

1 **Exploring Regional Differences in Cyclist Safety at Roundabouts: A Comparative**
2 **Study between the UK (based on Northumbria data) and Belgium**

3 Nurten Akgün^{a*}, Stijn Daniels^b, Margaret Carol Bell^c, Nina Nuyttens^b, Neil Thorpe^c, Dilum
4 Dissanayake^c

5 ^aFaculty of Engineering and Natural Sciences, Bursa Technical University, Bursa 16330, Turkey

6 ^bVias Institute Brussels, Belgium

7 ^cSchool of Engineering, Cassie Building, Newcastle University, Newcastle upon Tyne NE1 7RU, UK

8 *Corresponding author

9 * nurten.akgun@btu.edu.tr

10

11 **Abstract**

12 The level of safety for cyclists at roundabouts may vary according to national differences not only in the
13 design itself but also sociodemographic, cyclist and driver behaviour as well as environmental factors.
14 This paper investigates the national influence on cyclist casualty severity at roundabouts by comparing
15 the United Kingdom (using Northumbria as a representative sample) and Belgium. The data included
16 speed limits, socio-demographic characteristics, environmental conditions and driver/cyclist behaviour-
17 related contributory factors. First, a logistic regression analysis for the UK data, including 864 cyclist
18 casualties, was carried out. Increasing the speed limit by ten units (for example 30mph to 40mph)
19 increased the probability of a cyclist being killed or seriously injured by 10%. A cyclist casualty was more
20 than three times more likely to be killed or seriously injured (the odds ratio is 3.02) where sudden braking
21 was recorded as a contributory factor. Second, a separate logistic regression analysis for Belgium was
22 conducted. Cyclists ignoring the priority at roundabouts increased the probability of a fatal or seriously
23 injured collisions (the odds ratio is 2.71). Comparing the individual analysis for both countries, the

24 influence of cyclist age was consistent. Each one-year increase in cyclist age increases chance of being
25 killed or seriously injured as opposed to not being killed or seriously injured by 2% (odds ratio is 1.02) in
26 both UK and Belgium. A final comparative analysis was applied considering proxy variables for both
27 countries. Three-way chi-square tests of independence showed that all non-behavioural variables (i.e.
28 sociodemographic characteristics, speed limit, and environmental conditions) were found to be
29 statistically different between UK and Belgium for both slight and killed and seriously injured casualties.
30 This suggests that driver/cyclist interaction and behaviour in the two countries is generally similar whilst
31 speed limits, the sociodemographic characteristics of cyclists and environmental conditions are specific
32 for each country. The third part of the logistic regression analysis suggested that the country residual was
33 highly statistically significant. This indicates that there are some statistically significant differences with
34 respect to the characteristics of the two regional datasets used in the analysis.

35 Keywords: Cyclist safety; Roundabout; Contributory factors; Three-way chi-square, Multilevel logistic
36 regression

37 **1. Introduction**

38 Roundabouts alter or eliminate conflict points between road users (Montella, 2011) and vehicles are forced
39 to reduce their speed by provided deflection (Gross *et al.*, 2013; Silvano and Linder, 2017). Therefore,
40 they are generally regarded as safer intersections for motor vehicle drivers compared to priority or
41 signalised junctions (Montella, 2011). However, high level of safety does not exist for cyclists. For
42 example, Daniels *et al.* (2008) indicated a 27% increase in collisions involving cyclists after the
43 conversion of intersections into roundabouts. De Brabander and Vereeck (2007) compared safety at
44 roundabouts and signal-controlled intersections and concluded that roundabouts protect vulnerable users
45 less effectively than signalised intersections.

46 Cycling has journey-specific benefits such as being a fast door to door travel mode in urban areas (Parkin,
47 2018). However, many people still hesitate to cycle in daily life due to safety concerns (Campisi *et al.*,
48 2020). This is a barrier to increasing the number of people cycling and realising the benefits of cycling on
49 health, to the environment and economic perspectives. This issue has been a motivation for previous
50 studies (Hels and Orozova-Bekkevold, 2007; Møller and Hels, 2008; Daniels *et al.*, 2009; Sakshaug *et al.*,
51 2010; Silvano *et al.*, 2015; Jensen, 2017), which provided recommendations for policy makers and design
52 engineers to improve safety for cyclists. However, there is a difference in design dimensions and human
53 behaviour related factors in each country (Tollazzi, 2015). Therefore, a comparative analysis including
54 important contributors (i.e. design, environmental and human related variables) should be investigated in
55 detail to keep encouraging people to cycle (Akgün *et al.*, 2018).

56 The research reported in this paper identifies country based influence on the relative contribution of the
57 variables (including speed limit, the sociodemographic characteristics of cyclists involved in casualties,
58 environmental conditions and driver behaviour related contributory factors) on the severity of cyclist
59 casualties with the focus on give-way roundabouts with mixed traffic. This comparison is carried out to
60 develop a richer understanding of cyclist casualties by introducing an international dimension. The
61 research questions in this paper are therefore as follows:

- 62 1. What are the relative contributions of key variables to the severity of cyclist casualties?
- 63 2. To what extent does the national differences with regards to the associated data influence the regression
64 analysis for different countries? and
- 65 3. Does the interpretation of the results have a meaning for another country with a different
66 driving/cycling behaviour, roundabout design and environmental conditions?

67 Section 2 presents a critical state of the art review on cyclist safety at roundabouts followed in Section 3
68 by the modelling techniques adopted to investigate the National Influence. A wide range of statistical
69 methods used in previous studies are assembled to determine the most appropriate comprehensive set of
70 analytical and prediction methods. Section 4 covers the analytical steps adopted in this research including
71 data collection, descriptive analysis is presented. Next in Section 5 the actual data analysis and the results
72 are presented. Section 6 discusses the results before Section 7 elaborates on the limitations before the
73 final section 8 where conclusions are drawn.

74 **2. A Critical State of the Art Review for Cyclist Safety at Roundabouts**

75 Converting signalised and priority junctions to give-way roundabouts increases the capacity of an
76 intersection generating environmental benefits such as lower emissions due to less queuing and improved
77 safety for vehicle drivers (Akgün, 2019). This has led to a wide range of applications of roundabouts with
78 numbers rising every day. Despite the advantages of roundabouts, they are less safe for cyclists compared
79 to vehicle drivers (De Brabander and Vereeck, 2007; Daniels *et al.*, 2010; Daniels *et al.*, 2011; Polders *et*
80 *al.*, 2014; Jensen, 2017). Daniels *et al.* (2008) found that fatal and serious injury for cyclists increased by
81 41-46% after roundabout construction. The concern over the safety of cyclists at roundabouts has led to a
82 considerable amount of research in this area.

83 The main factors governing higher numbers of collisions and more severe injuries for cyclists are
84 identified as higher speed and speed related geometric design parameters of a roundabout (Akgün *et al.*,
85 2018). Silva *et al.* (2014) stated that roundabouts have a significant impact on speed reduction by
86 approximately 30% (between 26% and 37%) and the impact area was between 400m and 500m. One of
87 the reasons for the higher collision probability for cyclists is the inconsistency in speed reduction

88 behaviour of drivers on approach and at entry locations of roundabouts (Austroads, 2009). 80% of all
89 collisions occur while circulating and or at the entry locations of roundabouts (Polders *et al.*, 2014).

90 In addition, the most common type of collision for cyclists at roundabouts occurs when the cyclist is
91 circulating and a motor vehicle is entering the junction (Davies *et al.*, 1997; Rasanen and Summala, 2000).
92 According to Davies *et al.* (1997) the reason for this type of collision is drivers' lack of awareness and
93 subsequent failure to yield to cyclists already on the roundabout. Instead, drivers tend to focus on
94 positioning their vehicle and negotiating other vehicles, taking less notice of the smaller dangers such as
95 cyclists present on the roundabout. This theory is supported by evidence that cyclist collision rates at
96 roundabouts are lower when cyclist volume is low (Davies *et al.*, 1997).

97 Arnold *et al.* (2010) stated that 32% of cyclists feel uncomfortable at roundabouts and 25% of cyclists
98 reported changing their routes to avoid using them. Davies *et al.* (1997) also found that cyclists avoided
99 using roundabouts due to safety concerns Arnold *et al.* (2010) concluded that traffic considerations were
100 less important than land use, connectivity and directness which means that safety studies also should
101 consider other variables, such as behaviour related contributory factors, in addition to traffic issues.
102 Cyclists avoiding roundabouts means they use less direct routes, with longer journeys and in turn presents
103 a barrier discouraging others to take up cycling. On the other hand, one can argue that this is a good thing
104 because by avoiding less safe locations the collisions figures are kept low.

105 Previous research has been critically reviewed to endorse the research gaps identified and to inform which
106 variables have been found to be important and therefore need to be considered in this research, the results
107 of which are presented later sections of this manuscript. Studies (Rasanen and Summala, 2000; Silvano *et*
108 *al.*, 2015) claimed that the *possible* major factors related to cyclist-vehicle collisions might be driver
109 behaviour and yielding problems. 7-15% of drivers were found not to be aware of cyclists approaching

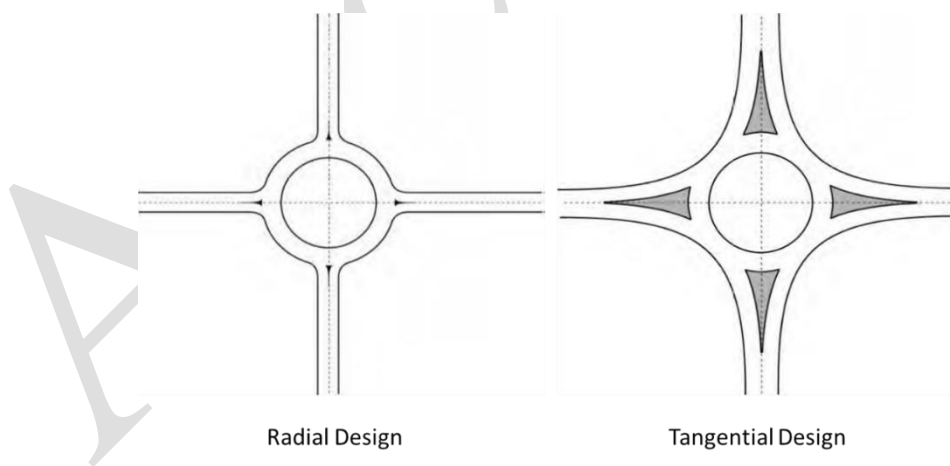
110 from the right (Rasanen and Summala, 2000). The main contributory factor to collisions is that drivers are
111 not looking properly to the right side where cyclists appear unexpectedly (Rasanen and Summala, 2000).
112 Another yielding problem was found to be high approach speed. If a driver's approach speed is higher,
113 their yielding behaviour towards cyclists' decreases. Silvano *et al.* (2015) conversely suggested that cyclist
114 speed has a slight effect on vehicle yielding behaviour. while any increase in vehicle speed causes a sharp
115 decrease in the yielding probability. If the vehicle speed is under 20 km/h, yielding rate is expected to
116 level off. On the other hand, cyclists are often very confident that vehicles will give priority to them;
117 however, this presumption reduces the safety for cyclists. Vehicle driver behaviour has a strong impact
118 on cyclist position at the roundabout Silvano *et al.* (2015).

119 The studies (Rasanen and Summala, 2000; Møller and Hels, 2008; Sakshaug *et al.*, 2010; Silvano *et al.*,
120 2015; Silvano and Linder, 2017) addressed the impact of behaviour and focused on the probability of
121 vehicles' yielding to cyclists. These earlier studies tend to investigate the influence on cyclist casualty
122 severity of either the behaviour of the driver or the rider but nor both perspectives in the same study. Such
123 research appears absent from the literature, possibly because this type of data is not commonly collected
124 nor is it straightforward to collect. The research presented in this paper seeks to address this research gap.

125 A wide range of former studies (Lawton *et al.*, 2003; Hels and Orozova-Bekkevold, 2007; Møller and
126 Hels, 2008; Daniels *et al.*, 2009; Sakshaug *et al.*, 2010; Silvano *et al.*, 2015; Jensen, 2017; Akgün *et al.*,
127 2018) of cyclist safety at roundabouts in different countries, investigated the impacts of contributory
128 factors on either the number of casualties or their severity. However, considering the valid results for
129 different countries independently may not be appropriate because each study focussed on the requirements
130 specific to the design philosophy and dimensions of their own country. Consequently, Tollazi (2015) even

131 argued that a safe design solution in one country might be very dangerous in another. The lack of across
132 country comparative studies was the motivation for the research presented in this manuscript.

133 The designs of roundabouts such as radial (continental Europe) and tangential (UK) structures (See Figure
134 1) may have different impacts on safety. In a radial base design, the arms of the roundabout as their name
135 suggests are defined as radial to the centre. This potentially brings a key advantage in terms of safety from
136 speed reduction due to radial roundabouts having a relatively tight geometry at entry locations compared
137 to tangential roundabouts. However, this has the disadvantage of reduced traffic capacity. Tangential
138 roundabouts are found mainly in the UK, New Zealand and Australia and have arms that are tangential to
139 the centre of the roundabout. Speed reduction is achieved with a deflection at the entry; however, both
140 traffic speed and capacity remain high (Patterson, 2010) as the fundamental principles of the design.
141 Davies *et al.*, (1997) and Lawton *et al.*, (2003) concluded that the tighter geometry in the radial design at
142 approach increases the safety. On the other hand, tangential design, allows a higher capacity but with less
143 safety, particularly for vulnerable users in the circulatory traffic flow, due to the higher entry speed.



144

145

Figure 1 - Radial and Tangential Design of Roundabouts (Patterson, 2010)

146 In addition to the physical design difference, each region may have different sociodemographic and
147 environmental characteristics. It is seen that there has been no comparative study yet which illustrates the

148 regional influence in a developed cyclist casualty severity analysis which also includes a comprehensive
149 set of other variables including geometric design, as well as environment and sociodemographic. With
150 respect to the literature review, several research gaps were identified, namely cyclist casualty severity
151 analysis, influence of speed limit and driver/rider behaviour on casualty severity and investigating the
152 consistency of casualty modelling including different countries. Previous studies did not consider a
153 comparative analysis including a wide range of variables, such as traffic, sociodemographic,
154 environmental and behaviour related contributory factors, all in one model mainly due to issues of data
155 availability. The interpretation of the logistic regressions was very narrow and detailed analysis, such as
156 calculating the margins, was not considered. It is important to address these gaps because cycling is
157 increasing every year in response to local government policy.

158 This paper aims not only to address the research gap in cyclist safety at roundabouts across different
159 geometric designs but also to conduct a novel methodology developed specifically to achieve the
160 objectives. Therefore, the structure of the data, limitations and assumptions of the selected analytical
161 methods need a careful investigation before carrying out the analysis. These modelling techniques are
162 presented in the following section.

163 **3. Modelling Techniques for Investigating National Differences**

164 Descriptive statistics were widely used in former studies (Lawton *et al.*, 2003; Møller and Hels, 2008;
165 Daniels *et al.*, 2010; Daniels *et al.*, 2011; Akgün *et. al.*, 2018) because it is essential to understand the
166 basic features of the data before considering any in-depth analysis. The statistics continue with a test for
167 normality, comparing the sample distribution with a normal distribution (Field, 2009). This is important
168 to ensure the assumptions for a specific modelling technique are met (Ghasemi and Zahediasl, 2012) and
169 non-parametric tests are used as appropriate. There is a common statement in the literature that the

170 Shapiro-Wilk test gives the best result with the highest power compared to other tests (Razali and Wah,
171 2011; Ghasemi and Zahediasl, 2012).

172 In addition to descriptive statistics, cyclist casualty severity related former research applied a wide range
173 of statistical methods such as *correlation analysis* and *dimension reduction* (Akgün *et al.*, 2018);
174 *pearson's chi-square* (Møller and Hels, 2008; Polders *et al.*, 2014), *ANOVA* (Rasanen and Summala,
175 2000), *meta-analysis* (De Brabander and Vereeck, 2007; Daniels *et al.*, 2008; Daniels *et al.*, 2009) and
176 *before and after comparison* (Sakshaug *et al.*, 2010; Arnold *et al.*, 2010). Previous studies also conducted
177 analytical models which were *linear regression* (Møller and Hels, 2008; Daniels *et al.*, 2009), *logistic*
178 *regression* (Hels and Orozova- Bekkevold, 2007; Daniels *et al.*, 2010; Silvano *et al.*, 2015),
179 *poisson/gamma regressions* (Hels and Orozova-Bekkevold, 2007; Daniels *et al.*, 2011), *hierarchical*
180 *binomial logistic regression* (Daniels *et al.*, 2010), and *Empirical Bayes* (Daniels *et al.*, 2009).

181 The analysis of the relationship between two dependent variables is often carried out by testing a null
182 hypothesis such as “A higher speed increases the crash rates”. These kinds of studies need basic statistical
183 methods such as correlation analysis and Pearson’s chi square test rather than a regression model and it is
184 normally applied when the dataset is limited for fitting into a selected regression model (Harrell, 2001).
185 Pearson’s chi-square test is applicable for investigating the impact of each categorical variables
186 individually on cyclist casualties Polders *et al.* (2014). However, whether the analysis has one or more
187 predictors, if fitting a model is a requirement or the aim of the study is investigating the impacts on an
188 outcome, regression models need to be considered.

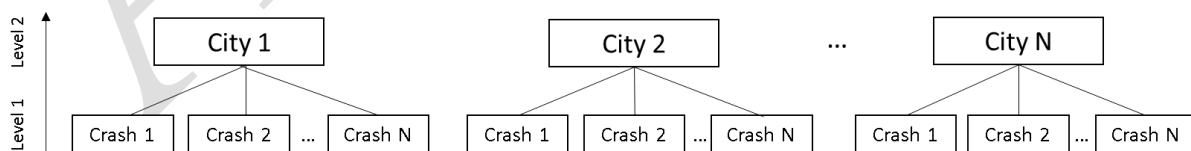
189 The main challenge in data analysis is choosing and using the correct regression model. The appropriate
190 model should analyse the data effectively, align with the whole structure of study aim, be appropriate for
191 further development and be flexible to allow the analysis to be further extended (Harrell, 2001). With

192 respect to the cyclist casualty severity analysis, former research mainly focused on logistic regression and
193 empirical bayes modelling. Logistic regression creates a probability prediction model regarding response
194 and observed variables (Field, 2009), while empirical bayes develops the model by predicting the
195 outcomes by comparing the observed data to prior knowledge in the literature or variation achieved by
196 Monte Carlo Simulation (Efron, 2013). It was observed that the former studies investigated the casualty
197 severity (Daniels *et al.*, 2010; Akgün *et al.*, 2018) or yielding probability (Silvano *et al.*, 2015) by applying
198 logistic regression. In logistic regression, the predicted outcome is the probability of an event (Y)
199 occurring given the predictors of $X_1, X_2 \dots X_i$. Since the probability of an event should be between 0 and
200 1, the predicted outcome Y should be in this interval. If the outcome value Y is close to 0 (Probability~0%)
201 it means that Y is unlikely to occur, meanwhile an outcome close to 1 (Probability~100%) means that Y
202 is likely to occur (Field, 2009). The odds ratio, the ratio of odds of success to odds of failure, (Agresti,
203 2007), is usually used when interpreting the results. The log of odds of the outcome provide the equation
204 of predictors in the logistic regression. There are several types of logistic regression: i) binary logistic
205 regression (two responses 0 and 1, 'yes or no', 'yielded or not yielded' or 'slight or serious'), ii) ordinal
206 logistic regression (with a minimum of three ordered responses) and iii) nominal logistic regression (with
207 multilevel response without ordering) (Field, 2009).

208 The study in this paper aimed to develop a model to investigate the impact of variables (including
209 sociodemographic characteristic of cyclist, environmental conditions, speed limit, and driver/rider
210 behaviour related contributory factors) on cyclist casualty severity at roundabouts. Regarding this aim,
211 Empirical Bayes could not be an option since the aim was not to develop a prediction model based on
212 prior data. Therefore, a logistic regression should be applied.

213 With respect to the predictors, there are two main types of logistic regressions. Simple logistic regression
 214 is the first form with one response and one predictor and multiple logistic regression is the second with
 215 more than one predictor variables. However, there is a limitation for the number of predictor variables in
 216 one multiple logistic regression. Agresti (2007) identified that including too many variables causes poor
 217 standard errors. The minimum limit of 10 events per variable (EPV) was suggested by the early research
 218 (Peduzzi *et al.*, 1996) as a way to restrict the number of variables. Although this limitation was a “*rule of*
 219 *thumb*” in the literature and Ogundimu *et al.* (2016) stated that considering EPV eliminated the bias that
 220 occurs with low prevalence of predictors in a regression model. Therefore, it is highly recommended to
 221 consider the EPV in regression analysis. If there is a need to reduce the number of variables in the model,
 222 (Sperandei, 2013) suggested relaxing p-value criteria. This criterion applies both simple and multiple
 223 logistic regressions when selecting the statistically significant variables at 90% confidence level. The
 224 selected variables should be included in a final multiple logistic regression.

225 In some cases, the data is nested in groups and the response variables (i.e. casualty severity) nested in the
 226 same groups are more likely to function in the same way than response variables nested in a different
 227 group (Sommet and Morselli, 2017) (See Figure 2). For instance, the impact of weather on casualty
 228 severity may be different across cities. In that case, the nested cluster impact in the model occurs and
 229 multilevel logistic regression should be applied (Sommet and Morselli, 2017).



231 *Figure 2 - Multilevel Logistic Regression for Nested Grouped Data*

232 The aim in multilevel logistic regression is to estimate the effect of covariates at a regional (in this study
233 National) level (Li *et al.*, 2011). Previous studies did not consider this type of regression model in their
234 analysis probably because they did not conduct a study which has a large number of nested data in groups
235 as was the case in the research presented in this manuscript. The equation of the multilevel logistic
236 regression (subtype: random intercept model) used to understand the influence of specific variables on
237 cyclist casualties is given below (Steele, 2009):

$$238 \quad \log\left(\frac{\pi_{ij}}{1 - \pi_{ij}}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{ij} + u_j$$

$$239 \quad u_j \sim N(0, \sigma_u^2)$$

240 where:

241 β_0 = the log-odds that $y = 1$ when $x = 0$ and $u = 0$

242 β_1 = the effect on log-odds of one unit increase in x for individuals in same group

243 u_j = is the effect of being in group j on the log-odds that $y = 1$

244 σ_u^2 = is the level 2 (region) variance

245

246

247 **4. Method**

248 The analytical approach is divided into two steps. First, developing individual models for both the UK
249 (Northumbria) and Belgium. A descriptive analysis and Shapiro-Wilk test for normality, using SPSS, were
250 carried out in order to gain a better understanding of the data before interpreting the results. This was
251 followed by a logistic regression analysis using STATA based on relaxing the p-value criterion. A simple
252 linear regression, calculating the predictive margins, were applied in order to interpret the results and
253 develop suggestions for policy makers and design engineers.

254 Secondly, a comparative analysis was carried out including proxy data to equivalence variables collected
255 in Belgium with those that differed in precise nature from those in the UK variables for both countries.
256 Three-way chi square test of independence using SPSS was applied to gain a deeper understanding of the

257 relationship between variables. Simple and multiple multilevel logistic regressions using STATA were
258 carried out to determine the regional estimated variance.

259 Regarding the data availability, the first analysis covered Northumbria region in the north east part of
260 England. Cyclist casualty records (between 2005 and 2016) including the sociodemographic
261 characteristics of each injured cyclist, the prevailing environmental conditions, the speed limit at the
262 collision site and behaviour-related contributory factors were obtained from the CIRTAS database
263 (developed based on Stats19 by Gateshead Council). The second stage of the analysis was conducted to
264 investigate the impact of the variables on cyclist casualty severity recorded in all areas in Belgium. The
265 data for the same period (i.e. 2005-2016) was obtained from VIAS Institute located in Brussels, Belgium.
266 Sociodemographic characteristics of cyclists and environmental conditions were recorded in the same way
267 in both datasets. However, the data recording protocol used in the UK is different to Belgium, descriptors
268 needed to be associated with each other in order to standardise the data across the two countries before
269 carrying out a comparative analysis. In this research the Northumbria data is used as representative of the
270 UK because the required variables across 2005-2016 were not available for other cities. Given that there
271 are stringent government guidelines that are used for the design of roundabouts across the UK, as well as
272 the a standard format STATS19 for recording details of the accidents, it is a reasonable assumption to use
273 Northumbria as representative of the UK. For the remainder of this manuscript the Northumbrian data
274 used in the analysis will be referred to as that of the UK.

275 Speed limit was given in units of kilometres per hour in the Belgium data. Therefore, speeds were
276 converted to miles per hour. Not all variables were collected/defined in the same way. Therefore,
277 reconciliation of the data was carried out to determine variables from the UK which could be considered
278 as equivalent to and therefore proxies for those in the Belgium dataset and vice versa. Four contributory

279 factors that were reconciled with each other for the UK and Belgium are as follows: *Junction overshoot,*
 280 *Poor turn or manoeuvre, Passing too close to cyclists, Loss of control.* The data descriptor and numeric
 281 code were assigned to the cyclist casualty severity, cyclist gender, lighting, weather and road surface
 282 condition. Finally, proxy data was applied in the merged multilevel analysis.

283 The UK data included 729 slight, 133 serious and 2 fatal casualties that occurred between years 2005 and
 284 2016. On the other hand, 8 unharmed, 855 Slight, 60 serious and 1 fatal casualty were recorded in Belgium
 285 during the same period. Due to the low number of unharmed and fatal casualties, slight and unharmed
 286 data were merged as *Slight*; serious and fatal were combined as *Killed or Seriously Injured* (KSI). This is
 287 common practice in accident analysis because a low number of records may mislead the interpretation of
 288 the results. Throughout the analysis, unless otherwise stated, the values for 95% confidence interval are
 289 provided in the regression models.

290 *Descriptive Statistics*

291 This section continues with the descriptive statistics for considered predictor variables namely cyclist age
 292 and gender, lighting, weather, road surface condition and speed limit (See Table 1).

293 *Table 1- Descriptive Statistics for Sociodemographic Characteristics, Environmental Conditions and Speed Limit*

Variable (Unit)	Northumbria	Belgium
Cyclist age (years)	Mean= 37.8; Min.= 4; Max.= 83	Mean= 39.2; Min.= 1 Max.= 99
Cyclist gender (Female, Male) (number of people)	Female= 95; Male= 769	Female= 326; Male= 598
Lighting (Darkness; Daylight; Unknown)	Darkness= 135; Daylight= 666; Unknown= 0	Darkness= 107; Daylight= 813; Unknown= 4
Weather (Fine; Rain/Snow; Fog/Mist)	Fine= 726; Rain/Snow= 115; Fog/Mist= 23	Fine= 793; Rain/Snow= 98; Fog/Mist= 37
Road Surface (Dry; Wet/Damp; Snow/Frost/Ice; Unknown)	Dry= 587; Wet/Damp= 265; Snow/Frost/Ice= 12; Unknown= 0	Dry= 623; Wet/Damp= 170; Snow/Frost/Ice= 114; Unknown= 17
Speed limit (20; 30; 40; 50; 60; 70) (mph)	20= 5; 30= 647; 40= 83; 50=23; 60= 67; 70= 39	
Speed limit (30; 40; 50; 60; 70; 90; 120) (kph)		30= 63; 40= 1; 50= 767; 60= 2; 70= 57; 90= 28; 120= 1

294 Shapiro-Wilk test for normality suggested that the null hypothesis (states that the data is normally
 295 distributed) was rejected (p-value=0.00) with 95% confidence level for cyclist age for both UK and
 296 Belgium. Given that *other* data, such as number of roundabouts for each speed band or cycling volume at
 297 mixed traffic roundabouts, was not known, further investigation was not possible.

298 The UK data did not register which contributory factor was associated to which person (cyclist or driver).
 299 Therefore, in this analysis, the contributory factors are allocated to everyone involved in the collision.
 300 Table 2 shows that '*failed to look properly*' was recorded in 67% of the KSI casualties. This by far was
 301 found to be the most frequently reported contributory factor for the UK. This variable was followed by
 302 '*failed to judge other person's path*', '*passing too close to cyclist*' and '*poor turn or manoeuvre*'.

303 Table 2 - Descriptive Statistics for Contributory Factors Recorded in the UK (Northumbria)

Variable Name	Slight			KSI		
	Yes	No	% of Presence/Absence	Yes	No	% of Presence/Absence
Junction overshoot	33	696	4.74	8	127	6.30
Junction restart	26	703	3.70	7	128	5.47
Poor turn or manoeuvre	74	655	11.30	10	125	8.00
Failed to signal or misleading signal	15	714	2.10	2	133	1.50
Failed to look properly	517	212	243.87	91	44	206.82
Failed to judge other person's path or speed	159	570	27.89	17	118	14.41
Passing too close to cyclist	83	646	12.85	13	122	10.66
Sudden braking	12	717	1.67	6	129	4.65
Swerved	3	726	0.41	0	135	0.00
Loss of control	9	720	1.25	3	132	2.27
Aggressive driving	8	721	1.11	1	134	0.75
Careless, reckless or in a hurry	154	575	26.78	28	107	26.17
Nervous, uncertain or panic	6	723	0.83	1	134	0.75
Driving too slow for condition or slow vehicle	63	729	8.64	0	135	0.00
Learner or inexperienced driver/rider	3	726	0.41	0	135	0.00
Inexperience of driving on left	1	728	0.14	0	135	0.00
Unfamiliar with model of vehicle	63	729	8.64	0	135	0.00

304
 305 In contrast to UK, contributing factors are registered separately for cyclists and drivers in the Belgian
 306 data. This separation provided an advantage to explore any differences of influence for each road user

307 separately. Table 3 showed that driver's 'non respect of the priority' was by far the most reported
 308 contributory factor for both *Slight* and *KSI* casualties in Belgium.

309 Table 3- Descriptive Statistic for Contributory Factors Recorded in Belgium

Variable	Cyclist				Driver			
	Slight	Slight % of Presence/Absence	KSI	KSI % of Presence/Absence	Slight	Slight % of Presence/Absence	KSI	KSI % of Presence/Absence
Non respect of the priority	0(827) 1(36)	4.35	0(55) 1(6)	10.91	0(579) 1(284)	49.05	0(42) 1(19)	45.24
Cross the white line continues	0(862) 1(1)	0.12	0(61) 1(0)	0	0(863) 1(0)	0	0(61) 1(0)	0
Performs in extremis an avoidance manoeuvre	0(854) 1(9)	1.05	0(61) 1(0)	0	0(861) 1(2)	0.23	0(60) 1(1)	1.67
No respect for the distance between users	0(856) 1(7)	0.82	0(60) 1(1)	1.67	0(841) 1(22)	2.62	0(59) 1(2)	3.38
Loss of control of the vehicle	0(857) 1(6)	0.70	0(61) 1(0)	0	0(860) 1(3)	0.35	0(61) 1(0)	0
Wrong overtaking	0(860) 1(3)	0.35	0(60) 1(1)	1.67	0(855) 1(8)	0.94	0(61) 1(0)	0
Illegal place on the roadway	0(807) 1(56)	6.94	0(55) 1(6)	10.91	0(857) 1(6)	0.70	0(60) 1(1)	1.67
Fall	0(746) 1(117)	15.68	0(54) 1(7)	12.96	0(859) 1(4)	0.47	0(60) 1(1)	1.67

310 ^a 1= presence; 0= absence

311 5. Data Analysis

312 The following sections present the results for the UK and Belgium separately followed by the analysis of
 313 the generalised model with proxy data to illustrate the regional influence.

314 Analysis of UK cyclist casualty data

315 Number of *killed or seriously injured* cyclist casualties was 135; however, the number of variables was
 316 18. This does not meet with the EPV limitation for logistic regression analysis. Therefore, as suggested
 317 by (Sperandei, 2013) relaxing p-value criteria and comparing the results of simple logistic regression and
 318 a full model of multiple logistic regression, allows statistically significant variables at 90% and 95%
 319 confidence level to be determined for inclusion in the final analysis. Relaxing p-value analysis showed
 320 that *speed limit*, *cyclist age*, 'failed to judge other person's path or speed' and 'sudden braking' were all
 321 statistically significant at the 95% confidence level in both simple and multiple logistic regressions (See

322 Table 4). The statistical significance for *cyclist gender*, *weather* and *road surface condition* was not
 323 consistent in both regressions because other predictors either increased or decreased their dominance.

324 Table 4- Results of the analysis of Relaxing P-Value for UK

Variables ^a	Simple Logistic Regression					Multiple Logistic Regression				
	Coefficient	P- Value	Odds ratio (OR)	95% confidence interval for OR		Coefficient	P- Value	Odds ratio (OR)	95% confidence interval for OR	
				Lower	Upper				Lower	Upper
Speed limit	0.02	0.02**	1.02	1.00	1.03	0.02	0.05**	1.02	1.00	1.03
Cyclist age	0.02	0.00**	1.02	1.01	1.03	0.02	0.00**	1.02	1.01	1.04
Cyclist gender	-0.34	0.22	0.71	0.41	1.22	-0.54	0.06*	0.59	0.33	1.03
Lighting	0.15	0.51	1.16	0.74	1.82	-0.19	0.45	0.83	0.51	1.35
Weather	-0.41	0.10*	0.66	0.41	1.07	-0.20	0.47	0.82	0.47	1.41
Road surface condition	-0.34	0.09*	0.71	0.48	1.05	-0.38	0.11	0.69	0.43	1.09
Junction overshoot	0.28	0.48	1.33	0.60	2.94	0.35	0.41	1.42	0.62	3.28
Junction restart	0.39	0.37	1.47	0.63	3.48	0.48	0.29	1.62	0.67	3.95
Poor turn or manoeuvre	-0.35	0.33	0.71	0.36	1.41	-0.44	0.23	0.64	0.31	1.32
Failed to signal or misleading signal	-0.33	0.67	0.72	0.16	3.17	-0.18	0.82	0.84	0.18	3.79
Failed to look properly	-0.16	0.41	0.85	0.57	1.23	-0.15	0.47	0.86	0.57	1.30
Failed to judge other person's path or speed	-0.66	0.02**	0.52	0.30	0.88	-0.65	0.02**	0.52	0.30	0.91
Passing too close to cyclist	-0.19	0.55	0.83	0.45	1.54	-0.22	0.51	0.80	0.41	1.54
Sudden braking	1.02	0.05**	2.78	1.02	7.53	1.21	0.03**	3.36	1.17	9.67
Loss of control	0.60	0.38	1.82	0.49	6.80	0.62	0.38	1.87	0.46	7.57
Aggressive driving	-0.40	0.71	0.67	0.08	5.42	-0.80	0.48	0.45	0.05	4.10
Careless, reckless or in a hurry	-0.02	0.92	0.98	0.62	1.54	0.00	0.99	1.00	0.63	1.61
Nervous, uncertain or panic	-0.11	0.92	0.90	0.11	7.53	-0.22	0.85	0.81	0.09	7.48
Constant						-2.10	0.00	0.12	0.05	0.32

325 ^a cyclist gender (female vs. male); lighting (darkness vs. daylight, unknown); weather (fine vs. rain/snow; fog/mist); road surface condition (dry vs. wet/damp,
 326 snow/frost/ice, unknown); contributory factors (yes vs. no)

327 * Statistically significantly at 90% confidence level

328 **Statistically significantly at 95% confidence level

329
 330 The selected variables (found to be at statistically significant at least with a 90% confidence) were used
 331 as predictors in the final multiple logistic regression (p-value=0.00 at 95% confidence level of significance
 332 of the likelihood ratio test) (See Table 5). One unit higher in *speed limit* decreases the safety resulting in
 333 a 1% higher probability in *killed or seriously injured* compared to *slight casualty* (odds ratio=1.01) whilst
 334 in the case of a cyclist of a higher compared to lower *age group* (odds ratio=1.02). The casualties were
 335 twice as likely to be *slight* for reported contributory factor namely 'failed to judge other person's path or

336 'speed' (odds ratio=0.51). The chances of a cyclist casualty being *killed or seriously injured* compared to
 337 only being *slightly injured* was three times higher when 'sudden braking' was noted as a possible
 338 contributory factor (odds ratio=3.02). Given that the number of collisions involving 'sudden braking' was
 339 very low (n=?), the wide range of the 95% confidence interval from 1.09 to 8.38 suggests that a *killed or*
 340 *seriously injured* casualty compared to a *slight* casualty could have almost equal or up to eight times as
 341 much chance of happening. In addition, the relationship between 'sudden braking' and geometric design
 342 suggested no statistically significant relationship; therefore, the impact on severity of accident of 'sudden
 343 braking' is related to other influences rather than the *geometry* of the roundabout.

344 Table 5- Multiple Logistic Regression Including Selected Variables (with a p-value < 0.1 in either the simple logistic regression or the
 345 multiple logistic regression)

Variables ^a	Coefficient	P- Value	Odds ratio (OR)	95% confidence interval for OR	
				Lower	Upper
Speed limit	0.02	0.05**	1.01	1.00	1.03
Cyclist age	0.02	0.00**	1.02	1.01	1.03
Cyclist gender	-0.50	0.07*	0.60	0.35	1.06
Weather	-0.18	0.51	0.84	0.49	1.43
Road surface condition	-0.31	0.18	0.74	0.47	1.15
Failed to judge other person's path or speed	-0.67	0.02**	0.51	0.30	0.88
Sudden braking	1.11	0.03**	3.02	1.09	8.38
Constant	-2.30	0.00	0.10	0.04	0.23

346 ^a cyclist gender (female vs. male); weather (fine vs. rain/snow; fog/mist); road surface condition (dry vs. wet/damp, snow/frost/ice, unknown); contributory
 347 factors (yes vs. no)

348 * Statistically significantly at 90% confidence level

349 **Statistically significantly at 95% confidence level

350 Considering the constant odds ratios of cyclist age in both simple and final multiple logistic regressions,
 351 the age at which cyclists are found to ride most safely can be determined. This knowledge is helpful to
 352 policy makers by identifying those groups to target education and training campaigns. Therefore, the
 353 model was reversed, and a simple linear regression was applied because cyclist age (i.e. a constant)
 354 became the dependent variable and *casualty severity* was the predictor in the model. The result of simple

355 linear regression suggested that cyclists who below the age of 41 years old were less likely to be *killed or*
 356 *seriously injured* than the older population groups.

357 ***Analysis of Belgian cyclist casualty data***

358 A similar analytical approach, which was relaxing p-value criterion for developing a logit model, was
 359 applied to the Belgian data (See Table 6). Cyclist *age* and cyclist's '*non respect of the priority*' was
 360 statistically significant at the 95% confidence level in both simple and multiple logistic regressions. On
 361 the other hand, *speed limit* in simple logistic regression and '*vehicle's performs in extremis an avoidance*
 362 *manoeuvre*' in the multiple logistic regression were statistically significant at 90% confidence level.

363 **Table 6- Results of the analysis of Relaxing P-Value for Belgium**

Variables*	Simple Logistic Regression					Multiple Logistic Regression				
	Coefficient	P- Value	Odds ratio (OR)	95% confidence interval for OR		Coefficient	P- Value	Odds ratio (OR)	95% confidence interval for OR	
				Lower	Upper				Lower	Upper
Cyclist age	0.02	0.00**	1.02	1.01	1.04	0.02	0.00**	1.02	1.01	1.04
Speed limit (kph)	0.02	0.06*	1.02	1.00	1.04	0.02	0.21	1.02	0.99	1.04
Cyclist gender	0.20	0.49	1.22	0.70	2.14	0.15	0.61	1.16	0.65	2.10
Weather	0.01	0.96	1.01	0.58	1.76	0.10	0.73	1.11	0.62	1.98
Road surface condition	-0.05	0.78	0.95	0.68	1.34	-0.01	0.97	0.99	0.69	1.43
Lighting	0.54	0.26	1.71	0.67	4.35	0.64	0.22	1.90	0.69	5.29
Cyclist's non respect of the priority	0.92	0.05**	2.51	1.01	6.20	1.13	0.02**	3.10	1.19	8.08
Cyclist's wrong overtaking	1.56	0.18	4.78	0.49	46.63	1.70	0.15	5.47	0.54	55.14
Cyclist's illegal place on the roadway	0.45	0.32	1.57	0.65	3.81	0.72	0.13	2.06	0.81	5.22
Cyclist's no respect for the distance between users	0.71	0.51	2.04	0.25	16.84	0.89	0.43	2.42	0.27	21.99
Cyclist's fall	-0.19	0.65	0.83	0.37	1.86	-0.26	0.56	0.77	0.33	1.82
Driver's non respect of the priority	-0.08	0.78	0.92	0.53	1.61	0.09	0.75	1.10	0.61	1.98
Vehicle driver performs in extremis an avoidance manoeuvre	1.97	0.11	7.18	0.64	80.26	2.30	0.09*	10.00	0.72	139.53
Vehicle's illegal place on the roadway	0.87	0.43	2.38	0.28	20.09	1.25	0.26	3.49	0.39	31.14
Vehicle's no respect for the distance between users	0.26	0.73	1.30	0.30	5.64	0.41	0.59	1.51	0.33	6.85
Driver's fall	1.28	0.26	3.58	0.39	32.53	1.44	0.21	4.24	0.43	41.38
Constant						-5.42	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02

364 ^a cyclist gender (female vs. male); lighting (darkness vs. daylight, unknown); weather (fine vs. rain/snow; fog/mist); road surface condition (dry vs. wet/damp,
 365 snow/frost/ice, unknown); contributory factors (yes vs. no)
 366 * Statistically significantly at 90% confidence level
 367 **Statistically significantly at 95% confidence level

368 The logistic regression (p-value=0.00 at 95% confidence level of significance of the likelihood ratio test)
 369 including selected variables suggested that a unit increase of cyclist age and cyclist's non respect of the

370 priority increased the probability of *killed or seriously injured* casualty occurrence compared to *slight*
 371 with 2% and 171%, respectively (See Table 7). Regarding the constant values for cyclist *age* in whether
 372 for the simple or final multiple regressions cyclists involved in an accident who are over age 48 were more
 373 likely to be *killed or seriously injured* compared to *slight* casualty. Interestingly, the influence of speed
 374 limit on casualty severity do no longer exist in the multiple logistic regression (see Table 7) Instead the
 375 regression is dominated by cyclist age and cyclist's failure to respect priority in mixed traffic.

376 *Table 7- Multiple Logistic Regression Including Selected Variables (with a p-value < 0.1 in either the simple logistic regression or the*
 377 *multiple logistic regression)*

Variables ^a	Coefficient	P- Value	Odds ratio (OR)	95% confidence interval for OR	
				Lower	Upper
Cyclist age	0.02	0.00**	1.02	1.01	1.04
Speed limit	0.02	0.14	1.02	0.99	1.04
Cyclist's non respect of the priority	1.00	0.04**	2.71	1.07	6.87
Vehicle's performs in extremis an avoidance manoeuvre	1.62	0.20	5.06	0.42	60.70
Constant	-4.64	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.04

378 ^a contributory factors (yes vs. no)

379 * Statistically significantly at 90% confidence level

380 **Statistically significantly at 95% confidence level

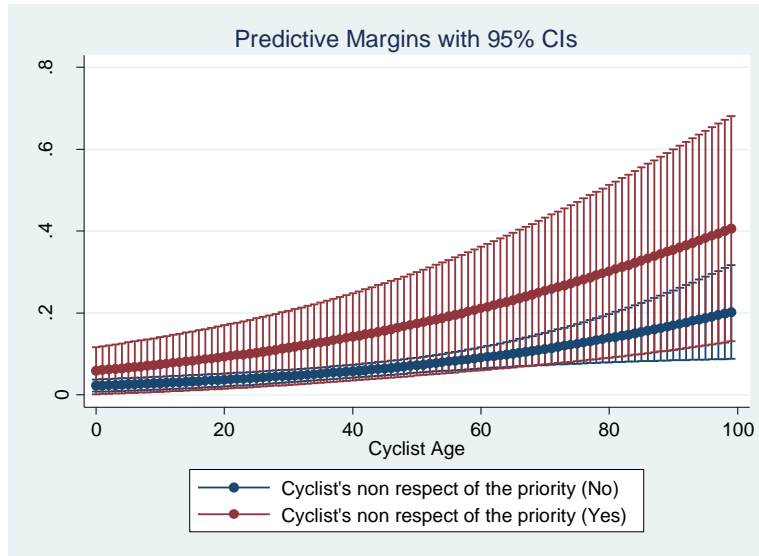
381 Including the statistically significant variables only the final logistic regression Equation is:

382
$$\text{Logit}(p) = \ln \frac{p}{1-p} = -3.75 + 0.02 * \text{Cyclist age} + 1.04 * \text{Cyclist's non respect of priority}$$

383 Where the predicted probability (predictive margin):

384
$$p = \frac{\exp^{\text{logit}(p)}}{1 + \exp^{\text{logit}(p)}}$$

385 The predictive margins for the logarithmic relationship between cyclist *age* and a cyclist's '*non respect of*
 386 *priority*' is shown in Figure 3.



387
388 Figure 3- Predictive Margins for Cyclist Age and Cyclist's Non Respect of the Priority

389 ***Exploring Differences between UK and Belgium with Proxy Data***

390 A further comparative analysis with ten proxy variables, namely 'cyclist age', 'cyclist gender', 'speed
391 limit', 'lighting', 'weather', 'road surface condition', 'junction overshoot', 'poor turn or manoeuvre',
392 'passing too close to cyclist' and 'loss of control' was conducted in order to study the relative contribution
393 of the variables to the casualty severity and the differences between the UK and Belgium.

394 The analysis starts with understanding the association between cyclist casualty severity, the ten considered
395 variables and countries to explore differences between UK and Belgium which are known to have different
396 roundabout design approaches and environments. The three-way chi square test of independence (χ^2),
397 which explores the statistical dependency between these variables, was deemed appropriate (See Figure
398 4). The variables were ordinal or nominal and consisted of two or more categorical values, therefore the
399 data met both χ^2 assumptions. The rejected null hypothesis in the χ^2 test (with $p\text{-value} \leq 0.05$ at 95%
400 confidence level) suggested that there is statistically significant evidence of dependence between
401 variables.

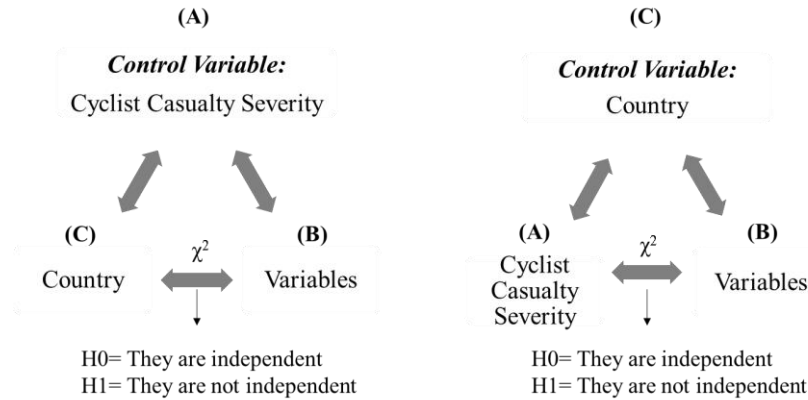


Figure 4 - Principle of Three-Way Chi Square Test of Independence

402

403

404 The three-way chi square test of independence was applied, and the results at 95% confidence level
 405 suggested that a statistically significant relationship was found between country (i.e. UK and Belgium)
 406 and certain variables (i.e. cyclist age group, cyclist gender, speed limit, lighting, road surface condition,
 407 'junction overshoot', 'poor turn or manoeuvre' and 'passing too close to cyclists') among slight casualties
 408 (See Table 8). Regarding killed or seriously injured casualties, the national influence was statistically
 409 significant for six variables, namely cyclist age group, cyclist gender, speed limit, lighting, road surface
 410 condition and 'junction overshoot' with χ^2 values 29.26, 7.84, 11.59, 6.19, 16.08 and 34.35 (p-
 411 values ≤ 0.05), respectively. Regarding the total casualty severity, the null hypothesis was not rejected for
 412 weather ($\chi^2 = 4.08$ with p-value=0.13) and loss of control ($\chi^2 = 0.66$ with p-value=0.42).

413 Table 8- Three-way Chi-Square Test of Independence between Country and Variables by Casualty Severity

		Cyclist age group	Cyclist gender	Speed limit	Lighting	Weather	Road surface condition	Junction overshoot	Poor turn or manoeuvre	Passing too close to cyclist	Loss of control
Slight Casualty	Pearson χ^2	101.03	136.80	122.83	38.96	4.09	104.57	232.86	61.60	50.09	0.13
	Df ^a	10	1	5	2	2	3	1	1	1	1
	P-value	0.00**	0.00**	0.00**	0.00**	0.13	0.00**	0.00**	0.00**	0.00**	0.72
KSI Casualty	Pearson χ^2	29.26	7.84	11.59	6.19	2.06	16.08	34.35	2.64	2.40	1.38
	Df ^a	9	1	5	1	2	2	1	1	1	1
	P-value	0.00**	0.01**	0.04**	0.01**	0.36	0.00**	0.00**	0.10	0.12	0.24
Total Casualty	Pearson χ^2	115.11	146.29	138.24	43.80	4.08	119.51	268.26	62.36	51.69	0.66
	Df ^a	10	1	5	2	2	3	1	1	1	1
	P-value	0.00**	0.00**	0.00**	0.00**	0.13	0.00**	0.00**	0.00**	0.00**	0.42

414

415

^a Df (Degrees of freedom)

**Statistically significant at 95% confidence level

416 The following step explored the three-way chi square test of independence between variables and casualty
 417 severity by country (See Table 9). The results suggest that there is a statistically significant dependence
 418 between *casualty severity* and *speed limit* for only UK ($\chi^2= 13.74$ with p-value=0.02). On the other hand,
 419 it is seen that the dependency between *casualty severity* and *cyclist age group* was statistically significant
 420 for Belgium only ($\chi^2= 24.37$ with p-value=0.01). Regarding the combined data, both *speed limit* and *cyclist*
 421 *age group* were statistically significantly dependent on *casualty severity*.

422 The outcome of the chi square test of independence suggests the statistical associations between three
 423 variables; however, it does not provide information on the strength of the dependency. Therefore, a further
 424 analysis recommended by (Li *et al*, 2011) was required to estimate the effect of covariates at country level
 425 using multilevel logistic regression including proxy data.

426 *Table 9- Three-way Chi-Square Test of Independence between Severity and Variables by Country*

		Cyclist age group	Cyclist gender	Speed limit	Lighting	Weather	Road surface condition	Junction overshoot	Poor turn or manoeuvre	Passing too close to cyclist	Loss of control
Northumbria	Pearson χ^2	9.88	1.55	13.74	0.43	2.92	3.74	0.49	0.98	0.36	0.81
	Df ^a	10	1	5	1	2	2	1	1	1	1
	P-value	0.45	0.21	0.02**	0.51	0.23	0.15	0.48	0.32	0.55	0.37
Belgium	Pearson χ^2	24.37	0.49	7.82	1.92	0.70	2.01	0.25	0.06	0.12	0.64
	Df ^a	10	1	4	2	2	3	1	1	1	1
	P-value	0.01**	0.48	0.10	0.38	0.71	0.57	0.62	0.80	0.73	0.42
Total Casualty	Pearson χ^2	20.85	2.11	27.58	0.59	1.90	6.34	3.00	0.03	0.31	0.24
	Df ^a	10	1	5	2	2	3	1	1	1	1
	P-value	0.02**	0.15	0.00**	0.75	0.39	0.10	0.08	0.87	0.58	0.62

427 ^a Df (Degrees of freedom)
 428 **Statistically significant at 95% confidence level

429 The null model of multilevel logistic regression suggested that there was a statistically significant (p-value
 430 = 0.00 at the 95% confidence level) difference considering the *casualty severity* between the two countries
 431 with effects parameter of 0.22. Simple multilevel logistic regression on each variable separately and a full
 432 model of multiple multilevel logistic regression were conducted (See Table 10).

433 Table 10- Comparative Analysis with Multilevel Logistic Regression Model

Variables	Simple Multilevel Logistic Regression				Multiple Multilevel Logistic Regression		
	Coefficient	P-Value	Estimated Variance of Region	P-Value of Residual	Coefficient	P-Value	Estimated Variance of Region
Speed limit	0.02	0.00	0.17	0.00	0.02	0.01	
Cyclist age group	0.18	0.00	0.24	0.00	0.18	0.00	
Cyclist gender	-0.05	0.82	0.23	0.00	-0.13	0.52	
Lighting	0.22	0.28	0.23	0.00	0.01	0.96	
Weather	-0.25	0.19	0.22	0.00	-0.15	0.47	
Road surface condition	-0.19	0.17	0.21	0.00	-0.15	0.32	
Junction overshoot	0.15	0.52	0.24	0.00	0.17	0.47	
Poor turn or manoeuvre	-0.28	0.40	0.23	0.00	-0.33	0.33	
Passing too close to other vehicle	-0.12	0.69	0.23	0.00	-0.18	0.56	
Loss of control	0.24	0.71	0.22	0.00	0.50	0.44	
Constant					-3.86	0.00	0.25
					P-value of regional residual = 0.00		

434 Statistically significance at 95% confidence level

435 The result suggested that there was a statistically significant difference between the two countries with
 436 regard to multiple multilevel logistic regression (estimated variance of country=0.25 with p-value=0.00)
 437 and more specifically for variables speed limit and cyclist age. In addition, a consistent result emerged
 438 from the simple logistic multilevel regression which suggested that the statistically significant variance
 439 (with p-value=0.00) for countries was observed for all individual variables taken separately.

440 6. Discussion

441 A review of a wide range of previous studies available in the literature revealed that cyclist safety at
 442 roundabouts was an under researched area. This was unexpected given that government authorities are
 443 investing in schemes to promote sustainable transport and cycling is increasing year on year. An in-depth
 444 critique of the literature identified that whilst several studies had been made in different countries no effort
 445 has been made to compare across country differences in analysis of accident statistics and associated data
 446 concerning the circumstances of the accident and demographics of the victims. More specifically with an
 447 aim to give a richer understanding of cycle safety at a roundabout revealed by any differences that might
 448 emerge from the analysis.

449 Regarding the results of the paper, speed limit was statistically significant in UK analysis while it did not
450 show any statistical influence on cyclist casualty severity for Belgium. Speed limits at UK roundabouts
451 do matter because these roundabouts in some cases are designed in a way that vehicles more or less can
452 drive through the roundabout at the speed of the posted limit. For radial roundabouts as in Belgium this is
453 much less likely to be the case because – regardless of the posted speed limit – each vehicle has to slow
454 down as the geometry is much tighter. An earlier study (Akgün *et al.*, 2018) concluded that speed limit
455 can be considered as a proxy of geometric design parameters and it was stated that a higher speed limit
456 (i.e. wider entry geometry) increases the probability of a serious cyclist casualty occurring at roundabouts
457 with mixed traffic. This might help explain the difference between the influence of speed limit in the UK
458 and Belgian case studies.

459 Furtado (2004) pointed out that determining one size for the safest balanced design is difficult to achieve
460 as there are several design solutions applied in different regions. A main design feature of the UK priority
461 roundabouts is to optimise for vehicle capacity. Allowing higher approach capacity results in a wider
462 approach and entry geometry. Whilst delivering an increased level of service and less delay to traffic
463 encourages higher entry speeds which in turn increases the number of cyclist collisions, (Davies *et al.*,
464 1997; Lawton *et al.*, 2003). The research presented in this manuscript clearly shows that the radial design,
465 the basic principle for Belgium roundabouts, is safer. This is at the expense of loss of vehicle
466 capacity. However, because tangential roundabouts are designed for increasing the capacity for motor
467 vehicles, this suggests that a tighter geometry does not meet with the basic design principal of roundabout
468 in the UK. On the other hand, in Belgium non-respect of priority is a significant contributor to increasing
469 accidents, whilst in the UK the priority to the right is mandatory. Therefore, an important policy outcome
470 of this research is when cycle *flows are high*, the wider geometry at tangential roundabouts to increase
471 vehicle capacity should be carefully balanced with more focus towards a radial design with wider traffic

472 management measures to reduce traffic flow at the junction. Notwithstanding, mandatory priority to the
473 right, with associated driver education to ensure compliance should be given serious consideration. In
474 addition, research should be conducted to identify the optimum balance of approach capacity and safety
475 for cyclists as well as to understand the role of environmental issues. Novel roundabout designs which
476 introduce a degree of segregation of cyclist flows should be explored, also.

477 Daniels *et al.* (2010) reported that for all road user types (i.e. including cyclists), higher age groups were
478 more likely to be involved in severe casualties using Belgian data. A finding consistent with the results
479 from our research also suggest that older cyclists are more likely to be involved in a *killed or seriously*
480 *injured* collision compared to *slight* casualties not only in Belgium but also in the UK as well. This might
481 be an expected result given that older population tend to have slower reaction times and lower physical
482 ability. In addition, there was no evidence in either the Daniels (2010) research or this research here that
483 the gender of the cyclist is associated with casualty severity.

484 The uniqueness of the research presented here is due consideration of the influence of behaviour-related
485 contributory factors along with environmental and sociodemographic variables on cyclist casualty *severity*
486 occurring at roundabouts therefore discussion is limited to comparing the outcomes of the behaviour
487 related contributory factors. Rasanen and Summala (2000) suggested that driver's speed decreases
488 yielding behaviour towards cyclists (Rasanen and Summala, 2000) and driver's behaviour has a strong
489 impact on cyclist position at the roundabout (Silvano *et al.*, 2015). The result for UK demonstrated that
490 there is a strong relationship between cyclist *casualty* and *sudden braking*, which increased the probability
491 of *serious severity* consistent with the speed influence for tangential design. Interestingly, whilst *vehicle*
492 *driver*-related contributory factors were not statistically significant the one cyclist behaviour-related
493 predictor, '*cyclist's non respect of the priority*', did show an influence on casualty *severity* in a collision

494 increased the likelihood to be *killed or serious injury* versus *non-killed or serious injury* with 171%. The
495 *cyclist's 'non-respect of the priority'* could be intentional in which case steps for enforcement of the
496 priority to the right (in the UK) rule at roundabouts should be stepped-up perhaps introducing media
497 campaigns with on the spot fines for non-compliance of cyclists. On the other hand, cyclist's *'non-respect*
498 *of the priority'* could be unintentional resulting from cyclist error and that might be due to lack of
499 experience or unfamiliarity with the environment and the Highway Code (the rules of the road in the UK)
500 etc. in which case education and training is more appropriate. Whilst the introduction of a formal
501 roadworthy test for cyclists with a subsequent issue of a license, similar to that required of vehicle drivers,
502 would be beneficial for cyclists the introduction of such regulation may deter the public from choosing
503 cycling as a travel mode. However formal training could be developed along the lines of the current
504 voluntary UK National Cycling Proficiency Test conducted in schools to ensure safety for children, but
505 more advanced. Notwithstanding, further research needs to be conducted to investigate the level of support
506 for mandatory cycling training, the content and format of a handbook, the level of acceptance of, and
507 barriers presented by, the introduction of a licence to cycle on public roads.

508 The later results which used a three-way chi-square test of independence followed by multilevel logistic
509 regression gave a deeper understanding of the differences between the UK and Belgium in the influences
510 of behavioural and non—behavioural variables on the severity of accidents. Both simple and multiple
511 multilevel logistic regressions showed that there were statistically significant differences between
512 countries. Also, despite the need to use proxy data the different characteristics influencing thee predictors
513 of casualty severity in the UK and Belgium were revealed.

514 From the chi square test, all non-behavioural variables such as cyclist *age group* and *gender, lighting,*
515 *road surface condition* and more importantly *speed limit* were all found to be statistically different

516 between the UK and Belgium for both slight and *killed and seriously injured* casualty severity. On the
517 other hand of the three behavioural variables, only '*junction over-shoot*' emerged as having statistically
518 significantly different influence on casualty severity in the two countries. This suggests that driver/cyclist
519 interaction and behaviour in cities in the two countries is generally similar whilst speed limit,
520 sociodemographic characteristics of cyclists and environmental conditions are specific for each country.
521 Therefore, further research specifically into driver-rider behaviour influence on cyclist casualty severity
522 in different countries would be useful. However, the possibility of including other variables besides
523 particular geometric design, in the same model is limited due to the different protocols applied in recording
524 details of accidents in the different countries.

525 **7. Limitations**

526 The statistically significant residual in the multilevel model for associated data of the UK and Belgium is
527 expected to be due to the inconsistency in design protocol and the differences in the method of recording
528 casualty data in each country suggesting the need for each country would require its own independent
529 model. It is difficult to carry out a comparative study between regions with different design approaches,
530 environment and data collection methodologies and this has been overcome in the research reported here
531 by using proxies for some variables which in turn has given rise to a limitation of the current study. Ideally,
532 comparative analysis should be carried out to include several countries to increase the statistical outcome
533 of the regional residual. This may provide a more reliable generic model which is likely to include
534 additional variables. But again, limitations in data availability, and non-standardisation of recording data
535 remains an issue.

536 Studies that considered casualty analysis rely on police records as the data source. Relying on cyclist
537 casualty records has limitations such as high degree of under-reporting (Laureshyn *et al.*, 2017). Hels and

538 Orozova-Bekkevold (2007) suggested that nearly 75% of cyclist casualty records in hospital are not
539 registered in police collision databases. This suggests the possibility that there is a higher risk of cyclist
540 collision at roundabouts and certainly researchers should be aware of potential bias caused by difficulties
541 in some data collection methods. Therefore, achieving complete records for cyclists is the main challenge
542 for safety studies. Considering this limitation, it was suggested (Laureshyn *et al.*, 2017) that field
543 observations and measurements should be applied. However, these observations may not be possible
544 always due to the lack of time and sources.

545 The study in this paper used very reliable police records in the UK (STATS19) and Belgium (VIAS),
546 however, the authors are well aware of the limitation of unreported cyclist casualties. There is a
547 tremendous attention on accuracy in STATS19 data collection because the accumulated data is available
548 for public consumption by permission for the UK DfT, Department for Transport and widely used in
549 scientific research. However, contributory factors started to be recorded based on a police officer's
550 subjective assessment of whether they believe the specific factor has contributed to the collision or not
551 (Rolison *et al.*, 2018). Efforts have been made to eliminate subjective recording by enhanced description
552 needed in STATS21 with responsibility given to Local Authorities to ensure accuracy of records by with
553 the need to create and maintain a database and applying automatic checks using validity protocols to
554 expose errors in the database (TS, 2013). A specific issue in the current STATS19 data revealed in this
555 research was that the contributory factor data was not assigned individually to the cyclist or driver. This
556 created a limitation in the research reported here.

557 Traffic flow is an important parameter because at higher cyclist and driver flow the number of potential
558 encounters increases. This study cyclist and driver flow at roundabouts could not be considered as they

559 were not available at the location where the casualty was recorded. In addition, the study could not include
560 actual speed of vehicles. Traffic related data would have improved the prediction models.

561 **8. Conclusions**

562 The key outcomes of this research are presented as follow:

- 563 1. For UK roundabouts, the higher the speed limit the greater the probability of a cyclist being killed or
564 seriously injured in a collision compared to being slightly injured. The speed limit was not significant
565 in explaining cyclist injury severity at Belgium roundabouts.
- 566 2. The older a cyclist is, the more likely they are to be seriously or fatally injured in a collision. The
567 likelihood increases by 2% for each year of a cyclist's age.
- 568 3. Cyclists over the age of 41 in the UK and 48 in Belgium we are more likely to be a KS I casual tea than
569 slight.
- 570 4. Gender and environmental conditions were not found to influence the severity of cyclist casualty at
571 either UK or Belgium roundabouts.
- 572 5. Where sudden braking was recorded as a potential contributory factor, the likelihood of a cyclist being
573 killed or seriously injured increases by about three times at a UK roundabout compared to a Belgium
574 roundabout.
- 575 6. A cyclist casualty is three times more likely to be killed or seriously injured when 'non respect of
576 priority' is a potential contributory factor at radial roundabouts. In the UK there is a mandatory give-
577 way to the right at roundabouts.
- 578 7. In the comparative analysis of the UK with Belgium the regional residual was highly statistically
579 significant. This can be attributed to the difference of design in two different countries, with tangential
580 for the UK and radial for Belgium.

- 581 8. Whilst respecting the limitations of the different data recording protocols this research suggests, for
582 cyclists, radial design can be considered safer than tangential roundabouts although at reduced capacity
583 and improved safety for vehicles.
- 584 9. Harmonisation of the ways accident records are currently generated across countries in Europe with
585 the inclusion of geometric design metrics would be valuable and worthwhile.

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