

1 **ON THE VARIATION IN MODE CHOICE BEHAVIOR IN AGENT-BASED TRAVEL**
2 **DEMAND MODELS**

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1 ABSTRACT

2 Past research shows that individual mode choice preferences and, thus, taste variation of mode
3 choice play an essential role and are observable even for one day. Both multi- and monomodal
4 behavioral patterns with different degrees of mode choice variation are the subject of investigation.
5 Hence, agent-based travel demand models (AB-TDMs) must account for this taste variation, which
6 is expected to affect model sensitivity. To assess the impacts of mode choice model configuration
7 on the resulting variation, we apply an approach based on mixed logit models and implement them
8 in an AB-TDM simulation. We analyze the mode choice behavior regarding variation indicators
9 for the simulation period of one day and one week and compare it to observed behavior.

10 We show that classic MNL models cannot appropriately account for mode choice variation
11 in AB-TDM, both for one week or one day. We show that mixed model approaches can bridge this
12 gap by better capturing heterogeneity and suggest using mixed models in an agent-based context.
13 This prevents models from overestimating multimodal mode choice behavior.

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15 *Keywords:* variation of travel mode choice, agent-based travel demand modeling, multimodal,
16 travel patterns, mixed logit

1 INTRODUCTION

2 Travel behavior shows constant changes when looking at the past decades. The reliance of young
3 people solely on the private car is decreasing while public transportation and bicycle use are rising,
4 and multimodal travel patterns (use of several transport modes in everyday life) can be observed
5 more often (1, 2). Findings further suggest that generations preserve their learned habits at young
6 ages for their adult life. These habits lead to rising car availability in the older generations now-
7 days as they acquired related behavior in the 60's and 70's (2). However, young people (age 36 and
8 younger) tend to show a higher multimodal behavior coupled with generally higher flexibility and
9 trip intensity, looking at the example of Germany (2). Further, it is a predominantly urban behavior
10 (3).

11 More complex travel patterns on the one hand and new mobility services like car and bike-
12 sharing on the other require a more differentiating view on travel behavior regarding its variation.
13 This process considers both inter- and intra-personal variation in activities during the week (4) and
14 the variation in used travel modes on similar dimensions. Variation of travel behavior is closely
15 related to the topic of multimodality. The variation of used travel modes observed over a de-
16 fined period reveals whether a person is focused on a single mode and is therefore characterized
17 as monomodal or whether multiple modes are used to characterize a multimodal travel behavior.
18 The temporal dimension of variation is essential for this classification of behavior observed in sur-
19 veys. Typically, the distinction is conducted for the behavior of a single week (3). Still, substantial
20 differences in variation are already observable for a day (5).

21 Today's decisions in transport and city planning depend on a solid understanding of de-
22 cisions and interactions in the transport network. Travel demand models (TDMs) offer a way to
23 depict current conditions in traffic and forecast the effects of transportation-related measures. Typ-
24 ically, when using TDM for assessing infrastructure in practice, only the average weekday and
25 sometimes only the busiest hours with the highest level of traffic need to be analyzed. Travel
26 behavior in its aggregation is regarded as relatively stable over time. Following this assumption,
27 modeling one typical weekday allows for conclusions on other weekdays.

28 However, inter and intra-personal variation cannot be analyzed when only traffic volumes
29 are modeled without any individual-specific reference. New application fields of TDM, especially
30 with the rise of agent-based travel demand models (ABM), opened up and enabled named analysis
31 by forecasting individual travel behavior. They set the foundation for individual mode choice
32 preferences, generating the observable variation of travel behavior. It raises the question of whether
33 models can reproduce variation of travel mode choice appropriately, which can be observed in
34 travel surveys.

35 From the perspective of choice analysis, these preferences are reflected in inter- and in-
36 trapersonal taste heterogeneity. Preferences in travel behavior create a multitude of travel patterns.
37 They are either determined by life circumstances or by attitudes (6, 7). Whereas life circumstances
38 can be considered partly through socio-demographic variables, considering preferences not observ-
39 able to the analyst in agent-based travel demand models (AB-TDM) is more complicated and done
40 less often in applied demand forecasting. An exemplary approach analyzing mode-specific pref-
41 erences is using Integrated Choice and Latent Variable (ICLV) or Hybrid Choice models (HCM).
42 Another approach is to introduce inter- or intrapersonal variance for specific influences in addition
43 to influences of, e.g., age or income. This randomness captures preferences that are not observable
44 to the analyst and are not yet covered. Preferences in simple Multinomial Logit (MNL) models
45 have a fixed value for all individuals with equal characteristics. Mixed Multinomial Logit (MMNL)

1 and Latent Class (LC) models allow for further inter- and intrapersonal variation and, therefore,
2 extended individual preferences. Especially MMNL models are recommended for taste variation,
3 repeated choices, and substitution patterns (8). Still, their number of applications in AB-TDMs
4 is relatively small compared to MNL and Nested Logit (NL) models, which can be related to its
5 higher complexity and the need for "highly-trained analysts" (8).

6 The multitude of options for modeling travel mode choice raises the question of to what
7 extent both single-day or multi-day AB-TDM with varying degrees of considering travel mode
8 preferences can reflect today's changed behavior and reach realistic degrees of mode choice vari-
9 ation. Hence, in this paper, we pursue two goals. We aim to map out the necessity to account
10 for appropriate variation in travel mode choice and, therefore, mono- and multimodal behavior
11 in AB-TDMs. We then apply a method to account for preferences in AB-TDMs and show the
12 effects using multiple simple mode choice models. A consecutive validation of the forecasting
13 abilities is done by comparing simulated travel patterns and their mode choice variation with the
14 German Mobility Panel (MOP). The validation is done for the simulation time of a single day and
15 a whole week. The aim is primarily to reproduce observed mode choice behavior and not to test
16 the resulting model sensitivity, which is the subject of further research.

17 This paper is structured as follows. First, we continue with the analysis of the current
18 literature focusing on the analysis, measuring, and modeling of mode choice variation. Second,
19 we introduce the AB-TDM framework applied in this research, focusing on the mode availability
20 model. Third, we describe model formulation and estimation. Fourth, we present the results of our
21 variation analysis. We close this paper with a conclusion of our work and an outlook for further
22 research.

23 LITERATURE

24 This section gives an overview of the current literature regarding three related topics. We first
25 analyze the empirical findings of variant preferences in travel mode choice behavior. We then
26 present indices to measure variation, followed by a summary of model approaches accounting for
27 heterogeneity in travel mode choice. We highlight Mixed Multinomial Logit (MMNL) models
28 as one promising method and give an overview of the applications of these approaches in travel
29 demand models.

30 Empirical basis: Variation of travel behavior

31 Variation of travel behavior is relevant at different levels. Inter-personal variation stems from
32 understanding differences between activity profiles or travel behavior of multiple individuals. In
33 contrast, intrapersonal variation is defined by the fact that individual needs and desires to travel
34 vary from day to day or trip to trip (9). However, socio-demographic characteristics and level-of-
35 service attributes of transport supply can hardly explain these types of variation only, especially
36 regarding the intrapersonal variation. The general intrapersonal variation is high, whereas this is
37 not due to systematic intrapersonal variation between different days (10).

38 Both types of variation in travel mode choice are mostly accounted for through the analysis
39 of mono- or multimodal groups. A vast body of literature studies individuals categorized into
40 mono- and multimodal groups based on their travel mode choice on all trips within an observation
41 period (3, 11). This can, among others, be found in the report of the German National Household
42 Travel Survey *Mobility in Germany* (12). Multimodal behavior, by its definition, implies using
43 at least two modes of cycling, driving, and riding public transport (PT) during the observation

1 period of a week. This analysis does not consider using other travel modes, such as walking or
2 sharing. Walking is expected to be used by all people and therefore not taken into account (e.g.,
3 access/egress to PT, short trips). In 2017, the two largest groups were only-car-users (~45%) and
4 car-and-bike-users (~21%) (12). Carrel et al. (13) provides a definition for a six-week-analysis
5 accepting, e.g., up to 10% of trips conducted with other modes when specifying a "quasi-unimodal
6 auto user." Consequently, definitions depend on the modes considered and the observation period.

7 Variation of mode choice can further be differentiated in variation for repeated trips such
8 as working trips and variation for different trips (14). Repeated choices of the same location relate
9 to habits regarding travel mode choice, whereas a higher variation for new destinations can be
10 expected. For example, Carrel et al. (13) found a higher share of monomodal groups for working
11 tours within their sample. This suggests the importance of activity purposes for the mode choice
12 variation.

13 The literature also highlights the inter- and intra-personal variation in activities and time
14 use over a certain period (4). A substantial variation in travel mode choice can already be explained
15 by the variation of activities over the week (13, 15).

16 **Indices for measuring travel mode variation**

17 Most surveys consider mainly the person-specific frequency by travel mode when analyzing sta-
18 bility. As shown before, multimodal groups built upon this analysis enable an understanding of
19 the stability of mode choice behavior. However, Mallig and Vortisch (16) found stability to be
20 measured in terms of frequency of use and changes of use and specific periodic repetitions of
21 subsamples of mode combinations. Different indicators were tested on correlation to enable an
22 exhaustive picture of mode choice variation using only as many indicators as needed. Therefore,
23 it has been suggested to keep only one frequency-based and one sequence-based indicator when
24 analyzing multimodal behavior or calibrating a TDM to an appropriate degree of variation.

25 Frequency-based indicators can be found in many studies: Streit et al. (2) used an indicator
26 looking at the number of modes used during one week, weighted by the number of trips of the most
27 frequently used mode. Thomas et al. (14) expressed both intrapersonal variation of mode choice of
28 repeated and different trips by looking at the most frequently used mode and setting it in relation
29 to all trips or to all trips to a specific location. The resulting variation is given by the total share
30 of the not most used modes. Both indicators can be analyzed based on the number, distance, and
31 duration of trips by mode (2). Kuhnimhof (17) developed the indicator MIX to take not only the
32 total variation of mode use into account but also to relate it to the number of choices (i.e., trips or
33 tours) of the period and the number of available choice options. This leads to an improved analysis
34 of travelers with only a few choices. Still, Mallig and Vortisch (16) found minor weaknesses in the
35 specific differentiation. The HHI is a measure of market concentration and, therefore, can be used
36 as an adequate indicator. Several studies have already used the Herfindahl-Hirschman Index (HHI)
37 as a measure for variation in travel mode choice (e.g., Mallig and Vortisch, Rhoades, Heinen and
38 Chatterjee (16, 18, 19)).

39 Sequence-based indicators enable a different analysis of travel mode choice, specifically
40 considering the sequence and order of decisions. Mallig and Vortisch (16) propose a pair-based
41 and a run-based indicator. The former looks at pairs of subsequent decisions in mode choice, the
42 latter at the "maximum contiguous subsequence of the same mode" (16).

1 **Mode choice variation structures in travel demand models**

2 The variation in travel behavior has already been recognized and considered in travel demand
3 modeling. Today, most travel demand models are based on one-day travel surveys. They form the
4 basis of transportation policy in many countries (20). A fundamental assumption of these models
5 based on one-day travel surveys is that behavior adapts immediately to new circumstances and
6 that, for example, trips are highly repetitive in the short term. However, these assumptions do not
7 hold in reality. Recent work shows apparent differences between the results of cross-sectional and
8 longitudinal models (21). Especially to better represent new mobility concepts that aim at using
9 different alternatives, longitudinal data are needed to analyze the inter- and intrapersonal dynamics
10 of travel mode usage. In addition, the models assume that individuals know the complete set of
11 alternative travel modes, have complete information and consciously reflect their choice based on
12 respective level-of-service attributes (22).

13 Numerous model approaches exist that address taste variation in travel mode choices based
14 on longitudinal data by choice of discrete choice model. MMNL models offer the possibility of
15 incorporating random taste heterogeneity in the model without linking it to an observed attribute in
16 the data (23). These "error components capture unobserved correlation across travel mode choice
17 decisions made by the same individual" (22). This usually leads to an improved likelihood and
18 better model fit on the one hand and more complex estimating processes on the other hand. Carrel
19 et al. (13) used discrete mixtures as a combined latent class and mixed logit model to integrate
20 latent preferences and taste heterogeneity into a travel mode choice model. Thereby, they charac-
21 terized different modality styles, which has been suggested before by Kuhnimhof et al. (5). Both
22 the results of the descriptive analysis and the resulting three-class-solution of the latent class model
23 suggest the presence of quasi-unimodal auto users, a transit and bike-oriented multimodal class,
24 and a more auto-oriented multimodal class. When restricting the data for the estimation to only two
25 days, it became more challenging to observe similar classes and apply the same model structure.
26 Another implicit integration of preferences through latent classes representing different modality
27 styles was done by Vij et al. (22). The analysis revealed an auto-oriented, a transit-oriented, and
28 a multimodal class. Based on an MMNL model accounting for error components for all avail-
29 able modes, Thomas et al. (14) found substantial variation for all trips and purpose-specific trips.
30 Cherchi et al. (15) set up different MMNL models accounting for respondents' correlation over the
31 same weekdays, a single week, and the whole observation period analyzing the 6-week travel diary
32 *Mobidrive*. Extending the correlation significantly improved the results, whereby the correlation
33 for the same weekdays appeared to be more critical. All cases successfully captured a larger pro-
34 portion of heterogeneity in their models. Still, to the authors' knowledge, no application of these
35 models was made to test whether they can reproduce different levels of variation through modality
36 styles in simulation frameworks.

37 Explicit integration of preferences in travel mode choice is commonly used to explain travel
38 behavior and modality styles. Paulssen et al. (24) included preferences in commuting mode choice
39 via latent variables in a mixed ICLV framework and explained a high level of variation in travel
40 mode choice. Nevertheless, a simulation was not conducted because the information on prefer-
41 ences in the population for simulation is difficult to simulate.

42 A different approach of model-based accounting for mode choice variation is the state-
43 dependent consideration of past behavior. Thereby, models assume an influence of prior decisions
44 on the present. Kuhnimhof (17) estimated a tour-based travel mode choice model considering the
45 previous mode used, the previous mode used on the same routine tour, and a commuting mode

1 influence as independent variables. The routine tour influence was an essential factor indicating
2 a stable preference for repeating trips. Mallig and Vortisch (25) tested different approaches to
3 include various degrees of short-term stability within a tour and long-term stability over the week
4 by accounting for the previous use of modes. By comparing the standard cross-sectional mode
5 choice model with the extended longitudinal model, they found the cross-sectional approach to
6 overestimate multimodal mobility styles and to underrate patterns with low variation in travel mode
7 choice. While both approaches successfully integrate stability in travel mode choice, they have
8 the limitation of missing information for a traveler's first trip in the simulation period. Specific
9 situations in the beginning and the subsequent mode choice influence travel behavior, potentially
10 leading to extreme behavior.

11 In a joint reflection of both areas Mallig (26) compared eight approaches to account for
12 variation. He tested four state-dependent approaches considering previously used modes: includ-
13 ing the previous mode, checking whether the previous mode is the same, checking which modes
14 have been used among all previous uses, or counting the previously used modes. The MMNL
15 approach was also tested using random parameters for constants in the utility function interpreted
16 as individual preferences for specific modes. Finally, incorporating empirical preferences, i.e., the
17 relative usage frequency over the survey period, into the utility functions was tested by includ-
18 ing the preference for the single evaluated mode or all mode preferences. The MMNL approach
19 turned out best when comparing the simulated and empirical variation indicators closely followed
20 by the model with empirical preferences. The state-dependent approaches were shown to esti-
21 mate monomodal behavior better but to underestimate persons with higher variation in travel mode
22 choice.

23 Achieving realistic levels and distributions of travel mode choice variation is not an end
24 but also affects its forecasting abilities. Studies found that different model approaches lead to
25 varying model sensitivities regarding forecasting. Mallig and Vortisch (25) found that models are
26 too sensitive and identified a need for further incorporation of mode preferences within models to
27 receive reasonable forecasts, especially when assessing measures in transport infrastructure and
28 supply. Vij et al. (22) highlight the role of varying time sensitivity for policies. Their observed
29 latent classes, respectively, their modality styles covered both sensitive and insensitive classes
30 regarding level-of-service attributes. Improved forecasting has been observed by Provencher and
31 Bishop (27). Their study compares a standard MNL model, a latent class, and two MMNL models
32 regarding their forecasts of fishing catch rates. However, there is no clear indication of MMNL
33 and LC models being superior to standard MNL models regarding all indicators tested.

34 **METHODOLOGY**

35 In this section, we first describe the applied AB-TDM, its key characteristics, and its framework
36 *mobiTopp* with a focus on the existing approaches to account for different degrees of behavioral
37 variation in mode choice. This is done in the context of the later analysis, which also investigates
38 whether this AB-TDM's control of mode availability and variation of life circumstances and ac-
39 tivity profiles is already sufficient for achieving an appropriate level of mode choice variation. We
40 then present the MMNL models of our approach by summarizing the data used in this research and
41 the subsequent model estimation.

1 **Study and simulation context**

2 For this research, the authors use an AB-TDM of the Karlsruhe region. The area includes the city of
3 Karlsruhe and its neighboring counties in the southwest of Germany, inhabited by approximately
4 1.9 million residents. It comprises urban and rural areas interconnected by a comparably well-
5 developed public transportation system.

6 The AB-TDM is set up in the framework *mobiTopp* (28, 29), an extendable modeling frame-
7 work which, e.g., allows to incorporate MMNL choice models. Furthermore, *mobiTopp* simulates
8 a population's activities and trips over one week, which is required to observe variation in travel
9 mode choice better. Especially the latter led to the choice of this framework.

10 The model framework already accounts for mode choice variation in the long-term per-
11 spective by controlling mobility tools and mode availability. It further provides a foundation for
12 inter- and intrapersonal variation through activity schedules and the probabilistic nature of the
13 used choice models. The used survey population pool for the synthetic population provides a
14 natural interpersonal variation of life circumstances as the synthesized population inherits the re-
15 ported variation from a (weighted) survey. Subsequently, the activity schedule generator *actiTopp*
16 synthesizes weekly activity schedules based on these life circumstances and provides inter- and
17 intrapersonal variation of activities during the week (30). Furthermore, a person's mobility tools
18 (i.e., cars, season tickets, sharing memberships) influence the availability of modes and, therefore,
19 the mode choice behavior during the simulation contributing to behavioral stability. The influence
20 of mobility tools on mode choice can be direct by determining the availability of a specific mode
21 (e.g., non-members cannot use bikesharing, or cars can only be used by one household member
22 (group) simultaneously). It can also be indirect if mobility tools are considered in the utility func-
23 tion of a choice model (e.g., if carsharing members show a higher probability of choosing other
24 modes such as bicycle).

25 In the short-term perspective, the set of available modes depends on the current location
26 and the previous trip(s). The basic model distinguishes two situations: trips starting at home
27 and intermediate trips on a larger tour. When starting at home, the car and bike can only be
28 used if a respective vehicle is currently in the household. Furthermore, people can only use cars
29 with a driver's license. Agents that have already started a tour with a fixed mode (i.e., car, bike,
30 pedelec, station-based carsharing) are forced to take the vehicle with them until they return home
31 (resp. carsharing station). Conversely, fixed travel modes cannot be used during tours starting
32 with a flexible mode. Once a destination is selected, the available modes can be filtered; e.g., if
33 the estimated distance of a tour exceeds a car's maximum range, it is considered unavailable for
34 that trip. This mode availability model provides stability and consistency of an individual agent's
35 behavior within the context of a tour.

36 In summary, the long-term module models long-term decisions or agents' properties that
37 stay consistent throughout the simulated week (e.g., income, work destination, season ticket) and
38 contribute to improved accounting for interpersonal heterogeneity. By further establishing behav-
39 ioral variation in the form of activity schedules and restricting the choice set of mode choice at
40 locations and within tours, the short-term module contributes to intrapersonal stability.

41 **Data and model estimation**

42 The data used in this study for the estimation of the travel mode choice models consists of two
43 cross-sectional surveys, both containing reported travel demand of the study area of the travel
44 demand model. The first survey is the nationwide *Mobility in Germany* (12) containing a useful

1 sample for the local region, and the other is a local household travel survey of Karlsruhe, Germany.
 2 Both surveys mount up to a total sample of about 29,200 trips. They are enriched by information
 3 on the available mode alternatives and their level of service as locations of start and destination
 4 are recorded. The data is limited to responses of one day, limiting the explanatory power for the
 5 weekly perspective. However, Kuhnimhof (17) showed that structures of mode choice variation
 6 are already observable within 24 hours and could estimate and simulate these. This supports the
 7 usability of the present sample for the purpose of incorporating taste heterogeneity in a travel mode
 8 choice model and analyzing travel mode choice variation in the simulated forecasts. The authors,
 9 therefore, decided to take both the daily and weekly perspective regarding the later analysis of
 10 variation regarding mode choice in the simulated data.

11 To account for preferences and taste variation in mode choice behavior, we estimated differ-
 12 ent types of trip-based MMNL models. As described in the literature section, applying individual-
 13 specific random taste parameters instead of using fixed values allows to account for interpersonal
 14 preferences. The models focus on interpersonal heterogeneity because extending the models to ac-
 15 count for unobserved intrapersonal heterogeneity leads to a substantial increase in estimation time
 16 and was not found to significantly improve of choice prediction accuracy by Krueger et al. (31).

17 The model setup contains four different models: a simple MNL model only containing the
 18 deterministic influences of sociodemographic characteristics, an MMNL model with normally dis-
 19 tributed random taste parameters as the alternative-specific constant (MMNL 1), a second MMNL
 20 model with additional correlation parameter between these random tastes (MMNL 2) and a third
 21 MMNL model with Johnson-SB distributed random parameters for the constants. All models con-
 22 sider the travel modes car as a driver, car as a passenger, public transportation (PT), walking, and
 23 cycling. For the general structure of an MMNL, the authors refer to McFadden and Train (23). The
 24 varying alternative-specific constants of the models are in the following referred to as mode prefer-
 25 ences. The estimation was done by testing 25 sets of starting values to avoid local optima. Further,
 26 to avoid correlation in drawn sequences for the five distributions in the case of using Halton draws,
 27 we used Modified Latin Hypercube Samples (MLHS) with 300 draws for each distribution (32).
 28 For the estimation of all models, we used the Apollo package for R (33).

29 In the field of transport, primarily distributions for different travel time sensitivities are of
 30 interest (34). Hess and Axhausen (35) analyze different distributions on their effects. We transfer
 31 this knowledge to our application of the alternative-specific constants. By choosing a normal
 32 distribution, we use its simpler applicability and average flexibility. By the choice of the Johnson
 33 SB distribution, we make use of its high flexibility in terms of asymmetry and its boundedness. By
 34 allowing for correlations between distributions, we extend its ability to capture interrelationships
 35 between travel modes.

36 The sociodemographic components of the utility functions of the models are limited to only
 37 a few person-specific attributes. They consider age, occupation, gender, income, and the ownership
 38 of a season ticket as effects on the general preference. The baseline in all models is represented by
 39 a 30-to-49-year-old male with low or average income, not-occupied, and without a season ticket.
 40 Their estimates are not shown in the following section as they are not the focus of this research.
 41 Additionally, improvements by considering tours in the choice model and by accounting for travel
 42 purposes were not used in these models to keep the manageability. The utility functions of all
 43 models can be found in Equation 1 to 4.

$$MNL : U_m = \mu_{asc,m} + \beta_{LOS,m} * X_{LOS,m} + \beta_{SOZ,m} * Y_{SOZ,m} \quad (1)$$

$$MMNL1 : U_m = \mu_{asc,m} + \sigma_{asc,m} + \beta_{LOS,m} * X_{LOS,m} + \beta_{SOZ,m} * Y_{SOZ,m} \quad (2)$$

$$MMNL2 : U_m = \mu_{asc,m} + \sigma_{asc,m} + \sigma_{asc,m} X_m + \beta_{LOS,m} * X_{LOS,m} + \beta_{SOZ,m} * Y_{SOZ,m} \quad (3)$$

$$MMNL3 : U_m = a + \frac{b}{1 + e^{\mu_{asc,m} + \sigma_{asc,m}}} + \beta_{LOS,m} * X_{LOS,m} + \beta_{SOZ,m} * Y_{SOZ,m} \quad (4)$$

where

m	travel mode
X_{LOS}	Level-of-service attributes of travel mode (i.e., travel time [min], travel cost [€], pt access time [min], # transfers [-])
Y_{SOZ}	Sociodemographic attributes of individuals (i.e., age, gender, occupation, income, season ticket ownership)
$\mu_{asc,m}$	mean of normal distribution shape parameter of Johnson SB distribution
$\sigma_{asc,m}$	standard deviation of normal distribution shape parameter of Johnson SB distribution
$\sigma_{asc,mm}$	standard deviation of distribution correlating with other travel modes
a	offset parameter of Johnson SB distribution
b	range parameter of Johnson SB distribution

1 RESULTS

2 For the presented analysis, different models were tested on their ability to capture taste hetero-
 3 geneity of travel mode choice and to reproduce variation of travel mode choice appropriately. In
 4 the setup process of the models, we took all empirical results as well as experiences of comparable
 5 estimations into account. By integration into the existing travel demand model (see section 4.1),
 6 the performance of the models is assessed by comparing key indicators of the literature (see table
 7 3.2) in simulations and survey data. For the comparison, the German Mobility Panel (36) is chosen
 8 as it provides a considerable sample size for the travel whole week and every year. As it does
 9 not provide a specific sample for the application area, the survey data is filtered on spatial area
 10 types matching the survey areas (i.e., large and medium-sized cities and small-town areas in urban
 11 regions as well as central and medium-sized cities in rural regions).

12 Mode Choice Models

13 Viewing the different mode choice models reveals an improving model fit for the more complex
 14 models with a large improvement when accounting for taste heterogeneity in MMNL1 and a slight
 15 improvement when accounting for correlation of the mode-specific random parameters (MMNL2).
 16 MMNL1 represents the most effective model as the additional parameters in MMNL2 do not im-
 17 prove the likelihood enough to reach a better BIC. For this research, the accounting correlation is
 18 desired, whereas the authors keep the model in the analysis. The model estimation results using the
 19 Johnson SB distribution show a similar model fit to those using the normal distribution. Multiple
 20 models were estimated having a better model fit than the one presented, but they were not chosen
 21 because of positive travel time or cost parameters. The results of the estimation are shown in Table
 22 1.

TABLE 1: Estimation results of general parameters

	MNL	MMNL 1	MMNL 2	MMNL 3
LL	-27,827.02	-20,860.69	-20,829.11	-20,839.93
Rho Square	0.364	0.523	0.524	0.524
BIC	56,157.82	42,245.74	42,285.39	42,275.24
Paramter	Estimates			
$\mu_{asc,walk}$	1.06**	3.67**	3.43**	-1.08**
$\mu_{asc,bike}$	-0.62**	-1.55**	-1.86**	-2.32**
$\mu_{asc,card}$	0.00	0.00	0.00	-1.41
$\mu_{asc,carp}$	-2.19**	-4.36**	-4.17**	-1.11**
$\mu_{asc,pt}$	-2.30**	-4.41**	-4.23**	-5.75**
$\sigma_{asc,walk}$	-	3.10**	2.38**	0.12**
$\sigma_{asc,bike}$	-	7.48**	7.65**	-1.47**
$\sigma_{asc,card}$	-	6.17**	6.22**	0.46**
$\sigma_{asc,carp}$	-	4.65**	5.43**	1.67**
$\sigma_{asc,pt}$	-	3.53**	-1.27**	-4.99
a walk	-	-	-	39.63**
b walk	-	-	-	-139.21**
a bike	-	-	-	6.77*
b bike	-	-	-	-131.99**
a car d	-	-	-	16.06**
b car d	-	-	-	-79.81
a car p	-	-	-	1.05**
b car p	-	-	-	-16.58**
a pt	-	-	-	-3.51**
b pt	-	-	-	-17.62
$\sigma_{asc,walkXpt}$	-	-	-1.96**	-
$\sigma_{asc,walkXcarp}$	-	-	1.39**	-
$\sigma_{asc,walkXcard}$	-	-	-0.88**	-
$\sigma_{asc,bikeXpt}$	-	-	0.58**	-
$\sigma_{asc,bikeXcarp}$	-	-	1.47**	-
$\sigma_{asc,bikeXcard}$	-	-	1.74**	-
$\sigma_{asc,ptXcarp}$	-	-	-0.94**	-
$\sigma_{asc,ptXcard}$	-	-	-0.96**	-
$\sigma_{asc,carpXcard}$	-	-	2.83**	-
$\beta_{traveltime,walk}$	-0.13**	-0.24**	-0.25**	-0.24**
$\beta_{traveltime,bike}$	-0.16**	-0.29**	-0.29**	-0.28**
$\beta_{traveltime,card}$	-0.21**	-0.37**	-0.36**	-0.37**
$\beta_{traveltime,carp}$	-0.22**	-0.38**	-0.39**	-0.39**
$\beta_{traveltime,pt}$	-0.04**	-0.07**	-0.07**	-0.07**
$\beta_{accesssime,pt}$	-0.10**	-0.17**	-0.17**	-0.17**
$\beta_{transfer,pt}$	-0.59**	-1.23**	-1.30**	-1.21**
$\beta_{cost,card}$	-0.18**	-0.11*	-0.15**	-0.15**
$\beta_{cost,pt}$	-0.46**	-0.66**	-0.69**	-0.73**

level of significance ** 5 % , * 10 % — Table excludes sociodemographic parameters

1 In the MNL, some influences are averaged out because this model does not allow for taste
 2 heterogeneity. Hence, allowing for taste heterogeneity in the MMNL models, the deterministic
 3 components of these models becomes more important compared to the MNL, which is equivalent to
 4 an increasing scale. This counts for time and cost coefficients as well as for the socio-demographic
 5 attributes. The latter are not presented in this study as their interpretation is not in the focus. All
 6 estimated socio-demographic parameters show the expected signs.

7 Of particular interest is the observed correlation between the travel mode preference distri-
 8 butions. Walking reveals a significant positive correlation with the car as passenger, but negative
 9 correlation towards public transportation and the car as driver. This may be associated with the
 10 higher walking rates of travellers without a driver’s license or a car available. Cycling shows posi-
 11 tive correlation to all other modes except walking which revealed to be not significant. The positive
 12 correlation supports the supplementary use of the bicycle as it is for most travellers limited to cer-
 13 tain purposes and ranges and therefore requires the use of other travel modes. This is supported by
 14 Nobis and Kuhnimhof (12) denoting car-and-bike users as the most important multimodal segment.
 15 In contrast, public transportation and the use of the car, both as driver and passenger, compete on
 16 similar trips whereas their correlation is found to be negative (see Thomas et al. (14) for compar-
 17 ison). Finally, using the private car as driver and passenger has a high positive correlation which
 18 may be due to the reason that different members of a household can take different roles while
 19 being on the way by car. The estimated effects lead to the mode preference distribution when ap-
 20 plied to all agents of the AB-TDM shown in Figure 1. The comparison of the distributions should
 21 only be done in terms of shape and not in terms of values as the latter are not comparable for
 22 different models. These preferences include values of the distribution and the socio-demographic
 23 influences. The distributions of both the bicycle and car as driver reveal the widest distribution
 24 of preferences. The distribution of public transportation and walking preferences is substantially
 25 more narrow leading to less extreme preferences and usages.

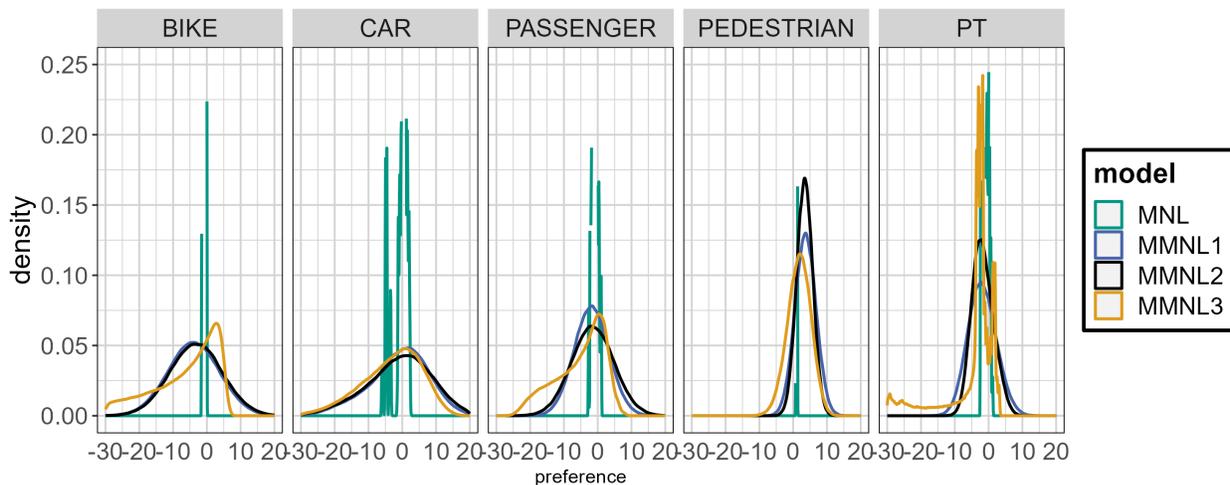


FIGURE 1: Individual preference distribution for different travel modes based on random and fixed taste components

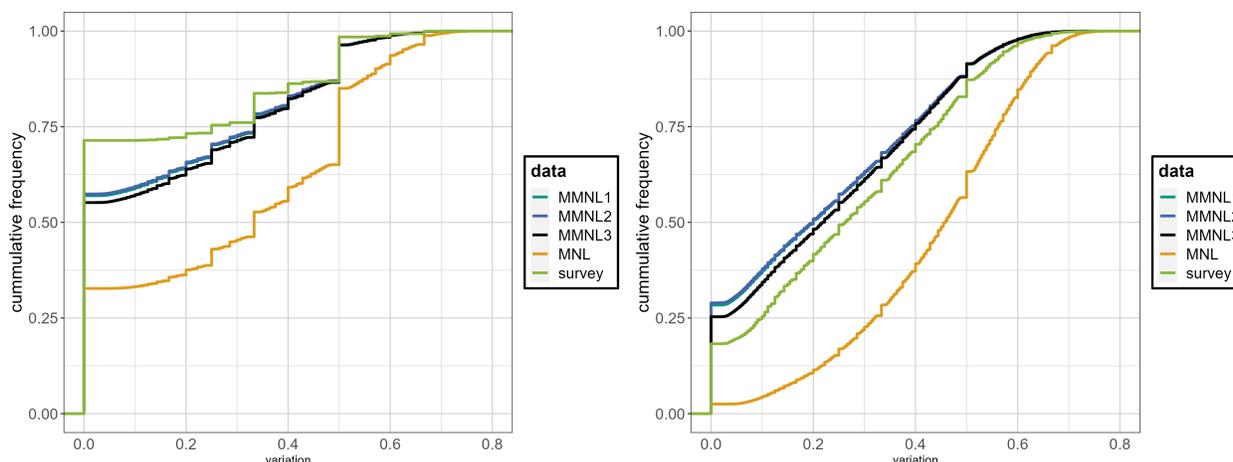


FIGURE 2: Comparison of (a) variation per day ; (b) variation per week

1 **Simulation-based analysis of variation**

2 The general mode choice results in terms of trips per travel mode are similar in all models and
 3 only differ up to 1% from each other. The mode choice models described are further analyzed
 4 on the observable variation of travel mode choice decisions in the AB-TDM *mobiTopp*. Both
 5 distributions of variation indices as well as the assignment to modal groups are important for an
 6 appropriate assessment of variation. The authors compare both results of the daily and weekly
 7 assessments. The chosen indicators found in the literature are:

- 8 • frequency-based
 - 9 – variation index by Thomas et al. (14) for different and repeated trips
 - 10 – Herfindahl-Hirschman Index (HHI) by Rhoades (18)
- 11 • sequence-based
 - 12 – number of runs by Mallig and Vortisch (16)

13 The variation indicator as used by Thomas et al. (14) specifies the share of trips not con-
 14 ducted with the most frequently used mode of a traveler. A higher value, therefore, represents a
 15 higher variation of mode choice. Hereby, a higher variation is observed on the week level: the
 16 day-based analysis results in a share of about 70 % monomodal users and the week-based analysis
 17 results in a share of about 20 % monomodal users in the survey. The MNL model overestimates the
 18 variation in both cases significantly. All MMNL models either slightly underestimate the stability
 19 per day or overestimate the stability per week. Distributions of variation are shown in Figure 2.

20 A similar result can be taken from the comparison of different distribution of the HHI. A
 21 higher value for HHI implies a lower variation of mode choice. Therefore, the HHI is lower in
 22 the week-based analysis. Again, the MNL model overestimates the degree of variation in both
 23 temporal perspectives and the MMNL models are closer to the results based on the survey analysis
 24 (see Figure 3).

25 The only sequence-based indicator included again confirms the gained stability through the
 26 integration of random taste heterogeneity. The number of runs, i.e., the number of subsequences
 27 with the same travel mode in relation to the total number of trips, indicates higher levels of vari-
 28 ation for lower values. The implementations of MMNL models lead to lower values of # runs.
 29 The weekly perspective reveals lower values for the indicator, suggesting that on a daily basis,

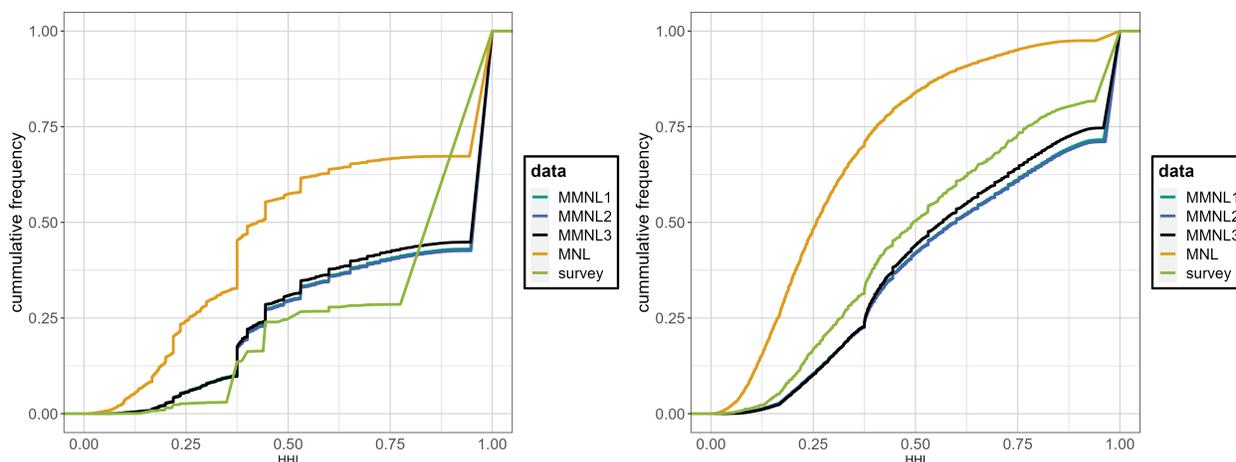


FIGURE 3: Comparison of (a) HHI per day ; (b) HHI per week

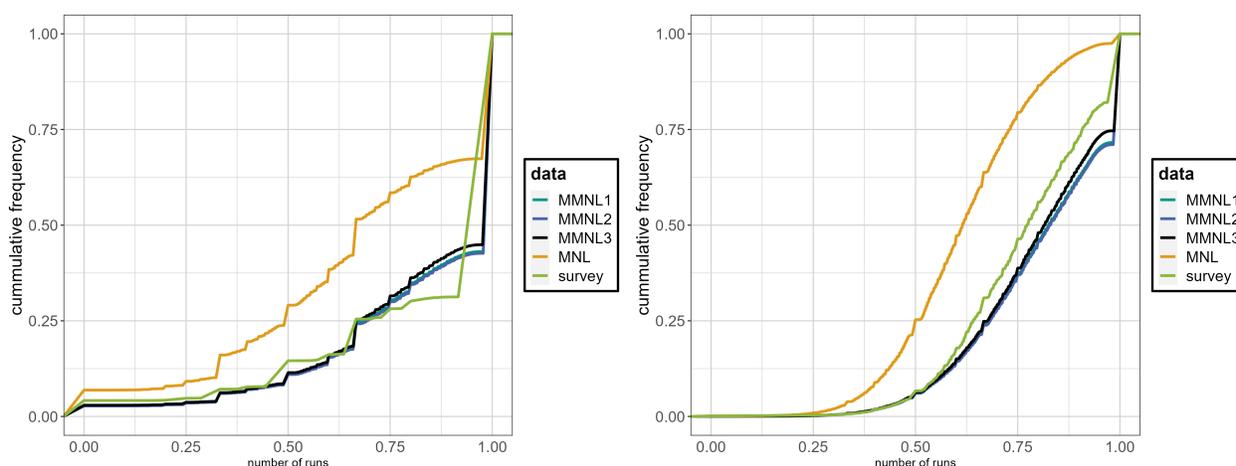


FIGURE 4: Comparison of (a) # runs per day ; (b) # runs per week

1 comparably long runs up to the total 24 hours are passed using almost only one mode. The results
 2 are presented in Figure 4.

3 The analysis of modal groups is presented in Figure 5. It is based on the simulation data
 4 only. The groups are differentiated comparable to the groups of the MiD (see 3.1) and exclude
 5 car as passenger and walking. As the survey data of the MOP represents the German average for
 6 the selected spatial typologies but the travel behavior of the residents of the application area is
 7 significantly different from this shown by the higher share of cycling and public transportation, a
 8 comparison is not reasonable.

9 Modal groups of different simulations still confirm the results gained in the analysis of the
 10 continuous indicators and the findings of Mallig and Vortisch (25): a not-consideration of stability
 11 leads to a higher share of multimodal travelers. This is already relevant for the day-based level of
 12 analysis. Especially travelers using the car as driver, public transportation and the bicycle appear
 13 much more often in the MNL simulation.

14 Depending on the indicator, the day-based analysis reveals that the model meets the degree
 15 of variation observable in the survey fairly well. Hereby, the indicator using the number of runs

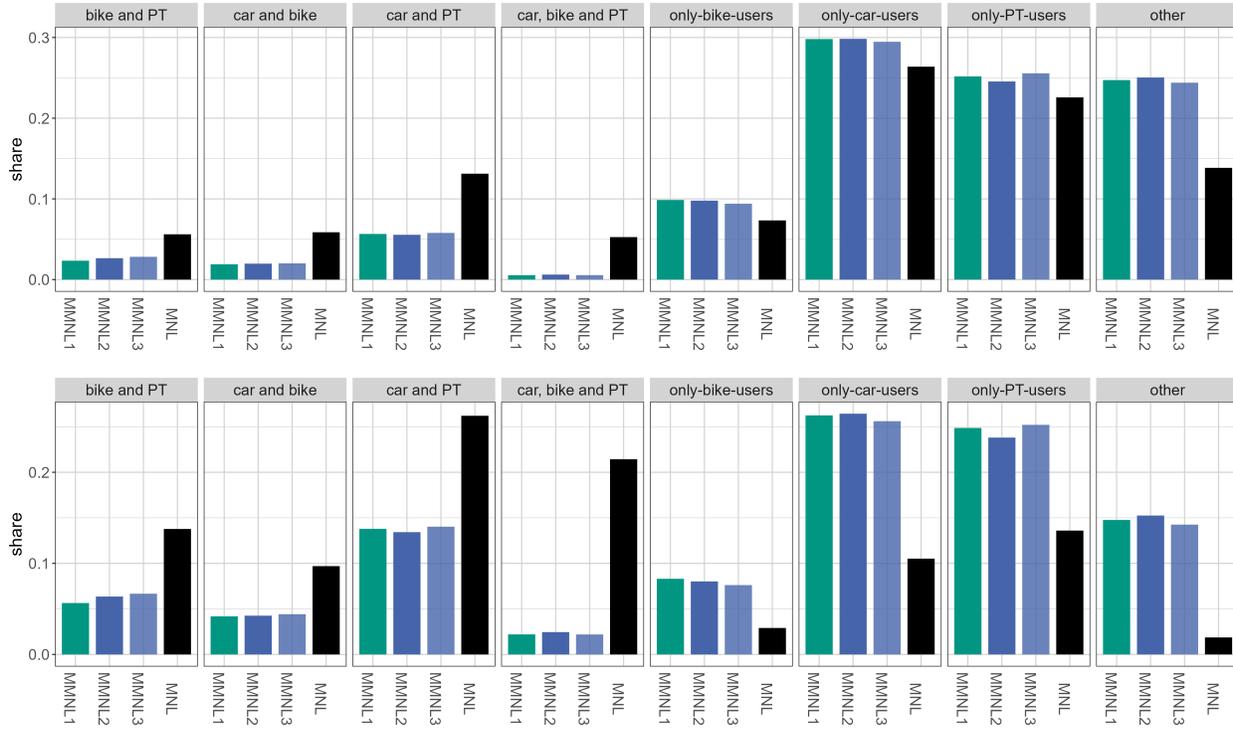


FIGURE 5: comparison of different multimodal travel patterns (a) per day ; (b) per week

1 denotes the best match. This confirms the expected degree of variation estimated upon the 24 hour
 2 survey. The week-based results therefore have a marginally too high stability integrated which can
 3 be addressed by using survey from a total week.

4 Looking at the different models, the MMNL3 results match the survey the best. This in-
 5 dicates the importance of flexible distributions in the model design. The differences between the
 6 different MMNL models with and without correlation between the random components reveal only
 7 slight differences. This is in line with the only marginal increase in model fit through the extension.
 8 Especially the continuous indicators for variation do not differ noticeably. However, modal groups
 9 reveal slight differences comparing both MMNL models but do not allow further interpretation.
 10 Still, the role of correlation could become more critical when analyzing variation on a pair-based
 11 level. Only having a conventional MNL combined with the implementation accounting for mode
 12 availability and consistency within tours is found to not capture the variation realistically.

13 **CONCLUSION**

14 The research presented addresses the importance of more detailed modeling of travel mode choice
 15 variation in AB-TDM. Therefore, the foundation was set aggregating existing literature on empir-
 16 ical assessments of behavior’s variation, its indicators and existing state of research in modeling
 17 and forecasting. A need to account for random taste variation in travel mode choice is found to be
 18 of high relevance, especially in long-term simulations for multiple days or a week. Some examples
 19 already integrating such model components already exist and indicate an improvement of models
 20 regarding forecast sensitivity and incorporation of appropriate levels of variation.

21 In this work, we present an application of modal preferences through MMNL models in

1 travel mode choice to extend the knowledge on their use in AB-TDMs. The models were inte-
2 grated into an existing AB-TDM setup with the software *mobiTopp* for the Karlsruhe region. The
3 use of AB-TDM and especially of this model framework allows to incorporate already short-term
4 stability, particularly within tours by accounting for the general and situational availability of travel
5 modes and respective constraints. Through a further integration of mode preferences, an additional
6 improvement was reached regarding both the travel mode variation in the daily and weekly con-
7 sideration. The indicators suggest a more stable travel mode choice behavior than traditional mode
8 choice models. This matches the results of the survey the simulation data was compared to.

9 As a result, the authors recommend accounting in more detail for mode preferences and
10 non-systematic taste heterogeneity for both AB-TDM with a simulation period of only one day as
11 well as of one week. This leads to a better simulation of monomodal and multimodal travel behav-
12 ior. By affecting the agents' sensitivity to switch to other travel modes as a result of measurements,
13 an improvement of forecast quality can be expected.

14 Further improvements can be gained by an additional sequence-based integration of sta-
15 bility as proposed by Mallig and Vortisch (25) or Kuhnimhof (17). Nevertheless, as suggested in
16 the literature, travel mode choice is always based on the mobility demand stemming from activi-
17 ties and the respective desired locations. Accounting for variation on this level of the simulation
18 already facilitates the explanation of variation in travel mode choice. This is especially relevant
19 for patterns observable over longer periods than one week. Still, further integration raises the need
20 for better data (4). This concerns especially surveys with a period of at least one week or longer,
21 panel surveys and, at the same time, the possibility of georeferencing to understand patterns in
22 relation to the locations visited and to add attributes of all mode alternatives for the modeling (15).
23 Still, it should be mentioned that the number of papers has already increased in recent years (17).
24 However, the more the issue of variation is considered in modeling, the more important it is to
25 study the stability of behavioral patterns over time (22). Here, a stronger longitudinal approach is
26 necessary to model the developments of travel behavior over multiple decades.

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30 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

31 The authors confirm contribution to the paper as follows: study conception and design: Tim Wo-
32 erle, Lars Briem, Jelle Kübler, Michael Heilig; model setup and estimation: Tim Woerle, Lars
33 Briem, Jelle Kübler, Michael Heilig; analysis and interpretation of results: Tim Woerle, Jelle
34 Kübler, Michael Heilig, Lisa Ecke, Martin Kagerbauer, Peter Vortisch; draft manuscript prepara-
35 tion: Tim Woerle. All authors reviewed the results and approved the final version of the manuscript.

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