestrian/vehicle conflicts and accidents to develop a reliable model to predict the occurrence of pedestrian accidents. Accident group models were developed using discriminate analysis for the cities of Washington, D.C., and Seattle. The intersection samples were divided into three groups on the basis of pedestrian accident frequency in three years, and subdivided into two subgroups with respect to type of control: Group1, zero-accident intersections; Group2, one- and two-accident intersections; and Group3, three-or-more-accident intersections. Authors found that the variables of pedestrian and vehicle volumes, conflicts, type of control, and pedestrian violations were best explained in group 3, in Washington, D.C., with a model accuracy of 83 percent.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{group1: } G1 = & -0.0829C + 0.0041P + 0.0026V + 3.4671S \\ & + 0.0222Vp - 3.3074 \end{aligned} \quad (2.15)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{group2: } G2 = & -0.0099C + 0.0006P + 0.0016V - 1.0553S \\ & + 0.0127Vp - 1.5951 \end{aligned} \quad (2.16)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{group3: } G3 = & -0.0989C + 0.0045P + 0.0037V + 4.8675S \\ & + 0.0254Vp - 6.1205 \end{aligned} \quad (2.17)$$

Where:

C = conflict

P = pedestrian volume

V = vehicle volume

S = type of control (1-signal, 0-stop)

V_p = pedestrian violations

The study explains the differences in pedestrian behavior between the two cities in terms of pedestrian violations. In Washington, D.C., where numerous pedestrian violations occurred, the violations were found to be indicators of accident groupings; however, in Seattle, the opposite was true. The authors also found that vehicle violations were not useful in defining accident groupings. In their research, vehicle violations of running a red signal or stopping in the crosswalk did not endanger a pedestrian when the pedestrian signal indicated "Don't Walk" and pedestrians complied.

2.3.9 Summary

The literature review indicated that most pedestrian studies focus on the analysis of data such as pedestrian characteristics or accident environments. While the many reports reviewed were limited to pedestrian accidents with fatalities or severe injuries, there has been little work done to establish a comprehensive safety index which includes accident severity and incident parameters. The concept of hazard index theory has been discussed, but no study was found that correlates a pedestrian trip generation study with pedestrian exposure to enable traffic engineers to use it as a quick reference without a field count.

The studies are also focused on road and vehicle factors rather than human factors. There were few studies found which included urban pedestrian factors. Nwankwor, however, observed the hurried nature of New York City drivers and pedestrians. Vehicle violations would be more critical to pedestrian safety than various crossing types, in an urban core like New York City. Since New York City has a high frequency of pedestrian accidents, the Traffic Conflict Technique (TCT) may have to be adjusted for urban intersections.

2.4 Accident Cost

Motor vehicle accident costs are an important component in benefit-cost evaluations of highway safety improvements. However, the costs of injuries and property damage resulting from traffic accidents are often hard to estimate and easily misinterpreted.

The first accident cost study was conducted in 1953 in Massachusetts. By means of mail questionnaires and through personal interviews with a sample of vehicle owners, the accident experience for one year was obtained. From these data the direct cost of accidents was estimated. The Washington Area Motor Vehicle Accident Cost Study in 1964-65 was the first comprehensive study of traffic accident costs to concentrate on a predominantly urban area.

Much of the literature reviewed is too outdated to represent current prices, and difficulties exist in estimating accident costs. Variables in cost estimation derive from geographic differences, such as rural and urban, or whether they are viewed as incident-based or per vehicle of involvement. Various cost components, such as direct costs and indirect costs, are other parameters which make a uniform scaled cost evaluation difficult.

2.4.1 National Safety Council (NSC) Study

The National Safety Council has attempted to put a price on losses due to motor vehicle accidents. The NSC accident cost data includes wage loss, medical expense, insurance administration costs, and property damage. In 1990, the cost of each death, injury, or property damage accident were:

Death (fatalities)--\$410,000

Nonfatal Disabling Injury --\$17,400

Property Damage Accident--\$3,500
(including minor injuries)

The NSC data applies different ratios of nonfatal injuries and property damage accidents per death. The cost per death for all accidents--fatal, nonfatal, and property damage--differs for urban and rural accidents. The cost of a fatal accident including injuries and property damage would be \$3,100,000 for urban areas and \$1,100,000 for rural areas. Many cities and states do not keep complete injury and property damage accident records. If a city's records are believed incomplete, the National Safety Council recommends to use the \$3,100,000 unit cost per death. Motor vehicle injuries are classified by severity: \$38,200 for incapacitating injury, \$8,900 for nonincapacitating evident injury, and \$2,900 for possible injury.

Peszek (1973) developed a "price tag" on the annual losses due to motor vehicle accidents, by comparing the National Safety Council's (NSC) estimate with that of the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA). The price tag is the amount of money that could be saved by society if motor vehicle accident losses were to cease.

The Department of Transportation's NHTSA estimated \$46 billion as the loss in 1971, whereas The National Safety Council's estimate for the same year was \$15.8 billion.

2.4.2 National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA) Study

NHTSA attempts to measure the total societal costs of motor vehicle accidents and translates all inconvenience and hardship associated with motor vehicle accidents. As shown in Table 2.2, The NHTSA estimate includes dollar allowances for intangibles such as pain and suffering; community loss of the services of a killed or disabled person; and the loss of the value of the casualty victim's household duties. NSC, on the other hand, attempts to measure the real dollars lost as the result of motor vehicle accidents.

Table 2.2 National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA)
Accident Cost Data 1990

<u>TOTAL COST</u> (in millions)		<u>UNIT COST</u>	
PDO*	35,597	PDO (per vehicle)	1,481
Nonfatal Injury	70,613	MAIS 0:	1,238
		MAIS 1:	6,145
		MAIS 2:	26,807
		MAIS 3:	84,189
		MAIS 4:	158,531
		MAIS 5:	589,055
Fatal	31,273	Fatal (per person)	702,281

*PDO: Property Damage Only

The principal shortcoming of the study is its failure to express accident costs in a form that can be directly used with state accident data, with injury severities coded by the A-B-C scale (incapacitating, nonincapacitating, and possible injury, respectively) rather than by the Maximum Abbreviated Injury Scale (MAIS: 0, no injury; 1 to 5, least to most severe nonfatal injury; 6, fatality). NHTSA's accident cost for a fatality is almost double the fatality

accident cost estimate of the NSC. Since the 1970's, this difference has become smaller. The property damage accident cost is higher in the NSC estimate because it includes minor injuries. As a result, a multiplication factor between PDO and fatal accidents is much higher in NHTSA's estimate in comparison with that of the NSC.

2.4.3 The Costs of Motor Vehicle Injuries

The costs of injury to society are enormous. Faigin's (1991) technical paper reviewed a report to Congress, "Cost of Injury in the United States" (October 1989), to focus on the findings for motor vehicle injuries. The total lifetime cost of injury from all causes was \$158 billion in 1985, with motor vehicle injuries--the single most costly category of injury--accounting for nearly \$49 billion.

The author explains that an incidence-based "human capital" methodology estimates the costs of injury, in terms of lifetime economic costs of fatalities and injuries occurring in a given year. Direct costs include first- and later-year medical costs, emergency services, nursing home care, rehabilitation, home modifications, and insurance administration expenses. Indirect costs result from losses in present and future productivity due to death (mortality), and permanent or temporary disability (morbidity).

Nonetheless, economic costs derived from the human capital method do not include dollar estimates for pain and suffering and value-of-life factors. An alternative methodology, described as the "Willingness To Pay" (WTP) approach, assigns values to these factors. The report on Cost of Injury in the United States acknowledges this method and two different values are shown in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Costs per Injured Person: Human Capital and Willingness-to-Pay Methods (Dollars)

HUMAN CAPITAL COSTS (\$)	WILLINGNESS-TO-PAY VALUES (\$)		
Injury	Injury	(Individual)	(Societal)
Not Hospitalized 1,570	Moderate	25,000	30,000
Hospitalized 43,409	Serious	100,000	115,000
	Severe	260,000	375,000
	Critical	1,225,000	1,525,000
Fatal Injury 352,042	Fatal Injury	1,950,000	2,000,000

2.4.4 Per Accident Costs

Rollins and McFarland (1986) developed per-accident costs based on accident severities and on the A-B-C injury severity scale (incapacitating, nonincapacitating, and possible injury, respectively) commonly used in state accident records, rather than on the Maximum Abbreviated Injury Scale (MAIS) used by NHTSA. Accident data from five states, the National Crash Severity Study (NCSS) and the National Accident Sampling System (NASS), were used to relate percentage distributions of injury severities by the MAIS and A-B-C scale.

With this method the cost per property-damage-only (PDO) accident, for example, can be readily calculated from the tables of (1) cost per vehicle involvement and (2) the average number of involvements per PDO accident.

Direct cost = Direct cost per involvement x Involvement per accident

Indirect cost = Indirect cost/involvement x Involvement per accident

Total cost = Total cost per involvement x Involvements per accident

2.4.5 Indirect Accident Costs: Valuation Approaches

Direct costs represent a smaller portion of total motor vehicle accident costs than indirect costs. The Granville Corporation (1984) defined four categories of indirect costs: 1) Social mechanism costs, 2) Human capital (HK) costs, 3) The costs or value of psychosocial deteriorations, and 4) The value of life and safety, as estimated by willingness-to-pay and related approaches.

Social mechanism costs are the costs of managing the activities subsequent to an accident or preventing accidents from occurring. The major sources of social mechanism costs are: Police costs, Fire department costs, Coroner/medical examiner costs, Insurance administration costs, Welfare and public assistance costs, State motor vehicle agency costs, and State and local highway department costs. Human capital (HK) costs are the costs of goods and services not produced as a result of motor vehicle accidents. In other words, human capital costs are equal to the present value of expected future earnings, productivity, or income lost due to morbidity (permanent or temporary disability) and mortality (death). The category of psychosocial deteriorations include pain, family erosion and marital decay, drug and alcohol abuse, juvenile delinquency, missed education, overall reduction in quality of life, and loss of contact with friends, family, and community. Finally, the value of life and safety are individuals' valuations of their "life and limb." More accurately, they are individuals' "willingness to pay" to avoid or be compensated for exposure to risks of death and injury.

Willingness-to-pay estimates are comprehensive assessments of the value of life and safety, including the value of all activities that provide individuals with benefits of living and a premium for psychosocial deteriorations. These values are intended to be used in place of the human capital costs and the psychosocial deterioration costs of motor vehicle accidents.

2.4.6 Federal Highway Administration (FHWA) Study

In 1989, the U.S. Office of Management and Budget directed Federal agencies to compute the dollar benefits of preventing deaths on the basis of the amount that people actually pay or say they would pay for small increases in safety (NYSDOT, 1989). Data systems count crashes and injuries in varied categories to determine the comprehensive cost/crash and cost/person by police-reported crash severity, in 1988 dollars. Nonfatal crashes cost an average of \$72,000, and fatal crashes \$2,722,000. However, it should be noted that the estimate includes pain, suffering, and lost quality of life, wages and household production, as well as out-of-pocket costs.

2.4.7 New York Study

The New York State Department of Transportation (NYSDOT) updates accident costs annually. With the 1989 update, the Department adopted the "Willingness-To-Pay" approach. Table 2.4 shows average accident costs, with New York City included under a separate category.

The NYSDOT also updates the property damage reporting level with the Consumer Price Index. Non-reportable accidents are included in average accident costs. There is only one category of injury.

Table 2.4 NYSDOT Average Accident Costs For Calendar Year 1993

Area Type	Fatal Acc.	Injury Acc.	Fatal & Injury	PDO*
URBAN/SUBURBAN/VILLAGE	3,158,700	85,000	112,000	3,300
RURAL	3,273,800	89,100	166,900	4,600
NEW YORK CITY	3,023,000	84,600	105,500	3,300

*PDO accident includes reportable and non-reportable.

2.4.8 Summary

It is evident from the literature review that any standard or uniform cost data are non-existent. It is difficult to get consistent cost data which would be applicable to general cost-benefit analysis or to the rate of accident severity. The reasons for the discrepancies in accident costs are due to the differences between the concepts of economic cost, and value concept. Indirect values are especially difficult to measure and there are various parameters to be determined in cost studies.

Most states currently use values based on: (1) direct costs, (2) NSC values, or (3) NHTSA values. For fatal accidents, the NSC values do not include any value for the person's self worth, while the NHTSA values include the present value of the person's expected earnings. Although both cost values are commonly used in estimating accident costs, they lack an interpretive value of life or the real market approach. New York State DOT has adopted the "Willingness-To-Pay" concept, which is believed to be a more reasonable approach. NYSDOT's cost data for New York City would be a primary reference in this study.

Table 2.5 presents an overall summary of the literature review indicating studies that were: 1) used for developing ideas, 2) not relevant, and 3) expanded for this study. The literature review was conducted in 1992.

Table 2.5 Summary of Literature Review

Study/Method	Used for Ideas	Not Relevant	Expanded
I. Safety Evaluation			
1. Frequency Method	X		
2. Accident Rate Method	X		
3. Frequency-Rate Method		X	
4. Kansas City Study	X		
5. Hazardous Roadway Features Method		X	
6. Traffic Conflict Technique			X
7. Accident Severity Method			X
8. Hazard Index Method	X		
9. New York's Rate Quality Control Method		X	
II. Pedestrian Safety			
1. Pedestrian Characteristics		X	
2. Pedestrian Fatales in Virginia		X	
3. Pedestrian Accidents in the Monterial CBD		X	
4. Urban and Rural Environments		X	
5. Pedestrian Exposure Measures			X
6. Pedestrian Crossings			X
7. Intersection Ranking Methodology		X	
8. Traffic Conflict Technique		X	
III. Accident Cost			
1. National Safety Council Study		X	
2. National Highway Traffic Safety Admin.		X	
3. Costs of Motor Vehicle Injuries		X	
4. Per Accident Costs		X	
5. Indirect Accident Costs		X	
6. Federal Highway Administration Study		X	
7. New York Study	X		

CHAPTER III

DATA COLLECTION AND PROCESSING

3.1 Introduction

To improve the safety of the highway system, the traffic engineer must have information and data on the location, frequency, severity, and type of accidents that are occurring. The study of accidents is fundamentally different from that employed to observe other traffic parameters. Because accidents occur relatively infrequently, and at unpredictable times and locations, they cannot be objectively observed as they occur. Thus, all accident data come from secondary sources--motorist and police accident reports. A notable exception to this is a system for gathering, sorting, and retrieving such information in a useful form must be carefully designed and monitored to provide the traffic engineer with the data needed to properly evaluate and correct traffic-safety deficiencies.

This study consists of data collection and analyses of accident contributing factors. The research is focused on accidents at intersections which comprise 64 percent of total Manhattan accidents, excluding limited-access highways. The product of this study is called the CASIUS (Computer-Aided Safety Index for Urban Streets) program. The outcome of this program is 1) expected number of accidents, 2) severity factors, and 3) frequency factor of the intersection being studied. The frequency and the severity factors are very important in safety analysis because of their ability to identify locations with the highest potential of safety improvement, especially when an identical accident type appears repeatedly.

3.2 Data Collection

Data were collected to quantify accident experience, vehicle counts, and inventories of intersections including traffic operations, traffic and pedestrian movements, and parking characteristics.

3.2.1 Field Inventory

The NYCDOT Safety Unit made available the required manpower and equipment for the field work. Two surveyors visited 202 study intersections to fill out the prepared field forms.

The following equipment were used for the field inventory:

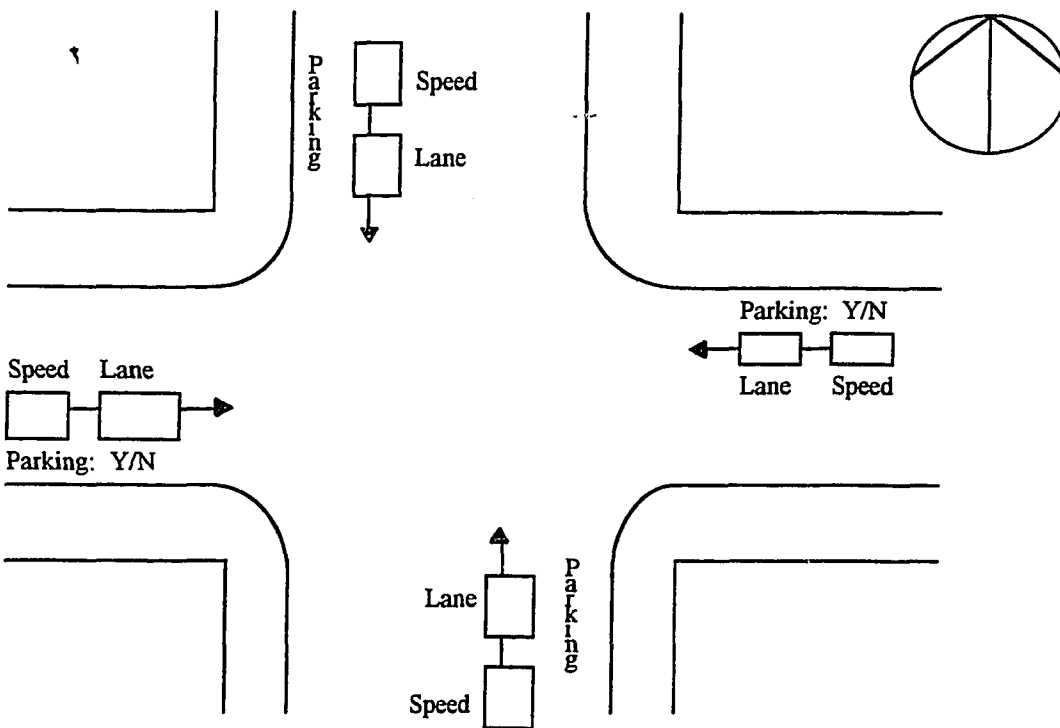
- Length measuring wheel
- Stop watch
- Polaroid camera

Photo-logging was conducted at all study intersections to maintain the record along with the diagrams from the field work.

3.2.1.1 Intersection Characteristics: The field survey form “A” presented in Figure 3.1 was designed to collect the following intersection characteristics:

1. Type of land use (R/C/M--Residential/Commercial/Industrial).
2. Posted speed limit (30 mph for the majority of intersections in NYC).
3. Geometry of intersection including lane markings, sight distance (G/F/P--good/fair/poor), median, left turn bay, and channelization.
4. Type of roadway and intersection (e.g., arterial-local, 4-way/T-type).

Location _____ @ _____ Boro & Ser. # _____ By _____
 Date _____ Day _____ Time _____ Weather _____



INTERSECTION CHARACTERISTICS

Land Use	R/C/M	Posted Speed	Major;	Minor;
Geometry	Grade/Level	Median on Any Leg	Y/N	
Channelization	Y/N	Sight Distance	G/F/P	
Comm. Traffic	Y/N	Left Turn Lane	Y/N	
Lane Markings	G/F/P/None	Overall Marking Condition	G/F/P	
Roadway Type	Arterial & Art/ Art & Local/ Local & Local (rf. Hagstrom Map)			
Intersection Type	4-Way/ T/ Y/ Multi-Leg			
Type of Control	Signal/ Stop/ Yield/ Flash/N-Control			
Signal Control	Cycle Length 60/ 90/ 120		No. of Phases 2/ 3/ 4	

Figure 3.1 CASIUS Field Survey Form A

5. Type of traffic control (e.g., signalized, stop controlled).
6. Signal timings and phasing.

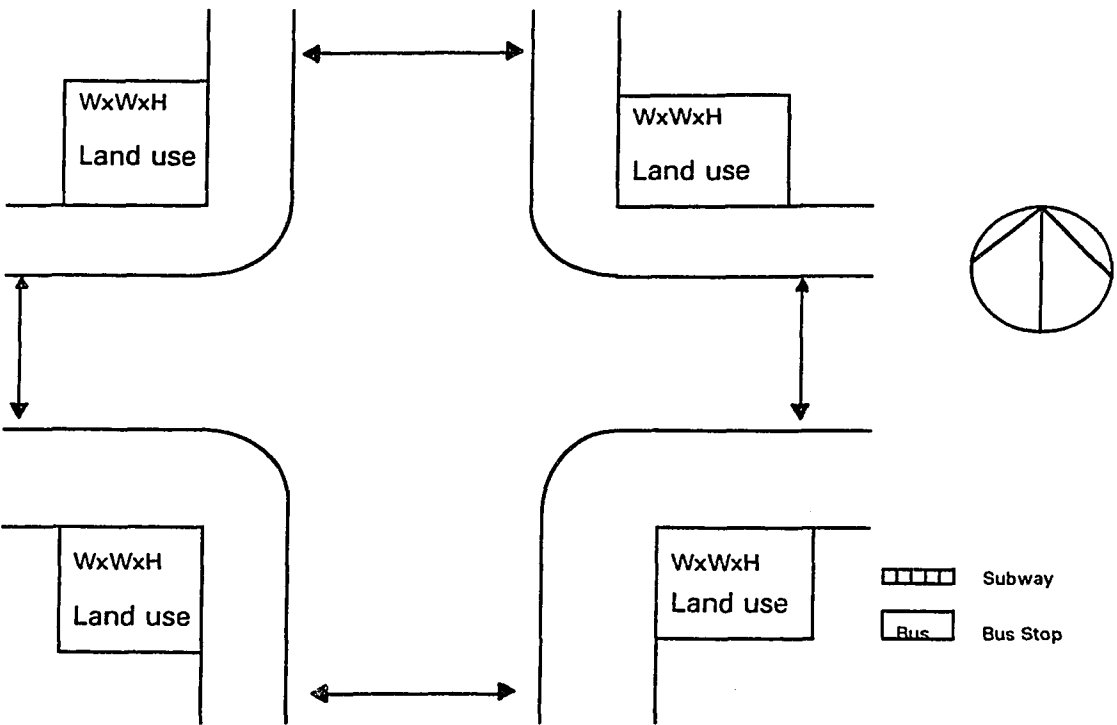
3.2.1.2 Pedestrian Data: The field survey form “B” presented in Figure 3.2 was designed to collect the following field information on pedestrian activities:

1. Sketch of crosswalk pavement markings.
2. Condition of crosswalk (good/fair/poor)
3. Crosswalk with the highest pedestrian activity (north/south/east/west).
4. Width of crosswalk.
5. Pedestrian level of service (determined visually by taking photographs and using professional judgement).
6. Pedestrian signal timings.
7. Pedestrian volume (high/medium/ low).
8. Existence of mass transportation.

Pedestrian exposure measures can be developed by combining the pedestrian and vehicle activity and eventually relating it to the pedestrian accident characteristics. However, pedestrian counts at the 202 sample intersections were not available, and obtaining those counts was quite a difficult process. As an alternative, a Traffic Conflicts Technique (TCT) concept was used which requires parameters such as pedestrian signal timing, crosswalk condition, and the dimension of pedestrian crossings--sum of major and minor ($W1 + W2$), the ratio ($W1/W2$), and the product ($W1 \times W2$), or just the width of the major pedestrian crossing ($W1$).

Boro & Ser. # _____

By _____



PEDESTRIAN ACTIVITY

- 1) Sketch the crosswalk markings on the above diagram.
- 2) The condition of crosswalk markings (overall: G/F/P)
- 3) Select one crosswalk with the higher pedestrian activity: N/S/E/W (Leg)
- 4) Measure the width of that one crosswalk: _____ Ft.
- 5) Take pictures of the same crosswalk to show the pedestrian level of service (to cover the whole distance).
- 6) Pedestrian Signal of the same Leg: Legend/Color Lens/None.
- 7) Pedestrian count (overall: High/Med/Low)
- 8) Platoon effect observed due to pedestrian congestion: Y/N

Leg	Type of Ped Signal			Pedestrian Cycle (Sec.)			
	Legend	Lens	None	Walk	Fldw	Dont Walk	Total C/L
N							
E							
S							
W							

Figure 3.2 CASIUS Field Survey Form B

3.2.2 Accident Data

Accident experience was compiled from:

1. Three years of Centralized Local Accident Surveillance System (CLASS) data from the New York State Department of Transportation, January 1989-December 1991.
2. Three years of accident summaries and summary descriptions at each of the 202 study intersections, January 1989-December 1991.
3. Five years of traffic fatality data and analyses from the New York City Department of Transportation, 1987-1991;

The CLASS data have a detailed breakdown by accident type and intersection characteristics, including various sub-categories of pedestrian and non-pedestrian accidents, such as at-intersection and not-at-intersection, signalized and unsignalized intersections. Table 3.1 shows the number of intersections and accidents in the boroughs of Manhattan, Queens, Kings (Brooklyn), the Bronx, Richmond (Staten Island), and the entire City of New York during 1989-1991. A summary of motor vehicle accidents in Manhattan is included in Appendix A.

Table 3.1 Accident Frequency at NYC Signalized and Unsignalized Intersections

Boro	INTERSECTIONS			ACCIDENTS				
	Signalized	Unsig-	Total.	In 1989	In 1990	In 1991	Avg/Yr	Per Int.
Manh.	2709	986	3695	22055	22197	20603	21618	5.9
Queens	2285	11812	14097	36028	35946	32233	34735	2.5
Kings	3262	6552	9814	32524	33450	31441	32471	3.3
Brook.	1483	4321	5804	16917	16680	15106	16234	2.8
Richm.	359	4203	4562	6249	6398	5883	6176	1.4
Citywide	10098	27874	37972	113773	114671	105266	111237	2.9

Boro	%Ped.	1989 Ped.	1990 Ped.	1991 Ped.	Ped. Avg.	% of Ped. at Int.
Manh.	20	4393	4529	4364	4429	68.5
Citywide	14	14841	15544	14992	15124	65.1

Source: NYSDMV MV-144 Summary (1989-1991)

3.2.3 Vehicular Volume Data

Automated traffic recorder (ATR) counts from 1987 to 1992 were obtained from the NYCDOT's Planning Office. For all approaches of the 202 intersections used for this study, the ATR counts were available. Weekday averages between 7 AM and 7 PM were selected to measure the magnitude of traffic demand in terms of total entering vehicles ($V1 + V2 + V3 + V4$), or the product of critical approach volumes ($V1 \times V3$).

3.3 Data Processing

The Paradox 4.0 software was used for data processing. A custom form for data entry was developed which consisted of four tables comprising; 1) intersection number, location, node number, 2) three-year accident summary, 3) intersection characteristics such as land use, intersection type, control type, pavement marking condition, roadway type, existence of public transit, signal operation, and 4) vehicular volume and traffic operation.

CHAPTER IV

DEVELOPMENT OF CORRELATION AMONG VARIABLES

4.1 Identifying Problem Areas

Establishing a comprehensive safety index for urban intersections involves contributing factors more complicated than those of suburban areas. Due to many variables, including accident frequency, the sample size of 202 intersections used in this study may not be sufficient to identify all contributing factors to intersection safety. Grouping of sample intersections and setting a set of stratified accident data may be difficult because of the complex interaction of contributing factors. Calculating the proper ratio of severity factor will be very important. For example, if the severity factor of fatal accidents is too high, the random fatalities will be overvalued against PDO accidents that usually are more frequent and offer easier countermeasures. Safety countermeasures can be suggested from the product of accident frequency and severity by intersection.

The surrogates to pedestrian volume data, such as land use, may not be able to represent the actual pedestrian activity or pedestrian/vehicle conflicts. Pedestrian behavior at signalized intersections varies. Although the study aims to separate pedestrian accidents from non-pedestrian accidents from its early stage, pedestrian accidents have higher accident severity and randomness. Developing a formula to reflect relative hazards would also be complex because most of the existing equations are based on traffic conflicts, or accident potential.

4.2 Analysis on Contributing Factors

Figure 4.1 is a schematic diagram of procedures for evaluating signalized intersection accident surrogates. The establishment of the comprehensive safety index includes parameters of 1) local factors: roadway classification, land use, and demographics, and 2) node factors: roadway geometry, vehicular speed, traffic volume, traffic operation, traffic control, parking characteristics, and pedestrian activity.

Expected number of accidents per intersection classification is a multiplication of normalizing factors onto average annual accident factors at study intersections. Normalizing factors related with accident frequency or accident severity are the function of the pedestrian volume (P) factor, the vehicular volume (V) factor, and the pedestrian/vehicle interaction (PV) factor as a multiplication of both. The evaluation of the pedestrian factor is discussed in Section 4.3.

Based on the above frequency distribution and sensitivity analysis, a safety index formula can be derived:

$$SI = \frac{\text{Reported Number of Accidents}}{\text{Expected Number of Accidents}} \quad (4.1)$$

Accident rates at intersections can be produced through the merge of data files-- intersection file, traffic file (pedestrian and vehicular), and accident file (NYSDOT CLASS data). The reported number of accidents at the location, in terms of accident frequency, can be compared with various normalizing factors and traffic exposures at the subject location and with the Manhattan average. The ten-year Manhattan accident figures during 1983-1992 are presented in Table 4.1.

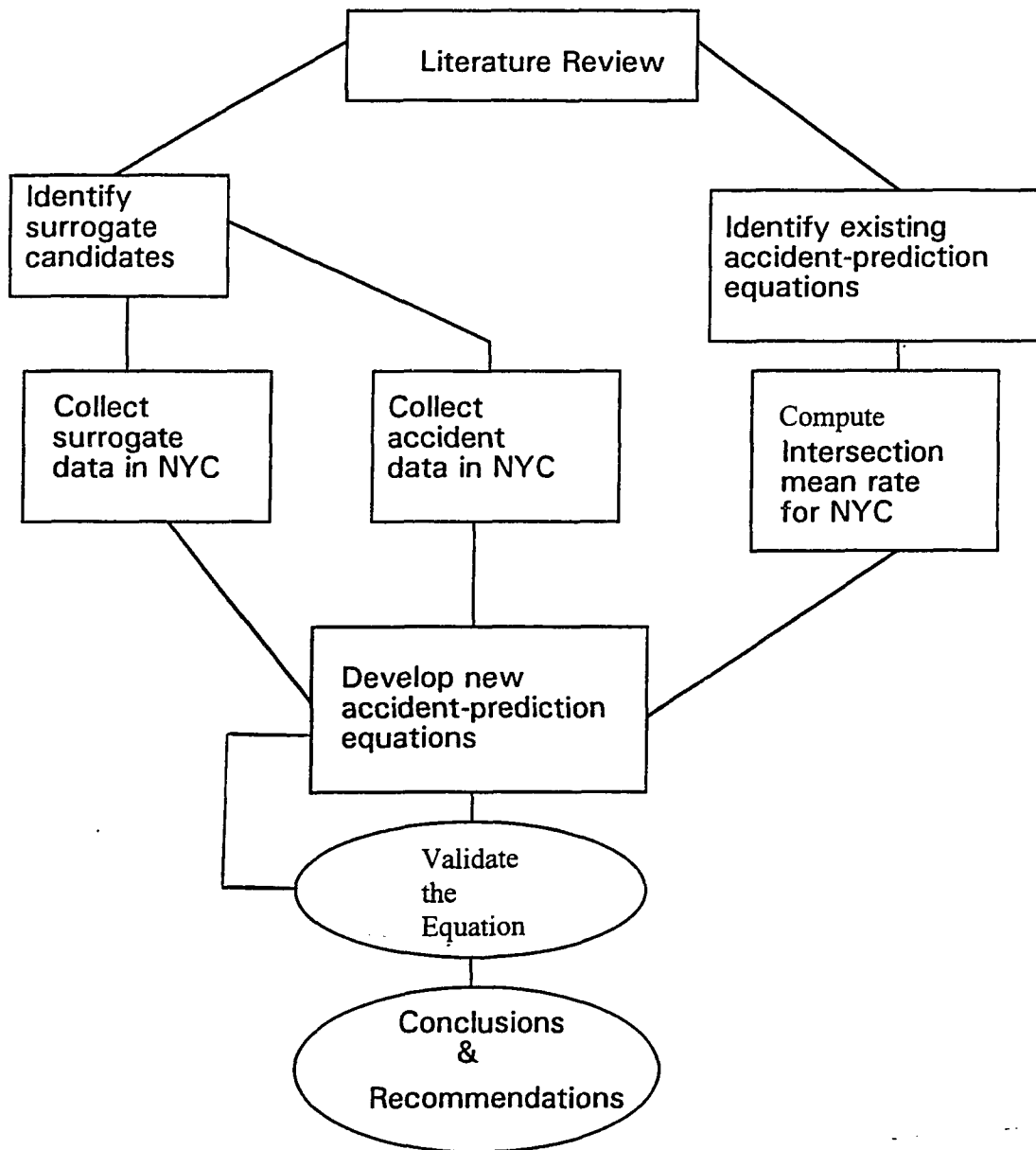


Figure 4.1 Schematic Diagram of Procedures for Evaluating Signalized Intersection Accident Surrogates

Table 4.1 Manhattan 10-Year Accident (1983-1992)

YEAR	FAT.	INJ.	PROP DMGE	NON-RPRT	TOTAL ACC	TOTAL LOCS	N- L*	PED ACC
1983	111	13229	6904	29389	4963	8212	60-40	3825
1984	107	13594	6636	30690	51027	8187	58-42	4020
1985	90	14473	6050	38628	59241	8882	60-40	4441
1986	108	15913	5562	42514	64097	9225	62-38	4657
1987	105	15925	6053	43215	65298	9444	62-38	4563
1988	100	15799	6365	45631	67895	9172	61-39	4637
1989	109	15731	6215	46926	68980	9090	61-39	4504
1990	132	16110	5955	44033	66230	9140	60-40	4529
1991	95	15917	4591	44955	65558	9196	60-40	4364
10 YEAR AVERAGE								
		105	15348	5755	41121	62329	8967	60-40

Source: Borough-wide Accident Information Report

* N-L: Node vs. link data

4.2.1 Accident Rate Based on Vehicle Volume

Conventional traffic safety analysis systems compute accident rates for county/statewide areas using general accident parameters such as population, miles of highway, or vehicle miles traveled (VMT). At intersections, the accident rate can be expressed as accidents per vehicles entering the subject intersection. The objective of the analysis is to determine the relationship between accident characteristics at intersections and vehicle volume at 202 sample intersections. Approach volumes are categorized in three different ways: 1) Total Vehicle Volume (TVV), 2) Sum of Critical Volume (SCV), and 3) Critical Vehicle Volume (CVV).

Table 4.2 shows the relationship between accidents and volume, as determined by curve fitting analysis.

Table 4.2 Relationship Between Accidents and Volume

	Correlation Coefficient	Determination Coefficient	Error (%)
Total Volume	0.61	0.3734	58
Sum of Critical Volume	0.49	0.2132	96
Critical Volume	0.41	0.1659	93

The highest correlation coefficient does not necessarily indicate the best relationship between the two variables of accidents and volume. However, total vehicle volume (TVV) in Table 4.2 has a higher coefficient than other variables compared, and it means that accident frequency is more closely related to the number of total entering vehicles than critical approach volume. Also, the error is smaller (58%) for total vehicle volume. Therefore, the TVV variable will be used hereafter as an accident surrogate.

The average vehicle volume at the sample intersections is 22,321, and the average accident frequency during the three-year period is 74. At the intersection with the highest vehicle volume, the total volume is 52,883 with an accident frequency of 66, and the intersection with the lowest vehicle volume of 1,168 has an accident frequency of 33. The highest accident frequency at an intersection is 387 with a 33,040 vehicle volume, and the lowest frequency is 3 with volume of 7,503 vehicles. However, this relationship is not applicable to the intersections with extreme accident frequency or volume size. At these intersections, other accident variables prevail, and have a greater safety impact than traffic volume.

For example, the intersection with the highest volume (52,883) has a critical crosswalk length of 104 feet, which is the longest among sample intersections. However, the sum of conflict point is low (9.82) at this intersection, compared to the highest conflict point (16) among the sample intersections. It means that the accident rate is lower at intersections with large dimensions because lane capacity is higher at multi-lane approaches, whereas the conflict point is low, perhaps because of turning restrictions at major approaches. The critical crosswalk length at the intersection with the highest accident frequency is only 73, but the conflict point is considerably high (11.5), resulting in a higher accident rate. In these extreme cases, other accident variables such as conflict points have a greater impact on safety than traffic volume.

Table 4.3 presents the results of a curve fitting analysis for the categories of signal-controlled and stop-controlled intersections.

Table 4.3 Signalized and Stop-Controlled Intersections

	Correlation Coefficient	Determination Coefficient	Average Volume	Average Acci.	Number of Intersection	Error (%)
Signal	0.49	0.24	25588	85.7	167	66
Stop	0.53	0.28	6729	18.1	35	53

The accident rate based on vehicle volume is higher at signalized intersections. Vehicle volume per accident at signalized intersections is 298, and 370 at stop-controlled intersections. In general, accident frequency is proportional to traffic volume. However, the issue of signalization has not been considered because the correlation is lower than that of other variables applicable to all intersections.

Figure 4.2 shows the relationship between accident frequency and traffic volume.

The curve fitting equation is:

$$Y = -4.71325 + 0.00353X \quad (4.2)$$

However, the difference between calculated accident frequency and real accident frequency increases when vehicle volume is more than 30,000. The relationship is weak as the number of total entering vehicles increases. Table 4.4 shows the relationships by aggregated volume size.

Table 4.4 Accident Relationship by Aggregated Volume Size

Volume	Correlation Coefficient	Determination Coefficient	Avg. Volume	Avg. Accident	# of Locat.	Error (%)
<5,000	-0.0143	0.000190.24	2835	12.57	14	65
<10,000	0.22875	0.0523	7622	21.22	18	80
<20,000	0.51787	0.26818	14849	48.27	43	58
<30,000	0.04540	0.0020	25098	77.39	85	42
>30,000	0.11594	0.01344	35861	133.5	42	58

The correlation for each volume size does not show better results than the fitting curve analysis for total vehicle volume. The analysis per vehicle volume indicates that accident frequency generally increases with vehicle volume, but not with a strong relationship.

4.2.2 Conflict Point System

The traffic conflicts technique (TCT) has been used to estimate the relationship between traffic conflicts and accidents. Despite the diversity of opinions on its usefulness, the

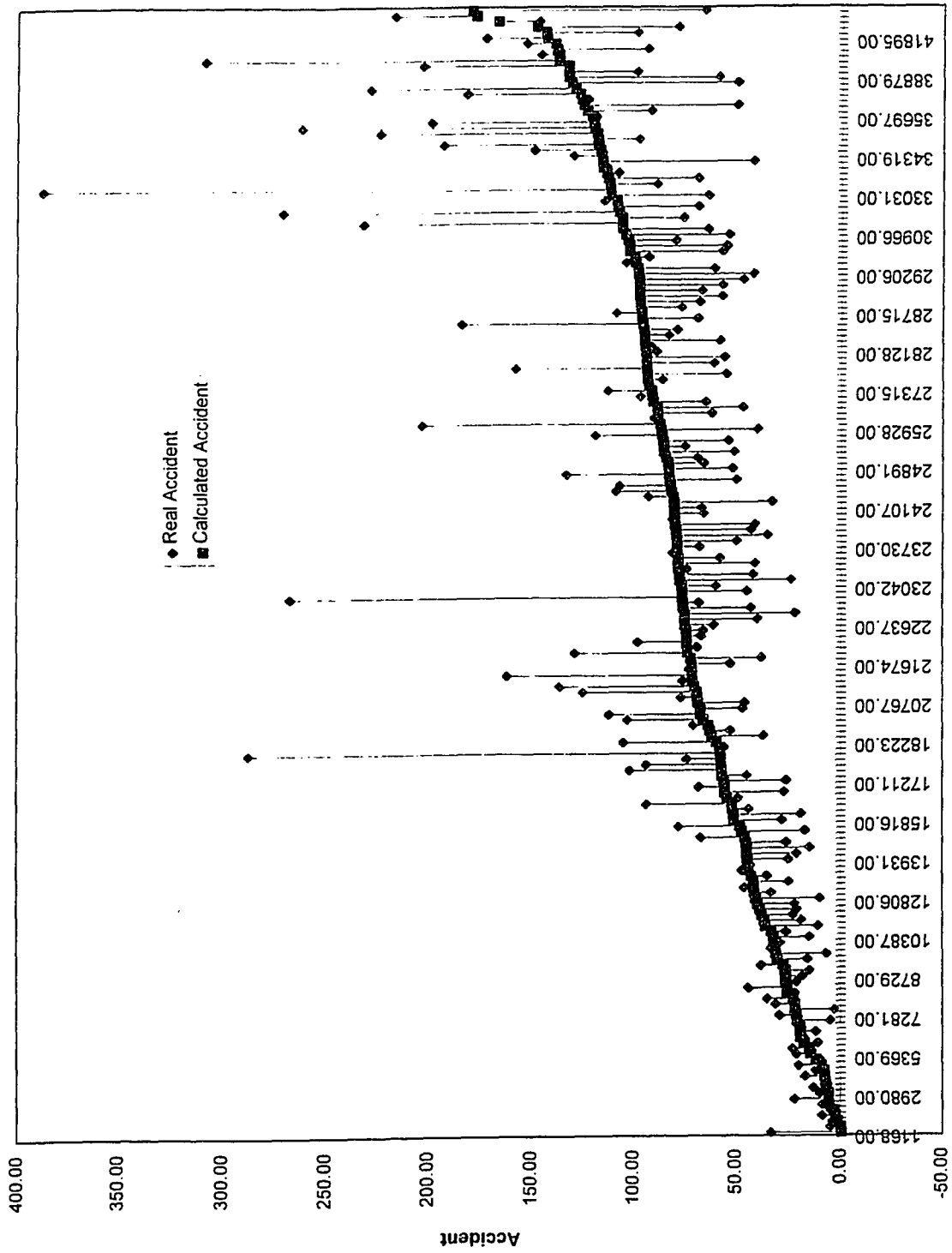


Figure 4.2 Accident Frequency and Traffic Volume

concept is widespread and the method is used by many safety engineers for its convenient technique of field observation. The definition of conflict in this study differs from the conventional meaning of traffic conflict. Conflicting points at intersection would mean number of conflicting points between maneuvering vehicles as the denominator of an intersection safety index. The number of conflict points at study intersections will reflect the conflict potential. To reflect the risk involved with left-turn movements, left-turn maneuvers have been considered to be equivalent to three through or right-turn movements. Total conflict points have been calculated in two different ways, and the results are shown in Table 4.5.

1. Sum: (Left Turn * 3) + Thru + Right
2. Product: (Left Turn * 3) * Thru * Right

Table 4.5 Conflict Method

Conflict Method	Correlation Coefficient	Determination Coefficient	Average Conflict	Avg. Acci.	# of Location	Error
1	0.56	0.32	6.69	74	202	1.01
2	0.40	0.16	20.59	74	202	1.31

Both the correlation coefficient and determination coefficient work out better when the number of conflict points are added (Method 1), rather than multiplied (Method 2). The fitting curve equations for methods 1 and 2 are:

$$1) \quad Y = -8.3140 + 12.2978X \quad (4.3)$$

$$2) \quad Y = 62.1775 + 0.57697X \quad (4.4)$$

Method 1 has been selected for application because of its lower error rate. As shown in Figure 4.3, the real accident frequency is lower than that calculated at conflict points below 10, but it becomes very high when the conflict points are over 10. Figure 4.4 shows a better relationship between conflict points and accident frequency, using method 1. The correlation is high (0.56146), but the error is also high (100.8%).

Table 4.6 shows the results of curve fitting analyses for different ranges of conflict points.

Table 4.6 Conflict Analysis per Aggregate Conflict Points

Interval	Correlation Coefficient	Determination Coefficient	Average Conflict	Avg. Acci.	# of Locat.	Error
0.00 - 3.99	0.34419	0.11168	2.9	15.90	11	0.62810
4.00 - 4.99	0.46937	0.2203	4.37	44.57	49	0.68479
5.00 - 5.99	0.18929	0.0358	5.46	64.58	51	0.5177
6.00 - 6.99	-0.12275	0.015	6.45	56.60	25	1.22376
7.00 - 7.99	-0.13911	0.01935	7.185	54.12	8	2.47469
8.00 - 8.99	-0.809	0.6544	8.205	76.75	4	1.358
9.00 - 9.99	-0.35826	0.1283	9.092	120.33	30	0.51219
10.00 -	0.01832	0.00035	12.6108	147.08	24	0.58959

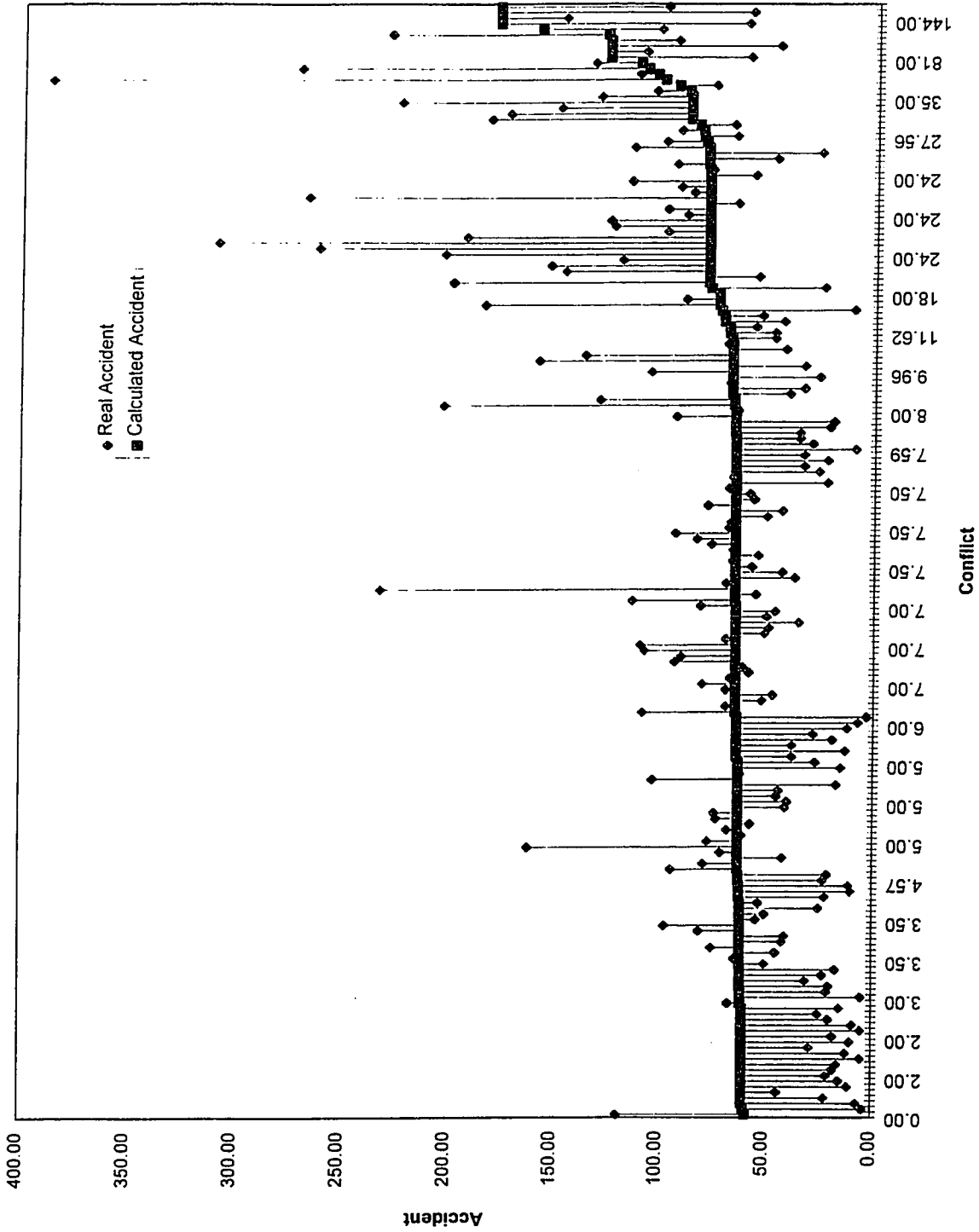


Figure 4.3 Accident and Conflict Multiplied (Method 1)

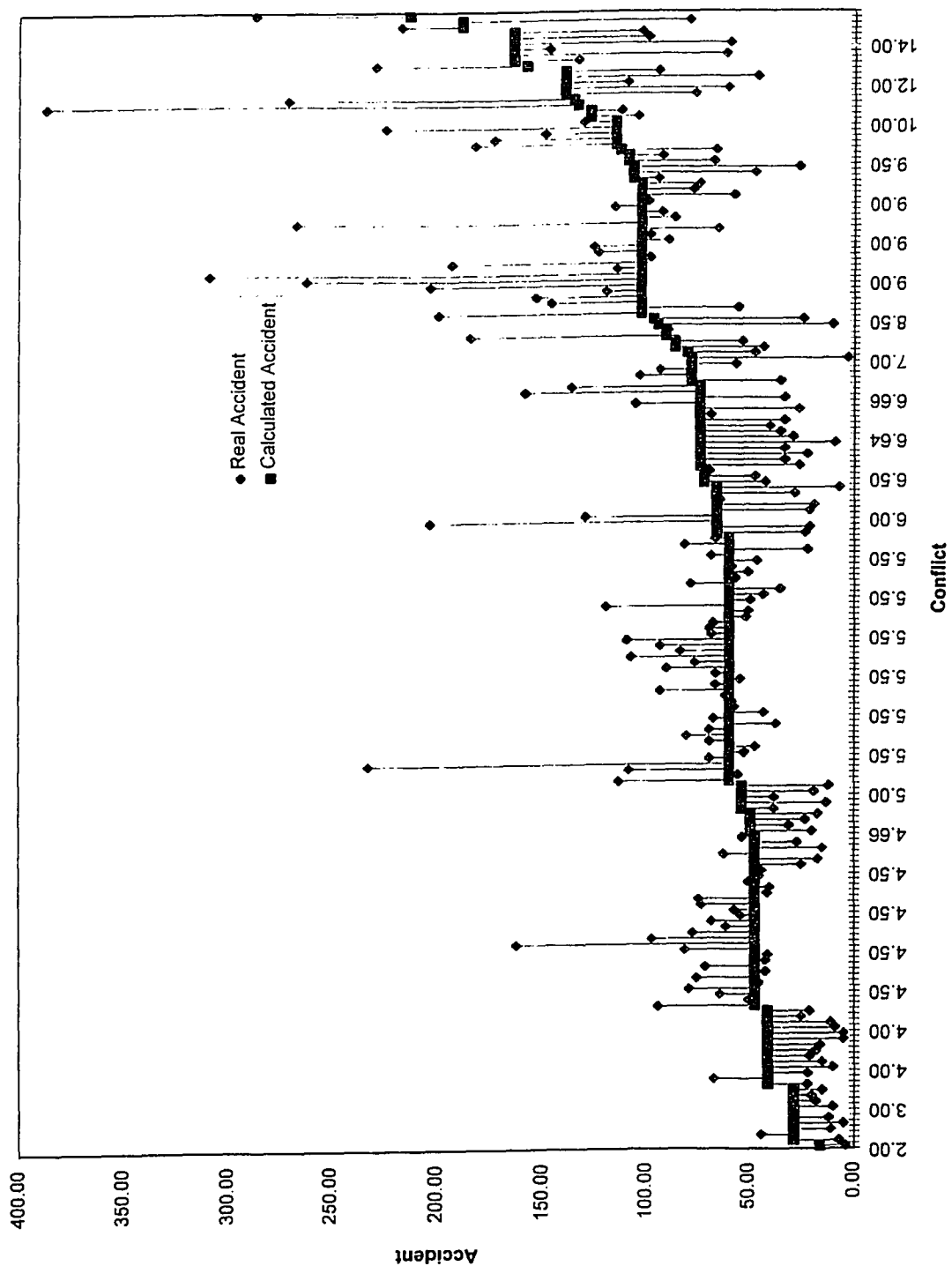


Figure 4.4 Accident and Sum of Conflict (Method 2)

The correlation of each individual conflict range is no better than that of total conflicts. In either case, the two variables of accident frequency and traffic conflicts have a good relationship. However, the conflict itself may not be able to represent the accident environment of the subject intersection.

4.2.3 Accident Rate Based on Signal Timing

With a few exceptions, signalized intersections in Manhattan have 90 seconds of pre-timed signal length. Out of the 202 study intersections, 167 intersections are signalized. Signal timing is a variation of longest signal phase within 90 seconds of cycle length. The proportion of signal timing has been explored for a possible relationship with accidents. The curve fitting analysis on the relationship between signal timing and accident frequency is as following:

Correlation Coefficient: -0.33634

Determination Coefficient: 0.113126

Error: 78.923%

The negative number in the correlation coefficient indicates that total accident frequency decreases as the longest signal phase increases. From the curve fitting equation, accident frequency becomes negative when the signal phase on the major approach goes beyond 72.65 seconds. However, the maximum timing in Manhattan is 65 seconds.

$$Y = 305.87845 - 4.21901X \quad (4.5)$$

Table 4.7 shows average accident frequency per signal timing.

Table 4.7 Signal Timing and Accident Frequency

Signal Timing	Average Accidents	Number of Intersections
35	229	1
40	155.75	4
45	120.13	23
50	89.74	51
55	69	71
60	72	15
65	65.5	2

As shown in Figure 4.5, the number of accidents decreases as the signal phase on major approaches increases. As previously discussed, lane efficiency is higher at multi-lane approaches and the accident rate per vehicle volume declines. Consequently, signal timing variation can be used as an accident surrogate representing the ratio of major and minor approaches.

4.2.4 Accident Rate Based on Crosswalk Dimension

Crosswalk dimension represents the overall size of intersections, unless medians or other exceptional geometry exists. When the size of an intersection increases, traffic demand is assumed to generally increase as well. Table 4.8 shows a curve fitting analysis on crosswalk dimension in four different types of calculations.

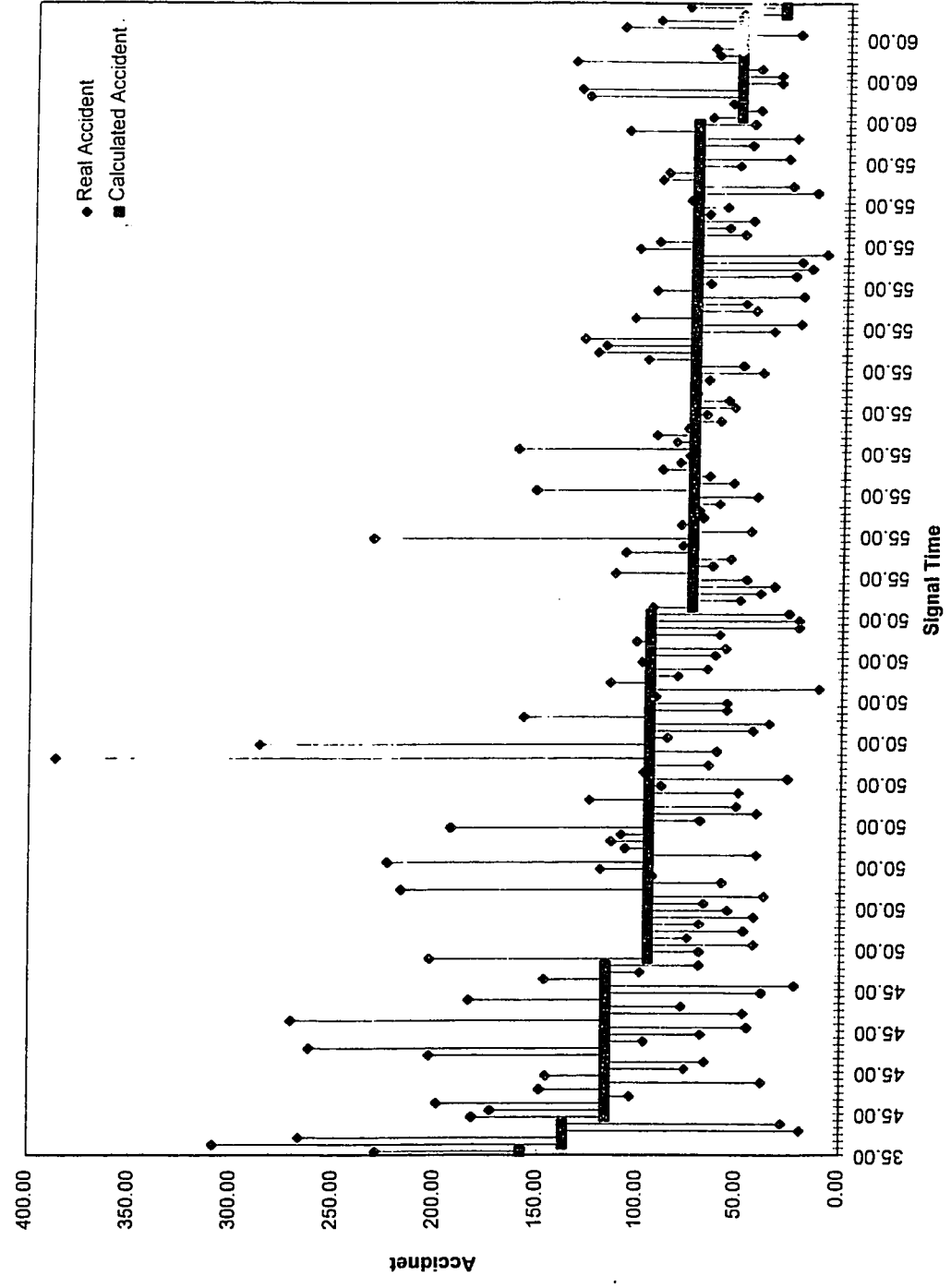


Figure 4.5 Signal Timing and Accident Frequency

Table 4.8 Crosswalk Dimension Correlations

Crosswalk Dimension	Correlation Coefficient	Determination Coefficient	Error
W1	0.45	0.1998	1.09
W1/W2	0.18	0.0328	1.46
W1*W2	0.54	0.2947	0.98
W1+W2	0.57	0.3202	0.91

W1: the longest crosswalk

W2: longer crosswalk adjacent to W1

The highest correlations are found for the sum of W1 and W2, and correlations are lowest for the ratio of W1/W2. Figure 4.6 contains the graph for the variable W1 + W2. Crosswalk dimensions are also related to traffic demand and to accident frequency. In general, accident frequency increases as more vehicles transverse wider intersections. The calculated correlation between crosswalk dimension and traffic volume is considerably high, 0.59, and the relationship between traffic volume, crosswalk dimension, and accident frequency is higher than any other variables discussed so far. Table 4.9 and Figure 4.7 present a breakdown of crosswalk dimension and its relationship to traffic volume and average accidents.

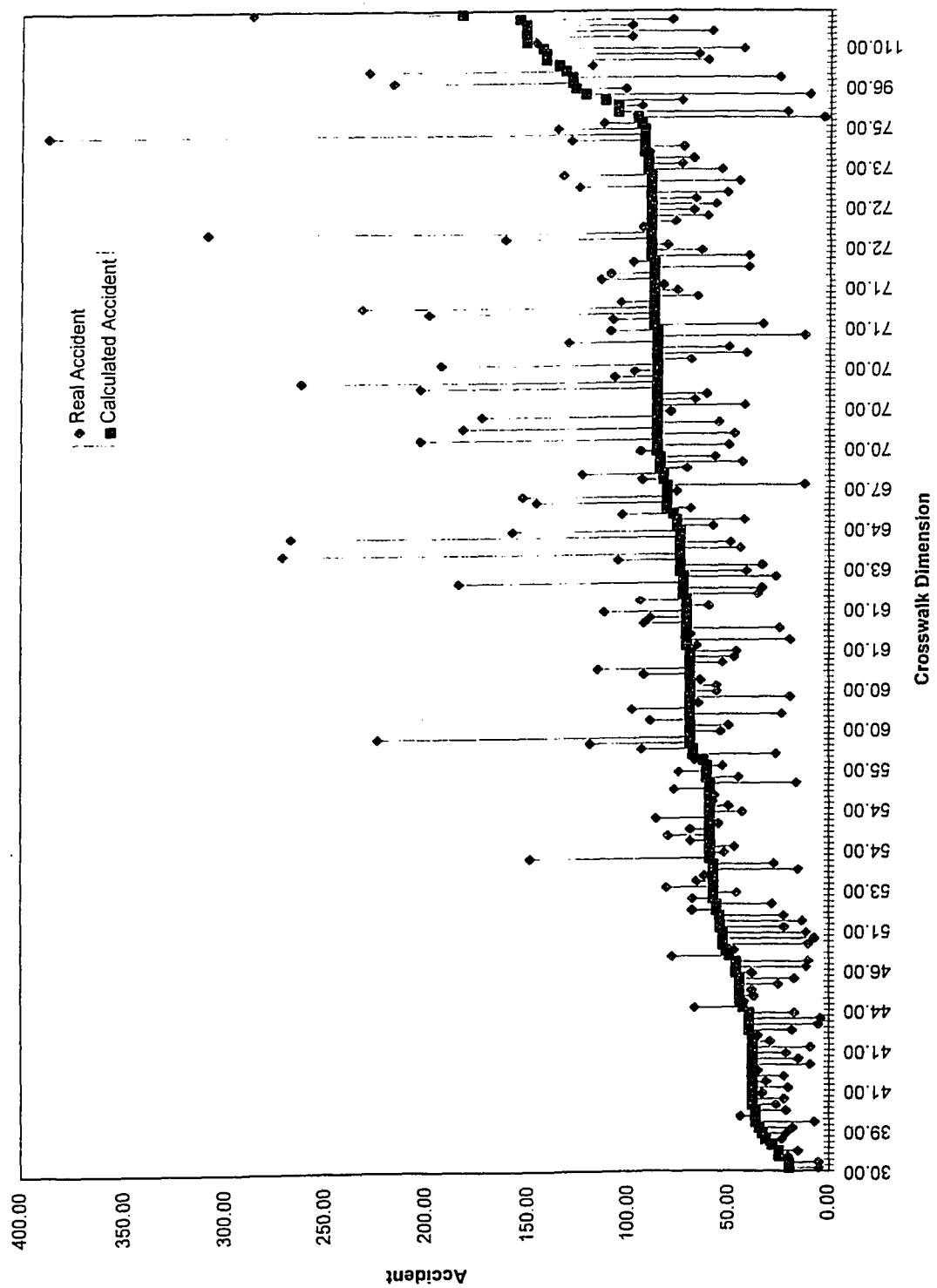


Figure 4.6 Crosswalk Dimension and Accidents

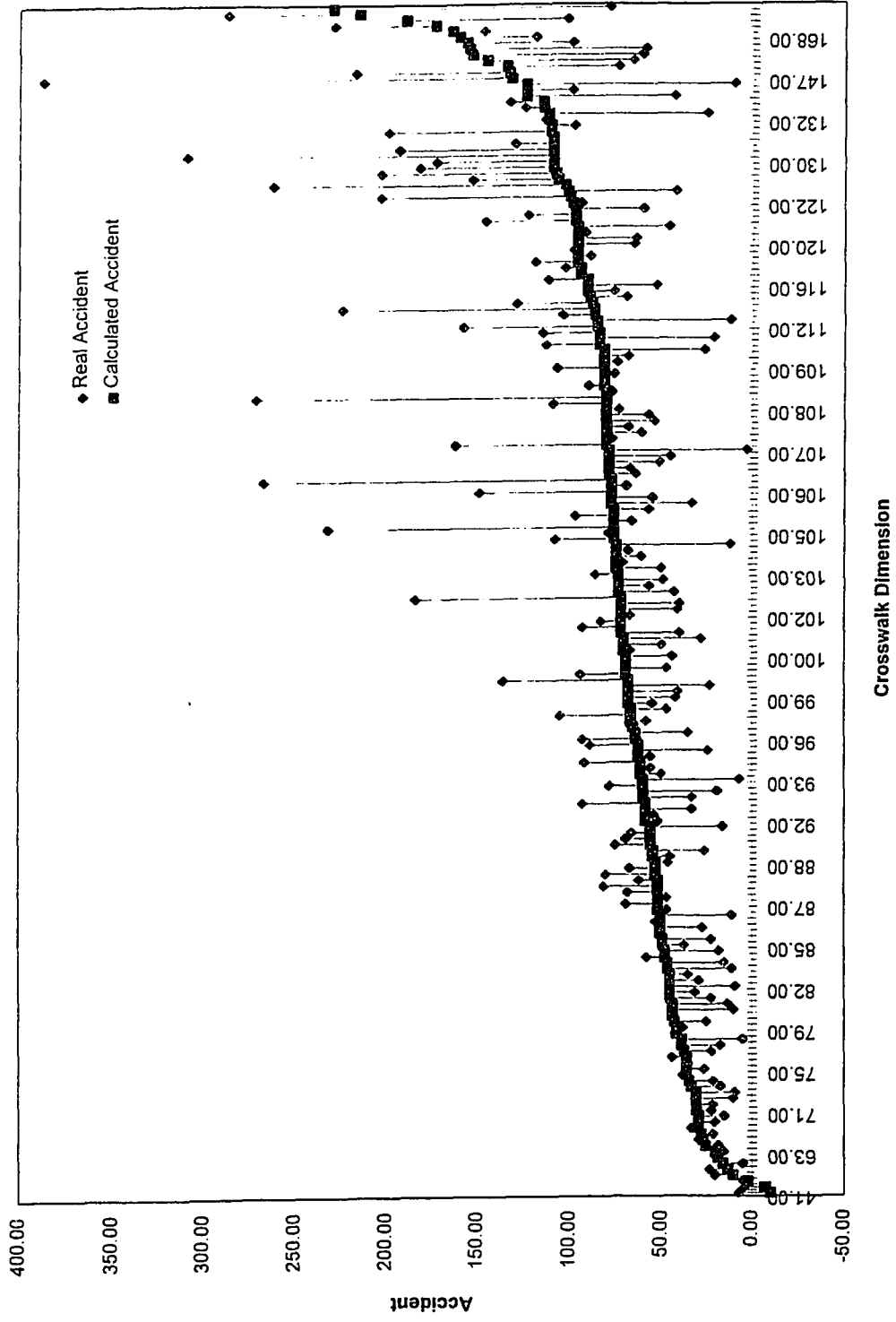


Figure 4.7 Crosswalk Dimension and its Relationship with Traffic Volume and Accidents

Table 4.9 Crosswalk Dimension and Accidents

Crosswalk Dimension	Average Dimension	Traffic Volume	Average Accident	# of Locations
<60	49.6	5686	11.8	5
<80	71.58	9474	22.58	24
<100	89.66	19372	47.79	59
<120	106.92	24887	82.85	70
<140	126.00	30393	130.32	28
<160	146.00	32184	128.00	7
<180	168.00	35508	119.00	6
>180	206.00	26197	156.00	3

As shown in Table 4.10, the end result of the analysis on actual crosswalk length is quite similar to that of the total crosswalk dimension. When the width of existing parking lanes is excluded from the calculation, the traffic volume per lane increases and the number of accidents increases as well.

Table 4.10 Actual Crosswalk Dimension and Accidents

Crosswalk Dimension	Average Dimension	Traffic Volume	Average Accident	# of Locations
<60	43.18	13051	33.57	61
<80	70.00	23506	69.50	80
<100	84.76	28186	104.32	34
<120	107.41	31950	125.00	12
<140	127.40	32706	121.70	10
>140	168.80	32681	214.40	5

4.2.5 Accident and Roadway Type

The roadways transversing the 202 study intersections have been classified into arterials and local roads. This involved three types of roadway junctions; arterial/local, arterial/arterial, or local/local. The relationship between the roadway types and accident frequency is shown in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11 Accident and Roadway Type

Roadway Type	Traffic Volume	Average Accident	Volume per Accident	Number of Locations
Arterial/Local	29527	130.18	226.81	95
Arterial/Arterial	23621	61.18	386.09	59
Local/Local	10686	30.14	354.54	48

The above analysis indicates that both traffic volume and accident frequency are high at the juncture of arterial/local facilities. When arterial/local intersections are compared with local/local intersections, the former experience three times the volume and 4.3 times the accident frequency of the latter; the former is 37 percent more dangerous in terms of volume per accident. The arterial/local intersections have the highest volume and accident rate. Arterial/arterial intersections are the least hazardous with a 386.09 ratio of volume per accident.

4.2.6 Severity Adjustment

Injury and fatal accidents have been converted into the simple frequency of PDO (property damage only) type accidents or EPDO (equivalent-property-damage-only) accidents. The National Safety Council (NSC) classification uses:

$$\text{EPDO} = 9.5(\text{F} + \text{A}) + 3.5(\text{B} + \text{C}) + \text{PDO} \quad (4.6)$$

where the letters indicate F for fatal, A, B, and C-type injury accidents.

New York State Department of Transportation defines the injury classes A as: severe lacerations, broken or distorted limbs, skull fractures, crushed chest, internal injuries, unconscious when taken from accident scene, unable to leave accident scene without assistance; B as: Limp or head abrasions or minor lacerations, and C as: momentary unconsciousness, limping, nausea, hysteria, complaint of pain but no visible injury. Injury-No Class in this study means unidentified injury class.

Non-reportable accidents are the incidents without police reports or those with damage estimates below \$1,000. Non-reportable comprise approximately 20 percent of the total frequency. Non-reportable also include any property damage only (PDO) accidents reported through police, without estimate of damage. The Traffic Record Bureau of the New York State Department of Motor Vehicles waits 30 days after the date of an accident for the motorist's report or an estimate from any involved insurance company to match with the police report. As shown in the attached pages, non-reportable accidents have a date of accident occurrence and a Department of Motor Vehicles (DMV) case number.

Table 4.12 presents the logic behind the proposed severity factor developed for the project's safety index.

Table 4.12 Preliminary Accident Cost Per Accident Class

Abbreviation	Accident Class	Average Cost	Relative Weight
NR	Non-Reportable	700	1
PD	Property Damage	2,975	4
IC	Injury-Class C	53,000	76
IB	Injury-Class B	212,000	303
IA	Injury-Class A	850,000	1214
FA	Fatal Accident	1,910,000	2729
IN*	Injury-No Class	154,785	221

Each accident is multiplied by its relative weight (RW) and summed for a single total result. The natural log of the total yields the actual severity factor. A general chart is utilized to determine its level of severity. For example: 0.0 to 3.0 = acceptable, 3.0 to 6.0 = not severe, 6.0 to 9.0 = severe, and 9.0 & up = most severe. The severity rating will be further developed through computer processing of CLASS data, under different categories of Accident Type, Type of Collision, and Roadway Class.

4.2.7 Accident Frequency Factor and Severity

The relationship between the severity and accident frequency has been investigated. Table 4.13 shows the accident frequency against accident severity.

Table 4.13 Accident Frequency Per Accident Severity

Accident Severity	Accumulated Accident Frequency	Percentage
X0 (Fatal Accident)	11	0.07
X1 (Injury - A Class)	455	3.04
X2 (Injury - B Class)	762	5.10
X3 (Injury - C Class)	2512	16.80
X0_1 (Property Damage)	1094	7.32
X0_2 (Non-Reportable)	10114	67.66

The formula for accident severity is:

$$SF = \text{Ln} (X0 * 2729 + X1 * 1214 + X2 * 303 + X3 * 76 + 4 * X0_1 + X0_2) \quad (4.7)$$

Since the formula reflects accident frequency, the frequency has been adjusted by assigning a certain weight. As shown in the above table, non-reportable accidents are 67.66 percent, while fatal accidents are only 0.07 percent of the total fatal accident is, therefore, assigned the weight of 2,729 against a non-reportable accident.

The accident severity and accident frequency resulted in higher correlations, as shown in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14 Accident Severity Correlations

Accident Severity	Correlation Coefficient	Determination Coefficient	Error
X0 + X1	0.67138	0.4507	1.09
X2	0.59030	0.3484	1.46
X3	0.60034	0.3604	0.98
X0_1	0.51387	0.2640	0.91
X0_2	0.52117	0.2716	

4.2.8 Speed Variance and Taxi Involvement

Most accidents result from a combination of several contributing factors, such as unsafe human behavior, roadway condition, vehicular malfunction, and so on. Nationwide, about 80 percent of the total accidents were attributed to human behavior, roughly 15 percent to environmental factors, and the remaining 5 percent to vehicular malfunction.

In Manhattan, during the three year period of 1989-1991, the apparent accident contributing factors are 45.6 percent human, 5.6 percent environmental, 4.7 percent vehicular, and 44.1 percent none or unspecified. Unsafe speed averaged 3.1 percent out of the total 45.6 percent of accidents caused by human factors. Although it is known that several speed characteristics may affect accident rates, the CLASS summary indicates that speeding is not a major contributing factor in traffic accidents in Manhattan's grid system. According to New York City Department of Transportation's field speed survey, the combined avenue and street speed for the fall of 1993 was 6.5 mph. Speeds on avenues in Midtown Manhattan averaged 7.8 mph, and speeds on streets were 5.4 mph, which was lower than that of avenues. The actual approach speeds at intersections were observed to be stable, and the speed limit on the local roads in New York City is 30 mph.

The New York City taxi service has long a history, beginning 1907, and it plays an important role in paratransit, especially in Manhattan. As of 1989, 43,925 taxicabs were registered in New York City out of 2,015,629 total automobiles, or two percent of the total. New York City accidents involving taxis are roughly nine percent, and the proportion is considerably high compared to the number of registered vehicles. However, the higher proportion of taxi-involved accidents can be explained by higher VMT (vehicle miles traveled), or VIM (vehicle in motion) in comparison with automobiles. Since most cab

drivers shun the outer boroughs, yellow cabs cruise around Manhattan contributing about 50% of the VMT. Therefore, a separate variable of taxi involvement in accidents was not included in the analysis.

4.3 Pedestrian Factors

As pedestrian activity in the CBD area constitutes a substantial portion of urban transportation, conflicts between pedestrians and vehicles occur at nodes or intersections of urban areas. In 1991, 4,284 pedestrian accidents, 25 percent of total accidents, were reported in Manhattan. The proportion of pedestrian-involved accidents is 17 percent citywide, and the lowest is in the borough of Staten Island with six percent. Out of 4,284 pedestrian accidents, 65 were fatal and the rest were injury accidents, indicating the high severity of pedestrian accidents. Safety variables related with pedestrian accidents have been investigated to analyze the accident contributing factors such as traffic volume, crosswalk length, floor area of adjacent buildings of the study intersections, signal timing, and conflict points.

4.3.1 Pedestrian Accident and Traffic Volume

During the three year period, the number of average pedestrian accidents at the 202 study intersections was 5.8, and there were 26 (12%) locations without any pedestrian accidents. Table 4.15 compares pedestrian accidents with traffic volume.

Table 4.15 Pedestrian Accident and Traffic Volume

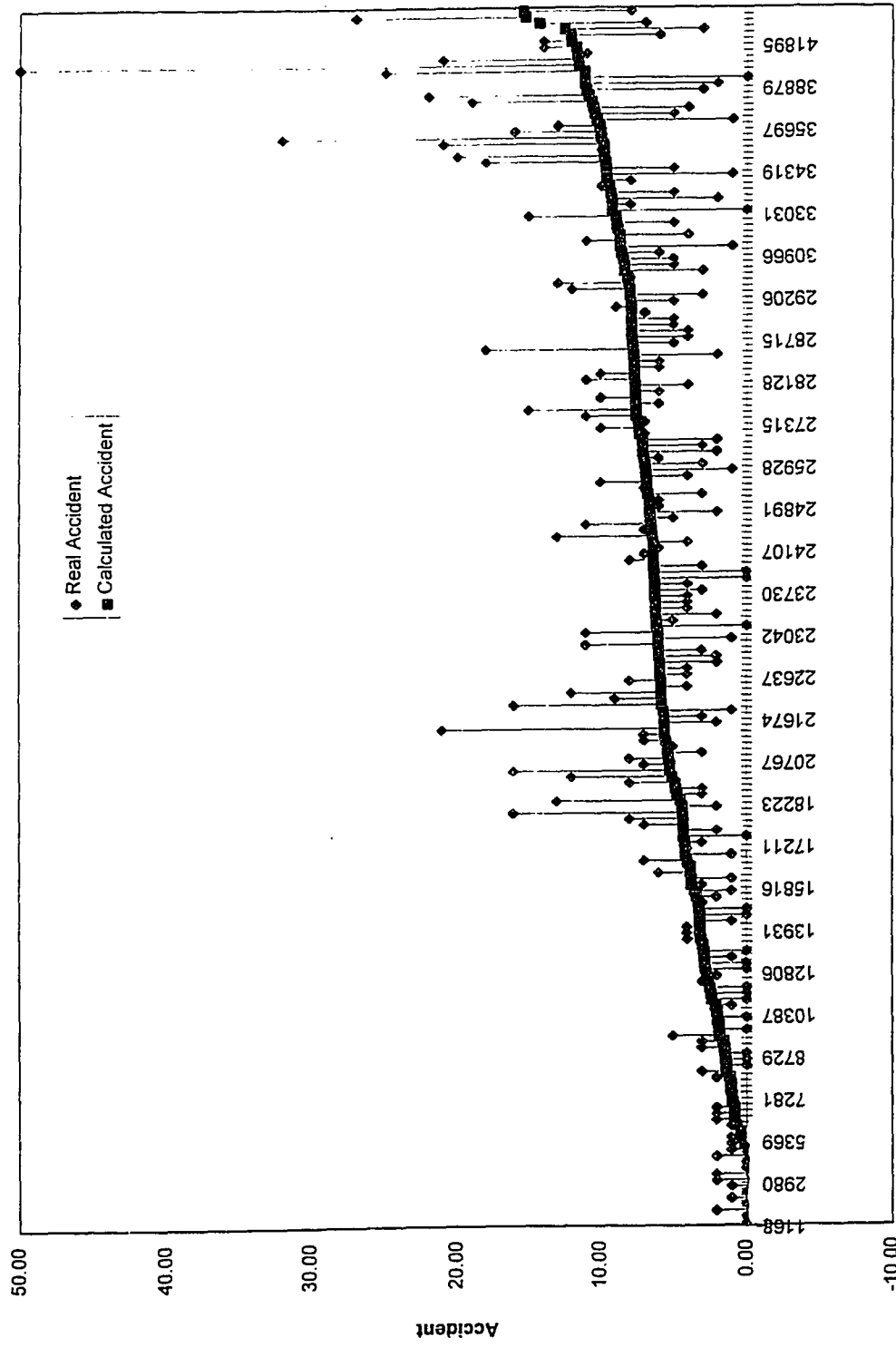
Pedestrian Accident	Traffic Volume	# of Locations
0	12655	26
1	14240	22
2	16315	24
3	21351	22
4	23209	19
5-9	27229	49
10-14	28990	22
15-20	28474	9
20-over	37327	31

The correlation between pedestrian accidents and traffic volume is considerably high (0.53361), and the relationship is also shown in Figure 4.8. As Table 4.16 indicates, pedestrian accidents increase with traffic volume, and the type of intersection control does not significantly affect pedestrian safety.

Table 4.16 Pedestrian Accident and Type of Control

Type of Control	Traffic Volume	Pedestrian Accident (Avg.)	Number of Locations
Signal Control	25588	6.7	167
Stop Control	6729	1.22	35

Based on the accident data at 202 sample intersections, 20 intersections with high pedestrian accidents were selected for an in-depth analysis. Table 4.17 summarizes the pedestrian accidents and traffic data at those 20 intersections. The curve fitting analysis has



Traffic Volume

Figure 4.8 Traffic Volume and Pedestrian Accident

been used to find an adequate exposure measure for traffic volume and percentage of turning vehicles. Different exposure measures and their correlations are shown in Table 4.18.

Table 4.17 Traffic Data and Pedestrian Accident at Sample Intersections

Intersection No.	Ped. Volume	Vehicle Volume	Left Turn Vehicle	Thru Vehicle	Right Turn Vehicle	Ped. Accident
8	121	210	53	157	0	19
12	312	210	40	170	0	14
15	113	629	44	457	128	16
21	221	533	37	436	60	18
33	275	451	42	355	54	21
35	1409	335	0	330	5	27
44	419	410	0	303	107	14
47	905	409	0	402	7	21
51	178	365	39	283	43	25
54	250	435	23	361	51	32
57	243	482	0	428	54	21
59	336	532	29	462	41	50
72	185	184	64	120	0	16
73	201	214	0	194	20	20
100	89	272	63	190	19	22
118	44	223	78	113	32	16
126	282	223	36	151	36	15
134	702	108	13	85	10	18
157	173	420	56	302	62	15
177	96	130	28	85	17	16

Table 4.18 Pedestrian Accident and PV Factor

Exposure Measure	Correlation Coefficient	Determination Coefficient
Pedestrian Volume	0.18983	0.0360
Vehicle Volume	0.37247	0.13873
Ped*Veh/Turn	0.18032	0.03251
Ped*Veh	0.33245	0.11052
Veh/Ped	-0.10264	0.01053

Vehicle volume shows the best relationship among the exposure measures reviewed. The number of accidents increases as vehicle volume increases, and the multiplication of pedestrian volume by vehicle volume shows a high correlation as well. An equation to estimate the safety at intersection can be derived as follows:

$$\text{Accident Rate} = \frac{\text{Number of Acc.} \times 10^8}{\text{Exposure Measure}} \quad (4.8)$$

From Table 4.18, three different exposure measures have been selected to analyze a relationship with pedestrian accidents, and the result of the curve fitting analysis is shown in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19 Pedestrian Accident Rate

Accident Rate	Exposure Type	Correlation Coefficient	Determination Coefficient
1	Veh. Vol.	0.17419	0.0303
2	P x V	-0.15260	0.02328
3	P*V/Turns	-0.21952	0.048

The accident rate using P*V/Turns shows a better correlation than that using a pedestrian factor, vehicle factor, or PV factor. This means that the number of turning vehicles contributes more significantly to accident frequency. As a result, intersections with lower vehicle and pedestrian volume and higher proportion of turning vehicles generates a higher accident rate.

Table 4.19 shows that accident rates can be better determined by a matrix of variables. For example, accident rates are low at intersections 33, 44, 47, and 57, where the PV factor is comparatively high but the proportion of turning vehicles is low. At intersection 118, the multiplication of pedestrian and vehicle volume, PV factor, is low (9812), but the ratio of turning vehicles is high (97%), resulting in the highest accident rate. Due to difficulties in representing pedestrian activities, other pedestrian data such as pedestrian level of service, crosswalk marking conditions, and existence of mass transit facilities were not incorporated in the analysis.

4.3.2 Pedestrian Accident and Crosswalk Size

The analysis on pedestrian accident and crosswalk dimension investigates the influence of length of crosswalk on pedestrian accidents. As safety variables, the crosswalk lengths both at major and minor approaches are analyzed. Table 4.20 contains the curve fitting curve analysis on the correlations of pedestrian accident and crosswalk length.

Table 4.20 Pedestrian Accident and Crosswalk Size

Crosswalk Dimension	Correlation Coefficient	Determination Coefficient	Error
W1/W2	- 0.10463	0.010947	1.46
W1+W2	0.37446	0.140221	0.91

W1: the longest crosswalk, W2: longer crosswalk adjacent to W1

The above table indicates that the ratio of W1 (longest crosswalk) over W2 (longer crosswalk adjacent to W1) resulted in a negative correlation confirming the assumption that longer crosswalks are more exposed to pedestrian accidents. Instead, the sum of W1 and W2 shows a high correlation of 0.37446. However, the accident frequency decreases at intersections where crosswalk size is longer than 150, as shown in Figure 4.9.

4.3.3 Floor Area and Signal Timing

The total floor area of adjacent buildings to the study intersections has been investigated, to evaluate the concept that a pedestrian trip generation rate is a factor in accidents. The result of curve fitting analysis indicates that the correlation coefficient (-0.01362) and determination coefficient (0.00018) are too low to allow the variables to be included in the model.

The proportion of signal timing is an important environmental factor for pedestrian safety, generally dependent on crosswalk size. According to the curve fitting analysis, the correlation coefficient is - 0.35246. As shown in Figure 4.10, the number of pedestrian accidents decreases as signal timing increases at wider crosswalks. For example, the average crosswalk size is 86 feet at intersections with 35 seconds of pedestrian crossing time. This is the lowest proportion of pedestrian crossing time at the 202 study intersections. Technically, pedestrians should have enough time to complete the crossing at one time at the speed of 2.45 fps. However, the accident data indicate that these locations are more exposed to pedestrian hazards.

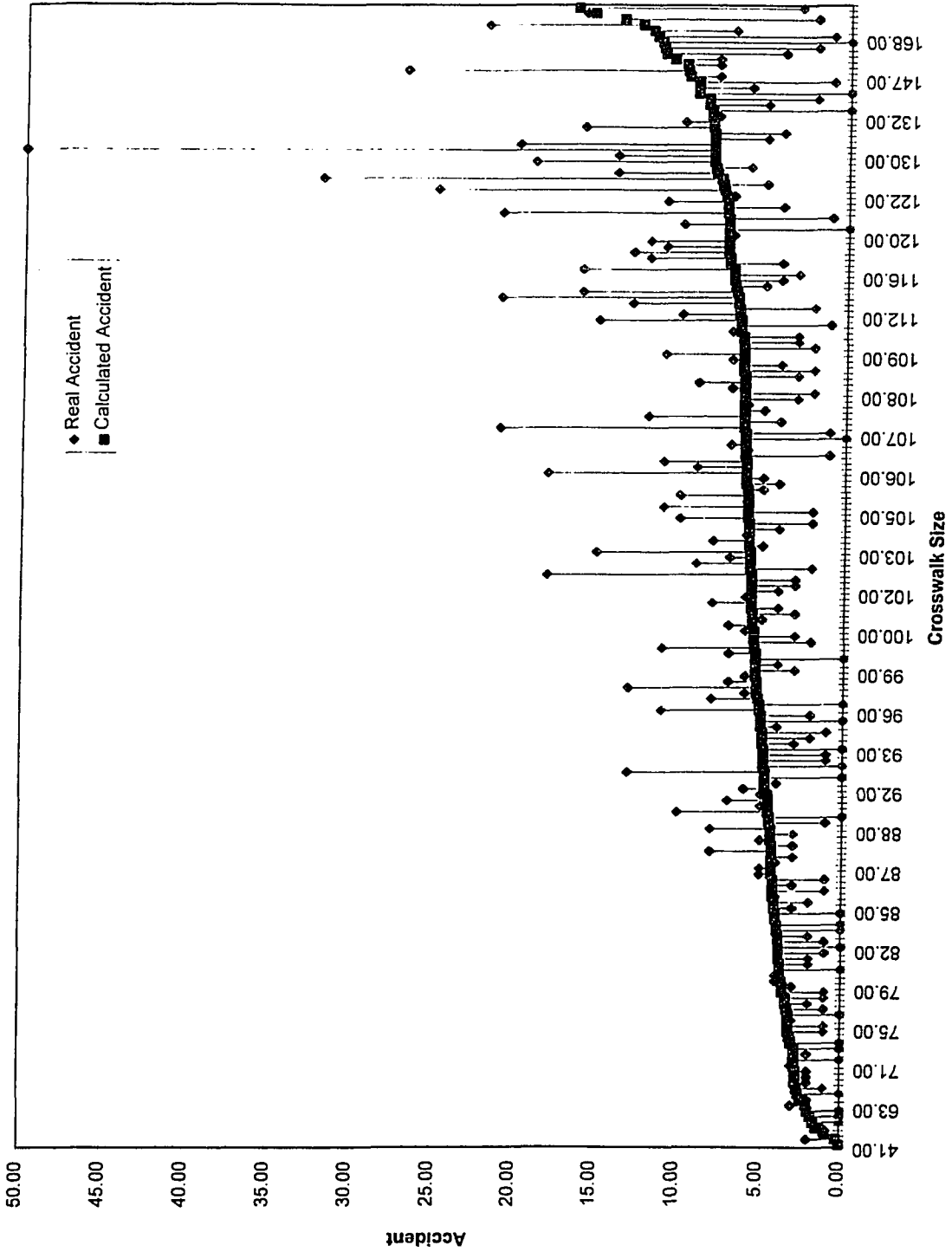


Figure 4.9 Pedestrian Accident and Crosswalk Dimension (W1 + W2)

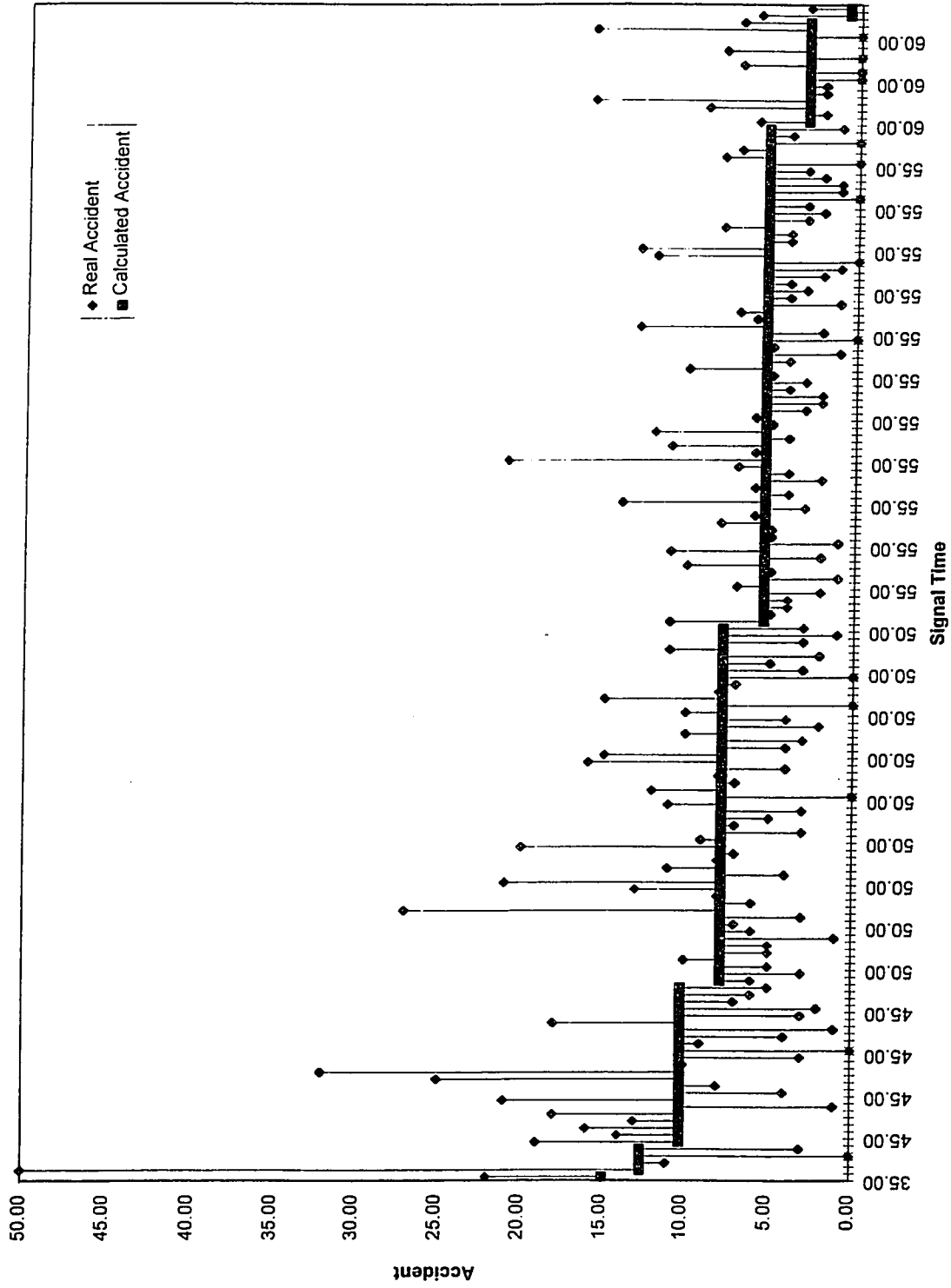


Figure 4.10 Pedestrian Accident and Signal Timing

4.3.4 Pedestrian Accident and Conflicts Points

The traffic conflicts technique (TCT) has been applied to estimate the relationship between traffic conflicts and pedestrian accidents. The frequency of pedestrian accidents correlates to some extent with the number of conflicts. However, as shown in Table 4.21 and Figure 4.11, the average accident frequency decreases as the number of conflicts gets beyond to 12. Between conflict points 6 and 8, traffic volume and the number of pedestrian accidents decrease, although crosswalk dimension increases gradually. Consequently, the relationship between pedestrian accidents and conflict points need to be analyzed in a more comprehensive way to include other factors such as traffic volume or crosswalk dimension.

Table 4.21 Pedestrian Accident and Conflict Points

Conflict	Average Accident	Crosswalk Dimension	Traffic Volume	# of Location
< 4	1.1818	65.54	7148	11
< 6	4.22	93.97	20827	100
< 8	3.75	100.60	17496	33
< 10	11.18	118.79	29875	34
< 12	13.66	121.44	33102	9
>= 12	7.47	156.73	30425	15

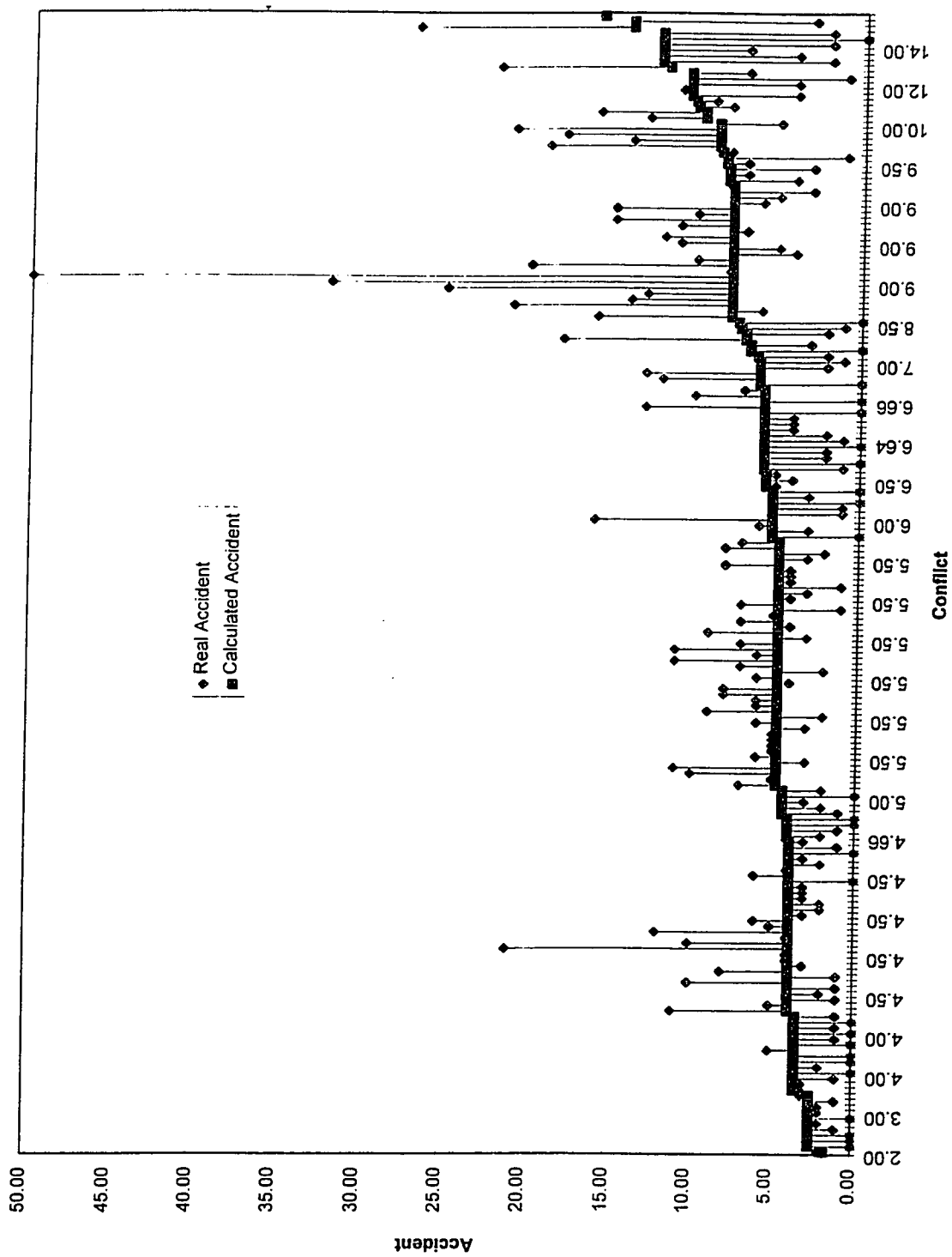


Figure 4.11 Pedestrian Accident and Traffic Conflict

CHAPTER V

DEVELOPMENT OF TRAFFIC SAFETY INDEX

5.1 Introduction

The final stage of this project is to create a user-friendly software program, which provides a safety index rating to illustrate the relative hazardousness for Manhattan intersections. CASIUS is an acronym for Computer-Aided Safety Index for Urban Streets. This computer program consists of a database module and an analysis module. The analysis module identifies locations with safety problems based on composite factors which consist of accident severity and accident frequency.

An existing similar computer program is Highway Safety Analysis & Monitoring (HISAM), developed by Harkey et al. in 1987, sponsored by USDOT's Federal Highway Administration (FHWA). Currently, the program is not widely used, and its major drawback is that the outcome of the calculation does not represent an evaluation of the study location's safety. The converted Equivalent Property Damage Only (EPDO) numbers do not provide any meaningful conclusion due to the lack of comparison of results with other study locations.

5.2 CASIUS Logic

The logic behind the CASIUS severity factor index development is presented in Tables 5.1 and 5.2. The average percentage of injury accidents for each class developed in Table 5.2 is used in CASIUS.

Table 5.1 Accident Cost Per Accident Class

Abbreviation	Accident Class	Average Cost	Relative Weight
NR	Non-Reportable	700	1
PD	Property Damage	2975	4
IC	Injury-Class C	53000	76
IB	Injury-Class B	212000	303
IA	Injury-Class A	850000	1214
FA	Fatal Accident	1910000	2729
IN	Injury-No Class	154785	221

Table 5.2 Injury Accident Class Statistics

YEAR	TOTAL	A	B	C
1989	116308	11285	22137	82886
1990	112245	11273	21731	89241
1991	118964	10466	20209	88289
TOTALS	357517	33024	64077	260416
AVERAGE	119172	11008	21359	86805
PERCENT	100%	9.2%	17.9%	72.9%

Each accident is multiplied by its relative weight (RW) and summed so that a single total results for the location under review. The natural log (Ln) of the total yields the actual

severity factor. The procedure is demonstrated with examples in Table 5.3. To determine the severity level, the severity factor chart of Table 5.4 is used. Various levels of severity can be determined primarily from the relative weights assigned to each accident class. For example, one can assume that combinations of non-reportable and property damage only accidents should indicate little or no severity. Likewise, if only one Class C injury accident was included, then the severity should rise to the next level. Continuing with this logic, the next severity level would require only one Class B injury accidents added to the previous level and so on to the highest level attainable.

Table 5.3 Examples on Determining Relative Weight and Severity Factor

ACCIDENTS						
TOTAL	FA	IA	IB	IC	PD	NR
1. Boro: Manhattan, Intersection: Park Avenue at 33rd Street (3 year average)						
65	0	3	25	12	4	21
Relative Weight = 12,166;			Severity Factor = 9.4 (highest)			
2. Boro: Manhattan, Intersection: Park Avenue at 40th Street (3 year average)						
29	0	1	3	9	1	15
Relative Weight = 2,826;			Severity Factor = 7.9 (medium/high)			
3. Boro: Queens, Intersection: Cross Bay Blvd at S. Conduit Ave (1990 reports)						
31	0	IN = 10			4	17
Relative Weight = 2,243;			Severity Factor = 7.7 (medium)			
4. Boro: Queens, Intersection: Woodside Ave at 37th Ave (1990 reports)						
9	0	IN = 3			1	5
Relative Weight = 672;			Severity Factor = 6.5 (low)			

Table 5.4 Severity Factor Chart

SEVERITY FACTOR [Ln (RW)]	DESCRIPTION SEVERITY LEVEL	RELATIVE WEIGHT (RW)
0.0 TO 3.0	NONE/NO SEVERITY	0 TO 20
3.0 TO 6.0	LOWEST SEVERITY	20 TO 400
6.0 TO 7.0	LOW SEVERITY	400 TO 1100
7.0 TO 8.0	MEDIUM SEVERITY	1100 TO 3000
8.0 TO 9.0	HIGH SEVERITY	3000 TO 8100
9.0 TO 9.9	HIGHEST SEVERITY	8100 TO 20000

Table 5.5 presents the logic behind the development of an intersection type factor which is a part of the CASIUS safety index development. It can be postulated that as a location becomes a more complex form, driver error and hence accident experience will increase. For example, a road link (assume all AASHTO design criteria are met), should experience fewer accidents than a "T" intersection, while a four-way intersection should experience a higher number of incidents than a "T", and so on. If it is assumed that under perfect conditions, this relation is due solely to potential conflict points, then the number of conflict points should fairly reflect the change in complexity (and possibly accident experience) at a locations.

Table 5.5 Conflict Points Per Lane-Movement

MOVEMENT	NO. OF CONFLICTS
LEFT TURN	3
STRAIGHT	2
RIGHT TURN	1

- Notes: A. Two-way link has 2 conflict points/lane
- B. One-way link has 1 conflict point/lane
- C. At intersections, add individual movements and multiply by table factor and lanes.

Given the above assumptions, conflict point analysis yielded the most efficient method of determining the number of conflict points (CP) for a given location type. Some typical examples of intersection conflict points are presented in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 Typical Intersection Examples

Direction of Travel (DT)	Right (R)	Through (T)	Left (L)	Conflict Points (CPs)
Northbound	1	1	1	6
Southbound	1	1	1	6
Eastbound	1	1	1	6
Westbound	1	1	1	6
TOTAL				24

NB = 2-way, SB = 2-way, EB = 2-way, WB = 2-way

Table 5.6 (Continued)

DT	R	T	L	CPs
NB	1	1	1	6
SB	-	-	-	0
EB	-	1	1	5
WB	1	1	-	3
TOTAL				14

NB = 1-way, SB = n/a, EB = 2-way, WB = 2-way

DT	R	T	L	CPs
NB	1	1	-	3
SB	-	-	-	0
EB	-	1	1	5
WB	-	-	-	0
TOTAL				8

NB = 1-way, SB = n/a, EB = 1-way, WB = n/a

Non-reportable (NR) and property damage (PD) accident classes carry little weight in determining the severity factor. Yet they account for almost 70% of the total accidents in New York City. One of the primary purposes of the CASIUS safety index is to provide a tool to reduce accidents, regardless of class, type or location.

The accident frequency factor helps recognize the importance of the non-reportable and property damage accidents classes as indicators of unsafe conditions at specific locations. This factor ensures a proper safety evaluation where the accident experience is predominated by these two classes.

The preliminary basis for this factor are: percentage of total accidents which fall into these two classes, a minimum level of accidents, and the prevalence of certain accident types. The overriding purpose is to determine if the potential for more serious accidents exist.

An investigation of the overall average percentage of non reportable and property damage versus total accidents was conducted to get a sense of the normal range of expectation. This was joined by a similar review of average total accident experience. Then, a detailed analysis of accident types and their tendency towards certain levels of severity was integrated to form the basis of the accident frequency factor.

5.3 Application of CASIUS Program

The subject of this dissertation is unique for it deals with an urban area with complex traffic environments where pedestrian factors prevail. The CASIUS program, as an end result of the project, is a comprehensive safety analysis tool which includes possible accident variables at study locations. This user-friendly computer program provides a location-specific accident frequency factor to reflect the safety environment of the intersection.

The required input variables include roadway type, traffic volume at the designated intersection, signal timing, conflict points, and crosswalk size. These five variables can be converted into a multiple curve fitting equation to produce an expected number of accidents and frequency factor. The multiple curve fitting equations are as following:

$$\sum X1 = aN + b\sum X2 + c\sum X3 + d\sum X4 + e\sum X5 \quad (5.1)$$

$$\sum X1X2 = a\sum X2 + b\sum X2X2 + c\sum X2X3 + d\sum X2X4 + e\sum X2X5 \quad (5.2)$$

$$\sum X1X3 = a\sum X3 + b\sum X3X2 + c\sum X3X3 + d\sum X3X4 + e\sum X3X5 \quad (5.3)$$

$$\sum X1X4 = a\sum X4 + b\sum X4X2 + c\sum X4X3 + d\sum X4X4 + e\sum X4X5 \quad (5.4)$$

$$\sum X1X5 = a\sum X5 + b\sum X5X2 + c\sum X5X3 + d\sum X5X4 + e\sum X5X5 \quad (5.5)$$

Where,

X1: number of accidents

X2: roadway type (arterial/arterial, arterial/local, local/local)

X3: conflict point (refer to Tables 5.5 and 5.6)

X4: signal timing (green time for the approach - sec.)

X5: crosswalk size (feet)

N: total intersections

The value of a, b, c, d, and e can be obtained by solving equations 5.1 to 5.5. The final linear equation to produce an expected accident frequency X1 is:

$$X1 = a + bX2 + cX3 + dX4 + eX5 \quad (5.6)$$

A default value is assigned by CASIUS for unknown variables. For example, if number of accidents is unknown, the other four variables of conflict point, crosswalk size, signal timing, and roadway type are to be applied for the above equation. However, the roadway type is a required input variable. The equation for the 202 sample intersections is:

$$X1 = 5.6474 + -0.19763X2 + 0.21628 X3 + 2.15198 X4 + 0.0017X5 \quad (5.7)$$

A database file was made to accommodate the location data for the 202 study intersection, and Clipper 5 was used for programming. The end result of the study presents a good relationship between traffic volume and accident frequency. However, the roadway type does not show a strong relationship with the number of accidents. The CASIUS program has been applied to seven randomly-selected test locations, and the results are shown in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7 Application Results at Test Locations

Int.	Crosswalk	Conflict1 ^A			Conflict2 ^A			Daily	X1	FF ^C
		L	T	R	L	T	R	Volume	Accidnt ^B	
1	70:29	0	5	1	0	2	1	36753	79.82	7.31
2	70:29	1	3	0	0	3	1	32990	79.29	7.30
3	52:66	1	1	0	0	4	1	25624	57.20	6.75
4	31:26	0	2	1	1	2	1	7867	40.08	6.16
5	30:38	1	2	1	1	2	1	2021	29.05	5.62
6	45:30	0	2	1	1	5	0	7535	37.04	6.03
7	45:30	1	4	0	0	2	1	7484	34.81	5.92

^A Conflict points (see Tables 5.5 and 5.6)

^B Number of predicted accidents

^C Accident frequency factor

In Table 5.7, the second column (crosswalk) is the footage showing crosswalk length at the major and minor roadways. Conflict1 is the sum of conflict points on the major roadway and Conflict2 is that of the minor roadway. For example, for intersection 1 at Second Avenue and East 52nd Street in Manhattan, the main roadway (Second Avenue) has 5 through and one right turn lanes and the minor roadway (East 52nd Street) has 2 through and one right turn lanes. Left turns are prohibited on both approaches. Second Avenue is an arterial running north to south, and E. 52 Street is an one-way local street running east. The signal timing split for the intersection is 55 by 35 seconds, and the crosswalk distance or roadway width is 70 feet for the major and 29 feet for the minor roadway. The sum of automatic traffic recorder (ATR) volume (average daily traffic) is 36,753, and the number of predicted accidents was 79.82. The frequency factor obtained from the CASIUS program is 7.31. Test location two is the intersection of 2nd Avenue and E. 56 Street, with a traffic environment similar to location one, and produces a similar result of 79.29 accidents and a frequency factor of 7.30.

Location three is the intersection of 6th Avenue and 14th Street, where both roadway types are arterials. Sixth Avenue is a four-lane one way arterial running south, and 14th Street is a four-lane arterial running east and west, with two lanes in each direction. The number of accident at this intersection is predicted to be 57.20 and the frequency factor is 6.75. At Bleeker and Thompson Streets (location 4), the frequency factor is 6.16, which is similar to that of the previous intersection. However, the predicted accidents were 40.08, and this an unsignalized juncture of two local streets. Intersection 5, Bradhurst Avenue and W.

151 Street is also a juncture of two local streets and has the smallest number of accidents and frequency factor among all of test locations. Intersection 6, Dyckman and Payson Avenues, is a juncture of an arterial and a local street. However, the volume is considerably low (7,535) and the number of predicted accidents is 37.04. Location 7 is the intersection of Whitehall and Water Streets, where two local streets intersect. Traffic volume is 7,484, and the number of predicted accidents is 34.81. Overall, the accident rate is closely related to the size of traffic volume, but is reversely affected by the width of the roadway.

5.4 Function of the CASIUS PROGRAM

The program was prepared to calculate the expected number of accidents and frequency factor based on roadway type, traffic volume, conflict value, signal time, and crosswalk size. Regression analysis was employed to calculate the expected number of accidents.

1. Main Program

The main program takes input values from the user and stores them in ARRAY INVAL. ARRAY INVAL consists of INVAL(1)--traffic volume, INVAL(2)--conflict value, INVAL(3)--maximum signal time, and INVAL(4)--total length of crosswalk, INVAL(5) roadway type. The input for INVAL should be four variables. However, a variable could be omitted. In that case, its value will be calculated from the other available variables. For example, if variables of traffic volume, signal timing, and crosswalk size were provided as input to the program, expected conflict value would be calculated with given variables.

After all the required input variables are available, subroutine EXPECT_ACC is called which calculates the expected number of accident.

2. Functions

CHECKRTYPE: Checks if the roadway type (AA, AL, LL) input is correct.

CHECKNUL: Checks and returns the number of input variables.

DEFAULT 1 (ARY, RTYPE): If the input data were three variables, these would be input as processing function, and ARY and RTYPE as input variables. Checks if variables of ARY are null. Stores the returned value in WHICH. Copies ARY value to XVAL and XVAL2.

DEFAULT-2 (ARY, RTYPE): This function is used to predict missing values when two input variables are null.

DEFAULT-3: This function is used to predict missing value when one input variable is null.

WHICHNULL: Checks which value is null, within ARRAY.

WHICHNULLM: Checks which value in sequence is null, and returns ARRAY WHICH.

WHICHNOT: Checks which value in sequence is not null.

EXPECT-ACC: Calculates and returns expected number of accidents.

MULTI: Is used for DEFAULT 1,2,3, and produces the remaining variables based on the given parameters.

MULTI FUNCTION: Called with WHICH, XVAL, RTYPE. Using ARRAY RETVAL returned from MULTI, calculates the value which is passed as NULL($X = A + BX1 + CX2 + DX3$). Returns ARY.

SIGMA: Calculates summation of given ARRAYs.

$$\text{ARRAY}[1] + \text{ARRAY}[2] + \dots \text{ARRAY}[N] \quad (5.8)$$

MSIGMA: Calculates multiplication of given ARRAYs.

$$\text{ARRAY}[1] * \text{ARRAY}[2] * \dots \text{ARRAY}[N] \quad (5.9)$$

MYSIGMA: Multiplies the value of MULTI ARRAY with other given ARRAYs and returns the summation.

$$\text{ARRAY}[I,1] * Y[1] + \text{ARRAY}[I,2] * Y[2] + \dots \text{ARRAY}[I,N] * Y[N] \quad (5.10)$$

MATRIX: Multiplies two given MATRICES.

CHANGE: Exchanges the values in two given ARRAYs.

$$X[R1,i] \leftrightarrow X[R2,i] \quad (5.11)$$

CHANGEPM: Returns the field value which matches the given variable.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Summary

The objective of this study was to develop a methodology for measuring intersection safety performance in Manhattan. The major product of the study is a Computer-Aided Safety Index for Urban Streets (CASIUS) program. With the required input variables of roadway type, traffic volume, signal timing, conflict points, and crosswalk size, the safety performance of the subject intersection can be determined. A comprehensive literature search was conducted by both a manual and National Safety Council (NSC) library database search of pertinent highway safety related literature published since 1965. The literature review was composed of three major categories: 1) safety evaluation method, 2) pedestrian safety, and 3) accident cost. The main findings from the literature search was that most traffic safety studies deal with very wide regional safety or location/corridor-specific issues. Also found from the literature review was that most pedestrian studies focus on analysis of accident data, rather than pedestrian accident parameters or pedestrian trip generation exposures. As for accident cost, it was evident that any standard or uniform cost data were non-existent because of the differences between the concepts of economic cost, and value concept.

Data were collected and contributing factors to accidents were analyzed. Accident experience, vehicle counts, and inventories of intersections were quantified for 202 study intersections. The analyses of contributing factors included the parameters of; vehicle volume, traffic conflict point, signal timing, crosswalk dimension, roadway type, severity factor, and speed variance. With the above safety variables applied, pedestrian accidents were reviewed as an independent category.

The CASIUS user-friendly software program was developed to provide safety evaluations of urban intersections. This computer program consists of a database module and an analysis module and identifies locations with safety problems based on accident severity and frequency. The required input variables include roadway type, traffic volume at the designated intersection, signal timing, conflict points, and crosswalk size.

6.2 Conclusions

The computer program identified a close relationship between location hazardousness, roadway capacity, and traffic volume. The roadway capacity is a static analysis, and the actual demand of traffic volume is a dynamic analysis. The frequency factor includes a scale of 0 to 10.

6.3 Transferability of the Model

The CASIUS program, as a comparative tool for analyzing traffic safety, can be applied to other geographical locations as well. For example, the model could be applied to Chicago. However, a model calibration will have to be performed based on local data. Since it is mandatory for all local governments to maintain an accident database, the areawide data could be obtained, arrayed in the required format, and incorporated in the model. Similarly, other required data such as roadway type, traffic volumes, signal timings, etc. could be obtained from the responsible offices or the local traffic agencies. Next, the CASIUS program can be adjusted according to the size and characteristics of the subject study area.

6.4 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

The project, a new and meaningful approach in the creation of an areawide safety index, may be limited in its ability to make safety predictions for Manhattan intersections. The 202 study intersections could be a biased sample because these are locations which were previously investigated and are likely to be affected by external factors more than randomly selected intersections.

Secondly, the accident-contributing factors such as the traffic conflict and or vehicle maneuvers, or the combination with traffic volume, are not very well represented in the computer program. Against its initial approach and analysis, the project could not include sufficiently all the factors associated with pedestrian exposure and involvement. Finally, the efficiency of the multiplication factor of accident and pedestrian severity is not well validated.

Currently, the transportation agencies of many local governments do not have a good access to general accident data of state governments. Henceforth, the existing accident data from State governments need to be either connected to local transportation agencies through on-line systems or periodically updated to optical drives. The CASIUS program needs to be further development to accommodate the accident characteristics of the local area. In that case, both groups of study intersections and total population of intersections can be compared with each other, through the scaling of the area total accident rate.

A computerized safety program is recommended for future development, which will be able to produce intersection simulations for safety and present an hourly variation of traffic demand of intersections.

APPENDIX A

NEW YORK STATE CLASS ACCIDENT DATA

STATE OF NEW YORK DEPARTMENT OF MOTOR VEHICLES
SUMMARY OF MOTOR VEHICLE ACCIDENTS

NEW YORK COUNTY

JAN-DEC, 1989

00001

TABLE 1 ACCIDENT SUMMARY TOTALS

CATEGORY	CURRENT YEAR REPORTING PER.		LAST YEAR SAME PERIOD		CATEGORY	CURRENT YEAR REPORTING PER.		LAST YEAR SAME PERIOD	
	ALL ACC.	POLICE REPORTD	ALL ACC.	POLICE REPORTD		ALL ACC.	POLICE REPORTD	ALL ACC.	POLICE REPORTD
TOTALS	22953	17139	23264	17217	TOTALS	112	112	104	104
TOTAL ACCIDENTS	15731	12100	15700	12100	PERSONS KILLED(3)	9	9	9	9
FATAL ACCIDENTS(1)	15731	12100	15700	12100	PERSONS KILLED	73	73	70	70
REPORTABLE PROP DAMAGE	8215	6365	8215	6365	PEDESTRIANS KILLED	2107	2107	2082	2082
OTHERS INVOLVED(2)	17372	13039	17564	13039	PERSONS INJURED(1)	4098	4098	4098	4098
VEHICLE/MOTOR VEH ACC	2092	1594	2092	1594	PEDESTRIANS INJURED(1)	4098	4098	4098	4098
PEDESTRIAN ACCIDENTS	1095	817	1095	817	PEDESTRIANS INJURED(1)	1098	1098	1178	1178
BICYCLE/MOTOR VEH ACC	1095	817	1095	817	PEDESTRIANS INJURED(1)	1098	1098	1178	1178
VEHICLE OCCUPANTS	5812	4375	5976	4375	BICYCLISTS INJURED(1)	1098	1098	1178	1178

1. EXCLUDES FATALS.
2. DOES NOT INCLUDE PARKED VEHICLES OR BICYCLES.
3. INCLUDES PEDESTRIANS, BICYCLISTS AND ALL OTHER NON-VEHICLE INVOLVED PERSONS AS WELL AS VEHICLE OCCUPANTS REGARDLESS OF SEATING POSITION.
4. DATA GATHERED ONLY FROM POLICE REPORTED ACCIDENTS.

NOTE: SOME OF THE TABLES ARE BASED UPON INFORMATION RECEIVED FROM POLICE AND MOTORIST REPORTS OF MOTOR VEHICLE ACCIDENTS AND OTHERS ARE BASED ON THE POLICE REPORTS. THESE ARE INDICATED BY AN "X" IN THE TABLES.
DATA ON NON-REPORTABLE ACCIDENTS ARE NOT INCLUDED UNLESS SPECIFICALLY INDICATED.
THE TERM "VEHICLE" ALWAYS EXCLUDES BICYCLES. THE TERM "DRIVER" ALWAYS EXCLUDES BICYCLISTS. PERCENTS MAY NOT TOTAL 100.0 DUE TO ROUNDING.

TABLE 2 STATEWIDE STATISTICS

STATEWIDE STATISTICS	THIS PERIOD	LAST YEAR SAME PER	PERCENT CHANGE
MOTOR VEHICLE DEATHS	2263	2237	1.16
DEATH RATE/100 M.V. VEH MI	2.13	2.16	-1.39
FATAL RATE/100 M.V. VEH MI	1.33	1.38	-1.01
DEATH RATE/100,000 POP	24.56	23.28	5.88
INJURY RATE/100,000 POP	1580.99	1620.12	1.27

RATES PER 100,000 POPULATION ARE BASED ON OFFICIAL UPDATED ESTIMATES OF THE NYS DEPT OF COMMERCE, 3/06/83.

TABLE 23 PEDESTRIAN ACCIDENTS BY TIME OF DAY

DAY	PEDESTRIAN ACCIDENTS BY TIME OF DAY							TOTAL	UNSPEC
	1-6AM	6-7	7-10	10-1PM	1-4	4-7	7-10		
TOTAL	5394	1097	620	699	32	645	133	1	
SUNDAY	177	177	177	177	177	177	177	177	
MONDAY	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	
TUESDAY	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	
WEDNESDAY	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	
THURSDAY	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	
FRIDAY	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	
SATURDAY	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	

TABLE 24 BICYCLE ACCIDENTS BY TIME OF DAY

DAY	BICYCLE ACCIDENTS BY TIME OF DAY							TOTAL	UNSPEC
	1-6AM	6-7	7-10	10-1PM	1-4	4-7	7-10		
TOTAL	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	
SUNDAY	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	
MONDAY	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	
TUESDAY	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	
WEDNESDAY	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	
THURSDAY	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	
FRIDAY	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	
SATURDAY	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	1097	

TABLE 25 DAY OF OCCURRENCE FOR TOTAL AND FATAL ACCIDENTS

HOUR AND DAY OF OCCURRENCE	DAY OF OCCURRENCE FOR TOTAL AND FATAL ACCIDENTS						
	SUNDAY	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY	SATURDAY
TOTAL FATAL ACC.	109	109	109	109	109	109	109
12 MIDNIGHT	109	109	109	109	109	109	109
12 NOON	109	109	109	109	109	109	109
1-6 AM	109	109	109	109	109	109	109
6-7 AM	109	109	109	109	109	109	109
7-10 AM	109	109	109	109	109	109	109
10-11 AM	109	109	109	109	109	109	109
11 AM	109	109	109	109	109	109	109
UNSPECIFIED	109	109	109	109	109	109	109

EFFECTIVE WITH SEPTEMBER 1, 1985 ACCIDENTS, THE PROPERTY DAMAGE REPORTING LEVEL WAS INCREASED FROM 400 DOLLARS TO 600 DOLLARS.

TABLE 3	WEATHER	TOTAL ACC.			SEVERITY CLASS OF ACC.			PROP DAH
		NUMBER	PCT.	FATAL	PERS INJ	PROP DAH		
TABLE 4	TOTAL	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	CLAY	177	9.5	17	160	113	721	
	COLE	177	9.5	17	160	113	721	
	FRANKLIN	362	19.5	36	326	230	1486	
	GREENE	286	15.4	29	257	182	1132	
	ROUSSEAU	202	10.9	21	181	130	826	
	SCHENECTADY	202	10.9	21	181	130	826	
	WARREN	202	10.9	21	181	130	826	
	WATERBURY	202	10.9	21	181	130	826	
	UNSPECIFIED	202	10.9	21	181	130	826	
TABLE 5	TOTAL	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
TABLE 6	TOTAL	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
TABLE 7	TOTAL	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
TABLE 8	TOTAL	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
TABLE 9 (P1)	TOTAL	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
TABLE 10 (P1)	TOTAL	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	
	ALBANY	1855	100.0	192	1323	933	6212	

TABLE 11: FIRST EVENT OF ACCIDENT

TABLE 12 A: MANNER AND MANNER OF COLLISION

TABLE 12 B: MANNER OF COLLISION (AT OR NOT AT INTER)

NOTE: TWO OR MORE VEHICLE ACCIDENTS INCLUDE PARKED CARS.

TABLE 1 ACCIDENT SUIMARY TOTALS

CATEGORY	CURRENT YEAR REPORTING PER. SAME PERIOD		LAST YEAR REPORTING PER. SAME PERIOD		CATEGORY TOTALS	
	ALL ACC.	POLICE REPORT	ALL ACC.	POLICE REPORT	ALL ACC.	POLICE REPORT
TOTAL ACCIDENTS	2307	1799	2210	1710	1189	1126
TOTAL FATALS	111	109	105	105	105	105
TOTAL PERSONS INVOLVED	11156	10929	10929	10929	10929	10929
TOTAL PERSONS KILLED	11	11	11	11	11	11
TOTAL PERSONS INJURED	11045	10918	10918	10918	10918	10918
TOTAL PERSONS WITH PROPERTY DAMAGE	11045	10918	10918	10918	10918	10918
TOTAL PERSONS INVOLVED IN ACCIDENTS	11156	10929	10929	10929	10929	10929
TOTAL PERSONS INVOLVED IN ACCIDENTS WITH PROPERTY DAMAGE	11045	10918	10918	10918	10918	10918
TOTAL PERSONS INVOLVED IN ACCIDENTS WITH PROPERTY DAMAGE AND PERSONS KILLED	11056	10929	10929	10929	10929	10929
TOTAL PERSONS INVOLVED IN ACCIDENTS WITH PROPERTY DAMAGE AND PERSONS KILLED AND INJURED	11067	10940	10940	10940	10940	10940

1 EXCLUDES FATALS PARKED
2 DOES NOT INCLUDE PARKED
3 INCLUDES PEDESTRIANS, BICYCLISTS AND ALL OTHER NON-VEHICLE INVOLVED PERSONS AS WELL AS VEHICLE OCCUPANTS REGARDLESS OF SEATING POSITION
4 DATA GATHERED ONLY FROM POLICE REPORTED ACCIDENTS

NOTE: SOME OF THE TABLES ARE BASED UPON INFORMATION RECEIVED FROM POLICE AND MOTORIST REPORTS OF MOTOR VEHICLE ACCIDENTS OTHERS ARE BASED ONLY BY A "POLICE REPORTS" THESE ARE INDICATED BY A "P" IN THE "POLICE REPORT" COLUMN.

DATA ON NON-REPORTABLE ACCIDENTS ARE NOT INCLUDED UNLESS SPECIFICALLY INDICATED

THE TERM "VEHICLES" ALWAYS EXCLUDES BICYCLES

PERCENTS MAY NOT TOTAL 100% DUE TO ROUNDING

STATEWIDE STATISTICS

STATEWIDE STATISTICS	THIS PERIOD	LAST YR. SAME PERIOD	PERCENT CHANGE
MOTOR VEHICLE DEATHS	211	263	-20.9%
DEATH RATE PER 100 MILES PER HOUR	2.11	2.63	-20.9%
FATAL RATE PER 100 MILES PER HOUR	2.11	2.63	-20.9%
INJURY RATE PER 100 MILES PER HOUR	10.9	10.9	0.0%
PROPERTY DAMAGE RATE PER 100 MILES PER HOUR	10.9	10.9	0.0%
PROPERTY DAMAGE RATE PER 100 MILES PER HOUR	10.9	10.9	0.0%

RATES PER 100,000 POPULATION ARE BASED ON OFFICIAL UPDATED ESTIMATES OF THE NYS DEPT OF COMMERCE. 3 04 83

TABLE 25 PEDESTRIAN ACCIDENTS BY TIME OF DAY

DAY	BICYCLE ACCIDENTS BY TIME OF DAY													
	TOTAL	1-4AM	4-7	7-10	10-1PM	1-4	4-7	7-10	10-1PM	1-4	4-7	7-10	10-1PM	UNSPEC
TOTAL	52	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
MONDAY	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
TUESDAY	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
WEDNESDAY	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
THURSDAY	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
FRIDAY	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
SATURDAY	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
SUNDAY	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

TABLE 26 DAY OF OCCURRENCE FOR TOTAL AND FATAL ACCIDENTS

HOUR AND DAY OF OCCURRENCE	DAY OF OCCURRENCE FOR TOTAL AND FATAL ACCIDENTS						
	SUNDAY	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY	SATURDAY
TOTAL ALL ACC.	2210	290	317	319	327	362	319
TOTAL FATALS	111	13	13	13	13	13	13
TOTAL PERSONS INVOLVED	11156	10929	10929	10929	10929	10929	10929
TOTAL PERSONS KILLED	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
TOTAL PERSONS INJURED	11045	10918	10918	10918	10918	10918	10918
TOTAL PERSONS WITH PROPERTY DAMAGE	11045	10918	10918	10918	10918	10918	10918
TOTAL PERSONS INVOLVED IN ACCIDENTS	11156	10929	10929	10929	10929	10929	10929
TOTAL PERSONS INVOLVED IN ACCIDENTS WITH PROPERTY DAMAGE	11045	10918	10918	10918	10918	10918	10918
TOTAL PERSONS INVOLVED IN ACCIDENTS WITH PROPERTY DAMAGE AND PERSONS KILLED	11056	10929	10929	10929	10929	10929	10929
TOTAL PERSONS INVOLVED IN ACCIDENTS WITH PROPERTY DAMAGE AND PERSONS KILLED AND INJURED	11067	10940	10940	10940	10940	10940	10940

EFFECTIVE WITH SEPTEMBER 1, 1985 ACCIDENTS. THE PROPERTY DAMAGE REPORTING LEVEL HAS INCREASED FROM 400 DOLLARS TO 600 DOLLARS

STATE OF NEW YORK DEPARTMENT OF MOTOR VEHICLES
 COUNTY: NEW YORK COUNTY
 DATE: JAN-DEC-1990

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TABLE 3 WEATHER			SEVERITY CLASS OF ACC			TOTAL ACC			FIRST EVENT OF ACCIDENT			TOTAL ACC			SEVERITY CLASS OF ACC		
			NUMBER	PCT	FATAL	PERS INJ	PROP DAM	NUMBER	PCT	FATAL	PERS INJ	PROP DAM	NUMBER	PCT	FATAL	PERS INJ	PROP DAM
TOTAL	UNSPECIFIED	UNSPECIFIED	2213	100.00	0	1111	\$925	2213	100.00	0	1111	\$925	2213	100.00	0	1111	\$925
			1397	62.71	0	671	\$537	1397	62.71	0	671	\$537	1397	62.71	0	671	\$537
			1000	45.23	0	500	\$400	1000	45.23	0	500	\$400	1000	45.23	0	500	\$400
			616	27.77	0	310	\$250	616	27.77	0	310	\$250	616	27.77	0	310	\$250
			60	2.71	0	30	\$24	60	2.71	0	30	\$24	60	2.71	0	30	\$24
			201	9.09	1	70	\$56	201	9.09	1	70	\$56	201	9.09	1	70	\$56
TOTAL	WET	WET	1239	55.98	1	615	\$495	1239	55.98	1	615	\$495	1239	55.98	1	615	\$495
			635	28.70	0	315	\$250	635	28.70	0	315	\$250	635	28.70	0	315	\$250
			404	18.19	0	200	\$160	404	18.19	0	200	\$160	404	18.19	0	200	\$160
			200	9.04	0	100	\$80	200	9.04	0	100	\$80	200	9.04	0	100	\$80
			200	9.04	0	100	\$80	200	9.04	0	100	\$80	200	9.04	0	100	\$80
TOTAL	OTHER	OTHER	1974	89.02	0	987	\$791	1974	89.02	0	987	\$791	1974	89.02	0	987	\$791
			1000	45.23	0	500	\$400	1000	45.23	0	500	\$400	1000	45.23	0	500	\$400
			974	43.77	0	487	\$387	974	43.77	0	487	\$387	974	43.77	0	487	\$387
			200	9.04	0	100	\$80	200	9.04	0	100	\$80	200	9.04	0	100	\$80
			200	9.04	0	100	\$80	200	9.04	0	100	\$80	200	9.04	0	100	\$80
TOTAL	UNSPECIFIED	UNSPECIFIED	2213	100.00	0	1111	\$925	2213	100.00	0	1111	\$925	2213	100.00	0	1111	\$925
			1397	62.71	0	671	\$537	1397	62.71	0	671	\$537	1397	62.71	0	671	\$537
			1000	45.23	0	500	\$400	1000	45.23	0	500	\$400	1000	45.23	0	500	\$400
			60	2.71	0	30	\$24	60	2.71	0	30	\$24	60	2.71	0	30	\$24
			201	9.09	1	70	\$56	201	9.09	1	70	\$56	201	9.09	1	70	\$56

* TWO OR MORE VEHICLE ACCIDENTS INCLUDE PARKED CARS

STATE OF NEW YORK DEPARTMENT OF MOTOR VEHICLES
SUMMARY OF MOTOR VEHICLE ACCIDENTS

NEW YORK COUNTY

JAN-DEC-1990

23101

TABLE 13 (P) A. NO. NONE, FACTOR OR MORE THAN ONE CONTRIBUTING FACTOR OCCUR	APPARENT ACCIDENT CONTRIBUTING FACTORS-			SEVERITY CLASS OF ACC			TOTAL NUMBER	TOTAL PCT	SEVERITY CLASS OF ACC FATAL	SEVERITY CLASS OF ACC PCT	SEVERITY CLASS OF ACC FATAL	SEVERITY CLASS OF ACC PERS INJ	TOTAL NUMBER	TOTAL PCT	SEVERITY CLASS OF ACC FATAL	SEVERITY CLASS OF ACC PERS INJ	
	APPARENT ACCIDENT CONTRIBUTING FACTORS-	NUMBER	PCT	FATAL	PERS INJ	PCT OF ACC											FATAL
TOTAL	220	100	12	32	146	66	220	100	12	32	146	66	220	100	12	32	146
VEHICLE	150	68	5	20	130	59	150	68	5	20	130	59	150	68	5	20	130
PEDESTRIAN	70	32	7	12	58	26	70	32	7	12	58	26	70	32	7	12	58
OTHER HUMAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VEHICLE OR PEDESTRIAN	20	9	1	2	18	8	20	9	1	2	18	8	20	9	1	2	18
VEHICLE OR PEDESTRIAN	130	59	5	18	112	51	130	59	5	18	112	51	130	59	5	18	112
OTHER HUMAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VEHICLE OR PEDESTRIAN	150	68	5	20	130	59	150	68	5	20	130	59	150	68	5	20	130
OTHER HUMAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VEHICLE	100	45	3	10	87	39	100	45	3	10	87	39	100	45	3	10	87
PEDESTRIAN	50	23	4	10	40	18	50	23	4	10	40	18	50	23	4	10	40
OTHER HUMAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VEHICLE OR PEDESTRIAN	20	9	1	2	18	8	20	9	1	2	18	8	20	9	1	2	18
OTHER HUMAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VEHICLE	130	59	5	18	112	51	130	59	5	18	112	51	130	59	5	18	112
PEDESTRIAN	40	18	2	5	33	15	40	18	2	5	33	15	40	18	2	5	33
OTHER HUMAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VEHICLE OR PEDESTRIAN	20	9	1	2	18	8	20	9	1	2	18	8	20	9	1	2	18
OTHER HUMAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VEHICLE	150	68	5	20	130	59	150	68	5	20	130	59	150	68	5	20	130
PEDESTRIAN	70	32	7	12	58	26	70	32	7	12	58	26	70	32	7	12	58
OTHER HUMAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VEHICLE OR PEDESTRIAN	20	9	1	2	18	8	20	9	1	2	18	8	20	9	1	2	18
OTHER HUMAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VEHICLE	130	59	5	18	112	51	130	59	5	18	112	51	130	59	5	18	112
PEDESTRIAN	40	18	2	5	33	15	40	18	2	5	33	15	40	18	2	5	33
OTHER HUMAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VEHICLE OR PEDESTRIAN	20	9	1	2	18	8	20	9	1	2	18	8	20	9	1	2	18
OTHER HUMAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VEHICLE	150	68	5	20	130	59	150	68	5	20	130	59	150	68	5	20	130
PEDESTRIAN	70	32	7	12	58	26	70	32	7	12	58	26	70	32	7	12	58
OTHER HUMAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VEHICLE OR PEDESTRIAN	20	9	1	2	18	8	20	9	1	2	18	8	20	9	1	2	18
OTHER HUMAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VEHICLE	130	59	5	18	112	51	130	59	5	18	112	51	130	59	5	18	112
PEDESTRIAN	40	18	2	5	33	15	40	18	2	5	33	15	40	18	2	5	33
OTHER HUMAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VEHICLE OR PEDESTRIAN	20	9	1	2	18	8	20	9	1	2	18	8	20	9	1	2	18
OTHER HUMAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VEHICLE	150	68	5	20	130	59	150	68	5	20	130	59	150	68	5	20	130
PEDESTRIAN	70	32	7	12	58	26	70	32	7	12	58	26	70	32	7	12	58
OTHER HUMAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VEHICLE OR PEDESTRIAN	20	9	1	2	18	8	20	9	1	2	18	8	20	9	1	2	18
OTHER HUMAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VEHICLE	130	59	5	18	112	51	130	59	5	18	112	51	130	59	5	18	112
PEDESTRIAN	40	18	2	5	33	15	40	18	2	5	33	15	40	18	2	5	33
OTHER HUMAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
VEHICLE OR PEDESTRIAN	20	9	1	2	18	8	20	9	1	2	18	8	20	9	1	2	18
OTHER HUMAN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

-BUS TAXI, OTHER FOR HIRE INCLUDES BUSES, TAXIS, AND LIVERY, RENTAL AND OTHER FOR HIRE VEHICLES, BUT EXCLUDES SCHOOL BUSES WHICH ARE LISTED SEPARATELY.

--MORE THAN 1 CONTRIBUTING PEDESTRIAN FACTOR PER ACCIDENT MAY OCCUR.

TABLE 19

FIRST EVENT OF ACCIDENT	AGE										SEX**		SEVERITY CL OF INJ			
	0-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65 AND OVER	UNSPEC	MALE	FEMALE	A	B	C
TOTAL INJURED OR ILL	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
TOTAL KILLED	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
TOTAL CASUALTIES	110	110	110	110	110	110	110	110	110	110	110	110	110	110	110	110
TOTAL KILLED OR ILL IN TRAFFIC	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
TOTAL UNSPECIFIED	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10

* INCLUDES UNSPECIFIED

TABLE 20

PEDESTRIAN LOCATION AND ACTIONS	TOT PEDESTRIANS KILLED OR INJ		AGE													SEX		SEV CLASS
	NUMBER	PCT	0-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65 AND OVER	UNSPEC	MALE	FEMALE	UNSPEC KILLED	INJ	
TOTAL PEDESTRIANS	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
TOTAL KILLED	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
TOTAL INJURED	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90	90
TOTAL UNSPECIFIED	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10

TABLE 21

PRE-ACCIDENT BICYCLE ACTION	TOT BICYCLISTS KILLED OR INJ	
	NUMBER	PCT
TOTAL BICYCLISTS	100	100
TOTAL KILLED	10	10
TOTAL INJURED	90	90
TOTAL UNSPECIFIED	10	10

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TABLE 22(P)
TOTAL DRIVERS INCLUDED (UNSPECIFIED SEX)
APPARENT DRIVER CONTRIBUTING FACTOR

CONTRIB FACTOR	NUMBER	PERCENT	TOTAL DRIVERS (INCL. UNSPECIFIED SEX) AGE	UNDER 18	18-20	21-24	25-39	40-59	60 AND OVER	PERCENT OF TOTAL DRIVERS
TOTAL DRIVERS	1000	100.0	1000	133	100	148	134	227	200	100.0
DRIVER CONTRIBUTING FACTOR	1000	100.0	1000	133	100	148	134	227	200	100.0

TABLE 22(F)
TOTAL DRIVERS INCLUDED (UNSPECIFIED SEX)
APPARENT DRIVER CONTRIBUTING FACTOR

CONTRIB FACTOR	NUMBER	PERCENT	TOTAL DRIVERS (INCL. UNSPECIFIED SEX) AGE	UNDER 18	18-20	21-24	25-39	40-59	60 AND OVER	PERCENT OF TOTAL DRIVERS
TOTAL DRIVERS	1000	100.0	1000	133	100	148	134	227	200	100.0
DRIVER CONTRIBUTING FACTOR	1000	100.0	1000	133	100	148	134	227	200	100.0

- SINCE THERE MAY BE NO CONTRIBUTING FACTOR OR MORE THAN ONE CONTRIBUTING FACTOR, PERCENTS MAY NOT TOTAL TO 100.0

TABLE 23(P)
TOTAL DRIVERS (INCL. UNSPECIFIED SEX)
VIOLATION CHARGED

VIOLATIONS	TOTAL DRIVERS (INCL. UNSPECIFIED SEX) AGE	UNDER 18	18-20	21-24	25-39	40-59	60 AND OVER	PERCENT OF TOTAL DRIVERS
TOTAL DRIVERS	3298	133	100	233	114	272	130	100.0
VIOLATIONS	3298	133	100	233	114	272	130	100.0

- SINCE THERE MAY BE NO VIOLATION OR MORE THAN ONE VIOLATION, PERCENTS MAY NOT TOTAL TO 100.0

TABLE 24
TOTAL DRIVERS (INCL. UNSPECIFIED SEX)
TIME OF DAY

TIME OF DAY	TOTAL DRIVERS (INCL. UNSPECIFIED SEX) AGE	UNDER 18	18-20	21-24	25-39	40-59	60 AND OVER	PERCENT OF TOTAL DRIVERS
TOTAL DRIVERS	1000	133	100	148	134	227	200	100.0
TIME OF DAY	1000	133	100	148	134	227	200	100.0

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STATE OF NEW YORK DEPARTMENT OF MOTOR VEHICLES
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NOTE: SOME OF THE TABLES ARE BASED UPON INFORMATION RECEIVED FROM POLICE AND MOTORIST REPORTS OF MOTOR VEHICLE ACCIDENTS. OTHERS ARE BASED ONLY ON POLICE REPORTS. THESE ARE INDICATED BY THE POLICE REPORTS.

*DATA ON NON-REPORTABLE ACCIDENTS ARE NOT INCLUDED SPECIFICALLY INDICATED.

*THE TERM "VEHICLE" ALWAYS EXCLUDES BICYCLES.

*PERCENTS MAY NOT TOTAL 100.0 DUE TO ROUNDING.

CATEGORY	CURRENT YEAR REPORTING PER.		LAST YEAR SAME PERIOD		POLICE REPORTED ACC.	POLICE REPORTED PER.	STATEMENT STATISTICS	
	ALL ACC.	POLICE REPORTED	ALL ACC.	POLICE REPORTED			THIS PERIOD	LAST YR SAME PER
TOTAL ACCIDENTS	20403	16728	22464	17489	139	100	1988	2211
FATAL ACCIDENTS	1597	1481	1621	1212	1	1	1	1
INJURY ACCIDENTS (1)	6501	5247	5532	4277	1	1	1	1
REPORTABLE PROP DAMAGE	1521	1200	1301	1000	1	1	1	1
VEHICLES INVOLVED (2)	3521	2851	3201	2501	1	1	1	1
VEHICLE ACCIDENTS	4201	3401	3801	3001	1	1	1	1
PEDESTRIAN ACCIDENTS	1201	1001	1101	901	1	1	1	1
BICYCLE/MOTOR VEH ACC	1101	901	1001	801	1	1	1	1
VEHICLE OCCUPANTS	33848	23578	25999	19881	1188	1000	1354	1250

1 EXCLUDES FATALS.
2 DOES NOT INCLUDE PARKED AS WELL AS VEHICLE OCCUPANTS REGARDLESS OF SEATING POSITION.
3 INCLUDES PEDESTRIANS, BICYCLISTS AND ALL OTHER NON-VEHICLE INVOLVED PERSONS
4. DATA GATHERED ONLY FROM POLICE REPORTED ACCIDENTS.

RATES PER 100,000 POPULATION ARE BASED ON OFFICIAL UPDATED ESTIMATES BY THE NYS DEPT OF COMMERCE, 3/704/83.

TABLE 25 PEDESTRIAN ACCIDENTS BY TIME OF DAY

DAY	BICYCLE ACCIDENTS BY TIME OF DAY							TOTAL
	1-4AM	6-7	7-10	10-1PM	1-4	4-7	7-10	
TOTAL	165	300	581	602	566	960	492	1800
SUNDAY	30	50	70	80	60	100	40	330
MONDAY	20	40	60	70	50	90	30	260
TUESDAY	20	40	60	70	50	90	30	260
WEDNESDAY	20	40	60	70	50	90	30	260
THURSDAY	20	40	60	70	50	90	30	260
FRIDAY	20	40	60	70	50	90	30	260
SATURDAY	20	40	60	70	50	90	30	260

TABLE 26 DAY OF OCCURRENCE FOR TOTAL AND FATAL ACCIDENTS

HOUR AND DAY OF OCCURRENCE	TOTAL ACCIDENTS							FATAL ACCIDENTS						
	SUNDAY	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY	SATURDAY	SUNDAY	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY	SATURDAY
TOTAL	2398	2200	1919	2294	3072	3593	2885	14	13	10	15	15	15	13
1-4AM	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
5-9AM	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
10-11AM	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
12-1PM	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2-5PM	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
6-7PM	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
8-11PM	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
12-11PM	103	103	103	103	103	103	103	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
UNSPECIFIED	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

EFFECTIVE WITH SEPTEMBER 1, 1985 ACCIDENTS, THE PROPERTY DAMAGE REPORTING LEVEL WAS INCREASED FROM 400 DOLLARS TO 600 DOLLARS.

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TABLE 3	WEATHER	TOTAL ACC.			SEVERITY CLASS OF ACC.			PROP DAM
		NUMBER	PCT.	FATAL	PERS INJ	FATAL	PERS INJ	
TABLE 4	TOTAL	30603	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	DRY	13120	42.9	30	10609	30	10609	2521
	WET	3120	10.2	10	1572	10	1572	300
	WET/SLUSH	3120	10.2	11	2110	11	2110	600
	WET/SLUSH/ICE	3120	10.2	11	2110	11	2110	600
	WET/SLUSH/ICE/RAIN	3120	10.2	11	2110	11	2110	600
	WET/SLUSH/ICE/RAIN/SMOG/SMOKE	3120	10.2	11	2110	11	2110	600
	WET/SLUSH/ICE/RAIN/SMOG/SMOKE/OTHER	3120	10.2	11	2110	11	2110	600
	WET/SLUSH/ICE/RAIN/SMOG/SMOKE/OTHER/UNSPECIFIED	3120	10.2	11	2110	11	2110	600
	UNSPECIFIED	1654	5.4	1	708	1	708	967
TABLE 5	TOTAL	20603	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	STATE ROUTES	15212	73.8	22	11210	22	11210	2720
	COUNTY ROUTES	4120	20.0	22	3306	22	3306	800
	TOWN ROUTES	1271	6.2	1	177	1	177	90
	MUNICIPAL STREETS	1020	5.0	8	1259	8	1259	380
	FRONTAGE	172	0.8	12	1597	12	1597	412
	INTERSTATE	770	3.7	2	428	2	428	300
	OTHER LIMITED ACCESS	0	0.0	0	0	0	0	0
	UNSPECIFIED	50	0.2	3	25	3	25	33
	UNSPECIFIED	20603	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
TABLE 6	TOTAL	20603	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	TRAFFIC SIGNAL	10523	51.1	31	8074	31	8074	1570
	STOP SIGN	3200	15.5	5	2110	5	2110	700
	FLASHER LIGHT	2200	10.7	1	1100	1	1100	100
	YIELD SIGN	200	1.0	1	10	1	10	10
	OFFICER GUARD	200	1.0	1	21	1	21	8
	NO FLASHING LIGHTS	200	1.0	0	0	0	0	0
	STOP SIGN/RED LIGHT/FLASH	200	1.0	0	0	0	0	0
	OTHER	200	1.0	1	200	1	200	310
	UNSPECIFIED	3040	14.8	3	1613	3	1613	1222
TABLE 7	TOTAL	10978	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	STRAIGHT AND LEVEL	10978	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	SUBURBAN AT HILLCREST	10978	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	CURVE AND GRADE	10978	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	CURVE AT HILLCREST	10978	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	UNSPECIFIED	10978	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	TOTAL	20978	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	7 - 10	20978	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	10 AM - 1 PM	20978	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	UNSPECIFIED	20978	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
TABLE 8 (IP)	TOTAL	16720	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	POLICE	16720	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	COUNTY POLICE	16720	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	MUNICIPAL POLICE	16720	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	OTHER	16720	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	UNSPECIFIED	16720	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	TOTAL	16720	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	ON RAMP AT INTERSECTION	16720	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	ON RAMP NOT AT INTERSECTION	16720	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521
	UNSPECIFIED	16720	100.0	95	15212	95	15212	4521

TABLE 11

FIRST EVENT OF ACCIDENT	TOTAL ACC.		SEVERITY CLASS OF ACC.	
	NUMBER	PCT.	FATAL	PERS INJ
TOTAL ACCIDENTS	20603	100.0	95	15212
COLLISION WITH MOTOR VEHICLE	12650	61.4	41	11144
COLLISION WITH OTHER OBJECT	12650	61.4	41	11144
NON-COLLISION	7953	38.6	54	4068
OVERTURNED	136	0.7	2	162
FIRE/EXPLOSION	3	0.0	0	3
SUBVERSION	3	0.0	0	3
OTHER	150	0.7	1	133
UNSPECIFIED	150	0.7	1	133
TOTAL TWO VEHICLE ACCIDENTS	12360	100.0	16	8262
REAR END	4193	33.8	1	3206
OVERTAKING	2964	23.8	1	1353
LEFT TURN	1082	8.7	1	797
LEFT TURN	648	5.2	0	468
RIGHT ANGLE	2047	16.6	5	1679
RIGHT TURN	355	2.9	1	165
RIGHT TURN	71	0.6	0	43
HEAD ON	104	0.8	0	89
SIDESWIPE	245	2.0	2	148
ALL OTHER	689	5.6	6	334

TABLE 12 B

LOCATION OF COLLISION (AT OR NOT AT INTER.)	TOTAL TWO VEHICLE ACCIDENTS	
	NUMBER	PCT.
TOTAL TWO VEHICLE ACCIDENTS	12360	100.0
AT INTERSECTION	4193	33.8
NOT AT INTERSECTION	8167	66.2

TABLE 13 A

TYPE OF COLLISION	TOTAL TWO VEHICLE ACCIDENTS	
	NUMBER	PCT.
TOTAL TWO VEHICLE ACCIDENTS	12360	100.0
AT INTERSECTION	4193	33.8
NOT AT INTERSECTION	8167	66.2

TABLE 13 B

TYPE OF COLLISION	TOTAL TWO VEHICLE ACCIDENTS	
	NUMBER	PCT.
TOTAL TWO VEHICLE ACCIDENTS	12360	100.0
AT INTERSECTION	4193	33.8
NOT AT INTERSECTION	8167	66.2

*TWO OR MORE VEHICLE ACCIDENTS INCLUDE PARKED CARS.

TABLE 13 (IP) APPARENT ACCIDENT CONTRIBUTING FACTORS*	NUMBER	TOTAL		SEVERITY CLASS OF ACC.	
		FATAL	PCT.	PERS INJ	PROP DAM
TOTAL FACTORS	5098	255	100.0	3524	5153
TOOTH	1290	129	33.3	1020	1151
ALCOHOL INVOLVEMENT	189	17	3.0	149	164
DRIVING IMPROPERLY	206	20	3.0	156	166
DRIVER INATTENTION	206	20	3.0	156	166
DRIVER CARELESSNESS	191	19	2.7	156	166
EXCESSIVE SPEED	159	15	2.0	149	160
DRIVING TOO CLOSELY	159	15	2.0	149	160
WEATHER	147	13	1.9	119	132
DRIVER'S OBSTRUCTION	147	13	1.9	119	132
PASSENGER CARE USAGE IMPROPER	147	13	1.9	119	132
PASSENGER ERROR/CONFUSION	147	13	1.9	119	132
REAR VEHICLE COLLISION	138	13	1.9	111	124
REAR VEHICLE COLLISION	138	13	1.9	111	124
TURNING IMPROPERLY	138	13	1.9	111	124
DRIVING IMPROPERLY	121	12	1.5	101	112
UNSAFE LANE CHANGING	121	12	1.5	101	112
OTHER HUMAN	5132	2	12.7	4620	503
VEHICLE	1021	2	6.6	1020	213
IMPERFECT CAR	27	1	0.2	19	26
WEAR	27	1	0.2	19	26
HEAVY LOADS	27	1	0.2	19	26
OTHER LIGHTING DEFECTS	10	0	0.0	9	10
OVERHEAD WIRING	10	0	0.0	9	10
EXCESSIVE SPEED	27	2	3.3	25	33
POOR TYRE CONDITION	27	2	3.3	25	33
TORN TIRE	27	2	3.3	25	33
WINDSHIELD INADEQUATE	27	2	3.3	25	33
OTHER VEHICULAR	1287	1	3.6	1286	177
ENVIRONMENTAL	223	2	5.3	199	221
ENVIRONMENTAL	223	2	5.3	199	221
ADVERSE WEATHER	223	2	5.3	199	221
ROAD SURFACE INADEQUATE	223	2	5.3	199	221
ROAD SURFACE INADEQUATE	223	2	5.3	199	221
PAVEMENT DEFECTIVE	223	2	5.3	199	221
PAVEMENT DEFECTIVE	223	2	5.3	199	221
SHOULDER DEFECTIVE	223	2	5.3	199	221
SHOULDER DEFECTIVE	223	2	5.3	199	221
POOR MAINTENANCE	223	2	5.3	199	221
OTHER ENVIRONMENTAL	223	2	5.3	199	221
UNSPECIFIED	5161	3	12.6	4550	606
TOTAL ACCIDENTS	1679	95	100.0	1605	1742
DAY	977	35	58.1	957	1023
NIGHT	377	15	23.9	355	379
ROAD LIGHTED	1679	95	100.0	1605	1742
ROAD UNLIGHTED	1679	95	100.0	1605	1742
UNSPECIFIED	223	2	3.3	221	221

TABLE 15	DRIVER SEX AND AGE	TOTAL NUMBER	TOTAL PCT.	SEVERITY CLASS OF ACC. FATAL PERS INJ PROP DAM
TOTAL DRIVERS		3221	100.0	2654
MALE		2273	70.6	1852
UNDER 18		30	0.9	29
18-24		201	6.2	198
25-34		368	11.4	363
35-44		659	20.5	654
45-54		577	18.0	573
55-64		427	13.3	423
65-74		281	8.7	278
75-84		202	6.3	201
85 AND OVER		177	5.5	177
UNSPECIFIED AGE		135	4.2	133
FEMALE		948	29.4	802
UNDER 18		12	0.4	12
18-24		64	2.0	64
25-34		133	4.1	130
35-44		255	7.9	253
45-54		388	12.0	386
55-64		279	8.7	278
65-74		159	5.0	159
75-84		100	3.1	100
85 AND OVER		79	2.5	79
UNSPECIFIED SEX		392	12.2	392
TOTAL VEHICLES		3223	100.0	2654
TAXI		228	7.1	228
BUS		228	7.1	228
RENTAL CAR		228	7.1	228
OTHER		571	17.6	498
SCHOOL BUS		21	0.7	21
EMERGENCY VEHICLE		25	0.8	25
TRUCK		408	12.7	408
TRACTOR TRAILER		37	1.2	37
MOTORCYCLE		37	1.2	37
HOLE IN ROAD		37	1.2	37
ALL OTHER		359	11.2	359
UNSPECIFIED		0	0.0	0

TABLE 16	VEHICLE TYPE*	SEVERITY CLASS OF PED. ACC. NUMBER	SEVERITY CLASS OF PED. ACC. PCT.	FATAL PERS INJ
TOTAL VEHICLES		3223	100.0	2654
TAXI		228	7.1	228
BUS		228	7.1	228
RENTAL CAR		228	7.1	228
OTHER		571	17.6	498
SCHOOL BUS		21	0.7	21
EMERGENCY VEHICLE		25	0.8	25
TRUCK		408	12.7	408
TRACTOR TRAILER		37	1.2	37
MOTORCYCLE		37	1.2	37
HOLE IN ROAD		37	1.2	37
ALL OTHER		359	11.2	359
UNSPECIFIED		0	0.0	0

TABLE 17	DIRECTION OF VEHICLE STRIKING PEDESTRIAN	SEVERITY CLASS OF PED. ACC. NUMBER	SEVERITY CLASS OF PED. ACC. PCT.	FATAL PERS INJ
TOTAL VEHICLES		3223	100.0	2654
TOTAL VEHICLES		3223	100.0	2654
TURNING RIGHT		189	5.9	189
TURNING LEFT		228	7.1	228
BACKING		359	11.2	359
OTHER		356	11.1	356
UNSPECIFIED		0	0.0	0

TABLE 18 (IP)	PEDESTRIAN CONTRIBUTING FACTORS**	SEVERITY CLASS OF PED. ACC. NUMBER	SEVERITY CLASS OF PED. ACC. PCT.	FATAL PERS INJ
TOTAL FACTORS		204	100.0	204
NONE		204	100.0	204
TRAFFIC CONTROL DEVICES OVERSIGHT		81	39.7	81
POORLY MAINTAINED VEHICLES		28	13.7	28
DRIVING IMPROPERLY		95	46.6	95
ILLEGAL TURN		20	9.8	20
WALKING IN CROSSWALK		22	10.8	22
ERROR/CONFUSION		99	48.5	99
DRIVING IMPROPERLY		18	8.8	18
VEHICLE OBSTRUCTION/LIMITED VISION		10	4.9	10
ALL OTHER		100	49.0	100

*BUS/TAXI/OTHER FOR HIRE INCLUDES BUSES, TAXIS, AND LIVERY, RENTAL AND OTHER FOR HIRE VEHICLES, BUT EXCLUDES SCHOOL BUSES WHICH ARE LISTED SEPARATELY.
**MORE THAN 1 CONTRIBUTING PEDESTRIAN FACTOR PER ACCIDENT MAY OCCUR.

STATE OF NEW YORK DEPARTMENT OF MOTOR VEHICLES
 SUMMARY OF MOTOR VEHICLE ACCIDENTS

NEW YORK COUNTY

JAN-DEC-1991

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FIRST EVENT OF ACCIDENT	TOTAL CASUALTIES		AGE												SEX*			SEVERITY CL OF INJ.		
	NUMBER	PCT.	0-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65 AND OVER	UNSPEC	MALE	FEMALE	A	B	C		
TOTAL THUNDER	2109		110	292	286	102	105	193	461	302	327	109	1152	1157	2162	1126	1399	1684		
TOTAL COLLISION WITH OTHER MOTOR VEHICLE	1310		45	126	131	42	50	102	254	219	210	67	611	622	1206	625	851	1187		
CROSSING PATH OF VEHICLE	13		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
BACKUP COLLISION (LAST)	432		5	10	12	13	10	28	54	42	41	14	165	162	337	173	310	421		
RAILROAD TRAIN COLLISION WITH FIXED OBJECT	189		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
DOING U-TURN	131		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
FLYING OBJECT	40		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
DRIVING REVERSE SUBURSION	149		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
LEAVING SIDEWALK OR OFF ROADWAY ONLY	149		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
UNSPECIFIED																				
TOTAL KILLED	100		2	3	5	4	6	16	23	25	19	1	11	11	20	21	50	93		
TOTAL INJURED	65		3	8	12	12	13	20	31	32	31	11	10	10	19	17	36	73		
TOTAL COLLISION WITH OTHER MOTOR VEHICLE	105		4	10	12	13	16	25	35	37	25	9	11	11	20	18	46	86		
CROSSING PATH OF VEHICLE	9		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
BACKUP COLLISION (LAST)	32		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
RAILROAD TRAIN COLLISION WITH FIXED OBJECT	13		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
DOING U-TURN	2		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
FLYING OBJECT	2		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
DRIVING REVERSE SUBURSION																				
LEAVING SIDEWALK OR OFF ROADWAY ONLY																				
UNSPECIFIED																				

*EXCLUDES UNSPECIFIED SEX.

PEDESTRIAN LOCATION AND ACTIONS	TOT PEDESTRIANS KILLED OR INJ.		AGE												SEX			SEV. CLASS		
	NUMBER	PCT.	0-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65 AND OVER	UNSPEC	MALE	FEMALE	A	B	C		
TOTAL PEDESTRIANS	1522		190	345	273	129	187	262	392	232	192	100	182	187	369	209	475	620		
AT INTERSECTION	137		24	61	47	20	32	39	59	47	37	15	24	24	49	32	83	105		
TOTAL ACTIONS	1382		190	345	273	129	187	262	392	232	192	100	182	187	369	209	475	620		
CROSSING PATH OF VEHICLE	292		5	10	12	13	16	25	35	37	25	9	11	11	20	18	46	86		
BACKUP COLLISION (LAST)	13		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
RAILROAD TRAIN COLLISION WITH FIXED OBJECT	13		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
DOING U-TURN	2		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
FLYING OBJECT	2		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
DRIVING REVERSE SUBURSION																				
LEAVING SIDEWALK OR OFF ROADWAY ONLY																				
UNSPECIFIED																				

PRE-ACCIDENT BICYCLE ACTION	TOT BICYCLISTS KILLED OR INJ.		AGE												SEX			SEV. CLASS		
	NUMBER	PCT.	0-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65 AND OVER	UNSPEC	MALE	FEMALE	A	B	C		
TOTAL STRAIGHT AHEAD	1653		10	19	20	11	20	29	49	32	33	11	11	16	17	33	47	62		
MAKING RIGHT TURN	148		1	2	2	1	3	4	7	5	4	1	1	1	1	2	3	3		
STARTING/STOPPING/STOP IN TRAFFIC	118		1	2	2	1	2	3	5	4	3	1	1	1	1	2	3	3		
CHANGING LANES	27		1	2	2	1	1	2	3	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2		
OTHER	77		1	2	2	1	2	3	4	3	2	1	1	1	1	2	3	3		
UNSPECIFIED	98		1	2	2	1	2	3	4	3	2	1	1	1	1	2	3	3		

STATE OF NEW YORK DEPARTMENT OF MOTOR VEHICLES
SUMMARY OF MOTOR VEHICLE ACCIDENTS

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Table 23(1): Summary of motor vehicle accidents by apparent driver contributing factor and sex. Columns include Total Drivers (Inc/Unspec/Age), Male Drivers, and Female Drivers across age groups (18, 18-20, 21-24, 25-39, 40-59, 60 and over).

*SINCE THERE MAY BE NO CONTRIBUTING FACTOR OR MORE THAN ONE CONTRIBUTING FACTOR, PERCENTS MAY NOT TOTAL TO 100.0

Table 23(2): Summary of motor vehicle accidents by total driver contributing factor and sex. Columns include Total Drivers (Inc/Unspec/Age), Male Drivers, and Female Drivers across age groups.

*SINCE THERE MAY BE NO VIOLATION OR MORE THAN ONE VIOLATION, PERCENTS MAY NOT TOTAL TO 100.0

Table 24: Summary of motor vehicle accidents by time of day. Columns include Total Drivers (Inc/Unspec/Age), Male Drivers, and Female Drivers across age groups for different times of the day.

APPENDIX B
CASIUS SAFETY-EVALUATION PROGRAM

```
#Include "box.ch"
#include "inkey.ch"
```

```
Local V :=Space(6)
Local L1 :=Space(6),R1 :=Space(6),T1 :=Space(6)
Local L2 :=Space(6),R2 :=Space(6),T2 :=Space(6)
Local L3 :=Space(6),R3 :=Space(6),T3 :=Space(6)
Local L4 :=Space(6),R4 :=Space(6),T4 :=Space(6)
```

```
Local P1 :=Space(6),P2 :=Space(6),P3 :=Space(6)
Local S1 :=Space(6),S2 :=Space(6)
Local Rtype :=Space(2)
```

```
Local inval[4], nullnum
Local Eaccident,Errnul :=.f.
Local i
```

```
Use trivol New
```

```
Set Confirm On
```

```
While .T.
```

```
    Cls
    @ 1.1,24.79BOX B_DOUBLE
    @ 3.17 SAY " Computer-Aided Safety Index for Urban Streets"
    @ 6.10 SAY " Rtype : " Get Rtype Valid Checkrtype(rtype)
    @ 7.10 Say " Traffic Volume : " Get V

    @ 9.10 Say "Conflict Value"
    @ 10.10 Say "Left : " Get L1
    @ 10.30 Say "Thru : " Get T1
    @ 10.50 Say "Right: " Get R1
    @ 11.10 Say "Left : " Get L2
    @ 11.30 Say "Thru : " Get T2
    @ 11.50 Say "Right: " Get R2
    @ 12.10 Say "Left : " Get L3
    @ 12.30 Say "Thru : " Get T3
    @ 12.50 Say "Right: " Get R3
    @ 13.10 Say "Left : " Get L4
    @ 13.30 Say "Thru : " Get T4
    @ 13.50 Say "Right: " Get R4

    @ 15.10 Say "Signal Time :"
```


@ 16,10 Say "Ph 1 : " Get P1

@ 16,30 Say "Ph 2 : " Get P2

@ 16,50 Say "Ph 3 : " Get P3

@ 18,10 Say "Crosswalk Size"

@ 19,10 Say "Size1: " Get S1

@ 19,50 Say "Size2: " Get S2

@ 22,10 Say "Expected Accident : "

@ 23,10 Say "Frequency Factor : "

Read

If Lastkey() =K_ESC

 Return Nil

Endif

inval[1] :=Val(V)

inval[2] =Val(L1) * 2 +Val(T1) +Val(R1) +;
 Val(L2) * 2 +Val(T2) +Val(R2) +;
 Val(L3) * 2 +Val(T3) +Val(R3) +;
 Val(L4) * 2 +Val(T4) +Val(R4)

inval[3] :=Max (Val(P1),Val(P2))

inval[3] :=Max (inval[3],Val(P3))

inval[4] :=Val(S1) +Val(S2)

nullnum =CheckNul(inval)

Do Case

 Case nullnum =1
 Default_1(inval,Rtype)

 Case nullnum =2
 Default_2(inval,Rtype)

 Case nullnum =3
 Default_3(inval,Rtype)

 Case nullnum =4
 Errnul :=.T.

EndCase

```

If ! Errnul
    Eaccident :=Expact_Acc(ival)
Endif

@ 22.34 Say Eaccident

If Eaccident = 1
    @ 23.24 Say "1"
Else
    @ 23.34 Say 1.67 * Log(Eaccident)
Endif

inkey(0)

```

```

AFill(ival,0)

```

```

V :=space(6)

```

```

R1 :=space(6)

```

```

L1 :=Space(6)

```

```

T1 :=Space(6)

```

```

R2 :=space(6)

```

```

L2 :=Space(6)

```

```

T2 :=Space(6)

```

```

R3 :=space(6)

```

```

L3 :=Space(6)

```

```

T3 :=Space(6)

```

```

R4 :=space(6)

```

```

L4 :=Space(6)

```

```

T4 :=Space(6)

```

```

p1 :=Space(6)

```

```

P2 :=Space(6)

```

```

P3 :=Space(6)

```

```

S1 :=Space(6)

```

```

S2 :=Space(6)

```

```

Rtype :=Space(2)

```

```

Errnul :=.f.

```

```

Enddo

```

```

//=====

```

```

Function Checkrtype(Rtype)

```

```

//=====
local Ret :=.F.

Do Case
    case rtype = "AA"
        Ret :=.T.
    Case Rtype = "AL"
        Ret :=.T.
    Case Rtype = "LL"
        Ret :=.T.
Endcase

Return Ret

//=====
Function CheckNul(Ary)
//=====

Local Nullnum :=0.i

For i:=1 to Len(ary)
    If Ary[i] =0
        Nullnum +=1
    Endif
Next

Return Nullnum

//=====
Function Default_1(Ary,Rtype)
//=====

Local Which,Retval[6]
Local Xval[3],Xval2[3],Xpos:=1

Which :=WhichNull(Ary)

For i:=1to Len(Ary)
    If Ary[i] !=0
        Xval[xpos] :=i
        Xval2[xpos] :=i

```

```

        Xpos += 1
    Endif

Next

Retval := Multi(Which,xval,Rtype)

Ary[Which] := Retval[1] + retval[2] * Ary[Xval2[1]] + Retval[3] *
    Ary[Xval2[2]] + Retval[4] * Ary[Xval2[3]]

Return Ary

//=====
Function Default_2(Ary,Rtype)
//=====

Local Which[2],Notnul[2]
Local Xval1[2],Xval2[2],Xval3[3],Temp[3]
Local Retary1[2],Retary2[2],retx1[6],Retx2[6]
Local i,Xpos := 1,nul

Which := WhichNullM(Ary)

For i = 1 to Len(Ary)

    If Ary[i] != 0
        Xval1[xpos] := i
        Xval2[xpos] := i
        Xval3[xpos] := i
        Xpos += 1
    Endif

Next

For i = 1 to 2

    Nul := Which[i]
    Retx1 := Multi(Nul,Xval1,Rtype)
    Retary1[i] := Retx1[1] + Retx1[2] * Ary[Xval2[1]] +
        Retx1[3] * Ary[Xval2[2]]

    Asize(Xval1,2)
    Afill(Xval1,0)
    Acopy(Xval2,Xval1)

Next

```

```

ASize(Xval2,3)
Notnul :=Whichnot(ary)

For i:=2 to 1 Step -1

    Nul :=Which[3-i]
    Xval2[3] :=Which[i]
    Acopy(Xval2,Temp)
    Retx2 :=Multi(Nul,Temp,Rtype)
    Retary2[3-i] :=Retx2[1] +Retx2[4] * Retary1[i] +;
                    Retx2[2] * Ary[Xval2[1]] +;
                    Retx2[3] * Ary[Xval2[2]]

    Afill(Xval2,0)
    Acopy(Xval3,Xval2)
    ASize(temp,3)
    Afill(temp,3)

Next

Ary[Which[1]] :=(Retary1[1] +Retary2[1]) / 2
Ary[Which[2]] :=(retary1[2] +Retary2[2]) / 2

Return Ary

// =====
Function Default_3(Ary,Rtype)
// =====

Local Xval[1]
Local Temary[4]
Local Which[3]
Local Result[3,4]
Local retary1[3]
Local Retx1[6],retx2[6]
Local Retary[3]
Local Xval1[1],xval2[1]

Local Xtotal :=0
Local i,j,k
Local Xpos :=1
Local Nul,Xv1,xv2

Which :=WhichNullM(Ary)

For i:= Ito Lent(Ary)

```

```

    If Ary[i] != 0
        Xv1 := i
    Endif

Next

For i:=1 to 3

    Nul := Which[i]
    Xv2 := Xv1
    Retx1 := Multi(Nul,Xv2.Rtype)
    Retary[i] := retx1[1] + Retx1[2] * Ary[Xv1]
    Afill(Retx1,0)

Next

For i:=1 to 3

    Acopy(ary,temary)
    Temary[Which[i]] := Retary[i]
    Temary := Default_2(Temary,Rtype)

    For k:=1 to 4
        Result[i,k] := Temary[k]
    Next

Next

Afill(temary,0)

For i:=1 to 4

    For j:=1 to 3
        Xtotal += Result[j,i]
    Next

    Temary[i] := Xtotal/3

    Xtotal := 0

Next

For i:=1 to 3
    Ary[Which[i]] := Temary[Which[i]]
Next

```

Return Ary

```
//=====
Function Whichnull(Ary)
//=====
```

For i:=1 to 4

```
    If Ary[i] =0
        Exit
    Endif
```

Next

return i

```
//=====
Function WhichnullM(Ary)
//=====
Local Which :={}
```

For i:=1 to 4

```
    If Ary[i] =0
        Asize(which,Len(Which) + 1)
        Which[Len(Which)] :=i
    Endif
```

Next

Return Which

```
//=====
Function WhichNot(ary)
//=====
Local Which :={}
```

For i:=1 to 4

```
    If Ary[i] !=0
        Asize(which,Len(Which) + 1)
        Which[Len(Which)] :=i
    Endif
```

Next

Return Which

```
//=====
Function Expect_acc(val)
//=====
Local Ret
```

```
ret := 5.6474 + val[4] * -0.19763 + val[3] * 0.21628 + ;
      val[2] * 2.15198 + val[1] * 0.0017
```

```
If Ret < 0
    Ret := 1
Endif
```

Return Ret

```
//=====
Function Multi(Which,Xval,Rtype)
//=====
```

```
Local y:={}.x[4,300].temp:={},pam:={0.0,0.0}
Local yy[6],xv
Local typ:=tp:=acc:=recont1:=recont2:=terr:=0,totalpam
Local p1:=space(1),p2:=space(1),p3:=space(1),p4:=space(1)
Local yval:=space(1)
Local rt,err[i,j]
```

Do case

```
Case Rtype = "AA"
    rt := 29
Case Rtype = "AL"
    rt := 48
Case Rtype = "LL"
    rt := 24
```

Endcase

```
If Valtype(Xval) = "N"
    xv := xval
Endif
```

```
pam := changepm(Xval)
```



```

yval :=changeprm(Which)

If Valtype(Xval)="N"
    totalpam :=1
    typ :=1
Else
    totalpam :=len(pam)
Endif

trfvol->(DBGOTOP())
For i:=1 to trfvol->(reccount())

    If Rt =trfvol->Rtype
        aadd(y,trfvol->(fieldget(yval)))
        recont1 +=1
    Endif

    trfvol->(dbskip(1))

next

For j:=1 to totalpam

    trfvol->(dbgotop())

    For i:=1 to trfvol->(RecCount())

        If typ =1 .And. Rt =Trfvol->rtype
            x[j,recont2 +1] :=trfvol->(fieldget(PAM))
            recont2 +=1
        Else

            IF typ !=1 .and. Rt =trfvol->rtype
                x[j,recont2 +1] :=trfvol->(fieldget(pam[j]))
                recont2 +=1
            Endif

        Endif

        trfvol->(dbskip(1))

    Next

    asize(x[j],recont2)
    Recont2 :=0

```

Next

```
yy :=static(x,y,totalpam)
```

```
acc :=0
```

```
yval :=space(1)
```

```
p1 :=space(1)
```

```
p2 :=space(1)
```

```
p3 :=space(1)
```

```
p4 :=space(1)
```

```
Asize(pam,4)
```

```
Afill(pam,0)
```

```
Asize(y,0)
```

```
terr :=0
```

```
tp :=0
```

```
acc :=0
```

```
Return yy
```

```

=====
Function static(xx,yy,pemleng)
=====

```

```
Local x[5][5],y:={},tmp:={}
```

```
Local total :=0,i,j
```

```
Asize(y,pemleng+1)
```

```
Afill(y,0)
```

```
**For i:=1 to pemleng+1
```

```
    aadd(y,0)
```

```
Next*/
```

```
Asize(x,pemleng+1)
```

```
For i:=1 to pemleng+1
```

```
    asize(x[i],pemleng+1)
```

```
Next
```

```
x[1,1] :=len(xx[1])
```

```
Aeval(yy,{[a total +=a]})
```

```
y[1] :=total
```

```
For i:=1 to pemleng
```

```

    x[i+1,1]:=sigma(xx,i)
    x[1,i+1]:=sigma(xx,i)
    y[i+1]:=mYsigma(xx.yy,i)
Next

For i:=1 to pemleng

    For j:=1 to pemleng
        x[i+1,j+1]:=msigma(xx,i,j)
    Next

Next

matrix(x,y)

return y

//=====
Function sigma(x,i)
//=====
Local total:=0
Local j

For j:=1 to len(x[1])
    total +=x[i,j]
Next

Return total

//=====
Function msigma(x,i,j)
//=====
Local total:=0,a

For a:=1 to len(x[i])
    total +=x[i,a] * x[j,a]
Next

Return total

//=====
Function mYsigma(x,y,i)
//=====
Local total:=0,a

For a:=1 to len(x[i])

```

```

        total += x[i,a] * y[a]
    Next
Return total

//=====
Function Matrix(x,y)
//=====

Local temp := {}
Local fini := .F., Found1 := .F.
Local r,rw,ii,i,j
Local multi := 0
Local total,leng

leng := len(x)
asize(temp,leng + 1)

For i:=1 to leng + 1
    temp[i] := 0
Next

j:=1

For i:=1 to len(x[1])
    if x[i,j] != 0
        If ! found1
            multi := 1/x[i,j]
            Smultiple(x,y,i,multi)
        Endif
    Endif

For R:= 1 to len(x)
    If R != i
        multi := If(x[R,i] < 0 , x[i,j] * -x[R,j], -x[i,j] * x[R,j])
        multiple(x,y,i,multi,temp)
        AddR(x,y,R,temp)
    Endif

```

```

        Next
        j += 1
    Next

    return Nil

// =====
Function change(x,y,r1,r2)
// =====
Local temp: = {} .i

For i: = 1 to len(x[1])
    temp[i] := x[r1,i]
Next

temp[len(x[1]) + 1] := y[r1]

For i: = 1 to len(x[1])
    x[r1,i] := x[r2,i]
Next

y[r1] := y[r2]

For i: = 1 to len(x[1])
    x[r2,i] := temp[i]
Next

y[r2] := temp[len(x[1]) + 1]

return nil

// =====
Function Multiple(x,y,r,multi,temp)
// =====

Local i

For i: = 1 to len(x[1])
    temp[i] := x[R,i] * multi
Next

temp[len(x[1]) + 1] := y[R] * multi

```

Return temp

```

//=====
Function Smultiple(x,y,r,multi)
//=====

```

```

Local i,leng
leng :=len(x[1])

```

```

For i:=1 to leng

```

```

    x[r,i] :=x[r,i] * multi

```

```

Next

```

```

y[r] :=y[r] * multi

```

```

return nil

```

```

//=====
Function AddR(x,y,r,temp)
//=====

```

```

Local i

```

```

For i:=1 to len(x[1])

```

```

    x[r,i] :=x[r,i] + temp[i]

```

```

Next

```

```

y[r] :=y[r] + temp[len(x[1])+1]

```

```

Return Nil

```

```

//=====
Function Checkpm(Pam)
//=====

```

```

Local returnval :=.t.

```

```

If VAL(Pam) <0 .and. VAL(pam) >5

```

```

    returnval :=.f.

```

```

Endif

```

```

return returnval

```

```
//=====
Function Checkpmy(Pam)
//=====
```

```
Local returnval := .t.
```

```
If VAL(Pam) < 0 and VAL(pam) > 5
    returnval := .f.
```

```
Endif
```

```
Return returnval
```

```
//=====
Function changepm(pam)
//=====
```

```
Local retary := {}
```

```
Local dat,i,zero := 0
```

```
If valtype(pam) = "A"
```

```
    For i := 1 to len(pam)
```

```
        If pam[i] = 0
            zero += 1
```

```
        Else
            dat := pam[i]
```

```
            Do case
```

```
                case dat = 1
                    Aadd(retary,2)
```

```
                case dat = 2
                    aadd(retary,8)
```

```
                case dat = 3
                    aadd(retary,10)
```

```
                case dat = 4
                    aadd(retary,11)
```

```
                case dat = 5
                    aadd(retary,5)
```

```
            Endcase
```

```
        Endif
```

```
    Next
```

```

    Asize(pam,0)

    For i:=1 to len(retary)
        Aadd(pam,retary[i])
    Next

Endif

If Valtype(pam) = "N"

    Do case

        case pam = 1
            pam :=2
        case pam = 2
            pam :=8
        case pam = 3
            pam :=10
        case pam = 4
            pam :=11
        case pam = 5
            pam :=5

    Endcase

Endif

Return pam

//=====
Function Length(aa)
//=====

Local zero :=0

For i:=1 to len(aa)

    If aa[i] =0
        zero +=1
    Endif

Next

Return zero

```