

1 **PEDESTRIAN PREFERENCES WITH RESPECT TO ROUNDABOUTS – A VIDEO-**  
2 **BASED STATED PREFERENCE SURVEY**

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43 **ABSTRACT**

44 Research on user behavior and preferences has been a helpful tool in improving road safety and  
45 accident prevention in recent years. At the same time, there remain some important areas of road  
46 safety and accident prevention for which user preferences, despite their importance, have not  
47 been explored. Most road safety research has not explicitly addressed vulnerable user  
48 (pedestrians and cyclists) preferences with respect to roundabouts, despite their increasing  
49 construction around the world. The present research stems from the fact that studies related to  
50 roundabout safety have generally focused on drivers, while overlooking the importance of safety  
51 as it relates to vulnerable users, especially pedestrians. Moreover, it handles this particular issue  
52 through an approach that has not been used so far in this context; the Stated Preference (SP)  
53 survey. As such, there are two main goals (and contributions) of this work. First, to show how SP  
54 surveys can be used to investigate the importance of different design and operational features to  
55 pedestrian perceptions of safety in roundabouts. This allows us, for example, to quantify how  
56 some features of roundabouts (e.g. high traffic volume) can be compensated for by design  
57 features such as pedestrian islands. This is useful in helping to design roundabouts that  
58 pedestrians prefer and will hopefully use, to help encourage active transport. Second, to  
59 demonstrate how traffic simulation software can be successfully used to include difficult-to-  
60 communicate attributes in SP surveys.

61 **Keywords:** *Roundabouts, pedestrians, stated preference methods, vulnerable user safety*

62

## 63 1. INTRODUCTION

64 Developed initially in the UK in the 1960s, roundabouts have become increasingly popular in the  
65 last two decades in North America. Roundabouts are circular intersections where traffic flows  
66 counter-clockwise around a central island, preventing vehicles from crossing in a straight, and  
67 therefore faster, path. These intersections work based on the principle that vehicles entering the  
68 roundabout must yield to those already traveling within the central circle (Rodegerdts *et al.*  
69 (2010), pp. 3-5).

70 There are several commonly identified benefits of roundabouts compared to regular intersections  
71 that have been documented in the significant body of research on the topic. These benefits can be  
72 divided into different categories including environmental (e.g. reduced emissions because of  
73 increased fluidity of traffic flow, in particular fewer stops), mobility (increased fluidity of traffic  
74 flow compared with regular intersections), and safety (fewer accidents) improvements - the  
75 former of which can be further classified between driver and vulnerable user safety benefits.

76 How roundabouts improve driver safety is an issue addressed in the majority of the studies on the  
77 topic, although in some cases vulnerable road users (cyclists and pedestrians) are also  
78 considered. In the literature focusing mainly on motorists it has been shown that for these users,  
79 roundabouts are safer than other types of intersections, both in terms of frequency of accidents  
80 and their severity (Bared *et al.* 1997, Bie *et al.* 2008, Chen *et al.* 2013, Gross *et al.* 2013). On the  
81 other hand, Daniels *et al.* (2010a), (2010b) found that vulnerable road users have a higher  
82 probability of being injured in roundabouts than expected based on their share of occupancy in  
83 traffic. Daniels *et al.* (2010a) also found that some geometric elements such as the presence of  
84 bicycle lanes inside roundabouts are a significant risk factor. At the same time there is a bit of  
85 literature that has touched on the question of vulnerable road users in roundabouts, according to  
86 Wall *et al.* (2005) there are simply not enough studies related to the safety of this type of  
87 roundabout user, despite the importance of the subject.

88 While there has not been much research on the safety of vulnerable road users in roundabouts,  
89 pedestrian safety has attracted increased attention recently. Different approaches have been  
90 proposed to map injury risk and/or identify factors associated to injury frequency or severity of  
91 pedestrians using traditional methods based on historical crash data, but many of these have been  
92 focused on intersections or crosswalks (Harwood *et al.* 2008, Clifton *et al.* 2009, Miranda-  
93 Moreno *et al.* 2011). To address some of the issues of traditional crash-based methods, surrogate  
94 safety methods have also been proposed to investigate pedestrian safety using field observations  
95 such as video data (Ismail *et al.* 2009). While there is an important body of literature on  
96 objective safety using crash-risk or surrogate measures, the literature on safety perception is  
97 limited, in particular at roundabouts (Li 2006, Ren *et al.* 2011, Brosseau *et al.* 2013, Lipovac *et*  
98 *al.* 2013). Papadimitriou *et al.* (2013) focuses on pedestrian perceptions of intersection safety  
99 with respect to traffic characteristics such as vehicle volume and vehicle speeds. De Brabander  
100 and Vereeck (2007), Xi and Son (2012) on the other hand concentrate on statistical analyses of  
101 pedestrian accidents and injuries, but do not consider pedestrian preferences or behavior  
102 explicitly. Finally, Meneguzzer and Rossia (2011) examine the empirical relationships between  
103 pedestrian occupancy of crosswalks and impedance to vehicle flow in roundabouts. Despite there  
104 being a literature on roundabouts, and there being a literature on pedestrian safety, there is little  
105 research that focuses exclusively on pedestrian safety in roundabouts, especially when compared  
106 with how much literature there is for drivers. Perhaps the most comprehensive research focused  
107 on pedestrian safety in roundabouts is Report 674 of the National Cooperative Highway

108 Research Program (see Schroeder *et al.* (2011), pp. 34-61), which gathers various studies of the  
109 National Research Council of America on roundabouts. In the report, different roundabout  
110 attributes are studied in order to provide specific recommendations for their construction. While  
111 some of the research surveyed in the report looks at pedestrian preferences with respect to  
112 roundabouts, none of that research broached the question by means of an Stated Preference (SP)  
113 survey.

114 SP surveys have been used in a limited number of situations to understand vulnerable road user  
115 preferences and behavior. The method has been used for example to better understand cyclist  
116 preferences, although never in the context of roundabouts (see e.g. Krizek (2006)). Furthermore,  
117 pedestrian preferences and behavioral analyses have been confined to: route choice and behavior  
118 at intersections (Papadimitriou *et al.* 2009); the influence of perceived level of safety at an  
119 intersection and where pedestrians cross (Li 2006); preferences with respect to pedestrian  
120 crossing facilities (Sisiopiku and Akin 2003) and pedestrian-motorist interactions at intersections  
121 (Kaparias *et al.* 2012).

122 Another field related to this research is that on the use of visual aids in transportation SP surveys.  
123 Studies by Taylor and Mahmassani (1996), Krizek (2006) and Arentze *et al.* (2003) can be  
124 observed as evidence of the good results that visual aids can produce in SP surveys. Particularly  
125 interesting is the work of Krizek (2006), where the use of visual aids (10-second video clips of  
126 bicycle paths) was reported to improve survey performance markedly.

127 In summary, the existing literature on roundabouts has focused on motorists and has mostly  
128 ignored vulnerable road users, despite an explosion in research and interest of this subject  
129 recently. Moreover, despite being used to successfully understand user preferences in other  
130 branches of transportation research, there has been no research to have explored the use of SP  
131 surveys to understand pedestrian preferences with respect to safety in roundabouts.

132 Understanding pedestrian preferences and behavior is an important goal in order to help  
133 encourage the use of active modes of transportation (see e.g. NCHRP report 674 (Schroeder *et al.*  
134 *et al.* 2011)). Also, the use of visual aids in SP surveys to understand preferences, especially those  
135 that are difficult to communicate in words – and particularly in the context of vulnerable road  
136 users – is in its infancy.

137 As such, this research contributes to existing literature along these dimensions through the use of  
138 a video-based stated preference survey of pedestrian preferences in terms of safety with respect  
139 to roundabouts. There are two main goals of this work. First, to show how SP surveys can be  
140 used to quantify the importance of different design and operational features to pedestrian  
141 perceptions of safety in roundabouts. This allows us to quantify how some factors such as high  
142 traffic volume can be compensated for, by design features such as pedestrian islands. Second, to  
143 demonstrate how traffic simulation software can be successfully used to include difficult-to-  
144 communicate attributes in SP surveys.

145 The paper continues with a description of the development and administration of the survey. This  
146 is followed by a description of the statistical model used to analyze the data, model results and  
147 interpretation. The paper is finished with a discussion and conclusion of the results as well as a  
148 few notes on future work.

149 **2. METHODOLOGY**

150 An SP study typically involves a long process that includes: the design, administration and  
151 analysis of collected data (Louviere *et al.* 2000, Arentze *et al.* 2003, Chu *et al.* 2004,  
152 Papadimitriou *et al.* 2009, Kelly *et al.* 2011, Kaparias *et al.* 2012). In the present research, the  
153 purpose of the survey was to understand what factors (and to what degree those factors)  
154 influence vulnerable user preferences with respect to roundabouts in terms of safety. The first  
155 step in the development of an SP survey is an examination of the existing literature to understand  
156 what characteristics and attributes have been considered important in previous relevant studies.  
157 TABLE 1 provides a summary of relevant work for pedestrian safety where vulnerable road user  
158 safety has been considered, focusing on the attributes (geometrical and operational) and their  
159 levels that have been used and evaluated in them. The literature is categorized by the type of  
160 intersection considered (traditional or roundabout) and the methodological approach adopted (SP  
161 or Other). This organization of the existing research allowed us to know which attributes (and  
162 their levels) have been found to be important in previous vulnerable user safety studies.

163  
164

**TABLE 1 Attributes and Levels Used in Existing Literature for analyzing Vulnerable Road User Safety of Regular Infrastructure and Roundabouts**

Attribute	Levels	Vulnerable Road User safety analysis for traditional infrastructure		Vulnerable Road User safety analysis in roundabouts	
		By other methods	Using Stated Preference	By other methods	Using Stated Preference
Traffic volume	Low, Medium, High.	(Sisiopiku and Akin 2003, Guo <i>et al.</i> 2012, Papadimitriou <i>et al.</i> 2013)	(Chu <i>et al.</i> 2004, Papadimitriou <i>et al.</i> 2009, Kelly <i>et al.</i> 2011, Kaparias <i>et al.</i> 2012)	(Hels and Orozova-Bekkevold 2007, Moller and Hels 2008, Daniels <i>et al.</i> 2010a, b, Macioszek <i>et al.</i> 2011, Schroeder <i>et al.</i> 2011)	-
Traffic speed	Low, Medium, High.	(Sisiopiku and Akin 2003, Guo <i>et al.</i> 2012, Papadimitriou <i>et al.</i> 2013)	(Chu <i>et al.</i> 2004, Papadimitriou <i>et al.</i> 2009, Kelly <i>et al.</i> 2011, Kaparias <i>et al.</i> 2012)	(Hels and Orozova-Bekkevold 2007, Moller and Hels 2008, Daniels <i>et al.</i> 2010a, b, Macioszek <i>et al.</i> 2011, Schroeder <i>et al.</i> 2011)	-
Pedestrian volume	Low, Medium, High.	(Sisiopiku and Akin 2003, Asano <i>et al.</i> 2010, Guo <i>et al.</i> 2012)	(Papadimitriou <i>et al.</i> 2009, Kaparias <i>et al.</i> 2012)	-	-
Signalization	No signalization, Yield, Speed limit, Pedestrian crossing.	(Sisiopiku and Akin 2003, Chaurand and Delhomme 2013)	(Chu <i>et al.</i> 2004, Papadimitriou <i>et al.</i> 2009, Kelly <i>et al.</i> 2011)	(De Brabander and Vereeck 2007, Moller and Hels 2008, Schroeder <i>et al.</i> 2011)	-
Pedestrian crossing location	In the entrance of intersection, Near the entrance, Far from the entrance	(Sisiopiku and Akin 2003)	(Chu <i>et al.</i> 2004, Papadimitriou <i>et al.</i> 2009, Kelly <i>et al.</i> 2011)	(Meneguzzer and Rossia 2011, Schroeder <i>et al.</i> 2011)	-
Physical barriers	Vegetation, Median, Non barriers	(Sisiopiku and Akin 2003, Papadimitriou <i>et al.</i> 2013)	(Chu <i>et al.</i> 2004)	-	-
(-) Nonexistent related work					

165 As can be seen, most of the research has considered the following attributes: traffic volume,  
166 traffic speed, pedestrian volume, signalization, pedestrian crossing location and the presence of  
167 physical barriers (e.g. pedestrian islands).

168 While the first step provides an idea of the attributes that are likely to be included in the survey  
169 instrument, further complementary studies, such as focus groups and pilot tests are necessary to  
170 establish which attributes should be included in the final survey instrument. This constitutes a  
171 second step in survey development. A focus group is an exploratory research tool where a group  
172 of potential respondents are asked to identify which attributes they consider to be important in  
173 the question (choice) of interest. While being asked what attributes are important, respondents  
174 are also asked what appropriate ranges and/or levels of those attributes are (see Louviere *et al.*  
175 (2000), pp. 257-258). In this study, a focus group of eight individuals was convened. The focus  
176 group participants were contacted by a survey company specializing in the recruiting and  
177 administering of surveys. They were contacted if they lived within 1km of roundabouts in the  
178 region of Montreal and were asked to participate if they had accessed a roundabout by foot in the  
179 past three months. Gender and age diversity were sought in the formation of the focus group.  
180 Participants were asked at the beginning to simply share what they thought about roundabouts.  
181 Afterwards, they were asked to share their perceptions in terms of particular roundabout  
182 attributes and their relation with safety perception. While previous literature served as a  
183 backdrop of what to expect, the particular attributes to be addressed were left open to the focus  
184 group participants to discuss.

185 Based on these discussions, five attributes from the literature review were confirmed to be  
186 important for potential respondents: Signs; Pedestrian crossing position – i.e. distance from the  
187 intersection (although a particular preference for this attribute was not predominant); Traffic  
188 volume (less traffic preferred); Traffic speed (slower traffic preferred) and Pedestrian volume  
189 (more volume preferred). These preferences with respect to roundabout characteristics were  
190 consistent with what has been found in previous literature (see e.g. Hels and Orozova-Bekkevold  
191 (2007), Daniels *et al.* (2010a)). In addition, participants brought up two new attributes: Number  
192 of lanes (fewer lanes preferred), and the presence of a pedestrian island (presence of a pedestrian  
193 island preferred). They also suggested a new level for the Signs attribute: “Flashing signs”  
194 (presence of signs preferred over no signs). Thus, the very first version of the survey to be tested  
195 – the Pilot Survey – included all of these seven attributes.

## 196 **2.1. Pilot Survey**

197 A pilot survey is a tool that aids in identifying the strengths and weaknesses of the survey  
198 instrument. In this case, it was conducted online in order to test not only the instrument itself, but  
199 also to test the administration and data collection procedures to be implemented in the final  
200 survey. The pilot version had essentially the same structure as the final version of the survey.

201 Six Choice Tasks with two alternative roundabouts for each were shown to 48 participants in the  
202 pilot survey. As a result of the pilot survey, Traffic Speed and Traffic Volume were redefined so  
203 that differences between low and high values of these attributes were easily discernible without  
204 being unrealistic. These values were tested once again through a simpler online survey. In  
205 addition, this test showed Pedestrian volume did not seem to affect respondent choices with  
206 respect to preferred roundabouts.

## 207 2.2. Final Survey Administration

208 The definitive version of the survey instrument was divided into the same four sections as the  
209 pilot version of the survey. As such, it was structured as follows:

- 210 • First section (six questions). Respondent and household general information.
- 211 • Second section (two questions). Transportation mode going through a roundabout and  
212 frequency with which they accessed roundabouts by each mode (driving, by car but  
213 not driving, by transit, cycling and walking) in the past three months.
- 214 • Third section (three questions). Safety perception and knowledge of roundabout  
215 functionality.
- 216 • Fourth section (six Choice Tasks).

217 Based on what focus group and pilot test analyses revealed, the final survey included the  
218 following attributes and their respective levels:

- 219 • Signs: Absence of signalization, presence of standard pedestrian and cyclist crossing  
220 signs, and flashing pedestrian and cyclist crossing signs. According to previous  
221 literature and the focus group, it was expected that pedestrians would prefer the  
222 presence of signs, and flashing signs in particular.
- 223 • Number of lanes: One or two lanes per direction. In this case it was expected that  
224 pedestrians would prefer a shorter crossing distance (one lane).
- 225 • Presence of a pedestrian island: With and without an island. It was expected that  
226 pedestrians would prefer the presence of an island.
- 227 • Distance of pedestrian crossing from the entrance of the roundabout: Absence of  
228 pedestrian crossing, crossing at the entrance of the roundabout, and crossing 5 meters  
229 from the entrance. In this case there was not a clear preference in focus groups,  
230 although existing literature and the pilot survey point to a preference for a crossing far  
231 from the entrance over other options.
- 232 • Traffic volume: Low and high volume (100 and 500 vehicles/h). These values were  
233 proposed after the results observed in the pilot survey. The main objective was to  
234 make the difference easy to perceive for respondents while at the same time ensuring  
235 realistic volumes. It was expected that pedestrians would prefer lower traffic  
236 volumes.
- 237 • Traffic speed: Low and high speed (22 and 65 km/h on average). As in the case of  
238 traffic volume, the intention in the simulations was to establish a clear difference  
239 between high and low speed levels, while at the same time ensuring realistic speeds.  
240 It was expected that pedestrians would prefer lower traffic speeds.

241 The alternatives of the individual Choice Task videos were created with VISSIM, a microscopic  
242 simulation tool developed by PTV Group for modeling multimodal traffic flows. The attributes  
243 of each of the alternatives of the Choice Tasks were pre-determined by experimental design  
244 (explained further below) and programmed in VISSIM so that each Choice Task was unique. A  
245 constant pedestrian volume was used in all simulations, based on findings from the pilot survey  
246 (i.e. respondents could not distinguish different realistic levels of pedestrian volume). FIGURE 1  
247 shows a screen shot of one of the Choice Tasks that were viewed as embedded YouTube videos  
248 with the VISSIM simulations.





249  
 250 **FIGURE 1 Example of a Choice Task in the on-line survey (1.5-column fitting image,**  
 251 **color).**

252 The first option shows a roundabout with one-lane roads, no island, regular signs, and a  
 253 pedestrian crossing at the entrance of the roundabout. The second shows a roundabout with two-  
 254 lane roads, pedestrian flashing signs, a pedestrian island and a pedestrian crossing far from the  
 255 entrance of the roundabouts. While it is possible to distinguish the low (left Choice Task) and  
 256 high (right Choice Task) traffic levels in this static photo, it is not possible to distinguish traffic  
 257 speed, without watching the videos.

258 In Stated Preference surveys, the choice of levels of attributes characterizing choice alternatives  
 259 must be done with great care. The determination of what attribute levels will characterize the  
 260 alternatives in the choice tasks in a SP survey is referred to as the “experimental design” (see  
 261 Louviere *et al.* (2000), pp. 83-131). For the final version of the survey our aim was to recruit 500  
 262 respondents. As such, we used an experimental design of 500 different versions of the survey.  
 263 Each version was composed of six choice tasks involving two alternative hypothetical  
 264 roundabouts (see Figure 1 for an example of one of the choice tasks). The versions themselves  
 265 were obtained from Sawtooth Software, a software specialized in the development of SP surveys.  
 266 Sawtooth offers different approaches (or strategies) to select experimental designs from the set of  
 267 all possible choice task combinations, known as the full factorial design.

268 In this research we used the “balanced-overlap strategy”. This strategy represents a trade-off  
 269 between the random strategy and the complete enumeration strategy. The random strategy  
 270 employs random sampling with replacement for characterizing concepts (or alternatives within  
 271 the Choice Task), allowing an attribute to have identical levels across concepts, but not identical  
 272 concepts in all attributes within the same task. With the complete enumeration strategy, all  
 273 possible concepts are considered, while ensuring the most nearly orthogonal design for each

274 respondent in terms of main effects. The balanced overlap strategy allows roughly half as much  
 275 overlap within the same task as the random method. With respect to design efficiency (the  
 276 minimization of the standard error of coefficient estimates), the balanced overlap strategy is less  
 277 efficient than designs with minimal overlap, however it can result in more thoughtful responses  
 278 by encouraging respondents to trade-off between more alternatives (Sawtooth Software 2013).  
 279 The design in this study was 24 % less efficient than the most efficient design, but it allowed us  
 280 to capture all attribute interactions.

281 For the final survey, a company specialized in web-based surveys and the administration of  
 282 online research tools (Groupe Altus) was hired in order to recruit the 500 respondents qualifying  
 283 for the survey. In order to qualify, respondents needed to: be 18 years old or older; live within a  
 284 buffer of 1 km from a roundabout (as was done in the work by Goudie (2002), Kelly *et al.* (2011)  
 285 and Krizek (2006) where only respondents located within a specific buffer were considered for  
 286 the survey); and have walked through a roundabout in the past three months. In order to select  
 287 possible respondents within a 1 km buffer, the company administering the survey was provided  
 288 with coordinates of all roundabouts in Quebec.

289 The survey was conducted during the first week of July, 2013, finishing with 501 completed  
 290 online surveys. Before proceeding to the estimation of the final models presented below, some  
 291 data cleaning was done. Data cleaning is considered to be a critical and necessary step of stated  
 292 choice analysis. Guidance and examples of data cleaning by leaders in stated preference analysis  
 293 can be found in Hensher *et al.* (2005) , as well as in Hess *et al.* (2010). The approach we used  
 294 was similar to Hess *et al.* (2010). In particular, all of the choice tasks were examined and  
 295 respondents who chose choice tasks that were dominated (i.e. the alternative had at least one  
 296 better attribute and no worse attributes – based on preferences found in the literature and  
 297 confirmed in focus groups, see last paragraph of section 2) were removed from the analysis.  
 298 Altogether this represented 14 % of the respondents.

### 299 **2.3. The Multinomial Logit Model and the Mixed Logit Model**

300 The last stage of a Stated Preference survey is the statistical analysis of respondent choices. This  
 301 is most typically done through the use of discrete choice statistics. This section describes the  
 302 statistical model used.

303 This description of the multinomial logit (MNL) and mixed multinomial logit models draws  
 304 primarily on Kenneth Train's book *Discrete Choice Methods with Simulation* (Train 2009). It is  
 305 kept brief since comprehensive explanations can be found in many other references.

306 The logit model is used when trying to explain discrete choices; choices among several mutually  
 307 exclusive alternatives.

308 According to random utility theory, a decision maker ( $n$ ) will choose the alternative ( $i$ ) that  
 309 provides them the highest utility. It is important, nonetheless, to understand that: only the  
 310 decision-maker knows (intuitively) the utility of each alternative; whereas the researcher can  
 311 only observe the choices made by, and some of the characteristics of, the decision maker. By  
 312 analyzing the decision maker's choices, the researcher can estimate a representative utility  
 313 function (the deterministic portion of the utility). This is typically represented as in equation (1).

$$U_{ni} = V_{ni} + \varepsilon_{ni} \quad \forall i \quad (1)$$

314 Here,  $U_{ni}$  is the utility individual  $n$  obtains from alternative  $i$ .  $V_{ni}$  is the systematic portion of  
 315 utility and  $\varepsilon_{ni}$  is the random error.  $V_{ni}$  can be re-expressed as in equation (2) where it is a linear  
 316 combination of the model coefficients and alternative and decision-maker characteristics.

$$V_{ni} = \alpha_{ni} + \beta x_{ni} \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, n \quad (2)$$

317 The error is unobserved and unknown and in fact, it is the assumption about its distribution that  
 318 determines the model used to estimate the utility function. If the error is assumed to be  
 319 independently and identically extreme value distributed, then the probability that the individual  $n$   
 320 chooses alternative  $i$  will be defined by the closed-form expression of the MNL:

$$P_{ni} = \frac{e^{V_{ni}}}{\sum_{j=1}^J e^{V_{nj}}} \quad (3)$$

321 Although this form of the MNL model makes it straightforward to estimate, interpret and use, the  
 322 assumptions related to the error in this model are questionable in many choice contexts, such as  
 323 when observations involve more than one response from the same person. The relaxation of such  
 324 assumptions can be allowed by the use of models that require numerical integration, such as the  
 325 Mixed Logit Model.

326 In the MNL model the coefficients for  $\beta$  are fixed across users. In contrast, the Mixed  
 327 Multinomial Logit Model (MMNL) allows having a vector of random coefficients. Assuming the  
 328 utility as varying over people, but being constant over choice situations for each person, the  
 329 utility for alternative  $j$  in choice situation  $t$  by respondent  $n$  is  $U_{njt} = \beta_n x_{njt} + \varepsilon_{njt}$ , with  $\varepsilon_{njt}$   
 330 being independently and identically distributed (iid) extreme values over time, people and  
 331 alternatives. Considering a sequence of alternatives for each time period  $i = \{i_1, \dots, i_T\}$ , the  
 332 probability that a respondent makes this sequence of choice is defined as the product of logit  
 333 formulas (see equation 4), since the  $\varepsilon_{njt}$ 's are independent over time.

$$L_{ni}(\beta) = \prod_{i=1}^T \left[ \frac{e^{\beta' x_{nit}}}{\sum_{j=1}^J e^{\beta' x_{njt}}} \right] \quad (4)$$

334 The integral of this product over all values of  $\beta$ , is the unconditional probability:

$$P_{ni} = \int L_{ni}(\beta) f(\beta) d\beta \quad (5)$$

335 By integrating the product of logit formulas over all values of  $\beta$ , the correlation of errors across  
 336 the choices of a given individual are captured. As with the MNL, the MMNL is also capable of  
 337 identifying random sources of heterogeneity, making these choice models less restrictive than  
 338 models that assume fixed  $\beta$ s.

### 339 3. RESULTS

340 TABLE 2 shows the results for the MMNL model estimated with the survey data. Since we used  
 341 stated choice data with multiple responses from each respondent, we estimated a panel MMNL  
 342 to account for correlation across respondents. The model has right-signed coefficients (signs of  
 343 the coefficients are consistent with our expectations based on the existing literature and focus  
 344 group), that are all significant at the 90% confidence level. The presence of a pedestrian crossing  
 345 far from the entrance of the roundabout was found to be the attribute that would increase the

346 odds of an alternative roundabout being chosen the most. The segmentations shown in this model  
 347 suggest that those users not living in Greater Montreal are less sensitive to the number of lanes  
 348 than those living in Montreal. This is likely explained by the fact that those living in Montreal  
 349 are more accustomed to roundabouts with more lanes, and as result are less sensitive to this  
 350 design feature. Those who live outside of Montreal but frequently access roundabouts by foot are  
 351 more sensitive to speed than the rest of respondents. This is likely explained by the fact that  
 352 higher speeds are more expected in suburban and rural areas. The model also shows that four  
 353 variables (pedestrian crossing at the entrance of the roundabouts, pedestrian crossing 5 m from  
 354 the entrance, number of lanes and presence of island) are specified to have normally distributed  
 355 random coefficients.

356 **TABLE 2 Multinomial Mixed Logit Model Results for Pedestrian Preferences with Respect**  
 357 **to Roundabouts in Quebec**

Attributes	Segmented MMNL		
	Coefficient	t-Statistic	exp ( $\beta$ )
Presence of regular signs	0.422*	1.67	1.526
Presence of flashing signs	1.117***	4.29	3.055
Number of Lanes	-0.997***	-6.25	0.369
Interacted with not in Great Montreal area dummy variable	0.370*	1.88	1.448
Presence of island	0.737***	6.78	2.091
Pedestrian crossing at the entrance	2.689***	8.45	14.710
Pedestrian crossing 5 m from entrance	4.273***	10.67	71.736
Traffic volume (veh/h)	-0.163***	-6.64	0.849
Traffic speed (10 km/h)	-0.648***	-2.72	0.523
Interacted with pedestrain who mainly walk through a roundabout not in Great Montreal area dummy variable	-1.190**	-2.00	0.304
Number of random coefficients	4		
Number of lanes Standard Deviation	0.686***	2.96	-
Presence of Island Standard Deviation	0.716***	3.50	-
Pedestrian crossing at the entrance Standard Deviation	1.373***	5.38	-
Pedestrian crossing 5 m from entrance Standard Deviation	2.129***	6.91	-
Final Log Likelihood	-961.57		
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	0.4623		
Number of parameters	14		
Degree of freedom (above base MNL model)	6		
$\chi^2_{(observed)} = -2[LL_{(base\ model)} - LL_{(new\ model)}]$	106.56		
* = Significant at 90% Confidence Interval (C.I.),			
** = Significant at 95% C.I.			
*** = Significant at 99% C.I.			

358 The model suggests that there is taste variation across respondents with respect to these four  
 359 attributes, especially with respect to the coefficient for having a pedestrian crossing 5 m from the  
 360 entrance. For this attribute, such variation was also observed in focus groups – while some  
 361 pedestrians appear to prefer the safer feeling of being further from the intersection, others prefer  
 362 a more direct route. It is also interesting to observe that taste variations across respondents are  
 363 only identified in infrastructure attributes and not in operational characteristics, showing that the  
 364 perception of speed and volume (operational attributes) is more uniform across respondents. In  
 365 addition, the log likelihood ratio test (Train 2009) in the MMNL model indicates that this model  
 366 also offers better explanatory power than the base model at the 99% confidence level.

367 While these models are instructive, to better understand the results, it is helpful to get a sense of  
 368 just how important each of the design and operational characteristics are with respect to each  
 369 other. In order to do so, a substitution rates analysis was done. A substitution rate is an economic  
 370 concept defined as “the amount of a particular item that must be given to an agent in order to  
 371 exactly compensate that agent for the loss of one unit of another item” (Hensher *et al.* 2005). In  
 372 the case of logit models, substitution rates can be obtained by dividing the coefficient of one  
 373 variable with that of another. The most common substitution rate to be derived from Logit  
 374 models is the money substitution rate, or the willingness to pay (WTP). This is obtained by  
 375 dividing the coefficient for a given variable by the coefficient for price (see e.g. Train (2009), pp.  
 376 39). If the survey were about vehicle choice, for example, it would be possible to estimate WTP  
 377 for vehicle fuel efficiency by dividing the coefficient of fuel efficiency by price. Although there  
 378 is no price attribute in our case, we have estimated other non-monetary substitution rates, as  
 379 shown in Table 3.

380 **TABLE 3 Substitution rates for segmented MMNL model**

	Number of lanes	Number of lanes Outside Greater Montreal	Traffic Volume (veh/h)	Traffic Speed (10 km/h)	Traffic Speed - Frequent Pedestrians Outside Greater Montreal
Presence of regular signs	0.42	0.67	2.59	0.65	0.23
Presence of flashing signs	1.12	1.78	6.85	1.72	0.61
Presence of Island	0.74	1.18	4.52	1.14	0.40
Crossing at the entrance	2.70	4.30	16.50	4.15	1.46
5 m crossing	4.29	6.82	26.21	6.59	2.32

381  
 382 TABLE 3 shows, for instance, that the negative effect of going from one lane to two lanes in a  
 383 roundabout can be compensated by the presence of flashing signs (coefficient of flashing signs  
 384 divided by coefficient of number of lanes = 1.12 – the substitution rate between these attributes).  
 385 Substitution rates can also be calculated for changes in operational attributes. For example the  
 386 presence of a pedestrian crossing at the entrance has the same effect on pedestrian preferences as  
 387 decreasing traffic speed by ~41 km/h (substitution rate in Table 3 of 4.15, with the speed variable  
 388 unit being multiples of 10 km/hr).

389 Such substitution rates can be helpful by suggesting how different elements could be traded off  
 390 in the design of a particular roundabout in order to maintain the same degree of satisfaction that

391 pedestrians feel towards them. It is useful to observe that, in general, the impact of those  
392 attributes that are difficult to control in practice (such as traffic speed and volume) in pedestrian  
393 safety perception, can be compensated through geometrical attributes easy to implement (e.g. by  
394 providing a pedestrian crossing).

395 Although the results confirm what we might expect by intuition (apart possibly from the location  
396 of crossings), the interest in using an SP analysis and estimating a discrete choice model lies in  
397 the ability to quantify the effect of each of the attributes, while controlling for the effects of all  
398 the other attributes.

#### 399 **4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

400 Both the administration of the SP survey and the analysis of its results provide a rich field for  
401 discussion. First, this research shows how Stated Preference methods are relevant (and as yet  
402 unused) in trying to better understand pedestrian preferences with respect to safety in  
403 roundabouts. As mentioned in the literature review, while SP methods have been used to  
404 understand pedestrian preferences at traditional intersections (Kelly *et al.* 2011, Kaparias *et al.*  
405 2012) they have not been in roundabouts. Second, the modeling results and marginal substitution  
406 rates derived from them can be interpreted as recommendations of how to improve roundabout  
407 design in the eyes of vulnerable users in terms of safety, an application of these models that has  
408 not been explored before. Third, it is necessary to highlight the methods used for presenting  
409 Choice Tasks to respondents. As explained in the literature review, there is little research where  
410 videos (simulated or recorded) are used in Stated Preference surveys, apart from a few studies in  
411 other branches of transportation research (e.g. Taylor and Mahmassani (1996), Arentze *et al.*  
412 (2003), Krizek (2006)). These studies demonstrated the advantages of using recorded videos to  
413 communicate variables difficult to describe by text. Our study contributes to this by providing  
414 evidence for the advantages of using traffic micro-simulation videos to communicate operational  
415 features of roundabouts, i.e..traffic speed and volume.

416 A variety of pedestrian crossing positions can be found in roundabouts across Quebec, regardless  
417 of land use, levels of service of the road or neighborhood type where they are located. Our  
418 research shows that vulnerable users are more likely to prefer roundabouts in terms of safety  
419 perception if they have pedestrian crossings, confirming what other authors found for regular  
420 intersections (e.g. Sisiopiku and Akin (2003), Chu *et al.* (2004), Kelly *et al.* (2011)). Although  
421 many operational attributes are difficult to control in the field, respondents have demonstrated  
422 through the survey that they feel safer when traffic volume and speed are low. This is also  
423 consistent with previous research that has come to similar conclusions using other methods (see  
424 e.g. Hels and Orozova-Bekkevold (2007), Moller and Hels (2008), Daniels *et al.* (2010a, b)).  
425 Moreover, our research has found that vulnerable users consider flashing pedestrian crossing  
426 signs to be preferable than other (or no) signs – a result not found in the existing literature.

427 Evidently, it is difficult to imagine that all roundabouts could be designed according to  
428 pedestrian preferences: pedestrian crossing flashing signs, one-lane intersections, presence of an  
429 island, pedestrian crossings far from the entrance and low traffic speed and volume; but it is well  
430 worth taking them into account when implementing this type of intersection in the region,  
431 encouraging, at the same time, the use of active modes of transportation. Moreover, through the  
432 substitution rate analysis it is possible to understand how to compensate vulnerable user safety  
433 perceptions for negative operational attributes that are difficult to control. In particular, the  
434 results show that negative attributes (such as an increase in speed, volume or number of lanes)

435 can be compensated with different roundabout design features. It's particularly interesting to  
436 observe how safety perception from vulnerable users in roundabouts can be increased by  
437 relatively small changes, such as moving pedestrian crossings. Thus, the substitution rates  
438 obtained in this research can be a useful tool in the decision and policy making process related to  
439 roundabouts by providing guidance on how to trade-off different design and operational  
440 characteristics of roundabouts. The approach, for example, could be used to evaluate the effect  
441 on pedestrian perceptions of safety of roundabouts design guidelines such as those in TRB  
442 Report NCHRP Report 674: Crossing solutions at roundabouts and channelized turn lanes for  
443 pedestrians with vision disabilities (see e.g. Schroeder *et al.* (2011)).

## 444 **5. FUTURE WORK**

445 The innovative aspects of this current research suggest that there is plenty of room for testing  
446 findings and improving procedures. First, it would be interesting to compare the method  
447 presented here to a traditional text-based survey to evaluate which type of instrument would be  
448 better to use in this context.

449 More important, however, is the validation of these findings through the comparison between  
450 safety perception and actual safety and user behavior (such as the research based on direct  
451 behavior observation data funded by the FRQNT in the same larger project as this study).  
452 Although perceived safety is important for the acceptability of the design, the direct observation  
453 of user behavior and accident analysis relating to roundabouts and pedestrians (or vulnerable  
454 road users) would allow future research to propose well-defined recommendations in terms of  
455 safety regarding this type of intersection for these users.

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