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**Estimation of Road User's Value of Travel Time Savings Using Large-Scale Household Survey Data from Japan**

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1  
2 **Abstract.** This paper uses a large Japanese database to empirically estimate road users' value of travel time saving  
3 (VTTS). The results of parameter estimation show that the estimated VTTS of business travel is nearly equal to the  
4 average wage rate in Japan whereas the estimated VTTSs of home-to-workplace and personal travels are lower than  
5 the estimated VTTS of business travel; VTTS increases with the trip length; estimated VTTSs during 8:00 and 10:59  
6 and 18:00 and 19:59 are higher than those during other periods; estimated VTTSs of individuals in their 20s and in  
7 their 60s are lower than those of individuals in other age groups; estimated VTTS of males is similar to that of  
8 females; estimated VTTS per vehicle when driving alone is higher than the estimated VTTS per vehicle in drive with  
9 passenger(s); and estimated VTTS of production/transport workers is lower than the estimated VTTSs of other jobs.

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**Keywords.** Value of travel time saving, route choice, expressway, Japan

## 1 INTRODUCTION

2 Generally, expressways provide road users with high-quality service by reducing traffic congestion to reduce travel  
3 time and providing safer driving conditions. These benefits encourage drivers to choose the expressway rather than  
4 ordinary roads although they are required to pay toll. With increasing consumer demand for high-speed, high-quality,  
5 but high-priced road services, nationwide expressway networks have been developed in many regions. Toll charge  
6 has been one of the most important issues in expressway planning. The user's willingness to pay (WTP) for saving  
7 travel time by using an expressway service could be one of the most important factors when examining toll charges  
8 for expressways. As Hensher and Goodwin (1) noted, the value of travel time savings (VTTS) has recently been  
9 utilized to estimate the toll charge; here, the important issue is not the hypothetical WTP, but the actual money paid.  
10 However, thus far, the VTTS has not worked well for determining the toll charge of an expressway service in Japan.  
11 One of its reasons is because the VTTSs have not been well analyzed with the empirical data in Japan.

12 In Japan, the cost-benefit analysis guideline for road projects in Japan sets the overall framework of project  
13 evaluation including the VTTS (Morisugi, 2). It shows that the VTTS is determined on the basis of the average wage  
14 rate for the entire nation. The average-wage-rate approach is applied, not only to business travel, but also to non-  
15 business travel. Although the VTTS estimates based on the average wage rate could be used for approximations of  
16 the WTP values for saving time in business travel, this may not be the case for non-business travel (Small and  
17 Verhoef, 3). Thus, there is a great need to estimate the VTTSs on the basis of the preference data of travelers. The  
18 guideline also assumes that the VTTSs do not vary based on the trip distance or departure time. However, past  
19 studies in other countries, such as Mackie et al. (4) and Axhausen et al. (5), have shown that the VTTS changes as  
20 the trip distance increases. The VTTSs could also vary based on the departure time. This is partly because the traffic  
21 conditions including the traffic congestion could vary among the time of a day. For example, the guideline of VTTS  
22 in UK (Department for Transport, 6) shows that the VTTSs vary among the time of a day. Although several studies  
23 have estimated the national VTTSs empirically in Japan, these have not been estimated in the context of the route  
24 choice in the road network, but rather in the context of the modal choice (Kato and Onoda, 7) or urban rail route  
25 choice (Kato, 8).

26 This paper empirically estimates the VTTSs in a choice context where the expressway service is chosen or  
27 not in Japan. Rather than push the state of the art in discrete choice modeling, this paper contributes to the  
28 discussions on the VTTSs used for the project evaluation and the toll setting of expressways in Japan. To our  
29 knowledge, this is the first report that uses national-level revealed preference data from Japan to estimate the VTTS  
30 for road users in the context of choosing the expressway service. The paper is organized as follows: the first section  
31 shows the research motivation and goals. Next, the analytical method and data used for the empirical analysis will be  
32 presented. Then, the empirical analysis will be presented. The policy implications are discussed on the basis of the  
33 analysis results. Finally, the findings of the empirical analysis are summarized, and further research issues are  
34 presented.  
35

## 36 APPROACH

37 Three major approaches are used for empirically estimating the VTTSs for road users. The first is the stated choice  
38 approach (Louviere et al., 9). It typically involves asking an individual to compare the given times and costs of a  
39 current route with a proposed toll road. The VTTSs are estimated with a discrete-choice type model such as the logit,  
40 probit, or mixed choice models (Hensher, 10; 11). Unfortunately, no national survey data for the stated choices are  
41 available in the context of road route choice in Japan. The second approach is the meta-analysis approach. Wardman  
42 (12, 13) analyzed the characteristics of VTTSs using about 1000 data sets collected from UK studies on urban and  
43 interurban travel choices. Kato et al. (14) also reported the results of a VTTS meta-analysis that used 216 VTTSs  
44 estimated during the past decades in Japan. However, the implications of this meta-analysis of the VTTS for road  
45 users may be limited since few studies have evaluated the time saving of road use in Japan. The third approach  
46 involves estimating the VTTS base on the revealed preference data from road users. This typically includes the route  
47 choice from an origin to a destination. This paper applies this third approach to the estimation of the national VTTS  
48 for road users in Japan. The dataset from a large-scale car-use trip survey, the Road Traffic Census, is used for the  
49 empirical estimation. It includes over 4,436,000 car-use trips covering the entire nation collected using a paper-based  
50 in-person interview survey. The Road Traffic Census has been mainly used for traffic assignment to forecast future  
51 traffic demands. No study has attempted to estimate the VTTS empirically using this dataset. Because the dataset  
52 includes an origin, destination, start point for using an expressway, and end point for using the expressway, the route  
53 used by the individual who chose the expressway service can be identified with a high accuracy. Thus, it is expected  
54 to provide useful information for estimating the VTTS with a route choice analysis.

55 A simple binary logit model (15) is used for the route choice analysis to estimate the VTTSs. It is assumed  
56 that there are two route options from a given origin to a given destination for any observed trip: an "expressway  
57 route" that includes both ordinary road links and expressway links and a "no-expressway route" that includes only

1 ordinary road links. Two types of models are used: a model that utilizes all of the samples in the dataset and one that  
2 utilizes subgroups of samples from the dataset.

3 First, it is assumed that an individual maximizes his/her utility function subject to the constraints of  
4 monetary budget and time budget. Suppose the individual faces a discrete choice of routes from a given choice set  
5 with a fixed pair of an origin and a destination. Then, the individual maximizes his/her utility function under the  
6 condition that a specific route is chosen. It is assumed that the conditional indirect utility function for the model that  
7 uses all of the samples in the dataset is identified as follows:

$$8 \quad v_{i,n} = \theta_c C_{i,n} + \left( \theta_t + \sum_j \theta_{tj} X_{i,j,n} \right) T_{i,n} + \varepsilon_{i,n} \quad (1)$$

9 where  $v_{i,n}$  is the indirect utility function of an individual,  $n$ , under the condition that route option  $i$  is chosen,  $C_{i,n}$   
10 is the travel cost of route option  $i$  of individual  $n$ ,  $T_{i,n}$  is the travel time of route option  $i$  of individual  $n$ ,  $\varepsilon_{i,n}$  is  
11 the error component of route option  $i$  of individual  $n$ ,  $X_{i,j,n}$  is the  $j$ th variable of route option  $i$  of individual  $n$ ,  
12  $\theta_c$  is the travel cost parameter,  $\theta_t$  is the travel time parameter, and  $\theta_{tj}$  is the parameter of the  $j$ th variable relating  
13 to the travel time.

14 The weighted likelihood maximization procedure is used for the parameter estimation because the sampling  
15 rate varies among zones in the survey. Let  $n_m$  be a respondent whose vehicle is registered at zone  $m$ . The weight of  
16 the individual,  $n_m$ , is defined as follows:

$$17 \quad \omega_{n_m} = \frac{H_m}{N_m} \quad (2)$$

18 where  $N_m$  is the number of respondents at zone  $m$  and  $H_m$  is the number of registered vehicles at zone  $m$ . Then,  
19 the log-likelihood function is defined as

$$20 \quad \ln L = \sum_{n_m} \sum_i \omega_{n_m} \cdot \delta_{i,n_m} \cdot \ln P_{i,n_m} \quad (3)$$

21 where  $\delta_{i,n_m}$  is equal to 1 if individual  $n_m$  chooses route option  $i$  and is 0 otherwise; and  $P_{i,n_m}$  is the probability that  
22 individual  $n_m$  chooses route option  $i$ . As the binary logit model is assumed, the probability is shown as

$$23 \quad P_{i,n_m} = 1 / \left( 1 + \exp(v_{j,n_m} - v_{i,n_m}) \right).$$

24 Next, in the same way as the above model, the conditional indirect utility function in the model estimated  
25 using subgroups of samples from the dataset is assumed to be as follows:

$$26 \quad v_{i,n_k} = \theta_{c,k} C_{i,n_k} + \theta_{t,k} T_{i,n_k} + \varepsilon_{i,n_k} \quad (4)$$

27 where  $v_{i,n_k}$  is the indirect utility function of an individual belonging to subgroup  $k$  under the condition that route  
28 option  $i$  is chosen,  $C_{i,n_k}$  is the travel cost of route option  $i$  for an individual belonging to subgroup  $k$ ,  $T_{i,n_k}$  is the  
29 travel time of route option  $i$  for an individual belonging to subgroup  $k$ ,  $\varepsilon_{i,n_k}$  is the error component of route option  
30  $i$  for an individual belonging to subgroup  $k$ ,  $\theta_{c,k}$  is the travel cost parameter of subgroup  $k$ , and  $\theta_{t,k}$  is the travel  
31 time parameter of subgroup  $k$ . Again, the weighted likelihood maximization procedure is used for estimating the  
32 parameters of each subgroup of the sample dataset.

33 Then, the VTTS is estimated using  $VTTS = \left( \theta_t + \sum_j \theta_{tj} X_{i,j,n} \right) / \theta_c$  from the model estimated using all of

34 the samples in the dataset, while the VTTS of a subgroup is estimated using  $VTTS_k = \theta_{t,k} / \theta_{c,k}$  from the model  
35 estimated using a subgroup of the dataset. In the empirical analysis shown later, the travel cost is assumed to be  
36 equal to the toll charge if the route includes the expressway service, while it is equal to 0 if the route does not  
37 include any expressway service. This means that the estimated VTTSs are regarded as the estimated values for the  
38 WTP for saving travel time by choosing the expressway service. It should be noted that no other costs such as for  
39 fuel and maintenance are included in the travel cost. This is because of the difficulties in estimating these costs for  
40 an individual trip. Because the differences in the fuel cost and maintenance cost resulting from using one route  
41 instead of the other are expected to be very small in the context of fuel/maintenance market in Japan, the impact of  
42 these costs on the route choice should be insignificant.

## 1 DATA

### 2 Original travel data

3 The empirical analysis will use the 2005 Road Traffic Census Data. This survey was conducted in 2005 by the  
 4 governments of prefectures and major cities under the supervision of the Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport  
 5 and Tourism of Japan. This data includes two types of origin-destination (O-D) surveys: an O-D survey based on  
 6 intercept interviews with drivers crossing given survey points and an O-D survey based on household interviews  
 7 with vehicle owners. Our empirical analysis uses the vehicle-owner-based O-D survey data. This survey covered the  
 8 entire nation. It includes information about three types of vehicles, i.e., including private vehicles, privately owned  
 9 business vehicles, and private trucks; it covers both weekdays and weekends. Surveyors visited households that were  
 10 randomly selected from an official list of vehicle owners and interviewed individuals about their vehicle use. The  
 11 survey data includes the vehicle-use travel episodes of any vehicle in an interviewed household on a given survey  
 12 day and contains information about the origin, destination, departure time, arrival time, number of persons in the  
 13 vehicle, travel purpose, and origin/destination interchanges in the case of expressway use. It also lists the types of  
 14 vehicles owned, locations of registered vehicles, household attributes such as the number of people in the household  
 15 and the vehicle ownership, and the attributes of individual drivers such as their age, gender, and job type. The travel  
 16 purposes are categorized into the following six types: home-to-workplace travel, home-to-school travel,  
 17 workplace/school/others-to-home travel, pick-up travel, personal travel, and business travel. Personal travel includes  
 18 travel for shopping, travel for carrying out maintenance activities, travel for dining, travel for daily leisure, travel for  
 19 leisure with overnight stay, travel for visiting relatives/friends, travel for driving, and travel for private lessons.  
 20 Business travel excludes the travel for transporting the business goods or cargos.  
 21

### 22 Level-of-service data

23 The level-of-service data including the travel distance, travel time, and travel cost are prepared for the empirical  
 24 analysis. First, a zoning system and a nationwide road network were prepared. The entire nation is assumed to be  
 25 covered by 6 795 zones. The road network including prefectural roads, national roads, and expressways is used on  
 26 the basis of the Digital Road Map Database in Japan (Japan Digital Road Map Association). The DRM database was  
 27 created on the basis of the 1:25,000 topographical maps issued by the Geographic Survey Institute, Japan.

28 Next, link-based level-of-service data for all links in the network was prepared. First, in the case of the link-  
 29 based link length, the length of links shown in the Digital Road Map Database was applied to the road network. Next,  
 30 the link-based travel time was estimated using the following BPR function:

$$31 \quad t(x_l) = \frac{L_l \cdot 60}{V_l^o} \left\{ 1 + \alpha \left( \frac{x_l}{C_l} \right)^\beta \right\} \quad (5)$$

32 where  $t(x_l)$  is the travel time of link  $l$  under the link flow  $x_l$  (min),  $L_l$  is the length of link  $l$  (km),  $V_l^o$  is the free-  
 33 flow travel speed (km/h),  $C_l$  is the capacity of link  $l$ , and  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are the parameters. Japan Society of Civil  
 34 Engineering (16) was followed; it proposes  $\alpha = 0.48$  and  $\beta = 2.82$  on the basis of the observed travel data in Japan.  
 35 To estimate the free-flow travel speed of each link, the observed link flows and the observed travel speed that were  
 36 collected in the 2005 Road Traffic Census were used. The following equation is satisfied during peak hours:

$$37 \quad \frac{L_l \cdot 60}{V_l^C} = \frac{L_l \cdot 60}{V_l^o} \left\{ 1 + \alpha \left( \frac{x_l^C}{C_l} \right)^\beta \right\} \quad (6)$$

38 where  $V_l^C$  is the travel speed during peak hours, and  $x_l^C$  is the link flow during peak hours. Thus, the free-flow  
 39 travel speed is derived as follows:

$$40 \quad V_l^o = V_l^C \left\{ 1 + \alpha \left( \frac{x_l^C}{C_l} \right)^\beta \right\} \quad (7)$$

41 The estimated free-flow travel speed of a link  $\hat{V}_l^o$  and the maximum speed of the link required by the traffic  
 42 regulation,  $\bar{V}_l^o$ , are adjusted as follows if  $\hat{V}_l^o$  is higher than  $\bar{V}_l^o$ :

$$43 \quad V_l^o = \hat{V}_l^o \quad \text{if } \hat{V}_l^o \leq \bar{V}_l^o + 50 \quad (8a)$$

$$44 \quad V_l^o = \hat{V}_l^o + 50 \quad \text{if } \hat{V}_l^o > \bar{V}_l^o + 50 \quad (8b).$$

45 The traffic regulation in Japan imposes penalties on the drivers who drive at the maximum speed or higher in that,  
 46 particularly, the drivers lose their driving licenses if they drive at speeds higher than the maximum speed plus 50

1 km/hr. Finally, the link travel time is estimated in the following two cases: the first case is the travel during peak  
2 hours, and the second case is the travel during off-peak hours. The link travel time of peak hours is applied to the trip  
3 whose departure time belongs to the peak hours, whereas the link travel time of off-peak hours is applied to the trip  
4 whose departure time belongs to the off-peak hours. It is noted that the original dataset contains data on whether a  
5 trip was made during the peak hours or not. It should be noted that a long-distance journey may cover both the peak  
6 hours and off-peak hours even if its departure time belongs to the peak or off-peak hours. The results show that the  
7 correlation of the total travel time estimated with the estimated link travel time versus that estimated with the  
8 observed departure time and arrival time is over 0.999. This may mean that the accuracy of estimating the link travel  
9 time is high enough to be used for the model estimation. Finally, with regard to the link-based travel cost, it is  
10 assumed that the only travel cost incurred by the drivers is the toll charge for using the expressway service. Although  
11 they also incur the fuel cost for driving, this cost is not taken into account. This is mainly because it is difficult to  
12 precisely evaluate the energy efficiency of a vehicle. The fare tables provided by expressway operators are used for  
13 cost calculation. In Japan, the cost of most of the inter-urban expressway services includes an initial charge plus 24.6  
14 yen per kilometer.

15 Next, route-based level-of-service is prepared on the basis of link-based level-of-service. First, if an  
16 observed trip made by an individual used a route including only an ordinary road link, the expressway route of the  
17 individual is identified by searching the minimum-travel-time route in the road network whereas the no-expressway  
18 route of the individual is identified by searching the minimum-travel-time route in the road network without an  
19 expressway link. Next, if an observed trip made by an individual used a route including both the ordinary road links  
20 and the expressway links, the expressway route of the individual is identified by searching the minimum-travel-time  
21 route under the condition that the observed expressway links are included in the route whereas the no-expressway  
22 route of the individual is identified by searching the minimum-travel-time route in the road network without the  
23 expressway link. It should be noted that the travel data includes the origin/destination interchange of expressway, if  
24 the trip uses the expressway service.  
25

## 26 **Sample travel data**

27 Sample-based travel datasets are constructed by the following steps. First, this paper covers home-to-workplace  
28 travel, business travel, and personal travel. It excludes the home-to-school travel and pick-up travel because the size  
29 of sample data regarding the choice of the expressway route in these cases is much smaller than that of sample data  
30 regarding the choice of the expressway route for other travel types. The sizes of sample data regarding the choice of  
31 the expressway route in the home-to-school travel and pick-up travel are 31 and 336, respectively, whereas those of  
32 sample data regarding the choice of the expressway route in the home-to-workplace, business, and personal travels  
33 are 2 774, 1 130, and 2 083, respectively. This paper also excludes the workplace/school/others-to-home travel  
34 because the original dataset does not distinguish workplace-to-home travel from personal- or business-to-home  
35 travel.

36 Next, the intra-zone trips; the trips whose origin, destination, vehicle type, or travel purpose is not available;  
37 and the trips including ferry-use are eliminated from the original dataset. The reason for eliminating the intra-zone  
38 trips is first that the accuracy of travel data is not sufficiently high for a short-travel-time trip and second that the  
39 expressway-way use of the intra-zone trips is expected to be too rare. The reason for eliminating the ferry-use trips is  
40 that our empirical analysis highlights the individual's choice of using expressway or not rather than the modal choice.  
41 The trips to and from the Shikoku Island are also eliminated from the dataset. The reason for this is that the travelers  
42 cannot choose a no-expressway route to and from the Shikoku Island because the Shikoku Island is connected with  
43 the Honshu Main Island only by expressways.

44 Finally, the trips that were made by the individuals whose route choice set have only the no-expressway  
45 route were eliminated. For example, an individual who resides very far from the expressway or an individual who  
46 travels to a destination that is very far from the nearest expressway interchange may not take the expressway route  
47 into consideration.

48 The results show that the choice rate of the expressway route increases as the travel time of the expressway  
49 route becomes less than that of the no-expressway route when the time difference is between  $-20$  min and 70 min,  
50 whereas the choice rate does not vary over the time difference when the time difference is less than  $-20$  min or from  
51 70 min to 120 min. The choice rates vary in the subgroups whose time difference is greater than 120 min, mainly  
52 because the data sizes in those subgroups are extremely small. The above results suggest that the expressway route is  
53 one of the route options for individuals when the time difference is between  $-20$  min and 70 min. Therefore, the trips  
54 whose time difference was less than  $-20$  min or over 70 min were eliminated.

55 As a result of data screening, 146 409 samples were obtained, including 82 262 samples for home-to-work  
56 travel, 12 363 samples for business travel, and 51 784 samples for personal travel. TABLE 1 summarizes the  
57 descriptive statistics of the sample dataset. First, 77.2% of the home-to-workplace trips are made by males, while  
58 85.6% of the business trips and 61.6% of the personal trips are made by males. These indicate that the majority of  
59 car drivers are males in car-use travels. Second, the share of home-to-workplace, business, and personal trips made

TABLE 1: Descriptive statistics of sample dataset

	Home-to-workplace			Business			Private		
	Exp.	No-Exp.	Total	Exp.	No-Exp.	Total	Exp.	No-Exp.	Total
Gender									
Male	2,352	61,164	63,516	1,022	9,561	10,583	1,588	30,333	31,921
Female	422	18,324	18,746	108	1,672	1,780	495	19,368	19,863
Job									
Agriculture	34	1,379	1,413	30	276	306	95	2,086	2,181
Production/Transport	298	14,843	15,141	64	640	704	114	2,961	3,075
Retailing/Service	607	17,302	17,909	384	4,081	4,465	393	7,284	7,677
Office work/Technology	1,169	28,846	30,015	384	3,189	3,573	357	7,452	7,809
Others	593	14,658	15,251	250	2,666	2,916	332	7,221	7,553
Age									
20 - 29	193	11,441	11,634	43	478	521	123	3,545	3,668
30 - 39	615	16,509	17,124	159	1,393	1,552	251	6,683	6,934
40 - 49	781	19,488	20,269	303	2,524	2,827	338	8,282	8,620
50 - 59	866	23,154	24,020	399	4,206	4,605	533	11,466	11,999
60 -	272	7,134	7,406	191	2,116	2,307	628	13,113	13,741
Departure time									
0:00 - 6:59	839	15,423	16,262	172	491	663	204	968	1,172
7:00 - 7:59	1,407	38,924	40,331	264	998	1,262	192	1,577	1,769
8:00 - 8:59	463	15,982	16,445	381	1,890	2,271	275	3,167	3,442
9:00 - 9:59	142	3,706	3,848	454	3,253	3,707	319	5,773	6,092
10:00 - 10:59	71	1,192	1,263	398	3,545	3,943	316	7,365	7,681
11:00 - 11:59	36	846	882	397	2,751	3,148	163	5,321	5,484
12:00 - 17:59	138	4,707	4,845	1,536	12,071	13,607	706	22,385	23,091
18:00 - 19:59	54	1,643	1,697	91	664	755	112	4,107	4,219
20:00 - 23:59	52	1,246	1,298	55	161	341	53	1,345	1,398
Trip distance									
0km - 10 km	87	27,033	27,120	121	10,188	10,309	57	23,906	23,963
11km - 20km	525	33,462	33,987	457	8,358	8,815	236	16,391	16,627
21km - 30km	710	14,360	15,070	554	3,455	4,009	301	5,649	5,950
31km - 40km	654	5,484	6,138	578	1,716	2,294	328	2,636	2,964
41km - 50km	465	2,142	2,607	483	934	1,417	316	1,400	1,716
51km - 70km	495	1,248	1,743	711	900	1,611	470	1,366	1,836
71km - 100km	233	374	607	603	569	1,059	394	754	1,148

1 by individuals whose job is agriculture amount to 1.8%, 2.6%, and 7.7%, respectively. This reflects the small  
 2 share of agricultural population in Japan. The share of home-to-workplace trips made by individuals whose job  
 3 is retailing/service is 22.5% while that of business by them is 37.3%. This means that the retailers and/or service  
 4 workers travel more for business purposes than those who work in other jobs. Third, 39.0% of the business trips  
 5 are made by individuals in their 50s. This means that senior workers travel for business more than young  
 6 workers. 30.6% of the personal trips are made by individuals in their 60s. This may reflect that the retired  
 7 people have more free time for personal travels than the younger generation. Fourth, 46.4% of the home-to-  
 8 workplace trips commence during 0700–0759. This means that, on an average, the period of 0700–0800 is the  
 9 peak hour in Japan. Fifth, the trip distances of 70.0% in the home-to-workplace trips, 64.8% in the business trips,  
 10 and 74.9% in the personal trips are 20 km or less. Sixth, the shares of expressway users account for less than  
 11 10 % in the short-distance trips. Although the dataset was screened carefully, it is afraid that the database may  
 12 include many captive individuals who may use only expressway route or only no-expressway route. The  
 13 improvement of data screening method is one of the further research issues. Finally, the correlation between  
 14 travel time and cost in the sample trips using expressway is 0.765. This is probably because the toll charge of  
 15 expressway is determined on the basis of route distance whereas the travel time is also highly dependent on the  
 16 trip distance. This may be one of the unavoidable characteristics in the revealed-preference-based dataset.  
 17

## 18 EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

19 TABLE 2 lists the estimation results of models and VTTs with a subgroup of the sample dataset. Note that this  
 20 analysis excludes mini-vehicles from the empirical dataset. Note also that the original standard in Japan defines  
 21 a mini-vehicle as one having a length, width, and height of up to 400 mm, 1,480 mm, and 2,000 mm,  
 22 respectively, and an engine displacement of up to 660 cc. Such vehicles are used for both personal and freight  
 23 transportation. Mini-vehicles are excluded in the subgroup analysis of VTTs because the sample size of  
 24 choosing the expressway route by a mini-vehicle is too small to be analyzed by the subgroup.

25 TABLE 2 shows that all models are well estimated from a statistical viewpoint. The test results for  
 26 most of the coefficients indicate that they are highly significant. The likelihood ratios are also sufficiently high.  
 27 In addition, the signs of all coefficients are reasonable. Although the models including the alternative-specific  
 28 constant were also estimated, they are not statistically acceptable. Because the route is chosen by a vehicle, the  
 29 VTTs estimated from the route-choice model should be the VTTs per vehicle. Then, the VTTs per person  
 30 are calculated by dividing the VTTs per vehicle by the average number of persons per vehicle. Note that the  
 31 VTTs per person is calculated under the assumption that all persons including a driver and passenger(s) in a car  
 32 have the same VTTs.

33 First, the estimated VTTs of home-to-workplace, business, and personal travels are found to be 25.1, 35.2, and  
 34 21.6 yen per min. per person. The estimated VTTs of business travel is nearly equal to the average wage rate in  
 35 Japan. Note that the average wage rate in Japan is 37.2 yen per min. The estimated VTTs of home-to-  
 36 workplace and personal travels are 71.3% and 61.4% of the estimated VTTs of business travel. These results are  
 37 slightly higher than those that have been found in the results of meta-analyses carried out in other countries (for  
 38 example, in Great Britain, 12). One of the possible reasons is that the traffic congestion is more serious in Japan  
 39 than that in other countries. Other is that the time constraint is tighter in the home-to-workplace travels because  
 40 the most of Japanese companies apply the fixed-work-hour system in which the official-work start time is fixed  
 41 such 9:00 am. Second, the estimated VTTs of males is 25.3 yen/min and that of females, 24.6 yen/min. This  
 42 implies that the gender does not affect the VTTs. Third, the estimated VTTs per vehicle and per person when  
 43 driving alone are 25.9 yen/min./veh. and 25.9 yen/min./per., respectively, whereas those when driving with  
 44 passenger(s) are 36.2 yen/min./veh. and 15.5 yen/min./veh., respectively. This means that the estimated VTTs  
 45 per vehicle when driving alone is 39.8% greater than the estimated VTTs when driving with passenger(s). This  
 46 may imply that the driver's VTTs is more than twice that of a passenger's. Fourth, the estimated VTTs of  
 47 agriculture, production/transport, retailing/service, office work/technology, and others are 24.3, 20.2, 24.7, 25.4,  
 48 and 25.5 yen/min./per., respectively. The VTTs of production/transport workers is apparently lower than the  
 49 estimated VTTs of other jobs. This is probably because the wage rate in production/transport is lower than that  
 50 in other jobs. Fifth, the estimated VTTs of individuals in their 20s, 30s, 40s, 50s, and 60s or more are 19.2, 25.2,  
 51 26.5, 24.2, and 22.7 yen/min./per., respectively. The estimated VTTs of individuals in their 20s is the lowest  
 52 among all age groups and is followed by that of individuals in their 60s. Their VTTs are lower than those of  
 53 other age groups simply because they have lower WTP for saving time by using the expressway service because  
 54 of their lower wage rate. Sixth, the estimated VTTs of trips starting between 1000 and 1059 is the highest in a  
 55 day, followed by that between 1800 and 1959, between 0800 and 0859, and between 0900 and 0959. The VTTs  
 56 is the highest between 100 and 1059 probably because more business trips are made during this period than  
 57 during other period. The VTTs between 0800 and 0959 and between 1800 and 1959 are high because the  
 58 traffic congestion is serious during morning and evening peak hours. Finally, the longer the trip distance, the  
 59

**TABLE 2: Models and VTTSs estimated with subgroup of sample datasets**

	Travel time		Travel cost		Initial log-likelihood	Final log-likelihood	Rho-squared	Num of observation	Ave. passengers per car	Estimated VTTS per veh. yen/min./veh.	Estimated VTTS per per. yen/min./per.	
	Coeff.	T-stat.	Coeff.	T-stat.								
Travel purpose	Home-to-workplace	-0.1497	-60.7	-0.0057	-78.0	-5200.5	-15429.7	0.66	87444	1.05	26.2	25.1
	Business	-0.1224	-47.0	-0.0028	-48.5	-3559.3	-6224.9	0.43	30076	1.23	43.3	35.2
	Private	-0.1634	-55.8	-0.0049	-63.1	-3709.7	-10607.2	0.65	54876	1.54	33.3	21.6
Gender	Male	-0.1458	-51.0	-0.0058	-66.7	-3797.9	-11144.6	0.66	63516	1.04	25.3	24.3
	Female	-0.1823	-23.7	-0.0074	-31.5	-694.0	-3106.4	0.78	18746	1.04	24.6	23.7
Passengers	Drive alone	-0.1512	-58.8	-0.0058	-76.1	-4864.7	-14813.8	0.67	84395	1.00	25.9	25.9
	Drive with passenger(s)	-0.1282	-13.2	-0.0035	-14.6	-266.8	-542.3	0.51	2704	2.34	36.2	15.5
Job	Agriculture	-0.1901	-6.8	-0.0074	-8.4	-51.9	-214.5	0.76	1413	1.06	25.7	24.3
	Production/Transport	-0.1556	-21.5	-0.0076	-30.3	-640.4	-2639.0	0.76	15141	1.02	20.6	20.2
	Retailing/Service	-0.1528	-26.7	-0.0060	-34.8	-1001.8	-3132.4	0.68	17909	1.04	25.6	24.7
	Office work/Technology	-0.1524	-35.1	-0.0058	-45.1	-1716.8	-5134.3	0.67	30015	1.03	26.3	25.4
	Others	-0.1466	-25.6	-0.0054	-32.4	-934.9	-2661.7	0.65	15251	1.06	27.0	25.5
			-0.1650	-16.6	-0.0084	-24.5	-379.4	-1870.0	0.80	11634	1.02	19.7
Age	20-29	-0.1549	-26.1	-0.0059	-33.8	-951.3	-2964.7	0.68	17124	1.04	26.2	25.2
	30-39	-0.1566	-29.0	-0.0057	-36.9	-1153.0	-3474.8	0.67	20269	1.03	27.4	26.5
	40-49	-0.1469	-31.4	-0.0058	-40.7	-1412.5	-4192.1	0.66	24020	1.04	25.3	24.2
	50-59	-0.1384	-18.5	-0.0057	-23.7	-493.9	-1435.5	0.66	7406	1.06	24.1	22.7
	60-69	-0.1133	-26.5	-0.0047	-36.2	-1359.1	-3036.5	0.55	16262	1.06	24.0	22.7
			-0.1638	-38.4	-0.0062	-50.2	-2023.4	-6673.1	0.70	40331	1.04	26.5
Departure time	7:00 - 7:59	-0.1751	-26.0	-0.0062	-32.2	-836.1	-2987.9	0.72	16445	1.05	28.4	27.1
	8:00 - 8:59	-0.1666	-13.7	-0.0060	-16.2	-225.1	-736.7	0.69	3848	1.06	27.9	26.3
	9:00 - 9:59	-0.1626	-8.5	-0.0046	-9.6	-93.3	-243.2	0.62	1263	1.08	35.1	32.5
	10:00 - 10:59	-0.1422	-6.6	-0.0055	-8.2	-60.0	-165.8	0.64	882	1.07	26.0	24.3
	11:00 - 11:59	-0.1412	-14.8	-0.0056	-18.9	-301.8	-913.1	0.67	4845	1.07	25.4	23.7
	12:00 - 17:59	-0.1555	-8.9	-0.0053	-11.0	-109.3	-312.6	0.65	1697	1.05	29.2	27.8
Trip distance	18:00 - 19:59	-0.1459	-8.3	-0.0057	-9.8	-88.6	-243.8	0.64	1298	1.06	25.7	24.3
	20:00 - 23:59	-0.2199	-13.2	-0.0150	-21.5	-312.2	-5171.7	0.94	27120	1.05	14.7	13.9
	0km - 10 km	-0.1224	-20.8	-0.0087	-44.7	-1256.7	-5882.6	0.79	33987	1.04	14.1	13.6
	11km - 20km	-0.0939	-17.3	-0.0054	-33.1	-1039.1	-2519.7	0.59	15070	1.04	17.4	16.7
	21km - 30km	-0.0688	-12.2	-0.0031	-19.3	-655.1	-1010.5	0.35	6138	1.05	22.3	21.2
	31km - 40km	-0.0503	-7.7	-0.0020	-10.8	-344.5	-438.0	0.21	2607	1.09	25.1	23.1
71km - 100km	41km - 50km	-0.0420	-6.1	-0.0012	-6.7	-259.4	-287.3	0.10	1743	1.08	35.5	33.0
	51km - 70km	-0.0358	-3.2	-0.0008	-3.0	-88.1	-94.0	0.06	607	1.18	43.7	37.0
	71km - 100km											

**TABLE 3: Estimation results of VTTS model estimated with all sample datasets**

Variable	Coefficient	t-statistic
Travel time ( $\theta_t$ )	-0.0993	-15.0**
Travel time x ln(Distance) ( $\theta_{t\_dist}$ )	-0.0288	-14.1**
Travel time x Dummy of senior generation ( $\theta_{t\_senior}$ )	0.0071	1.6
Travel time x Dummy of drive-alone ( $\theta_{t\_alone}$ )	0.0349	7.6**
Travel time x Dummy of mini vehicle ( $\theta_{t\_mini}$ )	0.0251	7.3**
Travel time x Dummy of early-morning departure time ( $\theta_{t\_morning}$ )	0.0126	3.8**
Travel time x Dummy of peak hours ( $\theta_{t\_peak}$ )	-0.0087	-2.0*
Travel time x Dummy of business purpose ( $\theta_{t\_business}$ )	-0.0393	-8.9**
Travel cost ( $\theta_c$ )	-0.0062	-102.0**
Initial log-likelihood		-34269
Final log-likelihood		-10892
Likelihood ratio		0.68
Number of observation		196,672

Note: \* means the significance at 95% confidence level and \*\* means the significance at 99% confidence level.

higher is the estimated VTTS. This is the same result as earlier studies in other countries including UK (4) and Switzerland (5).

TABLE 3 lists the results of the model estimated with all sample datasets on the basis of eq (1). The travel time is defined as the travel duration (min.) from an origin to a destination. The distance is defined as the length (km) of a non-expressway route from the origin to the destination. The dummy for the senior generation is 1 if an individual making the trip is in his/her sixties or older and 0 otherwise. The dummy for drive-alone is 1 if an individual making the trip drives alone and 0 otherwise. The dummy for mini-vehicle is 1 if the car used in the trip is a mini-vehicle and 0 otherwise. The dummy for early-morning departure time is 1 if the departure time of the trip is between 000 and 659 and 0 otherwise. The dummy for peak hours is 1 if the departure time of the trip is between 700 and 859 and 0 otherwise. The dummy for business purpose is 1 if the purpose of the trip is business and 0 otherwise. The travel cost is defined as the expressway toll charge (yen) paid for using the expressway service and this is 0 if the route does not include any expressway. The model is well estimated from a statistical viewpoint. The results of the tests for coefficients except Travel time  $\times$  Dummy for senior generation indicate that they are highly significant. The likelihood ratios are also sufficiently high. In addition, the signs of all coefficients are reasonable. TABLE 3 shows that the VTTS increases with the travel distance. It also shows that the VTTS of the senior generation is lower than that of other generations, VTTS when driving alone is lower than that when driving with multiple passengers, VTTS of trips made using a mini-vehicle is lower than that of trips made using standard vehicle, VTTSs of trips made in the early morning are lower than those of trips made in other hours of the day, VTTS of trips made during peak hours is higher than that of trips made during other hours of the day, and VTTS of business travel is higher than that of non-business travel.

## DISCUSSION

First, our analysis results show that the VTTS increases with the trip distance. As shown in Mackie et al. (4), this is because a longer travel time increases the value of time as a resource. It should be noted that the VTTS is theoretically equal to the sum of the value of time as a resource and the value of time as a resource (De Serpa, 17). A long travel time reduces the individual's leisure time. The marginal utility with respect to leisure time is expected to increase as the leisure time decreases when it is assumed that the marginal utility with respect to leisure time is decreasing. The increase in marginal utility leads to an increase in the VTTS. The value of time as a resource is defined as the ratio of the marginal utility with respect to leisure time to the marginal utility with respect to income. This is because a longer travel time increases the value of time as a commodity. The value of time as a commodity is defined as the ratio of the marginal utility with respect to travel time to the marginal utility with respect to income under the condition that the utility is maximized. A longer travel time causes fatigue and/or boredom during travel and it is expected that they lead to an increase in the marginal utility with respect to travel time. Higher VTTS of longer journey may imply that the toll charge per kilometer increases with the trip distance. This suggests that the toll charge system should be nonlinear with respect to distance.

1 Note that the current toll-charge system of Japanese expressways is a linear system in which a distance-based  
2 charge is levied in addition to an initial charge.

3 Second, our results suggest that VTTS of senior drivers is significantly lower than that of younger  
4 drivers. This means that the income impacts the WTP for saving time significantly. As Mackie et al. (5) pointed  
5 out the variation of VTTS by income should be incorporated into the VTTS estimation and even into the project  
6 evaluation. One of the practical problems of introducing the variation by income into the project evaluation is  
7 the difficulty of forecasting the future distribution of income among the road users. In terms of setting the toll  
8 charge, this result may indicate that the toll charge of senior drivers should be discounted because they have  
9 lower WTP for saving time by choosing the expressway. Although a discount program for senior users is quite  
10 popular in public transport services, for example, the subway service operated by the Tokyo Metropolitan  
11 Government, it is rarely applied to the expressway service. To the best of our knowledge, the current Japanese  
12 toll-charge system does not include any discount program for senior drivers.

13 Third, our results suggest that the VTTSs vary among the time of a day. One of the possible reasons is  
14 that the share of road users by journey type varies among the time of a day. Many business travelers drive  
15 during 1000 and 1059 while many commuters drive from home to workplace during 0800 and 0959. As the  
16 VTTSs of business travels and home-to-work travels are higher than that of personal travels, this could lead to  
17 higher VTTSs in the travels departing at these periods. Other possible reason is that the traffic congestion  
18 increases the value of time as a commodity. If the traffics of both the expressway route and the no-expressway  
19 route are highly congested, the drivers must face the traffic congestion whether they choose expressway route or  
20 not. The quality of service in the congested traffic should be lower than that in the less congested traffic. Thus,  
21 the marginal travel time savings during the congested hours critically reduces the disutility of driving in the  
22 traffic jam such as fatigues and boredom. This may result in higher VTTS of driving during the congested hours  
23 than that during the less congested hours. This may also suggest that the toll charge for a trip starting in early  
24 morning or in late evening should be discounted. For example, the East Nippon Expressway Company Ltd. has  
25 recently introduced a discount program in which drivers pay 50% of the standard charge for using the given  
26 routes of their expressway network between 2200 and 0600. This aims to promote expressway demand during  
27 off-peak hours. This may also suggest that the toll charge for a trip starting during peak hours should be  
28 increased. Theoretically, this will lead to peak-load pricing or congestion charging. This may match the concept  
29 of congestion pricing theory that aims to internalize the externalities of traffic congestion during the peak hours.  
30 Note no congestion pricing scheme has been introduced for any Japanese expressway.

31 Finally, the VTTS per vehicle when driving alone is lower than that when driving with passengers,  
32 whereas the VTTS per person when driving alone is higher than that when driving with passengers. This may be  
33 one of the controversial issues in transportation planning. This is because it is unclear whether the vehicle-based  
34 WTP or the individual-based WTP influences the decision-making process of route choice. If higher toll charge  
35 is levied when driving alone, it may reduce the expressway demand when driving alone and reduce traffic  
36 congestion. This follows the concept of a high-occupancy toll (HOT) lane. In contrast, if lower toll charge is  
37 levied when driving alone, it may promote expressway demand when driving alone and increase traffic  
38 congestion. This goes against the HOT lane policy.  
39

## 40 CONCLUSIONS

41 This paper empirically estimates the WTP for saving travel time by choosing the expressway route that is equal  
42 to the VTTS of road users with a large-scale database in Japan. Parameter estimation indicates that (1) the  
43 estimated VTTS of business travel is nearly equal to the average wage rate in Japan whereas the estimated  
44 VTTSs of home-to-workplace and personal travels are lower than the estimated VTTS of business travel; (2)  
45 VTTS increases with the trip length; (3) estimated VTTSs during 0800 and 1059 and 1800 and 1959 are higher  
46 than those during other periods; (4) estimated VTTSs of individuals in their 20s and in their 60s are lower than  
47 those of individuals in other age groups; (5) estimated VTTS of males is similar to that of females; (6) estimated  
48 VTTS per vehicle when driving alone is higher than the estimated VTTS per vehicle in drive with passenger(s);  
49 and (7) estimated VTTS of production/transport workers is lower than the estimated VTTSs of other jobs. Then,  
50 policy implications for the toll charge of the expressway service are discussed assuming that toll charge should  
51 reflect the VTTS of road users.

52 Finally, it should be noted that the VTTS estimation presented in this paper uses one specific form of  
53 the function, including the socio-demographics and travel environment. Another specification of utility function  
54 should be explored. It is also noted that the variation of VTTSs by income was not analyzed because the  
55 database does not include the individual's income data. Additionally, the influences of other transportation  
56 modes on road users should be also examined with another database. Further studies are still required to  
57 conclude the national VTTS study in Japan.  
58  
59

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