

**Technical Report Documentation Page**

1. Report No. SWUTC/06/167550-1		2. Government Accession No.		3. Recipient's Catalog No.	
4. Title and Subtitle The Impact of Demographics, Built Environment Attributes, Vehicle Characteristics, and Gasoline Prices on Household Vehicle Holdings and Use				5. Report Date September 2006	
				6. Performing Organization Code	
7. Author(s) Sudeshna Sen and Chandra R. Bhat				8. Performing Organization Report No. Report 167550-1	
9. Performing Organization Name and Address Center for Transportation Research University of Texas at Austin 3208 Red River, Suite 200 Austin, Texas 78705-2650				10. Work Unit No. (TRAIS)	
				11. Contract or Grant No. 10727	
12. Sponsoring Agency Name and Address Southwest Region University Transportation Center Texas Transportation Institute Texas A&M University System College Station, Texas 77843-3135				13. Type of Report and Period Covered	
				14. Sponsoring Agency Code	
15. Supplementary Notes Supported by general revenues from the State of Texas.					
16. Abstract In this report, we formulate and estimate a nested model structure that includes a multiple discrete-continuous extreme value (MDCEV) component to analyze the choice of vehicle type/vintage and usage in the upper level and a multinomial logit (MNL) component to analyze the choice of vehicle make/model in the lower nest. Data for the analysis is drawn from the 2000 San Francisco Bay Area Travel Survey. The model results indicate the important effects of household demographics, household location characteristics, built environment attributes, household head characteristics, and vehicle attributes on household vehicle holdings and use. The model developed in the report is applied to predict the impact of land use and fuel cost changes on vehicle holdings and usage of the households. Such predictions can inform the design of proactive land-use, economic, and transportation policies to influence household vehicle holdings and usage in a way that reduces the negative impacts of automobile dependency such as traffic congestion, fuel consumption and air pollution.					
17. Key Words MDCEV Model, Gasoline Prices, Built Environment, Household Vehicle Holdings and Use, Vehicle Make/Model Choice			18. Distribution Statement No restrictions. This document is available to the public through NTIS: National Technical Information Service 5285 Port Royal Road Springfield, Virginia 22161		
19. Security Classif.(of this report) Unclassified		20. Security Classif.(of this page) Unclassified		21. No. of Pages 56	22. Price



**The Impact of Demographics, Built Environment Attributes, Vehicle Characteristics, and Gasoline Prices on Household Vehicle Holdings and Use**

by

Sudeshna Sen

and

Dr. Chandra R. Bhat

**Research Report SWUTC/06/167550-1**

Southwest Regional University Transportation Center  
Center for Transportation Research  
University of Texas at Austin  
Austin, Texas 78712

September 2006

## **DISCLAIMER**

The contents of this report reflect the views of the authors, who are responsible for the facts and the accuracy of the information presented herein. This document is disseminated under the sponsorship of the Department of Transportation, University Transportation Centers Program in the interest of information exchange. Mention of trade names or commercial products does not constitute endorsement or recommendation for use.

## **ABSTRACT**

In this report, we formulate and estimate a nested model structure that includes a multiple discrete-continuous extreme value (MDCEV) component to analyze the choice of vehicle type/vintage and usage in the upper level and a multinomial logit (MNL) component to analyze the choice of vehicle make/model in the lower nest. Data for the analysis is drawn from the 2000 San Francisco Bay Area Travel Survey. The model results indicate the important effects of household demographics, household location characteristics, built environment attributes, household head characteristics, and vehicle attributes on household vehicle holdings and use. The model developed in the report is applied to predict the impact of land use and fuel cost changes on vehicle holdings and usage of the households. Such predictions can inform the design of proactive land-use, economic, and transportation policies to influence household vehicle holdings and usage in a way that reduces the negative impacts of automobile dependency such as traffic congestion, fuel consumption and air pollution.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

The authors recognize that support for this research was provided by a grant from the U.S. Department of Transportation, University Transportation Centers Program to the Southwest Region University Transportation Center which is funded 50% with general revenue funds from the State of Texas.

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In this research, we formulate and estimate a nested model structure that includes a multiple discrete-continuous extreme value (MDCEV) component to analyze the choice of vehicle type/vintage and usage in the upper level and a multinomial logit (MNL) component to analyze the choice of vehicle make/model in the lower level. The model accommodates heteroscedasticity and/or error correlation in both the multiple discrete-continuous component and the single discrete choice component of the joint model using a mixing distribution. The joint model also incorporates random coefficients in one or both components of the joint model. Data for the analysis is drawn from the 2000 San Francisco Bay Survey. The empirical results provide important insights into the determinants of vehicle holdings and usage decisions of households. Some important findings from the analysis are presented below.

The demographic variable effects show that high income households have a lower baseline preference for older vehicles relative to low/middle income households, as expected. A similar result is observed for households with more number of employed members. It is also interesting to note that both high income households and households with more number of employed members are less likely to use non-motorized forms of transportation compared to other households.

The household location attributes and built environment characteristics of the household residential neighborhood indicate that households located in urban areas or in high residential or commercial/industrial neighborhoods are less likely to own/use large vehicle types such as pickup trucks and vans compared to other households. Also, households located in residential neighborhood with high bike lane density are more likely to use non-motorized modes of transportation, while those located in neighborhoods with high street block density are more likely to prefer compact vehicles.

In addition to the household demographic characteristics, the residential location attributes, and the built environment characteristics, the household head characteristics also impact the vehicle holdings and usage decisions. Households with older household heads are generally more likely to own vehicles of an older vintage compared to younger households. The preferences for vehicle holdings and use also vary depending upon the gender and ethnicity of the household head.

Finally, the empirical results give us valuable insights into the effect of vehicle attributes, fuel cost and fuel emissions on vehicle make/model holdings and usage decisions. Households prefer vehicle makes/models which are less expensive to purchase and operate, which have high luggage volume and seating capacity, high engine performance and low greenhouse gas emissions, amongst other things.

The aforementioned variable impacts on vehicle holdings and usage predictions can inform the design of proactive land-use, economic, and transportation policies to influence household vehicle holdings and usage in a way that reduces the negative impacts of automobile dependency such as traffic congestion, fuel consumption and air pollution.



## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION</b> .....	1
<b>CHAPTER 2. OVERVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND THE CURRENT STUDY</b> .....	3
2.1 Dimensions Used to Characterize Vehicle Holdings and Use .....	3
2.2 Determinants of Vehicle Holdings and Usage Decisions.....	4
2.3 Modeling Methodology .....	5
2.4 The Current Study .....	6
<b>CHAPTER 3. RANDOM UTILITY MODEL STRUCTURE</b> .....	7
3.1 Econometric Model .....	8
3.2 Mixed MDCEV-MNL Model.....	10
<b>CHAPTER 4. DATA SOURCES AND SAMPLE FORMATION</b> .....	11
4.1 Data Sources .....	11
4.2 Sample Formation.....	11
4.3 Descriptive Statistics .....	14
<b>CHAPTER 5. EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS</b> .....	17
5.1 Variable Specification .....	17
5.2 Empirical Results.....	18
5.2.1 MDCEV Model .....	18
5.2.1.1 Household Demographics.....	25
5.2.1.2 Household Location Characteristics.....	26
5.2.1.3 Built Environment Characteristics of the Residential Neighborhood .....	27
5.2.1.4 Household Head Characteristics.....	27
5.2.1.5 Baseline Preference Constants.....	28
5.2.1.6 Random Error Components/Coefficients .....	28
5.2.2 MNL Model for Vehicle Make/Model Choice.....	28
5.2.2.1 Cost Variables.....	30
5.2.2.2 Internal Dimensions.....	30
5.2.2.3 Vehicle Performance Indicators .....	30
5.2.2.4 Type of Drive Wheels and Vehicle Make .....	30
5.2.2.5 Fuel Emissions and Type.....	31
5.2.2.6 Trade-off Analysis.....	31
5.2.3 Satiation Effects.....	31
5.2.4 Logsum Parameters .....	34
5.2.5 Overall Likelihood-Based Measures of Fit .....	34
5.3 Model Application.....	34
<b>CHAPTER 6. CONCLUSION</b> .....	39
<b>REFERENCES</b> .....	41



## LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure 1. Classification of Vehicle Type/Vintage .....	13
Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Vehicle Type/Vintage Holdings.....	15
Table 2. MDCEV Model Results – Parameters (and t-statistic) .....	19
Table 3. Multinomial Logit Model Results for Vehicle Make/Model Choice .....	29
Table 4. Satiation Effects.....	32
Table 5. Impact of Change in Built Environment Variables and Fuel Cost.....	36



## CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

The dependence of U.S. households on the automobile to pursue daily activity-travel patterns has been the subject of increasing research study in recent years because of the far-reaching impacts of this dependence at multiple societal levels. At the household level, automobile dependency increases the transportation expenses of the household (CES, 2004); at a community level, automobile dependency contributes to social stratification and inequity among segments of the population (Litman, 2002; Engwicht, 1993; Untermann and Mouden, 1989; Carlson *et al.*, 1995; Litman, 2005); at a regional level, automobile dependency significantly impacts traffic congestion, environment, health, economic development, infrastructure, land-use and energy consumption (see Schrank and Lomax, 2005; EPA, 1999; Litman and Laube, 2002; Jeff *et al.*, 1997; Schipper, 2004).

One of the most widely used indicators of household automobile dependency is the extent of household vehicle holdings and use. In this context, the 2001 NHTS data shows that about 92% of American households owned at least one motor vehicle in 2001 (compared to about 80% in the early 1970s; see Pucher and Renne, 2003). Household vehicle miles of travel also increased 300% between 1977 and 2001 (relative to a population increase of 30% during the same period; see Polzin and Chu, 2004). In addition, there is an increasing diversity in the body type of vehicles held by households. The NHTS data shows that about 57% of the personal-use vehicles are cars or station wagons, while 21% are vans or Sports Utility Vehicles (SUV) and 19% are pickup trucks. The increasing holdings and usage of motorized personal vehicles, combined with the shift from small passenger cars to large non-passenger cars, has a significant impact on traffic congestion, pollution, and energy consumption.

In addition to the overall impacts of vehicle holdings and use on regional quality of life, vehicle holdings and use also plays an important role in travel demand forecasting and transportation policy analysis. From a travel demand forecasting perspective, household vehicle holdings has been found to impact almost all aspects of daily activity-travel patterns, including the number of out-of-home activity episodes that individuals participate in, the location of out-of-home participations, and the travel mode and time-of-day of out-of-home activity participations (see, for example, Bhat and Lockwood, 2004; Pucher and Renne, 2003; Bhat and Castelar, 2002). Besides, households' vehicle holdings and residential location choice are also

very intricately linked (see Pagliara and Preston, 2003, Bhat and Guo, 2006). Thus, it is of interest to forecast the impacts of demographic changes in the population (such as aging and rising immigrant population) and vehicle acquisition/maintenance costs (for example, rising fuel prices), among other things, on vehicle holdings and use. From a transportation policy standpoint, a good understanding of the determinants of vehicle holdings and usage (such as the impact of the built environment and acquisition/maintenance costs) can inform the design of proactive land-use, economic, and transportation policies to influence household vehicle holdings and usage in a way that reduces traffic congestion and air quality problems (Feng *et al.*, 2004)

Clearly, it is important to accurately predict the vehicle holdings of households as well as the vehicle miles of travel by vehicle type, to support critical transportation infrastructure and air quality planning decisions. Not surprisingly, therefore, there is a substantial literature in this area, as we discuss next.

## CHAPTER 2. OVERVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND THE CURRENT STUDY

We present an overview of the literature by examining three broad issues related to vehicle holdings and use modeling: (1) The dimensions used to characterize household vehicle holdings and use, (2) The determinants of vehicle holdings and usage decisions considered in the analysis, and (3) The model structure employed.

### 2.1 Dimensions Used to Characterize Vehicle Holdings and Use

Several dimensions can be used to characterize household vehicle holdings and usage, including the number of vehicles owned by the household, type of each vehicle owned, number of miles traveled using each vehicle, age of each vehicle, fuel type of each vehicle, and make/model of each vehicle. The most commonly used dimensions of analysis in the existing literature include (1) The number of vehicles owned by the household with or without vehicle use decisions (see Burns and Golob, 1976, Lerman and Ben-Akiva, 1976, Golob and Burns, 1978, Train, 1980, Kain and Fauth, 1977, Bhat and Pulugurta, 1998, Dargay and Vythoulkas, 1999, and Hanly and Dargay, 2000), and (2) The type of the vehicle most recently purchased or most driven by the household. The vehicle type may be characterized by body type (such as sedan, coupe, pick up truck, sports utility vehicle, van, *etc*; see Lave and Train, 1979, Kitamura *et al.*, 2000, and Choo and Mokhtarian, 2004), make/model (Mannering and Mahmassani, 1985), fuel type (Brownstone and Train, 1999, Brownstone *et al.*, 2000, Hensher and Greene, 2001), body type and vintage (Mohammadian and Miller, 2003a), and make/model and vehicle acquisition type (Mannering *et al.*, 2002). Some studies have extended the analysis from the choice of the most recently purchased vehicle to choice of all the vehicles owned by the household and/or the usage of these vehicles.<sup>1</sup> A few other studies have examined the vehicle holdings of the household in terms of their vehicle transaction process (*i.e.*, whether to add a

---

<sup>1</sup> These studies include the joint choice of vehicle ownership level and vehicle body type (Hensher and Plastrier, 1985), vehicle body type and vintage (Berkovec and Rust, 1985), vehicle fuel type choice (Brownstone *et al.*, 1996), vehicle body type, vintage and vehicle ownership level (Berkovec, 1985), joint choice of vehicle body type and usage (Golob *et al.*, 1997; Feng *et al.*, 2004), vehicle make/model and vintage (Manski and Sherman, 1980; Mannering and Winston, 1985), vehicle ownership level, vehicle body type and usage (Train and Lohrer, 1982; Train, 1986), number of vehicles owned and usage (Golob and Wissen, 1989; Jong, 1990), and vehicle body type and usage (Bhat and Sen, 2006).

vehicle to the current fleet, or replace/dispose a vehicle from the current fleet; see Mohammadian and Miller, 2003b).

The discussion above indicates that, while there have been several studies focusing on different dimensions of vehicle holdings and use, each individual study has either confined its alternatives to a single vehicle in a household or examined household vehicle holdings along a relatively narrow set of dimensions. This can be attributed to the computational difficulties in model estimation associated with focusing on the entire fleet of vehicles and/or using several dimensions to characterize vehicle type.

## **2.2 Determinants of Vehicle Holdings and Usage Decisions**

There are several factors that influence household vehicle holdings and usage decisions, including household and individual demographic characteristics, vehicle attributes, fuel costs, travel costs, and the built environment characteristics (land-use and urban form attributes) of the residential neighborhood. Most earlier studies have focused on only a few of these potential determinants. For instance, some studies exclusively examine the impact of household and individual demographic characteristics such as household income, household size, number of children in the household, and employment of individuals in the household (see, for example, Bhat and Pulugurta, 1998). Some other studies have identified the impact of vehicle attributes such as purchase price, operating cost, fuel efficiency, vehicle performance and external dimensions, in addition to demographic characteristics (see, for example, Lave and Train, 1979, Golob *et al.*, 1997, Mohammadian and Miller, 2003a, Manski and Sherman, 1980, Mannering and Winston, 1985). A more recent study has identified the impact of the driver's personality and travel perceptions on vehicle type choice (Choo and Mokhtarian, 2004), while another recent study recognized the impact of the built environment on vehicle ownership levels (Bhat and Guo, 2006). Both these studies also controlled for demographic characteristics.

The above studies have contributed in important ways to our understanding of vehicle holdings and usage decision. However, they have not jointly and comprehensively considered an exhaustive set of potential determinants of vehicle holdings and usage.



## 2.3 Modeling Methodology

Several types of discrete and discrete-continuous choice models have been used in the literature to model vehicle holdings and usage. Most of these studies use standard discrete choice models (multinomial logit, nested logit or mixed logit) for vehicle ownership and/or vehicle type and a continuous linear regression model for the vehicle use dimension (if this second dimension is included in the analysis). These conventional discrete or discrete-continuous models analyze situations in which the decision-maker can choose only one alternative from a set of mutually exclusive alternatives. This is not representative of the choice situation of multiple-vehicle households, where households own and use multiple types of vehicles simultaneously to satisfy various functional needs of the household. The analysis of such choice situations requires models that recognize the multiple discreteness in the mix of vehicles owned by the household.

Models that recognize multiple-discreteness have been developed recently in several fields (see Bhat, 2006 for a review). Among these, Bhat (2005) introduced a simple and parsimonious econometric approach to handle multiple discreteness. Bhat's model, labeled the multiple discrete-continuous extreme value (MDCEV) model, is analytically tractable in the probability expressions and is practical even for situations with a large number of discrete consumption alternatives. In fact, the MDCEV model represents the multinomial logit (MNL) form-equivalent for multiple discrete-continuous choice analysis and collapses exactly to the MNL in the case that each (and every) decision-maker chooses only one alternative.

The MDCEV and other multiple discrete-continuous models do not, however, accommodate a choice situation characterized by the joint choice of (1) multiple alternatives from a set of mutually exclusive alternatives, and (2) a single alternative from a set of mutually exclusive alternatives. Such a choice situation better characterizes the decision-making process of a multiple vehicle household. For instance, a household might choose to own multiple vehicle types such as an SUV, a Sedan and a Coupe from a set of mutually exclusive vehicle types because they serve different functional needs of individuals of the household. But within each of the vehicle types, the household chooses a single make/model from a vast array of alternative makes/models.

## 2.4 The Current Study

In this report, we contribute to the vast literature in the area of vehicle holdings and use in many ways. First, we use several dimensions to characterize vehicle holdings and use. In particular, we model number of vehicles owned as well as the following attributes for each of the vehicles owned: (1) vehicle body type, (2) vehicle age (*i.e.*, vintage), (3) vehicle make and model, and (4) vehicle usage. Second, we incorporate a comprehensive set of determinants of vehicle holdings and usage decisions, including household demographics, individual characteristics, vehicle attributes, fuel cost, and built environment characteristics. Finally, we use a utility-theoretic formulation to analyze the many dimensions of vehicle holdings and use. Specifically, we use a multinomial logit structure to analyze the choice of a single make and model within each vehicle type/vintage chosen, and nest this MNL structure within an MDCEV formulation to analyze the simultaneous choice of multiple vehicle types/vintages and usage decisions. Such a joint MDCEV-MNL model has been proposed and applied by Bhat *et al.* (2006) for time-use decisions. In this current report, we customize this earlier framework to vehicle holdings and use decisions, as well as extend the framework to include random coefficients/error components in the MDCEV component and MNL component. The resulting model is very flexible, and is able to accommodate general patterns of perfect and imperfect substitution among alternatives.

The rest of this report is structured as follows. The next chapter discusses the model structure of the mixed MDCEV-MNL model. Chapter 3 identifies the data sources, describes the sample formation process and provides relevant sample characteristics. Chapter 4 discusses the variables considered in model estimation and presents the empirical results. The final chapter summarizes the report and discusses future extensions.

## CHAPTER 3. RANDOM UTILITY MODEL STRUCTURE

Let there be  $K$  different vehicle type/vintage combinations (for example, old Sedan, new Sedan, old SUV, new SUV, *etc.*) that a household can potentially choose from (for ease in presentation, we will use the term “vehicle type” to refer to vehicle type/vintage combinations). It is important to note that the  $K$  vehicle types are imperfect substitutes of each other in that they serve different functional needs of the household. Let  $m_k$  be the annual mileage of use for vehicle type  $k$  ( $k = 1, 2, \dots, K$ ). Also, let the different vehicle types be defined such that households own no more than one vehicle of each type. If a household owns a particular vehicle type, this vehicle type may be one of several makes/models. That is, within a given vehicle type, a household chooses one make/model from several possible alternatives. Let the index for vehicle make/model be  $l$ , and let  $N_k$  be the set of makes/models within vehicle type  $k$ . From the analyst’s perspective, the household is assumed to maximize the following random utility function:

$$\tilde{U} = \sum_{k=1}^K \left[ \exp \left( \max_{l \in N_k} \{W_{lk}\} \right) \right] (m_k + 1)^{\alpha_k}, \quad (1)$$

where the random utility of the make/model  $l$  of vehicle type  $k$  is written as:

$$W_{lk} = \beta'x_k + \gamma'z_{lk} + \eta_{lk}. \quad (2)$$

In the above expression,  $\beta'x_k$  is the overall observed utility component of vehicle type  $k$ ,  $z_{lk}$  is an exogenous variable vector influencing the utility of vehicle make/model  $l$  of vehicle type  $k$ ,  $\gamma$  is a corresponding coefficient vector to be estimated, and  $\eta_{lk}$  is an unobserved error component specific to make/model  $l$  of vehicle type  $k$ .  $\alpha_k$  in Equation (1) is a satiation factor that controls the usage of each vehicle type  $k$  (see Bhat and Sen, 2006).

The household is maximizing random utility ( $\tilde{U}$ ) subject to the constraint that  $\sum_{k=1}^K m_k = M$ , where  $M$  is the exogenous total household annual mileage across all the  $K$  vehicle types (one of the “vehicle types” is assumed to be the non-motorized mode and hence the

total household motorized annual mileage is endogenous to the formulation).<sup>2</sup> The analyst can solve for optimal usage ( $m_k^*$ ) by forming the Lagrangian and applying the Kuhn-Tucker conditions. Designating vehicle type 1 as a vehicle type to which the household allocates some non-zero amount of usage (note that the household should use at least one of the  $K$  vehicle types, given that the household will travel during the year), and using algebraic manipulations, the Kuhn-Tucker conditions may be written as (see, Bhat *et al.*, 2006):

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} H_k = H_1 \text{ if } m_k^* > 0 \\ H_k < H_1 \text{ if } m_k^* = 0 \end{array} \right\} (k = 2, 3, \dots, K), \quad (3)$$

where

$$H_k = \underset{l \in N_k}{\text{Max}} \{ \beta' x_k + \gamma' z_{lk} + \eta_{lk} \} + \ln \alpha_k + (\alpha_k - 1) \ln(m_k^* + 1), \quad k \geq 1 \quad (4)$$

The satiation parameter,  $\alpha_k$ , needs to be bounded between 0 and 1. To enforce this condition, we parameterize  $\alpha_k$  as  $1/[1 + \exp(-\delta_k)]$ . Further, to allow the satiation parameters to vary across households, we write  $\delta_k = \tau_k' y_k$ , where  $y_k$  is a vector of household characteristics impacting satiation for the  $k^{\text{th}}$  alternative, and  $\tau_k$  is a corresponding vector of parameter.

### 3.1 Econometric Model

The assumptions about the  $\eta_{lk}$  terms complete the econometric specification. The simplest structure is obtained by assuming that the  $\eta_{lk}$  terms are identically standard extreme value distributed. Further, we write the error term  $\eta_{lk}$  as  $\eta_{kl} = \lambda_k + \lambda_{kl}$ , where  $\lambda_k$  is a common unobserved utility component shared by all vehicle make/model alternatives of vehicle type  $k$  (for example, this can characterize unobserved attributes that increase the overall preference for SUV makes/models).  $\lambda_{kl}$  is an extreme value term distributed identically with scale parameter  $\theta_k$  ( $0 < \theta_k \leq 1$ ). The  $\lambda_{kl}$  terms are independent of one another and of the  $\lambda_k$  and  $\varepsilon_k$  terms.

With the above assumptions and using the properties of the extreme value distribution, we can simplify the expression for  $H_k$  as:

---

<sup>2</sup> We do not distinguish between different non-motorized modes (bicycling and walking) in the current analysis, because the focus is on motorized travel.

$$\begin{aligned}
H_k &= \beta'x_k + \lambda_k + \underset{l \in N_k}{\text{Max}}\{\gamma'z_{lk} + \lambda_{lk}\} + \ln \alpha_k + (\alpha_k - 1)\ln(m_k^* + 1) \\
&= \beta'x_k + \theta_k \ln \sum_{l \in N_k} \exp\left(\frac{\gamma'z_{lk}}{\theta_k}\right) + \ln \alpha_k + (\alpha_k - 1)\ln(m_k^* + 1) + \varepsilon_k,
\end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

where  $\varepsilon_k$  is also now standard extreme value distributed.<sup>3</sup> Then, following the derivation of the Multiple Discrete Continuous Extreme Value (MDCEV) model in Bhat (2005), the marginal probability that the household uses the first  $Q$  of the  $K$  vehicle types ( $Q \geq 1$ ) for annual mileages  $m_1^*, m_2^*, \dots, m_Q^*$  may be written as:

$$P(m_1^*, m_2^*, \dots, m_Q^*, 0, 0, 0, \dots, 0) = \left[ \prod_{k=1}^Q r_k \right] \left[ \sum_{k=1}^Q \frac{1}{r_k} \right] \left[ \frac{\prod_{k=1}^Q e^{V_k}}{\left( \sum_{h=1}^K e^{V_h} \right)^Q} \right] (Q-1)!, \tag{6}$$

where

$$r_k = \left( \frac{1 - \alpha_k}{m_k^* + 1} \right) \text{ and}$$

$$V_k = \beta'x_k + \theta_k \ln \sum_{l \in N_k} \exp\left(\frac{\gamma'z_{lk}}{\theta_k}\right) + \ln \alpha_k + (\alpha_k - 1)\ln(m_k^* + 1) \tag{7}$$

The conditional probability that vehicle make/model  $l$  will be used for an annual mileage  $m_k^* (l \in N_k)$ , given that  $m_k^* > 0$ , is an MNL model, which may be obtained from Equation (2) as:

$$P(l | m_k^* > 0; l \in N_k) = \frac{\exp\left(\frac{\gamma'z_{lk}}{\theta_k}\right)}{\sum_{g \in N_k} \exp\left(\frac{\gamma'z_{gk}}{\theta_k}\right)} \tag{8}$$

Next, the unconditional probability that the household uses vehicle make/model  $a$  of vehicle type 1 for annual mileage  $m_{1a}^*$ , make/model  $b$  of vehicle type 2 for  $m_{2b}^*$ , ... make/model  $q$  of vehicle type  $Q$  for  $m_{Qq}^*$  may be written as:

$$\begin{aligned}
&P(m_{1a}^*, m_{2b}^*, m_{3c}^*, \dots, m_{Qq}^*, 0, 0, 0, \dots, 0) \\
&= P(m_1^*, m_2^*, \dots, m_Q^*, 0, 0, \dots, 0) \times P(a | m_1^* > 0) \times P(b | m_2^* > 0) \dots P(q | m_Q^* > 0)
\end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

---

<sup>3</sup> Note that, for the non-motorized mode vehicle type, there are no makes/models, and thus the  $H$  value does not include the logsum term in Equation (5).

It is important to note that the parameters  $\gamma$  and  $\theta_k$  appear in both the MDCEV probability expression (Equation 6) as well as the standard discrete choice probability expression for the choice of make/model (Equation 8). This creates the jointness in the multiple discrete and single discrete choices. The  $\theta_k$  values are dissimilarity parameters indicating the level of correlation among the vehicle makes/models within vehicle type  $k$ . When  $\theta_k = 1$  for all  $k$ , the MDCEV-MNL model collapses to an MDCEV model with a fixed satiation parameter  $\alpha_k$  for all make/model alternatives within vehicle type  $k$ .

### 3.2 Mixed MDCEV-MNL Model

The model developed thus far does not incorporate error correlation and/or random components in either the MDCEV vehicle type component or in the MNL make/model component. These can be accommodated by considering the  $\beta$  vector in the baseline preference of the MDCEV component and the  $\gamma$  vector characterizing the parameters in the MNL models as being draws from multivariate normal distributions  $\phi(\beta)$  and  $\phi(\gamma)$ . The unconditional probability of vehicle holdings and usage may then be written as:

$$\begin{aligned}
& P(m_{1a}^*, m_{2b}^*, m_{3c}^*, \dots, m_{Qq}^*, 0, 0, 0, \dots, 0) \\
&= \int \int_{\beta \gamma} \{ P(m_1^*, m_2^*, \dots, m_Q^*, 0, 0, \dots, 0) \times P(a | m_1^* > 0) \times P(b | m_2^* > 0) \\
&\quad \dots \times P(q | m_Q^* > 0) | (\beta, \gamma) \} \phi(\beta) \phi(\gamma) d\beta d\gamma
\end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

The likelihood function above can be estimated using the maximum simulated likelihood approach. We use Halton draws in the current research (see Bhat, 2003). The parameters to be estimated in the model structure include the moment parameters characterizing the  $\beta$  and the  $\gamma$  multivariate distributions, the  $\tau_k$  vector for each alternative  $k$  (embedded in the scalar  $\alpha_k$  within  $V_k$ ), and the  $\theta_k$  scalars for each alternative  $k$ .

## **CHAPTER 4. DATA SOURCES AND SAMPLE FORMATION**

### **4.1 Data Sources**

The primary data source used for this analysis is the 2000 San Francisco Bay Area Travel Survey (BATS). This survey was designed and administered by MORPACE International Inc. for the Bay Area Metropolitan Transportation Commission. The survey collected information on vehicle fleet mix of over 15,000 households in the Bay Area for a two-day period (see MORPACE International Inc., 2002 for details on survey, sampling, and administration procedures). The information collected on household vehicle ownership included the make/model of all the vehicles owned by the household, the year of possession of the vehicles, odometer reading on the day of their possession, the year of manufacture of each vehicle, and the odometer reading of each vehicle on the two days of the survey. Furthermore, data on individual and household demographics, and activity travel characteristics, were collected.

In addition to the 2000 BATS data, several other secondary sources were used to generate the dataset in the current analysis. Specifically, data on purchase price (for new and used vehicles), engine size (in liters) and cylinders, engine horse power, vehicle weight, wheelbase, length, width, height, front/rear head room and leg room space, seating capacity, luggage volume, passenger volume and standard payload (for pickup trucks only) were obtained for each vehicle make/model from *Consumer Guide* (Consumer Guide, 2005). Data on annual fuel cost, fuel type (gasoline, diesel), type of drive wheels (front-wheel, rear-wheel and all-wheel), and annual greenhouse gas emissions (in tons) were obtained from the *EPA Fuel Economy Guide* (EPA, 2005). Residential location variables and built environment attributes were constructed from land use/demographic coverage data, a GIS layer of bicycle facilities, and the Census 2000 Tiger files (the first two datasets were obtained from the Metropolitan Transportation Commission of the San Francisco Bay area).

### **4.2 Sample Formation**

The BATS survey data is available in four files: (1) vehicle file (2) person file (3) activity file and (4) household file. The first step in the sample formation process was to categorize the vehicles in the vehicle file into one of 20 vehicle classes, based upon vehicle type and vintage. In

addition to providing a good characterization of vehicle type/vintage, the classification scheme adopted was also based on ensuring that no household owned more than 1 vehicle of each vehicle type/vintage. This ensures that the model provides a comprehensive characterization of all dimensions corresponding to vehicle holdings and usage. The ten vehicle types used were (1) Coupe (2) Subcompact Sedan (3) Compact Sedan (4) Mid-size Sedan (5) Large Sedan (6) Hatchback/Station Wagon (which we will refer to as Station Wagons for brevity) (7) Sports Utility Vehicle (SUV) (8) Pickup Truck (9) Minivan and (10) Van. The two categories for vintage of each of these vehicle types were (1) New vehicles (2) Old Vehicles. A vehicle was defined as ‘new’ if the age of the vehicle (survey year minus the year of manufacture) was less than or equal to 5 years, and ‘old’ if the age of the vehicle was more than 5 years.

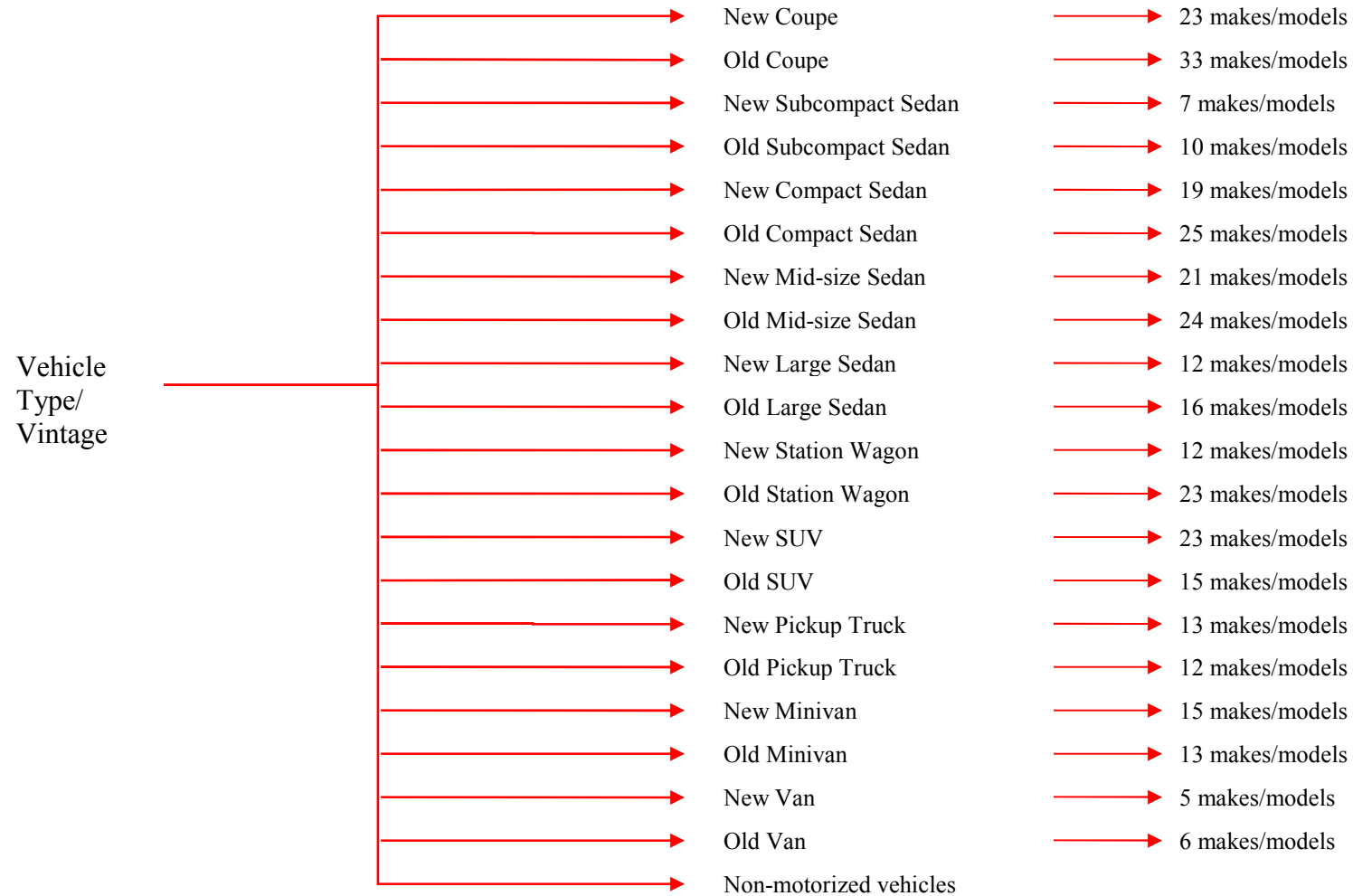
Within each of the 20 vehicle type/vintage classes, there are a large number of makes/models. For practical reasons, we collapsed the makes/models into commonly held distinct makes/models and grouped the other makes/models into a single “other” make/model category.<sup>4</sup> Figure 1 indicates the broad classification of vehicles into vehicle type/vintage categories and make/model subcategories. After classifying the vehicles, the vehicle dataset was populated with information on vehicle attributes obtained from secondary data sources. For those vehicle makes/models which belonged to the ‘other’ category, an average value of the vehicle attributes of all the vehicle makes/models which belonged to that vehicle type/vintage category was used. The annual mileage<sup>5</sup> for each vehicle was then computed.

---

<sup>4</sup> A vehicle make/model was defined as not being “commonly held” if less than 1% of the vehicles in the vehicle type/vintage category were of that make/model.

<sup>5</sup> Annual Mileage = (mileage recorded by odometer on second survey day – miles on possession) / (survey year – year of possession)





**Figure 1. Classification of Vehicle Type/Vintage**

The person file data was next screened to obtain information on the socio-demographic characteristics of the household head, including age, ethnicity, gender, and employment status.<sup>6</sup> Subsequently, the activity file was used to obtain information on the usage of non-motorized forms of transportation by the household members. The duration spent in walking and biking on the two days of the survey were aggregated across all the household members and projected to an annual level. Based upon the average rate of walking (3.5 miles/hour) and biking (15 miles/hour), the annual usage (miles) of non-motorized forms of transportation of a household was obtained.

After preparing the data from the vehicle, person and activity files, as discussed above, the resulting dataset was appended to the household file. The built environment variables were also added at this stage based on household location. The final sample comprised 8107 records that represented households that own at least one vehicle.<sup>7</sup>

### **4.3 Descriptive Statistics**

The distribution of the number of vehicles owned by households is as follows: one vehicle (55%), two vehicles (36%), three vehicles (8%) and four or more vehicles (1%). Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of usage of different vehicle types/vintages owned by households. The second and the third columns of the table indicate the frequency (percentage) of the households owning each vehicle type/vintage category and the annual usage of the vehicle by the households owning that vehicle type/vintage, respectively. Several insights may be drawn from the statistics in these two columns. First, a high fraction of the households own old midsize sedans (19% of the households), old pickup trucks (15% of the households) and old compact sedans (14% of the households). Also, these vehicle types/vintages have a high annual usage rate (as observed in the third column of Table 1). This suggests a high baseline utility preference and low satiation for old midsize sedans, old pickup trucks and old compact sedans.

---

<sup>6</sup> The household head was defined as the employed individual in one-worker household. If all the adults in a household were unemployed, or if more than 1 adult was employed, the oldest member was defined as the household head.

<sup>7</sup> Our framework enables the modeling of the decision to not own vehicles too. Such households will exclusively use non-motorized forms of personal mode of travel. However, due to the very small percentage of households in the Bay Area owning no vehicles (<5%), and the substantial presence of missing information on the potential determinants of vehicle holdings and use in these households, the final sample included only households that own one or more vehicles.

**Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Vehicle Type/Vintage Holdings**

Vehicle type/vintage	Total number (%) of households owning/using	Annual Mileage	No. of households who own (%)	
			Only Vehicle type/vintage (one-vehicle households)	Vehicle type/vintage and other Vehicle type/vintages (2+ vehicle households)
New Coupe	389 (5%)	7763	132 (34%)	257 (66%)
Old Coupe	1024 (13%)	7766	374 (37%)	650 (63%)
New Subcompact Sedan	292 (4%)	7838	127 (43%)	165 (57%)
Old Subcompact Sedan	513 (6%)	9570	238 (46%)	275 (54%)
New Compact Sedan	767 (9%)	8321	342 (45%)	425 (55%)
Old Compact Sedan	1175 (14%)	9614	495 (42%)	680 (58%)
New Midsize Sedan	987 (12%)	7688	361 (37%)	626 (63%)
Old Midsize Sedan	1543 (19%)	9342	636 (41%)	907 (59%)
New Large Sedan	250 (3%)	7418	71 (28%)	179 (72%)
Old Large Sedan	377 (5%)	8339	151 (40%)	226 (60%)
New Station Wagon	242 (3%)	7869	80 (33%)	162 (67%)
Old Station Wagon	728 (9%)	8248	254 (35%)	474 (65%)
New SUV	707 (9%)	8920	245 (35%)	462 (65%)
Old SUV	711 (9%)	9813	213 (30%)	498 (70%)
New Pickup Truck	578 (7%)	8887	153 (26%)	425 (74%)
Old Pickup Truck	1198 (15%)	8679	301 (25%)	897 (75%)
New Minivan	459 (6%)	9156	115 (25%)	344 (75%)
Old Minivan	480 (6%)	9890	130 (27%)	350 (73%)
New Van	39 (1%)	10640	8 (21%)	31 (79%)
Old Van	122 (2%)	8203	33 (27%)	89 (73%)
Non-Motorized mode of transportation	201 (3%)	2695	-	201 (100%)

Second, other most commonly owned vehicle types/vintages include old coupes (13% of the households) and new midsize sedans (12% of the households). Interestingly, these two vehicle types/vintages are also amongst the motorized vehicles with the least annual mileage. This indicates a high baseline preference, and a high satiation in the use of old coupes and new midsize sedans. Third, a small percentage of households own vehicle types/vintages with very high annual usage such as new van, new and old minivan, old SUV and old subcompact sedans. This reflects a low baseline preference and low satiation for these vehicle types/vintages. Fourth, new vans and old vans have the lowest baseline preference, and the new large sedan category has a high satiation effect (*i.e.* lowest annual usage) amongst all motorized vehicle types/vintages. Fifth, only 3% of the households use non-motorized forms of transportation (as observed in the last row of Table 1). Also, as expected, the non-motorized form of transportation has the least annual miles amongst all the vehicle types/vintages.

The last two columns in Table 1 indicate the split between one-vehicle households (*i.e.*, households that own and use one vehicle type or a corner solution) and multiple vehicle households (*i.e.*, households that own and use multiple vehicle types or interior solutions) for each vehicle type/vintage category. Thus, the number for new coupe indicates that, of the 389 households that own a new coupe, 132 (34%) own a new coupe only and 257 (66%) own new coupe along with one or more vehicle types/vintages. The statistics for one-vehicle households (as observed in the fourth column) show that old and new subcompact sedans, and old and new compact sedans, are the most commonly owned vehicles by such households, while new vans are the least commonly owned vehicle type/vintage. The results further indicate that households owning and using new vans, new minivans, new pickup trucks and old pickup trucks are most likely two and more vehicle households. Additionally, households always use the non-motorized form of transportation in combination with motorized vehicle types/vintages (as observed in the last row in Table 1).

## CHAPTER 5. EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

### 5.1 Variable Specification

Several different types of variables were considered as determinants of vehicle type/vintage, make/model and usage decisions of the household. These included household demographics, residential location attributes, built environment variables, characteristics of the household head, and vehicle attributes of the household

The household demographic variables considered in the specification include household income, presence of children, household size, number of employed individuals, and presence of senior adults in the household. The residential location variables included population density of the zone of residence of the household, zonal employment density, and the zone type of the residential area (central business district (CBD), urban, suburban, or rural). The built environment variables corresponding to a household's residential neighborhood included land-use structure variables and local transportation network measures. The land-use structure variables included the percentages and absolute values of acreage in residential, commercial/industrial, and other land-use categories, fractions and numbers of single family and multi-family dwelling units, and fractions and number of households living in single family and multi-family dwelling units. The local transportation network measures included bikeway density (miles of bicycle facility per unit area), street block density (number of street blocks per unit area), highway density (miles of highway per unit area), and local road density (miles of local road per unit area). All the built environment variables are computed at the zonal level as well as for 0.25 mile, 1 mile, and 5 mile radii around the residence of each household.<sup>8</sup>

The characteristics of the household head included age, gender and ethnicity. Finally, the vehicle attributes considered included the purchase price, fuel cost, internal dimensions, vehicle performance indicators, type of drive wheels, type of vehicle makes, fuel emissions and type of fuel required by the vehicle.

---

<sup>8</sup> An implicit assumption in using the built environment variables as exogenous determinants of vehicle holdings and use decisions is that residential location choice and vehicle-related decisions are not jointly made. Bhat and Guo (2006) propose a framework to accommodate such residential sorting effects. However, this issue is beyond the scope of the current report.

## 5.2 Empirical Results

This section presents the empirical results of the joint MDCEV-MNL model for examining the vehicle type/vintage, make/model and usage decisions of the household. The model was estimated at different numbers of Halton draws per observation. However, there was literally no change in the estimation results beyond 50 Halton draws per observation (this is related to the large number of observations available for estimation). In our estimations, we used 100 Halton draws per observation.

The effects of the exogenous variables at the multiple discrete-continuous level (vehicle type/vintage) are presented first (Section 5.2.1), followed by effects of exogenous variables at the single discrete choice level (Section 5.2.2). This is followed by satiation effects (Section 5.2.3) and logsum parameters effects (Section 5.2.4). Section 5.2.5 presents the overall likelihood-based measures of fit.

### *5.2.1 MDCEV Model*

The final specification results of the MDCEV component of the vehicle holdings and usage model are presented in Table 2 (the results corresponding to any given variable span two pages, because there are 21 vehicle type/vintage categories; each column of Table 2 represents one vehicle type/vintage). The vehicle type/vintage category of “new coupe” serves as the base category for all variables (and, thus, this vehicle type/vintage does not appear in the table as a column). In addition, a “-” entry corresponding to a variable for any vehicle type/vintage category implies that the category also constitutes the base category for the variable.

**Table 2. MDCEV Model Results – Parameters (and t-statistic)**

	Old Coupe	New Sub Compact Sedan	Old Sub Compact Sedan	New Compact Sedan	Old Compact Sedan	New Mid-size Sedan	Old Mid-size Sedan	New Large Sedan	Old Large Sedan	New Station Wagon
<b>Household Demographics</b>										
<u>Annual household income dummy variables</u>										
Medium annual income (35K-90K)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
High annual income (>90K)	-0.378 (-6.03)	-	-0.378 (-6.03)	-0.438 (-5.60)	-0.378 (-6.03)	-	-0.378 (-6.03)	-	-0.378 (-6.03)	-
<u>Presence of children in the household</u>										
Presence of <u>children</u> ≤ 4 yrs	-	-	0.334 (4.68)	0.392 (5.04)	0.334 (4.68)	0.392 (5.04)	0.334 (4.68)	-	-	-
Presence of <u>children</u> b/w 5 and 15 yrs	-	-	-	-	0.244 (4.27)	-	0.244 (4.27)	-	-	-
Presence of <u>children</u> 16 and 17 yrs	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Presence of senior adults (> 65 years) in the household	-	-	-	0.423 (6.09)	0.574 (9.18)	0.423 (6.09)	0.574 (9.18)	1.172 (11.78)	1.172 (11.78)	-
Household size	-	-	-	-	-	0.074 (2.84)	0.139 (7.33)	0.494 (13.29)	0.139 (7.33)	0.074 (2.84)
Number of employed individuals in the household	-	0.161 (4.43)	-	0.161 (4.43)	-	-	-	-0.419 (-8.89)	-0.193 (-4.36)	-

**Table 2 (continued). MDCEV Model Results – Parameters (and t-statistic)**

	<b>Old Station Wagon</b>	<b>New SUV</b>	<b>Old SUV</b>	<b>New Pickup Truck</b>	<b>Old Pickup Truck</b>	<b>New Minivan</b>	<b>Old Minivan</b>	<b>New Van</b>	<b>Old Van</b>	<b>Non- Mot. Transp.</b>
<b>Household Demographics</b>										
<u>Annual household income dummy variables</u>										
Medium annual income (35K-90K)	0.159 (1.96)	0.662 (2.63)	-	-	0.223 (3.79)	-	0.223 (3.79)	-	-0.633 (-2.24)	-
High annual income (>90K)	-0.378 (-6.03)	0.663 (2.56)	-0.378 (-6.03)	-0.438 (-5.60)	-0.378 (-6.03)	-	-0.378 (-6.03)	-	-1.452 (-4.13)	-0.378 (-6.03)
<u>Presence of children in the household</u>										
Presence of <u>children</u> <= 4 yrs	-	0.392 (5.04)	0.334 (4.68)	-	-	0.392 (5.04)	-	-	-0.924 (-2.24)	-
Presence of <u>children</u> b/w 5 and 15 yrs	-	-	-	-	-	0.809 (6.93)	0.656 (5.17)	-	-	-
Presence of <u>children</u> 16 and 17 yrs	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.618 (-1.53)	-
Presence of senior adults (> 65 years) in the household	0.423 (6.09)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.574 (9.18)	0.574 (9.18)
Household size	0.139 (7.33)	0.074 (2.84)	0.139 (7.33)	-	0.139 (7.33)	0.494 (13.29)	0.563 (12.87)	0.494 (13.29)	0.563 (12.87)	0.494 (13.29)
Number of employed individuals in the household	-	-	-	0.161 (4.43)	-	-0.419 (-8.89)	-0.193 (-4.36)	-	-	-0.419 (-8.89)



**Table 2 (continued). MDCEV Model Results – Parameters (and t-statistic)**

	<b>Old Coupe</b>	<b>New Sub Compact Sedan</b>	<b>Old Sub Compact Sedan</b>	<b>New Compact Sedan</b>	<b>Old Compact Sedan</b>	<b>New Mid-size Sedan</b>	<b>Old Mid-size Sedan</b>	<b>New Large Sedan</b>	<b>Old Large Sedan</b>	<b>New Station Wagon</b>
<b>Household Location Attributes</b>										
<u>Zonal dummy variables (urban is base)</u>										
Suburban	-	-	-0.257 (-4.68)	-	-0.257 (-4.68)	-	-	0.281 (2.45)	-	-
Rural	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.678 (-1.72)
Employment Density	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Built Environment Characteristics of the Residential Neighborhood</b>										
<u>Land Use Structure Variables</u>										
Residential Acres within 1 mile radius	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Commercial / Industrial Acres within 1 mile radius	-	-	-	-	-	-0.268 (-2.73)	-0.268 (-2.73)	-	-	-0.268 (-2.73)
Number of Households in Multi-family Dwelling Units within 1 mile radius (in 10,000's)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.464 (-4.43)	-0.464 (-4.43)	-
<u>Local Transportation Network Measures</u>										
Bike Lane Density (Total miles of bikeway within 0.25 mile radius)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Street Block Density (Number of Street Blocks within 1 mile radius)	-	0.678 (3.95)	0.998 (3.99)	0.678 (3.95)	0.998 (3.99)	-	-	-	-	0.678 (3.95)

**Table 2 (continued). MDCEV Model Results – Parameters (and t-statistic)**

	Old Station Wagon	New SUV	Old SUV	New Pickup Truck	Old Pickup Truck	New Minivan	Old Minivan	New Van	Old Van	Non-Mot. Transp.
<b>Household Location Attributes</b>										
<u>Zonal dummy variables (urban is base)</u>										
Suburban	-0.257 (-4.68)	-	-	0.281 (2.45)	0.166 (2.01)	-	-	-	-	0.166 (2.01)
Rural	-	-	-	0.349 (1.77)	0.232 (1.59)	-	-	-	-	-
Employment Density	-	-	-	-0.003 (-2.39)	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Built Environment Characteristics of the Residential Neighborhood</b>										
<u>Land Use Structure Variables</u>										
Residential Acres within 1 mile radius	-	-	-	-0.408 (-6.79)	-0.408 (-6.79)	-	-	-0.364 (-2.09)	-0.364 (-2.09)	-
Commercial / Industrial Acres within 1 mile radius	-0.268 (-2.73)	-0.332 (-3.29)	-0.332 (-3.29)	-0.332 (-3.29)	-0.332 (-3.29)	-0.332 (-3.29)	-0.332 (-3.29)	-	-	-
Number of Households in Multi-family Dwelling Units within 1 mile radius (in 10,000's)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<u>Local Transportation Network Measures</u>										
Bike Lane Density (Total miles of bikeway within 0.25 mile radius)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.559 (3.27)
Street Block Density (Number of Street Blocks within 1 mile radius)	0.998 (3.99)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

**Table 2 (continued). MDCEV Model Results – Parameters (and t-statistic)**

	Old Coupe	New Sub Compact Sedan	Old Sub Compact Sedan	New Compact Sedan	Old Compact Sedan	New Mid-size Sedan	Old Mid-size Sedan	New Large Sedan	Old Large Sedan	New Station Wagon
<b>Household Head Characteristics</b>										
<u>Age (age &lt;= 30 yrs is base)</u>										
Age between 31 and 45 yrs	-	-0.586 (-5.99)	-	-0.586 (-5.99)	-	-	0.211 (3.32)	-	-	-0.586 (-5.99)
Age greater than 45 yrs of age	0.245 (4.48)	-1.031 (-7.22)	-	-0.602 (-5.86)	-	-	0.644 (8.70)	0.909 (6.19)	0.644 (8.70)	-0.602 (-5.86)
Male	0.288 (4.88)	-0.267 (-3.76)	-	-0.271 (-3.81)	-	-	-	0.445 (6.08)	-	-
<u>Ethnicity (Caucasian is base)</u>										
African-American	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.807 (3.05)	-
Hispanic	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.545 (2.21)	-
Asian	-	0.641 (7.69)	0.462 (5.49)	0.641 (7.69)	0.462 (5.49)	0.641 (7.69)	0.462 (5.49)	-	-	-0.989 (-4.33)
Other	-	0.414 (2.39)	0.354 (2.83)	-	-	-	-	-	0.354 (2.83)	-
<b>Baseline Preference Constants</b>	0.368 (2.88)	0.508 (2.82)	0.528 (3.90)	0.945 (6.28)	0.747 (5.57)	0.800 (6.62)	0.356 (2.51)	-1.958 (-8.04)	-0.435 (-2.55)	0.445 (2.22)

**Table 2 (continued). MDCEV Model Results – Parameters (and t-statistic)**

	<b>Old Station Wagon</b>	<b>New SUV</b>	<b>Old SUV</b>	<b>New Pickup Truck</b>	<b>Old Pickup Truck</b>	<b>New Minivan</b>	<b>Old Minivan</b>	<b>New Van</b>	<b>Old Van</b>	<b>Non- Mot. Transp.</b>
<b>Household Head Characteristics</b>										
<u>Age (age &lt;= 30 yrs is base)</u>										
Age between 31 and 45 yrs	-	-	-	-	0.211 (3.32)	0.628 (3.73)	0.211 (1.79)	-	0.211 (1.79)	0.211 (3.32)
Age greater than 45 yrs of age	0.245 (4.48)	-	-	-	0.245 (4.48)	0.909 (6.19)	0.644 (8.70)	-	0.644 (8.70)	0.644 (8.70)
Male	-	-	0.288 (4.88)	0.445 (6.08)	0.489 (7.00)	0.445 (6.08)	-	-	0.489 (7.00)	-
<u>Ethnicity (Caucasian is base)</u>										
African-American	-	-	-0.619 (-1.80)	-0.679 (-1.77)	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hispanic	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-1.777 (-1.63)	-
Asian	-	-	-	-0.989 (-4.33)	-0.597 (-3.81)	0.641 (7.69)	-	-	-0.597 (-3.81)	-
Other	0.354 (2.83)	-	-	-	-	0.414 (2.39)	-	1.082 (1.99)	-	-
<b>Baseline Preference Constants</b>	0.043 (0.27)	0.104 (0.35)	1.539 (4.94)	0.536 (2.83)	0.763 (4.23)	-0.962 (-2.89)	-0.627 (-1.96)	-2.284 (-5.79)	-1.225 (-2.91)	1.431 (1.96)

### *5.2.1.1 Household Demographics*

*Household Income* The household income effects indicate that medium and high income households have a high preference, relative to low income households, for new SUVs (see Kitamura *et al.*, 2000 and Choo and Mokhtarian, 2004 for similar results), and a low preference for old vans (see the positive coefficients in the “new SUV” column and the negative coefficients in the “old van” column corresponding to the medium and high annual income rows of the table). Medium (high) income households also have a higher (lower) baseline preference for old pickup truck, old minivan, and old station wagons relative to low income households. Overall, the high income households have a lower baseline preference for older vehicles relative to low/middle income households, consistent with the ownership and usage of new vehicles by high income households (see the negative coefficients corresponding to the old vintage categories in the row for the high income dummy variable). Interestingly, high income households are also less likely than low and middle income households to undertake activities using non-motorized forms of transportation (see last column of the table corresponding to the high annual income row of the table).

*Presence of Children in the Household* The results show that households with very small children (less than or equal to 4 years of age) are more likely to use compact sedans, mid-size sedans, and SUVs than other households. In addition, the coefficients under the columns “new minivan” and “old minivan” for “presence of children less than or equal to 4 years” and “presence of children between 5 and 15 years” suggest that households with children prefer minivans, presumably due to the spacious, affordable, and family oriented nature of minivans.

Also, the results show that households with children between 16 and 17 years of age are unlikely to own/use old vans. This result is intuitive, since 16 or 17 years old adolescents are eligible to drive and are more likely to prefer owning/using vehicles types that are sporty and stylish.

*Presence of Senior Adults in the Household* Households with senior adults are more likely to own and use compact, mid-size, and large sedans relative to coupes and subcompact sedans. This is perhaps due to the preference for vehicles that are easy to get in and out of. Households with

senior adults are also more likely to own old station wagons and old vans, as well as travel more by non-motorized forms of transportation compared to other households.

Household Size The household size coefficients are positive for the vehicle types corresponding to mid-size sedans, large sedans, station wagons, SUVs, pickup trucks, minivans and vans. This suggests a preference for bigger vehicles (to carry more people) rather than the smaller vehicle types of coupes, subcompact sedans, and compact sedans. It is also interesting to note that households with more members, in general, prefer older vehicle types than newer vehicle types. This may be because of less discretionary income of such households, leading them to invest in more affordable vehicles that meet their functional needs.

Number of Employed Individuals in the Household Households with more number of employed members have a high baseline preference for new vehicle types such as subcompact sedans and compact sedans, and an overall low baseline preference for large sedans and minivans. These results clearly indicate that households with several employed members prefer vehicle types that are new and compact rather than vehicle types that are old and have high seating capacity. Also, the results show that these households use non-motorized forms of transportation (such as walking and biking) less than other households.

#### *5.2.1.2 Household Location Characteristics*

The household location attribute effects indicate that households in suburban zones are, in general, less likely to own and use old vehicles relative to households in urban zones. Suburban and rural households are also more likely to own pickup trucks relative to urban households (see the positive coefficients corresponding to the new pickup and old pickup truck columns corresponding to the suburban and rural rows of Table 2). This latter result, consistent with Cao *et al.* (2006), is presumably because of the rugged terrains of suburban/rural areas and the occupational/family needs of suburban/rural households. This impact is further emphasized by the negative effect of employment density on the holding and use of new pickup trucks.

### *5.2.1.3 Built Environment Characteristics of the Residential Neighborhood*

The built environment characteristics of the household neighborhood indicate that households located in highly residential areas are less likely to prefer large vehicle types such as pickup trucks and vans, irrespective of the age of the vehicle. A similar result is observed for households located in neighborhoods with high commercial/industrial acres. These results are intuitive, because neighborhoods with dense residential or commercial areas have space constraints for parking and maneuvering, leading to a preference for compact vehicles. Also, the results indicate the low baseline preference of households located in a neighborhood with high multi-family dwelling units for large sedans. This result is not immediately intuitive and needs additional exploration in future studies.

The results further indicate that households located in a neighborhood with high bike lane density have a high baseline preference for non-motorized modes of transportation, presumably because such neighborhoods encourage walking and bicycling. Also, households located in a neighborhood with high street block density are more likely to prefer smaller vehicle types (such as subcompact and compact sedans), and older vehicles, relative to new vehicles.

### *5.2.1.4 Household Head Characteristics*

The impacts of the household head characteristics suggest that older households (*i.e.*, households whose heads are greater than 30 years) are generally more likely to own vehicles of an older vintage compared to younger households (*i.e.*, households whose heads are less than or equal to 30 years of age). This can be inferred from the negative signs on the age-related dummy variables for the new vehicle types, and the positive signs on the age-related dummy variables for the old vehicle types, in Table 2. In addition, older households are more likely to own minivans and old vans, and travel by non-motorized forms of transportation.

The “male” variable effects point to a higher baseline preference for older and larger vehicles if the male is the oldest member (or only adult) in the household relative to households with the female being the oldest member (or only adult). Finally, the ethnicity variables are also highly significant, with Asians more likely to own sedans and new minivans, and less likely to own pickup trucks, compared to other ethnicities. These and other ethnicity effects, may reflect overall cultural differences in preferences, and need to be examined more extensively in future studies.

#### *5.2.1.5 Baseline Preference Constants*

The baseline preference constants do not have any substantive interpretation, and are included to accommodate generic differences in preference across the vehicle types/vintages and the range of independent variables used in the model.

#### *5.2.1.6 Random Error Components/Coefficients*

Several different specifications for random error components and random coefficients were attempted in the MDCEV component of the joint model. The preferred specification included two error components as follows: (1) Coupes (standard deviation of 0.394 with a t-statistic of 2.08) and (2) Old vehicles (standard deviation of 0.517 with a t-statistic of 7.73). The error component corresponding to coupes provides evidence that households preferring old coupes due to unobserved factors (such as, for example, an inclination for sporty, small vehicles) also prefer new coupes. Similarly, there may be tangible unobserved factors, such as a generic dislike for the “old” label, that may decrease the utility of all old vehicles.

#### ***5.2.2 MNL Model for Vehicle Make/Model Choice***

Table 3 provides the results for the Multinomial Logit (MNL) model for the choice of vehicle make/model, conditional on the choice of a vehicle type/vintage category. All the variables are introduced with generic parameters, with the coefficients of the variables held to be the same value across all the MNL logit models for the different vehicle type/vintage categories.



**Table 3. Multinomial Logit Model Results for Vehicle Make/Model Choice**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Parameter</b>	<b>t-stat</b>
<b>Cost Variables</b>		
Purchase Price (in \$)/Income (in \$/yr) [x 10]		
Mean Effect	-0.173	-5.71
Standard Deviation	0.064	4.44
Fuel Cost (in \$/yr) /Income (in \$/yr) [x 10]	-0.003	-1.61
<b>Internal Vehicle Dimensions</b>		
Seat Capacity * Household Size less than equal to 2 dummy variable	-0.075	-5.11
Luggage Volume (in 10s of cubic feet)	0.023	3.54
Standard Payload Capacity (for Pickup Trucks only) (in 1000 lbs)	0.196	5.13
<b>Vehicle Performance Indicators</b>		
Horsepower (in HP) /Vehicle Weight (in lbs) [in 10s]	1.102	4.89
Engine Size (in liters)	-0.045	-2.42
<b>Type of Drive Wheels and Vehicle Makes</b>		
Dummy variable for All-Wheel-Drive (base: rear-wheel-drive)	-0.214	-3.81
Dummy Variable for Vehicle Make - Chevy	-0.149	-1.25
Dummy Variable for Vehicle Make - Ford	0.716	5.37
Dummy Variable for Vehicle Make - Honda	1.444	5.37
Dummy Variable for Vehicle Make - Toyota	0.752	5.29
Dummy Variable for Vehicle Make - Cadillac	0.880	4.36
Dummy Variable for Vehicle Make - Volkswagen	0.374	2.55
Dummy Variable for Vehicle Make - Dodge	0.699	4.96
<b>Fuel Emissions and Type</b>		
Amount of Greenhouse Gas Emissions (in 10s of tons/yr)	-0.429	-2.71
Dummy variable for Premium Fuel (base: regular fuel)	-0.552	-5.01

#### *5.2.2.1 Cost Variables*

The effects of the cost variables are intuitive: Households, on average, prefer vehicle makes and models that are less expensive to purchase and operate. As expected, households with high incomes are less sensitive to cost variables than are households with low incomes (see, Lave and Train, 1979, Mannering and Winston, 1985, for similar results). Also, the standard deviation of the random coefficient corresponding to purchase price/income is highly statistically significant, indicating the presence of unobserved heterogeneity across households to purchase price. A comparison of the mean and standard deviation of this coefficient shows that less than 1% of the households positively value purchase price. However, we found no unobserved heterogeneity to fuel cost. Finally, it is interesting to note the lower sensitivity to fuel cost relative to purchase price. This is understandable, since the purchase price constitutes a large investment at one point in time, while the annual fuel cost is incurred over multiple gas station trips.

#### *5.2.2.2 Internal Dimensions*

Households with 2 or less members are less likely, compared to households with more than 2 members, to prefer vehicle makes/models with high seat capacity. This is intuitive because of the need to be able to carry more individuals. Also, households prefer vehicle makes/models with high luggage volume and high standard payload capacity (the latter is applicable to pickup trucks only).

#### *5.2.2.3 Vehicle Performance Indicators*

The performance of the vehicle make/model was captured by using the engine horse power to vehicle weight ratio and engine size. Table 3 shows that households have a strong preference for vehicle makes/models with powerful and efficient engines.

#### *5.2.2.4 Type of Drive Wheels and Vehicle Make*

Households in the San Francisco Bay area are less likely to prefer vehicle makes/models with all-wheel-drive than vehicles with rear-wheel drive. Further, households prefer makes/models associated with Ford, Honda, Toyota, Cadillac, Volkswagen and Dodge relative to makes/models of other car manufacturers.

### 5.2.2.5 Fuel Emissions and Type

Households are less likely to use vehicle makes/models with high amounts of greenhouse gas emissions, perhaps because of the detrimental environmental and health impacts of harmful tailpipe emissions. Further, the results indicate that households are less likely to prefer vehicle makes/models that require premium gasoline compared to vehicle makes/models that can operate on regular or premium gasoline.

### 5.2.2.6 Trade-off Analysis

A trade-off analysis was conducted to assess the household's willingness to pay for vehicle attribute features relative to purchase price. The average household income of \$82,240 in the sample was used in the trade-off analysis. The results indicate that households significantly value additional units of luggage volume and vehicle performance. Specifically, average income households are willing to pay an additional purchase price of \$109 for an additional cubic of luggage volume and \$164 for one additional Horsepower of engine performance for a vehicle with an average weight of 3185 pounds. Additionally, the results indicate that households are also willing to pay \$2039 for a reduction in the green house gas emissions of 1 ton per year, indicating environmental consciousness and sensitivity.

### 5.2.3 Satiation Effects

The satiation parameter,  $\alpha_k$ , for each vehicle type  $k$  is parameterized as  $1/[1 + \exp(-\delta_k)]$ , where  $\delta_k = \tau'_k y_k$ , where  $y_k$  is a vector of household characteristics impacting satiation for the  $k^{\text{th}}$  vehicle type/vintage alternative. This parameterization allows  $\alpha_k$  to vary across households and still be bounded between 0 and 1.

The estimated values of  $\alpha_k$  and the t-statistics with respect to the null hypothesis of  $\alpha_k=1$  (note that standard discrete choice models assume  $\alpha_k=1$ ) are presented in Table 4. The table indicates the following results. First, all the satiation parameters are very significantly different from 1, thereby rejecting the linear utility structure employed in standard discrete choice models. That is, there are clear satiation effects in vehicle holdings and usage decisions. Second, as expected, middle and high income households are more likely to get satiated with the increasing use of any vehicle type/vintage compared to low income households.

**Table 4. Satiation Effects**

<b>Vehicle Type/Vintage</b>	<b>Parameter</b>	<b>t-statistic</b>
New Coupe		
Low Income Households	0.9036	4.05
Medium Income Households	0.8196	3.45
High Income Households	0.7344	3.87
Old Coupe		
Low Income Households	0.8929	6.59
Medium Income Households	0.7794	5.68
High Income Households	0.7280	5.94
New Subcompact Sedan		
Low and Medium Income Households	0.9066	4.29
High Income Households	0.7413	3.98
Old Subcompact Sedan		
Low Income Households	0.9574	4.15
Medium Income Households	0.9050	3.78
High Income Households	0.8783	3.84
New Compact Sedan		
Low Income Households	0.9242	4.41
Medium Income Households	0.8553	3.52
High Income Households	0.7826	3.87
Old Compact Sedan		
Low Income Households	0.9361	5.95
Medium Income Households	0.8612	4.98
High Income Households	0.8246	5.09
New Midsize Sedan		
Low Income Households	0.8985	4.75
Medium Income Households	0.8110	3.81
High Income Households	0.7231	4.30
Old Midsize Sedan		
Low Income Households	0.9293	6.30
Medium Income Households	0.8478	5.21
High Income Households	0.8084	5.34
New Large Sedan		
Constant	0.7723	5.83

**Table 4. Satiation Effects (continued)**

<b>Vehicle Type/Vintage</b>	<b>Parameter</b>	<b>t-statistic</b>
Old Large Sedan		
Constant	0.8485	6.11
New Station Wagon		
Low and Medium Income Households	0.8893	4.40
High Income Households	0.7034	4.21
Old Station Wagon		
Low Income Households	0.9051	6.03
Medium Income Households	0.8018	5.28
High Income Households	0.7540	5.50
New SUV		
Constant	0.8167	9.25
Old SUV		
Constant	0.8338	8.48
New Pickup Truck		
Low Income Households	0.8741	4.70
Medium Income Households	0.7710	3.92
High Income Households	0.6720	4.53
Old Pickup Truck		
Low Income Households	0.8481	7.63
Medium Income Households	0.7029	6.63
High Income Households	0.6419	7.07
New Minivan		
Constant	0.7698	8.02
Old Minivan		
Constant	0.8100	7.32
New Van		
Constant	0.8009	2.18
Old Van		
Low and Medium Income Households	0.8280	3.50
High Income Households	0.6072	4.35
Non-motorized form of transportation		
Constant	0.2211	5.56

That is, middle and high income households are more likely to own and use multiple types/vintages of vehicles. Third, low income households are least likely to get satiated with the increasing use of old subcompact sedans, new and old compact sedans, and old midsize sedans, presumably because these vehicle type/vintage categories efficiently satisfy the functional needs of such households. Finally, the satiation effect is highest for non-motorized mode of transportation compared to all vehicle type/vintage categories. This is to be expected since the annual miles of walking and bicycling is very small relative to the use of motorized vehicles.

#### **5.2.4 Logsum Parameters**

The logsum parameters (*i.e.*  $\theta_k$  parameters) create jointness between the single discrete choice component and the MDCEV components of the MDCEV-MNL model. There are two logsum parameters: (1) The logsum parameter for the makes/models corresponding to the old SUV, old minivan, new minivan, old van, and new van vehicle type/vintage categories is estimated to be 0.5354 (the t-statistic for the test that the parameter is different from 1 is 4.61), (2) The logsum parameter for the rest of the vehicle type/vintages is estimated to be 0.8378 (the t-statistic for the test that the parameter is different from 1 is 1.05). The logsum parameters indicate the presence of common unobserved attributes that affect the utilities of all makes/models corresponding to a given vehicle type/vintage category.

#### **5.2.5 Overall Likelihood-Based Measures of Fit**

The log-likelihood value at convergence of the final joint model is -87215. The corresponding value for the model with only the constants in the MDCEV and single discrete choice components, the satiation parameters, and unit logsum parameters is -90264. The likelihood ratio test for testing the presence of exogenous variable effects, satiation effects, and logsum effects is 6098, which is substantially larger than the critical chi-square value with 192 degrees of freedom at any reasonable level of significance. This clearly indicates the value of the model estimated in this report to predict vehicle holdings and usage.

### **5.3 Model Application**

The model estimated in this report can be used to determine the change in the holdings and usage of vehicle types due to changes in independent variables. To do so at the mean

parameter value on purchase price, we compute the logsum variable from the MNL models and predict vehicle holdings and usage by maximizing the systematic part of the random utility expression of Equation (1) (after including the computed logsum variable) under the constraint that  $\sum_k m_k = M$ .

In this report, we demonstrate the application of the model by studying the effect of an increase in bike lane density, an increase in the street block density, and an increase in the vehicle fuel cost. Specifically, we increase the length of bikeways within a 0.25 mile radius of household's residences by 25%, increase the number of street blocks within 1 mile radius of household's residences by 25%, and increase the fuel cost by 25%. These changes are applied to each household in the sample. To examine the impact of these changes, we computed the predicted aggregate vehicle holdings and use patterns before and after the changes, and obtained a percentage change from the baseline estimates. The effect of the changes on aggregate vehicle holdings and use patterns is measured along two dimensions: (1) Percentage change in the number of households owning a particular vehicle type, and (2) Net percentage change in the annual miles of usage of each vehicle type. The vehicle types/vintages have been regrouped into six categories to better understand the implication of these changes. They are (1) Compact cars including new and old coupes, subcompact sedans, compact sedans and station wagons (2) new and old Midsize and large sedans (3) new and old SUVs (4) new and old Pickup trucks (5) new and old Minivans and Vans, and (6) Non-motorized modes of transportation. Table 5 presents the results for a 25% increase in the bike lane density, a 25% increase in the street block density, and a 25% increase in fuel cost. A “-” entry in the table indicates changes less than 0.2% along both the dimensions of holdings and usage.

**Table 5. Impact of Change in Built Environment Variables and Fuel Cost**

Vehicle Type	Impact of a 25% increase in bike lane density		Impact of a 25% increase in street block density		Impact of a 25% increase in fuel cost	
	% change in holdings of vehicle type	% change in overall use of vehicle type	% change in holdings of vehicle type	% change in overall use of vehicle type	% change in holdings of vehicle type	% change in overall use of vehicle type
Compact Car	-	-2.2%	8.5%	3.4%	1.3%	-0.9%
Midsized and Large Sedan	-2.2%	-2.1%	-	-0.8%	-	-0.6%
SUV	-0.6%	-0.4%	-	-	-	-
Pickup Truck	-1.4%	-0.4%	-2.1%	-1.7%	-5.7%	-2.3%
Minivan and Van	-	-0.7%	-	-0.6%	-2.6%	-
Non-motorized modes of transportation	7.4%	13.9%	-4.0%	-3.3%	1.5%	0.8%



The results from Table 5 indicate that an increase in bike lane density results in a marginal decrease in the holdings as well as usage of all motorized vehicle types. Further, as expected, the results indicate a significant increase in the use, and intensity of use, of non-motorized modes of transportation. Thus, the results show that an increase in the bike lane density discourages the ownership and use of all motorized vehicle types.

An increase in street block density results in a significant increase in the holdings of compact cars and a mild decrease in the holdings of pickup trucks. Further, the results indicate a high positive increase in the usage of compact cars and a marginal decrease in the use of other motorized vehicle types. The overall significant increase in the holdings and usage of compact cars indicates that increasing street block density encourages the use of small vehicles which are easy to maneuver. As expected, the holdings and usage of non-compact cars decrease with increasing number of street blocks. Additionally, the results show a significant decrease in the holdings and the use of non-motorized modes of transportation. This result is intuitive, because additional traffic contributed by the increase in the number of street blocks leads to safety concerns and thereby, hinders the use of non-motorized modes of transportation (see Stinson and Bhat, 2004 for similar results).

Finally, an increase in the fuel cost leads to a marginal increase in the holdings of compact cars and a significant decrease in the holdings of pickup trucks, minivans and vans.<sup>9</sup> This result reflects the shift in the ownership of vehicles from larger vehicles to smaller, fuel efficient, vehicles. The percentage change in overall usage shows a significant decrease in the use of pickup trucks and a marginal decrease in the use of all other motorized vehicle types. These results are fairly intuitive. Additionally, as expected, the results indicate that an increase in fuel cost results in a marginal increase in the use, and intensity of use, of non-motorized modes of transportation. Overall, however, the results reflect the rather small elasticity of vehicle holdings and use to fuel cost.

---

<sup>9</sup> The scenario corresponding to an increase in fuel cost implied an increase in average fuel cost from \$2.55 per gallon to about \$3.19 per gallon.



## CHAPTER 6. CONCLUSION

In this report, we formulate and estimate a nested model structure that includes a multiple discrete-continuous extreme value (MDCEV) component to analyze the choice of vehicle type/vintage and usage in the upper level and a multinomial logit (MNL) component to analyze the choice of vehicle make/model in the lower level. The model accommodates heteroscedasticity and/or error correlation in both the multiple discrete-continuous component and the single discrete choice component of the joint model using a mixing distribution. The joint model also incorporates random coefficients in one or both components of the joint model. Data for the analysis is drawn from the 2000 San Francisco Bay Survey. The empirical results provide important insights into the determinants of vehicle holdings and usage decisions of households. Some important findings from the analysis are presented below.

The demographic variable effects show that high income households have a lower baseline preference for older vehicles relative to low/middle income households, as expected. A similar result is observed for households with more number of employed members. It is also interesting to note that both high income households and households with more number of employed members are less likely to use non-motorized forms of transportation compared to other households.

The household location attributes and built environment characteristics of the household residential neighborhood indicate that households located in urban areas or in high residential or commercial/industrial neighborhoods are less likely to own/use large vehicle types such as pickup trucks and vans compared to other households. Also, households located in residential neighborhood with high bike lane density are more likely to use non-motorized modes of transportation, while those located in neighborhoods with high street block density are more likely to prefer compact vehicles.

In addition to the household demographic characteristics, the residential location attributes, and the built environment characteristics, the household head characteristics also impact the vehicle holdings and usage decisions. Households with older household heads are generally more likely to own vehicles of an older vintage compared to younger households. The preferences for vehicle holdings and use also vary depending upon the gender and ethnicity of the household head.

Finally, the empirical results give us valuable insights into the effect of vehicle attributes, fuel cost and fuel emissions on vehicle make/model holdings and usage decisions. Households prefer vehicle makes/models which are less expensive to purchase and operate, which have high luggage volume and seating capacity, high engine performance and low greenhouse gas emissions, amongst other things.

The aforementioned variable impacts on vehicle holdings and usage predictions can inform the design of proactive land-use, economic, and transportation policies to influence household vehicle holdings and usage in a way that reduces the negative impacts of automobile dependency such as traffic congestion, fuel consumption and air pollution.

## REFERENCES

- Berkovec, J. (1985). Forecasting automobile demand using disaggregate choice models, *Transportation Research Part B*, 19(4), 315–329.
- Berkovec, J. and Rust, J. (1985). A nested logit model of automobile holdings for one vehicle households, *Transportation Research Part B*, 19(4), 275–285.
- Bhat, C. R. (2003). Simulation estimation of mixed discrete choice models using randomized and scrambled Halton sequences. *Transportation Research Part B*, 37(9), 837-855.
- Bhat, C. R. (2005). A multiple discrete-continuous extreme value model: formulation and application to discretionary time-use decisions. *Transportation Research Part B*, 39(8), 679-707.
- Bhat, C. R. (2006). The multiple discrete-continuous extreme value (MDCEV) model: role of utility function parameters, identification considerations, and model extensions. Technical paper, Department of Civil Engineering, The University of Texas at Austin.
- Bhat, C. R. and Castelar, S. (2002). A unified mixed logit framework for modeling revealed and stated preferences: formulation and application to congestion pricing analysis in the San Francisco Bay area. *Transportation Research Part B*, 36(7), 593-616.
- Bhat, C. R. and Guo, J. Y. (2006). A comprehensive analysis of built environment characteristics on household residential choice and auto ownership levels. Forthcoming, *Transportation Research Part B*.
- Bhat, C. R. and Lockwood, A. (2004). On distinguishing between physically active and physically passive episodes and between travel and activity episodes: an analysis of weekend recreational participation in the San Francisco Bay area. *Transportation Research Part A*, 38(8), 573-592.
- Bhat, C. R. and Pulugurta, V. (1998). A comparison of two alternative behavioral choice mechanisms for household auto ownership decisions. *Transportation Research Part B*, 32(1), 61-75.
- Bhat, C. R., and Sen, S. (2006). Household vehicle type holdings and usage: an application of the multiple discrete-continuous extreme value (MDCEV) model. *Transportation Research Part B*, 40(1), 35-53.
- Bhat, C. R., Srinivasan, S. and Sen, S. (2006). A joint model for the perfect and imperfect substitute goods case: application to activity time-use decisions. *Transportation Research Part B*, 40(10), 827-850.
- Brownstone, D. and Train, K. (1999). Forecasting new product penetration with flexible substitution patterns. *Journal of Econometrics*, 89(1-2), 109-129.
- Brownstone, D., Bunch, D. and Train, K. (2000). Joint mixed logit models of stated and revealed preferences for alternative-fuel vehicles. *Transportation Research Part B*, 34(5), 315-338.

- Brownstone, D., Bunch, D., Golob, T. and Ren, W. (1996). Transactions choice model for forecasting demand for alternative-fuel vehicles. In: S. McMullen (Ed.), *Research in Transportation Economics*, Vol. 4, JAI Press, pp. 87-129.
- Burns, L. D. and Golob, T. F. (1976). The role of accessibility in basic transportation choice behavior, *Transportation*, 5, 175-198.
- Cao, X. Y., Mokhtarian, P. L. and Handy, S. L. (2006). Neighborhood design and vehicle type choice: evidence from Northern California. University of California Postprints, paper 1171.
- Carlson, D., Wormser, L. and Ulberg, C. (1995). *At Road's End; Transportation and Land Use Choices for Communities*. Island Press, Washington D.C., p. 15.
- CES (2004). *Consumer Expenditures in 2002*. U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Report 974.
- Choo, S. and Mokhtarian, P. L. (2004). What type of vehicle do people drive? The role of attitude and lifestyle in influencing vehicle type choice. *Transportation Research Part A*, 38(3), 201–222.
- Consumer Guide (2005). *Consumer Guide Automotive*. Website: <http://auto.consumerguide.com/>.
- Dargay J. M. and Vythoulkas, P. C. (1999). Estimation of a dynamic car model: a pseudo-panel approach. *Journal of Transport Economics and Policy*, 33(3), 287-302.
- Engwicht, D. (1993). *Reclaiming our Cities and Towns*. New Society Publishers, Philadelphia, p. 45.
- EPA (1999). *Indicators of the Environmental Impacts of Transportation*. United States Environmental Protection Agency, Report EPA 230-R-99-001.
- EPA (2005). *Fuel Economy Guide*, Environmental Protection Agency and U.S. Department of Energy. Website: <http://www.fueleconomy.gov/feg/findacar.htm>
- Feng, Y., Fullerton, D. and Gan, L. (2004). Vehicle choices, miles driven, and pollution policies. Department of Economics, The University of Texas at Austin.
- Golob T. F. and Burns L. D. (1978). Effects of transportation service on automobile ownership in an urban area. *Transportation Research Record*, 673, 137-145.
- Golob, T. F. and Wissen, L. V. (1989). A joint household travel distance generation and car ownership model. *Transportation Research Part B*, 23(6), 471–491.
- Golob, T. F., Bunch, D. S. and Brownstone, D. (1997). A vehicle use forecasting model based on revealed and stated vehicle type choice and utilization data. *Journal of Transport Economics and Policy*, 31(1), 69-92.
- Hanly, M. and Dargay, J. M. (2000) Car ownership in Great Britain: Panel data analysis. *Transportation Research Record*, 1718, 83-89.

- Hensher, D. A. and Greene, W. G. (2001). Choosing between conventional, electric and LPG/CNG vehicles in single-vehicle households. In: D.A. Hensher (Ed.) *Travel Behaviour Research: The Leading Edge*, Pergamon, Oxford, pp. 725–750.
- Hensher, D. A. and Plastrier, V. L. (1985). Towards a dynamic discrete-choice model of household automobile fleet size and composition. *Transportation Research Part B*, 19(6), 481-495.
- Jeff, K., Laube, F., Newman, P. and Barter, P. (1997). *Indicators of Transport Efficiency in 37 Global Cities. A Report to The World Bank*, pp. 44
- Jong, G. C. (1990). An indirect utility model of car ownership and private car use. *European Economic Review*, 34, 971-985.
- Kain, J. F. and Fauth, G. R. (1977). The impact of urban development on auto ownership and transit use. Discussion Paper D77-18, Department of City and Regional Planning, Harvard University.
- Kitamura, R., Golob, T. F., Yamamoto, T., and Wu, G. (2000). Accessibility and auto use in a motorized metropolis. Paper presented at the 79th Transportation Research Board Annual Meeting, Washington, D.C.
- Lave, C. A. and Train, K. (1979). A disaggregate model of auto-type choice. *Transportation Research Part A*, 13(1), 1-9.
- Lerman, S., and Ben-Akiva, M. (1976). *A Behavioral Analysis of Automobile Ownership and Mode of Travel. Vol. 2, Technical Summary*, U.S. Department of Transportation.
- Litman, T. (2002). *The costs of automobile dependency and the benefits of balanced transportation*. Victoria Transport Policy Institute, Canada.
- Litman, T. (2005). *Evaluating transportation equity: methods for incorporating distributional impacts into transport planning*. Victoria Transport Policy Institute, Canada.
- Litman, T. and Laube, F. (2002). *Automobile dependency and economic development*. Victoria Transport Policy Institute, Canada.
- Mannering, F. and Mahmassani, H. (1985). Consumer valuation of foreign and domestic vehicle attributes: econometric analysis and implications for auto demand. *Transportation Research Part A*, 19(3), 243-251.
- Mannering, F. and Winston, C. (1985). A dynamic empirical analysis of household vehicle ownership and utilization. *Rand Journal of Economics*, 16(2), 215–236.
- Mannering, F., Winston, C., and Starkey, W. (2002). An exploratory analysis of automobile leasing by US households. *Journal of Urban Economics*, 52(1), 154-176.
- Manski, C. F. and Sherman, L. (1980). An empirical analysis of household choice among motor vehicles. *Transportation Research Part A*, 14(6), 349–366.
- Mohammadian, A., and Miller, E. J. (2003a). Empirical investigation of household vehicle type choice decisions. *Transportation Research Record*, 1854, 99-106.

- Mohammadian, A., and Miller, E. J. (2003b). Dynamic modeling of household automobile transactions. *Transportation Research Record*, 1831, 98-105.
- MORPACE International, Inc. (2002). Bay Area Travel Survey Final Report, March. <ftp://ftp.abag.ca.gov/pub/mtc/planning/BATS/BATS2000/>
- Pagliara, F. and Preston, J. (2003). The impact of transport on residential location, Final Report TN6, Transport Studies Unit, University of Oxford.
- Polzin, S. E. and Chu, X. (2004). Travel behavior trends: the case for moderate growth in household VMT – evidence from the 2001 NHTS. Working Paper, Center for Urban Transportation Research, University of South Florida, Tampa, Florida.
- Pucher, J. and Renne, J. L. (2003). Socioeconomics of urban travel: evidence from 2001 NHTS. *Transportation Quarterly*, 57(3), 49-77.
- Schipper, M. A. (2004). Supplemental data for 2001 NHTS. Paper presented at the 83<sup>rd</sup> Transportation Research Board Annual Meeting, Washington, D.C.
- Schrank, D. and Lomax, T. (2005). The 2005 urban mobility report. Texas Transportation Institute, Texas A & M University.
- Stinson, M. and Bhat, C. R. (2004). A comparison of the route preferences of experienced and inexperienced bicycle commuters. Technical paper, Department of Civil Engineering, The University of Texas at Austin.
- Train, K. (1980). The potential demand for non-gasoline-powered automobiles. *Transportation Research Part A*, 14, 405-414.
- Train, K. (1986). *Qualitative Choice Analysis: Theory, Econometrics, and an Application to Automobile Demand*. The MIT Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
- Train, K. and Lohrer, M. (1982). *Vehicle Ownership and Usage: An Integrated System of Disaggregate Demand Models*. Cambridge Systematics, Inc., Berkeley, California.
- Untermann, R. and Moudon, A. V. (1989). Street design; reassessing the safety, sociability, and economics of streets. University of Washington, Department of Urban Planning, Seattle, p. 3.