

1 **An Integrated Model of Activity-Travel Behavior and Subjective Well-being**

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32 August 2019

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 The notion that people’s activity-travel patterns influence well-being and overall quality of life is  
3 well recognized. Nonetheless, activity-travel demand model outputs do not provide explicit  
4 measures of well-being that can be used to assess the impacts of alternative policies, investments,  
5 and technologies. Since activity-travel demand models lack information about in-home activity  
6 time allocation, it is virtually impossible to derive measures of well-being that account for in-home  
7 activity engagement. This study presents a model of well-being that overcomes this challenge. The  
8 model is developed using the 2010, 2012, and 2013 well-being modules of the American Time  
9 Use Survey (ATUS) and includes two major components. First, a multiple discrete-continuous  
10 extreme value (MDCEV) model of in-home activity time allocation is estimated using the ATUS  
11 data. Second, regression models of well-being scores are estimated using data available in the  
12 ATUS, yielding a set of equations that compute well-being scores as a function of socio-economic  
13 characteristics and attributes of the activities or travel episodes. This well-being model system is  
14 then applied to a small sample of records from the National Household Travel Survey (NHTS) to  
15 demonstrate the efficacy of the model. The MDCEV component predicts in-home time allocation  
16 for various activities, and the regression equations provide episode-level well-being measures (for  
17 all in-home/out-of-home activities and travel episodes) that can be aggregated to derive a daily  
18 activity-travel well-being metric for each individual. The model serves as a tool to assess the  
19 quality of life implications of activity-travel patterns for diverse groups of the population.

20

21 **Keywords:** *integrated models, well-being, activity-based travel models, time use patterns, in-*  
22 *home activity engagement, quality of life*

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Transportation plays a critical role in shaping the quality of life in communities around the world by making it possible for people to engage in activities, participate in societal functions, and interact with various agents and entities that make up a region's ecosystem. Additionally, transportation enables mobility, thus providing people and businesses access to goods, services and opportunities. By enabling these functions, transportation and logistics systems directly impact the economic vitality of a region, along with the state of the environment, energy consumption, public health, and safety and security.

Because of the tight connection between transportation and quality of life, considerable attention has been paid to understanding the linkage between mobility and subjective well-being (Bergstad et al., 2011; Lee and Sener, 2016; Friman et al., 2017; Ziems et al., 2010). Measures of subjective well-being capture the emotions that people feel as they go about their daily lives, undertake activities, and travel. While quality of life may be viewed as a notion that captures the broader and longer-term outlook that people have on their lives, the notion of subjective well-being may be viewed as capturing the emotions experienced in a specific context or situation (National Research Council, 2013). Although important distinctions can and should be drawn between broader quality of life measures and measures of subjective well-being, it can be said that a healthy accumulation of positive feelings of well-being will contribute (over time) to a higher quality of life. To the extent that transportation can engender such positive feelings of well-being (through access to opportunities and destinations, enabling participation in activities and society at large, and provision of pleasant mobility experiences and options), it would be of value to be able to measure and quantify well-being that people derive from their daily activity-travel and time use patterns. Armed with knowledge about the well-being implications of the activity-travel ecosystem, transportation professionals will be able to plan built environments, design mobility systems, and implement policies that enhance well-being – and consequently, quality of life.

However, transportation demand forecasting models do not output measures of well-being, and household travel surveys never collect information about feelings of well-being associated with various activity-travel episodes reported in a travel diary. In the absence of any knowledge or data about actual subjective feelings of well-being that are derived from activities and trips, inferences about well-being are often drawn based on the time use pattern. There is a rich body of literature that is devoted to the notions of time poverty (Williams et al., 2016) and social exclusion (Lucas, 2012; Schwanen et al., 2015). This body of literature has generally posited that individuals who do not travel (report zero trips) may be experiencing social exclusion (Lucas, 2012), i.e., they are not participating in society and engaging in activities outside the home. In the absence of interactions with the outside world, they may suffer from loneliness, depression, and other mental health issues. In the time poverty literature, individuals who do not engage in leisure time activities for a duration that exceeds a certain threshold are considered to be “time poor” (Williams et al., 2016). The time poverty criterion is often pegged to the median (or some fraction of the median) leisure activity time depicted by the population under consideration. Those who experience time poverty are assumed to have a lower well-being and overall quality of life.

While a time-based definition of well-being (and quality of life) certainly has merit, there remains some uncertainty as to the extent to which time use based measures truly represent the feelings of well-being experienced by individuals. Some may find staying at home to be pleasurable (especially if the in-home activities are of a discretionary and social nature), while others may find work very rewarding and satisfying (even though they spend little to no time on discretionary leisure activities). In other words, there is a need to develop a measure of well-being

1 that can be computed based on standard outputs of an activity-based transportation demand  
2 forecasting model. Activity-based travel models, which simulate activity-travel patterns at the  
3 level of the individual agent, are increasingly being adopted in metropolitan areas for  
4 transportation planning and forecasting purposes. These models are able to provide rich  
5 information about individual activity-travel patterns under a wide range of conditions, essentially  
6 providing an output that mimics data collected in a travel diary survey. For each and every  
7 individual in a representative synthetic population of agents, the activity-based model furnishes  
8 activity-travel records at fine-grained spatial and temporal resolution. It would be of considerable  
9 value if the activity-travel and time use measures implied by an individual's pattern can be  
10 translated into a measure of well-being, thus enabling planners to assess the well-being  
11 implications of the transportation system and alternative actions.

12 This paper presents an integrated model of activity-travel behavior and subjective well-  
13 being that can essentially serve as a well-being scoring tool for activity-travel patterns. The model,  
14 when interfaced with an activity-based travel demand model that outputs activity-travel records at  
15 the level of the individual agent, can be used to compute well-being scores that are based on the  
16 predicted activity-travel and time use patterns. A couple of challenges need to be addressed,  
17 however, in the development of such a model, and this paper presents a data fusion approach to  
18 help overcome the challenges. The first challenge is that travel surveys do not contain any  
19 information about subjective well-being, and hence the calibration of a model of well-being is  
20 difficult in the absence of data. To overcome this issue, well-being data from the 2010, 2012, and  
21 2013 editions of the American Time Use Survey (ATUS) data collected in the United States is  
22 used to estimate well-being scores as a function of activity engagement and time use allocation  
23 patterns. The second challenge is that activity-based travel models (and the surveys upon which  
24 they are estimated and calibrated) provide no information about in-home activity engagement  
25 patterns. However, activity engagement inside the home is likely to contribute substantially to  
26 feelings of well-being (or lack thereof). Hence, in-home time use allocation patterns need to be  
27 estimated so that appropriate well-being measures (that account for both in-home and out-of-home  
28 activity engagement and time use) can be developed and computed. To overcome this challenge,  
29 a multiple discrete-continuous extreme value (MDCEV) model of in-home activity participation  
30 and time use allocation is estimated on the American Time Use Survey (ATUS) data. This model  
31 can be applied to the activity-travel records output by any activity-based travel model to infer in-  
32 home activity engagement and time use patterns for each agent in the synthetic population. This  
33 information can, in turn, be used to compute a holistic well-being score that accounts for the entire  
34 slate of activities pursued by an individual inside and outside home. The paper describes the model  
35 development and data fusion process, and demonstrates the efficacy of the model by presentation  
36 an application of the model to a small sample of 2017 National Household Travel Survey (NHTS)  
37 records (which represent the output of an activity-based travel model for purposes of the  
38 demonstration in this paper).

39 The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. A brief literature review is presented  
40 in the next section. The third section presents the modeling methodology and conceptual  
41 framework. The fourth section offers a description of the data. The fifth section presents the model  
42 estimation results, while the sixth section presents illustrative model application results.  
43 Concluding thoughts are offered in the seventh and final section.

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## 2. ACTIVITY-TRAVEL BEHAVIOR AND SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING

Subjective well-being (SWB) has been a topic of much interest in many different domains including the field of transportation. According to the National Research Council (2013), SWB may be viewed as a self-assessment of one's life in the context of specific domains and activities. SWB may be measured as a series of momentary states through time. The notion is characterized by multiple dimensions and emotions, and it is important to acknowledge the role of different emotions in shaping SWB. Negative emotions are more complex to unravel than positive emotions, and hence more measures are needed to decipher the underlying forces contributing to negative emotions. Negative emotions and positive emotions are not necessarily polar opposites of one another and hence they need to be considered together when evaluating SWB (National Research Council, 2013).

A number of researchers have explored the connection specifically between travel and SWB. Travel can influence SWB through a variety of mechanisms. Mokhtarian and Pendyala (2018) identify five sources of influence that impact travel satisfaction: experiences during destination-oriented travel, activities during destination-oriented travel, trips where travel is the activity, travel-facilitated activity, and utility. Ettema et al. (2010) identified three sources of the impacts of travel on SWB: positive and negative effects during travel, accessibility to activities through travel, and impacts of travel on the amount of stress associated with the activities that are performed over the course of a day. Lee and Sener (2016) conceptualize four transportation-related quality of life dimensions – physical, mental, social, and economic. They identify three components of the transportation system as affecting these four dimensions: mobility/accessibility, built environment attributes, and vehicular traffic volumes. Waygood et al. (2017) evaluated child well-being and found that transport influences well-being in three ways: as an access (destination-based) mechanism, through its intrinsic features (the travel experience itself), and by external connections (e.g., transporting or being transported by others). Interestingly, Gao et al. (2017) found that satisfaction with travel had a relatively small effect on overall well-being after controlling for socio-economic and demographic characteristics and personality traits (self-discipline, impatience, easy-going, reserved, and calm).

There are a number of studies that have documented the SWB associated with different modes of transport. Delbosc (2012) noted that transit can enhance life satisfaction in two ways, directly through physical mobility and indirectly through accessibility to important activities. Friman et al. (2017) and Mokhtarian and Pendyala (2018) both report that public transit is associated with a lower SWB, while active modes are associated with a higher level of SWB. The most positive emotions were reported by car passengers (Mokhtarian and Pendyala, 2018). Greater use of active commuting modes is associated with higher levels of physical well-being, regardless of time spent in other domains of physical activity (Humphreys et al., 2013). Reduced car use has been found to contribute to reduced SWB (Bergstad et al., 2011). All of these studies have clearly identified a linkage between travel and SWB.

In addition to travel, household and person socio-economic and demographic attributes are found to influence SWB. Males are found to report lower SWB for travel episodes than females (Archer et al., 2013). Low income individuals report a wider range of emotions than high income individuals, presumably because they have a number of other factors (related to monetary constraints) that affect their life (Mokhtarian and Pendyala, 2018). Contrary to studies that suggest older people are at risk of social exclusion and depression (Glass et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2014), Archer et al. (2013) found that older people report higher levels of happiness for all types of activities including out-of-home activities, in-home activities, and travel episodes. Bergstad et al.

1 (2011) also report that older people are more satisfied with their daily travel patterns, presumably  
2 because they do not have the same constraints and busy schedules as their younger counterparts.  
3 Ziems et al. (2010) found that older people derived higher values of utility from their time use  
4 patterns in comparison to other age groups. Although older people spent less time outside home,  
5 losses in utility due to fewer out-of-home activities seemed to be compensated by utility derived  
6 from discretionary in-home activities. Ye and Titheridge (2017) found that highest levels of  
7 commute satisfaction were reported by older people and those who had a better self-reported health  
8 condition. Geographic context is also an important determinant of well-being. Archer et al. (2013)  
9 found that individuals in the sunbelt of the United States reported higher levels of happiness for  
10 household maintenance and work activities compared to other regions of the country. Delbosc and  
11 Currie (2011) found that the correlation between transportation disadvantage and well-being was  
12 consistently higher for rural residents outside the boundaries of major metropolitan areas. Ye and  
13 Titheridge (2017) note that the built environment plays a significant role in shaping satisfaction  
14 through its influence on commute characteristics.

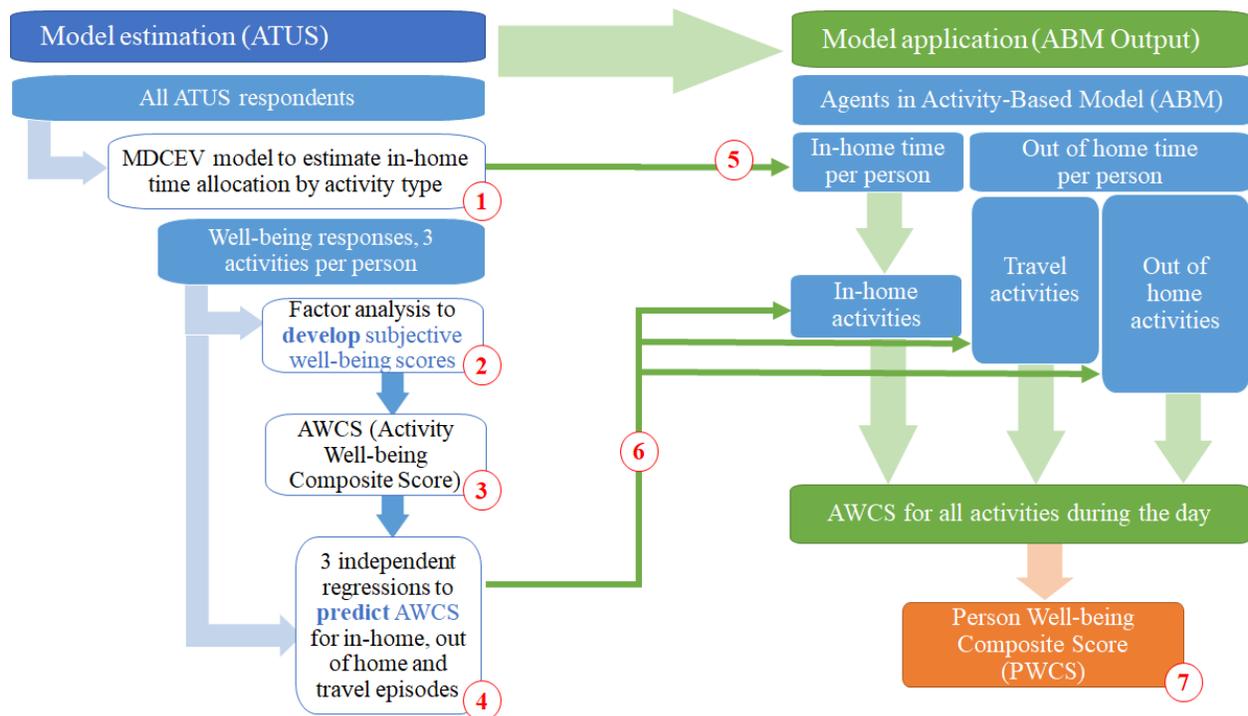
15 There are few studies in transportation that take a holistic perspective connecting SWB  
16 with daily activity-travel and time use patterns. However, there is an important body of sociological  
17 literature dedicated to defining time poverty based on daily time use patterns (Williams et al.,  
18 2016). These studies have attempted to define time poverty and identify subgroups that are subject  
19 to time poverty by measuring the amount of time that people have available for discretionary  
20 leisure activities that are important to holistic living (and that are presumably more enjoyable than  
21 other types of activities). Individuals who report discretionary leisure activity time availability that  
22 falls below various thresholds are identified as experiencing time poverty (Williams et al., 2016).  
23 Different studies have used alternative criteria for defining the threshold. In the field of  
24 transportation, Archer et al. (2013) found that activity start time, activity duration, child  
25 accompaniment, and activity location influenced SWB. Ye et al. (2009) developed a time use  
26 utility measure based on activity engagement patterns, but did not explicitly consider measures of  
27 well-being (emotions) in defining the time use utility measure. Their effort was, however, aimed  
28 at developing a time use utility measurement tool that could be applied as a post-processor for  
29 activity-based travel demand models so that the utility that people derive from their activity-travel  
30 and time use patterns could be evaluated. Their tool, however, did not sufficiently account for the  
31 array of in-home activities that people pursue each day. Abou-Zeid and Ben-Akiva (2012) found  
32 that frequent activity engagement is associated with higher levels of happiness and greater  
33 satisfaction with life; similarly, Mokhtarian and Pendyala (2018) found that emotions are more  
34 positive for out-of-home activities than similar in-home activities.

35 Defining well-being based on activity engagement, travel, and time use has its merits, but  
36 may not capture the true emotions that people associate with their daily lives. Krueger et al. (2009)  
37 notes that interpreting SWB based on activity engagement has limitations, particularly because  
38 people are very heterogeneous. Workaholics may derive great satisfaction from work; shopaholics  
39 may derive great happiness from shopping. On the other hand, there are those who dislike work  
40 and/or dislike shopping. Some enjoy traveling and experiencing destinations; others like to stay  
41 at home. In other words, it is important to directly model and assess measures of well-being that  
42 are reported by individuals. Such data can be used to develop models of subjective well-being that  
43 tie emotions to activity-travel and time use patterns, thus providing a basis to more accurately  
44 assess SWB that people derive from their daily lives. This paper aims to develop such a model  
45 system so that SWB measures can be computed for agents in an activity-based travel demand  
46 model. Not only should the model account for well-being derived from out-of-home activities and

travel, but it should also account for well-being derived from in-home activities. The model system presented in this paper is able to do so through the use of data contained in the American Time Use Survey (ATUS) data set.

### 3. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND MODEL STRUCTURE

This section presents the conceptual framework for the well-being estimation and analysis tool developed in this paper. Figure 1 presents the framework with a view to identifying the components and steps that are involved in developing a well-being score for each individual in a synthetic population of agents. The fundamental premise underlying the conceptual framework is that well-being is determined by how people feel spending time traveling and engaging in different types of activities inside and outside the home.



**FIGURE 1 Summary of the Study Approach to Compute Daily Well-being Composite Score**

Any output of an activity-based model includes information about out-of-home activities and travel episodes but includes no information about specific activities pursued inside the home. These activities do, however, contribute to well-being of an individual. Therefore, to compute a person well-being score, it is necessary to post-process the output of an activity-based model so that the time allocated to various activities inside the home can be determined. Once a full-fledged daily activity profile (in-home and out-of-home) is constructed for an individual, then a person-day level well-being score can be computed.

The process starts with the estimation of a multiple discrete continuous extreme value (MDCEV) model of in-home time allocation to various activity purposes. The MDCEV model (Bhat, 2008) essentially allocates a budget of resources (in this case, time at home) to various goods that are consumed (in this case, activities inside the home). The budget of resources is the total time spent at home. This can be easily computed from the output of an activity-based model for each synthetic agent by simply subtracting total out-of-home activity time and travel time from

1 1440 minutes. The MDCEV model of in-home activity participation and time allocation can be  
2 applied to the output of an activity-based travel model to construct the full daily activity and time  
3 use profile for each individual in the synthetic population. The MDCEV model of in-home time  
4 use allocation is estimated using the American Time Use Survey (ATUS) data set that provides  
5 detailed information about in-home and out-of-home activity engagement and time use.

6 The data used in this study is presented in greater detail in the next section. In short, the  
7 2010, 2012, and 2013 editions of the American Time Use Survey (ATUS) data included a well-  
8 being module. All survey respondents were asked to rate three randomly identified activities that  
9 they reported in their time use diary on six emotional measures – happiness, meaningfulness,  
10 sadness, painfulness, stress, and tiredness. The respondents rated each emotion on a scale of 0  
11 through 6, with higher scores indicating a greater intensity of the emotion. While happiness and  
12 meaningfulness can be characterized as positive emotions, the other four constitute negative  
13 emotions. In order to consolidate these emotions into positive and negative scores, a factor analysis  
14 is conducted to identify two subjective well-being scores for each activity episode. The two  
15 positive emotions are combined into a positive well-being score while the four negative emotions  
16 are combined into a negative well-being score. The factor analysis essentially yields latent  
17 constructs that serve as indicators of positive and negative emotions; the factor scores (positive  
18 and negative) constitute linear combinations of the numeric ratings assigned by individuals to the  
19 various individual emotions.

20 It should be recognized that the positive factor score is computed based on two emotions  
21 and the negative factor score is computed based on four emotions. Hence the positive and negative  
22 factor scores are not directly comparable. Nevertheless, because they are both based on emotions  
23 that were rated on a scale of 0 through 6, they provide continuous scores reflective of the degree  
24 to which an individual felt positively or negatively towards an activity. In order to obtain a “net”  
25 emotional score for each activity episode, the difference between the two scores (positive score –  
26 negative score) may be computed. This difference is termed the Activity Well-being Composite  
27 Score (AWCS). Due to the lack of symmetry in emotional measurements and the different numbers  
28 of positive and negative emotions, a zero AWCS does not necessarily imply a neutral emotion or  
29 indifference. At the end of this step, every record in the ATUS (for which emotions data was  
30 collected) had an AWCS appended to it.

31 Next, a set of linear regression equations of AWCS was estimated for three activity episode  
32 types, namely, out-of-home activities, in-home activities, and travel. The regression equations  
33 included a number of socio-economic and demographic variables as well as activity episode  
34 attributes as explanatory variables. The AWCS served as the dependent variable in each regression  
35 equation. Ideally, a more intricately connected simultaneous equations modeling approach would  
36 be appropriate to account for possible correlations in error terms that may signify the presence of  
37 unobserved variables that simultaneously impact the AWCS of different activity types. For  
38 example, if a person is inherently an outdoor-oriented adventurous individual, then the AWCS  
39 scores for out-of-home activities and travel are likely to be high while the AWCS score for in-  
40 home activities is likely to be low for this individual. For simplicity, independent regression  
41 equations were estimated and implemented in the initial version of the model system, with plans  
42 to transition to a simultaneous equations model system in future versions. The regression  
43 equations can be applied to all of the activities and travel episodes that constitute an individual’s  
44 daily activity engagement profile. In this way, an AWCS can be computed and attached to every  
45 activity undertaken by an individual in a synthetic population.

1           In the end, the model system is intended to provide a single day-level Person Well-being  
2 Composite Score (PWCS) for each individual agent in the synthetic population of an activity-based  
3 travel demand model. The PWCS is computed as a simple summation of all AWCS scores  
4 associated with various activities in the day. The summation operation implies that the scores  
5 associated with various activities are additive and that well-being is derived from an accumulation  
6 of emotions experienced over the course of pursuing various activities and travel episodes in a day.  
7 While a summation may not necessarily represent the exact way in which people aggregate their  
8 emotional experiences and feelings over the course of a day, this approach was adopted for  
9 simplicity. Moreover, in the absence of any data about how people aggregate their emotional  
10 feelings associated with various activities over the course of a day, the summation approach  
11 seemed as reasonable as any other. The right-hand side of Figure 1 depicts how the model system  
12 may be applied to activity-travel records (such as those obtained as output from an activity-based  
13 travel demand model) to compute PWCS for synthetic agents. Because an activity-travel model  
14 output was not specifically available, the efficacy of the model is demonstrated in this paper by  
15 applying it to a small random sample of records from the 2017 National Household Travel Survey  
16 (NHTS) data set (the activity-travel records in the NHTS data set are very similar to a typical  
17 activity-travel model output).

#### 18 19 **4. DATA DESCRIPTION**

20 This section presents an overview of the data used in this model development effort. As noted  
21 previously, the primary source of data is the American Time Use Survey (ATUS), which is  
22 administered on an annual basis by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) in the United States to a  
23 representative sample of individuals aged 15 years or over. The survey involves collecting detailed  
24 activity engagement and time use information with a very detailed activity purpose classification  
25 scheme, thus providing a high degree of fidelity in terms of activity attributes. In addition to all of  
26 the attributes of the activity episodes, the data set includes information about travel episodes as  
27 well as socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the individual and the household to  
28 which the individual belongs. In 2010, 2012, and 2013, the ATUS included a well-being module  
29 in which individuals were asked to rate their feelings on a scale of 0 through 6 for six different  
30 emotions – happiness, meaningfulness, sadness, tiredness, painfulness, and stress. A higher score  
31 implied a higher intensity or degree of a particular emotion. Respondents were asked to do this  
32 for three randomly identified activity or travel episodes in their time use pattern. A total of 31,103  
33 respondents were selected to provide this information for a total of 92,417 activity and travel  
34 episodes.

35           Table 1 shows the distribution of ratings for all six emotions considering three broad  
36 activity types – namely, in-home activities, out-of-home activities, and travel episodes. A higher  
37 rating on the positive (negative) emotions implies that the individual derived more positive  
38 (negative) feelings from the activity episodes. In general, it can be seen that people rate their  
39 activity episodes positively and derive positive feelings of emotion. This is quite consistent with  
40 expectations as people are likely to shun activities that they do not enjoy or find undesirable if they  
41 can help it. In the table, each row adds up to 100 percent, thus enabling the identification of the  
42 fraction of episodes of any given type rated at each level of an emotional measure.

43           An examination of the positive emotions shows that nearly one-third of activities are rated  
44 at the highest level of happiness and nearly 40 percent are rated at the highest level of  
45 meaningfulness. Only small fractions of activities of any type fall into the lowest ratings of  
46 happiness and meaningfulness; the percentages at either end of the spectrum are higher for

1 meaningfulness than happiness. It appears that individuals are able to draw a more clear distinction  
 2 in meaningfulness than in happiness. About 10 percent of episodes are characterized as not being  
 3 meaningful. It is interesting to note that travel depicts a higher percent of episodes that are deemed  
 4 not meaningful, relative to in-home and out-of-home activities. This is reasonable in that travel is  
 5 a means to access and pursue an activity; the activity at the destination is what provides value and  
 6 meaningfulness, with the travel episode merely serving as the conduit to access the activity. In  
 7 both happiness and meaningfulness, it is found that in-home activities are consistently viewed a  
 8 little less positively than out-of-home activities.

9  
 10 **TABLE 1 Distribution of Emotion Ratings by Activity Type (N=92,417 activities)**

Wellbeing Emotional Score		0 (weak)	1	2	3	4	5	6* (strong)
Happiness	In-home activity	5.7%	2.1%	5.5%	15.4%	17.5%	22.1%	31.7%
	Out of home activity	4.1%	1.9%	4.8%	13.9%	18.1%	23.9%	33.2%
	Travel activity	4.4%	1.9%	5.1%	14.9%	18.4%	23.6%	31.7%
	All activities	5.0%	2.0%	5.2%	14.9%	17.9%	22.9%	32.1%
Meaning- fulness	In-home activity	9.6%	3.5%	6.5%	13.0%	12.4%	15.7%	39.4%
	Out of home activity	6.2%	2.5%	4.9%	11.9%	13.4%	17.9%	43.2%
	Travel activity	12.2%	4.3%	6.9%	13.3%	12.2%	14.2%	37.0%
	All activities	9.3%	3.4%	6.2%	12.8%	12.6%	15.9%	39.8%
Pain	In-home activity	66.1%	6.3%	6.9%	7.2%	6.1%	3.9%	3.5%
	Out of home activity	71.3%	6.6%	7.0%	6.1%	4.5%	2.6%	2.0%
	Travel activity	73.0%	6.5%	6.2%	5.7%	4.1%	2.6%	2.0%
	All activities	69.0%	6.4%	6.7%	6.6%	5.2%	3.3%	2.8%
Sadness	In-home activity	77.1%	6.0%	5.3%	4.9%	2.9%	2.0%	1.9%
	Out of home activity	78.9%	6.5%	5.2%	4.1%	2.3%	1.4%	1.6%
	Travel activity	78.8%	6.4%	5.0%	4.3%	2.4%	1.6%	1.5%
	All activities	77.9%	6.2%	5.2%	4.6%	2.6%	1.8%	1.7%
Stressed	In-home activity	57.3%	10.1%	10.7%	8.8%	5.9%	3.7%	3.3%
	Out of home activity	52.0%	10.9%	11.7%	10.3%	7.2%	4.4%	3.4%
	Travel activity	53.6%	11.3%	12.1%	9.5%	6.6%	3.9%	3.1%
	All activities	55.2%	10.6%	11.3%	9.4%	6.4%	3.9%	3.3%
Tired	In-home activity	32.2%	8.5%	13.0%	16.0%	13.9%	9.4%	7.0%
	Out of home activity	34.2%	10.2%	14.3%	16.2%	12.1%	7.8%	5.2%
	Travel activity	34.2%	10.1%	13.4%	15.6%	12.5%	8.2%	5.9%
	All activities	33.2%	9.2%	13.4%	16.0%	13.2%	8.7%	6.3%

11 \* Each row adds up to 100%.

12  
 13 An examination of the distribution of ratings on negative emotions reveals a somewhat  
 14 similar pattern. Higher ratings imply greater displeasure with the activities in question. Less than  
 15 two percent of all activities are rated in the highest level of sadness, and less than three percent are  
 16 rated in the highest level of painfulness. In general, it appears that individuals do not feel that their  
 17 activities engender sadness or create pain. Large percentages of activities are rated with a zero on

1 the painfulness and sadness scales. The sentiment shifts a little bit for the stressfulness and  
2 tiredness emotions. Just over three percent of activities are viewed as engendering the highest  
3 level of stress. When it comes to tiredness, over six percent of activities are rated at the highest  
4 level. Only one-third of activities are rated zero on the tiredness scale, suggesting that people do  
5 experience tiredness more so than other negative emotions. In general, out-of-home activities are  
6 rated lower on the sadness, painfulness, and tiredness scales than in-home activities. This implies  
7 that people generally enjoy out-of-home activities more than in-home activities, supporting the  
8 notion that engaging in travel and out-of-home activities has a positive impact on well-being (and  
9 consequently quality of life). In the case of stress, however, it is found that out-of-home activities  
10 are viewed as being more stressful than in-home activities. This is largely due to the high  
11 prevalence of work episodes among out-of-home activities and the very low prevalence of work  
12 episodes among in-home activities. Travel activities depict a slightly lower level of painfulness  
13 when compared with in-home and out-of-home activities, presumably because there is nothing  
14 painful about travel episodes (for the most part). The travel episodes are associated with a slightly  
15 higher level of tiredness than out-of-home activities. As travel may involve physical and mental  
16 exertion (walking, bicycling, waiting for transit, driving), it is not surprising that people rate travel  
17 episodes more negatively on this emotion.

18 To develop the integrated activity-travel well-being model system, a MDCEV model of  
19 activity time allocation (for in-home time) had to be specified and estimated. As a sample size of  
20 31,000+ is somewhat large and unwieldy, a two percent random sample of individuals is extracted  
21 from the ATUS data base. The two percent random sample was further filtered to include only  
22 those that had complete socio-economic and demographic data (no missing data) and reported time  
23 use for weekdays. This yielded an estimation sample of 5,069 individuals. Table 2 shows the socio-  
24 economic profile of the ATUS person sample. It can be seen that the sample has a slightly higher  
25 proportion of females than males. The sample shows an age distribution that is consistent with  
26 expectations for a nationally representative sample. The largest percentage of individuals falls  
27 within the 31-49 year age bracket. About 19 percent of the sample is 65 years or age and over.  
28 Smaller percentages of individuals fall within the extreme education categories; about 27.7 percent  
29 of the sample has some college or an associates degree. About one-in-five individuals is a college  
30 graduate. The household income distribution shows a healthy spread across the various income  
31 categories with 8.4 percent reporting incomes greater than or equal to \$150,000 per year. Finally,  
32 the household size distribution shows that about 26 percent of individuals are in single-person  
33 households, and another 26.6 percent are in two-person households. Overall, the distributions are  
34 consistent with expectations.

35 To demonstrate the efficacy of the well-being model system presented in this paper, the  
36 model system needs to be applied to the output of an activity-based travel demand model that  
37 includes activity-travel records for an entire synthetic population of agents. As a full-fledged  
38 activity-based model output was not readily available, the model system is illustrated in this paper  
39 through an application to a small sample of records drawn from the National Household Travel  
40 Survey (NHTS) sample. Once again, a random two percent sample of driving age individuals was  
41 drawn from the NHTS and then extensively cleaned and filtered to eliminate records with missing  
42 data on key socio-demographic variables of interest. The resulting sample includes 6,810 records.  
43 Because this is an unweighted sample, the distributions are unlikely to be representative of the  
44 general population and likely to diverge from those depicted by the ATUS subsample (because the  
45 ATUS sample is representative of the general population). Indeed, it can be seen that some of the  
46 distributions in the NHTS sample exhibit a skew. For example, the NHTS sample has a higher

1 percent of older people (than ATUS) and a higher percent of individuals with graduate and  
 2 professional degrees (highly educated). One-in-five individuals in the NHTS sample has an  
 3 advanced college degree. The NHTS sample is also skewed in favor of individuals in high-income  
 4 households. While 18.7 percent of ATUS individuals reside in households that make \$100,000 or  
 5 more, 31.3 percent of NHTS individuals do so. Finally, the household size distribution shows that  
 6 the NHTS sample has an over-representation of two-person households, subsequently contributing  
 7 to an under-representation on the other household size categories.  
 8

9 **TABLE 2 Socio-demographic Characteristics of ATUS and NHTS Samples**

Variable	ATUS		NHTS	
	N (5,069)	%	N (6,810)	%
<b>Gender</b>				
Female	2836	55.9	3609	53.0
Male	2233	44.1	3201	47.0
<b>Age</b>				
15-20 years	312	6.1	370	5.4
21-30 years	687	13.6	694	10.2
31-49 years	1826	36.1	1651	24.2
50-64 years	1283	25.3	2062	30.3
65+ years	961	18.9	2033	29.9
<b>Educational Attainment</b>				
Less than a high school diploma	714	14.1	489	7.2
High school graduate or GED	1312	25.9	1349	19.8
Some college or associates degree	1404	27.7	2012	29.5
Bachelor's degree	1022	20.1	1564	23.0
Graduate degree or professional degree	617	12.2	1396	20.5
<b>Household income</b>				
Less than \$10,000	379	7.5	259	3.8
\$10,000 to \$14,999	375	7.4	269	4.0
\$15,000 to \$24,999	586	11.6	535	7.9
\$25,000 to \$34,999	594	11.7	597	8.8
\$35,000 to \$49,999	673	13.3	808	11.9
\$50,000 to \$74,999	971	19.1	1217	17.9
\$75,000 to \$99,999	544	10.7	994	14.6
\$100,000 to \$149,999	526	10.3	1225	18.0
\$150,000 and over	421	8.4	906	13.3
<b>Household size</b>				
1	1319	26.0	1169	17.2
2	1348	26.6	3096	45.5
3	856	16.9	1103	16.2
4	903	17.8	889	13.1
5+	643	12.7	553	8.1

1           However, for purposes of illustrating the application of the model, none of these skews are  
2 of any concern. The model system can be applied to any market segment and hence  
3 representativeness of the NHTS sample is not of much consequence in this paper. Also, there is no  
4 specific reason for drawing a two percent random sample. A random sample of any size could  
5 have been drawn to demonstrate the efficacy of the model. The two percent sample yielded usable  
6 estimation and application data sets of at least 5,000 individuals, which was considered an  
7 appropriate number to facilitate model estimation and application (i.e., sufficient sample sizes to  
8 perform analysis of well-being for various market segments).

## 9 10 **5. MODEL ESTIMATION RESULTS**

11 This section presents a brief overview of model estimation results for the various components of  
12 the integrated model system. In the interest of brevity, detailed model estimation results tables are  
13 not furnished here, but available from the authors by request. The first major model component is  
14 the MDCEV model of in-home activity engagement and time allocation that is estimated on the  
15 subsample of ATUS records extracted from the data set. The MDCEV model is a discrete-  
16 continuous extreme value model that is capable of allocating a budget among multiple discrete  
17 alternatives. As a result, not only is it possible to identify the discrete alternatives that are  
18 consumed, but it is also possible to determine the amount of budget (time) allocated to each  
19 consumed alternative. The budget is determined by subtracting out-of-home time and travel time  
20 from the daily available time of 1440 minutes (24 hours). The MDCEV model accounts for  
21 satiation effects through the estimation of corresponding satiation parameters which can also  
22 account for the existence of corner solutions (i.e., some alternatives are not consumed at all).  
23 Further details about the MDCEV model used for this effort can be found in Bhat (2008).

24           The estimated MDCEV model was applied to the estimation sample (not a holdout sample)  
25 to ensure that the model is able to adequately replicate the observed patterns in the data set. This  
26 effort did not serve as a validation per se, but serves as a basic indicator of the ability of the model  
27 to replicate observed patterns in the estimation data set. All goodness-of-fit measures of the  
28 MDCEV model were in line with expectations and were similar to those that have been reported  
29 in the literature in the time use context (Astroza et al., 2017). The model specification was refined  
30 until the replication exercise showed that the model reproduces time allocation patterns in the  
31 estimation sample quite well (based on a qualitative and quantitative assessment).

32           The MDCEV model was then applied to the small sample of NHTS records extracted for  
33 purposes of demonstrating the efficacy of the model. A total of 6,810 NHTS records were  
34 extracted (a two percent sample, further filtered and cleaned to remove missing data and retain  
35 only weekday records) for use in the illustrative application. The results of the model application  
36 are discussed later in Section 6, but the patterns predicted by the MDCEV model on this NHTS  
37 sample were assessed to ensure that predictions are reasonable and consistent with expectations.  
38 The summary results of the replication (on ATUS estimation sample) and prediction (on NHTS  
39 sample) exercise are displayed in Table 3. It should be noted that many comparisons were  
40 performed before determining that the model was appropriate and providing satisfactory results;  
41 in particular, distributions of time allocation to various activities were assessed for several market  
42 segments to ensure that the model is replicating time use patterns for various subgroups in the  
43 sample appropriately. In the interest of brevity, only the summary table is furnished here.

44           In general, the patterns are as expected. Work, education, shopping, and religious activities  
45 are not pursued to a great degree inside the home. These are activities that are typically undertaken  
46 outside the home and hence the time allocation to these activities within the home is small. Sleep

1 accounts for more than eight hours, on average; it should be noted that this average is computed  
 2 over all records that includes non-workers, retirees, and teenagers. In that context, this average  
 3 duration for sleep and nap is quite reasonable. Within the home, waking hours are generally spent  
 4 taking care of household obligations (maintenance activities, including cooking, cleaning, and  
 5 taking care of children) and engaging in social/recreational activities (which includes watching TV  
 6 or other screen-based devices). The predictions are in good agreement with observed values,  
 7 although minor deviations are seen. Given the predictor variables available in the ATUS, these  
 8 deviations are not unexpected. An examination of the time allocation distributions for various  
 9 subgroups naturally showed higher levels of deviation, but the predictions were generally  
 10 consistent with patterns observed in the data set.

11

12 **TABLE 3 Average Time Spent at Home by Activity Category: MDCEV Model Results**

Activity Category	Observed Time Allocation (ATUS)	MDCEV Model Replication (ATUS)	MDCEV Model Application (NHTS)
	N= 5,069		N= 6,810
	Average (min)	Average (min)	Average (min)
In-home - Sleep	531.8	527.6	508.5
In-home - Maintenance	185.3	188.6	177.6
In-home - Work	18.8	13.0	14.0
In-home - Education	6.5	5.8	5.4
In-home - Eating and drinking	42.7	65.5	66.4
In-home - Recreation/Social	248.5	233.0	233.0
In-home - Shopping	0.7	0.7	0.7
In-home - Religious	2.5	3.0	2.9
In-home - Other	15.6	15.8	16.2

13

14 Next, the model development process involved performing a factor analysis and  
 15 constructing latent factors using the latent variable structural equations modeling approach. Two  
 16 latent variables or factors were estimated – one for positive emotions and one for negative  
 17 emotions. The two positive emotions loaded onto the positive factor and the four negative  
 18 emotions loaded onto the negative factor. The factor analysis results were consistent with  
 19 expectations and the structural equations model provided goodness-of-fit measures which  
 20 indicated that the latent factors significantly captured the variance in the different emotions  
 21 depicted by the sample of ATUS records. The happiness variable depicted a higher loading onto  
 22 the positive emotion factor (than the meaningfulness emotion). For the negative emotion factor,  
 23 all of the negative emotions loaded about equally on the factor, although stress was found to have  
 24 a slightly higher factor loading. By adopting a structural equations modeling approach, the factors  
 25 were estimated jointly, while accommodating covariance between them. The covariance is found  
 26 to be negative and significant, which implies that unobserved attributes that contribute to positive  
 27 emotions are negatively correlated with unobserved attributes that contribute to negative emotions.  
 28 This is also consistent with expectations. It should be noted that this particular model was estimated  
 29 on the full sample of 92,417 activities for which six emotional ratings were available in the data  
 30 set. It was considered prudent to use full information available in the data set to estimate factor  
 31 loadings, given that the well-being score computation lies at the core of the model system  
 32 developed in this effort.

1           The results of the factor analysis were used to estimate a positive factor score and a negative  
2 factor score for each activity episode in the ATUS data set. The difference between the two scores  
3 was computed (positive score – negative score) and designated as a single activity well-being  
4 composite score (AWCS) for each episode. The negative factor score varied from -1.00 to 3.65  
5 with a mean of 0 and standard deviation of 0.86. The positive factor score varied from -5.51 to  
6 4.16 with a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1.56. The factor score values do not have a  
7 ready interpretation, other than the fact that a larger numerical value indicates a stronger intensity  
8 of emotion for that factor. Thus, a higher positive factor implies a stronger positive emotion, and  
9 a higher negative factor implies a stronger negative emotion. As expected, the positive emotion  
10 shows greater variance, presumably because people try to shun performing activities that are  
11 unpleasant or undesirable. Consistent with statistics presented in Table 1, it is likely that people  
12 generally consider their activities positively, thus yielding a narrow range for the negative factor.  
13 It should be noted that this is seen despite the fact that only two emotions load onto the positive  
14 factor and four emotions load onto the negative factor. The AWCS varies from -7.35 to 3.30 with  
15 a mean of 0 and standard deviation of 1.99. A higher AWCS is indicative of a positive emotion  
16 associated with an activity and vice versa.

17           The next step involved estimating linear regression models of the AWCS for out-of-home,  
18 in-home, and travel episodes separately. To estimate the linear regression models, samples of  
19 5000 activities were extracted for each of in-home activities, out-of-home activities, and travel  
20 episodes (total of 15,000 episodes). There is no special reason for choosing 5000 activities for  
21 performing the linear regression estimations. Rather than estimate regression models on the full  
22 data set of ATUS episodes, models were estimated on random sets of 5,000 activities so that the  
23 sizes of data sets used for model estimation in this effort are generally consistent with sample sizes  
24 typically encountered in the travel demand modeling domain. Each set of 5000 records was used  
25 to estimate the linear regression of AWCS as a function of socio-economic/demographic attributes  
26 and activity/travel episode attributes.

27           Regression model estimation results are presented in Table 4 and found to provide  
28 behaviorally intuitive interpretations. A delicate balance had to be struck between inclusion of  
29 socio-economic and demographic attributes, and activity episode attributes. Because activity  
30 episode attributes are strongly correlated with and themselves dependent upon socio-economic and  
31 demographic characteristics, they often turned out to be insignificant when extensive sets of socio-  
32 economic and demographic variables were included in the models. However, the primary goal of  
33 the integrated model system is to capture the well-being that people experience from their activity  
34 engagement and time use patterns. Hence, it was considered critical to retain as many attributes  
35 of the activity and travel episodes as possible, even if that meant compromises had to be made  
36 with respect to the inclusion of socio-economic and demographic attributes. Therefore, the model  
37 specifications include only a modest set of socio-economic variables. There is endogeneity that is  
38 undoubtedly impacting the model estimation results. Strictly speaking, a simultaneous equations  
39 model system should have been estimated, where activity-travel episode attributes are modeled as  
40 a function of truly exogenous variables, and then the AWCS is modeled as a function of activity-  
41 travel episode attributes and exogenous variables. The estimation of a more advanced simultaneous  
42 equations model system is left for a future phase of the model development effort; for simplicity,  
43 this first version of the model adopts a single regression equation approach for the three activity  
44 categories.

45

1 **TABLE 4 Linear Regression Results for Activity Well-being Composite Score Estimation**

		Variable	In-home (N=5000)	Out-of-home (N=5000)	Travel (N=5000)	
		Constant	-0.736 (0.001)	-0.283 (0.045)	-0.064 (0.652)	
Socioeconomic Attributes	<b>Gender</b>	Female		0.176 (0.001)	0.105 (0.114)	
	<b>Age (Base: 75+ years)</b>	15-20 years old		-0.580 (0.000)	-0.407 (0.007)	
		21-30 years old		-0.598 (0.000)	-0.402 (0.001)	
		31-49 years old		-0.699 (0.000)	-0.654 (0.000)	
		50-64 years old	-0.247 (0.000)	-0.556 (0.000)	-0.530 (0.000)	
	65-74 years old		-0.297 (0.048)			
	<b>Income</b>	Less than \$25,000		-0.185 (0.005)	-0.141 (0.090)	
Activity/Travel Attributes	<b>Activity Type / Trip Purpose (Base: Work)</b>	Home (travel only)			0.286 (0.004)	
		Maintenance	0.754 (0.000)	0.608 (0.000)	0.203 (0.073)	
		Education	-0.462 (0.181)	0.057 (0.784)	-0.449 (0.203)	
		Eating/Drinking	1.0924 (0.000)	1.062 (0.000)	0.767 (0.000)	
		Recreation/Social	0.885 (0.000)	1.151 (0.000)	0.583 (0.000)	
		Shopping	0.207 (0.761)	0.679 (0.000)	0.282 (0.016)	
		Religious	1.789 (0.000)	0.920 (0.000)	0.559 (0.009)	
		Other	0.824 (0.000)	1.007 (0.000)		
		<b>Accompaniment</b>		0.176 (0.000)	0.079 (0.087)	
		<b>Time</b>	Night (12-4 AM)		-0.587 (0.050)	
		<b>Episode Duration (min)</b>	Up to 10 min			0.168 (0.098)
			11 to 20 min			0.210 (0.046)
			21 to 30 min			0.310 (0.010)
			Up to 60 min		-0.153 (0.021)	
			Up to 4 hours	0.163 (0.224)		
	<b>Travel Mode</b>	HOV Driver			0.196 (0.050)	
		HOV Passenger			0.218 (0.062)	
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>			0.028	0.076	0.044	

2 *Note: The empty cells are either not significant or not applicable. No sleep episodes were rated.*

3  
4 The estimation results show that, relative to the oldest age group, all age groups experience  
5 a greater degree of negative emotions from out-of-home and travel episodes. In the case of out-of-  
6 home activities, this appears to be occurring because of the high prevalence of work episodes.  
7 Indeed, an examination of the coefficients associated with activity purpose show that all purposes  
8 exhibit a positive coefficient relative to work. Even after controlling for the work activity purpose,  
9 the age variables return negative coefficients, suggesting that younger groups may be experiencing  
10 time constraints and stresses more so than those 75+ years old. These time pressures manifest  
11 themselves in the form of lower well-being scores. The negative coefficients for age groups in the  
12 travel episode regression equation suggest that travel is largely viewed as a cost, particularly for  
13 those in age groups less than 65 years of age (for whom time constraints and pressures may be  
14 higher). Low income individuals have lower well-being scores for out-of-home activities and  
15 travel episodes; monetary constraints likely impact the type of activities and travel episodes they  
16 can pursue and experience.

17 An examination of the activity and travel episode attribute effects shows that all activities  
18 are viewed more positively than work – in-home, out-of-home, and travel. Although insignificant,  
19 the education category was retained in the model for its behavioral interpretation. In general, one  
20 would expect studying at home or traveling to study (education) to be viewed negatively relative

1 to other activities; however, the small (but insignificant) positive coefficient for education in the  
2 out-of-home regression equation suggests that people may not view the out-of-home (education)  
3 activity experience itself as negatively. Having accompaniments (companions) elevates the well-  
4 being score, particularly for out-of-home and travel episodes. Activities in the middle of the night  
5 are viewed more negatively. Travel time is an important predictor of well-being for travel  
6 episodes. As expected, travel episodes of shorter duration (categories under 30 minutes) exhibit  
7 positive coefficients, suggesting that these are the durations in which people find travel palatable.  
8 Interestingly enough, the coefficient values increase steadily from the lowest category of 0-10  
9 minutes to the category of 21-30 minutes, suggesting that people may be rating medium length  
10 trips as more pleasant than very short trips. It is possible that the longer trips are being made to  
11 more desirable destinations or that such travel episodes serve as a useful transition between  
12 activities (Mokhtarian and Salomon, 2001). Short activity durations outside home are viewed more  
13 negatively (up to 60 minutes), presumably because these are more maintenance type activities. In-  
14 home activities up to four hours are viewed more positively than those longer than four hours,  
15 presumably due to diminishing returns setting in with prolonged duration of participation in an  
16 activity. The  $R^2$  values are low, suggesting that there is much to be learned about the factors that  
17 affect and explain activity well-being scores. However, given that these regression equations were  
18 estimated on large sample disaggregate person-level data sets, the  $R^2$  values are not all that  
19 inconsistent with those typically encountered in person-level regression models of activity-travel  
20 demand. Nevertheless, future research efforts should aim to enrich the specification of the models  
21 with attributes that enhance the degree to which activity well-being composite scores (AWCS) are  
22 explained and predicted accurately.

23

## 24 **6. ILLUSTRATIVE APPLICATION OF THE MODEL**

25 The integrated well-being analysis and estimation model system was applied to a small sample of  
26 NHTS records (6,810 records) to demonstrate the efficacy of the model system. The model system  
27 could be applied to a full-fledged output of an activity-based travel demand model that may include  
28 millions of agents and their corresponding activity and travel episodes. As an activity-based model  
29 output was not readily available for use in this study, and since the objective of this exercise is to  
30 merely demonstrate the applicability of the model system, it was considered sufficient to use a  
31 small NHTS subsample for illustrative purposes. However, it should be noted that the model  
32 system can be applied to large activity-based model outputs to compute person well-being  
33 composite scores (PWCS) at the level of the individual agent without any problem. The model  
34 system is computationally simple, and the only potentially time-consuming step is the application  
35 of the MDCEV model to predict in-home time allocation for agents in an activity-based travel  
36 model output. However, forecasting applications using the MDCEV model are now commonplace  
37 and quite efficient and can be easily executed without any difficulty.

38 The illustrative application of the model system proceeds as follows. For the 6,810  
39 individuals in the demonstration data set, the in-home time budget is computed by subtracting total  
40 out-of-home time and travel time from 1,440 minutes. This budget is then used to apply the  
41 MDCEV model of in-home activity participation and time allocation to the sample of 6,810  
42 individuals. This step will yield a detailed in-home activity profile for each individual. In the next  
43 step of the application, the linear regression equations are applied to each of the activity episodes  
44 undertaken by an individual. In the NHTS data set, out-of-home activity episodes and travel  
45 episodes are given, but they should be viewed (for purposes of an application context) as the  
46 outputs of an activity-based travel demand model that furnishes complete information about all

1 out-of-home activity and travel episodes for each agent in a synthetic population. The in-home  
 2 activity episodes and time use patterns are those predicted by the MDCEV model when applied in  
 3 forecasting mode to the NHTS data set (which is being treated as equivalent to an activity-based  
 4 travel model output). The application of the linear regression models will return AWCS (activity  
 5 well-being composite scores) for each and every activity and travel episode pursued by an  
 6 individual. Finally, all AWCS values for each person are added up to create a daily person well-  
 7 being composite score (PWCS). This PWCS is considered a measure of daily subjective well-  
 8 being that considers the entire activity-travel pattern undertaken by an individual over the course  
 9 of a day. Table 5 furnishes the average PWCS for various demographic groups in the data set.

10  
 11 **TABLE 5 Average PWCS by Socio-economic and Demographic Attributes (N=6,810)**

Attributes	Categories	Average PWCS	Attributes	Categories	Average PWCS	
Gender	Male	-0.48	Age	15 to 20 years	-1.70	
	Female	0.33		21 to 30 years	-2.05	
Tenure	Not own	-2.30		31 to 49 years	-3.22	
	Own	0.54		50 to 64 years	-2.65	
Student	Not student	0.05		65 to 74 years	6.28	
	Student	-2.40		75 to 84 years	6.45	
Place of Birth	Not US born	-0.51		85+ years	4.16	
	US born	0.00		Work Status	Worker	-3.06
Disability	Not disabled	0.68			Retired	7.39
	Disabled	-6.50			Unemployed	-3.56
Driver Status	Driver	0.06	Vehicle Ownership	0	-1.96	
	Not Driver	-1.16		1	0.31	
Household Structure	1 adult, no children	-4.90		2	0.34	
	2+ adults, no children	-3.05	3+ cars	-0.61		
	1 adult, youngest child 0-5	-2.63	Income	Less than \$10,000	-2.60	
	2+ adults, youngest child 0-5	-2.40		\$10,000 to \$14,999	-1.27	
	1 adult, youngest child 6-15	-3.22		\$15,000 to \$24,999	0.15	
	2+ adults, youngest child 6-15	-2.24		\$25,000 to \$34,999	0.62	
	1 adult, youngest child 16-21	-3.65		\$35,000 to \$49,999	0.69	
	2+ adults, youngest child 16-21	-2.82		\$50,000 to \$74,999	0.69	
	1 adult, retired, no children	6.12		\$75,000 to \$99,999	0.40	
	2+ adults, retired, no children	5.15		\$100,000 to \$149,999	-0.61	
Mode Use	No walk trip	-0.54		\$150,000 or more	-0.92	
	At least one walk trip	0.14		Health	Excellent	-0.33
	No bike trip	0.00	Very good		0.44	
	At least one bike trip	-0.61	Good		0.44	
	No transit use	0.12	Fair		-1.61	
	At least one transit trip	-1.50	Poor		-4.24	
	No ridehailing trip	0.09	Location	Urban	-0.30	
	At least one ridehailing trip	-1.90		Rural	0.77	

12  
 13 The results are quite intuitive, suggesting that the model system developed in this study  
 14 could serve as a useful tool in assessing the feelings of well-being that people derive from their  
 15 activity-travel patterns and in identifying subgroups of the population that are experiencing lower  
 16 levels of daily well-being (although further investigations would need to be made to determine  
 17 *why* these subgroups are experiencing lower well-being). The trends in the table suggest that

1 females experience a higher degree of well-being as do individuals in households who own their  
2 home. Females may be spending more time inside the home taking care of household obligations,  
3 but also spending more time with other household members (e.g., children) and engaging in  
4 flexible and discretionary activities that add value (Meloni et al., 2007). Homeowners are likely  
5 to experience a higher degree of ownership in the community, may live in nicer residences, and  
6 have amenities in the neighborhood that facilitate pursuit of desirable leisure activities (McCabe,  
7 2013). Students presumably experience a lower level of well-being because of participation in the  
8 education activity – a mandatory activity that is unlikely to be pleasant. Those not born in the USA  
9 (immigrants) experience lower levels of well-being, possibly due to their greater use of transit  
10 (Kim, 2009; Farber et al., 2018) and inability to afford participating in discretionary activities that  
11 require monetary resources (Farber et al., 2018). As expected, those who are disabled experience  
12 a lower level of well-being, presumably due to mobility and activity engagement limitations.  
13 Drivers experience a higher level of well-being, largely due to their ability to drive and engage in  
14 activities. The auto mode has been found to engender more positive emotions for travel episodes  
15 (Mokhtarian and Pendyala, 2018), and the results in Table 4 illustrate this as well – particularly  
16 for high-occupant auto trips that involve accompaniment.

17 Household structure categories show that individuals in retired households experience a  
18 higher level of well-being than other household categories, a finding reported in prior studies  
19 (Ziems et al., 2010; Frijters and Beaton, 2012; Jensen et al., 2019). For all other (non-retired)  
20 categories, it is found that the single-adult groups consistently experience less well-being than the  
21 equivalent multi-adult group. This pattern suggests that the presence of multiple adults engenders  
22 a higher quality of life, presumably because of the companionship and ability to split household  
23 obligations and responsibilities (Stutzer and Frey, 2006). The results with respect to age confirm  
24 that those who are in the retired age groups experience higher sense of well-being. Although there  
25 is literature that speaks to the mobility limitations, social exclusion, and lower quality of life that  
26 the elderly experience (Glass et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2014), the results in this study and others  
27 (Archer et al., 2013; Ziems et al., 2010) show that the elderly are experiencing (on average) a high  
28 sense of well-being and quality of life relative to younger age groups. The breakpoint in the pattern  
29 is clearly seen at the 65-74 years of age, suggesting that the transition from a life of work to a life  
30 of leisure and play and fewer household obligations is met with a significant leap in well-being.  
31 Indeed, workers are found to experience a lower well-being than retired individuals; but  
32 unemployed individuals of working age have an average well-being score similar to that of  
33 workers – suggesting that the well-being in retirement is not necessarily due solely to transition  
34 away from a work-oriented life. Non-workers of non-retirement age are taking care of household  
35 obligations and maintenance activities, may be seeking work, and may not have the income and  
36 time needed to engage in discretionary activities that offer positive emotions (Katz, 2015; Gaddis  
37 and Wadhwa, 2018).

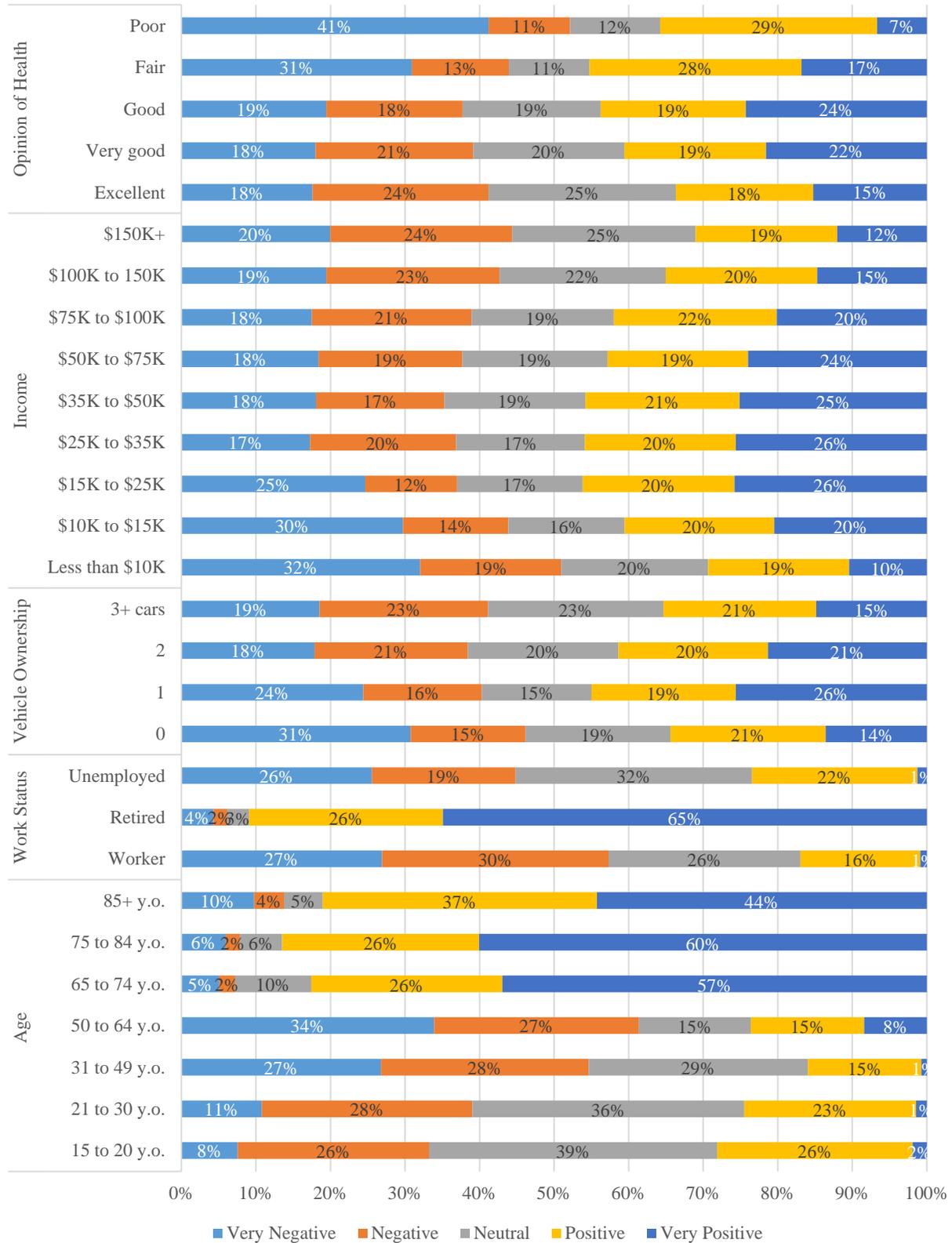
38 Vehicle ownership and mode use affect the well-being score. Vehicle ownership is  
39 associated with higher levels of well-being, but there is a drop in well-being at 3+ car ownership  
40 level. This is likely reflecting larger household sizes, more household obligations, and more time  
41 spent participating in work activities to afford the 3+ car lifestyle. However, individuals in zero-  
42 car households experience the lowest level of well-being (consistent with Bergstad, 2011),  
43 presumably due to lack of access to opportunities that comes with zero-car ownership. Those who  
44 walk report a higher level of well-being, suggesting that walking (which might be undertaken for  
45 leisure purposes as well) is associated with a more positive lifestyle. On the other hand, use of all  
46 other alternative modes (which may be indicative of lower access to personal vehicles) is

1 associated with lower degrees of well-being – suggesting that policies and investments are needed  
2 to improve the travel experience and destination accessibility for alternative modes.

3 The final set of variables in the table pertain to household income, health condition, and  
4 location. The findings related to income are consistent with the notion that “money can’t buy  
5 happiness” (Kahneman and Deaton, 2010). While well-being increases with income up to a certain  
6 level, well-being decreases after the \$75,000 income level, suggesting that those in the high income  
7 brackets have stresses and work-activity durations that decrease well-being (Gardner and Oswald,  
8 2001; Kahneman and Deaton, 2010). As expected, those in poor health report lower well-being;  
9 these individuals are likely to be in pain, tire easily, and not able to engage in activities and travel  
10 as much as their healthier counterparts (Fox, 1999). Finally, urban residents experience lower  
11 well-being than rural residents, presumably due to higher congestion, pollution, and stresses in the  
12 urban ecosystem (Amato and Zuo, 1992).

13 To further illustrate the well-being scores output by the model system, the distributions of  
14 well-being scores are shown in Figure 2. The entire sample of 6,810 respondents was divided into  
15 quintiles based on a sorting of well-being scores. The top quintile has the highest well-being scores  
16 while the bottom quintile has the lowest. These five quintiles are labeled as having very positive  
17 to very negative well-being. The figure show how each demographic group is distributed across  
18 the five bands of well-being quintiles. For example, consider work status; 27 percent of workers  
19 and 26 percent of unemployed fall into the very negative category, but only four percent of retirees  
20 do so. While 65 percent of retirees fall into the highest very positive category, only one percent  
21 of workers and unemployed individuals do so. In the interest of brevity, detailed explanations for  
22 all demographic groups are not provided in text form; however, the patterns can be easily discerned  
23 from the figure, and the patterns in the figure provide an underlying basis for the comparisons seen  
24 in Table 5. The pattern across age groups shows that the percent of individuals in the very negative  
25 category increases with age (as household obligations and other stresses of life take hold), but a  
26 dramatic shift in the distribution occurs as soon as the retirement age of 65+ years is reached.  
27 However, a drop in the percentage of individuals in the very positive category is seen at 85+ years  
28 old, presumably due to mobility and health limitations setting in at that age. The income  
29 relationship shows a pattern consistent with the notion that well-being increases with income up  
30 to a certain point, but drops at the highest income levels. Those with poor health fall  
31 disproportionately into the lowest negative category, suggesting that this group is experiencing a  
32 low quality of life and needs assistance.

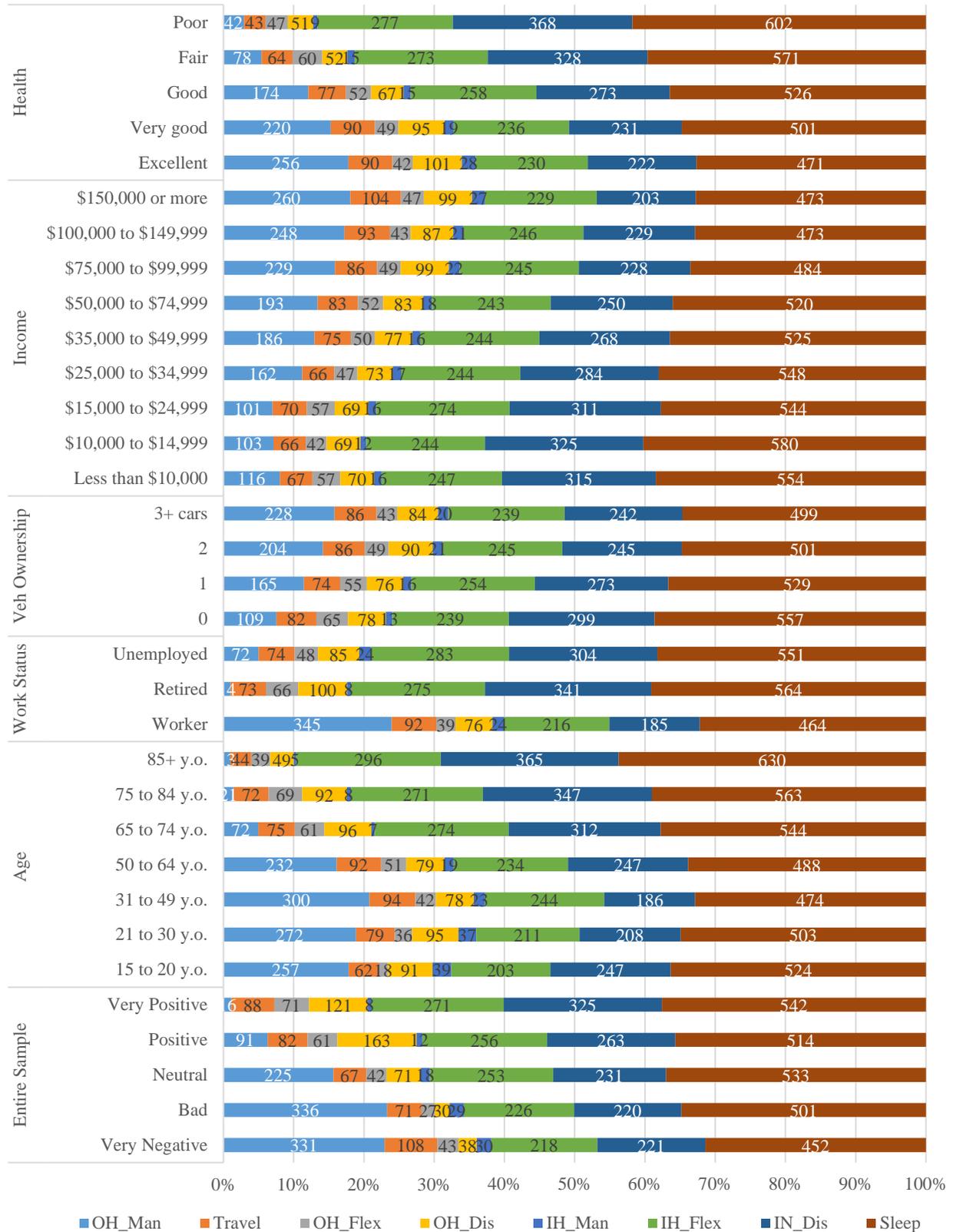
33 One of the major reasons why these patterns of well-being may be seen in Figure 2 is that  
34 time use patterns differ across groups. These distributions are shown in Figure 3. For each group,  
35 the distribution of time allocation to various types of activities is shown; the activities have been  
36 aggregated into mandatory activities (e.g., work and school), travel, flexible activities (e.g.,  
37 shopping and personal errands), and discretionary activities (e.g., social and recreational). Travel  
38 can only be undertaken outside home and sleep can only be undertaken inside home. These  
39 distributions should be viewed in the context of the well-being distributions shown in Figure 2.  
40 For the sample as a whole, it can be seen that those in the very negative groups (bottom of Figure  
41 3) spend a lot more time on mandatory activities and travel, and a lot less time on in-home or out-  
42 of-home discretionary activities (and less time on sleep). Those in the highest well-being quintile  
43 spend much less time on mandatory activities and a lot more time on in-home and out-of-home  
44 discretionary activities.



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**FIGURE 2 Distribution of Demographic Groups by PWCS Segment (N=6,810)**



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**FIGURE 3 Distribution of Groups by Time Allocation to Activities (N=6,810)**

1           Patterns of association between time use and well-being can be seen across the figures. For  
 2 the elderly above 65 years, the dramatic drop in work duration is accompanied by longer sleep  
 3 duration, and significant increases in in-home and out-of-home discretionary activity durations.  
 4 These patterns of time use engender a higher level of well-being, thus suggesting that a mere  
 5 reduction in travel is not necessarily an indicator of a lower quality of life. Older individuals do  
 6 spend a lot more time in-home, but that is not necessarily leading to a lower well-being because  
 7 they are presumably relaxed, not saddled with household and child-rearing obligations, and able  
 8 to engage in activities that they enjoy. The highest income individuals spend more time working  
 9 and more time traveling, both of which contribute to a decrease in well-being. They do spend  
 10 more time in out-of-home discretionary activities, but the dramatically lower time spent in in-home  
 11 discretionary activities lowers well-being overall. However, well-being is obviously not tied  
 12 solely to activity and time use patterns. The different health subgroups illustrate the more complex  
 13 relationships at play. While those with poor health spend less time on out-of-home and in-home  
 14 mandatory activities and less time traveling, they do not enjoy a higher well-being score. They do  
 15 spend more time at in-home discretionary activities, but they also spend less time on out-of-home  
 16 discretionary activities. They also spend more time sleeping (which has considerable diminishing  
 17 marginal returns at high values) and more time fulfilling household obligations (in-home flexible  
 18 activities). Their mobility limitations and other health related factors contribute to a lower well-  
 19 being score, even though the time use patterns show that their mandatory activity time allocation  
 20 is the lowest.

21  
 22 **7. CONCLUSIONS**

23 Transportation and well-being are inextricably connected with one another due to the activities  
 24 and experiences that mobility enables. Transportation planners and policy makers strive to  
 25 implement policies and direct investments in ways that would enable mobility for all, enhance  
 26 access to destinations and opportunities for all, and increase quality of life. Despite the widespread  
 27 recognition of the connection between well-being and activity-travel patterns, little progress has  
 28 been made in translating measures of activity-travel behavior into measures of well-being. As a  
 29 result, the time use patterns themselves are often viewed as indicators of well-being and quality of  
 30 life. Those who do not travel are viewed as experiencing isolation and social exclusion; those who  
 31 do not engage in discretionary activities are viewed as experiencing time poverty. While these  
 32 notions are useful, the lack of a model that explicitly delivers measures of well-being as a function  
 33 of socio-economic attributes, built environment attributes, and activity-travel pattern attributes  
 34 renders it challenging to truly assess the quality of life (well-being) impacts of alternative  
 35 investments, technologies, and policies.

36 To fill this void, this paper presents a comprehensive model system of well-being and  
 37 activity-travel behavior that can be used in conjunction with any standard activity-based travel  
 38 model system as a post-processor. The model development process involved using the well-being  
 39 module of the American Time Use Survey (ATUS) to develop models of well-being scores as a  
 40 function of socio-economic and activity-travel variables. One of the challenges associated with  
 41 developing a comprehensive well-being model system (that can be used in conjunction with travel  
 42 models) is that travel models do not output any information about activity engagement and time  
 43 use patterns inside the home. However, feelings of well-being are undoubtedly experienced by  
 44 virtue of in-home activity engagement. To overcome this challenge, a multiple discrete-  
 45 continuous extreme value (MDCEV) model of in-home activity engagement and time allocation  
 46 is estimated on the ATUS data set. This MDCEV model can be applied to any activity-based

1 travel model output to predict in-home time use patterns for each individual in a synthetic  
2 population. With the benefit of full information about the in-home and out-of-home activities and  
3 travel undertaken by an individual, well-being scores can be computed for each individual using  
4 the model system developed in this study. The paper summarizes model estimation results and  
5 illustrates the efficacy of the model through an application to a small sample of records drawn  
6 from the National Household Travel Survey (NHTS), which are meant to be representative of a  
7 typical activity-based model output. The results are intuitive and consistent with the notion that  
8 out-of-home discretionary activity engagement contributes positively to well-being.

9 A key finding that was derived from the analysis of the well-being module of the time use  
10 data set and the application of the well-being score models (to the random sample of NHTS  
11 records) is that well-being is not necessarily dependent on out-of-home activity engagement and  
12 travel. Discretionary activity engagement inside the home is found to contribute positively to well-  
13 being, while high amounts of travel are found to be associated with lower levels of well-being.  
14 Older individuals do not appear to be experiencing lower quality of life; in fact, they appear to be  
15 experiencing the highest well-being, presumably because of their discretionary activity  
16 engagement (inside the home) and relief from work obligations and stresses of life. In other words,  
17 the connection between well-being and time poverty (i.e., time devoted to discretionary activities)  
18 appears to be a stronger one, rather than the connection between well-being and traveling outside  
19 the home (to participate in societal activities). The findings suggest that it is important to take a  
20 holistic accounting of all activity engagement, both inside and outside the home, to assess well-  
21 being, degree of social exclusion, and quality of life. What is found is that those with poor health  
22 experience the lowest degrees of well-being, calling for greater interventions, investments, and  
23 policies that enable their participation in society and discretionary activities. While workers score  
24 low on the well-being metric presumably due to long durations at work, unemployed individuals  
25 also score low on the well-being metric despite much less mandatory activity time allocation.  
26 These individuals spend lot more time sleeping (which yields diminishing returns rapidly above a  
27 certain threshold) and more time fulfilling in-home obligations and maintenance activities. These  
28 chores are unlikely to yield much in the way of well-being. For this group (unlike the elderly  
29 groups), the substantial time spent in-home may indeed be leading to a lower quality of life; thus  
30 the connection between well-being and out-of-home activity engagement (and travel) is much  
31 more nuanced and varies across demographic segments.

32 Overall, the model system developed in this study may be used in conjunction with activity-  
33 based travel models to assess well-being implications of transportation investments and actions for  
34 different subgroups of the population. This is useful in the context of environmental justice and  
35 equity analyses. Future developments could focus on enriching the models of well-being scores  
36 with additional attributes (such as built environment variables), estimating simultaneous equations  
37 models of well-being scores to recognize endogeneity of activity-travel attributes, and applying  
38 the model system to a full-fledged activity-based travel model output of millions of agents to test  
39 the model in a real-world setting.

#### 40 41 42 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

43 This research was supported by the Center for Teaching Old Models New Tricks (TOMNET)  
44 which is a Tier 1 University Transportation Center sponsored by the US Department of  
45 Transportation.

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