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## **An analysis of official road crash cost estimates in European countries**

### **Abstract**

This paper gives an overview of official monetary valuations of the prevention of road crashes, road fatalities and injuries in 31 European countries. The values have been made comparable by converting them to Euro in 2015-values, adjusted by purchasing power parities. The monetary valuation of preventing a fatality varies from 0.7 to 3.0 million Euro. The valuation of preventing a serious injury ranges from 2.5% to 34.0% of the value per fatality and the valuation of preventing a slight injury from 0.03% to 4.2% of the value of a fatality. Total costs of road crashes are equivalent to 0.4% to 4.1% of GDP. The method used for obtaining valuations has a major impact on values. Most countries rely on the willingness-to-pay (WTP) approach, which gives higher valuations than other methods. Additional explanations for variations in valuations are differences in the cost components included, different definitions of serious and slight injuries and different levels of underreporting. Harmonization of valuation practices is needed for making sound international comparisons of road crash costs and for cost-benefit analysis at supranational level.

Keywords: costs; road crash; fatality; injury; economic valuation; willingness to pay

## 31 **1. Introduction**

32 Information about road crash costs is needed for at least two purposes. Firstly, road crash costs are  
33 regarded as a high-level outcome indicator for road safety management (Bliss & Breen, 2009). This  
34 indicator reflects the magnitude of road crashes as a socio-economic problem, which is influenced by  
35 the implementation of road safety policies, among others. Secondly, road crash cost information is  
36 used in economic assessments of road safety programs or broader transport projects. In cost-benefit  
37 analysis, road crash cost savings reflect the monetary valuation of the benefits of road safety  
38 improvements. Consequently, official guidelines for economic appraisal of transport projects usually  
39 include monetary valuations of preventing road casualties (for example EC, 2014; USDoT, 2017).

40

41 Several international reviews of road crash costs have been made in the past (Wijnen & Stipdonk,  
42 2016; Trawén et al., 2002; Elvik, 2000; Elvik, 1995; Alfaro et al., 1994). However, a comprehensive  
43 review covering all current European Union countries has not been conducted yet. Alfaro et al.  
44 (1994) concentrated on 14 European countries, while the other studies included countries from  
45 several continents (including Europe). This paper aims to fill this gap by presenting a review of road  
46 crash costs in 31 European countries, including an assessment of the size of road crash costs (total  
47 and costs per casualty and crash), the methods used to estimate these costs, and explanations for  
48 differences in cost estimates between countries. The study was conducted within the European  
49 Horizon2020 project SafetyCube, which is aimed at developing a road safety Decision Support System  
50 (DSS) for road safety policy makers and other stakeholders. This system includes a tool for  
51 conducting cost-benefit analyses of road safety measures, using country-specific information on road  
52 crash costs. The information on crash costs was collected in collaboration with the European  
53 Horizon2020 project InDeV (Kasnatscheew et al, 2016). This paper concentrates on the official values  
54 as applied by governmental organizations in economic assessment of road safety or broader  
55 transport projects. Note that in some countries other cost estimates are available, for example from  
56 academic studies, and that these values may deviate from the values officially used by the

57 government. In Belgium for example, academic studies on road crash costs have been conducted (De  
58 Brabander en Vereeck, 2007; De Brabander, 2006), but the results of these studies are not adopted  
59 in the governmental guidelines for economic appraisal (RebelGroup, 2013). Policy makers may tend  
60 to choose relatively conservative values. For example, the European Conference of Ministers of  
61 Transport deliberately choose a value of a fatality that was lower than the scientifically most  
62 accurate estimate (ECMT, 1998). Other examples include Belgium, where a higher value of a fatality  
63 found by De Brabander (2006) was not used as a standard governmental value, and the Netherlands,  
64 where a value of a fatality at the lower bound of a range was chosen as the official value (Wesemann  
65 et al., 2005). Given these discrepancies, the present study focuses on the crash costs that are applied  
66 by the government and does not include crash costs from other sources.

67

## 68 **2. Method for the analysis of official national cost values**

69 To enable a comparative analysis of monetary valuations of road safety in European countries, a  
70 framework was defined, consisting of a classification of the main cost components, underlying cost  
71 items within each component and methods to estimate each cost item. The framework was based on  
72 guidelines for estimating road crash costs, in particular the European COST313 guidelines (Alfaro et  
73 al., 1994) and best practices as identified in international reviews of road crash cost studies (Wijnen  
74 & Stipdonk 2016).

75

76 The main cost components included in the framework are:

- 77 1. Medical costs, such as costs of hospitalization, rehabilitation and other medical treatment;
- 78 2. Production loss: the loss of production or productive capacity of road casualties;
- 79 3. Human costs: immaterial cost of pain, grief, loss of quality of life and lost life years;
- 80 4. Property damage, such as damage to vehicles and infrastructure.
- 81 5. Administrative costs: costs related to police for attending road crashes, fire service, insurance  
82 and legal costs;

83 6. Other costs, such as funeral costs, congestion costs and vehicle unavailability.

84

85 In addition, three valuation methods are identified for estimating these cost components:

86 1. The restitution costs approach, which comprises estimates of the costs of resources that are

87 needed to restore road casualties and their relatives and friends as much as possible to the

88 situation which would exist if they had not been involved in a road crash. These costs can be

89 interpreted as the direct costs resulting from a crash, such as the costs of hospital treatment and

90 vehicle repair. This approach is typically used to estimate medical costs, property damage and

91 administrative costs, as these costs are associated with restoring the consequences of road

92 crashes. Usually market prices are used to value these costs, if available. For example, costs of

93 vehicle damage are calculated using the price of repairing a vehicle, which represents the value

94 of the resources (e.g. labour and materials) used to repair the vehicle.

95 2. Human capital (HC) approach: in this approach the value for society of the loss of productive

96 capacities of road casualties is measured. This approach is suitable for estimating production

97 loss. The HC approach can be used to estimate either the actual production loss or the potential

98 production loss. The first concerns the market production of casualties who are employed, while

99 the latter refers to what casualties could potentially produce. Potential production loss takes

100 into account the loss of productive capacities of unemployed people as well as future

101 production of children. Future production is discounted using a social discount rate.

102 3. Willingness to pay (WTP) approach: in this approach costs are estimated on the basis of the

103 amount individuals are willing to pay for a risk reduction. This approach is generally

104 recommended as the most appropriate method to estimate human costs (Freeman et al., 2014;

105 Boardman et al., 2011; Alfaro, 1994), since there is no market price for these costs. Stated

106 preference or revealed preference methods are used to determine the WTP (see e.g.

107 Bahamonde-Birke et al., 2015; Blaeij, 2003). Revealed preference methods value risk reductions

108 on the basis of actual behaviour, for example purchasing behaviour regarding safety provisions

109 such as airbags. Stated preference methods use questionnaires in which people, directly or  
110 indirectly, are asked how much they are willing to pay for reducing their crash risk. Although  
111 both types of methods are valid, reviews show that stated preference methods are much more  
112 commonly used in the field of road safety, particularly in Europe (Lindhjem, 2010; Blaeij et al.,  
113 2003). Despite several types of potential bias related to using surveys (Bahamonde-Birke et al.,  
114 2015 ; Boardman et al., 2011), stated preference methods are often preferred because of their  
115 broader applicability and independence of information on actual (purchasing) behaviour.  
116 Moreover, consumers are usually not (fully) aware of the risk reduction resulting from safety  
117 devices and stated preference methods allow providing this information to respondents to help  
118 them understand (small) risk reductions correctly (Lindhjem, 2010).

119

120 Note that willingness to pay estimates comprise, in addition to a valuation of immaterial loss of  
121 quality of life, a valuation of consumption loss, which overlaps with production loss. Consequently, a  
122 correction for consumption loss should be made to avoid double counting (Wijnen et al., 2009). In  
123 this respect a distinction is commonly made between gross production loss (including consumption  
124 loss) and net production loss (excluding production loss). It is common practice to use the concept of  
125 gross production and to deduct consumption loss from WTP estimates (Wijnen & Stipdonk, 2016).

126

127 The framework is discussed in more detail in Wijnen et al. (2017).

128

129 Based on this framework a questionnaire was developed, including questions on:

- 130 – Costs per casualty and per crash, per cost component and by severity level. Seven cost  
131 categories were distinguished based on the severity level: fatalities and fatal crashes, serious  
132 injuries and serious injury crashes, slight injuries and slight injury crashes, and property  
133 damage only (PDO) crashes.
- 134 – Cost items included in each cost component.

- 135 – Methods and databases used to estimate each cost item.
- 136 – Total costs of all casualties and crashes and their percentage of Gross Domestic Product
- 137 (GDP).
- 138 – Year of the cost estimates (primary study and updates).
- 139 – Number of crashes and casualties by severity level and definitions of severity levels.

140 Official cost figures as used by governmental organizations were requested.

141

142 Experts from 32 European countries (28 EU-countries, Iceland, Norway, Serbia, and Switzerland)

143 were contacted by sending them a standardized email and asked for literature and other information

144 on road crash costs in their country. The questionnaire was filled in by the researchers as completely

145 as possible on the basis of this literature and then sent to the country experts for checking and

146 completion. Validation checks were performed with a few key indicators to check consistency of

147 values and avoid errors, e.g. a check whether costs per casualty were equal to total costs of

148 casualties divided by number of casualties (for each severity level). The experts were contacted again

149 for validating cases where errors were suspected or for providing additional information. Official cost

150 figures were obtained from 30 countries. The information provided by the Lithuanian expert was not

151 used, because it did not reflect the official figures. A governmental report was used instead (LRA,

152 2015). Portugal was added using figures from Donário & Dos Santos (2012). The information

153 provided by the Portuguese expert was not used because it was internally inconsistent. No data were

154 obtained for Romania.

155

156 An integrated dataset was created by reading in the MS Excel questionnaires using MS Visual Basic.

157 This dataset was exported to a delimited text file and written to a SQLite database (Hipp et al., 2016),

158 using R (R Core team, 2018). The further data cleaning and data analysis took place in this database.

159 Several quality checks were carried out, in particular concerning data completeness and internal

160 consistency. Modifications of the data were done where appropriate, such as adding missing data

161 that could be calculated from data in other parts of the questionnaire or data from other sources. For  
162 example, if the total cost as a percentage of GDP was missing, this figure was calculated using total  
163 costs from the questionnaire and GDP from Eurostat. In addition, the data were specified according  
164 to the severity categories for crashes and injuries in the questionnaire. Finally, all costs figures were  
165 converted into Euro and price level 2015 using GDP deflators and Purchasing Power Parities (PPP)  
166 from Eurostat. A detailed description of the data processing is given by Wijnen et al. (2017).

167

### 168 **3. Results**

#### 169 *Costs per fatality*

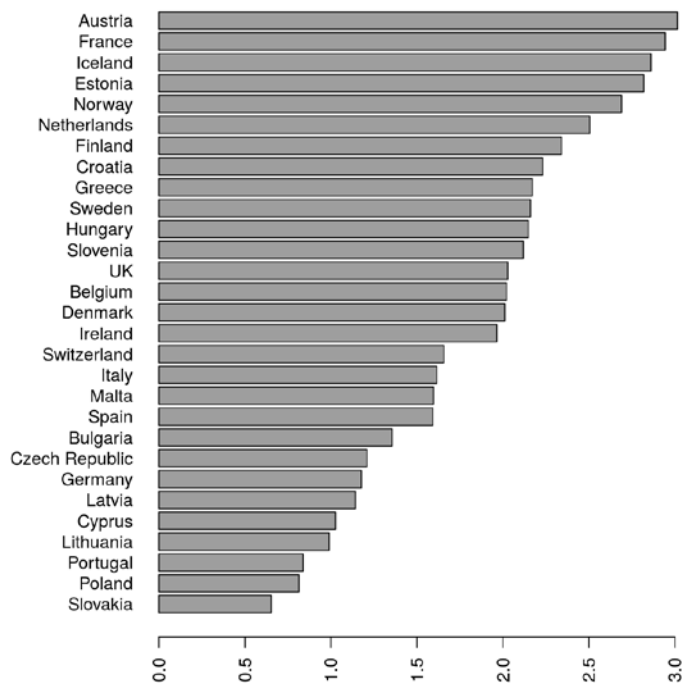
170 The survey shows that the official estimates of costs per fatality range from €0.7 million to €3.0  
171 million (Figure 1).

172

173 There are three potential explanations for the differences in costs per fatality:

- 174 - Differences in the definition of a road fatality.
- 175 - Differences in costs components that have been included.
- 176 - Differences in methods used to estimate each cost component.

177



178

179 Figure 1 Costs per fatality (Million EUR 2015, adjusted for PPP; N=29; no data available for Luxembourg and Serbia).

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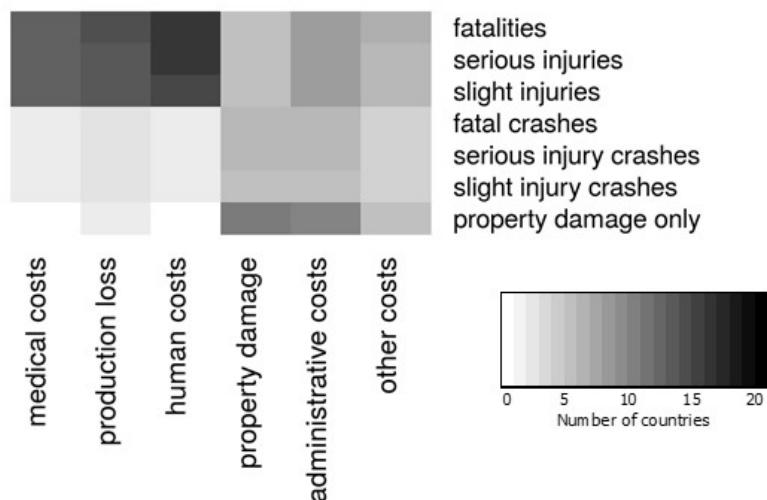
181 Regarding the definition of a road fatality, 95% of the countries (N=21) apply the criterion that a  
 182 casualty who dies within 30 days after the crash (and as a result of the crash) is regarded as a road  
 183 fatality.<sup>1</sup> Consequently, differences in definitions are not a main explanation for differences in the  
 184 costs per fatality.

185 Concerning cost components, Figure 2 (a 'heatmap') shows how many countries have included each  
 186 cost component in the costs per casualty and costs per crash by severity level. The black colour  
 187 indicates that most countries have included a cost component while light grey indicates that few  
 188 countries have included a cost component. This shows that the majority of countries have included  
 189 the injury- related costs components (medical costs, production loss and human costs) in costs per  
 190 fatality (as well as in costs per serious and slight injury). However, crash-related costs (property  
 191 damage, administrative costs and most of the other costs) are not always included. This is partly  
 192 explained by the fact that several countries have strictly separated casualty-related and crash-related

<sup>1</sup> For 10 countries the definition of a road fatality was not filled in in the questionnaire. Most probably most of these countries have used the same definition, as the 30 day criterion is the international standard (Eurostat et al., 2009).



193 costs. They include casualty-related costs only in costs per casualty and crash-related costs only in  
 194 costs per crash, while other countries have assigned crash-related costs to casualties using  
 195 information on number of casualties per crash.



197 Figure 2 Heatmap of the number of countries which have included each cost component in costs per casualty and crash by  
 198 severity level.

199

200 The results of our survey show that differences in valuation methods across European countries  
 201 mainly concern human costs. For other cost components, in general there is consensus on the  
 202 method to be used: human capital approach for production loss and the restitution costs approach  
 203 for most other cost components. Figure 3 shows the method that is used to estimate human costs of  
 204 fatalities in each country.<sup>2</sup> Most countries (n=18) apply a WTP method, while three countries use the  
 205 human capital method (which in fact does not measure human costs but production loss). Two  
 206 countries apply the restitution costs method. In this case the restitution costs method means that  
 207 the valuation of a fatality is based on payments made to relatives to compensate their immaterial  
 208 losses. For the remaining countries the method is not known (other method or no information  
 209 available).

<sup>2</sup> In the questionnaire information on the method per cost component was asked for, but not separately for fatalities and serious and slight injuries. We assume that the information on the methods applies (at least) to fatalities.

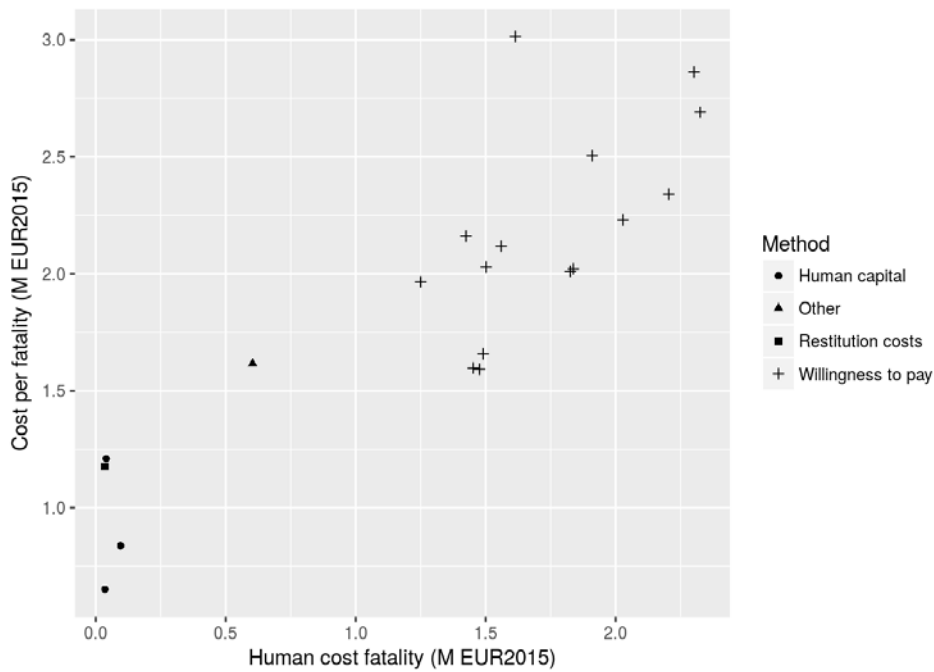
210

211 Figure 3: Methods used to estimate human costs of fatalities

212

213 Human costs based on a WTP method are found to be much higher than values based on the  
214 compensation payments or the human capital approach. Consequently, total costs per fatality are  
215 much higher in WTP countries than in other countries since human costs represent a major share in  
216 the total costs per fatality in countries that apply the WTP approach (54% to 94%), see Figure 4.

217



218

219 Figure 4: Relation between human costs per fatality, total costs per fatality and method for estimating human costs.

220

221 *Costs per serious and slight injury*

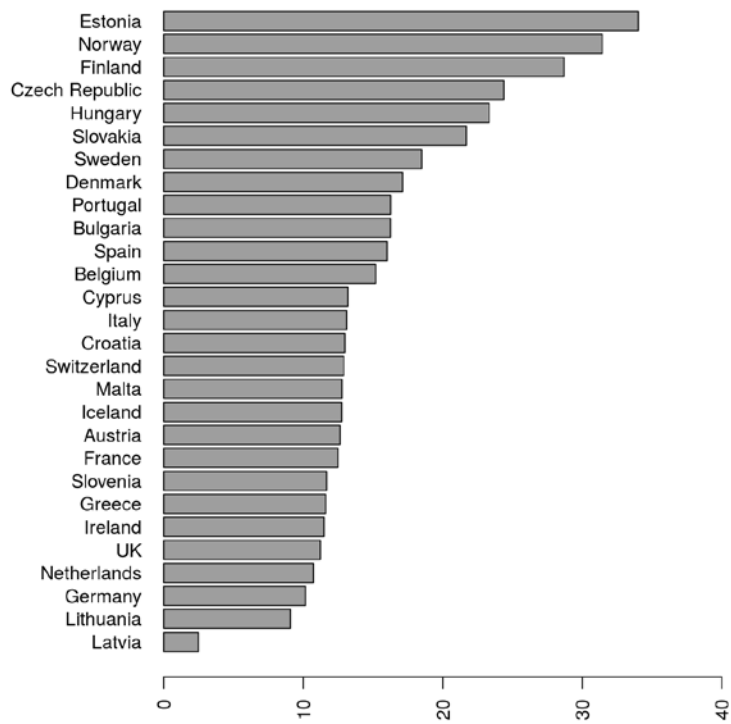
222 The costs of a serious injury range from 2.5% to 34.0% of the costs of a fatality (Figure 5).<sup>3</sup> Although  
 223 this is a very wide range, about three quarters of the countries have a value between 10% and 20% of  
 224 the value of a fatality. This is probably explained by the fact that information on the human costs of  
 225 serious injuries is very limited, while these costs have large share in total cost per serious injury (51%  
 226 to 91% in countries using a WTP method). Schoeters et al. (2017) note that only a few European  
 227 countries conducted WTP study on non-fatal risks: Belgium (De Brabander, 2006), Sweden (Persson  
 228 et al., 1995; Persson, 2004) and the UK (O'Reilly et al., 1994). Most other countries use the results  
 229 from the studies in these countries, or they apply a standard percentage of the value per fatality as  
 230 proposed in European projects (for example the HEATCO project; Bickel et al., 2006). Of course, the  
 231 variation in the actual values per serious injury is still large (€28,000-€959,000) because there is  
 232 variation in the human costs per fatality, from which the costs per serious injury are derived. Costs of

<sup>3</sup> Poland is excluded, because the costs per serious injury was stated to be higher than the costs per fatality. This seems to be implausible, because human costs are included in both costs per fatality and cost per serious injury.

233 a slight injury show even more variation: these costs range from 0.03% to 4.2% of the costs of a  
234 fatality (Figure 6). The range of actual values is extremely wide: €296 to €71,742.

235

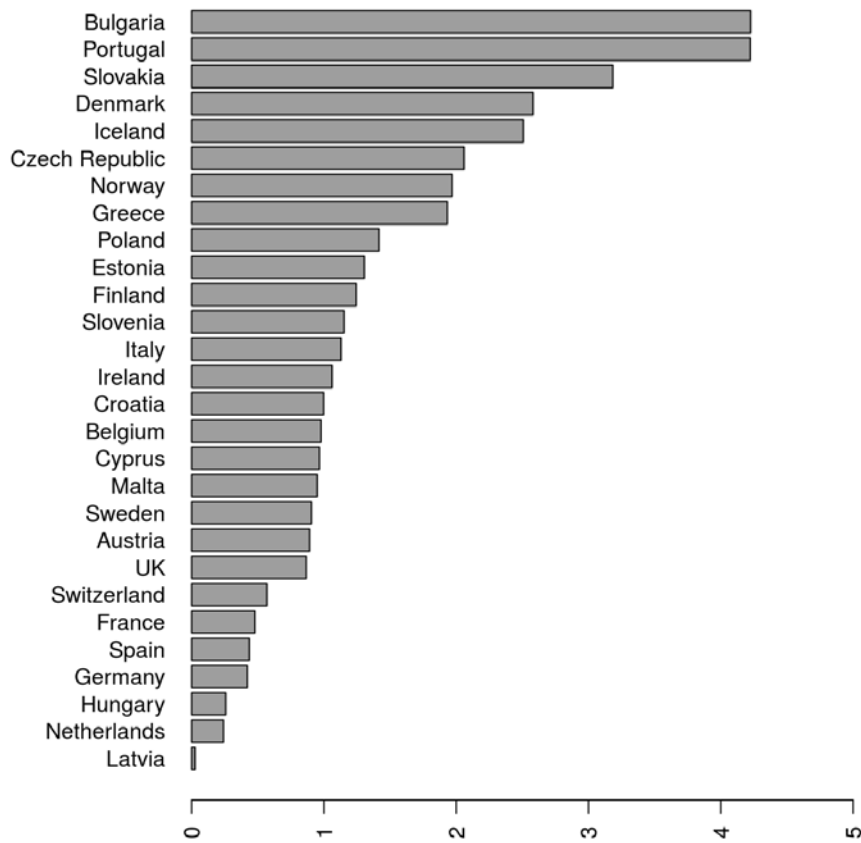
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237

238 Figure 5: Costs per serious injury as a percentage of the costs per fatality. (N=28; no data available for Luxembourg and

239 Serbia and Poland is excluded)



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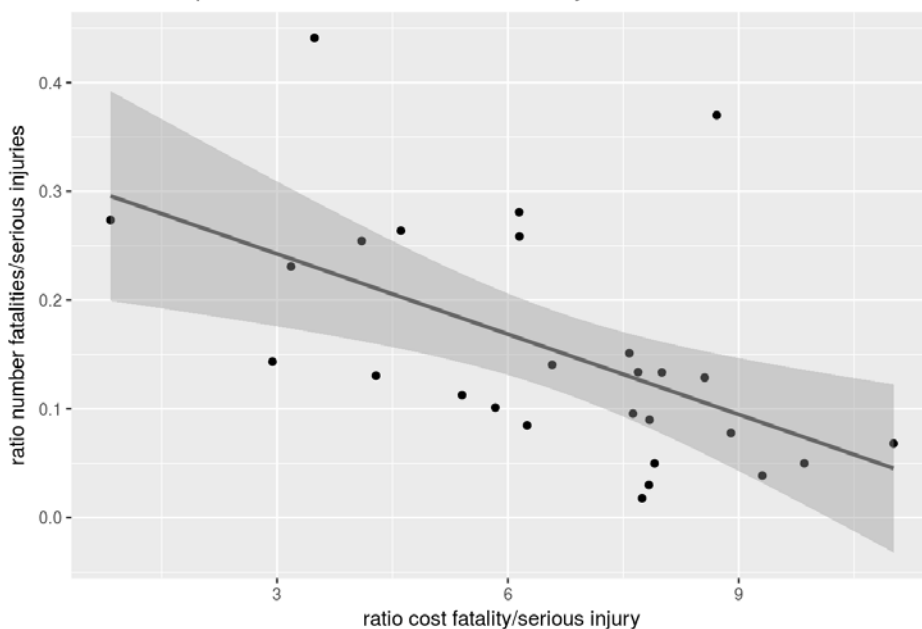
241 Figure 6: Costs per slight injury as a percentage of the costs per fatality (N=28; no data available for Lithuania, Luxembourg  
 242 and Serbia).

243

244 Three explanations for the variations in costs per serious and slight injury can be put forward. Firstly,  
 245 the individual countries use different definitions of injuries. Some countries use a criterion based on  
 246 hospital admission (at least 24 or 48 hours for serious injuries), while other countries use a definition  
 247 based on the type and severity of the injuries. Also a minimum duration of inability to work and  
 248 payment of disability benefits are used as criteria in some countries. Secondly, the reporting rate (by  
 249 the police or hospitals) of injuries may affect the average costs of injuries. A higher reporting rate  
 250 usually implies that more injuries of lower severity are included in the casualty statistics, resulting in  
 251 a relatively lower average value per injury. A lower number of serious injuries relative to the number

252 of fatalities is accompanied by relatively higher costs of a serious injury (Figure 7).<sup>4</sup> Thirdly,  
 253 differences in cost components included and methodological differences may explain the differences  
 254 in costs per serious and per slight injury. Just as for fatalities, several countries do not include crash-  
 255 related costs, while casualty-related costs are included by most countries (Figure 2). Regarding  
 256 methods, the main difference concerns the estimation of human costs (WTP or other methods),  
 257 similar to fatalities.

258



259

260 Figure 7: Relation between the ratio of number of fatalities and serious injuries and the ratio of costs per fatality and costs  
 261 per serious injury ( $R^2=0.2996$ ;  $F(1,25)=10.69$ ;  $p=0.003$ ).

262

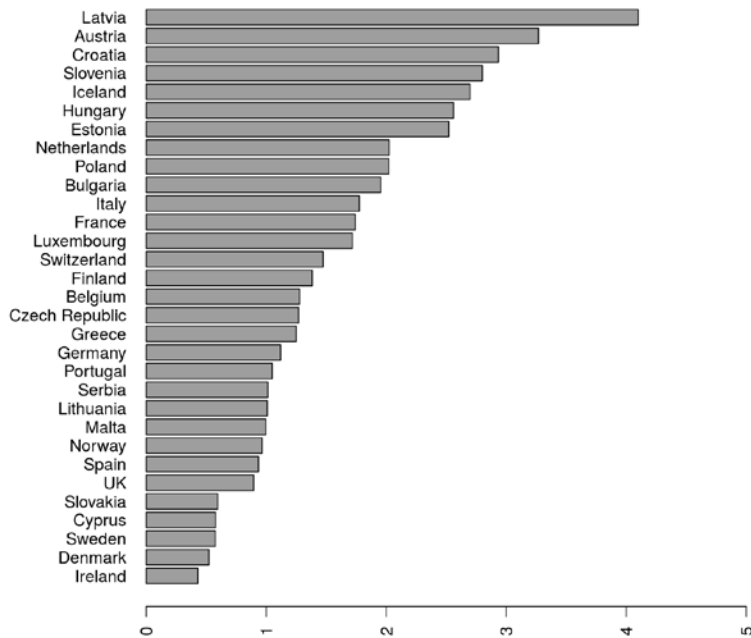
263 *Total costs*

264 The total costs of road crashes as a percentage of GDP show also large variability, with a range from  
 265 0.4% to 4.1% (Figure 8). In addition to differences in methods used to estimate costs per casualty  
 266 (discussed above), two other factors could potentially explain this variation. Firstly, it may reflect

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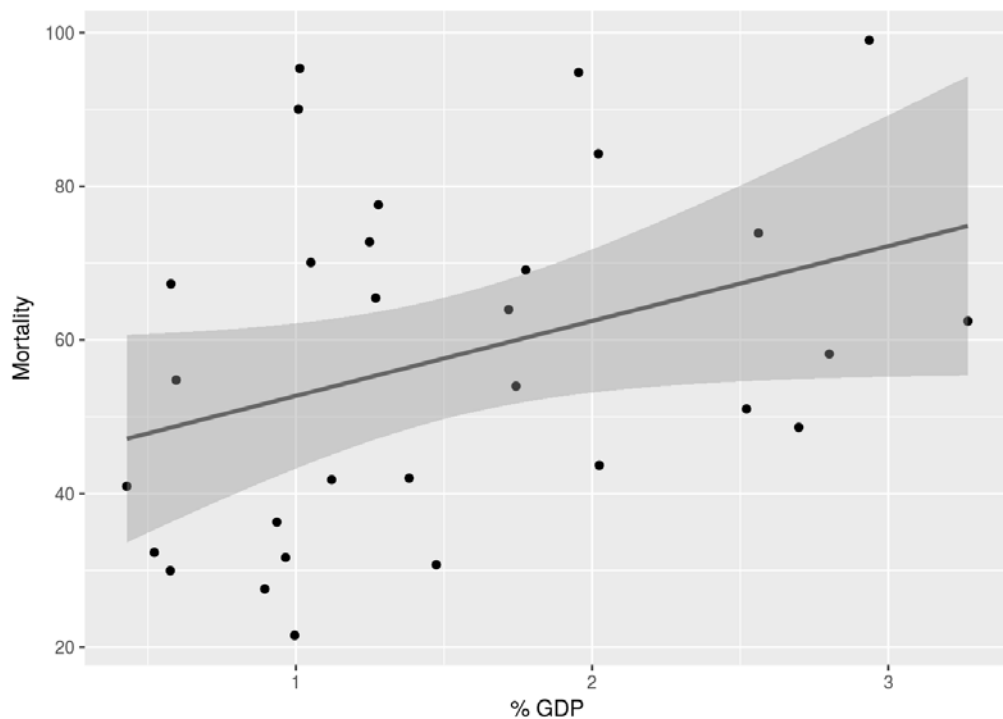
<sup>4</sup> Greece and Latvia are regarded as outliers and therefore are excluded in this graph. In Greece the ratio of number of fatalities/number of serious injuries is extremely high compared to other countries and in Latvia the ratio of costs per fatality/costs per serious injury is extremely high. Without these two countries the relation between the two ratios is significant at the 1% level. If these countries are included the relation is non-significant however.

267 differences in road safety levels. Evidently, a better road safety performance should ceteris paribus  
268 result in lower road crash costs. However, road safety performance cannot explain the full variation  
269 as shown by Figure 9. Only a weak positive relation between mortality rate and costs as a percentage  
270 of GDP (statistically significant at the 10% confidence level) is found ( $R^2=0.122$ ,  $F(1,28)=3.89$ ;  $p=0.59$ ).  
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272  
273 Figure 8: Total costs of road crashes as percentage of GDP

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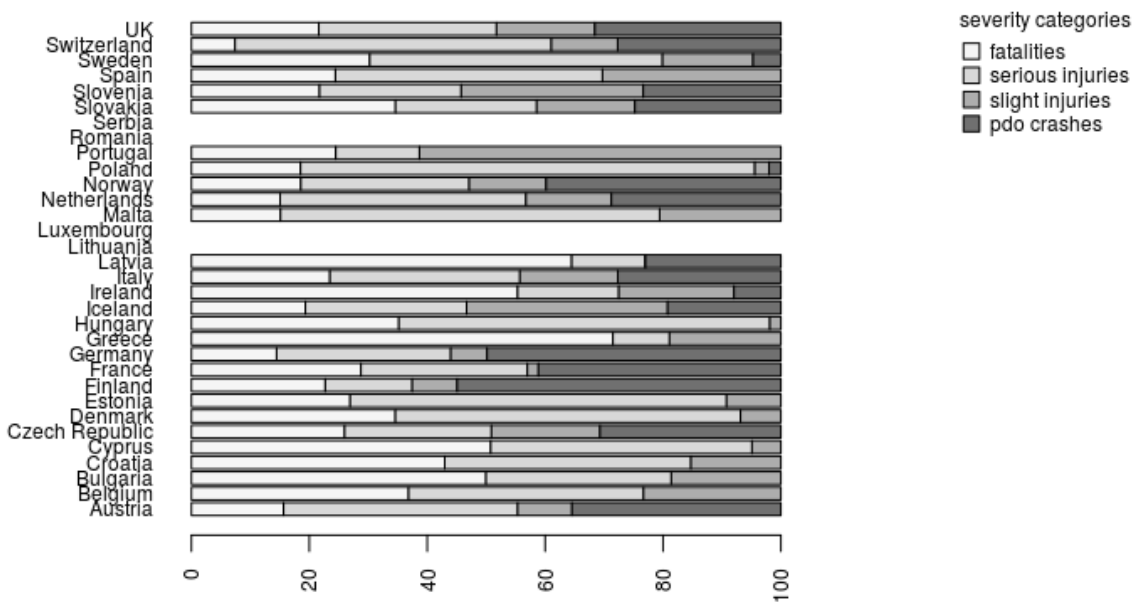
279 Figure 9: Relation between mortality rate (number of fatalities per million inhabitants) and costs of road crashes as  
 280 percentage of GDP

281

282

283 Secondly, differences in the methodology that is applied to calculate total costs can explain variation  
 284 in costs. In addition to the differences in methods to estimate costs per casualty (discussed above),  
 285 this concerns in particular the extent to which all severity levels have been included in total costs and  
 286 the extent to which a correction is made for underreporting. Concerning severity levels, all countries  
 287 include fatalities, serious injuries and slight injuries in the estimate of total costs, but PDO crashes are  
 288 not included in 44% of the countries (N=29). Exclusion of PDO crashes can result in a considerable  
 289 underestimation of total costs: PDO crashes have a very significant weight in total costs, up to more  
 290 than 50% for countries taking into account PDO crashes (figure 10).





291

292 Figure 10: Share of fatalities, serious and slight injuries and PDO crashes in total costs

293 Figure 10 also shows that injuries have a major share in total costs in most countries. The share of  
 294 injuries is on average 2.4 times higher than the share of fatalities in total costs. Although the value of  
 295 a fatality is much higher than the value of a serious or slight injury, the much higher number of  
 296 injuries results in them having a relatively high share in the total costs in most countries. However,  
 297 the distribution of costs over severity levels differs considerably between countries, even between  
 298 countries that include all severity levels. For countries having information on all severity levels, the  
 299 costs of fatalities account for 7.4% to 55% of the total costs, serious injuries account for 14% to 77%,  
 300 slight injuries account for 1.9% to 34% and PDO crashes account for 2.0% to 55%. Such variations are  
 301 explained partly, as discussed above, by variations in reporting rates at each severity level (few  
 302 countries correct for underreporting of casualties or crashes in their estimates of total costs for  
 303 instance).

304

305 **4. Discussion**

306 Our study shows that the official national estimates of road crashes found in European countries vary  
307 widely. This in line with the results of previous reviews of road crash costs, which are summarized in  
308 Table 2 (including this study). Previous studies found ranges of total costs (as percentage of GDP)  
309 which are quite similar to the range we found but including different countries with other valuation  
310 methods. Previous studies also found wide ranges of costs per fatality, with the highest value 3.9 to  
311 20.5 times higher than the lowest value. In all of these studies the variation in cost estimates is  
312 largely explained by differences in methodologies, particularly concerning methods to estimate  
313 human costs, which is in line with the present results. Omission of unreported crashes and casualties  
314 further contributes to differences in estimates of total costs and, moreover, results in substantial  
315 underestimation of total costs, which is not noticed in previous studies.

316 Human costs are much higher in countries that use on the willingness to pay approach. Values based  
317 on compensation payments appear to be much lower, as these are based on the common practices  
318 and judgements of organizations that determine the size of the compensation (e.g. law courts,  
319 insurance companies, governments) instead of risk valuations of the individuals involved. Countries  
320 that solely rely on the human capital approach have lower values because the production and  
321 consumption indicators used in this approach do not capture immaterial costs. These differences  
322 particularly affect the costs of a fatality, because human cost have a major share in total costs per  
323 fatality (54% to 94%). However, variation in the costs per fatality is not only related to the  
324 methodological approach (WTP or other methods), as also WTP estimates vary across countries. This  
325 is in line with literature on the VOSL (Value Of a Statistical Life). Several explanations for variation in  
326 VOSLs were found in meta-analyses (Lindhjem et al., 2011; De Blaeij, 2003; Miller, 2000), including  
327 the type of WTP method (stated versus revealed preferences), the initial risk level, the size of the risk  
328 change that is evaluated, the economic welfare level and the characteristics of the mortality risk (e.g.  
329 public versus private risk). Hauer (2011) argues that variation in VOSL estimates is inherent to  
330 challenges related to the WTP elicitation methods, for example people's ability to understand small  
331 risks and to state their preferences related to those risks. The variation in the human costs of a

332 fatality in our study is not as wide as the variation found in this literature. This is partly explained by  
 333 the fact that several countries use standard European values. In addition, the people who decide on  
 334 the official national values, who may be researchers or policy makers, usually can choose from a  
 335 range of values. They may tend to choose conservative values (as was the case in the Netherlands for  
 336 example; Wijnen et al., 2009), values that are in the same order of magnitude as the values used in  
 337 other countries or standardized European values.

338 If our results are compared with the first European review of road crash costs in 14 European  
 339 countries (Alfaro et al., 1994), the costs per fatality have converged even though we included more  
 340 than twice as many countries: the highest value was 11.2 times higher than the lowest in 1994  
 341 whereas this ratio is 4.2 in 2015. Apparently, some convergence of methods used to estimate costs  
 342 per fatality has taken place. However, the range of costs of a serious injury has become much wider:  
 343 in the COST313 study the highest value was 11 times higher than the lowest (129,0280 versus 11,506  
 344 ECU, 1990), whereas in our study this ratio in 34 (€28,000-€959,000, 2015).<sup>5</sup> This is likely to be  
 345 explained by the fact that we have included more countries that apply different and more  
 346 heterogeneous definitions of a serious injury and/or different methods to estimate costs of injuries.

| Study                | Number of countries | Regions/countries      | %GDP    | Costs per fatality          |                            |
|----------------------|---------------------|------------------------|---------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
|                      |                     |                        |         | Range                       | ratio highest/lowest value |
| Alfaro et al. (1994) | 14                  | Europe                 | -       | 0.1-1.5 million ECU (1990)  | 11.2                       |
| Elvik (1995)         | 20                  | Europe (15), other (5) | -       | 0.9-17.8 million NOK (1991) | 20.5                       |
| Elvik (2000)         | 11                  | EU (6), other (5)      | 1.3-5.7 | -                           | -                          |
| Trawen et al.        | 11                  | EU (8), US, AU, NZ     | -       | 0.9-3.6 million USD         | 3.9                        |

<sup>5</sup> The COST<sub>313</sub> values only include casualty-related costs (medical costs, production loss and human costs) whereas our estimates also include crash-related costs (property damage and administrative costs). This does not have much influence on the comparison, because crash-related costs have a minor share (4.1%) in total costs per serious injury.

|                          |    |                               |         |                            |     |
|--------------------------|----|-------------------------------|---------|----------------------------|-----|
| (2002)                   |    |                               |         | (1999)                     |     |
| Wijnen & Stipdonk (2016) | 10 | EU (6), AU, NZ, Singapore, US | 0.5-6.0 | 1.4-9.5 million USD (2012) | 6.8 |
| Wijnen et al. (2017)     | 31 | EU                            | 0.4-4.1 | 0.7-3.0 million EUR (2015) | 4.2 |

347 Table 2: Overview of reviews of road crash costs

348 We have expressed total road crash costs as a proportion of GDP, which is common practice in  
349 international reviews of total road crash costs (Wijnen & Stipdonk, 2016; Elvik, 2000). This enables  
350 comparing the costs across countries, as differences in population size and economic performance  
351 are accounted for by using GDP as a denominator. However, the proportion of GDP should by no  
352 means be interpreted as the impact of road crashes on GDP. Human cost are intangible costs, which  
353 are not related to the measurement of income and production at which GDP is aimed. Moreover,  
354 road crashes could contribute positively to GDP, because crashes result in production in certain  
355 economic sectors such as health care and vehicle repair. GDP is a different concept from the  
356 concepts used in welfare economic theory which is the basis for cost-benefit analysis and (thus) for  
357 road crash costing. From the welfare economic perspective, costs are related mostly to the  
358 immaterial loss of welfare, or loss of quality of life associated with fatalities and injuries. In addition,  
359 resources that are used to repair damage are treated as costs in welfare economic theory. This  
360 contrasts with the GDP perspective, where using resources for production, also if this is aimed at  
361 repairing damage, contributes positively to economic welfare. Moreover, immaterial losses are not  
362 included in GDP.

363 Our analysis shows that the costs of road crashes vary widely across European countries, and that the  
364 differences are mainly explained by methodological differences. These differences hinder making  
365 sound international comparisons of road crash costs and using costs as a road safety indicator, as  
366 different costs represent differences in measurement more than difference in road safety  
367 performance. Moreover, it could distort road safety investments at the international level towards

368 countries where costs per casualty are higher (and thus the benefits of these investments are  
369 assumed to be higher). For example, cost-benefit analysis of the implementation of European vehicle  
370 legislation would require a common value. Using different values could lead to erroneous conclusions  
371 about the economic return of such interventions for the different countries, if those differences are  
372 related to different valuation methods. For these purposes, harmonization of road crash costs  
373 estimates is needed.

374

## 375 **5. Conclusions**

376 There are large differences in official estimates of road crash costs in European countries. Total costs  
377 range from 0.4% to 4.1% of GDP and cost per fatality from €0.7 million to €3.0 million (2015,  
378 adjusted for PPP). Cost per serious injury range from 2.5% to 34.0% of the costs per fatality, and the  
379 costs per slight injury from 0.03% to 4.2% of the costs per fatality. The differences are largely  
380 explained by differences in methodologies, in particular whether or not a willingness to pay method  
381 is applied to estimate human costs, differences in costs components that are included, different  
382 definitions of serious and slight injuries and differences in reporting rates of crashes and injuries. The  
383 fact that underreporting is not taken into account in cost estimates in most countries, implies a  
384 serious underestimation of total costs in these countries. Moreover, several countries do not include  
385 property damage only crashes in total costs, implying a further underestimation of total costs.

386

387 The methodological differences in cost estimates are a serious obstacle when decisions on  
388 countermeasures have to be made at a supranational level or when international comparisons and  
389 benchmarking are needed. For these purposes developing harmonized European cost estimates is  
390 recommended. In addition, future national road crash costs studies could concentrate on applying  
391 international recommended methods (in particular WTP methods), on including all relevant cost

392 components and on taking into account underreporting and PDO crashes, in order to achieve more  
393 harmonization.

394

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