

1 **A MULTIPLE DISCRETE-CONTINUOUS MODEL OF ACTIVITY TYPE CHOICE AND TIME ALLOCATION FOR**  
2 **HOME-BASED NON-WORK TOURS**

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 In the activity-based modeling arena, tour-based approaches to modeling travel demand have been  
3 implemented in practice in a number of geographical contexts. In the tour context, there are a number  
4 of choice dimensions wherein the choice of the alternatives and the amount to consume is made  
5 simultaneously. In particular, the choice of different activity types and the amount of time allocated to  
6 various activity types within a tour is of considerable interest. The simulation of these choice processes  
7 must be done while also recognizing the dependencies and interactions across choice contexts within  
8 the tour. It is desirable to model the choice context of multiple discrete choices (activity types) and the  
9 associated continuous variable (time spent on the activity types) under a single unifying framework to  
10 accurately capture the interrelationships across the choice dimensions within a tour. Data from the  
11 latest wave of the NHTS is used to estimate a joint model of activity type choice and continuous time  
12 allocation using the multiple discrete-continuous extreme value model. In addition, history of activity  
13 participation is explicitly captured in the model specification as explanatory variables. Results from the  
14 empirical exercise provide plausible results and support the case for modeling these choice dimensions  
15 simultaneously to accurately capture the inter-relationship between activity type choice and activity  
16 time allocation. History of activity participation was found to be significant with notable trade-off and  
17 complementarity effects exhibited by individuals for selected non-work activity types.

18  
19 **Keywords:** multiple discrete-continuous extreme value model, tour-based model, activity type, activity  
20 duration, home-based non-work tours

21

## 1 INTRODUCTION

2 In the activity-based modeling arena, tour-based approaches have been implemented in practice due  
3 their computational feasibility and appealing behavioral paradigm. In these approaches, a tour  
4 comprising a series of stops is the basic unit of analysis. Tour-based models generate activity-travel  
5 patterns by explicitly accounting for the interdependencies across stops within a tour. Tour-based  
6 models often break up a person's daily activity-travel engagement pattern into a set of primary and  
7 secondary tour choices. For each tour, the number of stops on the tour, the purpose of the activity  
8 episode on each stop, the sequencing of stops/activities, the destination for each activity stop, the mode  
9 of travel for individual trips and the tour as a whole, and activity timing are modeled using appropriate  
10 choice model formulations (Shiftan 1998; Bowman and Ben-Akiva 2001; Yagi and Mohammadian 2010).  
11 The different dimensions of tours are often modeled independently, but connected together through a  
12 nested logit model structure that feeds logsum terms through a chain of models. Doherty and  
13 Mohammadian (2011) developed ordered response choice models for different tour sizes, attempting to  
14 predict the choice order of the planned activity in the tour as a function of activity type, activity  
15 characteristics and individual characteristics. Bowman and Ben-Akiva (2001) conceptualized the timing  
16 of activities as the choice between morning, afternoon or evening based on the notion that certain types  
17 of activities are more attractive in certain periods of the day.

18 While the sequential treatment of choice dimensions has served the transportation community  
19 well, especially in operationalizing and implementing tour-based model systems, there has been a  
20 growing body of literature which supports the notion of simultaneity in choice dimensions and makes  
21 the case for employing advanced joint modeling frameworks that can accurately capture the  
22 simultaneity and potential endogeneity effects across choice dimensions. Ettema, et al (2007) proposed  
23 a model for the simultaneous choice of the timing and duration of activities and travel mode. Ye, et al  
24 (2007) studied the relationship between mode choice and complexity of trip chaining patterns by testing  
25 alternative causal structures. Despite the large body of literature dedicated to joint modeling of activity-  
26 travel choices, a topic that has not been adequately addressed is the modeling of activity engagement  
27 dimensions across choice contexts (stops) within a tour while recognizing the dependencies and  
28 interactions that individuals experience as they plan and execute tours. The questions that motivate the  
29 model development effort in this study are: what are the different activity types pursued within a tour,  
30 what is the frequency of the episodes for each activity type, how is time allocated to different activity  
31 types and further to individual activity episodes, and what are the transactions and trade-offs that  
32 individuals make across activity type choices within a tour.

33 The choice of activity types and the amount of time spent on each activity type are two key  
34 dimensions of activity engagement decisions. Time is a limited resource (1440 minutes) and individuals  
35 allocate the time to engage in different types of activities over the course of day. There is some  
36 literature exploring these two dimensions in the context of daily activity engagement behavior. Bhat  
37 (2005) explores the activity allocation decisions of individuals to discretionary activity types during  
38 weekend days. Pinjari and Bhat (2010) study non-worker daily activity engagement behavior. However,  
39 these studies are limited to daily allocations and do not explore the nature of activity engagement at a  
40 disaggregate level of individual tours as dealt with in tour-based models. At the tour-level there have  
41 been some studies exploring activity engagement. Limanond et al (2005) specified a tour-based  
42 neighborhood shopping model and calibrated it using the travel data collected from three sample  
43 neighborhoods located in the Puget Sound region. Krygsman et al (2007) studied the mutual interaction  
44 between transport mode choice and trip chaining choice for a given work tour. While these comprise  
45 studies exploring attributes at a tour-level, they do not account for the dependencies across tour  
46 dimensions or choice contexts (e.g., across stops, or across activity types within a tour). One of the key  
47 goals of this study is to explore and model the choice of activity types and activity time allocation for  
48 home-based non work tours while recognizing the interactions across choice contexts within the tour.

1 The modeling of activity engagement decisions across activity types within a tour involves  
2 specification and estimation challenges. A typical approach to model this choice dimension is to  
3 enumerate all possible combinations of activity types and model using traditional random utility-based  
4 single discrete choice models. However, this approach doesn't account for diminishing marginal returns  
5 of consuming an alternative and hence fails to capture the transactions and tradeoff behaviors that  
6 individuals exhibit when making decisions of multiple activity types and the amount of time they wish to  
7 spend on different activities. Further, the situation calls for modeling multiple discrete alternatives  
8 (choice of activity types) and multiple continuous variables (durations associated with activity types)  
9 simultaneously within a tour. The multiple discrete-continuous extreme value (MDCEV) methodology  
10 proposed by Bhat (2005, 2008) is adopted in this study to model the choice of different types of  
11 activities pursued on a tour and the time spent pursuing those activity types. Further, the MDCEV  
12 formulation has a neat closed form solution and affords the ability to efficiently estimate models.

13 In the context of understanding activity engagement behavior, an important consideration is the  
14 history of activity participation and its role in shaping activity engagement patterns in subsequent time  
15 steps of the day. For example, if an individual has already participated in a shopping episode in an earlier  
16 part of the day, the probability that he or she will engage in another shopping activity later in the day is  
17 potentially lower. There are a number of studies that have showed the history of activity participation  
18 and the types of substitution and complementarity effects displayed by individuals as they shape their  
19 activity agendas (Konduri et al., 2011; Kasturirangan et al., 2002). It is important to capture the role of  
20 history of activity participation to accurately model the dynamics of activity-travel engagement  
21 exhibited by individuals as they plan their daily activity schedules.

22 The study aims to add to the literature on tour-based modeling by making contributions along  
23 the following three lines of inquiry. First, a tour-level joint model of activity engagement decisions is  
24 presented. In particular, the choice of all activity types and the amount of time spent on each activity  
25 type is modeled at a tour level. This effort comprises a unique attempt to understand activity  
26 engagement behavior at an individual tour level while recognizing the interactions and dependencies  
27 across choice contexts within a tour (stops). Second, the study explores the role of history dependency  
28 in modeling activity engagement in the context of tours – a topic that is not yet well understood. The  
29 empirical exercise involves estimating a tour-level activity type and time allocation model on the  
30 Maricopa county add-on sample from the latest (2009) wave of the National Household Travel Survey  
31 (NHTS).

32 The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In the next section, an overview of the joint  
33 modeling framework (MDCEV) is presented. In the third section, the data utilized in this study is  
34 presented along with an exploratory analysis to identify trends in the data. In the fourth section, the  
35 joint model results are presented; this is followed by a discussion of the results and some concluding  
36 thoughts in the final section.

## 37 **METHODOLOGY**

38 As noted in the previous section, one of the main aims of the study was to model the choice of activity  
39 type and duration for all activities undertaken on the tour simultaneously. This entails choice of multiple  
40 (more than one) discrete alternatives (activity types) and the allocation of time durations to various  
41 activity types to construct a tour profile. This modeling context is ideally suited to the application of the  
42 multiple discrete-continuous extreme value (MDCEV) methodology proposed by Bhat (2005, 2008). In  
43 the following subsections, an overview of the MDCEV methodology is presented with a view to apply  
44 this method to simultaneously model the activity-type(s) choice and duration for each tour.  
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47

1 **Utility Model Specification**

2 Several consumer choices are characterized by multiple-discreteness (i.e., simultaneous choice of one or  
 3 more alternatives that are imperfect substitutes of one another). Examples include a household owning  
 4 different kinds of vehicles (Bhat and Sen, 2006) or a firm owning different brands of computers. Such  
 5 situations can be modeled using traditional random utility-based (RUM) single discrete choice models,  
 6 but since these models allow only a single alternative to be chosen among a set of mutually exclusive  
 7 alternatives, one should identify all combinations of elemental alternatives and treat each combination  
 8 as a ‘composite alternative’ (Bhat, 2008). This list will explode as the number of alternatives increase.  
 9 Also, RUM single discrete choice models do not take into account the diminishing marginal returns of  
 10 consuming an alternative. To overcome these limitations of the single discrete choice model in such  
 11 multiple discrete choice contexts, Bhat (2005) formulated a model that allows for multiple-discreteness  
 12 in the choice behaviors, as well as satiation associated with consuming an alternative. This model is  
 13 referred to as the multiple discrete-continuous extreme value (MDCEV) model. The functional form of  
 14 utility proposed by Bhat (2008) is based on a generalized variant of constant elasticity of substitution  
 15 (CES) function:

$$U(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^K \frac{\gamma_k}{\alpha_k} \psi_k \left\{ \left( \frac{x_k}{\gamma_k} + 1 \right)^{\alpha_k} - 1 \right\}; \tag{1}$$

$$\psi_k > 0, \gamma_k > 0, \alpha_k \leq 1$$

17 where  $U(\mathbf{x})$  is a quasi-concave and continuously differentiable function with respect to consumption  
 18 quantity vector  $\mathbf{x}$  ( $x_k \geq 0$  for all  $k$ ).  $\psi_k$  represents the baseline marginal utility or the marginal utility at  
 19 the zero consumption point. Suppose there are two goods  $i$  and  $j$ . If good  $i$  has a higher baseline  
 20 marginal utility compared with good  $j$ , it implies that a consumer can increase whole utility by  
 21 consuming good  $i$  instead of good  $j$ . A higher value of  $\psi_k$  implies less likelihood for zero consumption for  
 22 good  $k$ .  $\alpha_k$  is the satiation parameter which accounts for diminishing marginal utility with increasing  
 23 consumption of good  $k$ . If  $\alpha_k$  equals 1 for all goods, it implies no satiation effects or constant marginal  
 24 utility. As  $\alpha_k$  approaches 0, it means there is an increase of satiation effects for good  $k$ . If the baseline  
 25 utility of all goods is the same, lower values of  $\alpha_k$  imply a smaller budget spent on good  $k$ . When  
 26  $\alpha_k \rightarrow -\infty$ , immediate and full satiation can be expected for good  $k$ .  $\gamma_k$ , the translation parameter  
 27 governs the level of satiation and also enables corner solutions (i.e., zero consumption of some goods).  
 28 As  $\gamma_k$  increases, it represents a higher preference for good  $k$ .

29 The baseline marginal utility,  $\psi_k$  is written in the following functional form to introduce the  
 30 impact of observed and unobserved alternative attributes (Bhat, 2008):

$$\psi_k(z_k, \varepsilon_k) = \exp(\beta' z_k + \varepsilon_k) \tag{2}$$

31 where  $z_k$  is a set of attributes characterizing the alternative  $k$  and  $\varepsilon_k$  captures unobserved characteristics  
 32 that impact the baseline utility for good  $k$ . It is assumed that  $\varepsilon_k$  is independent of  $z_k$  and is  
 33 independently distributed across alternatives with a scale parameter of  $\sigma$  ( $\sigma$  can be normalized to 1 in  
 34 case of no price variation across goods). Substituting equation (2) for  $\psi_k$  in the utility function in  
 35 equation (1) results in the following:

$$U(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^K \frac{\gamma_k}{\alpha_k} [\exp(\beta' z_k + \varepsilon_k)] \left\{ \left( \frac{x_k}{\gamma_k} + 1 \right)^{\alpha_k} - 1 \right\} \tag{3}$$

1 From the analyst's perspective, the choice-maker is maximizing random utility given by equation  
 2 (3) subject to a linear budget constraint wherein the budget allocated to each alternative  $t_k$  satisfies the  
 3 condition that:

$$4 \quad \sum_{k=1}^K t_k = T \quad (4)$$

5 where  $T$  is the total budget ( $t_k \geq 0$ ),  $t_k = p_k x_k$ , and  $p_k$  is the unit price of a good. In the context of this  
 6 study the unit price of choosing any of the alternatives is equal (no price variation), hence  $p_k = p, \forall$   
 7  $k$ . The optimal budget allocations can be obtained by forming the Lagrangian and applying the Kuhn–  
 8 Tucker (KT) conditions. The Lagrangian function is given as (Bhat, 2008):

$$10 \quad \mathcal{L} = \sum_k \frac{\gamma_k}{\alpha_k} [\exp(\beta' z_k + \varepsilon_k)] \left\{ \left( \frac{t_k}{\gamma_k p_k} + 1 \right)^{\alpha_k} - 1 \right\} - \lambda \left[ \sum_{k=1}^K t_k - T \right] \quad (5)$$

11 where  $\lambda$  is the Lagrangian multiplier associated with budget constraint. The KT first order conditions for  
 12 optimal budget allocations (the  $t_k^*$  values) are (Bhat, 2008):

$$14 \quad \left[ \frac{\exp(\beta' z_k + \varepsilon_k)}{p_k} \right] \left\{ \left( \frac{t_k^*}{\gamma_k p_k} + 1 \right)^{\alpha_k - 1} - 1 \right\} - \lambda = 0, \text{ if } t_k^* > 0, k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, K \quad (6)$$

$$\left[ \frac{\exp(\beta' z_k + \varepsilon_k)}{p_k} \right] \left\{ \left( \frac{t_k^*}{\gamma_k p_k} + 1 \right)^{\alpha_k - 1} - 1 \right\} - \lambda < 0, \text{ if } t_k^* = 0, k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, K$$

15 The optimal consumption satisfies the first order conditions as well as equation 4 (budget  
 16 constraint). Bhat (2008) specified the error structures and derived the MDCEV model where an  
 17 individual allocates the available budget to first  $M$  of the  $K$  available alternatives as:

$$19 \quad P(t_1^*, t_2^*, t_3^*, \dots, t_M^*, 0, 0, \dots, 0) = \frac{1}{\sigma^{M-1}} |J| \left[ \frac{\prod_{i=1}^M e^{V_i/\sigma}}{\left( \sum_{k=1}^K e^{V_k/\sigma} \right)^M} \right] (M-1)! ; \quad (7)$$

$$V_k = \beta' z_k + (\alpha_k - 1) \ln \left( \frac{t_k^*}{\gamma_k p_k} + 1 \right) - \ln p_k \quad (k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, K)$$

20 where  $|J|$  is the Jacobian derived by Bhat (2008) for the case of no price variation across alternatives:

$$21 \quad |J| = \left( \prod_{i=1}^M c_i \right) \left( \sum_{i=1}^M c_i \right), \quad \text{where } c_i = \left( \frac{1 - \alpha_i}{t_i^* + \gamma_i p_i} \right) \quad (8)$$

22 The expression in equation (7) collapses to a standard MNL model, in the case when only one  
 23 alternative is chosen ( $M = 1$ ), diminishing marginal utility is not accounted for ( $\alpha_k = 1, \forall k$ ) and the  
 24 Jacobian (continuous component) drops out, as all budget is allocated to good 1. The likelihood function  
 25 for the MDCEV model has a neat closed form solution that makes it possible to estimate parameters  
 26

1 using standard maximum likelihood estimation methods. A program was written in R to estimate the  
2 MDCEV model and optimization algorithms within R were used to search for parameter estimates that  
3 maximize the likelihood function.

#### 4 **DATA DESCRIPTION**

5 The analysis in this study was conducted using data from the latest wave of the National Household  
6 Travel Survey (NHTS 2009). NHTS collects data about all trips that were pursued by a representative  
7 sample of households and persons in a region. The data for this analysis was limited to the Maricopa  
8 County add-on sample to minimize any regional biases in activity engagement behaviors. NHTS includes  
9 a trip diary survey (as opposed to an activity diary) and hence activity engagement and tour information  
10 is not readily available. Activity engagement profiles were derived for this study by using a combination  
11 of trip purpose to, trip purpose from, and dwell time variables in the dataset. Further, tours were  
12 constructed from trip records by using home or work as the anchors. All activities pursued between the  
13 departure from- and arrival at- the anchor locations were defined as stops and tours were tagged as  
14 home-based or work-based depending on the anchor location. The analysis was limited to individuals 18  
15 years and older who reported trips on a weekday (Monday through Friday). The activity engagement  
16 analysis in this study was limited to home-based non-work tours undertaken by non-workers (anybody  
17 who reported absolutely no work trip on the travel survey day) because of the flexibility afforded by  
18 home-based tours for non-work type activities. All of the non-work episodes considered in this study  
19 were classified into the following seven categories:

- 20 • Personal Business
- 21 • Meal
- 22 • Shopping
- 23 • Serve Passenger
- 24 • Recreational & Sports
- 25 • Social Visit
- 26 • Other

27 In addition to constructing tours, variables representing history of activity participation were computed  
28 for each tour by calculating the amount of time spent on the above activity types up to the tour under  
29 consideration. The time allocation budget (continuous time budget constraint) for the MDCEV model  
30 was computed as an aggregate of all activity time allocations for stops within the tour. Activity  
31 durations at anchor locations were not included in the budget. It is plausible to argue that the true  
32 budget is the sum of all activity durations and travel durations within a tour; however, due to the  
33 absence of a destination choice model component in the current empirical study, the budget was  
34 limited to an aggregation of activity time allocations. The behavioral paradigm assumed here is one  
35 where individuals separately allocate a travel budget and an activity time budget for each tour. The  
36 activity time budget is then apportioned across activity types according to the MDCEV model. When  
37 zero time is allocated to an activity type, that activity type is not pursued at all in the tour.

38 The data preparation process described above resulted in 4486 tours pursued by 2546 survey  
39 respondents. Table 1 provides summary statistics for the respondent subsample. It should be noted that  
40 the survey subsample is dominated by older people with about 46 percent of the survey respondents  
41 older than 65 years of age. As a result, the mean age for the sample is 61 years. There is a higher  
42 percentage of female respondents comprising about 60 percent of the subsample. The household  
43 attributes are also reflective of the older demographic. The average household size is about 2.42 with  
44 about 0.4 children per household. It is also interesting to note that the number of workers within these  
45 households is 0.67, a low figure reflecting the large number of households with retired individuals.  
46 These observations of household structure may also be reflective of the filtering criterion employed to  
47

1 create the subsample wherein only home-based non-work tours on weekdays were selected for  
2 analysis; presumably most workers report at least one work trip on a weekday and they are not included  
3 in the subsample. The subsample is also dominated by automobile-oriented households as can be seen  
4 from the high car ownership levels, with about 65 percent of the households reporting two or more  
5 vehicles in the household. The subsample has a significant amount of households with Caucasian  
6 householders (90 percent of households) mostly living in urban environments (nearly 82 percent live in  
7 urban areas).

8 Table 2 shows the profile of home-based non-work tours and provides some important insights  
9 into the activity-travel engagement patterns of respondents in the subsample. The count refers to the  
10 actual number of tours that included a specific activity type. For example, of the 4486 tours in the  
11 sample, 249 were tours that only included the single activity type of Personal Business. The average  
12 time allocation to personal business for those 249 tours is 76.1 minutes (average computed across tours  
13 that actually included the activity type). If, however, the average is computed across all single activity  
14 type tours (i.e., 2952 tours, many of which have no personal business activity participation), then the  
15 average time allocation (including zero values) is 6.4 minutes. Beyond the statistics shown in the table,  
16 it is found that tour durations increase as the number of activity types pursued within the tour  
17 increases. It is interesting to note that the non-zero averages are typically highest for social visit,  
18 recreation & sports, and meal types of activities regardless of the number of activity types pursued on  
19 the tour. These findings are consistent with expectations in that eat meal activities typically last for an  
20 hour or so, and social recreation activities are likely to be longer than maintenance type activities (such  
21 as shopping and personal business). It is also found that the average number of home-based non-work  
22 tours per person in the sample is 1.76 per day. In the table, it is found that 40 percent of the tours  
23 involve the pursuit of more than one activity type. In addition, not shown in the table is the statistic that  
24 60 percent of the tours have more than one stop episode (although multiple episodes may be devoted  
25 to the same activity type); these observations support the need for a modeling paradigm (multiple  
26 discrete-continuous formulation) that can model activity engagement by type for home-based non-work  
27 tours.

## 28 **MODEL ESTIMATION RESULTS**

29 A variety of household socio-demographics (income, household size, number of children in the  
30 household), individual demographics (age, gender, race), land use characteristics, and tour level  
31 attributes (history of activity participation and tour start time) were explored to explain the activity type  
32 choice and time allocation behavior. In the current effort, the translation parameters ( $\gamma_j$ ) are fixed ( $\gamma_j =$   
33  $1, \forall j$ ), and the coefficients of the explanatory variables in the baseline preference ( $\beta'$ ) and the satiation  
34 parameters ( $\alpha_j$ ) for all alternatives are estimated. The "other" activity type is considered as the base  
35 alternative for estimation. Various combinations of variables were tried and variables that were  
36 statistically significant and behaviorally intuitive were retained for each of the alternatives. Table 3  
37 provides the joint model of activity type choice and time allocation to activity types at an individual tour  
38 level for home-based non-work tours pursued by non-workers on a weekday.

### 39 **Household Level variables**

40  
41 Individuals with household income less than \$35,000 had lesser baseline preference for pursuing  
42 personal business, recreation and meal stops on the tour. This is intuitive as lower income households  
43 might not be able to spend resources on recreation and meals outside home. On the other hand,  
44 individuals with household income between \$35,000 and \$50,000 had higher preference for making  
45 social stops and allocating time to such activities compared to other types of activity. Individuals with a  
46 larger number of people in the household had lesser baseline preference for recreational stops. This is  
47



1 probably due to the need to take care of household obligations (in larger households), resulting in a  
2 higher level of maintenance and recreational activity engagement at home. Vehicle availability defined  
3 as a ratio of the number of vehicles to number of persons in the household was observed to be  
4 significant. Individuals from households with higher vehicle ratio had higher baseline preference for  
5 personal business and social stops. It is possible that high availability of vehicles provides travelers  
6 greater flexibility in pursuing personal business and social activity type stops outside home without  
7 feeling constrained to rush back home because another individual in the household needs to use the  
8 car.

9 Consistent with expectations, the household structure also appears to affect activity  
10 engagement patterns associated with non-work tours. Individuals in households with children have  
11 lesser baseline preference for shopping, social visit, and meal stops. Presumably the presence of  
12 children makes it difficult for parents to plan and participate in discretionary activity types, especially on  
13 a weekday. Land use variables, particularly the location of home, appears to play a role in shaping the  
14 types of activities pursued on a tour. Tours undertaken by individuals living in urban clusters have a  
15 lower propensity to include the serve-passenger activity type. This observation can be attributed to  
16 mixed land use characteristics of the household's location (in urban settings), which might encourage  
17 people to walk/bike to the destinations (such as shopping/school) without another household member  
18 requiring to drop off or pick them up.

#### 19 20 **Individual Level Variables**

21 In addition to household-level variables, individual-level variables were also explored in the model  
22 specification. Individuals more than 65 years of age have a higher propensity to engage in personal  
23 business stops. On the other hand, tours made by people in the age group 36 to 45 years were more  
24 likely to include shopping and serve passenger activity types. The difference in the preference for the  
25 types of activities pursued on the tour can be attributed to the differing needs and lifecycle stages of the  
26 two age groups. The elderly may be participating in personal business type activities for meeting health  
27 care needs, while the middle aged group may be engaging in shopping and serve passenger type  
28 activities to fulfill their household responsibilities and serve their children or other members of the  
29 household. Gender was also observed to play a significant role in defining the types of activities pursued  
30 on non-work tours. Tours made by females had a higher likelihood of including social stops, while those  
31 made by males had higher propensity to include recreational stops. This result is intuitive and can be  
32 attributed to the kinds of gender differences that have been documented extensively in the travel and  
33 time use literature.

#### 34 35 **Tour Level attributes**

36 In addition to the household- and person-level socio-demographic attributes, a number of tour related  
37 attributes including start time of the tour and history of activity participation on prior tours of the day  
38 were explored. The history of activity participation was calculated as the total time spent in a particular  
39 activity type on all previous tours. Tours of individuals who have already spent time shopping on prior  
40 tours show a lower propensity to include both personal business and shopping stops. It is possible that  
41 satiation is reached quickly in these activity types (see the next section). Once an individual has already  
42 pursued shopping, then he or she is unlikely to desire pursuing maintenance type activities again in  
43 subsequent tours. It is interesting, however, to see that tours, undertaken by individuals who already  
44 spent some time on social visit activity (prior to the current tour), are more likely to include another  
45 social visit stop. This can be attributed to the low level of satiation associated with social visit stops  
46 (Konduri et al. 2011).

47 A number of tour start time indicators were explored to capture the differences in activity  
48 engagement by time of day. In the early morning hours of 7 am to 9 am, tours are more likely to include

1 serve passenger stops. This may, at least in part, be due to the “drop off child at school” event. For  
2 tours starting in the morning (9 am – 11 am), individuals have low baseline preference to make a  
3 recreation stop, which is intuitive as not a lot of people would want to participate in a recreational stop  
4 at the start of the day. Tours starting mid-day (11 am – 1 pm) and evening (5 pm – 7 pm) are more likely  
5 to include time allocation to a meal stop. This result is logical as these are the lunch and dinner periods.  
6 Shopping is more likely to be included in tours post lunch (1 pm – 3 pm). The early afternoon period  
7 appears to be conducive to engaging in a shopping stop. Tours in the early afternoon are also likely to  
8 include serve passenger stops, presumably to pick up children from school. Social visit stops are more  
9 likely to be part of tours starting in the evening. This may be plausible because social visits with friends  
10 and relatives typically take place towards the latter part of the day.

11

### 12 **Other Model Parameters**

13 In addition to all the coefficients described above, the MDCEV formulation also includes a number of  
14 satiation parameters. There is variation in the satiation parameters across different activity types, which  
15 calls for the use of multiple discrete choice models as opposed to single discrete choice models (which  
16 assume satiation for all activities to be the same and equal to 1). Satiation for serve passenger is higher  
17 compared to other types of stops and satiation for recreational activity is the lowest indicating that  
18 people do not want to spend a large amount of their time serving others, but would like to spend it on  
19 recreational or social activities. Satiation for meal stop is lower than that for shopping and serve  
20 passenger type activities. This can be partially attributed to the nature of a meal stop wherein a person  
21 is likely to enjoy eating a meal away from home and allocates an adequate period of time to fulfill the  
22 activity.

23

### 24 **Goodness of Fit**

25 The signs of all explanatory variables are statistically significant and consistent with expectations. Log-  
26 likelihood value of the final model at convergence is -18151.27 with 37 degrees of freedom and that for  
27 the model with only constants in the baseline preference terms and satiation parameters is -18613.28.  
28 The likelihood ratio is 924.02 which is substantially greater than the critical chi-squared ( $\chi^2_{0.001}$ ) value at  
29 31 degrees of freedom supporting the model specification presented in Table 3.

30

### 31 **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

32 The study aims to add to the literature on tour-based modeling along the following fronts. First, a joint  
33 tour-based model of multiple activity type engagement and activity time allocation is estimated using a  
34 multiple discrete-continuous modeling approach. This is one of the few explorations of activity  
35 engagement behaviors at the most disaggregate unit of analysis, namely, tour. The multiple discrete-  
36 continuous extreme value (MDCEV) formulation proposed by Bhat (2005, 2008) is employed in this  
37 effort to accurately capture the interrelationships between the different activity type participation  
38 contexts within a tour. Second, the study explores the role of history of activity participation in the  
39 formation of activity schedules in subsequent tours of the day.

40 Data from the latest wave of the National Household Travel Survey was used in this study. The  
41 model was limited to home-based non-work tours because of the extra flexibility afforded by the lack of  
42 fixed activities and their time-space prism constraints. The model results are very plausible. A host of  
43 socio-economic and demographic attributes were found to affect tour-level activity engagement and  
44 time allocation patterns. History of activity participation also significantly influenced activity type  
45 engagement within tours and interesting trade-off and complementarity effects were observed even in  
46 the presence of explicit satiation parameters inherent to the MDCEV formulation. The study highlights  
47 the applicability of the MDCEV modeling framework for modeling tour-level decisions and the following  
48 discussion identifies some follow-up research directions of immediate interest.

1 In this empirical study, two key dimensions of tour-based choices, namely, the choice of activity  
2 type and the duration spent on the activity types is modeled using a joint modeling approach (MDCEV  
3 model). It should be noted that the empirical model presented in this paper needs to be extended  
4 further to be applied in tour-based models. The empirical context explored in this paper provides  
5 insights on the proclivity of individuals to engage in different types of activities within non-work tours  
6 and allocate time to the pursuit of those activity types. There are two key dimensions that one needs to  
7 model to fully understand the activity engagement patterns of individuals and subsequently simulate  
8 the behaviors in a forecasting exercise. First, to fully generate tours, the numbers of stops of different  
9 activity types need to be identified, and for each of those stops, the time spent on the activity  
10 type/episode needs to be determined. Similar to the choice situation explored in this paper, the choice  
11 of activity type for each stop needs to be modeled in a joint modeling framework to accurately capture  
12 the interrelationships across stops within a tour. The modeling framework presented in this paper can  
13 easily be extended to not only model the stop-level activity type choice and duration, but also the  
14 frequency of the stops of each activity type. This can be achieved by altering the way in which discrete  
15 alternatives are enumerated in MDCEV. In the current paper, there are seven possible alternatives for  
16 the activity type choice and the individual can engage in zero duration for any of the seven activity  
17 types. If each discrete alternative is defined to represent a stop-level activity episode, the discrete set of  
18 alternatives can be enumerated so that a multitude of instances of each activity type is allowed subject  
19 to a maximum number of such episodes observed in survey data. The individual now has the choice of  
20 multiple activities of the same type and based on the number of alternatives chosen (with non-zero  
21 duration), the stop frequency is implicitly determined along with activity type choice at each stop  
22 (activity episode) and the activity duration. The MDCEV modeling framework offers the ability to  
23 accurately capture any transaction decisions and tradeoff behaviors. One might argue that multiple  
24 episodes of the same activity type may share some common unobserved attributes and that error  
25 correlations need to be accommodated to make accurate inferences. MDCEV offers a very robust  
26 framework and mixed extensions of the formulation can easily accommodate error correlations across  
27 choice alternatives.

28 The second key dimension that is of interest to generate tours in their entirety is the sequencing  
29 of stops within a tour. While modeling the frequency of stops, activity types, and time spent at the stops  
30 can be achieved through simple extensions of the MDCEV model, the incorporation of the sequencing  
31 dimension is not that straightforward and constitutes an important topic for research and inquiry. An  
32 extension of the MDCEV dubbed the MDCEV-MNL that jointly models multiple discrete-continuous  
33 choice variables (stop type choice and duration) with a multinomial discrete choice variable (sequence  
34 order) may be a potential candidate (Bhat et al., 2009). However, the size of the choice set may explode  
35 in the enumeration of all possible choice alternatives with increasing number of stops, making the  
36 computation and implementation of the model system cumbersome. Alternative approaches that one  
37 could explore include methods from the data mining literature to understand stop sequencing behavior  
38 (e.g., sequence alignment procedures, pattern matching techniques).

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Table 1. Summary of the Household- and Person-Level Attributes of the Respondent Subsample

<b>Characteristic</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>
<i>Household attributes</i>		
Number of vehicles in the household	1.93	1.02
Household size	2.42	1.24
Number of adults in the household	2.01	0.70
Number of children in the household (age less than 18 years)	0.4	0.93
Number of workers in the household	0.67	0.84
Number of drivers in the household	1.91	0.73
% household with two or more vehicles	65.20%	0.48
% household with two or more persons	83.70%	0.37
% household with two or more adults	83%	0.38
% household with children (at least one)	19.90%	0.40
% household with two or more drivers	76.50%	0.42
% households where race of the householder: White	89.60%	0.31
% households where race of the householder: Hispanic	3.30%	0.18
% households residing in urban	81.90%	0.39
% households residing in urban cluster	4.50%	0.21
% households residing in 1 million or more population areas	75.50%	0.43
% households owning residence	91.10%	0.29
% households with income less than \$50,000	45.40%	0.50
<i>Person attributes</i>		
Age of the respondents in years	61.34	16.29
% persons with age > 65 years	45.60%	0.50
% male	40.10%	0.49
% persons who purchase goods at least one time through internet in past month	36.60%	0.48
Sample Size, N	2,546 Respondents	

Table 2. Profile of Types of Activities and Average Time Allocations by Activity Type for Home-Based Non-Work Tours

Tour Activity Type Count	Duration (minutes)	Personal Business	Shopping	Social Visit	Recreation & Sports	Meal	Serve Passenger	Other	Full Tour
One activity type	Non-zero Average	76.1	40.0	139.5	73.1	62.1	15.3	75.1	
	<i>Count</i>	249	831	251	631	297	416	277	2952
	Including Zero Average	6.4	11.3	11.9	15.6	6.2	2.2	7.0	60.6
Two activity types	Non-zero Average	66.1	31.8	111.6	108.4	50.9	21.3	67.8	
	<i>Count</i>	120	712	86	129	156	182	133	759
	Including Zero Average	10.5	29.8	12.6	18.4	10.5	5.1	11.9	98.8
Three activity types	Non-zero Average	59.3	31.3	87.0	106.9	48.2	21.3	62.1	
	<i>Count</i>	94	671	70	73	146	168	95	439
	Including Zero Average	12.7	47.8	13.9	17.8	16.0	8.2	13.4	129.8
Four activity types	Non-zero Average	33.3	31.5	90.1	89.1	47.0	23.1	52.3	
	<i>Count</i>	55	353	30	34	88	77	51	172
	Including Zero Average	10.7	64.7	15.7	17.6	24.1	10.4	15.5	158.5
Five activity types	Non-zero Average	42.6	22.0	98.5	79.7	54.8	9.9	55.7	
	<i>Count</i>	37	228	28	19	45	66	37	92
	Including Zero Average	17.1	54.6	30.0	16.5	26.8	7.1	22.4	174.5
Five or more activity types	Non-zero Average	33.4	27.5	125.8	59.5	39.7	21.7	60.5	
	<i>Count</i>	48	283	18	17	44	50	27	72
	Including Zero Average	22.3	108.0	31.4	14.0	24.2	15.1	22.7	237.8
<i>Total tour count</i>		4486							

Note: All durations are in minutes.

Table 3. Model Estimation Results for MDCEV Model of Activity Type Choice and Time Allocation: Home-based Non-work Tours

Household Attributes			Tour Level Attributes			Person Attributes		
Explanatory Variables	Coef	t-stat	Explanatory Variables	Coef	t-stat	Explanatory Variables	Coef	t-stat
<b>Low annual income households</b>			<b>History of shopping activity in the day</b>			<b>Age 36-45 years</b>		
Personal Business	-0.3801	-3.2	Personal Business	-0.005	-2.46	Shopping	0.3531	3.29
Recreational	-0.2141	-2.44	Shopping	-0.0029	-2.9	Serve Passenger	1.1023	9.58
Meal	-0.2887	-2.97	<b>History of social visit in the day</b>			<b>Age &gt; 65 years</b>		
<b>Medium annual income households</b>			Social Visit	0.0047	3.62	Personal Business	0.3835	3.59
Social Visit	0.2472	1.96	<b>Start time of tour (7 am - 9 am)</b>			<b>Male</b>		
<b>Household size</b>			Serve Passenger	1.0757	10.34	Recreation	0.184	2.46
Recreation	-0.2632	-7.01	<b>Start time of tour (9 am - 11am)</b>			<b>Female</b>		
<b>Vehicle ratio</b>			Recreation	-0.5215	-5.43	Social Visit	0.2904	2.66
Personal Business	0.4275	4.63	<b>Start time of tour (11 am - 1 pm)</b>			<b>White</b>		
Social Visit	0.2601	2.27	Personal Business	-0.2863	-2.21	Recreation	0.4511	3.17
Serve Passenger	-0.8362	-7.74	Meal	0.5246	5.27	Meal	0.3317	2.19
<b>Number of children</b>			<b>Start time of tour (1 pm - 3 pm)</b>					
Shopping	-0.2891	-8.01	Shopping	0.6832	8.35			
Social Visit	-0.2737	-4.36	Serve Passenger	0.7455	6.26			
Meal	-0.3775	-6.9	<b>Start time of tour (5 pm - 7 pm)</b>					
<b>Employed status indicator</b>			Social Visit	0.7601	5.13			
Personal Business	0.3016	2.61	Meal	1.2596	11.09			
<b>Urban / Rural indicator</b>								
Serve Passenger	-0.7754	-2.76						
Baseline Constants			Satiation Parameters			Goodness of fit Statistics		
Explanatory variables	Coef	t-stat	Activity Type	Coef	t-stat			
Personal Business	-0.4036	-3.32	Personal Business	0.9155	96.06	Log-likelihood of final model at convergence		
Shopping	1.4334	24.5	Shopping	0.8523	118.77	Degrees of freedom of final model		
Social Visit	-0.7684	-4.83	Social Visit	0.9771	189.3	Log-Likelihood of base model at convergence		
Recreation	0.6193	3.36	Recreation	0.9867	260.46	Degrees of freedom of base model		
Meal	-0.0026	-0.02	Meal	0.8632	77.54	Likelihood ratio		
Serve Passenger	0.2787	1.87	Serve Passenger	0.8115	57.28	$\chi^2_{31,0.0001}$		
			Other	0.9393	119.28			