

1 **Analysis of Pedestrian Accident Injury-Severities at Road Junctions and Crossings**  
2 **using an Advanced Random Parameter Modelling Framework: The Case of Scotland**

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32 **ABSTRACT**

33 This paper investigates the determinants of injury severities in pedestrian-motor vehicle accidents at  
34 signalised and unsignalised junctions, and at physically-controlled and human-controlled crossings in  
35 Scotland. The accident data were drawn from the official police crash report database of the UK  
36 spanning a period between 2010 and 2018. Correlated random parameter ordered probit models with  
37 heterogeneity in the means were developed in order to account for the multi-layered impact of  
38 unobserved heterogeneity on statistical estimation. The model estimation results showed that the  
39 severities of accident injuries are affected by roadway, location, weather, vehicle, and driver  
40 characteristics as well as temporal attributes (including time and day of the accident). Factors such as  
41 the urban context, lighting and weather conditions and road surface conditions were found to result in  
42 correlated random parameters, thus capturing the intricate, yet interactive effects of unobserved  
43 heterogeneity, and particularly the unobserved behavioural response of road users to different traffic  
44 control types at junctions and crossings. Vehicle type, driver's gender and day-of-the-week were  
45 observed to influence the random parameters' distributions. Empirically, the results showcase variations  
46 in the determinants of injury severities at signalised and unsignalised junctions, and at physically-  
47 controlled and human-controlled crossings. Even though most of these variations were related to the  
48 magnitude of impact of the determinants, differences in the directional effects on injury severities were  
49 also identified, mainly for factors related to weather conditions, hazard presence on the road, and  
50 temporal characteristics of the accidents.

51 **Keywords:** Pedestrian accidents; injury severity; ordered probit model; signalised and unsignalised  
52 junctions; physically-controlled crossings; human-controlled crossings; correlated random parameters;

53 **1. INTRODUCTION**

54 Road casualties constitute one of the major public health concerns in the United Kingdom and  
55 worldwide. Vulnerable road users, principally pedestrians, cyclists and motorcyclists, have a greater  
56 propensity to casualties, as they account for more than half of all road traffic deaths (WHO, 2018). In  
57 the UK, pedestrian casualties accounted for 14% of all casualties in 2018, thus reflecting the second  
58 largest proportion of fatalities after car users (DfT, 2018). In Scotland, pedestrian casualties accounted  
59 for about 15% of total casualties from all traffic accidents in 2018 (Transport Scotland, 2018).

60 Road junctions have been long established as road elements where pedestrians face a higher risk of  
61 being involved in accidents with motor vehicles (European Transport Safety Council, 1999). Pedestrian-  
62 vehicle accidents in junctions have been investigated extensively in the literature (Ma et al., 2018; Zajac  
63 & Ivan, 2003; Zhang et al., 2008; Zheng, 2014; Jung et al., 2016). Previous evidence has shown that  
64 major determinants of injury severities include vehicle speeds, configuration and geometric  
65 characteristics of the junction, built environment and land-use characteristics, pedestrian characteristics,  
66 the presence of dedicated facilities for pedestrians as well as the desire lines of pedestrians. Furthermore,  
67 the level of traffic control implemented in junctions may influence the occurrence and severity of  
68 pedestrian-involved accidents (Tarko et al., 2012). Traffic signals are widely used in junctions to  
69 regulate traffic control, as they can spatially and temporally separate movements and potential conflicts  
70 between pedestrians and vehicles, thus enabling a reduction in the risk of hazardous conflicts that can  
71 result in accidents (Wong et al., 2007).

72 The level of pedestrian safety is also subject to the provision of dedicated pedestrian facilities.  
73 Previous research has established the safety benefits of facilities that physically provide protected, yet  
74 segregated paths for pedestrians, such as various types of crossings (e.g., signalised or sign-controlled  
75 crossings, zebra crossings and so on) or footbridges (Elvik et al., 2013; Pantangi et al., 2021a; Pantangi  
76 et al., 2021b; Sarwar et al., 2017). As an alternative to physical infrastructure, the presence of human  
77 control at crossings through crossing patrols also enhances pedestrian safety, especially for special cases  
78 of pedestrian movements, such as commute to school (Rosenbloom et al., 2008), which may include  
79 even more vulnerable users, e.g., children and parents. Despite the presence of physical or human

80 control at pedestrian facilities, there is still potential for severe accidents, typically caused by traffic  
81 violations or risk-taking behaviours of drivers and/or pedestrians.

82 While the injury severities of pedestrian accidents have been individually explored for various  
83 junction and pedestrian crossing types in safety literature, there has been limited empirical research  
84 regarding how the factors determining injury severities of pedestrian-motor vehicle accidents vary by:  
85 (i) the level of traffic control at junctions; and (ii) the presence of physical facilities or human control  
86 at pedestrian crossings. Focusing on the type of traffic control, we separately consider injury severities  
87 of pedestrian-motor vehicle accidents at *signalised* and *unsignalised* junctions and *physically-*  
88 *controlled* and *human-controlled* crossings, respectively.

89 To account for unobserved heterogeneity, which may be present in the accident data, this study  
90 explores the determinants of injury severities for pedestrian-motor vehicle accidents using a correlated  
91 random parameters ordered probit approach with heterogeneity in the means. This modelling  
92 framework allows the parameter estimates to vary across the accident observations, thus facilitating the  
93 identification of varying impacts of the injury-severity determinants as well as of exogenous factors  
94 potentially controlling for such varying impacts of the injury-severity determinants. Furthermore, the  
95 correlation among the random parameters enables the recognition of interactive effects among the  
96 unobserved characteristics that may affect injury severities.

97 This paper contributes to empirical research about pedestrian-motor vehicle accident injuries in two  
98 ways: on the one hand, factors influencing injury severities are concurrently explored for several  
99 junction and pedestrian crossing types, thus enabling the identification of variations in the effects of the  
100 same factors. On the other hand, the statistical modelling framework can provide more robust empirical  
101 findings by addressing layers of unobserved heterogeneity, which were not simultaneously considered  
102 in prior studies of pedestrian safety.

## 103 **2. PREVIOUS RESEARCH ON INJURY SEVERITIES AT JUNCTIONS AND CROSSINGS**

104 Zajac & Ivan (2003) identified factors that significantly influenced injury severities of motor vehicle-  
105 crossing pedestrian crashes in rural Connecticut, U.S.A. using an ordered probit model. Whilst limiting  
106 the crashes to those where pedestrians were attempting to cross two-lane highways controlled by neither

107 stop signs nor traffic signals, they found that factors that had significant influence on pedestrian injury  
108 severity were clear roadway width, alcohol use by either driver or pedestrian, age, and vehicle type.

109 Haleem et al. (2015) identified and compared the major factors affecting crash injury severity  
110 involving pedestrians at signalised and unsignalised intersections in Florida using a mixed logit  
111 approach. They identified major predictors of higher pedestrian severity risk at signalised intersections,  
112 including higher annual average daily traffic, speed limit, proportion of trucks, age, rainy weather, and  
113 dark lighting conditions. At unsignalised intersections, the identified factors included pedestrians  
114 walking along roadway, middle-aged and elderly pedestrians, at-fault pedestrians, vans, dark lighting  
115 conditions and higher speed limits.

116 Ma et al. (2018) investigated factors influencing injury severity at intersections for pedestrian  
117 involved crashes. They employed an ordered probit modelling approach to develop a model for  
118 examining the influence of various factors on pedestrian injury severity. They found that pedestrian  
119 injury severities vary by driver's age. Furthermore, their results showed that vehicle type, point of fist  
120 contact, and weather significantly impact pedestrian injury severity at intersections for all driver age  
121 categories investigated.

122 Using pedestrian and bicyclist involved crash data from the Fatality Analysis Reporting System in  
123 the U.S., Dong et al. (2019) used mixed generalised ordered logit models to investigate injury severities  
124 of vulnerable road users. Factors that were found to significantly influence the injury severities included  
125 age, alcohol use, motorist's previous crashes, number of occupants, junction profile, weather, and light  
126 conditions among others. Due to unobserved heterogeneity, the number of occupants, vehicle body type,  
127 interstate, and junction led to statistically significant random parameters.

128 Rothman et al. (2012) questioned the safety effects of traffic signals at midblock locations despite  
129 being established as one the most appropriate approaches to providing safe pedestrian crossings. They  
130 investigated pedestrian injuries at signalised midblock compared to signalised intersection locations in  
131 Toronto, Canada. The outcomes indicate that the odds of children and adults to sustain a major injury  
132 are higher at midblock locations compared to intersections, whereas, for seniors, the risk of sustaining  
133 a fatal injury at midblock locations is even higher.

134 Abdelwahab & Abdel-Aty (2001) investigated the use of multilayer perceptron and fuzzy adaptive  
135 resonance theory neural networks in understanding the relationship between factors including driver,  
136 vehicle environment, and roadway characteristics on driver injury severity. Their findings indicate that  
137 injuries in accidents at rural intersections are more severe than in accidents at urban intersections.  
138 Interestingly, they also found that drivers who are at fault in the traffic accident are less likely to  
139 experience severe injuries compared to those not at fault. Similar to Abdelwahab & Abdel-Aty (2001),  
140 who found gender differences in severity of injuries, Obeng (2011) found larger increases in the  
141 marginal effects of driver characteristics on the risk of severe injuries in females compared to males.

142 Recognising the importance of pedestrian involved vehicle crashes that occur at intersections, Zhu  
143 (2021) investigated the factors contributing to their severity based on a three-year record of crash data  
144 in Hong Kong. Artificial neural network was used to determine significant contributing factors for fatal  
145 and severe crashes. The author found an increase in the likelihood of fatal and severe vehicle-pedestrian  
146 crashes at intersections with light rainfall and at signalised junctions as well as at uncontrolled junctions.

147 In summary, from the array of studies reviewed, it can be deduced that several traditional methods  
148 of modelling pedestrian injury severity have been used, including discrete choice models, and Bayesian  
149 network methods among others, but with some limitations. Many of these studies do not capture a broad  
150 range of unobserved factors contributing to accidents and their severities. Furthermore, the models  
151 developed are limited in their capacity to concurrently capture both the likely correlations between the  
152 unobserved factors and the variations in the effects of the unobserved factors on injury severities.

153 To overcome these limitations, this study proposes an integrated modelling framework (i.e., the  
154 correlated random parameter ordered probit approach with heterogeneity in the means). Even though a  
155 few studies recently applied a similar modelling framework for the statistical analysis of accident injury  
156 severities (e.g., Fountas et al., 2021; Se et al., 2021; Ahmed et al., 2021), this approach has not been  
157 used to analyse pedestrian-vehicles accidents, to the best of the authors' knowledge.

158 **3. METHODS**

159 For the statistical analysis of the accident data, we employ an ordered probability framework with  
160 allowances for correlated random parameters and with a flexible structure for capturing heterogeneity  
161 in the means of the random parameters.

162 The traditional ordered probit model is formulated using a latent continuous variable,  $z_i$ , as follows:

163 
$$z_i = \beta X_i + \varepsilon_i, y_i = j, \text{ if } \mu_{j-1} < y_i < \mu_j, j = 1, 2, \dots, j \quad (1)$$

164 where  $\beta$  represents a vector of estimable parameters,  $X_i$  represents a vector of observable characteristics  
165 for accident observation  $i$ ,  $y_i$  denotes an integer, which stands for the observed severity outcome of the  
166 accident injury,  $j$  denotes an integer representing the levels of injury-severity, the threshold parameters  
167 of the ordered model are represented by  $\mu_j$ , which are ordered in nature. The random error component  
168 is denoted by  $\varepsilon_i$ , with the assumption for this being normally distributed.

169 Random parameters are integrated into the modelling framework to account for unobserved  
170 heterogeneity. This setting empowers the estimation of accident-specific parameter vectors,  $\beta_i$  for the  
171 explanatory variables included in  $X$  (Semple et al., 2021), as shown below:

172 
$$\beta_i = \beta + \delta K + \Gamma \omega_i \quad (2)$$

173 Where the mean value of the random parameters' vector is represented by  $\beta$ ,  $\Gamma$  denotes a Cholesky  
174 matrix,  $K$  is a vector of exogenous variables that affect the means of the random parameters,  $\delta$  is a  
175 vector of coefficients for  $K$ , a normally distributed random term is indicated by  $\omega$ .

176 Considering the typical formulation of the random parameters (Washington et al., 2020), the random  
177 parameters vary across the observations in light of a pre-specified distribution, the mixing distribution.  
178 In this study, the normal distribution was selected to fit the random parameters' distribution. Previous  
179 evidence typically suggests the estimation of uncorrelated random parameters, implicitly assuming the  
180 existence of independent effects attributed to unobserved heterogeneity. Though, a fast-growing  
181 number of recent studies have revealed that possible dependence structures among unobserved  
182 characteristics may underpin their impact on model predictors. To account for this possibility, the  
183 random parameters are allowed to be correlated, hence, the off-diagonal elements of the Cholesky  
184 matrix are set to take non-zero values (Fountas et al., 2018b).

185 The covariance matrix of the random parameters,  $V$ , is given by multiplying a Cholesky matrix,  
186  $\Gamma$ , and a Cholesky matrix prime,  $\Gamma'$ , as shown in Equation 3:

$$187 \quad V = \Gamma\Gamma' \quad (3)$$

188 As a result of the generalized formulation of the Cholesky matrix, the model's estimable parameters are  
189 both the diagonal and off-diagonal elements of the Cholesky matrix. Furthermore, the diagonal and off-  
190 diagonal values of the covariance matrix are used to compute the standard deviations of the correlated  
191 random parameters following a post-estimation procedure established by Fountas et al., 2018a .

192 The Simulated Maximum Likelihood Estimation (SMLE) method was used to calibrate the  
193 correlated random parameters model. As part of the SMLE , Halton draws were leveraged to obtain  
194 optimum numerical integrations for the simulation process (Halton,1960). For the estimations, 1000,  
195 1200 and 1400 Halton draws have been used to stabilize the models' parameter estimates.

196 To capture the extent of correlation between the random parameters, correlation coefficients are  
197 computed. The definition of the correlation coefficient between two random parameters is given as:

$$198 \quad Cor(\chi_{\kappa}, \chi_{\kappa'}) = \frac{Cov(\chi_{\kappa}, \chi_{\kappa'})}{\sigma_{\kappa}\sigma_{\kappa'}} \quad (4)$$

199 where  $Cov(\chi_{\kappa}, \chi_{\kappa'})$  denotes the covariance among the random parameters generated by the variables  
200  $\chi_{\kappa}$  and  $\chi_{\kappa'}$ , while, the standard deviations of their corresponding distributions are represented by  
201  $\sigma_{\kappa}$  and  $\sigma_{\kappa'}$  .

202 The probability of each accident  $i$  to yield in an injury-severity outcome  $j$ , ( $y = j$ ) is expressed as:

$$203 \quad P_i(y = j) = \Phi(\mu_j - \beta_i \mathbf{X}_i) - \Phi(\mu_{j+1} - \beta_i \mathbf{X}_i) \quad (5)$$

204 where  $\Phi$  represents the cumulative function of the standard normal distribution, the other terms are as  
205 defined previously.

206 To ascertain the exact effects of the explanatory variables on the probabilities of all injury-severity  
207 levels, and especially of the interior levels, marginal effects are also estimated. Marginal effects  
208 demonstrate the change in the outcome probabilities as a result of a unit change in the independent  
209 variables (Washington et al., 2020). In this study, the vectors of explanatory variables in the estimated  
210 models contain only binary variables. Hence, their marginal effects are determined by the change in  
211 their values from "0" to "1", as shown is Equation 6:



212 
$$\frac{P_i(y=j)}{\partial \mathbf{X}} = [\varphi(\mu_{j-1} - \boldsymbol{\beta}\mathbf{X}) - \varphi(\mu_j - \boldsymbol{\beta}\mathbf{X})]\boldsymbol{\beta} \quad (6)$$

213 where  $\varphi$  is the density function of the normal distribution and all other terms are as defined previously.

214 To evaluate the statistical fit of the estimated models, goodness-of-fit metrics were computed,  
215 namely the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) and the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC):

216 
$$AIC = 2F - 2LL(\boldsymbol{\beta}) \quad (7)$$

217 
$$BIC = -2LL(\boldsymbol{\beta}) + F\ln(N) \quad (8)$$

218 F is a scalar denoting how many parameters were estimated by the model, N indicates the size of the  
219 accident dataset used for modelling purposes, and all other terms are as previously defined.

#### 220 4. EMPIRICAL SETTING

221 Data from the STATS19 database is used for the empirical analysis of this study. STATS19 is an  
222 accident database with information drawn from the police reports and is available to the public  
223 (Department for Transport, 2019). The dataset contains various fields of accident information, as  
224 extracted from the STATS19 form, which is used by the UK police for accident reporting purposes.  
225 Overall, these fields include characteristics such as accident time, date, and location, number and type  
226 of casualties (driver, passenger, pedestrian, and so on), socio-demographic traits of casualties (age, sex,  
227 type of residential location), vehicle characteristics (type, engine capacity, and condition), road design  
228 and type (e.g., single carriageway, dual carriageway, and so on). The dataset also includes information  
229 about prevailing weather and lighting conditions at the time of the accident. The reported injury  
230 outcomes are classified into three categories: slight, serious, and fatal injuries. The STATS19 dataset  
231 does not encompass accidents resulting in no injuries.

232 For this study, we draw a dataset of pedestrian-motor vehicle accidents occurred at signalised and  
233 unsignalised junctions, and at physically controlled and human-controlled crossings in Scotland over  
234 nine years, spanning from 2010 to 2018. During this period, there were 1841 and 5100 accidents cases  
235 at signalised and unsignalised junctions, respectively, while 4656 and 500 accident cases were observed  
236 at physically-controlled and human-controlled crossings, respectively. Table 2 shows the descriptive  
237 statistics of the key variables, which were identified as statistically significant in the analysis. Further  
238 classification of accidents by crossing and human control type, along with corresponding accident

239 frequencies, is shown in Table 1. The latter also provides accident frequencies for signalised and  
 240 unsignalised junctions.

241 **Table 1. Classification of crossings and junctions based on traffic control**  
 242

<b>Physically-controlled crossings</b>	<b>(No) % of Accidents</b>	<b>Human-controlled crossings</b>	<b>(No)% of Accidents</b>	<b>Junction</b>	<b>(No) % of Accidents</b>
Zebra crossing	(418) 8.9%	Control by school crossing patrol	(183) 36.6%	Signalised	(1841) 26.5%
Pelican, puffin, toucan or non-junction pedestrian light crossing	(2061) 44.3%	Control by other authorised person	(317) 63.4%	Unsignalised	(5100) 73.5%
Pedestrian phase at traffic signal	(1792) 38.5%				
Footbridge or subway	(23) 0.5%				
Central refuge	(362) 7.8%				

243  
 244 **Table 2. Descriptive statistics of key variables of pedestrian accidents at signalised and**  
 245 **unsignalised junctions and physically and human-controlled crossings**

<b>Variable description</b>	<b>Signalised junctions (N=1841)</b>		<b>Unsignalised junctions (N=5100)</b>	
	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Time (1 if evening peak hours, 0 otherwise)	483	26.24	-	-
Day (1 if weekend, 0 otherwise)	462	25.10	-	-
Speed limit (1 if speed limit is 40 mph, 0 otherwise)	44	2.39	-	-
Urban area (1 if the accident occurred in an urban area, 0 otherwise)	1745	94.79	4195	82.25
Weather conditions (1 if fine, 0 otherwise)	1358	73.76	3845	75.38
Lighting conditions (1 if daylight, 0 otherwise)	1172	63.66	-	-
Road surface condition (1 if dry, 0 otherwise)	1112	60.40	-	-
Vehicle type (1 if passenger car, 0 otherwise)	-	-	-	-
Road surface condition (1 if wet, 0 otherwise)	-	-	1779	34.88
Speed limit (1 if speed limit is 30 mph, 0 otherwise)	-	-	4571	89.63
Time (1 if morning peak hours, 0 otherwise)	-	-	662	12.98
Object in carriageway (1 if no object, 0 otherwise)	-	-	4990	97.84
Carriageway hazard (1 if no hazard, 0 otherwise)	-	-	4967	97.39
		<b>Physically-controlled Crossings (N=4656)</b>		<b>Human-Controlled Crossings (N=500)</b>
Weather conditions (1 if fine, 0 otherwise)	3468	74.50	391	78.20
Gender (1 if male driver, 0 otherwise)	3035	65.19	314	62.80
Vehicle type (1 if passenger car, 0 otherwise)	3419	73.48	-	-
Lighting conditions (1 if daylight, 0 otherwise)	3094	66.45	-	-
Road surface condition (1 if wet, 0 otherwise)	1710	36.74	151	30.20

Variable description	Signalised junctions (N=1841)		Unsignalised junctions (N=5100)	
Carriageway hazard (1 if no hazard, 0 otherwise)	4577	98.30	490	98.00
Day (1 if weekend, 0 otherwise)	-	-	-	-
Speed limit (1 if speed limit is 20 mph, 0 otherwise)	-	-	45	9.00
Time (1 if evening peak hours, 0 otherwise)	-	-	95	19.00

246

247 **5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

248 *5.1 Model estimation results*

249 The results (parameter estimates, correlation coefficients,  $\Gamma$  matrix elements, marginal effects) of  
 250 the injury-severity models at signalised and unsignalised junctions, and at physically and human-  
 251 controlled crossings are presented in Tables 3 to 10. For each of the aforementioned accident groups,  
 252 Correlated Random Parameters Ordered Probit models with Heterogeneity in the Means (CRPOPHM)  
 253 were estimated. Furthermore, a series of Likelihood Ratio Tests (LRT) were conducted to evaluate the  
 254 statistical performance of the CRPOPHM models compared to lower order counterparts (i.e., fixed  
 255 parameters and uncorrelated random parameters models). The LRT results showed that the CRPOPHM  
 256 models are statistically superior than their counterparts at a confidence level greater than 95%. Hence,  
 257 only the CRPOPHM models are presented and discussed. Positive parameter estimates indicate an  
 258 increase in the likelihood of the most severe injury outcome (i.e., fatal injury), while negative  
 259 parameters imply an increase in the likelihood of the slight injury outcome. For all models, the estimable  
 260 parameters were found statistically significant considering a minimum 90% level of confidence, though,  
 261 in most cases, the parameters were significant at a greater than 95% level of confidence.<sup>1</sup>

262 The boxplots in Figures 1-4 illustrate the random parameters' distributions. The lower and upper  
 263 limits of the box reflect the interquartile range – 75<sup>th</sup> - 25<sup>th</sup> percentile, the thick line in the middle of the  
 264 box represents the median, the red line indicates the zero value, and the whiskers are determined based  
 265 on the minimum and maximum values of the distribution.

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<sup>1</sup> The statistical analysis was conducted using the NLOGIT and SPSS software.

266 5.1.1 Pedestrian-motor vehicle accidents at signalised junctions

267 Seven variables were identified as statistically significant determinants of injury severities at  
268 signalised junctions. As shown in Table 3, four variables generated random parameters, which include  
269 the urban area, fine weather, daylight, and dry road surface. The distributions of these random  
270 parameters are visualised in Figure 1. The urban area variable is observed to reduce the likelihood of  
271 severe injuries for about 56% of the accident observations, while, for nearly 44% of the remaining  
272 observations, the likelihood of severe injuries increases. This may highlight the mixed exposure patterns  
273 of pedestrians to accidents in urban areas, which may depend on the characteristics of the roadway  
274 network and the level of interactions between urban land uses and pedestrian traffic. In a previous  
275 study, Ukkusuri et al. (2012) found a strong relationship between the built environment, transit, and  
276 road geometric design characteristics (distinguishing factors between urban and non-urban areas) and  
277 the total and fatal pedestrian-vehicle collisions. Similarly, daylight and dry road surface at the time of  
278 the accident are linked with a reduced likelihood of severe injuries for 51.63% and 94.64%, respectively,  
279 of the accident cases. Only the fine weather, contrary to other variables, was found to increase the  
280 likelihood of slight injuries for nearly 70% of the pedestrian accidents at signalised junctions. This is  
281 not surprising, as Edwards (1998) found that accidents in fine weather conditions were consistently  
282 more severe than accidents under all other conditions except fog, using data for England and Wales  
283 from 1981-1991. More recently, Fountas et al. (2020) showed that pedestrian-related accidents that  
284 occurred in Scotland are more likely to result in severe injuries under daylight and fine weather.  
285 Favourable visibility prompted by fine weather may lead to aggressive driving patterns, which typically  
286 amplify the casualties of vulnerable road users.

287 The variable indicating whether a passenger car was involved in the accident was found to influence  
288 the means of all random parameters (i.e., this variable was found to capture the heterogeneity in the  
289 means of random parameters in a statistically significant manner). For urban areas, fine weather, and  
290 dry road surface, the passenger car indicator induces an opposite effect from that implied by the sign of  
291 the mean of the random parameter distribution. To that end, car-pedestrian accidents that occurred at  
292 urban areas or on dry road surfaces are associated with a higher tendency for severe injuries compared  
293 to any other types of pedestrian accidents with similar area or road surface characteristics. This may be

294 a result of the intense traffic volumes and interactions in urban areas, for both pedestrians and car users.  
 295 The passenger car variable has the opposite influence on the mixing distribution of the fine weather,  
 296 leading to a decrease of accident observations associated with severe injuries. As expected, fine weather  
 297 improves visibility conditions and overall driving comfort, especially for car users, who are more likely  
 298 to get affected by adverse weather conditions (Peng et al., 2018).

299 The model results also reveal that evening peak time, weekend, and 40 mph speed limit are  
 300 statistically significant factors that exert a static impact across the accident observations, i.e., they result  
 301 in fixed (non-random) parameters (see Table 3). More specifically, pedestrian accidents occurred at  
 302 evening peak time and at roads with 40mph speed limit are more likely to yield serious or fatal injuries.  
 303 Evening peak hours reflect traffic conditions with intense presence of vehicular and pedestrian  
 304 movements, especially at signalised intersections. In Scotland, roads with 40 mph speed limits that  
 305 include signalised intersections possibly indicate suburban or rural trunk roads crossing settlements  
 306 where the presence of vulnerable road users is highly expected (Transport Scotland, 2012). Accidents  
 307 involving pedestrians that occurred at weekends are less likely to generate severe injury outcomes. This  
 308 finding is intuitive given the lower volumes of vehicles and pedestrians at signalised junctions on  
 309 weekends, thus leading to the reduction of dangerous conflicts between pedestrians and motorised  
 310 modes.

311 **Table 3. Model estimation results for pedestrian accidents at junctions and crossings**

Variables	<i>Signalised</i>		<i>Unsignalised</i>		<i>Physically-controlled</i>		<i>Human-controlled</i>	
	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>t-stat</i>	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>t-stat</i>	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>t-stat</i>	<i>Coeff.</i>	<i>t-stat</i>
<b>Variables (Non-random parameters)</b>								
<b>Constant</b>	-2.313	-6.42	-1.172	-6.18	-1.302	-6.54	-4.550	-3.24
<b>Time (1 if evening peak hours, 0 otherwise)</b>	0.935	5.51	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Urban area (1 if the accident occurred in an urban area, 0 otherwise)</b>	-	-	-0.099	-1.76	-	-	-	-
<b>Day (1 if weekend, 0 otherwise)</b>	-0.284	-1.67	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Speed limit (1 if speed limit is 40 mph, 0 otherwise)</b>	2.384	5.41	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Weather conditions (1 if fine, 0 otherwise)</b>	-	-	0.295	4.69	0.210	3.06	-	-
<b>Carriage hazards (1 if No Hazard, 0 otherwise)</b>	-	-	0.297	1.91	-	-	2.753	2.02

<b>Gender (1 if driver's gender is male, 0 otherwise)</b>	-	-	-	-	0.316	5.75	0.665	3.04
<b>Variables (Random parameters)</b>								
<b>Urban area (1 if the accident occurred in an urban area, 0 otherwise)</b>	-0.765	-1.95	-	-	-	-	-	-
SDPDF*	4.792	37.67	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Weather conditions (1 if fine, 0 otherwise)</b>	1.011	2.52	-	-	-	-	-0.559	-1.82
SDPDF*	2.176	33.06	-	-	-	-	2.048	16.56
<b>Lighting conditions (1 if daylight, 0 otherwise)</b>	-0.264	-0.76	-	-	-0.186	-2.71	-	-
SDPDF*	6.475	34.53	-	-	1.310	56.50	-	-
<b>Road surface conditions (1 if dry, 0 otherwise)</b>	-3.026	-7.15	-	-	0.370	4.69	0.528	1.75
SDPDF*	1.878	30.857	-	-	1.641	76.17	2.469	25.19
<b>Speed limit (1 if speed limit is 30 mph [Unsignalised]; 20mph [Human-controlled], 0 otherwise)</b>	-	-	-0.137	-1.18	-	-	-2.594	-3.04
SDPDF*	-	-	0.737	56.34	-	-	1.874	10.50
<b>Time (1 if morning peak hours [Unsignalised], Evening peak hours [Human-controlled], 0 otherwise)</b>	-	-	0.011	0.11	-	-	-1.425	-3.15
SDPDF*	-	-	0.776	79.67	-	-	1.123	12.31
<b>Hit object in carriageway indicator (1 if No object, 0 otherwise)</b>	-	-	-0.392	-2.15	-	-	-	-
SDPDF*	-	-	1.307	59.20	-	-	-	-
<b>Road surface condition indicator (1 if wet, 0 otherwise)</b>	-	-	0.475	5.48	-	-	-	-
SDPDF*	-	-	1.204	91.54	-	-	-	-
<b>Vehicle type (1 if passenger car, 0 otherwise)</b>	-	-	-	-	0.171	2.29	-	-
SDPDF*	-	-	-	-	1.268	83.11	-	-
<b>Carriageway hazards (1 if no Hazard, 0 otherwise)</b>	-	-	-	-	-0.307	-1.74	-	-
SDPDF*	-	-	-	-	1.397	50.79	-	-
<b>Heterogeneity in means: Vehicle type (1 if passenger car, 0 otherwise)</b>								
<b>Urban area</b>	0.672	2.19	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Weather conditions</b>	-2.229	-4.92	-	-	-	-	-0.230	-0.66
<b>Lighting conditions</b>	-1.298	-3.75	-	-	-0.081	-0.73	-	-
<b>Road surface conditions (dry)</b>	2.995	6.64	-0.219	-2.33	-0.263	-2.36	-0.147	-0.30
<b>Speed limit</b>	-	-	-0.087	-0.63	-	-	2.917	2.32
<b>Time</b>	-	-	0.276	2.16	-	-	2.724	3.65
<b>Hit object in carriageway</b>	-	-	0.353	2.60	-	-	-	-
<b>Road surface condition (wet)</b>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Vehicle type</b>	-	-	-	-	0.529	4.35	-	-
<b>Carriageway hazards</b>	-	-	-	-	-0.292	-2.15	-	-
<b>Threshold parameters for probabilities</b>								
$\mu_l$	8.694	14.64	2.273	33.87	2.730	32.59	4.522	8.15
<b>N</b>	1841		5100		4656		500	
<b>LL (0)</b>	-1159.950		-3330.693		-3103.374		-275.329	

<b>LL (<math>\beta</math>)</b>	-1135.892	-3282.667	-3054.017	-257.38
<b>Goodness-of-fit metrics</b>				
<b>AIC</b>	2317.80	6611.30	6152.00	558.80
<b>BIC</b>	2399.59	6710.46	6293.84	651.48

**Distributional characteristics of random parameters**

	<b>Above zero</b>	<b>Below zero</b>	<b>Above zero</b>	<b>Below zero</b>	<b>Above zero</b>	<b>Below zero</b>	<b>Above zero</b>	<b>Below zero</b>
<b>Urban area</b>	43.66	56.34	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Weather conditions</b>	67.89	32.11	-	-	-	-	39.24	60.76
<b>Lighting conditions</b>	48.37	51.63	-	-	44.35	55.65	-	-
<b>Road surface condition</b>	5.36	94.64	65.34	34.66	58.92	41.08	58.47	41.53
<b>Speed limit</b>	-	-	42.63	57.37	-	-	08.31	91.69
<b>Time</b>	-	-	50.57	49.43	-	-	10.22	89.78
<b>Hit object in carriageway</b>	-	-	38.21	61.79	-	-	-	-
<b>Vehicle type</b>	-	-	-	-	55.36	44.64	-	-
<b>Carriageway hazard</b>	-	-	-	-	41.30	58.70	-	-

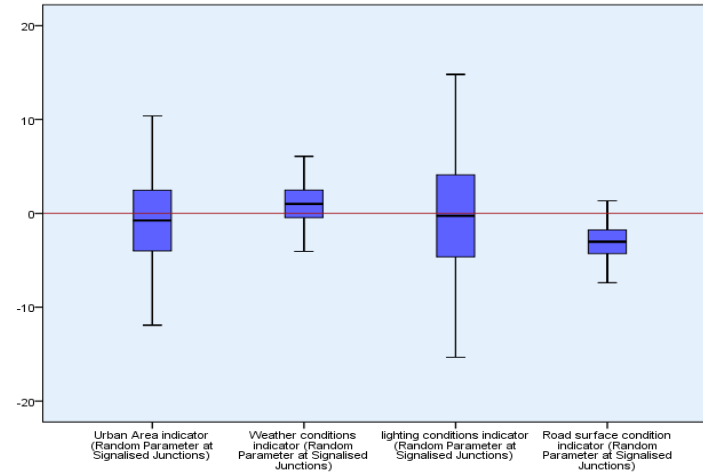
312 \*SDPDF: Standard deviation of parameter density function

313 Table 4. Diagonal and off-diagonal matrix [*t-stats*], and correlation  
 314 coefficients (in parenthesis) of random parameters at signalised junctions

Variables	Urban area	Weather conditions	Lighting conditions	Road surface condition
Urban area (1 if the accident occurred in an urban area, 0 otherwise)	4.792 [13.75] (1.0000)	-	-	-
Weather conditions (1 if fine, 0 otherwise)	1.0766 [4.46] (0.4948)	1.891 [8.56] (1.0000)	-	-
Lighting conditions (1 if daylight, 0 otherwise)	3.0708[10.95] (0.4742)	-3.9076[-13.07] (-0.2898)	4.151[13.60] (1.0000)	-
Road surface conditions (1 if dry, 0 otherwise)	-0.0562[-0.25] (-0.0299)	1.8228[7.77] (0.8286)	-0.4093[-2.80] (-0.7396)	0.185 [1.90] (1.0000)

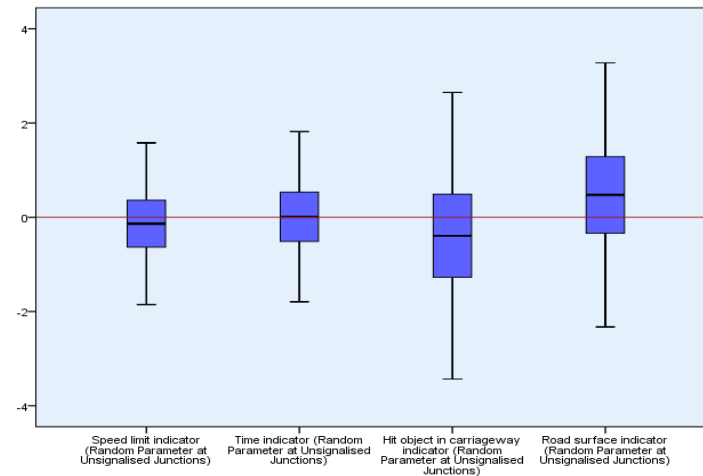
315 Table 5. Diagonal and off-diagonal matrix [*t-stats*], and correlation  
 316 coefficients (in parenthesis) of random parameters for at unsignalised  
 317 junctions  
 318

Variables	Speed Limit	Time	Hit object in carriageway	Road surface condition
Speed Limit (1 if speed limit is 30 mph, 0 otherwise)	0.737 [10.74] (1.0000)	-	-	-
Time (1 if Morning peak hours, 0 otherwise)	0.008 [0.12] (0.0098)	0.776 [11.84] (1.0000)	-	-
Hit object in carriageway (1 if No object, 0 otherwise)	-0.703 [-10.33] (-0.5377)	-0.716 [-21.78] (-0.5536)	0.837 [25.35] (1.0000)	-
Road surface conditions (1 if wet, 0 otherwise)	-0.133 [-2.95] (-0.1106)	0.615 [11.29] (0.5102)	1.008[20.54] (0.3156)	0.190[5.22] (1.0000)



319  
 320 Figure 1 Boxplots illustrating the random parameters' distributions in the model  
 321 for signalised junctions

322



323  
 324 Figure 2 Boxplots illustrating the random parameters' distributions in the model  
 325 for unsignalised junctions



326 5.1.2 Pedestrian-motor vehicle accidents at unsignalised junctions

327 Table 3 shows that the CRPOPHM model for pedestrian-motor vehicle accidents at unsignalised  
328 junctions contains four variables resulting to correlated random parameters: 30mph speed limit,  
329 morning peak hours, the no-object-in-carriageway indicator, and wet road surface. The distributions of  
330 the random parameters in this model are illustrated in Figure 2. The carriageways with a 30mph speed  
331 limit and those with no visible object at the time of the accident are linked with a higher likelihood of  
332 slight injuries for 57.37% and 61.79% of accident cases, respectively. Roads with 30mph speed limit  
333 either represent urban roads or rural roads within villages or any other types of small settlements  
334 (Transport Scotland, 2012). Given that urban roads are specifically captured through a different variable  
335 in the same model (see also Table 3), the effect of the 30mph speed limit possibly reflects the variation  
336 of driving patterns that are observed in uncontrolled or partially controlled junctions in rural areas (Hou  
337 et al, 2013), which have raised major safety concerns among the local communities of Scotland over  
338 the last few years (Cleland et al., 2020). Comparing this finding with a relevant effect in the model for  
339 signalised junctions, it is interesting to note the prevalence of severe injuries at signalised junctions on  
340 roads with 40mph speed limit, where both pedestrians and vehicles drivers reap the benefits of traffic  
341 signals, and other warning/information systems. This appears to contrast with Downey et al.'s (2019)  
342 finding, which shows that the pedestrian casualty rate is higher for unsignalised/priority-controlled  
343 junctions compared to signalised junctions.

344 Pedestrian-motor vehicle accidents that occurred at morning peak hours are associated with balanced  
345 effects on injury severities, as the likelihood of serious/fatal injuries increases for 50.57% of the  
346 observations. Wet road surfaces magnify the chances of pedestrian-motor vehicle accidents to be linked  
347 with severe injuries, as the specific variable increases the likelihood of serious and fatal injuries for  
348 65.34% of the observations. Baireddy et al. (2018) also reported a prevalence of severe pedestrian-  
349 involved crashes on wet road surfaces under inclement weather. Focusing on variables with fixed  
350 parameters, fine weather and no hazard in carriageways are connected with more severe injuries, while  
351 the urban areas are linked to lower severity of injuries. In urban areas of Scotland, unsignalised junctions  
352 are primarily located in residential streets or non-built-up areas, where the interactions between  
353 motorized and pedestrian traffic may be less intense, whereas observed vehicular speeds are also lower.

354 Fine weather and the absence of apparent hazards on the carriageways may introduce risk-compensating  
355 impacts on drivers' or pedestrians' behaviours, as extensively discussed in Fountas et al.'s (2020) study.

356 The driver's gender further explains the heterogeneity in the means of the random parameters. The  
357 male driver indicator increases the mean of the random parameter for the no-object-in-carriageway  
358 indicator (which was originally negative), while it decreases the mean of the distribution for the wet  
359 road surface indicator (which was originally positive), as shown in Table 3. These findings imply that  
360 the involvement of a male driver increases the probability of severe injury in accidents where there was  
361 no visible object on the carriageway. On the contrary, male driver involvement decreases the proportion  
362 of accidents on wet road surface that yield injuries of lower severity. Likewise, the driver's gender is  
363 found to influence the 30mph speed limit and morning peak time variables at the same direction with  
364 that suggested by the original means of their distributions. Specifically, the results demonstrate that the  
365 male driver involvement in accidents during morning peak hours increases the likelihood of severe  
366 injuries. Male drivers have been long established as more prone to risk-taking behaviour, especially  
367 when the prevailing traffic conditions (as those in unsignalised junction environments) allow so (Hamed  
368 et al., 1997; Fountas et al., 2019). In contrast, male drivers on roads with a 30mph speed limit further  
369 increase the proportion of pedestrian-motor vehicle accidents resulting in slight injuries.

370

### 371 5.1.3 Pedestrian-motor vehicle accidents at physically-controlled crossings

372 Table 3 shows that six variables are identified as statistically significant factors of injury severities at  
373 physically-controlled crossings, out of which, four produced random parameters, including the  
374 passenger car indicator, daylight conditions, the wet road surface, and the absence of hazards on the  
375 carriageway. The mixed effects suggested by the random parameters are visualized through the boxplots  
376 of Figure 3, which provide the random parameters' distributions. Daylight and no-hazard-in-  
377 carriageway indicators are seen to reduce the likelihood of more severe injuries by about 56% and 59%  
378 of the accident observations, respectively, while the likelihood of severe injuries increases for the  
379 remaining accident observations. As in the model for signalised junctions, daylight may aid both  
380 pedestrians and drivers in properly comprehending and reacting to associated hazards via better

381 visibility at the time of the accident, thereby reducing the potential for severe injuries. The effect of the  
382 no-hazard variable suggests that in the absence of hazardous objects, pedestrians and drivers are at  
383 lower risk of severe injuries in most of the cases; generally, roadside hazards have been long connected  
384 with higher impact velocity changes ( $\Delta v$ ) that may result in more severe injuries (Shannon et al.,  
385 2020).

386 On the contrary, the presence of a passenger car and wet road surface at the time of accident are  
387 associated with an increased likelihood of more severe injuries for about 55% and 59%, respectively,  
388 of the accident observations. The mixed trends for severe outcomes in pedestrian-car accidents may be  
389 attributed to the impact of various human factors of car drivers, such as age and cognitive state at the  
390 time of the accident, which are not available in the dataset (Mannering et al., 2016). It is not surprising  
391 the wet road surface contributes to higher chances of more severe injuries, as the roads tend to become  
392 more slippery for both pedestrians and vehicle users, and the friction between the road surface and the  
393 vehicle tyres reduces substantially. Crashes on wet roads were previously found to increase the  
394 probability of severe injuries (Aziz et al., 2013).

395 Pedestrian accidents occurred on weekends influence the means of all the random parameters. The  
396 weekend indicator imposes an opposite effect on the mean of the random parameter, only in the case of  
397 the wet road surface, where it reduces the originally positive mean, hence indicating an increased  
398 likelihood of slight injuries (see Table 3). Wet road surface may serve as an alert for driving caution,  
399 which may also extend to how the drivers interact with pedestrians in physically-controlled junctions,  
400 where there is anticipation for pedestrian movements. The weekend indicator is found to have an  
401 observable influence on the mixing distribution of the variables indicating passenger cars, daylight  
402 conditions, and no-hazard in carriageways by enhancing the main effect captured by the original means  
403 of the random parameters (see Table 3). Specifically, pedestrian accidents involving passenger cars are  
404 more likely to result in severe injuries when occurred at weekends. In contrast, the weekend variable  
405 increases the proportion of accidents under daylight conditions and on carriageways without hazards  
406 that are likely to result in slight injuries.

407 Focusing on variables with fixed parameters, fine weather at the time of the accident, and male  
408 drivers increase the likelihood of serious or fatal injuries, as shown in Table 3. As for unsignalised

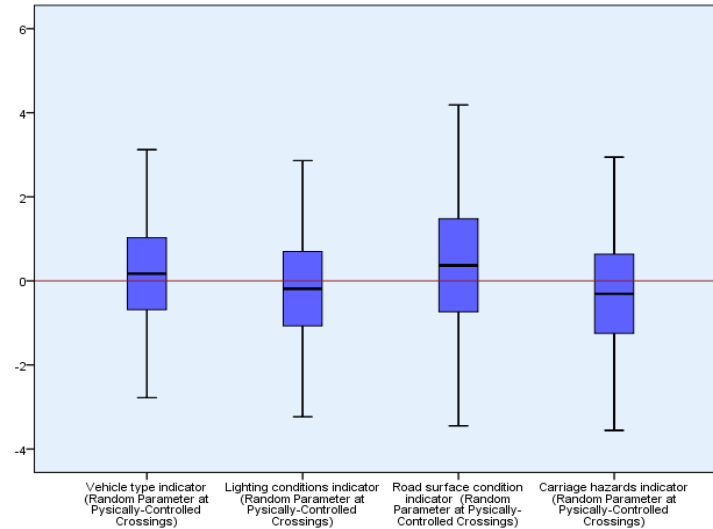
409 junctions, favourable weather conditions may trigger risk-compensating effects, especially for  
410 physically-controlled junctions, where drivers and pedestrians may feel more safe or confident due to  
411 the provision of crossing or channelisation facilities.

412 **Table 6. Diagonal and Off-diagonal Matrix [t-stats], and Correlation**  
 413 **Coefficients (in parenthesis) of Random Parameters for at Physically-**  
 414 **Controlled Crossings**

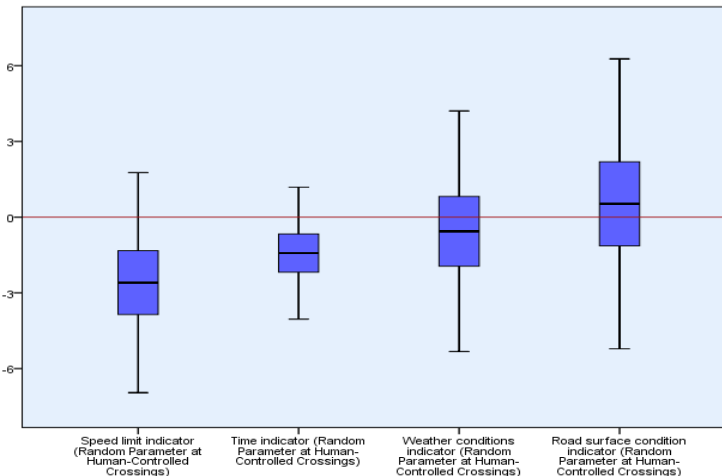
Variables	Vehicle type	Lighting conditions	Road surface condition	Carriageway hazard
<b>Vehicle type (1 if Car, 0 otherwise)</b>	1.268[18.97] (1.0000)	-	-	-
<b>Lighting conditions (1 if daylight, 0 otherwise)</b>	-1.133 [-19.48] (-0.8650)	0.657[11.56] (1.0000)	-	-
<b>Road surface conditions (1 if wet, 0 otherwise)</b>	-0.657 [-11.65] (-0.4003)	-1.199[-19.59] (-0.0209)	0.905 [15.90] (1.0000)	-
<b>Carriageway hazard (1 if no Hazard, 0 otherwise)</b>	-0.323 [-4.77] (-0.2315)	-0.350 [-6.61] (0.0747)	-1.229[-28.38] (-0.2098)	0.462 [17.27] (1.0000)

415 **Table 7. Diagonal and off-diagonal matrix [t-stats], and correlation**  
 416 **coefficients (in parenthesis) of random parameters at human-controlled**  
 417 **crossings**  
 418

Variables	Speed Limit	Time	Weather conditions	Road surface condition
<b>Speed Limit (1 if speed limit is 20 mph, 0 otherwise)</b>	1.874[2.87] (1.0000)	-	-	-
<b>Time (1 if Evening peak hours, 0 otherwise)</b>	-0.836 [-2.80] (-0.7448)	0.749 [2.08] (1.0000)	-	-
<b>Weather conditions (1 if fine, 0 otherwise)</b>	1.326 [7.75] (0.6474)	1.47 [8.08] (-0.0039)	0.531 [4.15] (1.0000)	-
<b>Road surface conditions (1 if wet, 0 otherwise)</b>	-2.199 [-7.87] (-0.8911)	0.460 [2.31] (0.7879)	0.644 [3.38] (-0.3759)	0.794[4.26] (1.0000)



419 **Figure 3** Boxplots illustrating the random parameters' distributions in the model  
 420 **for physically controlled crossings**  
 421



422 **Figure 4** Boxplots illustrating the random parameters' distributions in the model  
 423 **for human-controlled crossings**  
 424

425 5.1.4 Pedestrian-motor vehicle accidents at human-controlled crossings

426 Four factors, which include the 20mph speed limit, evening peak hours, fine weather, and wet road  
427 surface, result in correlated random parameters, as shown in Table 3. Out of these, only the wet road  
428 surface is mainly linked with a higher likelihood of more severe injuries, accounting for about 59% of  
429 the accident observations, as shown in the boxplot of Figure 4. This variable displays similar effects to  
430 its counterpart in the model for physically-controlled crossings. In contrast, carriageways with a 20mph  
431 speed limit, evening peak hours and fine weather are associated with a higher likelihood of slight  
432 injuries for vast majorities of accident observations, i.e., 91.69%, 89.78% and 60.76%, respectively (see  
433 Table 3). The lower speed patterns observed in roads with 20mph speed limits in conjunction with the  
434 presence of authorized patrol officers lead to safer and considerate behaviour, especially from drivers'  
435 side, which can justify the observed association with slight injuries.

436 Fine weather is found to favour slight injuries, as opposed to physically-controlled crossings. This  
437 finding may confirm the potential of human patrolling to encourage drivers and pedestrians complying  
438 with traffic rules and adopting safer traffic behaviour (Pantangi et al., 2020). Focusing on variables  
439 yielding fixed parameters, male drivers and no roadway hazard increase the likelihood of severe  
440 injuries, as also observed in physically-controlled crossings and unsignalised junctions, respectively.

441 The variable representing Monday, as the day-of-the-week when the accident occurred, explains the  
442 heterogeneity in the means of the random parameters. Specifically, the "Monday" variable changes the  
443 sign of the mean, from negative to positive, for the 20mph speed limit and evening peak hours, thus  
444 resulting to higher percentages of accidents with severe injuries. That is an interesting finding probably  
445 reflecting the more unsafe driving patterns typically observed in the first days of the week, as evidenced  
446 by the higher frequency of traffic violations relative to other days of the week (Zahid et al., 2020). It is  
447 also worth highlighting the magnitude of the Monday's effect on the two random parameters, as this is  
448 the only case in this study where the impact of the heterogeneity-in-the-means variable is strong enough  
449 to change the sign of the original means of the random parameters.

450 **Table 8. Marginal effects of the explanatory variables for the**  
 451 **estimated ordered probit models at signalised and unsignalised**  
 452 **junctions**

Variable description	<i>CRPOPHM</i>		
	Slight injury	Serious injury	Fatal injury
<b><i>Signalised Junction</i></b>			
<b>Variables (Non-random parameters)</b>			
Time (1 if the accident occurred during evening peak hours, 0 otherwise)	-0.0010	0.0008	0.00019
Day (1 if the accident occurred in the weekend, 0 otherwise)	0.00044	-0.00037	-0.000008
Speed Limit (1 if speed limit is 40 mph, 0 otherwise)	-	0.00378	0.000463
<b>Variables (Random parameters)</b>			
Urban area (1 if it is urban, 0 otherwise)	0.0219	-0.0378	0.0159
Light conditions (1 if daylight, 0 otherwise)	0.0382	-0.0293	-0.0089
Road surface condition (1 if dry, 0 otherwise)	0.0213	0.00092	-0.0223
Weather condition (1 if fine, 0 otherwise)	0.0034	-0.0086	0.0052
<b><i>Unsignalised Junctions</i></b>			
<b>Variables (Non-random parameters)</b>			
Urban area (1 if the accident occurred in an urban area, 0 otherwise)	0.0230	-0.0228	-0.00016
Weather conditions (1 if fine, 0 otherwise)	-0.0602	0.0598	0.00034
Carriageway hazard (1 if No Hazard, 0 otherwise)	-0.0561	0.0559	0.00027
<b>Characteristics (Random parameters)</b>			
Speed Limit (1 if speed limit is 30 mph, 0 otherwise)	0.0323	-0.0321	-0.00024
Time (1 if Morning peak hours, 0 otherwise)	-0.0025	0.0025	0.00002
Hit object in carriageway (1 if No object, 0 otherwise)	0.1047	-0.1036	-0.00110
Road surface condition (1 if wet, 0 otherwise)	-0.1137	0.1127	0.00094

455 **Table 9. Marginal effects of the explanatory variables for the**  
 456 **estimated ordered probit models for pedestrian accidents at physically**  
 457 **and human-controlled crossings**

Variable description	<i>CRPOPHM</i>		
	Slight injury	Serious injury	Fatal injury
<b><i>Physically-controlled crossings</i></b>			
<b>Variables (Non-random parameters)</b>			
Weather conditions (1 if fine, 0 otherwise)	-0.0430	0.0430	0.00005
Gender (1 if driver's gender is male, 0 otherwise)	-0.0652	0.0652	0.00007
<b>Variables (Random parameters)</b>			
Vehicle type (1 if passenger car, 0 otherwise)	-0.0356	0.0356	0.00004
Lighting conditions (1 if daylight, 0 otherwise)	0.0418	-0.0418	-0.00006
Road surface condition (1 if wet, 0 otherwise)	-0.0850	0.0848	0.00012
Carriageway hazard (1 if No Hazard, 0 otherwise)	0.0776	-0.0775	-0.00015
<b><i>Human-controlled crossings</i></b>			
<b>Variables (Non-random parameters)</b>			
Gender (1 if driver's gender is male, 0 otherwise)	-0.0584	0.0517	0.0068
Carriageway hazard (1 if no hazard, 0 otherwise)	-0.0804	0.0722	0.0082
<b>Characteristics (Random parameters)</b>			
Speed Limit (1 if speed limit is 20 mph, 0 otherwise)	0.2495	-0.2419	-0.0077
Time (1 if Evening peak hours, 0 otherwise)	0.1423	-0.1471	0.0048
Weather conditions (1 if fine, 0 otherwise)	0.1786	-0.1792	0.00063
Road surface condition (1 if wet, 0 otherwise)	-0.1011	0.0896	0.01154

458

453  
454

459 **5.2 Interpretation of the correlated random parameters**

460 The correlation coefficients among the random parameters at signalised and unsignalised junctions,  
461 physically-controlled crossings and human-controlled crossings are presented in Tables 4 to 7,  
462 respectively. The correlation coefficients reflect the interactions among the unobserved effects captured  
463 by the random parameters.

464 Several negative correlations exist between pairs of random parameters related to accidents at  
465 signalised junctions. These are observed in the pairs formed by the urban area and dry surface, daylight  
466 and fine weather, and dry surface and daylight, with the correlation coefficients being -0.0299, -0.2898  
467 and -0.7396, respectively. Negative correlations of the random parameters imply that the unobserved  
468 characteristics captured by the specific variables pose opposite influences on the injury outcomes. That  
469 means the injury severities feature contradictory effects, as the unobserved characteristics linked to one  
470 variable may favour slight injuries, while the unobserved characteristics linked to the other variable  
471 may favour severe injuries. The range of the unobserved characteristics that are captured by land use  
472 characteristics (i.e., urban area) and environmental conditions (lighting, weather, surface conditions)  
473 may be quite broad, but mainly relating to the behavioural responses of drivers and pedestrians to these  
474 factors, under the traffic context of signalised junctions.

475 Positive correlations are identified between the unobserved characteristics for the pairs fine weather  
476 and urban area, daylight and urban area, dry surface and fine weather - the correlation coefficients are  
477 0.4948, 0.4742, and 0.8286, respectively. The positive coefficients imply unidirectional interactive  
478 influences (positive or negative) of the unobserved characteristics captured by these random parameters.  
479 For example, urban area and daylight are characteristics that generally favour slight injuries, as shown  
480 by the means of the corresponding random parameters.

481 Similarly, for the accidents at unsignalised junctions, Table 5 shows that there are negative  
482 coefficients of correlation for the following pairs of random parameters: no-object in carriageway and  
483 30mph speed limit, wet road surface and 30mph speed limit, no-object in carriageway and morning  
484 peak time. Speed limits may serve as a significant source of unobserved heterogeneity, as the  
485 behavioural response to them may vary from driver to driver (Anastasopoulos & Mannering, 2016).



486 Such behavioural responses exhibit even greater variations when coupled with road conditions with  
487 quite heterogeneous implications on safety, such as the road surface.

488 For physically-controlled crossings, all the pairs of random parameters (except the no-hazard on the  
489 carriageway and daylight conditions) exhibit negative correlations. These are: daylight condition and  
490 passenger car (-0.8650), wet road surface and passenger car (-0.4003), no-hazard on the carriageway  
491 and passenger car (-0.2315), wet road surface and daylight condition (-0.0209), and no-hazard on the  
492 carriageway and wet road surface (-0.2098). Another interesting finding is that the passenger car, which  
493 has been long established as a major source of unobserved heterogeneity (Mannering et al., 2016),  
494 contributes to mixed effects in whichever pair of random parameters, as implied by the negative  
495 correlations.

496 Finally, for human-controlled crossings, there are negative correlations between the random  
497 parameter pairs of the evening peak time and 20mph speed limit, wet surface and 20mph limit, fine  
498 weather and evening peak time, and wet surface and fine weather, with the correlation coefficients  
499 being: 0.7448, -0.8911, -0.0039 and -0.3759, respectively. Positive correlations between the random  
500 parameters are observed for the pairs: fine weather and 20mph limit, wet road surface and evening peak  
501 time. As with unsignalised junction, the interactions between speed limit and road surface conditions  
502 unveil mixed effects. However, when 20mph speed limits are coupled with favourable weather, we  
503 observe evidence of homogeneity in the impact of unobserved characteristics, which may imply the  
504 limited range of users' behavioural responses to these factors in crossings with human patrolling  
505 presence.

506

### 507 ***5.3 Comparison of findings across the models***

508 Table 10 summarises the observed impacts on the likelihoods of injury-severity outcomes of the  
509 variables that turned out statistically significant in all models. The relative magnitudes of the variable  
510 effects across models are also presented, as derived from the marginal effects in Tables 8 & 9. Fine  
511 weather was found to affect injury severities in all estimated models, either as random or fixed  
512 parameter. However, its effect is not consistent across all cases, as it increases the likelihood of severe

513 injuries in unsignalised junctions and physically-controlled crossings, as opposed to the signalised  
514 junctions and human-controlled crossings where fine weather predominantly favours slight injuries,  
515 with the strongest effect being identified in the human-controlled crossings; the marginal effect for  
516 slight injuries is 0.179 (see Table 9). Road surface conditions are also observed to strongly affect injury  
517 outcomes across all models demonstrating mixed effects, with wet surfaces being mainly associated  
518 with more severe injuries. Notably, in the model for unsignalised junctions, we observe the most  
519 pronounced impact of this variable (the marginal effect for serious injury is 0.1127). As previously  
520 discussed, the driving conditions typically triggered by wet surfaces in combination with the level of  
521 traffic control in unsignalised junctions – that is appealing to risk-takers – may result in hazardous  
522 interactions between drivers and pedestrians. Another interesting finding arises from the no-hazard  
523 variable, which is linked with severe injuries in unsignalised and human-controlled junctions, but in  
524 physically-controlled junctions, the same factor exhibits a propensity towards slight injuries. It is worth  
525 mentioning that the absence of any apparent hazard on the carriageway demonstrates relatively strong  
526 effects across all models, as shown by the qualitative assessment of effects provided in Table 10.

527 **Table 10. Comparative overview of the variables’ effects across different models**

Variable description	Signalised junctions	Unsignalised junctions	Physically controlled crossings	Human-controlled crossings
Carriageway hazard (1 if no hazard, 0 otherwise)	–	↑↑↑	[↓↓↓]	↑↑↑
Day (1 if weekend, 0 otherwise)	↓	–	–	–
Gender (1 if male driver, 0 otherwise)	–	–	↑↑↑	↑↑↑
Lighting conditions (1 if daylight, 0 otherwise)	[↓↓]	–	[↓↓]	–
Object in carriageway (1 if no object, 0 otherwise)	–	[↓↓↓↓]	–	–
Road surface condition (1 if dry, 0 otherwise)	[↓↓]	–	–	–
Road surface condition (1 if wet, 0 otherwise)	–	[↑↑↑↑]	[↑↑↑]	[↑↑↑↑]
Speed limit (1 if speed limit is 20 mph, 0 otherwise)	–	–	–	[↓↓↓↓]
Speed limit (1 if speed limit is 30 mph, 0 otherwise)	–	[↓↓]	–	–
Speed limit (1 if speed limit is 40 mph, 0 otherwise)	↑	–	–	–
Time (1 if evening peak hours, 0 otherwise)	↑	–	–	[↓↓↓↓]
Time (1 if morning peak hours, 0 otherwise)	–	[↑]	–	–
Urban area (1 if the accident occurred in an urban area, 0 otherwise)	[↓↓]	↓↓	–	–
Vehicle type (1 if passenger car, 0 otherwise)	–	–	[↑↑]	–
Weather conditions (1 if fine, 0 otherwise)	[↓]	↑↑	↑↑	[↓↓↓↓]

528 Table Key: “–” denotes a positive coefficient indicating higher likelihood of severe injuries; “-”denotes a negative coefficient  
529 indicating lower likelihood of severe injuries; “[...]” denotes a random parameter; “-” indicates that the variable is not  
530 statistically significant. The number of arrows, regardless of direction, provides a qualitative assessment of the relative  
531 magnitude of marginal effects, where: - = 0.000-0.009; -- = 0.010-0.049; --- = 0.050 – 0.099; ----≥0.100

532 **6. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS**

533 This study provides a comprehensive investigation of the factors affecting injury severities in  
534 pedestrian-involved motor vehicle accidents considering different types of traffic control at junctions  
535 and pedestrian crossings. Thus, distinct injury-severity models are estimated for signalised and  
536 unsignalised junctions as well as physically-controlled and human-controlled pedestrian crossings. For  
537 the statistical analysis, we leveraged a correlated random parameter ordered probit approach, enriched  
538 with allowances for heterogeneity in the means of the random parameters. Due to its versatile  
539 capabilities, the employed modelling framework was proven capable of disentangling various angles of  
540 unobserved heterogeneity, demonstrating that the sources of unobserved effects on injury severities are  
541 dependent among them. The interactive effects of unobserved factors were captured by the correlation  
542 structure for random parameters, while the heterogeneity-in-the-means function unveiled another layer  
543 of unobserved impacts on injury severities, which directly influences the distributional characteristics  
544 of the random parameters.

545 The road surface conditions, posted speed limit and time-of-the-day were found to have  
546 heterogeneous impacts on injury severities, particularly at unsignalised junctions and at human-  
547 controlled crossings. In physically-controlled crossings, daylight and the absence of carriageway hazard  
548 introduced varying effects, but with higher propensity towards slight injuries, as opposed to passenger  
549 cars that also induced mixed patterns but with greater tendency towards severe injuries. In addition, the  
550 absence of an identifiable object on the road was found to induce varying effects across the accidents  
551 at unsignalised junctions featuring an overall strong trend towards slight injuries. Passenger cars and  
552 male drivers were found to affect the means of the random parameters at signalised and unsignalised  
553 junctions, respectively. Likewise, factors related to the day-of-the-week (weekend and Monday) were  
554 found to influence the mean of the random parameters for physically-controlled and human-controlled  
555 crossings.

556 Notable findings were drawn from the comparison of factors that were commonly identified as  
557 statistically significant in multiple models. The absence of any apparent hazard on the carriageway  
558 increased the likelihood of severe injuries at unsignalized junctions and at human-controlled crossings,  
559 whereas, at physically-controlled junctions, the same factor had opposite effect. Similar inconsistent

560 effects were also observed for fine weather at the time of the accident. The results also disclosed effect  
561 disparities in accidents occurred at evening peak hours, which were strongly linked with slight injuries  
562 at human-controlled crossings, whereas at signalised junctions, evening peak hours favoured more  
563 severe injuries. Such findings are of key importance, especially for public authorities and policy makers,  
564 especially when designing safety countermeasures, as the sources of serious injury risk do evidently  
565 vary across different roadway facilities.

566 The outputs of this study can pave the way for policy implications. The consistently strong  
567 relationship of wet road surfaces with severe injuries across all cases highlights the urgency for better  
568 awareness of drivers and pedestrians about the significant injury risk posed by such surface conditions.  
569 This can be achieved either through traditional roadside signage or through vehicle-to-environment  
570 communication in vehicles featuring a higher level of automation. Injury risks arising from wet surfaces  
571 are paramount for Scotland, where climate conditions favour their frequent presence all year long  
572 (Fountas et al., 2020). In addition, the propensity of signalised junctions with 40mph speed limits to  
573 severe accidents may raise questions about the suitability of the specific speed limit and its capacity to  
574 curb speeding behaviours, especially in urban contexts. This finding could serve as supporting evidence  
575 for the further expansion of 20mph speed limits, primarily for built-up areas exhibiting significant  
576 pedestrian movements, as the specific intervention has proven efficient in bearing safety and public  
577 health benefits in Scotland (Nightingale et al., 2020).

578 Despite the insights gained by the statistical models, the data used for the analysis pose some  
579 limitations, mainly from an empirical perspective. For example, the lack of information about traffic  
580 signal settings (e.g., cycles, stages, or phases) did not allow the identification of the potential impact of  
581 cycle times or pedestrian phases on injury severities. Future research efforts can leverage richer datasets  
582 with more information about the traffic signal timings as well as more disaggregate information about  
583 the geometric design elements of intersections (e.g., angle, sight distance, horizontal and vertical  
584 clearance) and pedestrian facilities (e.g., refuges, curb types, and so on).

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