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5 **Associations between Road Network Structure and Pedestrian-Bicyclist Accidents**
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1 Abstract

2 It is widely known that the road network layout can impact the non-motorized users' traffic safety by changing the
3 non-motorized traffic volume and road users' behavior. Different road network patterns lead to different traffic
4 safety levels for non-auto users and a single pattern can even have both the safe and unsafe features at the same
5 time. By knowing what features can lead to safer traffic environment, existing road networks can be improved and
6 new network patterns can be produced by combining all safe features from different patterns. Therefore, the
7 associations between road network structure and pedestrian-bicyclist crashes are analyzed in this paper to determine
8 how the structural features of a road network affect non-motorist safety. Three structural measures including average
9 geodesic distance, network betweenness centrality, and overall clustering coefficient are calculated based on the
10 road networks of 321 census tracts in Alameda County, California. Then the three measures together with other
11 factors like traffic behavior, land use, transportation facility, and demographic features are employed separately in a
12 spatial statistical model called geographically weighted regression. Conclusions are: if a network is more highly
13 centered on major roads, there will be fewer non-motorist crashes; the network which has more average number of
14 intersections between each pair of roads tends to have fewer accidents for pedestrians and bicyclists; and, the more a
15 network is clustered into several sub-core networks, the lower the non-motorist crash count will be.

16

17

18 Keywords

19 Road network structure, pedestrians, bicyclists, accidents

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1 INTRODUCTION

2 In what pattern roads are connected to each other—the “structure”—determines how direct a route is for
3 vehicles to follow, and how many or what kinds of turns vehicles make in a route. In addition, road network patterns
4 appear to be the dominate influence on travel distance and mode choice which result in different level of
5 attractiveness to pedestrians and bicyclists (1). Thus road network patterns can impact travel behavior and non-
6 motorist volume, which lead to a change in frequency and severity of non-motorist collisions.
7

8 1.1 Background

9 Traffic safety of different road network patterns has always been the major concern of transportation planners and
10 traffic engineers. In 1950s, the accident rates were first compared between grid pattern and curvilinear pattern. On
11 one hand, it showed that the grid pattern had substantially higher accident rate than limited-access pattern (2).
12 Although this study may have “several limitations including control of variables”, a series of recent studies using
13 statistical models still imply that discontinuous networks like “loops and lollipops” perform safer than grid iron
14 pattern (3, 4). Two newer studies show the cul-de-sac networks appear to be much safer than the uniform grid
15 networks, by nearly three to one (5), and the grid pattern is found to be the least safe by a significant margin with
16 respect to all other street patterns (6). On the other hand, recent studies have found higher traffic fatality rates in
17 outlying suburban areas than in central cities and inner suburbs with smaller blocks and more-connected street
18 patterns (7, 8, 9). These studies prove that road network pattern can significantly impact traffic safety, although
19 different conclusions have been drawn. Thus, how road network characteristics can effect traffic safety should be
20 investigated rather than just considering the whole pattern.

21 Structural features, rather than metrical features, focusing on the connection relationships and principles of
22 roads make a pattern different than others. Thus, many studies have been conducted to investigate road network
23 structures. Qualitative studies try to graphically describe road network structures into different categories, such as
24 “grid iron”, “fragmented parallel”, “warped parallel”, “loops and lollipops”, and “lollipops on a stick”, which is the
25 widely accepted classification method in road network pattern analysis (10, 11, 12). Other studies try to describe
26 network structure quantitatively based on the node-link relationship of a network. Urban planners have developed
27 the conception of connectivity to describe how well a road network links locations, using indices like connected
28 node ratio, Garma index, link-node ratio, etc (13). Network analysts apply topological measures to quantify road
29 networks. Centrality analysis originates in structural sociology, and has been recently introduced to study road
30 systems (14). Limited research on road network centrality show that centrality indices nicely capture the “skeleton”
31 of the urban structure (15), and these indices can allow extended visualization and characterization of the road
32 network structure (16). Other topological measures like network clustering coefficient and geodesic distance are all
33 useful to describe the structure of a network (17). To build the relationship between road network structural features
34 and traffic safety, quantitative measures should be applied in the analysis. The connectivity features have been
35 investigated in Zhang et al. (18), thus in this paper, the topological measurements are utilized.

36 Recognized as the most vulnerable road users, pedestrians and bicyclists are frequently the focus of traffic
37 safety research. Multitudes of factors have been included in analyses, including vehicle characteristics, roadway
38 design characteristics, road user behaviors, and environmental conditions (19, 20, 21, 22). As road network
39 structures can directly determine the distance and directness of non-motorist’s daily trip (1), it is necessary to
40 consider the road network structure as a predominant factor of non-motorist traffic safety. Recent work has begun to
41 investigate the effect of street pattern and compactness on the severity of crashes involving vulnerable road users
42 (23).It shows “loops and lollipops” increases the probability of an injury for pedestrians and bicyclists but reduces
43 the probability of fatality and property-damage-only in an event of a crash. Rather than knowing which pattern is
44 safe for pedestrian, making clear what structural features make a pattern having fewer crashes or more fatal
45 accidents will be more useful.
46

47 1.2 Study Objectives

48 Based on the review of past research, road network patterns can significantly impact traffic safety, but the safety
49 effects of different pattern types are still under debate. Furthermore, being a predominant factor to affect pedestrian-
50 bicyclist volume and driving behavior, the network structural features of a pattern could accordingly lead to different
51 levels of safety for non-motorists travel. Studies about road network structure have offered quantitative measures to
52 make the investigation of association between road network structure and pedestrian-bicyclist accident possible.

53 Considering the stated issues, the aims of this paper are to examine the relationships between structural
54 characteristics of road networks and pedestrian-bicyclist accidents. Toward this goal, this paper analyzes data from
55 Alameda County, California, at the census tract level which is a proper unit for non-motorized travel study (13).
56 Three measurements, including average geodesic distance, network betweenness centrality, and overall clustering

1 coefficient, from network typology are applied to describe the structural of road network patterns. A spatial
2 statistical model called geographically weighted regression (GWR) is utilized to evaluate the relationship between
3 each structural measure and non-motorist accidents. Within these models, other factors are all included, like travel
4 behavior, transportation facilities, demographic features, and land use.

6 **2 DATA**

8 **2.1 Data Source**

9 There are six categories of data employed in this paper, extracted from the road networks, crash records, census
10 statistics, and traffic forecasting models available for Alameda County, California. All the data are calculated and
11 aggregated by census tracts because: first, the median size of census tracts in Alameda County resembles a proper
12 area for walking (trips are typically under one mile) and cycling (trips are typically under 5 miles) (13), with the
13 third quartile value of tract size as 1.01 square miles and 95% tracts are under 5.86 square miles; traffic analysis
14 zones and other spatial units are either too small or too large; second, there are 321 census tracts, which is a proper
15 sample size for GWR models (24). All the data in the study are collected for the same period of time when possible,
16 except the census data which is from the year 2000. However, it is the closest time to satisfy other data and the
17 population structure is always assumed to have not changed much.

19 *Crash Data*

20 Road accidents involving pedestrians and bicyclists in Alameda County, CA from 2004 to 2006 are analyzed in this
21 research. The crash data is from “Transportation Injury Mapping System (TIMS)” which was established by
22 researchers at the Safe Transportation Research and Education Center (SafeTREC) at the University of California,
23 Berkeley. TIMS provides data based on crash records from the “Statewide Integrated Traffic Records System”
24 (SWITRS), and offers mapping analysis tools and information for traffic safety related research, policy and
25 planning. All the crashes are already geocoded on the road network.

27 *Road Network Structure Data*

28 The road network structure characteristics are all calculated based on the road network data using the methods
29 described in the following section. Each census tract has its own structural measures for the road network, and then
30 all these measures together with other regional characteristics will be incorporated into a statistic model.

32 *Travel Behavior Data*

33 Travel behavior data are collected to describe traffic condition from two angles: the first is to use vehicle miles
34 traveled (VMT) to reflect the traffic intensity of the road network in each census tract. This data is obtained from
35 “Bay Area Simplified Simulation of Travel, Energy and Greenhouse Gases” model for 2006, already aggregated by
36 traffic analysis zones and census tracts. Then, the numbers of workers using private vehicles or public transportation
37 or non-motorized means are applied to show the travel mode choices of each area. These data are obtained from
38 U.S. Census 2000 data from the U.S. Census Bureau website.

40 *Land Use Data*

41 Shown to have significant impacts on non-motorized travel (25), the number of commercial units and house units in
42 each census tract are selected to control for the land use impact. The commercial data is from “the Alameda County
43 pedestrian intersection crossing volume model” (ACPICVM) established by SafeTREC. The house unit data is
44 directly from the Census 2000 data. The “year structure built” data are also included in the analysis to reflect the age
45 of an area, calculated as how many house units are built before 1950, because it is indicated in a research that an
46 area built before 1950’s has a different safety performance than areas built in more recent times (26).

48 *Demographic Data*

49 The populations aged from 0 to 15, 16 to 64, and 65 and older are employed to show the population structure;
50 median household income and employment rate are chosen to reflect the economic condition. All these data are
51 from the Census 2000 data.

53 *Transportation Facility Data*

54 The numbers of bus lines in each census tract are aggregated to reflect the transit accessibility, and this is also from
55 the “ACPICVM” mentioned above. Additionally, 3-way, 4-way, more-than-4-way intersection numbers, and
56 connectivity measure such as street densities are calculated based on the road network which is derived from ESRI

1 “StreetMap North America”. Because this paper focuses on the pedestrian-bicyclist crashes, all the primary highway
 2 road lines with limited access are excluded.

3
 4 **2.2 Calculation of Road Network Structural Measures**

5
 6 *Simplify the Road Network into Topological Network*

7 Structural characteristics focus on the relationship between roads——connected or not. Thus, road networks should
 8 be simplified to topological networks which only include nodes and links. There are two ways to obtain a
 9 topological network: the primal approach and the dual approach (15, 27). The former is based on a quite simple,
 10 intuitive representation of networks which turns intersections into nodes and roads into edges; the latter is opposite
 11 by turning roads into nodes and intersections into edges. All the topological measures calculated based on
 12 topological network quantify the features of nodes. Since this paper focus on the features of roads rather than
 13 intersections, the dual approach is proper to obtain the topological networks. Details about dual approach can be
 14 found in the study of Zhang et al (16).

15
 16 *Average Geodesic Distance*

17 To know how far each road is from other roads, one particular definition is the geodesic distance. This quantity is
 18 the number of links in the shortest possible route from one node to another. In a topological network, the geodesic
 19 distance between two nodes is the count of the number of links in the shortest path between them. When the road
 20 network is simplified using dual approach, the geodesic distance between two nodes will be the distance between
 21 two roads.

22 To compare different networks from the perspective of size and efficiency, average geodesic distance is
 23 better than the individual one. The average geodesic distance is the ratio of the total geodesic distance of each node
 24 pair to the total number of node pairs, as shown in equation 1.

$$GD_{avg} = \sum_j^n \sum_k^n \frac{g_{jk}}{n(n-1)/2}, j \neq k \quad (1)$$

26 Where GD_{avg} is the average geodesic distance of a network, n is the number of nodes in the whole network,
 27 g_{jk} is the number of geodesics linking point j and k , $n(n-1)/2$ is the total number of node pairs. A small average
 28 geodesic distance suggests a road network in which one road is likely to reach every road through much fewer
 29 intersections in between.

30
 31 *Network Betweenness Centrality*

32 Centrality measurements including degree, betweenness and closeness could quantify how 'central' or important
 33 each node or link is inside a network (28), so that these measures are appropriate to describe the difference between
 34 pattern types. Among all the centrality measurements, the network betweenness centrality index is the best to
 35 distinguish different types of road network structure (16), thus this paper use it to describe the structure of a network
 36 from the centrality perspective.

37 The betweenness of a point is “based on the frequency with which a point falls between pairs of other
 38 points on the shortest paths connecting them” (28). The higher the betweenness is the more possible a point can fall
 39 on the connection path between other points to control their communication. The degree of a point is defined by

$$C_i^B = \sum_j^n \sum_k^n \frac{g_{jk(i)}}{g_{jk}}, i \neq j \neq k \quad (2)$$

41 Where C_i^B is the betweenness centrality of the point i ; $g_{jk(i)}$ is the number of geodesics linking point j and k
 42 that contain point i on them; g_{jk} is the number of geodesics linking point j and k ; $\frac{g_{jk(i)}}{g_{jk}}$ is the probability that point i
 43 falls on a randomly selected geodesic linking point j and k ; $\sum_j^n \sum_k^n \frac{g_{jk(i)}}{g_{jk}}$, the overall betweenness centrality of the
 44 point I , is the sum of point i 's partial betweenness values for all other pairs of points excluding point i .

45 Since this paper plans to analyze the centrality property of a whole network, network centralities are
 46 applied. The network centralities are based on the point centralities, so there still will be three kinds of them: the
 47 network degree centrality, the network betweenness centrality, and the network closeness centrality, all defined by

$$C^B = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n [C_{i*}^B - C_i^B]}{\max \sum_{i=1}^n [C_{i*}^B - C_i^B]} \quad (3)$$

49 Where C^B is the network betweenness centrality; C_i^B is the betweenness centrality of point i defined above;
 50 C_{i*}^B is the largest value of C_i^B any point could get in the network; $\sum_{i=1}^n [C_{i*}^B - C_i^B]$ is an observed sum of differences to
 51 every point's maximum value, and $\max \sum_{i=1}^n [C_{i*}^B - C_i^B]$ consequently define the possible maximum sum of these

1 differences. Thus, C^B is defined as “the average difference between the relative centrality of the most central point
2 and that of all other points” (28).

3 A higher value of network betweenness centrality presents a network which has more roads become the
4 only connection of other roads. This means that there are some roads more central and important than others. For
5 example, according to a recent research about road network centrality (16), grid iron pattern tends to have lower
6 value of network betweenness centrality because every road in this network are equally important to have the same
7 chance to connect to others; cul-de-sac pattern tends to have the higher value of this index, showing that there are
8 some roads overwhelmingly central, connecting almost all of the other roads like a stem of a tree.

10 *Overall Clustering Coefficient*

11 The tendency a large network can be centered toward local sub-networks can be shown as the thought of “clustering”
12 (17). The local clustering coefficient of a node quantifies how close its neighbor nodes are to be in a clique (sub-
13 network). The neighbor nodes of a single node are the nodes which can directly linked to the specific node. The
14 local clustering coefficient is given as follows.

$$15 \quad CC_i = \frac{\sum_j^m \sum_k^m l_{jk}}{m(m-1)/2}, i \neq j \neq k \quad (4)$$

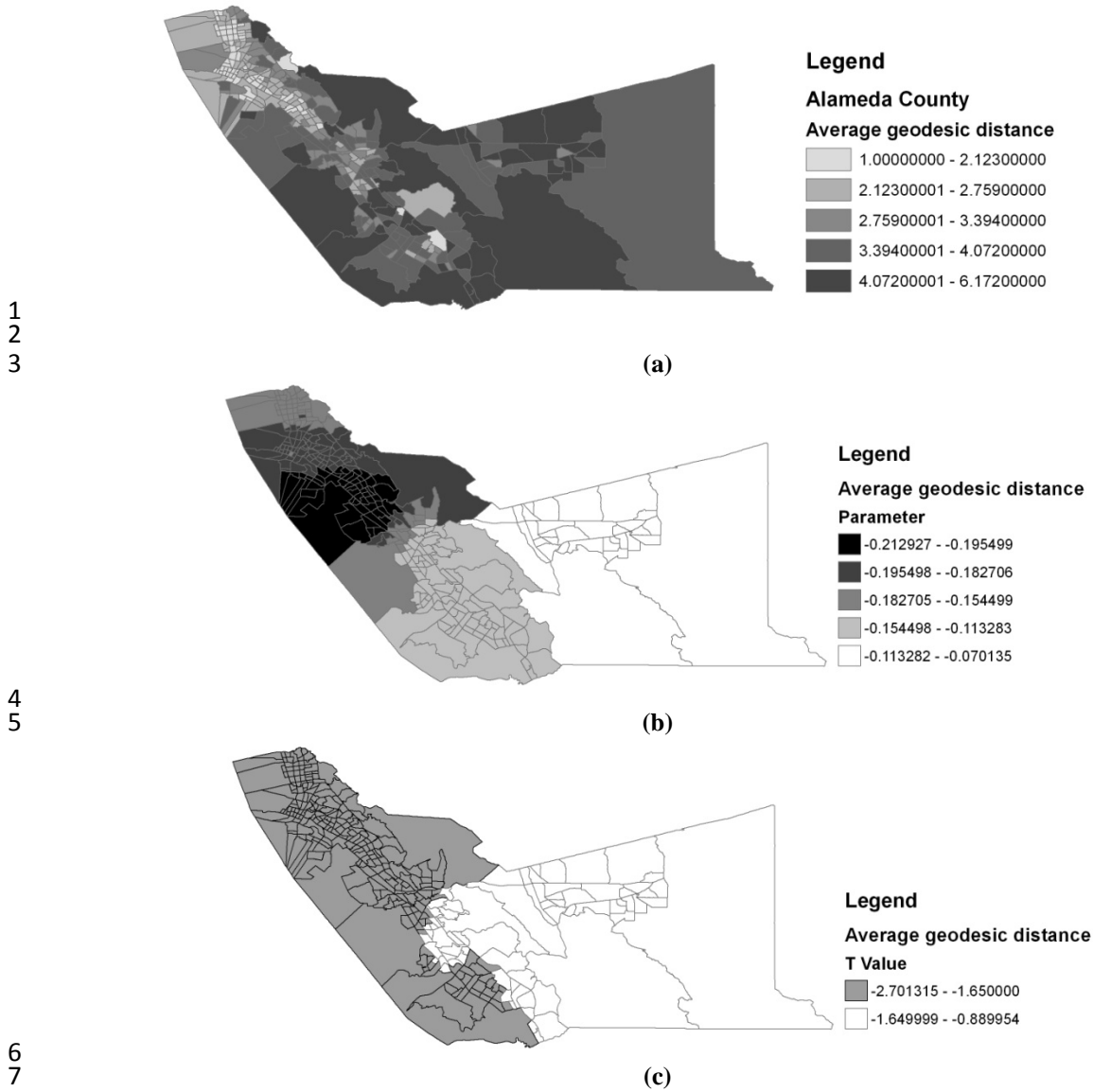
16 Where CC_i is the local clustering coefficient of node i ; m is the number of nodes which are defined as the
17 neighbor nodes of i ; j and k are the nodes in the m neighbor nodes of node i ; l_{jk} is the link between the m neighbor
18 nodes, if the link exists, $l_{jk} = 1$, otherwise 0 (29).

19 The overall clustering coefficient for the whole network is given as the average of the local clustering
20 coefficients of all the nodes (29):

$$21 \quad CC = \frac{1}{n} \sum_1^n CC_i \quad (5)$$

22 If a network has higher overall clustering coefficient, there tend to be more clusters consisting the whole
23 network. For the road network measured in this paper, higher overall clustering coefficient means some roads are
24 highly clustered to several sub-networks in the whole network. In a sub-network, roads are connected directly and
25 efficiently with each other, but not be so with road outside the sub-network.

26 Average geodesic distance, network betweenness centrality, and overall clustering coefficient are structural
27 measurements which can describe a network from the perspective of efficiency, centrality and clustering. For each
28 census tract, there are three measures for its road network. They are calculated by a social network analysis tool
29 called “UCINET” (30). Values are various across the 321 census tracts in Alameda County as shown in figure 1(a),
30 (d), (g) and summarized in table 1.



8 **FIGURE 1** Distribution of the structural measure value and the estimation results: (a) distribution of average
9 geodesic distance, (b) parameter distribution of average geodesic distance, and (c) t value distribution of
10 average geodesic distance.
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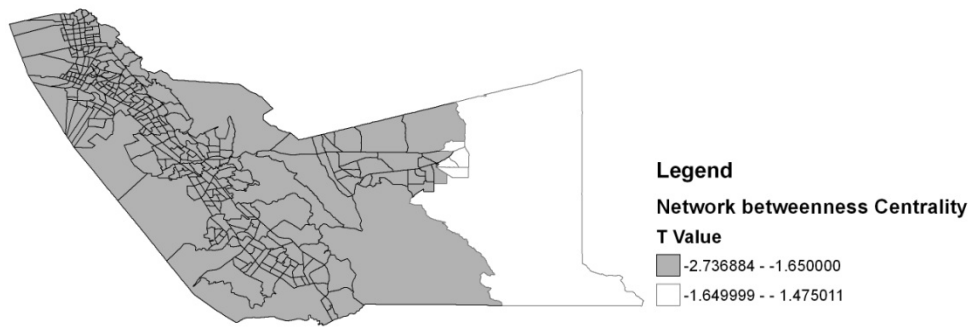
(d)

3
4



(e)

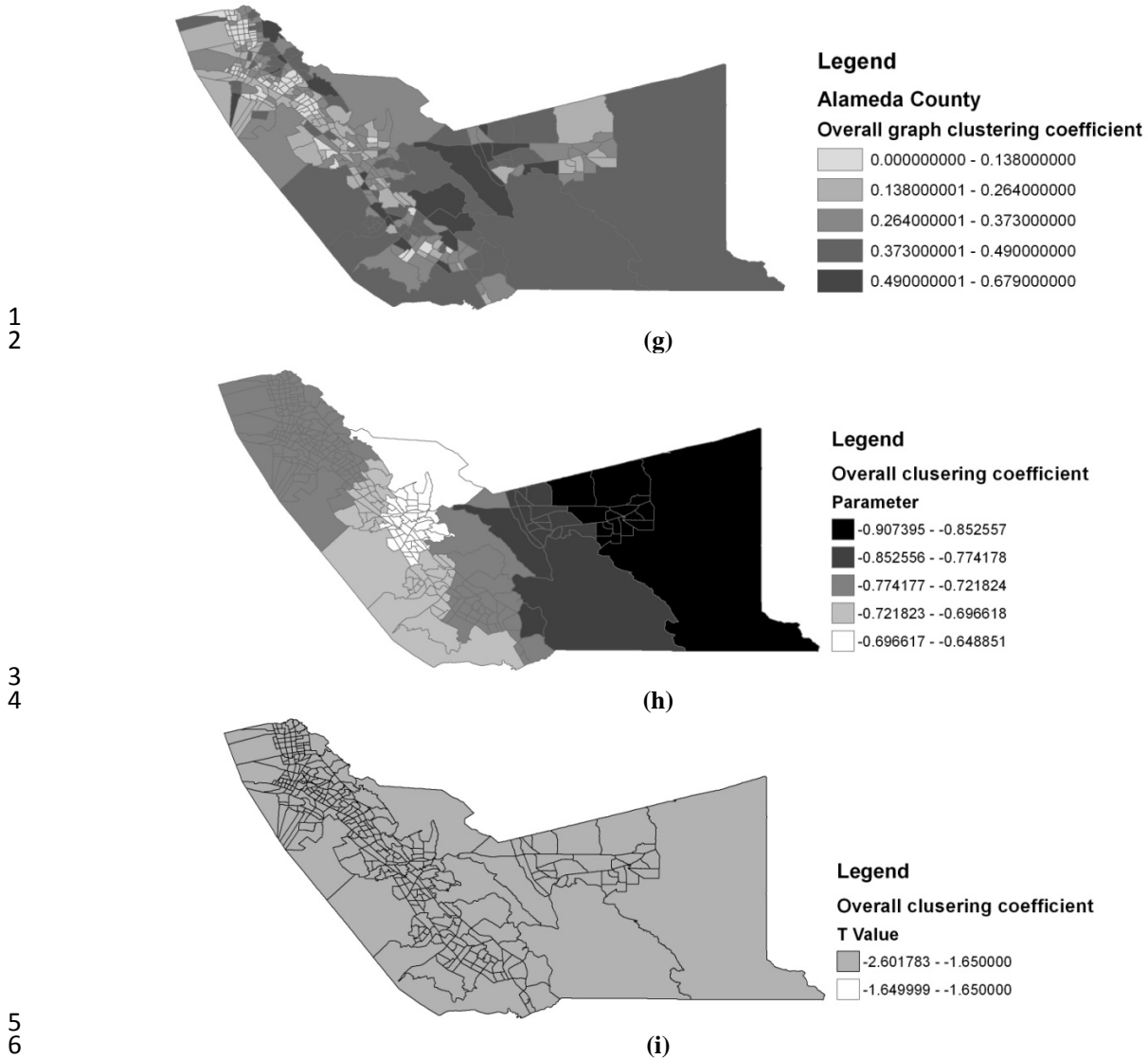
5
6



(f)

FIGURE 1 (continued) Distribution of the structural measure value and the estimation results: (d) distribution of network betweenness centrality, (e) parameter distribution of network betweenness centrality, and (f) t value distribution of network betweenness centrality.

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7 **FIGURE 1 (continued) Distribution of the structural measure value and the estimation results: (g)**
 8 **distribution of overall clustering coefficient, (h) parameter distribution of overall clustering coefficient, and (i)**
 9 **t value distribution of overall clustering coefficient.**

10
11 **3 STATISTICAL MODELS**

12 Along with descriptive statistics, different statistical models are employed to quantify the relationship between road
 13 network features and crash occurrence. The crash data is a type of count data exhibiting over-dispersion so negative
 14 binomial regression models have been widely employed to evaluate the association between urban forms and
 15 crashes (31). This common technique assumes a spatial stationarity in the relationship between collision count and
 16 contributing factors. Under this assumption, fixed coefficients are estimated to represent all the different analysis
 17 units for the entire study area, assuming the relationship between dependent variable and independent variables does
 18 not vary across the geographic area. However, this stationary relationship may be broken when applying to crash
 19 analysis. Safety performance is likely influenced by many factors which are spatially defined and related between
 20 continuous areas such as census tracts, traffic analysis zones, or census blocks. These factors could be land use,
 21 demographic features, and road networks, which could be strong predictors at some locations but weak at others
 22 (31). For example, when the relationship between crashes and intersection numbers is estimated for each census
 23 block in a region, the estimation result could be different across census blocks with different income level. For low
 24 income level locations, more intersections could expose cars in more conflicts, thus there could be more crashes.
 25 However in other locations with higher income level, the number of intersections may not have a significant impact

1 on crashes because residents with high income can afford expensive vehicles which have better safety protection to
 2 potentially offset the increase of crashes. As a result, ignoring the spatial non-stationarity between crashes and
 3 spatial related factors could lead to the inaccuracy of model findings.

5 3.1 Introduction to Geographically Weighted Regression

6 To address the non-stationarity problem mentioned above, geographically weighted regression (GWR) has been
 7 developed to allow relationships between dependent and independent variables to vary across locations (24).

8 Consider a regular regression model written as:

$$9 \quad y_i = \beta_0 + \sum_k \beta_k x_{ik} + \epsilon_i \quad (6)$$

10 Where y_i is the dependent variable observed in location i ; β_0 is the interception; k is the total number of
 11 independent variables; β_k is the parameter of the k th independent variable; x_{ik} is the k th independent variable
 12 observed in location i ; ϵ_i is the error term for the estimation in location i . β_k is estimated globally and do not change
 13 with locations so that this model is called “global” model.

14 GWR allows local rather than global parameters β to be estimated by extending this traditional regression
 15 framework as:

$$16 \quad y_i = \beta_0(u_i, v_i) + \sum_k \beta_k(u_i, v_i)x_{ik} + \epsilon_i \quad (7)$$

17 Where (u_i, v_i) denotes the coordinates of the i th location point (census tract centroid in this study) in the
 18 study area; $\beta_k(u_i, v_i)$ is a realization of the continuous function $\beta_k(u, v)$ at location I , so GWR models can be called
 19 “local” models compared to the traditional ones. In this way the GWR recognizes the existence of spatial variations
 20 in relationships and calibrates the equation in a reasonable way—weighted regression. For the purpose of this paper
 21 is not to introduce the calibration of GWR, detailed information about calibration could be found in relative research
 22 (24), and the calculation in this paper will be finished using a software called GWR 3.0 (32).

24 3.2 Model Specification

26 *Model Form*

27 The basic GWR assume a normally distributed error structure in the calibration of the regression model. This
 28 assumption is not upheld when calibrating models for count data so a Poisson distribution is thus more appropriate.
 29 Although a negative binomial distribution is better than the Poisson distribution because of the over-dispersion of
 30 crash data, the use of Poisson regression does not produce inaccurate estimates (31). Furthermore, considering the
 31 availability of Poisson regression for GWR 3.0 software utilized in this study, the model of this study is developed
 32 using the Poisson distribution form as:

$$33 \quad \ln(y_i) = \beta_0(u_i, v_i) + \beta_1(u_i, v_i)\ln(\text{Exposure}) + \beta_2(u_i, v_i)x_{i2} + \dots + \beta_k(u_i, v_i)x_{ik} \quad (8)$$

34 Where “Exposure” is the exposure variable in Poisson regression model; others are the same as mentioned
 35 above.

37 *Variables*

38 The dependent variable is the average crashes involving pedestrian and bicyclist per year. It is calculated as the
 39 mean of the crashes from 2004 to 2006 to minimize the data fluctuation through years. The independent variables
 40 are classified into five categories: structural measures, land use, travel behavior, transportation facilities, and
 41 demographic features, as shown in table 1. This paper chooses population density instead of VMT as the exposure
 42 variable because previous research at the TAZ level indicates that VMT does not perform well as exposure when the
 43 study unit is a continuous area rather than individual facility. Also, as one of the widely used exposures, population
 44 density also can reflect strong positive relationship with traffic crashes especially for regional study (33).

1 *Model Structures*

2 Considering the co-linearity between different measures, all 3 structural measures will be employed separately in
3 series of models. And because there are so many independent variables that a forward procedure is used in this paper
4 to test which variables should be included in a model to make the best estimation (31). In this procedure, a simple
5 model with only a structural measure, an exposure variable, and an intercept term is used as a starting point. Then,
6 other control variables will be added to the model one category by one category. This procedure produces 15
7 models. In each model, there will be one structural measure, together with other control variables, as shown in table
8 1. Also, prior to incorporating variables into the same model, a correlation test has been conducted to examine
9 whether variables are highly correlated with each other. If two variables are substantially correlated, they will not be
10 inserted into the same model.

11

12 **4 RESULTS**

13

14 **4.1 Parameter Estimation for Structural Measures**

15 GWR calibrates local models for each location, so that the results of the GWR models are a set of local parameters
16 for each independent variable. Therefore, each variable will have 321 estimations for parameter, t value, and
17 standard error, varying across 321 census tracts. Focusing on the impacts of structural, the parameters for each
18 structural measure in different models are summarized in table 2. Since each structural measure can have 321
19 parameters estimated in each model, the parameters are presented in the order of the minimum, the lower quartiles,
20 the median quartiles, the upper quartiles, and the maximum values from top to bottom in each cell in table 2.

21

1 **TABLE 2 Parameter Estimations for 3 Structural Measures in Different Models**

| Structural measure | Parameters estimated for each structural measure in model #1 to #8 | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|---|-----------|-----------|------------------|-----------|------------------|------------------|-----------|
| | #1 | #2 | #3 | #4 | #5 | #6 | #7 | #8 |
| Average geodesic distance | -0.781415 | -0.301509 | -0.577583 | -0.431982 | -0.485216 | -0.126515 | -0.212927 | -0.132216 |
| | -0.460909 | -0.289797 | -0.363115 | -0.202221 | -0.280714 | -0.088150 | -0.191759 | -0.127987 |
| | -0.164200 | -0.256382 | -0.235386 | -0.097281 | -0.212170 | -0.070981 | -0.179498 | -0.118755 |
| | -0.021454 | -0.099239 | 0.018223 | -0.018606 | -0.051829 | -0.066453 | -0.132799 | -0.074298 |
| | 0.317146 | -0.063505 | 0.222258 | 0.089000 | 0.153911 | -0.046162 | -0.070135 | -0.030167 |
| Network betweenness centrality | -0.031982 | -0.011594 | -0.029711 | -0.015995 | -0.016335 | -0.009127 | -0.008367 | -0.006700 |
| | -0.018180 | -0.011433 | -0.016538 | -0.009054 | -0.009102 | -0.007665 | -0.007957 | -0.006486 |
| | -0.013580 | -0.010802 | -0.009144 | -0.006596 | -0.007071 | -0.006983 | -0.007781 | -0.005905 |
| | -0.007995 | -0.006916 | -0.004879 | -0.005623 | -0.004218 | -0.006561 | -0.006227 | -0.002484 |
| | 0.008544 | -0.005318 | 0.006415 | -0.001076 | 0.002931 | -0.006360 | -0.005382 | -0.001475 |
| Overall clustering coefficient | -2.502191 | -1.153597 | -2.553119 | -1.723497 | -1.390687 | -0.930012 | -1.027092 | -0.756083 |
| | -1.549860 | -1.099589 | -1.630452 | -1.271504 | -0.981670 | -0.870591 | -0.976087 | -0.726075 |
| | -1.172694 | -1.084213 | -1.261362 | -0.876937 | -0.734158 | -0.828093 | -0.948353 | -0.639400 |
| | -0.585080 | -0.922471 | -1.002860 | -0.578707 | -0.431692 | -0.802433 | -0.891902 | -0.355112 |
| | 1.112635 | -0.860129 | 0.352393 | 0.145134 | 0.705764 | -0.780891 | -0.856620 | -0.264480 |
| Structural measure | Parameters estimated for each structural measure in model #9 to #15 | | | | | | | |
| | #9 | #10 | #11 | #12 | #13 | #14 | #15 | - |
| Average geodesic distance | -0.165117 | -0.298942 | -0.150478 | -0.157208 | -0.061353 | -0.018718 | -0.078672 | - |
| | -0.087571 | -0.194911 | -0.084158 | -0.116508 | -0.044666 | 0.001111 | -0.049056 | - |
| | -0.064341 | -0.147574 | -0.057092 | -0.088476 | -0.026599 | 0.016766 | -0.020564 | - |
| | -0.025300 | -0.017314 | 0.014291 | -0.072909 | -0.013220 | 0.033354 | -0.000479 | - |
| | 0.039935 | 0.018388 | 0.138831 | -0.012383 | 0.000669 | 0.091793 | 0.033253 | - |
| Network betweenness centrality | -0.012290 | -0.007442 | -0.005121 | -0.006393 | -0.002966 | -0.004843 | -0.002650 | - |
| | -0.007322 | -0.007153 | -0.003567 | -0.005663 | -0.002655 | -0.002205 | -0.002022 | - |
| | -0.004062 | -0.005557 | -0.003440 | -0.004676 | -0.002577 | 0.000954 | -0.001782 | - |
| | -0.002705 | -0.005303 | -0.003076 | -0.003778 | -0.001705 | 0.002022 | -0.001388 | - |
| | -0.001839 | -0.004237 | -0.002346 | -0.003167 | -0.000932 | 0.002624 | -0.001065 | - |
| Overall clustering coefficient | -1.519654 | -1.088696 | -0.583514 | -0.907395 | -0.440218 | -0.460213 | -0.459516 | - |
| | -1.168403 | -1.054784 | -0.560169 | -0.734046 | -0.420971 | -0.406280 | -0.424627 | - |
| | -1.102005 | -0.419880 | -0.483137 | -0.731246 | -0.361835 | -0.269540 | -0.341853 | - |
| | -0.730529 | 0.032745 | -0.249945 | -0.717829 | -0.189965 | -0.036737 | -0.083263 | - |
| | -0.223090 | 0.736365 | -0.065760 | -0.648851 | -0.087669 | 0.236939 | -0.020493 | - |

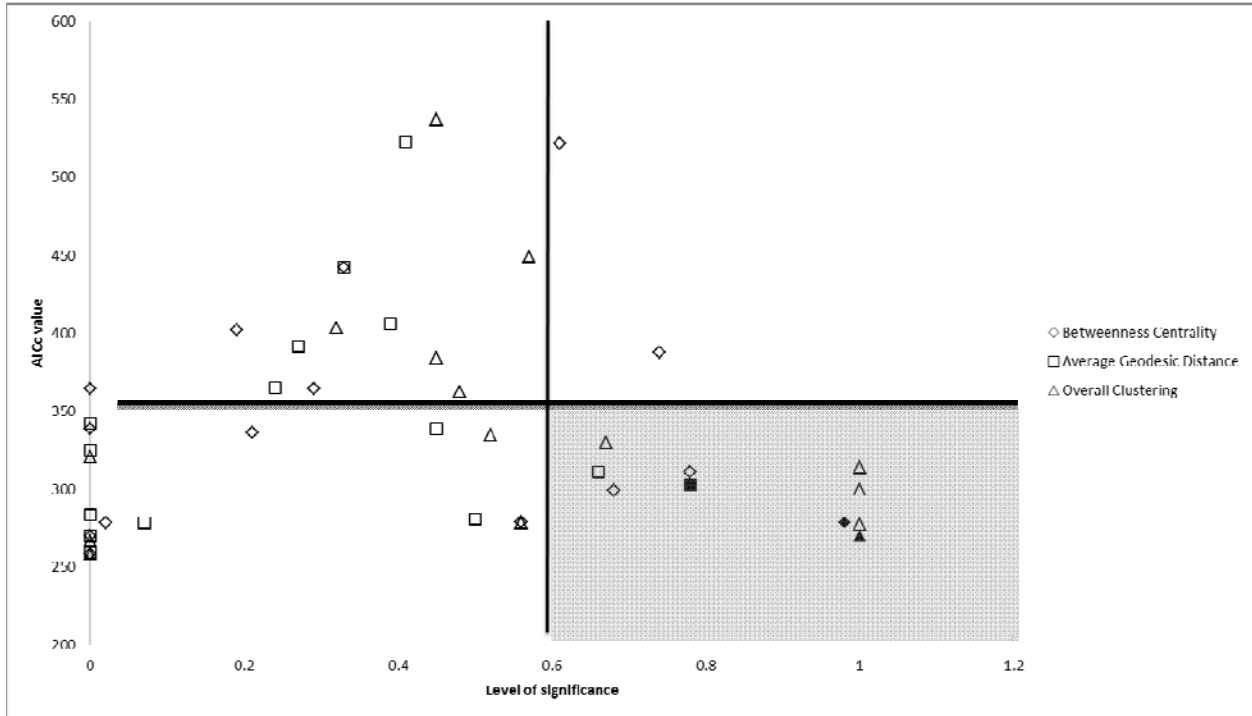
2
3 **4.2 Significance Level**

4 The t statistic value for each parameter also varies across census tracts as shown in figure 1, so there is no single t
5 value to represent the significant level of the estimation as it is expected in the regular global regression. Thus, this
6 paper develops the “significance rate” value—calculated as the rate of census tracts whose parameter estimations for
7 structural have t value bigger than 1.65 or smaller than -1.65 (±1.65 is the critical value for two tailed t-test at the
8 confidence level of 90% for degree of freedom of 320)—to show how many census tracts have statistically
9 significant relationship between structural measures and non-motorist accidents at 90% confidence level. The
10 significance rate for parameter estimation of each structural measure is shown in figure 2 along the horizontal axis
11 titled as “level of significance”. This paper assume that an estimation is fair if the significance rate is higher than
12 0.6. Therefore, the points on the right side of the black vertical line represent models which have better ability to
13 estimate parameters at 90% confidence level.

14
15 **4.3 Better-fit models**

16 Regarding how effectively the model can describe the relationship, this paper introduces the Corrected Akaike
17 Information Criterion (AICc) (24): a lower value of AICc indicates a better fit model. The AICc values for all the
18 models are displayed in figure 2, from the minimum value of 234.89 to the maximum value of 536.97. This paper

1 assumes that the AICc value lower than 350 indicates a better-fit model. As can be seen in figure 2, the points under
 2 the black horizon line represent models which have better fitness.
 3 In order to further study the associations between each structural measure and non-motorist accidents,
 4 models which can effectively describe the relationship with more significant estimations should be selected for
 5 analysis. Therefore, both the significance level and goodness of fit are considered together. First, the models with
 6 AICc value lower than 350 are focused on. Then, among these lower AICc models, those for each structural measure
 7 with the highest significance rates are picked out for further analysis: model No.7 with the structural measure of
 8 average geodesic distance; model No.6 with the structural measure of network betweenness centrality; and model
 9 No.12 with the structural measure of overall clustering coefficient, as shown in bolded cells in table 2 and solid
 10 black points in figure 2.
 11



12
 13 **Figure 2 The significance level of parameter estimation for structural measures and goodness of fit for**
 14 **different models.**

15
 16 **5 CONCLUSIONS**

17 According to the significance rate and model fitness level, 3 models are chosen to examine the associations between
 18 road network structure and pedestrian-bicyclist accidents.

19
 20 **5.1 Positive Or Negative?—The Direction of Impact**

21 The GWR results show the parameter of a certain variable is not constant for all census tracts. Thus the parameter
 22 for structural measure will vary across different census tracts, as shown in figure 1.

23 Figure 1 (b) shows the parameter distribution of average geodesic distance among all the census tracts, with
 24 negative values in all tracts. At the same time, the conclusion should be drawn together with the comparison to the t
 25 value distribution of this measure. As mentioned above, the t values are different for a variable in different locations.
 26 Shown in figure 1 (c), the t values for parameter estimations of average geodesic distance vary across the 321 census
 27 tracts. The areas with t value bigger than -1.65 provide insignificant parameters estimation, shown as the white areas
 28 in the east part of Alameda County in figure 1 (c). It is obvious that the tracts which have significant parameter
 29 estimations are all with negative parameters. Thus, a significant negative relationship between average geodesic
 30 distance and pedestrian-bicyclist crashes can only be concluded in the west part of Alameda County, which means
 31 larger average geodesic distance is related to a decrease of non-motorist crashes.

32 In figure 1 (e), the parameter estimations for network betweenness centrality are all negative values that
 33 range from -0.009 to -0.006. And these estimations are significant at 90% level in the east and middle part of

1 Alameda County. So in these areas, it can be concluded that network betweenness centrality has a negative
2 relationship with pedestrian-bicyclist crashes: the more centered a network, the safer for pedestrians and bicyclists.

3 In figure 1 (i), the parameter estimations for network betweenness centrality are all significant at 90% level
4 for 321 census tracts. And the parameters are all negative from -0.9 to -0.6 shown in figure 1 (h). So it can be
5 concluded that overall clustering coefficient has a negative relationship with pedestrian-bicyclist crashes: the more
6 clusters a network has, the fewer accidents for pedestrians and bicyclists.

7 8 **5.2 Weak or Strong?—The Degree of Impact**

9 The parameters estimated by GWR not only vary in signs, but also change in quantities, which indicate the degree of
10 the influence of a variable can be different across tracts. The effects could be strong in some census tracts but be
11 weak in others. Regardless of whether the sign is negative or positive, the absolute values of a parameter show how
12 strong the structural measure is related to pedestrian-bicyclist safety. As shown in figure 1 (b), the parameters of
13 average geodesic distance in the east part of Alameda County can be very close to 0, which means that the influence
14 of this measurement on safety can be very weak for these tracts. When one unit of increase happens to the average
15 geodesic distance, no noticeable change could be expected for accident number. However, every conclusion should
16 be drawn at certain confidence level. Comparing the t value distribution in figure 1 (c), it is easy to find that the
17 small absolute values in figure 1 (b) are all the tracts with t values bigger than -1.65 which means insignificant
18 estimation at 90% confidence level. In other words, in highly significant tracts the absolute values of parameters are
19 relatively large.

20 Shown in figure 1 (e), the parameters for network betweenness centrality are with stronger impacts (higher
21 absolute values) in the middle of Alameda County and weaker impacts (lower absolute values) in the north west.
22 Compare the figure 1 (f), the lower absolute values in east are ignored because the estimations here are insignificant
23 at 90% confidence level. From figure 1 (h) and figure 1 (i), overall clustering coefficient can strongly influence the
24 non-motorist accidents in the east, becoming weaker from the out range to the core in the county.

25 26 **6 DISCUSSION**

27 Based on the stated conclusions, it is clear that higher structural measures means safer environment for pedestrians
28 and bicyclists. Higher average geodesic distance would indicate a network with roads that are further apart from
29 each other. In other words, one has to pass more intersections when traveling between origins and destinations
30 located on any two roads if a network has high average geodesic distance, which also implies an inefficient network
31 to avoid through traffic for vehicles. Less vehicle volume could be the reason for less pedestrian-bicyclist crashes.
32 Larger network betweenness centrality means roads in a network highly possibly centered onto some specific main
33 roads, so that these main roads become center roads as trunks with others as branches. To understand this kind of
34 network, it is likely that the branch roads may only serve local traffic and the trunk roads will serve through traffic.
35 If the network betweenness centrality is high, there will be more branch roads centered onto fewer trunk roads. Then
36 this network can also discourage through traffic, which leads to fewer conflict possibility between cars and non-
37 motorists. A higher overall clustering coefficient indicates that a network is highly clustered, or that the network
38 contains many clusters in which roads are well-connected between themselves, but badly connected to other clusters.
39 Thus this kind of network tends to have sub-groups of roads as neighbors in a huge community. Then, the majority
40 of these roads will serve as local roads in a neighbor more than as collector roads. Again, this kind of network will
41 have less through traffic for cars, which offers a safer environment for pedestrians and bicyclists.

42 Comparing the road network patterns and their structural measures, it can be inferred that grid iron patterns
43 tend to have lower average geodesic distance, network betweenness centrality, and overall clustering coefficients,
44 and that the grid iron pattern may lead to more non-motorist crashes. On the other hand, a study about non-motorist
45 traffic safety impact of road network connectivity shows higher connectivity, such as denser street, higher block
46 density, and shorter mean block length, can lead to reduction of accidents for pedestrians and bicyclists (18). If
47 investigating the road network patterns and their connectivity measures, it can be inferred that grid iron pattern is
48 more likely to have higher connectivity. Thus, one could conclude that grid iron pattern is safer for pedestrians and
49 bicyclists. At first glance, the conclusions are contrary. But that is only because we draw the conclusion too abruptly.
50 First, a network which has lower structural measures is not necessarily a grid iron pattern. Or more precisely
51 speaking, a network with lower structural measures does not necessarily have higher connectivity measures. For
52 example, there could be a road network pattern has higher overall clustering coefficient and higher street density at
53 the same time to make it safer for pedestrians and bicyclists. Second, even if in most cases it is correct to infer that
54 an efficient, less centered, and clustered network is grid iron network, which means the safety impacts of grid iron
55 pattern are contrary in the two studies, it still does not necessarily mean any of the study is wrong. It only means one
56 certain pattern of road network can have good and bad effects on non-motorist safety at the same time. And this is

1 the reason why we need to investigate what features of a network that can lead to good impacts and combine all the
2 good features from different patterns to make a new design such as the fused grid pattern (6). Third, safety impact
3 for a road network can be different depending on what crash data is applied in analysis. For example, if fatal crash
4 counts is used, it may conclude that more four-way intersections can be safer; but if it is the total crashes considered,
5 the four-way intersections may turn out to be an unsafe factor (34). Further studies should consider the relationship
6 between road network measures and different patterns, and their safety impacts on pedestrians and bicyclists should
7 be investigated with different crash severities.

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