

1 **Understanding Crash Risk using a Multi-Level Random Parameter Binary Logit Model:**
2 **Application to Naturalistic Driving Study Data**

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1 ABSTRACT

2 This study presents a framework to employ naturalistic driving study (NDS) data to understand
3 and predict crash risk at a disaggregate trip level accommodating for the influence of trip
4 characteristics (such as trip distance, trip proportion by speed limit, trip proportion on urban/rural
5 facilities) in addition to the traditional crash factors. Recognizing the rarity of crash occurrence in
6 NDS data, the research employs a matched case-control approach for preparing the estimation
7 sample. The study also conducts an extensive comparison of different case to control ratios
8 including 1:4, 1:9, 1:14, 1:19, and 1:29. The model parameters estimated with these control ratios
9 are reasonably similar (except for the constant). Employing the 1:9 sample, a multi-level random
10 parameters binary logit model was estimated where multiple forms of unobserved variables were
11 tested including (a) common unobserved effects for each case-control panel, (b) common
12 unobserved factors affecting the error margin in the trip distance variable, and (c) random effects
13 for all independent variables. The estimated model was calibrated by modifying the constant
14 parameter to generate a population conforming crash risk model. The calibrated model was
15 employed to predict crash risk of trips not considered in model estimation. This study is a proof of
16 concept that NDS data can be used to predict trip level crash risk and can be used by future
17 researchers to develop crash risk models.

18
19 **Keywords:** NDS data, Crash rarity, Crash risk model; Case-control approach; Unobserved effects.

1 INTRODUCTION

2 Given the significant emotional, economic, and social costs of traffic crashes, “Vision Zero”, a
3 movement in which communities set a goal to eliminate traffic fatalities and severe injuries within
4 a specified timeframe, has been conceptualized (1). Several urban regions - including Orlando,
5 Tampa, New York City, Chicago, Austin, Denver, and Los Angeles - have committed to meeting
6 the goals of the Vision Zero movement (1). A major component of achieving Vision Zero goals
7 includes developing statistical and econometric models to understand the underlying causes of
8 crashes and to identify strategies for crash prevention and crash consequence mitigation.

9 Traditional safety research can be broadly classified along two directions – crash frequency
10 and severity analysis. The first direction of research focuses on understanding the factors
11 contributing to the number of crashes on a facility type in a specific time-period (2; 3; 4). The
12 second direction of research examines factors affecting crash consequence (usually injury severity)
13 conditional on the occurrence of a crash (5; 6; 7). The evolution of the safety field along these two
14 primary research directions is based on how crash data is typically recorded –compiled by police
15 or medical professionals. Traditional crash data has been instrumental in understanding the
16 influence of various factors drawn from driver demographics, vehicle characteristics, roadway
17 characteristics, crash characteristics, environmental factors on crash frequency and severity.
18 However, the data does not allow us to examine the underlying cause of crash. Crash frequency
19 models simply aggregate the crashes on a facility and are useful to examine the role of roadway
20 environment in affecting crashes. On the other hand, the crash severity models focus on the crash
21 consequence without having any information on the trip that resulted in the crash. As previously
22 stated, this limitation is mainly a consequence of the absence of such detailed trip data.

23 The paradigm of crash data collection however can potentially undergo a significant
24 change with the advent of Naturalistic Driving Studies (NDS). Naturalistic driving data is obtained
25 from drivers willing to participate in a data collection exercise through a host of sensors that are
26 placed in vehicles recording driver behavior (such as on-task behavior, eye movement) and their
27 actions (such as speed, acceleration) in real time. The first large scale NDS was conducted in the
28 Northern Virginia and Washington D.C. area monitoring 100 cars for about a year (8). More
29 recently, another naturalistic driving study titled the Second Strategic Highway Research Program
30 (SHRP2) was conducted, with over 3,500 participants from six data collection sites across the
31 United States, recording 1,951 crashes and 6,956 near-crashes (9). The ability to record trips
32 involving crashes alongside those that do not include crashes allows researchers to compare driver
33 behaviors and environmental factors in crash and non-crash trips and identify those factors that are
34 more frequent in crash trips. In this study a trip starts when the car is turned on and ends when the
35 car turns off. The NDS data allows for understanding the underlying timeline of the crash and
36 account for driver behavior (as opposed to simply focusing on driver demographics). Thus, using
37 NDS data, in theory, analysts can understand crash occurrence (yes/no at a trip level) and crash
38 consequence (for trips involved in a crash) as a disaggregate event.

39 In this context, the current study makes two important contributions to safety literature.
40 First, we present a framework to employ NDS data to understand and predict crash risk at a
41 disaggregate trip level accommodating for the influence of trip characteristics (such as trip
42 distance, trip proportion by speed limit, trip proportion on urban/rural facilities) in addition to the
43 traditional crash factors. Second, we employ a rigorous case-control study design for
44 understanding trip level crash risk. NDS data collection is not primarily geared towards
45 understanding potential crash occurrence and/or severity. Given the rarity of crashes, even an
46 exhaustive exercise as SHRP2 produced only 1,951 crash events from 5,512,900 trips (10). Hence,

1 trips with crashes represent only a small sample of the trips database. A binary outcome model of
2 crash risk – whether a trip will result in a crash or not – will be extremely challenging to estimate
3 with the small sample share. The sample share challenge observed in the trip level crash risk has
4 been documented in transportation safety literature in the context of crash/near crash events in
5 naturalistic driving studies (See Guo, 2019 (11) for a detailed review) and real-time crash risk
6 models developed in safety literature (12; 13). The current research will draw on earlier case-
7 control literature in transportation safety to customize the case control study design for our
8 analysis.

9 **EARLIER RESEARCH**

10 Our review of earlier research focused on two dimensions: (1) studies employing naturalistic
11 driving data to draw insights on factors affecting crash occurrence and (2) research methods
12 employed for analysis.

13
14 Several studies have employed naturalistic data for safety analysis. The most commonly
15 employed NDS datasets include 100-Car NDS (14; 15) or the SHRP2 NDS (16; 17; 18). The
16 dimensions affecting crash /near crash risk examined in these NDS studies include various driver
17 behaviors such as driver inattention (14; 16), glance behavior (19), aggressive/risky driving and
18 speeding (15; 20; 21; 22) and secondary task involvement (18; 23). Studies using NDS data have
19 also examined crash/near crash risk based on driver characteristics such as age (22; 24) and history
20 of sleep disorders (25). Studies have also considered non-driver related factors such as lighting
21 conditions (23), pavement surface condition (23), and vehicle kinematics (26). Apart from the two
22 major NDS studies, a small number of studies examined role of driver actions in crash/near crash
23 events for commercial drivers (27), and influence of behavioral and environmental factors present
24 prior to a crash for teenage drivers (28).

25 Analysis of NDS data is conducted using two main types of case-control study designs: (a)
26 case-cohort design and (b) case-crossover design (11). In the case-cohort design, control periods
27 are randomly selected for each driver proportional to their driving time or mileage. In the case-
28 crossover design, controls for an event are selected using the same subject to account for subject
29 specific confounding factors. The analysis framework for crash/near crash event is the logistic
30 regression model. However, to accommodate for the unobserved factors associated with the same
31 driver or other common elements, multi-level random parameter logit regression approaches are
32 employed. An important element of discussion in case-control study design is the ratio of cases
33 and controls. Mittleman et al., 1995 (29) suggested a 1:4 ratio for case-crossover studies. Most of
34 the existing literature in safety employ a ratio ranging from 1:1 to 1:10. However, it is important
35 that an examination of stable ratio of cases and controls is conducted for each empirical context.
36 Furthermore, even if the parameters are unbiased, model estimates from case-control studies
37 cannot be used to calculate risk directly without employing corrections for the constant (see Zhang
38 and Kai, 1998 (30) for a detailed discussion). The case-control model outputs can only be used to
39 calculate the odds ratio (31). The application of case-control model outputs is limited without the
40 constant correction. In summary, the current study develops a case-cohort study design for trip
41 level crash risk analysis. We will rigorously examine the impact of control group sample size on
42 the variable parameters and identify an appropriate case to control ratio for our analysis. The
43 proposed model for the estimation will also accommodate for the presence of any unobserved
44 factors on trip level crash risk. It is possible that all the control group records matched with the
45 case might have some common unobserved factors influencing crash risk. To accommodate for
46 this potential unobserved heterogeneity, a multi-level random parameters binary logit model

1 structure is employed in our analysis. The estimated model system is used to generate crash risk
 2 for a hold-out sample of data records by correcting the estimated case-cohort model for the general
 3 trip population.

4 **DATA PREPARATION**

5 The data for our analysis is drawn from the SHRP2 NDS data. The data provided information on
 6 1,951 trips that resulted in a crash and a random sample of 1,000,000 trips with no crash (from the
 7 full sample of 5.5 million trips). The data included trip data (such as start and end time, day of
 8 week, facility types and speeds, max acceleration and deceleration), driver demographics (such as
 9 age, gender, education, income, and average annual mileage), crash event details (such as location
 10 details, collision type, crash severity, driver impairments, and weather). The list of variables
 11 examined in our study is summarized in Table 1. Several variables, such as total travel time,
 12 departure time of the trip, and the day of the week, were excluded from consideration due to a
 13 large number of missing data points for those variables. Among the 1,951 trips resulting in a crash,
 14 814 of those crashes were categorized as “low risk tire strike” and were excluded from the analysis,
 15 leaving 1,137 crashes to be analyzed. After further filtering the data, removing trips that had
 16 missing driver or trip information, we ended up with 928 trips resulting in a crash and 714,579
 17 trips with no crash.
 18
 19

20 **TABLE 1: Summary of SHRP2 NDS Variables**

Categorical Variables					
Variable Name	Variable Description	Share of Category			
Age 16-19	Driver age is between 16 and 19	0.023			
Age 20-24	Driver age is between 20 and 24	0.064			
Age 25-29	Driver age is between 25 and 29	0.081			
Age 30-74	Driver age is between 30 and 74	0.758			
Age > 74	Driver age is greater than 74	0.074			
Avg. annual miles < 10,000	Driver average annual mileage of less than 10,000 mi/yr	0.229			
Avg. annual miles 10,000 to 25,000	Driver average annual mileage between 10,000 and 25,000 mi/yr	0.637			
Avg. annual miles > 25,000	Driver average annual mileage of greater than 25,000 mi/yr	0.134			
Full-time worker	Driver is full time worker	0.480			
Part-time worker	Driver is part time worker	0.190			
Not working outside the home	Driver does not work outside the home	0.330			
Male	Driver is male	0.490			
Female	Driver is female	0.510			
Previous Crash	Driver has been in a crash in the last 3 years	0.260			
No Previous Crash	Driver has not been in a crash in the last 3 years	0.740			
Continuous Variables					
Variable Name	Variable Description	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Dev.
Years driving	Number of years driver has been driving	0	74	33.132	17.732

Distance	Straight line distance in miles between the start point and the end point of the trip	0	577.135	7.531	14.869
Percent Rural	Percentage of the trip on rural roads	0	1	0.105	0.196
Percent Urban	Percentage of the trip on urban roads	0	1	0.550	0.285
Percent < 30 mph	Percentage of the trip where the speed was < 30 mph	0	1	0.388	0.313
Percent > 70 mph	Percentage of the trip where the speed was > 70 mph	0	1	0.018	0.089
Mean MPH	Mean speed of the vehicle in mph over the full trip	0	88.487	28.630	12.276
Max MPH	Maximum speed of the vehicle in mph	0	93.206	46.879	17.558
Max acceleration	Maximum longitudinal acceleration value during the trip	-1.367	3.210	0.287	0.096
Max deceleration	Maximum longitudinal deceleration value during the trip	-3.466	0.620	-0.325	0.111
Max lateral accel.	Maximum lateral acceleration value during the trip	-0.238	3.483	0.381	0.131
Max turn rate	Maximum turn rate during the trip	344.057	399.990	26.673	10.216

1 Case Control Design

2 In case-control studies, *case* outcomes of interest (trips with a crash) are matched with a select
3 number of *control* outcomes (trips without a crash). In our study we adopt the matched case-control
4 approach. We selected the independent variables driver age, driver gender, and trip distance within
5 a 20% margin for our matching exercise. With these criteria, we did not find enough controls for
6 a small sample of crash trips. Hence, we restricted our analyses to 914 crash trips (cases). For
7 testing different case to control ratios, we create samples with the following case to control ratios
8 1:4, 1:9, 1:14, 1:19 and 1:29.

9

10 EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

11

12 Parameter Variation Across Various Samples

13 The first part of our model development exercise was focused on parameter variability across the
14 various samples. The binary logistic model was estimated for the largest sample testing several
15 variable specifications based on the variables described in the data preparation section. After a
16 final specification was obtained for the 1:29 sample, the specification was estimated across all
17 other samples. The final specification of the model was based on removing the statistically
18 insignificant variables in a systematic manner based on the 90% confidence level. A summary of
19 the model estimates across all control samples is presented in Table 2. A cursory examination of
20 the parameters indicates reasonable agreement across all samples. The reader would note that the

1 constant parameter across all models varies substantially. The variation across the constant
 2 parameter reflects the case to control sample share in the sample. Therefore, as the case to control
 3 ratio reduces, a reduction in the magnitude of the constant parameter is observed. While this is
 4 quite encouraging, the visual comparison does not indicate if the difference across parameters for
 5 all the samples is within statistically acceptable levels.

6
 7 **TABLE 2: Crash Risk Estimates**

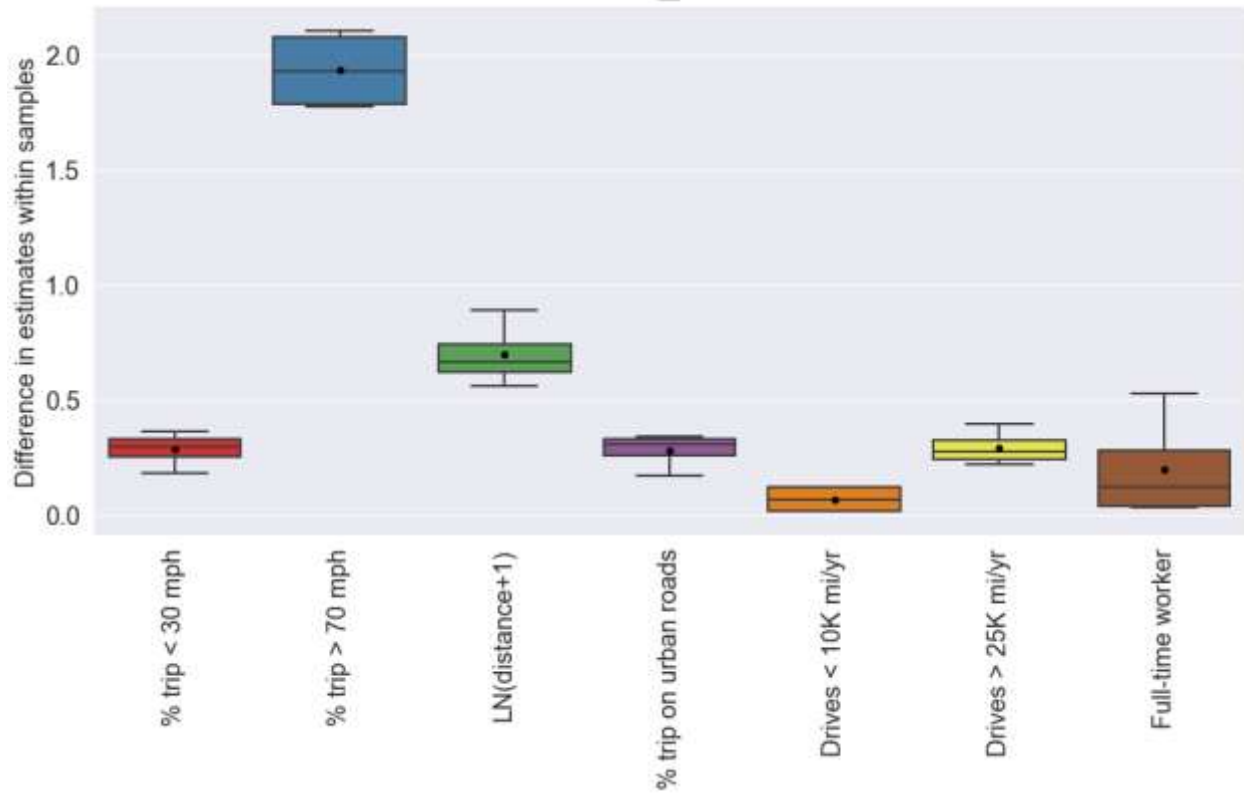
Parameters	1:4 Ratio	1:9 Ratio	1:14 Ratio	1:19 Ratio	1:29 Ratio
Constant	-1.589 (0.174)	-2.390 (0.164)	-2.816 (0.160)	-3.144 (0.159)	-3.533 (0.152)
Trip Variables					
% Trip < 30 mph	0.383 (0.191)	0.352* (0.180)	0.3414* (0.176)	0.363 (0.176)	0.429 (0.167)
% Trip > 70 mph	-0.792 (0.375)	-0.621* (0.348)	-0.606* (0.337)	-0.698 (0.336)	-0.004** (0.004)
Ln(Distance + 1)	0.170 (0.057)	0.144 (0.053)	0.149 (0.052)	0.153 (0.052)	0.103 (0.049)
% Trip on urban roads	-0.54 (0.14)	-0.51 (0.13)	-0.54 (0.13)	-0.53 (0.13)	-0.48 (0.12)
Driver Demographics					
Drives < 10,000 mi/yr	0.384 (0.081)	0.384 (0.076)	0.398 (0.075)	0.398 (0.074)	0.386 (0.073)
Drives > 25,000 mi/yr	0.362 (0.121)	0.388 (0.114)	0.364 (0.111)	0.372 (0.110)	0.326 (0.109)
Full-time worker	-0.257 (0.082)	-0.178 (0.078)	-0.204 (0.076)	-0.196 (0.076)	-0.199 (0.075)

8 * Variable insignificant at 95% significance level; ** Variable insignificant at 90% significance level
 9

10 To compare the parameters across the models, we employ the 1:29 control sample as the
 11 benchmark and evaluate if the parameters for other models are statistically different relative to this
 12 sample. Towards making the comparison, a revised Wald test statistic relative to the 1:29 sample
 13 is generated as follows:

$$14 \text{ Parameter test statistic} = \text{abs} \left[\frac{(\text{sample parameter} - \text{population benchmark})}{\sqrt{SE_{\text{sample}}^2 + SE_{\text{population}}^2}} \right]$$

15 If the parameter test statistic computed is higher than the 90% t-statistic, the result would indicate
 16 significant difference across the parameters. Employing the above test statistic computation,
 17 revised t-statistics for all the parameters across all sample are computed. Figure 1 provides a box
 18 plot summary of the variations across samples for all parameters. The figure clearly highlights the
 19 range of the test statistic across all the parameters is quite narrow and exceeds the 90% significance
 20 only for one parameter. The parameter for “percentage of the trip at speeds greater than 70 mph”
 21 presents a range higher than the 90% confidence value of 1.65. This was not surprising given the
 22 variable was only marginally significant in the 1:29 control sample. We still retained the variable
 23 as it was intuitive. Given the stability across all samples, we selected the 1:9 control sample for
 24 further analysis and discussion.



1 **FIGURE 1: Test Statistics (t-statistics) for Parameter Estimates Across Samples for each**
 2 **Variable**

4 Methodological Framework

5 Employing the 1:9 sample, a multi-level random parameters binary logit model was estimated. A
 6 brief mathematical description of the multi-level random parameters model follows:

7 Let $q(q = 1, 2, 3, \dots, m; M = 10)$ represents the index for different samples for each
 8 stratum i (each case-control panel of 10 records). With this notation, the formulation takes the
 9 following familiar form:

$$11 v_{iq}^* = \{(\alpha + \gamma_{iq})z_{iq} + \varepsilon_{iq} + \varrho_{iq}\}, v_{iq} = 1, \text{ if } v_{iq}^* > 0; v_{iq} = 0, \text{ otherwise} \quad (1)$$

12 where, v_{iq}^* represents the propensity for crash occurrence for sample q in stratum i ; v_{iq}^* is 1 if
 13 sample specific to a given stratum indicates crash and 0 otherwise. z_{iq} is a vector attributes
 14 associated with sample q in stratum i and α is the vector of corresponding mean effects. γ_{iq} is a
 15 vector of unobserved factors affecting probability of crash occurrence. ε_{iq} is an idiosyncratic error
 16 term assumed to be identically and independently standard logistic distributed. ϱ_{iq} is a vector of
 17 unobserved effects specific to stratum i . As highlighted earlier, within each stratum i , we matched
 18 1 crash with 9 non-crash samples based on some similar characteristics including driver age, driver
 19 gender, and trip distance within a 20% margin. Therefore, there will be some common unobserved
 20 factors across the samples, and we capture such correlation using ϱ_{iq} . Further, as we used 20%
 21 margin for trip distance to match crash: non-crash, it is quite possible that the correlation across
 22 the samples might vary based on this margin. To be specific, sample with lower trip distance
 23

1 margin (let's say 0-5%) might exhibit stronger correlation in comparison to the sample with higher
 2 margins (like 20%). Hence, as opposed to fixing the correlation, we allow it to vary across samples
 3 by parameterizing the q_{iq} term as a function of trip distance margin as follows:

$$4 \quad q_{iq} = \beta + \eta * \text{trip distance margin} \quad (2)$$

6 where, β (constant) and η are vectors of unknown parameters to be estimated. In estimating the
 7 model, it is necessary to specify the structure for the unobserved vectors γ and q represented by
 8 Ω . In this paper, it is assumed that these elements are drawn from independent normal distribution:
 9 $\Omega \sim N(0, (\pi'^2, \Phi^2))$. Thus, the equation system for modeling the probability of crash takes the
 10 following form (conditional on Ω):

$$13 \quad P_{iq} = p((v_{iq}^*) | (\Omega)) = \frac{\exp\{(\alpha + \gamma_{iq})z_{iq} + \varepsilon_{iq} + q_{iq}\}}{1 + \exp\{(\alpha + \gamma_{iq})z_{iq} + \varepsilon_{iq} + q_{iq}\}} \quad (3)$$

14 The corresponding probability for non-crash is computed as

$$16 \quad Q_{iq} = 1 - P_{iq} \quad (4)$$

17 Further, conditional on Ω , the joint probability L_i for each stratum i can be expressed as:

$$19 \quad L_i = \int \left[\prod_{q=1}^M \{(P_{iq})^{v_{iq}} * (Q_{iq})^{(1-v_{iq})}\} \right] f(\Omega) d\Omega \quad (5)$$

20 As the integral defined in Equation (5) cannot be analytically estimated, we employ the
 21 maximum simulated estimation approach. The simulation technique approximates the likelihood
 22 function in Equation (5) by computing the L_i for each stratum i at different realizations drawn
 23 from a normal distribution, and averaging it over the different realizations (see (32) for detail). For
 24 instance, if DL_i is the realization of the likelihood function in the c^{th} draw ($c = 1, 2, \dots, C$), then
 25 the simulated log-likelihood function is as follows:

$$LL = \sum L_n \left(\frac{1}{C} \sum_{c=1}^C (DL_i) \right) \quad (6)$$

26 The parameters to be estimated in the model are: $\alpha, \gamma, q, \beta, \eta, \pi$ and Φ . To estimate the
 27 proposed model, we apply Quasi-Monte Carlo simulation techniques based on the scrambled
 28 Halton sequence with C set to 150 (see (33; 34) for examples of Quasi-Monte Carlo approaches in
 29 literature). We tested the model with higher C values and found the model estimation was stable.
 30 We estimate this model using GAUSS matrix programming language.

31

32 **Model Results**

33 The model estimates are presented in Table 3. A discussion of the model results follows.

1 **TABLE 3: Multi-Level Random Parameters Binary Logit Model Results**

Parameters	Estimate (std. err.)	T-Statistic
Constant	-2.589 (0.179)	-14.493
Trip Variables		
% Trip < 30 mph	0.515 (0.196)	2.631
% Trip > 70 mph	-0.525 (0.425)**	-1.236
Ln(Distance + 1)	0.194 (0.059)	3.295
% Trip on urban roads	-0.51 (0.15)	-3.428
Driver Demographics		
Drives < 10,000 mi/yr	0.457 (0.088)	5.197
Drives > 25,000 mi/yr	0.466 (0.141)	3.310
Full-time worker	-3.340 (2.193)*	-1.523
Full-time worker random effect	3.634 (1.777)	2.045

2 * Variable insignificant at 95% significance level; ** Variable insignificant at 85% significance level

3
4 *Trip level characteristics*

5 The trip distance parameter was calculated as the natural log of the straight-line distance of the trip
6 plus one. As the distance increases the crash risk associated also increases, highlighting that
7 increased exposure to driving results in an increased risk of a crash. The percentage of trip in a
8 speed category was tested in the model and offered interesting results. We employed the
9 percentage of trip between 30 and 70 mph as the base category. The parameter results indicate that
10 as the percentage of the trip under 30 mph increases, the risk associated with a trip resulting in a
11 crash increases. On the other hand, when the percentage of trip over 70 mph increases, the crash
12 risk for the trip reduces. The reader would note that the percentages by speed categories are likely
13 to interact and hence determining the net magnitude of the variable impact is not straightforward.
14 In the model we considered rural and other roads as the base category and found that as the
15 proportion of a trip on urban roads increases, the risk of a crash decreases. The result could be
16 highlighting potential driver alertness in urban conditions as traffic conflicts are expected.

17
18 *Driver characteristics*

19 We also examined driver annual mileage as a predictor of crash risk. The variable was categorized
20 into 3 groups and the 10,000 to 25,000 range was considered as the base. The model estimates
21 indicate that drivers in the lower range (<10,000) and the higher range (>25,000) are at a higher
22 risk relative to the drivers in the normal range (10,000 – 25,000). It is also interesting to note that
23 the magnitude of the impacts for lower and higher mileage ranges are reasonably close. We
24 examined if the employment status had an impact on crash risk. The model parameter for full-time
25 worker indicates these drivers are less at risk compared to others.

26
27 *Panel and Random effects*

28 The model estimation process considered multiple forms of unobserved variables. These include:
29 (a) common unobserved effects for each case-control panel of 10 records, (b) common unobserved
30 factors affecting the error margin in the trip distance variable, and (c) random effects for all
31 independent variables. Among these parameters tested only one random effect parameter offered
32 statistically significant result. The result related to full-time worker offered a significant variation
33 indicating that while full-time workers are likely to experience a lower crash risk on average there
34 is substantial variation in the actual reduction. In fact, the result indicates that among full-time

1 drivers, about 82.1% of the time, the crash risk associated will be lower while for the remaining
 2 17.9% of the time crash risk can increase.

3

4 **MODEL APPLICATION**

5 In order for this model to be applied, corrections would need to be made to the constant to match
 6 the actual crash to no crash ratio in the general trip population. In the study we tested crash to no
 7 crash ratios of 1:4, 1:9, 1:14, 1:19, and 1:29, but for the full dataset the crash to no crash ratio was
 8 1:4,850. In order to calculate this, we adjusted the constant for random effect model so that the
 9 probability of a crash would match the 1:4,850 ratio of 0.0002. The resulting calibrated model
 10 parameter for the constant was -8.5527. This model was then tested on a sample dataset of 4,500
 11 randomly selected non-crash trips that had not been used in previous modeling and 500 randomly
 12 selected crash trips that were previously used for modeling. Reusing crash trips was necessary due
 13 to the limited number of crash trips available. A comparison of the results for the original and
 14 calibrated models is shown in Table 4. The results in table 4 clearly indicate that the calibrated
 15 model captures the true ratio of crash to no crash trips.

16

17 **TABLE 4: Comparison of Model Predictions for Crash and No Crash Testing Datasets**

	Original Random Effect Model	Calibrated Random Effect Model
Probability of crash using 500 crash trip testing set	0.0534	0.0002
Probability of no crash using 4,500 no crash trip testing set	0.9466	0.9998

18 **CONCLUSION**

19 Traditional crash data has been instrumental in understanding the influence of various factors
 20 drawn from driver demographics, vehicle characteristics, roadway characteristics, crash
 21 characteristics, environmental factors on crash frequency and severity. However, we still have
 22 challenges to truly understand the underlying cause of the crash as several important information
 23 including characteristics of the trip (trip proportion on different facilities: speed limit, roadway
 24 functional class), behavior (like eye movement) and action of the driver (actual speed of the
 25 vehicle) at the time of crash are often missing from the dataset. To that extent, the current research
 26 effort adopted the Second Strategic Highway Research Program (SHRP2) naturalistic driving
 27 study data (NDS), a detailed database recording real time information for both crash and non-crash
 28 trips, to understand and predict the risk of crash occurrence at the finest resolution (trip level). As
 29 opposed to focusing on driver demographics, the NDS data allows us to truly understand the
 30 underlying timeline of the crash and account for driver behavior in the event of the crash. However,
 31 a limitation associated with NDS data is its' rarity in crash sample relative to non-crash samples
 32 (<0.01 %). Estimating a binary outcome model for such rarity will be extremely challenging.
 33 Hence, the current study employs a rigorous case-control study design for understanding trip level
 34 crash risk.

35 For the case-control design, trips with a crash are matched with non-crash trips based on
 36 three common matching variables including driver age, driver gender, and trip distance within a
 37 20% margin. Further, we vary the number of controls in the case-control design starting from 4 to
 38 29 (to be specific, 1:4, 1:9, 1:14, 1:19 and 1:29) and conduct a revised Wald test statistic test to
 39 check for the parameter consistency across the samples. Specifically, we employ the 1:29 control

1 sample as the population benchmark and evaluate if the parameters for other models are
2 statistically different or not. The result clearly highlights the stability in parameter estimates across
3 the samples and hence, we restrict to the 1:9 case-control ratio for further analysis. In particular,
4 employing the 1:9 sample, a multi-level random parameters binary logit model was estimated
5 while considering a comprehensive list of factors including trip characteristics (like day of week,
6 facility types, max acceleration and deceleration), driver demographics (age, gender, income) and
7 crash level factors (location, collision type, driver impairments, and weather). The model findings
8 clearly illustrate the significant impact of several variables on the crash risk propensity including
9 trip distance, trip proportion of different speed limit roads and facilities, driver's driving
10 characteristics and employment status. Further, the proposed model also accommodates for the
11 presence of several unobserved factors on trip level crash risk with respect to correlation and
12 random effects. However, we only find one random effect parameter offered statistically
13 significant result for the full-time worker variable. The result indicates that among drivers
14 employed full time, about 82.1% of the time, the crash risk associated with a trip will be lower
15 while for the remaining 17.9% of the time crash risk associated with a trip can increase. The
16 analysis is further augmented by conducting a prediction exercise on a hold-out sample of data
17 records that is not used for model estimation. However, prior to generating the prediction, we
18 calibrate the constant of the model to generate a population conforming crash risk model. Findings
19 from the prediction exercise further reinforces the applicability of the model.

20 The study is not without limitation. The case-control design adopted in the study focused
21 on matching the crashes with non-crashes based on three common attributes. However, there is
22 scope to create multiple case-control designs considering different set of common factors such as,
23 trip spend on different facilities (rural/urban), trip spend on different speed limit and other
24 exogenous variables. It will be really interesting to see if the result varies across these different
25 experimental designs. Exploring these characterizations is an avenue for future research. Finally,
26 recent advances in rare event literature to study skewed outcome contexts is also an avenue of
27 research to address potential bias in binary logit model estimation for skewed samples (see (35;
28 36; 37)).

29 This study contributed to safety research in two important ways. First, we presented a
30 framework to employ NDS data to understand and predict crash risk at a disaggregate trip level
31 accommodating for the influence of trip characteristics as well as traditional crash factors. Second,
32 we employed a rigorous case control study design for understanding trip level crash risk. In the
33 future, this research can serve as the foundation for safety researchers to employ SHRP2 and future
34 NDS data for understanding and predicting crash risk.

35

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40

41 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION**

42 The authors confirm contribution to the paper as follows: study conception and design: Naveen
43 Eluru, Tanmoy Bhowmik, Shamsunnahar Yasmin; data collection: Lauren Hoover, Tanmoy
44 Bhowmik and Naveen Eluru; model estimation and validation: Lauren Hoover, Tanmoy Bhowmik,
45 Naveen Eluru; analysis and interpretation of results: Lauren Hoover, Tanmoy Bhowmik, Naveen
46 Eluru,; draft manuscript preparation: Lauren Hoover, Tanmoy Bhowmik, Naveen Eluru, ,

1 Shamsunnahar Yasmin. All authors reviewed the results and approved the final version of the
2 manuscript.

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