A New Traffic Safety Paradigm
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A new traffic safety paradigm recognizes exposure, total vehicle travel, as a risk factor, and therefore the safety benefits of vehicle travel reduction strategies such as multi-modal planning, more efficient transport pricing, Smart Growth development policies and Transportation Demand Management (TDM) programs.

Abstract
Despite large investments in traffic safety programs and technologies, motor vehicle crashes continue to impose high social costs, and recently increased. New strategies are needed to achieve ambitious safety targets such as Vision Zero. Recent research improves our understanding of factors that affect traffic risks and identifies new safety strategies. Applying this knowledge requires a paradigm shift, a change in the way problems are defined and solutions evaluated. The old paradigm assumed that driving is generally safe, and so favored safety programs that target special risks such as youth, senior, impaired and distracted driving. The new paradigm recognizes that all vehicle travel carries risk, so exposure (total vehicle travel) is a risk factor, and vehicle travel reduction strategies provide safety benefits. This report examines our emerging understanding of traffic risks and new safety strategies, and the importance of more comprehensive safety analysis.

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**Introduction**

Despite many efforts to increase traffic safety, motor vehicle crashes continue to impose huge social costs. According to a National Highway Traffic Safety Administration study, in 2010 United States motor vehicle crashes caused damages cost $242-836 billion, or $800-2,700 per capita (Blincoe, et al. 2015). International studies show similar results (Wismans, et al. 2017), with traffic crash costs estimated at 5% of GDP in lower- and middle-income countries (Welle, et al. 2018, p. 31).

Although traffic casualty rates declined during most of the Twentieth Century, they have recently increased, indicating that current traffic safety strategies have fulfilled their potential. To achieve ambitious crash reduction goals such as *Road to Zero* (NSC 2017) we need new traffic safety strategies. This requires a paradigm shift, a change in the ways that risks are measured and potential safety strategies are evaluated (Hughes 2017; May, Tranter and Warn 2011; Litman 2013).

In a word, the new paradigm recognizes that all vehicle travel imposes risks, so *exposure* – the amount that vehicles travel – is a risk factor. Total crashes are the product of distance-based crash rates (such as collisions per billion vehicle-miles) times travel distance (such as per capita vehicle-miles); a change in either tends to cause similar changes in total crashes. The old paradigm assumed that most driving is low risk, and most crashes are caused by special risk factors, such as youth, senior, impaired and distracted driving. This approach favored targeted safety strategies, and so ignored exposure as a risk factor. The new paradigm recognizes the additional crashes caused by planning decisions that increase vehicle travel, and the safety benefits of transportation demand management (TDM) strategies such as more multi-modal planning, efficient transport pricing, Smart Growth development policies, and TDM programs. Since most TDM strategies provide large co-benefits, besides safety, the new paradigm supports more comprehensive analysis that considers these impacts.

Table 1 compares the old and new traffic safety paradigms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Old</th>
<th>New</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Goal</strong></td>
<td>Make vehicle travel safer.</td>
<td>Make transportation systems safer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Risk measurement</strong></td>
<td>Direct user risks, measured by distance (e.g., occupant deaths per 100,000 million vehicle-miles).</td>
<td>Total risks, including risks to other road users, measured by distance and per capita</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Solutions considered</strong></td>
<td>Roadway and vehicle design improvements</td>
<td>Walking, cycling and public transit improvements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Graduated licenses</td>
<td>Road, parking, fuel and insurance pricing reforms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Senior driver testing</td>
<td>More connected and complete roadways</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seatbelt and helmet requirements</td>
<td>Smart Growth development policies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Anti-impaired and distracted driving campaigns</td>
<td>Transportation demand management programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Analysis scope</strong></td>
<td>Program costs and traffic safety benefits</td>
<td>All economic, social and environmental impacts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The old and new traffic safety paradigms differ in many ways.

This report explores these issues. It describes traffic casualty trends and the need for a new safety paradigm, summarizes recent research on traffic risk factors and new safety strategies, evaluates the degree that current safety programs consider these factors, and provides recommendations for implementing new strategies to achieve safety goals. It should be of interest to anybody who wants to identify the most efficient and cost effective ways to improve traffic safety.
Why a New Paradigm?
This section describes why a new approach is needed for traffic safety.

**Figure 1** Total Annual U.S. VMT and Traffic Fatalities (FHWA 2015, Table FI-201)

Traffic death declined after 1973, but increased after 1993 and subsequently tracked total vehicle travel, and so recently increased when low fuel prices stimulated more vehicle travel.

Figure 1 shows annual U.S. vehicle travel and traffic deaths. Motor vehicle miles of travel (VMT) increased steadily during the Twentieth Century, but grew more slowly after 2000. Total deaths peaked in 1973 and declined for three decades with the implementation of successful safety strategies such as increased passenger protection and anti-impaired-driving campaigns, but this decline ended in 1993 and subsequently traffic deaths tracked annual vehicle travel. Traffic deaths increased when VMT increased 1994–2003 declined when high fuel prices reduced VMT in 2004–2013, increased when low fuel prices increased VMT after 2014. Figure 2 shows distance-based and per capita traffic fatality rates. These declined during most of the Twentieth Century, but plateaued 2010–14 and recently increased. Similar patterns occurred in other developed countries such as New Zealand (Deloitte 2019).

**Figure 2** Distance-based and Per Capita U.S. Traffic Fatality Rates (FHWA 2015, FI-201)

Deaths per vehicle-mile declined significantly during the last century, but this decline stopped after 2010.
Figure 3 shows 2007 to 2016 fuel price trends and traffic fatality rates. When fuel prices were high, traffic fatality rates declined, but when fuel prices declined between 2014 and 2016, per capita vehicle travel and traffic death rates increased. This and other research described later in this report illustrate how factors that affect per capita vehicle travel, and therefore crash exposure, affect crash rates.

**Figure 3**  
**U.S. Traffic Fatality and Fuel Price Trends**  
(FHWA and GasBuddy Data)

![Graph showing U.S. Traffic Fatality and Fuel Price Trends](image)

Traffic fatality rates declined while fuel prices were high but increased after 2014 when prices went down.

International comparisons indicate that large safety gains are possible. The U.S. has the highest per capita traffic fatality rate among its peers Figure 4. Geographic factors do not explain this: Australia and Canada have lower population densities, and Sweden, Norway and Finland have more extreme weather, yet all have much lower traffic death rates and faster crash rates declines than the U.S. (ITF 2021).

**Figure 4**  
**Traffic Death Rates by Country**  
(OECD 2015)

![Graph showing Traffic Death Rates by Country](image)

The U.S. has, by far, the highest traffic fatality rate among peer countries.
Crash rates vary significantly between U.S. states, reflecting differences in their transport and land use patterns.

There are also large crash rate variations between geographically similar states and regions, as figures 5 and 6 illustrate. For example, Minnesota, Illinois and Washington have about half the traffic fatality rates of Oklahoma, Kentucky and South Carolina, and Seattle, San Diego and Portland have less than half the rates of Atlanta, Houston and Sacramento, despite similar vehicle and road engineering, and traffic safety programs. Evidence described in the next section of this report indicates that these variations largely reflect transport and land use development policies that affect per capita vehicle travel.

Crash rates vary significantly between cities, reflecting differences in their transport and land use patterns.
COVID-19 Impacts
Although urban living and public transit travel were initially considered to have high contagion risks, once COVID-19 became widespread, infection and death rates were found to be higher in automobile-dependent suburbs and rural areas than in walkable and transit-oriented neighborhoods (Litman 2020).

During 2000, the COVID-19 pandemic reduced U.S. vehicle travel by 13% (Sivak 2021), which significantly reduced total crashes and insurance claims, typically by 15-25% (Carrns 2021), but increased traffic deaths 7% (Shepardson 2021), apparently because reduced congestion increased higher-risk activities such as speeding and impaired driving (Kuntma 2022; Stiles, et al. 2021). Similar patterns occurred in Britain (Figure 7). This indicates that the relationships between vehicle travel and crashes is complex and can be overwhelmed by other factors such as traffic speed and risky driving.

Figure 7  UK Pandemic Period Traffic Speed Compliance (https://bit.ly/3vyNtbp)

The percentage of vehicles exceeding speed limits increased during the 2020 COVID-19 pandemic. This helps explain the increase in crash rates during this period.

(Based on UK DfT Vehicle Speed Compliance Statistics. Slide by Richard Owen, Agilysis)

However, the U.S.’s increase in crash fatalities was an anomaly. In most countries traffic fatalities declined during 2020. The study, Global Impact of COVID-19 Pandemic on Road Traffic Collisions (Yasin, Grivna and Abu-Zidan 2021) found that, of 42 countries analyzed, in 2020 road death declined in 33 (25%-+ in 5 countries, 15–24% in 13 countries, and 1-15% in 15 countries), and increased in 10 (Albania, Canada, Estonia, Finland, Ireland, Latvia, Luxembourg, Montenegro, Switzerland and USA) compared with previous years. Similarly, the International Transport Forum’s Road Safety Annual Report 2021: The Impact of Covid-19 (ITF 2021) found that of 34 countries with valid data, during 2020 traffic volumes declined on average -12.2% and road deaths declined 8.6% compared with previous years. Road deaths decreased on all types of roads including motorways (-19.9%), rural roads (-15%) and urban streets (-10%). The reductions in death were particularly large for young (under 17 years) and elderly (75+ years), with almost a quarter fewer fatalities. Fatality rates per billion vehicle-kilometres decreased slightly for the eleven countries that publish mobility data, with significant variations. For instance, crash rates declined 17% in Sweden but increases 12% in the Netherlands. This indicates that the relationships between vehicle travel and crashes is complex and can be overwhelmed by other factors such as traffic speed and risky driving.
**Vision Zero**

Vision Zero is a policy goal to eliminate traffic deaths and serious injuries. It takes a public health approach to collisions, which assumes that they are a preventable health threat. It explicitly states that responsibility for road traffic collisions is shared between transport planning, system designers and road users, described as “Embracing system accountability instead of touting individual responsibility” (Job 2020). This is a major change which justifies new approaches and more interdisciplinary planning.

Since 90–95% of crashes are considered to be caused by road users’ errors, many of which are associated with special risk factors such as youth, senior, impaired or distracted driving, conventional planning tends to favor targeted education and enforcement to reduce these special risks. Even Vision Zero plans often focus on reducing distance-based casualty rates (deaths and injuries per 100 million vehicle miles), with little consideration to reducing vehicle travel and therefore risk exposure (Kim, Muennig and Rosen 2017).

The new safety paradigm expands the scope of safety programs to include reductions in total vehicle travel, in order to reduce crash exposure, plus broad reductions in traffic speeds, not just at high crash locations.
Impacts of Autonomous Vehicle

Many people hope that new technologies will greatly reduce traffic risks. Advocates claim that since human errors contribute to 90% of crashes, autonomous vehicles will reduce crashes by 90% (Keeney 2017; Kok, et al. 2017). However, more objective experts predict that these technologies will take longer to develop, cost more, and introduce more risks than advocates claim (Ackerman 2017; Litman 2022; Shladover 2016; Zipper 2021). The safety benefits of technologies were often overestimated because travellers tend to take more risks when they feel safer, called offsetting behavior or risk compensation (Chirinko and Harper, 1993; Wilde, 1994). For example, high mounted stop lamps were predicted to prevent 35% of rear-ending vehicle accidents, but once they become common this declined to just 4% (NHTSA 1998). Optimistic safety predictions tend to overlook the additional risks autonomous vehicle technologies can introduce (Hsu 2017; Koopman and Wagner 2017):

- **Hardware and software failures.** Complex electronic systems can fail, as computer and Internet users often experience. Operating a vehicle in traffic is demanding, and small failures - a false sensor, distorted signal or software error - can have catastrophic results. Self-driving vehicles will certainly have errors that contribute to crashes; the question is how frequently compared with human drivers.

- **Malicious hacking.** Self-driving technologies can be manipulated for amusement or crime.

- **Increased risk-taking.** When road users feel safer they tend to take additional risks, what safety experts call offsetting behavior or risk compensation. For example, if they expect self-driving vehicles to be very safe, fewer passengers may wear seatbelts and other road users may be less cautious.

- **Platooning risks.** Many potential benefits, such as reduced congestion and pollution emissions, require platooning (vehicles operating close together at high speeds on dedicated lanes). This will introduce new risks such as human drivers joining platoons, and more multiple-vehicle crashes.

- **Increased total vehicle travel.** The additional convenience and comfort of autonomous vehicles could increase total vehicle travel, and therefore cause additional risk exposure.

As a result, autonomous vehicles will probably reduce crashes much less than 90%. Their net safety benefits will depend on how they are programmed and used, including public polices such as road pricing and regulations. For example, to maximize mobility they can be programmed to operate at higher speeds, take greater risks, and have dedicated platooning lanes, but to maximize safety they should be programed to drive slower and be more cautious in unexpected situations (causing delays as they wait for human instructions). Congestion pricing and high-occupant vehicle lanes can encourage sharing of autonomous vehicle trips which can reduce total vehicle travel and therefore crashes.

Some experts acknowledge that autonomous vehicles may provide relatively modest safety gains. One major study concluded that, “Early research suggests that AV technologies have promise in mitigating traffic crashes, but their safety benefits are not guaranteed.” (TRB 2019). Groves and Kalra (2017) argue that autonomous vehicle deployment is justified even if they only reduce crash rates 10%, but acknowledge that safety impacts depend on how this technology affects total vehicle travel. For example, if autonomous vehicles reduce per-mile crash rates 10% but increase vehicle travel 12%, total crashes, including risks to other road users, will increase.

This suggests that even if autonomous vehicles become common and affordable, and reduce distance-based crash rates, the new safety paradigm will still be justified: it will be important to consider how public policies affect total motor vehicle travel and therefore crash exposure, and to recognize the safety benefits of vehicle travel reduction strategies, even if they apply to autonomous vehicles.
New Understanding of Traffic Risk
This section describes new research concerning how transport and land use factors affect crash risks. Also see Hamidi, Ewing and Grace (2016); ITF (2019); Litman and Fitzroy (2016); and Welle et al. (2018).

Total Vehicle Travel
Although many demographic, geographic and economic factors affect casualty rates, all else being equal, that is, for a given group or area, traffic casualties tend to increase with vehicle travel. For example, among higher-income countries, per capita crash rates tend to increase with per capita vehicle travel, as illustrated in Figure 8. As previously mentioned, the U.S. has the highest traffic death rate among peer countries, which can be explained by it having the highest per capita annual mileage.

Figure 8  Vehicle Mileage and Traffic Fatality Rates in OECD Countries (OECD Data)

Per capita traffic fatality rates tend to increase with vehicle travel among U.S. states, as indicated below.

Figure 9  Per Capita Traffic Fatalities versus Per Capita Vehicle Travel (BITRE 2018)

International data show that per capita traffic fatalities tend to increase with per capita annual vehicle-kilometers.
**Figure 10**  Vehicle Mileage Versus Traffic Fatalities in U.S. States (FHWA 1993-2002 data)

This figure shows various year’s traffic fatality and annual mileage rates for urban and rural portions of U.S. states.

A state’s per capita traffic death rate tends to increase with per capita vehicle travel, particularly in rural areas.

Similar patterns occur at smaller geographic scales. Figure 11 shows that regional traffic fatality rates tend to increase with vehicle travel. Other studies also indicate that per capita traffic casualty rates are much lower in compact, multi-modal neighborhoods than in sprawled, automobile-dependent areas (Ewing and Dumbaugh 2009; Ewing and Hamidi 2014; Marshall, Ferenchak and Janson 2018; Welle, et al. 2015 and 2018).

**Figure 11**  Vehicle Mileage Versus Traffic Deaths (FHWA and CDC data)

*Per capita traffic fatality rates tend to increase with per capita vehicle-miles in U.S. Metropolitan regions.*
These impacts are dynamic. Figure 12 illustrates the relationship between annual changes in vehicle travel and traffic fatalities in the U.S. between 1960 and 2016. Years when vehicle travel increased tend to have similar increases in traffic deaths, and when vehicle travel declines so do deaths.

**Figure 12** Changes in Vehicle Travel and Traffic Fatality Rates (FHWA 2015, Table FI-201)

A major epidemiological study evaluated factors that affect per capita crash casualty rates in a sample of 1,632 global cities with a total of 2.2 billion residents, equivalent to approximately 31% of the world’s population (Thompson, et al. 2020). The researchers categorized cities into nine types (high transit, motor city, intense city, large block, cul de sac, checkerboard, irregular, sparse and informal) based on various urban design factors. Their results indicate that the poorest performing city types had about twice the regional traffic casualty rates as the best performing cities. The best performing city types featured more rail transit combined with dense road networks and smaller city blocks.

These studies reflect simple correlations that may overlook confounding factors related to vehicle travel and risks. More sophisticated analyses that account for various demographic, geographic and economic factors show statistically-strong positive relationships between mileage and traffic deaths. For example, Ahangari, Atkinson-Palombo and Garrick (2017) used annual data from 1997 to 2013 to capture the effect of seven factors that influence traffic risks: exposure, travel behavior, socioeconomics, macroeconomics, safety policies, and mitigating factors such as health care. Their results indicate that Vehicle Miles Traveled and Vehicles per Capita, have the strongest impact on per capita traffic fatality rates. Similarly, accounting for various geographic and demographic factors, Yeo, Park and Jang (2015) found that each 1% increase in per capita VMT is associated with a 0.549% increase in traffic deaths, and comprehensive analysis by Ewing, Hamidi and Grace (2016) found that, normalizing for other factors, each 1% increase in VMT is associated with 0.3% increase in per capita traffic deaths.

A major New Zealand study (Deloitte 2019) concluded that reductions in the country’s crash rates from 1990 to 2012 resulted from improvements in vehicles (45%), better driver behavior (36%) and better roads (19%), but these gains were offset by increased vehicle-kilometres; it found that a 1% increase in VKTs is associated with a 2.5% increase in crashes.
The study, *Residential Accessibility’s Relationships with Crash Rates Per Capita*, (Merlin, et al. 2020) found that in Knoxville, TN, per capita crash rates are lower in accessible neighborhoods with less per-capita vehicle miles, but this is partly offset if those areas have heavy through-traffic which tends to increase total (including pedestrian and bicyclist) crash casualty rates.

A major study by the U.S. National Academy of Sciences, *Identification of Factors Contributing to the Decline of Traffic Fatalities in the United States from 2008 to 2012* (Blower, et al. 2020), investigated factors that affect crash risks and contributed to a 25% decline in traffic deaths during this time period. The analysis indicates that total vehicle travel stayed relatively steady, but crash rates per vehicle-mile declined significantly during economic recessions. The evidence suggests that recessions tend to reduce driving by high-risk groups, particularly younger drivers. The study found that people under 26 years of age accounted for almost 48% of the decline in fatalities. Other higher risk driver groups may also contribute to the decline but are more difficult to identify in crash statistics. Detailed statistical analysis found that the three most significant contributors to the traffic fatality decline were the substantial increase in teen and young adult unemployment, reductions in median household income, and the reduction GDP per capita. Declines in rural vehicle travel and beer consumption, plus stricter DUI laws also contributed. State highway spending and changes in safety belt use rates and fuel prices were not significant contributors because they changed little over the period.

A detailed study of 144 mid-size U.S. urban regions by Frederick, Riggs and Gilderbloom (2017) found powerful statistical evidence that residents of more auto-dependency American cities can have harmful health effects, including higher traffic casualty rates than in cities where a greater portion of trips are by walking, bicycling and public transit. Adults living in modally diverse cities are more likely to live longer and better, and their children begin life in a better physical condition.

Experience during the COVID-19 pandemic demonstrates that when vehicle travel declines, so do traffic casualties, but crash rates per vehicle-mile increase, apparently due to higher traffic speeds (Job 2020).

Since about two-thirds of casualty crashes involve multiple vehicles, and crash rates increase with traffic density (vehicles per lane-mile), changes in total vehicle travel can provide proportionately larger casualty changes, particularly in higher traffic density areas (Vickrey 1968). Edlin and Karaca-Mandic (2006) found that each 1% increase in total vehicle travel increases total crash costs by substantially more than 1% in virtually all U.S. states, and by 3.3-5.4% in dense states such as California. Described differently, vehicle travel reductions can provide *external* safety benefits by reducing risk to other road users, so people become safer if their neighbors drive less.
Quality of Transport Options
The quality of non-auto mobility options significantly affects crash rates (Stimpson, et al. 2014).

Table 2
2009 Crash Rates by Mode (NHTS and NHTSA data)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Totals</th>
<th>Transit</th>
<th>Auto</th>
<th>Bike</th>
<th>Motorcycle</th>
<th>Walk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Occupant fatalities(^1)</td>
<td>35,978</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>26,408</td>
<td>628</td>
<td>4,286</td>
<td>4,109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other road user fatalities(^1,2)</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>9,023</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal travel mode share(^3)</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>10.4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal trips (billions)(^4)</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average miles per trip(^5)</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total miles (billions)(^6)</td>
<td>2,976</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>2,645</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>41</td>
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<tr>
<td>Occupant deaths per billion miles</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other deaths per billion miles</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total deaths per billion miles</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupant deaths per billion trips</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>1,530</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other deaths per billion trips</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total deaths per billion trips</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>1,530</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table calculates internal (occupant) and external (other road user) death rates for various modes.

Table 2 and Figure 13 show per mile and per trip crash rates by mode. More than three-quarters of transit fatalities involve other road users, but even considering these, transit travel had the lowest total death rate. About a quarter of automobile deaths involve other road users. Bike, motor-cycle and walk have relatively high death rates per mile but impose little risk on others, and since walk and bike trips tend to be shorter than motorized trips, their per trip crash rates are similar to auto travel (ABW 2016).

Figure 13
Crash Rates by Mode (Table 2)

Public transit has the lowest total (occupant and external) casualty rate. Auto (cars and light trucks) have moderate crash rates, about a quarter of which is external. Bike and walk have relatively high per mile crash rates, but their trips are short and impose little external risk, so their total per trip death rates are not much higher than driving.

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Figure 14  Traffic Fatalities Vs. Transit Travel (Kenworthy and Laube 2000)

International data indicate that urban region per capita crash rates decline with increased transit ridership.

Figure 14 and 15 illustrate the relationship between transit travel and death rates. Regions where residents average more than 50 annual transit trips have about half the fatality rates as regions where residents take fewer than 20 annual trips. This represents a small increase in transit mode share, from about 1.5% to 4%, which alone cannot explain the large safety gains. This suggests that many factors that encourage transit travel, such as compact development, good walkability, carshare services and reduced parking supply, have synergistic effects that reduce vehicle travel and increase traffic safety.

Figure 15  U.S. Traffic Fatalities Versus Transit Trips (FTA 2012; NHTSA 2012)

This graph illustrates the relationship between per capita transit ridership and total (including pedestrian, cyclist, automobile occupant and transit passenger) traffic fatalities for 35 large North American cities.

As transit travel increases, traffic fatalities tend to decline significantly. Cities with more than 50 annual transit trips per capita have about half the average traffic fatality rate as regions with less than 20 annual trips per capita, indicating that relatively modest increases in transit travel are associated with large traffic safety gains.

Figure 16 indicates that the statistical relationship between transit ridership and traffic safety is particularly strong for youths, age 15-25, which suggests that many young people want to reduce their driving and associated risk, but can only do so if they have adequate alternatives.
Figure 16  Youth and Total Traffic Fatality Rates Compared to Transit Travel (CDC 2012)

Youths (15-25 years old) have about twice the traffic fatality rates as the total population average, and both youth and total fatality rates tend to decline with increased transit ridership.

This statistical relationship is particularly strong for youths. This suggests that many young people are willing to reduce their driving and associated risk, but can only do so if they have adequate alternatives.

Trend data indicate that transit improvements tend to increase traffic safety. Figure 17 compares transit ridership and total (all mode) traffic fatality rates between four high-transit-growth cities (Denver, Los Angeles, Portland and Seattle, green line) and four low-transit-growth cities (Cleveland, Dallas, Houston and Milwaukee, red line). The high transit growth cities had much larger crash rate declines (38% versus 10%), which suggests that increasing transit ridership tends to increase safety for all travellers.

Figure 17  Trend Analysis (APTA 2016, based on FTA and NHTSA data)

High-transit-growth cities experienced far greater safety gains than low-transit-growth cities or national trends. This suggests that pro-transit policies can significantly increase safety for all travellers.
Because active modes (walking and bicycling) have high per-mile or -kilometer casualty rates, some researchers to conclude that “a shift from passenger vehicle travel (lower risk) to nonmotorized travel (higher risk) could result in an overall increase in the numbers of people killed in traffic” (Beck, Dellinger and O’Neil 2007). However, numerous studies find that both active mode and total (all mode) crash casualties tend to decline as walking and bicycling increase in an area, an effect called safety in numbers (ABW 2016; Castro, Kahlmeier and Gotschi 2018; ECF 2012; ITF 2019; NACTO 2016), illustrates below.

**Figure 18  Safety in Numbers Effect** (Jacobson 2003)

Data from 68 California cities indicates that as walking and cycling commute mode share increases, pedestrian and bicycling casualty rates tend to decline significantly: a few percentage point increase in active mode share is associated with proportionately larger reductions in injury rates.

Cities with active mode shares over 10% average about half the per capita traffic fatality rates as those with active mode shares under 5% (Figure 19). A comprehensive study by Marshall, Ferenchak and Janson (2018) found that in U.S. cities, total traffic fatality rates decline with increased bicycling mode shares. Murphy, Levinson and Owen (2017) found that in 448 Minneapolis city intersections, individual pedestrians’ motor vehicle crash risk declines as pedestrian traffic increases. Tasic and Porter (2018) find that, all else being equal, expanding sidewalks in an area tends to reduce non-motorized crash rates.

**Figure 19  Active Commute Mode Share and Traffic Deaths** (Census and CDC Data)

Total per capita traffic death rates tend to decline as active (walking and cycling) commute mode shares increase in U.S. urban regions.

This and other research indicate that more active travel tends to increase overall traffic safety.
Various factors help explain the large total crash reductions associated with more active transport (Marshall and Ferenchak 2019):

- **Safer travel conditions.** Both active safety and travel tend to increase with improved sidewalks, crosswalks, cycling facilities, streetscaping, traffic speed control and education programs.

- **Complementary factors.** Many factors that encourage walking and cycling, such as connected streets, higher parking and fuel prices, and compact development, also tend to increase traffic safety.

- **Reduced total travel.** Shorter active mode trips often substitute for a longer automobile trip, for example, walking or biking to local shops rather than driving to regional shopping centers. Improving walking and cycling conditions reduces chauffering trips. Since most public transit trips involve walking and cycling links, improving their conditions can increase transit travel.

- **Vehicle ownership reductions.** Improving alternative modes can allow some households to reduce their vehicle ownership. Since motor vehicles are costly to own but relatively cheap to use, once households purchase an automobile they tend to use it, including some relatively low-value trips.

- **New users may be more cautious than current users.** Walkers and cyclists who observe traffic rules and use protective gear (such as helmets and lights) can have lower than average casualty rates.

- **Increased driver caution.** As more walking and cycling occurs in an area, drivers are likely to become more aware and cautious.

- **Less high-risk driving.** Improving non-auto modes allows young, old, impaired and distracted travellers to reduce driving, increasing the effectiveness of safety programs such as graduated licenses, senior driver testing and anti-impaired and distracted driving campaigns. For example, ride-hailing and public transit availability can help reduce post-drinking driving (Greenwood and Wattal 2015; Jackson and Owens 2011).

- **Reduced risk to other road users.** Pedestrians and cyclists impose less risk on other road users.

Relatively modest investments can increase active mode travel and safety. For example, the U.S. Federal Highway Administration’s Nonmotorized Transportation Pilot Program, which invested about $100 per capita in pedestrian and cycling improvements in four typical U.S. communities, caused walking trips to increase 23% and cycling trips to increase 48%, mostly for utilitarian purposes (FHWA 2014). Despite this increase in exposure, pedestrian fatalities declined 20% and bicycle fatalities 29%, causing per-mile fatality rates to decline 36% for pedestrians and 52% for bicyclists.

Analysis by Frank, et al. (2011) indicates that increasing an area’s sidewalk coverage ratio from 0.57 (sidewalks on both sides of approximately 30% of streets) to 1.4 (sidewalks on both sides of 70% of streets) will reduce vehicle travel 3.4% and carbon emissions 4.9%. Guo and Gandavarapu (2010) found that completing a typical U.S. community’s sidewalk network increases average per capita non-motorized travel 16% (from 0.6 to 0.7 miles per day) and reduce automobile travel 5% (from 22.0 to 20.9 vehicle-miles), representing about 12 miles of reduced driving for each mile of increased non-motorized travel. Similarly, Wedderburn (2013) found that in New Zealand cities, each additional daily transit trip by driving age (18+ years) residents is associated with increases of 0.95 walking trips and 1.21 walking kilometers, and two fewer daily car trips. Similarly, U.S. cities that expanded their bicycle lane networks tend to experience increased cycling activity and reduce crash rates (NACTO 2016).
Transportation Pricing
Recent studies using various analysis methods and data sets indicate that more efficient transportation pricing, such as road tolls and fuel price increases, reduces traffic casualty rates (Litman 2014). A comprehensive study of 14 industrialized countries found that a 10% gasoline price decline caused road fatalities to increase 2.19% (Ahangari, et al. 2014). Burke and Nishitaten (2015) found that a 10% fuel price increase typically reduces traffic deaths by 3-6%, and estimate that removing global fuel subsidies would reduce approximately 35,000 annual road deaths worldwide.

U.S. studies find similar results. Leigh and Geraghty (2008) estimate that a sustained 20% gasoline price increase would reduce approximately 2,000 annual U.S. traffic deaths plus 600 air pollution deaths. Grabowski and Morrisey (2004 and 2006) estimate that each 10% fuel price increase reduces total traffic deaths 2.3%, with larger decline for drivers aged 15-21. Morrisey and Grabowski (2011) find that a 10% U.S. fuel price increase reduces fatalities by 3.2–6.2% with the largest percentage reductions among 15- to 17-year-old drivers, and a 10% beer tax increase reduces motor vehicle fatalities by 17-24 year old drivers by approximately 1.3%. Studies by Chi, et al. (2010a, 2013 and 2015) indicate that U.S. fuel price increases reduce both per capita and per-mile crash rate, so a 1% reduction in total VMT reduces total crashes more than a 1%, with particularly large reductions in youth and drunken driving crashes.

Green, Heywood and Navarro (2015) found that after London’s congestion charge was implemented central area weekday traffic accident rates decline significantly. Within the 8-square-mile charging zone, vehicle travel declined 14% and traffic accidents by a third, traffic accident rates declined 22% (from 4.51 to 3.51 per million vehicle-miles), and traffic casualty (injury or death) rates declined 25%, indicating that the higher travel speeds enabled by reduced congestion do not increase crash severity. Crash rates also declined 16% in areas up to four kilometers outside the charging zone, indicating that congestion pricing reduces rather than just shifting traffic and crash locations.

Analyzing three million vehicle-years of insurance claim data, Ferreira and Minike (2010) found that annual crash rates and claim costs tend to increase with annual vehicle travel, and so recommend distance-based pricing (insurance premiums based directly on annual vehicle mileage). Since per-mile premiums incorporate other risk factors, higher risk motorists have more incentive to reduce their mileage and risks. For example, a low-risk driver who currently pays $360 annual premiums would pay 3¢ per mile and so would reduce mileage about 5%, but a higher-risk driver who currently pays $1,800 annual premiums would pay 15¢ per vehicle-mile and so would be expected to reduce mileage more than 20%. This should provide proportionately large safety benefits (i.e., a 10% reduction in total vehicle travel should provide more than 10% reduction in crashes and claim costs).

Land Use Development Factors
Ewing, Hamidi and Grace (2016) found that at the U.S. county level, accounting for various geographic and demographic factors (land use density and mix, block size, roadway connectivity, Walkscore, household size, employment and income, race fuel price and climate factors) dispersed, sprawl land use development is associated with lower per capita rates of minor “fender bender” crashes, but significantly higher rate of fatal crashes, due to the combination of more total motor vehicle travel and higher traffic speeds in dispersed, automobile-oriented areas. Similarly, accounting for demographic and geographic factors (income, fuel prices and compactness) in 147 U.S. urban regions, Yeo, Park and Jang (2015) found that per capita traffic fatality rates increase with sprawl, apparently due to a combination of increased vehicle travel, higher traffic speeds and slower emergency response. Similarly, Ahangari, Atkinson-Palombo and Garrick (2017) found that traffic death rates decline with urban densities.
Najaf, et al. (2018) find that an urban area’s per capita crash rates decline with more job-housing balance, more polycentric design, increased population density and less low-density sprawl, improving transportation network connectivity, more public transit facilities, and grade-separated highways. They conclude that these safety gains result primarily from reductions in per capita vehicle travel and traffic speeds. They estimate that, all else being equal, a 10% increase in urban density or the spatial distribution of employment reduces fatal crash rates by >15%, a 10% increase in network connectivity increases traffic safety 4.13%, and a 10% increase in public transit supply reduces fatalities 8.28%.

**Traffic Speeds and Traffic Congestion**

An extensive body of research indicates that that higher traffic speeds increase crash frequency and severity, and traffic speed reductions can provide significant crash reductions, particularly for vulnerable road users (ITF 2018; NACTO 2020).

Total crash rates tend to be lowest on moderately congested roads (V/C=0.6) and increase at lower and higher congestion levels (Marchesini and Weijermars 2010). Casualty rates (injuries and deaths) often increase when congestion is reduced (Potts, et al. 2014). For example, using the TomTom Traffic Index, the five most congested U.S. cities (Los Angeles, San Francisco, Honolulu, Seattle and San Jose) average 5.6 traffic deaths per 100,000 residents, about half the 10.2 fatality rate of the ten least congested cities (Richmond, Birmingham, Cleveland, Indianapolis and Kansas City). Since per capita traffic deaths tend to increase with per capita vehicle travel, roadway expansions that induce additional vehicle travel tend to increase traffic casualties (Luoma and Sivak 2012). One study estimated that the increased crash costs that result from reduced congestion offset 5-10% of congestion reduction benefits (Wallis and Lupton 2013).

**Transportation Demand Management Programs**

Transportation Demand Management (TDM) programs include Commute Trip Reduction (CTR), freight transport management, parking management and mobility management marketing (Peterson 2017; VTPI 2016). Their impacts vary depending on conditions. For example, commute trip reduction programs typically reduce affected vehicle travel 5-15% if they only provide information and encouragement, and 10-30% if they include financial incentives such as parking pricing or cash out (Kuzmyak, Evans, and Pratt 2010). Voluntary Travel Behavior Change (VTBC) programs typically increase use of non-auto modes by 5-10%, and provide equal or larger motor vehicle travel reductions (CARB 2013).
How Common Planning Practices Can Increase Risk

Many conventional transportation and land use planning practices tend to increase total vehicle travel and crash risk (DeRobertis, et al. 2014; Dumbaugh and Rae 2009). For example, development policies that separate land uses, minimum parking requirements in zoning codes and unpriced on-street parking tend to increase motor vehicle travel (CARB 2014). Common transport planning practices, often intended to increase traffic safety, often increase total crash risks. For example, since grade-separated highways have low per-mile traffic fatality rates, transportation agencies often justify road widening, straightening, grade separation, hierarchical street systems that force traffic onto higher-speed arterials, and expanded clear zones for safety sake, but such treatments cause motorists to drive farther and faster, which tends to increase total crash casualties (Garrick and Marshall 2011; Karim 2015; Noland and Oh 2004). More dispersed development, wider roads, and higher traffic speeds also discourage walking and bicycling, which further increases vehicle travel and reduces the safety in numbers effect.

Because they feel safer, wider and straighter roads encourage drivers to take additional incremental risks, such as driving slightly faster or being distracted, a phenomena called risk compensation. The additional vehicle travel caused by increased travel speeds is called induced travel (Milam, et al. 2017). As a result of these factors, roadway expansions often provide smaller safety benefits than predicted.

Marshall (2018) investigates factors that cause the US to have about twice the traffic fatality rate as Australia. These include Australia’s more urban population, multimodal infrastructure, more public transit ridership and higher driving costs that reduce total vehicle travel and therefore crash exposure; stronger greater reliance on roundabouts, narrower streets and other self-enforcing roadway design practices; plus more enforcement of seat belt usage, impaired driving, speeding regulations and driving restrictions. Australia enacted their version of Vision Zero – called the Safe System Approach – more than a decade before similar policies began cropping up in US cities.

This is not to ignore the benefits provided by higher speed roads, separated land uses, subsidized parking and hierarchical road networks, but it is important to account for the additional crashes they cause in their evaluation. This is particularly important when comparing modal alternatives, such as whether to address traffic congestion by expanding roadways or instead by improving alternative modes and implementing TDM strategies; the former is likely to increase total vehicle travel and therefore crashes while the latter are likely to reduce total vehicle travel and crashes. These impacts should be considered when determining the best overall congestion reduction strategies.
New Paradigm Safety Strategies
This section evaluates the safety impacts of various transportation demand management strategies. For more information see Sustainable & Safe (Welle, et al. 2018) and Road Safety in Cities (ITF 2022).

Traffic Speed Reductions
According to extensive research by the International Transport Forum, crash frequency and severity increase disproportionally with traffic speeds (ITF 2018). A 1% increase in average traffic speed results in approximately a 2% increase in injury crash frequency, a 3% increase in severe crash frequency, and a 4% increase in fatal crash frequency. Conversely, mean speed reductions are associated with reduced traffic casualties. It recommends that to optimize safety, speed limits should be no more than 30 km/h in built up areas where vulnerable road users mix with motor vehicle traffic; 50 km/h in areas with intersections; and 70 km/h on rural roads without median barriers to prevent head-on collisions.

Conventional roadway planning tends to prioritize speed. Road performance is often evaluated based on traffic speeds and delay, using indicators such as roadway Level of Service (LOS) and the Travel Time Index (TTI), so roadway projects receive more funding if they increase traffic speeds. The Manual on Uniform Traffic Control Devices applies the “85th Percentile Rule,” which bases speed limits on the speed at which 85% of vehicles travel in free-flowing conditions, which means that speed limits are often set by the 15% of drivers who exceed posted limits (Bronin and Shill 2021). These practices result in roadways designed to maximize traffic speeds with wider lanes, minimum cross-street and wide clearzones. These design features tend to increase total crashes and crash severity (Dumbaugh and Rae 2009), particularly in urban areas (CALTRANS 2014; Larson 2018).

Table 3: Forgiving Roadway Design Versus Slower Design Speeds (Larson 2018)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Forgiving Roadway Design</th>
<th>Slower Design Speeds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Suitable for undeveloped rural areas</td>
<td>Suitable for more developed urban areas and towns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased safety at high speeds</td>
<td>Fosters the safety of low speeds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wide travel lanes</td>
<td>Narrow travel lanes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broad smooth curves</td>
<td>Short, tight curves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clear zone free of fixed objects</td>
<td>Shoulders are used for parking, bike lanes and loading zones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feels comfortable to drive fast</td>
<td>Feels dangerous to drive fast</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conventional traffic safety programs often favor “forgiving” road design. This may reduce crash severity in rural areas, but by increasing traffic speeds tends to increase crash severity, particularly for vulnerable modes.

The elasticity of vehicle travel with respect to travel time is −0.2 to −0.5 in the short run and −0.7 to −1.0 over the long run, meaning that a 10% reduction in average traffic speeds reduces affected vehicle travel by 2-5% during the first few years, and up to 7-10% over the long run (Schiffer, Steinworth and Milam 2005). As a result, higher traffic speeds tend to induce additional vehicle travel, and speed reductions reduce total vehicle travel and crash exposure. Narrower roads with fewer traffic lanes are associated with significantly lower crash risk to pedestrians than wider roads (AARP and CNU 2021).

Traffic speeds can be reduced by redesigning roadways for lower speeds, with narrower traffic lanes, more traffic circles and crosswalks, and other traffic calming features, often called road diets or streetscaping. It can also involve reducing speed limits and increasing enforcement. Because current roadway design practices tend to favor higher traffic speeds, reforms are often required to increase the value of crash costs relative to travel time costs in project evaluation, and to change planning practices such as the 85th percentile rule which favors higher speed limits (Bronin and Shill 2021).
Transit Service Improvements

Public transit service improvements include more routes, increased service speed and frequency, nicer vehicles and waiting areas, improved user information and more convenient payment systems. Such improvements tend to increase ridership and reduce automobile travel. High quality transit (urban rail and bus rapid transit) often leverages additional vehicle travel reductions by allowing some households to reduce their vehicle ownership, and by supporting more compact development, so each 1% increase in ridership reduces automobile travel by more than 1% (ICF 2010).

Figure 20  Ridership Versus Service Hours  (Hertz 2015)

As transit service increases in a city, so does ridership. This tends to reduce automobile travel and traffic crash rates.

As public transit travel increases in a community total (pedestrians, cyclists, motorists and transit passengers) per capita traffic casualty rates tend to decline (Karim, Wahba and Sayed 2012; Scheiner and Holz-Rau 2011). Various studies using diverse analysis methods and data sets indicate that relatively small ridership gains are associated with proportionately larger reductions in per capita crash rates (Duduta, et al. 2012; Small 2018). Much of these ridership gains resulted from relatively fast and inexpensive service improvements such as better routing, increased service, reduced fares and better rider information (Peterson 2017; Walker 2015). This suggests that transit service improvements can provide cost-effective safety gains in addition to other community benefits.

Services that target higher risk groups can provide particularly large safety gains. For example, Jackson and Owens (2010) found that extending night transit service reduced drunk driving and accidents: they found that for each additional service hour DUI arrests declined 15.6%, and fatal accidents involving intoxicated drivers declined 70% near Metro stations. Broyles (2014) found that Phoenix, Arizona university students are significantly less likely to drink and drive if they live close to the city's light rail transit system which connects student housing with commercial and entertainment districts. Similarly, Lichtman-Sadot (2019) found that young driver traffic crash rates declined an average of 37%, and their crash injuries decrease 24%, after late-night buses began operating in Israeli cities in 2007.
**HOV and Bus Priority**

High Occupancy Vehicle (HOV) lanes, bus lanes, and bus priority traffic control systems improve transit performance (speed, reliability and operating cost efficiency) and encourage ridesharing (car- and vanpooling). HOV lanes can reduce vehicle trips on a particular roadway by 4-30% (Turnbull, Levinson and Pratt 2006). Ridesharing programs typically attract 5-15% of commute trips if they offer only information and encouragement, and 10-30% if they also offer incentives such as HOV Priority and efficient parking pricing (Evans and Pratt 2005). In addition to their direct impacts these strategies can also leverage additional vehicle travel reductions, for example, if some commuters who shift from driving to public transit or vanpooling subsequently reduce their vehicle ownership.

**Active Transport (Walking and Cycling) Improvements**

Improving sidewalks, crosswalks, bike lanes, pathways, plus traffic calming and cycling education, can directly increase walking and cycling safety, and by reducing vehicle travel, increase overall traffic safety. As previously described, in typical North American communities, completing sidewalk and bike facility networks is predicted to reduce total personal vehicle travel about 5%, which should provide at least proportional crash reductions, and more if these improvements reduce traffic speeds or are particularly effective at reducing higher risk driving, for example, allowing drinkers to walk rather than drive home, and young men to reduce driving. This is supported by previously described evidence indicating that relatively modest increases in active mode shares are associated with large reductions in a community’s per capita crash rates. This suggests that comprehensive active transport improvements can reduce resident’s total crash casualty rates 5-10%. Most improvements can be implemented in a few years.

**Expanded Carsharing Services**

Carsharing refers to vehicle rental services designed to substitute for personal vehicle ownership. They are located in residential neighborhoods, priced by the hour, and marketed to local residents. Although carsharing may increase vehicle travel by households that lack motor vehicles, they can significantly reduce household vehicle ownership, which reduces vehicle travel (ITF 2015). Carsharing members typically own 40% fewer vehicles and drive 33% fewer annual miles than average (Clewlow 2015). If 10-30% of households live in areas suitable for carsharing (typically 10 residents or more per acre), and 10-30% of area households would use carsharing if available, and carsharing reduces participating household’s vehicle travel 33%, the total vehicle travel reduction and potential safety gain is 0.3-3%, with larger impacts in denser neighborhoods.

**Raise Fuel Taxes to Fully Finance Roadway Costs or as a Carbon Tax**

A basic economic principle is that markets are most efficient and equitable if prices (what users pay for a good) reflect marginal costs (the full incremental costs of that good). This suggests that, as much as possible, motorists should pay for roads, and compensate society for external costs they impose on other people, sometimes called the polluter pays principle.

Road user fees (road tolls, special fuel taxes and vehicle registration fees) are often insufficient to fully finance roadway costs (SUTP 2014). For example, in 2015 U.S. government agencies spent $235 billion on roadways, of which $113 (48%) was from user fees and $122 billion from general taxes (FHWA, 2017, Table HF-10). Fuel taxes would need to increase 50¢ per gallon or more to fully finance roadways. A 50¢ per gallon fuel tax can also be justified as a $55 per tonne carbon tax. With current $2.50 per gallon fuel prices, a 50¢ per gallon tax represents a 20% increase. Previously described research indicates that each 10% fuel price increase typically reduces traffic deaths 2-6% (Ahangari, et al. 2014; Burke and Nishitateno 2015), suggesting that a 50¢ per gallon tax should reduce fatalities by 4-12%.
Efficient Parking Pricing
Motorists currently park without a fee at most destinations, due to unpriced on-street parking and off-street parking required in zoning codes. As a result, most parking costs are borne indirectly through general taxes, building rents, and higher costs for retail goods. Considering land, construction and operating costs, a typical urban parking space has an annualized cost of $500 to $3,000 (Litman 2009).

There are many possible ways to efficiently price parking. Municipal governments can expand where parking is metered; businesses can charge for off-street parking; employee parking can be priced or “cashed out” (non-drivers receive the cash equivalent of parking subsidies offered to motorists); residential parking can be unbundled (rented separately from building space); and existing parking fees can be adjusted to be more efficient, for example, with rates that reflect costs and demand (VTPI 2016). Charging users directly for parking typically reduces affected vehicle ownership and use by 10-30% (CARB 2014), which should provide comparable crash reductions. More efficient parking pricing can be implemented relatively quickly, and with new technologies, transactions costs can be minimized.

Congestion Pricing (Road Tolls that Increase Under Congested Conditions)
Congestion pricing consists of road tolls that increase under congested conditions. Research by Green, Heywood and Navarro (2015) indicates that London’s congestion pricing program reduced peak-period vehicle travel by 10% and crashes by 30% in the priced area, and reduced crashes in nearby areas by 16%. Since less than a third of total vehicle travel occurs under urban-peak conditions, which suggests that congestion pricing can reduce total crash rates 5-15%, depending on how broadly it is applied.

Distance-Based Vehicle Insurance and Registration Fees
Distance-Based (also called Pay-As-You-Drive, Usage-based, Mileage-Based and Per-Mile Premiums) means that vehicle insurance premiums and registration fees are based directly on how much it is driven. Vehicle purchase taxes also be converted into distance-based fees, so a $1,000 tax becomes 1¢ per vehicle-mile. This price structure gives motorists a new opportunity to save money if they reduce their vehicle travel (Ferreira and Minike 2010; Greenberg and Evans 2017; VTPI 2016).

An average motorist who currently pays $1,200 annual insurance premiums and registration fees would pay about 10¢ per mile, approximately equivalent to a 60% fuel price increase, but this is not a new fee, simply a different way of paying existing fees. This should reduce affected vehicles’ average annual mileage 10-15%. Since all existing rating factors are included in the rate structure, higher risk motorists would pay more per mile under distance-based pricing, and so should reduce their mileage more than average. For example, a lower-risk motorist who currently pays $500 annually would pay about 4¢ per mile, and so would reduce mileage 5%, but a higher-risk motorist who pays $2,400 for insurance would pay about 20¢ per mile, resulting in particularly large reductions in higher-risk driving. As a result, distance-based insurance pricing should reduce crash rates even more than mileage. This suggests that distance-based insurance and registration fees can reduce affected vehicles’ crash casualties 10-20%.

There are many possible ways to implement distance-based pricing. Some systems use electronic devices to track when, where and how people drive, but this imposes significant costs and raises privacy concerns. Basic distance-based pricing only requires an annual odometer reading. If offered as a consumer option, probably 5-15% of motorists would choose electronic pricing and 30-50% (those with vehicles driven less than about 10,000 annual miles) would choose basic distance-based pricing. Incentives or mandates could result in most or all motorists having distance-based pricing. If universally applied total crashes should decline at least 15%.
Commute Trip Reduction Programs
Commute trip reduction programs encourage commuters to use resource-efficient modes. They can include various services and incentives such as ridematching services, bicycle lockers, guaranteed ride home programs, flextime and telecommute options, transit encouragement, and financial incentives for using efficient modes. Programs that include information and encouragement typically reduce automobile trips by 5-15%, and those that include significant financial incentives typically reduce automobile trips 15-30%. Commute trip reductions programs can leverage additional vehicle travel reductions, for example, if incentives to use non-auto commute modes convince households to reduce their car ownership or locate in a more multi-modal community. About 20% of personal vehicle travel is for commuting, and perhaps half of commuters are suited to such programs, so perhaps 10% of total travel could be reduced 5-30%, or 0.5-3%. Safety gains are probably about proportional to vehicle travel reductions. Washington State’s Commute Trip reduction law is one of many factors that contributed to significant vehicle travel reductions and traffic safety gains in the Puget Sound region (Peterson 2017).

Mobility Management Marketing
Mobility management marketing (also called Voluntary Travel Behavior Change Programs) uses mass and personalized marketing strategies to encourage households to try resource-efficient travel options, usually implemented by government agencies or non-profit organizations as part of a comprehensive TDM program. They have proven successful in many conditions including urban and suburban areas, and influence various types of trips. They typically reduce affected households’ vehicle travel by 5-10% (CARB 2013). Crash reductions are likely to be about proportionate. Assuming that 60% of households are candidates for such programs, they can reduce affected households’ crashes 5-10% and total crashes 3-6%. Such programs can be implemented in a few months.

More Connected and Complete Streets
Street connectivity refers to street network density, such as intersections per square mile. Increased connectivity tends to reduce vehicle travel by reducing travel distances between destinations and by supporting alternative modes, particularly where paths provide walking and cycling shortcuts (Handy, et al. 2014). Ewing and Cervero (2010) find that intersection density and street connectivity are the second greatest land use factor affecting vehicle travel, so a 10% density increase reduces vehicle travel 1.2%. Holding other factors constant, increasing from 31.3 to 125 intersections per square kilometer is associated with a 41% decrease in vehicle travel (Marshall and Garrick 2012).

Complete streets are roadways designed to accommodate diverse users and uses, including walking, cycling, public transit, automobile travel, nearby businesses and residents (SGA 2020). This tends to increase travel safety, particularly for walkers and bicyclists, and by improving active and public transportation, reduce total vehicle travel and accidents. Compared with sprawled, automobile-oriented development, high street connectivity and complete streets designs can reduce local crash casualty rates 10-30% (Ewing and Cervero 2010; Marshall, Ferrenchak and Janson 2018). Similarly, Mohan, Bangdiwala and Villaveces (2017) found that, all else being equal, more roadway junctions and fewer kilometers of arterial grade roadways are associated with lower traffic death rates.

More Comprehensive and Multi-modal Planning
Conventional planning is biased in many ways that favor automobile travel over other modes. For example, conventional transportation planning evaluates transportation system performance based primarily on roadway Level-of-Service (LOS) indicators, which reflect motor vehicle traffic speeds and delay; there are generally no indicators for other modes or other accessibility factors such as development density and mix (DeRobertis, et al. 2014). More comprehensive and multi-modal planning
A New Traffic Safety Paradigm
Victoria Transport Policy Institute

gives more consideration to non-auto modes and accounts for other planning goals besides vehicle travel speed (NYCDOT 2012).

Current transportation funding practices also tend to favor road and parking over investments in other modes. For example, dedicated state highway funds encourage local and regional governments to define their transportation problems in terms of inadequate roadway capacity rather than inadequate mobility options or roadway underpricing (in fact, federal policies prohibit congestion pricing on most U.S. highways), and minimum parking requirements in zoning codes subsidize automobile ownership and use, discourage efficient pricing and stimulate sprawled development.

More comprehensive and multi-modal planning provides a foundation for new paradigm safety strategies, including more support for non-automobile modes, Smart Growth policies and TDM programs. Although impacts are difficult to predict precisely, their safety benefits are potentially large, as indicated by the much larger crash rate reductions in U.S. cities that emphasize multi-modal planning compared with those that apply conventional, auto-oriented planning, illustrated in Figure 21.

**Figure 21** Traffic Death Trends for Selected Cities (City Data)

Cities that emphasized multi-modal planning (Denver, Portland and Seattle) experienced much larger traffic death rate reductions (47%) than cities (Atlanta, Houston and Oklahoma City) with conventional planning (19%).

**Reduced Parking Requirements**

Most jurisdictions currently require that numerous parking spaces be included with any development. This makes automobile travel convenient and inexpensive, and development more dispersed, often to the detriment of other travel modes. Parking requirements discourage infill development, creating sprawled communities, and large parking lots create unpleasant walking environments. In typical North American communities these requirements result in the provision of 2-6 parking spaces per motor vehicle, representing a $1,000-$6,000 annual economic subsidy per motorist (Chester, et al. 2015; Scharnhorst 2018). This is economically inefficient and unfair, and by increasing automobile travel and discouraging use of other modes, tends to increase traffic crash rates.
Reducing parking requirements does not eliminate parking, it simply allows developers to determine the number of parking spaces to provide based on market demands, which often results in unbundled parking (renting parking spaces separately from building space). As previously mentioned, charging motorists directly for parking typically reduces vehicle ownership and use by 10-30%, and more if implemented in conjunction with other transportation demand management strategies.

Although these impacts are indirect and there is little research specifically investigating how parking policies affect crash rates, reducing parking requirements can probably provide large traffic safety benefits by reducing vehicle ownership and use, increasing parking prices and allowing more compact development. This suggests that local crash casualty rates decline 5-15% if reduced parking allows a community to become compact and multi-modal. These impacts take years to occur.

**Urban Rail and Bus Rapid Transit**

As previously described, traffic crash rates tend to decline as public transit ridership increases in a community (figures 13 and 14). Residents of cities with more than 50 annual transit trips per capita have about half the average traffic fatality rate as regions with less than 20 annual trips per capita, indicating that relatively modest increases in transit travel are associated with large traffic safety gains. Urban rail and Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) tend to increase transit ridership by providing high quality service, including relatively high speed, frequency, rider comfort and station access, and by providing a catalyst for Transit Oriented Development. Some studies suggest that high quality public transit reduces drunk driving by giving drinkers an affordable and safety alternative to driving home after drinking (Broyles 2014).

A single rail or BRT line is generally insufficient to significantly affect regional travel or crash rates; to be effective they generally require an integrated network with supportive policies including improved walking, cycling and local bus services; reduced parking requirements; policies that encourage compact development around transit stations; and commute trip reduction programs. Where those policies are effectively applied it is possible to reduce per capita traffic fatality rates 30-60% within affected neighborhoods, and 10-30% region-wide.

**Smart Growth and Transit Oriented Development**

Smart Growth refers to policies and planning practices that encourage more compact, multi-modal urban development. Transit Oriented Development (TOD) refers to these policies applied specifically around transit stations. Various studies using a variety of analysis methods and data sets indicate that these development practices tend to increase traffic safety (ITF 2019; Welle, et al. 2015).

Recent research by the International Transport Forum found that denser cities tend to have lower traffic death rates (ITF 2019). The study suggests that this reflects:

- A higher proportion of public transport travel, which has very low risk.
- A higher proportion of foot or bicycle trips, which impose less risk on other modes.
- Less per capita vehicle travel and lower motor vehicle traffic speeds.

Hamidi, et al. (2015) found that more compact communities had significantly higher transit ridership, slightly higher total crash rates, but much lower fatal crash rates than sprawled communities: each 10% increase in their compact community index is associated with a 0.4% increase in total crashes, and a 13.8% reduction in traffic fatalities. Analyzing San Antonio, Texas neighborhood crash rates, Dumbaugh and Rae (2009) found that crashes are negatively associated with population density (each additional person per net residential acre reduces crash incidence 0.05%); automobile oriented services (each
additional arterial-oriented commercial parcel increased total crashes 1.3%, each additional big box store increased total crashes 6.6%, and pedestrian-scaled commercial or retail uses were associated with a 2.2% reduction in crashes; and higher-speed roadways (each additional freeway mile within a neighborhood is associated with a 5% increase in fatal crashes, and each additional arterial mile is associated with a 20% increase in fatal crashes).

The most compact and multi-modal U.S. communities, often called Transit Oriented Developments, generally experience 2-3 deaths per 100,000 residents, an order of magnitude lower than the 20-40 deaths per 100,000 residents than in the most sprawled, automobile-dependent communities (for evidence see figures 4 and 5, which indicate the crash rates ranges among states and urban regional, and even larger variations at the neighborhood level). This suggests that policies which shift a community from extreme sprawl to the most compact and multi-modal can reduce traffic crash rates by as much as 90%, but in most situations their impacts will be smaller, and they take many years or decades to achieve large safety gains. Crash rate reductions of 10-30% are probably realistic for aggressive Smart Growth and Transit Oriented Development programs that cause a majority of community’s residents to live in more compact and multi-modal neighborhoods.
Table 4 summaries the new paradigm safety strategies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4</th>
<th>Fifteen New Paradigm Safety Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategy</td>
<td>Traffic Safety Impacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Shorter Term (less than three years)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduce traffic speeds</td>
<td>Reduce crash frequency and severity, and reduces total vehicle travel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transit service improvements (more routes, frequency, etc.)</td>
<td>Reduces vehicle travel directly, and often leverage additional reductions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOV and bus traffic priority</td>
<td>Reduces automobile travel and encourages transit and ridesharing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active transport improvements (better sidewalks, crosswalks, bikelane, etc.)</td>
<td>Reduces walking and bicycling crash rates, and total per capita crash rates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expanded carsharing services</td>
<td>Reduces crashes by reducing car ownership.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raise fuel taxes to fully finance roadway costs, or as a carbon tax.</td>
<td>Reduces total vehicle travel and traffic speeds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficient parking pricing (motorists pay directly for using parking spaces).</td>
<td>Charging motorists directly for parking typically reduces affected trips 10-30%, and may reduce vehicle ownership.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congestion pricing (road tolls that increase under congested conditions)</td>
<td>Reduces crashes by reducing automobile use, particularly in large cities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance-based vehicle insurance and registration fees.</td>
<td>Reduces vehicle use, especially higher risk driving.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commute trip reduction programs.</td>
<td>Typically reduces affected commute trips 5-30%, and may cause some vehicle ownership reductions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobility management marketing.</td>
<td>Encourages travellers to use non-auto modes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Longer Term (more than three years)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More comprehensive and multi-modal planning</td>
<td>Supports more multi-modal transport planning and considers safety impacts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More connected and complete streets.</td>
<td>Reduces crash frequency and severity by reducing vehicle travel, improving non-auto modes and reducing traffic speeds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced parking requirements</td>
<td>Reduces crashes by reducing vehicle ownership and use.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban rail and Bus Rapid Transit</td>
<td>Reduces crashes by reducing vehicle ownership and use, and traffic speeds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smart Growth and Transit Oriented Development</td>
<td>Reduces crash frequency and severity by reducing vehicle travel, improving non-auto modes and reducing traffic speeds.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

New paradigm safety strategies reduce total vehicle travel and traffic speeds.
Projected impacts depend on implementation scale. Many of these strategies significantly reduce vehicle travel and crash rates in a particular area or among a particular group, so their total impacts depend on how broadly they are implemented. For example, Commute Trip Reduction programs often reduce affected vehicle travel by 5-30%, so their total impacts depend on the portion of workers affected by such programs. Similarly, Smart Growth and Transit Oriented Development reduce residents’ vehicle travel and crash casualty rates by 30-60% compared with conventional automobile-oriented neighborhoods, so their overall impacts depend on the portion of regional households located in such areas and therefore consumer demand for housing in compact, multi-modal neighborhoods.

Care is needed when predicting the total impacts of multiple strategies since their impacts are multiplicative not additive. For example, if transit improvements are predicted to reduce crashes by 15%, fuel price increases reduce crashes by 10%, and commute trip reduction programs are predicted to reduce crashes by 5%, the total reductions of implementing them together are calculated by multiplying their residual crash rates (85% x 90% x 95% = 73%), indicating a 27% crash reduction rather than the 30% reduction indicate by adding 15% + 10% + 5%.

Some strategies overlap. For example, increasing roadway connectivity and reducing parking requirements are both Smart Growth Strategies. While it would be true to say that reducing parking requirements can reduce crashes 5-15%, improved roadway connectivity can reduce local crashes 10-30%, and Smart Growth can reduce crashes by 10-30%, it would be double-counting to add these together to say that together they reduce crashes by 25-75%, since Smart Growth including reduced parking requirements and more connected roadways. On the other hand, many of these strategies have synergistic effects (total impacts are greater than the sum of their individual impacts), and so are most effective if implemented together. For example, public transit improvements are more effective if implemented with walkability improvements and parking pricing since together they give travellers both positive and negative incentives to shift modes.

These strategies complement existing traffic safety efforts. Many conventional traffic safety strategies attempt to reduce higher-risk driving, such as graduated licenses to reduce youth driving, special senior testing to identify high-risk drivers, and anti-impaired driving campaigns. To be effective and fair these strategies require suitable mobility options so youths, seniors and drinkers have suitable alternatives to driving. Because travel demands are diverse, this requires diverse mobility options. For example, graduated licenses and senior driver testing will be more effective and less burdensome if implemented with more multi-modal planning that improves walking, bicycling, public transit and taxi/ride-hailing improvements, so youths and seniors can access services and activities without driving. Similarly, anti-impaired driving campaigns should be implemented with Smart Growth development policies that create more compact and mixed neighborhoods, so it is easier to visit a restaurant or pub by walking or public transit rather than driving. As a result, multi-modal planning, Smart Growth and TDM programs support both old and new paradigm traffic safety strategies.

Ironically, conventional zoning codes often apply very high minimum parking requirements to bars, pubs and restaurants, typically 6-12 spaces per 1,000 square feet (http://bit.ly/2Bsno0i), which contradicts efforts to discourage driving after drinking, and by increasing land requirements, often prevent the development of local drinking establishments accessible by walking. Allowing more neighborhood restaurants, bars and pubs can increase public safety and health.
New Paradigm Analysis Methods
This section describes how analysis methods to support the new traffic safety paradigm.

How impacts are analyzed can significantly affect planning outcomes. A solution that seems effective and beneficial evaluated one way may seem ineffective and harmful if evaluated using different metrics and perspectives. Table 5 compares old and new paradigm analyses frameworks. By using distance-based exposure units, focusing on internal impacts, and only considering safety, the current analysis framework ignores the additional crashes caused by increased vehicle travel, the risks the motorized travel imposes on pedestrians and cyclists, and additional benefits, besides safety, provided by vehicle travel reduction strategies. In these ways, it favors automobile-oriented solutions over multi-modal planning, Smart Growth and TDM programs.

Table 5  Comparing Analysis Frameworks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Old</th>
<th>New</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Units of exposure</td>
<td>Distance-based units (e.g., casualties per 100 million vehicle-miles or billion vehicle-kilometers)</td>
<td>Per capita (e.g., casualties per 100,000 residents)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perspective</td>
<td>Internal (user) impacts, such as casualties to vehicle occupants.</td>
<td>Internal and external impacts, such as casualties to vehicle occupants and other road users.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scope of impacts</td>
<td>Traffic crash costs.</td>
<td>Traffic crash costs and other economic, social and environmental impacts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of impacts</td>
<td>Direct impacts only.</td>
<td>Direct and indirect impacts, including short- and long-term effects on vehicle travel and risk exposure.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The new traffic safety paradigm is more comprehensive and integrated.

The old safety paradigm focuses on crash costs, the new paradigm considers all significant impacts. This is important because planning decisions often involve trade-offs between traffic risk and other impacts such as mobility, affordability and environmental quality. A traffic safety strategy is worth less if it conflicts with other planning goals, for example, if it increases costs to governments, consumer or businesses, or exacerbates pollution problems, but can be worth far more if it also helps achieve other planning objectives. New tools help decision-makers understand these trade-offs.

Various studies have estimated motor vehicle costs (DfT 2017; Kockelman, et al. 2013; Litman 2009). A major Federal Highway Administration study estimated that in 2010, U.S. traffic crashes caused $242 billion in direct economic losses, averaging about $1,000 per motor vehicle, and $836 billion in total costs including human suffering, averaging about $3,500 per motor vehicle (Blincoe, et al. 2015). Using a mid-point estimated of $2,250, annual crash costs are smaller than vehicle ownership costs (financing, depreciation, insurance, registration fees and scheduled maintenance, which average about $4,000 annually), and about equal to total non-residential parking (the 2-6 off-street parking spaces per vehicle provided at worksites, shops and other destinations), but larger in magnitude than most other costs including vehicle operation (about $2,000 for fuel and tire wear), residential parking (about $1,200 for a garage or carport), roadway costs (which totaled about $200 billion in 2010, or about $826 per vehicle), traffic congestion (estimated to total $115 billion in 2010, or $475 per vehicle), and motor vehicle air, noise and water pollution are estimated to average 3¢ per vehicle-mile or about $360 annually (some estimates are much higher). Figure 22 compares these costs.
Traffic crash damages are one of the largest costs of motor vehicle travel, less than vehicle ownership and non-residential parking, but smaller than all others. This suggests that a traffic safety program is not cost effective if it increases other costs, but can be far more beneficial overall if they reduce other costs or provide other benefits.

This is important because conventional traffic safety strategies, such as additional vehicle safety features (crash protection design, air bags, rear vision camera, etc.) and programs (sobriety checks, new driver testing, advertising campaigns, etc.) are costly and provide few benefits besides safety, while most new paradigm safety strategies provide large co-benefits. For example, multi-modal planning, pricing reforms, Smart Growth development policies and TDM programs tend to reduce congestion, infrastructure costs, consumer costs and pollution emissions, as well as improving mobility options for non-drivers, and public fitness and health.

These factors can significantly affect planning priorities. For example, when deciding whether to expand roadways or improve public transit to reduce congestion, conventional analysis usually ignores the additional risk to pedestrians and cyclists caused by wider roads and higher traffic speeds, additional crashes that result if roadway expansions induce additional vehicle travel and stimulates sprawled development; these impacts are invisible when projects are evaluated using distance-based vehicle crash rate data. The new paradigm recognizes the additional crash risks caused by induced vehicle travel and additional benefits provided by improved travel options, vehicle travel reductions, and more compact development.

Transportation professionals seldom acknowledge these issues or discuss how alternative analysis methods could provide different results. Transportation agencies often only report distance-based crash data with no discussion of alternative metrics or perspectives. Traffic safety analysis seldom discusses the additional crashes caused by policies that increase vehicle travel or traffic speeds, or the safety benefits of vehicle travel reduction strategies. By considering these impacts the new paradigm analysis framework provides more useful information to decision-makers.
Evaluating Current Traffic Safety Programs
This section evaluates whether various traffic safety programs and guides consider new paradigm solutions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>VMT Reduction Safety Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Countermeasures That Work, NHTSA (<a href="http://bit.ly/2zMe3Dm">http://bit.ly/2zMe3Dm</a>)</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desktop Reference for Crash Reduction Factors, ITE (<a href="http://www.ite.org">www.ite.org</a>)</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting to Zero Alcohol-impaired Driving Fatalities, National Academy Press (<a href="http://www.nap.edu/download/24951">www.nap.edu/download/24951</a>)</td>
<td>Recommends improving public transit and ridehailing that serves alcohol drinkers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highway Safety Program Guidelines, GHSA (<a href="http://www.ghsa.org">www.ghsa.org</a>)</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor Vehicle PICCS, CDC (<a href="http://www.cdc.gov/motorvehiclesafety">www.cdc.gov/motorvehiclesafety</a>)</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roadway Safety Guide, Road Safety Foundation (<a href="http://www.roadwaysafety.org">www.roadwaysafety.org</a>)</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safe Ride Programs, Mothers Against Drunk Driving (<a href="http://www.madd.org">www.madd.org</a>)</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Injury Research Foundation (<a href="http://www.tirf.ca">www.tirf.ca</a>)</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toward Zero Deaths (<a href="http://www.towardzerodeaths.org">www.towardzerodeaths.org</a>)</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada’s Road Safety Strategy (<a href="http://roadsafetystrategy.ca">http://roadsafetystrategy.ca</a>)</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toolbox for Road Safety (<a href="https://doi.org/10.1186/s40621-016-0098-z">https://doi.org/10.1186/s40621-016-0098-z</a>)</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation and Health Tool, USDOT and CDC (<a href="http://www.transportation.gov/transportation-health-tool">www.transportation.gov/transportation-health-tool</a>)</td>
<td>Recommends multi-modal planning for safety and health.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of 22 major traffic safety programs reviewed, only six mention vehicle travel reduction strategies and none provide detailed guidance on their evaluation or implementation.
Most traffic safety programs reflect the old paradigm (Sung, Mizenko and Coleman 2017). For example, the 2015 Traffic Safety Facts Report (NHTSA 2017) shows casualties per 100 million vehicle-miles but not per capita, and the USDOT’s safety performance indicators are all distance-based (USDOT 2017). Of nineteen major traffic safety programs considered in Table 6, only seven mention vehicle miles of travel (VMT) reduction strategies, and none provide guidance on evaluating or implementing them.

Most multi-modal recommendations provided by these programs are limited in scope. For example, a recent report by the U.S. National Academy of Sciences, Getting to Zero Alcohol-impaired Driving Fatalities: A Comprehensive Approach to a Persistent Problem, includes the following recommendation:

Recommendation 4-4: Municipalities should support policies and programs that increase the availability, convenience, affordability, and safety of transportation alternatives for drinkers who might otherwise drive. This includes permitting transportation network company ridesharing, enhancing public transportation options (especially during nighttime and weekend hours), and boosting or incentivizing transportation alternatives in rural areas.

Although this recognizes the possibility that that improving travel options can reduce impaired driving, it implies that such programs target higher risk conditions. It ignores the effects that high quality public transit, and transit-oriented development has on per capita vehicle ownership which leverages reductions in high risk driving, and research showing large reductions in traffic fatality rates in transit-oriented communities. It also fails to evaluate the costs and co-benefits of anti-impaired-driving campaigns, which could justify more integrated solutions.

Conversely, many jurisdictions are starting to apply more multimodal planning, transportation demand management incentives, and Smart Growth policies, and some have established vehicle travel reduction targets (Litman 2021). These are justified for various reasons including reducing traffic congestion, public infrastructure savings, consumer savings, social equity, public health, emission reductions and habitat preservation; although they can also provide substantial traffic safety benefits these often receive little priority. New tools, such as California’s Vehicle Miles Traveled-Focused Transportation Impact Study Guide (Caltrans 2020), can help policy makers and practitioners estimate the impacts that transportation and land use projects will have on total vehicle travel and therefore crashes. Traffic safety programs can incorporate this type of information into traffic safety planning.
Obstacles and Criticisms

This section describes various obstacles facing new paradigm traffic safety strategy implementation.

This new traffic safety paradigm faces various obstacles. Many stakeholders are unfamiliar with these concepts: transportation professionals seldom consider the additional crashes caused by planning decisions that stimulate vehicle traffic, or the potential safety benefits of vehicle travel reduction strategies. Multi-modal planning and TDM programs are generally intended to reduce congestion and emissions, safety benefits are often overlooked. Few guidance documents or modelling tools provide guidance for evaluating TDM and Smart Growth traffic safety impacts, or support their implementation.

Transportation professionals often emphasize that most crashes result from special risk factors, such as youth, senior, impaired or distracted driving, and so favor targeted safety strategies. From this perspective it seems inefficient and unfair to reduce total driving for safety sake, since that would punish all drivers for errors made by an irresponsible minority. However, even a perfect driver who never errors increases safety by reducing mileage and therefore their chance of being the victim of other drivers’ mistakes, and most drivers make small errors that can contribute to a crash, such as driving a little faster than optimal for safety. Since most casualty crashes involve multiple vehicles, travel reductions tend to provide proportionately larger crash reductions, particularly in urban areas (Edlin and Karaca-Mandic 2006). As a result, mileage reductions by lower-risk drivers increases traffic safety.

It is also wrong to assume that vehicle travel reductions “punish” drivers: many TDM strategies improve travel options or provide positive incentives to use alternatives to driving, making travellers who reduce their driving better off overall. Critics may argue that these are ineffective safety strategies. It is true that many TDM strategies individually only affect a small portion of total travel so their safety benefits seem modest, but their impacts tend to be synergistic, so an integrated program can provide significant crash reductions and other benefits. Some strategies, such as new urban rail systems, may seem costly considering just their traffic safety impacts, but provide other important benefits including reduced traffic and parking congestion, infrastructure savings, user savings and affordability, improved mobility for non-drivers, improved public fitness and health, energy conservation and emission reductions. Considering all impacts new paradigm safety strategies are often very cost effective.

Critics could argue that these strategies’ safety impacts are difficult to predict, but research described in this report can be used to model how policy and planning decisions affect travel activity and crash rates. Such models are no less accurate than those used to predict conventional safety strategy impacts; in fact, current models often exaggerate conventional strategies’ net safety gains by ignoring induced travel and offsetting behavior effects (Rudin-Brown and Jamson 2013). More research is justified, but sufficient information is available to make reasonable predictions of new safety strategy impacts.

Conventional planning tends to overlook or undervalue policies and programs that provide traffic safety co-benefits. For example, detailed analysis by Oldham and Mills (2020) found that some public programs that are primarily intended to reduce crime or pollution emissions also increase traffic safety, but these impacts were overlooked or undervalued in the program evaluations, leading to their underinvestment. Similarly, public transit service improvements are generally intended to reduce traffic and parking congestion, and improve mobility for non-drivers, and Smart Growth development policies are generally intended to reduce the costs of providing public infrastructure and reduce environmental impacts, but these also provide significant traffic safety gains. Table 7 lists various multi-modal planning strategies that also tend to provide traffic safety co-benefits.

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New paradigm safety strategies may seem outside traffic safety programs’ scope, but this is an arbitrary distinction. Traffic safety programs now include road and vehicle design standards, law enforcement, business regulations, and social marketing; there is nothing inherently different about multi-modal planning, TDM and Smart Growth. These strategies are sometimes criticized as social engineering, with the implication that they force travelers to use undesirable mobility options, but such arguments that are generally false. In fact, multi-modal planning, TDM and Smart Growth tend to respond to consumer demands for non-auto modes, and remove existing market distortions, such as reducing parking minimize that subsidized automobile travel. Surveys indicate that many people would prefer to drive less and rely on alternative modes, provided they are convenient and affordable. For example, the National Association of Realtor’s National Community and Transportation Preference Survey (NAR 2017), indicates that a growing majority of home buyers prefer living in a walkable urban neighborhood over a detached house that requires a longer commute and driving to shops, and most respondents like walking (80%), about half like bicycling, more than a third (38%) like public transit travel. More multi-modal planning responds to these demands, which increases safety among other benefits.

Another criticism is that new paradigm strategies are too slow, but as Table 4 indicates, many can be implemented in a few years. Experience indicates that communities can achieve significant safety gains within a few years by applying more multi-modal planning, TDM and Smart Growth policies. As Figure 18 showed, during a ten-year period, the cities with multi-modal planning and Smart Growth policies reduced their traffic fatality rates 2.5 times more than in cities with conventional planning and development policies (PBOT 2016; SDOT 2015), which suggests that new paradigm strategies can more than double the safety gains achieved by conventional safety programs alone.

Another obstacle is stakeholder (policy makers, practitioners, citizens, etc.) bias. Most stakeholders are themselves motorists, who tend to be proud of their skills (surveys indicate that most drivers consider themselves safer than average, called illusory superiority), and so are often offended by the idea that their driving is dangerous and should be reduced for safety sake. In addition, many stakeholders consider travel reduction a defeatist solution that denigrates conventional transportation planning and traffic safety programs. These responses misrepresent the issues. The new safety paradigm acknowledges that most drivers are responsible and cautious, and past traffic safety programs successfully reduced crash rates, but recognizes that new strategies can provide additional safety gains that will not otherwise occur, plus other important benefits, and so should be implemented.
Conclusions and Recommendations
After a half-century of decline traffic casualty rates have started to increase, indicating that conventional safety strategies are becoming less effective, so new approaches are needed to achieve ambitious safety goals. Recent research improves our understanding of factors that affect traffic risks and identifies new safety strategies. Numerous studies using various methods and data sets indicate that exposure, total vehicle travel, is a critical risk factor. Since most casualty crashes involve multiple vehicles, even a prefect driver who makes no errors increases safety by reducing mileage because this reduces their chance of being a victim of another driver’s mistake. A paradigm shift is needed to apply this knowledge.

The old paradigm assumed that most crashes result from special risks, such as youth, senior, impaired and distracted driving, and so favors safety programs that target these risks. A new paradigm recognizes that all vehicle travel incurs risk, so policies that stimulate vehicle travel tend to increase crashes and vehicle travel reductions increase safety. This favors transportation improvement strategies such as multi-modal planning, pricing reforms, Smart Growth development policies and TDM programs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 8</th>
<th>Scope of Safety Programs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Old Safety Programs</strong></td>
<td><strong>New Paradigm Safety Strategies</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Anti-impaired and distracted driving campaigns.</td>
<td>• More multi-modal transport planning (improved walking, cycling, ridesharing and public transit).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• More testing for youth and senior drivers.</td>
<td>• More efficient transport pricing (distance-based vehicle insurance, parking pricing, road tolls, higher fuel taxes).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Roadway design improvements.</td>
<td>• Smart Growth development and Complete Streets policies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Vehicle design improvements.</td>
<td>• TDM programs (such as commute trip reduction).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Vehicle occupant crash protection.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The New Paradigm expands traffic safety programs to include traffic reduction strategies that reduce exposure.

How risks are evaluated can significantly affects policy and planning decisions. The old paradigm relies on distance-based risk indicators which, ignores the additional crashes caused by policies which increase total vehicle travel and the safety provided by vehicle travel reductions. The new paradigm tends to measure crash rates per capita. Because vehicle travel reduction strategies provide co-benefits besides safety, including consumer savings and affordability, road and parking congestion reductions, improve mobility for non-drivers, and increase public fitness and health, the new paradigm support comprehensive impact evaluation (CDC Foundation 2020).

The new paradigm faces various obstacles, including many stakeholders’ preferences for targeted safety programs and aversion to vehicle travel reduction strategies. However, new paradigm strategies actually complement existing programs, which become more effective, equitable and acceptable if implemented with improved mobility options that help higher-risk travellers reduce their driving.

This is not to suggest that automobile travel should be eliminated for safety sake. However, surveys indicate that many people would prefer to drive less and rely more on alternatives, provided they are convenient, comfortable and affordable. In response, many communities are implementing more multi-modal planning, Smart Growth policies, and TDM programs. This research suggests that these strategies can significantly increase traffic safety.
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