

ACTIVITY BASED TRAVEL DEMAND MODEL FEASIBILITY STUDY

FINAL REPORT Submitted to the Southern California Association of Governments

Contract Number 07-046-C1
Work Element Number 07-070.SCGC08

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June 29, 2007

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Executive Summary

The purpose of this project is to develop a transitioning multi-phased approach for a new travel demand forecasting model. The envisioned model takes advantage of the state of the practice in activity-based approaches and lays the foundation for the development of a stream of future model improvements that are more behaviorally realistic and credible, flexible in their improvement, provide answers to a variety of policy questions at multiple geographical and social scales, and can take advantage of new technologies and methods as they emerge. The ultimate objective of the envisioned multi-phased implementation is to also develop a living map in GIS that contains models simulating every person, household, establishment, and network (transit and highway) in the SCAG region to predict all policy relevant variables for transportation decision making and related policies such as housing and urban development.

At a minimum the model will be used for the Regional Transportation Plan (RTP), which includes CEQA and EIR, project level impacts and system performance assessments, environmental justice (equity/equality), and visioning exercises such as smart growth. It will also be used for conformity analysis for RTP and for TIP, the county congestion management plans, major investment studies for highway and transit projects, special studies about issues related to pricing such as HOV/HOT evaluations and price sensitivity analyses, and rail initiatives such as high speed and commuter rail.

Our motivation to create a new set of models at the decision maker, i.e., the household and the persons in the household, stems for the inability of the aging four-step models to address contemporary policy questions. These policy questions emerge from three sources that include a movement toward greener and sustainable futures, the need to work in a dynamic planning environment and the tremendous advances in research and technologies. Typical four-step applications are unable to address policy actions that change the schedules of persons' everyday life (e.g., compressed work weeks, congestion pricing, time of day tolls) and they fail to identify who loses and who gains in policy actions. In addition, the gross approximation of its model components cannot capture

small impacts of individual policies. Policies are dictating to create and test increasingly more sophisticated policy assessment instruments that account for direct and indirect impacts on behavior, procedures for behavioral change, and to provide finer resolution in the four dimensions of geographic space, time, social space, and jurisdictions.

All this forces us to think in terms of what a person in a household will do under different policy scenarios and then derive what happens to the overall system when the millions of persons we impact respond to a specific policy. It also creates a need to identify a performance level at some distant time point and then trace the paths of change that will take us to that distant time point. In modeling terms we are motivated (possibly forced) to develop more complex and realistic human behavior models, to collect more detailed and better quality data, and to train our talented planners in new methods.

In this project a six-phase model development is outlined and defined in more detail during its first three phases. It includes a major data collection phase in the SCAG region that will provide the necessary data for the new models and proceeds with an unprecedented project that will recreate every person and business on computer (named Geosynthesis). The third phase is a pilot activity-based model that will be compared to the current four-step model to demonstrate its superiority in addressing contemporary policies but to also identify the specific niche within which each of the two models has a role to play in the toolkit of SCAG planners. The last three phases are about the integration of these new developments in a final model system for the SCAG planning work.

Introduction

Transportation modeling and simulation aims at the design of an efficient infrastructure and service to meet our needs for accessibility and mobility. At its heart is good understanding of human behavior that includes the identification of the determinants of behavior and the change in human behavior when circumstances change either due to control (e.g., policy actions), trends (e.g., demographic change), or unexpectedly (e.g., disasters). This is the key ingredient that drives most decisions in transportation planning and traffic operations. Since transportation systems are the backbone connecting the vital parts of a city (a region, a state or an entire country), in-depth understanding of transportation-related human behavior is essential to the planning, design, and operational analysis of all the systems that make a city function.

Understanding human nature requires us to analyze and develop synthetic models of human agency in its most important dimensions and the most elemental constituent parts. This includes, and it is not limited to, understanding of individual evolution along a life cycle path (from birth to entry in the labor force to retirement to death) and the complex interaction between an individual and the anthropogenic environment, natural environment, and the social environment. Travel behavior research is one aspect of analyzing human nature and aims at understanding how traveler values, norms, attitudes, and constraints lead to observed behavior. Traveler values and attitudes refer to motivational, cognitive, situational, and disposition factors determining human behavior. Travel behavior refers primarily to the modeling and analysis of travel demand, based on theories and analytical methods from a variety of scientific fields. These include, but are not limited to, the use of time and its allocation to travel and activities, methods to study this in a variety of time contexts and stages in the life of people, and the arrangement of artifacts and use of space at any level of social organization such as the individual, the household, the community, and other formal or informal groups. This includes the movement of goods and the provision of services having strong interfaces and relationships with the engagement in activities and the movement of persons.

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Travel behavior analysis and synthesis can be examined from both objective (observed by an analyst) and subjective (perceived by the human) perspectives in an integrated manner among four dimensions of time, geographic space, social space, and institutional context. In a few occasions the models reviewed here include and integrate time and space as conceived in science with perceptions of time and space by humans in their everyday life. For this reason research includes theory formation, data collection, modeling, inference, and simulation methods to produce decision support systems for policy assessment and evaluation that combine different views of time and space. Another objective of understanding human behavior is conceptual integration. Explanation of facts from different perspectives can be considered jointly to form a comprehensive understanding of people and their groups and their interactions with the natural and built environment. In this way, we may see explanations of human behavior fusing into the same universal principles. These principles eventually will lead to testable hypotheses from different perspectives offering Wilson's, 1998, famous consilience among, for example, psychology, anthropology, economics, the natural sciences, geography, and engineering. Unavoidably this is a daunting task with many model propositions in the research domain and very few ideas finding fertile ground in applications. The analysis-synthesis path in travel behavior gave us methods that help us understand and predict human (travel) behavior only partially leaving many gaps (Timmermans, 2003). However, policy questions are becoming increasingly impossible to address with old tools, a large pool of researchers is actively working on new methods, and many public agencies commenced a variety of tool development projects to fill the travel behavior analysis gaps. To capture these trends, we see modeling examples with ideas from a transdisciplinary viewpoint and contributors to modeling and simulation from a variety of merged backgrounds (e.g., see the evolution of ideas in a sequence of the International Association for Travel Behaviour Research conferences - www.public.asu.edu/~rpendyal/iatbr/iatbr_index.htm).

In the next sections the evolving paradigm of modeling and simulation is reviewed in detail and three of its fundamental sources are presented. Through the lens of contemporary planning practice the analytical requirements for modeling and simulation are discussed. Then, these same requirements are refined by examining

contemporary visions about the world surrounding us and the theories and technologies we can use to build policy analysis models. This report ends with a section describing the emerging modeling and simulation paradigm and offering a summary.

The impressive movement forward of transportation modeling and simulation emerges from three related but distinct sources. The first source is a fundamental change in planning practice that one could name *dynamic planning practice* to indicate the existence of bi-directional time (from the past to the future and from the future to today), as well as, assessment cycles and adjustments taking place within the short term, medium term, and long term horizons. These cycles are also bidirectional in time. This source contains three fundamental directions of practice that are *inventory creation and maintenance, strategy measurement and evaluation, forecasting and backcasting*. The second source is a vision that generates the substantive problems that we need to solve and the specific policies we need to examine. It is named *sustainable and green visions*. Problems and solutions in this general area motivate and inspire contemporary substance and content of policies throughout the world. One can identify three complementary and mutually strengthening directions in the *economy, environment, and society* that are the three fundamental pillars of sustainability. The third source is the never ending research for improved understanding of the world surrounding us. This source is named *new research and technology* to capture the most important elements of new discovery and new techniques enabling new discovery but also modeling and simulation. Key directions of inquiry within research and technology are *theory building, modeling and simulation, and enabling technologies*.

Dynamic Planning Practice

Dynamic thinking means that time and change are intrinsic in the thought processes underlying planning activities. In the past, assumptions about the existence of a tenable and general equilibrium and our ability to build the infrastructure needed to meet demand did not require careful orchestration of actions. This was radically changed in the industrialized world to meet specific goals using available finite resources to maximize benefits. Together with our inability to build at will and a tendency to the preservation of non-renewable resources (e.g. land and open space, fossil fuels, time) we are much more motivated to think strategically and to consider in a more careful way the performance of the overall anthropogenic system as we plan, design, operate, and manage transportation systems. Any action of this type, however, requires that we have a detailed and accurate picture of our facilities, their interconnectedness, their status within the hierarchy of movements, their conditions, and their evolving role. An accurate and more complete picture like this is called an *inventory* herein.

Many planning activities at all geographical levels are preceded by data gathering steps of identifying all the sources of data and information about the specific study area's transportation system and its relationship with the rest of the world. These inventories include the typical information about the resident population – demographics and employment, land available and land uses, economic development and growth, and so forth. It is worth pointing out the inventory contains data and relationships within the geographic area of interest (region) but also the region's relationship with other areas with which substantial flow of people, goods, and communication takes place. Inventories may also include data and information about cultural and historical factors. For example, statewide plans identify a variety of corridors as buffers of land and communities around major routes of the movement of people and goods. Some of these routes were created centuries ago when pioneers were still exploring uncharted lands. These routes experienced a major change when waterways were the main links among economic and military centers, and they are still evolving. Today these same routes contain as

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backbones railways, freeways, rivers, and often they surround major distribution locations such as ports and airports. Their nature is heavily influenced by their historical and cultural context.

Travel behavior analysts are familiar with inventories created for the regional long range plans, which subdivide the study area in traffic analysis zones with data from the Decennial Census suitably reformatted and packaged for use in a specific application (i.e., the long range regional plan). Then, additional data are assigned to these same subdivisions to build a richer context for modeling and simulation. Thus, the inventory for a typical long range plan is an electronic map of where people live and work, the network(s) that connect different locations, availability of different modes on each segment of the network, as well as information about travel network performance (e.g., link capacities, speeds on links, congestion, and connectivity). Today the tool of choice for data storage and visualization is a Geographic Information System (GIS).

One of the thorniest problems within this context is maintaining an up to date inventory (e.g., characteristics of the population in each zone, presence of certain types of businesses, location and characteristics of intermodal facilities). This is a particularly important issue for periods in between decennial censuses. Year to year updates are very often required to provide "fresh" data. Many of these updates are becoming widely available and much less expensive than in the past. For example, the inventory of the highway network, with suitable additions and improvements, is available from the same private providers of in-vehicle navigation systems. In a similar way, inventories of businesses and residences can also be purchased from vendors. Census data, however, are required even when one uses data from private providers because they contain complementary data (e.g., the age distribution of the resident population) and they tend to provide wider coverage of a country. Although the need for inventories is undoubtedly extremely important many important issues are yet to be resolved. This is the core issue of two Transportation Research Board (TRB) conference proceedings on the National Household Travel Survey <http://www.trb.org/Conferences/NHTS/Program.pdf> and the US Census and the Census American Community Survey <http://www.trb.org/conferences/censusdata/>). Examples of unresolved issues include levels of detail we should use in updating the data we have, treatment of errors in the data

and model sensitivity to these errors, frequency of data updates and treatment of missing data, and questions about merging different databases. Obviously, the answers to these questions are in the form of “it depends.” It depends on the budget (time and money) available, consequences of errors in the data, and the use of models in decision making. In fact, one particular type of data collection is strategy measurement where some of these questions become even more important. We turn now to the second dimension in the dynamic planning practice which is about strategy and performance.

Strategic planning and performance-based planning changed the way we plan for the future. This has been a 20 year long process in the United States as its transportation policy at the Federal, State, and Metropolitan levels is shaped by three consecutive legislative initiatives (ISTEA, TEA-21, and SAFETEA-LU). Under all three legislative frameworks and independently of role, location and perceived need for investment, the overall goal of funding allocation has been to maximize the performance of the transportation system in its entirety and avoid major new infrastructure building initiatives. As a result, planning practice at the Federal, State, and local levels is becoming heavily performance based and designed in a way that motivates the measurement of policy and program outcomes and judging these outcomes for funding allocation. Two examples of performance-based planning are the Program Assessment Rating Tool (PART) at the federal level and performance-based transportation planning at the state level. PART is used to assess the management and performance of individual programs from homeland security to education, employment, and training. This is a tool that offers assessments about programs based on 25 questions divided into sections. For each program a tailored analysis yields summaries that receive a rating from 0 to 100 ranging from ineffective to effective (US Government, 2006). In a different way but in the same spirit many states have created long range plans that are strategic and they measure transportation performance. Yearly evaluative updates are also used for a state's strategic transportation plan. After a comprehensive public involvement campaign a few themes capturing the desires of the resident population are first identified. To these themes technical requirements based on planners and agency inputs are added, a large number of objectives are created and then a variety of measures of performance are developed. These measures are given target levels that evolve over time to a desired

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future performance for the entire state and for a finite number of corridors of statewide significance. Yearly evaluations contain measures of target achievement and they should be used to guide an agency in its investments. The interface with regions is also included in this performance-based framework. Many infrastructure improvement projects in the US are selected from lists of projects that regions (called Metropolitan Planning Organizations) submit to their state to be included in a list of projects in the Transportation Improvement Program (TIP) and become candidates for funding. Under statewide performance-based planning, these projects are evaluated with respect to their contribution in meeting the statewide performance measures and in some states the performance measures of the relevant corridor (NCHRP 446, 2000). Although these examples are far ranging in time and space, they contain operations components and yearly evaluations that: a) require data collection, modeling, and simulation at finer spatial and temporal scales than their counterpart planning feedbacks used in the long range transportation planning practice, and b) need a method that is able to coordinate the short, medium, and long term impacts. Emerging from these considerations are questions about the types of consistency we need among geographic scales for planning and operations actions to perform evaluations, policy requirements for coordination among planning activities to ensure consistency, need for suitable methods to coordinate smaller projects in broader contexts (either of policy assessment or geographical area), development of tools required to perform measurement of impacts and program evaluation at the newly defined assessment cycles, and optimal planning activity with evaluation methods. Only a few solutions to the issues above are offered by contemporary projects such as the TRANSLAND project (Grieving and Kemper, 1999). Within the context of integration between land use and transportation planning and the context of the European Union some of the conclusions include a call to strengthen regional plans, a stronger emphasis on public transport, strategic planning involving all actors, and the packaging of policies aiming at the same objectives. These themes are very similar to statewide and US Federal and European Union levels of planning. Very little, however, is said about the assessment methods and the choices we make in impact estimation. Performance assessment and evaluation of program effectiveness require the

use of the inventory discussed before and a battery of models to forecast future expectations as well as to identify the actions required today to achieve desired futures.

As illustrated later in this report a new approach emerges in which models of discrete choice are applied to individual decision makers that are then used to (micro)simulate most of the possible combinations of choices in a day. The result is in essence a synthetic generation of a travel. When the microsimulation also includes activities and duration at activity locations it becomes a synthetic schedule. In parallel, for forecasting purposes a synthetic population is first created for each land subdivision with all the relevant characteristics and then models are applied to the residents of each subdivision to represent areawide behavior. Changes are then imposed on each individual as a response to policies and predictive scenarios of policy impacts are thus developed. The evolution of individuals, their groups, and the entire study area can be used for trend analysis that includes details at the level of decision makers (either for passenger travel and/or for freight). In addition, progression in time happens from the present to the future and one could identify paths of change by individuals and groups if the application has been designed in the proper way (e.g., keeping detailed accounting of individuals as they move in time, using models that are designed for transitions over time and so forth). In a forecasting setting progression in time follows calendar time, temporal resolution is most often a year, and the treatment of dynamics is an one-way causal stream to the future.

Within the broader study of futures, forecasting is the method we use to develop *projective scenarios*. Performance-based planning, however, requires tools that can extrapolate from future performance targets the actions required today to reach them. In essence we also need *prospective studies* that start from a desirable future and move backwards to identify specific actions that will lead us to that prospect. *Backcasting* was invented in a study of future energy options by Robinson, 1982, to do exactly this through a participatory process. Scenarios in backcasting are the “images” of the future and the possible paths that will take us to that future. A typical application includes the stages shown in Figure 1. An open question, however, remains with respect to scenario construction and assessment. This is particularly important when one considers the serious issues we face with inadequate design of experiments/trials in the forecasting

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setting. Forecasting and backcasting have some important differences in their objectives. On one hand forecasting is employed to identify likely futures and to develop methods to help us identify small changes in our policies. It is also a method to extrapolate past trends into the future and possibly identify paths of changes that are heavily influenced by habit and inertia. Backcasting, on the other hand is designed to discover new ways to build desirable futures. It is perfectly aligned with strategic planning and it is a better suited method for developing a program of conditions to meet targets. Many of the models developed to date are designed for forecasting applications (either to inform the design of forecasting model systems or to create necessary components in the model systems). Yet, planning practice is moving towards strategy development and therefore needs model components that fit within a backcasting scenario building (see the reversed four-step model in Miller and Demetsky, 1999, and its neural network implementation in Sadek et al. 2002 and the participatory tools in California (<http://www.sacregionblueprint.org/> - accessed May 2007)).

Content	Method
Determine objectives, purpose of the analysis, temporal, spatial and substantive scope of the analysis, decide the number and type of scenarios. Identify endogenous and exogenous variables	Problem orientation with technical representatives and stakeholders
Specify goals, constraints and targets for each scenario analysis and exogenous variables	Stakeholder creativity workshop and brainstorming sessions
Describe present system (building and updating of inventories), patterns and trends. Define processes, their actors, and determinants of outcomes. Identify exogenous variables and inputs to scenario analysis.	Scenario development by technical experts
Scenario analysis. Select suitable approach, analyze system evolution at end time points and intermediate time points, develop scenarios, iterate to make sure all components are consistent/coherent	Scenario assessment by technical experts and stakeholders
Undertake impact analysis. Consolidate scenario results. Analyze social, economic and environmental impacts. Compare results of the last with targets, iterate analysis with any other step as required to ensure consistency between goals and results	Backcasting workshops and stakeholder consultation (repeat to follow the iterations)
Implement Policy Actions	

Figure 1 Backcasting schema

Sustainable and Green Visions

Policy actions also view the world surrounding us as an integral ecosystem placing more emphasis on its overall survival by examining direct and indirect effects of individual policy actions and entire policy packages or programs (see the examples in Meyer and Miller, 2001). This trend is not limited to transportation. Lomborg, 2001, shows that a sustainable and green vision encompasses the entire range of human activity and the entirety of the ecosystem we live in. Although these are good news, because the approach enables analyses and policies that are consistent in their vision about futures, comprehensive views also reveal that the pace of economic growth and development is in clear conflict with the biological pace of evolution with unknown consequences (Tiezzi, 2003) strengthening the view that more comprehensive analytical frameworks are required.

In fact, one of the most recent studies on research needs, which addresses the transportation and environment relationship by the Transportation Research Board of the National Academies (TRB, 1999, 2002), expands the envelope to incorporate ecology and natural systems and addresses human health in a more comprehensive way than in the past reiterating the urgency to address unresolved issues about environmental damage. As a result, we also experience a clear shift to policy analysis approaches that have an expanded scope and domain and they are characterized by explicit recognition of transportation system complexity and uncertainty.

Reflecting all this, *sustainable transportation* is now often used to indicate a shift in the mentality of the community of transportation analysts to represent a vision of a transportation system that attempts to provide services that minimize harm to the environment. In fact, in one of the most comprehensive reviews of policies in North America, Meyer and Miller, 2001, contrast the non-sustainable to the sustainable approaches. They provide a compelling argument about the change in these policies and pathways toward a more sustainable path. In the US during the past twenty years, the need, to examine these new and more complex policy initiatives, has also become

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increasingly pressing due to the passage of a series of legislative initiatives (Acts) and associated Federal and State regulations on transportation policy, planning, and programming. The multi-modal character of the new legislation, its congestion management systems and the taxing air quality requirements for selected U.S. regions have motivated many new forecasting applications that in the early years were predominantly based on the Urban Transportation Planning System and related processes but during the last five years motivated a shift to richer conceptual frameworks. In point of fact, air quality mandates motivated impact assessments of the so called transportation control measures and the creation of statewide mobile source air pollution inventories (Stopher, 1994, Loudon and Dagang, 1994, Goulias et al., 1993) that require different analytical forecasting tools than in any pre-1990 legislative initiatives (Niemeier, 2003). An added motivation is also lack of substantial funding for transportation improvement projects and a shift to charge the firms that benefit the most from transportation system improvements creating a need for impact fee-assessment for individual private developers. These assessments create the need for higher resolution in the three dimensions of geography (space), time (time of day), and social space (groups of people with common interests and missions, households, individuals) used in typical regional forecasting models but also the domain of jurisdictions where major decisions are made. They also create a pressing need for interfaces with traffic engineering simulation tools that are approved and/or endorsed in legislation (for examples see Paaswell et al. 1992). Another push for new tools is the assessment of technologies under the general name of Intelligent Transportation Systems (i.e., bundles of technological solutions in the form of user services attempting to solve chronic problems such as congestion, safety, and air pollution). Natural and anthropogenic tragic recent events are adding requirements for modeling and simulation and urgency in their development and implementation as well as more detail in time and space (Henson and Goulias, 2006).

As Garrett and Wachs, 1996, discuss in the context of a lawsuit against a regional planning agency in the Bay Area, traditional four-step regional simulation models (Creighton, 1970, Hutchinson, 1974, Ortuzar and Willumsen, 2001) are outpaced by the same legislative stream of the past 20 years that defined many of the policies described above. Unlike the “energy crisis” of the 1970s, the urgency and timeliness of modeling

and simulation is becoming more urgent, more complex, and requires an “integrated” approach. Under these initiatives, forecasting models, in addition to long-term land use trends and air quality impacts, need to also address issues related to technology use and information provision to travelers in the short and medium terms. Similarly, the European Union focuses on issues such as: increasing citizen participation, intra-European integration, decentralization, deregulation, privatization, environmental concerns, mobility costs, congestion management by population segments, and private infrastructure finance (see van der Hoorn, 1997). Tables 1 and 2 provide an overview of policy tools that are loosely ordered from the longer term of land use and governance to medium and shorter term operational improvements depending on the lag time required for their impacts to be realized.

These policy initiatives place more complex issues in the domain of regional policy analysis and forecasting and amplify the need for methods that produce forecasts at the individual traveler and her/his household levels instead of the traffic analysis zone level. In addition to the long range planning activities and the typical traffic management activities, analysts and researchers in planning need to also evaluate the following: a) traveler and transportation system manager information provision and use (e.g., location based services, smart environments providing real time information to travelers, vehicles, and operators); b) combinations of transportation management actions and their impacts (e.g, parking fee structures and city center restrictions, congestion pricing), and c) assessment of combinations of environmental policy actions (e.g., carbon taxes and information campaigns about health effects of ozone).

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Table 1 Examples of Policy Tools

Type of policy tool	Brief description	Source of information*
Land use growth and management programs	Legislation that controls for the growth of cities in sustainable paths	www.smartgrowth.org www.awcnet.org www.fhwa.dot.gov/planning/ppasg.htm www.compassblueprint.org
Land use design and attention to neighborhood design for non-motorized travel	Similar to the previous but with attention paid to individual neighborhoods	www.sustainable.doe.gov/landuse/luothtoc.shtml www.planning.dot.gov/Documents/DomesticScan/domscan2.htm
City annexations and spheres of influence	City boundaries are divided into incorporated, within the sphere of influence, and external to manage growth	countypolicy.co.la.ca.us/BOSPolicyFrame.htm www.ite.org/activeliving/files/Jeff_Summary.pdf
Accelerated retirement of vehicles programs	Programs to eliminate high emitting and older technology vehicles	ntl.bts.gov/DOCS/SCRAP.html
Public involvement and education programs	Programs aiming at defining goals based on the public's desires	www.fhwa.dot.gov/reports/pittd/contents.htm
Health promoting programs	Programs that promote physical activity in travel to benefit health	www.activelivingbydesign.org
Safety measures	A process to incorporate safety considerations in transportation planning	tmip.fhwa.dot.gov/clearinghouse/docs/safety/ www.fhwa.dot.gov/planning/scp/ www.safetyanalyst.org/
Emission control, vehicle miles traveled, and other fee programs (including carbon taxes and trading)	Programs that shift taxation from traditional sources towards pollutant emissions and natural-resource depletion agents	www.fresh-energy.org/ www.fhwa.dot.gov/environment/ www.fightglobalwarming.com/
Congestion pricing and toll collection programs	A premium is charged to travelers that wish to travel during the most congested periods	www.vtpi.org/london.pdf
Parking fee management	Parking pricing used as a tool to restrict access by space and time	www.gmu.edu/depts/spp/programs/parkingTaxes.pdf

*accessed May 2007

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Table 2 Examples of Policy Tools (continued)

Type of policy tool	Brief description	Other source of information
Non-motorized systems	Programs to support walking and biking	www.vtpi.org/tdm/tdm25.htm www.psrc.org/projects/nonmotorized
Telecommuting and Teleshopping	The employment of telecommunications to substitute-complement-enhance travel	www.telework-mirti.org www.vtpi.org/tdm/tdm43.htm
Flexible and staggered work programs	Programs that change the workweek of individuals and firms	www.its.dot.gov/JPODOCS/REPTS_PR/13669/section05.htm
Goods movements (freight) programs to improve operations	A variety of programs to facilitate and minimize the damage for freight movement	ntl.bts.gov/DOCS/harvey.html
Highway system improvements in traffic operations and flow	Improved data collection, monitoring, and traffic management	www.transportation.org/ite.org/mega/default.asp
Intelligent Transportation Systems (ITS)	Use of telecommunications and information technology to manage and control travel	www.itsa.org/ www.ertico.com/ www.its.dot.gov/index.htm
Special event planning and associated traffic management	Enhanced procedures to handle the demands of a special event	tmcdfs.ops.fhwa.dot.gov/cfprojects/new_detail.cfm?id=32&new=0
Security preparedness through metropolitan planning processes	A process to incorporate safety considerations in transportation planning	www.planning.dot.gov/Documents/Securitypaper.htm
Individualized marketing techniques with improved information and communication with the “customer	Public programs to provide personal help in changing travel behavior in favor of environmentally friendly modes	www.local-transport.dft.gov.uk/travelplans/index.htm http://www.travelsmart.gov.au/

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The tools to perform all this need to also have forecasting and backcasting capabilities that are more accurate and detailed in space and time. Planning initiatives are moving toward parcel by parcel analysis and yearly assessments. It is also conceivable that we need separate analyses for different seasons of a year and days of the week to capture seasonal and within a week variations of travel. Echoing all this and in the context of the Dutch reality Borgers, Hofman, and Timmermans (1997) have identified five information need domains that the new envisioned policy analysis models will need to address and they are (in a modified format from the original list):

- a) social and demographic trends that may produce a structural shift in the relationship between places and time allocation by individuals invalidating existing travel behavior model systems;
- b) increasing scheduling and location flexibility and degrees of freedom for individuals in conducting their every day business leading to the need to consider additional choices (e.g., departure time from home, work at home, shopping by the internet, shifting activities to the weekend) in modeling travel behavior;
- c) changing quality and price of transport modes based on market dynamics and not on external to the travel behavior policies (e.g., the effect of deregulation in public transport);
- d) shifting of attitudes and potential cycles in the population outlook about travel options; and
- e) changing scales/jurisdictions (scale is the original term used to signify the different jurisdictions) – different policy actions in different sectors have direct and indirect effects on transportation and different policy actions in transportation have direct and indirect effects in the other sectors (typical example in the US is the welfare to work program).

The first substantive implication of all these considerations is an expanded envelope of modeling and simulation. Many processes that were left outside the realm of transportation modeling and simulation need to be included as stages of the travel model system. One notable example in the inclusion of *residential location choice, work*

location choice, and school location choice to capture the spatial distribution and relative location of important anchor points on travel behavior and to also capture the impact of transportation system availability and level of service on these choices. In this way when implemented policies lead to improved level of service and the relative attractiveness of locations change, shifts in residential location, work location, and possibly school location can be incorporated as impacts of transportation. A similar treatment is needed for *car ownership and car type choices* of households or *fleet sizes and composition* for firms. These car-related choices are expressed as functions of parking availability, energy and other costs and level of service offered by the transportation system (highway and transit). To account for other resources and facilities available for household travel we also need to consider processes for *driver's licensing*, acquiring of *public transportation subscription (passes)*, and participation in *car sharing programs*. In this way, variables of car availability and public transportation availability in households can be used as determinants of travel behavior. Similar treatment is required for policies that change attitudes, perceptions and knowledge about travel options.

To address some of the policies of Tables 1 and 2, we need to transition to a domain that contains a variety of outputs that include shares of program participation, sensitivity to accessibility and prices, and the usual indicators of travel on networks using input variables from the processes and behaviors discussed up to this point. Although the number of vehicles per hour per lane is the typical input of traffic operations software, a variety of other variables such as speeds on network links and types of vehicles are also needed for other models such as emissions estimation.

Ideally longer term social, economic, demographic, and resource/facilities circumstances of people should be converted into yearly schedules identifying periods of vacation, workdays, special occasions, and so forth. These in turn should lead to weekly schedules separating days during which people stay at home from days during which people go to work and days during which they run errands and/or engage in other non-work and non-school related activities. In this way patterns of working days versus not working days can be derived in a natural (con)sequence. As we will see in a later section, a fundamental leap of faith intervenes in practice and converts all this background

information into a representative day that is used to create a more or less complete sequence of activities and trips with their destinations and modes used.

In this way decisions and choices people make are organized along the time scale in terms of the time it takes for these events to occur and their implications. For example, decisions about education, careers and occupation, and residential and job location are considered first and they condition everything that happens next. These should be formulated in terms of life course long projects and not represented by a cross-sectional choice model. Similarly, decisions about yearly school and work schedules that determine work days and vacation days in a year are should also be modeled as a stream of interrelated choices. Conditional on all this are the daily schedules of individuals and the myriad of decisions determining a daily schedule, which are modeled in much more detail and paying closer attention to the mutual dependency among the different facets of a within a day schedule. The next section explores this further in the context of research and enabling technology.

New Research and Technology

The planning and policy analysis discussion identified many requirements for modeling and simulation. Planning and policy expanded the context of travel behavior models to entire life paths of individuals and for this reason a more general modeling framework is emerging. In fact, modeling made tremendous progress toward a comprehensive approach to, in essence, build simulated worlds on computer enabling the study of complex policy scenarios. Although, passenger travel received the bulk of the attention, similar contributions to new research and technology are found in modeling the movement of goods (Southworth, 2003, Stefan et al., 2005). The emerging framework, although incomplete, is rich in the directions taken and potential for scientific discovery, policy analysis, and more comprehensive approaches in dealing with sustainability issues.

There are four dimensions that one can identify in building taxonomies of simulation models. The first is the *geographic space* and its conditional continuity, the second is the *temporal scale* and calendar continuity, the third is interconnectedness of *jurisdictions*, and the fourth and most important is the set of relationships in *social space* for individuals and their communities. The first dimension, *geographic space* here is intended as the physical space in which human action occurs. This dimension has played important roles in transportation planning and modeling because the first preoccupation of the transportation system designers has been to move persons from one location to another (i.e., overcoming spatial separation). Initial applications considered the territory divided into large areas (traffic analysis zones), represented by a virtual center (centroid), and connected by facilities (higher level highways). The centroids were connected to the higher level facilities using a virtual connector summarizing the characteristics of all the local roads within the zone. As computational power increased and the types of policies/strategies required increased resolution the zone became smaller and smaller. Today is not unreasonable to expect software to handle zones that are as small as a parcel of land and transportation facilities that are as low in the hierarchy as a local road (the

centroid becomes the building on a parcel and the centroid connector is the driveway of the unit and they are no longer virtual).

In modeling and simulation we are interested in understanding human action. For this reason in some applications geographic space needs to consider more than just physical features (Golledge and Stimpson, 1997, page 387) moving us into the notion of place and social space (see also below). The second dimension is *time* that is intended here as continuity of time, irreversibility of the temporal path, and the associated artificiality of the time period considered in many models. For example, models used in long range planning applications use typical days (e.g., a summer day for air pollution). In many regional long-range models the unspoken assumption is that we target a typical work weekday in developing models to assess policies. Households and their members, however, may not always (if at all) obey this strict definition of a typical weekday to schedule their activities and they may follow very different decision making horizons in allocating time to activities within a day, spreading activities among many days including weekends, substituting out of home with in home activities in some days but doing exactly the opposite on others, and using telecommunications only selectively (e.g., on Fridays and Mondays more often than on other days). Obviously, taking into account these scheduling activities is by far more complex than what is allowed in existing transportation planning models. The third dimension is *jurisdictions* and their interconnectedness. The actions of each person are “regulated” by jurisdictions with different and overlapping domains such as federal agencies, state agencies, regional authorities, municipal governments, neighborhood associations, trade associations and societies, religious groups, and formal and informal networks of families and friends. In fact, the federal government defines many rules and regulations on environmental protection. These may end up being enforced by a local jurisdiction (e.g., a regional office of an agency within a city). On one hand, we have an organized way of governance that clearly defines jurisdictions and policy domains (e.g., tax collection in the US). On the other hand, however, the relationships among jurisdictions and decision making about allocation of resources does not follow always this orderly governance principle of hierarchy. A somewhat different and more “bottom up” relationship is found in the social network and for this reason requires a different dimension that is the fourth

and final dimension named *social space* and the relationships among persons within this space. For example, individuals from the same household living in a neighborhood may change their daily time allocation patterns and location visits to accommodate and/or take advantage of changes in the neighborhood such as elimination of traffic and the creation of pedestrian zones. Depending on the effects of these changes on the pedestrian network we may also see a shift in the within the neighborhood social behavior. In contrast, increase in traffic to surrounding places may create an outcry by other surrounding neighborhoods, thus, complicating the relationships among the residents.

One important domain and entity within this social space is the household. This has been a very popular unit of analysis in transportation planning recognizing that strong relationships within a household can be used to capture behavioral variation (e.g., the simplest method is to use a household's characteristics as explanatory variables in a regression model of travel behavior). In this way any changes in the household's characteristics (e.g., change in the composition due to birth, death, or children leaving the nest or adults moving into the household) can be used to predict changes in travel behavior. New model systems are created to study this interaction within a household looking at the patterns of using time in a day and the changes across days and years. It is therefore very important in modeling and simulation to incorporate in the models used for policy analysis interactions among these four fundamental dimensions, which bring us to the next major issue that of scale.

The typical long range planning analysis is usually defined for larger geographical areas (region, states, and countries) and addresses issues with horizons from 10 to 50 years. In many instances we may find that large geographic scale means also longer time frames applied to wider mosaics of social entities and including more diverse jurisdictions. On the other side of the spectrum issues that are relevant to smaller geographic scales are most likely to be accompanied by shorter term time frames applied to a few social entities that are relatively homogeneous and subject to the rule of very few jurisdictions. This is one important organizing principle but also an indicator of the complex relationships we attempt to recreate in our computerized models for decision support. In developing the blueprints of these models one can choose from a variety of theories (e.g., neoclassical microeconomics) and conceptual representations of the real

world that help us develop these models. At the heart of our understanding of how the world (as an organization, a household, a formal or informal group, or an individual human being) works are models of decision making and conceptual representations of relationships among entities making up this world.

Transportation planning applications are about judgment and decision making of individuals and their organizations. There are different settings of decision making that we want to understand. Three of these settings are the travelers and their social units from which motivations for and constraints to their behavior emerge; the transportation managers and their organizations that serve the travelers and their social units, and the decision makers surrounding goods movement and service provision that contain a few additional actors, Southworth, 2003. These may include land use markets (see www.urbansim.org). Travelers received considerable attention in transportation planning and the majority of the models in practice aim at capturing their decision making process. The remaining settings received much less attention and they are poorly understood and modeled.

Conceptual models of this process are transformed into computerized models of a city, a region, or even a state in which we utilize components that are in turn models of human judgment and decision making, e.g., travelers moving around the transportation network and visiting locations where they can participate in activities. Models of this behavior are simplified versions of strategies used by travelers when they select among options that are directly related to their desired activities. In some of these models we also make assumptions about hierarchies of motivations, actions, and consequences. Some of these assumptions are explicit, e.g., when deriving the functional forms of models as in the typical disaggregate choice models, rules in a production system, and in other models these assumptions are implicit.

When designing transportation planning model interfaces for transportation planners and managers we also implicitly make assumptions about the managers' ability to understand the input, agent representation, internal functioning, and output of these computerized models. Our objective is therefore not only to understand travel behavior and build models that describe and predict human behavior but also to devise tools that allow transportation managers to understand the assumed behavior in the models, study

scenarios of policy actions, and define and explain policy implications to others. This, in essence, implies that we, the model system designers, create a platform for a relationship between planners and travelers. A similar but more direct relationship also exists between travelers and transportation managers when we design the observation methods that provide the data for modeling but also the data used to measure attitudes and opinions such as travel surveys. In fact, this relationship is studied in much more detail in the survey design context and linked directly to the image of the agency conducting the survey and the positive or negative impression of the travelers about the sponsoring agency (Dillman, 2000). Most transportation research for modeling and simulation, however, has emphasized traveler behavior when building surveys and their models neglecting the interface with the planners. The summary of theories below, however, applies to individuals traveling in a network but also to organizations and planners in the sense used by H.A. Simon in his *Administrative Behavior* (1997).

Rational decision making is a label associated with human behavior that follows a strategy in identifying the best course of action. In summary, a decision maker solves an optimization problem and identifies the best existing solution to this problem. Within this more general strategy when an operational model is needed and this operational model provides quantitative predictions about human behavior some kind of mathematical apparatus is needed to produce the predictions. One such machinery is the subjective expected utility (Savage, 1954) formulation of human behavior. In developing alternative models to SEU Simon (1983) defines four theoretical components:

- a person's decision is based on a utility function assigning a numerical value to each option – *existence and consideration of a cardinal utility function*;
- the person defines an exhaustive set of alternative strategies among which just one will be selected – *ability to enumerate all strategies and their consequences*;
- the person can build a probability distribution of all possible events and outcome for each alternate option – *infinite computational ability*; and
- the person selects the alternative that has the maximum utility – *maximizing utility behavior*.

ACTIVITY BASED TRAVEL DEMAND MODEL FEASIBILITY STUDY - FINAL REPORT

This behavioral paradigm served as the basis for a rich production of models in transportation that include the mode of travel, destinations to visit as well as the household residence (see the examples in the seminal textbook by Ben-Akiva and Lerman, 1985). It served also as the theoretical framework for consumer choice models and for attempts to develop models for hypothetical situations (see the comprehensive book by Louviere, Hensher, and Swait, 2000). It has also replaced the aggregate modeling approaches to travel demand analysis as the orthodoxy against which many old and new theories and applications are compared and compete with. SEU can be considered to be a model from within a somewhat larger family of models under the label of weighted additive rule (WADD) models (Payne, Bettman, and Johnson, 1993). Real humans, however, may never behave according to SEU or related maximizing and infinitely computational capability models (Simon labels this the Olympian model, 1983). Based on exactly this argument different researchers in psychology have proposed a variety of decision making strategies (or heuristics). For example, Simon created alternate model paradigms under the label of *bounded rationality – the limited extent to which rational calculation can direct human behavior* (Simon, 1983, 1997) to depict a sequence of a person's actions when searching for a suitable alternative. The modeled human is allowed to make mistakes in this search giving a more realistic description of observed behavior (see also Rubinstein, 1998). Tversky is credited with another stream of decision making models starting with the *lexicographic approach* (1969), in which *a person first identifies the most important attribute, compares all alternatives on the value of this attribute, and chooses the alternative with the best value on this most important attribute*. Ties are resolved in a hierarchical system of attributes. Another Tversky model (1972) assumes *a person selects an attribute in a probabilistic way and influenced by the importance of the attribute, all alternatives that do not meet a minimum criterion value (cutoff point) are eliminated*. The process proceeds with all other attributes until just one alternative is left and that one is the chosen. This has been named the *elimination by aspects strategies* (EBA) model. Later, Kahneman and Tversky (1979) developed *prospect theory* and its subsequent version of *cumulative prospect theory* in Tversky and Kahneman (1992) in which a simplification step is first undertaken by the decision maker editing the alternatives. Then, a value is assigned to each outcome and a

decision is made based on the sum of values multiplying each by a decision weight. Losses and gains are treated differently. All these alternatives to SEU paradigms did not go unnoticed in transportation research with early significant applications appearing in the late 1980s. In fact, a conference was organized attracting a few of the most notable research contributors to summarize the state of the art in behavior paradigms and documented in Garling, Laitila, and Westin (1998). One of the earlier examples using another of Simon's inventions, the *satisficing behavior – acceptance of viable choices the may not be optimal* - is a series of transportation-specific applications described in Mahmassani and Herman (1990). Subsequent contributions continue along the path of more realistic models and the most recent example, discussing a few models, by Avineri and Prashker (2003), uses cumulative prospect theory giving a preview of a movement toward more realistic travel behavior models. As Garling et al. (1998) and Avineri and Prashker (2003) point out, these paradigms are not ready for practical applications, contrary to the Mahmassani and colleagues efforts that have been applied, and additional work is required to use them in a simulation framework for applications. In addition, Payne, Bettman, and Johnson (1993) provide an excellent review of these models, a summary of the differentiating aspects among the paradigms. They also provide evidence that decision makers *adapt* by switching between decision making paradigms *to the task and the context of their choices*. They also make mistakes and they may also fail to switch strategies. As Vause (1997) discusses to some length transportation applications are possible using multiple decision making heuristics within the same general framework and employing a production system approach (Newell and Simon, 1972). A key consideration, however, that has received little attention in transportation is the definition of context within which decision making takes place. Recent production systems (Arentze and Timmermans, 2000) are significant improvements over past simulation techniques. However, travelers are still assumed to be passive in shaping the environment within which they decide to act (action space). This action space is viewed as largely made by constraints and not by their active shaping of their context. Goulias (2001, 2003) reviews another framework from human development that is designed to treat decision makers in their active and passive roles and explicitly accounts for mutual influence between an agent (active autonomous decision maker) and her environment.

ACTIVITY BASED TRAVEL DEMAND MODEL FEASIBILITY STUDY - FINAL REPORT

Transportation modeling and simulation experienced a few tremendously innovative and progressive steps forward. Interestingly these key innovations are from non-engineering fields but very often transferred and applied to transportation systems analysis and simulation by engineers. These are listed here in a somewhat sequential chronological order merging technological innovations and theoretical innovations. At exactly the time that the Bay Area Rapid Transit system was studied and evaluated in the 1960s, Dan McFadden (the Year 2000 Nobel Laureate in Economics) and a team of researchers produced practical mode choice regression models at the level of an individual decision maker (see <http://emlab.berkeley.edu/users/mcfadden/> - accessed June 2007). The models are based on random utility maximization (of the SEU family) and their work opened up the possibility to predict mode choice rates more accurately than ever before. These models were initially named *behavioral travel-demand models* (Stopher and Meyburg, 1976) and later the more appropriate term of *discrete choice models* (Ben-Akiva and Lerman, 1985) prevailed. Although restrictive in their assumptions, these models are still under continuous improvement and they have become the standard tool in evaluating discrete choices. Some of the most notable and recent developments advancing the state of the art and practice are:

- better understanding of the theoretical and particularly behavioral limitations of these models (Garling, Laitila, and Westin, 1998, McFadden, 1998, Golledge and Garling, 2003);
- more flexible functional forms that resolve some of the problems raised in Williams and Ortuzar (1982) allowing for different choices to be correlated when using the most popular discrete choice regression models (Koppelman and Sethi, 2000, Bhat, 2000, 2003);
- combination of revealed preference, stated choices by travelers, with stated preferences and intentions, answers to hypothetical questions by travelers, availability of data in the same choice framework to extract in a more informative way travelers willingness to use a mode and willingness to pay for a mode option (Ben-Akiva and

Morikawa, 1989, Louviere, Hensher, and Swait, 2000). This latter “improvement” enables us to assess situations that are impossible to build in the real world;

- computer-based interviewing and laboratory experimentation to study more complex choice situations and the transfer of the findings to the real world (Mahmassani and Jou, 2000). This direction, however, is also accompanied by a wide variety of research studies aiming at more realistic behavioral models that go beyond mode choice and travel behavior (Golledge and Garling, 2003); and
- expansion of the discrete choice framework using ideas from *latent class models* with covariates that were first developed by Lazarsfeld in the 1950s and their estimation finalized by Goodman in the 1970s (see the review in Goodman, 2002, and discrete choice applications in Bockenholdt, 2002). This family of models was used in Goulias (1999) to study the dynamics of activity and travel behavior and in the study of choice in travel behavior (Ben-Akiva et al., 2002).

As mentioned earlier the rational economic assumption of the maximum utility model framework (that underlies many but not all of the disaggregate models) is very restrictive and does not appear to be a descriptive behavioral model except for a few special circumstances when the framing of decisions is carefully designed (something we cannot expect to happen every time a person travels on the network). Its replacement, however, requires conceptual models that can provide the types of outputs needed in regional planning applications. A few additional research paths, labeled as *studies of constraints*, are also functioning as gateways into alternate approaches to replace or complement the more restrictive utility-based models. A few of these models also consider knowledge and information provision to travelers. The first aspect we consider is about the choice set in discrete choice models. Choice set is the set of alternatives from which the decision maker selects one. These alternatives need to be mutually exclusive, exhaustive, and finite in number (Train, 2003). Identification, counting, and issues related to the alternatives considered have motivated considerable research in choice set formation (Richardson, 1982, Swait and Ben-Akiva, 1987a, 1987b, Horowitz, 1991,

Horowitz and Louviere, 1995). Key threat to misspecification of the choice set is the potential for incorrect predictions (Thill, 1992). When this is an issue of considerable threat as in destination choice models where the alternatives are numerous, a model of choice set formation appears to be the additional burden (Haab and Hicks, 1997). Other methods, however, also exist and they may provide additional information about the decision making processes. Models of the processes can be designed to match the study of specific policies in specific contexts. One such example and a more comprehensive approach defining the choice sets is the situational approach (Brög and Erl, 1989). The method uses in depth information from survey respondents to derive sets of reasons for which alternatives are not considered for specific choice settings (individual trips). This allows separation of analyst observed system availability from user perceived system availability (e.g., due to misinformation and willingness to consider information). This brings us to the duality between “objective choice attributes” and “subjective choice attributes.” Most transportation applications, independently of the decision making paradigm adopted, assume the analysts (modelers) and the travelers (modeled) measured attributes to be the same. Modeling the process of perceived constraints may be far more complex when one considers the influence of the context within which decisions are made. Golledge and Stimpson (1997, pages 33-34) describe this within a conceptual model of decision making that has a cognitive feel to it. They also link the situational approach to the activity-based framework of travel extending the framework further (pages 315-328).

Chapin’s research (1974), providing one of the first comprehensive studies about time allocated to activity in space and time, is also credited for motivating the foundations of activity-based approaches to travel demand analysis. His focus has been on the propensity of individuals to participate in activities and travel linking their patterns to urban planning. In about the same period Becker also developed his theory of time allocation from a household production viewpoint (Becker, 1976) applying economic theory in a non-market sector and demonstrating the possibility of formulating time allocation models using economics reasoning (i.e., activity choice). In parallel another approach was developing in geography and Hagerstrand’s seminal publication on time space geography (1970) presents the foundations of the approach. The idea of constraints

in the movement of persons was taken a step further by this time-geography school in Lund. In that framework, the movement of persons among locations can be viewed as their movement in space and time under external constraints. Movement in time is viewed as the one way (irreversible) movement in the path while space is viewed as a three dimensional domain. It provides the third base about *constraints* in human paths in time and space for a variety of planning horizons. These are *capability constraints* (e.g., physical limitations such as speed); *coupling constraints* (e.g., requirements to be with other persons at the same time and place); and *authority constraints* (e.g., restrictions due to institutional and regulatory contexts such as the opening and closing hours of stores). Figure 2 provides a pictorial representation in space and time of a typical activity-travel pattern of two persons (P1 and P2) and the three types of constraints. H indicates home, W indicates work, L indicates leisure, and S indicates shopping.

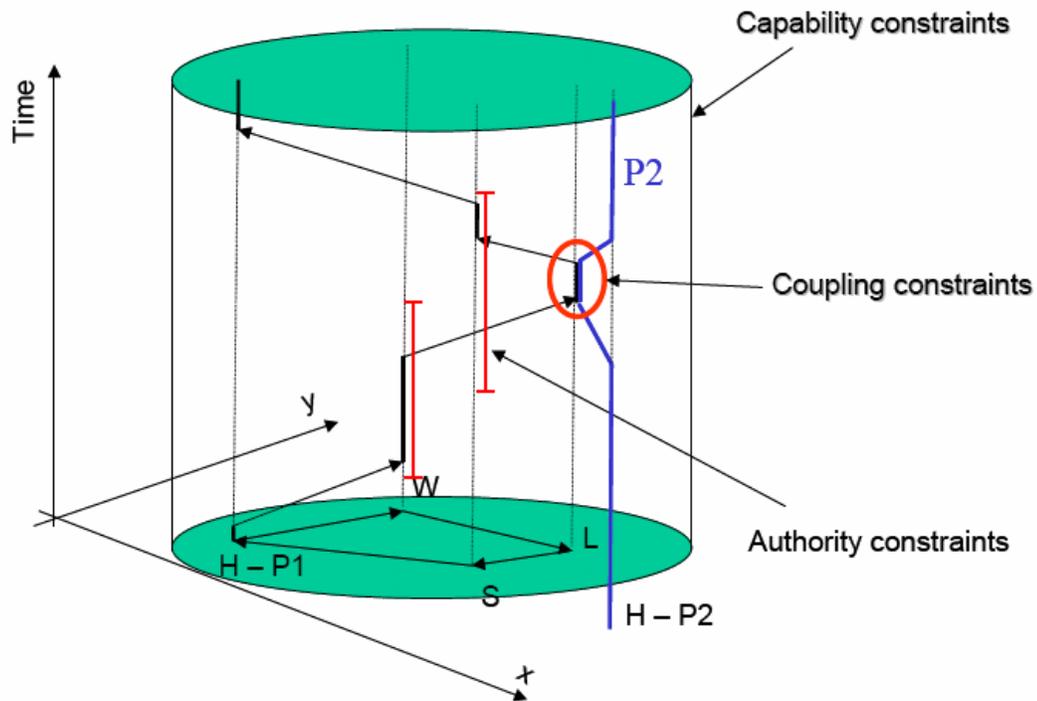


Figure 2 A two-person (P1 and P2) activity-travel pattern and the time and space limits imposed by constraints (source: Pribyl, 2004)

Cullen and Godson (1975) also reviewed by Arentze and Timmermans (2000) and Golledge and Stimpson (1997) appear to be the first researchers attempting to bridge the gap between the motivational (Chapin) approach to activity participation and the

constraints (Hagerstrand) approach by creating a model that depicts a routine and deliberated approach to activity analysis. The Cullen and Dobson study also defined many terms often used today in activity-based approaches. For example, each activity (stay-home, work, leisure, and shopping) is an episode characterized by start time, duration, and end time. Activities are also classified into fixed and flexible and they can be engaged alone or with others. Moreover, they also analyzed sequencing of activities as well as pre-planned, routine, and on the spur of the moment activities. Within this overall theoretical framework is the idea of a project which according to Golledge and Stimpson, (1997) *is a set of linked tasks that are undertaken somewhere at some time within a constraining environment* (pages 268-269). This idea of the project underlies one of the most exciting developments in activity-based approaches to travel demand analysis and forecasting because seemingly unrelated activity and trip episodes can be viewed part of a "big-picture" and given meaning and purpose completing in this way models of human agency and explaining resistance to change behavior.

Most subsequent contributions to the activity-based approach emerge in one way or another from these initial frameworks with important operational improvements (for reviews see Kitamura, 1988, Bhat and Koppelman, 1999, Arentze and Timmermans, 2000, and McNally, 2000). The basic ingredients of an activity based approach for travel demand analysis (Jones, Koppelman, and Orfeuil, 1990 and Arentze and Timmermans, 2000) are:

a) explicit treatment of travel as derived demand (Manheim, 1979), i.e., participation in activities such as work, shop, and leisure motivate travel but travel could also be an activity as well (e.g., taking a drive). These activities are viewed as episodes (characterized by starting time, duration, and ending time) and they are arranged in a sequence forming a pattern of behavior that can be distinguished from other patterns (a sequence of activities in a chain of episodes). In addition, these events are not independent and their interdependency is accounted for in the theoretical framework;

b) the household is considered to be the fundamental social unit (decision making unit) and the interactions among household members are explicitly modeled to capture task

allocation and roles within the household, relationships at one time point and change in these relationships as households move along their life cycle stages and the individual's commitments and constraints change and these are depicted in the activity-based model; and

c) explicit consideration of constraints by the spatial, temporal, and social dimensions of the environment is given. These constraints can be explicit models of time-space prisms (Pendyala, 2003) or reflections of these constraints in the form of model parameters and/or rules in a production system format (Arentze and Timmermans, 2000).

Input to these models are the typical regional model data of social, economic, and demographic information of potential travelers and land use information to create schedules followed by people in their everyday life. The output are detailed lists of activities pursued, times spent in each activity, and travel information from activity to activity (including travel time, mode used, and so forth). This output is very much like a “day-timer” for each person in a given region. Figure 3 provides an example of time allocation to different activities from an application that collected activity participation data (Alam, 1998, Alam and Goulias, 1999). It displays time allocation by one segment of the population showing the proportion of persons engaging in each activity by each hour of a day. Figure 4 shows the output from a model that predicts the presence of persons in each building during each hour of a day engaging in each activity type. Combining an activity model with a typical travel demand model produces “volumes” of individuals at specific locations and on the network of a city as shown in Figure 5 (a more detailed description of this study can be found in Kuhnau and Goulias, 2003, and Kuhnau, 2001).

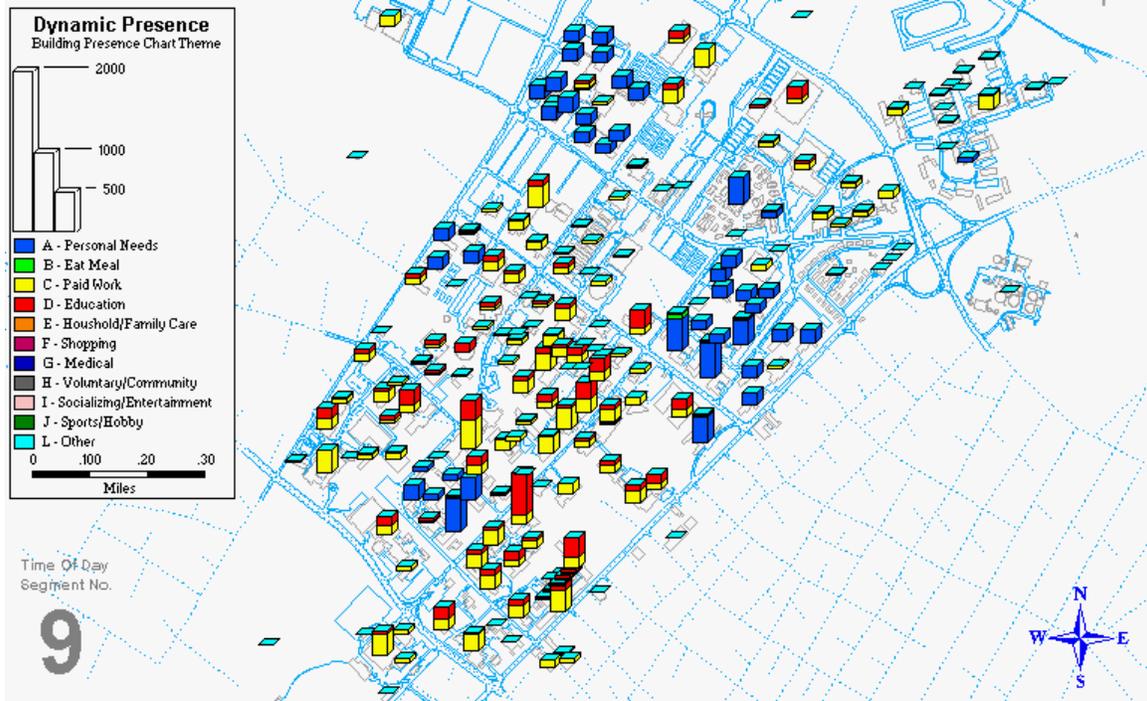


Figure 4 Persons and activities assigned to buildings (source: Alam, 1998)

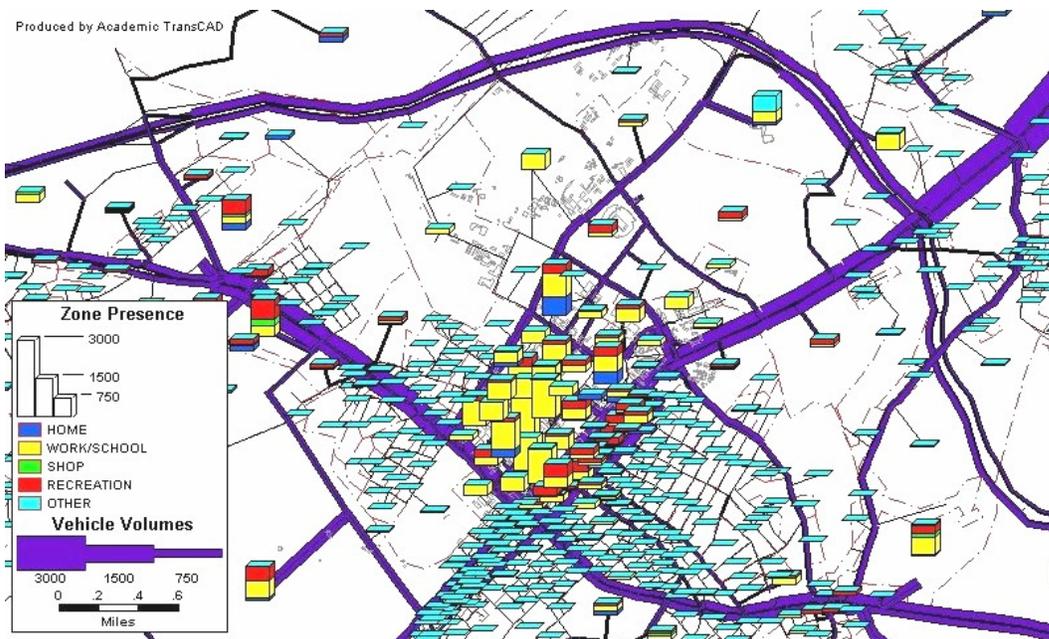


Figure 5 Persons and activities assigned to buildings and travel to the network (source: Goulias, Zekkos, and Eom, 2004)

Many planning and modeling applications, however, aim at forecasting. Inherent in forecasting are the time changes in the behavior of individuals and their households and their response to policy actions. At the heart of behavioral change are questions about the process followed in shifting from a given pattern of behavior to another. In addition to measuring change and the relationships among behavioral indicators that change in their values over time, we are also interested in the timing, sequencing, and staging of these changes. Moreover, we are interested in the triggers that may accelerate desirable or delay undesirable changes and the identification of social and demographic segments that may follow one time path versus another in systematic patterns. Knowledge about all this is required to design policies but it is also required to design better forecasting tools. Developments in exploring behavioral dynamics and advancing models for them have progressed in a few arenas. First, in the data collection arena with panel surveys, repeated observation of the same persons over time that are now giving us a considerable history in developing new ideas about data collection but also about data analysis (Golob, Kitamura, and Long, 1997, Goulias and Kim, 2003) and interactive and laboratory data collection techniques (Doherty, 2003) that allow a more in-depth examination of behavioral processes. The second arena is in the development of microeconomic dynamic formulations for travel behavior that challenge conventional assumptions and offer alternative formulations (Kitamura 2000). The third arena, is in the behavior from a developmental viewpoint as a single stochastic process, a staged development process (Goulias, 1999), or as the outcome from multiple processes operating at different levels (Goulias, 2002). Experimentation with new theories from psychology emphasizing development dynamics is a potential fourth area that is just beginning to emerge (Goulias, 2003). Behavioral dynamics are also examined using more comprehensive analyses (Goulias et al. 2007) and models (Ramadurai and Srinivasan, 2006).

These models focus more on the paths of persons in space and time within a somewhat short time horizon such a day, week, or maybe a month. The consideration of behavioral dynamics has expanded the temporal horizons to a few years. However, regional simulation models are very often designed for long range plans spanning 25 years or even longer time horizons. Within these longer horizons, changes in the spatial

distribution of activity locations and residences (land use) are substantial, changes in the demographic composition and spatial distribution of demographic segments are also substantial, and changes in travel patterns, transport facilities, and quality of service offered can be extreme. Past approaches in modeling and simulating the relationship among land use, demographics, and travel in a region attempted to disengage travel from the other two treating them as mutually exogenous. As interactions among them became more interesting and pressing, due to urban sprawl and suburban congestion, increasing attention was paid to their complex interdependencies. This led to a variety of attempts to develop “integrated model systems” that enable the study of scenarios of change and mutual influence between land use and travel. An earlier review of these models with heavy emphasis on discrete choice models can be found in Anas (1982). Miller (2003) and Waddell and Ulfarsson (2003) twenty years later provide two comprehensive reviews of models that have integrated many aspects in the interdependent triad of demographics-travel-land use models. Both reviews trace the history of some of the most notable developments and both link these models to the activity-based approach above. Both reviews also agree that a microeconomic and/or macroeconomic approach to modeling land and transportation interactions are not sufficient and more detailed simulation of the individuals and their organizations “acting” in an time-space domain need to be simulated in order to obtain the required output for informed decision making. They also introduce the idea of simulating interactive agents in a dynamic environment of other agents (multi-agent simulation). The vast literature is reviewed by Timmermans 2003 and Miller, 2006, from different viewpoints about progress made until now. However, they both agree that progress is rapidly made and that integration of land use and transportation models needs to move forward. Creation of integrated systems is further complicated by the emergence of an entire infrastructural system as another layer of human activity - telecommunication. Today telecommunication and transportation relationships are mostly absent from regional simulation planning and modeling as well from the most advanced land use and transportation integrated models (see previous section). Considerable research findings, however, have been accumulating since the 1970s (Salomon,1986, JHK et al., 1996, Mokhtarian, 1990, Mahmassani and Jou, 1998, Marker and Goulias, 2000, Weilland and Purser, 2000, Patten and Goulias, 2001, Golob, 2001, Patten et al,

2003, Krizek and Johnson, 2003, Goulias, Kim, and Pribyl, 2003). Another type of technologies (named enabling herein) helped us move modeling and simulation further.

A few of the most important technologies are *stochastic simulation*, *production systems*, *geographic information systems*, *interactive and technology-aided data collection approaches*, and more *flexible data analysis techniques*. *Stochastic microsimulation*, as intended here, is an evolutionary engine software that is used to replicate the relationships among social, economic, and demographic factors with land use, time use, and travel by people. As discussed above the causal links among these groups of entities are extremely complex, non-linear, and in many instances unknown or incompletely specified. This is the reason that no closed form solution can be created for such a forecasting model system. An evolutionary engine, then, provides a realistic representation of person and household life histories (e.g., birth, death, marriages, divorces, birth of children, etc.), spatio-temporal activity opportunity evolution, and a variety of models that account for uncertainties in data, models, and behavioral variation (see Miller, 2003, and Goulias, 2002, for overviews and Sundararajan and Goulias, 2003 for an application). *Production systems* were first developed by Newell and Simon (1972) to explicitly depict the way humans go about solving problems. These are a series of condition-action (note the parallel with stimulus-response) statements in a sequence. From this viewpoint they are search processes that may never reach an absolute optimum and they replicate (or at least attempt to) human thought and action. Models of this kind are called *computational process models* (CPM) and through the use of IFTHEN..... rules have made possible first the creation of a variety of new models. *Geographic information systems* are software systems that can be used to collect, store, analyze, modify, and display large amounts of geographic data. They include layers of data that are able to incorporate relations among the variables in each layer and allow to build relationships in data across layers. One can visualize a GIS as a live map that can display almost any kind of spatio-temporal information. Maps have been used by transportation planners and engineers for long time and they are a natural interface to use in modeling and simulation. *Advanced data collection methods and devices* that are technologies that merit a note, although, not strictly developed for modeling. The first is about data collection and particularly data collection using internet technologies to build complex

interviews that are interactive and dynamic (Doherty, 2003). In the same line of development we also see the use of geographic positioning systems (GPS) that allow one to develop a trace of individual paths in time and space (Wolf, et al., 2001, Doherty et al, 2001). Very important development is also the emergence of devices that can record the bulk of environmental data surrounding a person movement, classify the environment in which the individual moves, and then ask simplified questions (Hato 2006). *Soft computing and non-parametric data analysis*. In the data analysis we see greater strides in using data mining and artificial intelligence-borne techniques to extract travel behavior patterns (Teodorovic and Vukadinovic, 1998, Pribyl and Goulias, 2003) and advanced and less restrictive statistical methods to discover relationships in the travel behavior data (e.g., Kharoufeh and Goulias, 2002). Soft computing is increasingly finding many applications in activity-based models (see www.imob.uhasselt.be). For a more recent and accessible review see Pribyl, 2007.

The Evolving Modeling Paradigm

Policies are dictating to create and test increasingly more sophisticated policy assessment instruments that account for direct and indirect impacts on behavior, procedures for behavioral change, and to provide finer resolution in the four dimensions of geographic space, time, social space, and jurisdictions. Dynamic planning is also stressing the need to examine trends, cycles, and the inversion of time progression to develop paths from the future visions to today's actions. New model developments are also becoming increasingly urgent. Although, tremendous progress has been observed in the past 20 years, development requires a faster pace to create new policy tools. These policy tools need to disentangle the actions of persons under different policy actions and the impact of policy actions on aggregates to identify conflicts and resolutions. Supporting all this is a rich collection of decision paradigms that are already used and a few new ideas are starting to migrate to practice as illustrated below. Appendix A contains a selection of the model schemata and Appendix B shows two summary tables of many models reviewed here.

Early models incorporating activity-based behavioral processes into applications were published in the late 1970's and early 1980's as proof-of-concept and experimental applications. Following Hagerstrand's time-geography approach, PESASP (Lenntorp, 1976) is one of the first models to operationally show the use of a time-space prism in one area and to account for the relationship among activities. The Cullen and Godson (1975) study was also the first comprehensive treatment of activities that brought different research findings together. In parallel, models were developed that were utility-maximizing models such as Adler and Ben-Akiva model (1979) and much later the Kawakami and Isobe model (1989). Following these studies, BSP (Huigen, 1986) and Computational Algorithms for Rescheduling Lists of Activities- CARLA, Jones, *et al.*, 1983, also use the activities within a time-space prism paradigm and define the foundations of data collection for activity-based approaches.

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After this period of experimentation and testing three streams in model development emerged. The first is in deriving representative activity patterns (RAPs) and then using regression techniques to correlate RAPs to person and household social and demographic data and then forecasting. The second development refines the methods used to simulate persons and adds to the forecasting repertoire other forecasting tasks via *microsimulation*. The third is a movement that expands the envelope to include cognition and explicit representation of mental processes through CPMs.

The Simulation of Travel/Activity Responses to Complex Household Interactive Logistic Decisions (STARCHILD- Recker and McNally, 1986a,b) derived RAPs, employed a utility-based model and incorporated constraints. It is considered a fundamental transition development from research to practical application of an activity-based approach and it is still the foundation of models that first derive representative patterns and then forecast travel behavior. The more recent SIMAP (Kulkarni and McNally, 2001) is a direct derivation of STARCHILD. In this line of development, Ma (1997) created a model system that combined long term activity patterns (Long-term activity and travel planning – LATP) with a within-a-day activity scheduling and simulation (Daily Activity and Travel Scheduling – DATS) incorporating day-to-day variation and history dependence. Her model system produced very accurate forecasts. However it required panel survey data (the repeated observation of the same persons and households over time) that are rarely collected. In the LATP/DATS system longitudinal statistical models are extracted from longitudinal records and they capture important aspects of behavioral dynamics such as habit persistence, day-to-day switching behaviors, and account for observed and unobserved heterogeneity contributed by the person, the household, the area of residence, and the area of workplace.

One of the first models to include a microsimulation in its paradigm is ORIENT (Sparmann, 1980). This methodology suitably refined was demonstrated in a countrywide model for the Netherlands developed between 1989 and 1991 and named the Microanalytic Integrated Demographic Accounting System (MIDAS- Goulias and Kitamura, 1992, 1997). MIDAS integrates demographic microsimulation, with dynamic car ownership models and a comprehensive suite of travel behavior equations. A cross-sectional version of MIDAS using data from the United States was also developed by

Chung and Goulias, 1997. MIDAS-USA simulates the evolution of households along with car ownership and travel behavior for Centre County, PA, and it is linked to a model to assign fees for development using GIS. A more ambitious development is the Activity Mobility Simulator -AMOS - by Kitamura, *et al.*, 1996, which defines a few RAPs as templates. Then, uses a neural network to identify choices and a satisficing rule to simulate schedule changes due to policies. While MIDAS is a strictly longitudinal process econometric model progressing one year at a time, AMOS is constraint-based model designed for much finer temporal resolution. DEMOS, developed by Sundararajan and Goulias, 2003, is a MIDAS derivative microsimulation. DEMOS, however, in an object-oriented environment designed to simulate the evolution of people and their households using a variety of external data including the Puget Sound Transportation Panel. It also simulates activity participation, travel, and telecommunication market penetration using a few representative patterns that were derived in LATP/DATS supplemented by telecommunications and travel behavior models.

SCHEDULER (Gärling, *et al.*, 1989) is the first CPM that adds a psychometric cognitive implementation based on the Hayes-Roth and Hayes-Roth (1979) model. In SCHEDULER, activities, selected from the long term calendar that represents a person's long term memory, comprise a schedule that is "mentally executed". Models developed in multiple directions and they combined CPM, microsimulation, and data derived behavioral patterns with random utility models to fill different modeling needs. In this way a wide variety of activity pattern models were created. The Simulation Model of Activity Scheduling Heuristics (SMASH) (Ettema, *et al.*, 1996) is a CPM and econometric utility-based hybrid model that focuses on the pre-trip planning process predicting sequence of activities. In parallel, COMRADE (Ettema, *et al.*, 1995), uses competing risk hazard models for activity scheduling and incorporates duration models in the system. The Model of Action Space in Time Intervals and Clusters (MASTIC- Dijst and Vidakovic, 1997), identifies clusters in the action space to perform and schedule activities. Time-space prisms are also the foundation of the Prism-Constrained Activity-Travel Simulator (PCATS- Kitamura, 1997, Kitamura and Fujii, 1998), which is also a utility-based model. A direct operational derivative of SCHEDULER (Garling, Kwan,

and Golledge, 1994) was developed by Kwan, in her 1994 dissertation (Kwan, 1994, 1997), and named GIS-Interfaced Computational-process modeling for Activity Scheduling (GISICAS). It is a simplified CPM, that uses time-space constraints and GIS to incorporate spatial information into a behavioral model to create individual schedules, starting with activities at higher levels of priority. Other models also attempt to recreate personal schedules such as Vause's model (1997), a CPM that creates a restricted choice set for creating activity patterns, a model by Ettema, *et al.* (1997), and VISEM (Fellendorf, *et al.*, 1997), a data-driven model that is a part of PTV Vision, an urban and regional transportation planning system, that creates daily activity patterns for behaviorally homogeneous groups within the population. Stopher *et al.*, 1996, also proposed the Simulation Model for Activity Resources and Travel (SMART) using a time geography framework and a taxonomy of activities in a GIS environment. All these use observed patterns to derive behavioral models. In contrast, Recker, 1995, developed Household Activity Pattern Problem (HAPP) as a normative model based on the pick up and delivery time window problem to be used as a yardstick model testing optimal behavioral hypotheses.

The model framework that impacted practice the most in the United States is the Daily Activity Schedule model by Ben-Akiva, *et al.* in 1996. This model, was used to create the Portland Daily Activity Schedule Model (Bowman *et al.*, 1998), advocated modeling lifestyle and mobility decisions on a scale of years. These influence daily activity schedules, which are comprised of primary and secondary tours constrained in time and space. It contains two key elements that simplify activity-based model development and takes advantage of the research surge in developing more general discrete choice models. A similar simplification using conditional probabilities was also developed for Los Angeles by Kitamura, *et al.* (1997).

Figure 7 shows this hierarchy of decisions and the scheme used to convert the daily pattern into a system of discrete choices. This framework was used to design new models for the regions around San Francisco, New York, Columbus, Denver, Atlanta, and Sacramento (Bradley and Bowman, 2006).

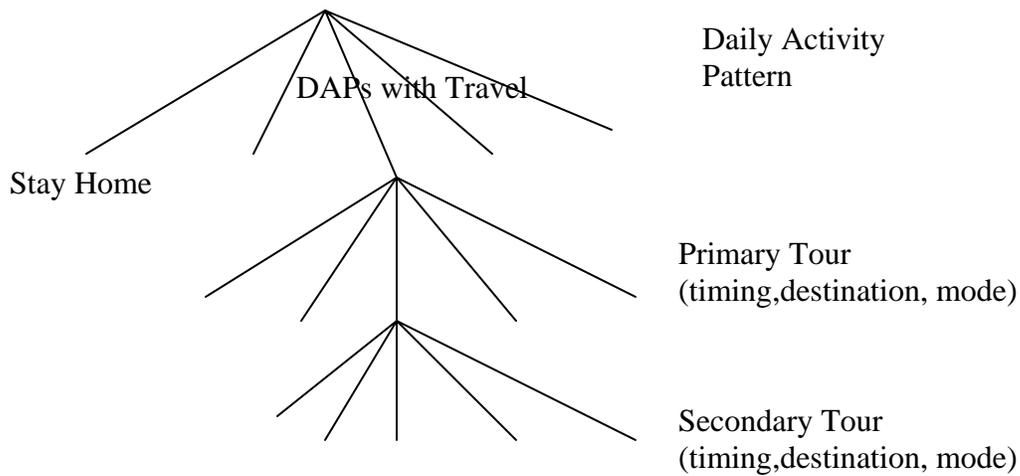


Figure 7 The Bowman and Ben-Akiva daily activity model formulation (source: Bowman et al. 1998).

Arentze and Timmermans (2000) designed the most complete CPM named ALBATROSS, which is a multi-agent simulation and predicts the time, location, duration, activity companionship, and travel modes subjecting everything to spatio-temporal, institutional, and household constraints. The theoretical underpinnings of this model are by far wider and all encompassing than any other activity-based model. However, it does not simulate route choice and does not produce data suitable for traffic assignment algorithms. Development of the third version of ALBATROSS is currently underway (Henson et al, 2006). This model is also representative of raising the ambitions of travel modelers. The Alam Penn State Emergency Management model (Alam-PSEM, Alam and Goulias, 1999) is a building-by-building simulation of activity participation and presence at specific locations of a university campus for each hour of a typical day. In parallel Bhat and his co-workers (Bhat and Singh 2000; Bhat, 2001) developed the Comprehensive Activity-Travel Generation System for Workers (CATGW), which is a series of econometric models that replicate a commuter's evening mode choices, number of evening commute stops, and the number of stops after arriving home. Another econometric model, the Conjoint-Based Model to Predict Regional Activity Patterns

(COBRA), developed by Wang and Timmermans in 2000, generates general patterns of stops for specific activities using a conjoint-based model with stated preference data in place of the typically used travel or activity diary. The Wen and Koppelman model (2000) utilizes three layers of decisions that are influenced by exogenous variables to generate activity patterns. All these models pointed to directions that applications were neglecting and they are: spatial choice needs to be dealt in more detail (Alam and Goulias, 1999), activity choice and duration need to be dealt in a way that recognizes satiation in activity participation (e.g., in the duration models of Bhat, 2001), sooner or later we will need to account for unobserved patterns and lack of experimental data (e.g., using conjoint experiments Wang and Timmermans, 2000), and relations within the household need to also receive attention and be inserted in the model hierarchy (Wen and Koppelman, 2000).

Spatial aspects of model development were considered in the CentreSIM regional model (Kuhnau and Goulias, 2002, 2003; Goulias, *et al.*, 2004) that uses time-of-day activity and travel data for different market segments to predict hour-by-hour presence at locations and travel among zones. In 2004, as a part of the Longitudinal Integrated Forecasting Environment (LIFE) framework (Goulias, 2001), Pribyl and Goulias (2005) developed CentreSIM (medoid simulation) to derive a few representative patterns and simulate daily schedules accounting explicitly for within-household interactions for entire daily patterns. In the Netherlands, PATRICIA (Predicting Activity-Travel Interdependencies with a Suite of Choice-Based, Interlinked Analyses), was developed by Borgers, *et al.* (2002) to help assess the performance of ALBATROSS. PATRICIA is a suite of linked models that incorporates an expanded set of activity choices, based on 63 distinct patterns, and activity destinations and describes activity transport modes and sequences. AURORA (Timmermans, *et al.*, 2001; Joh, *et al.*, 2004), a complementary model to ALBATROSS, is a utility-based system that models the dynamics of activity scheduling and rescheduling decisions as a function of many choice facets. AURORA is for short-term adaptation and rescheduling using just a few critical parameters. The model has since been expanded to include decision making under uncertainty and reaction to travel information. It has also been linked to a multi-agent simulation (Henson *et al.*, 2006). A much simpler model is PETRA (Fosgerau, 2001) that allows the

model to work with a small number of daily travel patterns with some statistical advantages (see also Henson et al., 2006) . Microsimulation software experienced another push forward by the development of a multi-million investment in TRansportation ANalysis SIMulation System. This model system was developed in the decade 1995-2005 and one of its versions is now available via a NASA open source license from TMIP at http://tmip.fhwa.dot.gov/transims/download_transims/files/3_1_1/. TRANSIMS is a survey data-driven cellular automata microsimulation and was developed by a team at Los Alamos National Laboratory (2003). It was one of the first simulation packages to contain models that create a synthetic population, generate activity plans for individuals using directly from observed data in travel surveys, formulate routes on a network based on these, and execute activity plans.

Microsimulation models also evolved in the interface between land use and travel behavior. The Integrated Land Use, Transportation and Environment (ILUTE) model (Salvini and Miller, 2003) model is designed to simulate the evolution of people and their activity patterns, transportation networks, houses, commercial buildings, the economy, and the job market over time. Within this vision, Miller and Roorda (2003), developed the Toronto Area Scheduling model for Household Agents (TASHA) that uses *projects* to organize activity episodes into schedules of persons. Schedules for members in a household are simultaneously generated to allow for joint activities. Both ILUTE and TASHA utilize CPMs and econometric utility-based paradigms.

Another microsimulation that uses econometric models to simulate daily activity travel patterns for an individual, is the Comprehensive Econometric Microsimulator for Daily Activity-travel Patterns (CEMDAP) model (Bhat, *et al.*, 2003) is based on land use, socio-demographic, activity system, and level-of-service (LOS) attributes. Key distinctive element of CEMDAP is its reliance on hazard-based regression models to account for the continuous nature time of activity duration. Initially released in 2003, it is continually being expanded. The current version of CEMDAP includes population synthesis as well as the activity-pattern generation and scheduling of children, which is missing form many other simulators. Another model that utilizes constraints is the Florida Activity Mobility Simulator (FAMOS) (Pendyala *et al.*, 2005). FAMOS encompasses two modules, the Household Attributes Generation System (HAGS) and

PCATS. Together, they comprise a system for modeling the activity patterns of individuals in Florida. The output is a series of activity-travel records. FAMOS is currently being further enhanced to include intra-household interactions and capture task allocation behavior among household members. Most recently, Ettema *et al.* (2006) developed PUMA (Predicting Urbanization with Multi-Agents), a full-fledged multi-agent system of urban processes that represents land use changes in a behaviorally realistic way. These processes include the evolution of population, businesses, and land use as well as daily activity and travel patterns of people. To simulate activity-travel patterns, an updated version of AURORA by Arentze, *et al.* (2006) will be created and also in the model FEATHERS (Forecasting Evolutionary Activity-Travel of Household and their Environmental Repercussions) to simulate activity-level scheduling decisions, within-a-day rescheduling, and learning processes in high resolutions of time and space. Developed as a complement to ALBATROSS, FEATHERS is econometric utility-based microsimulation that utilizes constraints that focuses on the short-term dynamics of activity-travel patterns. Members from this same Dutch team also developed MERLIN (van Middelkoop *et al.*, 2004) and RAMBLAS (Veldhuisen *et al.*, 2000).

Microsimulations have continued to gain in popularity in the activity-based modeling universe as they move from research applications to practice. Besides the Portland Daily Activity Schedule Model mentioned previously, New York's "Best Practice" Model (2002) and the Mid-Ohio Regional Planning Commission (MORPC) Model (2003), both developed by Vovsha, *et al.*, and the San Francisco model (Jonnalagadda, *et al.*, 2001) are currently being utilized by their respective MPO. The San Francisco model is currently being updated to implement enhanced destination choice models and being recalibrated using more recent household and census data. Four other models for the metropolitan areas of Atlanta, Sacramento, the San Francisco Bay Area, and Denver are currently in various stages of implementation (Bradley and Bowman, 2006).

Although many past activity-based models have undefined or large time resolutions, STARCHILD already in mid-1980s used 15-minute temporal resolution. The most recent models, however, go even further to simulate activities at small time intervals such as 10 minute intervals (SIMAP) and 5 minute intervals (TASHA), minute

by minute (MASTIC, CentreSIM, MASTIC, GISICAS, and RAMBLAS), and second-by-second (TRANSIMS-LANL, ALBATROSS, AURORA, CATGW, CEMDAP, FAMOS, and FEATHERS). Many applications, however, operate with large resolutions of one hour and they are implemented with a target of 30 minutes to one hour (Bradley and Bowman, 2006). Spatial resolution of the models is still dominated by the zonal level. ALBATROSS and MORPC both can operate at the sub-zone level. Alam-PSEM, AURORA, CEMDAP, FEATHERS, GISICAS, ILUTE, PUMA, SIMAP, SMASH, and TRANSIMS-LANL utilize data at essentially the building or point level. Only two metropolitan applications have spatial resolutions below the zonal level (Denver model that contains a two-stage destination locator to predict the address within a zone and the Sacramento model that operates at the parcel level). Cognitive theories (models of knowledge and memory as well as behavioral process for planning activities) were used only in SCHEDULER and loosely based on that in ALBATROSS and FEATHERS. Behavior is most often incorporated as intra-household interaction in ALBATROSS, CEMDAP, FAMOS, FEATHERS, ILUTE/TASHA, and CentreSIM as well as some of the applications in regions such as MORPC. All these examples provide evidence of feasibility for activity-based travel demand forecasting models but they also demonstrate the need to develop them further.

Review Summary

Similarities and differences among the implemented modeling ideas are:

- A hierarchy of decisions by households is assumed that identifies longer term choices determining the shorter term choices. In this way different blocks of variables can be identified and their mutual correlation used to derive equations that are used in forecasting.
- Anchor points (Home location – work location – school location) are inserted in the first choice level and they define the overall spatial structure of activity scheduling.
- Out-of-home activity purposes include work, school, shopping, meals, personal business, recreation, and escort. These expanded the original home-based and non-home based purposes.
- In-home activities are explicitly modeled or allowed to enter the model structure as a "stay-at-home" choice with some models allowing for activity choice at home (work, maintenance and discretionary). In this way limited substitution of activity between at home and outside home can be reflected in the models.
- Stop frequencies and activities at stops are modeled at the day pattern and tour levels to distinguish between activities and trips that can be rescheduled with little additional effort versus the activities and trips that cannot be rescheduled (e.g., school trips for K-12 children).
- Modes and destinations are modeled together. In this way the mutual influence in a sequential and/or simultaneous relationship can be reflected in the model structure and tested statistically.
- Time is included in a few instances in activity-based models. For example departure time for trips and tour time of day choice are modeled explicitly. Model time periods are anywhere between 30 minutes and second-by-second and time windows are used to account for scheduling opportunities. This modeling component allows to incorporate time-of-day in the modeling suites. The

presence of departure time also enables models to trip matrices for any desired period in a day. In fact, output of time periods depends on traffic assignment needs and can be adjusted almost at will.

- Human interaction, although limited for now to the within-household interaction, is incorporated by relating the day pattern of one person to the day patterns of other persons within a household. It is accounted for by modeling their joint activities and trip making explicitly (joint recreation, escort trips) and, to a limited extent, with model allocating activity-roles among household members.
- Spatial aspects of a region are accounted for using methods that produce spatially distributed synthetic populations using as external control totals averages and relative frequencies of population characteristics.
- Accessibility measures are used to capture spatial interaction among activity locations and the level of service offered by the transportation system(s). These are also the indicators used to account for feedback among the lower level in the hierarchy decisions (e.g., activity location choices, routes followed, congestion) and the higher level such as residence location choice.
- Spatial resolution is heavily dependent on data availability and it reached already the level of a parcel and/or building at its most disaggregate level. Outputs of models are then aggregated to whatever level is required by traffic assignment, mode specific studies (nonmotorized and/or transit) and reporting needs and requirements.

Overall, the plethora of advances includes: a) models and experiments to create computerized virtual worlds and synthetic schedules at the most elementary level of decision making using microsimulation and computational process models; b) data collection methods and new methods to collect extreme details about behavior and to estimate, validate, and verify models using advanced hardware, software, and data analysis techniques; and c) integration of models from different domains to reflect additional interdependencies such as land use and telecommunications.

Much more work remains to be done in order to develop models that can answer more complex questions from policy analysis and for this reason a few steps are outlined

here. In policy and program evaluation, transportation analysis appears to be narrowly applied to only one method of assessment that does not follow the ideal of a randomized controlled trial and does not explicitly define what experimental setting we are using for our assessments. Unfortunately this weakens our findings about policy analysis and planning activities. Although we have many laboratory experiments that were done for intelligent transportation systems we lack studies and guidelines to develop experimental and quasi-experimental procedures to guide us in policy development and large scale data collection.

In addition, many issues remain unresolved in the areas of coordination among scale in time and space and related issues. In addition very little is known about model sensitivity and data error tolerance and their mapping to strategy evaluations. This is partially due to the lack of tools that are able to make these assessments but also due to lack of scrutiny of these issues and their implications on impact assessment.

Regarding strategic planning and evaluation, we also lack models designed to be used in scenario building exercises such as backcasting and related assessments. The models about change are usually defined for forecasting and simple time inversion may not work to make them usable in backcasting. This area does not have the long tradition of modelling and simulation to help us develop suitable models. Should more attention be paid to this aspect? Is there room for a combination of techniques including qualitative research methods? What is the interface between this aspect and the experimental methods questions in program evaluation?

In the new research and technology area, since we are dealing with the behavior of persons, it is unavoidable to consider perceptions of time and space. What role should perceptions of time and space (Golledge and Gärling, 2004) play in behavioral models and what is the most appropriate use of these perceptions? The multiple dimensions of time such as tempo, duration, and clock time (Levine, 1997) are neglected in behavioral models – is there a role for them in behavioral models?

Human interaction is considered important and is receiving attention in research Golob and McNally, 1997, Chandrasekharan and Goulias, 1999, Simma and Axhausen, 2001, Gliebe and Koppelman 2002, Goulias and Kim, 2005, Zhang et al. 2005, but only partially accounted for in applications as illustrated by Vovsha and Petersen (2005).

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Future applications will increasingly pay attention to motivations for human interactions and the nature of these interactions.

Multi-phased Model Implementation

The overall objective and purpose of this study is to develop a transitioning multi-phased approach for a new travel demand forecasting model. Our review of past models in this project revealed many gaps that cannot be filled in their entirety by the proposed multi-phased project for SCAG. Instead, the envisioned model takes advantage of the state of the practice in activity-based approaches and lays the foundation for the development of a stream of future model improvements that are more behaviorally realistic and credible, flexible in their improvement, provide answers to a variety of policy questions at multiple geographical and social scales, and can take advantage of new technologies and methods as they emerge. The ultimate objective of the envisioned multi-phased implementation is to also develop a living map in GIS that contains models simulating every person, household, establishment, and network components (transit and highway) in the SCAG region to predict all policy relevant variables for transportation decision making and related policies such as housing and urban development. At a minimum the model will be used for the following policy applications:

- Regional Transportation Plan (RTP), which includes CEQA and EIR, project level impacts and system performance assessments, environmental justice (equity/equality), and visioning exercises such as smart growth.
- Conformity analysis for RTP and for TIP.
- County congestion management plans.
- Major investment studies for highway and transit projects.
- Special studies about issues related to pricing such as HOV/HOT evaluations and price sensitivity analyses.
- Rail initiatives such as high speed and commuter rail.

It should be noted that at earlier stages of development an activity-based model is more likely to be used for policy applications that have direct impacts on activity

scheduling decisions by trip makers. As the model evolves and becomes a more complete application it will start replacing the four-step model in all policy analyses.

Model development stages

An approximately ten-year long staging of the model development is shown below.

Phase 1: Design a new Household Survey for a New Activity-Based Model. The overall design of this survey includes a core element and many satellite surveys using the same sample frame (NEWSURVEY).

Phase 2: Geosynthesis. In this phase households and establishments (specific locations of firms) are simulated and geolocated at the most elementary geographical unit the parcel of land. A set of procedures are also created to depict their spatiotemporal evolution.

Phase 3: Design and Implement a Pilot Activity-based Model for the SCAG region (PILOT).

Phase 4: Build interfaces with other travel model components such as long distance and airport travel, heavy vehicles, service vehicles and so forth (INTERFACE)

Phase 5: Perform an Internal and External Model Review, Validation, Redesign any Failing Components and Compare to the Four-step Model (VALIDATION).

Phase 6: Implement the Final Microsimulation Activity-Based Model that spans an entire week for 24 hours in each day (CAL7SIM).

Figure 8 shows the expected implementation schedule for the six phases. Each phase is envisioned as one large project. It is also possible to divide them into smaller projects.

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Phase 1 - NEWSURVEY	Green	Green	Green	Green							
Phase 2 - GEOSYN.		Orange	Orange	Orange	Orange	Orange					
Phase 3 - PILOT				Red	Red	Red	Red				
Phase 4 - INTERFACE							Black	Black			
Phase 5 - VALIDTN								Yellow	Yellow	Yellow	Yellow
Phase 6 - CAL7SIM								Red	Red	Red	Red

Figure 8 Multi-phased Implementation Schedule

Major model components

Figure 9 shows a schematic representation of the proposed activity-based model. It contains blocks of model systems (each square contains more than one model). Each of the blocks are:

External Regional Forecasts and Scenarios. This is a database manager that assembles all the needed externally provided data including the controls required for the population synthesizer. One key component in this group of models/databases is the creation of a pricing scenario creator. Parking and tolls can change their costs by time of day, day of the week, and congestion levels.

Dynamic Population & Firm Synthesizer & Locator. Activity-based approaches are at the individual and household levels. For this reason the population of a region is synthetically generated before model application. Synthetic generation means each individual and each firm (establishment) in the region is created in software and individuals are assigned to households and dwelling units that also evolve over time and

firms are assigned to parcels. It is habitual to create multiple versions of the same population and constrain the generation of individuals and households using external information to control the distribution of population characteristics to match the external data. The synthesizer provides disaggregate input data for the activity and travel models. Available population synthesizers are static (developed for one year to coincide with the Census years 1980, 1990, 2000). Progression through time does not account for evolution of the population, residential developments and workplace supply. The envisioned population synthesis for SCAG needs to provide year-by-year transitions that meet the spatial and demographic control totals from available external data (American Community Survey, Department of Finance and other data sources) and mimics the population evolution in the region. The synthesizer needs to also be compatible and consistent with any land use (urban, exurban, and rural) simulation model outputs. This group of models/simulation is also usable by the four-step applications.

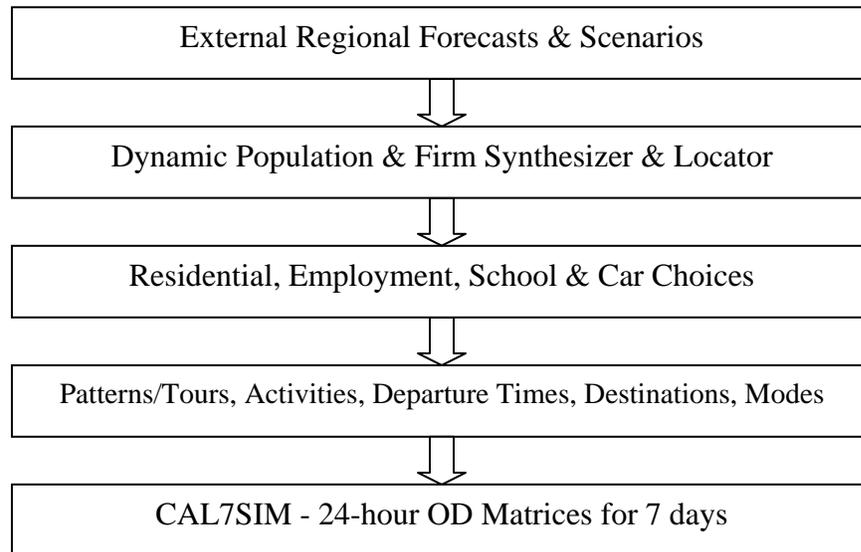


Figure 9 Schematic representation of the final activity-based model

Residential, Employment, School & Car Choices. Key ingredients of activity-based models (tour-based and synthetic schedule-based) are residential, work, and school location choices. There are different options for assigning preferred locations to each

household and each person within a household. It is convenient to develop primary and secondary activity locations using available data and create a synthetic population generation model that support this capability. Another key ingredient of the activity-based models are: car ownership and car type, car availability and car assignment within a household. All four variables are increasingly used in the four step models and in the activity-based approaches. This simulator needs to predict number of cars and car types for each household and allocate different cars to different persons of the household. It also needs to be sensitive to task allocation and changes within households. The remaining blocks are ingredients of the travel demand forecasting model system and they are described in a lot more detail later in this report. Following are the first three phases written as statements of scope of work for specific projects designed to meet the objectives of each phase. Duration and budget for each phase are also identified.

Phase 1: Design a new household survey for an activity-based model (NEWSURVEY)

Suggested Duration: 4 Years

Suggested Cost: \$2,700,000

Project Objective

SCAG periodically (every ten years) conducts one or more regional household travel surveys to obtain the detailed data needed for model development and simulation of its transportation systems. These travel forecasting models are then used to forecast future travel demand using a variety of social, economic, and supply-based forecasts. The most recent large scale regional household survey for the SCAG region was conducted post-2000 US Census. It provides a good basis for comparison and should be used as reference for this project. The data collected in this household activity and travel survey will be used to develop a newly formulated travel demand forecasting system. This project is envisioned as continuation of data collection that started with the post-census SCAG survey, subsequent refinement of the four-step models, and the creation of an integrated land use model. However, the survey in this RfP is designed to mainly support the development of a new activity-based model and to provide key data elements for a synthetic population and establishment software. Key differences with many existing surveys are: a) a satellite design to collect more in depth data at a reasonable expenditure, b) data collection that spans longer periods extending to one week for a portion of the sample; c) the incorporation of a panel component to capture additional behavioral dynamics; and d) a set of complementary survey components that provide data for more detailed behavioral models and verification and validation. The overall design aims at collecting in-depth data by minimizing cost.

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SCAG is soliciting proposals from qualified survey research firms and consultants to collect data on approximately 50,000 complete households employing the best available survey design methods. The conduct of all components of this survey will be first tested and refined through a full pilot test of the entire proposed methodology including data storage and preliminary data analysis. The main methodological objective is to enable the resulting database to cover the entire SCAG region and to obtain a database that is representative of the striking majority of distinct population groups residing within the SCAG region. Particular attention should focus on eliminating selectivity bias due to refusals and incompleteness. Another key element of the overall design is to develop a data collection method that can be used to continue this survey as a panel survey by selecting a small sample from the same sample frame that will be interviewed at regular intervals.

A committee of external to the project survey design and model development experts will be appointed to function as a peer review panel (named the *Reviewers* herein). They, in conjunction with SCAG staff will review all survey procedures and detailed protocols to provide quality control

Project Scope

Task 1: Identify and critique the state of the practice and state of the art in collecting data for activity-based models. Develop detailed guidelines to be used in this project with evidence from the literature and practice. Create a short training workshop for the SCAG staff on survey design and data analysis.

The Consultant shall conduct a literature review and strategic polling of other MPOs that collected data for activity-based models. In parallel, the Consultant shall conduct personal interviews with SCAG staff to identify other data needs that are not mentioned in this RfP. The review in this task will focus on data contents of activity-based models and related surveys, methods/modes used to collect the data, sample frames and sampling schemes, computation of power and precision of estimates, and representation of the population and segments that are difficult to reach. Attention will also be paid to

communication with a variety of ethnic groups and the issue of designing surveys in multiple languages.

At the conclusion of this task the Consultant shall provide a comprehensive report to SCAG and the Reviewers. Comments will then be collected and addressed in a final task report that addresses all concerns about survey quality and implementation.

Deliverables: Draft comprehensive report. Meeting with SCAG and Reviewers to discuss findings. Final Comprehensive Report. One week workshop on survey design, implementation, and data analysis.

Task 2: Design a Main Household Survey and a Two-Day Activity Diary. Create an implementation plan for both components.

The Consultant shall design the core survey in this task. The overall design for this survey is presented in Figure 10. At the very center of the figure is a household survey that collects all the social and demographic information for every person in each household selected. Data from approximately 50,000 households will be obtained and delivered to SCAG. The households will be interviewed to obtain detailed information on the socio-economic characteristics and a two-consecutive day activity participation and travel behavior of all persons residing in these households. This sample of households can be stratified by county to ensure sufficient segments of the population for model estimation. The Consultant shall develop a strategy for minimum number of households for locations within each county considering that one major component in this model development is a destination choice model.



Figure 10 The Data Collection Overall Scheme

The data elements required are household composition information, person characteristics (age, gender, education, employment, drivers license, marital status), and vehicle data. The base two-day activity-travel diary shall include a complete record of each person's daily schedules including all activities engaged and all trips made, locations visited, with whom each activity and trip were made and activities carried out at home and at other places. This diary will be for a pre-specified pair of days for all persons in the household and will spread over a 12-month period with a uniform distribution of interviews

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throughout the survey period. Any data elements identified in task 1 and not listed here shall also be included in this task. At a minimum the survey will produce the following data elements.

Household Data*	Person Data*
Home Address Household Size Inventory of Household Members Household Combined Annual Income Number of Vehicles Number of Bicycles Housing Type Housing Tenure (Own/Rent) Year Moved into Current Residence Main Language Spoken at Home Re-Contact Information For each Vehicle Vehicle Data: Vehicle Type Vehicle Make Vehicle Model Vehicle Year Fuel Type Main User of Vehicle	Year of Birth (Age) Gender Race Ethnicity Drivers License Education/Schooling Years Employment Status Class of Worker (Private/Federal/State-Local/Self-Employed) Occupation Number of Paid Jobs Hours Worked Last Week at Each Job Flexible Working Hours Alternate Work Schedule Eligibility to Telecommute Frequency of Telecommuting
Activity Data*	Travel Data*
Location Starting Time Ending Time Primary Activity Type Secondary Activity Type With whom activity was done For whom activity was done	Origin Location Destination Location Starting Time Ending Time Trip Purpose Party Size With whom trip is made For whom trip is made Primary Tours & Secondary Tours Modes Transit Fare/Type of Fare/Discount Vehicle Occupancy Use of HOV Lanes Tolls Paid Parking Cost/Payer of Parking Cost All locations geocoded (northing, easting)

* NOTE: This is a partial list and requires modifications based on Task 1 findings

The Consultant shall develop a sampling plan that meets the above requirements and minimize sample coverage bias. The plan shall also include a clearly identified strategy to employ a multi-method data collection strategy that permits recruitment and survey completion using mail, telephone, the Internet (email and/or web based) and Person-to person contacts. The Consultant shall also create a plan to conduct the same survey in multiple languages and provide examples in this task.

All data definitions and data quality shall maintain the same high quality and comparability standards.

Task 3 Design the Eight Satellite Surveys. Develop an Implementation Plan and Coordination Plan for all Ten Components.

Each survey element of Figure 3 contains an add-on in depth survey that is designed to provide additional information about a smaller sample extracted from the sample used in the main household survey and two-day base activity diary. Each satellite aims at a set of individual objectives and distributes survey burden to a different group of participants from the main survey minimizing survey fatigue and costs.

One Week Activity and Travel Diary: Approximately 1000 households will be recruited to participate in an entire week diary. This will enable the creation of models that account for day-to-day variation in activity scheduling and travel. The Consultant shall define the timing of this component to maximize response rate, completion rate, and minimize any biases.

Toll Willingness to Pay Supplement: The Consultant will design a supplemental survey to identify attitudes and willingness to pay tolls on highways. The data in this component will be used to develop pricing strategy models.

GPS Survey for Destinations and Routes: The Consultant will design a GPS household member tracking component to develop a) a database to correlate destinations

to routes and identify a typology of different types of routes and stop making patterns; b) develop a route choice model; and c) estimate the level and nature of misreported trips by different modes of the main two-day activity diary.

Mode Supplement: The Consultant will design an add-on survey that collects information about detailed reasons for not using specific modes. The survey objective is to identify situational constraints, attitudes, and predispositions in favor or against modes such as walk and bike and public transportation. The data collected shall enable the creation of models to study policy actions that go beyond the time-cost-comfort analysis.

Residence, Workplace, and School Location Choice: The Consultant shall design an in-depth survey to identify the determinants for each of the residential, workplace, and school choices. Both primary locations and secondary locations shall be examined in more detail than typical household surveys and data collected to estimate choice models for each facet. Questions should also be created to identify determinants of change for each location examining behavior retrospectively and prospectively. Particular emphasis should be given to policy controlled determinants. The Consultant in this task will also develop a set of suggested changes, enhancements, and additions that are supported by the findings in Task 1. These changes will be examined and critiqued by the peer review panel and the project manager.

In Depth Car ownership Change and Car Assignment : The Consultant shall design an in-depth survey to identify the determinants for each of the car ownership, car type (e.g., new/used, model, make, and fuel type), and car assignment. In the car assignment data collection both the primary and secondary drivers shall be identified. Questions should also be created to identify determinants of change in car ownership, type, and assignment of cars to household members. Particular emphasis should be given to policy controlled determinants (e.g., taxation, incentives). The Consultant in this task will also develop a set of suggested changes, enhancements, and additions that are supported by the findings in Task 1. These changes will be examined and critiqued by the peer review panel and the project manager.

Activity Satisfaction Survey: The Consultant will design a small scale survey following the day reconstruction method (DRM). There are two key objectives for this component: a) provide a benchmark for the diary instrument; and b) create an assessment of activities (including trips) and subjective experiences. This second objectives will enable estimation of choice models with latent variables and classes that are by far richer and more informative than their counterpart observed variable discrete choice models.

Destinations & Perceptions Survey: Destination choice in conventional models is treated as a naïve selection among comparable objects. From environmental psychology, however, we know that places have symbolic and other meanings that travel behavior models neglect. The Consultant will develop a survey component to identify how destinations are perceived and what role these perceptions play in their selection.

Panel of Households and Persons & 2 Day Activity: Repeated observation of the same people over time provides a unique source of information for understanding change in behavior and develop very accurate travel demand models. A 10,000 household panel sample will be followed in at least two occasions during this study and will be created in a way that can be repeated in the future after this project is over. The suggested spacing of the panel waves is 1 year. The first wave will coincide with the beginning period during which that main survey shall be conducted and the second wave with the ending of the main survey. Other suggestions and schemes will also be considered.

Deliverables: A draft design of all components and their coordination. After review and comments the Consultant will develop a final design and a plan for implementation.

Task 4. Develop the Sample Frame for the Survey and the Sample for Survey Pilot Test

The Consultant in this task will develop the survey sampling frame. The same sampling frame should be used for all survey components and for the pilot. The sample of

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selected households for the pilot must be of a sufficient size to yield 1000 completed household interviews. Complete household interview is considered the interview that contains all the two-day activity records for all the adults in the household and when children are present at least one child. In addition, for each of component in Task 3, 100 households need to have completed the entire instrument.

The Consultant shall clearly describe the data sources to be used in developing the overall sample frame and if any type of exogenous or endogenous stratification is used the detailed proposed procedure to make the end sample database representative of the SCAG population.

Deliverables: Survey Sample Frame, Complete Pilot Testing Sample of Households, and Statistical Methods designed to make the Sample Representative of the Population.

Task 5. Develop Survey Implementation Plan, Schedule of all Components, Materials for Survey Pilot Testing, and Software for Survey data Verification

The consultant in this task will develop the multi-method data collection strategy to be used in the conduct of all the survey components and prepare all the survey materials including the software required to verify data quality. The suggested approach for data verification is the use of automated procedures of the type found in SYLVIA and CHIRAC. In addition, overall consistency and quality should be maintained for all the activity and travel data items.

It is also important to identify the languages to be used in this survey with particular attention paid to specific items such as an activity, trip, family members and so forth. The Consultant will need to identify solutions to all these issues at the proposal stage of this RfP. The review panel will examine and provide comments for all the material submitted. The consultant shall make appropriate modifications and finalize accordingly.

Deliverable: Survey implementation Plan and all the Survey Materials

Task 6. Conduct Survey Pilot-Test and Evaluation

The Consultant using the approved procedures and materials will conduct a full pilot test of all aspects of the survey including recruitment, follow-up, data entry, data rectification/verification, and preliminary analysis. This pilot test shall produce 1000 complete household surveys (including the two-day activity diary) and 100 surveys for each of the add-on components.

Specific aspects requiring testing are: Data contents and their completion rates, interviewer selection and training procedures, handling of different language speaking households, number and types of recontacts to achieve response and survey completion, handling of proxy interviews for children or other adults in the household, methods for data verification-editing-validation-augmentation, methods for missing surveys-missing components and missing data items, methods for using the add-on data as validating tools.

The consultant will also provide to SCAG all the databases simulating a full survey including: a) all final databases with and without data rectification; b) rectification software with a manual for modifications, c) the file descriptions and other documentation for all data files, and d) an extensive report identifying all procedures, issues, and solutions as well as major findings in the pilot test.

A separate report will [provide a summary of lessons learned and suggestions for methods, material and procedures that are recommended for the full fledged survey.

Deliverables: All the database, software, and findings reports.

Task 7. Refine Methods, Materials and Procedures for the Survey and Implement the Survey

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The Consultant shall collect comments from the review committee and SCAG revise all the material accordingly and implement the survey and all its components. In this task the Consultant shall: a) select the sample of households for the entire survey, b) interview all the households and their members, c) verify, edit, geocode, and validate all data items (household, person, vehicle, activity, and travel data collected; d) do the same for all the add-on components; e) assemble all the data into a linked database. As mentioned earlier the target number of completed household interviews is 50,000.

Deliverables: Conduct of the Entire Survey and its Components, Weekly Progress Reports and Delivery of All Data Files

Task 8. Prepare Final Survey Report and Data Files

SCAG and the review committee will analyze the data provided and make recommendations about final survey data editing and reporting. The Consultant within 2 months will finalize all items and provide a final report, all the databases, and software used to collect data and to rectify files.

Deliverable: Final Survey Report(s), Data Files and Documentation, Final Software for data rectification and augmentation.

Phase 2: Geosynthesis

Suggested Duration: 5 Years

Suggested Cost: \$750,000 (50% is internal to SCAG costs)

Project Objective

All activity-based approaches are at the individual and household levels. They are also moving toward point by point destination choice. For this reason the population of a region is synthetically generated before model application. Synthetic population generation means each individual and household within which the individual lives are created in software in a way that closely matches external data. When the data are available at specific geographic areas (blocks, block groups, tracts), synthetic persons and households are created for that area. Then, a spatial allocation procedure is used to position each household at a specific parcel of land or a point (defined by a building or a pair of XY coordinate values). The end result are millions of persons geo-located in the study area. A similar procedure can be devised for each firm (establishment). In fact, one of the tasks before using detailed land use simulation models is to synthetically classify each parcel of land and/or cell (of a grid covering the study area) into a finite set of land uses. Since procedures like this use small size of the geographic area each cell represents a firm (establishment of a company). The combination of household and firm synthetic generation is named *Geosynthesis* herein. Note that the word synthesis also implies a probabilistic generation of an entity.

Figure 1 shows a typical population synthesizer in terms of its procedure followed in practice. The process starts with a correlation matrix of relationships among key variables of the population we want to create such as age, education, employment and so forth. These relationships in many synthetic population generators are derived from microdata (Census PUMS 5% sample). Then, these relationships are used to draw persons and households that reside in each small area (block, block group, or tract) while

at the same time we attempt to match the characteristics of that area assuming those are the correct population characteristics. In essence, all this is done because the US Census (as many other National survey agencies) does not provide its raw data to protect confidentiality of the residents. For this reason, we are "second guessing" the characteristics of the population residing in each census subdivision. Then, using all these virtual persons we apply the activity and travel disaggregate models and predict behavior in each subdivision. In moving to one or more years ahead and before repeating this process again, we can insert a dynamic demographic microsimulation step that will make every person and household and evolve them by predicting a variety of life changing events. This gives us a unique advantage that we can develop disaggregate data in between Census years and/or in between releases of Census data at the individual, household, and firm levels.

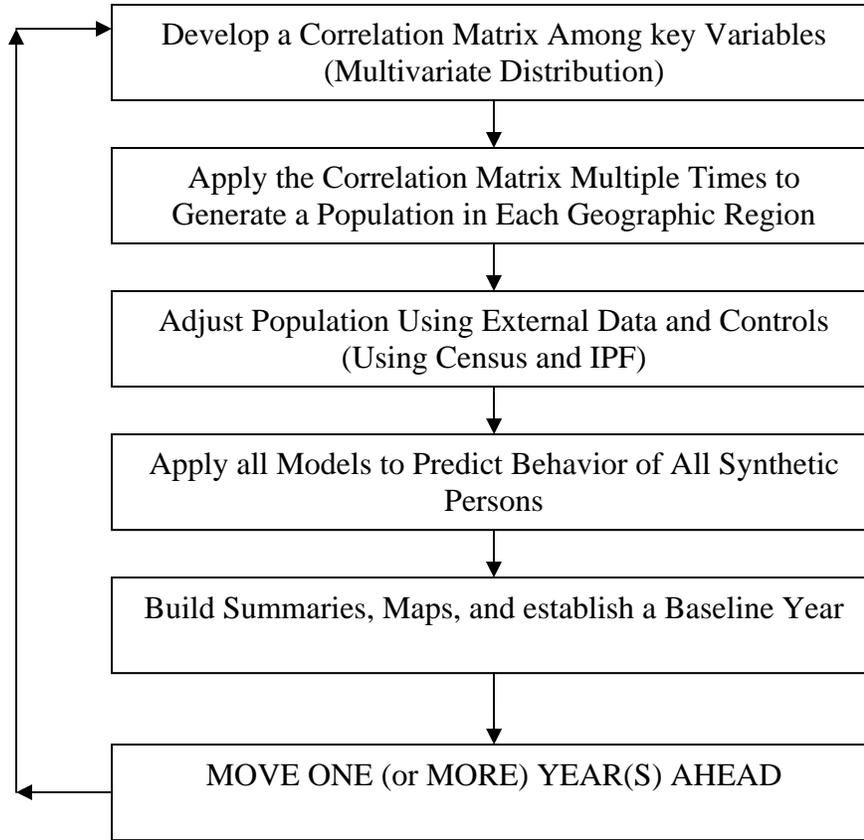


Figure 11 Schematic of synthetic population generation

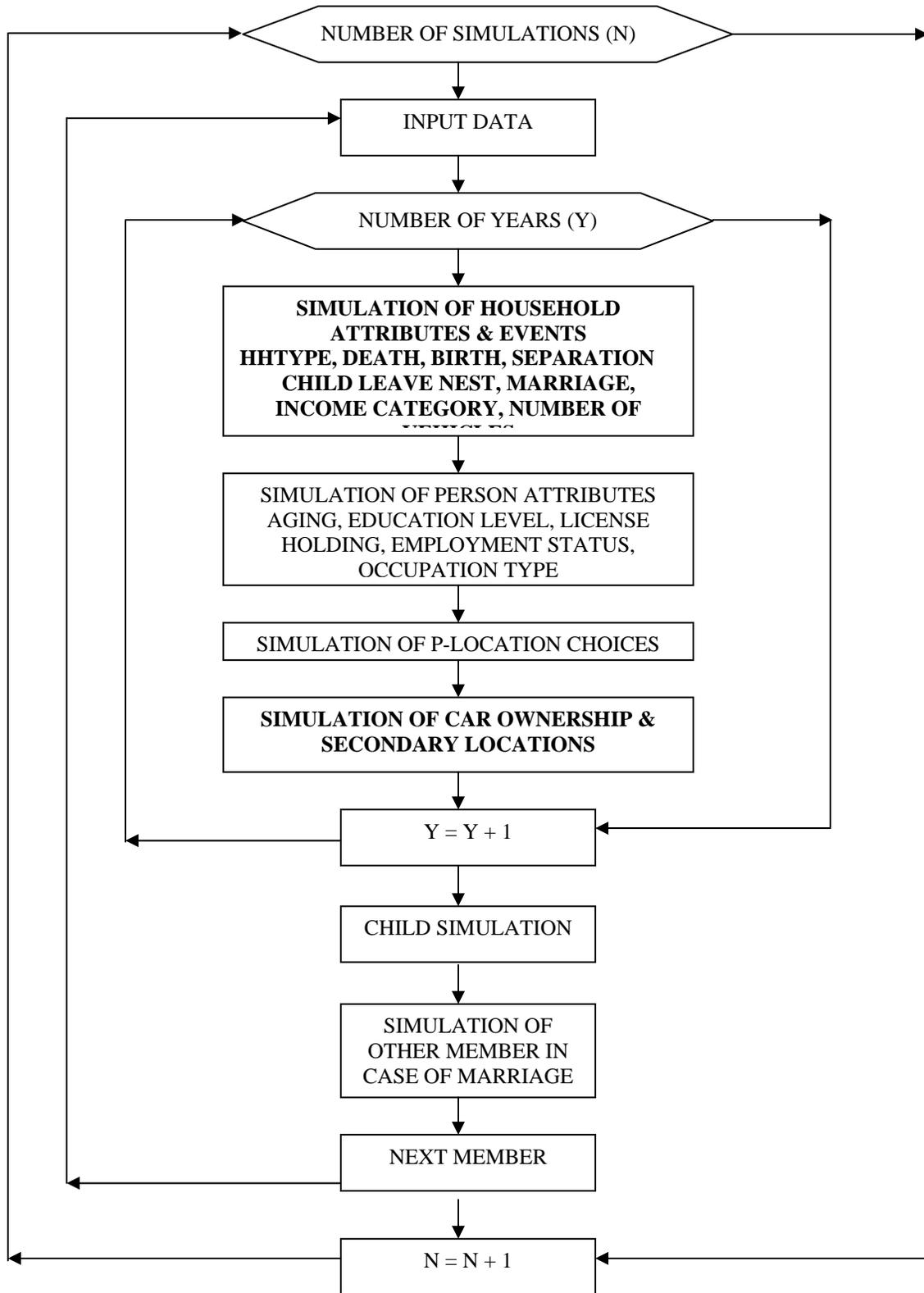


Figure 12 Flow Chart of Simulation (Modified from DEMOS 2000)

Dynamic Population Synthesizer and Locator

Available population synthesizers in applications of activity-based approaches are static (developed for one year to coincide with the Census years 1980, 1990, 2000). Progression through time does not account for evolution of the population at the individual level as depicted in Figure 2. It also does not account for residential developments. In addition, workplace supply (employment by industry) is assumed to be given externally by some sort of hypothesized land use microsimulation model (in Sacramento it is PECAS and input from PLACE³S for land use scenario building). The envisioned population synthesis for SCAG needs to provide year-by-year transitions that meet the spatial and demographic control totals from available external data (ES 202, Department of Finance and other data sources) and to mimic the population evolution in the region. The synthesizer needs to also be compatible and consistent with any land use (urban, exurban, and rural) simulation model outputs. The tasks below identify model components needed and defines a few guidelines for the SCAG Geosynthesis project. The consultant shall refine the task description to match the most recent developments in this field and the proposed approach.

Task 1 Training: In this task the consultant will provide a series of workshops to explain methods used to develop Geosynthesis models and the data used by the most important methods.

Deliverables: Training material and workshops at SCAG.

Task 2 Data Assembly: In this task the SCAG staff will assemble all databases that can potentially provide useful information at different geography levels such as the PUMA, Tract, Census Blockgroups, and Block information and will develop a hierarchy of control totals in the synthetic resident population generation. In parallel, all businesses in the region will be identified using public and commercially available data, will be compared, verified, and cleaned for subsequent use. In addition, all the additional databases shall be examined and their role and relative accuracy and contents identified.

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In parallel SCAG staff will procure parcel by parcel databases and develop a procedure to update this database at regular (half year intervals). The parcel by parcel database(s) at the end of this task should identify residences and firms (establishments) on each parcel at different time periods.

Deliverable: A task report identifying all databases examined and their assessment about accuracy. A method and agreements with other agencies and companies to update the data regularly. The first two years of data.

Task 3 Base Correlation (Multivariate Distribution): In this task the Consultant will develop the base information required to create the household Geosynthesis. It is expected that PUMS 5% properly weighted will be the main source. Other databases may be used to complement PUMS and the consultant shall experiment with other databases to identify segments of substantive difference in correlations. Then, the consultant shall ensure the proposed distribution(s) represents the population in the geographic subdivision of residence.

Deliverable: A task report showing the analysis and the recommended solution.

Task 4: Develop the base procedures and create the software: In this task the consultant shall develop a procedure that reproduces both household and person characteristics. This will be done separately for families, non-families, and group quarters residents. The consultant shall geolocate all generated (synthesized) persons and households in two different but mutually consistent geographical scales: a) the parcel and/or grid cell (presumably using a second allocation tool), and b) the TAZ level used by the most recent SCAG four-step model to compare with the input data used in that model. All these procedures will then be embedded in a software and delivered to SCAG staff that will use, evaluate, and provide comments for refinement. The same process will be developed for all business locations. At the end of this task the consultant will provide training to SCAG staff using the software.

Deliverable: A task report with all the methods and data used as well as the software and training sessions.

Task 5: Dynamic stochastic simulation. In this task the consultant shall develop probability models of persons and household transitions (as in Figure 2) and use them to forecast first individual and then population changes. This should be done by starting in 1980 to 1990 and then 2000 and verify replication of the population evolution. Then, the models will be applied to 1990 and validated by backcasting to 1980 and forecasting to 2000. After modifications a final set of model will be used for the default Geosynthesis evolution.

Deliverable: A task report with all the methods and data used as well as the software and training sessions.

Task 6: ACS data experimentation. The American Community Survey (ACS) may offer new potential in developing Geosynthesis models. It is unknown at this time the spatial resolution of the regular ACS products but at a minimum the effort here need to monitor for ACS data availability for verification/validation of many model components. The consultant using ACS data will perform a series of modeling experiments and report the results and suggestions for inclusion in the overall project.

Deliverable: A task report with all the methods and data used as well as (and if applicable) the software and training sessions.

Task 7: Geosynthesis validation: From the limited experience with synthetic population generation guidelines emerge about the right process to validate synthesizers and these include: a) control totals should be used at all geographic levels available and at the person and household levels; b) a comparison should be made to demonstrate reproduction of variables not used in the IPF or other matching algorithm; c) after population synthesis a comparison of the multivariate distribution with the weighted

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PUMS 5% distribution should be made; d) trace/track the impact of all adjustment and rounding procedures; e) compare with bivariate distributions of the variables used in the synthesizer and external; f) if external variables are substantially incorrectly synthesized - repeat the exercise and make them internal. Additional criteria should also be defined by the consultant in this task.

Deliverable: A task report with all the methods and data used as well as results and final version of the Geosynthesis software.

The following items are identified here to provide guidance in proposal preparation. The Geosynthesis software will generate

1. For each household home location, primary and secondary work locations for the employed, primary and secondary locations for the students, and activity space (maximum area within which activities take place) of individuals and their households.
2. For each household car ownership levels, type(s) of vehicles, and assign primary and secondary owner/driver to each vehicle (this is an overlap with the Pilot A).
3. A complete activity opportunity spatial distribution that is based on the business synthetic generation (business in this case includes public agencies and other services) and should be at fine spatial resolution (parcels and a grid of 30m by 30m). Other resolutions will be considered and the consultant should explain the reasoning behind each scale.
4. It is possible that dynamic microsimulation of firms cannot be done within the time and budget of this project. The Consultant will identify alternate methods, seek approval by SCAG, and implement them.
5. Develop an interface with any land use model SCAG develops.

Task 8: Interfaces with other models. The consultant shall create interfaces with other software used by SCAG. Most important are interfaces with the current four steps model, the envisioned land use model, and the envisioned activity based model. A minimum

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this interface will also allow to develop scenarios of change in residences and business locations.

Deliverable: A task report with all the methods and data used as well as results and final version of the interface with the Geosynththesis software and training to SCAG staff to use the software.

Phase 3: Design and Implement a Pilot Activity-based Model for the SCAG region (PILOT)

Suggested Duration: 4 Years

Suggested Cost: \$800,000 (50% is internal to SCAG costs)

Introduction and Background

This pilot activity-based model is intended as a random utility model system (or any suitable substitute based on more advanced decision making models) and as an incremental improvement over the most recent models developed for Sacramento and Denver, which are also incremental improvements over Portland Metro, San Francisco SFCTA, New York NYMTC, Columbus MORPC, and Atlanta ARC. They are also the two models that reach at lower levels of spatial resolution offering many desirable features. They are missing, however, a few feasible features that are added to completeness in this model. Model development also assumes the creation and availability of a population synthesizer that produces geolocated households and persons that will become the input to the model system. Geolocated population synthesis is described as a separate model system in this report. We name this GEOSYNTHESIS and it is outlined in a separate section named Phase 2. It should be noted that individual model specifications, including any feedback/input from among different model components, are heavily dependent on data availability and the presence of observed choice combinations that allow the estimation of models. For this reason the end performance is emphasized here instead of providing prescribed specifications of all the model formulations. This allows the designers of the new SCAG model additional flexibility in developing new model structures, testing of alternate model specifications, and tailoring of the model system to the SCAG surveys, external data available, and other models such as the recent four step enhancements.

The latest models developed for MPOs use microsimulation of persons and their households. They also contain a hierarchy of choices from the longer term (residence, work, school) to the day-pattern level (stay home vs travel), to the tour level, and then to the trip level. These models use different types of Logit models (multinomial and nested) to account for conditional dependencies and they also use network accessibility and land use characteristics as feedbacks. The preferred tool to account for mutual interdependency among choices is the use of an assumed (and theoretically testable) hierarchy and feedback in the form of Logit logsums. In this way and within the limitations of the Logit formulation, the activity and travel models are consistent from one level to the next. To do this all variables are converted and treated as discrete. Time is also treated as discrete. A variety of methods are also used to minimize issues related to the curse of dimensionality (too many behavioral facets and too many options).

It should also be noted that all applications of this type "jump" from the longer term (years) to the very short-term (a presumably typical weekday). Therefore, residence, work and school location choices are only sensitive to the computed network level of service from just one day. This leaves out of consideration yearly, monthly, and weekly fluctuations of level of service, weekend activity and travel patterns and their interdependency with weekdays as well as their positioning within longer time frames, and knowledge and information about level of service among other facets. The improvements below do not account for all these limitations but aim at increasing realism of these models while taking advantage of the SCAG data. Using as reference the two models SacSim and DaySim in Sacramento and the Denver (DRCOG) model (see Table 4.1) the required SCAG model aspects are listed below.

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Table Phase 3.1 The Sacramento and Denver model components**

SACRAMENTO	DENVER
Residence (from synthesizer), Regular Workplace Location, Regular School Location, Car Ownership	Residence, Regular Workplace Location, School Location, Car Ownership
Person-day pattern (number of tours and main purpose of each tour, and additional stops for each purpose)	Person-day pattern (number of tours and main purpose of each tour, and additional stops for each purpose)
Tour models (primary destination, main mode, arrival and departure time for each tour, and the number and purpose of intermediate stops)	Tour models (primary destination, main mode, arrival and departure time for each tour, and the number and purpose of intermediate stops)
Trip models (location of intermediate stops, mode used, and departure time)*	Trip models (location of intermediate stops, mode used, and departure time)*
The output are trip by mode and they are merged with the following	
OUTSIDE THE ACTIVITY MODEL (used by the overall travel demand forecasting system)	
External trips	External trips
Internal trips to special generators (airport)	Internal trips to special generators (airport, casinos, mountain recreation)
Commercial vehicle trips	Commercial vehicle trips
OD Matrices Through Merging of All Movements	
Network assignment	Highway assignment & Transit assignment
Compute Network Performance and Develop Feedback Indicators	

* The presentation of these models differ in the identification of subtours and the workbased subtour generation.

** Based on two papers presented at the WCTR conference in Berkeley, June 2007

SCAG Pilot Model Requirements

1. **Internal validation.** Before estimation of any model components the SCAG survey (weekday and weekends and possibly the other components) should be divided into two samples: the estimation sample (named *training* herein) and the validation sample (named *testing* herein). After models are estimated at each level of the hierarchy, comparisons need to be made with the training sample and modifications introduced as usual practice in model development. Then, the models should be applied to the testing sample. Any lack of reproducing the testing sample should be reported and explained. Typical variables to compare are number of tours by tour purpose, time allocated to activities and travel, number of activities by type and number of trips by mode. This comparison should be done for a variety of population segments including but not limited to workers, students, and non-workers as well as different types of households (single persons, couples, couples with kids). Re-estimation using merged data from both samples can be then used to produce a final set of models for the next step (merging of data may become obsolete if the estimated models reproduce the testing sample closely). This increases the number of observations and improves the precision of estimates and the credibility of the model system.
2. **External validation.** After estimation of all model components with merged data comparisons should be made with the four step model predictions and with external data (data not used in model estimation). The predictions to be compared and validated are trips by mode by each demographic segment, overall modal split proportions, public transportation modal split, trip lengths by different trip types, volumes on the network by highway class, speeds on the network by highway class, congestion points.
3. **Primary and secondary anchor points** (Home location – work location – school location). These location choices need to be at the address level (home location is produced by some synthetic population generators or included in the long term model component). This recommendation extends the longer term models developed in other applications to include secondary anchor points (locations). In

this way a more complete spatial distribution of the most important locations are incorporated in the model system. The distances among these locations also define many of the available windows in scheduling activities. In addition, the location-specific accessibilities capture in a more complete way the spatial opportunities for activities and travel mapping in a more complete way the action space within which individuals move. Tests should be developed to examine the correlation between one person's anchor points in the household with another person's anchor points. This can be as simple as the inclusion of one workers accessibilities as explanatory variables into another person's choices or as complex as building systems of simultaneous equations among all persons in a household.

4. **Car ownership-type-assignment.** A model of the number of cars owned by each household is included in the two models used as reference here. However, car type and car fuel type are not included and they are important variables to predict for energy policies. In addition, a model of car assignment among the household persons and identification of primary and secondary drivers can provide valuable explanatory variables for day pattern and tour pattern formation as well as destination choices. These potentially important aspects should be modeled accordingly and tested for their significance.
5. **Day-of-the-week.** SCAG data collection for weekends and the pairs of days Friday/Saturday and Sunday/Monday offer an opportunity to create two-day activity travel patterns for additional days and to also separate traffic assignments for these days (presumably it can be done day by day for a full week). This is a key ingredient in dynamic traffic assignment as discussed below. Then, day-specific level of service variables can be used to influence the longer term choices at the higher levels. In this way, a more realistic feedback to longer term choices can be derived. For example, car ownership (called car availability in SacSim) as well as car types can be a function of accessibilities and level of service during weekdays and weekends. Calendar day of the week, however, may not be sufficient because many persons take vacation days during the work week and work during the weekends. A distinction needs to be made between vacation day,

working day, and school day. Then, different models can be estimated and tested to identify working days from non-working days.

6. **Day activity patterns (DAP).** Many models start the daily schedule simulation at this point by predicting a "general" template of the most important elements of a "skeleton" schedule. The criteria variables used to come up with a few DAPs representing the diversity of patterns in the population depend on the model specification that follows in the hierarchy. Some of these patterns are defined and imposed on the model structure by the designers (most of the tour based models). In many other applications, mostly by academics, they are derived from the data using some form of cluster analysis allowing more flexibility in deriving homogenous patterns. In this model effort DAPs should be defined and derived using information for the day of the week analysis in item 5 above. Then, whenever similarities are found among the days of the week DAPs can be grouped into typical days and all models that are lower in the hierarchy can be made conditional on the day of the week specific pattern. To the extent allowed by the SCAG survey data, day-to-day influences and variation need to be accounted for in deriving DAPs. The mutual correlation among each person's DAP from the same household should also be accounted for to maintain within household consistency of activities and travel. An allocation procedure needs to be also designed to account for different roles within a household and correlate this to lifecycle stages. Particular attention should be given to joint activities and travel and the allocation of activity-roles such as worker, school child, home duties and so forth to reflect life cycle stage of each person.
7. **Daily patterns and land use.** DAPs and subsequent behavioral models need to be sensitive and tested for significant relationships with land use and land development. In California and within the context of smart growth the 4Ds are key indicators to consider (Density – population and employment per square mile, Diversity – the ratio of jobs to population, Design – pedestrian environment variables including street grid density, sidewalk completeness and route directness, Destinations – accessibility to other activity concentrations expressed as the mean travel time to all other destinations in the region). Distance for major

- railways and distance from major employment and retail centers are also key location characteristics. A list of accessibility and land use indicators should be first identified (e.g., the indicators used in the software PLACE³S) and examined for possible inclusion in the DAP choice explanatory variables.
8. **Within DAP Activities.** Using the SCAG survey data, the usual primary out-of-home activity purposes could be expanded beyond the work, school, shopping, meals, personal business, recreation, and escort. In addition, at-home activities can also be classified into before the morning departure, within a day's schedule, and after the evening return to home. This allows to incorporate substitution of at-home activities with out of home activities as a function of policies (e.g., eat meal at home when close to work versus eat meal at a location close to a workplace). It is unknown at this time if the SCAG survey allows the study of at-home activities in detail. A preliminary data analysis of the variables mentioned above will aid in identifying the most appropriate way of handling this model component.
 9. **Within DAP Tours.** Primary tours made by different persons within the same household should be correlated and made mutually dependent. The possibilities of formal structures for this dependency can vary considerably and should be defined as a function of the DAPs in a way that they are consistent with each person-based DAP, consistent among the persons of the same household and their respective roles, consistent with any joint trip making among these persons, and consistent with car allocation/assignment outcomes in point 4 above.
 10. **Within DAP More Detailed Aspects.** Current state of the practice models contain features that are very attractive and they are: a) Stop frequencies and activities at stops at the day pattern and tour; b) Modes and destinations recognizing their mutual influence; c) Departure time for trips (start and end of activities) that can be made consistent through the DAP; d) Tour time of day choice and consistency among the time of day choices; e) Time periods that could go down to the minute-by-minute basis; f) Time windows to account for scheduling with the possibility of linking time windows of one person with the availability of time windows for another person.

11. **Route choice.** A unique opportunity is offered by the SCAG data in this project to develop a route choice model to replace traffic assignment for passenger travel demand forecasting. The SCAG survey contains xy coordinates of destinations and a subsample of GPS data. Models of route choice (for individual vehicles) can be thus developed and tested with GPS data. In addition, the GPS data can be used not only to validate route choice models but to also supplement them with specific links of the network/path choice data, and to identify choice sets for specific OD pairs. Although there are very few models in the literature that are able to do this, developing a route choice model is not a trivial task and will require a variety of formulation experiments. In addition, replacing the heavily equilibrium based static assignment requires a culture change among practitioners that are still making assumptions about the existence of equilibrium. In fact, commuters in LA may be switching among routes very often (research showed that from the early 1990s) contributing in a substantial way to the dynamic nature of traffic in Southern California. For this reason alone it is of paramount importance to move toward models of behavioral dynamics. These route choice models should be consistent and possibly through feedback linked to destination choices, as well as with stop and tour formation models. Output for the route choice model can be converted into a typical OD for a static assignment model as is done in the Sacramento and Denver models. This will enable comparisons among different models and an interim solution to the DTA below.
12. **Dynamic Traffic Assignment.** An activity-based model offers yet another unique opportunity to move away from approximately static equilibrium assumptions in traffic assignment. Availability of algorithms and software for dynamic traffic assignment (DTA) are also increasing. In fact, DTA is heavily supported by the FHWA and it is a vehicle to link longer term demand forecasting with shorter term operations and management projects. Unfortunately, none of the state of the practice activity-based models used dynamic traffic assignment (DTA) yet. Presumably this is mainly due to lack of knowledge with this type of models but as most developers of DTAs claim it may also be due to lack of predicting hourly OD matrices. Activity-based approaches eliminate one of the

barriers and for this reason DTA can be tested for its effectiveness in this project. The specific software selected to do this depends on a variety of factors. Potential candidates are: VISTA, Dynasmart, DynaMIT, Integration, AIMSUN, DYNAMEQ, TRANSIMS, and CONTRAM. Combining 11 with 12 is also highly desirable and it may be done with some of the DTA software.

Project Objectives

The dual purpose of this phase/project is to train SCAG staff in developing activity-based models for travel demand forecasting. The intent is to first create a duplicate travel demand forecasting model and compare it for the more traditional four-step and then to replace the four-step model. This requires extensive training and education as well as new data and software. This phase 3 of the overall new model development effort include the training of SCAG staff in model formulation, selection, estimation, coding into simulation software and development of all the procedures needed to produce forecasts. At the end of this project SCAG staff shall complete all model estimation tasks, and development of application software as well as model validation and inclusion in the suite of models used for travel demand forecasting.

Task 1. Develop Model Objectives and Specification. The consultant in this task will complete the model review prepared for SCAG and identify the five most suitable examples to guide SCAGs model development. The design should be based on the data collected in the new SCAG activity-based survey and any other sources of data available at the time the RfP is issued. The consultant shall organize a workshop and invite a selection or other model developers to identify the most important model objectives and key specification facets that are required to meet the objectives. In a subsequent workshop the consultant will develop a proposed model system that is feasible within the data availability and that meets the requirements. A second workshop with the same invitees as in the first workshop examine the final model specifications. After this second workshop the consultant shall develop the remaining project tasks and timeline.

Deliverable: Update of the model review, workshop 1 to gather input, first version of Pilot model, workshop 2 to gather input, final version of model and plan for Task 2.

Task 2. Activity-Based Travel Demand Model Specification & Estimation. The Consultant shall prepare a comprehensive and detailed report of the overall design of the approved activity-based model. The design will identify all possible options that meet the requirements defined in task 1, the model components, data needed, skills and knowledge required to estimate these models, and hardware and software requirements. The travel demand model system specification should describe all model details. In addition training material will be developed with simple model examples and a short course will be prepared and the short course will be conducted at SCAG identifying specific knowledge modules required to enable SCAG staff to estimate these models without the need for outside help. After this the consultant shall estimate the final models and deliver a second short course. The entire model system will then be delivered to SCAG and SCAG staff will commence a period of experimentation and on as needed training. Monitoring of progress will be performed by the review panel. At the completion of this period the SCAG staff will be expected to run all model components and create travel demand forecasting scenarios that address all the policies identified in Task 1. It is also possible that other experts will be needed for software training. The consultant shall create a contingency plan to accommodate these needs (in terms of time and budget).

Deliverable: Technical reports with all model components, training material, and short courses.

Task 3. Final PILOT Travel Demand Forecasting. SCAG staff shall develop the final version of the new travel demand forecasting model. In parallel, using the same input data SCAG staff will also estimate the four-step equivalent and compare the two in terms of policies addressed and capabilities.

Deliverable: A final activity-based model. A comparable four-step model and a comparison between the two. A report summarizing the specifications and comparison findings.

Task 4: Findings and Design Specifications. The Consultant with SCAG staff shall review all model results and compare them with other findings in the literature and practice by other MPOs. The consultant shall organize a workshop with invited experts and present all findings collecting comments and suggestions for next steps.

Deliverable: A task report with findings and a detailed specification of model requirements to be used in subsequent RfPs for phases 4 (INTERFACE), 5 (VALIDATION), and 6 (CAL7SIM).

Closing Remarks

In this section a variety of comments are included that did not fit in any of the other sections of this report and that are important enough to be included in this final project report.

Survey data analysis. In most data collection activities the bulk of effort goes to the data collection itself. Unfortunately this leaves very little time and budget for data analysis. In parallel, to data collection and the databases are prepared it would be desirable to have another consultant audit specific portions of the survey components and perform data analysis aiming at improving the data collection and identifying any issues that need to be corrected using statistical or other methods. It is also desirable for SCAG staff to perform many of these analytical tasks in parallel to the data collection efforts and immediately after the survey components are complete. In this way many components of the survey can be used in a variety of other projects.

Phases 4, 5, and 6. The scope of work for Phases 4, 5, and 6 are heavily contingent upon the findings and work performed under phases 1, 2, and 3. For this reason we cannot identify the detailed tasks until after the initial tasks of the first three phases are complete. However, for phase 6 many requirements used in Phase 3 are still valid and should be used. For phase 5 a panel of experts should be appointed to identify validation methods that on one hand satisfy rules of best practice and on the other are tailored to specific project development goals such as new starts. Phase 4 should follow some of the same tasks defined for the four-step model development but written in a way that creates interfaces for the activity-based models.

Other Training. In this project we identified many training opportunities for SCAG staff. In addition to the training and workshops mentioned in different model development phases, SCAG can benefit tremendously by regular provision of training opportunities of new methods and workshops by model developers in other contexts. As new models are created, training is needed to explain the models in a more detailed and hands-on fashion preparing planning staff in the use of these models and to also start

developing their own ideas about models. Some of the key topics that need to be covered in this training are: estimation of discrete choice models, flexible data analysis in econometrics, statistics, and soft computing, spatial data analysis, and GIS mapping techniques.

Facilities (Hardware and software). A cluster of computers is expected to be the major need for this type of models. This is required for faster population generation, synthetic schedule generation, and traffic assignment. The software that is always needed in this type of analysis is a suite of statistical software that can handle more sophisticated econometric models, GIS software, data handling software from complex surveys, and the typical transportation simulation software. Each of the phases above may require different software and it is best to request each proposal to specify hardware and software needed.

Oversight Committee. SCAG staff and the region will benefit tremendously by appointing an overall *Model Improvement Standing Committee* that can help SCAG proceed with these models development phases. This proposed standing committee can also provide ongoing input to all the other model development tasks with the objective to coordinate among the many projects and reach economies of scale avoiding data collection and data analysis duplication. This committee should also be involved in consultant selection (in an advisory role).

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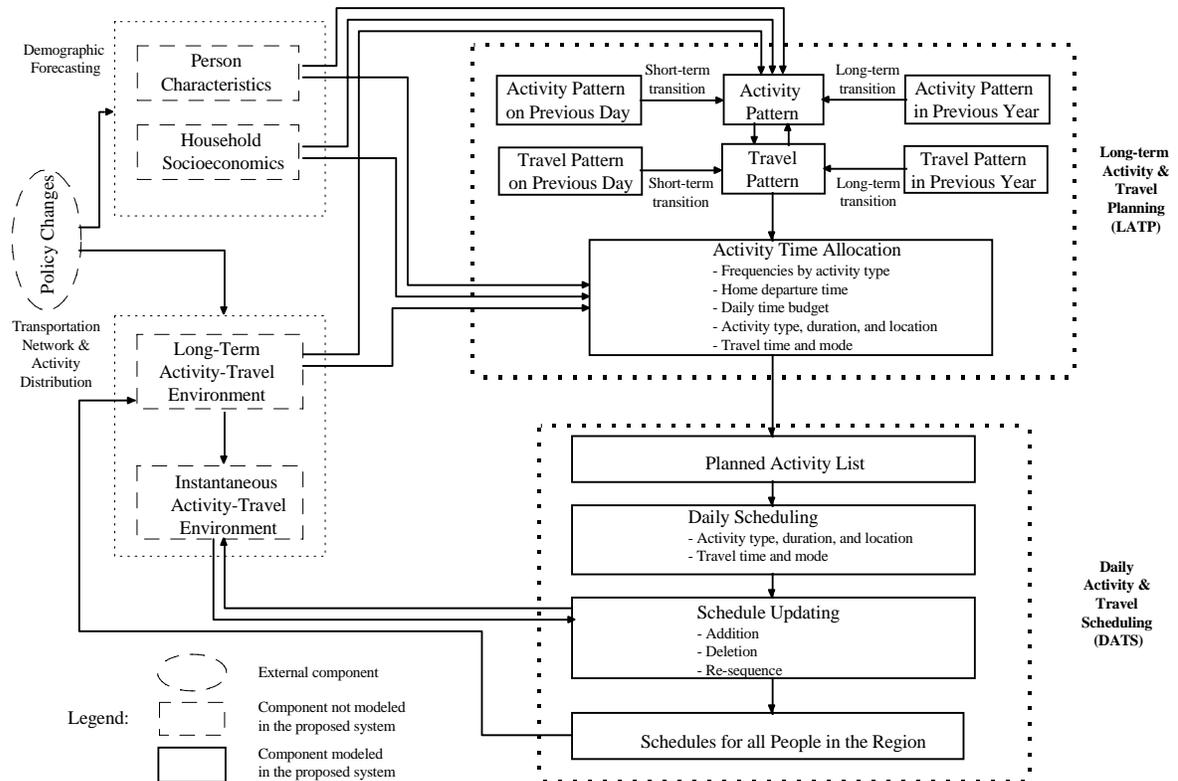
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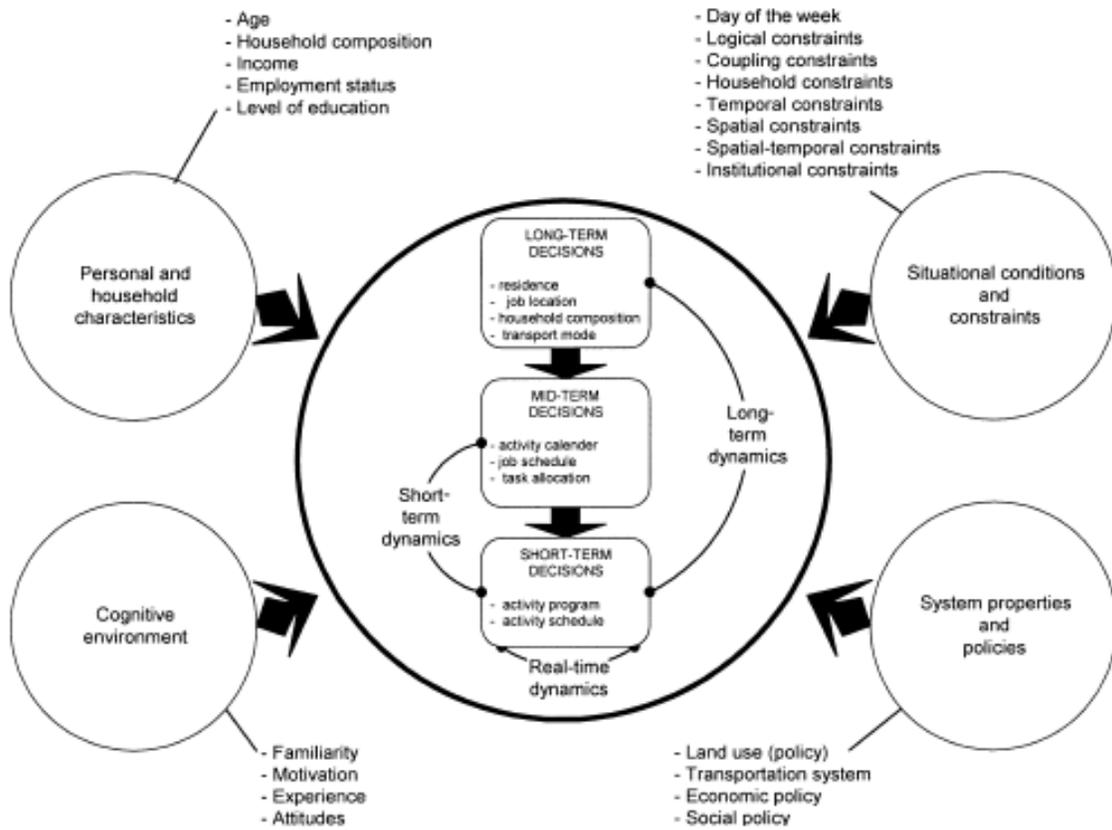
APPENDIX A: Flowcharts of Selected Models

LATP/DATS Model



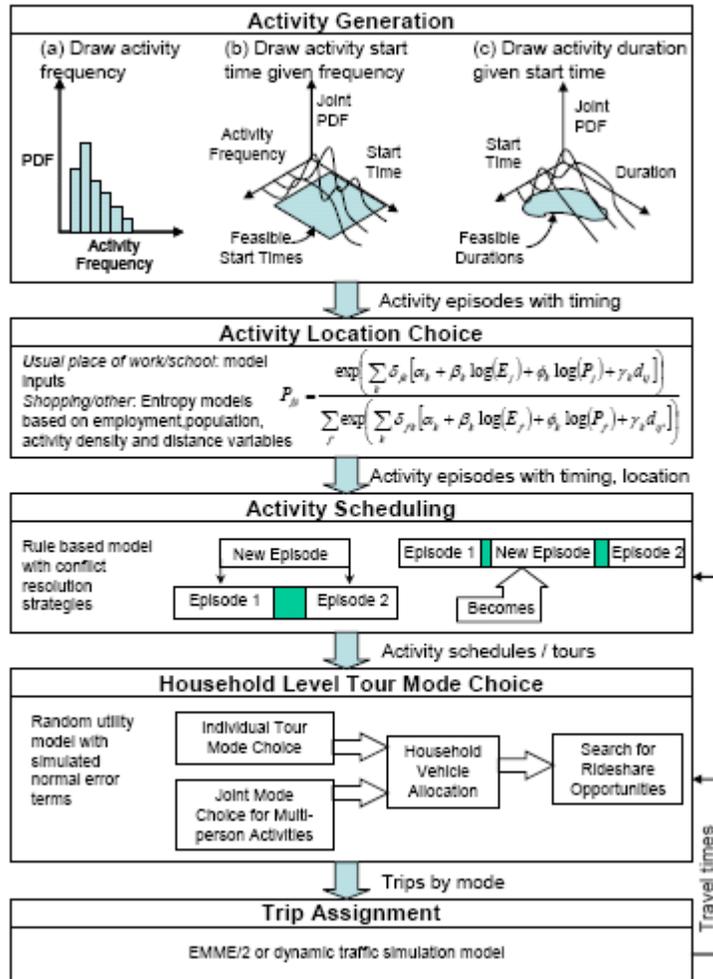
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ALBATROSS



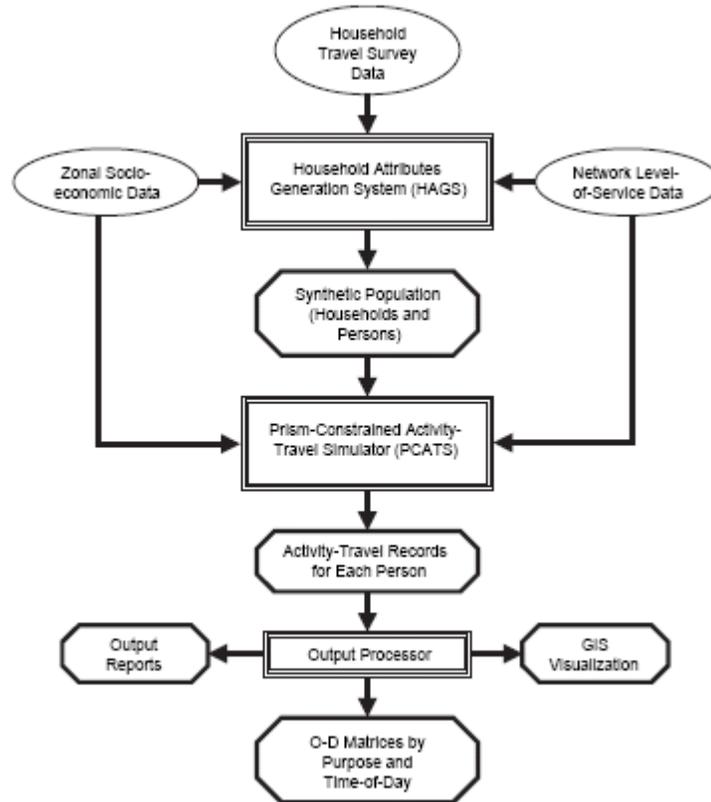
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TASHA



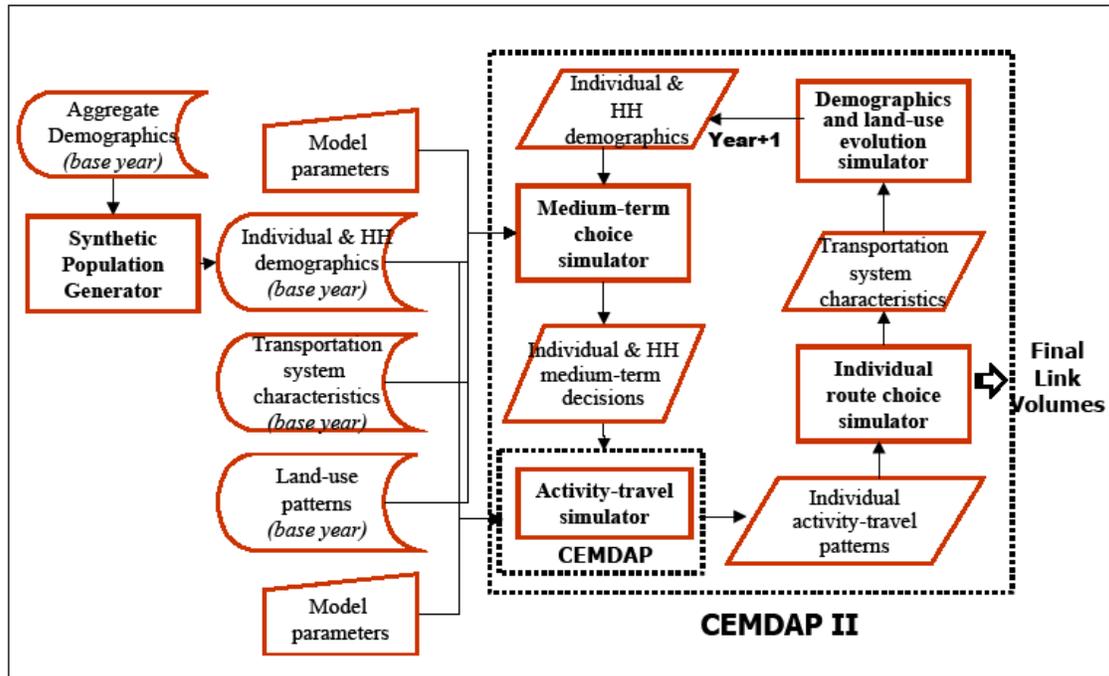
Source: Roorda M.J., E. J. Miller, and K.M.Nurul Habib (2007) Validation of TASHA: A 24-hour activity scheduling microsimulation model. Paper presented at the 86th Annual Meeting of the Transportation Research Board, Washington D.C.

FAMOS



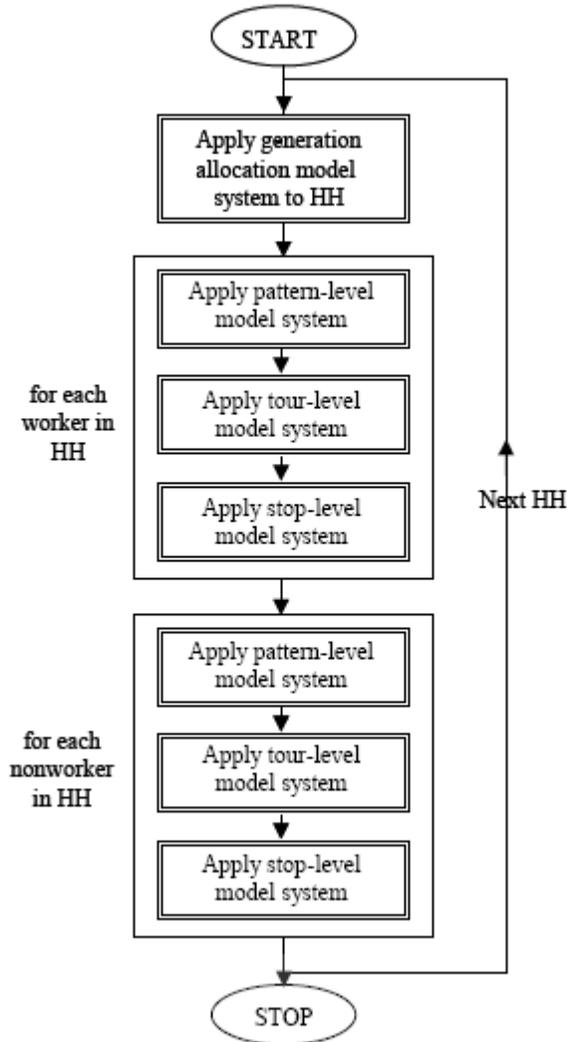
Source: Pendyala R. M., R. Kitamura, A. Kikuchi, T. Yamamoto, and S. Fujii (2005) Florida activity mobility simulator: Overview and preliminary validation results. Transportation Research Record, Journal of the Transportation Research Board, No. 1921, Transportation Research Board of the National Academies, Washington D.C., pp. 123-130.

CEMDAP-II



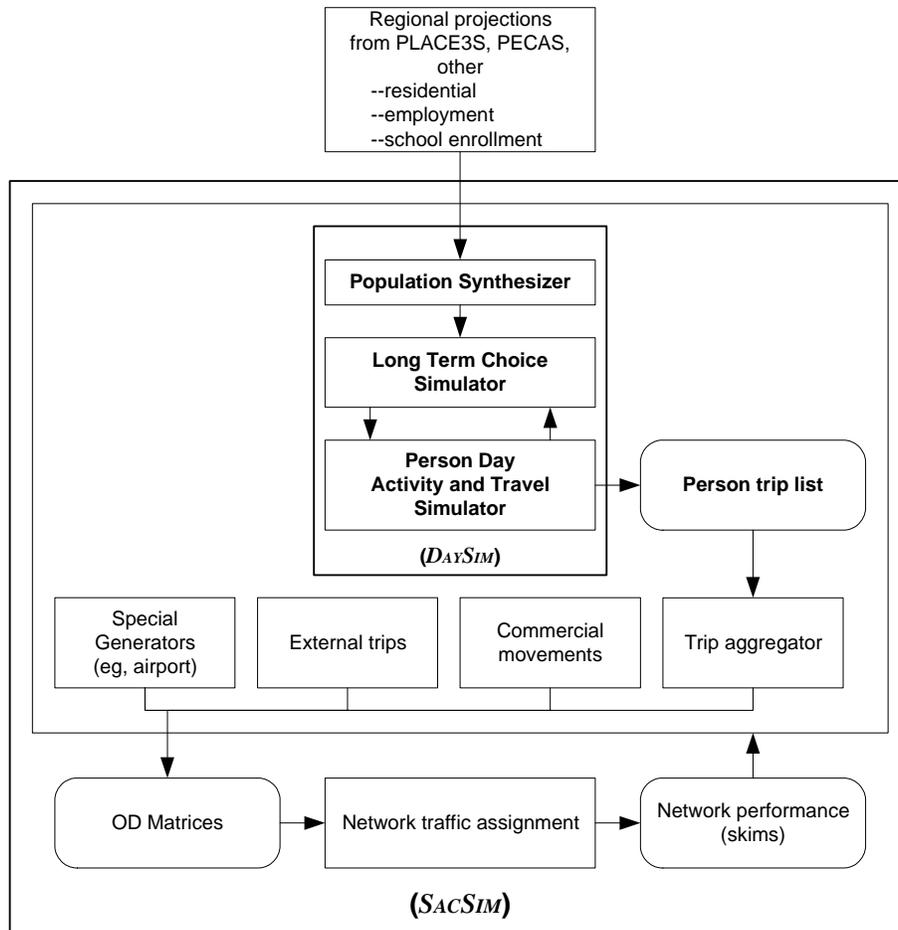
Source: A Comprehensive Econometric Micro-simulator for Daily Activity-travel Patterns (CEMDAP), (2004) Bhat C.R., J. Y. Guo, S. Srinivasan, and A. Sivakumar. Paper presented at the 2004 Annual Transportation Research Board Meeting.

CEMDAP SIMULATION OF ACTIVITY AND TRAVEL



Source: A Comprehensive Econometric Micro-simulator for Daily Activity-travel Patterns (CEMDAP), (2004) Bhat C.R., J. Y. Guo, S. Srinivasan, and A, Sivakumar. Paper presented at the 2004 Annual Transportation Research Board Meeting.

SACOG Regional Travel Forecasting Model System (SACSIM)



Source: Bradley M.A., J. L. Bowman, and Bruce Griesenbeck (2007) Development and application of the SACSIM activity-based model system. Paper Submitted for the 11th World Conference on Transport Research, Berkeley, CA June 2007

APPENDIX B: Model Summary Tables

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Table A-1: Activity-based model spatial and temporal resolutions (Henson, Goulias, Golledge, 2006).

Spatial Resolution	Temporal Resolution							
	Unknown/ Unspecified	None	Year	Blocks of Time	Hour	5 to 15 Minutes	Minute	Second or Continuous
Unknown/ Unspecified	BSP, Ettema (HCG), Hayes-Roth and Hayes-Roth, Kawakami and Isobe, ORIENT, Wen and Koppelman					Starchild		
None	Vause, CATGW	Adler and Ben-Akiva, Daily Activity Schedule, PESASP, SCHEDULER, SMART	MIDAS, DEMOS	CARLA, COBRA, Synthetic Daily Activity-Travel Patterns		HAPP	CentreSIM - medoid	COMRADE, DATS/LATP
Region			MERLIN					
Zones	AMOS	PATRICIA		New York "Best Practice", PCATS, PETRA, Portland Daily Activity Schedule, San Francisco	WISEM, CentreSIM - regional	TASHA	MASTIC, RAMBLAS	FAMOS
Sub-zones					MORPC			ALBATROSS, AURORA, FEATHERS
Points		SMASH			Alam PSEM	SIMAP	GISICAS	CEMDAP, ILUTE, PUMA, TRANSIMS-LANL

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Table A-2: Behavioral Units

Decision Makers	Groups Modeled					
	Unknown/ Unspecified	Workers	College Students	Adults	Partial Households	Entire Households
Unknown/ Unspecified	BSP				PESASP (16 yrs +)	
Individuals	Daily Activity Schedule, Hayes-Roth & Hayes-Roth, PCATS, SMART, Vause	Alam-PSEM, AMOS, CATGW, COBRA	Alam-PSEM, COMRADE	AURORA, DATS/LATP, FEATHERS, MASTIC, PATRICIA, SIMAP, Synthetic Daily Activity-Travel Patterns	Portland Daily Activity Schedule (16 yrs +), Wen and Koppelman (married couples)	CARLA, CentreSIM – regional, Ettema et al's (HCG), GISICAS, HAPP, MORPC, New York "Best Practice", PETRA, RAMBLAS, San Francisco, SCHEDULER, SMASH, STARCHILD, TRANSIMS-LANL
Households				ALBATROSS		Adler and Ben-Akiva, CEMDAP, CentreSIM– Medoid, DEMOS, FAMOS, ILUTE, MERLIN, MIDAS, PUMA, TASHA
Specified Groups						ILUTE
Workers		Kawakami and Isobe				
Homogenous Population Groups	ORIENT				VISEM (10 yrs +)	

Reproduced from Henson, Goulias, Golledge, 2006.