This is an Accepted Manuscript of an article published by Taylor & Francis in Traffic Injury Prevention on May 17, 2013, available at: http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/15389588.2012.725879

locumentation of			

Authors:

Brubacher, Jeffrey Reynold, MD (corresponding author)

Jbrubacher@shaw.ca

Department of Emergency Medicine, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, British Columbia.

*Dr. Brubacher's research is supported by a scholar award from the Michael Smith Foundation for Health Research

Chan, Herbert, PhD

Department of Emergency Medicine, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, British Columbia.

Fang, Ming

Insurance Corporation of British Columbia

Brown, Doug, MD

Department of Emergency Medicine, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, British Columbia

Purssell, Roy, MD

Department of Emergency Medicine, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, British Columbia.

Keywords: Impaired driving, DUI, Alcohol, Motor vehicle crashes, Police,

Abstract

Objective: Injured drivers with blood alcohol concentration (BAC) above the legal limit are rarely convicted of impaired driving. One explanation is that police may have difficulty recognizing alcohol intoxication in injured drivers. In this study we compare police documentation of alcohol involvement with BAC measured on arrival in hospital. Our objectives are to determine how often police document alcohol involvement in injured drivers with BAC > 0.05%, and identify factors that influence police documentation of alcohol involvement.

Methods: We included injured drivers (1999 – 2003) who were admitted to a British Columbia (BC) trauma centre or treated in the Vancouver General Hospital emergency department. We used probabilistic linkage to obtain police collision reports. Police were considered to indicate alcohol involvement if i) police documented that alcohol contributed to the crash, ii) the driver received an administrative sanction for impaired driving, or iii) the driver was criminally convicted of impaired driving. The proportions of drivers for whom police indicated alcohol involvement was determined relative to age, gender, BAC levels, crash severity and crash characteristics. Multivariate logistic regression was used to identify factors independently associated with police indication of alcohol involvement.

Results: 2410 injured drivers (73.5% male) were matched to a police report. Overall, 857 (35.6%) drivers tested positive for alcohol (BAC > 0) and 736/857 (85.9%) of alcohol positive drivers had a BAC > 0.05% (the BC legal limit). Of the 736 drivers with BAC > 0.05% at time of admission, police indicated alcohol involvement in 530 (72.0%). The criminal code conviction rate for impaired driving was 4.7% for drivers with 0.08% ≤ BAC < 0.16%, and 13.6% for drivers with BAC > 0.16%. The following factors were associated with higher odds of police indicating alcohol involvement: i) increasing blood alcohol levels, ii) a prior record of impaired driving, iii) involvement in a single vehicle crash, iv) involvement in a night time crash, and v) traffic violations or unsafe driving actions recorded by police.

Conclusions: Police recognized and documented alcohol involvement in 72% of injured drivers with BAC ≥ 0.05%. Police documentation of alcohol involvement is more common at higher BAC levels, in night time or single vehicle crashes, for drivers who committed traffic violations or drove unsafely, and for

drivers with a prior record of impaired driving. The low conviction rate of injured impaired drivers does not appear to be due to police inability to recognize alcohol involvement.

Introduction:

Motor vehicle crashes (MVCs) are the leading cause of death for young adults. Each year in Canada, 125,000 MVCs result in over 12,000 serious injuries and 2,400 fatalities. The societal costs of MVCs in Canada in 2004 was estimated at \$63 billion. (Vodden et al. 2007) By far the largest number of crashes is attributed to preventable human factors such as speeding, driver distraction and alcohol impairment.(Petridou and Moustaki 2000; Schlundt et al. 2004) Alcohol impairs the skills required for safe driving(Miller et al. 2009; Harrison and Fillmore 2011) even in people with acute tolerance to the motor incoordination and subjective intoxication associated with alcohol use. (Weafer and Fillmore 2012) The risk of crashing is higher after any alcohol consumption and rises markedly as the blood alcohol concentration (BAC) increases. Compared to drivers with BAC = 0, crash risk is more than doubled at a BAC of 0.08%, and is over 150 times higher in drivers with a BAC above 0.25%. (Blomberg et al. 2009) Young drivers have a higher baseline risk of crashing and this risk increases markedly with alcohol use. (Peck et al. 2008) The proportion of Canadian traffic fatalities associated with alcohol impairment declined during the 1980s and early 1990s (Beirness et al. 1994) but this trend has leveled off. (Transport Canada Road Safety Directorate 2008) In 2006, alcohol was detectable in 37% of fatally injured drivers in Canada. (Mayhew et al. 2009) In Canada, it is a criminal offense to operate a motor vehicle on a public road with a BAC > 0.08%. British Columbia, like several other provinces, also has administrative sanctions including fines and license suspensions for drivers with BAC > 0.05%.

Most laws targeting impaired driving are based on deterring this dangerous activity by increasing the certainty, swiftness and severity of punishment. Those apprehended for an offence are less likely to offend again (specific deterrence), while others are less likely to offend to avoid sanctions in the first place (general deterrence). (Stafford and Warr 1993) Increasing the certainty of punishment is believed to act as a greater deterrent than increasing its severity. (Wright 2010; Nagin and Pogarsky 2001) Motorists can be deterred from alcohol-impaired driving with visible police work which increases public perception of the certainty of punishment. (Desapriya and Iwase 1996; Desapriya et al. 2007) Lowering the allowable BAC limit for driving (the *per se* limit) is also very effective in preventing alcohol impaired driving. (Wagenaar et al. 2007) Lowering the per se BAC limit from 0.10% to 0.08% resulted in a 7% reduction in alcohol related

traffic fatalities in the US.(Shults et al. 2001) International studies showed reductions in motor vehicle deaths and serious injuries following a reduction in BAC from 0.08% to 0.05% (Australia) and from 0.05% to 0.02% (Sweden).(Fell et al. 2006) These positive effects are seen at all BAC levels, suggesting a general deterrent effect.(Mann et al. 2001)

Another important strategy to reduce impaired driving is to direct interventions at high risk groups. A wellknown high-risk group is convicted impaired drivers, and effective countermeasures have been developed for this population, such as remedial programs based on principles of brief intervention for alcohol problems.(Dill et al. 2006; Wells-Parker et al. 2002; Mann et al. 1994) Studies have shown that alcohol impaired drivers injured in collisions are another important high risk group for recidivism. (Lillis et al.; Soderstrom et al. 1990; Vingilis et al. 1996; Davidson et al. 1997; Cydulka et al. 1998; Biffl et al. 2004; Fabbri et al. 2005; Schermer et al. 2006) We investigated this issue and found that over one-third drivers injured in a car crash were legally impaired by alcohol, but only 11% of drivers with BAC > 0.08% were convicted of impaired driving, (Purssell et al. 2004) and 31% drove again while impaired after leaving hospital.(Purssell et al. 2010) The low conviction rate of injured impaired drivers probably lowers the perceived certainty of punishment and thereby reduces the general deterrent effect that impaired driving laws have on the general public. Furthermore, injured impaired drivers who are not sanctioned avoid the specific deterrent effect of those laws and they do not benefit from rehabilitation programs that may be mandated if they are convicted of impaired driving. The low conviction rate of injured impaired drivers therefore represents a failure of road safety policy and is of great interest to road safety stakeholders. The reasons for this failure are likely multifactorial and may include i) failure of police to recognize alcohol impairment, ii) police recognize driver impairment but choose not to recommend charges, iii) the crown attorney decides to not lay charges, or iv) charges are laid but the driver is not convicted.

For this study we will examined police reports on the same population of injured drivers that we investigated in 2010 (Purssell et al. 2010) and will compare the documentation of alcohol involvement in police collision reports with the actual alcohol levels measured on arrival in hospital. Our goal is to determine whether police inability to recognize alcohol intoxication in injured drivers might explain the low conviction rate that we have seen in this population. Our objectives are to 1) determine how often police

document alcohol impairment in injured drivers with BAC > 0.05%, 2) identify factors associated with police documentation of alcohol involvement, and 3) determine how often police indicate alcohol involvement in drivers with BAC = 0 on arrival in hospital.

Methods:

Study Population

This study was approved by the University of British Columbia research ethics board. We included all drivers injured in crashes between 1999 and 2003 who were either admitted to a trauma centre in the province of British Columbia (BC) and captured in the BC trauma registry or were treated in the emergency department of Vancouver General Hospital. We excluded passengers, motorcyclists, drivers who could not be linked to a BC driver license, and those who died of their injuries in the field. We also excluded drivers who did not have a blood alcohol measurement as part of their clinical care. Alcohol was measured in 35.7% of this population of drivers. If a driver was involved in more than one crash during the study period, only the first crash was included and subsequent crashes were excluded. Cases without a corresponding police collision report were also excluded.

Clinical data including driver age, gender, blood alcohol level at admission, disposition (expired, admitted to hospital, or discharged) were obtained from the BC trauma registry (admitted patients) or from electronic health information system of Vancouver General Hospital (emergency department patients).

Driver's records were obtained from the Insurance Corporation of BC (ICBC), which is sole provider of basic automobile insurance in BC and maintains police collision reports and driving records for every licensed driver in the province. Driver's records included the police collision report for the index crash as well as history of previous crashes and driving violations. Probabilistic linkage between driver's license and demographic information was employed using driver name, gender, date of birth, postal code and date of crash as described previously. (Purssell et al. 2004; Purssell et al. 2010) Driver's records were available from January 1, 1989 till Dec 31, 2005 but for this study we only considered events which

occurred before the index crash. We compared actual blood alcohol concentration (BAC) levels measured on arrival in hospital with police documentation of alcohol impairment by the index driver.

Statistical Analysis

In this study, we defined the binary outcome variable "Police Indication of Alcohol Involvement" as positive if either i) police documented alcohol as a contributory factor to the crash, ii) the driver was given a 24-hour or 90-day administrative driving prohibition for alcohol impaired driving, or iii) the driver was convicted of the criminal offence of alcohol impaired driving for the index crash. A negative outcome indicated that there was no documentation of alcohol involvement as a contributory factor by police for the index drivers and no administrative sanctions or convictions for alcohol impaired driving.

The proportions of injured drivers for whom police indicated alcohol involvement (the outcome variable) was determined and compared in relation to age, gender, BAC levels, crash severity and crash characteristics using Fisher's exact test for the categorical independent variables [Table 2]. Age and BAC levels were stratified into groups. BAC was categorized as 0, 0-0.049%, 0.050-0.080%, 0.081-0.160%, and >0.160%. In Canada, it is a Federal offense to drive with a BAC ≥ 0.08% and the British Columbia motor vehicle act provides for administrative sanctions such as license suspension for drivers with BAC ≥ 0.05%. Driver age was stratified into 4 groups: <20, 20-30, 31-65 and > 65 years. Crash severity was represented by a group of variables including a) length of stay (1: treated and released from emergency department, 2: admitted to hospital for 1-7 days, 3: admitted to hospital for more than 7 days), b) another person injured, c) another person killed, and d) police impression of injury to index driver (1: No injury, 2: Appear Injured). Crash characteristics included a) single versus multi-vehicle crash, and b) night time versus day time crash. Night time crashes were those occurring between 9pm and 6am. Previous driver records included prior alcohol impaired driving activities (IDA) defined as either a Criminal Code conviction for impaired driving, a 24-hour or 90 day license suspension for impaired driving, or involvement in a MVC where police cited alcohol as a contributory factor. (Purssell et al. 2010) To measure the strength of association between outcome and independent variables, we calculated bivariate odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals for each candidate variable.

An inclusive model approach of multivariate logistic regression modeling was used to identify a parsimonious group of important factors independently associated with the likelihood of police indicating alcohol involvement of the index drivers. Factors that were statistically significant at the $p \le 0.25$ level on bivariate analysis were included in the multivariate logistic regression analysis and all conceptually appropriate interaction between predictor variables were assessed during model building process.

We also modeled two additional logistic regression analyses using two populations of drivers based on their BAC levels. First, for all drivers with a BAC= 0, a "false positive" model was constructed with the assumption that the majority of these drivers had BAC < 0.05% at the time of crash and alcohol involvement should not have been indicated in the police report. Second, for drivers with BAC \geq 0.05%, a "false negative" model was constructed with the assumption that these drivers had a BAC \geq 0.05% at time of crash and therefore police should have indicated alcohol involvement. A coding change was needed for the false negative model: In this case the outcome variable became "*lack*" of documented alcohol involvement.

A test of multicollinearity of the independent variables based on Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) was first performed. Tolerance > 0.1 and VIF < 10 indicate no serious collinearity.(Kutner et al. 2004) For each model, the area under the receiver operator curve (ROC) was used to examine the discrimination power and the Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness of fit test was calculated to test the agreement between predicted and observed data.(Hosmer and Lemeshow 1980) All analyses were performed using Stata version 12.0 (Stata Corp, College Station, TX.).

Results

During the study period, 4862 British Columbia residents with injuries from a motor vehicle crash captured in the trauma registry and 2,466 treated in Vancouver General Hospital emergency department (VGH), a major urban trauma centre in BC, had alcohol measured on arrival to hospital as part of routine clinical care. Of these, 4237 from the trauma registry and 2380 from VGH could be matched to a valid BC driver's license. This included 976 duplicates (treated in the Vancouver General Hospital ED *and* also captured in

the trauma registry). From these 5641 injured patients we excluded 2135 patients who were passengers, motorcyclists or whose driver status was unknown. No driver was excluded due to being involved in more than one crash. Of the remaining 3436 drivers, 2410 could be matched to a police report corresponding to the index crash. The most likely reason for a non-match was that police did not attend that crash. Of these, 1772/2410 (73.5%) were male. The median age was 33 years (Interquartile range, 24-49) for males and 36 years (Interquartile range, 23-46) for females. Overall, 857 (35.6%) drivers tested positive for alcohol (BAC > 0) and 736/857 (85.9%) of alcohol positive drivers had a BAC above the BC legal limit of 0.05%. Of the 736 drivers with BAC > 0.05% at time of admission, police reported alcohol involvement in 530 (72.0%). Overall, police indicated alcohol involvement in 638/2410 (26.5%) of all drivers, including 79/1553 (5.1%) of drivers with BAC = 0 on arrival in hospital [**Table 1**].

Bivariate analysis of all drivers (n=2410) indicated that i) being male, ii) having a prior record of impaired driving, iii) having a higher blood alcohol level, iv) being involved in a single vehicle crash, v) being involved in a night time crash, vi) appearing injured at the crash scene (according to police), vii) requiring hospital admission, viii) having a longer hospital stay, and ix) being involved in a crash in which another person was killed were all associated with an increased likelihood of police reporting alcohol involvement [Table 2].

The first multivariate logistic regression model was developed for the entire population of injured drivers (n = 2410) to identify factors associated with police indication of alcohol involvement [**Table 3**]. In this model the following factors were associated with a higher odds of police indicating alcohol involvement: i) increasing blood alcohol levels, ii) a prior record of impaired driving, iii) involvement in a single vehicle crash, iv) involvement in a night time crash, and v) traffic violations or unsafe driving actions recorded by police. Age and gender were not significant and were dropped from the model. There were significant interactions between BAC and single vehicle crashes, as well as between night time crashes and a prior record of impaired driving. The effect of involvement in a single vehicle crash on the likelihood of police indication of alcohol involvement depends on the BAC level and vice versa. At lower BAC levels, police were much more likely to indicate alcohol involvement in drivers involved in single vehicle crashes but this difference was less marked at higher alcohol levels where police indicated alcohol involvement in most

drivers regardless of crash type. Similarly, the impact of prior impaired driving activities (IDA) depends on whether the crash occurred at nighttime or daytime. When the crash occurred at daytime, the odds of drivers with previous IDA being indicated as impaired by police were 4.34 times that of drivers with clean records. In contrast, when the crash occurred at night, the odds of drivers with previous IDA being indicated as impaired by police were only 2.30 times (4.34 x 0.53) that of drivers with a clean record. This model has both good discrimination (ROC = 0.931) and overall data fit (Hosmer-Lemeshow Chi Sq (9) =11.45, p=0.1201).

The "false negative" multivariable logistic regression was developed to identify factors associated with police's failure to indicate alcohol involvement for drivers with BAC ≥ 0.05% (n=736). Police did not indicate alcohol involvement in 206/736 (28%) of these drivers. Higher odds of police failing to indicate alcohol involvement were associated with i) daytime crashes, ii) drivers without a record of prior impaired driving, iii) drivers not cited with traffic violations or unsafe driving actions, and iv) BAC levels close to 0.05% [**Table 4**]. Single vehicle crashes was not a significant factor in this model and could not be used to explain why police failed to indicate alcohol involvement in drivers with BAC ≥ 0.05%. The final "false negative" model had only fair discrimination (ROC=0.675) but good calibration (Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness of fit test, p=0.534).

The "false positive" multivariate logistic regression was developed for drivers with zero BAC at time of ED admission (n=1553). Alcohol involvement was indicated by police in 79/1553 (5.1%) of these drivers. The final "false positive" model illustrated that i) having a prior record of impaired driving activities, ii) being involved in a single vehicle crash, iii) being involved in a night time crash, and vi) being cited with traffic violations or unsafe driving actions were all associated with higher odds of police indicating alcohol involvement [**Table 5**]. No interaction terms were found significant. This false positive model has both good discrimination (ROC=0.868) and calibration (Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness of fit test, p=0.836)

Discussion

The ability of police to identify alcohol impaired drivers is an essential step if these drivers are to be convicted of impaired driving. Other researchers have studied police investigation of alcohol

involvement following a crash. Ostrom found that police are more likely to investigate males and at-fault drivers.(Ostrom et al. 1992) Waller found that police were less likely to report alcohol involvement in elderly drivers, not-at-fault fatalities, and drivers of new vehicles.(Waller 1971) Several previous studies have specifically investigated police detection of alcohol impairment in injured drivers. Most found that police are able to detect alcohol in the majority of legally impaired drivers but that convictions are uncommon. McLaughlin studied police detection of alcohol and conviction rates in three driver cohorts admitted to a Michigan trauma centre between 1988 and 1990: injured impaired drivers, non-injured impaired drivers, and sober drivers. He found that only 49/83 (59.2%) of injured impaired drivers were convicted of impaired driving even though police detected alcohol involvement in 87.8% of these drivers. (McLaughlin et al. 1993) Orsay studied injured drivers admitted to two Chicago trauma centres in 1990. Police records and BACs were available for 446 drivers of which 139 (31.2%) had BAC > 0.10 but only 34/139 (24.4%) were cited with driving under the influence (DUI). Orsay did not clarify whether the low DUI citation rate was due to police failure to recognize alcohol or for other reasons. (Orsay et al. 1994) Grossman studied 1336 injured drivers who were treated in a Seattle trauma centre after a crash between 1986 and 1993. All drivers had a police sobriety assessment and a BAC measurement. Overall, police correctly identified alcohol impairment in 483/532 (90.8%) of drivers with BAC > 0.10%. If cases involving a breathalyzer were omitted, the detection rate dropped to 137/186 (73.7%). Grossman also noted that police were more likely to detect alcohol in younger drivers and in crashes occurring during weekends or at night. (Grossman et al. 1996) van Wijngaarden compared police notes with blood alcohol tests obtained on 260 pedestrians admitted to a level one trauma centre in Baltimore between 1987 and 1990 and found that police correctly documented alcohol involvement in 67/99 (67.7%) of injured pedestrians. (van Wijngaarden et al. 1995) Krause reviewed medical charts of drunk drivers treated in a Michigan trauma centre between 1991 and 1997 and found 65 legally impaired drivers who could be linked to police crash reports. Police correctly identified alcohol consumption in 56 of the 60 cases (93%) for which police impression of whether or not the driver had been drinking was available. Overall 36.2% of drivers were convicted of impaired driving. (Krause et al. 1998) Sjogren studied 104 hospitalized drivers and 133 fatally injured drivers from northern Sweden between 1991 and 1993. Sjogren reported that Swedish police assessment had a sensitivity of 69% and a specificity of 97% in detecting alcohol impairment in

hospitalized drivers and a sensitivity of 53% and specificity of 100% in fatally injured drivers. Swedish police were more likely to suspect alcohol impairment in younger drivers, male drivers, and drivers involved in nighttime crashes.(Sjogren et al. 1997)

Our study adds to this literature by studying a much large population of injured drivers with a wider range of blood alcohol concentrations and using multivariate logistic regression to identify factors independently associated with police documentation of alcohol involvement. Unlike some previous studies, we included all injured drivers for whom police filed a crash report – not just those where police specifically tested for alcohol impairment. In addition to studying the effects of crash characteristics and driver demographics as several others have done, we are the first to study the role that traffic violations and the previous driving record play in police documentation of alcohol. We found that police documented alcohol involvement in 72% of injured drivers with BAC $\geq 0.05\%$. Not surprisingly, the alcohol level on arrival in hospital was the strongest and most consistent predictor of police documenting alcohol involvement. The proportion of drivers for whom police indicated alcohol involvement ranged from 5.1% in drivers with BAC $\geq 0.16\%$ on arrival in hospital (Table 1). Alcohol involvement was also documented more often in drivers involved in night time or single vehicle crashes, those who committed traffic violations or unsafe driving actions at time of crash, and those with a prior record of impaired driving. Driver gender or age were not independently associated with documentation of alcohol involvement.

Police did not document alcohol involvement in 28% of injured drivers with BAC ≥ 0.05%. Even in drivers with BAC > 0.16% (twice the legal limit), alcohol was not mentioned in 20.4% of police reports. Police were less likely to document alcohol involvement in BAC positive drivers who were involved in daytime crashes, who had not committed a traffic violation or unsafe driving action, who had no prior record of impaired driving and in those with BAC levels only slightly above the legal limit. (Table 4) There are several reasons why police may not recognize or document alcohol impairment in injured drivers. Pressing duties at the crash scene may delay police arrival in hospital and, once in hospital, police may have limited access to injured drivers who are receiving medical treatment for their injuries. Using a standardized field sobriety test, California police were able to correctly identify 98% of uninjured drivers

with BAC > 0.08%, (Stuster 2006) however, alcohol intoxication is more difficult to detect in injured drivers who are unable to perform standard sobriety tests. Furthermore, these drivers may have alternate explanations for altered mental status such as head injury, pain, or drugs given in the course of medical treatment. This is likely especially true when BAC levels are only slightly elevated and signs of impairment are more subtle. (Brick and Carpenter 2001) Police detection of alcohol is based, in part, on the odour of alcohol on a driver's breathe. In another California study, investigators examined the ability of experienced police officers to detect the odour of alcohol by having them smell exhaled breathe from 6 volunteers who had breathe alcohol concentrations ranging from 0 to 0.13%. Under these conditions, police detected 71/86 cases (83%) with breathe alcohol above 0.08%. The detection rate decreased to 58/97 (60%) after food had been consumed. (Moskowitz et al. 1999) The ability to detect alcohol on breathe would likely be lower in the trauma setting where the smell of alcohol might be overpowered by the smells of blood, vomitus and other odours. In some cases, alcohol involvement may have been suspected but not documented in the collision report. This might occur if police were unable to gather sufficient evidence to prove that alcohol was elevated or if they felt that alcohol had not contributed to the crash. It is also possible that police choose not to document alcohol involvement because they felt that the driver has already been punished by virtue of being seriously injured.

As found previously, (Fantus et al. 1991; Purssell et al. 2004; Barillo 1993; Goecke et al. 2007; Runge et al. 1996) the vast majority of injured drivers with BAC > 0.08% in this study were not convicted of impaired driving. (Table 1) This low conviction rate is only partially explained by police failure to recognize alcohol involvement. For example, police indicated alcohol involvement in 79.6% of drivers with BAC > 0.16% (twice the legal limit) but only 13.6% of these drivers were subsequently convicted of impaired driving. A driver with BAC above .08% could avoid conviction for several reasons: i) police do not recommend charges, or ii) the crown attorney decides not to press charges, or iii) the case is settled out of court without a conviction, or iv) the case goes to court and the driver is not convicted. There may be a tendency to feel that an injured impaired driver has already been adequately punished. Unfortunately we know that many injured impaired drivers will drive again while impaired following discharge from hospital.(Purssell et al. 2010) An impaired driving conviction can improve road safety by removing

dangerous drivers from the road and, if accompanied by mandatory rehabilitation, may also reduce the chance of future drinking and driving.

Limitations.

Because we included only the 35.7% of injured drivers with BAC measured on arrival to hospital, our study may have a selection bias that could result in inaccurate measurement of police ability to detect alcohol in injured drivers. In most BC trauma centres, alcohol is measured according to the preference of the treating physician. Alcohol may be measured more often in drivers with severe injuries or unexplained altered mental status. It is not known whether physicians are more likely to measure alcohol in drivers who appear intoxicated (in which case the diagnosis is obvious) compared to those without definite intoxication (in which case the diagnosis is uncertain and the test will provide additional information). If more obviously intoxicated patients were selected then police ability to correctly identify alcohol positive drivers would be falsely elevated. Conversely if our sample included more cases where the diagnosis of intoxication was uncertain then police performance would be falsely depressed. Although some selection bias is possible, we believe it is small. The percentage of BAC positive drivers (35.6%) in our sample is virtually identical to the rate of 35.5% reported in another Canadian series in which 90% of injured drivers were tested for alcohol (Stoduto et al. 1993) and our results are similar to the alcohol positivity rate of 37.9% seen in fatally injured drivers in British Columbia where 83.8% of drivers are tested for alcohol.(Beasley and Beirness 2011)

Another limitation is that there may be a discrepancy between the actual BAC at time of crash and the BAC measured on arrival in hospital. This would be expected in cases where there is a long delay in transporting the driver to hospital. In general injured drivers are transported rapidly but delays are possible, especially if the crash occurs in a rural setting. Since alcohol is metabolized with time, it is possible that some of the "false positives" (where police indicated alcohol involvement in drivers with BAC = 0) may actually have been "true positives" (i.e. BAC > 0.05%) at time of crash. Since we do not know the time from crash to arrival in hospital, we are unable to eliminate this possibility but, to minimize it, we used BAC = 0 rather than BAC < 0.05% in the "false positive" model. Conversely it is also possible that some of the "false negative" drivers may have had BAC levels below the legal limit at time of crash but

that those levels subsequently rose above the legal limit due to continued absorption or ingestion after the crash and before arrival in hospital. We consider this scenario to be unlikely since most drivers with BAC > 0.05% in our sample had very high BAC levels (mean level = 0.19%). Furthermore, Canadian law prohibits drivers from having a BAC > 0.08% in a sample obtained within 2 hours of driving.

A finally limitation is that in some of the "false negative" cases, police may have suspected alcohol involvement but chose not to indicate this in the police report. Our methods are unable to differentiate between failure to recognize alcohol involvement and failure to document it but the practical outcome is the same: the driver receives no legal sanction for impaired driving.

Conclusions.

Police recognize and document alcohol involvement in 72% of injured drivers with BAC ≥ 0.05%. Alcohol documentation is more common at higher BAC levels, in night time or single vehicle crashes, for drivers who committed traffic violations or drove unsafely, and for drivers with a prior record of impaired driving. Despite high rates of alcohol documentation, the majority of drivers with BAC above the legal limit were not convicted of impaired driving. Further research is required to understand the reasons for these low conviction rates.

Table 1 – Proportion of injured drivers who received criminal code DUI convictions, administrative sanctions or for whom police listed alcohol as a contributory factor in the crash according to blood alcohol concentration (BAC) levels (N=2410)

BAC level	N	Any recognition of Alcohol involvement (95%CI)	24-hour suspension only (impaired)	90-day suspension only (impaired)	DUI Conviction	Alcohol listed as contributory factor
BAC = 0	1553	5.1 (4.0-6.2)	0.5 (0.2-0.9)	0.3 (0.0 -0.6)	0.6 (0.2-1.0)	4.7 (3.6-5.8)
0 < BAC < 0.05%	121	24.0 (16.3-31.6)	3.3 (0.1-6.5)	1.7 (-0.6-3.9)	1.7 (-0.6-3.9)	23.1 (15.6-30.7)
$0.05\% \le BAC < 0.08\%$	52	40.4 (26.9-53.9)	3.8 (-1.6-9.3)	3.8 (-1.4-9.1)	1.9 (-1.8-5.7)	40.4 (26.9-53.9)
0.08% ≤ BAC < 0.16%	214	63.1 (56.6-69.6)	14.5 (9.7-19.2)	5.6 (2.5-8.7)	4.7 (1.8-7.5)	62.1 (55.6-68.7)
BAC ≥ 0.16%	470	79.6 (75.9-83.2)	23.8 (20.0-27.7)	14.9 (11.7-18.1)	13.6 (10.5-16.7)	76.4 (72.5-80.2)

Table 2: Factors associated with police indication of alcohol involvement for 2410 injured drivers.

Independent variables	N	Percent of drivers with BAC >0.05%	Number (%) of drivers indicated by police	P-value*	Unadjusted OR (95% CI)
Driver Characteristics					
Gender: Female	638	20.7%	108 (16.93%)	< 0.0001	
Male	1772	34.1%	530 (29.91%)		2.09 (1.66-2.63)
Age <20	264	29.2%	62 (23.48%)	< 0.0001	
20-30	770	43.0%	278 (36.10%)		1.84 (1.34-2.54)
31-65	1198	26.1%	288 (24.04%)		1.03 (0.75-1.41)
>65	178	7.87%	10 (5.62%)		0.19 (0.10-0.39)
Previous Impaired Driving Ad	ctivities				
No	1752	18.7%	262 (14.95%)	< 0.0001	
Yes	658	62.0%	376 (57.14%)		7.58 (6.19-9.29)
Traffic Violations or Unsafe A	\ction [†]				
No	969	17.3%	133 (13.73%)	<0.0001	
Yes	1441	39.42%	505 (35.05%)		3.39 (2.74-4.19)
Blood Alcohol Level					
BAC = 0	1553		79 (5.09%)	< 0.0001	
0< BAC <0.050	121		29 (23.97%)		5.88 (3.66-9.46)
0.050 - 0.080	52		21 (40.38%)		12.64 (6.94-22.99)
0.081- 0.160	214		135 (63.08%)		31.88 (22.28 -45.62)
> 0.160	470		374 (79.57%)		72.69 (52.86-99.96)
Crash Severity					
Another person injured:					
No	1159	34.1%	343 (29.59%)	0.001	
Yes	1251	27.3%	295 (23.58%)		0.73 (0.61-0.88)
Another person killed: No	2279	30.1%	593 (26.02%)	0.041	
Yes	131	38.9%	45 (34.35%)		1.49 (1.02-2.16)
Hospital admission: No	736	22.7%	136 (18.48%)	< 0.0001	
Yes	1674	34.0%	502 (29.99%)		1.89 (1.53-2.34)
Length of stay**: 0 day	736	22.7%	136 (18.48%)	< 0.0001	
1 - 7 days	874	36.4%	256 (29.29%)		1.82 (1.44-2.31)
> 7days	789	31.7%	245 (31.05%)		1.99 (1.56-2.52)
Police impression of injury:					
No injury	850	23.9%	163 (19.18%)	<0.0001	
Appear injured	1426	34.6%	439 (30.79%)		1.87 (4.53 – 2.30)
Crash Characteristics					
Single motor vehicle: No	1575	21.7%	282 (17.90%)	< 0.0001	
Yes	835	47.3%	356 (42.63%)		3.41 (2.82-4.11)
Night time crash: No	1377	16.6%	195 (14.16%)	< 0.0001	
Yes	1033	49.2%	443 (42.88%)		4.55 (3.74-5.53)

^{*} Bivariate analysis using Fisher's Exact Test.

[†]Traffic violations and unsafe actions do not include alcohol and drug impairment.

^{**}Length of stay information was missing for 11 drivers.

Table 3: Logistic regression modeling of factors associated with police recognition of alcohol impairment (n=2410)

Significant independent Variables	Odds Ratio (95% CI)		
BAC = 0	-		
0 - 0.049%	4.04 (1.55-10.55)		
0.050 - 0.080%	14.91 (5.47-40.62)		
0.081 - 0.160%	49.92 (26.47-94.14)		
> 0.160%	126.12 (71.33-223.0)		
Single motor vehicle crashes	7.07 (4.18-11.94)		
BAC _{.00049} x Single vehicle	0.93 (0.29-2.97)		
BAC _{.05080} x Single vehicle	0.20 (0.05-0.71)		
BAC _{.081160} x Single vehicle	0.14 (0.06-0.31)		
BAC _{>.161} x Single vehicle	0.09 (0.05-0.19)		
Night time crashes	2.56 (1.76-3.72)		
Prior Impaired Driving Activities (IDA)	4.34 (2.80-6.73)		
Night time crash x Prior IDA	0.53 (0.30-0.92)		
Unsafe Action	1.76 (1.30-2.39)		

ROC =0.931, Hosmer-Lemeshow Chi Sq (9) =11.45, p=0.1201

Table 4: Logistic regression modeling of factors associated with <u>police's failure</u> to indicate alcohol involvement among injured drivers with blood alcohol concentration ≥ 0.05% (n = 736)

Significant independent Variables	Odds Ratio (95% confidence interval)			
BAC > 0.161 %	-			
0.081 – 0.160 %	2.11 (1.47-3.03)			
0.050 - 0.080 %	5.60 (3.05-10.28)			
Day time crash	1.50 (1.05-2.16)			
No prior impaired driving activities	1.84 (1.31-2.58)			
No Unsafe Action	1.66 (1.13-2.44)			

ROC=0.6753; Hosmer-Lemeshow chi sq (8) = 5.08, p=0.5336

Table 5: Logistic regression modeling of factors associated with police indication of alcohol involvement among injured drivers with zero blood alcohol concentration (n = 1553)

Significant independent Variables	Odds Ratio (95% confidence interval)		
Prior impaired driving activities	7.15 (4.30-11.88)		
Single motor vehicle crashes	6.12 (3.56-10.53)		
Night time crashes	2.97 (1.78-4.94)		
Unsafe Action	2.24 (1.27-3.96)		

(Without Transfer to another hospital) ROC = 0.8681; Hosmer-Lemeshow chi sq (8) = 2.78, p=0.8360

References.

- Canadian Motor Vehicle Traffic Collision Statistics, Canadian Council of Motor Transport Administrators (2009)
- Criminal code of Canada (http://laws-lois.justice.gc.ca/eng/acts/C-46/).
- World report on road traffic injury prevention. The World Health Organization. Geneva. 2004.
- Barillo DJ. Arrest and conviction of injured intoxicated drivers in eastern Pennsylvania. *Accident Analysis* & *Prevention*. 1993;25:635-639.
- Beasley E, Beirness D. Drug use by fatally injured drivers in Canada. (2000 2008). Ottawa, ON: Canadian Centre on Substance Abuse. 2011.
- Beirness DJ, Simpson HM, Mayhew DR, Wilson RJ. Trends in drinking driver fatalities in Canada. *Canadian journal of public health.* 1994:Revue Canadienne de Sante Publique.
- Biffl WL, Schiffman JD, Harrington DT, Sullivan J, Tracy TF, Jr., Cioffi WG, Biffl WL, Schiffman JD, Harrington DT, Sullivan J, Tracy TF, Jr., Cioffi WG. Legal prosecution of alcohol-impaired drivers admitted to a level I trauma center in Rhode Island. *Journal of Trauma-Injury Infection & Critical Care*. 2004;56:24-29.
- Blomberg RD, Peck RC, Moskowitz H, Burns M, Fiorentino D. The Long Beach/Fort Lauderdale relative risk study. *Journal of Safety Research.* 2009;40:285-292.
- Brick J, Carpenter JA. The identification of alcohol intoxication by police. *Alcoholism: Clinical & Experimental Research.* 2001;25:850-855.
- Cydulka RK, Harmody MR, Barnoski A, Fallon W, Emerman CL. Injured intoxicated drivers: citation, conviction, referral, and recidivism rates. *Annals of Emergency Medicine*. 1998;32:349-352.
- Davidson P, Koziol-McLain J, Harrison L, Timken D, Lowenstein SR. Intoxicated ED patients: a 5-year follow-up of morbidity and mortality. *Annals of Emergency Medicine*. 1997;30:593-597.
- Desapriya E, Shimizu S, Pike I, Subzwari S, Scime G. Impact of lowering the legal blood alcohol concentration limit to 0.03 on male, female and teenage drivers involved alcohol-related crashes in Japan. *International Journal of Injury Control & Safety Promotion*. 2007;14:181-187.
- Desapriya EBR, Iwase N. Are lower legal blood alcohol limits and a combination of sanctions desirable in reducing drunken driver-involved traffic fatalities and traffic accidents? *Accident Analysis Prevention*. 1996;28:721-731.
- Dill PL, Wells-Parker E, Dill PL, Wells-Parker E. Court-mandated treatment for convicted drinking drivers. Alcohol Research & Health: the Journal of the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse & Alcoholism. 2006;29:41-48.
- Fabbri A, Marchesini G, Dente M, Iervese T, Spada M, Vandelli A, Fabbri A, Marchesini G, Dente M, Iervese T, Spada M, Vandelli A. A positive blood alcohol concentration is the main predictor of recurrent motor vehicle crash. *Annals of Emergency Medicine*. 2005;46:161-167.
- Fantus RJ, Zautcke JL, Hickey PA, Fantus PP, Nagorka FW. Driving under the influence: A level-1 trauma center's experience. *Journal of Trauma-Injury Infection & Critical Care*. 1991;31:1517-1520.
- Fell JC, Voas RB, Fell JC, Voas RB. The effectiveness of reducing illegal blood alcohol concentration (BAC) limits for driving: evidence for lowering the limit to .05 BAC. *Journal of Safety Research*. 2006;37:233-243.
- Goecke ME, Kirkpatrick AW, Laupland KB, Bicanic M, Findlay C, Goecke ME, Kirkpatrick AW, Laupland KB, Bicanic M, Findlay C. Characteristics and conviction rates of injured alcohol-impaired drivers admitted to a tertiary care Canadian Trauma Centre. *Clinical & Investigative Medicine Medecine Clinique et Experimentale.* 2007;30:26-32.

- Grossman DC, Mueller BA, Kenaston T, Salzberg P, Cooper W, Jurkovich GJ. The validity of police assessment of driver intoxication in motor vehicle crashes leading to hospitalization. *Accident Analysis & Prevention*. 1996;28:435-442.
- Harrison ELR, Fillmore MT. Alcohol and distraction interact to impair driving performance. *Drug Alcohol Depend*. 2011;117:31-37.
- Hosmer DW, Lemeshow S. A goodness of fit test for the multiple logistic regression model. *Communication in Statistics.* 1980;A10:1043-1069.
- Krause KR, Howells GA, Bair HA, Bendick PJ, Glover JL. Prosecution and conviction of the injured intoxicated driver. *Journal of Trauma-Injury Infection & Critical Care*. 1998;45:1069-1073.
- Kutner M, Nachtsheim C, Neter J. *Applied linear regression models*. 4'th edition ed: Mc-Graw-Hill / Irwin; 2004.
- Lillis RP, Good R, States JD. Post treatment driving records of injured impaired drivers. 39th Annual Proceedings, Association for the Advancement of Automotive Medicine 1995.
- Mann RE, Anglin L, Wilkins K, Vingilis ER, MacDonald S, Sheu WJ. Rehabilitation for convicted drinking drivers (second offenders): effects on mortality. *Journal of studies on alcohol.* 1994;55:372-374.
- Mann RE, Macdonald S, Stoduto LG, Bondy S, Jonah B, Shaikh A. The effects of introducing or lowering legal per se blood alcohol limits for driving: an international review. *Accident Analysis & Prevention*. 2001;33:569-583.
- Mayhew D, Brown S, Simpson H. *Alcohol-Crash Problem in Canada: 2006.* Ottawa: Traffic Injury Research Foundation of Canada 2009.
- McLaughlin JG, Smith RJ, Mattice CR, Scholten DJ. Hospitalization and injury influence on the prosecution of drunk drivers. *American Surgeon*. 1993;59:484-488; discussion 488-489.
- Miller MA, Weafer J, Fillmore MT. Gender differences in alcohol impairment of simulated driving performance and driving-related skills. *Alcohol Alcohol.* 2009;44:586-593.
- Moskowitz H, Burns M, Ferguson S. Police officers' detection of breath odors from alcohol ingestion. *Accident Analysis & Prevention*. 1999;31:175-180.
- Nagin DS, Pogarsky G. Integrating celerity, impulsivity, and extralegal sanction threats into a model of general deterrence: Theory and evidence. *Criminology.* 2001;39:865-892.
- Orsay EM, Doan-Wiggins L, Lewis R, Lucke R, RamaKrishnan V. The impaired driver: hospital and police detection of alcohol and other drugs of abuse in motor vehicle crashes. *Annals of Emergency Medicine*. 1994;24:51-55.
- Ostrom M, Huelke DF, Waller PF, Eriksson A, Blow F. Some biases in the alcohol investigative process in traffic fatalities. *Accident Analysis & Prevention*. 1992;24:539-545.
- Peck RC, Gebers MA, Voas RB, Romano E. The relationship between blood alcohol concentration (BAC), age, and crash risk. *Journal of Safety Research.* 2008;39:311-319.
- Petridou E, Moustaki M. Human factors in the causation of road traffic crashes. *Eur J Epidemiol.* 2000;16:819-826.
- Purssell RA, Brown D, Brubacher JR, Wilson J, Fang M, Schulzer M, Mac E, Abu-Laban RB. Proportion of injured drivers presenting to a tertiary care emergency department who engage in future impaired driving activities. *Traffic Injury Prevention*. 2010;11:34-42.
- Purssell RA, Yarema M, Wilson J, Fang M, Simons R, Kasic S, Abu-Laban RB, Brubacher J, Lupu I. Proportion of injured alcohol impaired drivers convicted of a criminal code offence in British Columbia. *Can J Emerg Med.* 2004;6:80-88.
- Runge JW, Pulliam CL, Carter JM, Thomason MH. Enforcement of drunken driving laws in cases involving injured intoxicated drivers. *Annals of Emergency Medicine*. 1996;27:66-72.
- Schermer CR, Moyers TB, Miller WR, Bloomfield LA, Schermer CR, Moyers TB, Miller WR, Bloomfield LA. Trauma center brief interventions for alcohol disorders decrease subsequent driving under the influence arrests. *Journal of Trauma-Injury Infection & Critical Care*. 2006;60:29-34.

- Schlundt D, Warren R, Miller S. Reducing unintentional injuries on the nation's highways: a literature review. *J Health Care Poor Underserved*. 2004;15:76-98.
- Shults RA, Elder RW, Sleet DA, Nichols JL, Alao MO, Carande-Kulis VG, Zaza S, Sosin DM, Thompson RS, Task Force on Community Preventive S. Reviews of evidence regarding interventions to reduce alcohol-impaired driving. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*. 2001;21:66-88.
- Sjogren H, Bjornstig U, Eriksson A. Comparison between blood analysis and police assessment of drug and alcohol use by injured drivers. *Scandinavian journal of social medicine*. 1997;25:217-223.
- Soderstrom CA, Birschbach JM, Dischinger PC. Injured drivers and alcohol use: culpability, convictions, and pre- and post-crash driving history. *Journal of Trauma-Injury Infection & Critical Care*. 1990;30:1208-1213.
- Stafford MC, Warr M. A Reconceptualization of General and Specific Deterrence. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinguency*. 1993;30:123-135.
- Stoduto G, Vingilis E, Kapur BM, Sheu W-J, McLellan BA, Liban CB. Alcohol and drug use among motor vehicle collision victims admitted to a regional trauma unit: demographic, injury, and crash characteristics. *Accident Analysis & Prevention*. 1993;25:411-420.
- Stuster J. Validation of the standardized field sobriety test battery at 0.08% blood alcohol concentration. *Human Factors.* 2006;48:608-614.
- Transport Canada Road Safety Directorate. *Alcohol-related Crashes in Canada: Driver Characteristics and Casualty Trends*. 2008.
- van Wijngaarden M, Cushing B, Kerns T, Dischinger P. Police perception of intoxication among injured pedestrians. *Journal of Emergency Medicine*. 1995;13:21-26.
- Vingilis E, Larkin E, Stoduto G, Parkinson-Heyes A, McLellan B. Psychosocial sequelae of motor vehicle collisions: a follow-up study. *Accident Analysis & Prevention*. 1996;28:637-645.
- Vodden K, Smith D, Eaton F, Mayhew D. Analysis and Estimation of the Social Cost of Motor Vehicle Collisions in Ontario. Transport Canada 2007. 2007; http://www.tc.gc.ca/media/documents/roadsafety/tp14800e.pdf.
- Wagenaar AC, Maldonado-Molina MM, Ma L, Tobler AL, Komro KA. Effects of legal BAC limits on fatal crash involvement: analyses of 28 states from 1976 through 2002. *Journal of Safety Research*. 2007;38:493-499.
- Waller JA. Factors Associated With Police Evaluation of Drinking in Fatal Highway Crashes. *Journal of Safety Research.* 1971;3:35-41.
- Weafer J, Fillmore MT. Acute tolerance to alcohol impairment of behavioral and cognitive mechanisms related to driving: drinking and driving on the descending limb. *Psychopharmacology*. 2012;220:697-706.
- Wells-Parker E, Williams M, Wells-Parker E, Williams M. Enhancing the effectiveness of traditional interventions with drinking drivers by adding brief individual intervention components. *Journal of studies on alcohol.* 2002;63:655-664.
- Wright V. Deterrence in Criminal Justice. Evaluating certaintly vs severity of punishment. Washington, D.C.: The Sentencing Project: Research and advocacy for reform.; November, 2010 2010.