

Figure 1-A Components of Total Economic Costs

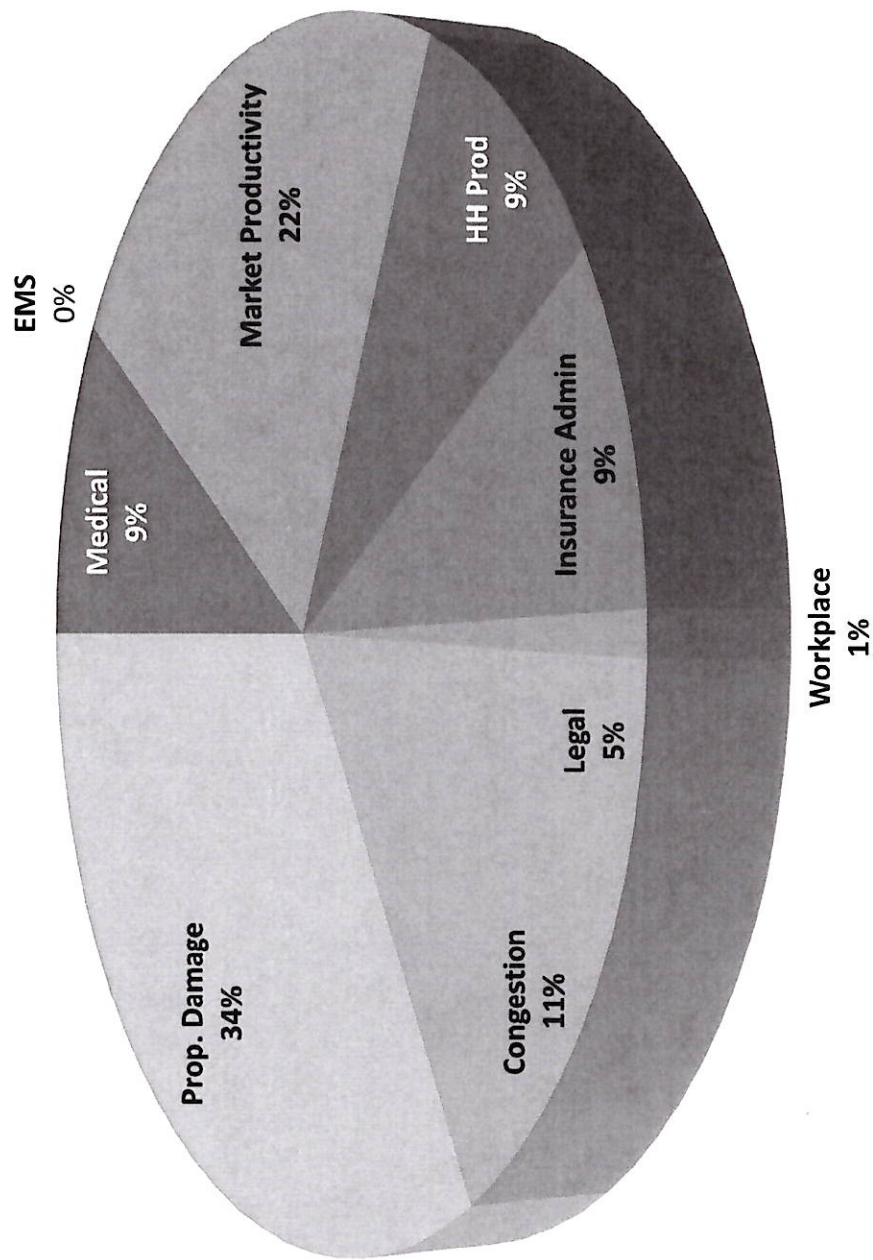


Figure I-B Source of Payment for Motor Vehicle Crash Costs

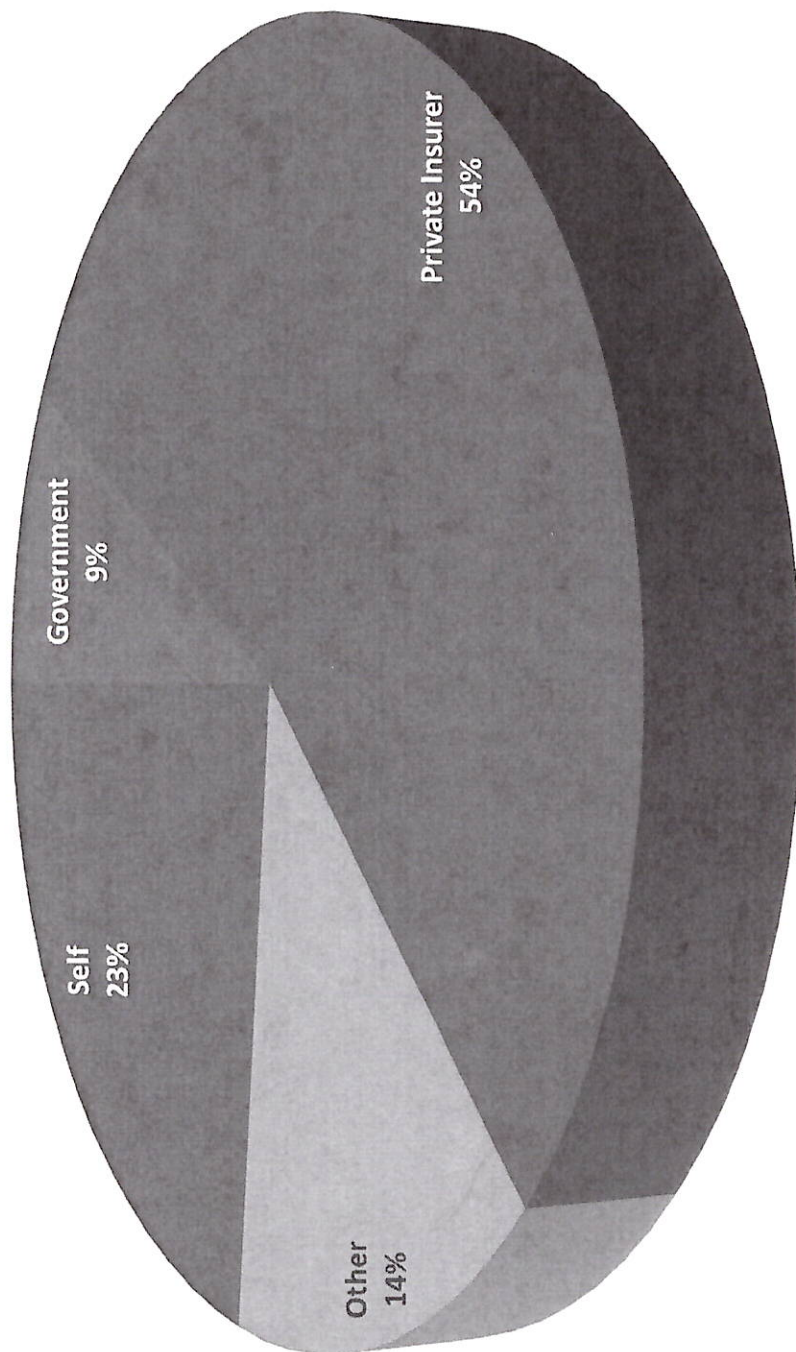
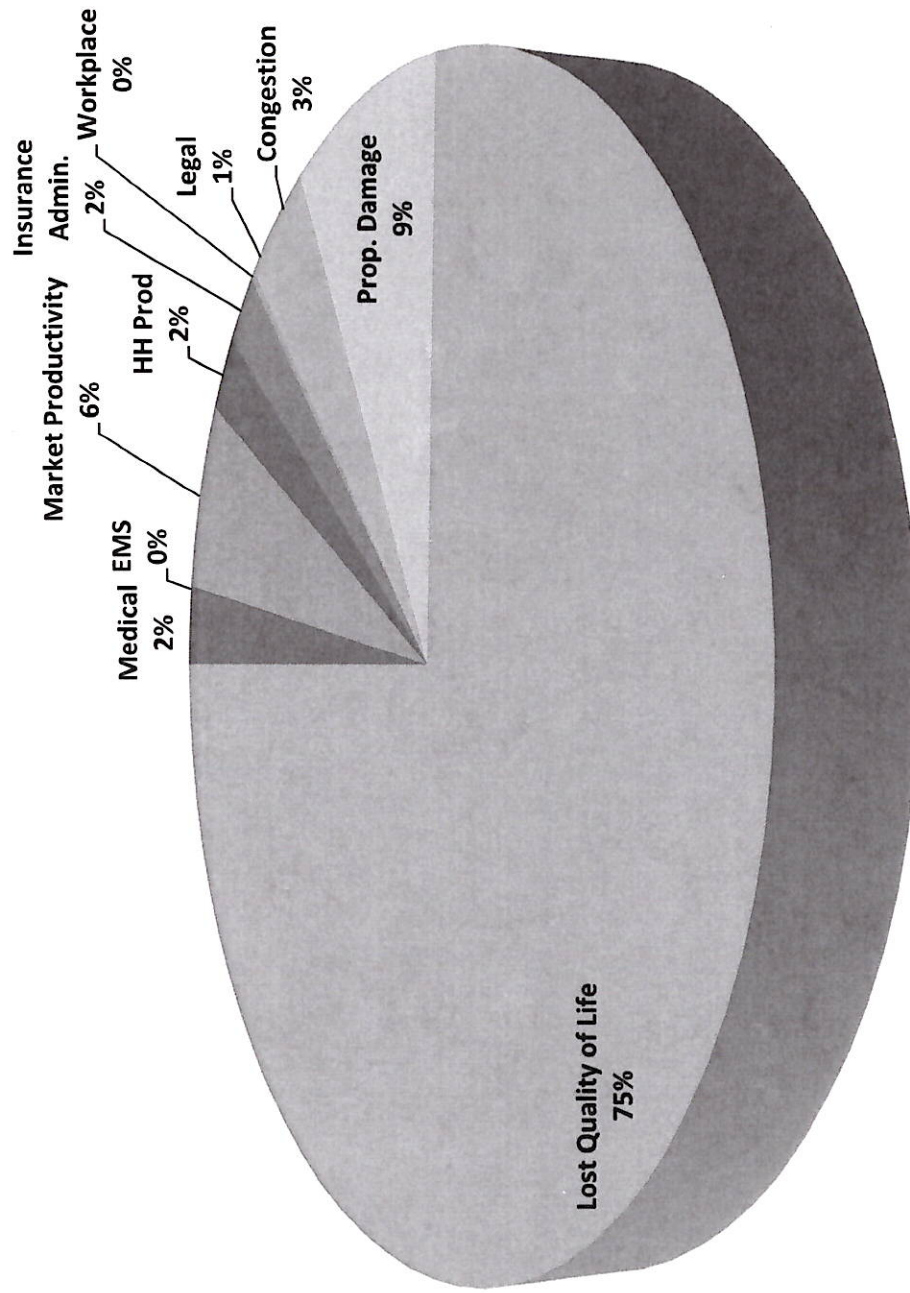


Figure 1-D Components of Comprehensive Costs



will ultimately represent only vehicles damaged in PDO crashes. However, of the 8.3 million vehicles that were damaged in PDO crashes, some portion were incorrectly identified as PDOs. We thus applied the revised all cases translator for MAIS0 cases to this total to adjust for incorrect police reports. This reduces the total to 93 percent of initial reported PDOs or 7,773,120 vehicles in police-reported crashes.

Reporting a crash to police does not assure that a PCR will actually be filed. Individual police jurisdictions typically have reporting thresholds, especially for crashes that only involve property damage. A person may report a crash, but if police determine that the crash does not meet the damage threshold, police may not file a crash report. Reporting thresholds vary by State and sometimes by jurisdiction. Table 2-7 lists damage reporting thresholds by State.

Table 2-7 State PDO Reporting Thresholds

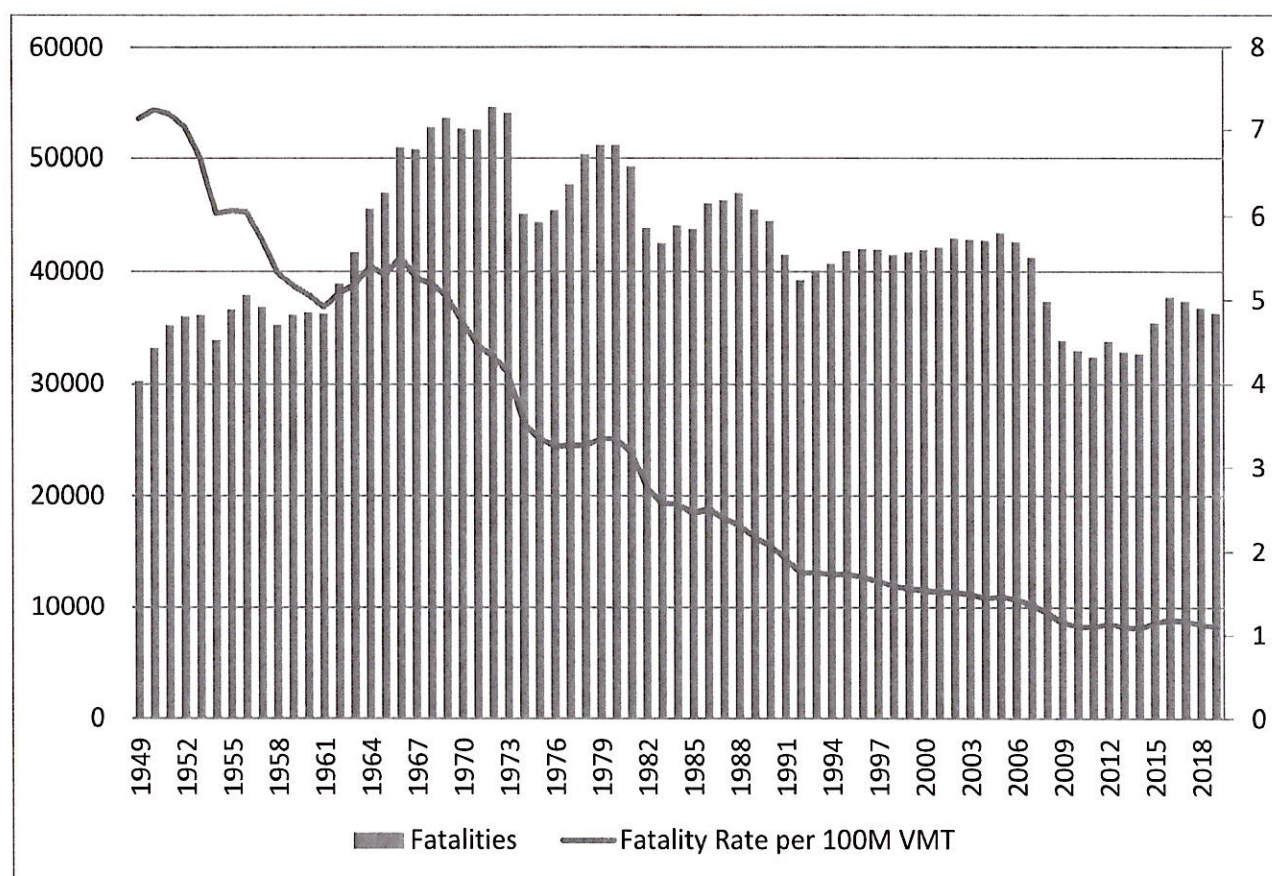
State	PDO Reporting Thresholds	State	PDO Reporting Thresholds
Alabama	\$500	Missouri	\$500
Alaska	\$2,000	Montana	\$1,000
Arizona	\$300	Nebraska	\$1,000
Arkansas	\$1,000	Nevada	\$750
California	\$1,000	New Hampshire	\$1,000
Colorado	Not Required	New Jersey	\$500
Connecticut	\$1,000	New Mexico	\$500
Delaware	\$500	New York	\$1,500
D.C.	Not Required	North Carolina	\$1,000
Florida	\$500	North Dakota	\$1,000
Georgia	\$500	Ohio	\$1,000
Hawaii	\$3,000	Oklahoma	\$500
Idaho	\$1,500	Oregon	\$2,500
Illinois	\$1,500	Pennsylvania	Towed Vehicle
Indiana	Not Required	Rhode Island	\$1,000
Iowa	\$1,500	South Carolina	\$1,000
Kansas	\$1,000	South Dakota	\$1,000
Kentucky	\$500	Tennessee	\$1,500
Louisiana	\$500	Texas	\$1,000
Maine	\$1,000	Utah	\$2,500
Maryland	Not Required	Vermont	\$3,000
Massachusetts	\$1,000	Virginia	\$1,500
Michigan	\$1,000	Washington	\$1,000
Minnesota	\$1,000	West Virginia	\$1,000
Mississippi	\$500	Wisconsin	\$1,000
		Wyoming	\$1,000

Source: State DOTs

Table 2-1 Fatalities and Fatality Rates, 1949-2019

Year	Fatalities	Fatality Rate per 100M VMT	Year	Fatalities	Fatality Rate per 100M VMT
1949	30,246	7.13	1985	43,825	2.47
1950	33,186	7.24	1986	46,087	2.51
1951	35,309	7.19	1987	46,390	2.41
1952	36,088	7.03	1988	47,087	2.32
1953	36,190	6.65	1989	45,582	2.17
1954	33,890	6.03	1990	44,599	2.08
1955	36,688	6.06	1991	41,508	1.91
1956	37,965	6.05	1992	39,250	1.75
1957	36,932	5.71	1993	40,150	1.75
1958	35,331	5.32	1994	40,716	1.73
1959	36,223	5.17	1995	41,817	1.73
1960	36,399	5.06	1996	42,065	1.69
1961	36,285	4.92	1997	42,013	1.64
1962	38,980	5.08	1998	41,501	1.58
1963	41,723	5.18	1999	41,717	1.55
1964	45,645	5.39	2000	41,945	1.53
1965	47,089	5.30	2001	42,196	1.51
1966	50,894	5.50	2002	43,005	1.51
1967	50,724	5.26	2003	42,884	1.48
1968	52,725	5.19	2004	42,836	1.44
1969	53,543	5.04	2005	43,510	1.46
1970	52,627	4.74	2006	42,708	1.42
1971	52,542	4.46	2007	41,259	1.36
1972	54,589	4.33	2008	37,423	1.26
1973	54,052	4.12	2009	33,883	1.15
1974	45,196	3.53	2010	32,999	1.11
1975	44,525	3.35	2011	32,479	1.10
1976	45,523	3.25	2012	33,782	1.14
1977	47,878	3.26	2013	32,893	1.10
1978	50,331	3.26	2014	32,744	1.08
1979	51,093	3.34	2015	35,484	1.15
1980	51,091	3.35	2016	37,806	1.19
1981	49,301	3.17	2017	37,473	1.17
1982	43,945	2.76	2018	36,835	1.13
1983	42,589	2.58	2019	36,355	1.11
1984	44,257	2.57			

Figure 2-A Fatalities and Fatality Rates, by Year



Fatalities Beyond 30 Days

The vast majority of all fatalities from fatal crashes occur within 30 days of the crashes. However, some injuries such as traumatic brain injury (TBI) can result in long-term unconsciousness with life support that ultimately ends in death. These types of injuries can extend beyond the 30-day criteria collected in FARS. In addition, some deaths occur due to complications that occur over time such as Infections associated with subsequent operations or treatments, and some occur years later as patients' health declines due to injuries sustained in crashes.

Vital Statistics Multiple Cause of Death (MCOB) data are compiled by the National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS), which is part of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). They are the U.S. Government's official counts of deaths in the United States. The file captures all death certificates for deaths in the United States during the year, including both the certificate as written by the death registrars and edited by the State, as well as a second version of causation that NCHS creates by editing to uniformity and reorganizing from the State submissions. Each death in the file records a cause. For disease, the cause is a diagnosis, but for injury, it is an external cause that identifies mechanism and intent (e.g., accidental death of a pedestrian hit by a motor vehicle on a public road). At least during 2015 to 2019, MCOB did not

Table 6-1 Estimated 2019 Economic Costs Due to Motor Vehicle Crashes by State

State	(Millions 2019 \$)	% Total	Cost Per Capita	% Per Capita Personal Income
ALABAMA	\$6,437	1.9%	\$1,313	3.0%
ALASKA	\$627	0.2%	\$856	1.4%
ARIZONA	\$5,946	1.7%	\$817	1.8%
ARKANSAS	\$3,142	0.9%	\$1,041	2.3%
CALIFORNIA	\$29,098	8.6%	\$736	1.1%
COLORADO	\$6,028	1.8%	\$1,047	1.7%
CONNECTICUT	\$6,104	1.8%	\$1,712	2.3%
DELAWARE	\$1,478	0.4%	\$1,518	2.8%
DIST. OF COL.	\$832	0.2%	\$1,178	1.5%
FLORIDA	\$20,019	5.9%	\$932	1.8%
GEORGIA	\$18,697	5.5%	\$1,761	3.6%
HAWAII	\$580	0.2%	\$410	0.7%
IDAHO	\$1,355	0.4%	\$758	1.7%
ILLINOIS	\$13,977	4.1%	\$1,103	1.9%
INDIANA	\$8,540	2.5%	\$1,269	2.6%
IOWA	\$2,794	0.8%	\$885	1.8%
KANSAS	\$2,984	0.9%	\$1,024	1.9%
KENTUCKY	\$6,157	1.8%	\$1,378	3.1%
LOUISIANA	\$6,570	1.9%	\$1,413	3.0%
MAINE	\$1,876	0.6%	\$1,396	2.8%
MARYLAND	\$5,910	1.7%	\$977	1.6%
MASSACHUSETTS	\$7,389	2.2%	\$1,072	1.5%
MICHIGAN	\$12,305	3.6%	\$1,232	2.5%
MINNESOTA	\$3,803	1.1%	\$674	1.2%
MISSISSIPPI	\$2,533	0.7%	\$851	2.2%
MISSOURI	\$6,778	2.0%	\$1,104	2.3%
MONTANA	\$1,095	0.3%	\$1,024	2.0%
NEBRASKA	\$1,726	0.5%	\$892	1.7%
NEVADA	\$2,645	0.8%	\$859	1.7%
NEW HAMPSHIRE	\$1,664	0.5%	\$1,223	1.9%
NEW JERSEY	\$14,008	4.1%	\$1,577	2.3%
NEW MEXICO	\$2,173	0.6%	\$1,036	2.4%
NEW YORK	\$23,616	6.9%	\$1,214	1.7%

State	(Millions 2019 \$)	% Total	Cost Per Capita	% Per Capita Personal Income
NORTH CAROLINA	\$12,039	3.5%	\$1,148	2.4%
NORTH DAKOTA	\$735	0.2%	\$965	1.7%
OHIO	\$12,108	3.6%	\$1,036	2.1%
OKLAHOMA	\$3,420	1.0%	\$864	1.8%
OREGON	\$2,822	0.8%	\$669	1.3%
PENNSYLVANIA	\$6,663	2.0%	\$520	0.9%
RHODE ISLAND	\$2,105	0.6%	\$1,987	3.5%
SOUTH CAROLINA	\$6,269	1.8%	\$1,218	2.7%
SOUTH DAKOTA	\$941	0.3%	\$1,063	1.9%
TENNESSEE	\$10,050	3.0%	\$1,472	3.0%
TEXAS	\$28,939	8.5%	\$998	1.9%
UTAH	\$2,803	0.8%	\$874	1.8%
VERMONT	\$625	0.2%	\$1,001	1.8%
VIRGINIA	\$6,455	1.9%	\$756	1.3%
WASHINGTON	\$6,337	1.9%	\$832	1.3%
WEST VIRGINIA	\$1,460	0.4%	\$815	1.9%
WISCONSIN	\$6,310	1.9%	\$1,084	2.0%
WYOMING	\$844	0.2%	\$1,457	2.4%
Total	\$339,809	100.0%	\$1,035	1.8%

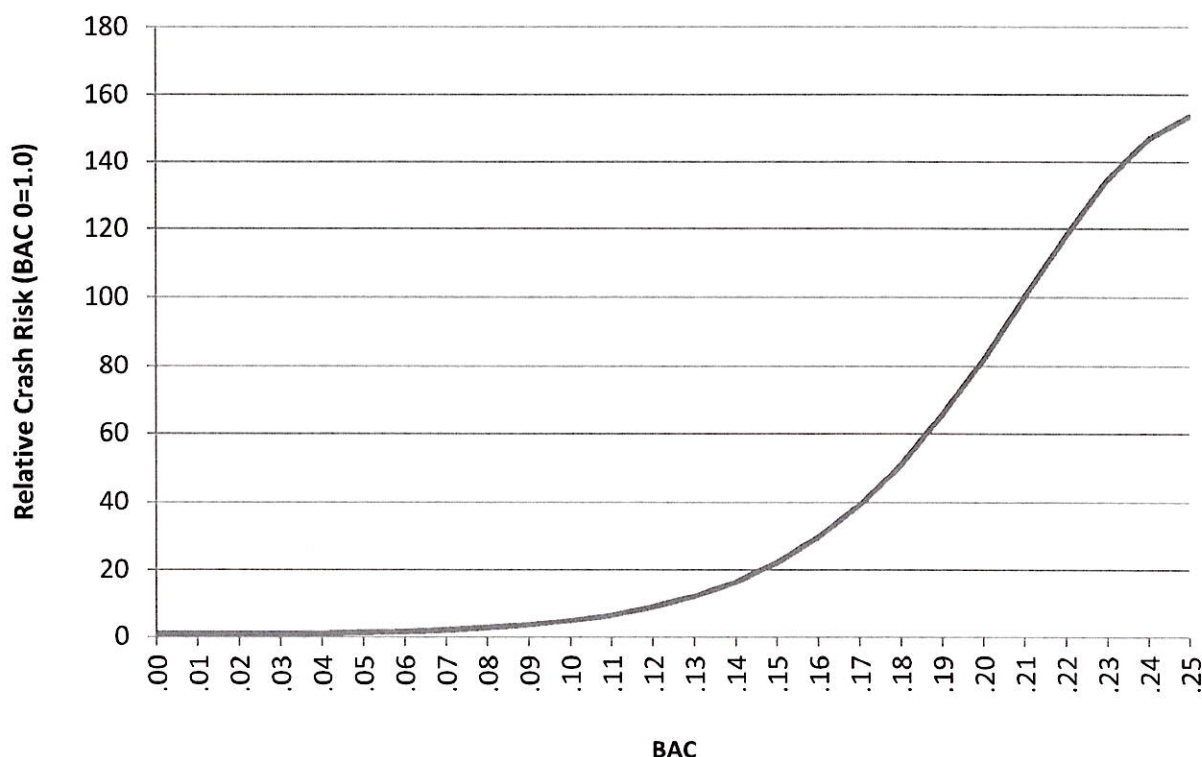
Table 7-1 Alcohol-Involved Traffic Fatalities, Highest BAC in Crash

Year	Total		BAC=.00		BAC=.01-.07		BAC=.08+		BAC=.01+	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
1982	43,945	100%	17,773	40%	2,927	7%	23,246	53%	26,173	60%
1983	42,589	100%	17,955	42%	2,594	6%	22,041	52%	24,635	58%
1984	44,257	100%	19,496	44%	3,046	7%	21,715	49%	24,762	56%
1985	43,825	100%	20,659	47%	3,081	7%	20,086	46%	23,167	53%
1986	46,087	100%	21,070	46%	3,546	8%	21,471	47%	25,017	54%
1987	46,390	100%	22,297	48%	3,398	7%	20,696	45%	24,094	52%
1988	47,087	100%	23,254	49%	3,234	7%	20,599	44%	23,833	51%
1989	45,582	100%	23,159	51%	2,893	6%	19,531	43%	22,424	49%
1990	44,599	100%	22,012	49%	2,980	7%	19,607	44%	22,587	51%
1991	41,508	100%	21,349	51%	2,560	6%	17,599	42%	20,159	49%
1992	39,250	100%	20,960	53%	2,443	6%	15,847	40%	18,290	47%
1993	40,150	100%	22,242	55%	2,361	6%	15,547	39%	17,908	45%
1994	40,716	100%	23,409	57%	2,322	6%	14,985	37%	17,308	43%
1995	41,817	100%	24,085	58%	2,490	6%	15,242	36%	17,732	42%
1996	42,065	100%	24,316	58%	2,486	6%	15,263	36%	17,749	42%
1997	42,013	100%	25,302	60%	2,290	5%	14,421	34%	16,711	40%
1998	41,501	100%	24,828	60%	2,465	6%	14,207	34%	16,673	40%
1999	41,717	100%	25,145	60%	2,321	6%	14,250	34%	16,572	40%
2000	41,945	100%	24,565	59%	2,511	6%	14,870	35%	17,380	41%
2001	42,196	100%	24,796	59%	2,542	6%	14,858	35%	17,400	41%
2002	43,005	100%	25,481	59%	2,432	6%	15,093	35%	17,524	41%
2003	42,884	100%	25,779	60%	2,427	6%	14,678	34%	17,105	40%
2004	42,836	100%	25,918	61%	2,325	5%	14,593	34%	16,919	39%
2005	43,510	100%	25,920	60%	2,489	6%	15,102	35%	17,590	40%
2006	42,708	100%	24,970	58%	2,594	6%	15,144	35%	17,738	42%
2007	41,259	100%	24,101	58%	2,554	6%	14,603	35%	17,158	42%
2008	37,423	100%	21,974	59%	2,191	6%	13,258	35%	15,449	41%
2009	33,883	100%	19,704	58%	2,031	6%	12,149	36%	14,179	42%
2010	32,999	100%	19,676	60%	1,861	6%	11,462	35%	13,323	40%
2011	32,367	100%	19,212	59%	1,758	5%	11,397	35%	13,155	41%
2012	33,782	100%	19,903	59%	1,920	6%	11,960	35%	13,879	41%
2013	32,893	100%	19,325	59%	1,938	6%	11,631	35%	13,569	41%
2014	32,744	100%	19,356	59%	1,873	6%	11,515	35%	13,388	41%
2015	35,484	100%	21,360	60%	2,044	6%	12,081	34%	14,125	40%
2016	37,806	100%	22,820	60%	2,113	6%	12,872	34%	14,986	40%
2017	37,473	100%	22,764	61%	2,046	5%	12,663	34%	14,709	39%
2018	36,835	100%	22,251	60%	2,035	6%	12,549	34%	14,584	40%
2019	36,355	100%	22,192	61%	2,054	6%	12,109	33%	14,163	39%

Alcohol use by drivers is the focus of most behavioral programs and State laws. Drivers are involved in the vast majority of alcohol-involved traffic crashes, but a significant number of crashes occur where pedestrians or bicyclist alcohol use was indicated, while driver alcohol use

over 2,800 crashes and nearly 15,000 drivers in Long Beach, California, and Fort Lauderdale, Florida, were sampled to determine the relative risk of crashes at different BACs. Logistic regression techniques were used to create a relative risk model that indicated a notable dose-response relationship beginning at .04 BAC and increasing exponentially at $\geq .10$ g/dL BAC. The results of this model are summarized in Figure 7-B below.

Figure 7-B Relative Risk of Crash by Blood Alcohol Concentration



Source: Blomberg et al., 2005

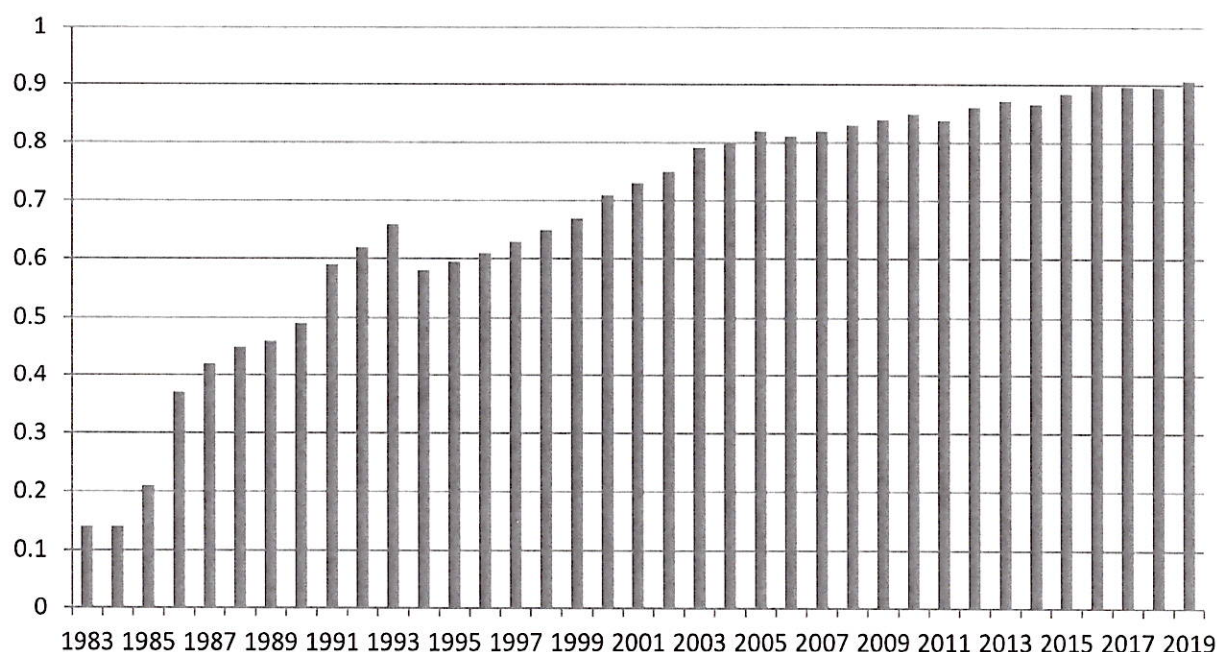
(2005) study based solely on voluntary participants. However, Blomberg's group identified a significant number of cases where the drivers either refused to participate (7% of all crash-involved drivers), or left the scene entirely (hit-and-run or HR – 12% of all drivers). For the refusals, Lacey et al. based BAC estimates on passive alcohol sensors (PAS) for participants who refused to complete the study protocol. Forty-five percent of participants who refused had PAS scores ≥ 3 (which indicated the potential for impairment), whereas only 10 percent of participants who completed the study protocol had such scores. Lacey et al. used these results to estimate the BACs of the refusal cases. For HR cases, the researchers based BAC on measured BACs taken for drivers who were apprehended by the police within 2 hours of the crash. Not surprisingly, they found that HR drivers had BACs that were very high. Hit-and-run drivers were especially important because they made up a sizeable portion of drivers involved in crashes in both studies, and because their results were much higher than other cases. In the Lacey et al. study about 63 percent of HR drivers had BACs of .08+, while only about 10 percent of other drivers had BACs this high. So, nearly 20 percent of all cases either refused or were HR, and these cases were the ones most likely to have high BACs. This indicates that results based on voluntary compliance alone will significantly undercount high BACs. For this reason, we based our estimates on the Blomberg et al. study.

Table 9-5 Distraction Categories

In Vehicle Controls, Non-Cell Phone:	Other Driver Distraction, Non-Cell Phone
Adjusting/monitoring radio	Reading
Adjusting/monitoring climate control	Writing
Adjusting/monitoring other devices integral to vehicle	Tablet device, operating
Inserting/retrieving CD (or similar)	Tablet device, viewing
	Eating without utensils
	Eating with utensils
Cell Phone Use:	Drinking from open container
Cell phone, talking/listening, hand-held	Drinking with lid, no straw
Cell phone, texting	Drinking with lid and straw
Cell phone, dialing hand-held	Drinking with straw no lid
Cell phone, dialing hand-held using quick keys	Make up
Cell phone, locating/reaching/answering	Combing/brushing/fixing hair
Cell phone, browsing	Brushing teeth
Cell phone, dialing hands-free using voice-activated software	Biting nails/cuticles
Cell phone, holding	Shaving
Cell phone, other	Other personal hygiene
	Removing/adjusting clothing
	Removing/adjusting jewelry
	Removing/inserting/ adjusting contact lenses or glasses
Interaction With Others:	Reaching for cigar/cigarette
Child in rear seat - interaction	Reaching for food-related or drink-related item
Passenger in adjacent seat - interaction	Reaching for object, other (leave a note)
Passenger in rear seat - interaction	Reaching for personal body-related item
Child in adjacent seat - interaction	Dancing
Insect in vehicle	Looking at an object external to the vehicle
Pet in vehicle	Looking at pedestrian
	Looking at animal
	Looking at previous crash or incident
	Distracted by construction
	Other external distraction
	Talking/singing, audience unknown
	Moving object in vehicle
	Lighting cigar/cigarette
	Smoking cigar/cigarette
	Extinguishing cigar/cigarette
	Object dropped by driver
	Object in vehicle, other
	Other known secondary task
	Other non-specific internal eye glance
	Tablet device, other
	Unknown
	Unknown type (secondary task present)

1993. Similar impacts occurred in Louisiana where usage rose 18 points, in Georgia where usage rose 17 points, in Maryland where usage rose 13 points, and in the District of Columbia where usage rose 24 points when they combined a new primary enforcement law with penalty points. Overall, States with primary belt use laws have an average belt use rate that is 12 percentage points higher than States with only secondary enforcement (Pickrell & Ye, 2012). Figure 10-A illustrates the nationwide trend in seat belt use rates from 1983 through 2019.

Figure 10-A Observed Daytime Seat Belt Use Rate



By combining seat belt use rates with effectiveness rates and national injury counts, an estimate can be made of the impact of seat belts on fatality and casualty rates. The basic methods for these calculations are well documented (Partyka & Womble, 1989; Blincoe, 1994; Wang & Blincoe, 2001; Wang & Blincoe, 2003; Glassbrenner & Starnes, 2009). The effect of increases in seat belt use on fatalities is curvilinear, i.e., the more the observed usage rate in the general population approaches 100 percent, the more lives are saved for each incremental point increase. This occurs because those who are most resistant to buckling up tend to be in high-risk groups such as impaired drivers or people who are risk takers in general. These people are more likely to be involved in serious crashes and are thus more likely to actually benefit from wearing their belts. Belt use by people involved in potentially fatal crashes (“restraint) use in potentially fatal crashes,” UPFC) tends to be lower than observed use for these same reasons. Figure 10-B illustrates the relationship between use in potentially fatal crashes as well as lives saved and increasing rates of observed seat belt usage.