

BUS RAPID TRANSIT SYSTEM AND LAND-USE RELATIONSHIP WITH MODE CHOICE

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the award of the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

by

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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis entitled “**Bus Rapid Transit System and Land-Use Relationship with Mode Choice**” being submitted by **Mr. Khalil Ahmad Kakar** for award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy to the Faculty of Engineering and Technology of **National Institute of Technology Warangal** is a record of bonafide research work carried out by him under my supervision and it has not been submitted elsewhere for award for any degree.

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This is to certify that the work presented in the thesis entitled “**Bus Rapid Transit System and Land-Use Relationship with Mode Choice**” is a bonafide work done by me under the supervision of **Prof. C.S.R.K Prasad** and was not submitted elsewhere for the award of any degree.

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Khalil Ahmad Kakar

Approval Sheet

This thesis entitled “**Bus Rapid Transit System and Land-Use Relationship with Mode Choice**” by **Khalil Ahmad Kakar** is approved for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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Abstract

The key aims of this study are to examine models for describing the possibilities of Bus Rapid Transit system (BRT) system and the association among land-use and transport modal choice. Kabul and Jalalabad were considered as study areas. These cities are the most significant metropolitan areas in Afghanistan in terms of traffic and urban form. In the analysis and modeling of Kabul's urbanization and transportation systems, the geographic unit used is the municipal area of Kabul, which spans 1,025 km² and comprises 22 districts. In order to achieve accurate results, the city was divided into 213 traffic zones. Hence, traffic zone is the unit for analysis.

For Jalalabad city, disaggregate Stated Preference (SP) data were collected through a survey along the PT routes to analyze the mode shift from the current modes to the proposed BRT system.

A preliminary survey revealed a lack of sufficient and efficient high-capacity public transport (BRT) systems in both cities. Additionally, segregation between land-use and the transportation system in Kabul city has created problems such as congestion, a high level of accidents, and air pollution. To evaluate the possibilities for an efficient BRT system, key concepts such as travel demand, modal shift, and affiliation among land-use and trip behaviours must be analysed. Various factors can affect these concepts, including household characteristics, travel features, and characteristics of the built environment.

Urban Travel Demand Modelling (UTDM) study for Kabul utilized various tools to understand the city's travel behaviours. Through multiple linear regression, key factors such as population, job availability, car ownership, and urban density were recognized as major influences on trip-making. The majority of journeys appeared to start from the suburban areas and move towards the Central Business District (CBD). Using the Gravity Model, trips between 213 traffic zones were analysed, highlighting the main travel paths in the city. The study also looked into Kabul's transportation choices and noticed a preference for smaller vehicles. With the help of the Logit curve function, these travel preferences became more apparent. The rise in small vehicles poses a challenge for the city's transportation network. To address this, there's a suggestion to introduce an advanced BRT system to reduce the reliance on these smaller vehicles. As a part of this research, possible BRT routes were assessed to match travel needs. Among them, the All-or-Nothing model identified route 23 as the best candidate for a BRT, connecting Kabul airport to the city core.

Modal shift is a fundamental concern when introducing a competent BRT system. Therefore, it

was necessary to develop a modal shift model to understand the influential variables. The research identified crucial elements associated with the viability of the **BRT** system. The suggested **BRT** system is anticipated to attract a considerable number of passengers from cars, share taxis, and personal transport means. The transition to BRT is profoundly shaped by factors such as journey and wait durations, distance to stations, the presence of air conditioning, the motives of the commuters, and gender considerations might catalyse a notable shift of users from low-capacity vehicles (LCVs) to the BRT. It has spotlighted pivotal elements driving the transition from LCVs to the advocated BRT system. The data gathered in this research demonstrates that many low-capacity vehicle users, including those using cars in Jalalabad city, are dissatisfied with the current state and would likely consider this new transit alternative. The last part of study investigates into the relationship between urban compactness and transportation preferences in Kabul's 213 traffic zones using the mode choice model. Evaluating urban compactness, the research considers land use diversity and demographic densities. Using metrics, it identifies districts with high, low, or sprawling compactness levels. Results highlight a clear trend: densely populated areas like Bibi Mahroh and Khair Khana witness a greater inclination towards walking and public transport. In contrast, sprawling regions such as Paimonar and Reshkhoh see a preference for private vehicles. The study confirms that urban layout significantly influences transportation trends, with sprawling areas showing a reduced tendency to utilize public transport or walking. **The thesis aims to explore the impact of Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) systems on urban mobility, specifically examining how BRT influences the mode choice among urban residents. It contributes to the body of knowledge by providing empirical evidence on the efficacy of BRT systems in encouraging a modal shift from private vehicles to public transport, and examines the relationship between the built environment and mode choice.**

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Abbreviations

GDP	Gross Domestic Product
LCV	Low-Capacity Vehicle
PT	Public Transport
NMT	Non-motorised Transport
HRT	Heavy Rail Transit
LRT	Light Rail Transit
MRT	Mass Rapid Transit
CBD	Central Business Districts
ITS	Intelligent Transportation System
MP	Master Plan
TOD	Transit-Oriented Development
HCV	High-Capacity Vehicle
LCV	Low-Capacity Vehicle
TCQSM	Transit Capacity and Quality of Service Manual
MRT	Mass Rapid Transit System
IMPACT	Mobility Impact Index
SOV	Single-Occupancy Vehicle
BMA	Bangkok Metropolitan Administration
VKT	Vehicle Kilometre Travelled
HTS	Household Travel Survey
GIS	Geographic Information System
NTS	National Travel Surveys
NPTS	Nationwide Personal Transportation Survey
BMA	Bangkok Metropolitan Administration

MPW	Ministry of Public Works
MOTCA	Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation
MBE	Millie Bus Enterprises
MBC	Millie Bus Company
TDM	Travel Demand Modelling
O-D	Origin-Destination
LLH	Log-Likelihood
LN	Log Normal
LULC	Land Use Land Cover

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General

Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) system, plays a pivotal role in sculpting a landscape that pleasantly merges transport proficiency with sustainable urban living. The inauguration of BRT, tracing back to Curitiba, Brazil in the 1970s, has transformed the global vista of urban transit, offering a feasible, efficient, and more environmentally friendly alternative to its low-capacity transport counterparts. While the BRT model, originating in Curitiba, Brazil, has since proliferated across approximately 200 municipalities worldwide, serving 33 million daily commuters (Wright and Hook, 2007), the applicative dynamics of BRT in diverse global contexts present a rich tapestry for exploration. BRT systems have emerged as a popular alternative to traditional transit modalities, offering an mixture of efficiency and sustainability.

Cities like Bogotá and Guangzhou have been heralded for their successful BRT implementations, demonstrating a potential blend of high service levels and economical feasibility in urban transportation (Cervero and Kang, 2011).

The shift from **Low-Capacity Vehicles (LCVs)** to BRT systems symbolizes a strategic effort to alleviate urban traffic congestion and reduce pollution from transportation. This modal shift goes beyond the physical utilization of different transport modes and encompasses the evolution of urban transport policies,infrastructural development, and communal perceptions towards transit systems. The BRT, with its inherent larger capacities and dedicated lanes, introduces a substantive alternative to traditionalbuses and extensive bus rapid transit systems, skillfully managing the dynamic demands of urbantransit (Hidalgo and Gutiérrez, 2013).

When talking about land use and choosing types of transportation, think about where people live and where they go, like work, school, or shopping. If houses, apartments, and offices are close to bus or train lines, more people might use these services instead of driving cars. So, where things are built (like homes and shops) and the kinds of transportation available, like buses, trains, or bike lanes, are connected. Making smart choices about where to put things and what kind of transport to offer can help make travel easier and better for everyone in the city. Thuse, this chapter carefully examines the BRT system, highlighting its crucial role in enhancing sustainable urban travel. The

discussion explores global utilization of BRT systems, the essential shift from LCVs to larger transit systems, and the impactful relationship between land use and transportation choices in city planning. The need for this study arises from an urgent requirement to address growing urban challenges, such as traffic and pollution, while fostering sustainable development and efficient mobility. Clear objectives stand out.

1.2 Understanding the Impact of the Bus Rapid Transit System

Urban spaces globally confront substantial challenges in maintaining efficient and sustainable mobility, predominantly due to increasing population densities and vehicular traffic. BRT systems emerge as a pivotal solution, addressing the critical aspects of urban transport through delineated bus lanes, controlled fare systems, and enhanced service frequency (Wright, 2002).

The BRT system's inherent design, which includes dedicated lanes, off-board fare collection, and intersection treatments, alleviates urban congestion significantly. This methodology ensures that buses operate independently of general traffic, thereby reducing travel time and enhancing schedule adherence (Carrigan, 2013). Consequently, urban areas implementing BRT witness improved public transport reliability and an augmented modal shift from private vehicles to public transit (Levinson et al., 2002).

The economic aspects of BRT cannot be understated, offering both direct and indirect economic benefits. Directly, it offers an economical transit solution for urban dwellers and indirectly propels economic activities along the BRT corridors through increased accessibility to businesses (Rodríguez and Targa, 2004). Moreover, BRT systems, by necessitating fewer infrastructural modifications than rail systems, embody fiscal prudence in initial capital investment and ongoing operational costs (Levinson et al., 2003).

Environmental sustainability is unequivocally intertwined with urban transport. BRT systems inherently reduce vehicular emissions per passenger due to their elevated passenger capacity, thus contributing to the reduction of urban air pollution and the mitigation of greenhouse gas emissions (Vincent et al., 2005). Moreover, by serving as an effective alternative to automobile usage, BRTs contribute to lowering the overall vehicular emissions within the city (Eichler, 2006). In the realm of safety, BRT systems demonstrate a commendable reduction in traffic-related incidents due to the segregation of buses from general traffic and the incorporation of structured boarding facilities (Hidalgo and Carrigan, 2010). Thus, the meticulous design and operational strategies of BRT

systems provide a confluence of rapid mobility, economic vitality, environmental sustainability, and safety within the urban transport framework.

BRT system has gained popularity due to its ability to provide high service levels at lower costs than Heavy Rail Transit (HRT), Light Rail Transit (LRT), and metro systems. Numerous South American cities have embraced BRT systems due to reduced construction costs. Originating in Curitiba, Brazil, in 1970, BRT implementations have markedly surged in the past decade, now featuring in approximately 200 municipalities and serving 33 million daily commuters globally.

Notably, 88% of these systems are found in South American and Asian nations (Global BRT Data, 2016). The prevalence of BRT systems is also rising in Europe, where they are commonly denoted as Buses with a High Level of Service (BHLS). As such, BRT systems operate in several European countries, including France, Greece, Spain, and the Netherlands. BRT systems vary considerably between cities, and many studies focus on the system's design concepts and characteristics. Some studies evaluate the impact of such characteristics on ridership for BRT (Ingvardson, 2017). Figure 1.1 displays the capacities of transport modes.

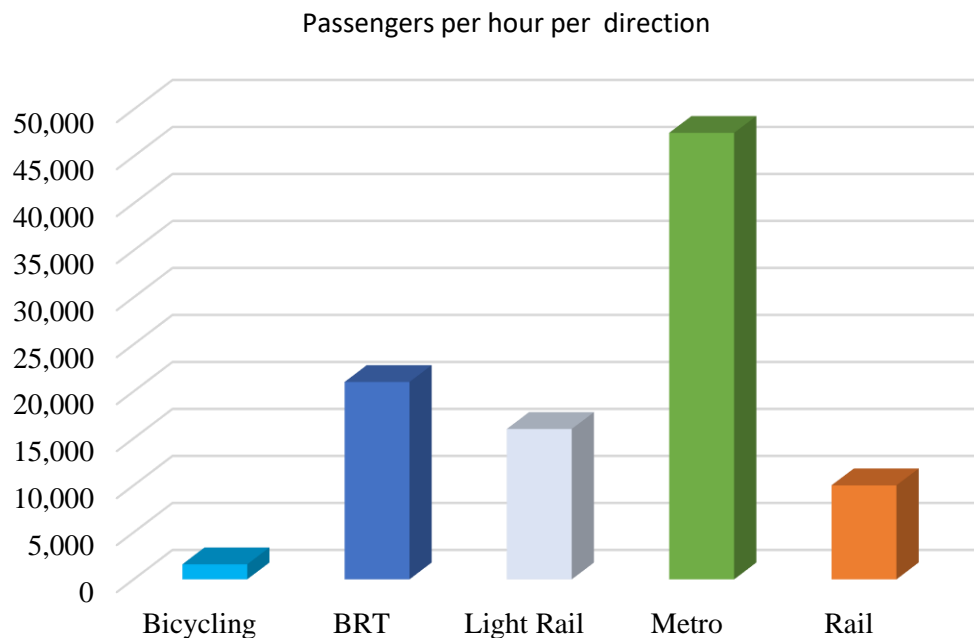


Figure 1.1 Passenger capacity of different transport modes (TUMI 2018)

BRT is a method for providing high-quality, fast Public Transit (PT) services using rubber-tire vehicles. Buses are typically standard 12-meter vehicles. However, in the face of higher demand, double and triple-articulated buses can be utilized, as seen in the BRT system in Curitiba, Brazil. Experiences have shown that BRT systems offer services similar to rail and LRT but at comparatively lower costs. This system fundamentally differs from local bus services regarding reliability, quality, amenities, speed, station types, corridor types, and fare collection methods.

Moreover, BRT systems can integrate Intelligent Transportation System (ITS) equipment, signal transit priority at intersections, and fare collection machines. This transit system operates on segregated or mixed rights-of-way along arterial and highway (Wright, 2007). Studies examining BRT systems' social, environmental, and economic impacts in Colombia, Mexico City, South Africa, and Istanbul concluded that BRT enhances the quality of life in urban areas in at least five key ways: travel time savings, mitigation of local air pollution emissions, traffic safety enhancement, increased physical activity, and meeting other social goals (Good Practice Guide, 2006). Meanwhile, two types of BRT systems are closed and open, distinguished by their design and operating features. Figure 1.2 shows the Quito Ecoia line with the segregated right-of-way.



Figure 1.2 BRT system Quito Ecoia line (Lloyd Wright 2007)

Table 1.1 presents the characteristics and features of both types (Cervero, 2013).

Table 1.1 Bus Rapid Transit system types

Features	Closed BRT System	Open BRT System
Right-of-way	Allocated transit lanes; vertical segregation; preferential treatment at crossroads	Mixed-usage traffic channels; conventional intersection management
Stops/Shelters	Upgrade shelters to extensive, climate-controlled transport hubs	Stations, occasionally equipped with shelters, seating, illumination, and traveller information.
Service Designs	Persistent schedules; unified local and express transit; coordinated transfers	Conventional service layouts
Fare Collection	Exterior fare collection; intelligent card systems; multi-entry boarding	Classic fare mediums
Technological Applications	Automated Vehicle Location (AVL); traveller information networks; traffic light prioritization; vehicular docking/guidance mechanisms	Restrained technological deployments

1.3 Advantages and Popularity of the Bus Rapid Transit System

In the last 20 years, sustainable public transport (PT) systems, like BRT, have seen remarkable development in developing countries. These extensive, urban-scale PT endeavours often become essential components of broader urban renewal plans, targeting the promotion of economic advancement and sustainable growth (Delmelle et al., 2012). The careful selection and strategic planning of BRT systems is imperative due to their significant impact on travel durations, service consistency, operational/maintenance expenses, environmental factors, and passenger appeal. BRT systems should be eco-friendly, mitigating air and noise pollution (Baghini et al., 2013). Additionally, BRT systems bring benefits, including low initial and operational costs providing quick responses to increasing mobility needs. Its capability to function without subsidies and adaptability to meet social needs have notably enhanced its political acceptance (Campbell et al., 2009). Experiences from BRT systems in Brazil and Colombia imply that these networks can supply services parallel to those of HRT and LRT systems, albeit at a markedly reduced expense.

Nevertheless, recent investigations into whether to develop BRT or LRT systems or primarily perceive BRT as an auxiliary route network reveal contradictions among urban specialists. Moreover, the formulation, execution, and administration of a BRT system are not uncomplicated and necessitate political leadership, societal concurrence, and adept technical and managerial

capabilities. A variety of distinctive BRT design and technology structures, along with diverse fiscal and operational strategies, must be contemplated within the multifaceted nexus of urban planning and economics to synchronize with crucial urban policies like land use and intermodal amalgamation (Hensher, 1999; Hensher, 2007; Alpkokin et al., 2012).

BRT systems are perceived as a method to enhance socially sustainable transport. They are broadly acknowledged for amplifying urban mobility via various measures, including augmenting busways, providing proficient services, and upgrading the urban environment. The system has also surfaced as a pivotal strategy in battling climate change. The International Energy Agency advocates for implementing BRT systems with up to 25,000 km of new BRT lines globally, aspiring to satisfy urban mobility requirements while propelling global emission reduction objectives (IEA, 2013). The efficacy and efficiency of BRT modes have been showcased in numerous countries. For example, Seattle's BRT system has decreased road bus volumes by over 20%. BRT systems utilizing tunnels have witnessed 40% fewer traffic incidents than mixed-traffic services. Curitiba utilizes over 30% less fuel per capita for urban transport than other major Brazilian urban regions, while Bogotá's BRT system has registered 93% fewer accidents and a 40% decrease in pollutants during its initial five months of operation. Moreover, an improvement in the quality of life of Bogotá's low-income inhabitants, linked to savings in travel time and cost, has been noted (Wright, L. 2007).

Given these benefits, BRT systems have become increasingly popular in developing Asian countries, including Indonesia, Thailand, Vietnam, and the Philippines, which have initiated, planned, or are considering implementing BRT systems. However, effective BRT development in these countries involves addressing numerous local issues that largely contribute to the successful execution of BRT. In many developing Asian countries, where city planning is predominantly focused on road transport development and effective land use control is lacking, issues such as urban sprawl, traffic congestion, and air pollution emerge, implementing a BRT system in these conditions is notably challenging. Various research and guidelines concerning BRT systems have been formulated and recommended, drawing from successful experiences across diverse urban regions. Consequently, supplementary feasibility studies are necessary before initial BRT implementation (Satiennam, 2006). Figure 1.3 shows the impacts of TransMilenio BRT system

on different factors. Furthermore, based on Institute for Transportation and Development Policy ITDP, Figures 1.4 and 1.5 show the global BRT systemridership and length.

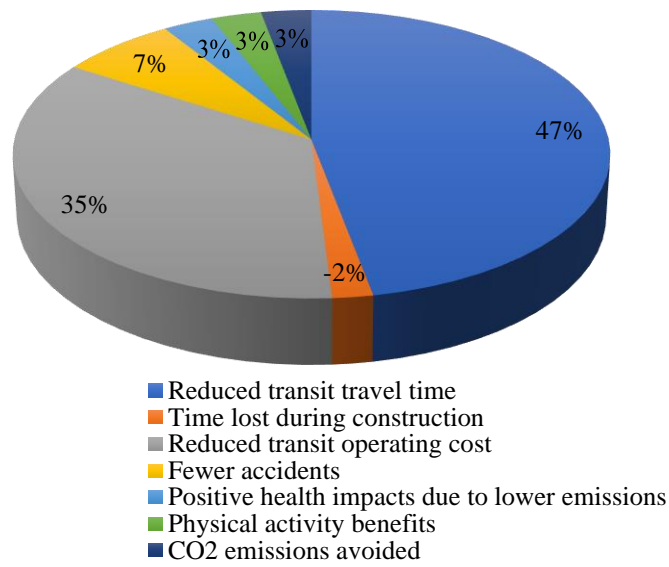


Figure1.3 Trans Milenio BRT System impacts (EMBARQ 2009)



Figure1.4 BRT system length (ITDP)

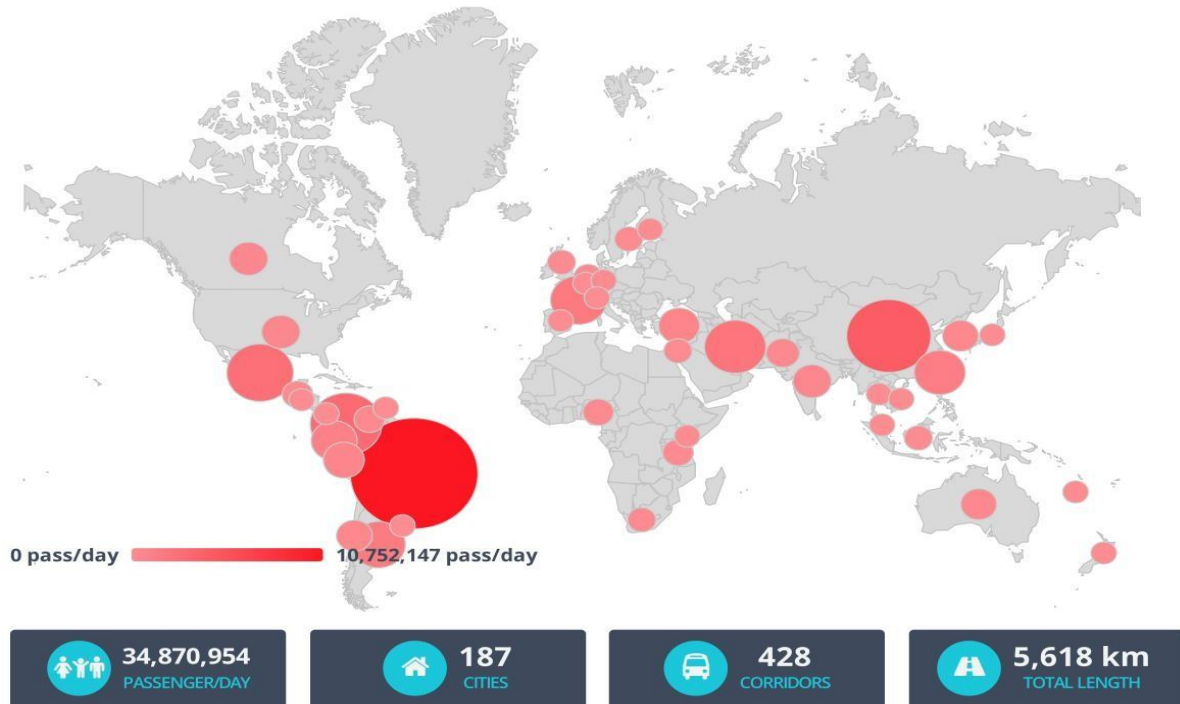


Figure1.5 BRT system demand (ITDP)

From the data, it seems like Latin America dominates in all categories, it has the most passengers per day, the most cities, and the longest total route length (Table 1.2)

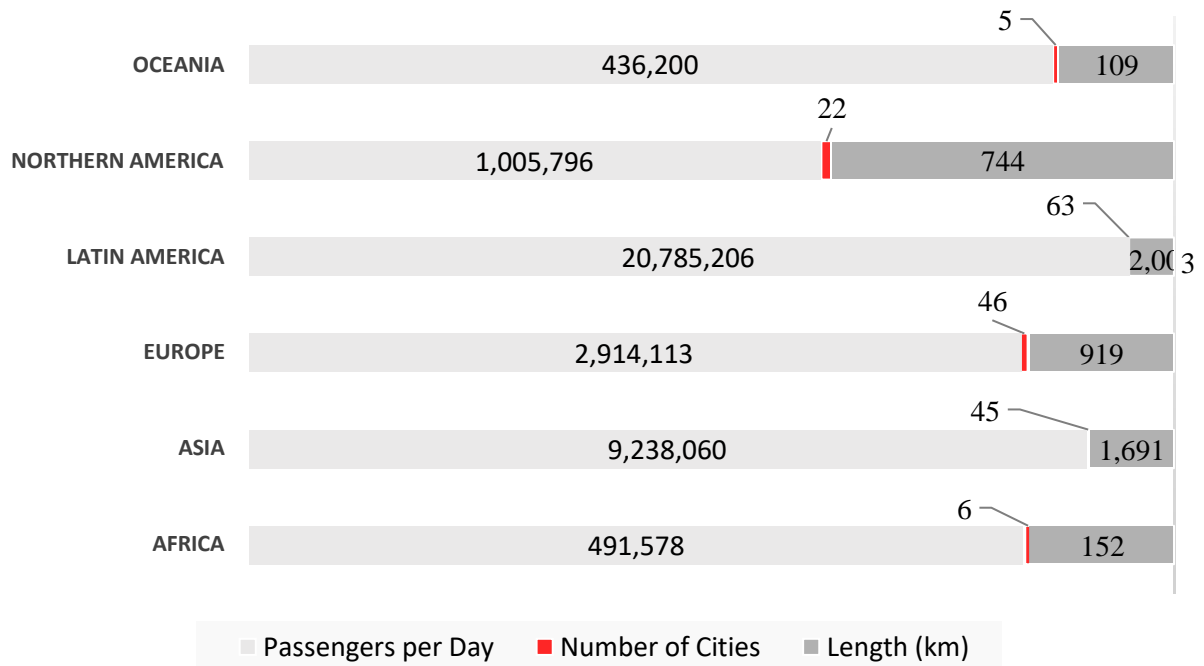


Figure 1.6 Bus Rapid Transit system in the world

1.4 Travel Demand for Bus Rapid Transit System

Effective BRT designs are usually planned within a well-structured master plan (MP). The selection of BRT right-of-way is crucial. Not only can choosing the optimal corridor increase the number of beneficiaries of BRT investments, but a strategically chosen corridor can also promote transit-oriented development (TOD) under certain conditions, with profound effects on the city's future growth. The most important parameter for determining whether a right-of-way is suitable for BRT investments is the existing level of PT travel demand. That's because current commuters using the specific corridor are most likely to benefit from new BRT investments. Figures 1.7 show the BRT evolution in terms of cities the world.

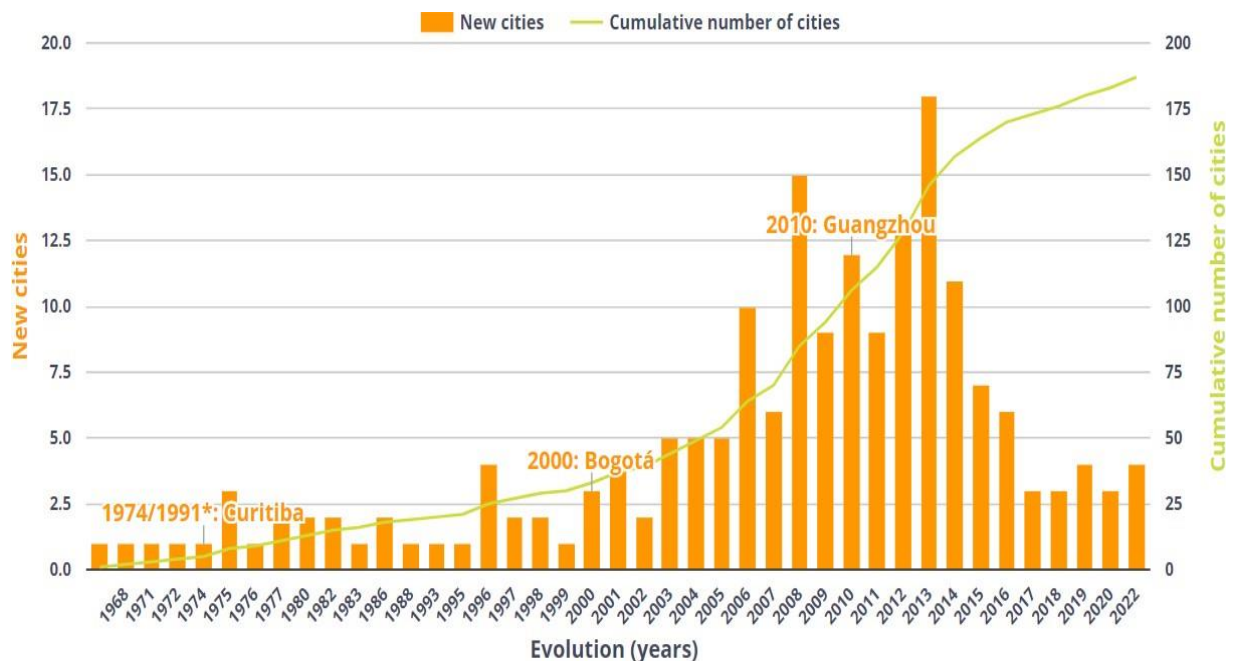


Figure 1.7 BRT system evolution in terms of cities (Global BRT Data)

A BRT system with high travel demand is likely to benefit more people than a system built on a right-of-way with lower travel demand. The Transit Capacity and Quality of Service Manual (TCQSM), utilized in the United States, recommends a baseline of 1,200 passengers per direction per peak hour (ppdph) for a dedicated BRT lane, reflecting the average usage under mixed traffic scenarios. In developing urban areas with significantly higher public transit ridership, it's probable that a higher minimum benchmark would be set. Some PT planners emphasize that BRT technology cannot handle more than 35,000 ppdph. Therefore, if a corridor is projected to have passenger numbers higher than this, it should be reserved for heavy rail metro (HRM) investments.

The TCQSM and other guides do not offer specific recommendations of this type. However, under certain conditions, these systems can carry more than 35,000 pphp even with only two lanes of segregated bus lanes per direction. For instance, TransBrasil, which was projected to initiate services at the close of 2018 in Rio de Janeiro, forecasted accommodating as many as 60,000 travelers during peak hours. This projection stems from the extensive utilization of express services, the provision of two lanes in each direction, and the employment of larger BRT vehicles, like articulated buses. A PT modal enables us to introduce a new PT link, potentially at a higher speed than existing links, and identify how many passengers switch. Unlike a modal shift, PT passengers have already decided to use PT. Therefore, they are likely to choose the corridor that offers the quickest trip, even if it's new. Route shift modelling (RSM) requires a comprehensive set of transport data about current conditions, including current ridership and speeds on all PT routes (ITDP, 2007). Figures 1.8 show the BRT evolution in terms of cities lengths the world.

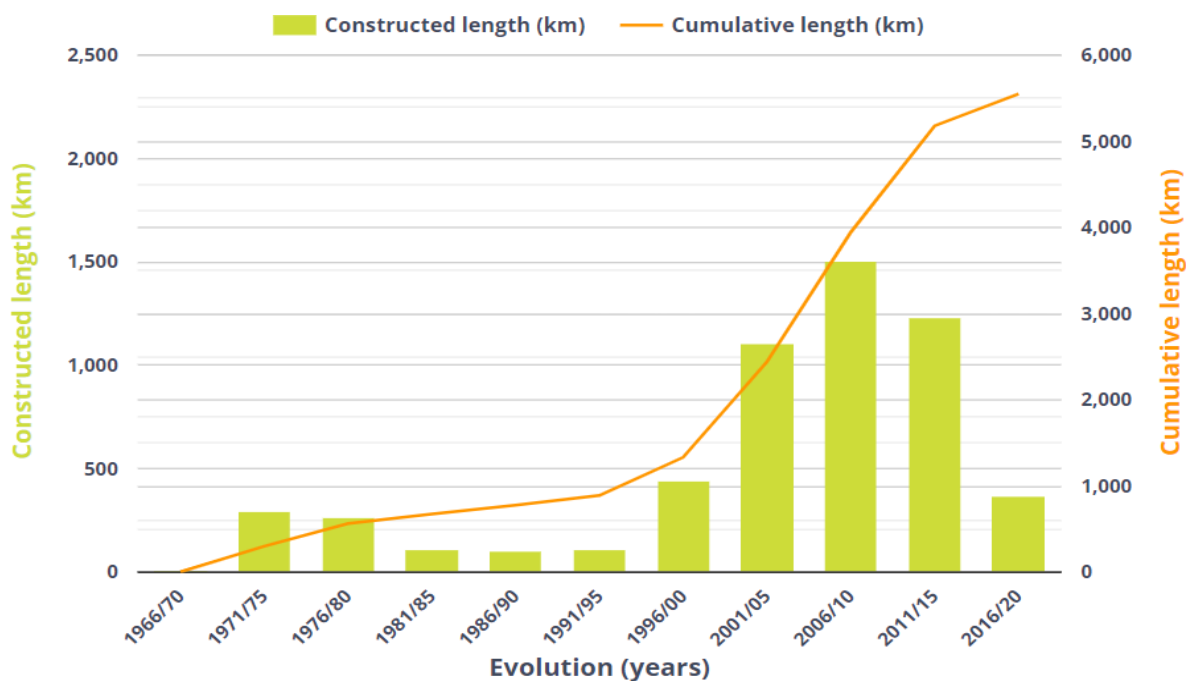


Figure 1.8: BRT system evolution in terms of length (Global BRT Data)

1.5 Mode Choice

Efficiency and Capacity: Low-Capacity Vehicles, such as motorcycles or small cars, often have low occupancy rates, leading to inefficient use of road space. Promoting public transport encourages multiple passengers to share a single vehicle, maximizing capacity utilization and reducing congestion.

Here are some specific considerations for modal shift from Low-Capacity Vehicles to public transport.

- ❖ **Cost Savings:** Public transport is generally more cost-effective than operating a low-capacity vehicle. By switching to public transport, individuals can save on fuel costs, maintenance, insurance, and parking expenses associated with owning a personal vehicle.
- ❖ **Environmental Benefits:** Similar to the previous explanation, the shift from low-capacity vehicles to public transport can help reduce carbon emissions and improve air quality, contributing to a cleaner and more sustainable environment.
- ❖ **Infrastructure Development:** Enhancing public transport infrastructure to accommodate low-capacity vehicles is essential. This can involve providing designated lanes or spaces for low-capacity vehicles on buses or trains, as well as ensuring accessibility for these vehicles at public transport stations.
- ❖ **Integrated Transport Systems:** Developing integrated transport systems that seamlessly connect low-capacity vehicles with public transport can be beneficial. This could include integrating bike-sharing programs, carpooling services, or last-mile connectivity options like electric scooters or small shuttles that complement public transport routes.
- ❖ **Education and Awareness:** Public awareness campaigns can help individuals understand the advantages of using public transport over low-capacity vehicles. Emphasizing the benefits of reduced traffic congestion, improved air quality, and cost savings can encourage people to consider alternative modes of transportation.
- ❖ **Incentives and Subsidies:** Offering incentives and subsidies to low-capacity vehicle owners who choose public transport can be an effective strategy. This can include discounted public transport passes, reduced fares, or incentives for carpooling or ridesharing.
- ❖ **Regulatory Measures:** Implementing policies such as congestion pricing, restricted access zones, or toll exemptions for low-capacity vehicles can help encourage a shift towards public transport. These measures can disincentivize the use of low-capacity vehicles in congested areas or during peak hours.

By implementing these strategies, it is possible to encourage a modal shift from low-capacity vehicles to public transport, leading to more efficient and sustainable transportation systems. Figure 1.9 shows the image shift modal to BRT system.



Figure 1.9 Modal shift to Bus Rapid Transit systems

1.6 Impact of Land Use on Transportation and Urban Sustainability

Urban form, the physical characteristics of cities, comprises not only tangible attributes but also intangible features. This complexity is evident, for example, in the concept of density. However, density is a multifaceted concept with interconnected dimensions (Dempsey et al., 2010). It can represent an objective, spatially-based measure of population size in a specific space.

Yet, it can also be interpreted subjectively, a social construct dependent on personal characteristics that can vary from one resident to another (Churchman, 1999). Trafalgar Square in London exhibit a comparatively low residential density, yet its perceived density and feeling of congestion could be notably high (Rapoport, 1975). Density, in the context of urban design, along with elements like housing, transport infrastructure, land use, and planning, plays a pivotal role in influencing the sustainability of a city (Figure 1.10).

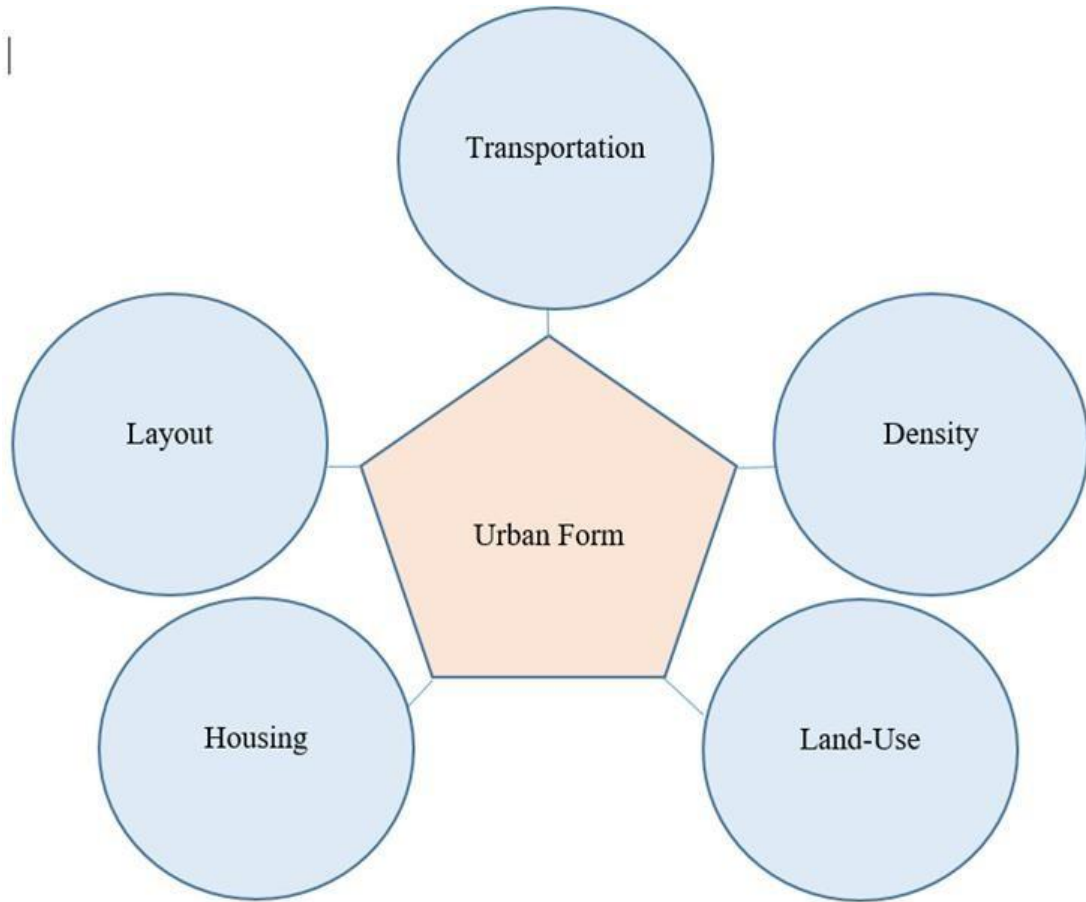


Figure 1.10 The elements of urban form

Urban form stands as a critical element in urban planning, having the potential to guide a city towards sustainability or, conversely, set it on a course away from sustainability. Experiences have shown that urban sprawl poses a more substantial challenge for cities than urbanization. Urban sprawl, the expanding boundary between cities and rural areas, is driven by various factors, including population growth, socioeconomic characteristics, and policies (Karakayaci, 2016). Studies have linked urban sprawl closely with gross domestic product (GDP), population density, and industrial infrastructure (Guangdong Li, 2019). Understanding urban sprawl is crucial as it has significant ecological, social, and health consequences (Steurer et al., 2020). It has been associated with key problems such as increased dependency on low-capacity vehicles. Urban sprawl, characterized by increased pollution and land resource depletion, can be assessed through indicators like city density, city intensification, mixed area, and road network growth. Among these, city density and mixed land use have a profound influence on travel behaviours. To promote

sustainable cities with efficient transportation systems, urban developers and railroad engineer advocate for resolutions such as compact cities, cities of smart, and cities of green. Urban form refers to the physical features that make up urban areas, including the shape, size, density, and configuration of settlements. There are several different types of urban forms, and each reflects the cultural, historical, and economic context of the place in which it developed (Figure1.11). The urban transportation system has an intimate connection with land use.

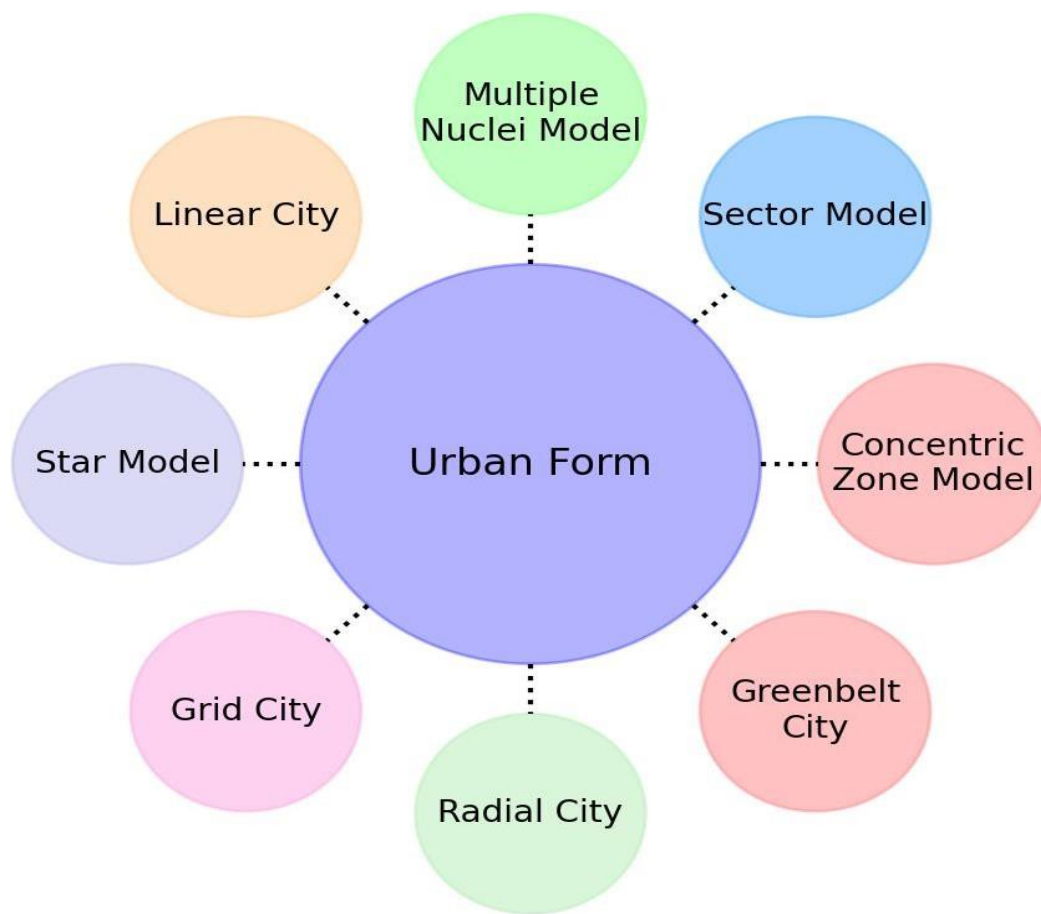


Figure 1.11 Types of urban form

Different urban forms come with their unique sets of benefits and drawbacks. A comprehensive grasp of these aspects empowers city planners and policymakers to make informed choices regarding the direction of urban development and expansion.

Morimoto (2000) associates this relationship to the interdependence of a chicken and an egg (Figure 1.12)

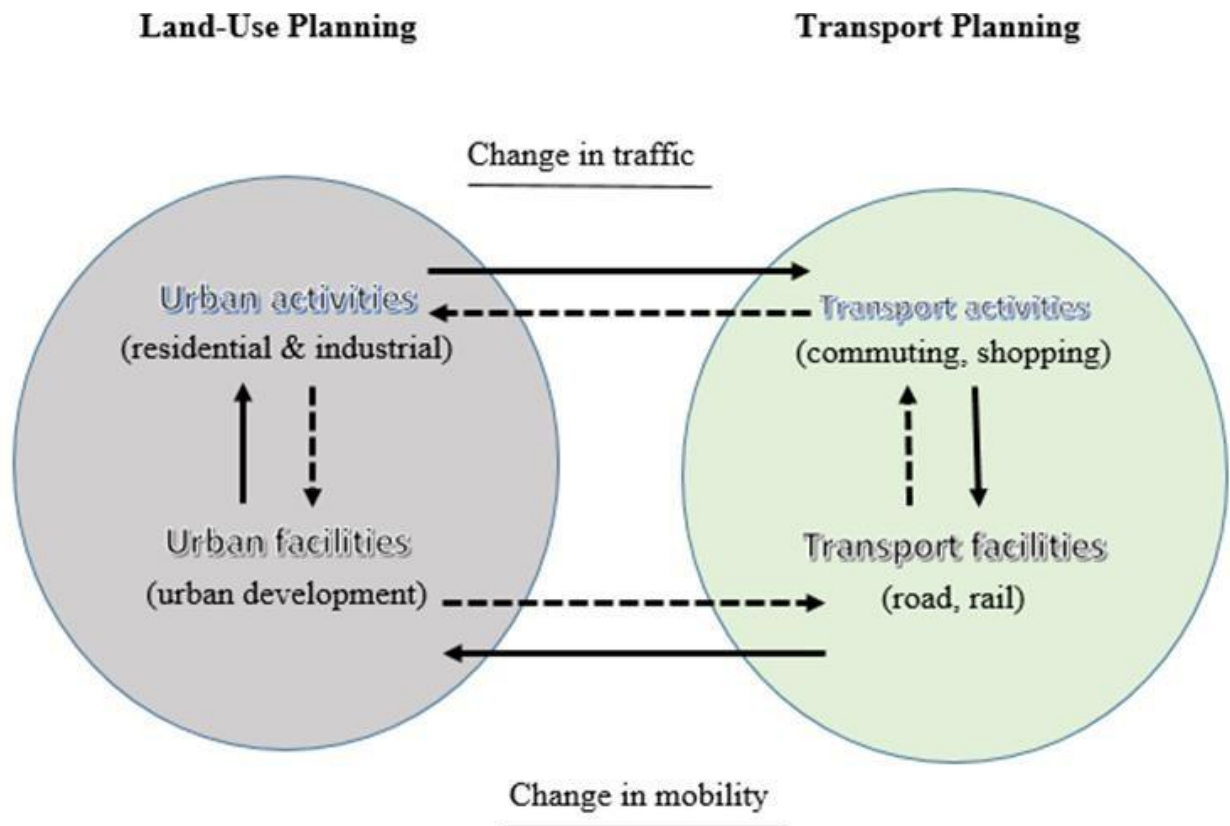


Figure 1.12 Relationship between Land-Use and transportation

Urban sprawl and compact areas stand as contrasting patterns in urban development. While sprawl denotes widespread, often unplanned, and low-density expansion, compact areas represent dense, well-planned, and efficiently utilized spaces. The interplay between these two concepts significantly influences transportation networks, environmental sustainability, and socio-economic dynamics within cities.

1.6.1 Exploring the Basics of Urban Sprawl

Travisi et al. (2010) argued that urban sprawl, often characterized by reduced city densities and the expansion of urban areas, presents a critical urban design challenge. It leads to the loss of green spaces, higher infrastructure and energy costs, increased social segregation, and functional land-use separation. This reinforces the need for travel and intensifies reliance on personal motorized.

In cities characterized by urban sprawl, workplaces, shopping areas, parks, and other facilities are widely separated. As a result, passengers spend more time in vehicles when they travel from one location to another. On the other hand, in a compact city, the demand for motorized systems is reduced, and residents can often walk or bike to shops, work, and recreational areas. A high level of compactness enhances transit systems, reduces travel distances and time, and decreases emissions. From the above explanation, it can be inferred that there is a strong correlation between urban sprawl and travel behaviour. Particularly, population density (Figure 1.14) has a profound impact on the transportation system.

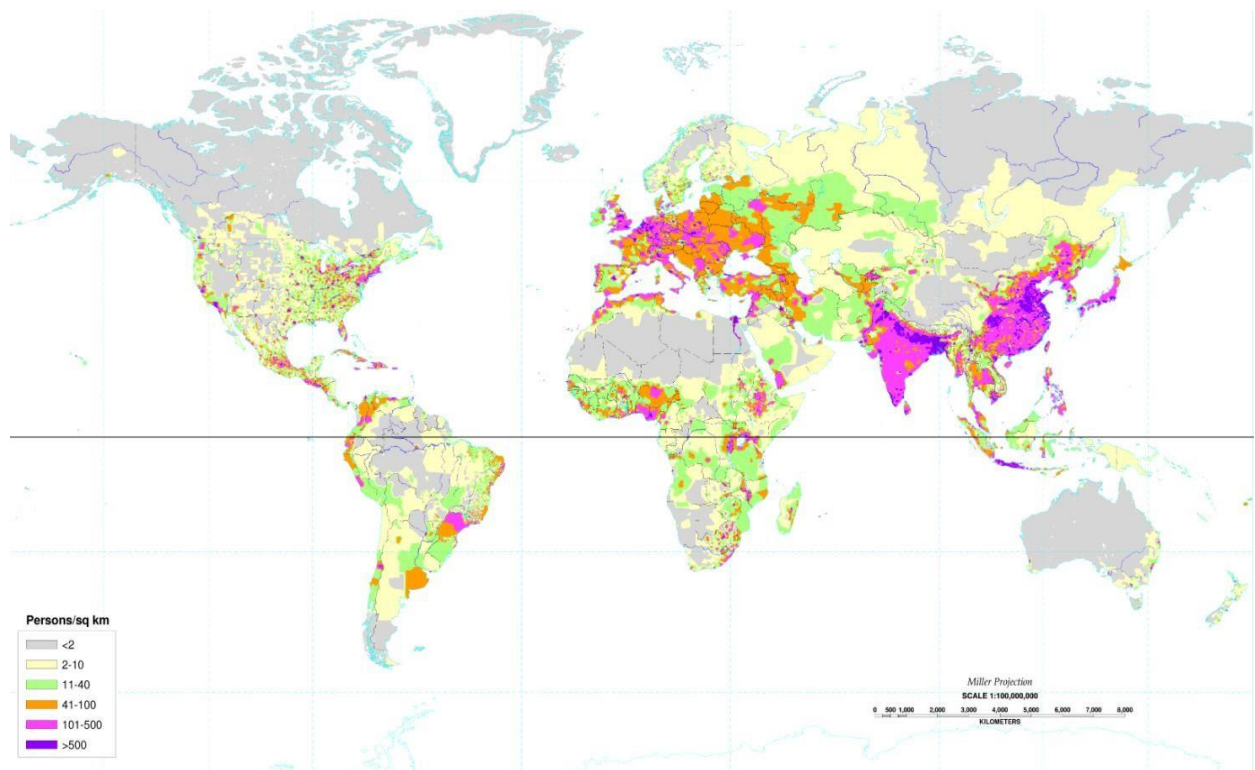


Figure 1.13 Population density across the world (Wikimedia Commons 1994)

1.6.2 Principles of the Compact City

The concept of the compact city stands as a fundamental idea in advancing the development of sustainable urban areas on a global scale. It mitigates urban sprawl and promotes sustainability, protecting green and agricultural areas while reducing transportation needs. Therefore, planners and engineers focus on densification, decreasing car dependency, promoting mixed use, and preserving open space through the concept of the compact city. Numerous recent reports and policy documents suggest that the compact city positively impacts resource efficiency, economic vitality,

The compact city is designed to make optimal use of existing land resources and infrastructure, as well as to reduce the use of vehicles as public transport becomes more prevalent (Arbury J 2005). Fundamental aspects such as mixed land-use, energy performance, efficient urban infrastructure, efficient public transport, accessibility, encouragement of walking, high density, social interaction, encouragement of cycling, reduced car dependency, decreased pollution, short distances, and provision of services and facilities are considered the main elements of a compact city (Rogatka et al., 2015). Based on the following study the elements of compact city are defined in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2 Compact city elements and details

#	Element	Definition
1	Mixed-use	Mixed use is a type of urban development that blends multiple uses, such as residential, commercial, cultural, institutional, or entertainment, into one space, where those functions are to some degree physically and functionally integrated, and that provides pedestrian connections.
2	Short distance	Provide walking and cycling.
3	Reduced pollution	Renewable sources decrease emissions.
4	Car dependency	In the concept of compact cities, car dependency is minimized because these areas promote mixed-use development, allowing residents to live, work, and access amenities within a short distance.
5	Encouraging cycling	Refers to initiatives and measures taken to promote the use of bicycles as a mode of transportation. These efforts aim to create a supportive environment for cycling, which includes developing infrastructure such as bike lanes and parking facilities.
6	Social interaction	These suggest well-managed city infrastructure; for instance, green places, where residences from different socio-economic levels can meet and communicate.
7	High density	High density refers to areas that are developed to accommodate a large number of people or activities in a relatively small space.
8	Accessibility	This element provides a minimum barrier to public spaces.

1.7 Scope of the Work

The scope of this thesis encompasses a comprehensive analysis of possibility of BRT systems as a sustainable transportation solution in urban environments, particularly focusing on Kabul and Jalalabad, Afghanistan. This study investigates the potential of BRT to influence urban mobility and mode choice among residents, considering the challenges posed by urban sprawl, traffic congestion, and the segregation between land use and transportation. By evaluating travel demand, modal shift preferences, and the impact of urban form on transportation sustainability, the thesis aims to provide empirical insights into the feasibility and implications of implementing BRT systems.

1.8 Need for the Study

Urban sprawl is an aspect that requires further consideration from transportation planners and engineers, as it directly impacts transportation systems and is generally undesirable. This process raises complex issues concerning transport, demographics, economy, environment, and decision-making factors. Transportation emerges as a central factor requiring attention, given the rapid expansion of distances between functional urban regions. Local governments face challenges in keeping pace with the swift urban growth. They aim to ensure the growth is sustainable and does not harm the environment or the community. Additionally, congestion, extended commutes, the sprawl of cities, and pollution stand out as major detrimental issues in urban areas worldwide, with a particularly significant impact on millions of city dwellers, especially in developing nations. Longer distances connecting residential zones and work or school areas are the major causes of increased personal mobility. In such cases, some cities worldwide experience an abnormal urban sprawl taking the form of peri-urbanization (Iațu et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2010). Traffic congestion is directly related to overloading in an urban area. The interaction between land use, transportation choices, and infrastructure significantly influences traffic flow. Factors like rising travel demand, freight transport, and the absence of efficient BRT systems contribute to traffic congestion, primarily caused by commuter journeys. Recent evidence shows that modern drivers spend three times more time in traffic than a few decades ago (Rodrigue, 2020). The prevalence of low-capacity vehicles increases traffic volume, leading to overcrowding, air pollution, inefficient fuel use, and longer travel times, negatively impacting urban quality of life. Growing populations, ongoing road construction, and increased distances between residences and workplaces extend congestion and commute times. Surprisingly, expanding road capacity does not always reduce travel times; it can sometimes worsen congestion by accommodating more vehicles and increasing vehicle-miles-travelled (VMT).

While some studies have analysed the factors that influence BRT corridor selection, there is a need for more empirical research that uses four-step methods to identify the most appropriate corridors for BRT systems in urban areas with high travel demand. In prior research, the focus was primarily on analysing the shift from private cars and motorcycles to transit systems. However, the shift from rickshaws, share-taxis, and cars to BRT systems has been overlooked, despite factors like waiting time, station type, corridor type, air conditioning availability, station distance, travel time, and travel cost being influential. While previous studies have explored the connection between travel behaviour and mixed land use/density, a research gap exists in understanding how density influences mode choice in various traffic zones. This gap includes examining residential, employment, student, and road density as contributing factors.

As suggested, the abstract has been modified to incorporate the key scientific contribution: The thesis aims to explore the impact of Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) systems on urban mobility, specifically examining how BRT influences the mode choice among urban residents. It contributes to the body of knowledge by providing empirical evidence on the efficacy of BRT systems in encouraging a modal shift from private vehicles to public transport, and examines the relationship between the built environment and mode choice.

Considering local circumstances, Kabul and Jalalabad cities confront these challenges; hence, comprehensive studies are crucial to address and minimize these issues. In the analysis and modeling of Kabul's urbanization and transportation systems, the geographic unit used is the municipal area of Kabul, which spans 1,025 km² and comprises 22 districts. In order to achieve accurate results, the city was divided into 213 traffic zones. Hence, traffic zone is the unit for analysis.

For Jalalabad city, disaggregate Stated Preference (SP) data were collected through a survey along the PT routes to analyze the mode shift from the current modes to the proposed BRT system.

1.9 Objective of the Study

Considering the provided background and acknowledging the significance of research concerning urban sprawl, its connection with travel behaviours, and the implementation of the BRT system, the study's objectives have been established. These objectives include:

- 1) To examine the feasibility of implementing a Bus Rapid Transit system based on travel demand;

- 2) To evaluate the potential for a mode shift from low-capacity vehicles to a Bus Rapid Transit system;
- 3) To assess the relationship in terms of the built environment and mode choice relationship

1.10 Report Organization

A detailed literature review of compact city , urban analysis, travel demand , and mode shift is concisely outlined in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 demonstrates the application of the Four-Step method in travel demand modelling. This model development incorporates influential factors (or independent variables) such as population, employment, and car ownership. The corridor for a proposed BRT system is identified, primarily based on areas with high travel demand. Chapter 4 of the study employs the Ordinal Logistic Regression (OLR) model to gain insights into the behaviours of current mode users, specifically those who use automobiles, shared taxis, and private cars. This analysis is based on Stated Preference (SP) data related to the proposed BRT system. Various attributes of the BRT system, including factors such as travel time, travel cost, waiting time, walking distance to the station, station-to-station distance, corridor type, station type, availability of air conditioning, trip purpose, possession of a driving license, car ownership, gender, and age, were taken into account. In the SP survey, respondents were presented with 16 different BRT scenarios designed for a specific corridor spanning 10 kilometres. They were then asked to indicate their level of satisfaction using a ranking method. Chapter 5 investigates urban sprawl, focusing on land use and population density. The compactness of various city zones is assessed. Transportation choices in these zones are then examined based on their compactness. The goal is to determine how city layout influences residents' transportation decisions. Chapter 6 serves as the culmination of this study, offering a concise summary of its key findings, conclusions drawn from the research. These recommendations stem from the insights gleaned from the study's exploration of the interplay between urban density and travel behaviours and the introduction of a bus rapid transit system in densely populated areas.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 General

The chapter provides a crucial examination of current literature concerning BRT systems, focusing on performance measures, the transition from low to high-capacity transit, and the relationship between land use and transportation choices. Through analyzing these topics, the chapter seeks to clarify the present knowledge base, pinpoint gaps in existing studies, and define the direction and scope of the upcoming study. This method ensures a solid foundation, guiding further research questions and dialogues in a strong scholarly context.

2.2 Bus Rapid Transit System

Numerous studies have been conducted on BRT systems, revealing their transformative impact on urban mobility and environment. Previous experiences from various provinces and cities underscore the capability of BRTs to enhance public transit efficiency and foster sustainable development. Literature often emphasizes aspects like system performance, route optimization, and passenger experience while scrutinizing diverse global models to derive viable insights. These studies lay a groundwork, enabling cities to learn, adapt, and implement BRT systems effectively, tailoring them to local contexts and needs.

2.2.1 Bus Rapid Transit Performance and Influencing Factors in Route Choice

Prior learnings from BRT implementations highlight the crucial role of thorough planning and community involvement. Essential elements like socio-economic factors, urban structure, and political support significantly influence the effectiveness and longevity of BRT systems across different global contexts. Satiennam et al. (2006) introduced policies to promote BRT adoption in developing regions. One policy advocated integrating Light Commercial Vehicles (LCVs) as feeder services with dedicated BRT lanes to meet demand. These policies were evaluated using travel demand and emission models applied to Bangkok's BRT plan, showing they could enhance ridership mobility and reduce air pollution. The study suggested extending these findings to provide strategic recommendations for implementing BRT systems in other developing Asian urban areas. Currie et al. (2006) conducted a study to assess the performance of BRT systems in Australia. The study provides insights into the primary BRT systems operating in Adelaide, Brisbane, and

Sydney, detailing their structure, services, and developmental characteristics. The study also examines how these BRT systems have influenced aspects such as patronage, market dynamics, services, and the overall development of the respective cities in which they operate. Furthermore, these systems are also reviewed in terms of implementation and operation. Finally, the article concluded that four BRT systems have been improved with various features and appearance. All have obtained attractive ridership effects and are well-valued by passengers, and it is predicted that within the next two years, Australian metro bus systems will grow by about 50%. Vaishali et al. (2007) investigated the influence of exclusive BRT lanes compared to conventional mixed traffic lanes on commuter mobility and traffic flow. The findings revealed a positive impact of the BRT on mobility, as demonstrated by examining multiple traffic factors in the corridor. The average speed and volume of traffic in the observed BRT lane doubled compared to the previous state. Simultaneously, travel time and delay duration were substantially reduced in the new BRT corridor compared to the prior state. Efficiency in fuel consumption improved across all transportation modes. The study identified cars and two-wheelers as the primary contributors to congestion, pollution, and excessive fuel use. Finally, the research underscored the immediate need for a BRT system as a viable solution to tackle transportation congestion and implement pollution control policies.

Abdelghany et al. (2007) introduced a dynamic traffic assignment-simulation analysis concept to enhance the evaluation and planning of BRT services in urban transport corridors.

The model outlines various features associated with BRT services, such as dedicated rights-of-way or corridors, limited-station service, traffic signal prioritization at congested intersections, and upgraded bus stations to decrease commuter boarding times. Consequently, a set of simulation tests is carried out using the model to investigate the impact of introducing a potential BRT system in Knoxville, Tennessee. In these tests, the various operational features of the BRT system are evaluated in terms of their potential impact on public transit ridership. The results highlight the benefits of the BRT system for enhancing transit ridership and improving overall system performance.

Cain et al. (2007) focused on the multiple capabilities of BRT systems, using the TransMilenio as an illustrative example, and assessed the applicability of these capabilities to BRT operations in US cities. The research involves a series of observations on passenger capacity, capital cost-effectiveness, achievement of modal shift goals, urban area redevelopment, and marketing. The study concludes by addressing various issues concerning the implementation of BRT systems

in US cities. The most important lesson gleaned from the operation of TransMilenio in Bogotá is that BRT systems can significantly contribute to broader objectives, such as efficient mobility and urban renewal, when incorporated as part of an integrated set of policies. Committing to developing a network of BRT routes enables a city to enhance mobility and urban renewal benefits from a single corridor to a citywide level. The relatively modest capital costs that facilitated this transformation within a relatively short timeframe could also be appealing to US cities.

Hidalgo et al. (2008) conducted a study to illustrate how Bogotá has implemented such strategies, specifically with the TransMilenio BRT system. Their focus was on three elements: i.e. coverage, accommodation for non-motorized amenities; and improving working conditions for BRT operators. They analysed how these elements have been considered in planning the TransMilenio BRT system and the impacts realized during its implementation in Bogotá. The findings indicate that the BRT system enhances accessibility from suburban areas to workplaces, includes provisions for non-motorized facilities, and improves working conditions by formalising deregulated services. Over time, usage by low-income individuals has increased due to the development of feeder roads. These individuals benefit from significant time savings and reduced travel costs. Furthermore, there has been a reduction in accidents and air pollution.

Quan Li et al. (2009) proposed an optimization model to address the synchronization aspects of BRT vehicles to minimize overall travel and dwell time. The computational results illustrate that a BRT system with a single exclusive lane delivers a total travel time similar to that of a BRT system with double exclusive lanes, provided the headway does not exceed 20 minutes. Moreover, to consider potential delays at intersections, a straightforward speed control algorithm is implemented to adjust the BRT's pace in real time if the bus service experiences significant delays. A microscopic simulation based on VISSIM is executed to examine the effects of the BRT system on other modes of travel and the effectiveness of the speed control. The simulation results indicate that the speed control effectively mitigates intersection delays, and the speed control barely impacts other modes of travel.

Maparu et al. (2010) conducted a study that focused on creating a methodology to determine the right-of-way for introducing a metro bus system in urban areas, with Kolkata as a specific case study. The study aimed to address escalating traffic congestion, the rise in private vehicle numbers, declining road and transportation infrastructure, and the deteriorating level of service (LOS) in the public transport system within the city. The study's methodology combined a current travel demand assessment and a feasibility investigation concerning transportation and

road infrastructure features for determining and phasing the BRT right-of-way. This association of feasibility constraints enables planners and decision-makers to make informed decisions regarding implementing BRT systems in Indian cities.

Gahlot et al. (2012) discussed a model for the practical determination of BRT right-of-way for Jaipur city in India based on a Geographic Information System (GIS) environment. The model aims to select the BRT right-of-way according to the spatial distribution of public transport trips in the urban area studied, projected into the future. The study utilised demographic data, public transport trips, and land-use characteristics of the area to identify the best passenger-oriented BRT right-of-way. This approach includes two models; the first is for BRT travel demand and forecasting, and the second is for determining the BRT right-of-way based on predefined conditions. The model generates graphical, GIS-based maps as outputs, enhancing understanding of public transport travel demand and informing policy-making for city planners. This procedure could be used effectively for BRT system planning in any urban area of similar size within the Indian context.

Wirasinghe et al. (2013) analysed various aspects of BRT features. The study provided an overview of the components of BRT systems: right-of-way, buses, stops, operational control, fare collection, and user information rules. The research elucidated how these elements enable BRT systems to achieve speed, capacity, safety, convenience, and characteristics that distinguish them from traditional bus services. Each mature BRT system is unique and depends on the design and integration of these fundamental components. The study also extensively evaluated environmental, social, and financial impacts, passenger perceptions, and modal shift towards the BRT system. With regional land-use and transportation strategies that promote high-density and mixed-use development, BRT systems have been shown to attract potential improvements around bus stations and along its right-of-way, increasing land values and promoting sustainable development. As the analysis reveals, infrastructure costs fluctuate greatly depending on land acquisition values, station design, level of traffic separation, technological features, and labour costs. As a result, BRT capital costs cannot be generalized and must be carefully adapted based on variations in input costs that differ from location to location. The study also addressed obstacles to BRT that impede significant success in customer satisfaction and ridership gains, citing specific case studies. The comprehensive review of BRT systems suggests that, in some instances, they perform comparably to more advanced public transit systems while maintaining unique characteristics that distinguish them.

Hidalgo et al. (2013) present the main features, costs, and impacts of TransMilenio in Bogotá, Colombia, a mass transit system utilising BRT lanes and supply services. This study conducted a pre-profit cost analysis, incorporating financial evaluations of significant impacts on travel time, travel costs, and additional benefits such as improved road safety and air quality. Effects on crime rates, land prices, employment, and taxation were also reported. The results are promising and robust; however, it is essential to note that user satisfaction has declined, indicating an urgent need for service improvements. The paper also includes an initial assessment of the anticipated expansion using current costs, suggesting a need to reduce construction costs. The findings highlight the potential of BRT, and the evaluation method could apply to other transportation projects.

A primary investigation of BRT corridor options was completed for this study. The study proposes six alternative routes to connect downtown Portland Valley and Damascus. A multivariate corridor evaluation was conducted for each alternative, considering local connectivity, regional patronage, operational running, travel time, travel distance, corridor and state feasibility, environmental costs, and capital costs. Proposals for optimal stop locations along the selected corridor were also developed. This investigation aims to aid Tri-Met in the planning, designing, and implementing a BRT system in the region. The findings suggest that the Powell/Interstate 205/Foster alignment is suitable for a BRT system. Additionally, the results indicate that implementing BRT can positively impact land use and lead to increased transit ridership in the area (Pahs et al. 2002).

Deng et al. (2013) studied the performance and impacts of the BRT system in Beijing, the first of its kind in China. They examined the role of Intelligent Transportation System (ITS) technology in affecting operational efficiency, technical performance, and cost-related matters of the BRT. The study particularly highlighted the effects of BRT on altering travel behaviour, influencing the traffic environment, and generating property development. Despite the presence of some ongoing challenges, the initial performance of BRT indicated its potential as a significant approach to promoting sustainable mobility. Moreover, the study illuminated the significance of integrated planning and policy-making in optimizing the functionality of BRT systems. It underscored the need for ongoing evaluation and adjustments to ensure that these systems can effectively adapt to evolving urban transport demands and provide reliable, efficient, and sustainable mobility solutions. It also suggested that the successful implementation of BRT in Beijing could serve as an encouraging model for other cities seeking to improve their public transportation infrastructure.

In 2014, Maeso and his team conducted a study with a global perspective on BRT systems, aiming to provide a practical comparison that could lead to significant findings. The research undertook a comprehensive qualitative and quantitative analysis of current operational systems relative to the countries' development level in which they function. The goal was to identify the critical elements for the success of such transport systems, considering both its management and the comfort of passengers. The study contrasted outcomes and interpretations among BRT systems based on their geographical location, providing substantial insights. The findings suggest a clear division in BRT systems: some urban areas feature advanced technology and commercial speed (such as in European, Australian, and American BRT systems), while others emphasise service development, ridership, routing, and impact on the population. Recognizing the BRT within urban mobility is vital, given that the BRT system must compete with other forms of urban transportation.

In a study conducted by Abbasi et al. (2019), they examined the first line of the BRT system in Tehran to increase the effectiveness of this mode of Public Transport (PT) in the city under study. The team employed Aimsun software to simulate the implementation of segregated bus lanes, lowering bus headways, applying actuated traffic signals, and upgrading city bus stops across ten scenarios. Non-linear regression models were utilised to forecast reductions in travel times and fuel usage. The findings suggest that transforming shared lanes into segregated ones could reduce travel times by 2.95%, CO emissions by 9%, PM emissions by 1.13%, NO_x emissions by 3.45%, and fuel consumption by 5.3% per km. Additionally, substituting the existing signalization along the corridor with fixed signals led to a decrease in travel times by 6.31%, CO emissions by 25.9%, PM emissions by 3.42%, NO_x emissions by 6.2%, and fuel use by 5.26%. An economic angle was also adopted to examine the recommended scenarios, weighing the costs of implementing each scenario against the benefits of reduced travel time, pollution, and fuel usage. It was found that fully dedicated BRT lanes yielded the highest reduction in annual costs, with Scenario 4 saving the most at \$83 million and Scenario 9 saving the least at \$5 million. The study concluded that the BRT system has significant economic and environmental implications.

Jalal et al. (2015) utilized travel demand modelling in Kabul city to identify significant factors affecting travel behaviours. The study found that population, employment, travel time, and travel distance play crucial roles in trip generation, trip distribution, and mode choice. Furthermore, they concluded that the introduction of a mass rapid transit system in Kabul could alleviate congestion and potentially contribute to reducing pollution. In addition to these

findings, the study also emphasized the importance of understanding the interplay of these factors in shaping transportation strategies. By recognizing the implications of these influential elements, policymakers could better design and implement effective mass transit systems, ultimately enhancing the overall commuting experience and improving environmental conditions in Kabul.

Callaghan et al. (2018). provided an initial evaluation of the Orange Line BRT system in Los Angeles, one of the most robust full-featured BRT systems in the United States. Additionally, they compared this BRT system to the Gold Line Light Rail Transit (LRT) and a rapid bus system with some BRT features. This evaluation was based on performance, cost, and operational data from the Orange Line BRT system during its first year of operation. The study found that the Orange Line BRT system exceeded ridership projections, reduced travel times, alleviated congestion, and successfully attracted commuters away from their cars. Furthermore, this system performed better than the Gold Line system, which incurred significantly higher costs but carried fewer passengers. The rapid bus system, with limited BRT features, appeared to offer some advantages in terms of cost but resulted in longer travel times and less appeal. The performance of the Orange Line BRT system also provides valuable insights for future BRT planning.

Pulugurtha, S. S., et al. (2022). examined the link between transit service reliability indicators and ridership, analyzing how the road network, demographic, socioeconomic, and land use characteristics influence transit reliability. The research utilized bus arrival/departure and ridership data from the Charlotte Area Transit System (CATS), focusing on bus stops. Environmental variables were assessed within 0.25-mile and 0.50-mile radii around these stops. Using Pearson correlation analysis, the study explored the relationship between these variables and transit service reliability. Findings indicate that bus transit reliability significantly affects ridership and is shaped by the surrounding road network, demographic, socioeconomic, and land use factors. These insights aid public transit agencies in optimizing resource allocation, planning, and delivering equitable services to all users.

2.3 Insights into Modal Shifts

Past studies illuminate varied success stories and challenges encountered, spotlighting critical factors like urban design, policy-making, and socio-economic considerations that drive modal shifts towards BRTs. This underscores a need to further examine and understand the detailed factors driving these transportation shifts within distinct urban contexts.

2.3.1 Modal Shift from Low-Capacity Vehicles to Mass Rapid Transit Systems

The study assesses past experiences related to modal shifts from low-capacity transport to BRT systems. It explores various facets of implementing BRTs, focusing on historical data and outcomes from different geographical contexts.

Sonu Mathew and Srinivas S. Pulugurtha (2022) discuss the potential of light rail transit (LRT) systems to alleviate traffic congestion and enhance travel time reliability. It highlights various studies on the impact of LRT on traffic flow, transit-oriented development, and travel time reliability measures. The review also emphasizes the need for comprehensive analysis to understand the LRT's effect on travel times and reliability. The research aims to fill these gaps by assessing the LRT system's impact on travel time reliability, particularly on links adjacent to the LRT corridor. This work contributes to a better understanding of how LRT systems influence urban traffic dynamics and aids in transit planning and decision-making.

Wang et al (2011). collected data via surveys from passengers across six BRT corridors in China. This data encompassed demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of passengers, including gender and age, as well as travel characteristics such as travel distance, purpose, time saved on trips, travel cost, and trip frequencies during a week, by employing a Binary Logistic Analysis (BLA) to understand the significant variables influencing the shift from cars, conventional buses, and non-motorized transport to the BRT systems. Their results revealed that traveller characteristics and travel features played statistically significant roles in this mode shift towards the BRT system. Moreover, the study underscored the importance of acknowledging the diverse nature of ridership and travel preferences during the BRT system's implementation. This highlights the need for tailored strategies that consider commuters' varied needs and behaviours to encourage wider acceptance and usage of BRT systems.

Ben-Akiva (2002) embarked on a study to discern if evidence exists to support a preference for rail systems over BRT systems. They implemented a mode choice model, utilizing both revealed preference and stated preference data collected through a survey.

Their findings revealed no substantial evidence to support the preference for rail systems over BRT systems, assuming equal quantifiable service features. In other words, when variables such as travel time and cost are held constant for both systems, there is no apparent preference for the rail system. This emphasizes the competitive potential of BRT systems when matched against rail systems in terms of service quality and cost-effectiveness.

Ingvardson et al. (2017) conducted a study addressing the comparative gap in MRT systems through a comprehensive literature review encompassing 86 cities worldwide. This research

covered many transit systems, including BRT, Light Rail Transit (LRT), metro, and heavy rail transit systems. The research was organized in two main phases. The first phase investigated these systems' effects on travel time, mode shifts, and ridership. The second phase explored indirect strategies, specifically their effects on property values. In conclusion, they deduced that BRT systems have the potential to attract a significant number of passengers, mainly when substantial reductions in travel time are achieved. This study underscores the high-performance capabilities of BRT systems and their substantial influence on urban transit efficiency.

Alvinsyah et al. (2005) conducted a study to distinguish the elements influencing mode shifts between public transit systems and low-capacity vehicles. The research data encompassed socioeconomic attributes such as family structure, age, gender, income, and travel characteristics, including travel time, travel cost, and the value of time. They utilized a binomial logit model and a Stated Preference (SP) survey to scrutinise passengers' attitudes towards a proposed public transport system. Their exploration unearthed variations in individuals' attitudes and the likelihood of their opting for a more convenient service. The findings from this study underline the importance of considering user perspectives and travel characteristics when planning public transportation enhancements.

Bajracharya (2008) undertook a study in Ahmedabad, India, applying a modal shift model to assess the existing public transportation and the proposed BRT system. The research incorporated a Stated Preference (SP) survey conducted within the study area to explore passengers' readiness to transition from the current low-capacity public transport to the proposed BRT system. The findings underscored that socioeconomic attributes and travel behaviour significantly influenced the potential mode shift from the current transportation options to the proposed BRT system. Such results highlight the criticality of understanding the user's socioeconomic background and travel habits when implementing new public transportation systems, such as BRT, to ensure higher adoption rates.

Ridership plays a crucial role in the success of a BRT system. Before implementing such a system, an assessment of the potential modal shift is often carried out to promote sustainable transit solutions (Ko et al., 2019). A modal shift becomes viable when one mode of transport presents considerable advantages over other transportation options, encouraging a change in travellers' decision-making habits (Ahanchian et al., 2019). These advantages can be linked to reduced travel time, cost-effectiveness, enhanced comfort, or a more environmentally friendly mode of transport.

A study by Satiennam et al. (2016) investigated the BRT system's appeal to passengers who

usually use private cars or motorcycles. In their study, they developed three BRT system scenarios and proposed them to car and motorcycle users through a survey conducted in Khon Kaen City, Thailand. A modal split model was utilized for this investigation, employing the Stated Preference (SP) method. The findings indicated that travel time, cost, gender, and age were the most influential parameters. Moreover, the BRT system demonstrated a higher capacity to draw users from the pool of motorcycle users than car users. This suggests a potential for significant shifts in modal preference towards the BRT system, particularly among motorcycle users.

2.4 Urban Area and Urban Transportation

Various studies have acknowledged the strategic connection between the transportation network and urban planning. However, insufficient empirical evidence has been found to regulate this aspect through an integrated approach towards spatial transport development. This calls for further research and initiatives to effectively intertwine transportation planning with urban development, ultimately leading to more sustainable and efficient cities.

2.4.1 Relationship Between Land Use and Mode Choice

Past research underscores how land use patterns influence transportation choices, revealing that strategic urban development can steer inhabitants towards more sustainable travel options.

Handy et al. (1992) aimed to investigate the relationship between land use characteristics and mode choice, explicitly focusing on non-work trips and accessibility in four locations within San Francisco. The research found that several accessibility parameters were significant at the individual level. However, the study concluded that the measurements had limited explanatory power in understanding mode choice.

Ewing et al. (1994) conducted a study using trip diary data from Palm Beach City, Florida. The researchers examined various factors, including residential and employment density, jobs-home ratios, accessibility, and the presence of multifamily units. The study investigated travel time, mode choice, and trip frequencies.

Kitamura et al. (1994) conducted a study in five urban areas in San Francisco. They collected data regarding travel features, population, attitudes, built-form features, and household socioeconomic characteristics. Finally, the parameters were modelled. The results reveal that socio-demographic factors and attitudes are more significant than land-use characteristics.

Handy (1996) utilized trip diary data from two cities in the Bay Area to explore the effects of

block density (measured as blocks per square mile), the number of commercial establishments per capita, and access to the city centre on non-work travel patterns. The author found that areas with higher levels of accessibility exhibited a significantly higher frequency of non-work trips. Additionally, the comparison between traditional and suburban neighbourhoods revealed that land-use characteristics outweighed the impacts of socioeconomic factors on travel behaviour.

Mane, A. S., & Pulugurtha, S. S. (2020) explores the impact of land use and network characteristics on travel time for road links in Charlotte, North Carolina. Utilizing data from 259 links, the study examines 35 different land use types within varying proximities (0.5 to 3 miles) to these links. It assesses spatial dependencies by analyzing the land use within these buffer zones and the network features of adjacent roads. Two modeling approaches were employed: one using all predictor variables and another using non-correlated predictors based on Pearson correlation coefficients. Additionally, the study categorized links by area type (central business district, CBD fringe/other business districts, and urban areas) and speed limit (35-40 mph, 45-50 mph, and over 50 mph) to gauge their effects on travel time. The gamma distribution model with a log-link was found to be the most suitable for the data. Results indicated varying contributions of land use and network characteristics to travel time based on the buffer size, with a 1-mile radius being optimal for capturing land use effects on travel time. This variation was also influenced by the link's location and speed limit. This study aids in refining land use and transportation planning by identifying key factors influencing travel time at different spatial scales and conditions.

Lawrence et al. (1994) aimed to determine if there was a correlation between urban structure and mode of transportation, if this correlation persisted after controlling for non-urban form variables, if this relationship was linear or non-linear, and if a strong association existed between transportation choice and urban structure. They created a database with a wide array of variables and applied a correlational research design where transportation choice was compared among census tracts with varying degrees of density and mixed-use. Their findings revealed that density and mixed-use were associated with transportation choice, even when controlling for non-urban form variables. This was held for both work and shopping trips. Moreover, the study uncovered a non-linear relationship between population, employment density and transportation choice for single-occupancy vehicles (SOVs), public transportation, and walking, whether for work or shopping trips. As density and mixed-use increased, so did public transport and walking, while SOV usage decreased. The conclusions drawn from this research indicate that estimating urban structure at both the origin and destination of trips

provides a better prediction of travel choices than considering each endpoint individually. Also, enhancing the degree of land-use mix at both the trip origins and destinations correlated with decreased SOV use and increased transit and walking.

Schimek (1996) conducted a study to understand whether population density influences the number of household car travels in the US. The 1990 Nationwide Personal Transportation Survey (NPTS) collected the data. This article applied a simplified land use-transport system model and considered a specific density neighbourhood. Households chose the number of vehicles to own and then determined the number of motor vehicle journeys or the overall vehicle journey distance. The research found that a 10% improvement in density resulted in only a 0.7% reduction in household car travel.

Crane (1996b) evaluated the relationship between travel demand and land-use characteristics. The author developed a model to identify this context's significant and influential land-use factors. The study's results demonstrated that various land-use factors have distinct impacts on trip time and length.

Cervero et al. (1997) researched to investigate the impacts of land-use characteristics on mode choice. The study revealed that land-use characteristics influence travel behaviour and vehicle miles travelled (VMT). However, the study emphasized that socio-demographic features play a more significant role in mode choice than land-use features.

Kain et al. (1977) analysed the impact of urban form patterns, density, job location, and car ownership on mode choice in over a hundred metropolitan areas. The study employed travel demand modelling techniques to examine these relationships. The analysis results revealed that urban densities and car ownership rates significantly influence mode choice.

Cervero et al. (1997) investigated the influence of urban form on travel demand, focusing on three principal dimensions: density, diversity, and design. They evaluated how these factors affected the trip rates and modal choices of residents in San Francisco. The study utilized data from 1990, including travel data and land-use records obtained from U.S. Census data, local inventories, and area surveys. The study specifically focused on estimating the relationship between the built environment's characteristics and variations in vehicle miles travelled per household and mode choice, particularly for non-work trips. Factor analysis was used to combine parameters linearly into the urban form's density and design dimensions. The findings revealed that density, urban diversity, and design generally decrease trip rates and encourage non-motorized travel statistically significantly. This suggests that thoughtful urban planning can influence travel behaviours, promoting sustainable transport methods and potentially

reducing congestion and carbon emissions.

Mukoko, K.K., & Pulugurtha, S.S. (2019) collected data on network, land use, and demographic factors at 119 locations to analyze their impact on crash frequency. Using 99 locations for model development and 20 for validation, six models were developed with a Negative Binomial distribution to handle over-dispersion in the data. Findings indicated a higher likelihood of crashes on roads lacking bicycle lanes, equipped with traffic lights, having a 45 mph speed limit, and situated in commercial, research, institutional, densely populated residential, or heavy industrial areas. Moreover, using Moran's Index revealed weak to no spatial correlation in crash residuals, suggesting that crash occurrences are more closely related to specific site characteristics than to general spatial patterns.

Kitamura et al. (1997) utilized the same dataset and conducted further analysis. The findings revealed that individuals residing in areas with higher population density exhibited a greater tendency to use bicycles and walking as modes of transportation. However, in areas with longer distances to metro stations, there was a decrease in the use of transit systems. Based on these results, the researchers concluded that attitudinal parameters held by individuals had a more significant impact on travel behaviour than the specific characteristics of land use.

Hendy et al. (1998) conducted a study focusing on walking and recreational trips in Austin. The researchers examined and developed models for walking trips, considering socioeconomic and environmental factors. Their findings indicated that shade, perception of safety, and the presence of other pedestrians on the road were significant factors influencing walking behaviour. In conclusion, the study emphasized the importance of these factors in promoting and facilitating walking as a mode of transportation and recreation in the Austin area.

Cervero (1996) conducted a study that involved modelling data from eleven urban areas. The research utilized American Housing Survey data to examine the relationship between land-use parameters and mode choice. The findings indicated that individuals living in high-density areas, households without cars, and those residing near their workplaces were more likely to use transit systems as their mode of transportation. This suggests that land-use characteristics such as density and proximity to jobs significantly influence mode choice, particularly favouring transit use in the identified scenarios.

Carne et al. (1998) examined a model using San Diego County travel diary data. The study investigated the impact of various explanatory variables such as income, prices, and the built environment. Specifically, the researchers focused on analysing the effects of density, street patterns, and distance from downtown on travel behaviour.

Boarnet et al. (1998) conducted a similar primary travel demand model to examine the impacts of the built environment on modal choice. They analysed both non-work travel decisions and the choice of residential neighbourhoods together. The study found that retail density and employment significantly influenced modal choice.

In Kockelman's thesis (1998), an analysis was conducted to explore the relationship between non-work travel and urban form features. Factors such as mixed land use, accessibility, density, travel time, and cost were considered. The research findings indicated that urban form characteristics did not directly influence the demand models. These studies provide evidence of the relationship between travel decisions and land-use characteristics. From the literature review, it can be concluded that individuals living in areas with high density are more likely to utilize walking and public transportation systems as modes of transportation.

Ewing et al. (2000) carried out a study to understand the relationship between urban sprawl and traffic-related fatalities. They gathered data from 448 districts across 101 cities in the United States and created a 'sprawl index' using principal components analysis. This index aimed to quantify the degree of urban sprawl in each location. The researchers then used regression analysis to explore potential correlations between this sprawl index and the rates of traffic accidents. Their findings were significant: with every 1% increase in the sprawl index, there was a corresponding increase of 1.49% in traffic fatalities and a much steeper increase of 3.56% in pedestrian fatalities. The conclusions drawn from this research highlight a strong connection between urban sprawl - characterized by extensive suburban development and dependence on motor vehicles - and an increased likelihood of fatal traffic accidents. These findings underscore the importance of urban planning strategies that limit sprawl and promote more compact, pedestrian-friendly cities.

Dieleman et al. (2002) explored the connections between individual attributes, socioeconomic characteristics, urban features, and travel mode selection in their research. They collected data from the Netherlands' National Travel Survey (OVG), including income, car ownership, household type, education, residential environments, trip purpose, and travel behaviour. The research used statistical models, including the multinomial logit model, to investigate the relationship between individual characteristics, socioeconomic factors, urban features, and mode choice for travel. The study investigated the relative significance of personal attributes and residential circumstances' features as determinants of transportation mode choice and travel distance. The findings showed that both personal characteristics and residential circumstances' features maintained a robust and significant relationship with travel behaviour in multivariate

travel behaviour models. Thus, the study implies that understanding these individual and residential factors can provide valuable insights for shaping transportation policies and urban planning strategies.

Ewing et al. (2003) undertook a study to measure urban sprawl and evaluate its correlation with transportation outcomes. They used the newly formed Rutgers-Cornell urban sprawl indicators and overall sprawl ratio. The research operationalized urban sprawl by integrating multiple factors into several elements: density, land use mix, degree of centring, and street connectivity. This combination of factors was executed using principal component analysis. These elements were then correlated with variables such as car ownership, travel mode selection, travel time, per capita vehicle miles travelled, traffic delay, and per capita traffic accidents. This correlation was established using multiple regression analysis. For most travel and transportation outcomes, it was found that areas with a high degree of urban sprawl fared worse than compact areas. The exception was congestion, measured in terms of per capita traffic delay, which did not favour compactness over sprawl. Sprawling areas distributed congestion more evenly. However, they also generated significantly more vehicle miles travelled (VMT), offsetting the benefits of dispersal.

The study conducted by Schwanen in 2004 evaluated the outcomes of the Netherlands' national physical plan strategy on individual journey behaviour. The research examined four elements of this strategy: concentrated decentralization in the 1970s and 1980s, the compact-city strategy of the 1980s and 1990s, the A-B-C location strategy, and the spatial retailing strategy. The information utilized in the study was derived from the 1998 Netherlands National Travel Survey (NTS). In summary, the study found that the national spatial plan in the Netherlands had a positive impact on promoting biking and walking in urban areas, particularly for shopping trips. However, it was less effective in reducing travel times, as the construction of new districts and greenfield communities did not lead to noticeable improvements in this aspect.

Schwanen et al. (2005) pursued a study to explore how travel modal choice differs by residential neighbourhood and neighbourhood type disagreement. This study collected data from a San Francisco Bay Area household survey. The study's findings showed that the degree of neighbourhood type is significantly linked with the travel mode choice. Specifically, residents living in dissonant urban areas are more likely to commute using private cars than individuals residing in consonant urban areas. Hence, the physical form of the neighbourhood independently influences the choice of commute travel mode. The study also uncovered an interactive effect between neighbourhood-type dissonance and commuters' beliefs about car

use, suggesting that these should be considered when analysing the intertwined choices of household location and travel mode.

Kasanko et al. (2006) conducted an in-depth study analysing the relationship between urban land use evolution and residential density in fifteen European urban areas. To do so, they used a variety of parameters, including the percentage of built-up area, annual growth rate of the built-up area, percentage of residential area, annual growth of the residential area, type of unbuilt land available, loss of natural and agricultural area, and density in both residential and built-up areas. The analysis showed a considerable expansion of built-up areas across all cities studied. The research also revealed that most surveyed areas were experiencing dispersed growth. As a result, the researchers categorized the cities into three groups: compact southern urban areas, northern and eastern urban areas with more relaxed structures, and areas with moderate densities primarily situated in the northern and eastern parts of Europe.

Burapatana et al. (2007) aimed to comprehend the influences of population density on travel behaviour. They relied on data from 1999 to 2005 by the Bangkok Metropolitan Administration (BMA). This investigation revolved around how land-use measures, specifically population density, impact the origination and destination of trips. The study's findings suggest that the population density in the central business district (CBD) is diminishing while increasing in suburban areas. This trend of suburbanization is leading to the transformation of natural spaces into residential areas, highways, and other infrastructures, subsequently resulting in a rise in air pollution due to a significant increase in the number of low-capacity vehicles. In response to these findings, authors propose transit-oriented planning and further investigation on vehicle kilometres travelled (VKT) in Bangkok. These measures would aid in mitigating the adverse environmental impacts of increasing suburbanization.

Aguiléra et al. (2009) examined the relationship between employment suburbanisation in Paris, the growth of reverse commuting (which refers to a round trip usually made from an urban area to a suburban one in the morning, returning in the evening) and changes in the weekday travel habits of central business district (CBD) workers over 20 years. They concluded that the transportation mode choice depended on the work location and, more specifically, the connection between residential and work areas. They observed that when public transportation was of high quality, it saw high adoption rates, even amongst wealthier inhabitants with access to personal vehicles. They suggested that enhancements to public transportation were necessary to reduce car usage. Gennaio et al. (2009) researched to evaluate the effects and efficiency of urban containment policies. These strategies, such as greenbelts and urban expansion

boundaries, are widely used as planning tools to control city sprawl. The research involved examining the extension of developed areas, shifts in the number of buildings, and the density of constructions inside and outside of residential areas in four municipalities in Switzerland, spanning from 1970 to 2000. The results showed that the imposition of urban expansion boundaries increased building density. Generally, an enhancement in building density was observed within the demarcated building zones.

Pan et al. (2009) conducted a study to comprehend the influence of urban spatial transformation on travel behaviour. Data was collected from 1709 individuals on various socioeconomic and travel characteristics, encompassing age, gender, income, family cycle count, car ownership, trip purpose, travel time, travel distance, and speed. In addition, they combined data regarding the urban area's attributes such as area size, distance to the closest city sub-centre, land usage, population density, block size, road density, number of bus stops and number of rail stations. Through the application of statistical models and a mode choice model, the study concluded that strategic land-use planning and thoughtful urban design can profoundly impact residents' travel behaviour and modal demand. These findings highlight the potential for shaping sustainable transportation in China's urban areas through informed urban planning and design strategies. Travisi et al. (2010) examined the relationship between urban sprawl and city transport systems. Utilizing a mobility impact index (IMPACT) created based on travel data from 739 Italian urban areas, they studied the dynamics and factors influencing travel impacts. The study revealed that over a decade (1981–1991), the effect of mobility in Italian cities had increased by up to 37%. This rise was primarily attributed to a shift in preference towards private low-capacity vehicles, specifically cars. As the usage of private vehicles increased, so did the environmental impacts and the associated costs of travel, consequently leading to a decrease in the quality of life. These adverse effects included air pollution, noise pollution, parking costs, and traffic accidents.

Interestingly, the study found that the commuters did not absorb these costs but instead affected wider communities. Despite the outlined negatives, the convenience and independence from public transportation offered by cars seemed to hold considerable value for many people. Additionally, the study suggested that as urban sprawl increases the separation between work and residential areas, the need for longer commutes increases, subsequently reducing the self-containment capacity of cities. Ambarwati et al. (2014) concentrated on analysing the evolution of Public Transport (PT) supply in conjunction with suburban development. The improvement of PT was strategized by planning Light Rail Transit (LRT) and BRT systems. The advancements in Mass Rapid Transit (MRT) systems were found to influence settlement

development significantly. A balance between employment and community density was proposed as an alternative urban spatial policy. The study concluded that it is essential to integrate space-transport enhancement policies to manage the growth of suburban settlements. This integration aims to reduce travel time by 10% and double the potential usage of PT modes, contributing to more efficient and sustainable urban development. Zhao et al. (2014) used a multiple regression analysis (MRA) to investigate the relationship between urban structure and travel patterns. The travel data was obtained from a household survey conducted in Beijing in 2006. Participants were asked to provide details such as average one-way travel time, mode of transport for work trips, and socioeconomic attributes. Additionally, they were requested to share their preferences and opinions about residential location choices. The study's findings highlighted that urban structure characteristics significantly influence workers' use of cars and the travel duration for work trips. Urban sprawl, defined by lower density, poor jobs-housing balance, and limited access to public transport, was found to be detrimental in efforts to reduce private vehicle usage. As such, this research provides valuable insights into how changes in urban structure can influence transportation choices and patterns. Yao et al. (2014) explored the interconnection between people's choice of transport modes and their places of residence during the suburbanization process. This research used field survey data, statistical analyses, and Geographic Information System (GIS) techniques to facilitate their investigation. The results show a clear preference for public transport among the respondents. Walking or cycling was associated with the shortest travel distances, whereas buses and mass transit systems covered the most extended distances. Interestingly, using cars and taxis seemed to have a minimal correlation with travel distance. The study also highlighted the crucial role of public transportation, especially mass rapid transit systems, in influencing residential relocations in Beijing. This finding offers a compelling explanation for the urban sprawl observed during the city's suburbanization process. Engelfriet et al. (2017) explored the influence of various urban structure variables on travel behaviour. The study specifically looked into the impact of city size, urban area density, mixed land use, polycentricism, and spatial clustering, with travel behaviour measured in terms of time and distance. The research used a methodology to calculate these urban variables and their subsequent impact on travel. The study found that city size and spatial clustering significantly influenced travel behaviour. Specifically, larger cities without defined clusters of businesses and other amenities led to longer average travel times and distances. Based on these findings, the researchers advocated for spatial planning measures that promote or strengthen high-density clusters, as these could help reduce travel time and distance. They also cautioned against current trends of urban sprawl, stating that such development could

have detrimental long-term effects on city accessibility in China. Furthermore, it could intensify existing economic challenges. Tian et al. (2017) conducted a study to measure the extent of urban sprawl in the context of local circumstances and available data. The researchers gathered various land use and demographic data, including cultivated areas, grasslands, forests, lakes, urban and rural residential areas, isolated construction land, unused land, and population numbers. The study then established a multidimensional index that integrated urban expansion, urban compactness, and urban form to quantify urban sprawl. The analysis revealed that urban sprawl was more pronounced in the 2000s than in the 1990s in Shanghai, with noticeable spatial variations across different parts of the city. Interestingly, the study discovered a strong correlation between planning and urban sprawl, suggesting that the sprawl in Shanghai was a type of "planned sprawl." The researchers suggested the need for future planning strategies to aim for more sustainable and compact urban development. Ye et al. (2016) developed a structural equation model to quantitatively examine the relative impacts of urban form, trip attitudes, and trip features on commute satisfaction. The data utilized in the research were collected from a mainly composed survey. The investigation considered the inhabitants of Xi'an aged over eighteen who are employed in Xi'an. Respondents for the questionnaire survey were selected from their companies, and the survey was administered at their companies' locations. The model outcomes indicated that travel features, including modal choice, congestion, and level of services of public transportation, all directly impact travel satisfaction. Moreover, travel attitudes can directly and indirectly influence travel satisfaction, while urban forms can have indirect impacts by influencing travel features. Hu et al. (2018) utilized individual-level travel data from the Beijing Household Travel Survey (HTS) to investigate the influence of urban form on travel patterns in Beijing, China. They employed multilevel regression models to separate this rich data set, using the available resources to gain deeper insights into the relationship between urban development and travel behaviours. The results illuminated the differences in travel distances and times across various urban and suburban areas, showcasing how the evolving urban structure could impact travel patterns and potentially intensify transportation difficulties in expanding Chinese urban areas. Hu et al. (2019) evaluated empirical literature discussing the link between urban form and travel behaviour in Chinese cities. Their study established that residential suburbanization in isolation leads to increased trips. Polycentric development exhibits mixed impacts on travel while job-housing balance leads to a decrease in trips. Additionally, the researchers compared the experimental findings regarding the relationship between urban form and travel in Chinese cities and those observed in different countries. This comparison highlighted unique elements within Chinese urban

contexts. In conclusion, Hu et al.'s research identified specific contextual factors that explain the unique relationships observed in Chinese cities. The study reinforces the need for considering regional or cultural contexts when exploring the interplay between urban form and travel behaviours.

2.5 Summary of Literature Review

Numerous studies have explored how Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) systems are planned and work in different cities around the world, like Bangkok and Bogotá. These research works show that careful planning, considering how people move about, and working with the community are vital for the success of BRT systems. Researchers have looked at various aspects, such as how these systems affect traffic, pollution, and even the local economy. Various factors impact the introduction and operation of BRT systems, including but not limited to Demographics influence the effectiveness and sustainability of BRT systems in different global contexts, Political support can dictate the efficacy of BRT systems operational and technical aspects like travel demand, travel time, and possible synchronization of BRT vehicles. BRT systems can influence areas like air quality and urban renewal while sometimes being impacted by declining user satisfaction. The past studies revealed that modal shift refers to the transition of transport users from one mode of transportation to another. In the context of introducing a BRT system, it pertains to the shift of commuters from their existing transport modes (like private vehicles, conventional buses, bicycles, or walking) to the new BRT system. Influential factors affecting modal shift, especially towards a BRT system, may include: Travel time, if the BRT can offer reduced or competitive travel times compared to existing modes, users may shift towards it. Cost, the affordability or cost savings offered by the BRT compared to private vehicles or other public transport modes. Convenience, factors like ease of access, frequency of service, and comfort can entice users to switch to the BRT system. Safety, perception and reality of the safety of using the BRT system, compared to other available options. Environmental Concerns, a awareness and concern for environmental impacts (like emissions from private vehicles) could motivate users to prefer the relatively eco-friendly BRT. Socioeconomic Factors, Attributes such as income, age, and gender, which might influence a person's willingness or ability to change transportation modes. Infrastructure, Adequate and user-friendly infrastructure like dedicated lanes, easy boarding facilities, etc. Land use and its impact on transportation mode choice has been widely studied, emphasizing the interplay of various factors. Key elements include density, diversity, and design of urban environments, which collectively influence public and non-motorized transport usage. Proximity to transit points and accessibility of destinations are pivotal in encouraging public transit use, while demographic variables and

policy frameworks also steer choices. Additionally, social, cultural, and environmental factors interweave with physical land-use attributes to shape transportation behaviors. Nonetheless, a comprehensive understanding of how these elements interplay in different urban and policy contexts, especially amidst evolving technologies, remains an area warranting further exploration. While some studies have analysed the factors that influence BRT corridor selection. However, there is a need for more empirical research that uses four-step-methods to identify the most appropriate corridors for BRT systems in urban areas with high travel demand. In prior research, the focus was primarily on analysing the shift from private cars and motorcycles to transit systems. However, the shift from rickshaws, share-taxis, and cars to BRT systems has been overlooked, despite factors like waiting time, station type, corridor type, air conditioning availability, station distance, travel time, and travel cost being influential. While previous studies have explored the connection between travel behaviour and mixed land use/density, there remains a research gap in understanding how density influences mode choice in various traffic zones. This gap includes examining residential density, employment density, student density, and road density as contributing factors.

1.6 Scop of the Study

Certainly, the connection between land-use and travel behaviours is shaped by a complex interplay of multiple factors. Recent findings underscore the substantial influence of urban form on urban transportation systems, an influence that evolves over time and consistently contributes to significant issues like congestion, pollution, and resource depletion. Consequently, it is advisable to thoroughly analyse the relationship between land-use and transportation systems before utilizing it as essential data for infrastructure planning and decision-making processes. This study explores the potential implementation of the BRT system, with a special focus on its corridor selection and ridership patterns in the urban areas of Kabul and Jalalabad cities. Furthermore, it presents an effective methodology to examine the interrelationship between land-use and travel behaviours. This methodology takes into account not only the current conditions but also anticipates changes in urban form and travel behaviours over time, aiming to develop a transportation solution that is sustainable, efficient, and responsive to the evolving needs of the urban population.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH APPROACHE FOR THE INTRODUCTION OF BUS RAPID TRANSIT SYSTEM

3.1 General

In recent years, the BRT system or metro surface has gained popularity worldwide as a flexible construction and cost-effective alternative for low and medium travel demand, particularly in small and medium-sized cities (Cervero 1998; Cervero 2013). This system provides reliable, secure, and convenient passenger trips (Rambaud et al. 2008). A study in the US revealed that 33% of passengers served by the introduced BRT system were new public transport users, while most other passengers had switched from private vehicles (Peak et al. 2005). This chapter focuses on travel demand in 22 districts (213 traffic zones) in Kabul City to understand the possibilities of implementing a BRT system regarding corridor selection. While the BRT system is cost-effective, implementing a standard BRT system requires significant financial resources. Therefore, sufficient ridership is essential for successfully selecting a proposed BRT system. Classical Travel Demand Modelling (four-step) is used to determine trip generation/attraction, trip distribution, modal split, trip assignment, and their associated parameters. TDM begins by introducing the study area and dividing it into several traffic zones, considering the traffic network in the system. The dataset includes base year data, network data, zone information, and future planning data (Figure 3.1).

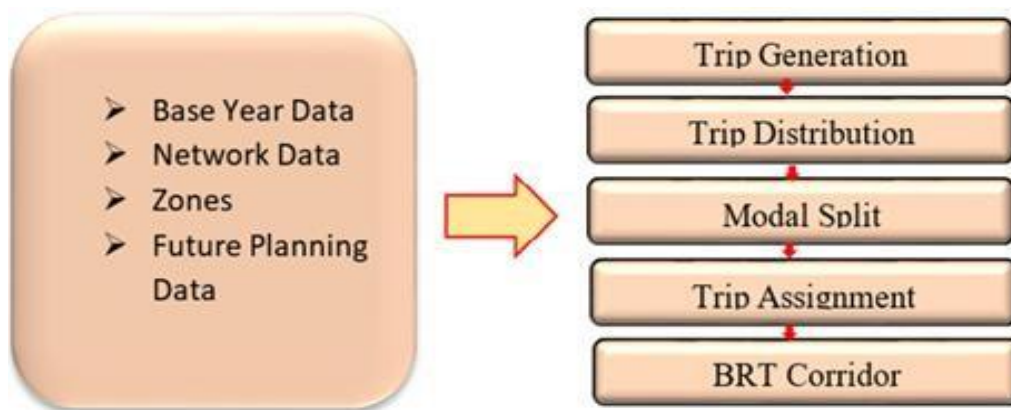


Figure 3.1 Classic travel demand modelling

3.2 Kabul City

Kabul, the capital of Afghanistan, is known to have the world's fifth-fastest-growing urban population (Stanikzai et al., 2018 and Sadaat et al., 2018); situated in the northeastern part of

the country, the city has experienced dramatic changes in land use and population over the last few decades. This is depicted in Figure 3.2. The region's current population stands at 5 million, spreads across a municipal area of 1,025 km², and comprises 22 districts. Kabul Municipality is responsible for urban planning, construction, operation, and transportation system maintenance. The city began with a modest 400 hectares in District 1, also known as Share Kohna, in 1916. From 1992 to 1999, Kabul expanded considerably, growing to 68 km² and a built-up area of 25,000 hectares. Furthermore, the population increased at an average annual rate of around 4% during this period, and the city's Area expanded about 62 times. These variations in population and urbanization in Kabul city during these decades are outlined in Table 3.1, as per Kabul's Master Plan 2011.

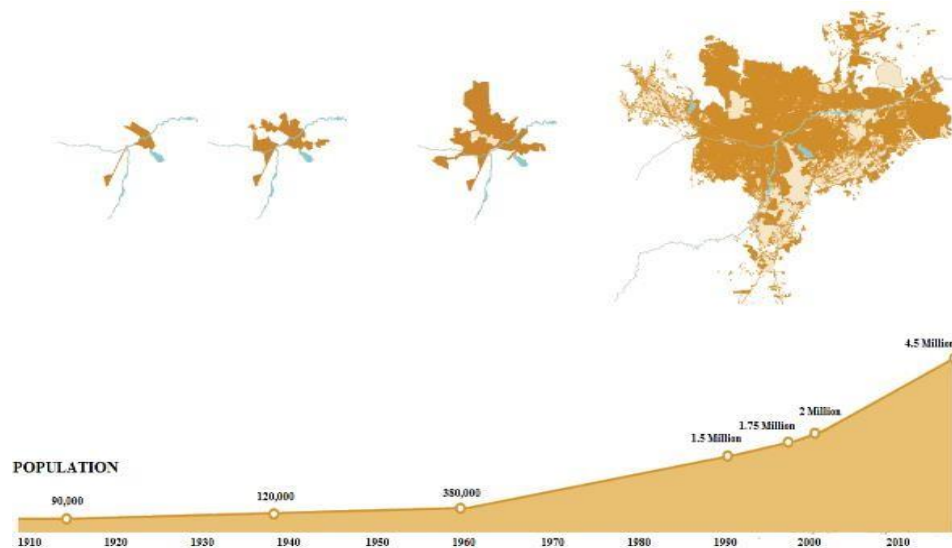


Figure 3.2 Urban and pupation changes during the decades

Kabul's rapid urbanization has resulted from various factors, such as natural population growth, migration from rural areas due to insecurity, and the return of refugees from neighbouring countries. However, this rapid growth presents significant challenges, as it outpaces the development of the city's infrastructure, leading to primary service deficiencies for many residents, such as clean water, electricity, and waste management. Additionally, the transportation system in the city is under massive pressure, resulting in increased traffic congestion. The evidence shows trends in population growth and urban expansion in Kabul city. In collaboration with other related agencies, Kabul Municipality is trying to overcome these challenges and lay the groundwork for a sustainable future in Kabul. Efforts for improvement and expansion have been made, but the transportation infrastructure still requires significant development to meet the growing demands of the populace. Figure 3.3 indicates the Kabul city map.

Table 3.1: Trends in population growth and urban expansion in Kabul City (KMP. 2011)

Year	Population	Growth (%)	Area (ha)
1700	10000	-	-
1878	50000	-	180
1916	65000	-	400
1925	90000	3.7	450
1940	120000	1.9	500
1962	380000	5.4	6840
1992	1500000	4.7	16830
1999	1780000	2.3	25000
2005	2721000	4	1022700

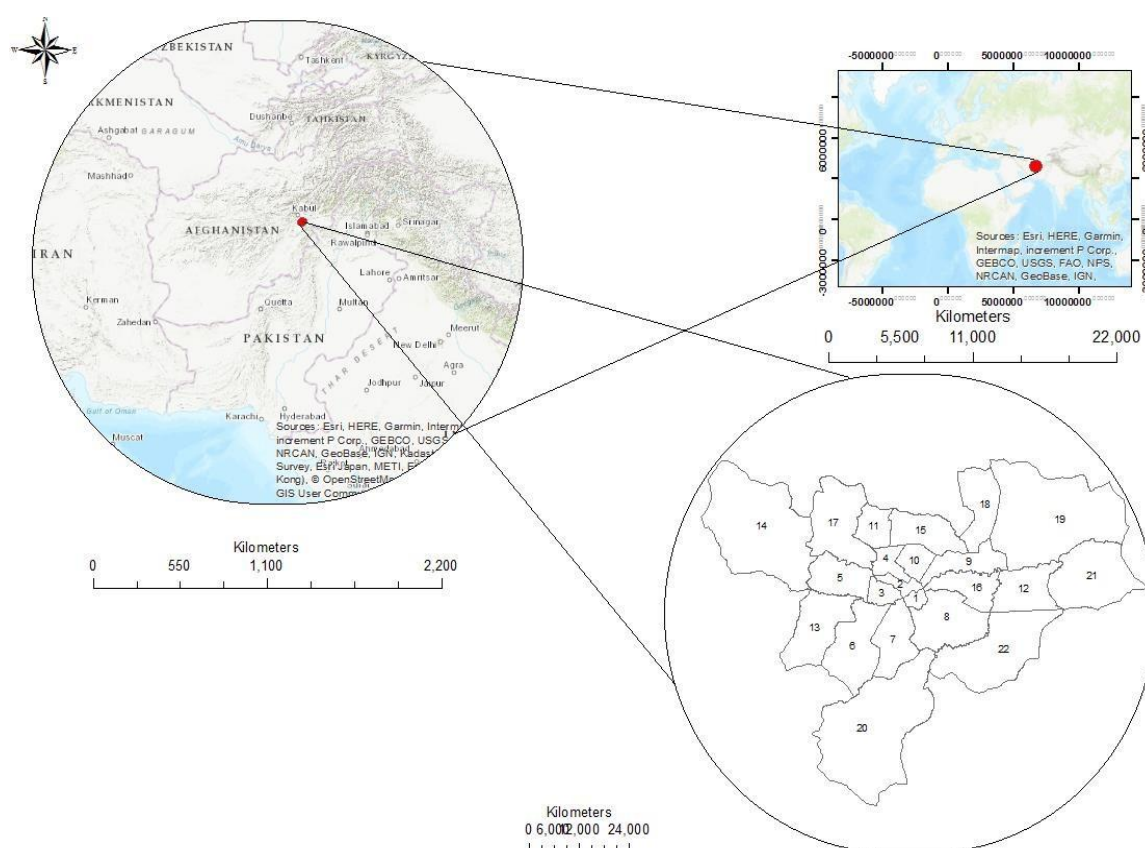


Figure 3.3 Districts of Kabul City on GIS platform (22 Districts)

In 2005, the population of Kabul stood at 2,268,300. By 2008, this number had grown significantly, reaching 4.22 million. In January 2005, an agreement between the Ministry of Interior, the Kabul Province, and the Kabul Municipality expanded the jurisdiction of the Kabul Municipality. Consequently, the population of the newly incorporated areas surged, raising the

total population to 2,721,000 people spread across 22 districts. Figures 3.4 and 3.5 illustrate the built-up Area and population distribution within Kabul city, respectively. This rapid growth is reflective of the broader urbanization trends within Afghanistan and has resulted in unique challenges for the city. The acceleration in the city's population has put a strain on existing infrastructure and services, necessitating innovative solutions and careful urban planning to accommodate the increasing demand. Despite these challenges, the city's growth also presents opportunities for economic development and increased social mobility for its residents.

This information highlights the challenge that city planners face in Kabul. With the majority of the population living in unplanned areas, there is a pressing need for comprehensive urban and transportation planning strategies to improve living conditions and infrastructure in these zones. This could potentially involve housing projects, road construction, utility provision, and more. Additionally, the development of social services and economic opportunities in these unplanned areas is crucial to support sustainable urban growth. As projected in Table 3.2, the population of Kabul in 2008 was estimated to be 4.2 million. Interestingly, the residents of the unplanned zones constituted 73 percent of this total population. Figure 3.4 illustrates the rapid urbanization growth trend in Kabul city spanning from 1940 to 1999, showcasing a substantial increase in its urban population and infrastructure development. This growth in urbanization brought along shifts in social, economic, and environmental dynamics, posing new challenges and opportunities for the city's management and inhabitants.

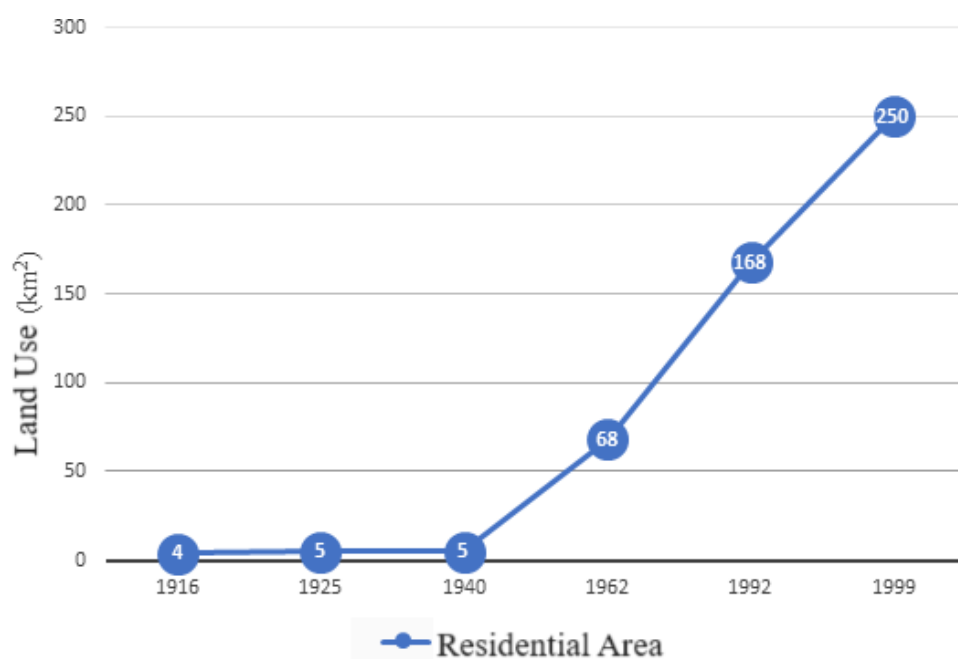


Figure 3.4 Expansion of built-up Area in Kabul (Kabul Municipality 2011)

.As projected in Table 3.2, the population of Kabul in 2008 was estimated to be 4.2 million. Interestingly, the residents of the unplanned area constituted 73 percent of this total population.

Table 3.2 Population distribution and density in Kabul city (Kabul Municipality 2011)

A No	B (ha)	C	D (p/ha)	E (p/ha)	F
1	483	124	35,402	73	286
2	684	257	83,295	122	324
3	911	414	139,742	153	338
4	1,172	598	204,049	174	341
5	2,845	894	283,489	100	317
6	4,918	957	285,255	58	298
7	3,334	1,478	416,675	125	282
8	4,825	1,124	331,554	69	295
9	2,433	616	188,569	77	306
10	1,303	885	270,157	207	305
11	1,742	829	287,853	165	347
12	3,490	1,221	298,847	86	245
13	4,719	1,660	467,440	99	282
14	11,902	524	147,910	12	282
15	3,253	626	200,465	62	320
16	2,507	713	206,701	82	290
17	5,602	780	248,926	44	319
18	3,388	121	33,958	10	280
19	14,143	11	3,906	0	356
20	14,294	152	31,836	2	210
21	6,395	22	6,040	1	279
22	7,925	258	48,187	6	187
Total	102,270	14,264	4,220,256	41	296

"A" denotes Zone Area, "B" represents Residential Area, "C" indicates Population, "E" signifies District Density, "F" refers to another Residential Area, and "G" designates a different Zone Area.

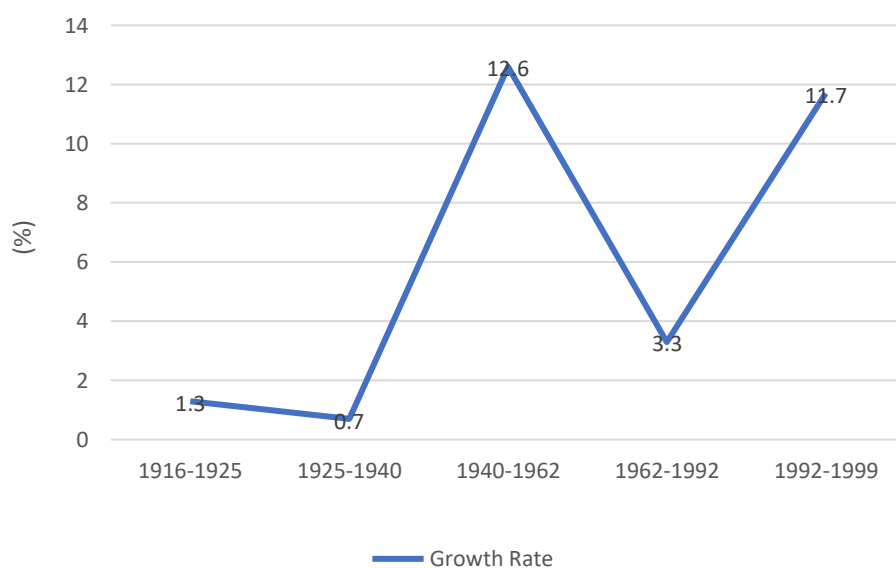


Figure 3.5 Trends in annual population growth rate in Kabul City (KMP. 2011)

3.2.1 Urban Transportation Agencies in Kabul

Since 2002, investment in Afghanistan's road system has been initiated through government funding, international assistance, and private capital. The national Kabul ring road was among the first to be rehabilitated. This critical infrastructure allows Afghanistan to establish stronger connections with its neighbouring countries. Control over the transportation sector is not held by a single agency. Instead, three entities share responsibilities. The Kabul Municipality handles the organization, preparation, and maintenance of urban transportation infrastructure within its jurisdiction, including avenues and airports. The Ministry of Public Works (MPW) is in charge of the development, implementation, and maintenance of transport facilities like streets and railroads, with most of its programs being funded by international governments.

The Ministry of Transport and Civil Aviation (MOTCA) is tasked with making transportation policies and managing public transportation involving vans, planes, and other vehicles. Millie Bus Enterprises (MBE), a government-regulated company that owns and operates a bus fleet in Kabul and its surrounding areas, receives subsidies from the government. Having provided public transportation services in Kabul city for the past 40 years, Millie Buses is a mainstay of the city's transport system. Finally, the Ministry of the Interior handles issues related to commercial and additional information, it's worth mentioning that despite these advances, transportation in Kabul and across Afghanistan continues to face challenges. These include infrastructural deficiencies, security issues, and the need for further modernization. Overcoming these hurdles will be essential for improving accessibility and connectivity within Kabul and throughout the country, facilitating economic growth and social development in the process.

3.2.2 Urban Road Network in Kabul

Well-planned and effectively implemented road connectivity is vital for any urban area. It forms the backbone of a city's transportation infrastructure, allowing efficient movement of people, goods, and services. This fosters economic growth and social development by facilitating access to employment opportunities, educational institutions, healthcare facilities, and other essential services. In areas with strong road connectivity, public transport can operate more effectively, reducing reliance on private vehicles and consequently alleviating traffic congestion and air pollution. This also supports the city's sustainability efforts by encouraging environmentally friendly modes of transport like cycling and walking. On the other hand, regions with poor road connectivity can face numerous challenges. good road connectivity is not just about transportation it plays a crucial role in shaping a city's social fabric and economic potential,

contributing to the overall quality of life for its residents. Kabul's road network extends in a radial pattern from the city centre towards the north, northwest, west, southwest, south, and east. The entire network spans a total length of 330.7 km and is divided into two categories: arterial and main arterial roads. Surveys indicate that three regional four-lane highways and one national two-lane highway pass through the Central Business District (CBD). Arterial roads, made of asphalt and comprising no fewer than two lanes, serve to connect various districts with the city centre. In turn, these arterial roads are linked to local communities through secondary roads. Table 3.3 provides a summary of the road lengths and densities for each district under the jurisdiction of Kabul Municipality, segregated by road type. The average road density varies significantly among the districts. For instance, Districts 17 and 22, located in the suburbs, have the lowest density, at less than 5.0 km/km². Conversely, Districts 3, 4, 5, 10, 11, and 15, which are dominated by medium-rise apartments, boast an extremely high road density. Except for District 18, an older semi-urban area, the outer districts generally have poor road density.

Table 3.3 described as follow:

A: Main Arterial Road (km) , B: Arterial Road (km), C: Secondary Road (km) D: Community Road (km), E: Other Road Types (km), F: Total Road Length (km), G: Density (km/km²)

Table 3.3 Distribution of road and density in Kabul (Sector 9 Report 2009)

Dis	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
1	0.3	3.2	3.3	2.0	67.6	76.3	16.2
2	6.9	1.8	3.6	17.4	55.1	84.8	12.5
3	5.6	1.1	9.2	39.9	61.9	117.7	12.1
4	6.9	12.3	7.0	52.3	125.1	203.6	17.6
5	18.3	0.7	1.2	97.1	231.5	348.8	12.0
6	0	19.6	10.1	49.5	322.6	401.8	8.2
7	0	15.7	5.7	27.4	343.8	392.6	12.1
8	7.5	11.6	10.4	59.8	400.4	489.7	10.1
9	10.1	7.2	3.4	23.2	195.7	239.6	9.8
10	0	14.7	7.3	78.6	121.2	221.8	17.1
11	1.4	10	2.6	57.9	226.2	298.1	17.1
12	0.0	19.3	4.8	36.2	285.1	345.4	9.9
13	0.0	7.5	19.4	58.2	442.7	527.8	11.3
14	3	24.5	3.0	55.0	239.8	325.3	2.6
15	0	25.5	5.3	128.3	89.8	248.9	7.8
16	0.4	13.4	4.2	9.8	228.1	255.9	10.2
17	9.6	0.0	8.1	12.2	245.8	275.6	4.9
18	0	14.1	18.0	54.0	38.8	124.9	3.7
19	15.5	0.0	24.1	36.2	220.1	295.8	2.1
20	17.8	0.0	7.9	81.9	148.8	256.4	1.8
21	10.9	0.0	7.0	35.8	3.4	57.1	0.9
22	0	8.8	17.6	52.8	189.4	268.6	3.4
Total	114.1	211.0	183.2	1,065.4	4,282.8	5,856.5	5.7

Main arterial and arterial roads serve as critical transport roads in the city of Kabul, facilitating the flow of traffic through the Central Business District (CBD). These roads, which link various neighbourhoods and districts of the city, play a substantial role in sustaining Kabul's socio-economic activities. However, numerous challenges affect the condition of these roads. Their age is a significant factor: many roads were laid years ago and have suffered substantial wear and scratch since then. This damage is compounded by insufficient drainage systems, which can lead to water accumulation and further damage the road surface. This is especially problematic during the rainy season, when standing water can accelerate erosion and the formation of potholes. The heavy vehicle volume on these arterial roads is another contributing factor to their deterioration. High traffic loads exert significant stress on the road surfaces, especially where larger vehicles such as buses and trucks are concerned. The constant pressure leads to the faster degradation of the asphalt concrete, causing potholes, rutting, and other forms of surface damage.

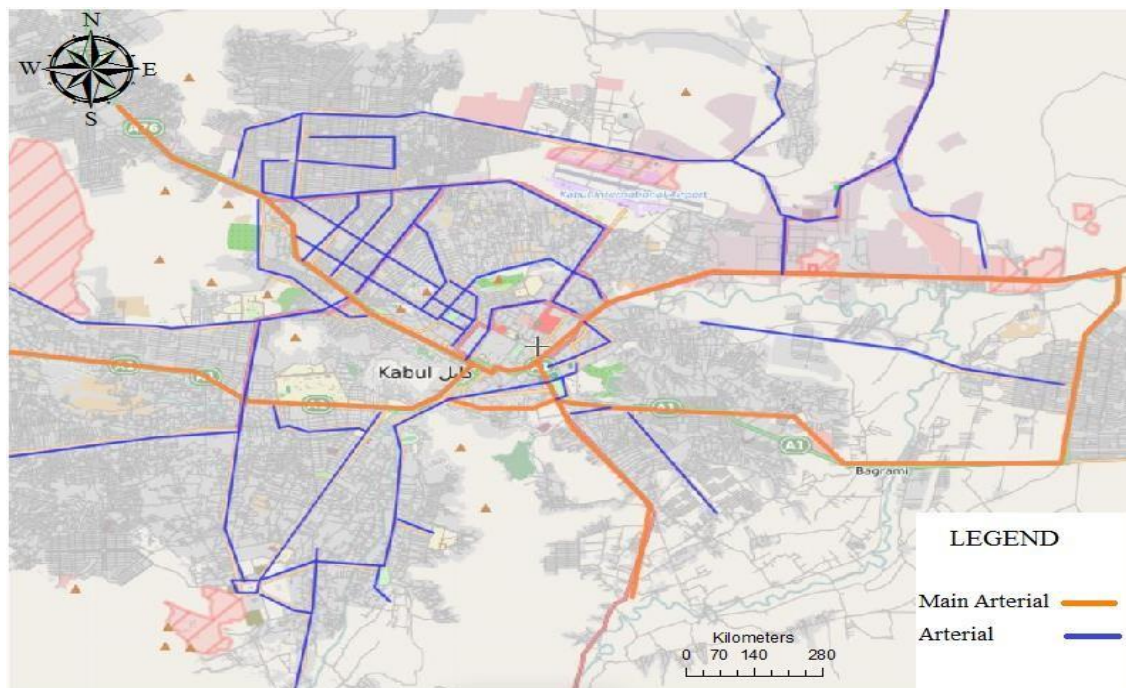


Figure 3.6 Main arterial and arterial road network in Kabul city (GIS)

Figure 3.6 provides a visual representation of Kabul's road network, highlighting the extent of arterial and main arterial roads. In complement to this, Table 3.4 provides an overview of the current condition of these roads. Different modes of transportation are recognized as public transport in Kabul city. These include standard buses, minibuses, minivans, and shared taxis, all providing vital links across the urban landscape and beyond. These varied transportation options offer flexibility for commuters, catering to different travel needs and preferences.

Table 3.4 Assessment of road condition in Kabul city (Kabul Municipality 2009)

Road Type	Good	Fair	Poor	Very poor	Total (km)
Main arterial	96.7	6.5	5.6	5.3	114.1
Arterial	29.5	23.7	109.3	38.5	211.0
Secondary	-	16.8	11.5	154.9	183.2

The Millie Bus Company (MBC) is an integral part of this public transportation network. Funded by the government, this entity is tasked with providing affordable transportation solutions, particularly catering to low-income individuals. This critical service not only facilitates daily commuting but also helps in alleviating economic barriers by improving access to job opportunities and essential services across the city. The city bus system is extensive, covering 54 routes with ten strategically positioned terminals throughout the city. This network spans a total distance of 473 kilometres, with an average service length of 8.8 kilometres per line. The broad coverage of this network ensures that most areas of the city are within a reasonable distance of a bus route, enhancing the accessibility of public transport for Kabul's residents. MBC operates 601 buses within Kabul, but due to various issues, only 358 of them are currently operational. This shortfall represents a challenge to the efficiency and capacity of the public transportation system, and resolving these issues should be a priority to improve service levels. In addition to MBC's fleet, there are 44,924 privately-owned buses registered in Kabul city, out of a total of 48,513 countrywide. These private operators provide additional transport capacity. However, they operate without strict regulation, which can lead to problems such as traffic congestion, variable service quality, and safety concerns. The integration and regulation of these private operators into the broader public transport framework could help address these issues, enhancing the overall effectiveness and sustainability of Kabul's public transport system.

As previously stated, this study is primarily guided by three objectives. These objectives provide the framework for the research approach, which is visually represented in Figure 3.7. This flow chart outlines the methodological steps and followed to conduct the study. The methodological flow chart offers a visual breakdown of this process. Starting from the initial stages of research design and data collection, through to data analysis and interpretation of results, each step is associated with the key objectives. This comprehensive and systematic approach allows for a strong exploration of the research questions, ultimately generating valuable insights into the subject matter. The methodology of this chapter is divided into several

steps to estimate Urban Travel Demand (UTD) and develop the Urban Travel Demand Modelling (UTDM) for Kabul city. The following is a breakdown of the methodology:

- Trip Generation/Attraction Model:

Linear Regression Model (LRM) is used to develop the first model. The purpose is to identify influential parameters and forecast travel patterns in each traffic zone. This model helps understand the factors that contribute to the number of trips generated or attracted in different areas.

- Trip Distribution Model:

The second model is developed using the Gravity Model (GM). The GM helps determine how trips are distributed among the traffic zones. Trip distance is considered as an independent variable in this model.

- Modal Choice Model:

The third model focuses on understanding how transport users select their mode of travel based on travel time. The Logit Curve Function (LCF) is used to develop the modal choice model. This model provides insights into the preferences and decision-making process of travellers when choosing between different transportation modes.

- Trip Assignment:

The fourth and final step is the development of a travel assignment model. This model assesses the road network performance based on various operational modes in Kabul city. It helps understand how different transportation options impact the traffic flow and efficiency of the road network. After implementing the four-step models, the results of UTDM are used to support the introduction of a BRT system in Kabul city.

The high travel demand identified in specific networks within the city provides a basis for the implementation of the BRT system. Furthermore, the integrated results of the modal choice model and land-use metrics from Chapter 4 provide insights into how users' mode choices are influenced by the level of urban compactness in each traffic zone. The methodology for this study is illustrated in Figure 3.8, which provides a visual representation of the different steps and their interconnections.

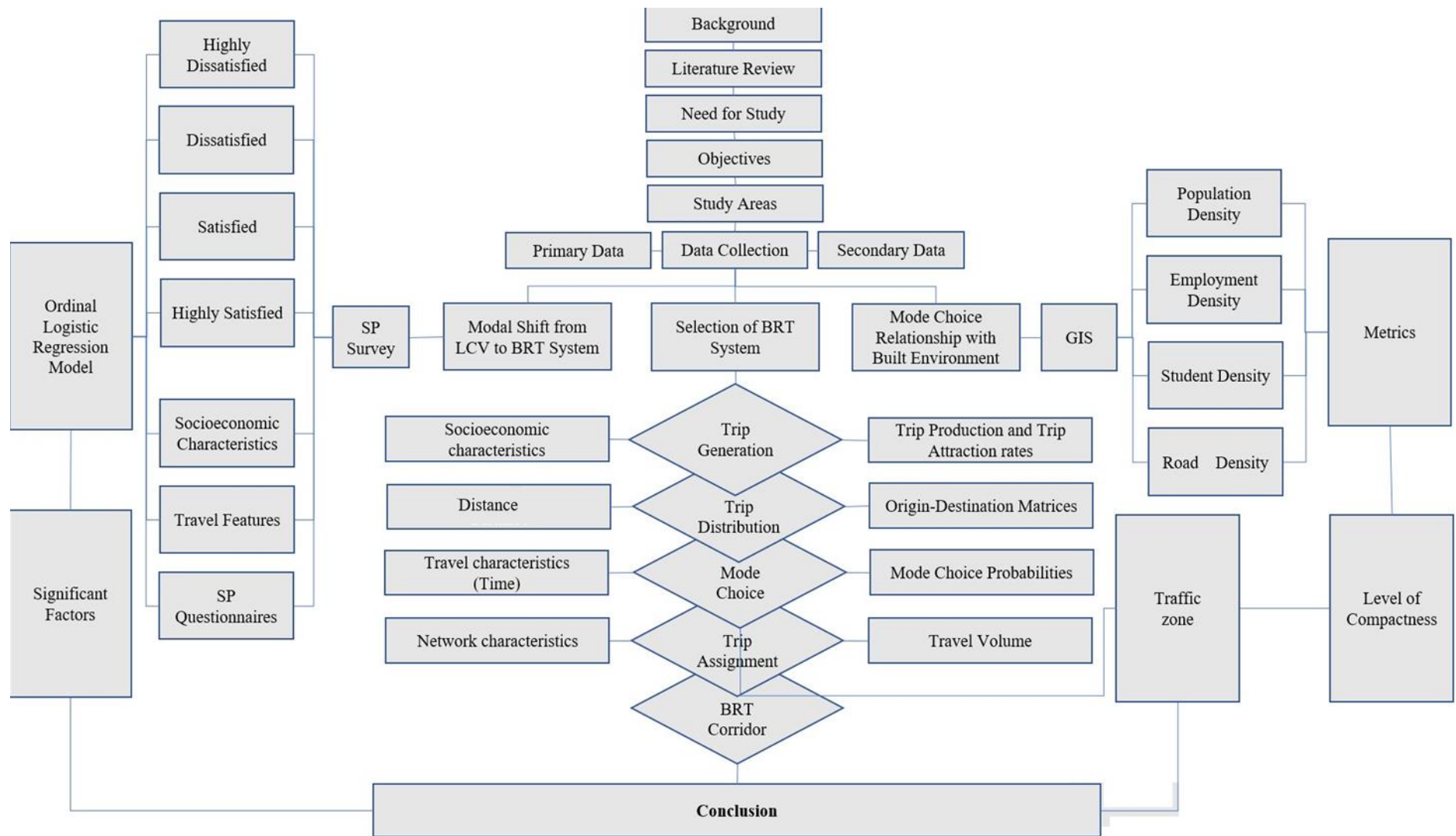


Figure 3.7 Methodological flowchart for all objectives

Selection of Bus Rapid Transit System-

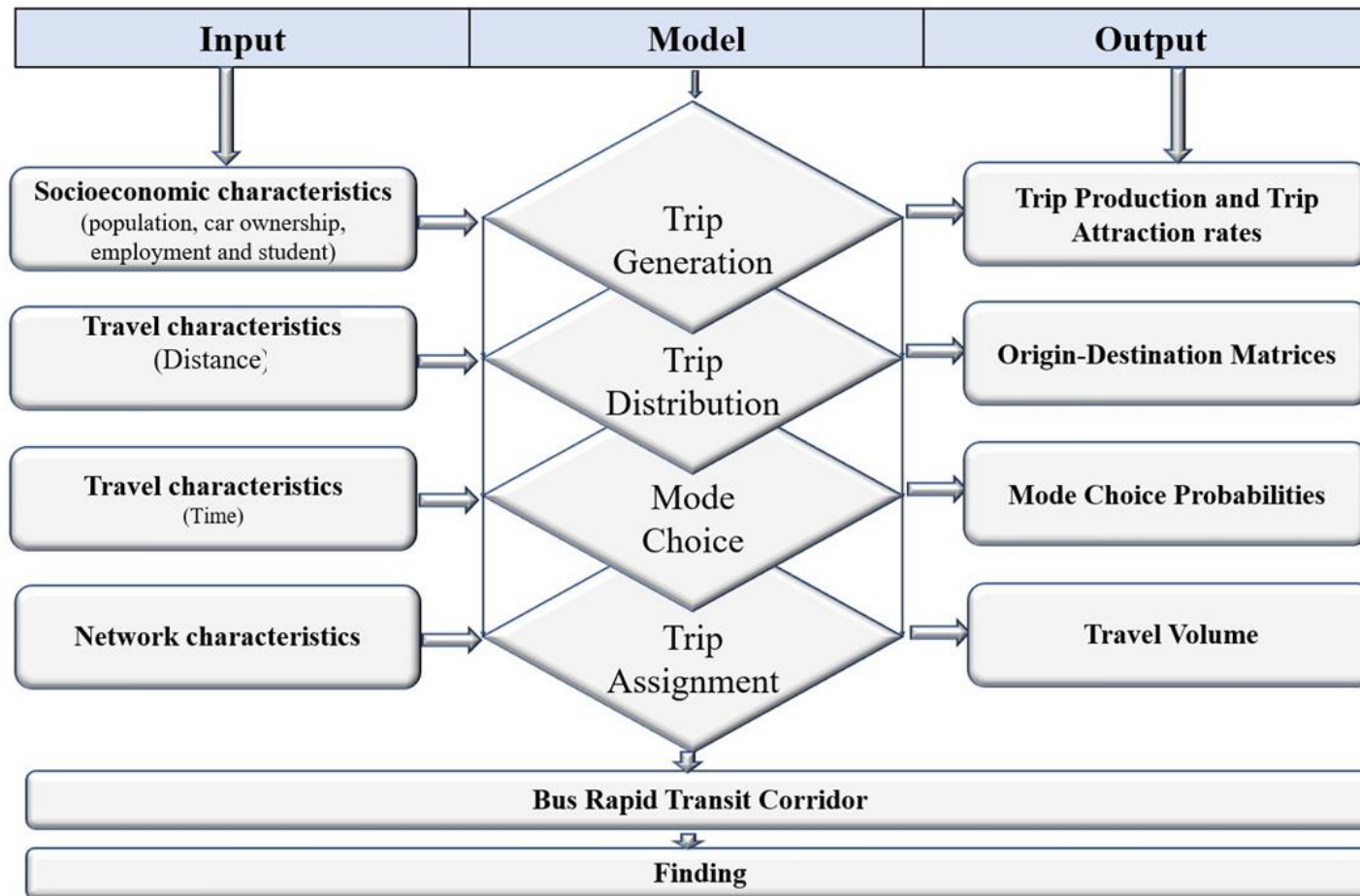


Figure 3.8 Methodological flowchart for first objective

3.3.1 Data Collection for the Purpose of Travel Demand Modelling

This section discusses the data collection process. The data for this study were gathered from Final Report 8 Transportation (2009), which covers characteristics of households and their travel habits. Information such as the number of family members, district number, family size, car ownership, gender, age, and details related to travel (number of trips, origin and destination districts, addresses of each trip's origin and destination, mode of transportation, and trip purpose) were all recorded. This data also extends to the current population, employment, and traffic surveys, which include aspects of the road network, vehicle capacity, and traffic volume.

In 2009, a survey was conducted in Kabul. Surveyors visited random houses and recorded the regular trips of family members over the age of five. The city was thought to be divided into about 500,000 families, but this study only focused on a sample of 5,000 of them, or 1% of the total. The survey was carried out in each of the city's 22 districts (213 traffic zones). Ultimately, 4,153 households responded successfully, representing a total of 30,969 family members. The average family size was found to be 7.5 members, with a travel ratio of 39% and an average of 2.1 trips made per day.

Interestingly, the ratio of car ownership among the sample collected was high at 34%. This suggests that many of the households visited were middle class or above. In Table 3.5, can find a detailed breakdown of all the key metrics that have been gathered and analysed, including family size, district numbers, number of trips per day, and car ownership ratio, among others. This table presents a clear and organized collection of data points that make it easier to understand the distribution of these variables across the sampled population in Kabul. Figure 3.9 offers the way to view the data. The data for each traffic zone was collected in varying amounts.

As a result, each zone has its own expansion factor or rate, which is used to extrapolate or estimate the total information for that particular traffic district. This method ensures that the data accurately reflects the unique conditions and characteristics of each individual zone. The data collection process also included gathering information on travel times for each currently used motorized mode from one zone to another. This was integral to the survey, specifically for the model usage aspect. The survey was conducted across 28 locations in Kabul's 22 districts, with 22 samples taken at each location. The data collected encompassed all existing modes of transportation in the city, including buses, minibuses, microbuses, share-taxis, and private cars.

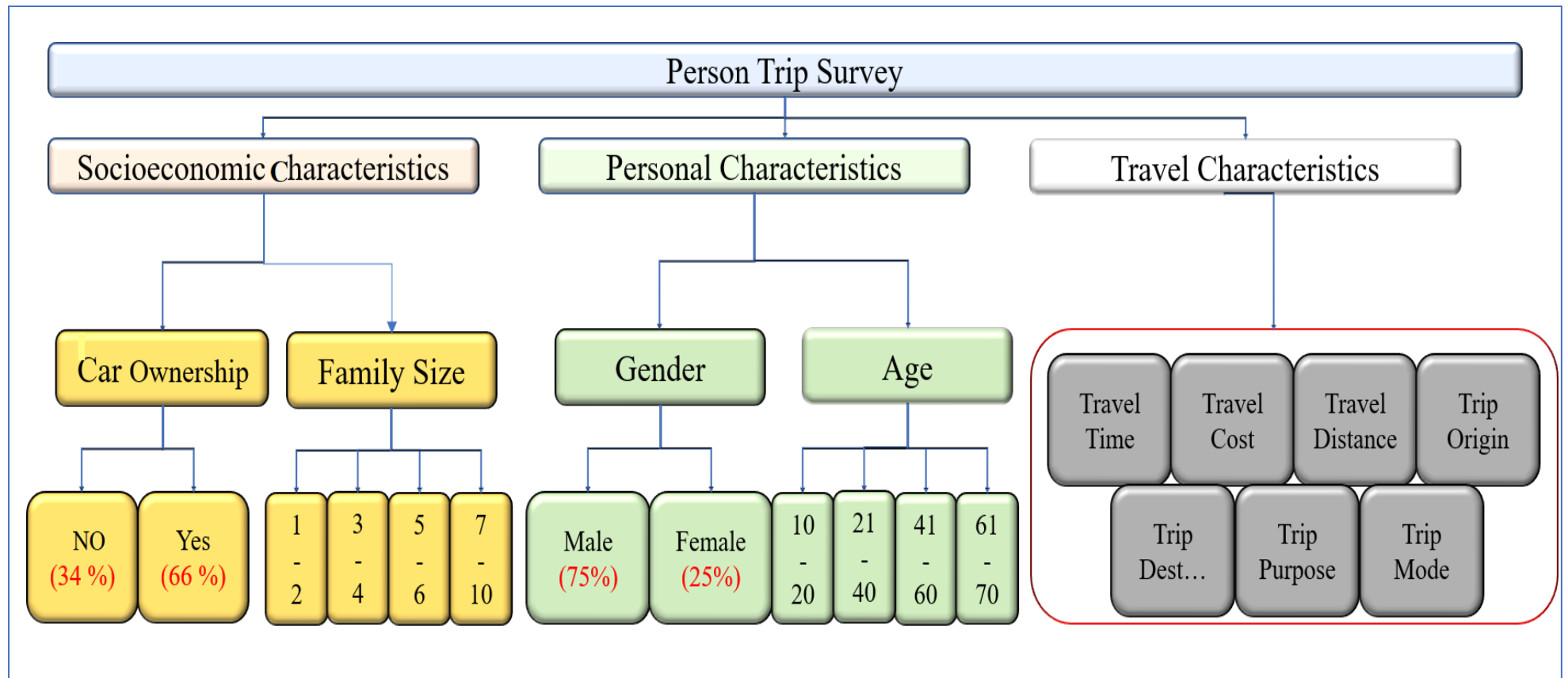


Figure 3.9 Collected data through Final Report 8 Transportation (2009) and survey

To determine the spot speeds of vehicles. One of the manual methods employed for this purpose was the use of an enoscope. A base length of approximately 90 meters was marked on the road at the survey location. The enoscope was positioned at one end of this base length, with the observer located at the other end.

Table 3.5 Summary of collected data (Final Report 8 Transportation, 2009)

Surveyed households	5,000
Responded households	4,865
Effectively responded households	4,153
Number of households owning cars	1,638
Ratio of car ownership	39.4%
Total number of family members	30,969
Average number of family members	7.5
Total number of persons going out	12,179
Ratio of going-out	39.3%
Total number of trips	25,643
Unit rate of trips (net)	2.1 trips/person

The statistics in Table 3.6 provides an overview of each category, including, mean, standard deviation, min, median and max values

Table 3.6: statistics of the dependent and independent variables

Category	Mean	Median	Max	Min	Std
Trip Generation	121	83	582	5	101
Trip Attraction	121	110	312	32	54
Car Ownership	52	43	241	1	43
Student	44	40	166	1	28
Employee	54	45	193	1	38
Population	197	155	677	22	136
Pop Density	2	1	20	0	3

This setup allowed for the identification of the spot speed for each individual vehicle using the enoscope. After the speed was determined for each vehicle, other factors such as the number of stops, average delay time at each stop, and the distance between traffic zones were taken into

consideration. With these factors accounted for, the travel time for each mode of transportation was measured, as detailed in Equation 3.1.

$$T = \frac{D}{V} + \text{Number of stops} \times \text{delay time at stop} \quad (3.1)$$

The survey results and secondary data were compiled into an Excel sheet for analysis. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the Urban Transport Demand Model (UTDM) was applied to the collected data.

Based on the results from this model, the corridor for the BRT system was selected.

3.3.2 Zoning of The Kabul City

Kabul city is divided into 22 districts, also known as "nahias," each with its specific administration and governance structures. The districts are numbered and sometimes also have names associated with them, for example, District 1 is sometimes referred to as "Deh Afghanan." Each district varies in terms of population, development, and infrastructural facilities. As mentioned The city of Kabul spans 22 districts, covering a total area of 1025 square kilometres.

Data was collected from each of these districts, which are densely populated, with many housings more than 50,000 residents. This high population density may negatively impact the accuracy of results.

Many studies suggest the development of models for each traffic zone, which typically comprise smaller populations, to generate more precise results. In light of these recommendations, this study has divided the area of Kabul into 213 distinct traffic zones.

This division was based on the origin and destination addresses of each traveller; a process executed using Geographical Information System (GIS) software. A representative point, or centroid, was established in each of these traffic zones to facilitate data analysis (Figure 3.1).

These subdivisions will allow us to conduct a more detailed and examination of traffic patterns and behaviours. Moreover, it also helps to minimize the potential skewing effects of high population density on the research findings. By focusing on these smaller zones, we can ensure a more accurate representation of the local traffic conditions and thus provide a more solid foundation for any proposed traffic management solutions.

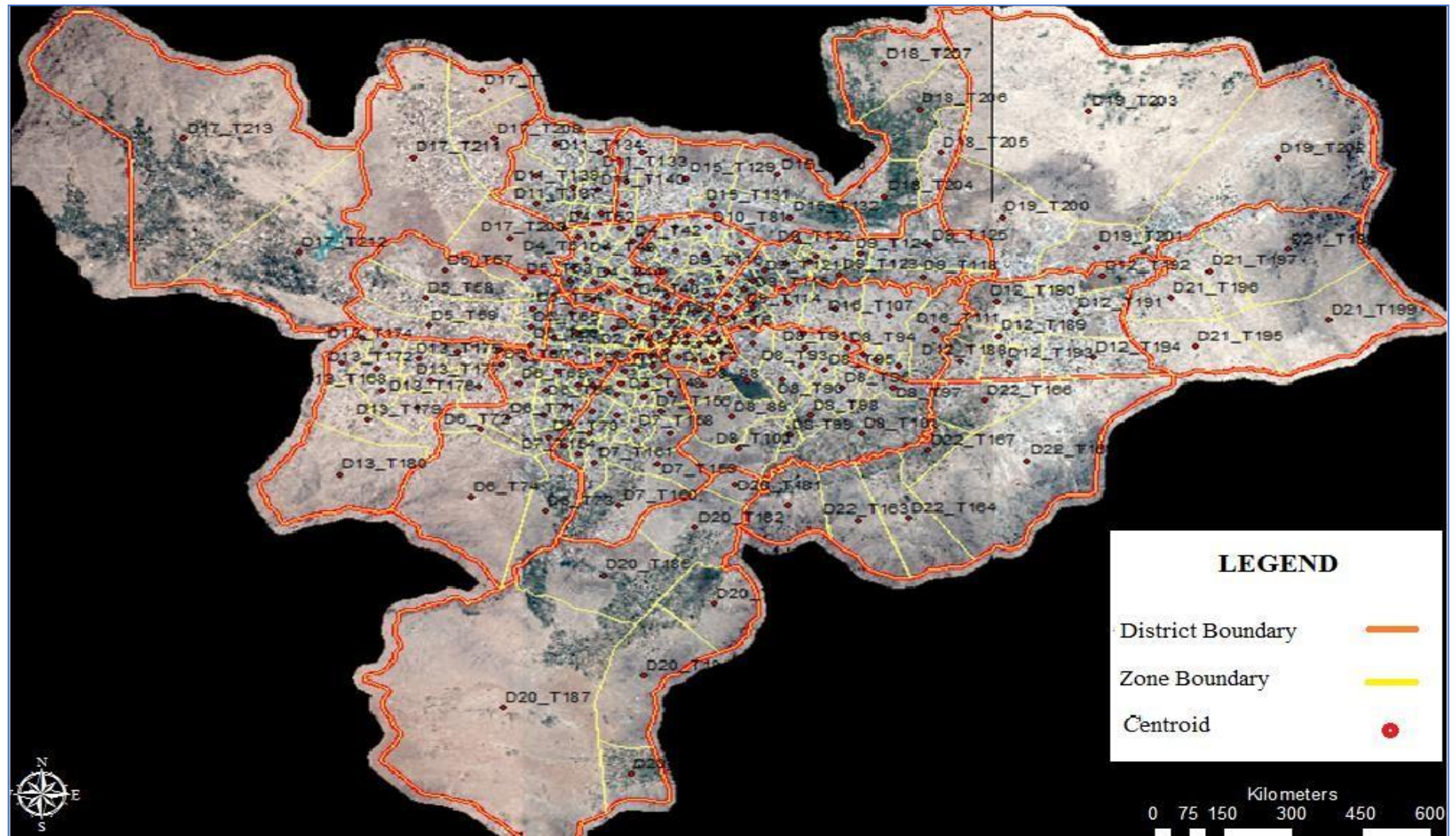


Figure 3.10 Centroids in 213 traffic zones in Kabul city

3.3.3 Trip Purpose and Trip Mode in Kabul City

Figure 3.11 is a pie chart that illustrates the distribution of trip purposes based on collected data. It reveals that 19% of individuals travel for work, which could involve commuting or work-related tasks; 22% for school, including students and educational staff commuting; 4% for business, encompassing entrepreneurs and others who travel for business operations; 3% for shopping, covering all forms of retail activity. The largest segment is home at 30%, signifying all trips made by individuals returning home after their activities. Lastly, 3% is attributed to other reasons not specifically categorized, such as social visits or recreational activities. This visual representation allows for an immediate comparison of the relative frequencies of each travel purpose

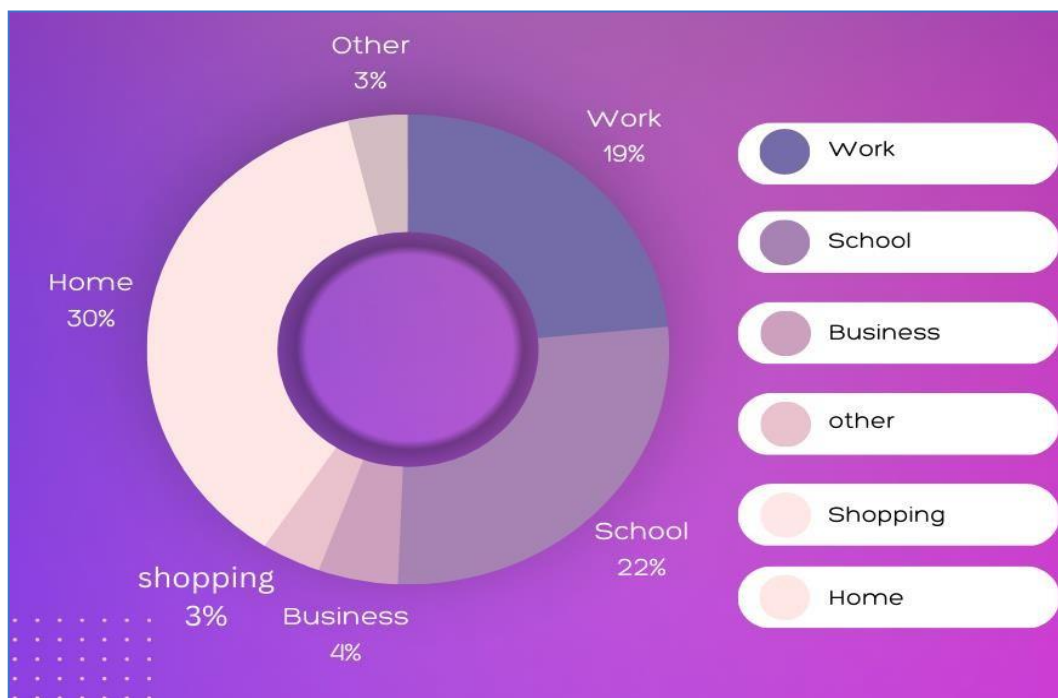


Figure 3.11 Trip purpose in Kabul city

Figure 3.12 displays the distribution of transportation modes used by individuals based on collected data. It shows that 25% of people primarily use a car, demonstrating its significance as a personal mode of transport. Large buses are used by 12% of the population, illustrating their role in public transportation. Mini and micro-buses are used by 6% and 15% of individuals, respectively, indicating their role in bridging the gap between personal and public transport. The largest segment, however, is walking, which accounts for 42% of the chosen modes of transport, emphasizing its prevalence as a sustainable and health-conscious choice. This chart visually summarizes the relative popularity of each mode of transport.

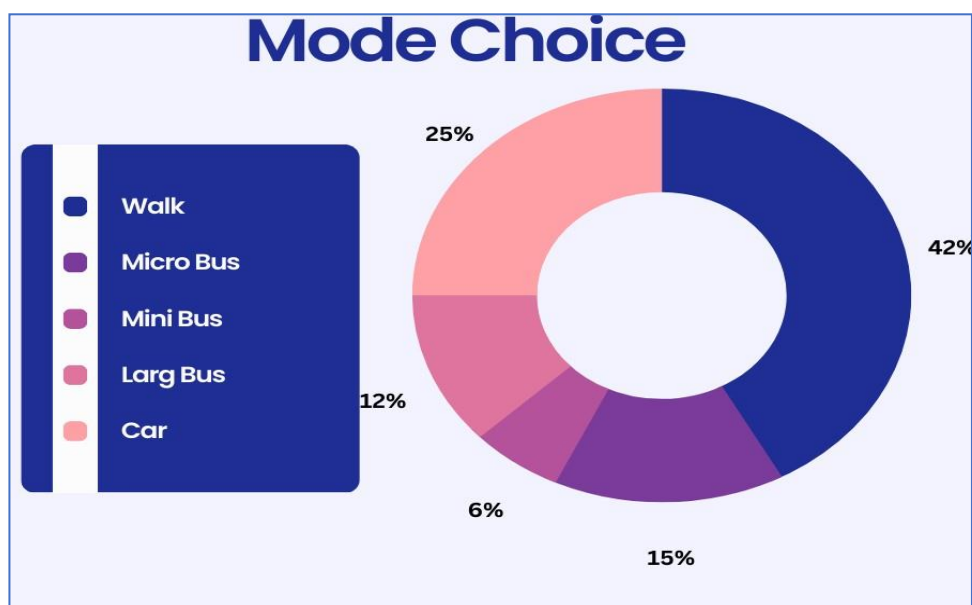


Figure 3.12 Trip Mode in Kabul city

3.4 Analysing of Trip Generation Model

The trip generation stage of the classical transport model aims to predict the total number of trips produced by the Origin zone (O_i) and attracted to the Destination zone (D_j) in the study area. In other words, trip generation is the process by which measures of city activities are translated into numbers of trip generation and attraction among traffic zones in a specific study area. Moreover, the goal of the trip production and attraction step is to interpret the rationale behind travellers behaviour and generate a mathematical association that synthesizes the trip-making pattern based on observed trips, land use, and household characteristics. This can be accomplished in a variety of ways, beginning with the trips of individuals or households that live in each zone, or directly with any of the zone's characteristics, such as population, employment, number of vehicles, and etc.

There are many factors that affect trip generation, including income, car ownership, family size, household structure, land value, residential density, land use, school capacity, hospital capacity, and accessibility. In this study, car ownership and population and employment are considered as influential factors or independent variables for trip production, and population, employment and density for trip attraction using Multiple Linear Regression model.

3.4.1 Multiple Linear Regression Model

Multiple linear regression is a statistical technique that uses several explanatory variables to predict the outcome of a response variable. The goal of multiple linear regression is to model the linear relationship between the explanatory (independent) variables and response (dependent) variable.

In general, a multiple linear regression model provides insight into the relationship between the dependent variable and independent variables. For example, multiple linear regression can indicate how much trips may vary for every one-point increase in the population, keeping all other variables unchanged. The mathematical representation of the multiple linear regression model is given by:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_n X_n + \varepsilon \quad (3.2)$$

Where: (3.2)

Y is the dependent variable.

X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are the independent variables.

$\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n$ are the parameters of the model.

ε is the error term, which is a random variable that adds noise to the linear relationship.

The parameters β_i represent the change in the average value of Y due to a one-unit change in X_i holding all other predictors fixed.

Validation of model: The trip generation and trip attraction models were trained and validated using a 70/30 data split. The training set comprised 70% of the data, used to develop the models, while the remaining 30% formed the testing set, used to evaluate their predictive performance. The R-squared (R^2) value, indicating the proportion of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables, was used to measure model performance. The trip generation model achieved an R^2 of 0.69, and the trip attraction model had an R^2 of 0.65 on the testing data. These results demonstrate a strong predictive capability, indicating that the models are well-fitted and can reliably predict trip generation and attraction based on the selected variables.

Model	R^2 (Model)	R^2 (Testing)	Data Split
Trip Generation	0.67	0.69	70% / 30%
Trip Attraction	0.67	0.65	70% / 30%

Ultimately, using the specified explanatory variables, the models were developed to determine trip generation and trip attraction. This not only provides valuable insights but also paves the ground for the next step in the process.

Tables 3.7 and 3.8 show the parameters and the relationships between the dependent and independent variables for each of the two models. In case of Trip production, the intercept is the expected mean value of Y when all $X=0$. The coefficient for 'Car Ownership' is 3.111.

Table 3.7 Coefficients for trip production

Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error	T Value
Population	0.124	0.0146	4.5678
Employment	0.7851	0.987	7.981
Car Ownership	3.111	3.875	2.444
Constant	35.98		
R ²	0.67		

Table 3.8 Coefficients for trip attraction

Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error	T Value
Population	0.776	0.0455	7.987
Employment	0.134	0.654	6.456
Population density	0.998	0.,568	4.321
Constant	145.7		
R ²	0.5674		

This means that for every one unit increase in 'Car Ownership', we expect an increase of approximately 3.111 units in trip production. It indicating that 'Car Ownership' is a statistically significant predictor of trip production. The coefficient for population is 0.124. This means that for every one unit increase in population, we expect an increase of approximately 0.124 units in trip production and population is also a statistically significant predictor of trip production. Meanwhile, the result shows that employment is also significant. The t-statistic is the coefficient divided by its standard error. It is used to test the hypothesis that the coefficient is different from 0. The p-value is the probability of observing a t-statistic as extreme as the one calculated (or more so) under the null hypothesis. The standard error is a measure of the variability in the estimate for the coefficient. It can be used to construct confidence intervals for the coefficient.

In case of Trip attraction, the coefficient for employment is 0.134. This means that for every one unit increase in employment, we expect an increase of approximately 0.134 units in trip attraction and employment is a statistically significant predictor of trip attraction. The coefficient for population is 0.776. This means that for every one unit increase in student, we expect an increase of approximately 0.42969 units in trip attraction. **Similarly, population density is also significant.**

After the model has been developed and fitted to the historical data, there is a mathematical equation that expresses the dependent variable as a function of the independent variables.

Multiple linear regression can be used to make forecasts for 2017 by inputting the values of the independent variables.

Figure 3.13 presents a graphical representation of the trip production and trip attraction across the 213 traffic zones in Kabul City. The figure provides an overview of how trip production and attraction are distributed across the city. This could offer insights into the flow of people within the city and highlight areas of high activity.

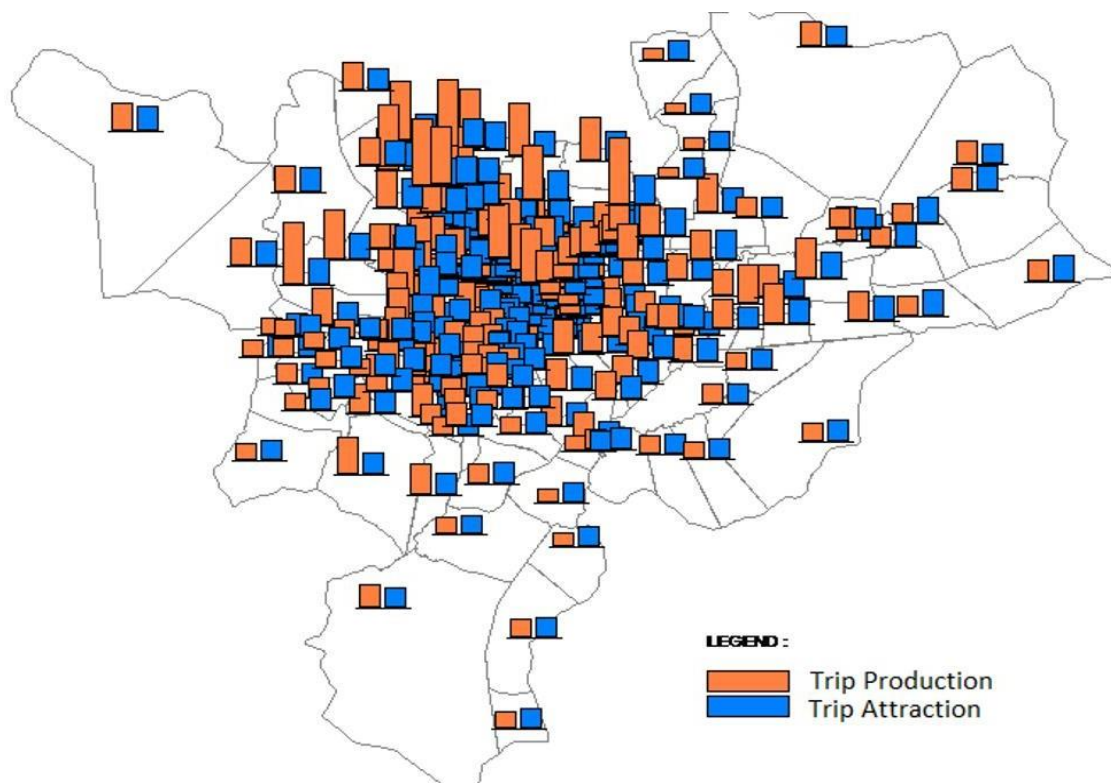


Figure 3.13 Trip production and attraction in Kabul city

3.5 Analysing of Trip Distribution Model

Trip distribution represents the second phase in the Urban Transportation Demand Modelling (UTDM) process. This stage involves the decision-making process of a travellers determining their route from one traffic zone to another, guided by their specific journey's purpose. An origin traffic zone indicates the initial location where a traveller embarks, while the destination traffic zone represents the final point of the travel. Consequently, an origin-destination (O-D) matrix offers a complete view of trip distribution (Modi et al., 2011). A classic representation of an O-D matrix is shown in Table 3.8. Various models exist for examining trip distribution, inclusive of Growth Factor models, which include the Detroit model, Average factor model, Uniform

model, Fratar model, Furness model and Synthetic models (Gravity model, Opportunity model, Intervening Opportunity model, and Competing Opportunity model). This research employs the Gravity model for discerning trip distribution across 213 traffic zones throughout Kabul city.

Table 3.9 Notation of trip distribution matrix

Traffic zone	1	2	3	...	j	...	n	O _i
1	T ₁₁	T ₁₂	T ₁₃	...	T _{1j}	...	T _{1n}	O ₁
2	T ₂₁	T ₂₂	T ₂₃	...	T _{2j}	...	T _{2n}	O ₂
3	T ₃₁	T ₃₂	T ₃₃	...	T _{3j}	...	T _{3n}	O ₃
⋮	⋮
	T _{i1}	T _{i2}	T _{i3}	...	T _{ij}	...	T _{in}	O _i
⋮	⋮
n	T _{ni}	T _{n2}	T _{n3}	...	T _{nj}	...	T _{nn}	O _n
D _j	D ₁	D ₂	D ₃	...	D _j	...	D _n	T

$$\text{Where,} \quad D_j = \sum_i T_{ij} \quad O_j = \sum_i T_{ij} \quad T = \sum_{ij} T_{ij}$$

The Gravity Model is a popular method used in transportation planning to predict the flow of traffic between origins and destinations. This model is so named because it was inspired by Newton's Law of Gravity, which states that every particle in the universe attracts every other particle with a force directly proportional to the product of their masses and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between their centres. Similarly, the Gravity Model in transportation planning states that the number of trips between two zones is directly proportional to the product of the attractiveness of the zones and inversely proportional to the travel cost (e.g., distance or time) between the zones.

$$T_{ij} = K \frac{G_i^\alpha A_j^\beta}{d_{ij}^\gamma} \quad (3.3)$$

where:

T_{ij} is the number of trips between zone i (origin) and zone j (destination)

G_i is the total number of trips originating from zone i

A_j is the total number of trips destined for zone j

d_{ij} is the distance between zone i and zone j

α and γ are the exponents that represent the effect of the origin and destination attractiveness on the number of trips, respectively, β is the distance exponent, which indicates the rate at which the number of trips decreases as the distance increases and k is a proportionality constant. In this version of the model, β will control how quickly the number of trips falls off as the distance increases. This model makes the assumption that the number of trips between two zones decreases as the distance between them increases, all else being equal. This assumption is often reasonable, but the exact relationship can depend on other factors, such as the availability and quality of transportation infrastructure, and these factors can be incorporated into the model if necessary. The necessary data for each traffic zone includes the number of trips originating from each zone (O_i), the number of trips destined for each zone (D_j) and the travel distance between each pair of zones (d_{ij}). Equation 3.3 is applied to estimate trip distribution in 213 traffic zones, using STRADA software. Similar to the approach adopted in the trip generation model, the development of the distribution model necessitated the estimation of intercepts and coefficients. These estimates consider impedance, defined as travel distance. The derived values are presented in Table 3.10 offering a clear demonstration of the methodological consistency applied across the various stages of this transportation modelling study.

Table 3.10 Coefficients for trip distribution in Kabul

Var. Name	Coeff	Std Error	t value
α	-0.129	0.0654	13.612
β	0.742	0.0214	19.987
γ	0.208	0.0081	9.345
k	1.236		
Corr. Coefficient	0.748		

As a result, the calculated coefficients are incorporated into Equation 3.4, facilitating the achievement of the target results in terms of trip distribution, as represented in Equation 3.4. Subsequently, the Origin-Destination (OD) matrix is prepared.

$$T_{ij} = 1.236 \frac{G_i^{-0.129} A_j^{0.742}}{d_{ij}^{0.0208}} \quad (3.4)$$

3.6 Analysing of Modal Split Model

In urban transportation planning, the third stage of travel demand modelling involves the consideration of modal split. This stage divides the total number of users across different modes of transport. Historically, the features of travellers were employed to ascertain mode choice after the initial stage of trip generation, utilizing either aggregate or disaggregate models. The choice of transport mode is integral to urban transportation demand modelling, particularly with regard to public transport usage, due to its lower emissions and more efficient road use compared to cars. Modal split is influenced by several factors, including user mode choice, which is contingent on user and mode characteristics, land-use, and population density (Santos et al., 2013). The model selection is a crucial process in urban transportation planning (NPTEL, 2007). There are various models to estimate mode choice, such as Trip-end modal split models, Trip-interchange modal split models, and aggregate and disaggregate models. If these models are based on zonal and inter-zonal information, they are considered aggregate. Conversely, if they are based on household or individual data, they are classified as disaggregate. In the case of aggregate models, they are applied following the gravity or distribution model. Three alternative functions are available: the Exponential function, Power function, and Logit curve function (Equations 3.5, 3.6, 3.7)

Table 3.11 Mode choice statistics

	Mean	Median	Mode	Std Dev	Min	Max
All Mode	117	105	85	50	21	273
Non-Motorized	15	13	4	7	4	41
Motorized	102	92	19	43	19	237
Walk	15	13	4	7	4	41
PT	62	56	10	27	10	153
Car	39	36	9	17	9	97
Minibus	37	33	5	18	5	98
Microbus	21	19	4	9	4	49
Bus	4	4	1	2	1	11
Para-Transit	58	53	9	25	9	142

$$y_{ij} = e^{b+\sum ax} \quad (3.5)$$

$$y_{ij} = b \prod \alpha \quad (3.6)$$

$$P = 1 + \frac{1}{1+e^{b+\sum ax}} \quad (3.7)$$

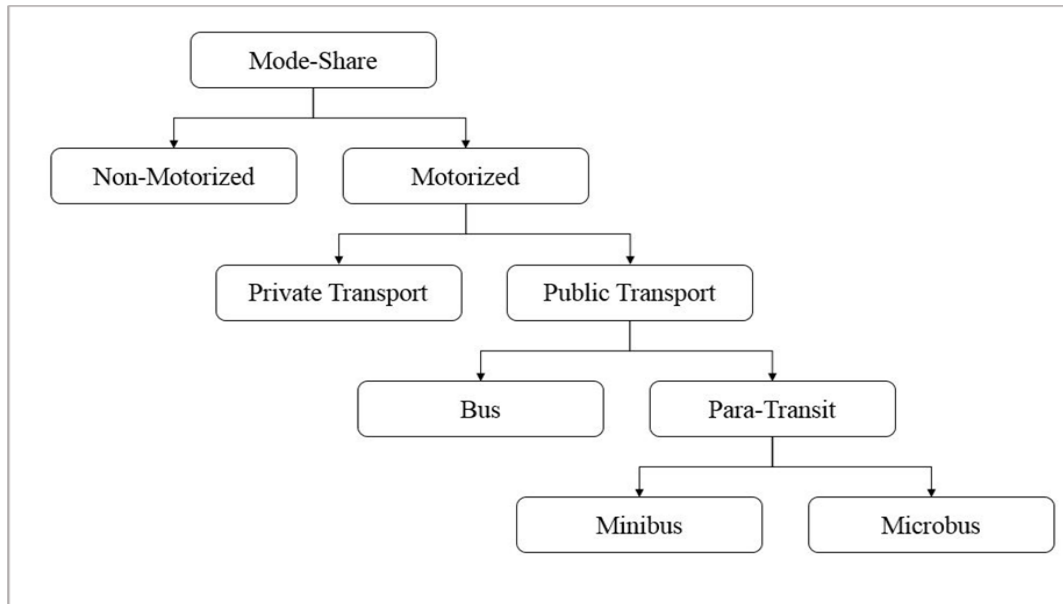


Figure 3.14 Methodology for mode share in Kabul City

The Logit curve function (Equation 3.7) is used to estimate the mode share in Kabul city. At present, three types of urban transport modes are used in the city: walking, public transport (including buses, minibuses, and microbuses), and private transport (including cars and motorcycles). This study considers the mode share among walking, public transport, and private transport to discern residents' behaviour regarding mode choice based on average travel time in Kabul city. Travel time or impedance is estimated from the minimum path distance between traffic zones (in km). Initially, the trips are categorized into motorized and non-motorized. Then, they are further divided into private and public transport. Public transport users are further segmented into para-transit and bus users, and para-transit users are subsequently divided into minibus and microbus users. The average travel time for each transport mode is estimated by dividing the road distance by the existing transport mode's speed. Figure 3.14 outlines these processes.

In alignment with the processes of trip generation and trip distribution, the estimation of mode share within the city also necessitates the modelling of coefficients. This modelling has been executed using the STRAD software, a tool specifically designed for transport demand modelling. Table 3.11 presents the calculated coefficient rates for each existing mode of transportation currently in use in Kabul city. This data serves as a crucial foundation for

comprehensively understanding and predicting the transportation demands and preferences of the city's residents, thereby informing more effective and sustainable urban planning strategies.

Table 3.12 Coefficients for modal split in Kabul city

Var Name	Coeff	Std Error	t value
Travel time- motorized	0.3411	0.0023	4.256
Travel time- non-motorized	0.5678	0.0134	2.345
Constant	113	0	0
Corr. Coefficient	0.55	0	0
Travel time-PT	0.13644	0.00092	1.7024
Travel time-Car	0.22712	0.00536	0.938
Constant	45.2	0	0
Corr. Coefficient	0.22	0	0
Trave time bus	0.23877	0.00161	2.9792
Trave time-paratransit	0.39746	0.00938	1.6415
Constant	79.1	0	0
Corr. Coefficient	0.385	0	0
Trave time-minibus	1.137	0.007666667	14.18667
Trave time-microbus	1.892667	0.044666667	7.816667
Constant	376.6667	0	0
Corr. Coefficient	0.183333 3	0	0

The correlation coefficient rates for the existing modes have been determined to be satisfactory for the development of the models. Ultimately, Table 3.11 presents the results of the mode share across the 22 districts of Kabul city. In addition to this, the mode share results concerning the 213 traffic zones are depicted in Figures 3.15 and 3.16. Furthermore, the detailed mode choice in 213 zones indicates in Appendix (Table A 1). In the context of transportation models, especially concerning mode share (the percentage of travelers using a particular type of transportation), the correlation coefficient might demonstrate how closely related certain variables are to these outcomes. For instance, variables might include:

Table 3.13 Mode share in 22 districts of Kabul city.

Dis No	Non - Motorized	Motorized	Public Transport	Private Transport	Bus	Para Transit	Minibus	Microbus
1	21771	195938	113209	82729	7019	106190	63170	43019
2	24778	200480	117134	83345	7379	109755	66415	43340
3	26861	217333	129423	87910	8283	121140	74548	46592
4	38411	307285	185069	122215	12029	173040	108265	64774
5	28459	206325	128064	78261	8580	119483	77222	42261
6	26660	195503	119968	75535	7918	112050	71261	40789
7	47888	271365	178782	92583	12693	166088	114241	51847
8	37540	230602	147478	83124	10176	137302	91584	45718
9	25724	231516	123475	108041	7162	116314	64454	51860
10	58608	266994	188849	78144	14353	174497	129173	45324
11	47911	271498	178869	92629	12700	166169	114297	51872
12	20061	147114	90275	56840	5958	84316	53623	30693
13	24235	160321	102531	57790	7075	95456	63672	31785
14	6613	40623	25035	15588	1677	23358	15096	8262
15	22591	228419	120485	107934	6868	113617	61809	51808
16	22352	110445	74945	35500	5471	69474	49239	20235
17	9435	76337	45459	30878	2909	42550	26184	16365
18	13431	23509	12855	10653	765	12090	6887	5203
19	4482	29994	17928	12067	1165	16762	10488	6275
20	6424	64950	33546	31405	1879	31667	16907	14760
21	14421	105757	62493	43264	4000	58493	35996	22497
22	4360	39242	20929	18313	1214	19715	10925	8790
Total	533015	3621548	2216799	1404749	147273	2069526	1325457	744069

This table appears to detail the usage of various modes of transport across different districts (Dis No). Modes of transport include Non-Motorized, Motorized, Public Transport, Private Transport, Bus, Para Transit, Minibus, and Microbus.

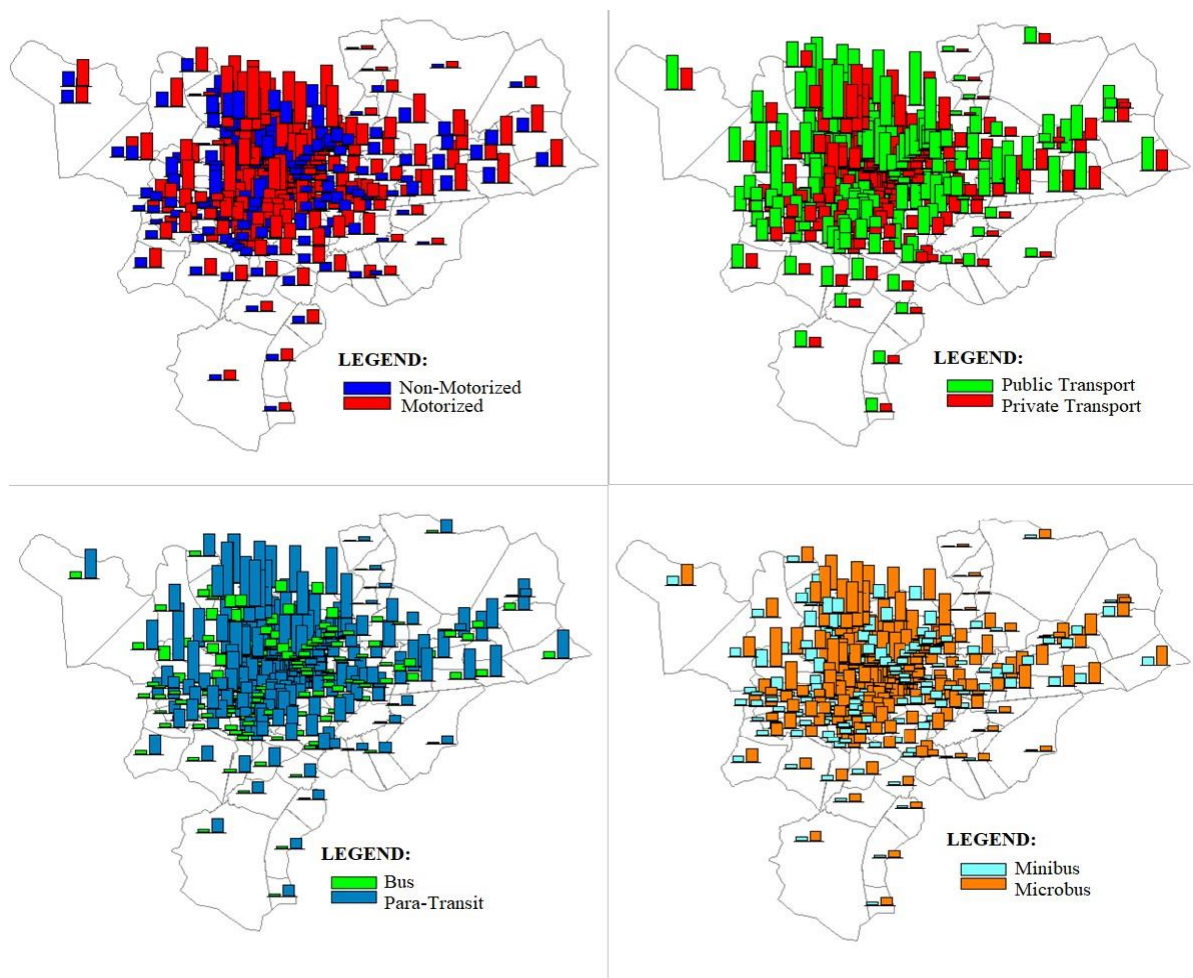


Figure 3.15 Mode share model in Kabul city

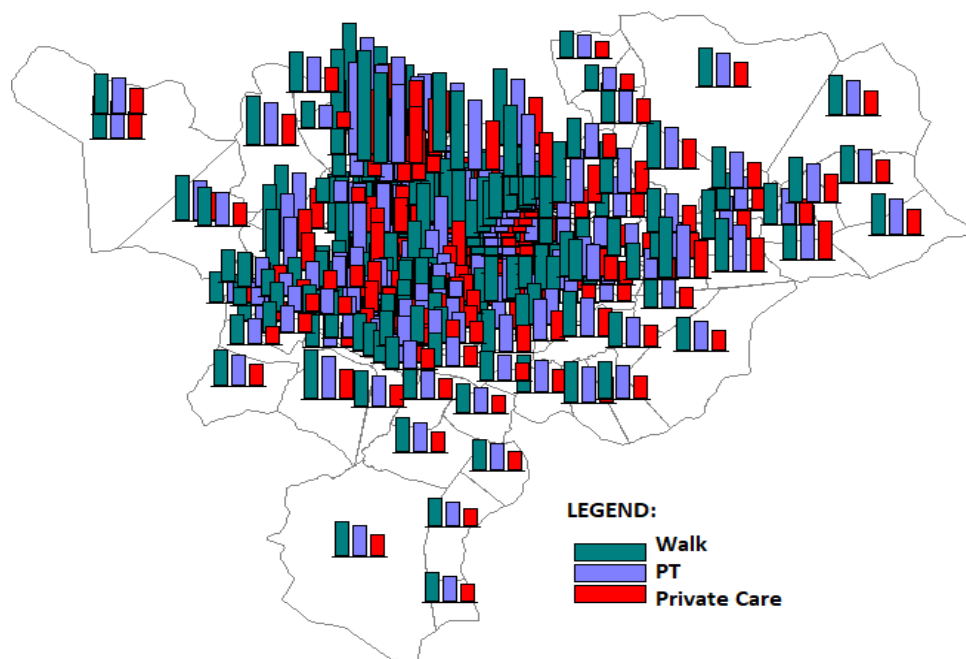


Figure 3.16 Trip by three traffic modes in Kabul city

3.7 Trip Assignment

In Trip assignment creates the final phase of the Urban Transportation Demand Model (UTDM) processes. After determining the volume of trip generation within each traffic zone, distributing trips from the origin to the destination zone, and determining the modal split, travellers assess the most suitable route for zone-to-zone travel. Various traffic assignment models exist, including the All-or-Nothing, Diversion, and Capacity Restraint models. This study focuses on the All-or-Nothing method to designate the route for each trip. The All-or-Nothing method aligns with the minimum path algorithm. A central assumption of this approach is the absence of congestion impacts and the belief that all drivers have a uniform perception of attributes when selecting a route. The road network plays a pivotal role in the traffic assignment model. This study represents the distinct segments of the network using two fundamental descriptors: links and nodes (as depicted in Figure 3.17). Specifically, the 2013 traffic zone in Kabul city comprises 389 links and 297 nodes.

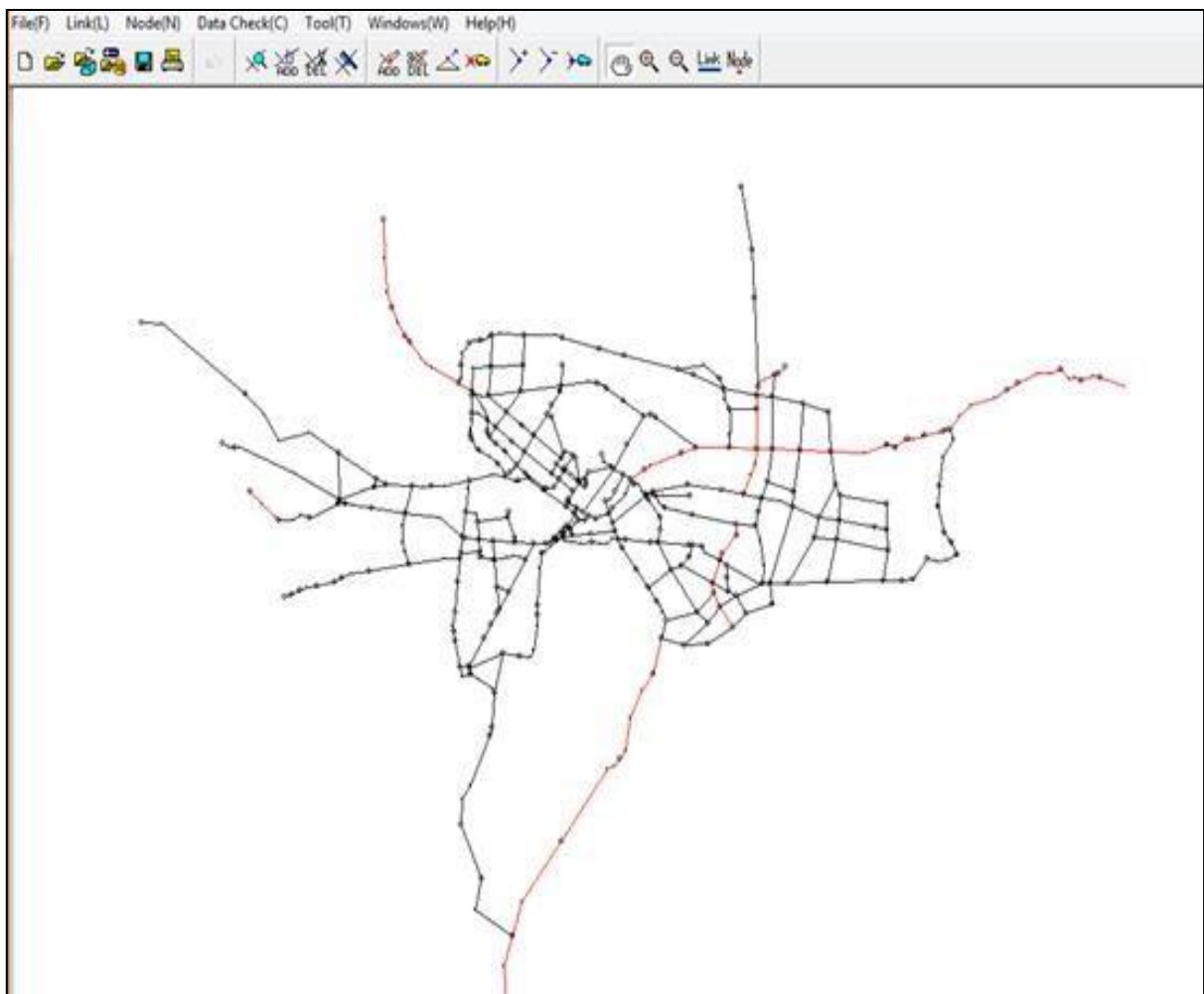


Figure 3.17 Kabul city PT road network by links and nodes

The Kabul network under consideration was systematically formulated using various parameters, namely: link name, node name, link distance, link velocity, link capacity, and link direction. The data for this network was precisely obtained from the Kabul Municipality. Subsequently, by utilizing the Kabul Road network, assignment parameters, and the OD (Origin-Destination) trip matrix specific to the public transport mode, a trip assignment model was constructed. This model was executed using the STRADA software, incorporating the 2017 travel demand data. In this approach, the Person Trip Origin Destination (PTOD) data is initially transformed into Vehicle Trip Origin Destination data. Ultimately, the Passenger Car Unit (PCU) values are derived. The outcomes of this assignment are illustrated in Figure 3.18.

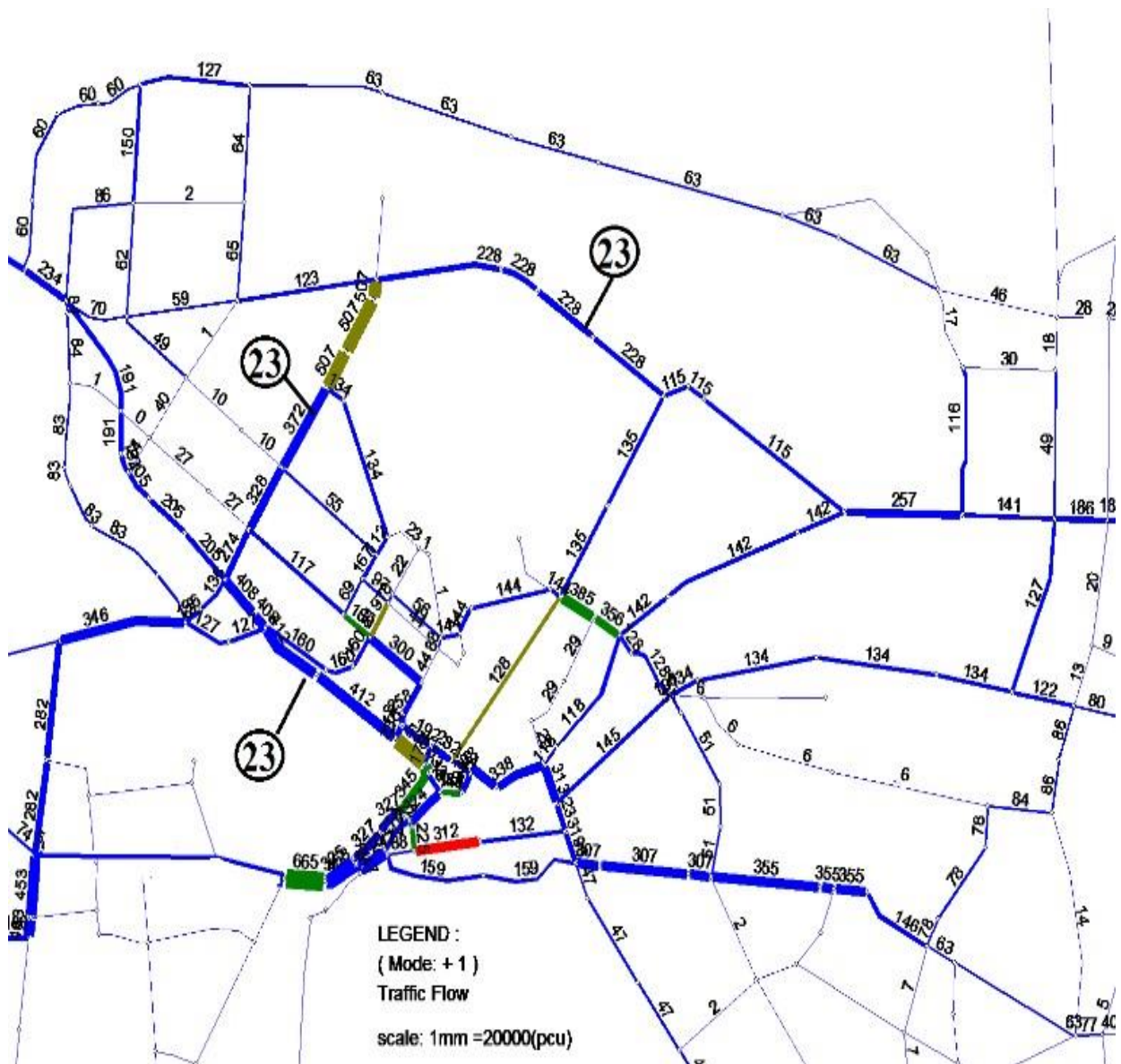


Figure 3.18 Trip assignment result in Kabul city

The findings from the trip assignment highlight that the travel demand for Public Transport (PT) on route 23 surpasses that of other routes. Drawing from the conclusions of the feasibility study, it becomes evident that the width of the route, which measures 50 meters with three lanes in each direction, is suitably configured to accommodate a BRT system. Given these considerations, route 23 emerges as a prime candidate for the implementation of the BRT system, spanning a length of 10 kilometres. This proposed BRT corridor, stretching from Kabul airport to the centre of the city, is shown in Figure 3.19.

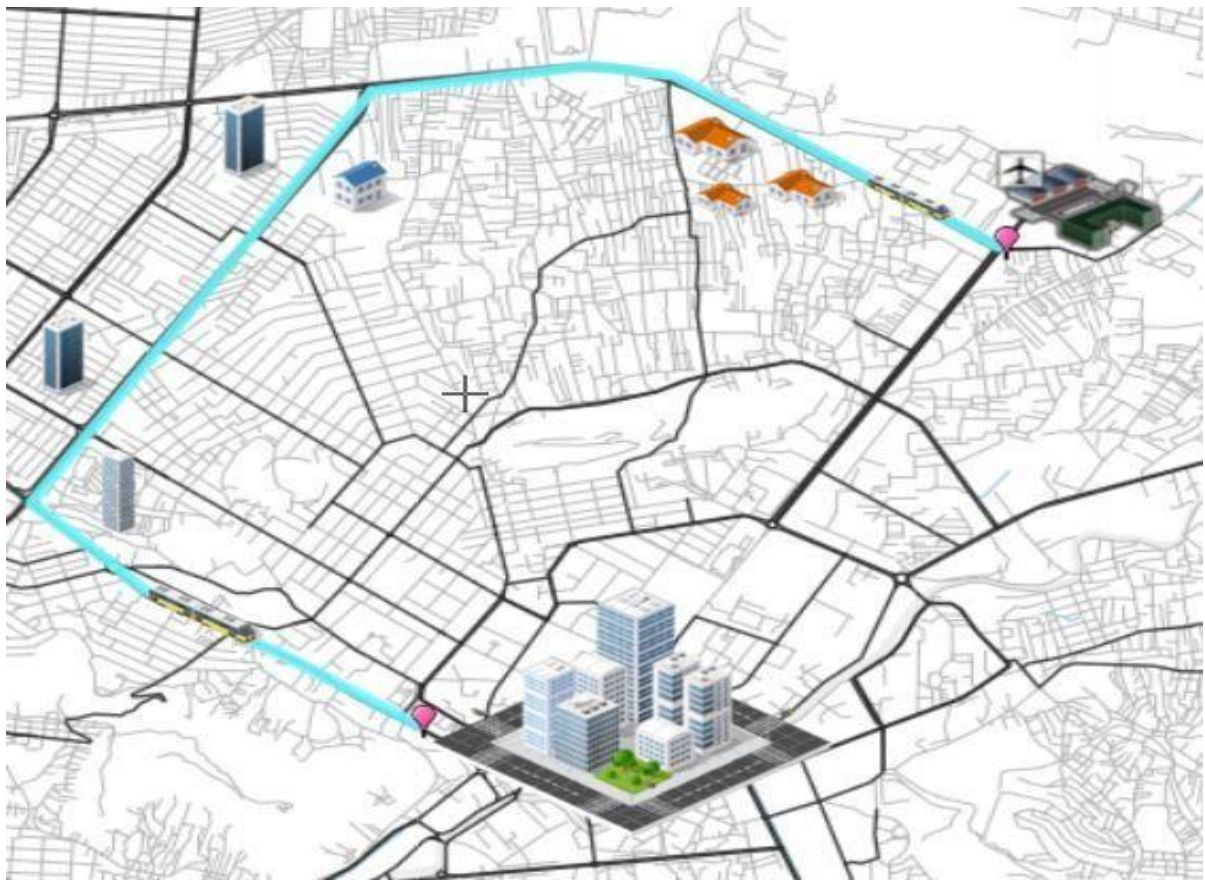


Figure 3.19 Purposed BRT system based on high travel demand in Kabul city

For development of trip assignment for Kabul city, only PT is considered. However, Kabul lacks a formal PT network with specific stations and terminals, as it has not had regular PT services for a long time.

The network depicted in Figure 3.19 represents PT network, By limiting the assignment to PT, the study aimed to provide a detailed understanding of this sector's dynamics, which is crucial for planning and improving public transport services in Kabul..

3.8 Summary

The Urban Travel Demand Modelling study for Kabul employed a range of analytical tools to interpret the city's transportation patterns. Through multiple linear regression, fundamental factors like population, employment, car ownership and density were identified as major contributors to trip generation. A significant trend was observed with most travel directed from suburban areas to the Central Business District (CBD). The Gravity Model was involved in mapping trip distributions across 213 traffic zones, revealing the city's primary travel routes.

The study examined the modal split in Kabul and found that many residents prefer low-capacity vehicles. Using the Logit curve function, the study got a clearer picture of these travel choices. Since the low-capacity vehicles are increasing and to be consider as a major threat to the urban transportation system. It is required to introduce MRT transit system with high technology in order to reduce low-capacity vehicles. Therefore, this research has conducted trip assignment to understand BRT possibilities in the city in terms of travel demand. For bus routes, the All-or-Nothing model identified route 23 as a top choice for a new BRT system. This route would link Kabul airport with the city centre. Overall, this research provides insights to improve transportation planning in Kabul.

CHAPTER 4

MODAL SHIFT ANALYSIS FOR BUS RAPID TRANSIT SYSTEM

4.1 General

A modal shift happens when one type of transport offers clear benefits over others, encouraging people to change their travel habits. In some growing cities, especially in developing countries, there is a rise in the use of smaller vehicles like motorcycles. This section focuses on applying the Ordinal Logistic Regression (OLR) model combined with Stated Preference (SP) data to understand the preferences of current users of autos, shared taxis, and private cars. The objective is to pinpoint the main factors that could motivate a shift to the upcoming BRT system. Aspects such as travel time, cost, wait time, time taken to walk to the station, the gap between stations, route and station design, availability of air conditioning, the purpose of the trip, possession of a driving license, car ownership, gender, and age are considered potential influences on the decision to opt for BRT. Subsequent sections will explore the study's location, methodology, data collection methods, and a summarized overview of the results.

4.2 Study Area

This research focuses on Jalalabad as the study location. Spanning an area of 127.3 square kilometres and 573m above sea level, Jalalabad is Afghanistan's fifth-largest city. With a population of 381,655, it comprises several districts (Figure 4.1) and Street Network Disconnectedness Index shown in Figure 4.2. Districts 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 show a higher population density than the remaining districts. Many residential structures here are built without prior planning. The City Centre ridges with markets, employment hubs, business establishments, and shopping areas (Figure 4.3), making it more attractive to inhabitants than other districts. Several key highways intersect the city Centre, such as the Jalalabad-Kabul, Jalalabad-Kunar, Jalalabad-Chaperhar, and Jalalabad-Khowgyani highways. A gap exists in comprehensive and efficient public transport for the city's residents. Most rely on low-capacity vehicles (LCVs) like autos and shared taxis for transportation. The spread of private vehicles adds to the city's transportation challenges, leading to congestion, accidents, and pollution. Nevertheless, a 2017 survey by the Jalalabad Municipality (Transportation report) suggests that the city's road networks possess adequate capacity to accommodate the travel demands of its inhabitants. Jalalabad's road system is categorized into five types: highway, arterial, secondary, community,

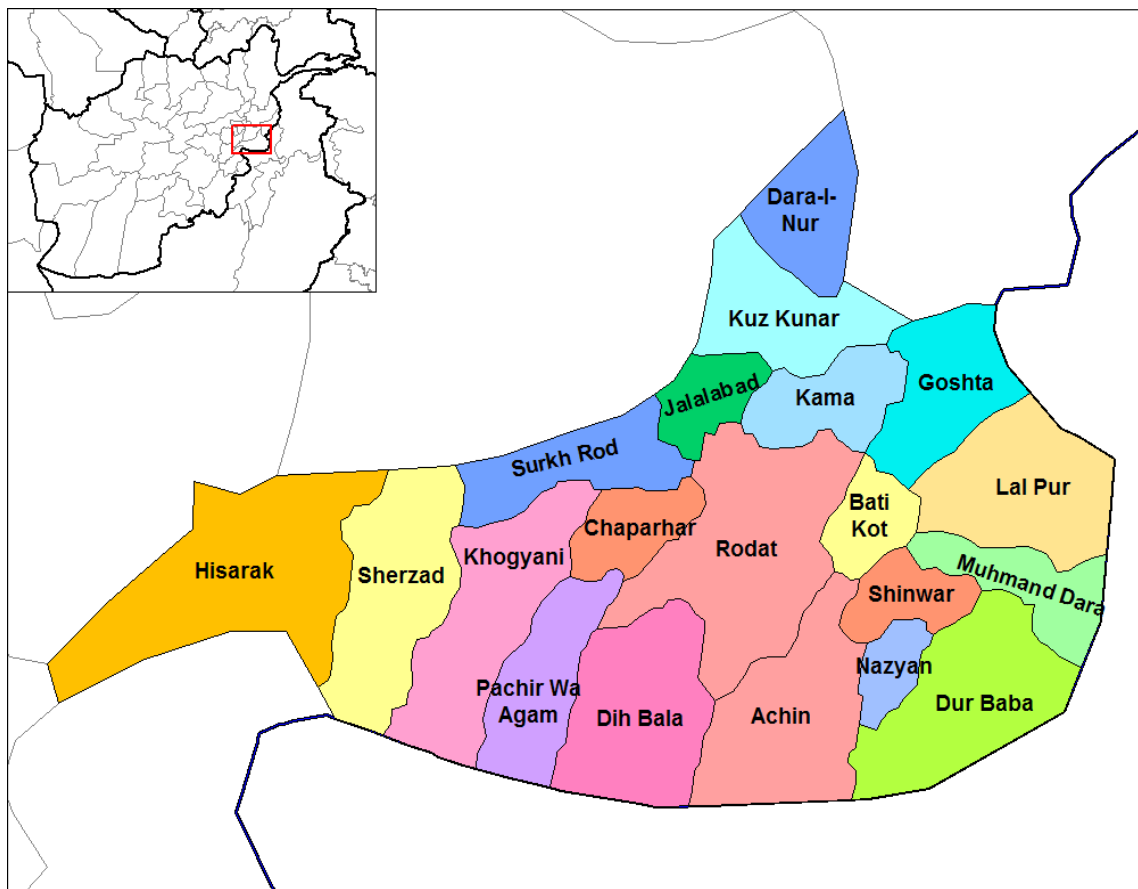


Figure 4.1 District map of the city (Source: GIS)

and other. Jalalabad is a busy city in eastern Afghanistan that has a mix of old and new elements in its streets and buildings. The roads are often full of different kinds of transport like bicycles, motorbikes, and small three-wheeled vehicles called auto-rickshaws. These vehicles are popular because they can easily move through the busy and narrow streets. Buses and shared taxis are also common and give people an affordable way to get around the city. Public transport is an important part of life in Jalalabad.

Buses usually follow set routes and are a cheap way for people to travel longer distances across the city. Shared taxis and auto-rickshaws provide more flexible options, and they can take people more directly to where they need to go.

The city itself has a variety of buildings, with some being very old and traditional, while others are newer. The roads connect different areas like shopping markets, homes, and government buildings. There's a lively feeling in Jalalabad with the busy streets, shops, and people moving about. As the city grows and changes, finding ways to manage the busy roads while keeping the special history and feel of the place is an ongoing task.

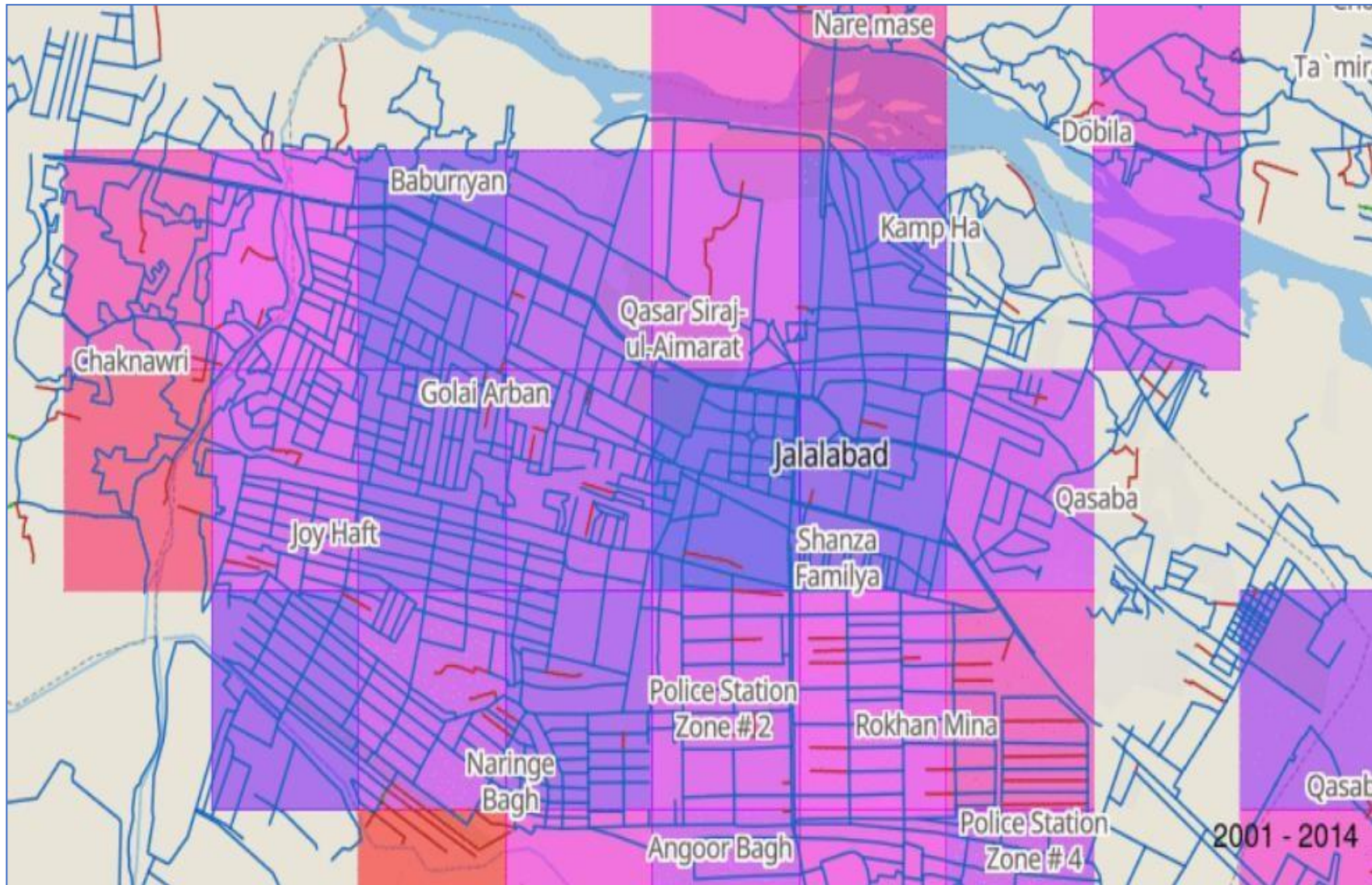


Figure 4.2 Street Network Disconnectedness Index (Source: GIS)

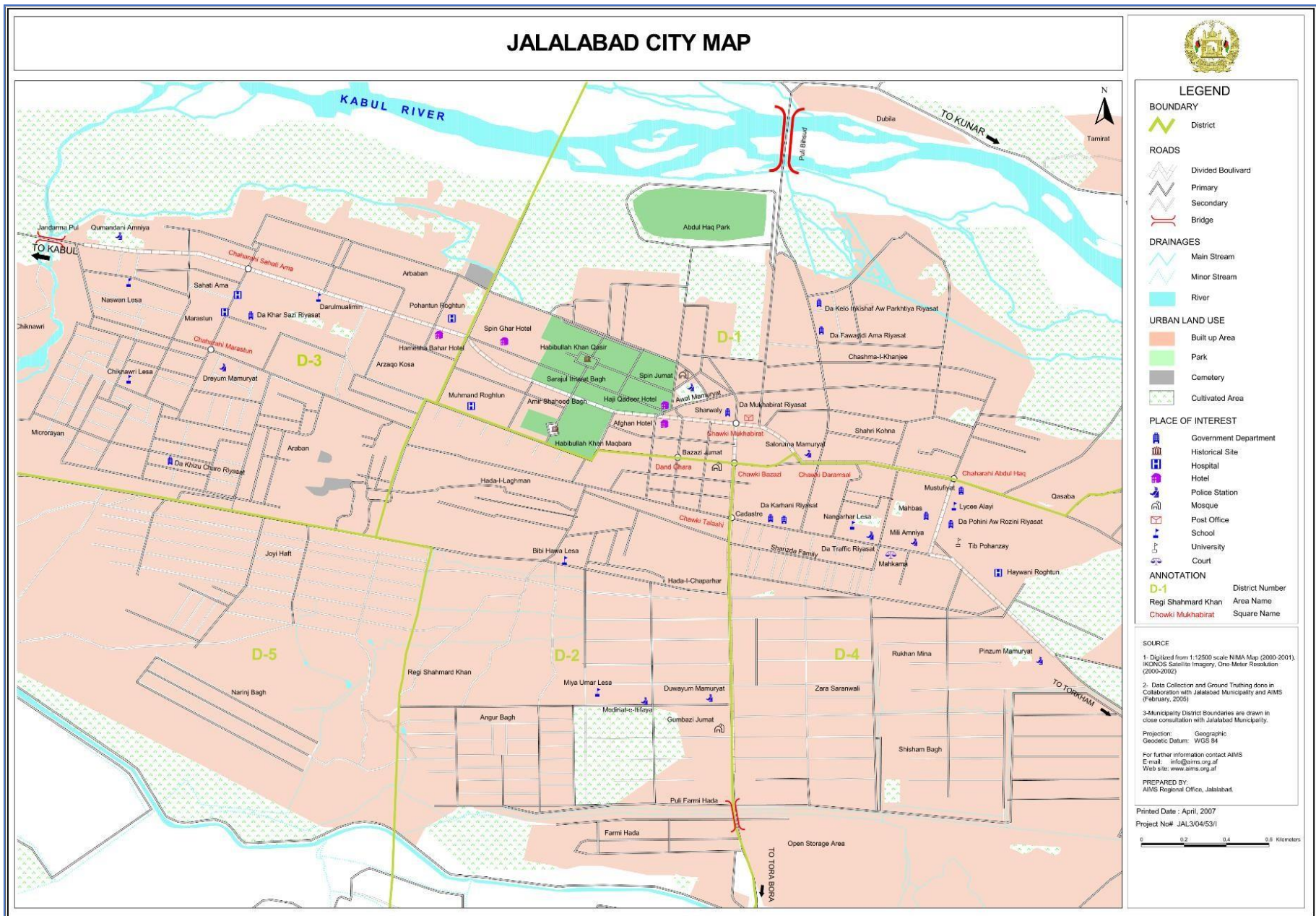


Figure 4.3 Jalalabad land-use map (USAID 20017)

4.3 Modal Shift Approaches

This study employs the Ordinal Logistic Regression (OLR) model to investigate the key factors influencing an individual's shift from current transportation modes such as rickshaws, taxis, and cars to the proposed BRT system. Before using the OLR model, a Stated Preference experiment (SP) is conducted to gauge the influence of various variables.

Drawing from local conditions and previous studies, several factors, including individual social characteristics, travel attributes, and proposed BRT features, are identified as potential influencers for the model's development. The subsequent sections investigate deeper into each step, clarifying the approach taken to meet the objective. Figure 4.4 provides a detailed flowchart defining the methodology, providing a clear graphical representation of the progressive processes and steps.

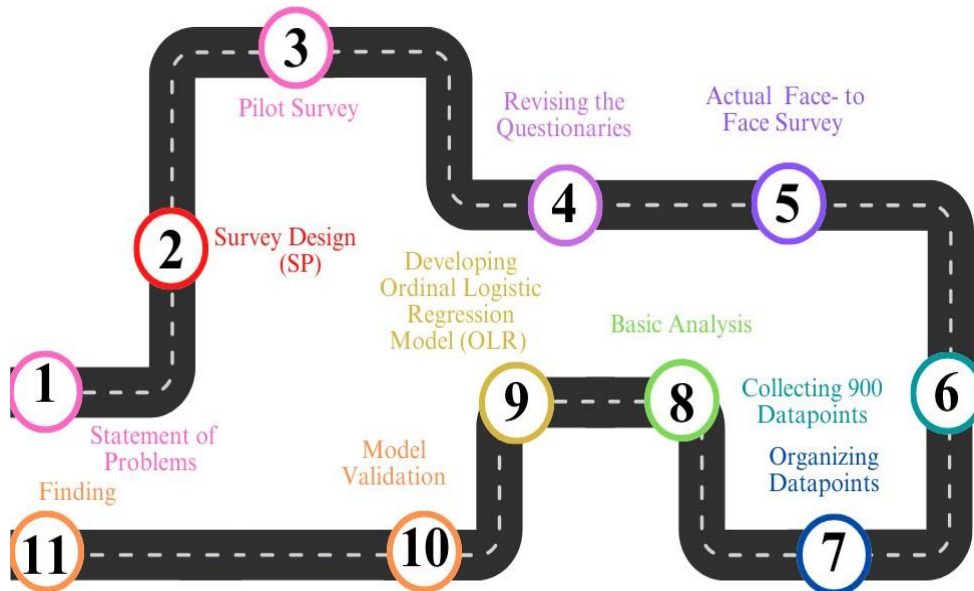


Figure 4.4 Methodology offering a visual representation of the processes

4.3.1 Examining Travel Mode Shifts Through Data Collection

The SP surveys are a key tool in research, as highlighted by Szolnoki G and colleagues in 2013. These surveys help researchers explore specific problems by breaking them down into parts for easy study.

There are three main sections in an SP survey. The first part looks at different personal details like age, gender, and whether a person owns a car. The second part asks about things related to individual travel, such as travel purpose and whether they have a driving license.

The final section presents distinct BRT scenarios, visualized in Appendix Figure A1. When crafting the last section, concerning BRT scenarios, a total of eight attributes were established, each varying in levels. Specifically, three attributes—travel time, travel cost, and waiting time—are designed with four levels, while the subsequent five attributes—walking time to the station, availability of air conditioning, stop spacing, corridor type, and station type—are characterized by two levels, as elaborated in Table 4.1 and illustrated in Figure 4.5.

The reasoning behind choosing these particular parameters is explained in the subsequent text: Travel Time (TT): Seeing time as a valuable, limited resource is essential since it's akin to currency. The amount of time spent on travel directly affects people's well-being, joy, and economic status.

Travel Cost (TC): In a nation like Afghanistan, which has one of the lowest GDPs, the impact of any expense, including travel cost, is profound on the citizens' quality of life, making it a crucial element to examine.

Air Conditioning in Public Transport (PT): The inclusion of air conditioning in PT systems is tied closely to the local weather conditions.

Corridor Type: The choice of a BRT corridor can substantially affect the performance of the BRT system.

Distance Between Stations: Given the predominantly unplanned housing in Jalalabad city, meticulous planning is necessary when deciding the location and spacing of stations.

Station Type: BRT system designs commonly involve protected and non-protected stations, with the type being dependent on local conditions.

Employing all attributes and levels in a full factorial design would lead to an unmanageable number of questions ($43 \times 25 = 1075$), making field application impractical. Therefore, an orthogonal fractional factorial design was used to meld characteristics and attribute levels, resulting in 16 questions (BRT Scenarios) being incorporated, summarizing all attributes and levels (refer to Table 4.2).

Table 4.1 Monitored characteristics and levels of attributes considered for the SP Survey

Scenario	Attributes	Level of Attributes
BRT	Travel cost (TC)	10 Afg, 20 Afg, 30 Afg, 40 Afg
	Travel time (TT)	35 min, 45 min, 55 min, 60 min
	Waiting Time (WT)	5 min, 8 min, 10 min, 15 min
	Walking time to station (WTS)	5 min, 10 min
	Air-condition (AC)	Yes, No
	Station type (ST)	Protected (P), Non-Protected (N-P)
	Distance between stations (SD)	500 m - 800 m, 800 m -1000 m
	Corridor type (CT)	Dedicated (D), Mixed (M)

Table 4.2 Presented BRT scenarios to participants

BRT Scenarios	TC (Afg)	TT (min)	WT (min)	SD (m)	WTS (min)	ST	AC	CT
1	30	55	5	500 - 800	10	P	Yes	M
2	40	35	15	800 -1000	10	N-P	Yes	M
3	40	45	10	500 - 800	10	P	No	D
4	10	35	5	500 - 800	5	N-P	No	M
5	20	35	8	500 - 800	10	P	Yes	D
6	10	55	10	800 -1000	10	P	Yes	M
7	30	60	8	800 -1000	10	N-P	No	M
8	30	35	10	800 -1000	5	N-P	No	D
9	10	45	8	800 -1000	5	N-P	Yes	M
10	30	45	15	500 - 800	5	P	Yes	D
11	40	55	8	500 - 800	5	N-P	No	D
12	20	55	15	800 -1000	5	P	No	M
13	20	45	5	800 -1000	10	N-P	No	D
14	10	60	15	500 - 800	10	P	No	D
15	40	60	5	800 -1000	5	P	Yes	D
16	20	60	10	500 - 800	5	N-P	Yes	M

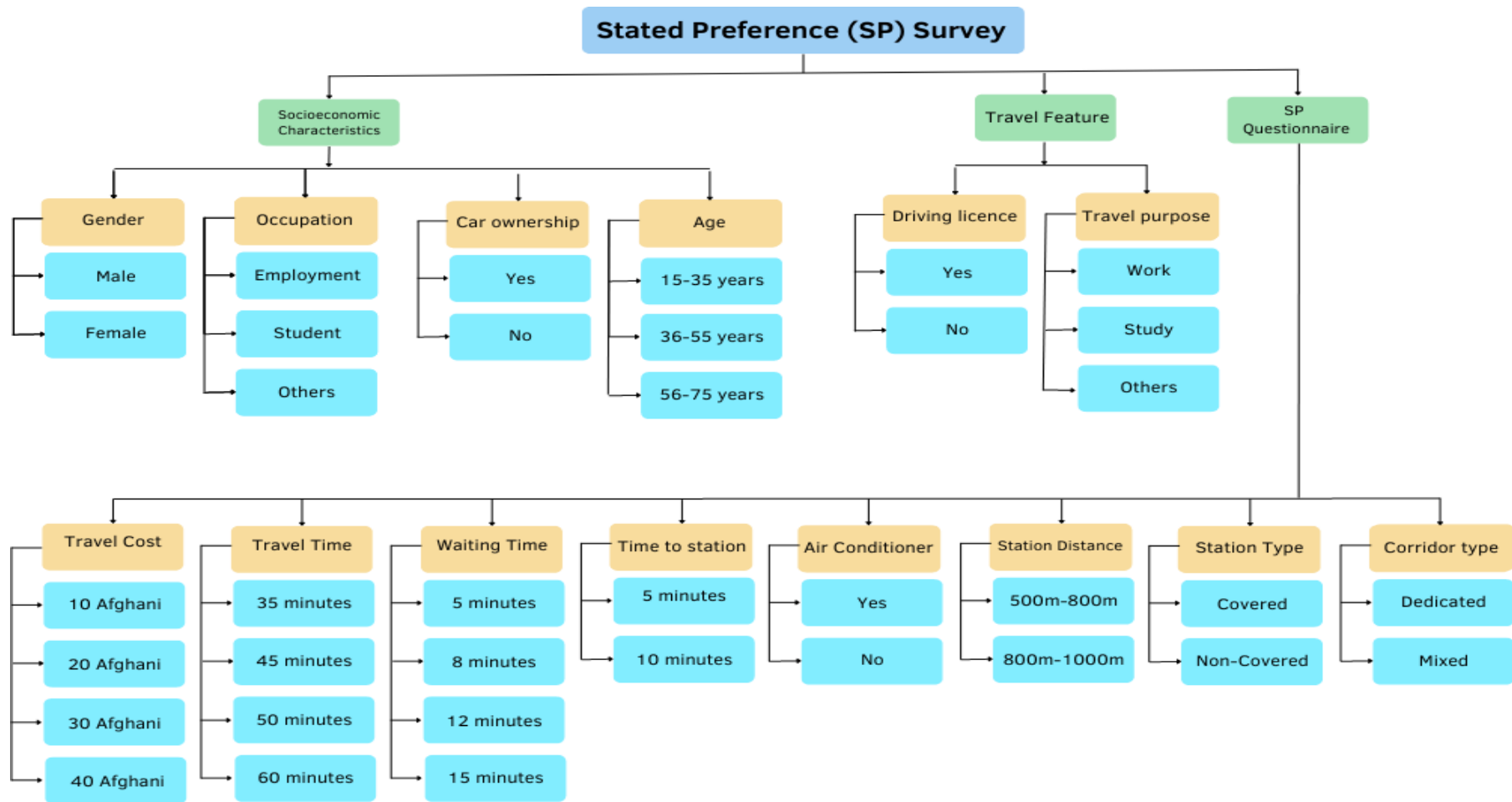


Figure 4.5 Collected data through the SP survey

SP experiment, questionnaires fall into three categories: choice, rating, and ranking. This study emphasizes the ranking method to glean additional insights into user preferences. The questionnaires utilize a four-tier satisfaction scale, ranging from "highly dissatisfied" to "highly satisfied." Every scenario is showcased to each specific mode user, who is then prompted to gauge the scenarios based on the provided satisfaction levels, while considering various BRT scenarios shaped by different attribute combinations that define BRT services. A blend of survey methods, including face-to-face, online, postal, and telephone, were deployed to collect data. Notably, face-to-face surveys bring several key benefits, such as structured interaction, personal engagement, and control within the context of the survey.

A pilot survey plays a crucial role in acquiring essential data while simultaneously minimizing unneeded exertion for both the researchers and the participants. Prior to undertaking the principal face-to-face interactions, an initial survey was carried out, accumulating 70 data points. Insights gathered demonstrated a prevalent reluctance among participants to reveal their consistent income.

As a result, adjustments were made to the survey forms, retaining only the car ownership variable and discarding the income variable. In this research, foundational information was extracted from the Jalalabad Master Plan. For the study's analysis, a primary Stated Preference (SP) survey was conducted in person at several travel-inducing locations, including educational institutions, transport terminals, retail centres, and government/non-government offices, as well as throughout the designated BRT pathway (10 km).

Figure 4.6 provides a visual representation of the data collection points (Bagrami, Zakir Abad, Qaser, Chawck, Shinwari, Angoor Bagh), accumulating a comprehensive total of 900 data points. This data was garnered from users of various transportation modes, namely, share-taxi, rickshaw, and private car, with each mode contributing 300 data points.

During the on-site survey, participants were chosen at random to uphold the precision of the data. Specific preferences, such as the cost and time of travel, wait and walk times, stop spacing, station and corridor types, and the presence of air conditioning for the anticipated BRT system, were compiled through Stated Preference (SP) queries. Table 4.3 outlines the data acquired, encapsulating aspects like gender, car possession, driving license status, age bracket, and travel intent. Figure 4.7 elucidates the connection between the likelihood of a modal shift and attributes, including travel duration, expense, and wait time, while Table 4.4 showcases the interrelations amongst the variables.

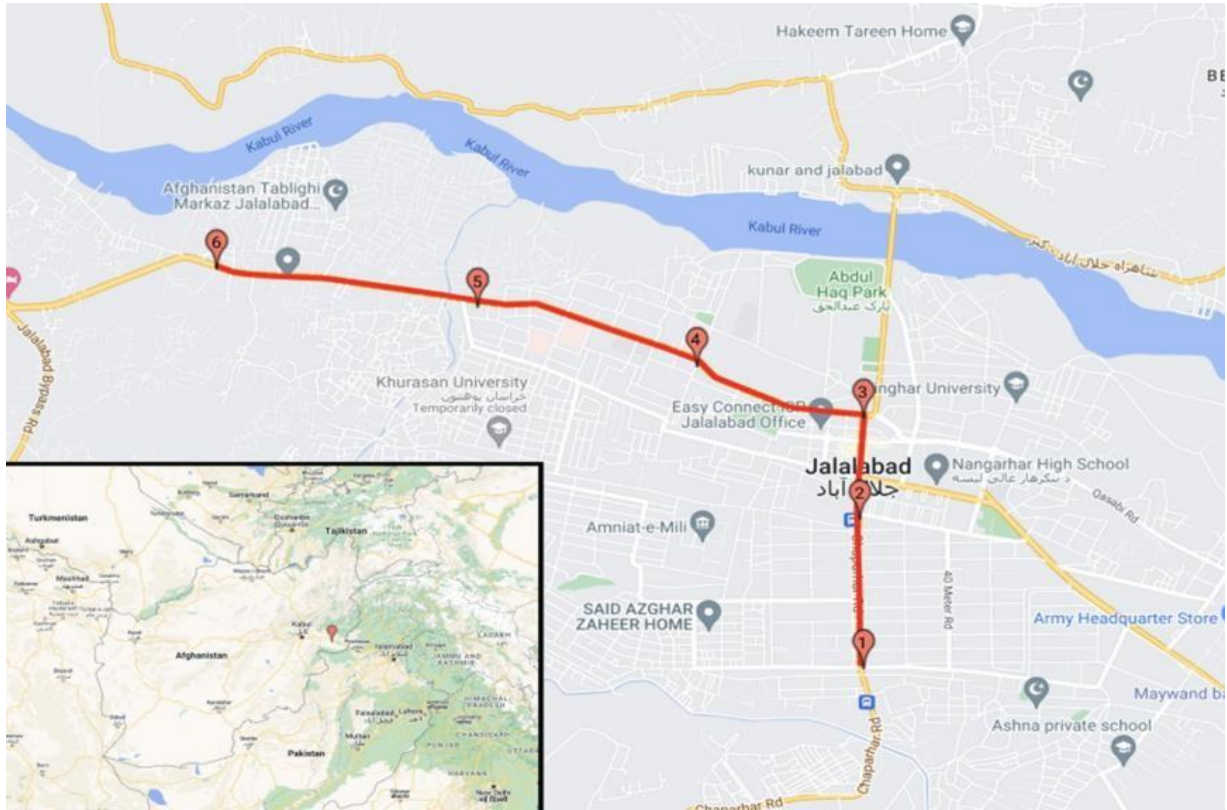


Figure 4.6 Planned ten-kilometre BRT route and interview sites in Jalalabad city

Table 4.3 Summary of gathered data and categorical variables

Variable	Description	Mode			Total
		Auto	Share-Taxi	Car	
Gender	Female (1)	95	106	16	217
	Male (0)	205	199	279	683
Car Ownership	Yes (1)	16	32	268	332
	No (0)	284	268	16	568
Driving License	Yes (1)	16	64	284	364
	No (0)	284	236	16	536
Age	15-35 (0)	186	101	103	390
	36-55 (1)	98	183	147	428
	55-75 (2)	16	16	50	82
Trip Purpose	Work (0)	176	192	109	477
	Study (1)	43	50	55	148
	Others (2)	81	58	136	275
Total Sample		300	300	300	900

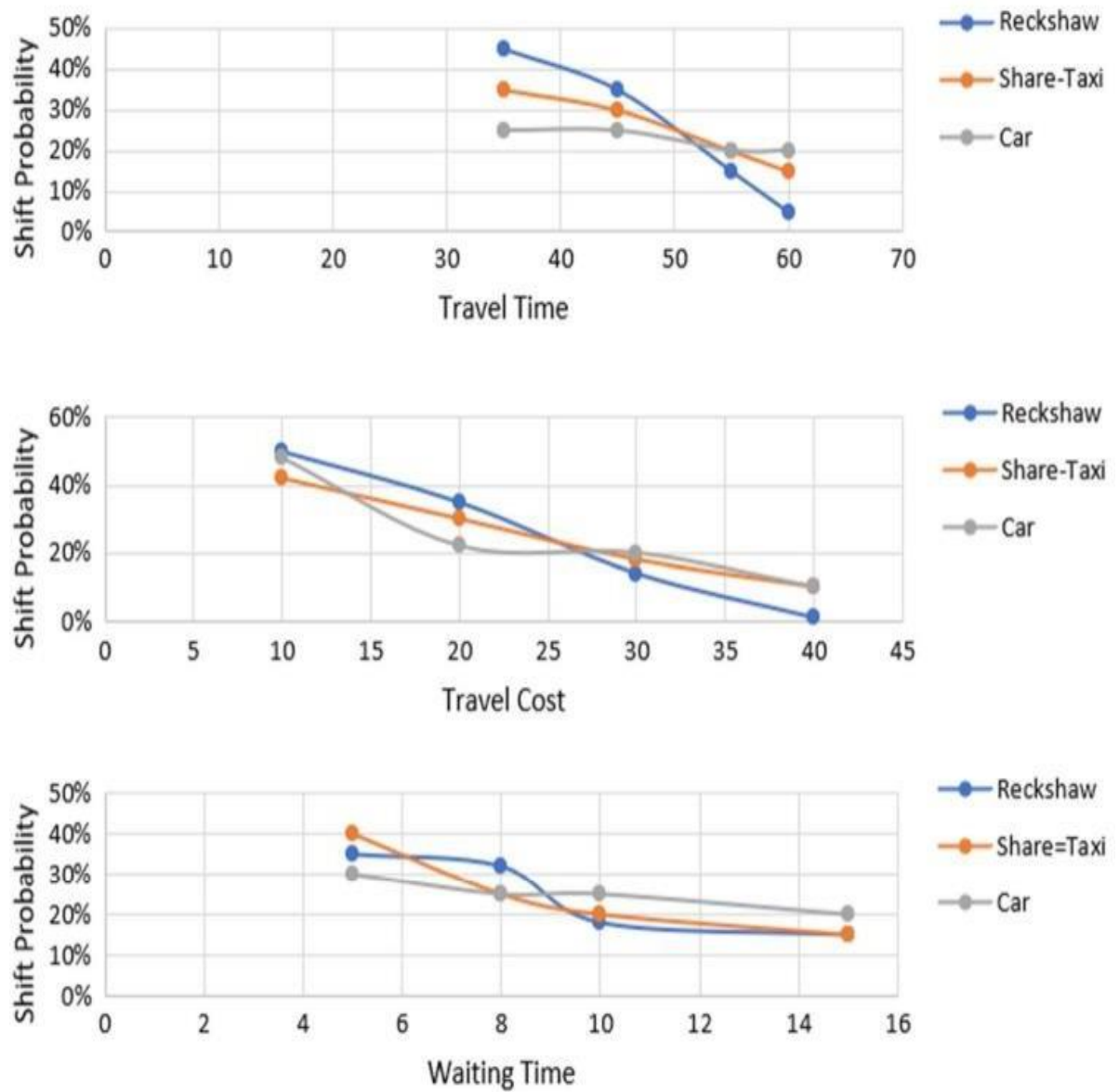


Figure 4.7 Association among mode shift possibility and attributes

Table 4.4 Association among predictor variables

	TC	TT	WT	SD	WTS	ST	AC	CT
TC	1							
TT	0.33	1						
WT	0.19	0.09	1					
SD	-0.05	0.21	0.19	1				
WTS	0.06	0.09	0.28	0.22	1			
ST	0.33	0.20	0.20	0.24	-0.03	1		
AC	-0.06	0.13	0.19	0.38	0.21	-0.25	1	
CT	0.33	0.19	0.12	-0.26	-0.06	0.21	0.19	1

4.3.2 Preliminary Analysis

Figures 4.8, 4.9 and 4.10 highlight the potential for transition among users of rickshaws, cars, and share-taxis, respectively, towards the proposed Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) system. Meanwhile, Figure 4.11 illustrates the cumulative shift probability among existing mode users. Per Table 4.2, respondents were presented with 16 scenarios, and their feedback was categorized into four levels of interest: highly dissatisfied, dissatisfied, satisfied, and highly satisfied. Figure 4.8 portrays the preferences of current rickshaw users in relation to the proposed BRT system along a specific route in Jalalabad city, revealing that scenarios 4 and 9 emerge as the most appealing, while scenarios 2, 3, and 6 lack allure. Data depicted in Figure 4.9 indicates a notable portion of private car users express interest in transitioning to the BRT system, with a pronounced satisfaction in scenarios 4 and 5. Similarly, Figure 4.10 reflects the disposition of share-taxi users towards BRT scenarios, demonstrating a high satisfaction predominantly with scenarios 4 and 9. In conclusion, Figure 4.11 provides a snapshot into the overall likelihood of transition to the BRT system for current transport mode users in Jalalabad city. Preliminary analysis of the BRT scenarios in Table 4.2 revealed that the likelihood of users shifting to the BRT system was impacted by factors such as travel duration, cost, and waiting time, among others.

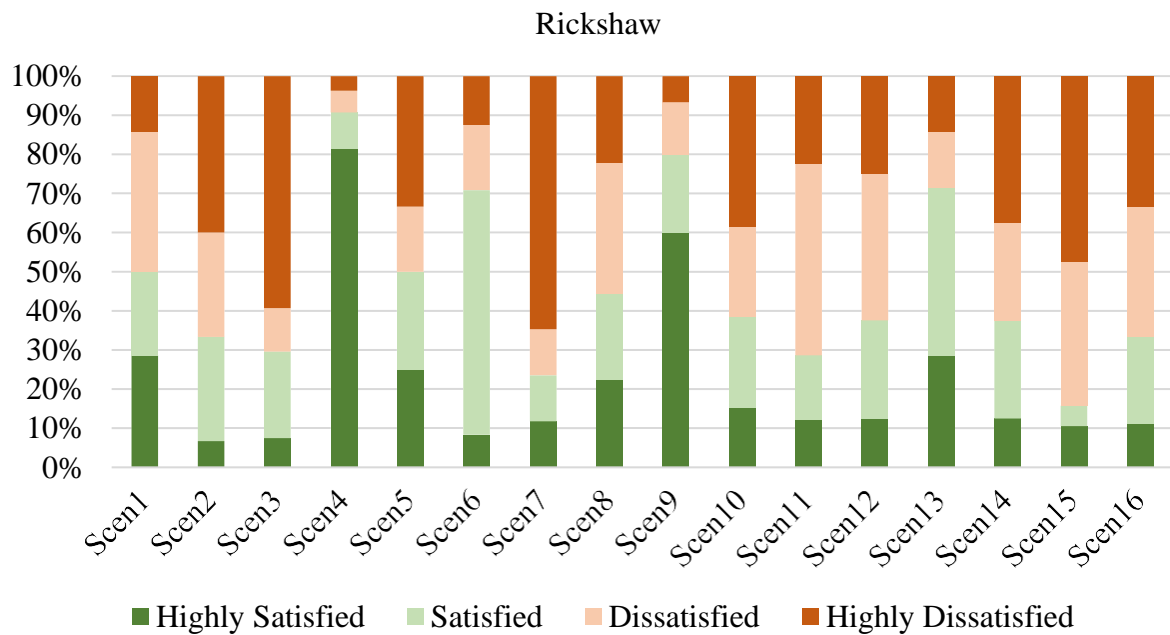


Figure 4.8 Shift likelihood to planned transit system for Auto vehicle operators

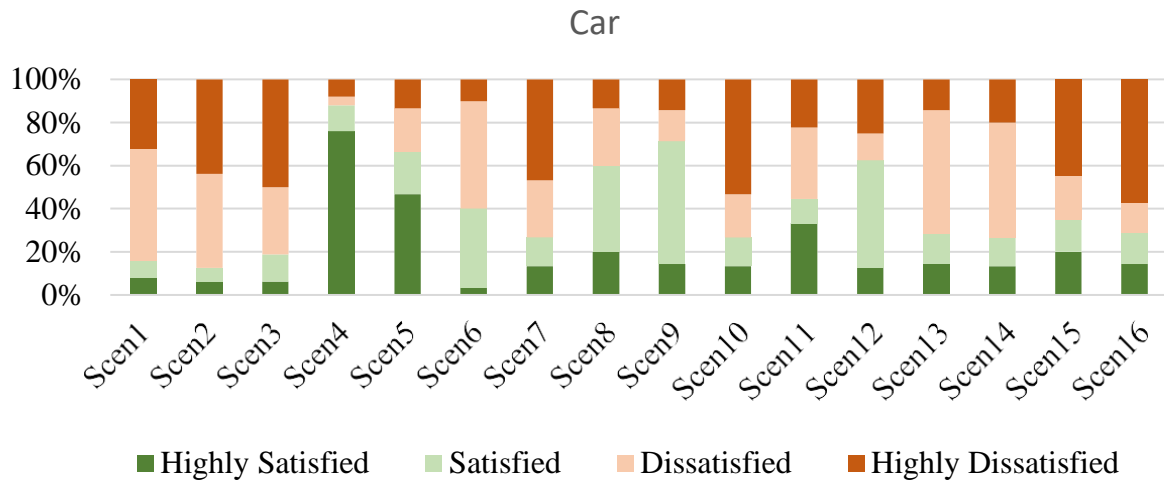


Figure 4.9 Transition likelihood to the envisioned BRT system for automobile users

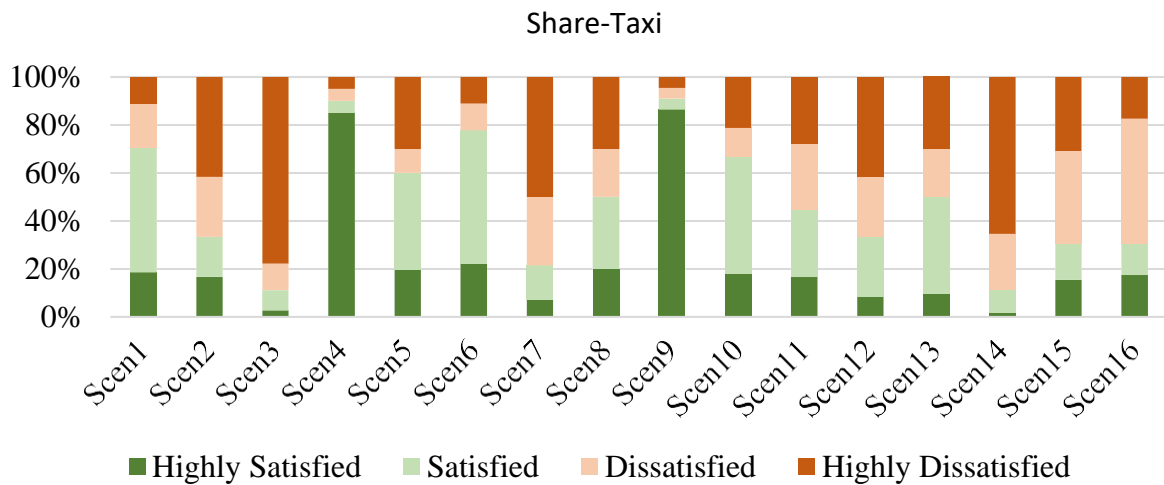


Figure 4.10 Likelihood of transition to the suggested BRT system among shared-taxi patrons

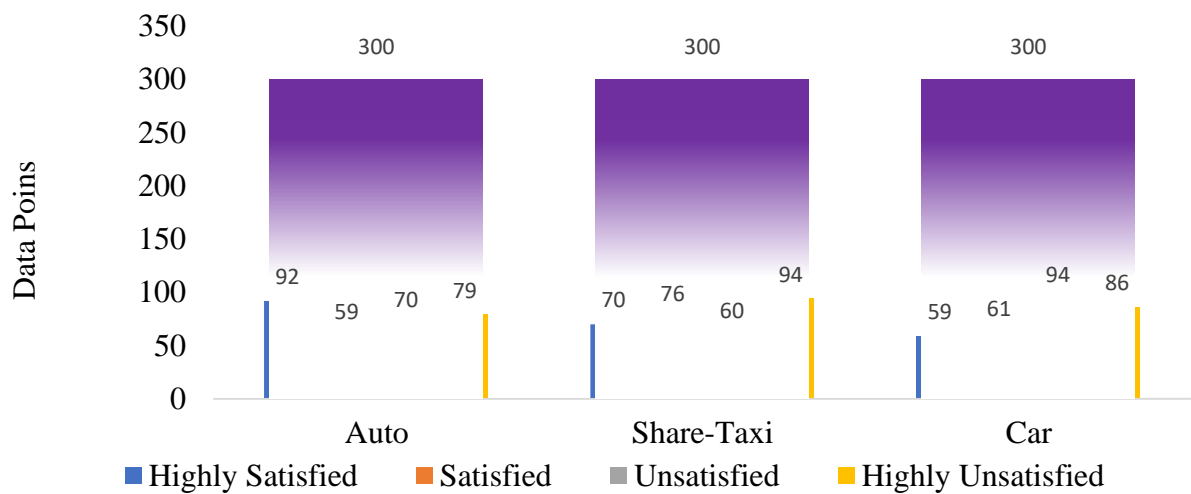


Figure 4.11 Complete transition likelihood towards the suggested BRT framework

Initial analysis indicated a strong relationship between modal shift and specific attributes. For instance, an increasing in travel time tends to reduce the shift towards the BRT system. In contrast, when costs are lowered, the BRT system typically garners more interest. Nonetheless, this assertion lacks a robust statistical basis. Therefore, this study deploys an Ordered Logit Regression (OLR) examination on the Stated Preference (SP) dataset to identify which variable(s) significantly influence the modal shift. The progression of the OLR model is depicted in Figure 4.12.

4.3.3 Ordinal Logistic Regression

Ordinal Logistic Regression (OLR) represents a specific type of statistical analysis, introduced briefly in this discussion. Regression analysis, commonly utilized in market research, allows for an exploration of relationships between variables. Viewing a regression model as a predictive tool facilitates understanding of the relationship between a dependent variable, referred to as "Y", and an independent variable, termed "X".

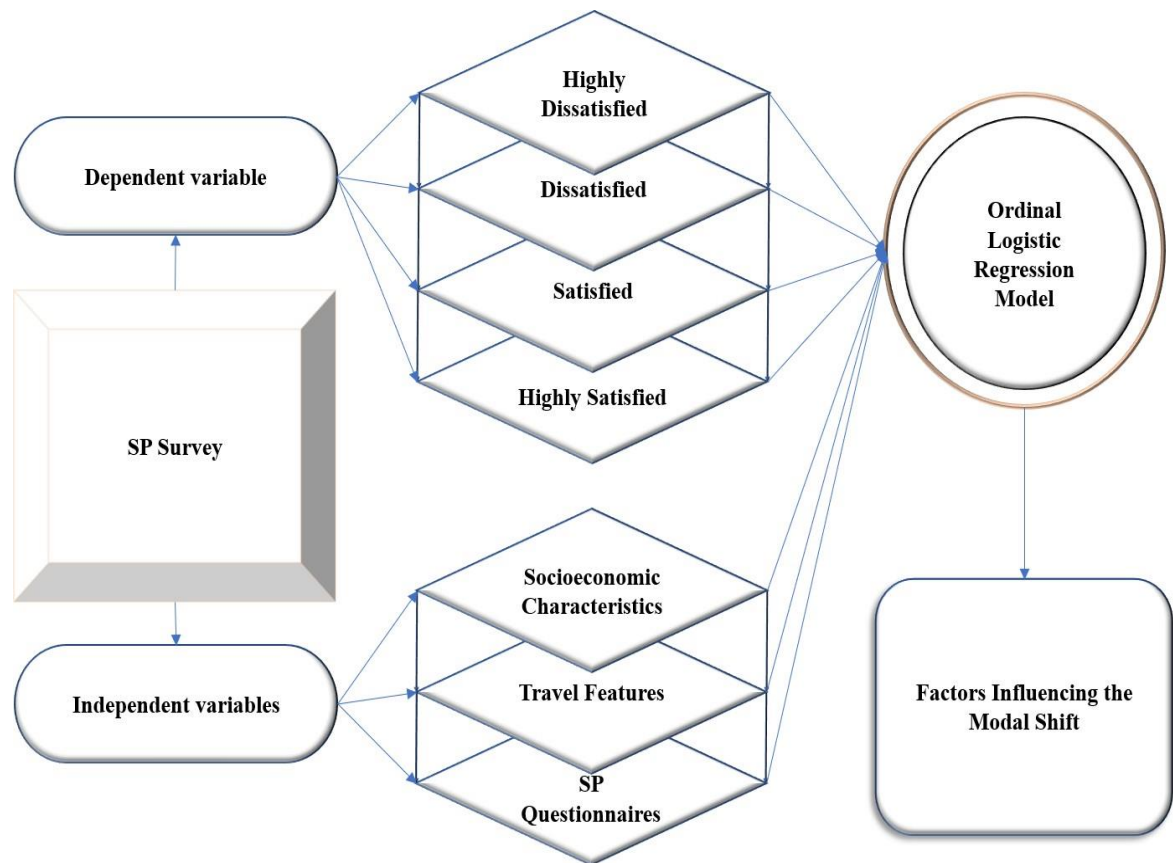


Figure 4.12 Process of the OLR model

The OLR serves as a subset of the logit regression model and finds utility when the dependent variable is categorical, possessing a clear order and exceeding two levels. Equation 4.1 becomes instrumental in estimating the model, with SPSS software

$$:-\ln \frac{1}{p_{n(i)}-1} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \beta X_{kin} \quad (4.1)$$

Where:

P_n represents the Probability

β is the Coefficient, and

X denotes the variable

Calculations for the left side of this model can involve different probabilities. In this study, the Ordered Logistic Regression (OLR) model became a tool for estimating the mode shift data gathered via the Stated Preference (SP) experiment. Utilizing the OLR model necessitates consideration of specific assumptions: The dependent variables are categorized.

1. One or more factors are either continuous, categorical, or ordinal.
2. There is no multicollinearity among the variables.

The dataset utilized in the study conforms to assumptions 1 and 2. Evaluation of the correlation among variables ensured the fulfilment of assumption 3. Results of this evaluation are presented in Table 4.4, confirming the absence of potent multicollinearity between variables.

4.3.4 Development of Shift Model

The data collected, comprising 300 data points each for auto, share-taxi, and private car categories, was bifurcated into two segments. 200 data points for each mode underwent random selection for model development, with the residual 100 samples per mode dedicated to model validation objectives. To enhance the estimation process, every independent variable received a coding of 0, 1, or 2, demonstrated in Table 4.3. Dependent variables received coding as well: 1 corresponds to highly dissatisfied, 2 to dissatisfied, 3 to satisfied, and 4 to highly satisfied. The development of the model encompasses determining parameters' rates to enhance data feasibility under the model specification. Consequently, some parameters may be regarded as insignificant and excised from the model. The Likelihood Ratio Index (ρ^2), defining the goodness of fit for model estimation, illustrates the precision with which the model can predict mode choice behaviour (Satiennam et al., 2016). The Likelihood Ratio Index is assessed by Equation 4.2.

$$\rho^2 = 1 - \frac{LL(\beta)}{LL(0)} \quad (4.2)$$

Where:

$LL(\beta)$ = Final Likelihood

$LL(0)$ = Initial Likelihood.

The OLR model was developed for each mode's users individually. Tables 4.5, 4.6, and 4.7 present the results for observed mode users regarding modal shift behaviour. The first model was developed using 200 data points for each mode's users and the Likelihood Ratio Index (p^2) was estimated in the model validation process. Secondly, a similar process was employed using 100 data points. Both Likelihood Ratio Indexes were compared for closeness. The results of the model validation are presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.5 OLR model estimation for rickshaw users about BRT mode shift

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	Wald	P-value
Travel Cost	-0.081	0.012	42.856	0.000
Travel Time	-0.069	0.016	18.022	0.000
Waiting Time	-0.148	0.045	10.532	0.001
Walking Time	0.803	0.294	7.464	0.006
Initial LL			-254.316	
Final LL			-148.204	
LL ratio index (p^2)			0.41	
N			200	

Table 4.6 OLR model estimation for share-taxi users about BRT mode shift

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	Wald	P-value
Travel Cost	-0.047	0.013	13.967	0.000
Travel Time	-0.048	0.015	9.782	0.002
Waiting Time	-0.151	0.039	14.813	0.000
Walking Time	0.590	0.283	4.343	0.037
Gender	-1.265	0.334	14.381	0.000
AC	-0.611	0.309	3.902	0.048
Initial LL			-225.216	
Final LL			-147.762	
LL ratio Index (p^2)			0.343	
N			200	

Table 4.7 OLR model estimation for car users about BRT mode shift

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	Wald	p-value
Travel Cost	-0.060	0.012	24.668	0.000
Travel Time	-0.062	0.016	14.691	0.000
Waiting Time	-0.121	0.042	8.491	0.004
Walking Time	1.028	0.343	8.976	0.003
AC	-0.673	0.281	5.716	0.017
Purpose	-1.003	0.414	5.856	0.016
Initial LL		-206.195		
Final LL		-158.21		
LL ratio Index (ρ^2)		0.23		
N		200		

Table 4.8 Model validation outcomes

Model development with 200 data points		Equation	Model development with 100 data points	
Auto				
Initial LL	-254.3	$\rho^2 = 1 - \frac{LL(\beta)}{LL(0)}$	Initial LL	-149.4
Final LL	-148.2		Initial LL	-100.4
ρ^2	0.41		ρ^2	0.40
Share-Taxi				
Initial LL	-225.2	$\rho^2 = 1 - \frac{LL(\beta)}{LL(0)}$	Initial LL	-171.9
Final LL	-147.7		Initial LL	-114.3
ρ^2	0.34		ρ^2	0.34
Private Car				
Initial LL	-206.1	$\rho^2 = 1 - \frac{LL(\beta)}{LL(0)}$	Initial LL	-149.9
Final LL	-158.2		Initial LL	-114.8
ρ^2	0.23		ρ^2	0.23

Table 4.5 gives us key data from the OLR model for rickshaw riders. Before we dig into how different factors influence people's decisions to switch transportation modes, it's vital to check if our model can predict accurately. So, two different likelihood figures were compared, and a special number, called a ratio index (ρ^2), was figured out. Past research tells us that a ρ^2 value of 0.41 in Table 4.5 means the model fits well for auto users. This number confirms that certain variables, like how much and how long people travel, can reliably predict things in the OLR model for auto users.

The data showed that travel cost, duration, and waiting times, which all have negative signs, are crucial ($P \leq 0.05$). Walking time, with a positive sign, is also notable. Meanwhile, various other factors, such as distance between stations and age, weren't impactful and were left out of the model. So, the findings suggest that lowering travel and waiting times may convince more rickshaw riders to use BRT systems. However, if the walk to BRT stations gets longer, fewer people might switch.

Table 4.6 provides a snapshot of the model developed for share-taxi users. The results include a high likelihood ratio index ($\rho^2=0.343$), indicating a reliable model. Moreover, the P-values for several variables (like travel cost and time, waiting time, walking time to the station, air conditioning, and gender) are below 0.05. This tells us that all these factors in Table 4.6 are meaningful with a 95% confidence level.

For share-taxi users, if travel costs, times, and waiting times go down (noted by negative signs), more people might be drawn to the new BRT system. Conversely, if walking time to the station is reduced, user interest goes up.

Additionally, a negative sign for air conditioning suggests share-taxi users might prefer a BRT system with cooling, probably due to Jalalabad city's intense heat and lack of air conditioning in most share-taxis. Lastly, the negative sign for gender suggests women might be more willing than men to switch to the BRT system, perhaps perceiving it as a safer travel option than share-taxis.

Table 4.7 presents the estimation of the OLR model for private car users. Both -2 likelihood values (Initial and Final) were compared, and consequently, the value of the likelihood ratio index was generated ($\rho^2=0.23$), which provides an approximately acceptable value. However, concerning the likelihood ratio index for car users, the model appears weaker than the models for auto and share-taxi users in terms of model fit. The given P-values in Table 4.7 show that travel cost, travel time, waiting time, time to the station, purpose, and AC are significant.

The signs of coefficients for waiting time, travel time, and travel cost are negative. This means that the BRT system in Jalalabad city, concerning modal shift, can be improved by reducing travel time, travel cost, and waiting time. Furthermore, the negative sign of purpose reveals that students are more interested in shifting to the BRT system than people who use a car for work or other purposes. Similar to share-taxis, the coefficient for AC also has a negative sign, indicating that buses with air conditioning will attract more passengers from cars.

BRT systems are increasingly adopted in numerous developing countries, serving as an urban transportation strategy to mitigate transport challenges. This research explores the factors influencing the modal shift from low-capacity vehicles (such as rickshaws, share-taxis, and private cars) to the BRT system in Jalalabad city. Echoing practical evidence from other locales, such as Beijing BRT Line 1 (Deng et al., 2012; ITDP, 2005), this research substantiates the argument that mindful consideration of BRT attributes can lure a considerable number of passengers from low-capacity vehicles.

The findings also indicate that present users of low-capacity vehicles exhibit noticeable sensitivity concerning various travel attributes, including travel time, cost, waiting period, walk duration to the station, availability of air conditioning, trip purpose, and gender.

The Ordered Logistic Regression (OLR) model was employed in this study to scrutinize Stated Preference (SP) data related to the BRT system in Jalalabad, Afghanistan, assessing modal choice behaviour concerning a shift from existing low-capacity vehicles to BRT.

4.4 Summary

This investigation has spotlighted several crucial factors related to the viability of the BRT system. It determined that the proposed BRT system holds the potential to draw a substantial user base from autos, share-taxis, and private cars.

The shift to the BRT system is notably influenced by specific attributes, such as travel duration, cost, waiting periods, walk distance to stations, availability of air conditioning, trip purpose, and gender. The research unveiled that the implementation of the BRT system will coax a significant portion of current low-capacity vehicle users to transition to the BRT system. Consequently, the introduction and operation of the BRT system are poised to notably impact city congestion levels.

The study concludes that a sizable segment of low-capacity vehicle users, including those using private cars, are discontented with the prevailing conditions in Jalalabad city and are predisposed to transition to the new alternative.

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS OF MODE CHOICE RELATIONSHIP WITH THE DENSITY IN KABUL CITY

5.1 General

The study focuses on understanding how population density influences transportation choices in Kabul City. Land use characteristics might not have been included in the modeling of mode choice because the emphasis was possibly on understanding the direct impact of population density on transportation preferences, rather than the broader land use patterns. This specific aspect of urban planning how the arrangement and usage of land affects transportation choices could be complex and require a distinct methodological approach, possibly integrating detailed spatial analysis and urban form considerations beyond just population density.. Urban form is a fundamental element of urban planning which can lead the city toward sustainability or unsustainability. Commonly, urban form has a positive or a negative effect on residents' quality. Furthermore, Boontore A. (2014) assessed urban sprawl as a critical problem, such as low-capacity vehicle dependencies, increasing pollution and loss of land resources. There are several indicators to determine the level of sprawl, such as density, intensification, mixed-use, and road network. However, Cervero et al. (1996) stated that two factors (density and mixed-use) of urban form have a keen influence on travel behaviour. Hence, for the safe keeping of cities and successful operation of the transportation system, urban planners and engineers propose various solutions such as compact cities, intelligent cities, and green cities to keep the urban area sustainable for current and future inhabitants. However, Cervero et al. (1996) emphasized the significant influence of density and mixed use on travel behaviour. The primary objective of this section is to thoroughly investigate the relationship between urban sprawl and travel demand patterns. Building on the travel demand modelling elaborated in Chapter Three, this study seeks to quantify the level of compactness within different traffic zones of the city, exclusively using two pivotal indicators: density and mixed-use. Study area

5.1.1 A Study on Urbanization and Growth Dynamics in Kabul City

Kabul's history is believed to date back some 3,500 years. It successively fell under the control of Alexander the Great, Sassanian Persia, the Islamic Empire, the Timur Empire, the Mughal Empire, and others. Afghanistan came under the authority of the Durrani Dynasty in 1747, and

Kabul was designated its capital in 1775. After the struggle between Britain and Russia for dominance and subsequent British colonization, Afghanistan gained independence in 1919, with Kabul as its capital. By 1925, Kabul had a population of about 90,000. Today, the city's basic structure was laid out in the 1940s and 50s. During this time, residential development surged, and significant landmarks like Jadayi Maywand Street, Kabul University, hospitals, and bazaars were constructed. The city continued to expand after the 1950s, reaching 380,000 by 1962. The first master plan for the city was drafted between 1962-64 by Afghan and Russian experts, targeting a population of 800,000.

Urbanization in Kabul began in the old town of District 1, spanning 400ha in 1916. Between 1940 and 1962, urbanization accelerated, expanding the built-up area to 68km². Notably, during the Mujahedin period from 1992 to 1999, the built-up area grew to 25,000ha. Over these 83 years, the Population experienced an average annual growth rate of 4.07%, attributed to both an influx of people and territorial expansion. The city's area grew by an impressive 62.5 times during this period.

In 2005, the Central Statistics Office (CSO) estimated Kabul City's Population to be 2,268,300, covering the older city area of 14 districts (Districts 1-16, excluding Districts 13 and 14). In January 2005, an agreement between the Ministry of Interior, the Kabul Province, and the Kabul Municipality resulted in expanding the Kabul Municipality's jurisdiction. Consequently, the Population surged to 2,721,000 across 22 districts. By 2008, the city's population was estimated at 4.22 million, marking an average annual increase of nearly 10% between 1999 and 2008. This significant rise was partly due to territorial expansion. Over the same period, the municipality's area expanded by 4.1 times, reaching 1,022.7 km². Informal settlements are essentially defined as developed areas. These settlements encompassed 76% of the total residential area in 2008. Concurrently, 74% of the city's population lived within these informal settlement areas that year (KMP 2011).

5.1.2 An Exploration of Population Trends in Kabul City

The Central Statistics Office (CSO), International Consultants & Technocrats (ICT) in connection with the Kabul Development Plan, and the JICA study team with the Kabul Metropolitan Area Development Master Plan have all estimated the Population of Kabul city. In 2008, the CSO estimated the city's Population to be 2.7 million across 16 districts. This estimate excludes the populations of six districts—Districts 14, 18, 19, 20, 21, and 22—later incorporated into the Kabul municipality. In contrast, the ICT's 2008 estimate stood at 4.5 million, with a projection of 8.0 million by 2023, as shown in Figure 5.1.

Meanwhile, the JICA study team estimated the 2008 population at 4.1 million. They projected it to reach 6.7 million by 2025 for the metropolitan area, which includes an expected 1.5 million in the newly developed city areas (KMP 2011).

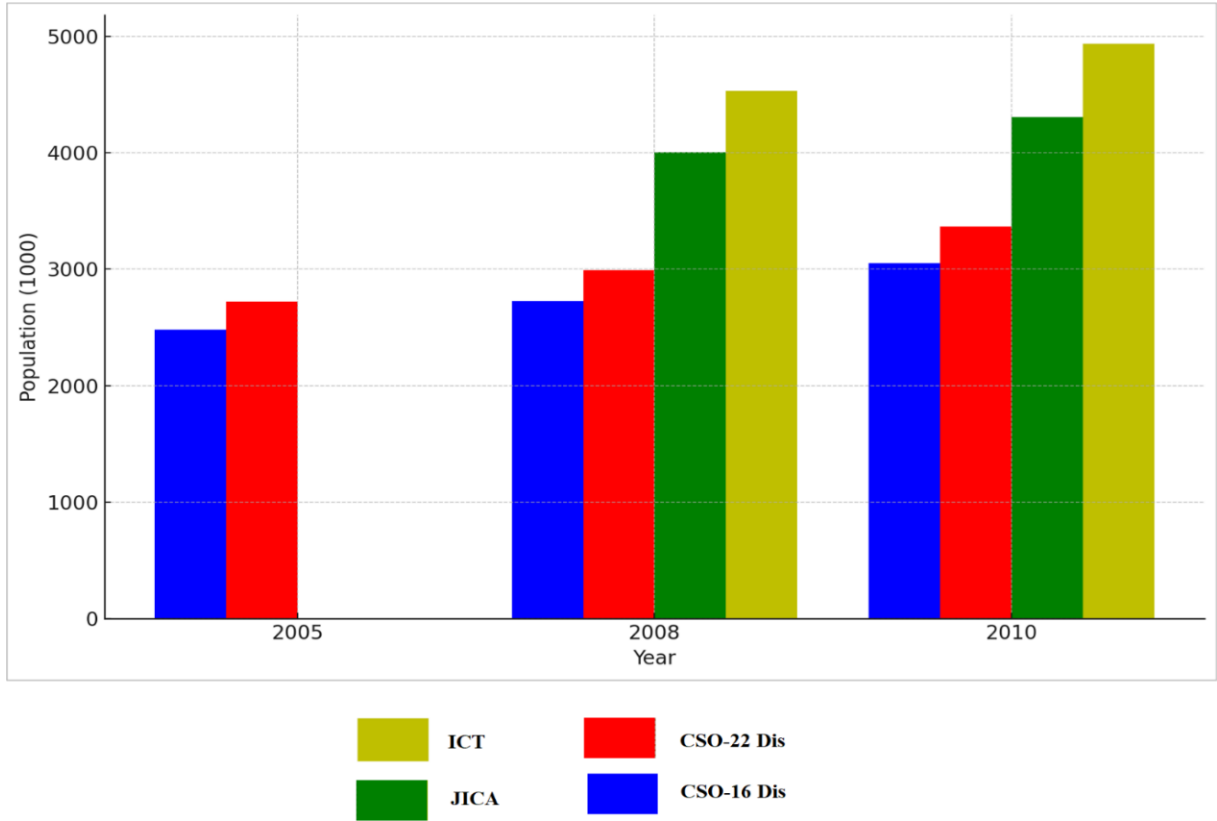


Figure 5.1: Population assessments for Kabul, as per research initiatives (KMP 2011)

Kabul is divided into 22 districts with unique population density characteristics. When examining the data, there are notable variances in the density metrics in the overall district areas and specifically within the residential zones. District 10 stands out with an impressive district density of 207 persons per hectare, making it the most densely populated district in Kabul. This is followed closely by District 11 and District 4, with densities of 165 and 174 persons per hectare, respectively. However, when focusing solely on residential areas, the landscape shifts slightly. District 11 has the highest residential area density, with 347 persons per hectare, suggesting that its residential zones are especially packed. District 3 and District 4 follow suit, each with a residential density exceeding 338 persons per hectare.

In contrast, some districts display remarkably low densities. District 19, for instance, has no overall district density and boasts a residential density of 356 persons per hectare. This indicates that while the district might be sparsely populated, its residential zones are intensely populated. On the other end of the spectrum, District 14, despite its expansive size, has a minimal district

density of 12 persons per hectare and a residential density of 282 persons per hectare. Kabul's diverse density profile underscores the city's dynamic urban landscape, where some areas are bustling hubs of activity while others remain relatively calm. These variations can be attributed to numerous factors, including historical development patterns, economic opportunities, and urban planning strategies. Figure 5.2 shows the district density in Kabul city.

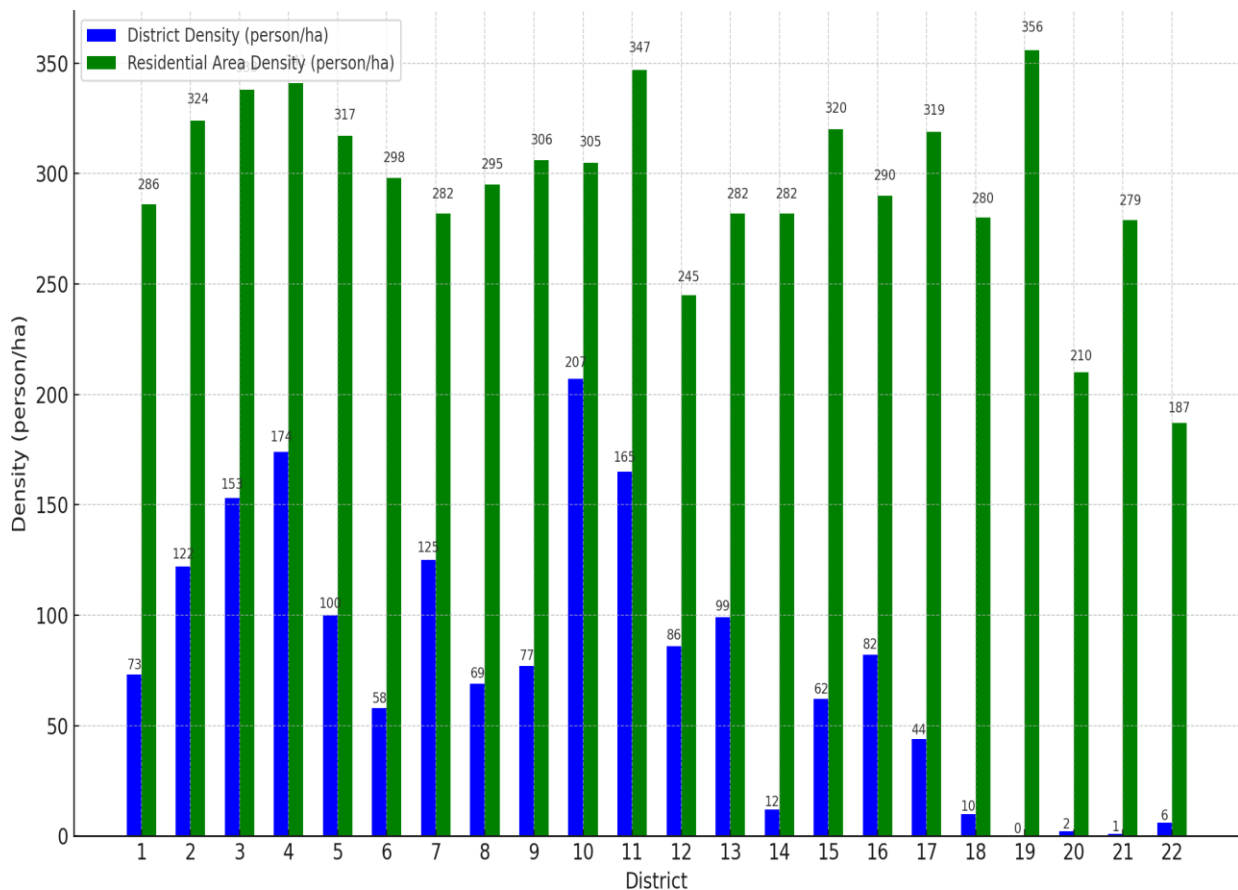


Figure 5.2 District Density in Kabul City (JICA, Report 9)

5.1.3 Evaluating Land Use Circumstances in Kabul City

Figure 5.3 depicts the land use in 2008, categorized broadly. As inferred from the figure, the gross population density was estimated at 177 persons/ha. This encompasses all the built-up areas, including residential, governmental, commercial, and industrial zones and lands designated for infrastructure such as airports, roads, and parks. It can be stated that land availability will not pose a significant constraint for Kabul City's future urban expansion, provided the entire municipal region is designated for urban development. However, specific crucial policies could influence the utilization of this land and further, special attention may need to be paid to infrastructural development.

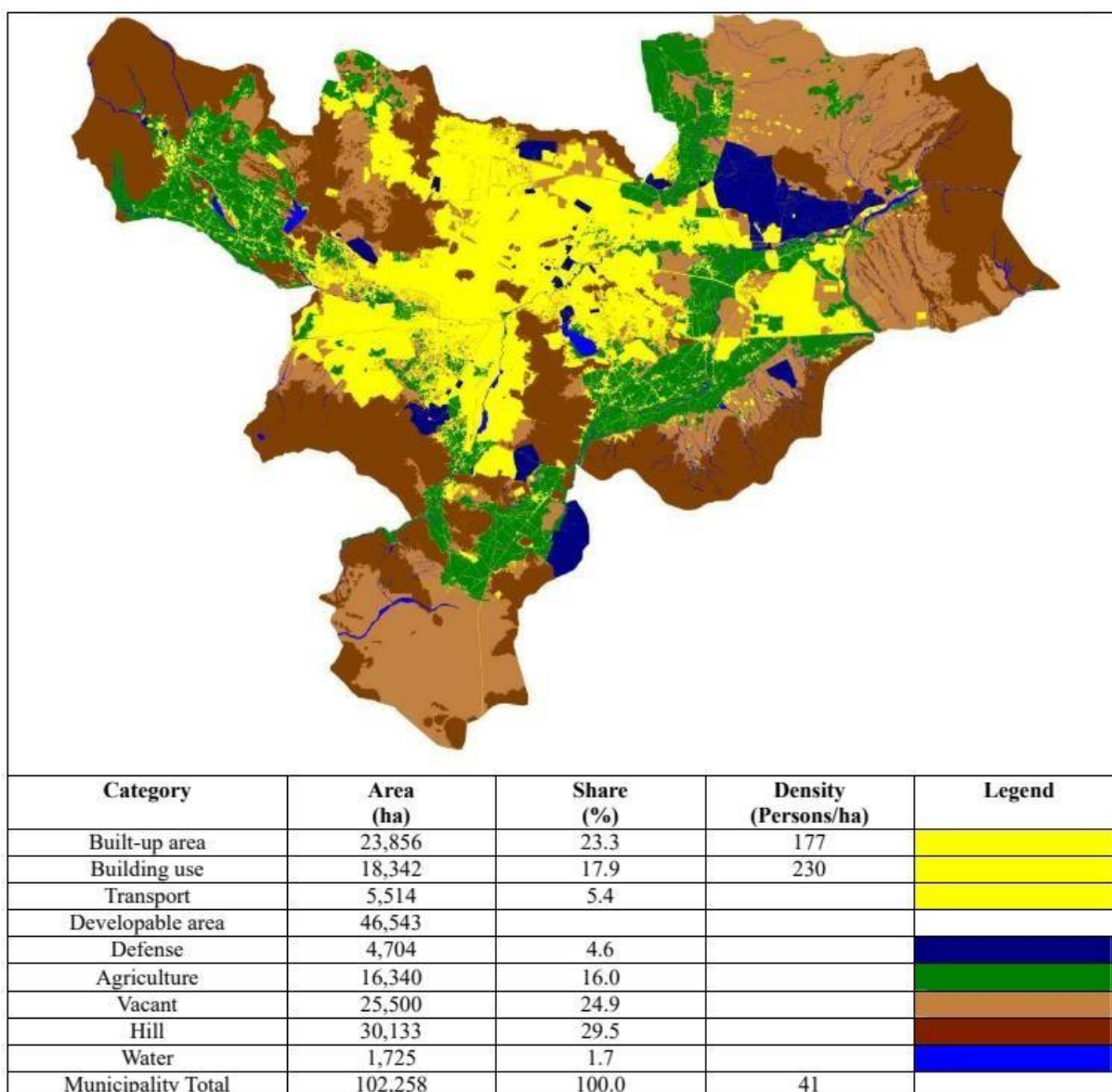


Figure 5.3 land use in Kabul City in 2008 (KMP 2011)

5.2 Navigating the Process of Information Assembly

The data for this study were accurately sourced from the JICA Final Report (2009). This comprehensive report provides vital metrics, including population figures, employment statistics, and student counts. A notable aspect of the research methodology was incorporating Geographic Information System (GIS) tools. By utilizing the capabilities of GIS, the study could accurately describe and quantify areas designated for specific purposes within Kabul. GIS analysis pinpointed and measured areas such as parks, homes, businesses, and schools. In compactness calculations, the combined size of these areas was treated as one residential area. The city has 22 districts, each city has various Population, and each district consists of many

Gozars. In this study, to obtain appropriate and logical results, each Gozar considered a traffic zone. Figure 5.4 shows the 213 traffic zones in Kabul city.

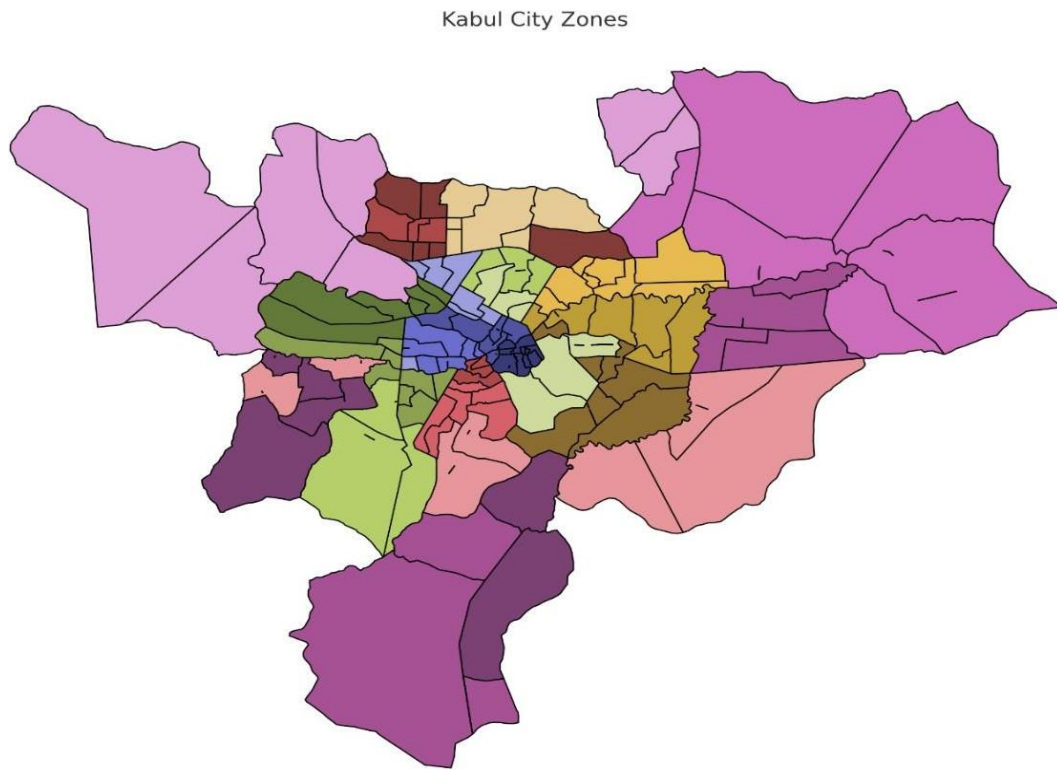


Figure 5.4 213 traffic zones in Kabul city

5.3 Examining the Relationship Between Mode Selection and Urban Density

Exploring the relationship between urban compactness and transportation choices within Kabul City begins with attention to the mode choice model. This model illuminates transportation preferences across Kabul's 213 traffic zones. A four-step prediction model found the number of passengers choosing different transportation methods, like public transport, walking, and private vehicles. Although the particulars of this model's development and its estimations are elaborated in Chapter Three, it is foundational for the current analysis. Adopting a compact urban framework, the research assesses two factors: land-use diversity and demographic density. Land-use diversity covers parks, homes, commercial centres, and schools. As noted earlier, these zones were grouped as residential areas during the compactness estimation. Demographic densities that cover the general Population, students and employment. In evaluating demographic density, densities for Population, employment, and student groups were quantified across district zones, built-up regions, and residential areas. However, a composite average of these factors was employed for the compactness assessment within each

traffic zone. Before evaluating compactness, the ratios of density and mixed-use for each zone were determined. The compactness levels of the 213 traffic zones were then assessed using the metrics method (D. Stathakis et al. 2013 Burton.,2000).

For a detailed breakdown of the research methodology, Figure 5.5 offers a methodology flow chart. Furthermore, all estimations were conducted individually across Kabul's 22 districts and its 213 traffic zones for clarity.

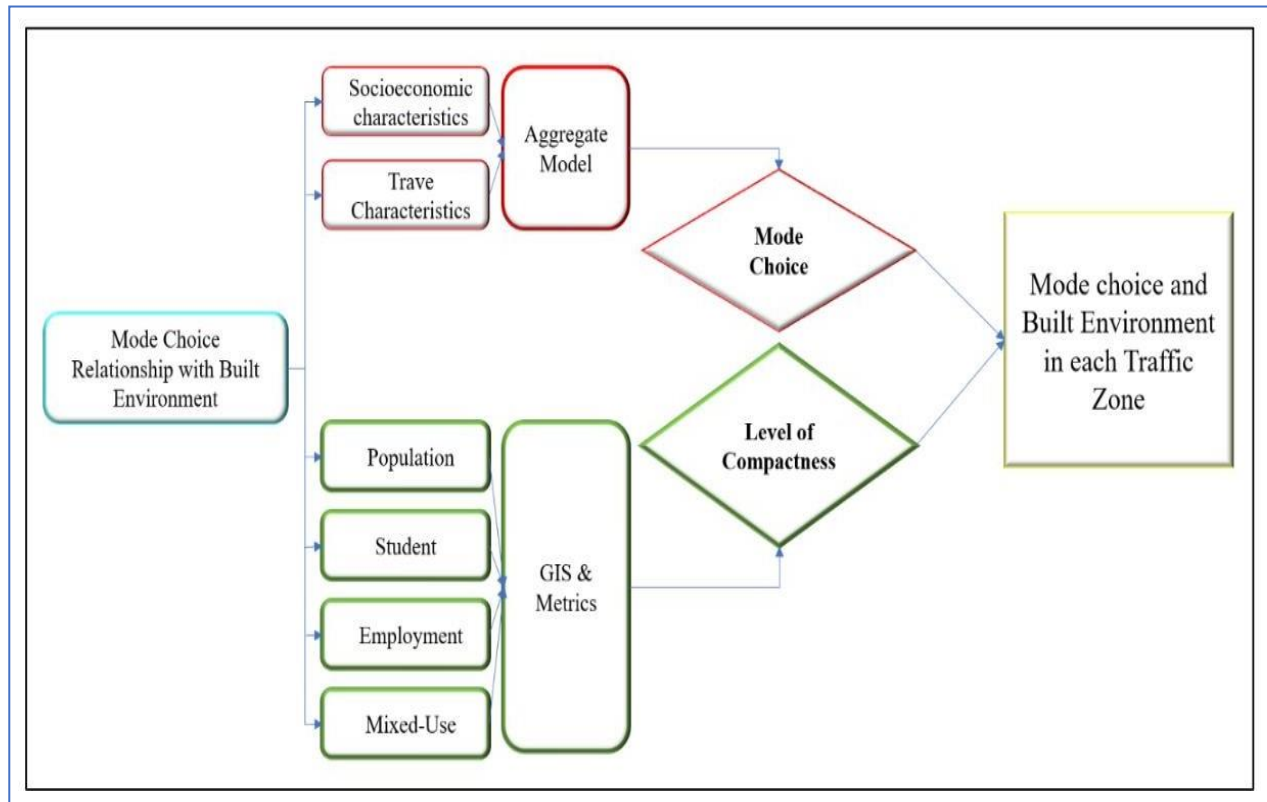


Figure 5.5 Exploring the Link between Mode Choice and Density in Kabul City

5.3.1 Analyzing Mode Choice Models in Kabul City

The mode choice model is a pivotal tool in understanding transportation preferences, offering insights into three primary transportation modalities: public transport, walking, and private transport. This model employs a systematic approach, analysing various factors influencing an individual's decision to opt for one mode over another. These factors might include travel time, costs, accessibility, and convenience associated with each mode. The determinants of this model have been comprehensively detailed in Chapter Three. While the model clarifies the theoretical framework and influencing factors, the associated Figure 5.6 provides a visual representation, quantifying users for each transportation mode, thereby giving a clearer picture of prevalent transportation trends.

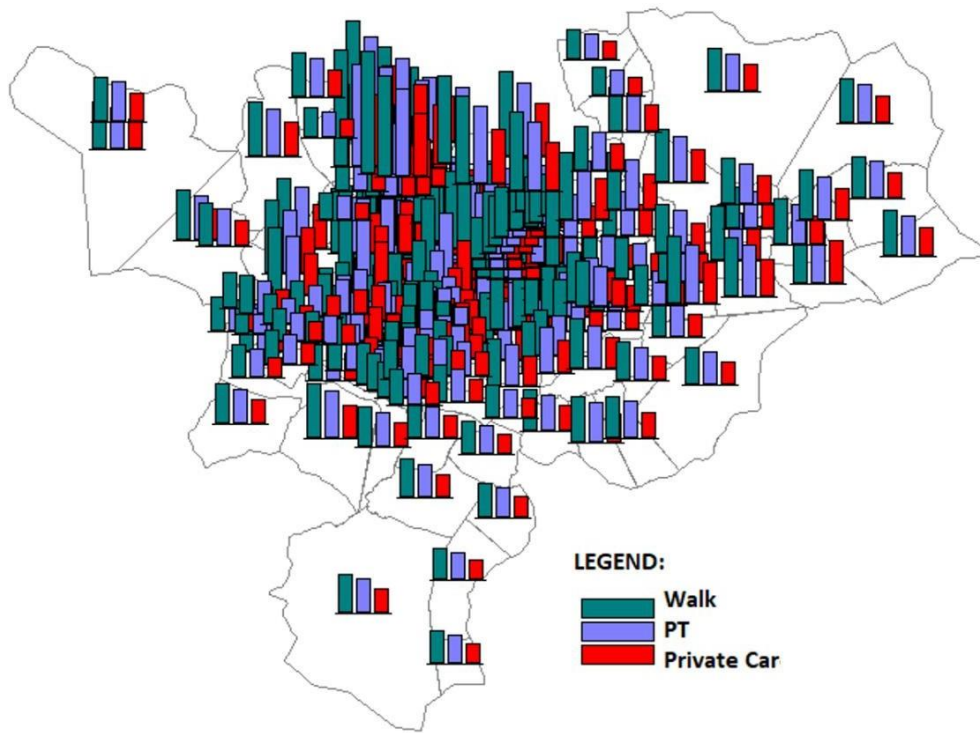


Figure 5.6 Mode choice in Kabul city

5.3.2 Estimation of Built Environment Parameters: A Focus on Density and Diversity

The modern urban landscape includes structures, roads, parks, and other amenities.

Understanding how spaces are organized and utilized is vital. Density and diversity are two key parameters that provide insights into this dynamic.

Exploring into Density:

Density in urban planning relates to the concentration of certain entities within a defined area.

This study considers three fundamental parameters: population density, employment density and student density.

- ❖ **Population Density:** Defined as the number of people per unit area. It is an indicator of resource and service demand. This density is estimated in district, built-up, and residential areas to provide a comprehensive view of population spread and concentration.
- ❖ **Employment Density:** Represents the number of job locations per unit area. It highlights regions with high business activities. This density is estimated across district, built-up, and residential areas to capture the complete economic landscape.
- ❖ **Student Density:** Measures the number of students relative to educational institution areas, indicating educational infrastructure demand. The densities are analysed across district areas, built-up areas, and residential areas to understand the distribution of

educational institutions and their impact on urban planning. However, these factors were combined and averaged to determine compactness in each traffic zone, resulting in a single consolidated density value. Figure 5.7 shows the mentioned density across the district, build-up, and residential areas.

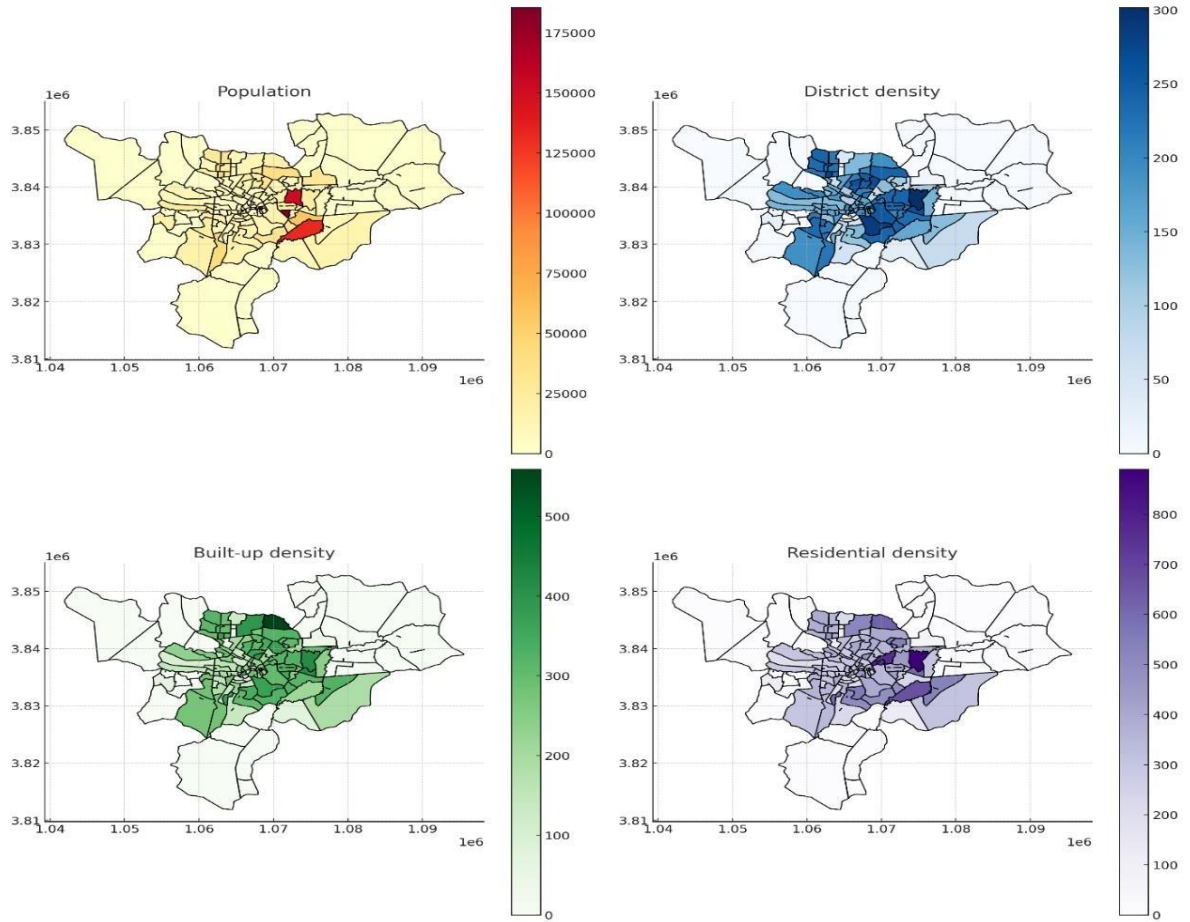


Figure 5.7 Densities across district areas, built-up areas, and residential areas

Exploring into Diversity (Mixed-Use):

Urban land use diversity plays a crucial role in efficient city planning. This study estimates several mixed-use parameters for Kabul:

- ❖ **Park Areas:** Quantified by the amount of open green space per unit area, these regions are crucial for ecological balance and offer recreational outlets.
- ❖ **Commercial Areas:** Defined by the concentration of business establishments or commercial footprints per unit area, they provide insights into the economic activity density of the city.
- ❖ **Residential Areas:** Measured by the number of housing units or residential structures per unit area, this parameter indicates the housing density and can infer population distribution trends.

❖ **School Areas:** Represented educational institutions area is a direct metric of educational facility distribution and can indicate student density patterns. Utilizing GIS tools to map these parameters provides a detailed insight into Kabul's urban structure. Figure 5.8 illustrates the combined areas of parks, commercial zones, residential zones, and schools in Kabul city. The mentioned areas were summed up to determine compactness in each traffic zone, yielding a single value termed residential area.

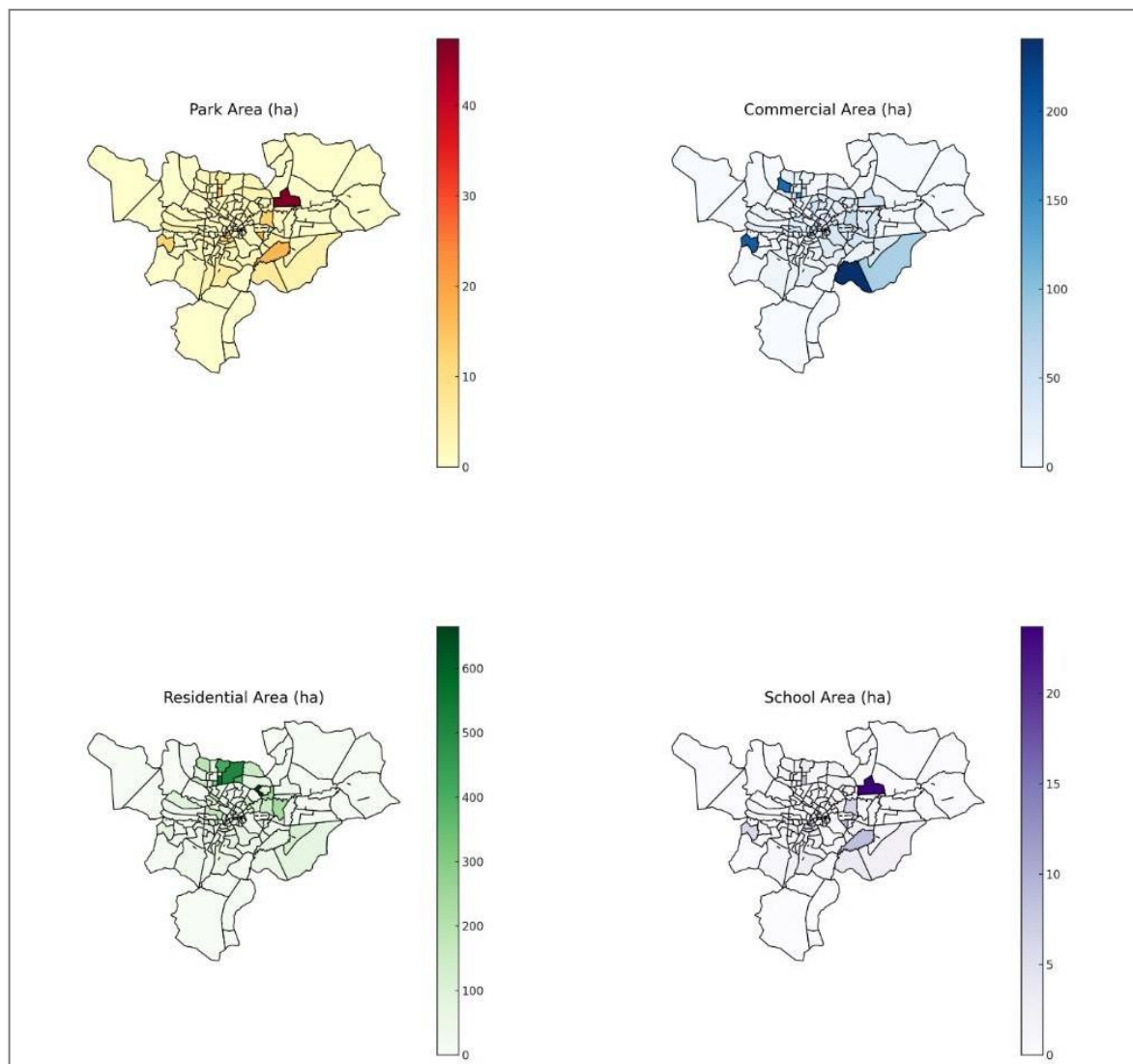


Figure 5.8: Highlighting mixed-use in Kabul city.

5.3.3 Measurement of Urban Compactness

Burton (2002) identified three indicators to measure urban sprawl and compactness in the literature: density, mixed-use, and intensification. In contrast, D. Stathakis and G. Tsilimigkas (2013) quantified the compactness of European cities using only density and mixed-use as metrics. Kenworthy et al. (1996) pointed out that high urban density can lead to shorter travel

times, enhanced public transport, and increased walking and cycling. This research examines urban compactness or sprawl in two scenarios: within the 22 districts of Kabul city and across its 213 traffic zones.:

The average density (population, employment and student) indicator is subdivided into district density, residential density, and built-up density (Figure 5.9) and then estimates the *supfacs2* (This is the ratio of residential area to non-residential area).

To ensure consistency and comparability, it is vital to standardize the values derived from the above calculations. Equation

$$S_{vi} = \frac{D_i - \mu}{SD} \quad (5.1)$$

Where:

S_{vi} is the standardized value or z-score for traffic zone i .

D_i is the Ave. density value for traffic zone i .

μ is the mean density of all traffic zones.

SD is the standard deviation of the density values across all traffic zones.

$$MU_i = \frac{Z_{area}}{B_{area} - R_{area}} \quad (5.2)$$

MU_i is the mixed-use value for the traffic zone

Z_{area} represents the total area of the zone

B_{area} shows Built-up area within the zone

R_{area} represents the residential area (commercial, school, park, residents area) within the zone

$$LC_i = \sum Ave. S_{vi} + MU_i \quad (5.3)$$

LC_i shows the level of compactness for zone i

For the districts, the subsequent steps are detailed in Table 5.1.

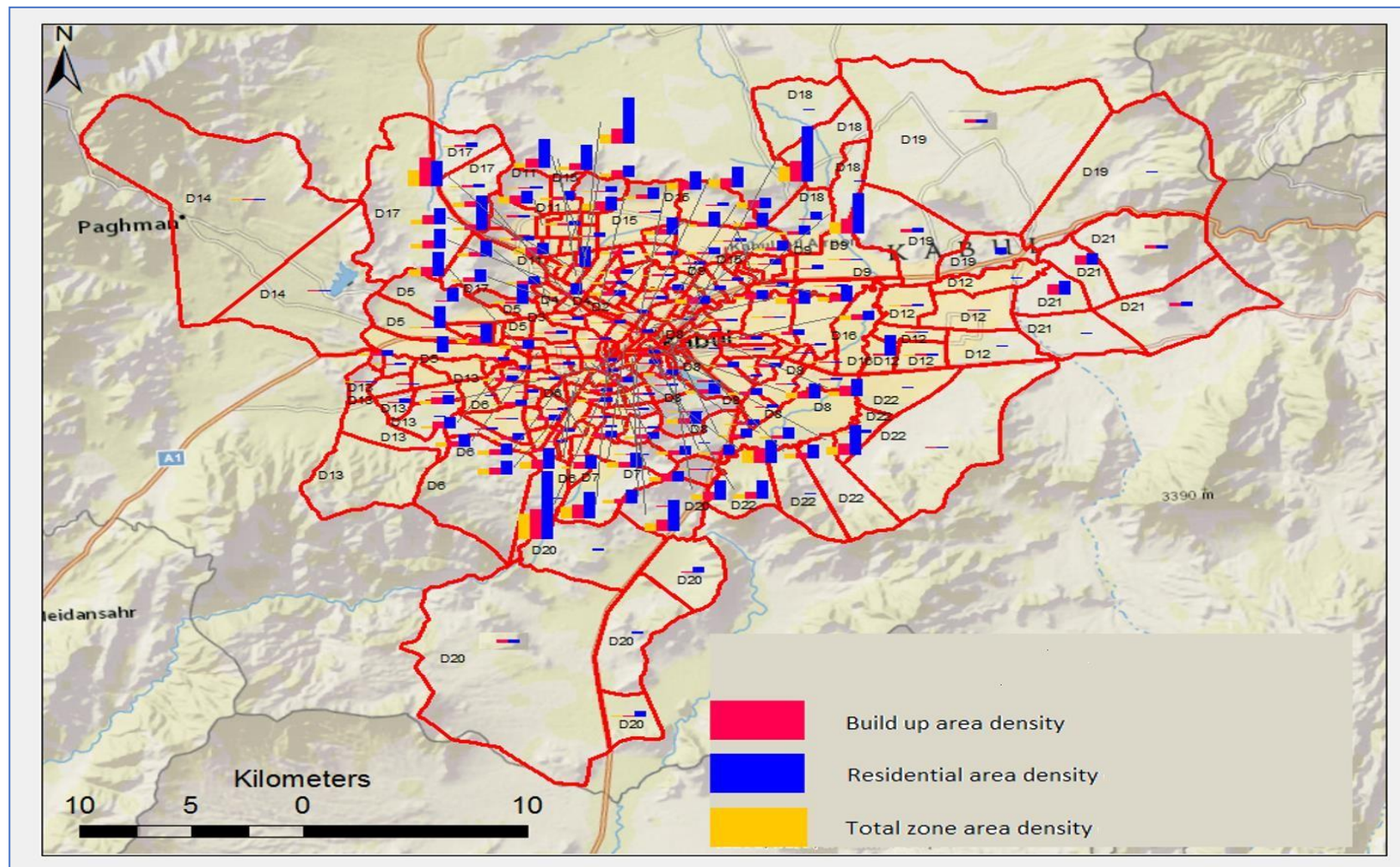


Figure 5.9 Build-up, residential and district densities in each traffic zone

Table 5.1 Evaluations of urban expansion or compactness degree in 22 Kabul city districts.

Dis name	Population (Ave. population, employment, student)	Dis area (ha)	Build- up (ha)	Residential (ha)	α	β	γ	Mixed- use 2	Dens	Level of Compactness
	a	b	c	d	A	B	C	D	F	G
Jade Maiwand	36727	483	332	124	-0.206	-1.017	-0.299	-0.57	-0.51	-0.54
Karti Ariana	127993	684	590	257	1.709	0.328	-0.242	-0.40	0.60	0.10
Diburi	81715	911	822	414	0.029	-1.159	-0.327	-0.17	-0.49	-0.33
Share Now	189086	1172	1128	598	1.264	-0.296	-0.293	-0.07	0.23	0.08
Kote Sangi	332403	2845	1532	894	0.497	0.329	-0.278	0.19	0.18	0.19
Allawoddin	288912	4918	1671	957	-0.504	-0.229	-0.297	0.13	-0.34	-0.11
Guzargah	452806	3334	2136	1,478	0.824	0.266	-0.296	0.98	0.26	0.62
Karte Naw	576835	4825	1837	1,124	0.544	1.557	-0.238	0.35	0.64	0.5
Microrayan	189919	2433	1803	616	-0.171	-1.084	-0.296	-0.64	-0.52	-0.58
Bibi Mahroh	246849	1303	1081	885	1.749	0.473	-0.304	3.11	0.65	1.87
Khair Khana	273923	1742	1265	829	1.194	0.323	-0.289	0.66	0.42	0.53
Harzan Q	424138	3490	2218	1,221	0.578	0.003	-0.285	0.02	0.11	0.06
Dashte Barchi	435384	4719	2698	1,660	0.073	-0.375	-0.308	0.37	-0.20	0.08
Qargha	210977	11902	951	524	-1.212	0.390	-0.269	0.02	-0.36	-0.17
Qasaba	207553	3253	2000	626	-0.417	-1.104	-0.289	-0.70	-0.60	-0.65
Microrayan K	325245	2507	941	713	0.720	1.957	-0.254	1.81	0.81	1.31
Kotal	327575	5602	1543	780	-0.509	0.270	-0.264	-0.17	-0.17	-0.17
Paimonar	52722	3388	584	121	-1.249	-1.275	-0.260	-0.88	-0.93	-0.90
Dehsabz	184369	14143	1586	11	-1.292	-0.946	4.308	-1.12	0.69	-0.22
Reshkhori	174334	14294	1319	152	-1.307	-0.745	-0.061	-1.00	-0.70	-0.85
Pole Charkhi	107260	6395	281	22	-1.228	2.414	0.983	-1.05	0.72	-0.16
Kamari	221462	7925	1243	258	-1.035	-0.162	-0.142	-0.88	-0.45	-0.66

For more explanation, the level of compactness only for one district (Jade Maiwand) is estimated as follows:

Name of District: Jade Maiwand.

Population (a): 36727 Dis area (b):483 ha Build-up area (c): 332 ha Residential area: 124 ha

$$\alpha(A) = [(a \div b) - \text{mean}] \div SD = \{[(36727 \div 483) - 88] \div 58\} = -0.206$$

$$\beta(B) = [(a \div c) - \text{mean}] \div SD = \{[(36727 \div 332) - 191] \div 79\} = -1.017$$

$$\gamma(C) = [(a \div d) - \text{mean}] \div SD = \{[(36727 \div 124) - 1364] \div 3570\} = -0.299$$

$$\text{Mixed-use}(D) = \{[(d \div (c - d)) - \text{mean}] \div SD\} = \{[124 \div (332 - 124)] - 1.2\} \div 1.07 = -0.57$$

$$F = [(A + B + C)/3] = [(-0.206) + (-1.017) + (-0.299)/3] = -0.51$$

$$G = [(D + F)/2] = [(-0.57) + (-0.51)] = -0.54$$

If α , β , γ are variables representing densities in district, built-up, and residential areas respectively.

With an intricate interplay between spatial compactness and transportation mode choice elucidated in Table 5.3, the study dives deeper into evaluating the intrinsic patterns and divergences across the 22 districts and 213 traffic zones. The emphasis is placed on discerning how urban form and density—reflected through various measures of compactness—influence and possibly predicate travel behavior amongst the populace. The analysis ventures beyond mere observation, embedding itself in a comprehensive examination that seeks to untangle the myriad of factors that conspire to shape mobility patterns. The subsequent exploration strives to encompass the multifaceted layers of urban and transport planning, including considerations of accessibility, cost, and demographic inclinations, all while navigating through the intricate urban tapestry of Kabul's distinct districts and traffic zones. It provides a robust framework that may inform future urban planning and policy-making, underscoring the potential for strategic interventions that align with both the micro and macro-level mobility characteristics and preferences of the inhabitants. Consequently, the interwoven data from Tables 5.2 and 5.3 serve not only as a snapshot of the current state but also as a directional compass, pointing towards areas that may benefit from targeted transportation and urban development strategies.

Table 5.2 Trip production via diverse transportation methods in surveyed regions

No of District	Name of District	Walk	Walk (%)	PT	PT (%)	Car	Car (%)	All Mode
1	Jade Maiwand	5022		26161	52	19041	38	50224
2	Karti Ariana	6235	11	31028	52	21959	37	59222
3	Diburi	10022	11	48352	53	33348	36	91722
4	Share Now	25643	11	122131	53	80667	35	228441
5	Kote Sangi	24979	12	109528	54	66698	33	201205
6	Allawoddin	18047	12	82194	54	51591	34	151832
7	Guzargah	30994	15	119746	56	62437	29	213177
8	Karte Naw	33229	14	128848	55	71523	31	233600
9	Microrayan	20198	9	102490	48	90199	42	212887
10	Bibi Mahroh	49622	18	159084	58	67660	24	276366
11	Khair Khana	21265	15	78925	56	41322	29	141512
12	Harzan Q	15985	12	71533	54	45748	34	133266
13	Dashte Barchi	28097	13	117363	55	66089	31	211549
14	Qargha	12588	14	49591	53	30986	33	93165
15	Qasaba	26000	9	138135	48	124529	43	288664
16	Microrayan K	18752	17	63902	57	29990	27	112644
17	Kotal	20536	11	103038	53	71621	37	195195
18	Paimonar	23790	8	145779	47	138773	45	308342
19	Dehsabz	35491	13	137739	52	91725	35	264955
20	Reshkhori	9101	9	47995	47	44855	44	101951
21`	Pole Charkhi	7901	12	33816	52	23820	36	65537
22	Kamari	5687	10	27427	48	24397	42	57511
Total		449184		1944804		1298978		3,692,969

Table 5.3 Travel demand for all modalities in both dense and expanded regions of Kabul city

District No	District Name	Level of Sprawl	Walk Users (%)	PT Users (%)	Car (%)
10	Bibi Mahroh	1.87	18	58	24
16	Microrayan Kohna	1.31	17	57	27
8	Karte Naw	0.5	14	55	31
11	Khair Khana	0.53	15	56	29
7	Guzargah	0.62	15	56	29
2	Karti Ariana	0.10	11	52	37
5	Kote Sangi	0.19	12	54	33
4	Shari Now	0.08	11	53	35
12	Harzan Q	0.06	12	54	34
13	Dashte Barchi	0.08	13	55	31
21	Pole Charkhi	-0.16	12	52	36
17	Kotal	-0.17	11	53	37
6	Allawoddin	-0.11	12	54	34
14	Qargha	-0.17	14	53	33
3	Diburi	-0.33	11	53	36
1	Jade Maiwand	-0.54	10	52	38
19	Dehsabz	-0.22	13	52	35
9	Microrayan	-0.58	9	48	42
22	Kamari	-0.66	10	48	42
15	Qasaba	-0.65	9	48	43
20	Reshkhori	-0.85	9	47	44
18	Paimonar	-0.9	8	47	45

The level of sprawl in Table 5.3 on page is defined through the compactness assessment of each traffic zone or district in Kabul. It was computed using the following elements: Density Measures: Considers population, employment, and student density within zone, residential, and built-up areas. Mixed-Use Value (MUi): Assesses the diversity of land use within each zone, calculated as the ratio of the total area of the zone to the difference between the built-up area and the residential area. Standardized Density Value (Svi): Represents the z-score for each traffic zone, calculated by normalizing the density value of each zone against the mean and standard deviation of density values across all traffic zones. Level of Compactness (LCi): Sum of the average standardized density value (Svi) and mixed-use value (MUi) for each zone, indicating the compactness or sprawl level. The level of sprawl is thus an inferred measure based on these calculations, with a lower level of compactness indicating higher sprawl, and vice versa.

5.4 Summary

The results illustrate distinct values concerning user percentages for different modes. Table 5.1 differentiates areas based on their levels of compactness, distinguishing between high levels of compactness, low levels of compactness, and sprawling districts. The findings indicate that districts 1, 2, 9, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20, and 22 are sprawl areas, while districts 2, 4, 5, 12, and 21 exhibit low compactness. In contrast, districts 10, 16, 8, 11, and 7 are characterized by a comparatively high level of compactness.

This section evaluates the impact of urban sprawl and urban compactness on travel demand by analysing the data from Tables 5.1 and 5.2. The results, summarized in Table 5.3, show that in sprawling areas such as Paimonar, Reshkhori, Qasaba, Kamari, Microrayan, Dehsabz, Jade Maiwand, Diburi, Qargha, Allawoddin, Kotal, and Dashte Barchi, a smaller percentage of people are inclined towards walking and using public transportation compared to those in compact areas like Bibi Mahroh, Microrayan Kohna, Karte Naw, Khair Khana, and Guzargah. Conversely, residents of highly sprawling districts prefer private transportation more than those in other observed districts.

Karti Arian, Qalai-i-Wazir, Shar Naw, Harzan Q, and Pole Charkhi are classified as having minor sprawl. In these districts, the percentage of people using public transportation and walking is higher than in sprawling areas but lower than in compact areas. Results indicate that Bibi Mahroh, Microrayan Kohna, Chahl Sotun, and Khair Khana are the most compact districts in Kabul city. Consequently, these districts see more users opting for public transport and walking than other districts. However, a smaller percentage of travellers in these compact

areas prefer private transportation than their counterparts in non-compact districts. In conclusion, the research reveals that residents of sprawling areas tend to favour low-capacity vehicles and generally exhibit less interest in walking or utilizing public transport systems.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

6.1 General

The following chapter summarizes the findings of the study regarding Bus Rapid Transit system possibilities concerning corridor selection based on high travel demand, modal shift from existing low-capacity vehicles to purpose BRT system in two major cities (Kabul and Jalalabad) and finally, the relationship between Land-use and mode choice. Furthermore, it includes limitations of the study and scope for future work.

6.2 Summary

The main objective of this study is to develop models for describing BRT system possibilities and the relationship between land use and mode choice. Kabul City and Jalalabad City were considered as study areas. The cities are most significant metropolitan cities in Afghanistan regarding traffic and urban form.

A preliminary survey revealed the lack of sufficient and efficient high-capacity public transport (MRT) systems in both cities and segregation among land-use and transportation systems in Kabul city create problems such as congestion, high accident levels and air pollution. To evaluate efficient MRT system possibilities, travel demand, modal shift and the relationship between land-use and travel behaviours are the key concepts that should be analysed. The mentioned concepts can affect various variables, such as household characteristics, travel features and built environment characteristics.

In order to select the BRT corridor, travel demand has been modelled and forecasted in the first phase. Traditional four-stem models (trip generation, trip distribution, mode choice and trip assignment) were suggested. In this part of the study, the research has been carried out to understand the impact of various variables on travel demand. Population, car ownership, employment, density, travel distance and travel time were considered significant variables. Modal shift is another fundamental concern regarding introducing a competent BRT system. Hence, it was required to develop the modal shift model to understand the influential variables. Existing modes (auto, share-taxi and car) and purposed BRT mode were observed as dependent variables and household characteristics (gender, car ownership, driving license, age and trip purpose).

BRT attributes (travel cost, travel time, waiting time, walking time, air-conditioning, station type, distance between stations and corridor type) were considered independent variables using the Ordinal Logistic Regression (OLR) model. The model results indicate that travel time, travel cost, waiting time and walking time are the most significant variables.

The third part of this study is dedicated to the relationship between land-use attributes and modal choice. The land-use attributes were estimated, and each traffic zone's level of compactness ratio was identified. The results revealed that people are more interested in walking and public transport in the area with a higher ratio. While in the traffic zones with lower ratio people are attracted by car.

6.3 Conclusion

1. The urban transport analysis in Kabul indicates that car ownership is significant predictors of trip production, These insights are fundamental in planning of of BRT system.
2. Travel distance is a significant factor in Kabul's transportation analysis, directly influencing trip distribution and playing a pivotal role in strategizing the forthcoming implementation of the BRT system within the city.
3. Acknowledging travel time's pivotal role in shaping transportation mode choices in Kabul, this crucial insight will be instrumental in strategizing the incorporation and optimization of the Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) system within the city's existing transportation framework.
4. Travel cost, time, and waiting periods are pivotal factors affecting mode choice across all vehicle users (rickshaw, share-taxi, and private car), with a notable emphasis on reducing these parameters to enhance BRT adoption.
5. The gender variable is significant among share-taxi users, with women potentially perceiving BRT as a safer option, while access to air conditioning in BRT vehicles could further attract users amidst Jalalabad's heat, particularly among private car and share-taxi commuters.
6. While the OLR models for rickshaw and share-taxi users exhibit solid reliability with ρ^2 values of 0.41 and 0.34 respectively, the model for private car users presents a weaker fit ($\rho^2=0.23$), indicating a potential need for further refinement to accurately predict modal shift in this segment.

7. In Kabul City's urban density was directly correlated with mode choices, seeing denser districts exhibit a higher propensity for walking and public transportation use.
8. Sprawl areas demonstrated a clear preference for private transportation, influenced by their widespread layouts and potentially limited access to public transit.
9. Land-use factor like population significantly predicts a rise in trip production in Kabul city.
10. Employment is a notable influencer in both trip production and attraction, where each unit increase expects to elevate trips by coefficients of 0.134 and 0.776 respectively, emphasizing its importance in transportation modeling.

6.3 Limitations

- **Data Limitations:** The travel demand modeling might be restricted by the available data quality and comprehensiveness for both Kabul and Jalalabad cities.
- **Corridor Focus:** The selection of BRT corridors, while informed, may not encompass all possible alternative routes or future urban development pathways.
- **User Willingness:** Estimations of modal shift willingness towards the BRT system might not fully represent actual shifts post-implementation due to varying real-world factors.
- **Survey Constraints:** If Stated Preference (SP) survey methods were utilized, responses might not always align with actual future traveler behaviors in real-world scenarios

7.0 Scope for the Future Work

- Diverse urban contexts may present varying levels of effectiveness and applicability for the BRT system.
- It could be that infrastructure design and accessibility significantly influence modal shifts and travel behaviour.
- Emerging transportation technologies like ride-sharing and electric vehicles might significantly affect modal choices and sustainability.
- The BRT system and alternative transportation modes could have substantial social equity implications, impacting fair access and benefits across different socio-economic groups

Appendix

Table A1: Travel mode model result in 213 zones in Kabul city

Des	Zone NO	All Mode	Non - Motorized	Motorized	PT	Car	Bus	Para Transit	Minibus	Microbus
D1	1	14024	1402	12622	7292	5329	452	6840	4069	2771
	2	16717	1672	15045	8693	6352	539	8154	4851	3303
	3	17145	1715	15431	8915	6515	553	8363	4975	3388
	4	14817	1482	13335	7705	5630	478	7227	4299	2928
	5	15699	1570	14129	8163	5966	506	7657	4555	3102
	6	14912	1491	13421	7754	5667	481	7273	4327	2947
	7	16308	1631	14677	8480	6197	526	7954	4732	3222
	8	14711	1471	13240	7650	5590	474	7175	4269	2907
	9	15377	1538	13839	7996	5843	496	7500	4462	3038
	10	16463	1646	14817	8561	6256	531	8030	4777	3253
	11	15796	1580	14216	8214	6002	509	7705	4583	3121
	12	14797	1480	13317	7694	5623	477	7217	4293	2924
	13	14639	1464	13175	7612	5563	472	7140	4248	2893
	14	16304	1630	14674	8478	6196	526	7952	4731	3222
D2	15	26058	2866	23192	13550	9641	854	12696	7683	5014
	16	24957	2745	22212	12978	9234	818	12160	7358	4802
	17	22415	2466	19949	11656	8294	734	10921	6609	4313
	18	21215	2334	18881	11032	7850	695	10337	6255	4082
	19	24243	2667	21576	12606	8970	794	11812	7148	4664
	20	10187	1121	9066	5297	3769	334	4964	3004	1960
	21	18208	2003	16205	9468	6737	596	8872	5368	3503
	22	19959	2195	17764	10379	7385	654	9725	5885	3840
	23	20204	2222	17982	10506	7475	662	9844	5957	3887
	24	16023	1763	14260	8332	5929	525	7807	4724	3083
	25	21789	2397	19392	11330	8062	714	10616	6424	4192
D3	26	15469	1702	13767	8199	5569	525	7674	4722	2951
	27	26625	2929	23696	14111	9585	903	13208	8128	5080
	28	20119	2213	17906	10663	7243	682	9981	6142	3839
	29	25864	2845	23019	13708	9311	877	12831	7896	4935
	30	22288	2452	19836	11813	8024	756	11057	6804	4253
	31	17707	1948	15759	9385	6375	601	8784	5406	3378
	32	20276	2230	18046	10746	7299	688	10059	6190	3869
	33	20686	2275	18411	10964	7447	702	10262	6315	3947
	34	20662	2273	18389	10951	7438	701	10250	6308	3942
	35	16629	1829	14800	8813	5986	564	8249	5077	3173
	36	19986	2198	17788	10593	7195	678	9915	6101	3813
	37	17883	1967	15916	9478	6438	607	8871	5459	3412
D4	38	18421	2026	16210	9763	6447	635	9129	5711	3417
	39	20437	2248	17985	10832	7153	704	10128	6336	3791

	40	17032	1874	14988	9027	5961	587	8440	5281	3159
	41	23906	2630	21037	12670	8367	824	11847	7412	4435
	42	29885	3287	26299	15839	10460	1030	14810	9266	5544
	43	28791	3167	25336	15259	10077	992	14267	8927	5341
	44	22440	2468	19747	11893	7854	773	11120	6958	4163
	45	22936	2523	20184	12156	8028	790	11366	7111	4255
	46	29164	3208	25664	15457	10207	1005	14452	9042	5410
	47	25887	2848	22781	13720	9060	892	12828	8026	4802
	48	19436	2138	17104	10301	6803	670	9632	6026	3605
	49	27653	3042	24335	14656	9679	953	13703	8574	5130
	50	23340	2567	20539	12370	8169	804	11566	7237	4330
	51	16968	1866	14932	8993	5939	585	8408	5261	3148
D5	52	22891	2518	20144	12132	8012	789	11344	7097	4246
	53	30779	3693	26778	16621	10157	1114	15507	10022	5485
	54	32647	3918	28403	17629	10774	1181	16448	10631	5818
	55	39224	4707	34125	21181	12944	1419	19762	12772	6990
	56	45373	5445	39475	24501	14973	1642	22860	14774	8085
	57	26846	3222	23356	14497	8859	971	13526	8742	4784
	58	28739	3449	25003	15519	9484	1040	14479	9358	5121
D6	59	33547	4026	29186	18115	11071	1214	16902	10924	5978
	60	17528	2103	15425	9465	5960	625	8840	5622	3218
	61	12051	1446	10605	6508	4097	429	6078	3865	2213
	62	13652	1638	12014	7372	4642	487	6886	4379	2507
	63	13455	1615	11840	7266	4575	480	6786	4316	2470
	64	16291	1955	14336	8797	5539	581	8217	5226	2991
	65	13797	1656	12141	7450	4691	492	6959	4426	2533
	66	12736	1528	11208	6877	4330	454	6424	4085	2338
	67	18202	2184	16018	9829	6189	649	9180	5838	3342
	68	14728	1767	12961	7953	5008	525	7428	4724	2704
	69	14172	1701	12471	7653	4818	505	7148	4546	2602
	70	12633	1516	11117	6822	4295	450	6372	4052	2319
	71	13611	1633	11978	7350	4628	485	6865	4366	2499
	72	15814	1898	13916	8540	5377	564	7976	5072	2903
	73	14512	1741	12771	7836	4934	517	7319	4655	2664
	74	18981	2278	16703	10250	6454	676	9573	6088	3485
D10	75	24687	4444	20243	14318	5925	1088	13230	9794	3436
	76	33613	6050	27563	19496	8067	1482	18014	13335	4679
	77	30524	5494	25030	17704	7326	1345	16358	12109	4249
	78	30227	5441	24786	17532	7254	1332	16199	11992	4208
	79	27975	5036	22940	16226	6714	1233	14992	11098	3894
	80	36596	6587	30009	21226	8783	1613	19613	14518	5094
	81	27131	4884	22247	15736	6511	1196	14540	10763	3777
	82	26046	4688	21358	15107	6251	1148	13959	10333	3626
	83	29661	5339	24322	17203	7119	1307	15896	11767	4129

	84	32246	5804	26442	18703	7739	1421	17281	12793	4489
	85	26896	4841	22055	15600	6455	1186	14414	10670	3744
D8	86	11311	1584	9727	6221	3506	429	5792	3863	1929
	87	14969	2096	12873	8233	4640	568	7665	5113	2552
	88	18311	2564	15747	10071	5676	695	9376	6254	3122
	89	17591	2463	15128	9675	5453	668	9007	6008	2999
	90	18140	2540	15600	9977	5623	688	9289	6196	3093
	91	11816	1654	10162	6499	3663	448	6050	4036	2015
	92	14276	1999	12277	7852	4426	542	7310	4876	2434
	93	19811	2774	17037	10896	6141	752	10144	6766	3378
	94	19262	2697	16565	10594	5971	731	9863	6579	3284
	95	20703	2898	17805	11387	6418	786	10601	7071	3530
	96	15023	2103	12920	8263	4657	570	7693	5131	2561
	97	19236	2693	16543	10580	5963	730	9850	6570	3280
	98	15800	2212	13588	8690	4898	600	8090	5396	2694
	99	19208	2689	16519	10564	5954	729	9835	6560	3275
	100	17298	2422	14876	9514	5362	656	8857	5908	2949
	101	15387	2154	13233	8463	4770	584	7879	5255	2623
D16	102	12502	2125	10502	7126	3376	520	6606	4682	1924
	103	13263	2255	11141	7560	3581	552	7008	4967	2041
	104	14805	2517	12436	8439	3997	616	7823	5544	2278
	105	13996	2379	11757	7978	3779	582	7395	5241	2154
	106	13202	2244	11090	7525	3565	549	6976	4944	2032
	107	13491	2293	11332	7690	3643	561	7129	5052	2076
	108	12282	2088	10317	7001	3316	511	6490	4599	1890
	109	12399	2108	10415	7067	3348	516	6552	4643	1908
	110	13586	2310	11412	7744	3668	565	7179	5088	2091
	111	11956	2033	10043	6815	3228	497	6317	4477	1840
D9	112	13689	1369	12320	6571	5749	381	6190	3430	2760
	113	11181	1118	10063	5367	4696	311	5056	2802	2254
	114	17039	1704	15335	8179	7156	474	7704	4269	3435
	115	19429	1943	17486	9326	8160	541	8785	4868	3917
	116	20727	2073	18654	9949	8705	577	9372	5193	4179
	117	21352	2135	19217	10249	8968	594	9655	5350	4305
	118	21640	2164	19476	10387	9089	602	9785	5422	4363
	119	21473	2147	19326	10307	9019	598	9709	5380	4329
	120	22402	2240	20162	10753	9409	624	10129	5613	4516
	121	16240	1624	14616	7795	6821	452	7343	4069	3274
	122	18782	1878	16904	9015	7888	523	8492	4706	3786
	123	19036	1904	17132	9137	7995	530	8607	4770	3838
	124	15871	1587	14284	7618	6666	442	7176	3977	3200
	125	18379	1838	16541	8822	7719	512	8310	4605	3705
D15	126	37580	3382	34198	18038	16159	1028	17010	9254	7757
	127	33857	3047	30810	16251	14559	926	15325	8337	6988

	128	36205	3258	32947	17378	15568	991	16388	8915	7473
	129	36751	3308	33443	17640	15803	1006	16635	9050	7585
	130	36851	3317	33534	17688	15846	1008	16680	9074	7606
	131	34289	3086	31203	16459	14744	938	15521	8443	7077
	132	35477	3193	32284	17029	15255	971	16058	8736	7322
D11	133	36384	5458	30926	20375	10551	1447	18928	13020	5909
	134	39168	5875	33293	21934	11359	1557	20377	14016	6361
	135	40138	6021	34117	22477	11640	1596	20881	14363	6518
	136	41000	6150	34850	22960	11890	1630	21330	14671	6658
	137	39471	5921	33550	22104	11447	1569	20534	14124	6410
	138	45504	6826	38678	25482	13196	1809	23673	16283	7390
	139	40872	6131	34741	22888	11853	1625	21263	14626	6638
	140	36872	5531	31341	20648	10693	1466	19182	13194	5988
D7	141	14072	2111	11961	7880	4081	560	7321	5036	2285
	142	13852	2078	11774	7757	4017	551	7206	4957	2250
	143	18059	2709	15350	10113	5237	718	9395	6462	2933
	144	14633	2195	12438	8194	4244	582	7613	5236	2376
	145	14814	2222	12592	8296	4296	589	7707	5301	2406
	146	16839	2526	14313	9430	4883	670	8760	6026	2735
	147	15727	2359	13368	8807	4561	625	8182	5628	2554
	148	16522	2478	14044	9252	4791	657	8595	5912	2683
	149	17249	2587	14662	9659	5002	686	8974	6172	2801
	150	15524	2329	13195	8693	4502	617	8076	5555	2521
	151	15905	2386	13519	8907	4612	632	8274	5691	2583
	152	12831	1925	10906	7185	3721	510	6675	4591	2084
	153	14791	2219	12572	8283	4289	588	7695	5293	2402
	154	16111	2417	13694	9022	4672	641	8382	5765	2616
	155	14172	2126	12046	7936	4110	563	7373	5071	2302
	156	19247	2887	16360	10778	5582	765	10013	6887	3126
	157	14893	2234	12659	8340	4319	592	7748	5329	2419
	158	13527	2029	11498	7575	3923	538	7037	4841	2197
	159	13812	2072	11740	7735	4005	549	7186	4942	2243
	160	15125	2269	12856	8470	4386	601	7869	5412	2456
	161	11548	1732	9816	6467	3349	459	6008	4132	1875
D22	162	8095	810	7286	3886	3400	225	3660	2028	1632
	163	5836	584	5252	2801	2451	162	2639	1462	1177
	164	8664	866	7798	4159	3639	241	3918	2171	1747
	165	6577	658	5919	3157	2762	183	2974	1648	1326
	166	7817	782	7035	3752	3283	218	3535	1959	1576
	167	6613	661	5952	3174	2777	184	2990	1657	1333
D13	168	10260	1334	8824	5643	3181	389	5254	3504	1749
	169	10220	1329	8789	5621	3168	388	5233	3491	1743
	170	13035	1695	11210	7169	4041	495	6675	4452	2222
	171	16763	2179	14416	9220	5197	636	8583	5725	2858

	172	15953	2074	13720	8774	4945	605	8169	5449	2720
	173	16451	2139	14148	9048	5100	624	8424	5619	2805
	174	9798	1274	8426	5389	3037	372	5017	3347	1671
	175	12537	1630	10782	6895	3886	476	6420	4282	2138
	176	18383	2390	15809	10111	5699	698	9413	6279	3134
	177	14463	1880	12438	7955	4484	549	7406	4940	2466
	178	17623	2291	15156	9693	5463	669	9024	6019	3005
	179	14932	1941	12842	8213	4629	567	7646	5100	2546
	180	16002	2080	13762	8801	4961	607	8194	5465	2728
D20	181	12763	1149	11614	5999	5616	336	5663	3023	2639
	182	11214	1009	10205	5271	4934	295	4975	2656	2319
	183	7837	705	7132	3683	3448	206	3477	1856	1621
	184	8956	806	8150	4209	3941	236	3974	2121	1852
	185	9402	846	8556	4419	4137	247	4171	2227	1944
	186	9651	869	8782	4536	4246	254	4282	2286	1996
	187	11551	1040	10511	5429	5082	304	5125	2736	2389
D12	188	18853	2262	16591	10181	6410	672	9509	6047	3461
	189	25103	3012	22091	13556	8535	895	12661	8052	4609
	190	25934	3112	22822	14004	8818	924	13080	8319	4761
	191	23047	2766	20281	12445	7836	821	11624	7393	4231
	192	23843	2861	20982	12875	8107	850	12025	7648	4378
	193	26312	3157	23155	14208	8946	938	13271	8440	4831
	194	24083	2890	21193	13005	8188	858	12147	7725	4422
21	195	24944	2993	21951	12971	8980	830	12141	7471	4670
	196	23335	2800	20535	12134	8401	777	11358	6989	4368
	197	23779	2853	20926	12365	8560	791	11574	7122	4451
	198	25071	3009	22062	13037	9026	834	12203	7509	4693
	199	23049	2766	20283	11985	8298	767	11218	6904	4315
D19	200	10229	1330	8899	5319	3580	346	4973	3112	1862
	201	6188	804	5384	3218	2166	209	3009	1882	1126
	202	6868	893	5975	3571	2404	232	3339	2089	1250
	203	11191	1455	9736	5819	3917	378	5441	3404	2037
D18	204	3469	2775	3191	1630	1561	90	1541	807	734
	205	3580	2864	3294	1683	1611	93	1590	833	757
	206	4126	3301	3796	1939	1857	107	1833	960	873
	207	3795	3036	3491	1784	1708	98	1686	883	803
D17	208	21421	2356	19065	11353	7712	727	10627	6539	4087
	209	24887	2738	22149	13190	8959	844	12346	7598	4748
	210	17758	1953	15805	9412	6393	602	8809	5421	3388
	211	21706	2388	19318	11504	7814	736	10768	6626	4142
D14	212	23374	3272	20102	12388	7713	830	11558	7470	4088
	213	23862	3341	20521	12647	7874	847	11800	7626	4173
Total		4139007	531560	3611812	2210980	1400833	146895	2064085	1322052	742033

State Preference survey for understanding users' behaviour regarding the proposed Bus Rapid Transit system in Jalalabad City

Name:

Date:

Part 1: Socioeconomic Characteristics

Gender

Male
Female

Occupation

Employment
Student
Others

Car Ownership

Yes
No

Age

15-35
36-55
56-75

Part 2: Travel Features

Driving License

Yes
No

Travel Purpose

Work
Study
Other



Part 3: Purposed Bus Rapid Transit System in Jalalabad City

Please rate your desired Bus Rapid Transit system which is started from "Gulabad" to "Sayedabad" in Jalalabad city.

Highly Dissatisfied				Dissatisfied		Satisfied		Highly Satisfied				
1				2		3		4				
NO	Travel Cost (Afg)	Travel Time (min)	Waiting Time (min)	Station Distance (m)	Walking Time to Station (min)	Station type	Air-Condition	Corridor Type	Level of Satisfaction			
									1	2	3	4
1	30	55	5	500-800	10	Protected	Yes	Mixed				
2	40	35	15	800-1000	10	Non-Protected	Yes	Mixed				
3	40	45	10	500-800	10	Protected	No	Dedicated				
4	10	35	5	500-800	5	Non-Protected	No	Mixed				
5	20	35	8	500-800	10	Protected	Yes	Dedicated				
6	10	55	10	800-1000	10	Protected	Yes	Mixed				
7	30	60	8	800-1000	10	Non-Protected	No	Mixed				
8	30	35	15	800-1000	5	Non-Protected	No	Dedicated				
9	10	45	8	800-1000	5	Non-Protected	Yes	Mixed				
10	30	45	15	500-800	5	Protected	Yes	Dedicated				
11	40	55	5	500-800	5	Non-Protected	No	Dedicated				
12	20	55	15	800-1000	5	Protected	No	Mixed				
13	20	45	5	800-1000	10	Non-Protected	No	Dedicated				
14	10	60	15	500-800	10	Protected	No	Dedicated				
15	40	60	5	800-1000		Protected	Yes	Dedicated				
16	20	60	10	500-800	5	Non-Protected	Yes	Mixed	5			

Figure A1: SP survey questionnaire form

Table A3: Trips by mode choice and level of compactness

Des	Traffic zones	Trip by Walk	Trip by PT	Trip by car	Level of Compactness
D1	1.0	5893.0	5136.0	3687.0	3.4
	2.0	5518.0	4841.0	3451.0	2.6
	3.0	5250.0	4580.0	3278.0	3.5
	4.0	5351.0	4665.0	3352.0	5.1
	5.0	5562.0	4880.0	3482.0	2.5
	6.0	5162.0	4519.0	3234.0	1.8
	7.0	4951.0	4338.0	3089.0	5.2
	8.0	5763.0	5028.0	3620.0	2.6
	9.0	5099.0	4465.0	3197.0	4.6
	10.0	4730.0	4145.0	2958.0	4.0
	11.0	4935.0	4315.0	3077.0	2.7
	12.0	4901.0	4288.0	3048.0	4.3
	13.0	4473.0	3881.0	2803.0	1.9
	14.0	6325.0	5515.0	3961.0	6.0
D2	15.0	7507.0	6573.0	4691.0	4.2
	16.0	7383.0	6454.0	4620.0	4.3
	17.0	9858.0	8604.0	6160.0	5.1
	18.0	7515.0	6572.0	4691.0	4.2
	19.0	7922.0	6915.0	4970.0	4.5
	20.0	6937.0	6071.0	4340.0	2.9
	21.0	7026.0	6143.0	4402.0	5.4
	22.0	7422.0	6494.0	4631.0	4.2
	23.0	6193.0	5406.0	3877.0	3.8
	24.0	8420.0	7383.0	5269.0	6.5
	25.0	6238.0	5444.0	3915.0	4.6
D3	26.0	7121.0	6227.0	4459.0	0.0
	27.0	6836.0	5976.0	4283.0	-2.4
	28.0	7800.0	6807.0	4883.0	-2.1
	29.0	7362.0	6445.0	4599.0	0.1
	30.0	6599.0	5784.0	4120.0	0.2
	31.0	6545.0	5742.0	4102.0	-3.4
	32.0	6163.0	5375.0	3858.0	0.5
	33.0	5681.4	5268.6	6049.7	-0.6
	34.0	3898.3	3918.4	6128.3	-0.8
	35.0	6128.0	5348.0	3843.0	-2.0
	36.0	4318.9	4012.2	4619.9	-0.2

	37.0	5708.0	4984.0	3569.0	-2.8
D4	38.0	6611.0	5795.0	4141.0	-0.8
	39.0	5991.0	5249.0	3764.0	2.7
	40.0	5852.0	5105.0	3672.0	-1.9
	41.0	5464.0	4766.0	3413.0	0.0
	42.0	6107.3	5651.1	6527.6	0.4
	43.0	6756.0	5918.0	4213.0	2.2
	44.0	6622.0	5783.0	4144.0	2.9
	45.0	6523.0	5720.0	4097.0	2.6
	46.0	7283.0	6352.0	4555.0	1.1
	47.0	6842.0	5982.0	4267.0	-0.6
	48.0	7052.0	6161.0	4412.0	0.7
	49.0	7349.0	6417.0	4586.0	-0.8
	50.0	7081.0	6191.0	4431.0	1.8
	51.0	7948.0	6948.0	4983.0	-1.9
	52.0	7273.0	6343.0	4556.0	-0.9
D5	53.0	5883.5	5889.6	9249.9	0.1
	54.0	5781.3	5775.2	9085.5	-0.6
	55.0	12162	10645	7612.0	-2.2
	56.0	8372.7	8368.0	13166	-1.9
	57.0	7560.0	6609.0	4726.0	1.8
	58.0	8088.0	7066.0	5059.0	-1.4
	59.0	4705.4	4710.4	7377.2	1.4
D6	60.0	5868.0	5120.0	3681.0	-0.2
	61.0	6039.0	5273.0	3787.0	2.3
	62.0	5744.0	5015.0	3596.0	-2.3
	63.0	3891.3	3591.9	4164.4	-2.9
	64.0	4947.0	4567.5	5288.3	-0.4
	65.0	6633.0	5812.0	4136.0	-2.1
	66.0	6439.0	5642.0	4028.0	-1.0
	67.0	6308.0	5509.0	3952.0	-1.0
	68.0	6118.0	5339.0	3835.0	-2.6
	69.0	3851.4	3558.6	4117.8	1.5
	70.0	3564.4	3568.8	5612.8	1.5
	71.0	4134.9	4129.6	6513.5	-1.1
	72.0	3275.3	3284.0	5157.7	-2.6
	73.0	4132.1	4121.6	6505.3	-1.4
	74.0	6044.0	5285.0	3798.0	-0.2
D10	75.0	7139.0	6255.0	4476.0	-0.1

	76.0	7085.0	6210.0	4443.0	3.0
	77.0	6358.0	5895.9	6780.7	0.6
	78.0	5261.5	4872.6	5626.6	1.2
	79.0	7949.0	6931.0	4985.0	-0.9
	80.0	8508.0	7434.0	5315.0	-0.1
	81.0	6649.6	6150.6	7097.6	0.6
	82.0	8761.0	7659.0	5471.0	1.1
	83.0	8523.0	7444.0	5328.0	0.9
	84.0	7214.0	6688.8	7696.9	0.8
	85.0	7625.0	6657.0	4772.0	1.3
D8	86.0	3936.1	3928.8	6175.1	-0.6
	87.0	4312.7	4290.4	6772.9	-2.0
	88.0	5026.0	5018.4	7896.6	-1.6
	89.0	3938.2	3944.8	6187.0	-1.8
	90.0	4163.6	4159.2	6557.2	1.9
	91.0	5143.4	4757.4	5495.6	-0.7
	92.0	5610.0	5190.3	5988.1	3.2
	93.0	5860.0	5125.0	3667.0	2.8
	94.0	6155.0	5380.0	3871.0	-0.3
	95.0	5869.0	5142.0	3673.0	-0.1
	96.0	3674.3	3677.6	5779.1	0.1
	97.0	4148.2	4137.6	6525.2	0.0
	98.0	3801.0	3794.4	5973.6	0.1
	99.0	5689.0	4964.0	3546.0	4.8
	100.0	4181.8	4180.8	6598.4	4.1
	101.0	4027.1	4020.0	6328.9	0.1
D16	102.0	6520.0	5703.0	4075.0	-1.0
	103.0	5360.0	4678.0	3360.0	-1.9
	104.0	5101.0	4472.0	3191.0	-0.9
	105.0	3201.8	3189.6	5048.6	-2.5
	106.0	3250.8	3238.4	5123.8	-2.5
	107.0	4020.1	4022.4	6324.5	-1.6
	108.0	5288.0	4626.0	3309.0	-1.8
	109.0	4657.0	4056.0	2924.0	-1.9
	110.0	5128.0	4487.0	3203.0	-3.3
	111.0	3362.1	3372.0	5285.9	-2.4
D9	112.0	6937.0	6071.0	4340.0	-1.1
	113.0	5635.0	4933.0	3515.0	0.2
	114.0	5754.0	5027.0	3592.0	2.9

	115.	5951.0	5194.0	3722.0	0.4
	116.0	4855.2	4519.8	5184.1	2.3
	117.0	4170.6	4161.6	6542.8	2.9
	118.0	4027.8	4018.4	6328.8	3.0
	119.0	5294.0	4640.0	3318.0	-2.3
	120.0	4710.0	4109.0	2959.0	1.4
	121.0	5669.0	4943.0	3551.0	-1.9
	122.0	6466.0	5981.4	6887.0	0.2
	123.0	5470.6	5061.6	5836.0	0.4
	124.0	6819.0	5968.0	4260.0	-3.0
	125.0	5884.2	5871.2	9238.6	-1.0
D15	126.0	11337.0	9905.0	7082.0	-0.7
	127.0	6944.0	6932.0	10919.0	-0.5
	128.0	9543.0	8335.0	5971.0	-0.2
	129.0	6965.0	6956.0	10955.0	-1.6
	130.0	6267.8	6276.0	9853.2	-0.7
	131.0	9385.7	8692.2	10008.0	-1.3
	132.0	9251.9	9240.0	14536.1	-2.0
D11	133.0	7165.9	7163.2	11260.9	1.6
	134.0	6606.6	6601.6	10376.8	-0.7
	135.0	11909.0	10398.0	7451.0	3.5
	136.0	13034.0	11406.0	8144.0	3.2
	137.0	9636.2	9625.6	15150.2	-0.9
	138.0	7959.0	7963.2	12497.8	3.4
	139.0	12824.0	11218.0	8030.0	2.4
	140.0	6855.3	6349.5	7319.0	0.4
D7	141.0	5704.0	5010.0	3559.0	2.1
	142.0	5586.0	4893.0	3484.0	1.9
	140	5196.0	4557.0	3248.0	4.5
	144.0	6027.0	5263.0	3786.0	1.0
	145.0	6268.0	5476.0	3931.0	0.5
	146.0	4749.0	4163.0	2956.0	4.5
	147.0	4224.0	3677.0	2666.0	2.7
	148.0	4605.0	4036.0	2889.0	-0.6
	149.0	4698.0	4118.0	2922.0	1.6
	150.0	4562.0	3983.0	2874.0	1.6
	151.0	4298.0	3739.0	2699.0	-0.7
	152.0	3518.2	3249.0	3775.4	-0.2
	153.0	4364.0	3792.0	2731.0	-0.5

	154.0	4413.0	3834.0	2764.0	0.7
	155.0	4542.0	3962.0	2861.0	-0.5
	156.0	4069.8	3771.0	4310.7	0.2
	157.0	3005.8	2984.8	4742.4	-1.1
	158.0	3575.1	3292.2	3839.6	1.7
	159.0	2884.7	2891.2	4559.1	-3.3
	160.0	3306.8	3316.0	5201.2	-2.6
	161.0	3628.1	3608.8	5707.1	-1.9
D22	162.0	3336.2	3346.4	5216.4	-1.9
	163.0	3027.5	3006.4	4760.1	-3.4
	164.0	2961.7	2947.2	4674.1	-2.5
	165.0	3059.0	3036.0	4815.0	-1.9
	166.0	2758.7	2757.6	4340.7	-3.5
	167.0	3175.9	3167.2	5003.9	0.1
D13	168.0	3447.6	3182.4	3687.8	0.0
	169.0	3908.0	3414.0	2426.0	-0.1
	170.0	2776.9	2764.8	4368.3	-0.9
	171.0	2843.4	2834.4	4472.2	0.8
	172.0	3712.0	3414.6	3978.2	0.1
	173.0	3380.0	2978.0	2128.0	-0.6
	174.0	3156.1	2941.2	3354.2	0.3
	175.0	3227.5	3017.7	3442.5	-1.6
	176.0	2759.4	2740.8	4325.8	0.8
	177.0	3238.5	3031.2	3453.7	-2.9
	178.0	3215.8	3203.2	5066.0	-2.0
	179.0	2643.9	2677.6	4149.5	-2.7
	180.0	2631.3	2667.2	4126.5	-0.7
D20	181.0	2776.9	2755.2	4358.9	-2.8
	182.0	2519.3	2490.4	3960.3	-2.7
	183.0	2589.3	2597.6	4074.1	-3.5
	184.0	3070.2	3072.8	4806.0	-2.9
	185.0	3087.0	3096.8	4829.2	-3.2
	186.0	3174.5	3179.2	5010.3	-3.1
	187.0	3621.8	3599.2	5695.0	3.4
D12	188.0	3854.2	3854.4	6050.4	-1.0
	189.0	4309.2	4307.2	6798.6	-1.2
	190.0	3356.5	3358.4	5278.1	-1.8
	191.0	5349.4	5359.2	8404.4	-2.8
	192.0	4710.3	4724.8	7402.9	0.2

	193.0	5485.2	5473.6	8626.2	-2.1
	194.0	3653.3	3651.2	5740.5	-2.7
21	195.0	3987.9	3979.2	6266.9	-4.3
	196.0	3354.4	3360.0	5249.6	-4.4
	197.0	3674.3	3673.6	5758.1	-4.4
	198.0	4193.0	4204.0	6598.0	-4.2
	199.0	3684.1	3685.6	5774.3	-3.2
D19	200.0	3542.0	3529.6	5567.4	-1.0
	201.0	3464.3	3465.6	5429.1	-4.9
	202.0	3584.0	3584.8	5636.2	-1.5
	203.0	3536.4	3521.6	5563.0	-1.2
D18	204.0	2342.2	2352.8	3692.0	-3.5
	205.0	2447.9	2424.0	3857.1	-1.7
	206.0	2202.2	2207.2	3444.6	-3.6
D17	207.0	2416.4	2402.4	3804.2	-2.0
	208.0	3565.8	3560.8	5599.4	-1.6
	209.0	4316.9	4308.8	6795.3	-2.0
	210.0	4046.0	4031.2	6350.8	-1.2
	211.0	3773.7	3756.0	5945.3	-2.7
D14	212.0	3398.5	3396.8	5315.7	0.8
	213.0	3215.8	3203.2	5066.0	-2.0

Table A3: The collected data

Observed Data									
District No	TRZs No	Dependent Variables		Independent Variables					
		Trip Generation	Trip Attraction	Car Ownership	Student	Employee	Population	Pop Density	Area (ha)
D1	1	46	70	47	49	43	73	6.08	12
	2	76	97	42	56	40	159	8.37	19
	3	80	105	53	66	57	104	2.37	44
	4	64	75	33	52	36	157	6.54	24
	5	68	88	46	48	39	153	19.14	8
	6	64	82	49	44	44	103	11.49	9
	7	78	99	39	45	40	106	1.66	64
	8	110	82	44	38	30	125	8.36	15
	9	71	89	36	43	23	173	3.27	53
	10	77	109	27	38	29	108	3.00	36
	11	76	107	37	61	29	106	4.83	22
	12	64	83	35	46	25	106	2.87	37
	13	65	94	18	53	26	106	1.28	83
	14	85	104	45	62	73	225	8.34	27
D2	15	192	228	100	85	95	219	15.65	14
	16	171	221	79	89	88	324	5.40	60
	17	155	192	49	112	64	204	2.84	72
	18	147	193	100	51	70	192	5.80	33
	19	162	207	85	81	71	206	4.79	43
	20	161	204	75	81	90	201	5.16	39
	21	102	135	68	83	59	190	4.23	45
	22	112	147	85	53	60	256	2.61	98
	23	114	135	62	67	62	224	1.84	122
	24	71	86	109	65	79	220	5.36	41
	25	133	157	52	90	48	264	2.20	120
D3	26	66	100	41	75	51	155	17.26	9
	27	198	195	26	56	67	333	19.61	17
	28	115	110	51	35	70	220	7.59	29
	29	189	180	63	58	63	297	6.46	46
	30	190	140	69	43	67	228	3.51	65
	31	95	108	46	59	20	161	3.75	43
	32	111	114	61	39	53	177	1.68	105
	33	118	109	55	56	49	266	1.71	156
	34	115	138	34	34	49	178	0.85	211
	35	83	99	68	47	56	133	3.90	34
	36	108	117	33	46	41	177	1.14	155
	37	89	98	44	31	29	149	2.36	63

D4	38	86	96	46	49	37	147	1.72	85
	39	115	110	51	43	43	182	3.43	53
	40	83	94	32	38	32	139	1.86	75
	41	154	109	37	24	30	259	2.38	109
	42	232	162	57	38	34	271	1.40	193
	43	214	134	66	56	45	448	6.05	74
	44	123	119	51	31	57	338	4.23	80
	45	131	127	71	50	45	331	3.28	101
	46	216	147	51	48	31	453	10.53	43
	47	174	108	43	46	32	282	13.44	21
	48	109	120	54	34	42	277	4.26	65
	49	203	153	57	28	49	290	7.25	40
	50	136	135	55	51	47	236	3.86	61
	51	83	101	18	48	38	444	4.88	91
	52	140	122	133	28	66	134	1.76	76
D5	53	284	188	146	80	101	444	0.48	929
	54	304	162	81	82	115	274	1.11	248
	55	424	201	97	102	71	534	4.01	133
	56	539	282	104	71	114	617	0.73	849
	57	216	158	114	68	108	222	2.58	86
	58	252	152	54	101	84	441	5.59	79
	59	296	150	25	48	52	306	0.48	635
D6	60	83	115	18	65	29	135	1.83	74
	61	48	79	9	9	6	183	3.59	51
	62	56	87	30	12	69	103	1.78	58
	63	56	105	22	29	56	106	0.74	143
	64	76	86	22	27	53	131	0.77	170
	65	50	72	36	33	20	83	0.81	103
	66	56	96	77	48	74	199	2.49	80
	67	91	112	25	61	36	176	1.85	95
	68	75	108	40	31	66	120	1.71	70
	69	68	115	91	30	133	110	0.61	181
	70	55	83	10	18	43	199	0.08	2370
	71	55	98	36	41	65	117	0.15	793
	72	69	115	47	22	132	118	0.42	280
	73	68	100	31	66	58	121	0.34	358
	74	102	130	111	25	97	183	2.06	89
D10	75	163	208	87	58	123	294	3.09	95
	76	265	221	41	66	61	452	3.53	128
	77	238	225	232	39	193	294	1.83	161
	78	185	181	39	89	57	312	1.90	164
	79	189	163	101	35	79	326	2.91	112
	80	319	290	59	60	60	525	4.30	122

	81	195	168	241	49	188	324	1.98	164
	82	160	169	110	98	92	294	3.63	81
	83	209	206	79	80	43	354	8.23	43
	84	259	227	187	67	145	442	2.82	157
	85	187	210	64	79	56	304	3.42	89
D8	86	46	95	29	11	53	96	0.42	227
	87	61	112	47	40	52	103	0.18	568
	88	90	122	99	46	66	162	0.70	233
	89	83	127	48	95	60	148	0.55	272
	90	82	85	68	36	67	139	0.54	258
	91	55	126	46	34	68	91	0.62	147
	92	54	126	60	56	74	96	0.55	175
	93	100	125	73	38	60	165	2.71	61
	94	103	128	61	33	66	166	1.47	113
	95	102	119	44	32	36	165	1.31	126
	96	63	103	52	26	44	107	0.38	278
	97	101	111	55	15	59	165	0.50	327
	98	73	96	51	34	66	127	0.62	204
	99	98	100	40	25	42	177	1.96	90
	100	82	122	67	36	67	140	0.23	604
	101	63	94	75	59	56	110	0.09	1196
D16	102	48	107	70	44	51	83	3.19	26
	103	48	97	67	46	103	79	0.79	100
	104	62	100	43	65	63	110	2.16	51
	105	49	112	29	56	56	88	0.32	278
	106	49	110	30	48	59	96	0.19	514
	107	56	124	74	24	52	99	0.15	654
	108	49	115	64	20	52	83	0.89	93
	109	49	120	38	35	50	79	1.39	57
	110	53	93	45	33	45	110	2.39	46
	111	51	97	42	55	62	88	0.13	700
	112	56	94	83	56	50	96	1.18	81
D9	113	42	84	71	72	77	99	2.47	40
	114	75	80	60	28	66	132	1.83	72
	115	105	141	70	31	61	169	2.26	75
	116	115	136	48	27	81	178	1.20	148
	117	115	117	44	43	76	176	0.86	205
	118	128	127	20	56	29	206	0.63	326
	119	128	146	31	53	30	197	2.67	74
	120	119	127	9	29	37	193	4.01	48
	121	70	150	16	31	40	304	5.73	53
	122	97	129	37	33	62	148	0.80	185
	123	94	134	17	78	30	148	1.03	144

	124	69	126	5	36	39	103	1.00	103
	125	96	159	121	42	90	149	0.16	930
D15	126	325	231	180	66	166	451	3.79	119
	127	282	186	138	85	170	449	1.15	391
	128	314	213	120	88	119	467	9.16	51
	129	317	221	80	76	65	496	0.51	971
	130	317	192	71	67	75	503	0.72	698
	131	288	180	125	85	92	478	3.25	147
	132	288	209	225	97	183	459	0.53	864
D11	133	317	215	106	142	135	460	1.79	257
	134	416	242	61	126	101	488	1.05	464
	135	409	246	125	96	113	677	8.90	76
	136	498	278	166	116	179	599	6.88	87
	137	447	226	189	141	174	596	2.52	237
	138	582	312	143	89	140	482	1.29	373
	139	420	244	183	67	152	625	7.62	82
	140	314	226	28	166	42	523	2.83	185
D7	141	53	131	22	25	29	96	2.33	41
	142	53	86	35	42	43	77	2.86	27
	143	83	121	19	49	25	155	3.03	51
	144	62	92	47	15	26	90	1.06	85
	145	57	81	56	22	29	92	1.36	68
	146	72	88	25	52	25	120	2.04	59
	147	65	78	9	32	23	105	3.40	31
	148	65	83	11	22	37	139	1.21	115
	149	66	68	24	24	37	120	2.22	54
	150	66	75	17	17	28	120	1.38	87
	151	66	80	6	11	13	120	1.36	88
	152	48	67	17	27	30	81	0.54	149
	153	57	72	21	25	24	95	1.16	82
	154	65	95	17	13	24	104	1.51	69
	155	56	74	30	18	34	89	1.04	86
	156	104	87	6	30	30	169	1.14	148
	157	56	95	15	28	15	96	0.43	224
	158	48	89	19	18	22	81	0.56	144
	159	52	84	18	12	19	76	0.15	489
	160	88	90	32	17	19	105	0.11	971
	161	79	63	34	28	28	146	0.61	240
D22	162	80	65	23	10	24	136	0.16	869
	163	14	54	21	11	18	144	0.15	955
	164	21	53	26	10	17	130	0.12	1104
	165	16	78	21	21	16	149	0.04	3884
	166	16	42	10	12	12	137	0.17	795

	167	14	50	31	24	33	132	0.35	374
D13	168	35	62	26	42	31	59	0.31	191
	169	41	89	25	41	39	36	0.58	62
	170	48	55	20	20	30	61	0.23	266
	171	79	77	36	14	27	28	0.13	211
	172	73	82	48	12	42	30	0.17	177
	173	76	86	8	34	19	22	0.36	61
	174	33	58	13	20	22	50	0.33	153
	175	34	59	11	25	19	65	0.36	184
	176	38	59	12	17	22	73	0.27	269
	177	39	58	12	11	26	61	0.32	192
	178	85	108	25	24	22	105	0.26	410
	179	39	79	14	19	31	54	0.08	708
D20	180	39	60	15	31	4	55	0.03	1810
	181	41	49	22	8	12	56	0.23	244
	182	44	42	5	10	2	59	0.06	1012
	183	24	38	19	9	14	36	0.04	1029
	184	29	45	10	7	5	39	0.03	1554
	185	26	45	7	3	1	50	0.08	618
	186	34	32	14	4	7	46	0.03	1770
D12	187	39	65	40	11	58	51	0.01	8242
	188	200	91	53	48	57	142	0.53	269
	189	157	122	48	76	128	209	0.76	276
	190	174	124	31	71	91	107	0.22	494
	191	132	150	69	66	46	302	0.37	824
	192	135	148	71	55	75	208	0.39	536
	193	185	125	81	50	97	296	0.82	359
D21	194	158	133	7	57	4	307	0.40	763
	195	174	134	28	5	8	301	0.29	1030
	196	132	150	11	10	6	353	0.53	663
	197	135	148	10	6	9	200	0.31	637
	198	185	125	14	3	8	271	0.13	2053
D19	199	158	131	11	18	10	201	0.10	2056
	200	45	42	11	5	7	200	0.12	1667
	201	18	47	24	17	8	161	0.22	724
	202	21	51	33	17	38	166	0.04	4111
D18	203	39	50	43	36	39	130	0.02	7759
	204	7	52	2	4	2	40	0.05	746
	205	5	33	2	2	3	60	0.12	516
	206	8	53	1	2	2	35	0.04	970
D17	207	8	48	11	1	7	34	0.03	1194
	208	103	107	24	24	28	154	0.14	1108
	209	149	135	33	38	38	254	0.29	877

D14	210	95	89	43	28	39	190	0.32	589
	211	114	138	24	40	37	197	0.06	3048
	212	123	150	14	45	45	158	0.05	3063
	213	135	140	35	41	39	154	0.02	7330

Table A4. Trip Generation in 213 traffic zones in Kabul city

Zones	Trip Generation	Trip Attraction	Zones	Trip Generation	Trip Attraction	Zones	Trip Generation	Trip Attraction
1	14175	13768	40	14287	13086	79	18758	16494
2	13515	13086	41	13218	13711	80	20134	18027
3	12740	13200	42	17314	15131	81	18646	16380
4	12929	13768	43	16513	13995	82	21058	15756
5	13597	13200	44	16101	14392	83	20776	14335
6	12476	13541	45	15919	13938	84	20620	14563
7	11960	13370	46	17678	14847	85	18587	14335
8	13997	13541	47	16769	13881	86	13678	13484
9	12224	13881	48	17292	14279	87	14955	13995
10	11300	13427	49	17808	15131	88	16977	16380
11	11842	13541	50	17177	14733	89	13585	14506
12	11723	13881	51	19492	14222	90	14539	13427
13	10714	13313	52	17719	14222	91	14584	14620
14	15407	13086	53	20635	15244	92	15544	17175
15	18023	15244	54	19767	15925	93	14146	14563
16	17400	17403	55	29428	17516	94	14825	14620
17	23529	16835	56	29684	15699	95	13790	16721
18	17815	16494	57	18594	14109	96	12758	13881
19	18713	16835	58	19667	15358	97	14443	14335
20	17158	16777	59	16620	14222	98	13218	13881
21	16873	15017	60	14064	14904	99	13864	13881
22	17993	14790	61	14777	13427	100	14506	14392
23	14884	14449	62	13945	14109	101	14201	13654
24	20538	14449	63	10951	14109	102	15800	13881
25	15188	13881	64	14198	13597	103	12921	13541
26	17255	14904	65	16379	13427	104	12302	13654
27	16624	13995	66	15845	13881	105	10899	14222
28	18824	15585	67	15545	13881	106	11166	13938
29	17871	14449	68	14981	13995	107	13856	14335
30	15901	15131	69	10936	14335	108	12847	14052
31	15919	14109	70	12654	13654	109	11200	13881
32	14999	13881	71	14665	13881	110	12420	13881
33	16235	14449	72	11441	13654	111	11671	13881
34	13534	13654	73	14472	13881	112	16910	13881
35	14903	14222	74	14673	14676	113	13678	13313
36	12331	13427	75	17095	15925	114	13882	13881
37	13893	13484	76	17118	15472	115	14164	14790
38	16038	14222	77	18134	15244	116	13637	14790
39	14647	13143	78	14713	16267	117	14075	16267

Zones	Trip Generation	Trip Attraction	Zones	Trip Generation	Trip Attraction	Zones	Trip Generation	Trip Attraction
118	13430	17403	157	10276	13768	196	11519	14335
119	12628	15017	158	10124	13427	197	12680	14279
120	11192	14563	159	9935	13370	198	14762	14222
121	13036	18197	160	11519	13654	199	12766	14563
122	18179	16948	161	12702	13484	200	12740	12689
123	15693	14392	162	11790	13086	201	12498	12689
124	16279	16380	163	10736	12859	202	13163	12689
125	20568	14676	164	10513	12689	203	12821	12745
126	27966	14335	165	10736	13654	204	8050	12689
127	24148	15925	166	9745	12632	205	8569	12291
128	23573	14449	167	11330	12689	206	7861	12745
129	24523	14449	168	9968	13086	207	8428	12632
130	21496	15925	169	9311	13541	208	12317	13881
131	26727	16267	170	9664	13029	209	15448	14733
132	32170	15472	171	9756	13427	210	14379	13597
133	25132	14335	172	10521	13597	211	13433	15017
134	23188	14904	173	7938	13654	212	11827	14676
135	29298	14449	174	8963	12973	213	12970	14563
136	32304	14449	175	9233	13029			
137	33591	16835	176	9501	13143			
138	27900	15699	177	9189	13029			
139	31391	16380	178	11103	13881			
140	19540	16040	179	9126	13484			
141	13289	16721	180	9211	12973			
142	13567	13541	181	9653	12689			
143	12046	16721	182	8721	12518			
144	14617	13881	183	8955	12576			
145	15281	13484	184	11096	12689			
146	11493	13427	185	11204	12745			
147	10154	13370	186	11515	12178			
148	11155	13427	187	13188	12689			
149	11434	13143	188	13726	13143			
150	11018	13484	189	15170	14335			
151	10365	13370	190	11511	14733			
152	10005	13313	191	18832	14335			
153	10606	13143	192	16509	14335			
154	10602	13825	193	19388	13995			
155	10985	13427	194	12684	14676			
156	11638	13370	195	13775	14733			

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