

1 Article

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

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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. [5] 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) considered in this study. 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 “day of  
 113 week” is 0.793, meaning that 79.3% of the pedestrian were involved in crashes during weekdays and  
 114 20.7% of the pedestrians were involved in crashes on weekends.

115 Due to the ordered nature of the crash injury severity level, several researchers used the ordered  
 116 logit/probit models to examine the relationship between crash factors and injury severity outcomes  
 117 [15,19,21]. With this in mind, this study models the pedestrian injury severity as follows: 0 for major  
 118 injury, 1 for minor injury, 2 for possible/no injury. The dependent variable  $y^*$  is specified as  
 119 follows, which is a latent and continuous measure of pedestrian injury severity of each observation  
 120  $n$  [22].

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Explanatory Variable	Mean	SD
Pedestrian Characteristics		
Age		
Less than 18 (1 if less than 18 years old; 0 otherwise)	0.225	0.417
18–24 (1 if between 18 and 24 years; 0 otherwise)	0.156	0.363
25–54 (1 if between 25 and 54 years; 0 otherwise)	0.427	0.495
55–64 (1 if between 55 and 64 years; 0 otherwise)	0.104	0.305
Over 65 (1 if over 65 years; 0 otherwise)	0.088	0.284
Gender (1 if female; 0 otherwise)	0.415	0.493
Driver Characteristics		
Age		
Less than 24 (1 if less than 24 years old; 0 otherwise)	0.190	0.393
25–54 (1 if between 25 and 54 years; 0 otherwise)	0.526	0.499
55–64 (1 if between 55 and 64 years; 0 otherwise)	0.147	0.354
Over 65 (1 if over 65 years; 0 otherwise)	0.137	0.344
Gender (1 if female; 0 otherwise)	0.437	0.496
DUI driving (1 if yes; 0 otherwise)	0.074	0.261
Restraint use (1 if seat belt; 0 otherwise)	0.868	0.338
Vehicle Type		
Passenger car (1 if passenger car; 0 otherwise)	0.549	0.498
Truck (1 if truck; 0 otherwise)	0.048	0.213
Minivan (1 if minivan; 0 otherwise)	0.064	0.245
SUV (1 if SUV; 0 otherwise)	0.178	0.393
Pickup truck (1 if pickup truck; 0 otherwise)	0.127	0.332
Crash Characteristics		
Crash location (1 if urban; 0 otherwise)	0.875	0.331
Time of day		
7 AM–9:59 AM (1 if between 7 AM and 10 AM; 0 otherwise)	0.119	0.324
10 AM–3:59 PM (1 if between 10 AM and 4 PM; 0 otherwise)	0.302	0.459
4 PM–6:59 PM (1 if between 4 PM and 7 PM; 0 otherwise)	0.227	0.418
7 PM–6:59 AM (1 if between 7 PM and 7 AM; 0 otherwise)	0.352	0.478
Day of week (1 if weekday; 0 otherwise)	0.793	0.405
Lighting Condition		
Daylight (1 if daylight; 0 otherwise)	0.557	0.497
Dark-unlighted (1 if dark without street light; 0 otherwise)	0.117	0.321
Dark-lighted (1 if dark with street light; 0 otherwise)	0.268	0.443
Weather condition (1 if adverse weather; 0 otherwise)	0.176	0.381
Roadway Characteristics		
Number of lanes		
Two lanes (1 if two lanes roadway; 0 otherwise)	0.290	0.454
Four lanes (1 if four lanes roadway; 0 otherwise)	0.585	0.493
Six lanes (1 if six lanes roadway; 0 otherwise)	0.087	0.282
Speed limit		
≤ 35 mph (1 if ≤ 35 mph roadway; 0 otherwise)	0.698	0.459
40 mph (1 if 40 mph roadway; 0 otherwise)	0.113	0.317
50 mph (1 if 50 mph roadway; 0 otherwise)	0.121	0.326
≥ 60 mph (1 if ≥ 60 mph roadway; 0 otherwise)	0.068	0.251

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

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

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

### 145 3. Results and Discussion

146 To validate the crash data, a two-thirds random sample was generated from the master dataset.  
 147 The injury severity was selected for strata so that the proper proportioning is ensured. A random-  
 148 parameters ordered probit model was then estimated using the two-thirds sample. Then the model  
 149 is compared using the holdout sample (i.e., remaining one-third sample). It was found that the  
 150 coefficients decreased relative to the population size. That means the dataset is valid for the  
 151 modeling approach [24].

152 Fixed-parameters ordered probit model was estimated using maximum likelihood method and  
 153 random-parameters ordered probit model was estimated using *simulated* maximum likelihood  
 154 method. Five hundred Halton draws were used and it was assumed that random parameters are  
 155 normally distributed. The variables in both models were included in the model specifications when  
 156 they were statistically significant at 90% confidence level. Furthermore, to avoid the inclusion of  
 157 highly correlated variables in the model, a correlation matrix was estimated and the results indicate  
 158 that none of the variables have a correlation value of more than  $\pm 0.20$  [19,25]. In addition, the  
 159 Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values were estimated for all explanatory variables. The VIF values  
 160 were less 10, which suggest that there is no need to concern about multicollinearity in the model.  
 161 Table 2 presents the model estimation results along with the average direct pseudo-elasticity values.  
 162 Note that elasticity values are calculated from the random-parameters model results. A likelihood  
 163 ratio test was performed, following the methodology articulated in Washington et al. [22], to compare  
 164 the fixed- and random-parameters models.

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

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

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

181 As for the driver characteristics, younger (less than 24) and older driver (65 and over), and  
 182 driving under influence (DUI) were found as statistically significant. It was determined that when  
 183 a pedestrian is struck by a young driver, the probability of major injuries sustained by the pedestrian  
 184 increases by 18.9 percent. Conversely, the driver being older decreased the probability of major

185 injuries by 21.1 percent. This may be because older drivers are more cautious while driving  
 186 compared to young drivers as well as they drive more on lower speed roads. The older driver  
 187 variable was found to be random and normally distributed with mean 0.23 and standard deviation  
 188 1.03. With these estimates, 41.5 percent of the observations have parameter values less than 0 and  
 189 58.5 percent greater than 0. This implies that slightly less than half of the observations result in  
 190 severe injuries to pedestrians and slightly more than half result in less severe injuries. The variable  
 191 DUI was found as random and normally distributed with mean -0.80 and standard deviation 1.07.  
 192 The estimates suggest that for 77.3 percent of the observations the parameter values were less than 0.  
 193 That means for the majority of the cases, where the driver was intoxicated, resulted in more severe  
 194 injuries to the pedestrians. Specifically, intoxicated drivers were found to increase the probability  
 195 of major injuries by 95.2 percent. This effect is the highest among other variables.

196

**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					
Over 65	-0.27***	-0.39*** (1.00***) <sup>†</sup>	43.1%	-5.1%	-59.4%
Driver Characteristics					
Less than 24	-0.12**	-0.18***	18.9%	-0.8%	-30.5%
Over 65	0.12**	0.23*** (1.03***) <sup>†</sup>	-21.1%	-1.7%	41.9%
DUI driving	-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					
Crash location	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%
Day of week	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			

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 198  
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\*\*\* Statistically significant at  $\alpha = 0.01$ ; \*\* statistically significant at  $\alpha = 0.05$ ; \* statistically significant at  $\alpha = 0.1$ ; † the value in parenthesis represents the standard deviation of the random parameter; ‡ average direct pseudo-elasticities are calculated from the random-parameters ordered probit model.

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

211 With respect to the crash characteristics, crash location, crash time and day, and lighting  
212 condition were found as statistically significant. Crash occurring in urban locations were found as  
213 random and normally distributed with mean 0.26 and standard deviation 0.89. This implies that  
214 38.5 percent of the observations have parameter values less than 0 and 61.5 percent greater than 0.  
215 The majority of the observations have less severe injuries to the pedestrians when the crash occurred  
216 in urban locations. Specifically, crash in urban locations is associated with lower likelihood of major  
217 injuries (27.4 percent) and a higher likelihood of possible/no injuries (41.5 percent) compared to that  
218 of rural locations. One possible explanation could be the fact that emergency response time is faster  
219 in urban areas. When pedestrian-vehicle crashes occurred between 10 AM and 3:59 PM (daytime  
220 traffic volume off-peak), the likelihood of major injuries decreased by 23.0 percent and the likelihood  
221 of possible/no injuries increased by 43.4 percent. This may be due to the lower traffic during the off-  
222 peak hour and consequently lower chance of being involved in crashes in general. Crashes occurred  
223 during weekdays were found to decrease the likelihood of major injuries by 17.5 percent and increase  
224 the likelihood of possible/no injuries by 28.4 percent. Typically, during weekdays traffic volume is  
225 higher than weekend, which in turn results in lower travel speed. Hence, the risk of a pedestrian  
226 being involved in high impact speed reduces and consequently the chance of major injuries decreases.  
227 The findings from the analysis for lighting condition variables are intuitive. The elasticity results  
228 indicate that the probability of major injuries was found to decrease under daylight condition (12.0  
229 percent), whereas the probability of major injuries was found to increase under dark-unlighted  
230 condition (56.4 percent). Under dark conditions, roadway visibility is lower, which may lead to  
231 more severe injuries to the pedestrians. These findings related to lighting variable are consistent to  
232 that prior pedestrian-vehicle safety studies [3,8–10,16]. Furthermore, the parameter for the dark-  
233 unlighted condition was found to be random and normally distributed with mean -0.50 and standard  
234 deviation 1.10. Given these estimates, 67.5 percent of the observations under dark-unlighted  
235 conditions were found to be involved in more severe injuries and 32.5 percent in less severe injuries.

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

248 In summary, this study is the first to use both fixed- and random-parameters ordered probit  
249 modeling approach to pedestrian vehicle crash data in a U.S. state. It investigated the crash factors  
250 and determined which factors are influencing injury severity of pedestrians from motor vehicles  
251 crashes, specifically for the crashes occurring in the state of Ohio. As evident from the Tables 1 and

252 2, some of the variables were found as not significant in explaining the injury severity. However,  
253 some of those variables were found as significant by other studies from different U.S. states. For  
254 instance, Kim et al. [9] found that in North Carolina male pedestrians are 1.2 times more vulnerable  
255 to major injuries compared to female pedestrians. Islam and Jones [8] demonstrated that in Alabama  
256 female pedestrians are about 3 percent more likely to involved in major injuries compared to their  
257 male counterparts. Conversely, Pour-Rouholamin and Zhou [14] found that pedestrian gender is  
258 not significant for the injury severity in Illinois. This study found the pedestrian gender as not  
259 significantly related to the injury severity in Ohio. A similar pattern is present among the studies  
260 for the SUV. This current study did not found SUV as significant in explaining injury severity. Lee  
261 and Abdel-Aty [11] reported similar finding for the pedestrians in Florida. However, Ballesteros et  
262 al. [5] indicated that SUVs were associated with more severe injuries in Maryland. Pour-  
263 Rouholamin and Zhou [14] reported that SUVs increases the probability of being involved in severe  
264 injuries by 8.6 percent. The above further validates the disaggregated pedestrian vehicle crash data  
265 analysis in Ohio.

#### 266 4. Conclusions and Recommendations

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

281 Based on the findings, a number of practical policy implications can be made. First, it is  
282 recommended to use marked crosswalks along with a traffic signal or stop sign where older  
283 pedestrian crashes are higher [26]. These older pedestrians need special attention since the  
284 population aged 65 and over from 2000 to 2010 in Ohio has increased by 7.6 percent [27]. Second,  
285 for young drivers, stricter traffic rules and regulations could be enforced. Third, driver intoxication  
286 was found as a factor having the highest effect on pedestrian injury severity and the probability of  
287 major injuries increased by about 73 percent when the driver hitting the pedestrian was intoxicated.  
288 Hence, it is highly recommended to enforce stricter rules and fines in case of DUI. Fourth, the impact  
289 of a pedestrian being hit by a heavier vehicle is significantly higher than that of a passenger car.  
290 Hence, based on the number of the pedestrian fatalities and injuries caused by trucks, local and state  
291 authorities may consider restricting truck traffic from certain segments of the roadways with high  
292 pedestrian activities and during peak pedestrian hours. Fifth, the difference in the effect of lighting  
293 on pedestrian injury severity is observed from the analysis; daylight condition was associated with  
294 less severe injuries and dark condition was associated with more severe injuries. Hence, it is  
295 recommended to increase the level of lighting (i.e., installing street lights) at the roadway segments  
296 where the chance of pedestrian crashes is higher during nighttime. Sixth, the probability of a  
297 pedestrian sustaining more severe injury was higher from crashes occurring on six-lane roadways.  
298 Having six lanes in a roadway segment implies longer crossing distance for pedestrians and higher  
299 traffic volume. Pedestrian signals are recommended to be installed if it is warranted by pedestrian  
300 volume. Also, grade-separated pedestrian crossings could be installed. Lastly, pedestrian-vehicle  
301 crashes occurring in areas having higher traffic speed limit were found to increase the probability of



302 a pedestrian being involved in major injuries. In areas with high pedestrian activities and with crash  
303 history, as a safety countermeasure, speed limit could be reduced.

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