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1 **Revealing Commute Choice Factors: A SEM Analysis of Public Transport and Active**
2 **Modes in Hyderabad, India**

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12 **Abstract**

13 While extensive research has explored factors influencing mode choices and first/last mile
14 connectivity, few studies have delved into the underlying hierarchy of decision-making
15 processes. Understanding this hierarchy, which illustrates causal relationships, is crucial for
16 modelling travel decisions, as trip structure depends on choice behaviour and vice versa.
17 Traditional mode choice models often neglect these underlying causal relationships,
18 necessitating the development of new models. By incorporating mediating effects of trip
19 chaining and mode choice, alongside traditional factors, a more holistic understanding of mode
20 choice behaviour is achieved. This study develops hierarchical relationships between trip
21 chaining and mode choice in Hyderabad, India using Structural Equation Modelling method
22 due to its inherent strength in handling latent causal relationships. SEM analysis provides total
23 effects of socio-demographic variables on mode choices and trip chain types through these
24 causal relationships. Findings reveals that for non-work trips, the decision-making process is
25 simultaneous, regardless of the mode chosen. In contrast, for work trips, the decision-making

26 process is simultaneous for active and public modes, but the choice of mode precedes trip
27 chaining for private modes. Furthermore, this study learns from those who own private vehicles
28 but use active/public transport by choice and extracts the factors indeed had motivated their
29 choice. Confirmatory factor analysis is employed to validate the identified factors. Identified
30 factors, coupled with the understanding of decision-making hierarchy, offer valuable insights
31 for shaping policies that can maximize the potential of active and public transport modes.

32 **Keywords:** Active travel modes; Hierarchy of travel decisions; Public transport; Structural
33 Equation Modelling; Trip chains.

34 **1. Introduction**

35 In today's rapidly globalizing world, countries are increasingly prioritizing sustainability,
36 particularly in the transportation sector, to achieve United Nations Sustainable Development
37 Goals (SDG) #9.1 and #11.2 (United Nations 2015). Mass rapid transport systems such as the
38 metro rail are considered as a means to achieving SDG goals. Governments around the world
39 are investing in transport infrastructure, replacing predominantly fossil fuel-based systems with
40 environmentally efficient ones like metros and electric buses. However, many new metro and
41 bus rapid transport systems record consistently low occupancy levels apparently due to
42 inadequate first/last-mile connectivity (Kåresdotter et al. 2022; Rahman et al. 2022)). Active
43 modes of transport can provide the first and last leg connectivity in any trip made by public
44 transport. A well-planned system with a high level of integration between modes could
45 potentially contribute to sustainability objectives by improving access resulting in a truly
46 multimodal commuting experience.

47 Numerous studies have examined mode choice, with a particular focus on active modes and
48 public transport. Many of these studies consider factors such as commuter preferences, socio-
49 economic and travel characteristics, to understand how individuals make rational decisions
50 (Arasan et al. 1998; Ashalatha et al. 2012; Buehler 2011; Santos et al. 2013). Some others seek

51 to explain the factors that affected the choices made by individuals as revealed by the data see
52 for example (Rahman and Balijepalli 2016). In addition, many studies have investigated first,
53 and last-mile connectivity using active modes and explored different built environment factors,
54 land use, and neighbourhood design that can affect walking/cycling accessibility to public
55 transport stations (Gupta et al., 2022).

56 The main research question is thus whether improving accessibility to/from the public transport
57 stations is adequate to encourage people to choose public transport, or is there any underlying
58 behavioural aspect that systematically influences the travel mode choice? The decision of
59 choosing a travel mode is inherently complex as travel behaviour significantly affects the
60 structuring of a trip leading to the formation of trip chains. As people often travel to access
61 various spatially distributed locations, they form trip chains loading more activities per trip to
62 minimize travel times. Individuals select a mode that offers flexible stop-making behaviour.
63 This underscores the importance of incorporating the decision-making process into mode
64 choice modelling in addressing the present-day complexity. Therefore, the interdependency
65 between travel mode and the structure of trip highlights the importance of examining decision
66 hierarchy (causal relationship) between trip chaining and mode choice.

67 Studying mode choice decisions and promoting active modes as first and last mile connectivity
68 using factors e.g. socio-demographic, travel or built environment characteristics alone may not
69 provide a comprehensive understanding of the travel behaviour. While Discrete Choice Models
70 can capture correlations between mode choices and trip chains, they may not explicitly model
71 causal relationships. Choosing a mode is not solely determined by the factors but the underlying
72 behavioural aspects plays a significant role. The decision-making process of trip makers in
73 selecting a mode entails human approximations that are not accurately captured by them. These
74 underlying causalities are better modelled using SEMs. SEMs offer insights into both factors
75 (in terms of total effects) and underlying behavioural aspects, enhancing the understanding of

76 mode choice. However, combining SEM analysis with discrete choice techniques allows for
77 the determination of modal share more effectively. This sequential approach harnesses the
78 strengths of both SEM (understanding latent behaviour) and discrete choice modelling
79 (estimating mode-specific probabilities), providing a more in-depth analysis.

80 Moreover, in the literature, it is clearly stated that there is a significant difference in available
81 modes and the choice decisions between developed and developing countries. Commonly, it
82 would be challenging to apply the findings and strategies from studies conducted in developed
83 countries to developing countries because of the vast variation in their spatial attributes, such
84 as population density, geographical spread, in addition to the differences in socio-economic
85 circumstances (Mirzaei et al. 2021). Thus, incorporating the decision-making process along
86 with the effect of socio-demographic characteristics will help to comprehend the travel
87 behaviour and mode choices of individuals.

88 In this research, Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is used to test the directional causality
89 between the two key mediating variables viz., trip chaining and mode choice, and then to
90 analyse the influence of exogenous (data) variables on the endogenous (decision) variables
91 through the causal relationship (total effects) to identify the influencing factors that drive the
92 choices. The main aim of this research is to promote the use of active modes and increase the
93 public transport ridership as a step towards sustainability and the particular objectives of the
94 present paper are as follows:

- 95 • To analyse the hierarchy of travel decisions involving mode choice and trip chaining
96 behaviour; and
- 97 • To identify the factors affecting the choice of active modes and public transportation given
98 the knowledge of the hierarchy of decision making.

99 This paper has seven sections, including this section. The literature review is presented in
100 section 2. Section 3 introduces the principles of SEM and describes the methodological steps

101 involved. Data collection, trip chaining typology and the mode choices are described in section
102 4. Section 5 gives the model specification and results. Driving factors of active modes or public
103 transport usage are analysed in section 6. Section 7 has model validation and practical
104 application. Section 8 concludes the paper.

105 **2. Literature review**

106 *2.1 Mode choice modelling*

107 In the realm of travel behaviour research, the selection of travel modes has gained the greatest
108 attention. Modelling and predicting mode choices are closely intertwined with the formulation
109 of transportation policies, travel demand management strategies and congestion reduction.
110 Many studies have investigated the mode choice decisions and various influencing variables
111 that drives the mode choice. A predominant approach in mode choice modelling is based on
112 the concept of random utility maximization, derived from econometric theory. Followed by
113 this, several logit and probit models such as multinomial logit and probit models, nested logit
114 models etc., are developed and applied in mode choice modelling. Please refer (Ben-Akiva and
115 Lerman 1985) for detailed description of these models. Later, models based on Artificial
116 intelligence techniques like ANN, fuzzy logic, decision trees are developed.

117 In India, many researchers have developed mode choice models based on principles of utility
118 maximization. Arasan et al., (1998); Ashalatha et al., (2012) studied the mode choice behaviour
119 of commuters in Indian scenario using the multinomial logit models. Few studies employed
120 ANN and fuzzy techniques to model the mode choice behaviour and made a comparative
121 analysis involving the multinomial logit (MNL), nested logit (NL), and generalized nested logit
122 (GNL) models (Chalumuri et al. 2009; Minal and Chalumuri 2014; Pulugurta et al. 2013;
123 Rajalakshmi 2013; Rao et al. 1998; Srivastava and RaviSekhar 2018). These studies found out
124 that artificial intelligence techniques are much superior to MNL, NL and GNL in prediction.
125 Arasan et al., (1998) studied the mode choice of travellers who have access to own vehicle but

126 in their analysis, they ignored the underlying decision-making process.

127 Several studies have analyzed the influence of socio-demographic variables(Arasan et al. 1998;

128 Minal and Chalumuri 2014; Srivastava and RaviSekhar 2018; Xie et al. 2007). Some studies

129 focused on travel times and travel cost as they play a significant role in determining the mode

130 of transportation. Longer access and egress times can lead to discomfort and inconvenience

131 during travel, leading to individuals being less likely to opt for public transportation. People

132 preferred to walk or cycle if the distance to and from the public transport stations is less (Givoni

133 and Rietveld 2007). Zhao and Li, (2017) investigated the determinants of 'people's choice of

134 cycling as a transfer mode and found that travel distance is the most influential variable,

135 followed by age and income. This is because distance is related to the built environment; and

136 land use and density largely determine how far the activity locations are in relation to the

137 residential area. (Rastogi & Rao, 2003) studied the access trip characteristics of commuters

138 accessing transit stations in Mumbai, to identify the policies that can improve utility of active

139 modes and public transport. Table 1 summarises a few studies that are reviewed.

140 Factors related to safety and security have also been investigated for increasing patronage and

141 the uptake of active mobility to access public transport stations (Mandhani et al. 2021). Equally

142 important are studies that explore mobility and infrastructure (Bivina et al. 2019). These aspects

143 significantly impact the accessibility of metro stations, making the metro a preferred option

144 when access is improved and aligns with sustainability goals. Zhao et al., (2022) explore the

145 last mile problem by using public bicycles as a feeder mode and concluded that integration of

146 metro and public bicycle significantly reduces the travel time. Zuo et al., (2020) investigated

147 the first and last-mile solution via bicycles to improve public transport accessibility and found

148 that public transport access distance by bicycles increased by three times compared to walking.

149 A significant body of literature exists on the factors influencing public transport and active

150 modes, as well as strategies for their integration. However, it's worth noting that travel

151 decisions and behaviour have a notable impact on mode choice, besides socio-demographic
152 characteristics. This is reflected in choosing a mode for a particular trip chain pattern and vice-
153 versa. Thus, incorporating behavioural aspect in the analysis gives a better understanding of
154 the travel mode decisions.

155 *2.2 Interrelationship between trip chaining and mode choice*

156 To understand the travel behaviour patterns and to help framing sustainable transport policies,
157 it is essential to understand the interplay between trip chaining and mode choice along with the
158 driving factors. This question is rarely addressed in the literature, more so in a developing
159 country like India, where travel behaviour is significantly different to that in developed
160 countries. This is because of the possible switching between different modes available making
161 the travel behaviour unique (Subbarao et al. 2020). (Yang et al. 2016) investigated the
162 variations in travel choices between weekdays and holidays through Nested logit model. They
163 found that during weekdays, the sequence of trip chains precedes the decision regarding mode
164 choice, whereas on holidays, the mode choice decision comes before the trip chaining process.
165 On a similar note, (Hensher and Reyes 2000) utilized the Nested logit model to explore the
166 interdependency between trip chaining and the utilization of public transportation. Their
167 analysis revealed that trip chaining impedes the adoption of public transportation.

168 (Ye et al. 2007) examined the hierarchical connection between complex trip patterns and mode
169 choice behaviours and explored the causality direction. Employing a recursive bivariate probit
170 model and a simultaneous equation model, they analysed the Swiss data pertaining to work and
171 non-work tour samples. Their findings revealed that the pattern of trips significantly influences
172 mode choice behaviours for both work and non-work tours. Similarly, (Xianyu 2013)
173 investigated the interdependencies between trip chaining and mode choice for home-based
174 work trips, utilizing a co-evolutionary approach alongside multinomial logit models. They

175 observed that activity-travel patterns were initially established, followed by the mode choice
176 decision corresponding to the selected pattern.

177 Previously, several modelling approaches like multinomial and nested logit models
178 (Dissanayake and Morikawa 2002; Hensher and Reyes 2000; Strathman et al. 1994; Yang et
179 al. 2016) and recursive simultaneous bi-variate probit models (Ye et al. 2007) were developed
180 to analyse the decision hierarchy between trip-chaining and mode choice behaviour. But the
181 logit models do not capture the decision hierarchy fully because they do not provide parameters
182 for directly measuring the causal effect. As an alternative to logit models, SEM is adopted in
183 behavioural research where latent variables can be incorporated in the model to understand the
184 hierarchical decisions and investigate the causal relationships between variables. SEM
185 formulations make it possible to capture bidirectional causality that may exist in the complex
186 relationships between trip-chaining and mode choice.

187 (Islam and Habib 2012) investigated the hierarchical relationship between mode choice and
188 trip chaining for work and non-work tours separately during weekdays and weekends (only
189 non-work tours were considered during weekends) using SEMs. They found that the trip
190 chaining and mode choice decisions were simultaneous and remained consistent across
191 weekdays for weekday work tours. For non-work tours, mode choice decision precedes trip
192 chaining during weekdays; on weekends, the hierarchical decision is the other way around.

193 (Hadiuzzaman et al. 2019) investigated empirical relationships between trip chain type and
194 mode choice for Dhaka city, Bangladesh. They found out that both the decisions are
195 simultaneous. (Subbarao et al. 2020) investigated the interdependencies between mode choice
196 and trip chaining for Mumbai, India on weekdays and weekends. Their results showed that
197 mode choice decisions precede trip-chaining decisions for weekdays, and these decisions are
198 simultaneous for weekend trips.

199 Past studies on the interdependency of trip chaining and mode choice behaviour explored their
200 relation by considering work and non-work trips during weekdays and weekends. In this study,
201 we examine the interplay between trip chaining decisions and mode choices by considering
202 public/active and private modes separately for work and non-work trips. Furthermore, this
203 study learns from those who own private vehicles but use active/public transport by choice and
204 extracts the factors indeed had motivated their choice. Most of the previous literature focus
205 heavily on the factors affecting active mobility or public transport and how to increase their
206 usage. But through this work, we identify the driving factors, which provides better ways to
207 frame policies and plans towards transit-oriented development integrated with active mobility.
208 This will encourage the uptake of active mobility in the short run and ensures a mode shift in
209 the long run.

210 **3 Methodology**

211 This study uses SEM to analyse the hierarchical relationship between the mode choice and trip
212 chaining decisions. SEM has become a promising technique because of its ability to handle and
213 analyse many endogenous/exogenous variables and latent relationships among the variables.
214 A typical SEM has two components – structural model and a measurement model (See
215 Joreskog (1970), for details). The structural model indicates the relationship between
216 exogenous variables and the underlying latent variables along with the causal effects, whereas
217 the measurement model represents the relationship between latent variables and endogenous
218 (decision) variables. Generic equations for structural model Equation 1 (expanded form as
219 Equation (2)) and measurement model Equation 3 (expanded form as Equation (4)) are
220 indicated below:

$$221 \quad \eta = \beta\eta + \Gamma X + \zeta \quad (1)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \eta_1 \\ \eta_2 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \eta_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \beta_{12} & \cdot & \cdot & \beta_{1m} \\ \beta_{21} & 0 & \cdot & \cdot & \beta_{2m} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \beta_{m1} & \beta_{m2} & \cdot & \cdot & 0 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} \eta_1 \\ \eta_2 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \eta_m \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_{11} & \gamma_{12} & \cdot & \cdot & \gamma_{1n} \\ \gamma_{21} & \gamma_{22} & \cdot & \cdot & \gamma_{2n} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \gamma_{m1} & \gamma_{m2} & \cdot & \cdot & \gamma_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \zeta_1 \\ \zeta_2 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \zeta_m \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

$$Y = \Lambda\eta + \varepsilon \quad (3)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ y_p \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{11} & \lambda_{12} & \cdot & \cdot & \lambda_{1m} \\ \lambda_{21} & \lambda_{22} & \cdot & \cdot & \lambda_{2m} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \lambda_{p1} & \lambda_{p2} & \cdot & \cdot & \lambda_{pm} \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} \eta_1 \\ \eta_2 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \eta_m \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \varepsilon_p \end{bmatrix} \quad (4)$$

225 where, X – $n \times 1$ vector of exogenous (x) variables

226 Y – $p \times 1$ vector of endogenous (y) variables

227 η – $m \times 1$ vector of latent variables

228 β – $m \times m$ coefficient matrix of latent variables

229 Γ – $m \times n$ coefficient matrix of exogenous (x) variables

230 ζ – $n \times 1$ vector of errors associated with η

231 Λ – $p \times m$ coefficient matrix of endogenous (y) variables on η

232 ε – $p \times 1$ vector of measurement errors

233 Equation (1) gives the structural relationship between latent and exogenous variables of the
 234 model and equation (2) specifies the measurement equations between underlying latent and
 235 endogenous variables of the model. In this study, LISREL software was used for the analysis
 236 which uses maximum-likelihood method, and the best-fit model was selected. This study
 237 employs Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Standardised Root Mean
 238 Squared Residual (SRMR), and Comparative Fitness Index (CFI) to validate the models.
 239 According to (Steiger 1990) a value of below 0.10 indicates a good fit, 0.08 or less is reasonable
 240 and values below 0.05 indicate a very good fit for RMSEA. SRMR value of less than 0.10
 241 indicates a good fit of the data in SEM models (Vandenberg and Lance 2000). (Bentler 1990)
 242 recommended the values of CFI lie between 0-1.0, with higher values indicating better fit.

243 The model's decision variables remain same across all hypothesis tests, while exogenous
244 variables are chosen on trial basis, with only statistically significant variables are considered.
245 A *t-statistic* value of 1.64 (Two-tail 90 percent confidence interval) is used as a critical value.
246 Figure 1 shows the modelling framework adopted for this study. Structural equations are
247 employed to uncover the directional causality and account for the mediation effect, thereby
248 comprehensively examining the influence of observed exogenous variables on endogenous
249 variables related to mode choice behaviour. Furthermore, a confirmatory factor analysis is
250 conducted to validate the hypothesized factors specifically among individuals who own private
251 vehicles but opt for public transport. By integrating the identified factors with the underlying
252 causality between trip chaining and mode choice behaviour, a comprehensive understanding of
253 the factors driving the usage of public and active transportation modes is achieved. This
254 research contributes to the existing literature by offering valuable insights into the complex
255 dynamics of mode choice behaviour, providing a robust framework for policymakers and
256 transportation planners to enhance the utilization of sustainable modes of transportation. The
257 study's contribution lies in its examination of the specific factors influencing mode choice
258 behaviour among vehicle owners who choose public transport, filling a gap in the literature and
259 offering practical implications for promoting sustainable transportation options.

260 **4 Study area**

261 *4.1 Site selection and data collection*

262 Hyderabad, India has been chosen to test a series of hypotheses (See Section 5 later) involving
263 the hierarchy of travel decisions benefitting from the rich database from the Comprehensive
264 Transportation Study conducted by the Hyderabad Metropolitan Development Authority
265 (HMDA). The study area is divided into four subareas: Erstwhile MCH (Municipal Corporation
266 of Hyderabad), rest of GHMC (Greater Hyderabad Municipal Corporation), Secunderabad
267 cantonment and Osmania University connecting three metro rail lines as shown in Figure 2.

268 From a total of 461 zones, 175 were selected as they are within an arbitrarily decided 1.5 km
269 of the metro rail corridor representing the catchment area. As this distance is considered an
270 acceptable distance for walking and cycling in metropolitan regions in India (Gupta et al.
271 2022), the zones within this radius of the metro corridor are considered.

272 Home Interview Survey collected individual and travel characteristics from a total of 6066
273 households within the selected area. After cleaning/removing incomplete data records, a total
274 of 9910 trips were included. Chi-square tests at 95% confidence interval are performed on the
275 data set to assess the sample representativeness. Resulting P-value is 0.089 against 0.05 critical
276 value indicating that there is no significant difference between sample and the population. A
277 Cronbach's alpha value of 0.842 shows that the data is reliable. Descriptive analysis of socio-
278 economic characteristics of the respondents is presented in Figure 3, which shows that the
279 majority of commuters were middle-aged (26-35 years) and school-going (<18 years), with
280 two-thirds of them being male. About 20% of the total respondents were graduates and 50% of
281 the total respondents were employed. Around 70% of the trips were work and educational trips.
282 Average household size was found to be 4.21 and the average household monthly income was
283 rupees (Rs.) 13,700. Average number of earners per household was 1.38, indicating that the
284 majority of households have only one person earning income. 50% of the households own a
285 vehicle with 33% of residents holding a driving license.

286 *4.2 Trip chain typology*

287 Several past studies defined a trip chain as the one that starts and ends at home with one or
288 more intermediate stops (Primerano et al. 2008), (Valiquette and Morency 2010). A similar
289 definition is adopted in this study too. Trip chains are broadly classified into simple and
290 complex trip chains based on the number of stops within a chain. They are classified further
291 based on the presence of work stop or not. Simple work (non-work) chain is the one that starts
292 and ends at home with only one work (non-work) stop. If there is more than one work (non-

293 work) stop or a combination of both work and non-work stops, then it is considered as a
294 complex trip chain. A complex trip has work or non-work stops in their morning or evening
295 commute other than the primary stop. Table 2 gives the detailed typology used. It is observed
296 that nearly 94% of the trips are simple work or non-work trips and the rest are complex trip
297 chains. In terms of purpose, work trips constitute about 80% whereas the remaining 20% are
298 for non-work. Out of this 80% work trips, 41% of the trips are education trips and the rest are
299 work trips.

300 *4.3 Mode choice classification*

301 Available modes are classified into six categories – walking and cycling are taken together as
302 a single category of active modes, 2-wheelers/motorcycles (2W), 3-wheelers/taxis/hired cars
303 are taken under one category as taxi based on their similar properties (Subbarao et al. 2020),
304 personal cars are labelled as cars, and public transport which includes bus and suburban rail
305 (MMTS). The mode share is shown in Figure 4. 2W has the highest mode share of 27%
306 followed by active modes (26%) and public transport (27%) including bus and suburban rail.

307 **5 Model development and analysis of results**

308 **5.1 Model specification**

309 The hierarchical (causal) relationship between trip chaining and mode choice decision is
310 investigated using SEM in LISREL software. In order to do this, appropriate hypotheses were
311 framed, and the path diagrams were created. The following four alternative hypotheses
312 representing the causal structure between mode choice and trip chaining were tested:

313 Null hypothesis:

314 *H₀: No correlation or decision precedence exists between trip chaining and mode choice.*

315 Alternative Hypotheses:

316 *H₁: Trip chaining and mode choice are correlated*

317 *H₂: Trip chain precedes mode choice decision*

318 *H₃: Mode choice precedes trip chain decision*

319 *H₄: Both decisions are simultaneous*

320 Two models each were developed - one for active/public transport modes and the other for
321 private modes. These two models were analysed for work and non-work purposes, thus making
322 up four models altogether. The data set was prepared in SPSS and then imported into LISREL
323 software. Path diagrams were drawn and the corresponding correlation along with *t-values*
324 were worked out. Initial model was developed without correlations among exogenous
325 variables. But the results were not significant with RMSEA value more than 0.05 (model =
326 0.2331). Models were then modified by adding necessary correlations between exogenous
327 variables incrementally and the decision hierarchy was investigated.

328 In the analysis, trip chaining (tchain) and mode choice (tmode) behaviour decisions are the
329 latent variables. Exogenous variables are identified based on the previous works and the
330 prevailing conditions in developing countries. After that, significant variables are taken into
331 account for the analysis. Table 3 lists the variables in the model. Types of trip chains and mode
332 choices are the endogenous variables. For all models, latent and endogenous variables remain
333 identical but exogenous variables are selected on a trial basis. The generalised path diagram is
334 shown in Figure 5.

335 Four separate models were developed in all for work and non-work trips for private transport
336 users and public and active mode users. Model 1 is developed for work trips (Simple Work -
337 SW and Complex work - CW) by public (bus/MMTS) and active modes, while Model 2 has
338 work trips by private modes (2W, taxi and cars). Model 3 is developed for non-work trips
339 (Simple non-work - SNW and Complex non-work - CNW) by public/ active modes, while
340 Model 4 is for non-work trips by private modes. LISREL software gives path coefficients along
341 with *t-values* and total effects. Total effects are the sum of direct and indirect effects of
342 exogenous variables on the decision variables through the mediation variables which are of

343 interest to us. These total effects are useful in understanding how the household, individual and
344 travel characteristics affect the decision of choosing a trip chain type and mode choice.

345 **5.2 Modelling results**

346 *Model 1: Work trips by public and active modes*

347 Initially, to investigate the decision precedence between trip chain and mode choice, the first
348 hypothesis (H1) tested for error correlation between the two. It is found that these are highly
349 correlated with a t-statistic value of 20.00 (>1.64 for 90% confidence level). So, in the next
350 step, decision precedence is tested by connecting the paths from trip chain to mode choice (H2)
351 and mode choice to trip chain (H3) respectively. It is found that both paths are significant but
352 neither can be preferred over the other. Thus, in the next step, both decisions are assumed to
353 be simultaneous. The paths are found to be significant (t-statistic = 3.15 and -3.70 respectively)
354 and the model fit is reasonable (RMSEA = 0.0265, SRMR = 0.0586, CFI = 0.889). The decision
355 is bi-directional i.e., workers decide on their mode and trip simultaneously without any
356 hierarchy. Trip chaining complexity acts as an impediment to the public transport and active
357 mode users to make multiple stops as they are constrained by the fixed routes, schedules, and
358 travel times respectively. Thus, the decision to choose a public mode or trip chain will be made
359 according to the availability of public transport at the time of departure and the travel time.

360 Table 4 provides the total effects of exogenous variables on endogenous variables. It can be
361 observed that income levels have a significant effect on the trip chaining and mode choice
362 behaviour. An increase in income levels has a negative impact on usage of bus/MMTS. Age
363 positively impacts public transport usage because aged people are more concerned about
364 safety/comfort, than using their own vehicle. At the same time, young age people prefer active
365 modes. Travel time shows a negative impact on the public and active mode usage as people try
366 to reduce their travel time by using faster modes of transport. On the other hand, with the
367 increase in travel cost people are willing to use public transport. This is perhaps due to high

368 fuel prices. People try to reduce the cost of travel expenditure by using public modes rather
369 than own vehicles. Vehicle availability has a negative impact on active modes. This is because
370 people tend to use a motor vehicle than active modes. Also, with an increase in vehicle
371 ownership, people are likely to take complex trips because of the flexibility in making multiple
372 stops.

373 ***Model 2: Work trips by private modes***

374 Similar testing method as described earlier is used in this case too. Firstly, the model is tested
375 for error correlation between the two decisions of trip chaining and mode choice. It is found
376 that there is a correlation with a coefficient of 0.66 between them with a t-statistic value of
377 18.34. Furthermore, the path connecting from trip chain to mode choice and from mode choice
378 to trip chain are found to be significant, simultaneous decision process will be tested in the next
379 step by connecting the paths simultaneously. It is found that the path connecting from trip chain
380 to mode choice is not significant (t-statistic = 0.60), whereas the path coefficient value of -0.29
381 from mode choice to trip chain with a t-statistic value of -7.86 has been found significant. The
382 model fit is found to be reasonable (RMSEA = 0.0343, SRMR = 0.0552, CFI = 0.886). Thus,
383 the decision is concluded as unidirectional rather than bi-directional for workers using
384 private/hired transport. This is largely due to the vehicle ownership (car or two-wheeler). They
385 already have a mode readily available, so they decide on the trip chain later. Also, owning a
386 vehicle offers more flexibility in performing multiple-stop trips.

387 Table 5 gives the total effects on endogenous variables. It is observed that higher-income
388 people are more likely to use private vehicles and take complex trips. With the longer travel
389 times, people use their own vehicles as they offer higher speeds. Number of license holders in
390 a household positively impacts the trip chain complexity and are likely to make trips by private
391 vehicle. Time of the day has a negative impact on private vehicle usage. That means they are

392 likely to use private vehicles during non-peak hours to avoid traffic congestion prevalent during
393 peak hours.

394 ***Model 3: Non-work trips by public/active modes***

395 Similar to work trips, models are developed for non-work trips. Initially, trip chaining and
396 mode choice are assumed to correlate in their error terms, and the results are significant (t-
397 statistic = 19.81). In the next steps, the path connecting trip chain to mode choice and vice-
398 versa is tested separately. It is found that both the paths are significant. So, the simultaneous
399 decision process is tested by connecting the paths between trip chain and mode choice. Results
400 confirmed the existence of bi-directional decision hierarchy, that is to say, trip chaining and
401 mode choice decisions are made simultaneously without any hierarchy. (t-statistic = 5.06 & -
402 7.18 respectively). The model fit is found to be reasonable (RMSEA = 0.0574, SRMR = 0.0660,
403 CFI = 0.841).

404 Table 6 gives the total effects of household, individual and travel characteristics effect on the
405 trip chain and mode choice behaviour. In case of non-work trips, household income has a
406 negative effect on active modes. This is because households with higher incomes are less likely
407 to travel by active modes for performing non-work activities. This is also supported by travel
408 times, which has a negative impact on active mode usage. License holders less likely to take
409 public transport for non-work trips rather they prefer active modes for simple non-work
410 activity. With the increase in the number of households, complexity in trip chaining increases
411 because of the household responsibilities shared by the members. Public transport commuters
412 are likely to perform simple trips as complex trips require multiple stops and it may not be
413 possible with public transport because of the fixed routes. Age decreases the complexity in trip
414 chains.

415 ***Model 4: Non-work trips by private modes***

416 A similar analysis is performed as earlier for non-work trips by private transport users. It is
417 found that the decision process is simultaneous without any hierarchy. So, the decision
418 hierarchy is not unidirectional. The path coefficient from trip chain to mode choice is -0.94
419 with a t-statistic value of -29.97, and the path coefficient from mode choice to trip chain is -
420 0.53 with a t-statistic value of -23.63. Model fit is reasonable with RMSEA= 0.0378, SRMR=
421 0.0531 & CFI= 0.874. These results seem to comply with the findings of (Subbarao et al. 2020),
422 which found that the decision process is simultaneous for weekend trips. As most weekend
423 trips are non-work related, the present results also showed similar findings.

424 Table 7 gives the total effects of exogenous variables on endogenous variables. It is seen that
425 income has a positive effect on private vehicle usage. With the increased income, people are
426 likely to use 2W for non-work chains. Time of the day has a negative effect on trip chains.
427 People are likely to take simple trip chains during peak hours. For simple non-work chains,
428 people prefer 2W even if the travel times increase. But taxis and cars have a negative impact
429 on travel times meaning they are less likely use these modes for longer trip chains.

430 Table 8 summarises the model results. It is noted that the decision hierarchy for public/active
431 mode users and private mode users is different for work trips signifying the time constraints
432 that the workers may have, restricting the trip chaining decisions to an extent. Thus, private
433 vehicle commuters tend to choose the mode *before* deciding on trip chaining, whereas
434 public/active transport users plan their trip simultaneously according to the schedules/routes.
435 These results partially agree with the findings of (Islam and Habib 2012; Ye et al. 2007), where
436 they found that the decision process is simultaneous for weekday work trips though non-work
437 trips were not analysed. As the behavioural patterns of public/active mode users and private
438 mode users differ, the analysis needs to be performed separately. For non-work trips, the
439 decision is simultaneous for all transport users. The probable reason is that they do not have

440 any time restrictions for non-work trips, so they can plan the trip according to their
441 convenience.

442 Knowledge of decision hierarchy (precedence or simultaneity) is necessary for framing
443 transport policies. If the mode choice decision precedes trip chaining, public transport has to
444 compete with the preferred alternative mode (2W/cars). Undoubtedly, 2W/cars offer higher
445 flexibility and convenience in making multiple stops, it thus becomes challenging to attract
446 new riders or to increase patronage by public transport. In contrast, if the decision process is
447 simultaneous, then it is possible to keep the ridership by improving the facilities, information
448 provision, ticketing, and/or schedules/routes.

449 **6 Factors driving the use of active/ public transport and implications to policy**

450 **6.1 Factors motivating the use of active/public transport modes by vehicle owning** 451 **individuals**

452 The proportion of trips by sustainable modes of 53% (public transport 27% + walking/cycling
453 26%) indicates their strong presence over cars/two-wheelers with a combined share of about
454 40%. It is interesting to note that among public/active mode users, nearly 60% users own a
455 vehicle (2W or car) but are using public/active modes by choice. This observation could be
456 very useful for promoting sustainable modes of travel if we are able to understand the factors
457 driving their motives. Thus, this section focuses on extracting the factors driving the choice of
458 sustainable modes of transport, building the analysis further from the results shown earlier in
459 Table 8. We have filtered out the datasets seeking active/public mode users for work and non-
460 work purposes separately from which we have extracted further the records of users who own
461 a vehicle. The number of records falling into each such category are shown in Table 9.
462 Percentages shown within the brackets indicate the proportion of users who own a vehicle (2W
463 or car). Before launching statistical analysis on the filtered-out records, let us revisit the results

464 produced earlier (Tables 4,6 for public/active modes of travel) but with a focus on identifying
465 the factors driving the mode choices.

466 Table 4 earlier shows that household income, vehicle ownership, age, education, and travel
467 characteristics such as cost/time/distance will significantly influence the choice of active/public
468 modes of transport for work trips. In case of non-work trips, in addition to household income
469 and vehicle ownership, travel time/cost/distance have a significant influence, whereas
470 age/education levels do not matter (Table 6). We now extend the analysis further by performing
471 Factor Analysis to confirm the drivers identified. For this purpose, we use the filtered-out
472 datasets as described earlier with the aim of extracting the specific factors driving the mode
473 choices distinguishing the work/non-work trips.

474 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), part of the measurement model in SEM, is a statistical
475 procedure which investigates the relationships between a set of observed and latent variables.
476 CFA is theoretically well-grounded and is used to test the existing theory. It hypothesises a
477 prespecified model and then evaluates how well it reproduces the sample covariance matrix of
478 the observed variables. RMSEA and SRMR are the fit indices used for model fit assessment.
479 Figure 6 gives the CFA model for work trips. Model fit values worked out to RMSEA = 0.055
480 and SRMR = 0.034. These results showed only the highly influential variables in using the
481 public/ active modes for work trips. Travel time and age are the most positively influential
482 driving factors (education is insignificant), whereas marital status and household size
483 negatively impact public/active mode usage. Figure 7 gives the CFA model for non-work trips.
484 RMSEA = 0.070 and SRMR = 0.032 are the obtained model fit values. Travel time and gender
485 have a positive impact (age is insignificant), whereas marital status and chaintype negatively
486 impact public/active mode usage.

487 Finally, Table 10 summarises the factors influencing the use of active/public modes of transport
488 for work/non-work trips. A number of inferences can be drawn from the results. For work trips,

489 household size and number of earners per household signify the choice of active/public modes
490 of transport despite owning a vehicle. In other words, household structure matters significantly.
491 Time of the day is also very important due to scheduled constraints in addition to the travel
492 costs as the work trips are repetitive by their nature. In contrast, for non-work trips, household
493 structure does not seem to matter at all, whereas gender/age and travel characteristics such as
494 travel time/cost significantly affect the mode choice. In both cases of work/non-work trips,
495 income levels do matter understandably though as they signify the affordability and perhaps
496 even the need for travel. It is interesting to note that the marital status is a significant driving
497 factor which is perhaps linked to the cultural settings in which the use of active/public modes
498 will depend on whether the trip maker is the main earner of a household or not.

499 **6.2 Implications for policies on promoting sustainable modes of transport**

500 Results showed that factors driving the use of sustainable modes of travel are distinct for work
501 and non-work trips. Thus, the strategies to promote them should differ too. Drawing from the
502 inferences earlier, we give below a list of possible strategies to support the uptake of sustainable
503 modes of travel.

504 *Work trips*

- 505 • Given that the household structure significantly affects the mode choice, attracting younger
506 and elderly persons could significantly improve the uptake of sustainable modes.
- 507 • As we have identified, age is a driving factor for choosing active/public modes of travel,
508 thus, running promotional campaigns in schools and also in communities would help.
509 Complementary facilities like bike-sharing programs could significantly influence the
510 attitudes of younger individuals toward walking and cycling. For elderly persons, the
511 strategy could include improving the quality of footpaths, street lighting and cleanliness.
- 512 • Travel-related factors, including the time of day and travel time/cost, are crucial
513 determinants for choosing active and public transport modes. Hence, enhancing safety

514 during travel for all users should be a priority. Additionally, making improvements to public
515 transport that reduce travel times, especially during peak hours (e.g., enhancements to
516 routing, scheduling, ticketing/pricing, and user information), can further promote
517 sustainable modes of transportation.

518 *Non-work trips*

- 519 • Gender appears to be a significant factor affecting the mode choice; thus, we need to
520 promote the use of active/public modes to targeted users. For instance, approaching women
521 and encouraging them to form cycling and walking groups or clubs. These groups can serve
522 as a source of support, and motivation for women who want to walk or cycle.
- 523 • Travel time/distance appear to significantly affect the mode choice; thus, alternative spatial
524 planning of activities could be explored with an intent to promote the use of sustainable
525 modes of travel.
- 526 • Trip chain type seems to negatively affect the use of sustainable modes of travel, thus
527 pointing us to the lack of flexibility in using public modes in case of trips with multiple
528 stops. Besides ensuring regularity of services, single ticketing can immensely help travellers
529 with multiple stops along with the awareness campaign on it. This will relieve them of
530 paying as many times, and perhaps could be cheaper for them too.

531 **7 Model validation and practical application**

532 From the results of the SEM, equations were formulated to estimate the latent variables, which
533 are trip chaining behaviour and mode choice behaviour. Equations 5 and 6 focus on trip
534 chaining behaviour, whereas equations 7 and 8 are for mode choice behaviour of work and
535 non-work trips respectively. After the estimation of the latent variables, the utility of each mode
536 is calculated by equations 9 and 10. Subsequently, the probability of mode choice is predicted
537 by equation 11.

$$\begin{aligned}
538 \quad tchain_w &= (0.88 * hhinc) + (-0.302 * hhsiz) + (0.88 * vperhh) + (-0.77 * earnhh) + \\
539 \quad &(0.42 * age) + (0.031 * gender) + (0.88 * educ) - (0.70 * TT) + (0.48 * TC) - (0.29 * \\
540 \quad &TD) - (0.87 * purpose) \quad (5)
\end{aligned}$$

541

$$\begin{aligned}
542 \quad tchain_{nw} &= (0.67 * hhinc) + (-0.30 * hhsiz) + (0.93 * vperhh) + (0.14 * license) + \\
543 \quad &(0.79 * educ) + (0.87 * timeofday) + (0.33 * TT) + (0.46 * TC) - (0.58 * TD) - (0.43 * \\
544 \quad &purpose) \quad (6)
\end{aligned}$$

545

$$\begin{aligned}
546 \quad tmode_w &= (-0.097 * hhinc) - (0.021 * hhsiz) - (0.122 * vperhh) - (0.042 * age) + \\
547 \quad &(0.013 * gender) - (0.68 * educ) + (0.09 * timeofday) + (0.90 * TT) - (0.51 * \\
548 \quad &TC) - (0.11 * TD) - (0.21 * purpose) + (0.31 * license) \quad (7)
\end{aligned}$$

549

$$\begin{aligned}
550 \quad tmode_{nw} &= (0.44 * hhinc) + (0.65 * hhsiz) - (0.40 * vperhh) - (0.75 * age) + \\
551 \quad &(0.32 * gender) + (0.11 * educ) + (0.31 * TT) + (0.60 * TC) + (0.14 * TD) - (0.30 * \\
552 \quad &license) \quad (8)
\end{aligned}$$

553

$$554 \quad Utility(U_w) = (-0.069 * tchain) - (0.5 * tmode) \quad (9)$$

$$555 \quad Utility(U_{nw}) = (0.73 * tchain) - (0.41 * tmode) \quad (10)$$

$$556 \quad P_{in} = \frac{e^{u_{in}}}{\sum_{j=1}^J u_{ij}} \quad (11)$$

557 Where, P_{in} – probability of selecting mode ‘n’ by individual ‘i’

558 u_{in} – utility of mode ‘n’ for individual ‘i’

559 u_{ij} – total utility of all modes in the choice set for individual ‘i’

560 The proportion of trips assigned to each mode for both work and non-work trips was then
561 determined. The model estimates that public transportation (buses, MMTS, and metro rail)
562 accounts for 33.9% of the total share, with metro rail contributing 5.4%. According to the
563 Hyderabad Municipal Development Authority (HMDA 2021) report, the share of public
564 transport is 32%, while the Hyderabad Metro Rail (LTMRHL 2023) reports the metro rail share
565 as 4.4%. The error in estimate lies within a 95% confidence interval, with the actual public
566 transportation share expected to be within the error margin of $\pm 1.68\%$ ($\pm 1.05\%$ for metro share)
567 of the estimated value thus validating the model.

568 After validating the model as described, let us now illustrate the use of the model for predicting
569 the modal share on new metro corridors. For instance, the travel time from Miyapur to
570 Ameerpet (red line corridor, 14 km) is 30 minutes by 2W, 38 minutes by car, and 54 minutes
571 by bus during non-peak hours. However, using the metro reduces the travel time to just 24
572 minutes for the same distance, resulting in an average time savings of 16 minutes. Moreover,
573 the metro ridership along the red line metro corridor constitutes 2.3% of the total metro trips
574 (which is 4.4%), representing approximately 50% of the overall metro ridership. Given the
575 similar traffic conditions on one of the proposed extensions of the red line from Miyapur to
576 Patancheru, the validated model can be applied to estimate the expected metro share. This
577 analysis predicts an initial metro share of approximately 2.3% with a margin of error of
578 $\pm 1.05\%$. This application demonstrates the model's potential for forecasting modal share on
579 new/existing infrastructure such as metro rail.

580 Additionally, individuals are more likely to choose modes that allow more stop-making
581 behaviour for complex trip chains. This increased complexity in trip chaining (increased by
582 19.3%) can lead to peak spreading, as commuters tend to incorporate non-work trips into their
583 morning or evening commutes. In Hyderabad, the extended peak hours have resulted in a 9%
584 increase in overall travel times. This underscores the necessity for capacity adjustments within
585 the existing infrastructure. Ignoring the impact of trip chaining on the expansion of peak
586 periods could further deteriorate travel times, potentially leading to the elimination of non-peak
587 periods, as seen in Delhi, thereby affecting travel speeds.

588 **8 Concluding remarks**

589 Studies on trip chaining and mode choice behaviour are gaining importance as travel behaviour
590 is a fundamental element that has significant implications for transport planning. Mode choice
591 behaviour influences ridership estimates by different mode users, and trip chaining behaviour
592 affects the stop-making. This paper investigates the hierarchical relationship between trip

593 chaining and mode choice behaviour with an intent to understand the interplay between the
594 two, to open up opportunities to promote the use of sustainable modes of transport. A well-
595 integrated system of public transport with active modes potentially contributes to sustainable
596 development and improves the access for all.

597 This paper hypothesises an underlying structure affecting the travel behaviour and models the
598 covariance between variables using SEM method. This paper examines four different
599 hypotheses considering whether the decision on trip chaining precedes the mode choice for
600 work/non-work purposes separately. Different trip chain patterns and mode choices are
601 identified from the datasets and the analysis is carried out using LISREL software. Results
602 showed that decision hierarchy is *simultaneous* for non-work trips for all users viz., by private
603 and active/public modes. In the case of work trips, however, the outcome is different. For work
604 trips by public/active mode users, the decision process is *simultaneous*, whereas for private
605 vehicle commuters, mode choice drives the trip chaining behaviour indicating a clear
606 precedence.

607 The main conclusions drawn from this work are summarised as below:

- 608 • The decision making between mode choice and trip chaining is simultaneous except in the
609 case of work trips by private modes for which mode choice clearly precedes indicating the
610 hierarchy. This means attracting private vehicle commuters to sustainable modes could be
611 a great challenge. Public transport providers need to develop innovative solutions such as
612 the possibility to productively use their time while on-board, besides offering safe,
613 comfortable journeys. However, non-work trips by private vehicle users can be potentially
614 converted to sustainable modes as the decision making is simultaneous. This will require
615 measures that allow trip chaining such as revising the routing/scheduling of public transport
616 in addition to improving the access to bus stops/train stations.

617 • The factors driving the use of sustainable modes of transport have been extracted for a subset
618 of users having access to a private mode such as a 2W or car. For work trips, household
619 structure seems to be a big driver in addition to age and travel characteristics such as
620 time/cost. For this group, targeted effort involving young/elderly persons could help the
621 uptake of active/public modes. However, for non-work trips the main factors affecting seem
622 to be the gender and travel characteristics. Thus, targeted effort towards womens' groups
623 could help. Regularity of services during off-peak hours together with through ticketing
624 could immensely help reducing time/cost by public transport.

625 In a developing country like India, income levels are not too high to afford a own vehicle by
626 all. For the majority, public and active modes are the main commuting modes. So, even a slight
627 improvement in the facilities can lead to generate a big impact. This can be achieved by
628 understanding the travel behaviour of commuters. Without understanding the decision-making
629 processes, the infrastructure provided is likely to be underutilised. Thus, a planned approach
630 through a good understanding of behaviour is essential for achieving sustainability. As the
631 transportation landscape continues to transform, it would be worth analysing the panel data to
632 understand the temporal changes in travel behaviour. This study integrates both active modes
633 and public transport within a single model, as they are sustainable modes of transportation.
634 However, to comprehensively understand the driving factors behind walking and cycling,
635 which are non-motorized modes, it is imperative to develop separate models specifically
636 tailored to these active modes.

637 **Data Availability Statement**

638 Some of the data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding
639 author upon reasonable request. This includes raw survey datafiles.

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645 **Author contribution**

646 Author X: conceptualisation; methodology; formal analysis; investigation; writing original
647 draft; funding acquisition. Author Y: conceptualisation; investigation; writing – review &
648 editing; funding acquisition; supervision. Author Z: writing – review & editing; supervision.

649

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