

Tool to Evaluate Safety Effects of Changes in Freeway Traffic Flow

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Abstract: This research involves the development of a tool that can be used to assess the changes in traffic safety tendencies that result from changes in traffic flow. The tool uses data from single inductive loop detectors, converting 30-second observations of volume and occupancy for multiple freeway lanes into traffic flow regimes. Each regime has a specific pattern of crash types, which were determined through nonlinear multivariate analyses of over 1,000 crashes on freeways in Southern California. These analyses revealed ways in which differences in variances in speeds and volumes across lanes, as well as central tendencies of speeds and volumes, combine in complex ways to explain crash taxonomy. This research may provide the foundation to forecast the crash rates, in terms of vehicle miles of travel, for vehicles that are exposed to different traffic flow conditions.

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CE Database subject headings: Traffic flow; Traffic safety; California; Accident prediction; Research.

Background

Benefit/cost comparisons have long been a standard in assessing the effectiveness of investment of limited resources, and they have served as an essential element in determining the most effective allocation of such resources. Assessment of benefits of advanced traffic management system (ATMS) and intelligent transportation system (ITS) improvements largely translates into a problem of quantifying the benefits of improved traffic flow. Improved flow ostensibly leads to reductions in travel time, vehicle emissions, fuel usage, and psychological stress on drivers, as well as to improved safety. Developing these comparisons presents a perplexing problem for operating agencies, primarily because hard numbers cannot be obtained practically by direct measurement (e.g., by shutting down ramp metering or curtailing freeway service patrols for a period of time to measure consequences). This measurement problem is heightened dramatically when issues of safety are involved, but one of the most compelling arguments for implementation of ITS elements is their presumed enhancement of traffic safety.

There is strong empirical evidence of functional relationships between crash rates and traffic flow (Gwynn 1967; Vickery 1969; Cedar and Livneh 1982; Frantzeskakis and Iordanis 1987; Newberry 1988; Sullivan and Hsu 1988; Hall and Pendleton 1989; Garber and Gadiraju 1990; Jones-Lee 1990; Sullivan 1990; Vitaliano and Held 1991; Jansson 1994; O'Reilly et al. 1994; Jo-

hansson 1996; Maher and Summersgill 1996; Sandhu and Al-Kazily 1996; Stokes and Mutabazi 1996; Shefer and Rietveld 1997; Zhou and Sisiopiku 1997; Alijanahi et al. 1999; Dickerson et al. 2000). Nevertheless, the manner in which safety is improved by smoothing traffic flow is not well understood at this time. The present research is aimed at shedding light on the complex relationships between traffic flow and traffic crashes. The overall objective is to develop an evaluation tool that uses relationships between traffic flow and crash characteristics to assess the safety benefits that are likely to be realized under specific ATMS implementations.

A software tool called FITS (Flow Impacts on Traffic Safety) has been developed that uses a data stream of 30 s observations from single inductance loop detectors to forecast the types of crashes that are most likely to occur for the flow conditions being monitored. The algorithm, in its present form, is based on analyses of crash characteristics of more than 1,000 crashes on six major freeways in Orange County, California, in 1998 as a function of traffic flow conditions for a 30-min time period immediately preceding the crashes. The algorithm could be reestimated for other urban areas if similar data were available.

In previous research (Golob and Recker 2003), we conducted a series of analyses aimed at determining the extent to which traffic flow variables, in the form of 30-s observations from single inductive loop detectors, account for variation in accident typology, controlling for ambient weather (wet or dry) and lighting (daylight or nighttime) conditions. The data used here, as described here in the section "Data," are a subset of the data used in the previous study. In the previous study, we used nonlinear (non-parametric) canonical correlation analysis applied with three sets of variables: (1) crash characteristics; (2) traffic flow variables; and (3) segmentation based on weather and lighting conditions.

Nonlinear canonical correlation analysis (NLCCA) (van der Burg and de Leeuw 1983; De Leeuw 1985; van de Geer 1986; Gifi 1990; ver Boon 1996; Michailidis and de Leeuw 1998) is a form of canonical correlation analysis in which categorical and ordinal variables are optimally scaled as an integral component in finding linear combinations of variables with the highest correlations among them. The analysis revealed clear patterns relating

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crash characteristics and prevailing traffic flow conditions, and it showed how these relationships are conditional upon lighting and weather. Prevailing traffic flow conditions were measured in terms of statistics derived from approximately 30 min of lane-specific 30 s loop-detector observations prior to the time of each crash.

We concluded from the Golob and Recker (2003) study that an evaluation tool could be developed to forecast the types of crashes that are most likely to occur under different traffic flow conditions. This tool uses a similar data stream of observations from single inductive loop detectors and is based on some of the same statistical methods used in the previous study, with the addition of several new steps required for monitoring and forecasting purposes. Our results may provide the foundation to forecast the crash rates, in terms of vehicle miles of travel, for vehicles that are exposed to different traffic flow conditions.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Data are discussed next followed by a Section called "Finding traffic flow regimes that best describe crash typology." There we present results of the analyses, in which we determine how traffic flow is related to differences in safety. For reporting purposes, results are shown for only one segment of weather and lighting conditions: dry roadways during daylight and dusk-dawn conditions. In "Case study application," we apply the tool in a case study of a section of one freeway for one week. In "Demonstration of the tool," we present a hypothetical example of how the FITS tool could be used to assess expected safety benefits accrued from ATMS applications. We close with conclusions and a discussion of future research.

Data

Case Study

Our data cover crashes that occurred on six major freeway routes in Orange County, California, during calendar year 1998. Orange County is located on the Pacific Coast between Los Angeles and San Diego Counties, and the six freeways included in this study account for over 209 route kilometers (130 mi), with between three and six lanes in each direction.

Crash data were drawn from the Traffic Accident Surveillance and Analysis System (TASAS) database (CALTRANS 1993), which covers all police-reported crashes on the California State Highway System. In 1998, there were a total of 9,341 mainline crashes on the six Orange County freeway routes. Out of these 9,341 crashes, 1,192 (12.8%) had valid loop detector data for a full 30 min preceding the crash for three designated lanes at a loop detector station that was relatively close to the crash. For each of the crash characteristics used in this study, contingency table chi-squared tests revealed that there was no statistically significant difference (at a 95% confidence level) between the selected subset of 1,192 crashes and the unused subset of 8,150 crashes. The average distance from the crash location to the closest detector station for the 1,192 crashes was 274 m (0.17 mi) and the median distance was 193 m (0.12 mi). Fully 78% of these crashes were located within 400 m (0.25 mi) of the closest detector station.

Traffic flow data are in the form of 30 s loop detector data at the closet detector station to the scene of the crash for 30 min preceding the reported time of the crash. Each observation provides count and percentage occupancy for a 30 s time slice. At each mainline loop detector station, data are available for each freeway lane. A consistent scheme was used for designation of

lanes comprising the analysis: (1) the left lane was always the lane designated as being the number one lane according to standard nomenclature; (2) one interior lane was designated lane number two on three- and four-lane freeway sections and lane number three on five- and six-lane sections; and (3) the right lane. Because the reported times are typically rounded off to 5 min intervals, crash times are not known with precision. In recognition of this, the loop data for the 2.5 min period immediately preceding the reported times were discarded in order to avoid potential inclusion of postcrash conditions.

Segmentation Based on Weather and Lighting Conditions

In Golob and Recker (2003), we present empirical evidence confirming previous observations (e.g., Fridstrøm et al. 1995) that relationships between safety and traffic flow conditions depend upon driving conditions, defined by weather and ambient lighting conditions. By analyzing all combinations of lighting and weather conditions, we determined that the wet-night and wet-day segments can be combined into a single wet segment, and the relatively sparse dry-dusk-dawn segment can be combined with the dry-day segment. The resulting segmentation for Orange County crashes in 1998 is (1) dry-day (including dusk-dawn); 819 crashes; (2) dry-night, 217 crashes; and (3) wet (any lighting condition), 156 crashes. For the purpose of developing an evaluation tool, we conducted separate analyses for each of these three segments. However, for purposes of brevity, in the remainder of this paper we report on results for only the largest segment: daylight and dusk-dawn conditions on dry roads.

Crash Characteristics

Three crash characteristics were used in this analysis: (1) crash type, based on the type of collision (rear end, sideswipe, or hit object), the number of vehicles involved, and the movement of these vehicles prior to the crash; (2) crash location, based on the location of the primary collision (e.g., left lane, interior lanes, right lane, right shoulder area, off-road beyond right shoulder area); and (3) crash severity, in terms of injuries and fatalities per vehicle. Based on exploratory statistical analyses, and taking into account requirements on minimum category frequencies, we used six categories of crash type, five categories of crash location, and two categories of crash severity. We were only able to use two categories for crash severity because there were very few fatal crashes and the extent of nonfatal injuries is not recorded in the TASAS database. These variables are described in Table 1.

Traffic Flow Variables

This research uses raw detector data that provide information on two variables, count and occupancy, for each 30 s interval. Although these two variables can be used (under very restrictive assumptions of uniform speed and average vehicle length, and taking into account the physical installation of each loop) to infer estimates of point speeds, we avoid making any such assumptions and use only these direct measurements.

Based on preliminary analyses, four blocks of three variables (one variable for each of the three lanes: left, interior, and right) were found to be related to crash typology. The first block comprises the median of the ratio of volume to occupancy for each of the three lanes, an approximate proportional indicator of space mean speed. Median, rather than mean, is used in order to avoid

Table 1. Characteristics of Crashes during Daylight on Dry Roads ($N=819$ crashes)

Crash characteristic	Percent of sample
Crash type	
Single vehicle hit object or overturn	10.5
Multiple vehicle hit object or overturn	5.6
Two-vehicle weaving crash ^a	17.8
Three-or-more-vehicle weaving crash ^a	5.1
Two-vehicle straight-on rear end crash	38.2
Three-or-more-vehicle straight-on rear end	22.7
Crash location	
Off-road, driver's left	12.3
Left lane	30.4
Interior lane(s)	32.5
Right lane	18.7
Off road, driver's right	6.1
Severity	
Property damage only	75.0
Injury or fatality	25.0

^aSideswipe or rear end crash involving lane change or other turning maneuver.

the influence of outlying observations that can be due to failure of the loop detectors or unusual vehicle mixes. The second block comprises the difference of the 90th percentile and the 50th percentile in the ratio of volume to occupancy (density) for each lane and represents the temporal variation of this ratio. Here we use the percentile differences because we wish to minimize the influence of outlying observations. The third block comprises the mean volumes for all three lanes taken over the entire 27.5 min period preceding the accident. Volume alone is not as sensitive to outliers as the ratio of volume to occupancy is, so mean, rather than median, is used as a measure of central tendency. Finally, the fourth block is composed of the standard deviations of the 30 s volumes for all three lanes as a measure of variation in volume over the 27.5 min period.

We expect that some of the traffic flow variables will be highly correlated, clouding interpretation of analysis results. Specifically, the three variables in each of the four blocks might be highly correlated if the flow characteristic being measured is consistent across all three lanes. However, it is not known how strongly these particular measures of traffic flow are linked across lanes, and this is especially true of speed and volume variances. To minimize this potential problem, we apply principal components analysis (PCA) to extract a sufficient number of factors to identify independent traffic flow variables while simultaneously discarding as little of the information in the original variables as possible.

A PCA with varimax rotation was performed on the twelve traffic flow variables (i.e., the four blocks of three variables de-

finied previously) for the group of crashes that occurred during daylight or dusk-dawn on dry roads. Six factors accounted for 86.8% of the variance in the original 12 variables. One variable was then selected to represent each factor in the subsequent stages of the analysis. These six variables are listed in Table 2, together with the factor that each represents.

The factor loadings (not shown) indicate that the central tendency of speed (variable block 1) is consistent across all three lanes. The variable chosen to represent this central tendency of speed factor is median volume/occupancy in the interior lane. The second factor represents the temporal variation in volume/density on the left and interior lanes only. Variation in volume/density in the right lane is captured by a separate, third factor. The implication here is that the variation in speed in the rightmost lane, which tends to be influenced by weaving in the vicinity of freeway on- and off-ramps, relates to crash characteristics in a fundamentally different way from the variation in speed that is attributable primarily to mainline freeway flow.

A single factor (the fourth factor in Table 2) also encompasses the central tendency of volume in all three lanes. Mean volume in the left lane was chosen to represent this factor in all further analyses. Finally, the PCA results also show that temporal variations in volumes on the three lanes is partitioned into two factors: variations in volume on the left and interior lanes (fifth factor), and variation in volume on the right lane (sixth and last factor in Table 2). Volume in the rightmost lane, which has a direct influence on the level of service in the vicinity of freeway on- and off-ramps, relates to crash characteristics in a fundamentally different way from flow in the other lanes.

Finding Traffic Flow Regimes that Best Explain Crash Typology

Clustering in Six-Dimensional Space of Traffic Flow Variables

Cluster analyses were performed in the space of these six principal traffic flow variables in order to establish relatively homogeneous traffic flow regimes. A k -means clustering algorithm was used. The objective was to determine the best grouping of observations into a specified number of clusters, such that the pooled-within-groups variance is as small as possible as compared with the between-group variance given by the distances between the cluster centers. We repeated runs of the clustering algorithm with different initial cluster centers to avoid local optima.

The optimal number of clusters, specific to any particular problem, is usually determined by inspecting clustering criteria developed from eigenvalues of the characteristic equation involving the ratio of the pooled-within-groups and between-groups covariance matrices (e.g., Wilk's Lambda, given by the ratio of the determinants of the within-groups and total covariance matrices,

Table 2. Loop Detector Variables Used as Input to the Flow Impacts on Traffic Safety Tool

Specific variable	Factor represented
Median volume/occupancy interior lane	Central tendency of speed: all lanes
90th–50th percentile of volume/occupancy interior lane	Variation in speed: all but right lane
90th–50th percentile of volume/occupancy right lane	Variation in speed: right lane
Mean volume left lane	Central tendency of volume: all lanes
Standard deviation of volume interior lane	Variation in volume: all but right lane
Standard deviation of volume right lane	Variation in volume: right lane

or Hotelling's Trace, given by the sum of the eigenvalues of the characteristic equation). Selection of the optimal number of groups using such criteria is relatively arbitrary. To reduce such arbitrariness, we instead conducted a nonlinear canonical correlation analysis (NLCCA, described previously) for each clustering solution, adopting a two-dimensional solution. The NLCCA problem was configured with the multiple nominal cluster variable on one side and the three single nominal crash variables described in Table 1 on the other side. The criteria that describe how well each of the cluster variables explain the crash characteristics are the canonical correlations between the two sets of variables, one for each of the variates of the two-dimensional solution. For prevailing traffic conditions for crashes on dry roads during daylight, the canonical correlations for the first dimension were found to reach a maximum at eight clusters; the fit for the second dimension has a local maximum at eight clusters, but does not achieve a global optimum until the 13-cluster level is reached. Based on these results, and corroborative evidence from Wilk's Lambda and Hotelling's Trace, we selected eight clusters, which we refer to as eight distinct traffic flow regimes.

The eight traffic flow regimes can be described based on the location of their cluster centers in the six-dimensional space of the traffic flow variables. Briefly, they are, ordered in terms of increasing flow (D1) light free flow, (D2) heavily congested flow, (D3) congested flow, (D4) light right-variable flow, (D5) flow at capacity, (D6) heavy, variable flow, (D7) heavy, steady flow, and (D8) flow near capacity. A more complete description is provided in Table 4.

Crash Profiles for Eight Traffic Flow Regimes

Nonlinear canonical correlation analysis (NLCCA) of the eight-category regime segmentation variable versus the three crash characteristics was used to determine how the traffic flow regimes are related to patterns of crash characteristics. Another way to view the problem is to ask how the crash characteristics distinguish among traffic flow regimes. Indeed, NLCCA with a single categorical (segmentation) variable in one set is equivalent to nonlinear (nonparametric) discriminant analysis.

A two-dimensional NLCCA solution was chosen. The canonical correlations, which indicate the percentage of variance that is shared between the two sets of variables—the traffic flow regimes and the crash characteristics—are 0.424 for the first canonical variate and 0.150 for the second variate. Thus, the first variate is considerably more important in explaining differences in crash characteristics in terms of traffic flow regimes. The two independent variates combine to explain 0.574 of shared variance between the two sets of variables. The R^2 value for the regression of the optimally scaled crash characteristics on each of the independent canonical variates is 0.712 for the first canonical variate and 0.574 for the second variate.

Table 3 lists the centroids for all categories of the four optimally scaled variables on the two independent canonical variates. These category centroids can be used to label the canonical variates. The distances between the centroids of any two categories in the two-dimensional space of the canonical variates is a measure of the association between the categories.

The traffic flow regimes (Table 3) are ordered on the first variate from low to high in terms of decreasing mean speed in the interior lanes. The four regimes that score in the positive domain of the first variate (D8, D5, D3, and D2) are more similar to one another; they all represent heavy traffic, and their ordering from low to high is according to mean volume, rather than mean speed.

Table 3. Category Centroids: Nonlinear Canonical Correlation Analysis of Traffic Flow Regimes versus Three Crash Characteristics for Crashes during Daylight on Dry Roads

Variable and category	Variate 1	Variate 2
Set 1: Traffic flow regime		
D1: light free flow	-0.87	1.04
D2: heavily congested flow	0.59	1.79
D3: congested flow	0.62	0.24
D4: light right-variable flow	-1.74	-0.12
D5: flow at capacity	0.75	-0.87
D6: heavy, variable flow	-0.43	-0.46
D7: heavy, steady flow	-0.47	-0.36
D8: flow near capacity	0.83	0.25
Set 2: Crash type		
Single vehicle hit object or overturn	-1.69	-0.37
Multiple vehicle hit object or overturn	-1.36	-0.38
Two-vehicle weaving crash ^a	-0.24	0.32
Three-or-more-vehicle weaving crash ^a	-0.71	-0.19
Two-vehicle straight-on rear end	0.54	0.13
Three-or-more-vehicle straight-on rear end	0.56	-0.16
Set 2: Crash location		
Off-road, driver's left	-0.71	-0.07
Left lane	0.62	-0.96
Interior lane(s)	-0.08	0.72
Right lane	0.10	0.41
Off road, driver's right	-1.50	-0.21
Set 2: Severity		
Property damage only	0.13	0.15
Injury or fatality	-0.39	-0.46

^aSideswipe or rear end crash involving lane change or other turning maneuver.

The first dimension captures aspects of the density (concentration) dimension of the fundamental diagram of traffic flow versus traffic density (Prigogine and Herman 1971). The second canonical variate, which by definition is independent of the first in terms of its functional relationships with the two sets of variables, primarily distinguishes high-flow regimes (regimes D5, D6, and D7), from low-flow regimes (D2 and D1). This dimension captures the flow dimension of the fundamental diagram.

Crash type is more strongly explained by the first ($R^2=0.544$) than the second canonical variate ($R^2=0.071$). Thus, crash type is related more to density in the fundamental diagram. The optimal scaling of the crash type categories contrasts hit-object versus rear-end crashes, with weaving crashes in between. As expected, rear-end crashes are associated with high density traffic, and hit-object crashes are associated with low density traffic. Weaving crashes (sideswipes and rear-ends caused by lane-change maneuvers) are associated with intermediate density traffic. High-density regimes D8, D3, and D5 are most associated with rear-end crashes, while low-density regimes, particularly D4, are associated with hit-object crashes. Intermediate-density regimes D6 and D7 are most associated with crashes involving weaving maneuvers.

Crash location is more strongly explained by the second canonical variate ($R^2=0.513$, versus $R^2=0.049$ for the first variate). Crash location is a primarily a flow phenomenon. The optimal scaling of the categories of the location variable shows that left-lane crashes are associated with high density and high flow conditions, while other locations, especially interior lane crashes, are associated with low density and low flow conditions. Regime

Table 4. Summary of Eight Traffic Flow Regimes for Crashes during Daylight on Dry Roads

Traffic flow characteristics	Most likely types of crashes
D1. Light free-flow: Very low volume, high average speed, low variation in right-lane speed	Single-vehicle run-offs and lane-change crashes, particularly right-side
D2. Heavily congested flow: Low volume and very low speeds, low variations in volumes and speeds in all lanes	All types of property damage crashes, except single-vehicle hit-object crashes
D3. Variable-volume congested flow: Low mean flows and speeds: high variations in all flows and in speeds in left- and interior-lane speeds	Rear-end crashes, especially those with two vehicles
D4. Mixed free flow: Highest mean speeds and high variations in right-lane speed and left- and interior-lane flows.	All types of injury crashes and two-vehicle rear-end crashes
D5. Variable-speed congested flow: Moderate flow and high variations in speeds in all lanes	Run-offs and lane-change crashes, especially left-lane crashes
D6. Heavy, variable free flow: High flows and high variations in flows; high mean speeds and relatively low speed variances	Two-vehicle lane change, and multivehicle rear-end crashes
D7. Flow approaching capacity: High mean flow and moderately high mean speeds, with low variations in speeds and in right lane flow	Two-vehicle and multivehicle lane-change crashes
D8. Heavy flow at moderate speed: High volume, low variations in flows, especially those in left and interior lanes	Two-vehicle rear-end crashes

D5 is especially associated with left lane crashes, while regime D4 is associated with off-road crashes.

Finally, crash severity is explained by both dimensions, on an approximately equal basis. Thus, the difference between property-damage and injury crashes is a function of both flow and density. Injury crashes are more likely to occur in lower density conditions and in higher flow conditions. Regimes D2 and D4 have the most extreme projections onto the vector defined by the category quantifications of the severity variable. Thus, the NLCCA model predicts that regime D4 will have a higher proportion of injury crashes and regime D2 will have a higher proportion of property-damage-only crashes.

The results of the NLCCA model were verified and refined by cross-tabulating each crash characteristic against the eight-category regime segmentation variable. The results were consistent. The traffic flow conditions that define the eight traffic flow regimes for daylight, dry road conditions are summarized in Table 4, along with the crash typology.

Programming of the Flow Impacts on Traffic Safety Tool

A C++ program was written to classify any freeway location according to traffic flow regime, based on a proximity index to the respective centroids of the eight regimes in canonical space. The input data are a stream of loop detector data, stamped with the date and time, for the three designated freeway lanes. The classification applies to a point along one freeway direction of travel. Date and time are needed to distinguish between daylight and nighttime, based on an algorithm that determines the time, for each day of the year, at which dawn begins (0.5 h prior to sunrise) and the time at which darkness begins (sunset plus 0.5 h). The user can set the latitude and longitude for this algorithm, which currently defaults to the center of the Orange County freeway network. The user must also manually set a toggle that identifies periods of wet roads.

It takes 27.5 min to initialize the program before the first classification is generated. Thereafter, classification is generated each 30 s, based on the current loop detector observation and the previous 54 observations. (In this case, because reporting round-off

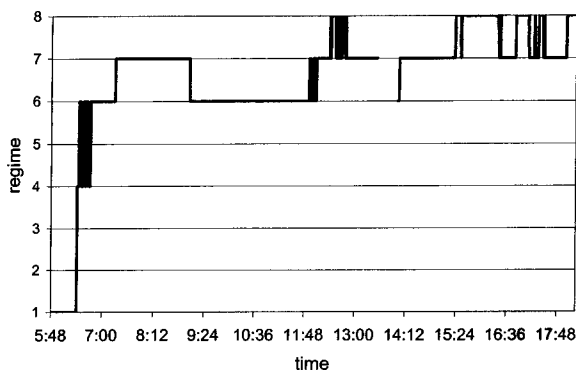


Fig. 1. Classification of traffic conditions on SR-55 northbound at Dyer Road, postmile 8.12, daytime Monday, March 2, 1998

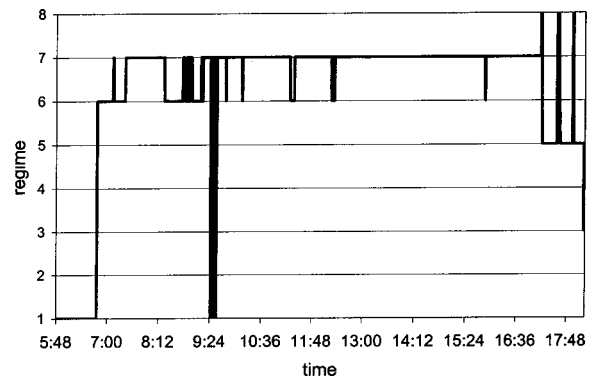


Fig. 2. Classification of traffic conditions on SR-55 northbound at Edinger Avenue, postmile 9.41, daytime Monday, March 2, 1998

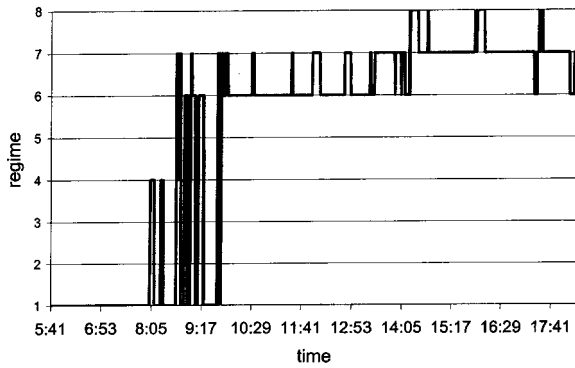


Fig. 3. Classification of traffic conditions on SR-55 northbound at Dyer Road, postmile 8.12, daytime Saturday, March 7, 1998

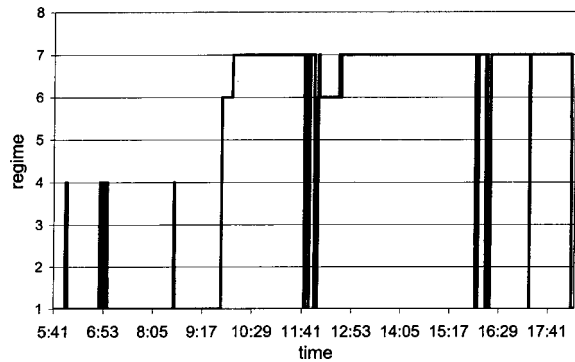


Fig. 4. Classification of traffic conditions on SR-55 northbound at Edinger Avenue, postmile 9.41, daytime, March 7, 1998

Table 5. Distribution of Dry-Day Regimes in Random Sample

R	n_R^{Sample}	$\hat{n}_R = n_R^{\text{Sample}} \cdot N_{TS} / N^{\text{Sample}}$	$\hat{n}_R^{\text{Forecast}}$
D1	113	6,511,527	6,511,527
D2	35	2,016,845	0
D3	43	2,477,838	0
D4	186	10,718,089	10,718,089
D5	47	2,708,334	2,708,334
D6	198	11,409,579	11,409,579
D7	209	12,043,444	16,538,127
D8	64	3,687,945	3,687,945
N^{Sample}	895	$N_{TS} = 51,573,600$	$N_{TS} = 51,573,600$

Table 6. Distribution of Crash Type With Respect to Eight Dry-Day Regimes

Crash type	Dry-day regimes								Total	Percentage
	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6	D7	D8		
Single vehicle hit object	29	15	24	46	56	72	49	22	313	38.2
Two or more vehicle hit object	18	9	18	28	31	50	24	8	186	22.7
Two vehicle lane-change	16	17	12	32	13	21	17	18	146	17.8
Three or more vehicle lane-change	3	7	7	10	4	3	4	4	42	5.13
Two vehicle rear-end	1	23	15	23	2	6	2	14	86	10.5
Three or more vehicle rear-end	1	14	5	9	2	7	3	5	46	5.62
Total	68	85	81	148	108	159	99	71	819	
Percentage	8.3	10.3	9.89	18.0	13.1	19.4	12.0	8.67		100

is not an issue, it is unnecessary to delete the five most recent observations.) Based on these classifications, tendencies toward certain accident characteristics are identified, providing real-time monitoring of potential traffic safety problems.

Case Study Application

In this section, we demonstrate an application of the tool by applying it retroactively to streams of loop detector data from two adjacent loop detector stations along northbound SR-55 in the City of Santa Ana, Orange County, California. The two detector stations, located about 2,000 m (1.25 mi) apart between two free-way interchanges (the SR-55/I-405 and SR-55/I-5 interchanges). FITS output is graphed for two daytime periods at these two locations for Monday and Saturday of the first week of March 1998 (Figs. 1–4). The remainder of this section contains a brief interpretation of this output.

Daytime Monday (Figs. 1 and 2)

Traffic picks up at both locations at about 6:30 a.m. (slightly later at the upstream location). At the first location, the sequence in terms of most likely types of crashes is: short period of (D4) serious run-offs and (D6) mixed types; 7:30–9:00 a.m. (D7) lateral navigation; 9:00–noon (D6) mixed types, short periods of (D7) and (D8) two-vehicle rear ends; then (D7) again until afternoon peak, in which there are periodic spells of (D8) two-vehicle rear ends. The downstream location operates mainly in regime D7 lateral navigation crashes, until about 5:00 p.m., when it breaks down into flow at capacity (D5) with left-lane rear ends most likely, and congested flow (D3), which favors two-vehicle rear-end crashes.

Daytime Saturday (Figs. 3 and 4)

Following early morning free flow (D1 and D4) prior to 8:30 a.m., the first location shows highly variable flow in the 8:30 to 9:45 a.m. period, as evidenced by repeated cycles of heavy flow (D6 or D7) and free flow (D1). From 9:45 a.m. until 1:30 p.m., heavy variable flow predominates (D6: mixed crash types), followed by heavy steady flow the remainder of the day (D7: conducive to lateral navigation crashes). The upstream location has low flow (D1 and D4) until about 9:30 a.m., then also shifts to heavy steady flow for most of the remainder of the day.

Demonstration of Tool

In this section, we offer a demonstration of the methodology developed in this research. Because of systematic biases introduced

by nonreporting loop stations (as well as with the sample of crashes used to estimate the models), the following is intended for demonstration purposes only; no claim is made that the results are representative of actual conditions. We consider a freeway segment, S , during some time interval, T , containing n loop stations, $l_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Let R_{it} denote the regime in the vicinity of loop station $l_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, during a 30 s time interval $t = 1, 2, \dots, T/30$ s. Ostensibly, each regime R_{it} defines traffic flow conditions prevailing on a section of freeway extending from the midpoint between loops l_{i-1} and l_i and loops l_i and l_{i+1} during the 30 s time interval t . The FITS program can easily determine R_{it} from 30 s loop count data, based on the membership functions that led to the regime classifications for dry roads during daylight or dusk-dawn, dry roads at nights, and wet roads, respectively.

The total population of regimes defined by 30 s loop counts on freeway segment S during T is simply $N_{TS} = nT/30$ s. The number of occurrences of any particular regime R in the population is $n_R = |\{R_{it} | R_{it} = R, \forall i \in S, \forall t \in T; R \in \mathbf{R}\}|$, where \mathbf{R} is the set of regimes (which may be further broken down by particular environmental segmentation; e.g., $\mathbf{R} = \{\mathbf{R}_{\text{Dry-Day}}, \mathbf{R}_{\text{Dry-Darkness}}, \mathbf{R}_{\text{Wet}}\}$). An estimate, \hat{n}_R , of n_R can be obtained as follows:

1. Draw a random sample of N^{Sample} 30 s regimes. Each such sample requires 27.5 min of preceding loop data to calculate regime membership.
2. Compute $n_R^{\text{Sample}} = |\{R_{it} | R_{it} = R, \forall i \in N^{\text{Sample}}, R \in \mathbf{R}\}|$. We note that $\sum_{R \in \mathbf{R}} n_R^{\text{Sample}} = N^{\text{Sample}}$.
3. Compute the frequency of occurrence of regime R in the sample, $f_R^{\text{Sample}} = n_R^{\text{Sample}}/N^{\text{Sample}}$.
4. Compute an estimate of n_R as $\hat{n}_R = f_R^{\text{Sample}} \cdot N_{TS} = n_R^{\text{Sample}} \cdot N_{TS}/N^{\text{Sample}}$.

An output of FITS represents the distribution of crash typologies (for crashes contained in the database on which the analysis was performed) relative to the various regimes that were identified by the analysis. Specifically, it is possible to assign each of the specific crash typologies (e.g., type, location severity) of each of the crashes contained in the database to a particular regime. So, for example, we can compute from the accident database and the analysis results:

$$f_{CR}^{\text{base}} = \frac{N_{CR}^{\text{base}}}{N_C^{\text{base}}}$$

where f_{CR}^{base} = frequency distribution of database accidents of typology C relative to regime R ; N_{CR}^{base} = total number of database accidents of typology C assigned to regime R by FITS; and N_C^{base} = total number of database accidents of typology C .

From the TASAS database, it is possible to identify the total number of crashes of typology C that have occurred on any free-

Table 7. $f_{CTS} = N_{CTS}/N_{TS}$ for Crash Type for Eight Dry-Day Regimes

Crash type	Frequency	$f_{CTS} = N_{CTS}/N_{TS}$
Single vehicle hit object	102	1.97776E-06
Two or more vehicle hit object	47	9.11319E-07
Two vehicle lane-change	310	6.01083E-06
Three or more vehicle lane-change	90	1.74508E-06
Two vehicle rear-end	671	1.30105E-05
Three or more vehicle rear-end	419	8.12431E-06
Total	1,639	

way segment S during a specified time interval T (e.g., number of fatal collisions on I-5 in Orange County during the morning peak period of the year 1998), say, N_{CTS} . Then, $f_{CTS} = N_{CTS}/N_{TS}$ is the frequency distribution of crashes of typology C per 30 s loop count occurring on freeway segment S during time T , and, $\rho_R^C = f_{CR}^{\text{base}} \cdot N_{CTS}/\hat{n}_R = f_{CR}^{\text{base}} \cdot f_{CTS} \cdot N_{TS}/\hat{n}_R$ is an estimate of the expected number of crashes of typology C per occurrence of regime R on freeway segment S during time T . Finally, an estimate of the expected number of crashes of typology C , $\hat{N}_{\text{accident}}^C$, is given by $\hat{N}_{\text{accident}}^C = \sum_R \rho_R^C \cdot \hat{n}_R$.

As a demonstration of this procedure, we consider crashes occurring during the morning peak hours on the six major freeways in Orange County, California, using the year 1998 as a base, and compare expected crashes resulting from a hypothetical change in traffic flow conditions. There are a total of 551 loop stations on these freeways; the weekday morning peak comprises 6:00 to 9:00 a.m. inclusive, yielding a total of $N_{TS} = 51,573,600$ regime occurrences. For purposes of this example, we make the simplifying assumption that all of these occurrences correspond to dry conditions. A total of $N^{\text{Sample}} = 895$ of the random sample of 30 s regimes occurred during the dry weekday morning peak hours. The expected distribution of these among the eight dry-day regimes is given in Table 5. Suppose that, through traffic control measures, we were able to virtually eliminate the two “congested flow” regimes (D2 and D3), transferring these previously congested periods to the “heavy, steady flow” regime D7. The expected distribution of dry-day regimes under this scenario is shown in the fourth column of Table 5.

The distribution of crash types in the analysis database with respect to the eight dry-day regimes is given in Table 6. Calculations of f_{CR}^{base} may be obtained directly from this table.

There were a total of $N_{CTS} = 9,341$ reported crashes on the six major Orange County freeways during 1998. Of these, 1,639 occurred during the a.m. weekday peak hours between 6:00 and 9:00 a.m. The distribution by crash type is given in Table 7.

Table 8. $\hat{N}_{\text{accident}}^C = \sum_R \rho_R^C \cdot \hat{n}_R$ for Crash Type for Eight Dry-Day Regimes

Crash type	Dry-day regimes								Total
	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6	D7	D8	
Single vehicle hit object	9	5	8	15	18	23	16	7	102
Two or more vehicle hit object	5	2	5	7	8	13	6	2	47
Two vehicle lane-change	34	36	25	68	28	45	36	38	310
Three or more vehicle lane-change	6	15	15	21	9	6	9	9	90
Two vehicle rear-end	8	179	117	179	15	47	15	109	671
Three or more vehicle rear-end	9	127	46	82	18	64	27	46	419
Total	72	365	215	373	96	198	109	211	1,639

Table 9. Forecast $\hat{N}_{\text{accident}}^C = \sum_R \rho_R^C \cdot \hat{n}_R$ for Crash Type for Eight Dry-Day Regimes

Crash type	Dry-day regimes								Forecast total	Expected change
	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6	D7	D8		
Single vehicle hit object	9	0	0	15	18	23	22	7	95	-7
Two or more vehicle hit object	5	0	0	7	8	13	8	2	42	-5
Two vehicle lane-change	34	0	0	68	28	45	49	38	262	-48
Three or more vehicle lane-change	6	0	0	21	9	6	12	9	63	-27
Two vehicle rear-end	8	0	0	179	15	47	21	109	380	-290
Three or more vehicle rear-end	9	0	0	82	18	64	37	46	256	-163
Total	72	0	0	373	96	198	150	211	1,099	-539

From the information in these tables we can calculate the respective $\rho_R^C = f_{CR}^{\text{base}} \cdot f_{CTS} \cdot N_{TS} / \hat{n}_R$, from which we calculate $\hat{N}_{\text{accident}}^C = \sum_R \rho_R^C \cdot \hat{n}_R$ and their expected distribution across the various regimes. These distributions are listed in Table 8 by crash type. The row totals here, by definition, match the observed values; the categorizations by regime are products of FITS. However, the model may also be used in a forecasting mode to estimate expected modifications in safety outcomes accrued from changes in flow patterns, say, through reducing congestion by ramp metering.

Displayed in Table 9 are the expected crashes under the new traffic flow conditions in this hypothetical example (i.e., a revised Table 8) and summaries of improvements in safety that would be expected under the aforementioned scenario. When applied in a forecast mode, FITS does not guarantee consistency between typologies for different characteristics (crash type, location, and severity). This is because the membership functions for each typology were determined independently. Resolving such an inconsistency through a combined analysis (e.g., by a two-dimensional classification scheme, such as crash type and severity) could not be supported by the sample data that was available for the present study.

Conclusions and Directions for Further Research

We have developed a tool, called FITS (Flow Impacts on Traffic Safety), that can be used to assess the changes in traffic safety tendencies that result from changes in traffic flow. The only input that FITS requires is a stream of 30 s observations from single inductive loop detectors. FITS can be used as part of any evaluation that compares before and after traffic flow data, as measured by single loop detectors. Such an evaluation might involve assessing the benefits of ATMS operations. Another application might be to compare the same section of roadway during different time periods or under different weather/lighting conditions. FITS is meant to complement existing performance measurement tools such as PeMS (Chen et al. 2001; Varaiya 2001; Choe et al. 2002).

FITS applies only to urban freeways with at least three lanes in each direction. In particular, the statistical models that underlie the tool have been estimated using historical data for freeways in Orange County, California. We presume that the relationships uncovered are indicative of all California urban freeways, particularly those in the San Francisco Bay, San Diego, and Sacramento metropolitan areas, but validation has not yet been conducted, so we cannot confirm the degree of spatial transferability.

FITS has its limitations. First, due to the quality of the historical loop detector data that were used in calibrating the tool, we were unable to include crash rates as a function of vehicle miles

of travel. The historical traffic flow data were not sufficiently representative of Orange County for an entire year, because there were systematic patterns in missing data as a function of freeway route, location along each route, day of week, and week of the year. Thus, we were unable to accurately calculate the rates, in terms of vehicle miles of travel, for crashes that happened to vehicles that were exposed to different traffic flow conditions. Consequently, FITS provides information as to which types of crashes are more likely under different types of traffic flow, but does not forecast crash rates. The enhancement of FITS to include crash rates as well as types is an important subject for future research.

In spite of these limitations, we believe that we have demonstrated that FITS can be used to gain insight into how changing traffic flow conditions affect traffic safety. To the extent that changed conditions are due to ATMS operations, or other projects that influence traffic operations, FITS can be used in evaluating the effectiveness of such projects. FITS can also be used as a forecasting tool combined with simulation studies of the likely future conditions; FITS can be used to evaluate the safety conditions of alternative scenarios of operations with different ATMS or infrastructure treatments. Due to the problem with missing traffic flow data for 1998, it is strongly recommended that FITS be recalibrated with more recent crash and traffic flow data before any large-scale deployment of this tool.

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