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## Comparative analysis of zonal systems for macro-level crash modeling

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#### **ABSTRACT**

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18 New Yo** Macro-level traffic safety analysis has been undertaken at different spatial configurations. However, clear 16 guidelines for the appropriate zonal system selection for safety analysis are unavailable. In this study, a 17 comparative analysis was conducted to determine the optimal zonal system for macroscopic crash model- 18 ing considering census tracts (CTs), state-wide traffic analysis zones (STAZs), and a newly developed 19 traffic-related zone system labeled traffic analysis districts (TADs). Poisson lognormal models for three 20 crash types (i.e., total, severe, and non-motorized mode crashes) are developed based on the three zonal 21 systems without and with consideration of spatial autocorrelation. The study proposes a method to com- 22 pare the modeling performance of the three types of geographic units at different spatial configurations 23 through a grid based framework. Specifically, the study region is partitioned to grids of various sizes and 24 the model prediction accuracy of the various macro models is considered within these grids of various 25 sizes. These model comparison results for all crash types indicated that the models based on TADs consis- 26 tently offer a better performance compared to the others. Besides, the models considering spatial autocor- 27 relation outperform the ones that do not consider it. Finally, based on the modeling results and motivation 28 for developing the different zonal systems, it is recommended using CTs for socio-demographic data 29 collection, employing TAZs for transportation demand forecasting, and adopting TADs for transportation 30 safety planning.  $\frac{31}{2}$ 

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#### 4243 1. Introduction

 Safety and mobility are two fundamental requirements of transpor- tation services. Unfortunately, a recent study revealed that the total cost of traffic crashes is almost two times greater than the overall cost of traffic congestion (Meyer, Systematics, C., & Association, A.A., 2008). Hence, it is very important to devote efforts to enhance road safety and thus reduce the social burden. Towards this end, a common approach is the application of macroscopic level crash modeling, which can integrate safety into long-range transportation planning at zonal level.

 In the past decade, several studies have been conducted for crash modeling at a macro-level (see (Yasmin & Eluru, 2016) for a detailed review). Across these studies, various zonal systems have been explored including: block groups ([Levine, Kim, & Nitz, 1995](#page--1-0)), census tracts [\(LaScala, Gerber, & Gruenewald, 2000](#page--1-0)), traffic analysis zones or TAZs [\(Abdel-Aty, Siddiqui, & Huang, 2011; Cai, Lee, Eluru, & Abdel-Aty,](#page--1-0) [2016; Hadayeghi, Shalaby, & Persaud, 2003; Hadayeghi, Shalaby, &](#page--1-0) [Persaud, 2010; Ladrón de Guevara, Washington, & Oh, 2004; Lee,](#page--1-0)

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[Abdel-Aty, Choi, & Siddiqui, 2013; Yasmin & Eluru, 2016](#page--1-0)), counties 61 [\(Aguero-Valverde & Jovanis, 2006; Huang, Abdel-Aty, & Darwiche,](#page--1-0) 62 2010), and ZIP code areas [\(Lee, Abdel-Aty, Choi, & Huang, 2015; Lee](#page--1-0) 63 et al., 2013). Most of these zonal systems were developed for different 64 specific usages. For example, the block groups and census tracts are 65 developed by census bureau for the presentation of statistical data 66 while TAZs are delineated for the long-term transportation plan. Mean- 67 while, the area of census tracts and TAZs are greater than the block 68 groups (Abdel-Aty, Lee, Siddiqui, & Choi, 2013). As a result, within the 69 study area, the number of units, aggregation levels and zoning configu- 70 ration can vary substantially across different zonal systems. Regarding 71 this, Kim, Brunner, and Yamashita (2006) developed a uniform 72 0.1 mile<sup>2</sup> grid structure to explore the impact of socio-demographic  $73$ characteristics such as land use, population size, and employment by 74 sector on crashes. Compared with other existing geographic units, the 75 grid structure is uniformly sized and shaped which can eliminate the 76 artifact effects. However, considering the availability and use of the 77 various zonal systems for other transportation purposes creating a 78 uniform grid structure would not be feasible from the perspective of 79 state and regional agencies. Hence, as part of our study, we investigate 80 the performance of safety models developed at various zonal configura- 81 tions to offer insights on what zonal systems are appropriate for crash 82 analysis and long term transportation safety planning. 83

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and the train interest of the reason of the reason is routing. Some that the model based on the new groups or cerests tracts. In almost every case, the outer the reason of the reason is a cerest of the reason of the reason Recently, several research studies have been conducted to com- pare different geographic units. [Abdel-Aty et al. \(2013\)](#page--1-0) conducted modeling analysis for three types of crashes (total, severe, and pedestrian crashes) with three different types of geographic entities (block groups, TAZs, and census tracts). Inconsistent significant var- iables were observed for the same dependent variables, validating the existence of zonal variation. However, no comparison of model- ing performance was conducted in this research. [Lee, Abdel-Aty,](#page--1-0) [and Jiang \(2014\)](#page--1-0) aggregated TAZs into traffic safety analysis zones (TSAZs) based on crash counts. Four different goodness-of-fit mea- sures (i.e., mean absolute deviation, root mean squared errors, sum of absolute deviation, and percent mean absolute deviation) were employed to compare crash model performance based on TSAZs and TAZs. The results indicated that the model based on the new zone system can provide better performance. Instead of determining 99 the best zone system, Xu, Huang, Dong, and Abdel-Aty (2014) creat- ed different zoning schemes by aggregating TAZs with a dynamical method. Models for total/severe crashes were estimated to explore variations across zonal schemes with different aggregation levels. Meanwhile, deviance information criterion, mean absolute devia- tion, and mean squared predictive error were calculated to compare different models. However, the employed measures for the compar- ison can be largely influenced by the number of observations and the observed values. Thus, the comparison results might be limited in the two studies [\(Lee et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2014\)](#page--1-0) since the measures were calculated based on zonal systems with different number of zones. Ignoring such limitation may result in inaccurate crash pre-diction results and inappropriate transportation safety plans.

 To address the limitation, one possible solution is to compute the measures based on a third-party zonal system so that the calculation would have the same observations. Towards this end, a grid structure that uniformly delineates the study region is suggested as a viable option. Specifically, the crash models developed for the various zonal 117 systems will be tested on the same grid structure. To ensure that the result is not an artifact of the grid size, several grid sizes ranging from 119 1 to 100 mile<sup>2</sup> will be considered.

 The current paper aims to conduct comparative analysis of different geographic units for macroscopic crash modeling analysis and provide guidance for transportation safety planning. Towards this end, both aspatial model (i.e., Poisson lognormal (PLN)) and spatial model (i.e., PLN conditional autoregressive (PLN-CAR)) are developed for three types of crashes (i.e., total, severe, and non-motorized mode crashes) based on census tracts, traffic analysis zones, and a newly developed zone system — traffic analysis districts (see the following section for detailed information). Then, a comparison method is pro- posed to compare the modeling performance with the same sample sizes by using grids of different dimensions. By using different goodness-of-fit measures, superior geographic units for crash modeling and transportation safety planning are identified.

#### 133 2. Configuration of geographic units

134 In this study, crash models were developed based on three different 135 geographic units, which are discussed in the following subsections.

- 136 2.1. Introduction of geographic units
- 137 2.1.1. Census tracts

 According to the U.S. Census Bureau, census tracts (CTs) are small, relatively permanent subdivisions of a county or equivalent entity to present statistical data such as poverty rates and income levels. On average, a CT has about 4,000 inhabitants. CTs are designed to be rela- tively homogeneous units with respect to population characteristics, economic status, and living conditions.

### 2.1.2. Traffic analysis zones 144

Traffic analysis zones (TAZs) are geographic entities delineated by 145 state or local transportation officials to tabulate traffic-related data 146 such as journey-to-work and place-of-work statistics (23). TAZs are de- 147 fined by grouping together census blocks, block groups, or census tracts. 148 A TAZ usually covers a contiguous area with a 600 minimum population 149 and the land use within each TAZ is relatively homogeneous [\(Abdel-Aty](#page--1-0) 150 [et al., 2013](#page--1-0)). 151

2.1.3. Traffic analysis districts 152

Traffic analysis districts (TADs) are new, higher-level geographic 153 entities for traffic analysis [\(FHWA and Census Transportation Planning](#page--1-0) Q10 [Products \(CTPP\), 2011\)](#page--1-0). TADs are built by aggregating TAZs, block 155 groups or census tracts. In almost every case, the TADs are delineated 156 to adhere to a 20,000 minimum population criteria and more likely to 157 have mixed land use. 158

2.2. Comparison of geographic units 159

In Florida, the average area of CTs, TAZs, and TADs is 15.497, 6.472, 160 and 103.314 mile<sup>2</sup>, respectively. Across the three geographic units,  $161$ which are shown in Fig. 1, a TAD is considerably larger than a CT and 162 TAZ while a TAZ is most likely to have the smallest size.  $163$ 

CT boundaries are generally delineated by visible and identifiable 164 features, with the intention of being maintained over a long time. On 165 the other hand, both TAZs and TADs are developed for transportation 166 planning and are always divided by physical boundaries, mostly arterial 167 roadways. Usually, CTs and TAZs nest within counties while TADs may 168 cross county boundaries, but they must nest within metropolitan plan- 169 ning organizations (MPOs) [\(FHWA and Census Transportation Planning](#page--1-0) 170 Products (CTPP), 2011). 171

**3. Data preparation** 172

Multiple geographic units were obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau 173 and Florida Department of Transportation (FDOT). The state of Florida has 174 4,245 CTs, 8,518 TAZs, and 594 TADs. Crashes that occurred in Florida in 175 2010–2012 were collected for this study. A total of 901,235 crashes 176 were recorded in Florida among which 50,039 (5.6%) were severe crashes 177 and 31,547 (3.5%) were non-motorized mode crashes. In this study, se- 178 vere crashes were defined as the combination of all fatal and incapacitat- 179 ing injury crashes while non-motorized mode crashes were the sum of 180 pedestrian and bicyclist involved crashes. On average, TADs have highest 181 number of crashes since they are the largest zonal configuration. Given 182 the large number of crashes in the Florida data, units with zero count 183 are observed for CTs and TAZs. However, within a TAD no zero count 184 units exist for the time period of our analysis. 185

A host of explanatory variables are considered for the analysis and are 186 grouped into three categories: traffic measures, roadway characteristics, 187 and socio-demographic characteristics. For the three zonal systems, 188 these data are collected from the Geographic Information System (GIS) 189 archived data from Florida Department of Transportation (FDOT) and 190 U.S. Census Bureau (USCB). 191

The traffic measures include VMT (Vehicle-Miles-Traveled), propor- 192 tion of heavy vehicle in VMT. Regarding the roadway variables, roadway 193 density (i.e., total roadway length per square mile), proportion of length 194 roadways by functional classifications (freeways, arterials, collector, and 195 local roads), signalized intersection density (i.e., number of signalized Q11 intersection per total roadway mileage), length of bike lanes, and length 197 of sidewalks were selected as the explanatory variables. Concerning the 198 socio-demographic data, the distance to the nearest urban area, popula- 199 tion density (defined as population divided by the area), proportion of 200 population between 15 and 24 years old, proportion of population 201 equal to or older than 65 years old, total employment density (defined 202 as the total employment per square mile), proportion of unemploy- 203 ment, median household income, total commuters density (i.e., the 204

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