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Long distance mode choice and distributions of values of travel time savings in three European countries

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Abstract

The study presented here makes use of Stated Preference (SP) data on mode choice collected as part of a recent survey on long distance travel undertaken in three European countries. The purpose of this article is twofold. It aims at exploring the impacts of the choice of probability distributions while accounting for unobserved taste heterogeneity and it aims at focusing on the derived estimation of the distributions of values of travel time savings (VTTS).

We compare ten distributions, each having particular properties in terms of domain, location, scale, and shape. Due to the repetitive nature of the SP experiments and the inherent heterogeneity in the distribution of the characteristics of the respondents as well as trip purposes, we make use of mixed Multinomial Logit (MNL) random utility models for panel data in the additional presence of agent effects to model likely persistent unobserved effects from one choice situation to another.

It is found that the distributions that fit data the best differ from one country to another, hence VTTS distributions, thereby suggesting existence of European disparities as it regards long distance mode choice. It is also found that long-distance travellers pay a lot more attention to access time to the main mode as compared to in-vehicle time.

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1 INTRODUCTION

The study presented in this paper makes use of Stated Preference (SP) data on mode choice collected as part of a recent survey on long distance travel undertaken in three European countries. We discuss some of the issues that arise with the estimation and the computation of the implied distribution of the value of travel-time savings in the case of discrete choice models that allow for unobserved taste heterogeneity.

The choice of distribution for the specification of unobserved taste heterogeneity is one of the key issues in the formulation of a discrete choice model as it models not only the prior beliefs of the econometrician but also the resulting outputs that can be produced, especially as it regards willingness-to-pay measures such as the value of travel time savings. Those a priori assumptions may be based on theoretical or empirical knowledge. However, it does not mean that the choice of a specific distribution (bounded or not, skewed or not, etc.) between several competing ones is the most relevant. Train (2003), Hess et al. (2006a), Hess et al. (2006b), Fosgerau (2006) discussed in detail this issue and concluded that the best empirical strategy is to test the performance of several ones and not to limit to the conventional Normal or logNormal distributions. By crossing the results of their different applications, one would accept that it is a very sensible way of dealing with the problem as their results concluded in favour of different distributions to model unobserved taste heterogeneity. In the present paper, we compare the relative performance of 10 distributions (including the degenerate one).

As already highlighted by Wardman (1997), Mackie et al. (2001), Lapparent et al. (2002), Mackie et al. (2003), Brownstone et al. (2003), Hensher (2006), Fosgerau (2006), Hess et al. (2008), Axhausen et al. (2008), but also many other authors, reliable measures of the valuation of travel time savings (VTTS) are key values to assess the costs and benefits of transport planning policies and/or transport investments. In the presence of unobserved taste heterogeneity, VTTS is modelled as a distribution that is based on the assumptions as it regards the distributions of tastes. Furthermore, thanks to the collected data, we are capable to distinguish two time dimensions in the present approach: in-vehicle and access+egress travel times. We compute these VTTS distributions for each of the three countries and each of the 10 models we develop. The range of obtained VTTS values may be useful to plan policy that favours intermodal transport.

The rest of the article is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the random utility model that is used for our analysis. It discusses the

specification of the utility function, the selected modeling approaches that pertain to unobserved taste heterogeneity, the implied distributions of the values of travel time savings, and identification and estimation of the parameters of interest. Section 3 presents the SP data used for the empirical application. It discusses the formation of the three samples we use and it reports associated descriptive statistics on the choice experiments the decision makers were faced with. Section 4 reports the estimates of the 30 models we implemented within our proposed framework of analysis. It is compared their relative performance and the implied distributions of the values of travel time savings they produce. The last section concludes by elaborating on further research tracks.

2 MODEL

2.1 Utility specification

A decision maker i chooses among M main modes of transport each time he/she takes a long distance trip. The utility U that he/she would obtain from alternative m in choice situation t is defined as

$$\begin{aligned}
 U_{i,t,m}(\mathbf{x}_{i,t,m}, \eta_{i,m}, \epsilon_{i,t,m}; \boldsymbol{\alpha}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = & c_m & + \\
 & \alpha_{i,1} \text{cost}_{i,t,m} & + \\
 & \alpha_{i,2} \text{ivtime}_{i,t,m} & + \\
 & \alpha_{i,3} \text{acctime}_{i,t,m} & + \\
 & \alpha_{i,4} \text{change}_{i,t,m} & + \\
 & \omega_m \eta_{i,m} & + \\
 & \epsilon_{i,t,m}. &
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (c_1, \omega_1, \dots, c_M, \omega_M)$, where the observed attributes are collected into $\mathbf{x}_{i,t,m} := (\text{cost}_{i,t,m}, \text{ivtime}_{i,t,m}, \text{acctime}_{i,t,m}, \text{change}_{i,t,m})$, and where the corresponding weights are collected into a vector $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i = (\alpha_{i,1}, \alpha_{i,2}, \alpha_{i,3}, \alpha_{i,4})$. "cost" models the trip cost. "ivtime" models in-vehicle time. "acctime" is defined as the sum of access and egress times. Finally, "change" models the number of connexions needed to carry out the trip.

c_m is an intercept term. $\alpha_{i,j}, j = 1, \dots, 4$, are often referred to as taste parameters. They vary over decision makers but not over time for each decision maker. As already highlighted by Train (1998), tastes of a decision maker may change over time, and in particular may change in response to previous trip experiences. In the context of SP experiment, due to virtuality and promptness of successive choice situations, we assume that there are neither state dependence nor serial correlation.

1 Anyway, in situations with repeated choices over time, whatever
 2 is the length of the period in between two consecutive of the latter,
 3 one would expect that there are persistent unobserved factors that
 4 may play a role on the behavior of the decision maker. These factors
 5 may also change from one alternative to another. Such an assumption
 6 is modeled for each choice alternative m by an agent effect $\eta_{i,m}$
 7 (Walker et al. (2007)). ω_m is the associated coefficient. It models the
 8 scale of the agent effect that enters the m -th alternative.

9 Finally, $\epsilon_{i,t,m}$ are generic unobserved random terms that are inde-
 10 pendently and identically distributed type 1 extreme value. Collecting
 11 appropriately these random terms into a vector ϵ_i and defining a vec-
 12 tor of values $\mathbf{a}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{MT}$, it is assumed that their joint cumulative
 13 density function may be written as

$$F_{\epsilon_i, \kappa}(\mathbf{a}_i) = \prod_{t=1}^T \prod_{m=1}^M \exp(-\exp(-\kappa a_{i,t,m})). \quad (2)$$

14 κ models the scale of the distribution.

15 There is no prior theoretical argument to bound the distribution
 16 of the random agent effects. In the present approach, for convenience
 17 purpose only, we postulate that they are independently and identically
 18 distributed standard normal:

$$\eta_{i,m} \xrightarrow{iid} \mathcal{N}(0, 1). \quad (3)$$

19 2.2 VTTS distributions

20 The VTTS function is defined as the marginal rate of substitution
 21 between travel time and travel cost. Generally speaking, it models the
 22 price the decision maker is willing to pay to save one unit of travel
 23 time such as to maintain his/her level of utility. Due to linearity of
 24 the utility function that is presented in equation 1 and due to distinc-
 25 tion between in-vehicle travel time and out-of-vehicle (access+egress)
 26 travel time, we have actually two VTTS measures that appear to be
 27 defined as the ratios between the corresponding coefficients of travel
 28 time and the coefficient of travel cost.

29 The researcher does not observe α_i . As statistical inference is
 30 based on only observed data, the target quantities are therefore the
 31 expectations of these ratios with respect to the joint distribution that
 32 is assumed for the random tastes of the decision maker:

$$\pi_{ivtime} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} \frac{\alpha_{i,2}}{\alpha_{i,1}} h_2(\alpha_i | \boldsymbol{\theta}) d\alpha_i, \pi_{acctime} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} \frac{\alpha_{i,3}}{\alpha_{i,1}} h_2(\alpha_i | \boldsymbol{\theta}) d\alpha_i \quad (4)$$

33 h_2 is defined as a distribution that is parametrized by $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and which
 34 specification will be developed in a later subsection. What can be

1 stated from now is that it is defined as the product of univariate dis-
 2 tributions as we assume that the tastes are independently distributed.
 3 Estimation of the distributions in equation 4 will be performed by
 4 using Monte-Carlo integration techniques (see later in the paper).

5 Of course, we notice the reader that there is a considerable stream
 6 of literature in favor of nonlinearities in the valuation of travel time, see
 7 for instance Lapparent et al. (2002), Mackie et al. (2003), Hess et al.
 8 (2008), Axhausen et al. (2008), to cite a few. This work is left aside
 9 and will be subject of further research. The purpose of this paper is
 10 rather to pursue with a standard linear utility function and to deepen
 11 the analysis of unobserved taste heterogeneity by widening the range
 12 of probability distributions that may be used in the context of mode
 13 choice analysis and estimation of values of travel time savings for long
 14 distance travel.

15 2.3 Choice probabilities

16 Random utility maximization implies that the respondent chooses
 17 the mode of transport that provides the greater level of utility in each
 18 choice situation. Let $d_{i,t} \in \{1, \dots, M\}$ denote the i -th respondent's
 19 chosen alternative in experiment t , and let $\mathbf{d}_i = (d_{i,1}, \dots, d_{i,T})$ denote
 20 the respondent's sequence of choices. Since the error terms in ϵ_i are
 21 identically and independently distributed type 1 extreme value, the
 22 choice probability conditional on $\alpha_i, \eta_i = (\eta_{i,m}, \dots, \eta_{i,M})$, and \mathbf{x}_i , that
 23 the decision maker i chooses the m -th mode in situation t is a MNL
 24 choice probability (McFadden, 1974). Furthermore, still because the
 25 error terms in ϵ_i are independent over choice experiments, the joint
 26 conditional probability of the decision maker's sequence of choices is
 27 the product of these MNL marginal choice probabilities:

$$\Pr(\mathbf{d}_i | \mathbf{x}_i, \eta_i; \alpha_i, \beta, \kappa) = \prod_{t=1}^T \prod_{m=1}^M \left[\frac{\exp(\kappa V_{i,t,m}(\mathbf{x}_{i,t,m}, \eta_{i,m}; \alpha_i, \beta))}{\sum_{k=1}^M \exp(\kappa V_{i,t,k}(\mathbf{x}_{i,t,k}, \eta_{i,k}; \alpha_i, \beta))} \right]^{y_{i,t,m}} \quad (5)$$

28 where $V_{i,t,m}(\mathbf{x}_{i,t,m}, \eta_{i,m}; \alpha_i, \beta) = U_{i,t,m}(\mathbf{x}_{i,t,m}, \eta_{i,m}, \epsilon_{i,t,m}; \alpha_i, \beta) - \epsilon_{i,t,m}$,
 29 and where $y_{i,t,m} = 1$ if m is chosen or 0 otherwise.

30 Here again, the researcher does not observe α_i and η_i . As al-
 31 ready stated, as statistical inference is based on only observed data,
 32 the target quantity is therefore the expectation of the choice proba-
 33 bilities presented in equation 5 with respect to the joint distribution
 34 of the unobserved terms. These conditional choice probabilities are
 35 integrated over all possible values of α_i and η_i using the latter's proba-
 36 bility density function, here modelled by h_1 and h_2 . h_1 is defined
 37 as the product of univariate standard normal distributions and, as al-

1 ready stated, h_2 is defined as a distribution that is parametrized by θ
 2 and will be defined in a later subsection:

$$\Pr(\mathbf{d}_i|\mathbf{x}_i; \theta, \beta, \kappa) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{4+M}} \Pr(\mathbf{d}_i|\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\eta}_i; \boldsymbol{\alpha}_i, \beta, \kappa) h_1(\boldsymbol{\eta}_i) h_2(\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i|\theta) d\boldsymbol{\eta}_i d\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i \quad (6)$$

3 2.4 Log-likelihood function

4 We carry out estimation of the parameters of interest by maximiz-
 5 ing the likelihood function. Equivalently, the log-likelihood function
 6 that one would like to maximize is defined as the sum of the logarithms
 7 of the probabilities of the observed sequences of choices. It may be
 8 written as:

$$\ell = \sum_{i=1}^n \ln(\Pr(\mathbf{d}_i|\mathbf{x}_i; \theta, \beta, \kappa)). \quad (7)$$

9 One important point that pertains to estimation is identification
 10 of the parameters of interest. Because the utility function models
 11 preference orderings up to a monotone increasing transformation and
 12 because what determines choice are the differences between utility lev-
 13 els (see for instance the books of Ben-Akiva and Lerman (1985), Train
 14 (2003)), one must define additional exclusion constraints to ensure a
 15 one-to-one mapping between the log-likelihood function and the set
 16 of parameters of interest. Along with our specification of the util-
 17 ity function, one must select an alternative of reference from which
 18 is excluded the intercept term. Due to the panel dimension of our
 19 model, Walker et al. (2007) showed that we do not need to exlude the
 20 agent effect from this alternative of reference. In addition, the scale
 21 parameter κ is fixed to 1.

22 Note also that the integral in the probability that is presented
 23 in equation 5 does not have a closed form. We make therefore use
 24 of Monte-Carlo integration techniques: the multivariate integral is
 25 approximated through simulation. In particular, for each decision
 26 maker i , and given values of θ and β , R draws of $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{i,\cdot}, \boldsymbol{\eta}_i$ are taken
 27 from the probability density functions h_1 and h_2 . For each draw, the
 28 joint probability in equation 5 is then calculated and the results are
 29 averaged over draws. The objective is then to maximize the simulated
 30 log-likelihood function over θ and β . This function is defined as

$$\ell^R = \sum_{i=1}^n \ln\left(\frac{1}{R} \sum_{r=1}^R \Pr(\mathbf{d}_i|\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\eta}_i^r; \boldsymbol{\alpha}_i^r, \beta, \kappa)\right), \quad (8)$$

31 where $\boldsymbol{\eta}_i^r; \boldsymbol{\alpha}_i^r$ denotes the r -th draw from h_1 and h_2 given θ .

32 As already stated by Gouriéroux and Monfort (1996), Train (2003),
 33 if each draw is independent each from the others and from the prob-
 34 ability in equation 5, then the simulated probability converges al-
 35 most surely to the "true" probability, with variance inversely pro-
 36 portional to R . In maximum simulated likelihood (MSL) estimation,

1 if R rises faster than the square root of the number of observation,
 2 then the effects of simulation disappear asymptotically, and MSL is
 3 equivalent to maximum likelihood with exact probabilities (see, e.g.,
 4 Hajivassiliou and Ruud (1994); Hajivassiliou (1997), Lee (1995)). Un-
 5 der these regularity conditions (and some more), the MSL estimator
 6 is asymptotically unbiased, consistent, normal and efficient.

7 However, given a number of replications R , simulation bias and
 8 variance stays inherent to estimation. Furthermore, Pakes and Pollard
 9 (1989) suggest to use the same draws at each evaluation of the simu-
 10 lated log-likelihood function while estimating the parameters of inter-
 11 est (the population parameters in θ and β). In our application, we use
 12 Halton draws for the simulation (Train (2000)). This quasi-random
 13 number generation technique has been found to provide greater accu-
 14 racy than standard pseudo-random number draws in simulation-based
 15 estimation of discrete choice models. Of course, as also stated in Bhat
 16 (2003), Hess et al. (2006c), it is not the only way to generate appro-
 17 priate draws.

18 We turn now to distributional assumptions that pertain to taste
 19 heterogeneity.

20 **2.5 Taste heterogeneity: distributional assump-** 21 **tions**

22 A brief review of the literature shows that most of actual modeling
 23 analyzes rely almost exclusively on the use of either the normal distri-
 24 bution or the lognormal distribution. Few attention has been paid to al-
 25 ternative distributions, although the notable exceptions of Hess et al.
 26 (2006b), Fosgerau (2006), Fosgerau and Hess (2008), from which we
 27 inspire to build up our empirical analysis. Anyway, there is still a need
 28 for further research on that topic as it would be profitable to make
 29 a systematical use of a wider range of distributions when modeling
 30 unobserved taste heterogeneity.

31 In our approach, we implement 10 distributions. All of them are
 32 parametric continuous distributions. We present now briefly these dis-
 33 tributions. We refer the reader to Evans et al. (2000), Johnson et al.
 34 (1994), for a more detailed discussion of the presented probability
 35 distributions.

36 *2.5.1 Degenerate distribution*

37 The most simple "distribution" is obtained by assuming that there
 38 is no unobserved taste heterogeneity. Such an assumption means that

1 the parameters do not vary across the population of decision makers:

$$\forall i = 1, \dots, n, \forall j = 1, \dots, M, \alpha_{i,j} = \mu_j \quad (9)$$

2 μ_j models the location of the parameter $\alpha_{i,j}$. This point has a proba-
3 bility mass that is equal to 1.

4 2.5.2 Normal distribution

5 Another distribution we postulate to be likely is the Normal distri-
6 bution. It is a symmetric and unbounded distribution whose domain
7 of definition is \mathbb{R} . Assuming that the taste parameters are independ-
8 ently distributed, the distribution is driven for all $j = 1, 2, 3, 4$, by
9 two parameters: location μ_j and scale σ_j , the latter being equal to
10 variance when squared. The associated probability density function is
11 defined as

$$\varphi_{\alpha_{i,j}}(a_{i,j}|\mu_j, \sigma_j) = \frac{1}{\sigma_j \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(a_{i,j} - \mu_j)^2}{2\sigma_j^2}\right), a_{i,j} \in \mathbb{R} \quad (10)$$

12 and the corresponding cumulative density function is defined as

$$\Phi_{\alpha_{i,j}}(a_{i,j}|\mu_j, \sigma_j) = \int_{-\infty}^{a_{i,j}} \varphi_{\alpha_{i,j}}(b_{i,j}|\mu_j, \sigma_j) db_{i,j} \quad (11)$$

13 Given a standard Normal random variables $X_{i,j} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ ¹, drawing
14 an outcome $\alpha_{i,j}$ from the Normal distribution with location μ_j and
15 scale σ_j is obtained by applying

$$\alpha_{i,j} = \mu_j + \sigma_j X_{i,j}. \quad (12)$$

16 The peak (mode) of the distribution is location is at the mean μ_j (the
17 mode is equal to the mean) and the distribution is unbounded on both
18 sides.

19 2.5.3 LogNormal distribution

20 The LogNormal distribution is bounded from the left, i.e. defined
21 on \mathbb{R}_+^* . It is an asymmetric distribution that is skewed to the right.
22 It is driven by two parameters: location μ and scale σ . Actually,
23 the logarithm of a LogNormal random variable is a Normal random
24 variable. $\forall i = 1, \dots, n, j = 1, \dots, M$, let $Y_{i,j}$ be an independent

¹Almost all statistical softwares implement such a distribution.

1 LogNormal random variable. Its probability density function may be
2 written as

$$\varphi_{Y_{i,j}}(a_{i,j}|\mu_j, \sigma_j) = \frac{1}{a_{i,j}\sigma_j\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\ln(a_{i,j})-\mu_j)^2}{2\sigma_j^2}\right), a_{i,j} \in \mathbb{R}_+^* \quad (13)$$

3 and its cumulative density function may then be written as

$$\Phi_{Y_{i,j}}(a_{i,j}|\mu_j, \sigma_j) = \int_{-\infty}^{a_{i,j}} \varphi_{Y_{i,j}}(b_{i,j}|\mu_j, \sigma_j) db_{i,j} \quad (14)$$

4 A draw from this distribution is obtained by applying the following
5 formulae:

$$Y_{i,j} = \exp(\mu_j + \sigma_j X_{i,j}), X_{i,j} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}(0, 1) \quad (15)$$

6 As one expects the signs of the time, cost, and change coefficients to be
7 negative, one obtains a draw from a reversed LogNormal distribution
8 by applying for all $j = 1, 2, 3, 4,$,

$$\alpha_{i,j} = -Y_{i,j} \quad (16)$$

9 Even though the LogNormal distribution appears attractive for several
10 reasons (bounded from one side and uniquely signed), it exhibits a long
11 tail on its unbounded side, meaning that the probability of a very large
12 (or a very low) number has a non null probability.

13 2.5.4 Uniform distribution

14 The (two sided) Uniform distribution has the advantage of being
15 bounded on both side but at the cost of the same probability of oc-
16 currence of any outcome on the interval on which it is defined. It is
17 assumed that

$$\alpha_{i,j} \xrightarrow{iid} \mathcal{U}_{] \mu_j - s_j, \mu_j + s_j [} \quad (17)$$

18 As presently formulated, the distribution is driven by two parameters:
19 location and spread. Its probability density function may be written
20 as

$$\varphi_{\alpha_{i,j}}(a_{i,j}|\mu_j, s_j) = \frac{1}{2s_j}, a_{i,j} \in]\mu_j - s_j, \mu_j + s_j[\quad (18)$$

21 and its cumulative density function may be written as

$$\Phi_{\alpha_{i,j}}(a_{i,j}|\mu_j, s_j) = \frac{a_{i,j} - (\mu_j - s_j)}{2s_j} \quad (19)$$

22 Assuming that it is possible to draw easily an outcome of a random
23 variable $U_{i,j}$ that is distributed $\mathcal{U}_{]-1,1[}$, drawing an outcome from the
24 $\mathcal{U}_{] \mu_j - s_j, \mu_j + s_j [}$ distribution is obtained by computing

$$\alpha_{i,j} = \mu_j + s_j U_{i,j} \quad (20)$$

2.5.5 Symmetric Triangular distribution

Given two independently and identically uniform distributed random variables, the sum of them defines a random variable that is symmetric Triangular distributed.

$\forall i = 1, \dots, n, j = 1, \dots, M$, let $U_{i,j}$ and $Z_{i,j}$ be two independently and identically Uniform distributed random variables on the interval $]\mu_j - s_j, \mu_j + s_j[$. Then $\alpha_{i,j} = U_{i,j} + Z_{i,j}$ is symmetric Triangular distributed on the interval $]2\mu_j - 2s_j, 2\mu_j + 2s_j[$. The distribution is bounded on both sides with a peak (mode) at $2\mu_j$. Its probability density function may be written as

$$\varphi_{\alpha_{i,j}}(a_{i,j}|\mu_j, s_j) = \frac{a_{i,j} - 2(\mu_j - s_j)}{4s_j} \mathbb{I}(a_{i,j} \leq 2\mu_j) + \frac{2(\mu_j - s_j) - a_{i,j}}{4s_j} \mathbb{I}(a_{i,j} \geq 2\mu_j) \quad (21)$$

and its cumulative density function may be written as

$$\Phi_{\alpha_{i,j}}(\theta_{i,j}|\mu_j, s_j) = \frac{(a_{i,j} - 2(\mu_j - s_j))^2}{8s_j} \mathbb{I}(a_{i,j} \leq 2\mu_j) + \left(1 - \frac{(2(\mu_j - s_j) - a_{i,j})^2}{8s_j}\right) \mathbb{I}(a_{i,j} \geq 2\mu_j). \quad (22)$$

Simulating outcomes of this Symmetric Triangular distribution is rather easy. Given values of μ_j and s_j , and given draws from two Uniform $\mathcal{U}_{]-1,1[}$ random variables, we just need to compute

$$\alpha_{i,j} = 2\mu_j + s_j(W_{i,j} + T_{i,j}), W_{i,j} \xrightarrow{iid} \mathcal{U}_{]-1,1[}, T_{i,j} \xrightarrow{iid} \mathcal{U}_{]-1,1[}. \quad (23)$$

2.5.6 Exponential distribution

The Exponential distribution is defined for strictly positive outcomes. It is completely specified by one parameter that may take any strictly positive value. $\forall i = 1, \dots, n, j = 1, \dots, M$, let $Y_{i,j}$ be an independent random variable that is distributed Exponential with rate parameter λ_j . Its probability density function may be written as

$$\varphi_{Y_{i,j}}(a_{i,j}|\lambda_j) = \lambda_j \exp(-\lambda_j a_{i,j}), a_{i,j} \in \mathbb{R}_+^*, \lambda_j \in \mathbb{R}_+^*. \quad (24)$$

The shape of the probability density function is the same whatever is the value of λ . It is decreasing with respect to Y and its curve is convex. However, the speed at which it decreases, the degree of convexity, and the thickness of the (right) tail of the distribution, are driven by λ . The larger λ , the larger the decreasing speed, the larger the degree of convexity, and the larger the thinness of the tail.

1 Its cumulative density function may be written as

$$\Phi_{Y_{i,j}}(a_{i,j}|\lambda_j) = 1 - \exp(-\lambda_j a_{i,j}) \quad (25)$$

2 Drawing an outcome from the Exponential distribution is easily ob-
3 tained by computing

$$Y_{i,j} = -\frac{1}{\lambda_j} \ln\left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}U_{i,j}\right), U_{i,j} \xrightarrow{iid} \mathcal{U}_{]-1,1[}. \quad (26)$$

4 As one expects the signs of the time, cost, and change coefficients to
5 be negative, a draw of the parameter $\alpha_{i,j}$ is then obtained by taking
6 the negative of the latter:

$$\alpha_{i,j} = -Y_{i,j}. \quad (27)$$

7 2.5.7 Pareto distribution

8 The Pareto distribution is also defined for strictly positive out-
9 comes. It has the same properties as the Exponential distribution
10 with the exception that it introduces an additional location paramete-
11 ter that manages a right translation of the distribution in the domain
12 of strictly positive numbers. This distribution can be obtained as a
13 mixture distribution from the exponential distribution using a gamma
14 mixing distribution. $\forall i = 1, \dots, n, j = 1, \dots, M$, let $Y_{i,j}$ be an inde-
15 pendent Pareto distributed random variable with location parameter
16 μ_j and shape parameter λ_j . Its probability density function is defined
17 as

$$\varphi_{Y_{i,j}}(a_{i,j}|\mu_j, \lambda_j) = \frac{\lambda_j}{a_{i,j}} \left(\frac{\mu_j}{a_{i,j}}\right)^{\lambda_j}, a_{i,j} \geq \mu_j, \mu_j \in \mathbb{R}_+^*, \lambda_j \in \mathbb{R}_+^* \quad (28)$$

18 and its cumulative density function is defined as

$$\Phi_{Y_{i,j}}(a_{i,j}|\mu_j, \lambda_j) = 1 - \left(\frac{\mu_j}{a_{i,j}}\right)^{\lambda_j}. \quad (29)$$

19 A draw from this distribution may be obtained by computind the
20 associated quantile function

$$Y_{i,j} = \exp\left(\ln(\mu_j) - \frac{1}{\lambda_j} \ln\left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}U_{i,j}\right)\right), U_{i,j} \xrightarrow{iid} \mathcal{U}_{]-1,1[}. \quad (30)$$

21 Here again, as one expects the signs of the time, cost, and change co-
22 efficients to be negative, a draw of the parameter $\alpha_{i,j}$ is then obtained
23 by taking the negative of the latter:

$$\alpha_{i,j} = -Y_{i,j} \quad (31)$$

2.5.8 Extreme Value type 1 distribution

The Extreme Value type 1 distribution is defined for a random variable whose domain of definition is \mathbb{R} . Even though the theoretical range of the variable is \mathbb{R} , it is classed in practice as a thin tailed distribution. The distribution is asymmetric and, as presented here, it is skewed to the right. The distribution is driven by two parameters: location μ (mode of the distribution) and scale σ . The profile of the probability density function is independent of the mode and scale factor, thus skewness and kurtosis are constants

$\forall i = 1, \dots, n, j = 1, \dots, M$, let $\alpha_{i,j}$ be an independent Extreme Value type 1 distributed random variable with location parameter μ_j and scale parameter σ_j . Its probability density function is defined as

$$\varphi_{\alpha_{i,j}}(a_{i,j}|\mu_j, \sigma_j) = \frac{\exp\left(-\frac{a_{i,j}-\mu_j}{\sigma_j}\right) \exp\left(-\exp\left(-\frac{a_{i,j}-\mu_j}{\sigma_j}\right)\right)}{\sigma_j} \quad (32)$$

where $a_{i,j} \in \mathbb{R}, \mu_j \in \mathbb{R}, \sigma_j \in \mathbb{R}_+^*$. Its cumulative density function is defined as

$$\Phi_{\alpha_{i,j}}(\theta_{i,j}|\mu_j, \sigma_j) = \exp\left(-\exp\left(-\frac{\theta_{i,j}-\mu_j}{\sigma_j}\right)\right) \quad (33)$$

Random number generation for an Extreme Value type 1 distribution can be performed by transforming a continuous uniform variable $\mathcal{U}_{]-1,1[}$ with the distribution's inverse probability function

$$\alpha_{i,j} = \mu_j - \sigma_j \ln\left(-\ln\left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}U_{i,j}\right)\right), U_{i,j} \stackrel{iid}{\rightarrow} \mathcal{U}_{]-1,1[} \quad (34)$$

We will not set any strict positivity constraint on σ_j while estimating the parameters of the distribution. Indeed, if the sign that precedes the estimate of σ_j is negative, then the Extreme Value type 1 distribution is reversed, with the same location and scale but skewed to the left.

2.5.9 Logistic distribution

Another distribution in the same vein of the latter is the Logistic distribution, which probability density function may be written as

$$\varphi_{\alpha_{i,j}}(a_{i,j}|\mu_j, \sigma_j) = \frac{\exp\left(-\frac{a_{i,j}-\mu_j}{\sigma_j}\right)}{\sigma_j \left(1 + \exp\left(-\frac{a_{i,j}-\mu_j}{\sigma_j}\right)\right)^2}, \quad (35)$$

1 where $a_{i,j} \in \mathbb{R}, \mu_j \in \mathbb{R}, \sigma_j \in \mathbb{R}_+^*$. The distribution is driven by two
 2 parameters: location μ (mode of the distribution) and scale σ . Its
 3 cumulative density function is defined as

$$\Phi_{\alpha_{i,j}}(a_{i,j}|\mu_j, \sigma_j) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(-\frac{a_{i,j}-\mu_j}{\sigma_j}\right)}. \quad (36)$$

4 The distribution is asymmetric and, as presented here, it is skewed
 5 to the right. A draw from it is generated by computing the quantile
 6 function:

$$\alpha_{i,j} = \mu_j - \sigma_j \ln\left(\left(\frac{1}{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}U_{i,j}}\right) - 1\right), U_{i,j} \xrightarrow{iid} \mathcal{U}_{]-1,1[}. \quad (37)$$

7 Here again, we will not set any strict positivity constraint on σ_j while
 8 estimating the parameters of the distribution: if the sign that precedes
 9 the estimate of σ_j is negative, then the Logistic distribution is reversed,
 10 with the same location and scale but skewed to the left.

11 2.5.10 Johnson Sb distribution

12 A very interesting distribution is the Johnson's asymmetric Sb
 13 distribution as it gives the possibility to deal simultaneously with a
 14 bounded distribution, with an asymmetric distribution, and possibly
 15 with a multimodal distribution. We refer the reader to Hess et al.
 16 (2006a), and Hess et al. (2006b) for a discussion on this distribution.

17 Four parameters drive the distribution: location (lower bound)
 18 $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$, spread $s \in \mathbb{R}_+^*$, skewness $m \in \mathbb{R}$, and shape $\tau \in \mathbb{R}_+^*$.

19 The probability density function of a Sb distributed variable $\alpha_{i,j}$
 20 may be written as

$$\varphi_{\alpha_{i,j}}(a_{i,j}|\mu_j, s_j, m_j, \tau_j) = \frac{\tau_j s_j \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(m_j + \tau_j \ln\left(\frac{a_{i,j}-\mu_j}{\mu_j+s_j-a_{i,j}}\right)\right)^2\right)}{(a_{i,j}-\mu_j)(\mu_j+s_j-a_{i,j})\sqrt{2\pi}} \quad (38)$$

21 where $a_{i,j} \in]\mu_j, \mu_j + s_j[$, and the associated cumulative distribution
 22 function may then be written as

$$\Phi_{\alpha_{i,j}}(a_{i,j}|\mu_j, s_j, m_j, \tau_j) = \int_{-\infty}^{a_{i,j}} \varphi_{\alpha_{i,j}}(b_{i,j}|\mu_j, s_j, m_j, \tau_j) db_{i,j}. \quad (39)$$

23 Random number generation for Johnson Sb distribution can be per-
 24 formed by transforming a standard normal variable $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ as follows:

$$\alpha_{i,j} = \mu_j + s_j \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(-\frac{X_{i,j}-m_j}{\tau_j}\right)}, X_{i,j} \xrightarrow{iid} \mathcal{N}(0, 1). \quad (40)$$

1 Here again, we will not set any strict positivity constraint on s_j while
2 estimating the parameters of the distribution: if the sign that pre-
3 ceedes the estimate of the range s_j is negative, then the distribution is
4 reversed: the lower bound becomes the upper bound and vice-versa.

5 3 DATA

6 One of the work package of the European KITE research project
7 (<http://www.kite-project.eu/>) pertained to propose and to test a suit-
8 able survey methodology that intends to close remaining information
9 gaps about long-distance travel behaviour by means of pilot surveys.
10 These pilot surveys were carried out in three countries: the Czech Re-
11 public, Switzerland, and Portugal, by means of a computer assisted
12 telephone interview (CATI) for the two latter and by means of face-
13 to-face interviews for the former. One of the purposes of these pilot
14 surveys was to test whether it would be possible to implement a com-
15 mon methodology in different countries in Europe and then to assess
16 the quality of information that can be obtained through data collec-
17 tion. In particular, computation of figures to characterise demand for
18 long distance travel and comparison with existing data sources were
19 made to get a better idea of the promise of the used methodology.

20 Parallel to this approach, 2 stated preference (SP) surveys were
21 designed to gather information about market potentials and user re-
22 quirements. They focused on long distance main mode choice and
23 long distance route choice given the main mode of transport. The SP
24 surveys were built up on sampling individuals in the main survey (a
25 revealed preference survey, i.e. RP survey) and using their answers to
26 customise choice experiments to which they had to answer. Actually,
27 based on the answers in the first part of the survey, the SP surveys
28 were sent to self-identified respondents. Those respondents which had
29 undertaken a longdistance journey during the last 8 weeks, which was
30 not a regular journey², were asked if they were willing to participate
31 in a written survey based on this telephone interview. Generation of
32 hypothetical choice situations for these written self-completion stated
33 preference surveys were based on one of the reported long distance
34 journeys from the telephone interview.

35 The main target in these SP surveys is to discover and to analyse
36 the preferences of the travellers who undertake long distance jour-
37 neys. These preferences show the requirements of the users and their
38 requirements towards a more sustainable use of transport means, e.g.

²A regular journey was defined as: at least once per week or journeys with the same destination during the last 8 weeks

1 under which circumstances they would change the transport mean and
 2 use public transport instead of car. The use of a transport mode is of
 3 course dependent on the available infrastructure in the different coun-
 4 tries and regions etc.. It is not analyzed in this survey, but the results
 5 give key parameters which indicate under what kind of infrastructure
 6 change the population would accept to change their transport mode or
 7 their route choice. In the present article, we focus only on the choice
 8 of a main mode of transport.

9 The software Ngene (e.g. Rose and Scarpa (2007)) was used to
 10 generate the experimental design for the SP questionnaires. This soft-
 11 ware makes it possible to generate efficient experimental designs and
 12 therefore have small numbers of experiments by interviewee without
 13 losing goodness of fit in the models estimated with the data. Based on
 14 one of the reported journeys, the journeys' characteristics for the dif-
 15 ferent modes were drawn and calculated using different data sources.
 16 Travel times and number of changes were drawn from the IVT Air
 17 Network, the IVT Road Network and the IVT TransEuropean Train
 18 Model. Travel cost were generated by implementing automatic in-
 19 ternet requests that were manually corrected when necessary. With
 20 these observed/imputed values and the given characteristics from the
 21 experimental design, the different choice situations for the SP ques-
 22 tionnaires were finally produced.

23 In the present approach, we focus on the SP survey that regards
 24 the choice of a main mode of transport for long-distance travel. Table
 25 1 reports the descriptive statistics of the attributes of the proposed
 26 choice experiments and the observed choices that were made by the
 27 decision-makers.

Table 1 about here

28 4 RESULTS

29 All models were estimated using BIOGEME (Bierlaire (2006)).
 30 500 Halton draws were used to approximate the choice probabilities
 31 at stake. The "car" mode of transport was chosen as the reference
 32 for identification of the intercept terms. The Johnson Sb distribution
 33 was the most difficult to implement. Actually, the skewness and the
 34 shape parameters m and τ are fixed respectively to 0 and 1 to obtain
 35 the presented results³. The MSL estimates are reported in tables 2,
 36 3, 4, 5, 6, 7.

Tables 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 about here

³We notice the reader that the MSL estimator converged rather easily with 4-
 parameters distributions when assuming no panel effects and/or assuming that unobserved
 taste heterogeneity is random across decision-makers **and** choice experiments

4.1 Estimates

Whatever is the postulated distribution that models unobserved heterogeneity of tastes, the estimated parameters are on average negatively signed for time and cost variables. Whatever is the chosen distribution that allow for possibly positive values of these coefficients, their probability to be positively signed is low, with very few exceptions. However, we take care of the fact that the time coefficients may appear as positively signed for long distance travel. We also observe that the coefficient that is associated to the variable that models the number of interchanges (an indirect measure of connecting and waiting times) is likely to be often positively signed. Not only as the result of a statistical artefact, we suggest that the travellers may produce and consume utility-making annex activities that compensate the time expenditure to long-distance travel as a simple intermediary production service.

We point out the fact that many distributions performs at least as well if not strictly better than the Normal or the logNormal distributions, whatever are their domains of definition. We notice also that the distribution of tastes that produce the best results is not the same accross countries. Heterogeneity is not distributed the same accross countries. It suggests that, given every decision-makers are utility maximizers, the underlying behaviours that determine tastes, hence the observed choices, rely also on individual- and country-specific determinants. Regional identity seems to play a role on the distribution of taste heterogeneity accross its population of inhabitants. Using either the log-likelihood or the pseudo ρ^2 as a criterion for model selection, we observe that:

- the Uniform distribution fits the observed data the best for Portuguese travellers, closely followed by the Normal distribution, the Logistic distribution, and the Triangular distribution;
- the Logistic distribution fits the observed data the best for Swiss travellers, closely followed by the symmetric Sb distribution;
- the Logistic distribution fits the observed data the best for Czech travellers, closely followed by the Normal distribution and the logNormal distribution.

Anyway, many distributions give pretty much the same results in terms of statistical performance. One remark that can be made is that, whatever is the country the decision-maker is sampled from, the model based on the Exponential distribution seems to produce poor results. Even though the parameters are significant and the specification forces negatively signed coefficients, the goodness-of-fit statistics make the impression that this distribution is inappropriate. It appears also to be the only specification that produce really unrealistic VTTS

1 distributions.

2 Another result that is common to the three considered countries
3 is that the decision-makers are, on average, always more sensitive to
4 access+egress travel time than to in-vehicle travel time. This is an
5 important result when the purpose is to incent people to shift to inter-
6 modality. As it regards the cost variable, the results show that tastes
7 are almost systematically significantly distributed accross the popula-
8 tion of Czech travellers although it is not really the case for Swiss and
9 Portuguese travellers. This result is not verified when considering the
10 time variables: the tastes associated to the latter are almost system-
11 atically significantly distributed accross the populations of travellers
12 of the three countries.

13 The presence of individual random effects (i.e. agent effects) adds
14 explanatory power to our models. These effects appear significant in
15 almost all our specifications, although not necessarily for each consid-
16 ered mode of transport. It suggests however that, for each of the three
17 countries, the distributions of socioeconomic and demographic char-
18 acteristics accross the populations of travellers may play different but
19 significant roles in determining the choice probabilities independently
20 of the distributions of their tastes.

21 4.2 VTTS computation

22 The results present also the mean and the 95% confidence interval
23 of the implied VTTS distributions for each model and each time di-
24 mension (in-vehicle and out-of-vehicle). Following Hess et al. (2006a),
25 these distributions were computed by a simple Monte-Carlo simulation
26 process, using the MSL estimates of the parameters of the appropri-
27 ate distributions and 100 000 random draws for each of the latter to
28 approximate the expressions in equation 4.

29 The average in-vehicle VTTS lies in between 43.64€ and 58.84€ per
30 hour for Portuguese travellers (excluding the results of the Exponen-
31 tial distribution). Their average out-of-vehicle VTTS lies in between
32 98.18€ and 128.60€ per hour.

33 The average in-vehicle VTTS lies in between 40.20€ and 71.33€
34 per hour for Swiss travellers (excluding the results of the Exponen-
35 tial distribution). Their average out-of-vehicle VTTS lies in between
36 69.05€ and 115.20€ per hour.

37 The average in-vehicle VTTS lies in between 27.43€ and 33.00€
38 per hour for Czech travellers (excluding the results of the Exponen-
39 tial distribution). Their average out-of-vehicle VTTS lies in between
40 40.38€ and 150.60€ (78.00€ if we exclude the result associated to the
41 Sb distribution) per hour.

1 The fact that travellers are willing to pay larger amounts of money
2 to save access+egress times from the main mode of transport is an im-
3 portant signal for policy plans that would favour intermodality. Asso-
4 ciated to the fact that the results show that the number of interchanges
5 (an indirect measure of connecting and waiting times) may not always
6 be considered as a penalty in long distance travel, it suggests that a
7 better integration of transport modes and a better provision of infor-
8 mation and services all along the trip will make people to organize
9 better to either avoid/decrease interchange and waiting times or use
10 the latter to consume utility-making annex activities, hence to increase
11 both their whole satisfaction and their probability to choose modes of
12 transport other than car.

13 Given a distribution of unobserved taste heterogeneity, the range
14 of the 95% confidence interval differ from one country to another but
15 there is no major trend to conclude about a larger heterogeneity of
16 the values of travel time savings in one country as compared to the
17 others.

18 In order to give the reader a better representation of the VTTS
19 distributions, figures 1 to 6 depict their estimated distributions under
20 the different distributional assumptions as it regards unobserved taste
21 heterogeneity.

Tables 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 about here

22 5 CONCLUDING REMARKS

23 In this paper, we have discussed the issue of the choice of distribu-
24 tion in mixed MNL discrete choice models. The results show that the
25 choice of distributional assumption can have a significant impact on
26 estimation results. All Mixed MNL models lead to significant improve-
27 ments in log-likelihood over the MNL model, signalling the existence
28 of significant levels of taste variation across decision-makers and/or
29 the significant impact of unmeasured variables. Moreover, The best
30 fit of the data have been obtained when assumed distributions were
31 not Normal or logNormal. This suggests that modellers should in-
32 creasingly look into the use of alternatives to these distributions for
33 the representation of random taste heterogeneity.

34 There are several ways for further research. For instance, it would
35 be of great interest to develop an approach with nonlinear utility func-
36 tions as it has been shown through the existing literature that the
37 willingness to pay for saving travel time does not stay constant with
38 respect to the levels of trip attributes.

39 Also, in the present approach, the distribution of the generic error
40 terms leads to a MNL discrete choice model although it is likely that

1 there exist unobserved attributes that may create unobserved corre-
2 lation between the choice alternatives. The approach may therefore
3 be extended to a more general specification where the vector of the
4 generic error terms leads to nested Logit or cross-nested Logit speci-
5 fications.

6 Finally, we do not have introduced any sociodemographic and eco-
7 nomic variables to model, at least partly, the potential impacts of
8 the characteristics of the decision makers on their choice behaviors,
9 thereby capturing observed sources of heterogeneity that define their
10 preferences, hence their tastes. These characteristics may affect either
11 directly the levels of utility or indirectly by defining through addi-
12 tional functional forms the parameters of the probability distributions
13 we have studied in the present approach.

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TABLE 1: Data description, SP sample

Label	Czech Republic			Switzerland			Portugal		
	mean	std.dev. ^d	freq.	mean	std.dev.	freq.	mean	std.dev.	freq.
	# ^a of obs. ^b = 2044								
	# of DM. ^c = 511								
	# of obs. = 916								
	# of DM. = 229								
	# of obs. = 148								
	# of DM. = 37								
	SP variables ^e								
Choice: car mode			1488			528			112
IV. ^f time, car, in mn. ^g , car	341.59	201.17		458.49	157.75		467.34	176.50	
Cost in € ^h , car	43.69	25.56		151.90	51.08		159.20	59.18	
Choice: train mode			216			252			12
IV time, train	374.15	224.19		497.83	171.65		499.21	198.93	
Acc. ⁱ time in mn, train	9.16	4.05		8.88	3.98		8.65	3.98	
Cost, train	27.12	16.30		138.87	48.58		141.98	56.87	
# of interchanges, train	0.89	0.85		0.87	0.84		0.82	0.88	
Choice: air mode			44			104			12
IV time, air	86.06	51.30		114.25	39.77		116.53	45.40	
Acc. time, air	119.97	25.83		119.38	25.99		120.41	26.88	
Cost, air	318.49	55.42		310.31	52.91		317.03	56.40	
# of interchanges, air	1.00	0.86		0.97	0.85		1.01	0.90	
Choice: coach mode			268			28			12
IV time, coach	325.83	196.20		423.17	146.73		433.33	172.65	
Acc. time, coach	58.30	24.78		57.35	24.65		57.57	25.11	
Cost, coach	20.84	12.46		159.55	24.91		164.49	26.32	
# of interchanges, coach	1.00	0.86		1.03	0.88		0.99	0.88	
	Socioeconomic variables ^j								
Dist. ^k of ref. ^l trip in km. ^m	258.05	145.47		344.03	104.41		347.99	120.48	

^a#: number

^bobs.: observations

^cDM.: decision makers, i.e. individuals

^dstd.dev.: standard deviation

^eDescriptive statistics based on the number of observations

^fIV.: in-vehicle

^gmn.: minutes

^h€: Euro

ⁱAcc.: access

^jDescriptive statistics based on the number of individuals

^kDist.: distance of baseline trip used to generate SP experiments

^lref.: reference

^mkm.: kilometres

TABLE 2: MSL estimates, 500 Halton draws, Portugal

	Deg. w/o AE ^a		Deg. with AE		$U(\mu, s)$		$T(\mu, s)$		$N(\mu, \sigma)$		$\ln N(\mu, \sigma)$	
int. ^b car	0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)	
int. train	0.759 (2.73)		-0.578 (-0.75)		1.230 (1.46)		1.380 (1.22)		0.878 (1.19)		3.360 (1.62)	
int. air	2.500 (2.10)		4.95 (2.29)		7.340 (3.19)		7.020 (2.47)		6.950 (2.08)		8.760 (2.08)	
int. coach	-2.580 (-2.33)		-3.89 (-2.75)		-8.250 (-2.68)		-3.860 (-3.20)		-3.420 (-2.21)		-6.980 (-3.17)	
AE car			0.661 (1.09)		0.0126 (0.10)		0.003 (0.01)		0.199 (1.51)		0.036 (0.09)	
AE train			4.87 (1.60)		5.280 (2.96)		3.500 (1.94)		5.610 (1.91)		6.800 (2.20)	
AE air			2.45 (3.75)		0.197 (0.49)		1.180 (1.62)		0.313 (0.89)		0.459 (2.14)	
AE coach			1.84 (2.61)		4.820 (3.53)		1.100 (1.72)		1.130 (1.12)		0.016 (0.01)	
IV. time		+		+		+		+		+		-
μ	-0.008 (-2.96)		-0.0152 (-2.11)		-0.032 (-2.62)		-0.016 (-2.23)		-0.035 (-1.95)		-3.230 (-6.41)	
σ									0.018 (1.86)		0.616 (7.19)	
s					0.026 (3.14)		0.020 (2.25)					
Acc. time		+		+		+		+		+		-
μ	-0.018 (-2.02)		-0.0404 (-2.32)		-0.068 (-2.71)		-0.033 (-2.32)		-0.073 (-2.05)		-2.380 (-4.27)	
σ									0.004 (1.75)		0.014 (0.35)	
s					0.004 (0.69)		0.006 (0.35)					
cost		+		+		+		+		+		-
μ	-0.011 (-3.33)		-0.0191 (-2.59)		-0.037 (-3.10)		-0.018 (-2.31)		-0.038 (-1.75)		-3.020 (-9.50)	
σ									0.002 (0.50)		0.021 (0.49)	
s					0.001 (0.45)		0.008 (1.73)					
# of interchanges		+		+		+		+		+		-
μ	-0.344 (-2.01)		-0.661 (-2.34)		-1.04 (-1.99)		-0.464 (-2.30)		-0.850 (-2.10)		-0.407 (-0.38)	
σ									1.080 (1.23)		1.890 (3.61)	
s					0.974 (0.88)		0.821 (0.74)					
Hourly values of travel time savings in €: mean and 95% confidence interval												
IV. time	43.64		47.75		51.92 [11.83;92.02]		55.25 [1.58;121.14]		56.81 [-0.52;114.18]		58.84 [14.46;163.29]	
Acc. time	98.18		126.91		110.30 [102.90;117.93]		113.90 [78.32;170.74]		110.40 [96.56;124.61]		113.80 [108.26;119.53]	
Goodness-of-Fit statistics												
# of par.	7		11		15		15		15		15	
$\ln \ell_0^d$	-205.172		-205.172		-205.172		-205.172		-205.172		-205.172	
$\ln \ell_{int}^e$	-160.930		-160.930		-160.930		-160.930		-160.930		-160.930	
$\ln \ell_{max}^f$	-116.450		-93.401		-82.870		-84.878		-83.775		-86.663	
adj. ρ^2^g	0.398		0.491		0.523		0.513		0.519		0.504	
LR stat. ^h	177.442		223.541		244.604		240.587		242.792		237.018	

^a Deg.: degenerate; w/o: without; AE: agent effect

^b int.: intercept

^c the + sign means that the coefficient is distributed along with the definition of the probability density function of the associated distribution. The - sign means that the distribution is reversed, i.e.

the lower bound becomes the upper bound and vice-versa

^d $\ln \ell_0$: value of the log-likelihood when parameters are all equal to 0

^e $\ln \ell_{int}$: value of the log-likelihood when estimating model with intercept only

^f $\ln \ell_{max}$: value of the log-likelihood at point of convergence

^g adj. ρ^2 : adjusted pseudo rho-square

^h LR stat.: Likelihood ratio statistic

TABLE 3: MSL estimates, 500 Halton draws, Portugal, cont'd

	$\mathcal{E}(\lambda)$		$\mathcal{P}(\mu, \lambda)$		$\mathcal{L}(\mu, \sigma)$		$\mathcal{E}\mathcal{V}1(\mu, \sigma)$		$\mathcal{S}b(\mu, s, m, \tau)$	
int. car	0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)	
int. train	1.680 (1.73)		1.400 (1.54)		1.960 (1.42)		1.810 (1.47)		1.910 (2.42)	
int. air	7.750 (1.33)		5.810 (2.21)		7.610 (2.18)		7.400 (1.91)		8.270 (1.43)	
int. coach	-4.980 (-0.94)		-3.900 (-3.95)		-4.630 (-2.09)		-3.760 (-1.31)		-4.330 (-0.67)	
AE car	1.540 (1.01)		1.320 (2.07)		2.410 (2.00)		2.210 (1.41)		2.470 (2.61)	
AE train	6.210 (0.97)		3.530 (2.44)		2.200 (2.11)		3.180 (1.60)		3.340 (2.94)	
AE air	3.390 (1.20)		1.860 (4.48)		0.781 (1.33)		0.110 (1.60)		0.239 (0.11)	
AE coach	2.010 (0.22)		0.239 (1.02)		2.670 (1.88)		0.072 (6.47)		2.060 (0.17)	
IV. time		-		-		-		-		-
μ			0.015 (1.80)		-0.030 (-2.48)		-0.024 (-1.65)		0.009 (1.31)	
σ					0.009 (2.76)		0.017 (1.41)			
s									0.087 (3.45)	
λ	21.758 (1.18)		3.387 (3.48)						0 (fixed)	
m									1 (fixed)	
τ										
Acc. time		-		-		-		+		+
μ			0.041 (2.16)		-0.067 (-2.23)		-0.073 (-2.12)		-0.108 (-2.69)	
σ					0.004 (1.66)		0.007 (1.41)			
s									0.072 (1.52)	
λ	9.583 (1.22)		3.935 (3.25)						0 (fixed)	
m									1 (fixed)	
τ										
cost		-		-		-		-		+
μ			0.025 (2.72)		-0.037 (-2.35)		-0.038 (-1.90)		-0.047 (-1.74)	
σ					3.65e-04 (0.38)		7.13e-05 (0.01)			
s									0.008 (0.27)	
λ	35.517 (1.18)		43.816 (0.21)						0 (fixed)	
m									1 (fixed)	
τ										
# of interchanges		-		-		-		-		-
μ			0.177 (0.75)		-1.050 (-2.45)		-0.533 (-1.06)		1.960 (1.59)	
σ					0.587 (2.31)		1.220 (1.49)			
s									6.270 (-2.82)	
λ	0.568 (0.71)		0.882 (1.41)						0 (fixed)	
m									1 (fixed)	
τ										
Hourly values of travel time savings in €: mean and 95% confidence interval										
IV. time	1093.00 [2.42;3749.83]		49.86 [35.14;103.92]		48.64 [-4.65;102.17]		53.37 [2.73;136.20]		48.23 [2.37;94.50]	
Acc. time	2264.00 [5.87;8729.33]		128.60 [95.65;244.78]		108.70 [84.75;132.91]		121.60 [100.68;155.81]		100.60 [62.32;140.15]	
Goodness-of-Fit statistics										
# of par.	11		15		15		15		15	
$\ln \ell_0$	-205.172		-205.172		-205.172		-205.172		-205.172	
$\ln \ell_{int}$	-160.930		-160.930		-160.930		-160.930		-160.930	
$\ln \ell_{max}$	-92.972		-88.270		-84.773		-86.254		-85.493	
adj. ρ^2	0.493		0.497		0.514		0.506		0.510	
LR stat.	224.399		233.803		240.797		237.835		239.358	

TABLE 4: MSL estimates, 500 Halton draws, Switzerland

	Deg. w/o AE		Deg. with AE		$U(\mu, s)$		$T(\mu, s)$		$N(\mu, \sigma)$		$\ln N(\mu, \sigma)$	
int. car	0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)	
int. train	0.375 (2.88)		0.405 (0.46)		1.710 (0.76)		0.902 (1.91)		1.590 (3.80)		1.740 (2.21)	
int. air	1.900 (3.97)		5.090 (1.27)		6.780 (0.59)		4.800 (3.34)		6.500 (4.92)		6.850 (4.08)	
int. coach	-1.350 (-5.13)		-2.290 (-0.71)		-6.270 (-6.98)		-3.720 (-4.46)		-5.860 (-5.83)		-5.710 (-3.60)	
AE car			3.390 (4.89)		2.610 (1.64)		3.57 (4.09)		2.770 (4.03)		3.170 (5.63)	
AE train			3.580 (4.64)		2.870 (7.54)		1.68 (2.93)		2.420 (3.15)		2.900 (6.35)	
AE air			4.310 (4.34)		2.650 (0.53)		3.88 (3.52)		2.350 (1.99)		1.990 (3.67)	
AE coach			2.430 (0.96)		5.520 (6.85)		3.28 (3.65)		5.360 (12.37)		5.520 (5.42)	
IV. time		+		+		+		+		+		-
μ	-0.011 (-13.89)		-0.027 (-4.22)		-0.038 (-2.22)		-0.021 (-5.90)		-0.041 (-5.44)		-3.350 (-28.21)	
σ									0.016 (4.25)		0.114 (2.43)	
s					0.019 (1.86)		0.018 (4.36)					
Acc. time		+		+		+		+		+		-
μ	-0.019 (-5.89)		-0.048 (-2.49)		-0.062 (-2.84)		-0.032 (-5.31)		-0.064 (-5.68)		-3.080 (-16.44)	
σ									0.022 (5.12)		0.841 (8.30)	
s					0.066 (4.33)		0.014 (0.77)					
cost		+		+		+		+		+		-
μ	-0.014 (-11.06)		-0.036 (-2.21)		-0.054 (-2.04)		-0.025 (-5.85)		-0.055 (-5.79)		-2.940 (-27.61)	
σ									0.004 (1.05)		0.081 (2.36)	
s					0.005 (0.27)		0.003 (0.33)					
# of interchanges		+		+		+		+		+		-
μ	-0.220 (-2.90)		-0.273 (-1.52)		-0.456 (-2.81)		-0.240 (-2.46)		-0.486 (-2.69)		-2.900 (-2.52)	
σ									0.576 (2.38)		2.130 (4.30)	
s					1.060 (1.41)		1.330 (3.04)					
Hourly values of travel time savings in €: mean and 95% confidence interval												
IV. time	47.14		45.00		42.34 [21.92;64.32]		50.55 [16.79;84.90]		44.92 [10.37;80.97]		40.20 [30.28;52.38]	
Acc. time	81.43		80.00		69.05 [-0.75;141.46]		76.92 [50.26;104.77]		70.26 [22.70;119.70]		74.69 [10.14;274.78]	
Goodness-of-Fit statistics												
# of par.	7		11		15		15		15		15	
$\ln \ell_0$	-1269.846		-1269.846		-1269.846		-1269.846		-1269.846		-1269.846	
$\ln \ell_{int}$	-1035.330		-1035.330		-1035.330		-1035.330		-1035.330		-1035.330	
$\ln \ell_{max}$	-782.668		-582.755		-575.514		-571.844		-577.737		-578.968	
adj. ρ^2	0.378		0.532		0.535		0.538		0.533		0.532	
LR stat.	974.355		1374.182		1388.664		1396.004		1384.217		1381.754	

TABLE 5: MSL estimates, 500 Halton draws, Switzerland, cont'd

	$\mathcal{E}(\lambda)$		$\mathcal{P}(\mu, \lambda)$		$\mathcal{L}(\mu, \sigma)$		$\mathcal{E}\mathcal{V}1(\mu, \sigma)$		$\mathcal{S}b(\mu, s, m, \tau)$	
int. car	0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)	
int. train	1.170 (2.83)		1.390 (2.59)		1.030 (2.11)		1.120 (1.64)		0.820 (0.59)	
int. air	2.740 (2.03)		7.000 (4.35)		6.630 (3.18)		6.000 (3.45)		6.340 (2.09)	
int. coach	-3.55 (-3.76)		-3.990 (-1.76)		-4.200 (-3.94)		-3.040 (-3.23)		-3.900 (-0.70)	
AE car	3.450 (5.23)		2.820 (3.00)		3.630 (5.29)		3.680 (2.81)		2.960 (2.83)	
AE train	1.190 (2.30)		2.240 (2.82)		1.970 (3.55)		1.530 (2.22)		2.720 (2.47)	
AE air	5.050 (5.30)		2.590 (2.15)		5.670 (4.20)		3.680 (3.47)		5.590 (6.06)	
AE coach	3.210 (5.77)		4.460 (2.14)		3.590 (3.14)		2.990 (4.99)		3.160 (1.56)	
IV. time		-		-		-		-		+
μ			0.028 (6.41)		-0.044 (-6.74)		-0.031 (-6.10)		-0.081 (-8.56)	
σ					0.009 (6.18)		0.008 (3.62)			
s									0.074 (2.20)	
λ	18.541 (6.21)		7.243 (5.49)						0 (fixed)	
m									1 (fixed)	
τ										
Acc. time		-		-		-		-		-
μ			0.032 (5.18)		-0.071 (-5.69)		-0.040 (-4.22)		-0.054 (-0.44)	
σ					0.006 (2.20)		0.035 (5.43)			
s									0.036 (0.17)	
λ	19.492 (4.950)		1.775 (10.98)						0 (fixed)	
m									1 (fixed)	
τ										
cost		-		-		+		+		-
μ			0.047 (6.21)		-0.058 (-5.35)		-0.051 (-5.63)		-0.042 (-0.52)	
σ					4.30e-05 (0.03)		0.002 (1.50)			
s									0.038 (0.26)	
λ	24.288 (5.988)		34.813 (2.85)						0 (fixed)	
m									1 (fixed)	
τ										
# of interchanges		-		-		+		-		-
μ			0.244 (1.89)		-0.501 (-2.65)		-0.116 (-0.52)		3.000 (1.69)	
σ					0.891 (3.40)		0.722 (1.91)			
s									6.720 (2.00)	
λ	0.923 (3.937)		3.222 (2.02)						0 (fixed)	
m									1 (fixed)	
τ										
Hourly values of travel time savings in €: mean and 95% confidence interval										
IV. time	758.40 [2.02;3142.94]		40.31 [33.82;57.67]		71.33 [17.87;125.11]		43.07 [24.70;73.51]		44.03 [15.55;77.82]	
Acc. time	678.60 [1.89;2837.63]		90.58 [40.10;317.96]		115.20 [79.45;150.82]		72.39 [-6.65;203.39]		72.10 [51.69;99.18]	
Goodness-of-Fit statistics										
# of par.	11		15		15		15		15	
$\ln \ell_0$	-1269.846		-1269.846		-1269.846		-1269.846		-1269.846	
$\ln \ell_{int}$	-1035.330		-1035.330		-1035.330		-1035.330		-1035.330	
$\ln \ell_{max}$	-639.818		-583.165		-564.836		-587.269		-565.373	
adj. ρ^2	0.487		0.529		0.543		0.526		0.543	
LR stat.	1260.055		1373.361		1410.020		1365.153		1408.944	

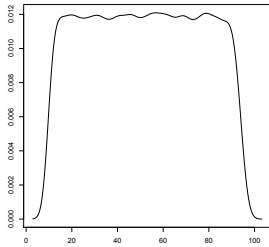
TABLE 6: MSL estimates, 500 Halton draws, The Czech Republic

	Deg. w/o AE		Deg. with AE		$\mathcal{U}(\mu, s)$		$\mathcal{T}(\mu, s)$		$\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$		$\ln \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$	
int. car	0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)	
int. train	-0.601 (-8.52)		-0.886 (-2.42)		-1.460 (-8.76)		-1.410 (-5.21)		-1.540 (-4.76)		-1.300 (-6.64)	
int. air	3.900 (6.33)		5.11 (0.72)		9.200 (4.15)		9.820 (4.51)		10.000 (6.42)		6.970 (5.95)	
int. coach	-2.240 (-13.04)		-3.41 (-6.54)		-5.150 (-14.03)		-4.720 (-9.08)		-5.260 (-5.31)		-4.690 (-11.85)	
AE car			0.902 (4.06)		1.250 (2.35)		1.300 (3.49)		0.880 (1.29)		0.965 (2.55)	
AE train			1.130 (5.09)		1.250 (3.25)		1.020 (3.72)		1.420 (5.23)		1.490 (6.42)	
AE air			3.990 (4.96)		6.010 (6.72)		3.840 (5.67)		1.920 (4.19)		5.730 (5.26)	
AE coach			0.801 (3.81)		0.579 (2.90)		0.337 (1.00)		0.694 (1.84)		0.806 (2.52)	
IV. time		+		+		+		+		+		-
μ	-0.010 (-14.71)		-0.022 (-10.39)		-0.032 (-7.72)		-0.014 (-10.02)		-0.031 (-6.85)		-3.550 (-46.14)	
σ									0.007 (5.72)		0.275 (7.77)	
s					0.018 (4.02)		0.009 (5.47)					
Acc. time		+		+		+		+		+		-
μ	-0.026 (-8.32)		-0.041 (-6.45)		-0.051 (-3.82)		-0.023 (-6.69)		-0.046 (-8.23)		-3.090 (-26.86)	
σ									0.003 (0.27)		0.239 (3.34)	
s					0.025 (0.91)		0.013 (1.24)					
cost		+		+		+		+		+		-
μ	-0.020 (-9.75)		-0.040 (-1.51)		-0.068 (-6.77)		-0.031 (-6.04)		-0.068 (-6.43)		-2.910 (-28.42)	
σ									0.022 (6.48)		0.082 (5.17)	
s					0.017 (3.27)		0.012 (1.51)					
# of interchanges		+		+		+		+		+		-
μ	-0.164 (-3.61)		-0.157 (-2.60)		-0.275 (-1.75)		-0.102 (-2.63)		-0.242 (-1.95)		-6.180 (-3.52)	
σ									0.716 (2.51)		4.970 (4.35)	
s					1.420 (3.25)		0.765 (3.89)					
Hourly values of travel time savings in €: mean and 95% confidence interval												
IV. time	30.00		33.00		28.83 [12.35;50.26]		27.85 [13.00;46.99]		29.41 [12.70;77.45]		32.95 [18.05;55.09]	
Acc. time	78.00		61.50		46.02 [22.33;77.15]		45.70 [23.67;74.78]		40.38 [24.19;109.64]		51.80 [30.55;82.31]	
Goodness-of-Fit statistics												
# of par.	7		11		15		15		15		15	
$\ln \ell_0$	-2833.586		-2833.586		-2833.586		-2833.586		-2833.586		-2833.586	
$\ln \ell_{int}$	-2216.996		-2216.996		-2216.996		-2216.996		-2216.996		-2216.996	
$\ln \ell_{max}$	-1650.779		-1436.523		-1404.060		-1412.631		-1395.963		-1396.303	
adj. ρ^2	0.415		0.489		0.499		0.496		0.502		0.502	
LR stat.	2365.613		2794.125		2859.050		2841.909		2875.246		2874.565	

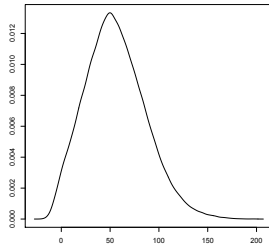
TABLE 7: MSL estimates, 500 Halton draws, The Czech Republic, cont'd

	$\mathcal{E}(\lambda)$		$\mathcal{P}(\mu, \lambda)$		$\mathcal{L}(\mu, \sigma)$		$\mathcal{E}\mathcal{V}1(\mu, \sigma)$		$Sb(\mu, s, m, \tau)$	
int. car	0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)		0 (ref.)	
int. train	-0.968 (-5.82)		-1.210 (-7.18)		-1.560 (-6.47)		-1.440 (-4.84)		-1.100 (-0.49)	
int. air	2.330 (3.72)		6.690 (4.06)		11.300 (4.79)		9.110 (3.61)		8.270 (6.21)	
int. coach	-5.130 (-4.83)		-4.430 (-9.10)		-5.400 (-8.05)		-4.910 (-6.90)		-3.860 (-2.16)	
AE car	0.363 (1.14)		1.070 (5.49)		1.170 (6.20)		1.260 (4.92)		1.120 (1.04)	
AE train	1.430 (7.81)		1.220 (5.98)		1.360 (6.26)		1.060 (3.82)		0.759 (0.11)	
AE air	0.639 (2.32)		3.880 (10.06)		1.530 (3.31)		2.210 (6.14)		3.700 (2.99)	
AE coach	1.180 (0.87)		1.300 (4.19)		0.497 (1.11)		0.615 (2.00)		0.025 (0.03)	
IV. time		-		-		+		-		+
μ			0.022 (8.70)		-0.032 (-9.53)		-0.026 (-10.64)		-0.037 (-1.87)	
σ					0.006 (7.74)		0.008 (4.06)			
s									0.027 (2.48)	
λ	24.779 (8.55)		19.688 (1.17)						0 (fixed)	
m									1 (fixed)	
τ										
Acc. time		-		-		-		-		+
μ			0.033 (7.87)		-0.055 (-8.61)		-0.043 (-8.38)		-0.085 (-1.87)	
σ					0.011 (5.54)		0.012 (2.71)			
s									0.081 (0.46)	
λ	13.874 (7.35)		4.759 (4.69)						0 (fixed)	
m									1 (fixed)	
τ										
cost		-		-		+		-		+
μ			0.038 (5.85)		-0.074 (-5.97)		-0.055 (-4.98)		-0.063 (-1.98)	
σ					0.009 (9.92)		0.016 (3.32)			
s									0.025 (2.51)	
λ	19.106 (6.71)		5.812 (5.05)						0 (fixed)	
m									1 (fixed)	
τ										
# of interchanges		-		-		+		+		+
μ			3.736e-07 (0.10)		-0.230 (-2.95)		-0.561 (-5.65)		-0.832 (-0.23)	
σ					0.362 (9.92)		0.578 (6.19)			
s									1.280 (0.21)	
λ	3.127 (3.14)		0.162 (1.55)						0 (fixed)	
m									1 (fixed)	
τ										
Hourly values of travel time savings in €: mean and 95% confidence interval										
IV. time	630.40 [1.20;1770.61]		31.22 [19.27;38.88]		27.43 [7.70;55.95]		31.46 [11.87;67.66]		28.24 [15.38;43.23]	
Acc. time	1051.00 [2.15;3217.33]		56.29 [31.78;100.24]		47.15 [11.76;98.16]		51.15 [20.32;107.93]		150.60 [105.94;204.93]	
Goodness-of-Fit statistics										
# of par.	11		15		15		15		15	
$\ln \ell_0$	-2833.586		-2833.586		-2833.586		-2833.586		-2833.586	
$\ln \ell_{int}$	-2216.996		-2216.996		-2216.996		-2216.996		-2216.996	
$\ln \ell_{max}$	-1524.760		-1423.263		-1391.067		-1416.160		-1433.464	
adj. ρ^2	0.458		0.492		0.504		0.495		0.489	
LR stat.	2617.652		2820.646		2885.037		2834.851		2800.243	

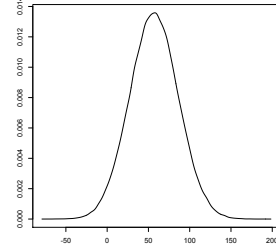
FIGURE 1: In-vehicle hourly VTTS, 100000 draws, Portugal



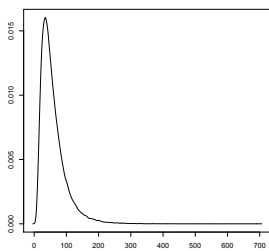
Uniform



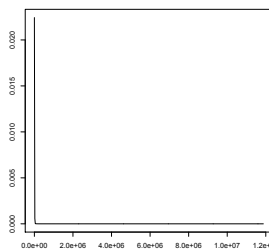
Triangular



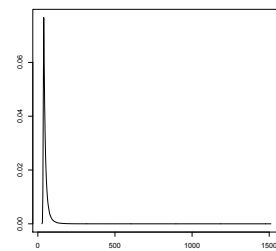
Normal



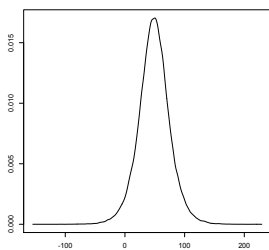
LogNormal



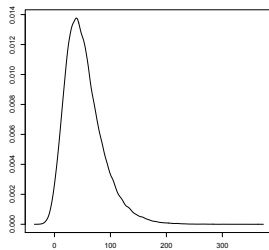
Exponential



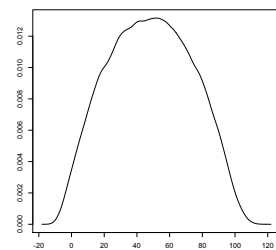
Pareto



Logistic

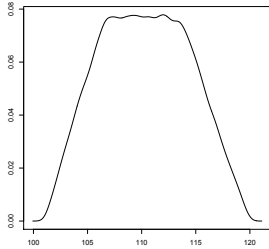


Type 1 EV

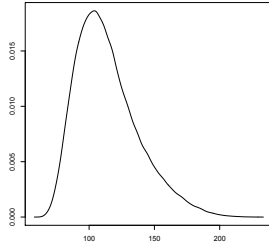


Sb

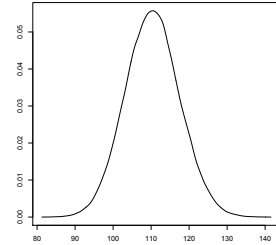
FIGURE 2: Access+egress hourly VTTS, 100000 draws, Portugal



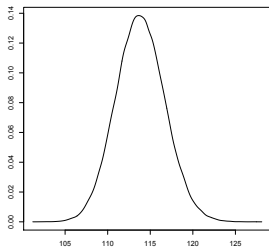
Uniform



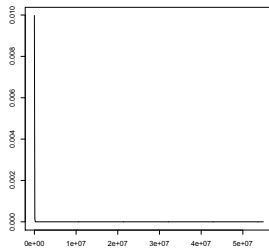
Triangular



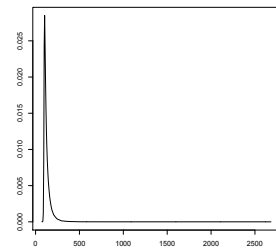
Normal



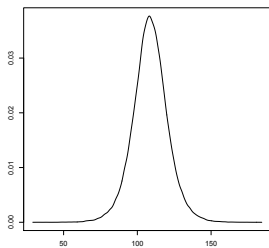
LogNormal



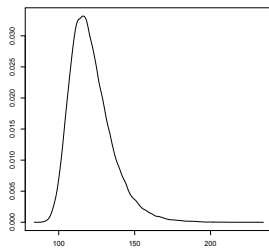
Exponential



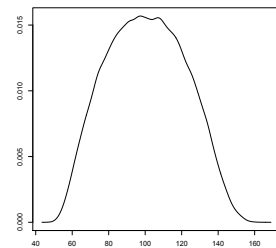
Pareto



Logistic

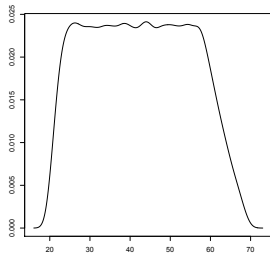


Type 1 EV

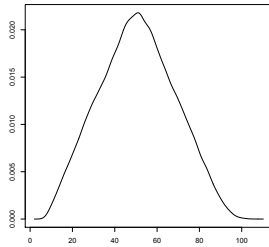


Sb

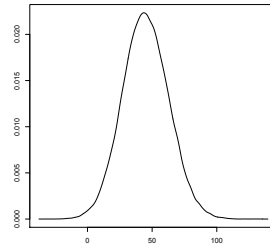
FIGURE 3: In-vehicle hourly VTTS, 100000 draws, Switzerland



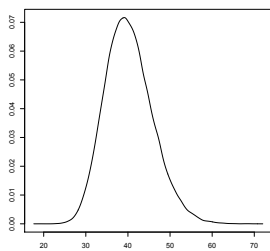
Uniform



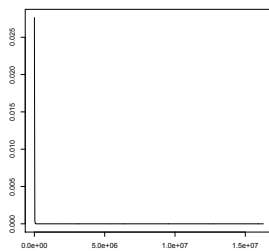
Triangular



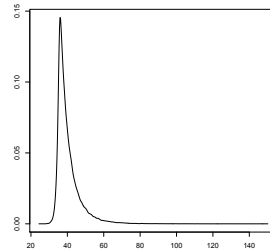
Normal



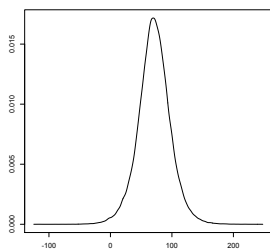
LogNormal



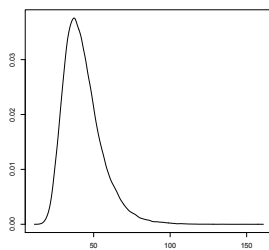
Exponential



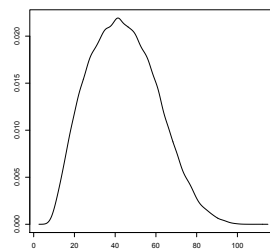
Pareto



Logistic

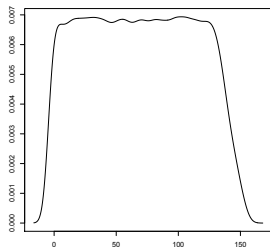


Type 1 EV

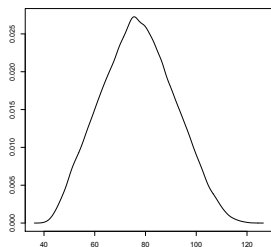


Sb

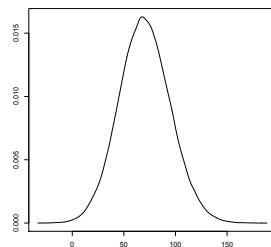
FIGURE 4: Access+egress hourly VTTS, 100000 draws, Switzerland



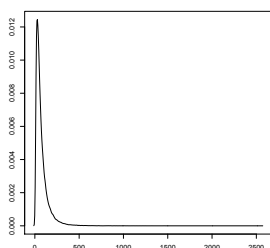
Uniform



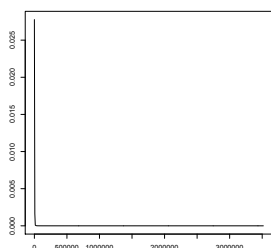
Triangular



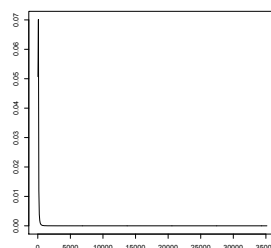
Normal



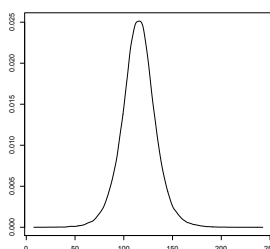
LogNormal



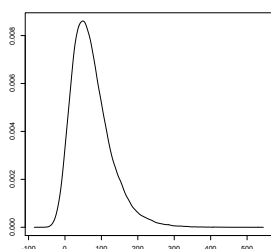
Exponential



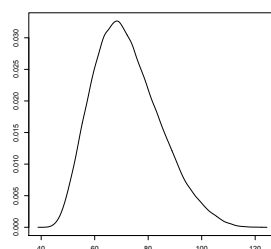
Pareto



Logistic

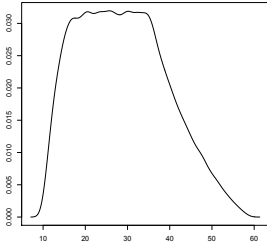


Type 1 EV

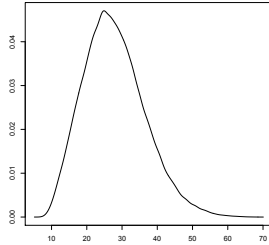


Sb

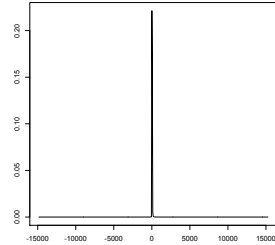
FIGURE 5: In-vehicle hourly VTTs, 100000 draws, The Czech Republic



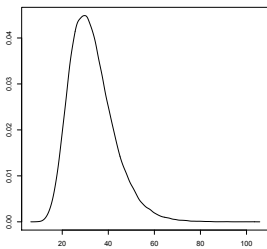
Uniform



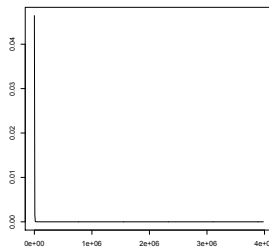
Triangular



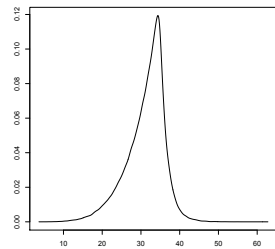
Normal



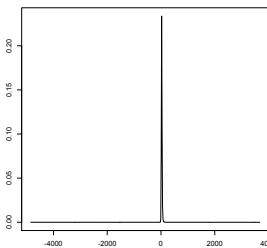
LogNormal



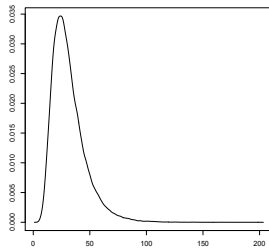
Exponential



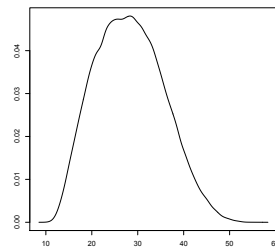
Pareto



Logistic

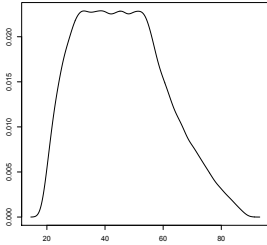


Type 1 EV

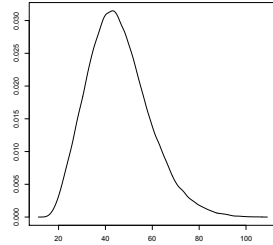


Sb

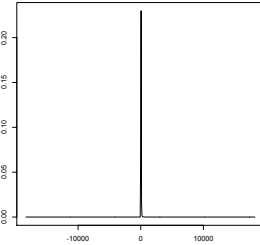
FIGURE 6: Access+egress hourly VTTS, 100000 draws, The Czech Republic



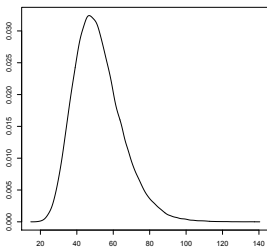
Uniform



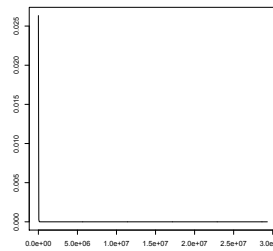
Triangular



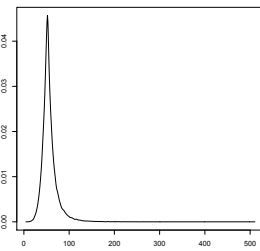
Normal



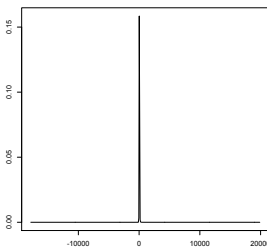
LogNormal



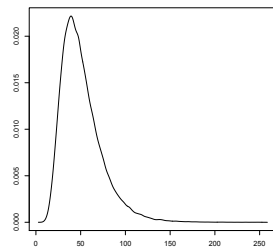
Exponential



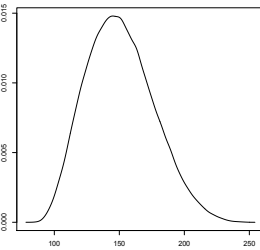
Pareto



Logistic



Type 1 EV



Sb