

1 Article

## 2 Pedestrian Injury Severity Analysis in Motor Vehicle 3 Crashes in Ohio

4 Majbah Uddin <sup>1,\*</sup> and Fahim Ahmed <sup>2</sup>

5 <sup>1</sup> Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of South Carolina, Columbia, SC 29208,  
6 USA; muddin@cec.sc.edu

7 <sup>2</sup> Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of South Carolina, Columbia, SC 29208,  
8 USA; ahmedf@cec.sc.edu

9 \* Correspondence: muddin@cec.sc.edu; Tel.: +1-803-447-4445

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11 **Abstract: Background:** According to the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration, 116  
12 pedestrians were killed in motor vehicle crashes in Ohio in 2015. However, no study to date has  
13 analyzed crashes in Ohio exploring the factors contributing to the pedestrian injury severity  
14 resulting from motor vehicle crashes. This study fills this gap by investigating the crashes  
15 involving pedestrians exclusively in Ohio. **Materials and Methods:** This study uses the crash data  
16 from the Highway Safety Information System, from 2009 to 2013. The explanatory factors include  
17 the pedestrian, driver, vehicle, crash, and roadway characteristics. Both fixed- and random-  
18 parameters ordered probit models of injury severity (where possible outcomes are *major*, *minor*, and  
19 *possible/no injury*) were estimated. **Results:** The model results indicate that being older pedestrian  
20 (65 and over), younger driver (less than 24), driving under influence (DUI), being struck by truck,  
21 dark-unlighted roadways, six-lane roadways, and speed limit of 40 mph and 50 mph were  
22 associated with more severe injuries to the pedestrians. Conversely, older driver (65 and over),  
23 passenger car, crash occurring in urban locations, daytime traffic off-peak (10 AM to 3:59 PM),  
24 weekdays, and daylight condition were associated with less severe injuries. **Conclusion:** This  
25 study provides specific safety recommendations so that effective countermeasures could be  
26 developed and implemented by the policy makers, which in turn will improve overall highway  
27 safety.

28 **Keywords:** Pedestrian safety; Crash severity; Crash factors; Ordered probit model; Random  
29 parameter model

30

### 31 1. Introduction

32 In the United States, 5,376 pedestrians were killed and 70,000 were injured in traffic crashes in  
33 2015; this number of fatality is the highest since 1996 [1]. Every 1.6 hours a pedestrian was killed  
34 and every 7.5 minutes a pedestrian was injured in traffic crashes, on average [1]. These fatalities  
35 accounted for about 15 percent of total fatalities occurred on highways in the U.S. [2]. According to  
36 the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration, 116 pedestrians were killed in motor vehicle  
37 crashes in Ohio in 2015 [1]. These large number of fatalities and injuries of pedestrians from motor  
38 vehicle crashes highlight the necessity of the analysis of such crashes. For that reason, several  
39 studies have been undertaken by the researchers in the past investigating different crash factors  
40 related to pedestrian-vehicle crashes, such as pedestrian, driver, roadway, environmental, vehicle,  
41 crash, and land-use characteristics [3–16]. However, no study has analyzed crashes in Ohio  
42 exploring the factors influencing injury severity of pedestrians. Hence, there is a need to investigate  
43 the crashes involving pedestrians exclusively in Ohio.

44 Numerous research efforts have been published addressing pedestrian safety. The critical  
45 aspects of pedestrian-vehicle crash investigation include finding contributing factors, employing a  
46 variety of methodological techniques, level of spatial analysis (aggregation or disaggregation) and

47 mitigation strategies. Lee and Abdel-Aty [11] studied vehicle-pedestrian crashes at intersections  
48 using 1999 to 2002 Florida crash data. The study concluded that pedestrian characteristics (e.g.,  
49 older pedestrian, intoxicated), vehicle type (e.g., larger than passenger car), environment (e.g., dark-  
50 lighted condition) and adverse weather were the factors that contributed to injury severity. Pour-  
51 Rouholamin and Zhou [14] studied single-vehicle single-pedestrian highway patrol reported crash  
52 data from 2010 to 2013 in Illinois. They found that older and pedestrian without contrasting cloths,  
53 pick-up truck, SUV, bus, divided highways, multilane highways, dark-unlighted condition, and  
54 summer season were the factors contributing to injury severities. Abdul-Aziz et al. [3] studied  
55 pedestrian-vehicle crash data (combined from several data sources) from 2002 to 2006 in New York  
56 City and conducted a spatially disaggregated borough-based analysis on the built environment. The  
57 study found that factors contributing to the injury severities were: roadway characteristics (e.g.,  
58 number of lanes, grades, light condition, road surface), traffic attributes (e.g., signal control, type of  
59 vehicle), and land-use characteristics (e.g., parking facilities, commercial area, industrial area). Kim  
60 et al. [9] studied injury severity from single-vehicle single-pedestrian crash data from 1997 to 2000 in  
61 North Carolina (NC). The contributing factors found in the study were the age of pedestrian, male  
62 and intoxicated drivers, SUV, truck, two-way divided highway, off-roadway, freeway, turning  
63 vehicle, speeding, dark-lighted condition, dark-unlighted condition, and commercial areas. Using  
64 the same data Ulfarsson et al. [16] explored the fault assignment of pedestrian-motor vehicle crashes  
65 in NC. Drivers were found at-fault in maneuvering act (e.g., turning, backing, merging) while  
66 pedestrians were at-fault in case of unattentively crossing streets or walking along the streets. Both  
67 pedestrian and driver were found at-fault in case of intoxication and in poorly lit environments.

68 Islam and Jones [8] analyzed injury severity of highway patrol reported pedestrian at-fault crash  
69 data from 2006 to 2010 in Alabama. They found that the contributing factors differ in different  
70 locations: urban location (e.g., female, pedestrian age, crash location, day of the week, winter and  
71 summer season) and rural location (e.g., pedestrian age). Contributing factors not affected by  
72 locations were dark-lighted conditions, two-lane roadways, and pedestrian of 12 years age or  
73 younger. Ballesteros et al. (2004) studied the association of pedestrian injury with vehicle type by  
74 combining data from highway patrol reported crash, trauma registry and autopsy data from 1995 to  
75 1999 in Maryland. The study found that SUV and pick-up trucks have a higher contribution to  
76 injury severity than others. Moudon et al. [13] examined the pedestrian injury severity using crash  
77 data on state routes from years 1999 to 2004 and city streets from years 2000 to 2004 in King County,  
78 Washington. The contributing factors of injury severity for state routes include older pedestrian,  
79 intersections without signals, vehicle speed while in city routes, middle-aged and younger  
80 pedestrian, and number of residential streets. Zajac and Ivan [17] investigated the injury severity of  
81 pedestrian crashes in rural Connecticut using 1989 to 1998 data from the Connecticut Department of  
82 Transportation. They found that the factors that influence injury severities were older and  
83 intoxicated pedestrian, intoxicated drivers, vehicle type, village, downtown fringe, and low-density  
84 residential area.

85 All of the aforementioned studies have found influencing factors for injury severity of  
86 pedestrians using data from different states in the U.S. These studies used various explanatory  
87 variables, data sources and methodological techniques for the investigation of the crash data. Due  
88 to the ordinal nature of the injury severity (i.e., fatality, disabling injury, evident injury, possible  
89 injury, and no injury), this study uses ordered probit model to analyze single-vehicle, single-  
90 pedestrian crash data in Ohio. Furthermore, underreporting of crashes and injury severity levels of  
91 pedestrians are not uncommon in the highway patrol reported crash databases. To address this  
92 unobserved heterogeneity issue, the standard fixed-parameters ordered probit model is also  
93 extended to include random parameters in the model specification. Additionally, average direct  
94 pseudo-elasticities of the estimated parameters are computed to determine the impact of factors on  
95 the likelihood of each injury severity level.

## 96 2. Materials and Methods

97 The data used in this study, extracted from the Highway Safety Information System database,  
 98 consist of five years of single-vehicle, single-pedestrian crash records (2009 to 2013) in the state of  
 99 Ohio. After eliminating the crash observations with missing data in variables, a total of 3,184  
 100 observations of pedestrian injury severity was considered in the final dataset for model estimation.  
 101 Each observation records the injury severity of the pedestrian involved in the crash, along with  
 102 pedestrian, driver, vehicle, crash, and roadway characteristics. The final dataset consisted of 211 (6.6  
 103 percent) fatality, 749 (23.5 percent) disabling injury, 1,212 (38.1 percent) evident injury, 738 (23.2  
 104 percent) possible injury, and 274 (8.6 percent) no injury to the pedestrians. To ensure sufficient  
 105 observation in each injury severity level, following the approach used by other researchers [8,18,19],  
 106 the five injury severity levels were consolidated into three levels—major injury (fatality and disabling  
 107 injury), minor injury (evident injury) and possible/no injury (possible and no injury). Hence, the  
 108 dependent variable is the injury severity of a pedestrian from a single-vehicle crash where the  
 109 severity could be major, minor or possible/no injury. The data analysis was started with univariate  
 110 analysis [20]. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of the explanatory variables (i.e., crash  
 111 factors) included in the model. All the variables are indicator variables (with values 0 and 1) and  
 112 the mean values represent the proportion of the variables. The mean value of the variable  
 113 “weekday” is 0.793, meaning that 79.3% of the pedestrian were involved in crashes during weekdays  
 114 and 20.7% of the pedestrians were involved in crashes on weekends.

115 **Table 1.** Descriptive statistics of the explanatory variables

Explanatory Variable	Mean	Max	Min
Pedestrian Characteristics			
Age			
Older Pedestrian (65 and over)	0.088	1	0
Driver Characteristics			
Age			
Younger Driver (Less than 24)	0.190	1	0
Older Driver (65 and over)	0.137	1	0
DUI Driving?			
Yes	0.074	1	0
Vehicle Type			
Passenger Car	0.549	1	0
Truck	0.048	1	0
Crash Characteristics			
Crash Location			
Urban	0.875	1	0
Time of Day			
10 AM to 3:59 PM	0.302	1	0
Day of Week			
Weekday	0.793	1	0
Lighting Condition			
Daylight	0.557	1	0
Dark-Unlighted	0.117	1	0
Roadway Characteristics			
Number of Lanes			
Six Lanes	0.087	1	0
Speed Limit			
40 mph	0.113	1	0
50 mph	0.121	1	0

116 Due to the ordered nature of the crash injury severity level, several researchers used the ordered  
 117 logit/probit models to examine the relationship between crash factors and injury severity outcomes

118 [15,19,21]. With this in mind, this study models the pedestrian injury severity as follows: 0 for major  
 119 injury, 1 for minor injury, 2 for possible/no injury. The dependent variable  $y^*$  is specified as  
 120 follows, which is a latent and continuous measure of pedestrian injury severity of each observation  
 121  $n$  [22].

$$y^* = \beta X + \epsilon \quad (1)$$

122 where  $\beta$  = vector of crash parameters to be estimated,  $X$  = vector of explanatory variables (e.g.,  
 123 pedestrian, driver, vehicle, crash, and roadway characteristics), and  $\epsilon$  = random error term, which is  
 124 assumed to be normally distributed with mean 0 and variance 1.

125 The observed injury severity data  $y$  for each observation  $n$  can be represented as follows under  
 126 the probit modeling framework and by using Eq. (1) [22].

$$\begin{aligned} y &= 0 \text{ if } -\infty \leq y^* \leq \mu_0 \\ y &= 1 \text{ if } \mu_0 \leq y^* \leq \mu_1 \\ y &= 2 \text{ if } \mu_1 \leq y^* \leq \infty \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

127 where  $\mu$  = parameters or thresholds to be estimated between two adjacent injury severity levels that  
 128 define  $y$ .

129 The ordered probit model is defined as follows [22].

$$\begin{aligned} P_n(y = 0) &= \Phi(-\beta X) \\ P_n(y = 1) &= \Phi(\mu_1 - \beta X) - \Phi(-\beta X) \\ P_n(y = 2) &= 1 - \Phi(\mu_1 - \beta X) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

130 where  $P_n(y = 0)$  is the probability that observation  $n$  has the least order of injury severity (i.e.,  
 131 major injury) given a crash occurred and  $\Phi(\cdot)$  = standard normal cumulative distribution function.

132 To account for the unobserved heterogeneity, the fixed-parameters ordered probit model is  
 133 extended to include random-parameters as follows [23], where error term is correlated with the  
 134 unobserved factors in  $\epsilon$ .

$$\beta_k = \beta + \gamma_k \quad (4)$$

135 where  $\gamma_k$  = randomly distributed term (e.g., normal, lognormal, triangular) corresponding to  $k$ -th  
 136 explanatory variable. The random-parameters estimation is done using Halton sequence approach  
 137 and maximizing the simulated log-likelihood function [18, 19, 24].

138 To estimate the impact of variables on the likelihood of each injury severity level, elasticities are  
 139 often used. For a binary indicator variable (has value 0 or 1), the direct pseudo-elasticities are  
 140 computed as follows [9], which measures the change in estimated probability percentage of injury  
 141 severity when the dummy variable is switched between 0 and 1.

$$E_{X_{ink}}^{P_{in}} = \frac{P_{in}[\text{given } X_{ink} = 1] - P_{in}[\text{given } X_{ink} = 0]}{P_{in}[\text{given } X_{ink} = 0]} \quad (5)$$

142 where  $P_{in}$  = probability of injury severity level  $i$  for observation  $n$  as defined in Eq. (3) and  $X_{ink}$  is  
 143 the  $k$ -th explanatory variable associated with injury severity level  $i$  for observation  $n$ .

### 144 3. Results and Discussion

145 Fixed-parameters ordered probit model was estimated using maximum likelihood method and  
 146 random-parameters ordered probit model was estimated using *simulated* maximum likelihood  
 147 method. Five hundred Halton draws were used and it was assumed that random parameters are  
 148 normally distributed. The variables in both models were included in the model specifications when  
 149 they were statistically significant at 90% confidence level. Table 2 presents the model estimation  
 150 results along with the average direct pseudo-elasticity values. Note that elasticity values are  
 151 calculated from the random-parameters model results. A likelihood ratio test was performed,  
 152 following the methodology articulated in Washington et al. [22], to compare the fixed- and random-  
 153 parameters models.

$$\chi^2 = -2[LL_f(\beta^f) - LL_r(\beta^r)] \quad (6)$$

154 where  $LL_f(\beta^f) = \log$ -likelihood at the convergence of the fixed-parameters model (-3,336.07) and  
 155  $LL_r(\beta^r) = \log$ -likelihood at the convergence of the random-parameters model (-3,318.15). The Chi-  
 156 square test statistic with seven degrees of freedom resulted in a value greater than 99.99% confidence  
 157 limit, which indicates the validity of the random-parameters model over the corresponding fixed-  
 158 parameters model. Seven parameters, older pedestrian, older driver, DUI driving, truck, urban  
 159 location, dark-unlighted condition, and six lane roadways, were found to be random with statistically  
 160 significant standard deviations at 90% confidence level.

161 **Table 2.** Parameter estimates and elasticities

Explanatory Variable	Parameter Estimates		Average Direct Pseudo-Elasticities †		
	Fixed-Parameters Model	Random-Parameters Model	Major Injury	Minor Injury	Possible/No Injury
Pedestrian Characteristics					
Older Pedestrian	-0.27***	-0.39*** (1.00***) <sup>†</sup>	43.1%	-5.1%	-59.4%
Driver Characteristics					
Younger Driver	-0.12**	-0.18***	18.9%	-0.8%	-30.5%
Older Driver	0.12**	0.23*** (1.03***) <sup>†</sup>	-21.1%	-1.7%	41.9%
DUI Driving?					
Yes	-0.45***	-0.80*** (1.07***) <sup>†</sup>	95.2%	-20.5%	-102.2%
Vehicle Type					
Passenger Car	0.07*	0.08*	-8.1%	-0.1%	14.1%
Truck	-0.29***	-0.49*** (0.77***) <sup>†</sup>	55.9%	-8.7%	-70.5%
Crash Characteristics					
Urban	0.16**	0.26*** (0.89***) <sup>†</sup>	-27.4%	2.0%	41.5%
10 AM to 3:59 PM	0.17***	0.24***	-23.0%	-1.1%	43.4%
Weekday	0.12**	0.17***	-17.5%	0.6%	28.4%
Daylight	0.09*	0.12**	-12.0%	0.1%	20.8%
Dark-Unlighted	-0.29***	-0.50*** (1.10***) <sup>†</sup>	56.4%	-7.7%	-74.3%
Roadway Characteristics					
Six Lanes	-0.13*	-0.17** (0.85***) <sup>†</sup>	18.2%	-1.0%	-28.7%
40 mph	-0.24***	-0.36***	39.3%	-4.0%	-55.9%
50 mph	-0.37***	-0.55***	62.3%	-9.1%	-80.2%
Constant	0.36***	0.52***			
Threshold 1, $\mu_1$	1.05***	1.52***			
Log-likelihood at zero, $LL(0)$	-3,481.60	-3,481.60			
Log-likelihood at convergence, $LL(\beta)$	-3,336.07	-3,318.15			
AIC	6,704.1	6,682.3			
Number of Observations	3,184	3,184			

162 \*\*\* Statistically significant at  $\alpha = 0.01$ ; \*\* statistically significant at  $\alpha = 0.05$ ; \* statistically significant at  $\alpha =$   
 163 0.1; † the value in parenthesis represents the standard deviation of the random parameter; ‡ average direct  
 164 pseudo-elasticities are calculated from the random-parameters ordered probit model.

165 With regard to the pedestrian characteristics, only older pedestrian (age 65 and over) was found  
166 as statically significant. The parameter is random that is normally distributed with mean -0.39 and  
167 standard deviation of 1.00. Given these values, 65.2 percent of the observations have parameter  
168 values less than 0 and 34.8 percent greater than 0. For the majority of the observations, older  
169 pedestrians were found to be involved in more severe injuries. The elasticities demonstrated a 43.1  
170 percent increase in major injuries, 5.1 percent decrease in minor injuries and 59.4 percent decrease in  
171 possible/no injuries for older pedestrians. One possible explanation could be the fact that the older  
172 individuals may have less injury sustaining capability. Kim et al. [9,10] also found that with the  
173 increase in pedestrian age the probability of sustaining severe injury increases.

174 As for the driver characteristics, younger (less than 24) and older driver (65 and over), and  
175 driving under influence (DUI) were found as statistically significant. It was determined that when  
176 a pedestrian is struck by a young driver, the probability of major injuries sustained by the pedestrian  
177 increases by 18.9 percent. Conversely, the driver being older decreased the probability of major  
178 injuries by 21.1 percent. This may be because older drivers are more cautious while driving  
179 compared to young drivers as well as they drive more on lower speed roads. The older driver  
180 variable was found to be random and normally distributed with mean 0.23 and standard deviation  
181 1.03. With these estimates, 41.5 percent of the observations have parameter values less than 0 and  
182 58.5 percent greater than 0. This implies that slightly less than half of the observations result in  
183 severe injuries to pedestrians and slightly more than half result in less severe injuries. The variable  
184 DUI was found as random and normally distributed with mean -0.80 and standard deviation 1.07.  
185 The estimates suggest that for 77.3 percent of the observations the parameter values were less than 0.  
186 That means for the majority of the cases, where the driver was intoxicated, resulted in more severe  
187 injuries to the pedestrians. Specifically, intoxicated drivers were found to increase the probability  
188 of major injuries by 95.2 percent. This effect is the highest among other variables included in the  
189 models.

190 In terms of the vehicle type, the analysis results showed that passenger car and truck were the  
191 statistically significant type. Being struck by a passenger car is found to decrease the likelihood of  
192 major injuries by 8.1 percent and increase the likelihood of possible/no injuries by 14.1 percent. The  
193 variable "truck" was found to be random that is normally distributed with mean -0.49 and standard  
194 deviation of 0.77. This indicates that for 73.8 percent of the observations involving a truck  
195 experienced more severe injuries, whereas 26.2 percent experienced less severe injuries.  
196 Furthermore, being struck by a truck was found to increase the likelihood of major injuries by 55.9  
197 percent and decrease the likelihood of possible/no injuries by 70.5 percent. Trucks are heavier than  
198 other vehicle types, which leads to greater momentum and consequently more severe injuries.  
199 Similar results have been reported in the works by Abdul-Aziz et al. [3], Kim et al. [9,10], and Lee  
200 and Abdel-Aty [11].

201 With respect to the crash characteristics, crash location, crash time and day, and lighting  
202 condition were found as statistically significant. Crash occurring in urban locations were found as  
203 random and normally distributed with mean 0.26 and standard deviation 0.89. This implies that  
204 38.5 percent of the observations have parameter values less than 0 and 61.5 percent greater than 0.  
205 The majority of the observations have less severe injuries to the pedestrians when the crash occurred  
206 in urban locations. Specifically, crash in urban locations is associated with lower likelihood of major  
207 injuries (27.4 percent) and a higher likelihood of possible/no injuries (41.5 percent) compared to that  
208 of rural locations. One possible explanation could be the fact that emergency response time is faster  
209 in urban areas. When pedestrian-vehicle crashes occurred between 10 AM and 3:59 PM (daytime  
210 traffic volume off-peak), the likelihood of major injuries decreased by 23.0 percent and the likelihood  
211 of possible/no injuries increased by 43.4 percent. This may be due to the lower traffic during the off-  
212 peak hour and consequently lower chance of being involved in crashes in general. Crashes occurred  
213 during weekdays were found to decrease the likelihood of major injuries by 17.5 percent and increase  
214 the likelihood of possible/no injuries by 28.4 percent. Typically, during weekdays traffic volume is  
215 higher than weekend, which in turn results in lower travel speed. Hence, the risk of a pedestrian  
216 being involved in high impact speed reduces and consequently the chance of major injuries decreases.

217 The findings from the analysis for lighting condition variables are intuitive. The elasticity results  
218 indicate that the probability of major injuries was found to decrease under daylight condition (12.0  
219 percent), whereas the probability of major injuries was found to increase under dark-unlighted  
220 condition (56.4 percent). Under dark conditions, roadway visibility is lower, which may lead to  
221 more severe injuries to the pedestrians. These findings related to lighting variable are consistent to  
222 that prior pedestrian-vehicle safety studies [3,8–10,16]. Furthermore, the parameter for the dark-  
223 unlighted condition was found to be random and normally distributed with mean -0.50 and standard  
224 deviation 1.10. Given these estimates, 67.5 percent of the observations under dark-unlighted  
225 conditions were found to be involved in more severe injuries and 32.5 percent in less severe injuries.

226 As for the roadway characteristics, six-lane roadways, speed limit being 40 mph and 50 mph  
227 were found to be significant in explaining pedestrian-vehicle crash injury severity. The variable  
228 indicating six-lane roadways was found to be random and normally distributed with mean -0.17 and  
229 standard deviation 0.85. This indicates that slightly more than half of the observations (57.9 percent)  
230 where crashes occurred on six-lane roadways experienced more severe injuries and slightly less than  
231 half experienced less severe injuries. The probability of major injuries sustained by pedestrians was  
232 found to increase by 18.2 percent when crashes occurred on six-lane roadways and the probability of  
233 possible/no injuries was found to decrease by 28.7 percent. A possible reason could be the fact that  
234 six-lane roadways carry higher traffic; hence, the chance of pedestrians being involved in crashes  
235 increases. In terms of the speed limit, higher speed was found to increase the likelihood of major  
236 injuries: 39.3 percent in case of 40 mph and 62.3 percent in case of 50 mph. These findings are  
237 reasonable since higher speed impact results in more severe injuries.

#### 238 4. Conclusions and Recommendations

239 This study employed fixed- and random-parameters ordered probit models to analyze pedestrian,  
240 driver, vehicle, crash, and roadway factors associated with the injury severity of pedestrians from  
241 pedestrian-vehicle crashes in the state of Ohio using crash data from 2009 to 2013. The injury  
242 severity of pedestrians was defined as major injury, minor injury, and possible/no injury.  
243 Likelihood ratio test suggested that random-parameters model is appropriate to investigate  
244 pedestrian crash data due to the unobserved heterogeneity (i.e., unobserved factors) coming from  
245 underreporting of the pedestrian severity level. It was found from the analysis that being older  
246 pedestrian (65 and over), younger driver (less than 24), driving under influence (DUI), being struck  
247 by truck, dark-unlighted roadways, six-lane roadways, and speed limit of 40 mph and 50 mph were  
248 associated with more severe injuries to the pedestrians. In contrast, older driver (65 and over),  
249 passenger car, crash occurring in urban locations, daytime traffic off-peak (10 AM to 3:59 PM),  
250 weekdays, and daylight condition were associated with less severe injuries. The method and findings  
251 from the study would help policy makers in state departments of transportation to identify critical  
252 crash factors and to develop safety countermeasures to reduce pedestrian injuries.

253 Based on the findings, a number of practical policy implications can be made. First, it is  
254 recommended to increase traffic safety educational and behavioral programs targeting specifically  
255 the older pedestrians. These people were found to be associated with more severe injuries. This  
256 may be caused due to the fact that older people often make unsafe street-crossing decisions, walk  
257 slowly during the crossing, and face difficulty in selecting safe gaps [24–26]. Training programs  
258 could significantly improve older pedestrians' judgments in street-crossing decision making as well  
259 as have short- and long-term benefits [27]. Furthermore, these older pedestrians need special  
260 attention since the population aged 65 and over from 2000 to 2010 in Ohio has increased by 7.6 percent  
261 [28]. Second, communication and educational campaigns employing persuasive messages should  
262 be run highlighting the dangers of unsafe driving (e.g., speeding and violation of traffic laws) to  
263 young drivers [29]. For teen drivers, stricter traffic rules and regulations could be enforced. Third,  
264 driver intoxication was found as a factor having the highest effect on pedestrian injury severity and  
265 the probability of major injuries increased by about 73 percent when the driver hitting the pedestrian  
266 was intoxicated. Hence, it is highly recommended to enforce stricter rules and fines in case of DUI  
267 driving as well as promote DUI prevention campaigns to raise awareness among the drivers.

268 Fourth, the impact of a pedestrian being hit by a heavier vehicle is significantly higher than that of a  
269 passenger car. Hence, based on the number of the pedestrian fatalities and injuries caused by trucks,  
270 local and state authorities may consider restricting truck traffic from certain segments of the  
271 roadways with high pedestrian activities and during peak pedestrian hours. Fifth, the difference in  
272 the effect of lighting on pedestrian injury severity is observed from the analysis; daylight condition  
273 was associated with less severe injuries and dark condition was associated with more severe injuries.  
274 Hence, it is recommended to increase the level of lighting (i.e., installing street lights) at the roadway  
275 segments where the chance of pedestrian crashes is higher during nighttime. Additionally, drivers  
276 may be educated to be more cautious and to use compensating behaviors on roadways with  
277 pedestrians during darkness. Sixth, the probability of a pedestrian sustaining more severe injury  
278 was higher from crashes occurring on six-lane roadways. Having six lanes in a roadway segment  
279 implies longer crossing distance for pedestrians and higher traffic volume. Pedestrian signals are  
280 recommended to be installed if it is warranted by pedestrian volume. Also, grade-separated  
281 pedestrian crossings could be installed. Lastly, pedestrian-vehicle crashes occurring in areas having  
282 higher traffic speed limit were found to increase the probability of a pedestrian being involved in  
283 major injuries. In areas with high pedestrian activities and with crash history, as a safety  
284 countermeasure, speed limit could be reduced.

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