

## Effekt av bruk av KKS-sikkerhetshjelm på tette tak

### 4.4.2 Measures for October fotgiengerrefleks use of (4.8)

There are no results on how much flare use would happen as a result of specific measures. in Table 4.2 are therefore given the expected reductions in the number of injured persons if the reflex use skes from 15o / o respectively 30olo, 60% and 90o / o. The effects are based pi pi impact the individual pedestrian (see chapter 4.4.1 Use of the reflex).

### 4.4.3 The use of bicycle helmets (4.10; updated 2006)

A meta-analysis of studies of the effects of helmet (Permitted Well, Glaser and McFadden, 2001) suggests that pi cycle helmet reduces the risk of head injuries with 600 / o, the risk of home injuries by 58%, the risk of facial injuries by 47Yo and the risk of fatality with 73%. The risk of neck injuries, however, happens with 36%. All effects are statistically significant. The results concerning use of the hard helmet. Soft helmet has only a small power not statistically pilitelig (Elvik et al, 1997).

It can not be excluded that the results of this meta-analysis of publication pivirket-bias and therefore give an exaggerated picture of the effectiveness of bicycle helmets is. Many of undersskelsene's evaluations of the effects of pibud about cycle helmets. Most subsskelsler not control for long-term trends. The results are therefore not necessarily a expression of the impact of the helmet pibudet pi head injuries. Robinson (2001) concludes that the reduction in head injuries as other authors ascribe pibudet just due to a long-term trend in the relationship between head injuries and other injuries.

Based pi results of Permitted Well et al and pi hospitals reported cyclist injuries (Veisten et al, 2005) is in Table 4.2 calculated differential effects pi injury. Head and brain injury inspires as serious / very seriously injured. The effect pi minor injuries are estimated as the average effects of pi facial and neck injuries. Since the head and facial injuries constitutes approx. 20Yo of all doctor treated bicycle injuries (Bjorn Skau, 2005) is effects of damage does not kill multiplied by 0.2. Because of uncertainty in the empirical results about the effects PFL injury and potential effects based medical pi background effects are pi injuries rounded, and the effects are anslitt pi killed in a vrre ph20% reduction.

Results on the impact of helmet pi risk of personal injury accidents per cycle-km is ambiguous. According to research from Australia and New Zealand where the helmet is pibud ocher risk per km of bike-I4%. This effect may be that cyclists are uforsiktigere nir the bikes with helmet (Bjorn Skau, 2005). Other investigations found no correlation between the use of bicycle helmets and cycling behavior (Towner et al, 2002). No found undersskelsler about the differences between cyclists who wear helmets and cyclists who do not ttlelm use. It is possible that it is the racers with the most rabid kjorestilen using helmet, or that it is the most careful riders who use helmets. It is also possible that depends on whether the cycle is pibudt or not who bikes with and without a helmet. Because the great uncertainty associated with the results, the effects of helmet pi risk per kilometer bike not include pea in Table 4.2.

### 4.4.4 Measures Skt use of bicycle helmets (new measures in Effekttall 200D \ updated 2006)

According to the NPRA tilstandsundersokelse about 55o / o of all cyclists under 12 ir and Iag30Yo of cyclists from 12 k6 helmet. Helmets are not pibudt, but it is a

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the flour increase the use of helmets among bicyclists. The use of bicycle helmets can be done with volunteers measures and with the use of cycle helmets.

Effects of measures to reduce injuries are a product of three effects:

- **Helmet Effect:** Bicycle helmet protective effect (see Section 4.4.3 Use of cycle), this effect is dependent on how large the increase in the use of helmet is.
- **Behavioral effects:** The effect of the cycle with a helmet on cyclists risk of being involved in accidents. If the use of bicycle helmets is related to less cautious behavior among the racers, the protective effect of helmet use is several completely or partially offset (see cycle).
- **Exposure effect (only the use of cycle):** If the use of Bike Helmet hazards that cycling is less attractive so that cycling is reduced to this, all else being equal, lead to fewer injured cyclists. Exposure effect is different in different countries. More research suggests that mandatory helmet use has led to reduced cycling among young people, to a reduction in use among children, and no reduction among adults (Hagel and Pless, 2006).

Voluntary measures for the use of bicycle helmets include information, personal contact (e.g. with parents), helmet systems and free helmet / off systems. Effects on the use of helmet depend on the combined action of several factors. In countries where so far been through quickly seeks voluntary measures the proportion of cyclists who ride with a helmet maximum 50% among children and adolescents and to 25-30% among adults, but there is considerable variation in results (Nolte and Lindqvist, 2003). Compared with most countries where surveys were reviewed first is helmet use in Norway is already a relatively high level (55% for children under 12 and 30% among cyclists from 12-yr). It is therefore possible that a high level of helmet use can be achieved with voluntary measures than in other countries.

Education about the use of bicycle helmets (in combination with information) has an effect on the use of cycle than by only using voluntary measures. Percentage of cyclists using cycle after a period of education varies between 46% for children and 85% for adults. The effects are similar for children and adolescents than for adults (Nolte and Lindqvist, 2003). According to several studies from Australia and New Zealand leads education about the use of bicycle helmets to a net effect of 22% fewer cyclists with head injuries. It is the combined effect of an increase in helmet use from 25% to 60%, a reduction of head injuries of 25%, a 14% reduction in risk per cycling hour and a reduction in the number of cycling hours of 29%. The same net effect was estimated for education about the use of cycle in Norway.

The net effect is based on the following assumptions: Helmet use is 30%, use of helmet has led to a 75% reduction of damages mentioned in the previous chapter, risk of accidents per cycle-km happens with 10% and a reduction of cycling hours of 10%. The effect on the number of cycling hours and risk per bicycle kilometer were found in all studies and therefore are slightly lower than in Australia. The results are shown in Table 4.2 and shows that helmet use from 30% to 50% gives 4% reduction in the number of cyclists killed and 2% reduction in the number of severely injured cyclists. Similarly, an increase in helmet use from 30% to 50% gives 9% reduction in the number of fatalities per cyclist and 5% reduction in the number of severely injured cyclists.

In Norway, the number of cyclists killed and injured in 1995 and 2004 an average of 13.1 cyclists killed and 832 injured cyclists and injured (SSB). An increase in the proportion of cyclists who wear helmets from 30 to 50% would lead to 5 fewer fatalities per 100,000 cyclists and 9 fewer injured. A doubling of the proportion of cyclists who use helmets from 30% to 60% would lead to 7.05% fewer fatalities and 9.1% fewer injured per 100,000 cyclists.