Evaluating Active Transport Benefits and Costs

Guide to Valuing Walking and Cycling Improvements and Encouragement Programs

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Abstract

This report describes methods for evaluating the benefits and costs of active transport (walking, cycling, and their variants, also called non-motorized and human-powered travel). It describes various types of benefits, costs and methods for measuring them. These include direct benefits to users from improved active transport conditions, various benefits to society from increased walking and cycling activity, reduced motor vehicle travel, and more compact and multi-modal community development. It discusses active transport demands and ways to increase walking and cycling activity. This analysis indicates that many active transport benefits tend to be overlooked or undervalued in conventional transport economic evaluation.

Previously called “Evaluating Non-Motorized Transportation Benefits and Costs”

This report updates and expands on, “Bicycling and Transportation Demand Management,” Transportation Research Record 1441, Transportation Research Board, 1994, pp. 134-140.

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Executive Summary

Active transport (also called non-motorized transport or NMT, and human powered transport) refers to walking, cycling, and variants such as wheelchair, scooter and handcart use. Active transport plays important and unique roles in an efficient and equitable transportation system. It provides basic mobility, affordable transport, access to motorized modes, physical fitness, and enjoyment. Improving active conditions can benefit users directly, plus various indirect benefits, so even people who do not use a particular sidewalk, crosswalk, path or bikerack often benefit from their existence.

This report describes the impacts (benefits and costs) of policies and projects that improve active transport conditions and increase active mode use. It discusses factors that affect these impacts, describes methods for quantifying and monetizing (measuring in monetary units) them. Table ES-1 lists various categories of active transport benefits and costs. Conventional transport economic evaluation tends to overlook and undervalue walking and cycling improvements.

### Table ES-1  Active Transportation (AT) Benefits and Costs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefits</th>
<th>Improved AT Conditions</th>
<th>More Active Transport Activity</th>
<th>Reduced Automobile Travel</th>
<th>More Compact Communities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| • Improved user convenience and comfort | • User enjoyment  
• Improved public fitness and health  
• More local economic activity  
• Increased community cohesion (positive interactions among neighbors) which tends to increase local security | • Reduced traffic congestion  
• Road and parking facility cost savings  
• Consumer savings  
• Reduced chauffeuring burdens  
• Increased traffic safety  
• Energy conservation  
• Pollution reductions  
• Economic development | • Improved accessibility, particularly for non-drivers  
• Transport cost savings  
• Reduced sprawl costs  
• Openspace preservation  
• More livable communities  
• Higher property values  
• Increased security | |
| • Improved accessibility for non-drivers, which supports equity objectives |  |
| • Option value                      |  |
| • Higher property values            |  |
| • More neighborhood security        |  |
| Costs                              | • Facility costs  
• Lower traffic speeds | • Equipment costs (shoes, bikes, etc.)  
• Increased crash risk | • Slower travel  
• Increases in some development costs | |

Active transport can have various benefits and costs.

Some of these impacts are relatively easy to measure. Economists often monetize facility costs, traffic congestion, vehicle operation, crash damage, and pollution costs. Methods also exist for evaluating health impacts, social equity, affordability and option value (the value of maintaining a currently-unused option) benefits, user enjoyment, and additional environmental benefits such as habitat preservation. This guide describes these methods and how they can be used for more comprehensive evaluation of active impacts.

This report should be of interest to transportation policy analysts, planners, economists and engineers, plus active transport advocates.
Introduction

Active transportation (also called non-motorized transport, NMT and human powered transport) refers to walking, cycling, and variants such as wheelchair, scooter and handcart use. It includes both utilitarian and recreational travel activity, plus stationary uses of pedestrian environments such as standing on sidewalks and sitting at bus stops. In this report, pedestrian, walker, cyclist, and non-driver refer to active mode users, whereas motorist and driver refer to automobile users, although most people fall into multiple categories.

These modes play important and unique roles in an efficient and equitable transport system:

- Typically 10-20% of local trips are entirely by active modes, and most trips involve active links; for example, to access public transit and from parked cars to destinations.
- Improving active transport can achieve transport planning objectives including reduced traffic and parking congestion, energy consumption and pollution emissions, and to help create more compact “smart growth” development.
- Walking and cycling provide affordable, basic transport. Physically, economically and socially disadvantaged people often rely on walking and cycling, so improving active transport can help achieve social equity and economic opportunity objectives.
- Active transport is the most common form of physical exercise. Increasing walking and cycling is often the most practical way to improve public fitness and health.
- Pedestrian environments (sidewalks, paths and hallways) are a major portion of the public realm. Many beneficial activities (socializing, waiting, shopping and eating) occur in pedestrian environments. Residential and commercial districts and resort communities depend on good walkable environments to attract customers.
- Walking and cycling are popular recreational activities. Improving walking and cycling conditions provides enjoyment and health benefits to users and supports related industries including retail, recreation and tourism.

Many planning decisions affect walking and cycling conditions, and therefore the amount of active travel that occurs in a community. To the degree that a planning process undervalues active transport, it will underinvest in these modes, which reduces overall transport system diversity and efficiency.

Conventional transportation economic evaluation tends to overlook and undervalue many active transportation benefits. This report describes methods for more comprehensive evaluation of these impacts. Because active travel is diverse, some analysis in this report only applies to certain conditions, modes or trips. For example, some analysis applies primarily to walking, others primarily to cycling, some to certain users (such as people with disabilities), and some to certain conditions (such as active access to public transit). Users should use judgment to determine what is appropriate for their analysis.
### Active Transport And Transport Diversity

Many communities are, to various degrees, *automobile dependent*; meaning that their transport systems and land use patterns favor automobile access and provide relatively poor access by other modes. The alternative is *generally not a car-free community* where driving is forbidden, rather, it is a community with a *diverse (or multi-modal)* transport system, which provides various accessibility options, including good walking, cycling, public transit, automobile, ridesharing, taxi and ridehailing, telework and delivery services.

Active modes play important roles in a diverse transport system. Where walking and cycling conditions are good, typically 10-20% of local trips are by these modes. Walking and cycling provide access to public transit; often the best way to improve and encourage public transit travel is to improve local walking and cycling conditions. Walking provides connections between parked vehicles and destinations, so pedestrian improvements can help reduce parking problems. Physically, economically and socially disadvantaged people tend to rely significantly on active modes, so they provide equity value. If walking and cycling conditions are inadequate, non-drivers must rely either on taxi travel or chauffeuring (special trips made to transport a passenger), which is costly and inefficient, particularly because such trips often involve empty backhauls, so each passenger-mile generates two vehicle-miles of travel.

Because transport demands are diverse (different people, areas and trips have differing travel needs and abilities), increasing transport system diversity tends increase efficiency and equity by allowing each mode to be used for what it does best. For example, it is inefficient if physically able people who enjoy walking and cycling are forced to drive for short trips due to poor active travel conditions. Similarly, it is inefficient if people who would like to use public transit cannot due to poor walking and cycling access to bus stops or train stations.

A transportation system is an integrated network; its efficiency depends on the quality of modes and the links between them. For example, a person’s ability to commute without a car may depend not only on the quality of transit services, but also on the perceived safety of bus stops and train stations, the quality of walking and cycling conditions, the ease of obtaining information about these travel options, the ease of paying a fare, and the social acceptability of commuting by transit. Because of these relationships it can be difficult to value a single system change; for example, in one location, improving walking and cycling access to a bus stop may significantly increase ridership, but in another location have much smaller impacts.
**Active Transport Demand and Modeling**

*Transport demand* refers to the amount and type of travel people would choose in specific conditions. Various demographics, economic, and land use factors can affect active travel demands (Table 1).

**Table 1  Factors Affecting Walking and Cycling Travel Demand** (Based on Dill and Gliebe 2008; Pratt, et al. 2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Impacts on Active Travel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Young people tend to have high rates of walking and cycling. Some older people have high rates of walking for transportation and exercise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Ability</td>
<td>Some people with impairments rely on walking and cycling, and may require facilities with suitable design features, such as ramps for walkers and wheelchairs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income and Education</td>
<td>Many lower-income people tend to rely on active modes for transportation. Bicycle commuting is popular among higher income professionals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dogs</td>
<td>Daily walking trips tend to be higher in households that own dogs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicles and Drivers Licenses</td>
<td>People who do not have a car or driver’s license tend to rely on walking and cycling for transportation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel Costs</td>
<td>Active travel tends to increase with driving costs (parking fees, fuel taxes, road tolls, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities</td>
<td>Walking and cycling activity tend to increase where there are good facilities (sidewalks, crosswalks, paths, bikeracks, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roadway Conditions</td>
<td>Walking and cycling tend to increase in areas with narrower roads and lower vehicle traffic speeds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trip Length</td>
<td>Walking and cycling are most common for shorter (less than 2-mile) trips.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land Use</td>
<td>Walking and cycling tend to increase in areas with compact and mixed development where more common destinations are within walking distances.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>Walking and cycling activity may be increased with campaigns that promote these activities for health and environmental improvement sake.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Support</td>
<td>Cycling rates tend to increase where communities consider it socially acceptable.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Many factors can affect active travel demand.

Various methods are used to measure walking and cycling activity, including travel surveys and pedestrian and cycling traffic counters (Charlier Associates, Krizek and Forsyth 2012; Kuzmyak, et al. 2014; FHWA 2012b; Minge, et al. 2015; Nordback, Sellinger and Phillips 2017; Renne and Bennett 2014; Ryan and Lindsey 2013). Conventional statistics tend to underrepresent active transport because most travel surveys undercount trips that are shorter (within a *traffic analysis zone*), off-peak and non-work trips, travel by children, and recreational travel (ABW 2010; Stopher and Greaves 2007; Sullivan and C. O’Fallon 2010). Many surveys ignore active links of motor vehicle trips; for example, a *bike-transit-walk* trip is often classified simply as a transit trip, and a motorist who walks several blocks from a parked car to their destination is classified as an auto user. More comprehensive surveys indicate that active travel is three to six times more common than conventional surveys indicate (Forsyth, Krizek and Agrawal 2010; Pike 2011), so if statistics only indicate that 5% of trips are active, the actual amount is probably 10-30% (Litman 2010).
Figure 1  Mode Share by Mileage Category (Litman 2010)

This figure illustrates the share of total trips by mode and trip distance category.

According to the 2009 U.S. National Household Travel Survey, 10.9% of personal trips are by walking and 1.0% by cycling (Kuzmyak and Dill 2012). Figure 1 shows the mode shares of various length trips. For the 27% of trips less than a mile, 31% are active. About half of walking and cycling trips are purely recreational, and only about 5% are for commuting, so for each active commute trip there are about nine other utilitarian active trips, and about ten recreational trips (Gallup 2008). Although active modes serve a small portion of total travel distance, they represent a much larger portion of share of travel time and trips. For example, walking represents only about one percent of total mileage but more than ten percent of trips and travel time, as shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2  Mode Share by Distance, Time and Trips (Litman 2010)

Active modes serve a small portion of travel distance but a larger share of trips and travel time.

Transport modeling refers to methods used to predict how travel activity is affected by specific transport system changes (Clifton, et al. 2015; Krizek, et al. 2006; Kuzmyak, et al. 2014; Pratt, et al. 2012). Conventional travel models can be improved to better incorporate active travel (“Model Improvements,” VTPI 2009), and specialized models can be used to predict how various transport system and land use changes would affect walking and cycling activity (McDonald, et al. 2007; Molino, et al. 2012). The TDM Effectiveness Evaluation Model (TEEM) evaluates the travel impacts and economic benefits of specific pedestrian and bicycle improvements (Loudon, Roberts and Kavage 2007).
**Figure 3**  
Mode Share By Country (Bassett, et al. 2011)

Active travel varies significantly between wealthy countries.

Active transport activity varies widely between different countries and cities, as illustrated in figures 3 and 4. These differences reflect policy and planning factors more than geography or climate. For example, Scandinavian countries, Switzerland, and the Netherlands have cold, wet climates; and San Francisco, Boston, and Seattle are cold, wet and hilly, but all have relatively high active mode share due to supportive transport and land use policies as well as positive community attitudes (ABW 2010). Public transit and active travel tend to complement each other, so communities with high transit use also tend to have high rates of walking and cycling.

**Figure 4**  
U.S. Urban Region Commute Mode Share (U.S. Census 2007)

This figure shows the ten U.S. cities with highest and lowest alternative mode commute share.
Large variations also occur between neighborhoods (Frank, et al. 2010; Litman 2008). Multi-modal neighborhoods often have ten times as much walking and cycling activity as automobile-oriented neighborhoods, as illustrated in Figure 5. Although this partly reflects self-selection (non-drivers tend to choose to live in more multi-modal communities), people who move from automobile-oriented to multi-modal communities often increase their active travel (Cao, Handy and Mokhtarian 2006).

**Figure 5  Portland Neighborhood Mode Share** (Lawton 2001)

As an area becomes more urbanized the portion of trips made by transit and walking increases.

In most communities, 20-40% of the population cannot, should not or prefer not to drive due to disabilities, low incomes or health and environmental concerns. In addition, many trips, such as short errands, are most efficiently made by active modes. There is evidence of significant latent demand for active travel; many people want to walk and bicycle more than they currently do but face obstacles (ABW 2010; LAB 2015; Leinberger 2012). Active transport facility improvements often lead to more walking and cycling activity (FHWA 2012 and 2014; Litman 2009b; Living Streets 2011). Current demographic and economic trends (aging population, rising fuel prices, urbanization, growing traffic congestion, and increased health and environmental concerns) are increasing demand for active transport and the potential benefits from accommodating this demand (Litman 2006).

For some evaluations it is important to know vehicle travel substitution rates: the amount that motor vehicle travel declines. In a detailed study of five U.S. communities with active transport improvements, Krizek, et al. (2007) found that 30% to 40% of walk and bike commute trips, and about 95% of active mode trips to other destinations, would have been made by driving. The researchers estimate that in these five communities the NMT improvements reduced approximately 0.25 to 0.75 mile of daily driving per adult, 1-4% of total automobile travel. The Australian TravelSmart program, which uses various incentives to encourage residents to use alternative modes typically reduces automobile trips 5% to 14%, about half resulting from shifts to active travel (TravelSmart 2005).
Active Leverage Effects (Cairns et al. 2004; Guo and Gandavarapu 2010)

Walking and cycling improvements often leverage additional vehicle travel reductions in these ways:

- **Shorter trips.** A shorter active trip often substitutes for longer motorized trips, such as when people choose a local store rather than driving to more distant shops.

- **Reduced chauffeuring.** Poor walking conditions often cause motorists to chauffeur non-drivers which generates empty backhauls. For such trips, a mile of walking often reduces two vehicle-miles of travel.

- **Increased public transit.** Walking and cycling improvements can support public transit travel, since most transit trips involve walking and cycling links.

- **Vehicle ownership reductions.** Improving alternative modes can allow some households to reduce their vehicle ownership. Since motor vehicles are costly to own but relatively cheap to use, once households purchase an automobile they tend to use it, including some relatively low-value trips.

- **Land use patterns.** Walking and cycling improvements help create more compact, multi-modal communities by reducing road and parking facility land requirements which reduces travel distances.

- **Social norms.** More walking and cycling can help increase social acceptance of alternative modes.

Not every active mode improvement has all these effects, but many small changes can help make a community more multi-modal, and therefore reduce total vehicle travel. Conventional planning analysis often ignores these indirect impacts and so underestimates the potential of active improvements to achieve objectives such as reducing congestion, accidents and pollution emissions.

Active travel can leverage additional vehicle travel reductions, as described in the box above. Guo and Gandavarapu (2010) found that installing sidewalks on all streets in a typical North American community would increase per capita walking and cycling by 0.097 average daily miles and reduce automobile travel by 1.142 daily vehicle-miles, about 12 miles of reduced driving for each mile of increased active travel. Similarly, Wedderburn (2013) found that in New Zealand cities, on average, each additional daily transit trip by driving age (18+ years) residents increases daily walking (in addition to transit access walking trips) by 0.95 trips and 1.21 kilometers, and reduces two daily car driver trips and 45km driven. International data also indicate that each mile of increased active travel is associated with seven miles of reduced motor vehicle travel (Figure 6).

**Figure 6**  
**Active Vs. Motorized Transport** (Kenworthy and Laube 2000)

*International data indicate that motor vehicle travel tends to decline as active travel increases.*
Evaluating Active Travel Conditions

Below are examples of performance indicators that can be used to evaluate the quality of walking and bicycling conditions (Blumenberg, et al 2016; Semler, et al. 2016):

- **Level-of-Service (LOS, also called Service Quality)** rates performance from A (best) to F (worst). Until recently, only motor vehicle LOS ratings were available, but in recent years rating systems have been developed for active modes (TRB 2008; Walkability Tools Research Website, www.levelofservice.com). These include:
  1. **Cycling LOS** considers the availability of bicycle paths, number of unsignalized intersections and driveways, adjacent traffic and bike lane widths, parking lanes motor vehicle traffic volumes and speeds, portion of heavy vehicles, grades (hills), and special conflicts such as freeway off-ramps.
  2. **Pedestrian LOS** considers pedestrian facility crowding, sidewalk and path conditions, vehicle traffic speeds and volumes, perceived separation between pedestrians and motor vehicle traffic (including barriers such as parked cars and trees), street crossing widths, extra walking required to reach crosswalks, average pedestrian road crossing delay, and special conflicts.

- **WalkScore** (www.walkscore.com) calculates a location’s proximity to services such as stores, schools and parks, as an indication of the ease of walking to such destinations. It provides no information on walking condition quality.

- **Neighborhood Bikeability Score** (www.ibpi.usp.pdx.edu/neighborhoods.php) indicates by ratings, 0 (worst) to 100 (best) the number of destinations (stores, schools, parks, etc.) that can be reached within a 20-minute bike ride, considering bicycling conditions (McNeil 2010).

- **BikeAble** (www.railstotrails.org/our-work/research-and-information/bikeable) is a customizable tool for evaluating community connectivity and bicycle network improvements.

- The **Walkability Checklist** and **Bikeability Checklist** developed by the Pedestrian and Bicycle Information Center (www.walkinginfo.org) includes ratings for road and off-road facilities, user behavior, and ways to improve walking and bicycling conditions.

- Surveys that ask users to rate walking conditions, barriers to walking, and the degree that walking and cycling improvements would affect their travel activity (Leather, et al. 2011).

- Before and after studies of walking and cycling improvements that measure changes in active travel activity (Turner, et al. 2011).

- **Acceptable Walking Distance**. The distance people willingly walk is an important factor in some transport and land use planning: it determines the optimal size of a commercial district or urban village, the area served by public transit, and acceptable distances between parking facilities and destinations. The table below indicates pedestrian LOS.

### Table 2 Level of Service by Walking Trip Distance (in Feet) (Smith and Butcher 1997)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Walking Environment</th>
<th>LOS A</th>
<th>LOS B</th>
<th>LOS C</th>
<th>LOS D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Climate Controlled</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>2,400</td>
<td>3,800</td>
<td>5,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor/Covered</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor/Uncovered</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>1,200</td>
<td>1,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Through Surface Lot</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>1,050</td>
<td>1,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inside Parking Facility</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>1,200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table rates acceptable walking distance for various conditions.
Active Transport Improvement and Encouragement Strategies

There are many possible ways to improve and encourage active transport (Alta Planning 2005; FHWA 2004). Active mode improvement and encouragement programs tend to have synergistic effects (total impacts are greater than the sum of their individual impacts), so it is generally best to implement and evaluate integrated programs. Experts generally recommend that active mode plans include Four Es: engineering, encouragement, education and enforcement. Below are examples:

- **Walking and cycling facility improvements.** Improved sidewalks, crosswalks, paths, bikelanes, bicycle parking and changing facilities. Apply universal design, which refers to design features that accommodate all possible users, including wheelchair and handcart users, and people who cannot read local languages.

- **Active transport encouragement and safety programs.** Special programs that encourage people to walk and bicycle for transport, and teach safety skills.

- **Public bikes** (easy-to-rent bikes distributed around a community).

- **Roadway redesign, including traffic calming, road diets, and traffic speed controls.** Traffic calming changes roadway design to reduce traffic speeds. Road diets reduce the number of traffic lanes, particularly on urban arterials. Traffic speed controls can involve driver information, changes in posted speed limits, and increased enforcement.

- **Improved road and path connectivity.** More connected roadway and pathway systems allow more direct travel between destinations. Walking and cycling shortcuts are particularly effective at encouraging motorized to active travel shifts.

- **Public transport improvements.** Public transport complements active transport: Public transit improvements often involve pedestrian and cycling facility improvements (such as better sidewalks and bicycle parking), and it can reduce vehicle traffic and sprawl.

- **Commute trip reduction programs.** This includes various programs that encourage use of alternative modes, particularly for commuting to work and school. These often include features that encourage active travel such as improving bicycle parking or financial rewards such as parking cash out.

- **Pricing reforms.** This includes more efficient road, parking, insurance and fuel pricing (motorists pay directly for costs they impose).

- **Smart growth (also called new urban, transit-oriented development, and location-efficient development) land use policies.** More compact, mixed, connected land use, and reduced parking supply tends to improve walking and cycling conditions and encourage use of active modes by reducing the distances people must travel to reach common destinations such as shops, schools, parks, public transit, and friends (Ewing and Hamidi 2014).

Table 3 summarizes the travel impacts of these strategies. Some strategies only affect a portion of total travel (for example, Commute Trip Reduction programs only affect commute travel at participating worksites). A combination of these strategies can have significant impacts, improving active travel conditions, increasing active travel, and shifting 10-30% of motorized travel to active modes.
Evaluating Active Transport Benefits and Costs
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Table 3
Travel Impacts of Strategies to Encourage Active Travel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Improves Active Conditions</th>
<th>Increases NMT Travel</th>
<th>Reduces Automobile Travel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Walking &amp; cycling facility improvements</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouragement and safety programs</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public bikes</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roadway redesign</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Small</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving road and path connectivity</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public transport improvements</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commute trip reduction</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation price reforms</td>
<td>Small</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land use policy reform</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(“Small” = less than 1%; “Moderate” = 1-5%; “Significant” = greater than 5%)

This table summarizes the potential impacts of various mobility management strategies. Although many strategies have modest individual impacts, their effects are cumulative and often synergistic (total impacts are greater than the sum of individual impacts). An integrated program that combines several appropriate strategies can significantly improve active mode conditions, increase active travel and reduce automobile travel.

Conversely, planning decisions such as roadway expansion, increased traffic volumes and speeds, automobile travel underpricing, and sprawled development tend to degrade walking and cycling conditions and discourage their use.

Network and Synergistic Effects
Transport systems tend to have network effects: their impacts and benefits increase as they expand. For example, a single sidewalk or bicycle lane generally provides little benefit since it will connect few destinations, but a network of sidewalks and bicycle lanes that connect most destinations in an area can be very beneficial. Similarly, a single sidewalk or bicycle path that connects two networks (i.e., it fills a missing link) can provide very large benefits.

Transportation improvement strategies also have synergistic effects, that is, their total impacts are greater than the sum of their individual impacts. For example, developing bike lanes alone may only increase bicycle commute mode share by 5-points, and a commute trip reduction program alone may only increase bicycle mode share by 5-points, but implemented together they may increase bicycle mode share by 15-points because of their synergist effects.

Conventional transport planning often evaluates projects and programs individually, and so tends to overlook these network and synergistic effects. This tends to undervalue active transport improvements, particularly early in the development period. The first few sidewalks, bike lanes or encouragement programs in a community will seldom offer a high economic return if evaluated individually, although once completed the network may provide very large benefits. It is therefore important to use comprehensive and systematic evaluation of active mode benefits.
Active Planning Resources


Bicycle Information Center (www.bicyclinginfo.org), provides nonmotorized planning information.

Bicyclepedia (www.bicyclinginfo.org/bikecost), bicycle facility benefit/cost analysis tool.

Complete Streets (www.completestreets.org), provides information on multi-modal road planning.

Fietsberaad (www.fietsberaad.nl), the Dutch Centre of Expertise on Bicycle Policy develops and disseminates practical knowledge and experience for improving and encouraging cycling.


National Association of City Transportation Officials (http://nacto.org).


*Walk Friendly Communities* (www.walkfriendly.org) is a USDOT program that encourages communities to create safer walking environments.

Benefit and Cost Categories
Active transportation can provide various types of benefits and costs, depending on their impacts, as summarized in Table 4. Some of these overlap. For example, many economic development benefits result from the transport and infrastructure cost savings. It is therefore important to avoid double-counting total benefits.

Table 4  Active Transportation Benefits and Costs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefit Category</th>
<th>Improved NMT Conditions</th>
<th>Increased NMT Transport Activity</th>
<th>Reduced Automobile Travel</th>
<th>More Compact Communities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>• Improved user convenience and comfort</td>
<td>• User enjoyment • Improved public fitness and health</td>
<td>• Reduced traffic congestion</td>
<td>• Improved accessibility, particularly for non-drivers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Improved accessibility for non-drivers, which supports equity objectives</td>
<td>• Increased community cohesion (positive interactions among neighbors due to more people walking on local streets) which tends to increase local security</td>
<td>• Road and parking facility cost savings • Consumer savings</td>
<td>• Transport cost savings • Reduced sprawl costs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Option value</td>
<td>• Higher property values • Increased security</td>
<td>• Reduced chauffeuring burdens • Increased traffic safety • Energy conservation • Pollution reductions • Economic development</td>
<td>• Openspace preservation • More livable communities • Higher property values • Increased security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costs</td>
<td>• Facility costs</td>
<td>• Equipment costs (shoes, bikes, etc.)</td>
<td>• Slower travel</td>
<td>• Increases in some development costs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Lower traffic speeds</td>
<td>• Increased crash risk</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Active transport can have various benefits and costs.

Table 5 summarizes factors that affect the magnitude of these impacts.

Table 5  Factors Affecting Active Transport Benefits and Costs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Factors Affecting Their Magnitude</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Improved walking and cycling conditions</td>
<td>Degree of improvement. Number and type of potential users. Whether many pedestrians and cyclists depend on these modes for basic mobility.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased walking and cycling activity</td>
<td>Amount walking and cycling increases. Number and type of users. Whether currently sedentary people increase their physical activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced automobile travel</td>
<td>Amount and type of automobile travel reduced (reductions in urban-peak travel tend to provide large benefits).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land use impacts</td>
<td>Degree that a policy or project supports land use planning objectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costs</td>
<td>Project costs. Vehicle traffic delays. Users’ incremental financial, time and risk costs, and whether users have good alternatives.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table summarizes factors that affect the magnitude of active transport benefits and costs.
Monetization Methods
Some NMT impacts involve non-market goods, that is, goods not generally traded in a competitive market. For example, improved pedestrian environments, cleaner air, and reduced traffic risk are not generally purchased directly by consumers. Various methods can be used to monetize (measure in monetary units) such impacts (van Essen, et al. 2007; “Quantification Techniques,” Litman 2009):

- **User savings.** Active mode improvements that allow people to reduce their transport costs (vehicle ownership and operation, parking costs, etc.) can be considered worth at least those monetary savings.

- **Social cost savings.** Active improvements that reduce costs to government or businesses (such as reduced road or parking facility costs) can be considered worth that amount to a community.

- **Control costs.** A cost can be estimated based on prevention, control or mitigation expenses. For example, if industry is required to spend $1,000 per ton to reduce emissions of a pollutant, we can infer that society considers those emissions to impose costs at least that high. If both damage costs and control costs can be calculated, the lower of the two are generally used for analysis on the assumption that a rational economic actor would choose prevention if it is cheaper, but will would accept damages if prevention costs are high.

- **Contingent valuation surveys** ask people the amount they would willingly pay for a particular improvement, or the amount they would need to be compensated for loss, such as the closure of a path or trail (Carleyolsen, et al. 2005). Most communities spend approximately a hundred dollars annually per capita on local parks and recreation centers. This suggests that walking and cycling improvements that significantly improve people’s ability to enjoy recreational walking and cycling provide benefits of comparable value.

- **Revealed preference studies** observe how much people pay in money or time to access services or facilities. For example, if somebody spends 20 minutes and two dollars for fuel to drive to a trail to walk or bike, this suggests they value trail use more than those costs, and they might be willing to pay to help develop a closer trail that is cheaper to access.

- **Hedonic pricing studies** observe how walking and cycling improvements affect nearby property values. For example, Cortright (2009) found that in typical U.S. metropolitan regions a one point increase in Walkscore (www.walkscore.com) is associated with a $700 to $3,000 increase in home values, indicating the value consumers place on walkability.

- **Compensation Rates.** Legal judgments and other damage compensation can be used as a reference for assessing nonmarket values. For example, if crash victims are compensated at a certain rate, this can be considered to indicate damage costs. However, some damages are never compensated, and it would be poor public policy to fully compensate all such damages, since that could encourage some people (those who put a relatively low value on their injuries) to take excessive risks or even cause crashes in order to receive compensation. As a result, compensation costs tend to be lower than total damage costs.

In some situations, a combination of methods should be used. For example, the total value of health benefits may include a reduction in government, business and consumer healthcare costs; reduced worker disability costs and improved productivity; users’ willingness-to-pay for reduced illness and longevity; minus any increase in medical costs associated with walking and cycling.
User Benefits
Improving active mode conditions (better sidewalks, crosswalks, paths, bike parking, traffic speed reductions, etc.) directly benefit existing users (people who would walk or bicycle anyway) and new users (people who walk or bicycle more in response to improvements). Just as a faster or safer roadway benefits motorists, safer and more convenient walking and cycling conditions benefits users of those modes. User benefits can be large for the following reasons:

- Active travel is a critical component of the transport system. It is typically the second most common mode of transport (after automobile travel) and provides access to and connections among other modes. As a result, improving walking and cycling conditions can improve overall transport system diversity and efficiency.
- Active transport provides basic mobility, alone and in conjunction with public transport. In a typical community, 20-40% of residents cannot drive due to age, disability or poverty, and so depend on non-automobile modes, or are forced to rely on motorists for rides. As a result, the quality of NMT affects mobility disadvantaged people’s ability to access critical goods and activities, and their independence.
- Pedestrian environments serve many functions and are a critical part of the public realm (public spaces where people naturally interact). On sidewalks and paths people stand, wait, socialize, play, eat, work and window-shop, and these facilities are an important part of the landscape. Improving pedestrian environments can improve the utility and enjoyment of these activities, and create more attractive communities.
- Although active travel represents only 5-15% total trips, it represents a larger portion of travel time (typically 15-30%), which is how users experience transport, so NMT travel conditions significantly affect people’s travel experience.
- Active modes provide enjoyment and exercise. Even utilitarian trips often provide such benefits. Surveys indicate that walking and cycling are among the most common forms of recreation, and that many people would like to use these modes more, provided that NMT conditions improve (ABW 2010).

Evaluation methods: Various methods can be used to measure the value to users of walking and cycling improvements:

- Avoided costs (user savings from reduced expenditures on motorized travel or exercise equipment). Walking and cycling improvements reduce consumer expenditures on automobiles, taxi and public transit fares, exercise equipment or gym memberships. In some situations (for example, where active mode improvements reduce the need for households to own vehicles) savings can total hundreds or thousands of dollars annually per capita.
- Contingent valuation (user surveys). Area residents or potential users can be surveyed to determine their willingness-to-pay for specific facilities or improvement. This method is often used to estimate park and trail values (Carley Olsen, et al. 2005).
- Hedonic pricing (effects of walking and cycling improvements on nearby property values). Various studies indicate that walkability improvements tend to increase local property values (Bartholomew and Ewing 2011; Cortright 2009; Krizek et al. 2006; LGC 2001).
Standen (2018) used economic modeling to evaluate the direct user benefits (welfare gains) from bicycle facility improvements that increase cycling activity in Australia. He points out that, although walking and bicycling are often slower than driving, users who shift mode in response to facility improvements must benefit overall, reflecting lower travel time unit costs.

Buchanan (2007) found that residential property values are 5.2% higher and retail rents 4.9% higher in more walkable London neighborhoods. Song and Knaap (2003) found that, all else being equal, house values are 15.5% higher in walkable neighborhoods. Eppli and Tu (2000) found 11% higher property values in New Urbanist neighborhoods compared with otherwise similar homes in conventional, automobile-dependent communities.

Cortright (2009) found that a one-point Walk Score increase is associated with a $700 and $3,000 increase in home resale value, so a 10-point increase raises annualized housing costs approximately $350-$1,500. Pivo and Fisher (2010) found that office, retail and apartment values increased 1% to 9% for each 10-point Walk Score increase. Assuming a 10-point Walk Score increase causes average daily walking to increase one-mile per household (0.4 miles per capita), this indicates that consumers willingly pay $1 to $4 in higher housing costs per additional mile walked. Similar impacts are found in Canadian cities. In Calgary, Alberta found that between 2000 and 2012 the neighborhoods with the greatest home price increases were in or near the city’s core with higher Walk Score (Toneguzzi 2013). A real estate market study in Edmonton concluded that “A high walkability score is a big draw for potential buyers. Current market turbulence means people are looking to save money any way they can.” (Campbell, Reuter and Epp 2010). Of course, the positive correlation between WalkScore and property values may partly reflect other factors such as land use density, transit accessibility, and employment access.

Residential property values also tend to increase with proximity to public trails (NTTP 2005; Racca and Dhanju 2006). Karadeniz (2008) found that each foot closer to Ohio’s Little Miami Scenic Trail increases single-family property sale prices $7.05, indicating that values increase 4% if located 1,000 feet closer to the trail (this paper provides a good overview of the literature on this subject). Some studies indicate that proximity to trails and bike paths reduces the value of abutting properties, due to concerns over reduced privacy and increased crime (Krizek 2006). However, Racca and Dhanju (2006) conclude, “The majority of studies indicate that the presence of a bike path/trail either increases property values and ease of sale slightly or has no effect.” Paths and trail benefits are likely to be largest in communities where walking and cycling are widely accepted and supported, and if residents can self-select, so people who value walking and cycling can locate near such facilities, while people who dislike such facilities can move away.

In general, the greater the improvement, the greater the benefit per user, and the more users the greater the total benefits. This benefit can be worth as much as $0.50 per user-mile (i.e., one person walking or bicycling one mile under improved walking and cycling conditions) where walking and cycling conditions improve from very poor to very good, based on evidence from hedonic pricing studies and avoided cost analysis (such as savings to parents who avoid the need to chauffeur children to school). In most cases, NMT improvement user benefits will be somewhat smaller, perhaps $0.25 per passenger-mile.
**Option Value**

*Option value* refers to the value people may place on having an option available that they do not currently use, such as the value ship passengers place on having lifeboats available for emergency use (“Transport Diversity,” Litman 2009). Because walking and cycling can serve various roles in a transport system, including basic mobility for non-drivers, affordable transport, recreation and exercise, their potential option value is high.

*Evaluation methods*: Option value can be quantified using contingent valuation surveys which ask people how much they would be willing to pay for walking and cycling facilities and services that they do not currently use. The UK Department for Transport developed specific guidance for evaluating option value (DfT 2003). The “Transport Diversity Value” chapter of *Transportation Cost and Benefit Analysis* (Litman 2009) estimates that improvements in affordable alternative modes can be valued at 7¢ per passenger-mile, although this value can vary significantly depending on conditions and assumptions.

**Social Equity Benefits**

*Equity* refers to the distribution of impacts and the degree that they are considered appropriate and fair. Major categories of transportation equity include:

- *Horizontal equity* – assumes that people with similar abilities should be treated similarly. This implies that, unless specifically justified, people should bear similar costs and receive a similar share of public resources.
- *Vertical equity with regard to income* – assumes that policies should protect the interests of lower-income people.
- *Vertical equity with regard to transportation ability and needs* – assumes that policies should protect the interests of mobility impaired people (such as people with disabilities).

Improving active travel conditions can help achieve equity objectives by providing a fair share of resources to non-drivers and providing basic mobility for physically, economically and socially disadvantaged people. In most communities, 20-40% of the population cannot or should not drive due to disability, low incomes, or age. Walking and cycling facility improvements benefit existing users (people who currently walk and bicycle), plus new users (people who walk and bike more due to improvements).

The following tend to be particularly effective at achieving equity benefits:

- *Universal design*. This refers to special transport system design features to serve all possible users, including people with disabilities and other special needs.
- *Basic mobility*. This refers to transport that provides access to essential services and activities, such as healthcare, education, employment, basic shopping, and social activities.
- *Economic opportunity*. This refers to helping lower-income people access services and activities that support their economic development, such as education and employment.
- *Affordability*. Walking, cycling and public transit improvements tend to increase transport system affordability, improving mobility for lower-income users.
- *Respect and dignity*. Because alternative modes tend to be stigmatized, programs that improve their social status tend to benefit disadvantaged people who rely on these modes.
Evaluation methods: Various objectives and impacts can be considered in transport equity analysis (Forkenbrock and Weisbrod 2001; Forkenbrock and Sheeley 2004; Litman 2004c):

- **Egalitarian equity** (everybody receives equal shares) suggests that active transport should receive an approximately proportional share of transport resources, measured either as mode share or per capita. For example, if active mode share is 12%, it would be fair to spend that portion of total transport budgets on non-motorized improvements; and if governments spend $500 annually per motorist on road and parking facilities, a comparable amount should be spent on facilities or non-drivers.

- **Cost allocation equity** (each user group should pay their share of costs) suggests that public expenditures on active facilities should be comparable to what users pay in taxes.

- **Impact compensation** (people should compensate the harms they impose on others). To the degree that motor vehicle traffic imposes delay, risk or discomfort on active modes, there is a horizontal equity justification for motorists to finance active facilities to mitigate such impacts. To the degree that sidewalks, crosswalks and pedestrian overpasses are needed to protect pedestrians and cyclists from motor vehicle traffic impacts, it is fair that motorists should bear the costs of these facilities.

- **Vertical equity** (policies should favor disadvantaged people) suggests that special effort to improve non-motorized conditions is justified to the degree that these modes provide basic mobility for physically, economically and socially disadvantaged people. For example, traffic calming and speed control, and funding cycling facilities with motor vehicle user fees, help achieve vertical equity objectives by reducing the negative impacts that automobile traffic imposes on active mode users.

Various methods can help determine the value a community places on social equity objectives, and the degree that a particular policy or project helps achieve these objectives. For example, contingent valuation surveys can determine the amount community members are willing to pay to improve economically and physically disadvantaged people’s access. Census and survey data can identify where disadvantaged populations live and travel, and therefore where such benefits are likely to be greatest.

Transit subsidies can indicate society’s willingness-to-pay to provide basic mobility for non-drivers. Such subsidies average about 60¢ per transit passenger-mile, about half of which are justified to provide basic mobility for non-drivers (the other half is intended to reduce congestion, parking and pollution problems), indicating that basic mobility is worth at least 30¢ per passenger-mile to society.
Physical Fitness and Health
Active travel provides fitness and health benefits (ITF 2014; Pucher, et al. 2010). Even small increases in physical activity can improve public health (Sallis, et al. 2004). Experts recommend that adults spend at least 150 weekly minutes (22 daily minutes) in moderate physical activity, with additional health benefits if the exercise is more rigorous and longer duration (CDC 2010).

Diseases Associated With Inadequate Physical Activity
- Heart disease
- Hypertension
- Stroke
- Depression
- Diabetes
- Osteoporosis (weak bones and joints)
- Cancer
- Dementia

Although there are many ways to be physically active, walking and cycling are among the most practical and effective, particularly for inactive and overweight people (Sevick, et al. 2000; Pucher and Beuhler 2010; Bassett, et al. 2011). The U.S. Center for Disease Control’s Healthy People 2020 program includes specific objectives to increase walking and cycling (www.healthypeople.gov). Residents of more multi-modal communities exercise more and are less likely to be overweight than in automobile-oriented areas (Frank 2004). A major study of 429,334 UK residents found that, accounting for other demographic factors, increased neighborhood walkability is associated with significantly reduced blood pressure and hypertension risk, indicating large public health benefits (Sarkar, Webster and Gallacher 2018). Using data from 11,041 high-school students in 154 U.S. communities (Slater, et al. (2013) found that those living in more walkable communities have lower odds of being overweight or obese.

A major study of 263,450 U.K. commuters by Celis-Morales, et al. (2017) found that, controlling for other factors, those who walk or bicycle have lower cardiovascular disease risk, and those who bicycle have lower cancer risk and lower all-cause mortality rates, indicating that on average cycle commuting provides net health benefits and increases longevity.

A major study using Southern Ontario adult (30-64 years) health care data and detailed data on neighborhood walkability found that rates of overweight, obesity and diabetes tend to decline with neighborhood walkability (Creatore, et al. 2016). 8,776 neighborhoods were ranked and classified into quintiles from lowest (quintile 1) to highest (quintile 5) walkability. Rates of walking or cycling and public transit use were significantly higher, and that of car use lower in quintile 5 vs quintile 1 at each time point. In 2001, the adjusted prevalence of overweight and obesity was lower in more walkable neighborhoods, and between 2001 and 2012 the prevalence increased in less walkable neighborhoods but not in areas of higher walkability. In 2001, the adjusted diabetes incidence was lower in more walkable neighborhoods, and declined by 2012, but did not change significantly in less walkable areas.

In a study of residents in 14 cities, Sallis, et al. (2016) found that controlling for other demographic factors, net residential density, intersection density, public transport density and number of parks were significantly, positively related to physical activity. The physical activity differences between residents of the most and least activity-friendly neighbourhoods ranged from 68 to 89 min/week, which represents 45–59% of the 150 min/week recommended by guidelines. This implies that transportation and land use planning decisions can significantly affect public fitness and health.
The Health Economic Assessment Tool (HEAT) (WHO 2014) and the Dynamic Modeling for Health Impact Assessment (DYNAMO-HIA) (Mansfield and Gibson 2015) calculate monetized values of policies and projects that improve and increase walking and cycling, such as sidewalk and path improvements, including savings from avoided driving, improved public fitness and health, reduced congestion and pollution, changes in traffic crash risks and consumer welfare. The DYNAMO-HIA methodology accounts for changing population health characteristics over time, which results in significantly lower benefit estimates than the HEAT Tool, so they can be used to reflect lower- and higher-bound values.

There is sometimes concern that urban pedestrians and cyclists are exposed to high levels of air pollution, which is particularly unhealthy because they breathe deeply (Jarjour, et al. 2013). Pankow, Figliozzi and Bigazzi (2014) measured cyclists’ air pollution exposure on Portland cycling routes, and developed a model for predicting and reducing this risk. They conclude that:

- Cyclists ventilate (breath) two to five times more than automobile occupants.
- Pollution concentrations are 50-120% higher on urban arterials than local roads.
- Pollution exposure is generally lower on bike paths except those in industrial areas.
- Pollution concentration is significantly lower on parallel low-volume facilities.
- Pollution exposure increased with traffic volumes and ambient temperatures.

A major ten-year study found that the overall health of residents of new housing developments improved when their daily walking increased as a result of more access to parks, public transport, shops and services (Giles-Corti, et al. 2013). Rojas-Rueda, et al. (2011) quantified the overall health impacts to users from shifting urban driving to cycling, including changes in accident risk, pollution exposure and public fitness. The study concluded that Barcelona’s Bicing public bike rental system causes 0.03 additional annual traffic accident deaths, 0.13 additional air pollution deaths, and 12.46 fewer deaths from improved fitness, resulting in 12.28 deaths avoided and a 77 benefit:risk ratio. This does not account for the additional health benefits from reduced accident risk and reduced air pollution exposure to other residents. The authors conclude that public bicycle sharing schemes can help improve public health and provide other benefits.

Grabow, et al. (2011) estimated changes in health benefits and monetary costs if 50% of short trips were made by bicycle during summer months in typical Midwestern U.S. communities. Across the study region of approximately 31.3 million people, mortality is projected to decline by approximately 1,100 annual deaths. The combined benefits of improved air quality and physical fitness are estimated to exceed $7 billion/year. These findings suggest that significant health and economic benefits are possible if bicycling replaces short car trips.

Rabl and de Nazelle (2012) estimate the health impacts caused by shifts from car to bicycling or walking, considering four effects: changes in physical fitness and ambient air pollution exposure to users, reduced pollution to other road users, and changes in accident risk. Switching from driving to bicycling for a 5 km one-way commute 230 annual days provides physical activity health benefits worth 1,300 € annually and air emission reduction worth 30 €/yr. overall. The commuter that switches mode bears additional air pollution costs averaging 20 €/yr, but this impact depends on cycling conditions; cyclists’ pollution exposure can be reduced if they ride separated from
major roadways. Data from Paris and Amsterdam imply that any increase in accident risk is at least an order of magnitude smaller than physical activity health benefit.

There is also evidence that active transport provides psychological benefits. Using *British Household Panel Survey* data, Martin, Goryakin and Suhrcke (2014) found that accounting for potential confounding variables relating to work, residence and health, overall psychological wellbeing was significantly higher for active modes commuters compared to car travel or public transport. Switching from car travel or public transport to active travel was associated with an improvement in wellbeing when compared to maintaining car travel or public transport. Negative associations were identified between time spent driving and wellbeing. Increased walking appears to reduce cognitive decline and dementia (Erickson, et al. 2010).

**Evaluation methods:** Some studies monetize the health benefits of improved walking and cycling (Fishman, et al. 2012; Genter, et al. 2008; Litman 2009; Boarnet, Greenwald and McMillan 2008; SQW 2007; Cavill, et al. 2008; NZTA 2010). Cavill, Cope and Kennedy (2009) estimated that an integrated program that increases walking in British towns provides benefits worth £2.59 for each £1.00 spent, considering just reduced mortality. Including other benefits (reduced morbidity, congestion and pollution) would increase this value. The Department for Transport found even higher economic returns (DfT 2010). The *Health Economic Assessment Tool for Cycling and Walking* (WHO 2014) provides methodologies for valuing the active transportation benefits, including savings from avoided driving, increased happiness, and reductions in coronary heart disease, diabetes risk, congestion, pollution and crash risk.

Guo and Gandavarapu (2010) conclude that the incremental costs of residential sidewalk construction are usually repaid by health benefits from increased physical fitness and reduced pollution. They estimate that building sidewalks on all city streets would increase average daily active travel 0.097 miles and reduce automobile travel 1.142 vehicle-miles per capita. This additional physical activity is predicted to offset weight gain in about 37% of residents, providing substantial healthcare cost savings.

Gotschi (2011) estimated that Portland, Oregon’s 40-year $138-605 million bicycle facility investments provide $388-594 million healthcare savings, $143-218 million fuel savings, and $7-12 billion in longevity value, resulting in positive net benefits. Sælensminde (2002) estimates that each physically inactive person who starts bicycle commuting provides €3,000-4,000 annual economic benefits. Meta-analysis by de Hartog, et al. (2010) indicates that people who shift from driving to bicycling enjoy substantial health benefits (3 to 14 month longevity gains), plus additional benefits from reduced air pollution and crash risk to other road users. The New Zealand Transport Agency’s *Economic Evaluation Manual* provides these values of improved health and reduced congestion from active transport:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6 Active Transportation Health Benefits</th>
<th>2008 $ NZ/km</th>
<th>2008 USD/mile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cycling</td>
<td>$1.40</td>
<td>$1.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walking</td>
<td>$2.70</td>
<td>$3.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*This table indicates New Zealand’s estimated value of increased walking and cycling.*
**Vehicle Savings**
Reducing vehicle ownership and use can provide various types of savings, summarized in Table 7. Short urban trips tend to have high costs due to cold starts and congestion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Table 7</strong></th>
<th><strong>Vehicle Costs</strong> (“Vehicle Costs,” Litman 2009; Polzin, Chu and Raman 2008)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Category</strong></td>
<td><strong>Description</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle Operating Costs</td>
<td>Fuel, oil and tire wear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mileage-related Depreciation</td>
<td>Mileage-related depreciation, repair costs and lease fees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Costs</td>
<td>Tolls, parking fees, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle Ownership</td>
<td>Reductions in fixed vehicle costs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residential Parking</td>
<td>Reduced residential parking costs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Reducing automobile travel can provide various types of savings, depending on conditions.*

**Evaluation methods:** Savings can be estimated using values from Table 7. Savings tend to be particularly large for reductions in short urban trips, and additional savings can occur if non-motorized improvements help create more accessible, multi-modal communities, which leverage additional reductions in vehicle travel, ownership and parking costs.

**Reduced Chauffeuring Burdens**
*Chauffeuring* (also called *escort*) trips refers to additional vehicle travel specifically to transport a passenger, as opposed to *ridesharing* in which a passenger rides in a vehicle that would travel anyway. Chauffeuring is particularly inefficient because it often requires empty return trips, so transporting a passenger 5 miles generates 10 vehicle-miles. Improving alternative modes can reduce chauffeuring burdens, saving driver travel time, vehicle operating costs, external costs, and increasing non-drivers’ independence. Although data are limited, chauffeuring appears to represent about 10% of total vehicle trips (TfL 2011); and is probably higher in automobile-dependent communities, and lower in multi-modal communities where adolescents, people with minor impairments, and people who cannot afford to own a motor vehicle have good mobility options.

**Evaluation methods:** Reduced chauffeuring benefits include previously described vehicle cost savings, driver travel time savings that are typically estimated at 30-50% of average wage rates, and reduced external costs (congestion, accident risk and pollution). Assuming that a typical chauffeuring trip involves 5 miles of vehicle travel at 25¢ per mile in vehicle costs, and 20 minutes of travel time valued at $9.00 per hour, this totals $4.25 per trip or $0.85 per vehicle-mile. This report’s Option and Equity value sections describe methods for valuing increased independence to non-drivers.
Congestion Reduction
Traffic congestion costs consist of the incremental travel time, vehicle operating costs, stress and pollution emissions that a vehicle imposes on other road users (“Congestion Costs,” Litman 2009). Walking and cycling conditions can affect vehicle trip generation in several ways:

- Poor walking and cycling conditions force people to drive for even short trips. In urban areas a significant portion of motor vehicle travel (often 10-30%) consists of short trips that could shift to active modes (Litman 2010). Where walking conditions are poor, such as along an urban arterial, people will drive even across the road or from one driveway to another, adding friction and cross traffic that creates delays.

- Poor walking and cycling conditions increases chauffeuring trips (special trips made to transport a non-driver) which often include empty backhauls, which also add congestion.

- Poor walking and cycling conditions discourage public transit and rideshare travel (car- and vanpooling), which reduces longer vehicle trips.

As a result, improving walking and cycling conditions can reduce automobile trip generation and therefore traffic congestion. These impacts tend to be greatest in commercial districts, and near schools and recreational centers, where many short trips begin and end.

Space requirements, and therefore congestion impacts, per passenger-mile or kilometer vary depending on vehicle (for this analysis people are considered vehicles) size, speed, and occupancy, and their interactions. Shy-distance (space between a vehicle and other objects) increases exponentially with speed, so at 30 kilometer-per-hour (KPH) vehicles can safety travel about 15 meters apart, but at 100 KPH they require about 150 meters. Space requirements are lowest when all vehicles travel at the same speed in the same direction, and decline with mixed speeds, counterflow and cross traffic. Some studies calculate the space requirements of various modes. According to one estimate, a pedestrian requires about 3 square meters, a cyclist about 10 square meters, an automobile at 30 KPH about 30 square meters and at 100 KPH about 300 square meters, and 50 transit bus passengers traveling at 30 KPH each require about 2 square meters (assuming a bus requires three passenger-car equivalents), as illustrated in Figure 7.

Figure 7  Road Space Requirements by Mode (based on Bruun and Vuchic 1995)

The space required per passenger varies depending on vehicle type, speed and travel conditions.
Non-motorized traffic can contribute to congestion. Pedestrians can cause delays when crossing roads, or where roads lack sidewalks. Such impacts are generally less than if the same trips were made by automobile. To analyze the bicycling congestion impacts, roadway road conditions are divided into four classes:

1. *Uncongested roads and separated paths.* Bicycling in these conditions causes no congestion.

2. *Congested roads with space for bicyclists.* Bicycling on a road shoulder (common on highways), a wide curb lane (common in suburban and urban areas), or a bike lane contributes little traffic congestion except at intersections where vehicle turning maneuvers may be delayed. Table 8 summarizes these impacts.

| Table 8: Passenger-Car Equivalents for Bicycles by Lane Width (AASHTO 1990) |
|-----------------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Riding With Traffic                          | < 11 ft. Lane | 11-14 ft. Lane | > 14 ft. Lane |
| Riding Against Traffic                       | 1.2         | 0.5         | 0.0         |

3. *Narrow, congested roads with low speed traffic.* Bicycling on a narrow, congested road where cyclists keep up with traffic (common on urban streets) probably causes less congestion than an average car due to bicycles’ smaller size.

4. *Narrow, congested roads with moderate to high speed traffic.* Bicycling on a narrow, congested road where the rider cannot keep up with traffic and faster vehicles cannot easily pass can cause significant traffic delay.

Congestion is reduced when travelers shift from driving to bicycling under the first three conditions. Only under condition 4 does shifting fail to reduce congestion. This represents a small portion of cycling travel because most bicyclists avoid riding in such conditions. Hourdos, et al. (2017) found that drivers on roadways with bicycle lanes were less likely to encroach into adjacent lanes, pass or queue when interacting with cyclists than on road with no bike lanes. If bike lanes substitute for general traffic lanes, they may increase congestion, but in other cases they increase total roadway capacity. For example, New York City’s Prospect Park West carried more people after a “road diet” converted a traffic lane to a bike path (NYDOT 2010).

Traffic congestion can be measured in various ways that lead to different estimates of its cost and the effectiveness of various congestion reduction strategies (Grant-Muller and Laird 2007; Litman 2013). For example, roadway Level-of-Service (LOS) and the Travel Time Index (TTI) measure vehicle traffic delay on a particular roadway. These indicators do not account for the congestion avoided by travelers who shift from driving to alternative modes or reduce their travel distances, and so they tend to underestimate the congestion reduction benefits of improvements to alternative modes and more compact development. *Per capita travel time and per capita congestion delay* are better indicators of total congestion impacts since they account for the congestion avoided if travelers shift mode or choose closer destinations (“Congestion Costs,” Litman 2009). For example, complete streets roadway designs and more compact development tend to increase congestion measured using roadway LOS or the TTI, because these strategies increase the intensity of congestion on specific roadways, but because they reduce automobile mode share and trip distances, these strategies reduce per capita travel time and congestion delays. Similarly, policies that prohibit pedestrian crossings on a roadway may reduce delay to
motorists at that location, but increase automobile trips (travelers shift from walking to driving) and travel distances, increasing the total amount of time people spend traveling.

Most traffic models are designed to evaluate regional travel conditions, and so measure congestion on major arterials and highways. They do not generally account for local congestion impacts, and therefore much of the congestion reduction benefits of improving walking and cycling conditions. For example, few models can account for the congestion reduction benefits that result if youths shift from being driven to walking and cycling to school because much of the traffic reduction will occur on local streets that are not considered in traffic models. Traffic congestion tends to maintain equilibrium: delays increase to the point that they discourage additional peak-period vehicle trips. As a result, marginal increases in roadway capacity or incentives for a few trips to shift mode generally provide only short-term congestion reductions; long-term reductions require significant improvements in alternative modes or pricing reforms that change the point of equilibrium. Improving walking and cycling conditions tends to reduce household vehicle ownership and trip generation, which tends to reduce traffic congestion, but most research on this subject concerns public transit, active modes can have similar impacts, alone and in conjunction with transit (Litman 2004; Aftabuzzaman, Currie and Sarvi 2010).

Although research is limited, there is evidence that walking and cycling improvements do reduce traffic congestion (Johnston and Johnson 2014; Randersen 2014; SQW 2007). For example, a major study for the Arizona Department of Transportation analyzed the relationships between land use patterns and traffic conditions in Phoenix, Arizona (Kuzmyak 2012). It found significantly less congestion on roads in older, higher density areas than in newer, lower density suburban areas due to more mixed land use (particularly more retail in residential areas), more transit and nonmotorized travel, and a more connected street grid which provides more route options and enables more walking and cycling. As a result, residents of older neighborhoods generate less total vehicle travel and drive less on major roadways, reducing traffic congestion.

Hamilton and Wichman (2016) use a unique fine-grained traffic dataset to measure the Washington DC Capital Bikeshare program’s impacts on congestion. They find that bikeshare stations reduce traffic congestion by 4% or more compared with congestion intensity that would otherwise occur, with the greatest reductions in the most congested areas.

**Evaluation methods:** Reductions in urban-peak automobile travel tend to reduce traffic congestion. Various studies estimate that the congestion costs a motor vehicle imposes on other road users average 10¢ to 35¢ per urban-peak vehicle mile, with lower values under urban off-peak and rural travel conditions (Grant-Muller and Laird 2007; Litman 2009; TC 2006). SQW (2007) estimates that a traveler shifting from driving to cycling 160 annual trips averaging 3.9 kms reduces congestion costs to other road users £137.28 (£0.22 per km) in urban areas and £68.64 (£0.11 per km) in rural environments.
**Barrier Effect**

The *barrier effect* (also called *severance*) refers to the travel delay that vehicle traffic imposes on active modes (“Barrier Effect,” Litman 2009). It is equivalent to traffic congestion imposed on non-motorized vehicles (most congestion cost estimates ignore active travel impacts). This reduces active mode accessibility, and causes shifts from non-motorized to motorized travel which increases external costs such as traffic and parking congestion. Various transport planning decisions affect the barrier effect:

- Highway expansion increases the barrier effect by widening roadways and increasing vehicle traffic volumes and speeds.
- Traffic calming, road diets, and traffic speed reductions tend to reduce the barrier effect.
- Mobility management strategies that reduce total vehicle traffic volumes, such as more efficient road, parking, insurance and fuel pricing, tend to reduce the barrier effect.
- Active mode improvements, such as paths and sidewalks separated from roadway, improved crosswalks, and sometimes pedestrian overpasses, can reduce the barrier effect.
- Land use changes that reduce the need for pedestrians and cyclists to cross major roadways (such as locating schools and shops within residential neighborhoods rather than where residents must cross or travel along a busy highway) can reduce barrier effects.

Conventional transport planning generally ignores these impacts. For example, roadway widening is often described simply as a transport *improvement*, which recognizes the reduced delay to motorists but ignores the additional delay that wider roads and increased motor vehicle traffic imposes on active travel. More comprehensive, multi-modal evaluation recognizes the tradeoffs involved in such decisions.

**Evaluation methods:** The barrier effect imposes direct costs on pedestrians and cyclists, as well as indirect costs by reducing walking and cycling activity and increasing motorized travel. The 2010 Highway Capacity Manual evaluates pedestrian and cycling level-of-service on a particular roadway (TRB 2010), and the UK Department for Transport roadway evaluation models quantify the barrier effect for specific situations by estimating walking and cycling demand assuming no barrier exists (“Barrier Effect,” Litman 2009; DfT 2009; TRB 2008). These models calculate the demand for travel between local destinations (homes, schools, shops, parks, etc.) and the delay to active mode travelers caused by wider roads and increased motor vehicle traffic volumes and speeds.

Barrier effect costs are typically estimated to average 0.5¢ to 1.5¢ per urban automobile vehicle-mile, although they may be much higher where there is considerable walking and cycling demand. For example, if a busy road between homes and schools makes non-motorized travel so difficult that households purchase second cars to chauffeur children (even though they would prefer to walk or bicycle), the additional costs may total thousands of dollars annually for the additional vehicle expenses and external costs.
Roadway Costs Savings
Roadway costs on average about $550 annually per capita in the U.S., about half of which is funded through general taxes rather than user fees (FHWA 2008; Subsidy Scope 2009). In Canada, local roadway capital and operating costs are estimated to total $18.8 billion in 2000 (TC 2008, Table 3-4), which averaged about 9¢ per kilometer, assuming 200 billion annual local kilometers driven. Although roads serve both motorized and active travel, walking and cycling require less road space and impose less wear, and so cost less per mile of travel (FHWA 1997; “Roadway Costs,” Litman 2009). Sidewalks and paths are relatively inexpensive to build and maintain. Providing non-motorized lanes sometimes requires wider roads, but bicycle lanes are usually developed using existing road shoulders, parking lanes, or by narrowing traffic lanes. As a result, shifting travel from motorized to active modes generally reduces total roadway costs.

Evaluation methods: Roadway construction and maintenance costs are a function of vehicle size, weight, speed, and, in some regions, studded tire use (FHWA 1997). Roadway costs average about 4¢ per mile for automobiles and more for heavier vehicles (“Roadway Costs,” Litman 2009). Walking and cycling impose minimal roadway costs. Shifts from driving to walking or bicycling provide roadway facility and traffic service cost savings of approximately 5¢ per mile for urban driving and 3¢ per mile for rural driving, including indirect travel reductions leveraged by active transport improvements.

Parking Cost Savings
A typical urban parking space has annualized costs (including land, construction and operating costs) totaling $500 to $3,000, as illustrated below, and there are estimated to be two to six off-street parking spaces (one residential and two non-residential) per motor vehicle (“Parking Cost” Litman 2009). Pedestrians only require umbrella stands and coat racks, and 10-20 bicycles can typically be stored in the space required for one automobile.

Figure 8 Typical Parking Annualized Costs per Space (Litman 2009)¹

An urban parking space typically costs $500 to $3,000 in total annualized costs.

In the short run, reductions in automobile travel may simply result in unoccupied parking spaces, but eventually most parking facilities have opportunity costs: reduced parking demand allows

property owners to avoid expanding parking supply, or they can rent, sell or convert parking facilities to other uses.

**Evaluation methods:** Parking costs are not generally affected by trip length, so this cost is measured per trip rather than per mile. Shifting from automobile to active travel is estimated to provide parking savings of $2-4 per urban-peak trip (a typical commute has $4-8 per day parking costs), $1-3 per urban off-peak trip, and about $1 per rural trip (“Parking Costs,” Litman 2009).

**Traffic Safety Impacts**
Crashes are among the largest transportation costs (“Crash Costs,” Litman 2009; TC 2008; Vermeulen, et al. 2004). A portion of this cost is internal (a direct risk to the traveler), a portion is external (imposed on other road users), and a portion compensated by vehicle insurance, and therefore external to the individual traveler but internal to motorists as a group (Litman 2009). Although walking and cycling have higher per-mile casualty rates than automobile travel, shifting travel from automobile to active modes tends to reduce total crash costs due to the following factors (WHO 2008):

1. Active travel imposes minimal risk to other road users.
2. In automobile-dependent communities walking and cycling casualty rates are relatively high because many users are children and people with disabilities, who tend to have high risk factors. A pedestrian or cyclist who takes basic precautions such as observing traffic rules and wearing a cycling helmet tends to have much lower than average risk.
3. Per-mile and per capita traffic casualty rates tend to decline as walking and cycling activity increases in a community, because drivers become more cautious and communities invest more in non-motorized safety improvements where there are more pedestrians and cyclists.
4. As active travel increases, total per capita mileage declines. A local walking trip often substitutes for a longer automobile trip. People who rely on active modes tend to travel fewer total annual miles than motorists.
5. Some walking and cycling promotion programs include education and facility improvements that reduce participants’ per-mile pedestrian and bicycle crash rates.
6. The substantial health benefits of walking and cycling (described earlier) more than offset any increase in crash risk, so longevity tends to increase with active transport.

Shifts from driving to active modes tend to reduce total per capita crash casualty rates in an area, as indicated in figures 9 and 10, an effect called “safety in numbers” (Geyer, et al. 2006; Jacobson 2003; Robinson 2005). Areas with high rates of walking and cycling tend to have low per capita traffic death rates (Fietsberaad 2008; ABW 2010). Overall, longevity tends to increase with increased walking and cycling activity (Cavill, et al. 2008). For example, Murphy, Levinson and Owen (2017) found that in 448 Minneapolis city intersections, pedestrians had a lower risk of being hit by a car at intersections with higher pedestrian traffic, demonstrating safety in numbers effects.
Chu (2006) concludes that walking has 1.7 times the fatality rate per minute of travel than motor vehicle travel, with significant variation by time of day, age of walker and how risk is measured. The incremental risk for a responsible pedestrian or cyclist who observes traffic rules and takes precautions such as using a light at night and a helmet (for cyclists) is likely to be much lower than indicated by average per-mile fatality rates, and offset by reductions in risk to other road users and other health benefits.

Jacobsen (2003) found that collision rates between motor vehicles and pedestrians and cyclists increases at roughly 0.4 power of walking and cycling activity (e.g., doubling NMT travel in a community will increase pedestrian/cycling injuries by 32%), a pedestrian’s risk declines 34% if walking and cycling double in their community. Robinson (2005) found similar results in Australia.

Per capita traffic fatality rates tend to decline as active travel increases. This is called “safety in numbers,” (Jacobsen 2003)
Marshall and Garrick (2011) found that U.S. cities with higher per capita bicycling rates tend to have much lower traffic fatality rates for all road users than other cities. They conclude that this is partly due to increased street network density both supports cycling and reduces traffic speeds and therefore risk. Robinson (2005), Geyer, et al. (2006), and Turner, Roozenburg and Francis (2006) also find that shifts from driving to active modes by sober, responsible adults are unlikely to increase total accidents, and that per capita collisions between motorists, pedestrians and cyclists decline as active transport activity increases.

**Evaluation methods:** Various studies indicate that automobile external accident costs average 2¢ to 12¢ per vehicle-mile, depending on driver and travel conditions, and the scope of costs considered (“Crash Costs,” Litman 2009; van Essen, et al. 2007; TC 2008). Net safety benefits provided by automobile to active travel shifts are estimated to average 5¢ per urban peak mile, 4¢ per urban off-peak mile, and 3¢ per rural mile, with greater benefits from strategies that reduce walking and cycling risk, for example if active travel increases due to more separated facilities (e.g., sidewalks and paths), traffic speed reductions, improved traffic law enforcement and cycling education.

**Security**

Security refers to freedom from assault, theft and vandalism. Many strategies for improving walking and cycling conditions can increase security, both directly, by increasing security patrols and trimming landscaping, and indirectly by increasing the number of responsible (non-criminal) people on sidewalks and paths, which increases passive surveillance (more people ready to report threats). Contrary to popular assumptions, per capita crime rates tend to decline in more compact, mixed, walkable communities, probably due to a combination of improved surveillance, better policing and emergency response, and improved economic opportunity for at-risk residents (Gilderbloom, Riggs and Meares 2015; Litman 2013).

**Energy Conservation**

Motor vehicle production and use consume large amounts of natural resources, particularly energy such as petroleum and coal (Chester and Horvath 2008). This consumption imposes various external costs, including economic and national security impacts from dependence on imported petroleum, plus environmental and health damages from pollution. As a result, resource conservation can provide various benefits (NRC 2009). Active transport can provide relatively large energy savings if it substitutes for short urban trips that have high emission rates per mile due to cold starts (engines are inefficient during the first few minutes of operation) and congestion. As a result, each 1% shift from automobile to active travel typically reduces fuel consumption 2-4% (Komanoff and Roelofs 1993). In addition, as previously described, active transport tends to have leverage effects, so comprehensive programs to improve walking and cycling can provide additional energy conservation benefits.

**Evaluation methods:** Petroleum consumption external costs are estimated to be 1-4¢ per vehicle-mile (“Resource Consumption External Costs,” Litman 2009; NRC 2009), although possibly more to account for all environmental costs associated with petroleum extraction. Relatively high values are justified because non-motorized travel substitutes for short urban trips in which motor vehicles are fuel inefficient due to cold starts and congestion.
**Pollution Reduction**

Motor vehicle production and use result in air, noise and water pollution which harm people, agricultural and the natural environment (Chester and Horvath 2008; TC 2008). Some pollutants, such as noise, carbon monoxide and particulates, have local impacts so their costs vary depending on where emissions occur, while others, such as ozone, methane and carbon dioxide, have regional and global impacts (“Air Pollution,” Litman 2009). Walking and cycling produce virtually no pollution.

Various methods can be used to evaluate active transport emission reductions (DRISI 2016), although most underestimate actual emission reductions. Most models assume that a mile of walking or bicycling reduces, at most, one vehicle-mile, ignoring their leverage effects, as discussed in the box on page 9. Guo and Gandavarapu (2010) found that installing sidewalks on all streets in a typical North American community reduces about 12 motor vehicle miles each additional mile walked or biked. In addition, per mile emission reductions tend to be relatively large when active modes substitute for short urban trips which have high emission rates due to cold starts and congestion. Pedestrians and cyclists are exposed to vehicle pollution, although no more than motor vehicle occupants (Frank, et al. 2010).

Ngo (2016) used before-and-after travel surveys conducted from 2012 to 2015 to measure the vehicle travel, emissions, health impacts of the Comox-Helmcken Greenway, a two-kilometre pedestrian and bicycle pathway in downtown Vancouver, British Columbia. The sample consisted of 207 participants divided into two groups: 135 participants living within one block of the Greenway (treatment group), and 72 participants living at least a half-kilometre away from the Greenway (control group). The results indicate statistically significant reductions of −22.9% for average daily motorized GHG emissions (before: 1.1 kg CO2 e; after: 0.9 kg CO2e) −23.7% for energy consumption (before: 16.0 MJ; after: 12.2 MJ).

**Estimated Benefits:** Various studies quantify and monetize motor vehicle pollution damages, but many of these estimates include only a limited portion of total pollution costs. For example, some consider ozone, CO and NOx damages but ignore particulate and air toxic damages, so total costs are higher than most published estimates (van Essen 2004). Automobile air, noise and water pollution costs are typically estimated to average 2¢ to 15¢ per vehicle-mile, with lower-range values in rural conditions and higher values under congested urban conditions, but relatively high values can be justified to reflect the tendency of walking and cycling to reduce short urban trips (Delucchi 2007; Litman 2009; TC 2008; Vermeulen, et al. 2004). A British study estimates that shifts from driving to active modes provide air pollution reduction benefits of £0.11 in urban areas and £0.02 in rural areas, with higher values for diesel vehicles (SQW 2007). A reasonable estimate is 10¢ per mile for urban-peak driving, 5¢ for urban off-peak and 1¢ for rural driving.
Land Use Impacts
Transportation planning decisions often affect land use development patterns (CTE 2008; Forkenbrock and Weisbrod 2001; Litman 1995). Planning decisions that favor automobile travel, such as expanded urban roadways with higher design speeds, increased parking requirements and lower vehicle user fees, tend to encourage more dispersed, urban-fringe development, called sprawl; while planning that favors walking, cycling and public transit tend to encourage more compact, mixed development, called smart growth.

This occurs because walking, cycling and public transit require more compact and mixed development for access, and these mode are more space-efficient than automobile travel. Table 9 compares road and parking space requirements of various modes for a typical commute. This indicates that driving requires approximately 15 times as much space as bicycling, and about 100 times as much as walking. Walking and cycling improvements also tend to enhance the public realm (public spaces where people naturally interact), which creates safer and more livable urban neighborhoods (Appleyard 1981).

Table 9  Time-Area Requirements Per Commuter (based on Bruun and Vuchic 1995)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Standing/Parking</th>
<th>8 hr. Parking</th>
<th>Road Space</th>
<th>Per 20-minute Trip</th>
<th>Total (Parking &amp; 2 Commutes)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pedestrian</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bicycle</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9,600</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>11,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bus</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Automobile – 30 mph</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>144,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>184,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Automobile – 60 mph</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>144,000</td>
<td>2,250</td>
<td>45,000</td>
<td>214,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table compares time-area requirements for parking and road space measured in square-foot-minutes (square feet times number of minutes) for 20-minute commutes by various modes.

Smart growth can provide various economic, social and environmental benefits, as summarized in Table 10. Most communities have objectives to encourage more compact development, redevelop urban neighborhoods, reduce impervious surface area, and preserve open-space (parks, farmland, forests, etc.), regardless of whether or not they are directly labelled as smart growth initiatives.

Table 10  Smart Growth Benefits (Burchell, et al. 2002; Litman 1995)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic</th>
<th>Social</th>
<th>Environmental</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reduced development and public service costs</td>
<td>Improved transport options, particularly for nondrivers</td>
<td>Greenspace and habitat preservation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer transportation cost savings</td>
<td>Improved housing options</td>
<td>Reduced air pollution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economies of agglomeration</td>
<td>Community cohesion</td>
<td>Energy conservation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More efficient transportation</td>
<td></td>
<td>Reduced water pollution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reduced “heat island” effect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table summarizes various benefits to society of smart growth development patterns.
As a result, walking and cycling improvements can provide indirect, smart growth benefits. For example, a Safe Routes to School program that allows more students to walk and bike to school, provides both direct benefits from reduced automobile traffic, and indirect benefits by reducing the amount of land that must be paved for roads and parking facilities, and by encouraging school districts to place schools in central locations for maximum walking and cycling access.

**Evaluation methods:** These impacts are potentially large, although difficult to quantify. People who live and work in more compact and multi-modal communities tend to own fewer cars, drive less and rely more on alternative modes, which reduces both internal costs (the costs borne by residents) and external costs (costs imposed on others, such as traffic and parking congestion, accident risk and pollution emissions. In addition, more compact development tends to reduce infrastructure and environmental costs and improve accessibility for non-drivers (CTE 2008). Together, these can provide thousands of dollars in annual savings and benefits per capita (Forkenbrock and Weisbrod 2001; “Land Use Impacts,” Litman 2009).

These impacts tend to be difficult to evaluate because they are numerous (analyses often focus on a few but overlook others), some are difficult to quantify and monetize; and there are often several steps between a planning decision and its ultimate land use impacts. To evaluate these impacts:

1. Identify how a planning decision affects land use patterns, including direct impacts of transport facilities, and indirect impacts from changes in development patterns. This requires defining a base case (what would otherwise occur, if the proposed policy or project is not implemented).
2. Second, describe, and to the degree possible, quantify these land use changes, including differences in impervious surface coverage, impacts on farming and wildlife habitat, changes in accessibility and travel activity (such as more vehicle travel), and resulting changes in energy consumption and pollution emissions.
3. Third, to the degree possible, monetize these impacts. For example, estimate economic and environmental costs of increased pavement and reduced openspace. Some effects can be monetized by assigning a dollar value per hectare of habitat lost to development, or each additional motor vehicle-mile generated by sprawl.

This type of analysis requires making numerous assumptions about impacts and values, and the results may overlook some impacts, such as community cohesion and agglomeration economies, because they are difficult to quantify. Such assumptions should be documented. It may be better to incorporate some impacts qualitatively, through descriptions and community involvement, rather than assigning a single total dollar value to total land use impacts (Louis Berger Inc. 1998). Rogers, et al. (2010) use a case study approach to evaluate the impacts of walkable social capital. Residents living in neighborhoods of varying built form, and thus varying levels of walkability, in three communities in New Hampshire were surveyed about their levels of social capital and travel behaviors. The results indicate that levels of social capital are higher in more walkable neighborhoods.
Evaluating Active Transport Benefits and Costs
Victoria Transport Policy Institute

Economic Opportunity and Resilience
By improving affordable access to economic opportunities, including education, employment and basic services, active transportation tends to increase economic mobility (the chance that children raised in lower-income household become economically successful as adults) and economic resilience (ability to respond to unexpected financial stresses such as reduced incomes or new financial burdens), particularly for physically, economically and socially disadvantaged people (Jaffe 2016; Levy, McDade and Dumlao 2010; Sisson 2018). This is particularly important for those who lack a driver’s license or cars (Kneebone and Holmes 2015). Frederick and Gilderbloom (2018) found that lower automobile mode shares are associated with less income inequality between white and African-American households, and between men and women, and with higher earnings for white women and African-American men. Gilderbloom, Riggs and Meares (2015) and Won, Lee and Li (2017) found that neighborhoods with higher Walkscore ratings have lower foreclosure rates, indicating that this increases households’ economic resilience, that is, their ability to respond to economic stresses such as reduced incomes or increased financial burdens.

Economic Development
Economic development refers to progress toward community economic goals such as increased employment, income, productivity, property values and tax revenues. Active transport can support economic development in several ways (ACA 2013; Boarnet, et al 2017; ECF 2018; Flusche 2012; Grous 2010; Kornas, et al. 2016; Litman 2011; NCDOT 2004; Living Streets 2011; Rohani and Lawrence 2017; Walk Boston 2011):

- **Transport efficiency.** Walking and cycling improvements can increase transport system efficiency by reducing traffic congestion, road and parking facility costs, and accident damages, as described previously in this report. To the degree that this reduces costs to commuters, businesses and governments it can increase economic productivity and competitiveness.

- **Labor access.** Walking and cycling improvements (alone and with public transit improvements) tends to improve access to education and employment opportunities, particularly by non-drivers, increasing the quantity and quality of the lower-wage labor pool, which can reduce business costs and increase productivity and competitiveness. Improving affordable transport options tends to expand the labor pool for industries that require numerous lower-wage employees, such as hospitality and light manufacturing.

- **Labor productivity.** Active transportation tends to increase labor productivity by increasing worker fitness and reducing sick leave (Chapman 2005; Henderson, et al. 2010).

- **Land use efficiency.** As previously described, walking and cycling support more compact, multi-modal development, which can provide various accessibility benefits, agglomeration efficiencies, and resource cost savings.

- **Consumer expenditures.** Impacts on consumer spending, particularly vehicles and fuel expenditures, which affect regional economic activity (Cortright 2007; Flusche 2012).

- **Supports specific industries.** Certain industries benefit from active transport including bikeshops, tourism (ACA 2013; Beierle 2011; ECF 2018; Heldt and Liss 2013; PTNY 2010; Tourism Vermont 2007; Grabow, Hahn and Whited 2010; Qian, et al. 2016; Velo Quebec 2015), retail (Hass-Klau 1993), construction (Garrett-Peltier 2010), and urban development (LAB 2009).
Improved walking and cycling conditions can increase local property values and support local development (Bartholomew and Ewing 2011; Boarnet, et al 2017; Cortright 2009; Krizek et al. 2006; LGC 2001), an indication of the value that residents and customers place on these qualities, and increased economic productivity (Buchanan 2007, Kornas, et al. 2016, Pivo and Fisher 2010). Property values also tend to increase with proximity to public trails (NTTP 2005; Karadeniz 2008; Racca and Dhanju 2006). Retailers sometimes oppose non-motorized improvements, such as bike lanes, based on the assumption that motorists are better customers, but this is often untrue (Clifton, et al. 2013; Fleming, Turner and Tarjomi 2013; Rowe 2013; Stantec 2011; Sztabinski 2009; TA 2006). Bicycle parking is space efficient and so generates about five times as much spending per square meter as car parking (Lee and March 2010).

Rohani and Lawrence (2017) found a statistically significant positive association between pedestrian access to jobs and labour productivity within the Auckland city centre, and conclude that commercial center pedestrian improvements support economic development.

Although automobile and fuel production are major domestic industries, they are capital intensive with relatively little labor input, and many inputs are imported, so national productivity and employment tend to increase if consumers shift expenditures from vehicles and fuel to other consumer goods (Figure 11). As a result, reducing vehicle and fuel spending tends to support economic development. Non-motorized facility construction tends to create more employment and regional business activity than other capital projects. For example, analysis by Garrett-Peltier (2010) found that a $1 million spent on bike lanes directly creates 11.0 to 14.4 jobs, compared with approximately 7.0 jobs created by the same expenditure on roadway projects.

**Figure 11** Employment Impacts per $1 Million Expenditures (Chmelynski 2008)

Fuel and vehicle expenditures produce fewer domestic jobs than most other consumer expenditures, and far less than spending on public transit.

Active mode tourism tends to provide greater economic benefits per mile of travel than other forms of tourism (Figure 12). A 2014 study estimated that tourists on Quebec, Canada’s La Route Verte network spend an average $214 per day, 6% more than other types of tourists (Velo Quebec 2015). Heldt and Liss (2013) describe how different types of cycling tourists can affect economic activity: affluent bicycle tourists from other countries, and domestic tourists who would otherwise spend their holiday dollars elsewhere, contribute most to regional and national economic development. Such tourists tend to demand relatively high quality cycling facilities (comfortable and safe routes and trails) and amenities (restaurants, hotels, etc.).
Some impacts are economic transfers, in which one group benefits at another’s expense, so their analysis depends on perspective and scale. For example, improvements in one commercial center may attract customers from other areas without increasing total regional economic activity. Other impacts are resource savings that increase overall productivity.

**Evaluation methods:** Active transport economic impacts depend on specific conditions. In many situations, non-motorized improvements can provide significant economic development benefits, in addition to the other benefits described in this report. The following factors tend to maximize active mode economic development benefits:

- Where demand for active travel is high.
- Where active travel improvements integrate with complementary strategies such as public transit improvements, efficient pricing, and Smart Growth development policies, which increase overall transport system efficiency.
- Where active mode improvements respond to local needs, such as creating more attractive commercial centers, or expanding worker pools or supporting tourism.

Table 11 indicates methods that can be used to evaluate these impacts, and ways that non-motorized improvements can maximize economic development benefits.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic Impact</th>
<th>Evaluation Methods</th>
<th>Maximizing Benefits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Transport efficiency</strong> – transport cost savings, such as reduced congestion, facility costs, and accident damages.</td>
<td>Measure savings as described in this report, and estimate the savings to producers (commuters, businesses and governments).</td>
<td>Integrate active mode improvements with complementary strategies such as public transit improvements, efficient pricing, and smart growth policies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Labor productivity</strong> – improved worker access to education and employment opportunities.</td>
<td>Degree that improved affordable modes improve access to education and employment.</td>
<td>Target commuter improvements and integrate with public transit to major employment centers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Land use efficiency</strong> – impacts on development patterns, and their effects on accessibility and sprawl-related costs.</td>
<td>Analyze land use impacts (changes in density, mix, connectivity, etc.), and resulting costs or savings to businesses and governments.</td>
<td>Integrate active mode improvements with smart growth land use policies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Consumer expenditure impacts</strong> – impacts on consumer expenditures, particularly on vehicles and fuel.</td>
<td>Estimate vehicle ownership and travel changes, and resulting consumer expenditure changes. Use Input/Output analysis to quantify economic impacts.</td>
<td>Non-motorized improvements help reduce motor vehicle costs. Integrate with support strategies such as public transit improvements, efficient pricing, and smart growth land use policies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Support for specific industries</strong> – retail centers, bikeshops, adventure tourism, etc.</td>
<td>Identify ways that active mode improvements help support local and regional industries.</td>
<td>Non-motorized improvements implemented in response to local business needs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Active transportation planning decisions can affect economic development in various ways. Evaluation should consider, and if possible quantify, all of these impact categories. Non-motorized planning can be designed to maximize economic development benefits.
Active Mode Versus Automobile Access – Economic Development Impacts
Planning decisions sometimes involve tradeoffs between non-motorized and automobile access:

- Streetscaping and road diets often reduce traffic and parking lanes for bike lanes and wider sidewalks.
- Traffic calming and speed control programs reduce motor vehicle traffic speeds, in part to increase active travel safety and comfort.
- Some bike lanes and sidewalk widening require eliminating automobile parking lanes.

Local merchants sometimes fear they will lose business if automobile access and parking is reduced. This is not necessarily true. In many cases, improving access by alternative modes and streetscaping supports local economic development overall.

During the 1970s some cities had negative experiences with pedestrianized streets; they became unattractive to customers and business activity declined. However, appropriate pedestrian improvements can increase retail area attractiveness, particularly in urban commercial districts and resort areas. A study of ten London commercial districts found street design improvements typically increase residential and commercial property values about 5%, reflecting the value people place on an attractive street environment and resulting increases in local commercial activity (Buchanan 2007). Clifton, et al. (2013) found that shoppers who arrive walking, cycling or public transport tend to spend less per trip but make more trips per month, and more in total than automobile shoppers. In a survey of urban retail business owners, Drennen (2003) found that 65% consider a local traffic calming program to provide overall economic benefits, compared with 4% that consider it overall negative. Conversion of San Francisco’s Central Freeway into pedestrian- and bicycle-friendly Octavia Boulevard significantly increased local commercial activity and property values (CNU 2009).

In some cases, total roadway capacity increases after general traffic lanes are converted to bus or bike paths due to a combination of smoother traffic flow after a road diet, and a significant increase in bicycle travel (NYDOT 2010). Because bicycle parking is space efficient it generates about five times as much spending per square meter as automobile parking (Lee and March 2010). In urban areas, a significant portion of retail customers arrive by walking and cycling (TA 2010). A study of customers to urban retail businesses in Toronto, Canada found (Sztabinski 2009):

- About 90% of patrons arrive by walking, cycling or public transit.
- Patrons arriving by foot and bicycle visit the most often and spend the most money per month.
- Patrons would prefer a bike lane to widened sidewalks at a ratio of almost four to one.
- Even during peak periods no more than 80% of metered parking spaces on the street are occupied.
- The reduction in on-street parking supply from a bike lane or widened sidewalk could be accommodated in the area’s off-street municipal parking lots.

Negative impacts can often be addressed. Improved parking management can often off-set a loss of parking spaces, for example, by indicating where additional automobile parking is available nearby, and by encouraging local commuters and customers to arrive by alternative modes.

This indicates that in many situations, walking and cycling improvements are cost effective investments that support local economic development, particularly if implemented in conjunction with complementary transport and land use improvements.
Active Transport Impacts on Business Activity
The following studies evaluate how pedestrian and cycling access effect retail activity.


CATSIP (California Active Transportation Safety Information Pages), Case Studies: Complete Streets (http://catsip.berkeley.edu/walkbikesafer/Complete%20Streets).


CABE (2007), Paved with Gold: The Real Value of Street Design, Commission on Architecture and the Built Environment (www.cabe.org.uk); at www.apho.org.uk/resource/item.aspx?RID=92342. Shows how good street design can provide economic benefits and public value. Typical street improvements increase property values 5%.


Fred Sztabinski (2009), Bike Lanes, On-Street Parking and Business A Study of Bloor Street in Toronto’s Annex Neighbourhood, The Clean Air Partnership (www.cleanairpartnership.org); at http://bit.ly/1CS7kDk. Found that most Toronto commercial street customers arrive by walking, cycling or public transit, and that improving pedestrian and cycling facilities can support local economic development, even if it reduces parking supply.

SDOT (2011), Neighborhood Business District Access Intercept Survey, Seattle Department of Transportation; at www.seattle.gov/transportation/intercept_survey.htm. This survey of patrons at six Seattle business districts found that most residents walk or take transit to get to neighborhood districts.


Rodney Tolley (2011), Good For Business$ - The Benefits Of Making Streets More Walking And Cycling Friendly, Heart Foundation South Australia (www.heartfoundation.org.au); at http://bit.ly/19RTEe9. Found that walking and cycling improvements tend to increase property values, attract new businesses, and increase local economic activity. Concludes that bike parking provides more spending than the same space devoted to car parking.


Ray Straatsma and Tom Berkhour (2014), Bikes Mean Business: Building A Great Cycling (And Walking) City, Greater Victoria Cycling Coalition (http://bit.ly/1whqNeo). Downtown survey found that only 23% of downtown customers arrived by automobile and they tend to spend less per month than those who arrive by other modes.
Costs
Various costs associated with non-motorized transportation are discussed below. For more information see Bushell, et al. (2013).

Facility Costs
Costs for Pedestrian and Bicyclist Infrastructure Improvements: A Resource for Researchers, Engineers, Planners, and the General Public (Bushell, et al. 2013), Bicyclepedia (www.bicyclinginfo.org/bikecost) and the report, Guidelines for Analysis of Investments in Bicycle Facilities (Krizek, et al. 2006), provide information on the costs of facilities such as paths, bike lanes, intersection improvements and bicycle parking. The table below summarizes some of these costs, although more specific cost data should be used when available. Dutch cities typically spend €10 to €25 annually per capita on cycling facilities, which is considered high but increases cycling activity (Fietsberaad 2008).


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Typical Costs (2000 U.S. Dollars)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bike lanes</td>
<td>$10,000-50,000 per mile to modify existing roadway (no new construction).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bicycle parking</td>
<td>$50-500 per bicycle for racks and lockers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Center medians</td>
<td>$150-200 per linear foot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curb bulbs</td>
<td>$10,000-20,000 per bulb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marked crosswalk</td>
<td>$100-300 for painted crosswalks, and $3,000 for patterned concrete.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Path (5-foot asphalt)</td>
<td>$30-40 per linear foot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Path (12-foot concrete)</td>
<td>$80-120 per linear foot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedestrian refuge island</td>
<td>$6,000-9,000, depending on materials and conditions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sidewalks (5-foot width)</td>
<td>$20-50 per linear foot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speed humps</td>
<td>$2,000 per hump</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traffic signals</td>
<td>$15,000-60,000 for a new signal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traffic signs</td>
<td>$75-100 per sign.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traffic circles</td>
<td>$4,000 for landscaped circle on asphalt street and $6,000 on concrete street.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table summarizes examples of active transport facility costs. Of course, costs may differ significantly from these values depending on specific conditions.

Vehicle Traffic Impacts
Some non-motorized improvements can cause vehicle traffic delays. For example, traffic calming and speed reductions, converting traffic lanes to bike lanes or wider sidewalks, and more pedestrians and bicyclists crossing roadways, can reduce vehicle travel speeds. Similarly, converting parking lanes to bike lanes or wider sidewalks can reduce the ease of finding a parking space.

Evaluation methods: These costs can be estimated using the methods used to calculate other congestion delays, as described earlier in this report. These costs may be partly offset by direct benefits to motorists (traffic calming and speed reductions tend to reduce automobile accident risk), and indirect benefits if walking and cycling improvements cause mode shifts from driving to alternative modes, which reduces vehicle traffic and parking congestion.
Equipment and Fuel Costs
Walking and cycling may require extra equipment and fuel. Functional shoes typically cost $100 per pair and last about 1,000 miles (about a year of normal use), or 10¢ per walk-mile, although marginal costs are often small since consumers often replace shoes before they wear out. A $500 bicycle ridden 3,000 annual miles needs about $100 annual maintenance and lasts 10 years, which averages about 5¢ per mile cycled. Walking and cycling require food for fuel, which is costlier than gasoline per calorie, but the amounts are generally small (a 150-pound person burns 80 calories per mile walked, about the energy in a slice of bread, and half that when cycling), and most people enjoy eating and consume too many calories, in which case increased energy consumption is a benefit rather than a cost.

Evaluation methods: Walking and cycling equipment and fuel costs can be estimated based on typical shoe, bicycle and food costs. Since many people have underused shoes and bicycles the incremental costs of increased walking and cycling are often small. Since this analysis is not standardized, it is important to specify assumptions.

User Travel Time Costs
Travel time is one of the largest transportation costs, and since walking and cycling tend to be slower than motorized modes, they are sometimes considered inefficient and costly. However, this is not necessarily true. Measured door-to-door, active travel is often time competitive for short trips: for walking up to a half-mile, which represents about 14% of total personal trips, and for cycling up to three miles, which represents about half of total trips (Dill and Gliebe 2008; Litman 2010). Transport planning that improves pedestrian and cycling connectivity, and land use planning that creates more compact, mixed development increases the portion of trips for which active modes are time-competitive.

Travel time unit costs (cents per minute or dollars per hours) vary significantly depending on conditions and preferences (“Travel Time Costs,” Litman 2009; Mackie, et al. 2003). Under favorable conditions walking and cycling time has low or negative costs; users considered time spent on this activity a benefit rather than a cost, because it is enjoyable and provides exercise which reduces the need to spend special time exercising, so users will choose these modes even if they take longer than driving (Björklund and Carlén 2012; Standen 2018). Because walking and cycling are inexpensive travel modes, their effective speed (travel time plus time spent earning money to pay for transport) is often faster than driving (Tranter 2004). These factors are highly variable. A person may one day prefer walking and another day prefer driving. If people have high quality walk and cycling conditions they can choose the mode they consider best overall, taking into account all benefits and costs.

Evaluating Impacts: Various methods can be used to measure the value user place on their travel time (“Travel Time Costs,” Litman 2009; Standen 2018). Travel time is generally valued at 30-50% of prevailing wages, with lower values under favorable conditions and higher values under unfavorable conditions. If people choose active modes in response to positive incentives (improved walking and cycling conditions, or financial rewards) they must be better off overall (increased consumer surplus), even if their speeds decline.
## Benefit and Cost Summary

Table 13 summarizes potential active transport benefits and costs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact Category</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Improve AT Conditions</strong></td>
<td>Benefits from improved walking and cycling conditions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>User benefits</td>
<td>Increased user convenience, comfort, safety, accessibility and enjoyment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Option value</td>
<td>Benefits of having mobility options available in case they are ever needed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equity objectives</td>
<td>Benefits to economically, socially or physically disadvantaged people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>More AT Activity</strong></td>
<td>Benefits from increased walking and cycling activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fitness and health</td>
<td>Improved public fitness and health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reduced Vehicle Travel</strong></td>
<td>Benefits from reduced motor vehicle ownership and use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle cost savings</td>
<td>Consumer savings from reduced vehicle ownership and use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoided chauffeuring</td>
<td>Reduced chauffeuring responsibilities due to improved travel options</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congestion reduction</td>
<td>Reduced traffic congestion from automobile travel on congested roadways</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced barrier effect</td>
<td>Improved active travel conditions due to reduced traffic speeds and volumes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roadway cost savings</td>
<td>Reduced roadway construction, maintenance and operating costs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parking cost savings</td>
<td>Reduced parking problems and facility cost savings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy conservation</td>
<td>Economic and environmental benefits from reduced energy consumption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pollution reductions</td>
<td>Economic and environmental benefits from reduced air, noise and water pollution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Land Use Impacts</strong></td>
<td>Benefits from support for strategic land use objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pavement area</td>
<td>Can reduce road and parking facility land requirements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development patterns</td>
<td>Helps create more accessible, compact, mixed, infill development (smart growth)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Economic Development</strong></td>
<td>Benefits from increased productivity and employment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased productivity</td>
<td>Increased economic productivity by improving accessibility and reducing costs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor productivity</td>
<td>Improved access to education and employment, particularly by disadvantaged workers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shifts spending</td>
<td>Shifts spending from vehicles and fuel to goods with more regional economic value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support specific industries</td>
<td>Support specific industries such as retail and tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Costs</strong></td>
<td>Costs of improving active mode conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities and programs</td>
<td>Costs of building non-motorized facilities and operating special programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle traffic impacts</td>
<td>Incremental delays to motor vehicle traffic or parking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equipment</td>
<td>Incremental costs to users of shoes and bicycles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel time</td>
<td>Incremental increases in travel time costs due to slower modes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accident risk</td>
<td>Incremental increases in accident risk</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*This table summarizes potential active transport benefits and costs.*
Table 14 categorizes these impacts.

**Table 14 Active Transportation Benefits and Costs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Potential Benefits</th>
<th>Improved Active Travel Conditions</th>
<th>Increased Active Transport Activity</th>
<th>Reduced Automobile Travel</th>
<th>More Compact Communities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Improved user convenience and comfort</td>
<td>• User enjoyment</td>
<td>• Reduced traffic congestion</td>
<td>• Improved accessibility, particularly for non-drivers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Improved accessibility for non-drivers, which supports equity objectives</td>
<td>• Improved public fitness and health</td>
<td>• Road and parking facility cost savings</td>
<td>• Transport cost savings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Option value</td>
<td>• Increased community cohesion (positive interactions among neighbors due to more people walking on local streets) which tends to increase local security</td>
<td>• Consumer savings</td>
<td>• Reduced sprawl costs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Supports related industries (e.g., retail and tourism)</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Reduced chauffeuring burdens</td>
<td>• Openspace preservation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Increased security</td>
<td>• Increased traffic safety</td>
<td>• Increased traffic safety</td>
<td>• More livable communities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potential Costs</td>
<td>• Facility costs</td>
<td>• Equipment costs (shoes, bikes, etc.)</td>
<td>• Energy conservation</td>
<td>• Higher property values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Lower traffic speeds</td>
<td>• Increased crash risk</td>
<td>• Pollution reductions</td>
<td>• Improved security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Slower travel</td>
<td>• Economic development</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Active transport can have various benefits and costs.

Not all active transport improvements have all these impacts, but most have many. Various factors can affect the magnitude of these impacts:

- The demand for walking and cycling activity, including latent demand (additional walking and cycling trips that people would make with improved non-motorized conditions).
- The magnitude of change, such as the degree that walking and cycling conditions improve.
- The degree that impacts affect physically, economically or socially disadvantaged people, and therefore affect social equity objectives, such as providing basic mobility for non-drivers or improving accessibility for people with disabilities and low incomes.
- The amount that physical activity and fitness increase among sedentary people.
- Changes in motor vehicle travel, and therefore impacts on congestion, road and parking facility costs, consumer costs, accidents, energy consumption, and pollution emissions.
- The impacts on land use development patterns, and the value that a community places on more compact, mixed, accessible development.
- The degree that a particular project integrates with other complementary strategies. For example, active transport improvements tend to be particularly beneficial if implemented with public transit improvements, efficient transportation pricing (such as more efficient road, parking, insurance and fuel pricing), and smart growth land use policies.
Evaluating Active Transport Benefits and Costs
Victoria Transport Policy Institute

Table 15 illustrates a matrix that can be used to summarize the impacts and benefits of a particular NMT policy or project. For example, to evaluate sidewalk improvements, indicate how much it improves walking and cycling conditions and who benefits; how much it will increase NMT activity; how much it reduces automobile travel; and how much it will change land use patterns.

**Table 15  Active Transportation Evaluation Framework**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact Category</th>
<th>NMT Conditions</th>
<th>NMT Activity</th>
<th>Automobile Travel</th>
<th>Land Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Is walking and cycling easier or safer?</td>
<td>Does walking or cycling activity increase?</td>
<td>Does automobile travel decline?</td>
<td>Does it strategic planning objectives?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describe impact</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who is affected</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Fill in this table to help summarize the impacts and benefits provided by a particular policy or project.*

The following tables indicate various types of impacts (benefits and costs) that can result from active transport improvements, and provides default values for many of these impacts, measured in mils per passenger-mile (one-thousandth of a dollar, measured $0.000). These are based on values described in this report, and from *Transportation Cost and Benefit Analysis* (Litman 2009). Where possible, these default values should be adjusted to reflect specific conditions.

**Improved Active Travel Conditions**
Table 16 summarizes direct benefits that result from walking and cycling improvements. These values are multiplied times the number of person-miles of travel on the improved facility.

**Table 16  Improving Walking and Cycling Conditions (Per Person-Mile)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact Category</th>
<th>Urban Peak</th>
<th>Urban Off-Peak</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Overall Average</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>User Benefits</td>
<td>$0.250</td>
<td>$0.250</td>
<td>$0.250</td>
<td>$0.250</td>
<td>The greater the improvement, the greater this value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Option Value</td>
<td>$.035</td>
<td>$.035</td>
<td>$.035</td>
<td>$.035</td>
<td>Half of diversity value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equity Objectives</td>
<td>$.035</td>
<td>$.035</td>
<td>$.035</td>
<td>$.035</td>
<td>Half of diversity value. Higher if a project significantly benefits disadvantaged people.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*This table summarizes the estimated value of improved walking and cycling conditions.*
Increased Active Travel Activity
Table 17 summarizes typical benefit values, measured in cents per mile of travel of increased walking and cycling activity. Higher values may be justified if an unusually large number of users would otherwise be sedentary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact Category</th>
<th>Urban Peak</th>
<th>Urban Off-Peak</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Overall Average</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fitness and health – Walking</td>
<td>$0.500</td>
<td>$0.500</td>
<td>$0.500</td>
<td>$0.500</td>
<td>Benefits are larger if pedestrian facilities attract at-risk users.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fitness and health – Cycling</td>
<td>$0.200</td>
<td>$0.200</td>
<td>$0.200</td>
<td>$0.200</td>
<td>Benefits are larger if cycling facilities attract at-risk users.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table summarizes the estimated fitness and health value of increased walking and cycling activity.

Reduced Automobile Travel
Table 18 summarizes typical benefit values, in cents per reduced motor vehicle-mile, including automobile travel shifted to active modes, and any additional vehicle travel reductions that result if improved walking and cycling conditions helps create more compact and mixed land use development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact Category</th>
<th>Urban Peak</th>
<th>Urban Off-Peak</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Overall Average</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle Cost Savings</td>
<td>$0.250</td>
<td>$0.225</td>
<td>$0.200</td>
<td>$0.225</td>
<td>This reflects vehicle operating cost savings. Larger savings result if some households can reduce vehicle ownership costs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoided Chauffeuring Driver’s Time</td>
<td>$0.700</td>
<td>$0.600</td>
<td>$0.500</td>
<td>$0.580</td>
<td>Based on $9.00 per hour driver’s time value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congestion Reduction</td>
<td>$0.200</td>
<td>$0.050</td>
<td>$0.010</td>
<td>$0.060</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced Barrier Effect</td>
<td>$0.010</td>
<td>$0.010</td>
<td>$0.010</td>
<td>$0.010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roadway Cost Savings</td>
<td>$0.050</td>
<td>$0.050</td>
<td>$0.030</td>
<td>$0.042</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parking Cost Savings</td>
<td>$0.600</td>
<td>$0.400</td>
<td>$0.200</td>
<td>$0.360</td>
<td>Parking costs are particularly high for commuting and lower for errands which require less parking per trip.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy Conservation</td>
<td>$0.030</td>
<td>$0.030</td>
<td>$0.030</td>
<td>$0.030</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pollution Reductions</td>
<td>$0.100</td>
<td>$0.050</td>
<td>$0.010</td>
<td>$0.044</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table summarizes the estimated benefits of reduced motor vehicle travel. Impacts are measured in “mils” (a thousandth of a dollar) per passenger-mile.
Land Use Impacts
Table 19 summarizes various benefits to communities if increased walking and cycling, and associated reductions in automobile ownership and motor vehicle traffic, help create more compact, mixed land use development, which reduces sprawl-related costs.

Table 19 More Walkable and Bikeable Community

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact Category</th>
<th>Urban Peak</th>
<th>Urban Off-Peak</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reduced Pavement</td>
<td>$0.010</td>
<td>$0.005</td>
<td>$0.001</td>
<td>$0.002</td>
<td>Specific studies should be used when possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased Accessibility</td>
<td>$0.080</td>
<td>$0.060</td>
<td>$0.030</td>
<td>$0.051</td>
<td>Specific studies should be used when possible.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table summarizes various benefits if walking and cycling improvements reduce impervious surface area and encourage more compact, mixed land use development patterns.

Active Transport Costs
Table 20 summarizes typical costs of improving non-motorized conditions and increasing active travel.

Table 20 Typical Values – Walking and Cycling Costs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact Category</th>
<th>Urban Peak</th>
<th>Urban Off-Peak</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Facilities and Programs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Highly variable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle Traffic Impacts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Highly variable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equipment</td>
<td>$0.080</td>
<td>$0.070</td>
<td>$0.060</td>
<td></td>
<td>Depends on assumption, such as whether food consumption is a benefit or cost.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel Time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Highly variable depending on conditions and user preferences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accident Risk</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table summarizes potential active transport benefits and costs.
Evaluating Specific Active Mode Improvements
This section describes examples of active transport project evaluations.

Pedestrian Facility Improvements (Sidewalks, Paths and Crosswalks)
Pedestrian improvements tend to benefit existing and new users, increase walking activity, and may reduce driving. Pedestrians can comfortably share roadspace with motor vehicles where traffic speeds and volumes are very low (less than 12 miles per hour and fewer than 30 vehicles during peak hour); elsewhere, sidewalks, paths and crosswalks are important, particularly for vulnerable pedestrians such as children and people with disabilities. Increased walking tends to improve public fitness and health. Since physically and economically disadvantaged people often depend on walking, pedestrian improvements tend to provide option and equity value.

Pedestrian facilities tend to have network effects, so benefits increase as the network expands. A short, isolated length of sidewalk may provide minimal benefit, while a link that connects two otherwise isolated sidewalk networks or provides a shortcut (such as connecting two cul de sacs) can provide large benefits. Pedestrian improvements can have leverage effects: increases in walking cause proportionately larger reductions in vehicle travel. For example, Guo and Gandavarama (2010) estimate that completing the sidewalk network in a typical U.S. town would increase average per capita active travel 16% (from 0.6 to 0.7 miles per day) and reduce automobile travel 5% (from 22.0 to 20.9 vehicle-miles), or about 10 miles of reduced VMT for each mile of increased walking.

Sidewalks usually increase adjacent property values by improving access (Peffer 2009; PBIC 2009), but this reflects only a portion of total benefits since non-residents also benefit from improved access and reduced driving, so total benefits are likely to be much greater than property value changes indicate (Clark and Davies 2009).

Factors affecting pedestrian facility improvement benefits

Magnitude of improvement
- Whether it significantly improves pedestrian conditions and walking is otherwise difficult.

Demand
- Number of potential users, including youths, people with disabilities or low incomes, seniors, dog owners, and people who want to walk for exercise.
- Connects important destinations such as schools, businesses, transit stops, and parks.

Supports special planning objectives
- If located in a commercial or resort area where walkability supports economic development.
- Whether it includes universal design to improve mobility for people with disabilities.
- If it increases physical activity by otherwise sedentary people.

Network and synergetic effects
- Whether it connects to a large pedestrian network (other sidewalks and paths).
- Whether part of an integrated program to improve alternative modes and support smart growth.
Bicycle Facility Improvement (Paths, Bike Lanes and Parking Facilities)

Bicycle improvements are similar to pedestrian improvements, although with a more limited range of users. Such enhancements benefit existing and new users, can increase cycling activity, and reduce driving. Although many cyclists can comfortably share road space with motor vehicles, particularly if traffic speeds and volumes are moderate and traffic lanes are sufficiently wide and smooth, many people are reluctant to cycle without special facilities. Increased bicycling tends to improve public fitness and health. Since some physically and economically disadvantaged people depend on cycling, bicycle facility improvements can provide option and equity value.

Using economic modelling, Standen (2018) found that Sydney, Australia bicycle network improvements offer substantial welfare benefits to users, in terms of improved accessibility, comfort, perceived safety, and transport choice, even if the trips are slower, and these benefits increase with network connectivity. By ignoring such benefits in project appraisal, bicycle facilities may be significantly undervalued, and transport investment decisions inadequately informed.

Bicycle facilities tend to have network effects, so benefits increase as the network expands. A short, isolated length of bike path may provide minimal benefit, while a link that connects two otherwise isolated cycling networks or provides a shortcut (such as connecting two cul de sacs) can provide large benefits.

Factors affecting bicycle network benefits

Magnitude of improvement
- Whether located on or parallel to a busy roadway where cycling is otherwise difficult.
- If a missing link that connects sections of the cycling network.

Demand
- Number of potential users, including children and young adults, people with lower incomes, and people who want to bicycle for exercise.
- Connects important destinations such as schools, shops, public transit stops and parks.

Supports special planning objectives
- If in a commercial or resort area where access and recreation support economic development.
- If many residents are sedentary and would benefit from increased physical activity.

Network and synergetic effects
- Connects to a large cycling network.
- Is part of an integrated program of to improve alternative modes and support smart growth.
Active Transport Education and Encouragement Programs

Education and encouragement programs help overcome barriers to walking and cycling (ignorance, social stigma, a habit of driving), increase use of these modes, and reduce motor vehicle travel. Such programs tend to have synergistic effects with facility improvements. On the other hand, education and encouragement programs can fail or increase risk if walking and cycling conditions are poor.

Factors affecting education and encouragement program benefits

Magnitude of improvement
- Program quality. Whether it responds to local conditions and preferences, and so helps overcome barriers such as ignorance, social stigma, and a habit of driving.
- Whether it addresses specific problems, such as high rates of cycling traffic violations.
- Community support. Whether it attracts support from sports and recreation, school, public health, transportation, business, neighborhood and environmental organizations.

Demand
- Number of people who are likely to increase their walking and cycling activity.
- The degree that participants reduce their driving.

Supports special planning objectives
- Whether located in an area, such as a city or resort community, where reductions in automobile travel can provide large benefits (such as reduced traffic congestion and parking problems).
- The program targets people who are sedentary and overweight, and so benefit significantly from more active transport.

Network and synergetic effects
- Whether part of an integrated program to improve and encourage active transport.
- Whether it helps build broad community support for active transportation.

Public Bike Systems

Public Bike Systems (PBS, also called Bike Sharing and Community Bike Programs) provide convenient rental bicycles intended for short (less than 5 kilometer), utilitarian urban trips. A typical Public Bike System consists of a fleet of bicycles, a network of automated stations where bikes are stored, and bike redistribution and maintenance programs. Bikes may be rented at one station and returned to another. Use is free or inexpensive for short periods (typically first 30 minutes). This allows urban residents and visitors to bicycle without needing to purchase, store and maintain a bike.

Public bikes tend to benefit users directly, by providing convenient and affordable transport and recreation. They can provide additional benefits by increasing cycling activity and substitute for automobile travel (either alone or in conjunction with public transit).
Factors affecting Public Bike System benefits

Magnitude of improvement
• The convenience of the service, including the number and location of stations, the ease of use, and the quality of bikes.

Demand
• Number of people who are likely to use the services.
• The degree that Public Bike users increase their cycling and reduce their driving.

Supports special planning objectives
• Whether located in an area, such as a city or resort community, where reductions in automobile travel can provide large benefits.

Network and synergetic effects
• Whether the system is integrated with public transit services.
• Whether part of an integrated program to improve and encourage active transport.
Calculating Optimum Investments
Transportation economic analysis compares the incremental benefits and costs of different policies and programs. This section shows examples of evaluation applied to active transport (Litman 2001; Sælensminde 2004; MacMillen, Givoni and Banister 2010). The following formula can be used to determine the maximum investment justified for policies or programs that shift travel from automobile to active modes.

Optimal Investment/Year = (Benefits/Trip x Modal Shift)/Year

Example 1: Pedestrian Facility
Table 21 shows the estimated monetized benefits to society of 10,000 miles shifted from driving to active travel under urban off-peak conditions. A new public path might cause such an annual shift (e.g., 46 trips shifted daily). Using a 7% discount rate over 20 years, this represents a present value of about $100,000. This indicates the capital investment that could be justified for such a facility. Total benefits are probably much greater than estimated because some potentially large impacts are not monetized in this analysis (health and enjoyment, community livability and cohesion, etc.), so greater investments may be justified. This analysis assumes a 1:1 mode substitution rate; that is, each non-motorized mile substitutes for one motor vehicle mile.

Table 21 Benefits of 1,000 Miles Shifted to Active Transport

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefits</th>
<th>Per Mile</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congestion Reduction</td>
<td>$0.02</td>
<td>$200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roadway Cost Savings</td>
<td>$0.05</td>
<td>$500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle Cost Savings</td>
<td>$0.20</td>
<td>$2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parking Costs (assuming 1-mile average trip length)</td>
<td>$1.00</td>
<td>$10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Pollution Reduction</td>
<td>$0.05</td>
<td>$500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noise Pollution Reduction</td>
<td>$0.03</td>
<td>$300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy Conservation</td>
<td>$0.04</td>
<td>$400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traffic Safety Benefits</td>
<td>$0.04</td>
<td>$400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>$1.43</strong></td>
<td><strong>$14,300</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table indicates monetized benefits of 1,000 miles shifted from motorized to active travel under urban off-peak conditions. Since many benefits are not monetized, total benefits are probably larger.

A higher substitution rate would provide greater benefits. Applying the 1:7 substitution rate indicated earlier in this report (each non-motorized mile substitutes for seven motor vehicle miles), would mean that benefits average about $10 per trip and $100,000 per year. These larger benefits are likely to occur if an active mode facility is part of an overall program to create a more walkable community, which might also include changing development practices (e.g., locating more shops and schools within walking distance of homes and employment sites), roadway design, traffic management and parking management, as well as active travel encouragement programs.
### Example 2: Cycling Program

Table 22 shows the funding level justified for a cycling program per percentage point shift it causes from driving to cycling in an urban community with 20,000 commute trips and 35,000 non-commute trips each day. In this case, up to $280,000 could be spent for each percent of commute trips, and $365,365 for each percentage point of non-commute trips shifted from driving to active travel. Annual investments of up to $3.2 million could be justified for a bicycle improvement and encouragement program that causes a 5-point shift from driving to cycling, and more taking into account additional, unmonetized benefits. Applying the 1:7 substitution rate would mean that benefits exceed $39 per commute trip and $20 per non-commute trip. These larger benefits are likely to occur if the cycling program is part of a comprehensive mobility management program that improves travel options and encourages reduced automobile travel.

**Table 22: Maximum Funding Per 1-Point Shift from Driving to Cycling**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefits</th>
<th>Commute Trips</th>
<th>Non-Commute Trips</th>
<th>Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trips per day</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>35,000</td>
<td>55,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Days per year</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>365</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel Condition</td>
<td>Urban-Peak</td>
<td>Urban Off-Peak</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits per trip</td>
<td>$5.60</td>
<td>$2.86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calculation</td>
<td>20,000 x 250 x $5.60 x .01</td>
<td>35,000 x 365 x $2.86 x .01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>$280,000</td>
<td>$365,365</td>
<td>$645,365</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*This table shows the estimated annual benefits from each one-point shift from automobile to bicycle travel, considering only monetized benefits. Total benefits are probably much higher.*

### Example 3: Active Mode Component of Commute Trip Reduction Program

Table 23 shows the monetized benefits from a commute trip reduction program that convinces 100 employees to shift from driving to non-motorized commuting, if they have average daily round-trip travel distances of 5 miles, $5.00 per day parking costs, and 240 annual work days. This program provides $210,000 in monetized benefits, plus additional benefits from improved health and enjoyment, and other unmonetized benefits. This indicates the level of program funding that could be justified. As described above, benefits are larger if the increased active travel leverages additional reductions in motorized travel; for example, if some households reduce their automobile ownership.

**Table 23: Commute Trip Reduction Program Benefits**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefits</th>
<th>Per Mile</th>
<th>Per Commuter</th>
<th>Total Daily</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Congestion Reduction</td>
<td>$0.20</td>
<td>$1.00</td>
<td>$100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roadway Cost Savings</td>
<td>$0.05</td>
<td>$0.25</td>
<td>$25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle Cost Savings</td>
<td>$0.25</td>
<td>$1.25</td>
<td>$125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parking Costs</td>
<td></td>
<td>$5.00</td>
<td>$500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Pollution Reduction</td>
<td>$0.10</td>
<td>$0.50</td>
<td>$50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noise Pollution Reduction</td>
<td>$0.05</td>
<td>$0.25</td>
<td>$25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy Conservation</td>
<td>$0.05</td>
<td>$0.25</td>
<td>$25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traffic Safety Benefits</td>
<td>$0.05</td>
<td>$0.25</td>
<td>$25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>$8.75</strong></td>
<td><strong>$875</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*This table illustrates the value of shifting 100 employees from driving to active modes at a typical urban worksite.*
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Examples
For more examples see CATSIP (www.catsip.berkeley.edu) and “Making the Case for Investment in the Walking Environment: A Review of the Evidence” (Living Streets 2011).

Active Transportation Benefit/Cost Calculator
Transportation programs and projects are often evaluated using benefit-cost analysis, to ensure that their total benefits exceed their total costs, and to compare and prioritize potential projects. However, existing benefit-cost analysis tools are inadequate for evaluating active transport. To fill this gap the California Department of Transportation developed the Active Transportation Benefit-Cost Calculator (Cooper and Danziger 2016; www.dot.ca.gov/hq/tpp/offices/eab/atp.html). Many of the methods and values used in the Calculator are based on this report.

Figure 12 Benefit-Cost Calculator Interface (Cooper and Danziger 2016)

The Tool incorporates the following impacts:
- Project costs
- Changes in travel activity
- Changes in crashes
- User benefits
- Physical fitness and health benefits from more active transport
- Various savings from projects that reduce motor vehicle travel
- Land use benefits from projects that encourage more compact development

The current version incorporates some omissions and biases that may underestimate active transport benefits: it excludes some often-large benefit categories, such as reduced chauffeuring burdens and parking cost savings, based on the assumption that they are difficult to calculate, and it applies a conventional travel time cost values that are excessive for travellers who enjoy walking and cycling. However, the model can be adjusted to account for these factors. Despite these weaknesses, this Tool is a major contribution to active transportation economic evaluation.
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Econometric of Active Transport User Benefits (Standen 2018)
Using detailed travel surveys and discrete choice modelling, Christopher Standen found that Sydney, Australia bicycle network improvements offer substantial welfare benefits to users, in terms of improved accessibility, comfort, perceived safety, and transport choice – even though their journeys may end up being slower, and these benefits tend to increase with network connectivity. By ignoring such benefits in project appraisal, bicycle facilities may be significantly undervalued, and transport investment decisions inadequately informed.

European Cycling Benefits
The EU Cycling Economy – Arguments for an Integrated EU Cycling Policy (Neun and Haubold 2016) estimates various bicycling benefits including environmental benefits from reduced pollution and impervious surface, health and safety benefits, bicycle and tourist industry productivity, user enjoyment, social equity, congestion reductions, road and parking facility cost savings, social equity and community connections. Figure 1 summarizes the results. The study identified various additional benefits that were not quantified due to inadequate information.

**Figure 13** EU Cycling Benefits Summary (Neun and Haubold 2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Environment + Climate</td>
<td>€ 15.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy and Resources</td>
<td>€ 2.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>€ 151.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>€ 63.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology + Design</td>
<td>€ 20.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time + Space</td>
<td>€ 135.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The EU Cycling Economy report used various methods to estimate economic, social and environmental benefits of cycling in the European Union. This information is used to justify policies that support cycling.

Active Transportation Benefits Study (Urban Design 4 Health 2017)
This study estimates various benefits and costs of bicycling and walking in Utah including government expenditures on bicycle facilities, user expenditures on vehicles and operation (e.g., food), expenditures by tourists, and reduced healthcare and absenteeism costs. It proposes a program to collect data to measure these impacts and promote these benefits.

Transport Canada Active Transportation Resource and Planning Guide
Active Transportation in Canada: A Resource and Planning Guide (TC 2011), provides information for professionals (planners, engineers, etc.) to accommodate, promote and support active transportation in planning and development decisions. It describes reasons to support active transportation including public health, environmental, social/community, and local economic benefits, discusses ways to incorporate active transport into existing planning and policy documents, with handy speaking points to communicate these benefits to elected officials, municipal departments, active transportation stakeholders and the general public, plus information on tools, case studies and other information resources.
Danish Cycling Evaluation

The City of Copenhagen has developed a standard cost-benefit analysis (CBA) methodology for evaluating cycle policies and projects and applied that model in two case studies (COWI 2009). Table 24 summarizes methods used to evaluate cycling project impacts on travel activity (the amount of cycling and automobile travel).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect for Economic CBA</th>
<th>Methods to Quantify Travel Effects</th>
<th>Data Requirement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle Operating Costs</td>
<td>Change in vehicle kilometre by mode, i.e. for different motorized vehicles, public transportation and bicycles.</td>
<td>Traffic counts and/or modelling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Costs</td>
<td>Change in travel time by mode.</td>
<td>Traffic counts and/or modelling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accident Costs</td>
<td>Change in the number of accidents with and without bicycles involved.</td>
<td>Accident registrations, traffic counts and/or modelling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pollution and Externalities</td>
<td>Change in vehicle kilometres for each mode of transportation.</td>
<td>Traffic counts and/or modelling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreational Value</td>
<td>Change in cycle kilometres and cyclists’ statements.</td>
<td>Interviews and traffic counts and/or modelling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Benefits</td>
<td>Change in cycle kilometres.</td>
<td>Traffic counts and/or modelling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety</td>
<td>Change in accident rates.</td>
<td>Accident reports, interviews and traffic counts and modelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discomfort</td>
<td>Change in cycle kilometres.</td>
<td>Traffic counts and/or modelling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branding Value</td>
<td>Not a traffic effect.</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value for Urban Open Spaces</td>
<td>Not a traffic effect.</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System Benefits</td>
<td>Change in cycle kilometres.</td>
<td>Traffic counts and/or modelling.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table summarizes specific ways to assess the travel impacts of cycling projects.

Table 25 summarizes unit cost values used in the economic analysis. The unit costs for cars are from the Ministry of Transportation’s official unit cost catalogue (Transportøkonomiske Enhedspriser). The external values for cars are reported for gasoline cars under urban off-peak conditions. In total, cycling is estimated to have net costs (costs minus health benefits) of 0.60 Danish Kroner per kilometer. Health benefits include reduced medical and disability costs valued at 1.11 Danish Kronor (DKK) to users and 2.91 DKK to society, plus 2.59 DKK worth of increased longevity. Car travel is estimated to have net costs (costs minus duties, which are large because Denmark has very high fuel taxes) of 3.74 Danish Kroner per kilometer. This would be even higher under urban-peak conditions due to higher congestion costs.
Table 25  Average Costs Per Kilometre for Cycling (2008 Danish Kroner)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Cycling (16 km/h)</th>
<th>For Reference: Car (50 km/h) in city</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>External</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Costs (non-work)</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle Operating Costs</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prolonged Life</td>
<td>-2.66</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>-1.11</td>
<td>-1.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accidents</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discomfort</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branding/ Tourism</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Pollution</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate Changes</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noise</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Road Deterioration</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traffic Congestion</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>-1.22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table summarizes unit cost values used for economic evaluation of cycling projects.

This framework was used to evaluate cycling improvement projects including Copenhagen’s Bryggebroen Bridge and the Gyldenløvsgade-Nørre Søgade-Vester Søgade intersection improvement, which were found to provide net benefits. Sensitivity analyses show that the result is robust to changes in central parameters and input data.

British Cycling Evaluation (Rajé and Saffrey 2016)
A comprehensive literature review concerning cycling economic evaluation suggests that cycling can provide diverse benefits and help achieve many strategic goals, but conventional appraisal methods do not incorporate the full extent of these benefits, and overlooks many costs of motorized transport, resulting in underinvestment in this mode.

Australian Active Transport Assessment Guidelines
The Australian Department of Infrastructure and Regional Development’s Transport Assessment and Planning Steering Committee provides specific guidelines for transportation project evaluation, including active transport, as described in, Australian Transport Assessment Planning Guidelines – M4 Active Travel (ATAP 2016). It includes monetized values for:
- Improved health outcomes.
- Reduced traffic congestion.
- Changes in safety risk.
- Changes in travel time.
- Changes in public transport fares and private vehicle parking and operating costs.
Queensland Active Transport Benefits (SKM and PWC 2011)
A 2011 Queensland, Australia government-sponsored study estimates that an average round-trip urban bicycle commute provides $14.30 in economic benefits and a pedestrian commuter provides $8.48 worth of benefits, including:

- Decongestion (20.7 cents per kilometre walked or cycled).
- Direct health benefits (up to 168.0 cents per kilometre).
- User vehicle operating cost savings (35.0 cents per kilometre).
- Road and parking infrastructure savings (6.8 cents per kilometre).
- Environment (5.9 cents per kilometre).

Table 27 Benefits Summary (SKM and PWC 2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefit Type</th>
<th>Central Value</th>
<th>Lower Bound</th>
<th>Upper Bound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Health - Walking</td>
<td>$1.68</td>
<td>$1.23</td>
<td>$2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health - Cycling</td>
<td>$1.12</td>
<td>$0.82</td>
<td>$1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decongestion</td>
<td>$0.207</td>
<td>$0.060 (Off-Peak)</td>
<td>$0.340 (Peak)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle operating costs</td>
<td>$0.350</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Injury costs - Walking</td>
<td>-$0.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Injury costs - Cycling</td>
<td>-$0.37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noise reduction</td>
<td>$0.0091</td>
<td>$0.065</td>
<td>$0.0117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air quality</td>
<td>$0.0281</td>
<td>$0.0275</td>
<td>$0.0288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greenhouse gas emissions</td>
<td>$0.0221</td>
<td>$0.0196</td>
<td>$0.0248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure (roadway) provision</td>
<td>$0.052</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parking cost savings</td>
<td>$0.016</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Negative values imply a disutility or increased costs. (2010 Australian Dollars)*

Active Transport Evaluation (MacMillen, Givoni and Banister 2010)
In a study titled, *The Role Of Walking And Cycling In Advancing Healthy And Sustainable Urban Areas*, MacMillen, Givoni and Banister (2010) estimate the costs and benefits of pedestrianizing a commercial street in Oxford, England. They estimate that this project would reduce area vehicle trips 27%, as shoppers and commuters who currently drive shift modes. Estimated costs included the project’s capital and incremental operating expenses, increased traffic crashes, and loss of 25 car parking spaces. Estimated benefits included improved public fitness, reduced traffic congestion, increased journey ambience (more enjoyable travel experience) and greenhouse gas reductions. They conclude that current project evaluation practices overlook or undervalue many active transport benefits, resulting in an underinvestment in walking and cycling improvements.

New Zealand Active Transport Monetization Program
Evaluating Active Transport Benefits and Costs
Victoria Transport Policy Institute

Bicycle Facility Impacts on Cycling Activity and Risk (NACTO 2017)
A study by the National Association of City Transportation Officials, *Equitable Bike Share Means Building Better Places for People to Ride* evaluated the relationships between bicycle facility development, cycling activity and bicycle crash rates. It found that:

- When cities expand protected bike networks, more people bicycle. Studies of North American cities indicate that such facilities increase bike ridership on those streets by 21% to 171%.
- Cycling becomes safer as cities build better bike lane networks. In five of the seven U.S. cities NACTO surveyed, the absolute number of bicyclists killed or severely injured declined from 2007 to 2014 despite increased cycling. Even in cities where bicycle casualties increased the increases where smaller than the increase in bicycling activity.
- Gains in bike safety are especially important for low-income riders and riders of color. 49% of the people who bike to work earn less than $25,000 per year, and Black and Hispanic bicyclists have a fatality rate 30% and 23% higher than white bicyclists, respectively. Building extensive protected bike lane networks benefits those who are most at risk.
- Approximately 60% of people surveyed are “interested but concerned” about biking and would bike with higher-comfort facilities. Of those, 80% would be willing to ride on streets with a separated or protected bike lane. In particular, recent national research suggests that that people of color are more likely than white Americans to say that adding protected bike lanes would make them ride more.
- Bike share systems should be matched with protected bike lane networks to encourage ridership and increase safety. People on bike share bikes make up a disproportionate number of the riders on protected lanes, and stations adjacent to bike lanes are busier than ones that are not. For bike sharing to be successful, people need to feel comfortable riding.
- The risk of a bicyclist being struck by a motorist declines as the number of people biking increases. Appropriately scaled bike share systems can dramatically increase the total number of people on bikes in a city and help build political momentum for bike lanes.
- Mandatory adult helmet laws reduce bike ridership and don’t increase safety. Mandatory adult helmet laws have reduced bike ridership in Sydney, and hampered bike share ridership efforts in Melbourne and Seattle. In addition to evidence that mandatory adult helmet laws do not increase overall bike safety, reports from across the U.S. suggest that these laws are disproportionately enforced against people of color, further discouraging them from riding.

Nonmotorized Transportation Pilot Program Evaluation (FHWA 2012 and 2014)
The U.S. Federal Highway Administration produced a comprehensive evaluation of its Nonmotorized Transportation Pilot Program that assessed the program’s costs, travel impacts and benefits based on travel survey data. The program invested about $100 per capita in pedestrian and cycling improvements in four typical communities (Columbia, Missouri; Marin County, Calif.; Minneapolis area, Minnesota; and Sheboygan County, Wisconsin), which caused walking trips to increase 22.8% and cycling trips to increase 48.3%, mostly for utilitarian purposes, plus increased recreational and exercise activity. Studies also found evidence of slower driving speeds and safer conditions for pedestrians and bicyclists. It estimated health and environmental benefits, including quantities of fuel savings and emission reductions.
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Active Transport Performance Indicators (Semler, et al. 2016)
The Guidebook for Developing Pedestrian and Bicycle Performance Measures is intended to help communities develop performance measures that can fully integrate pedestrian and bicycle planning in ongoing performance management activities. It highlights a broad range of ways that walking and bicycling investments, activity, and impacts can be measured and documents how these measures relate to goals identified in a community’s planning process. It discusses how impacts can be tracked and what data are required, and identifies examples of communities that are currently using these indicators. This report highlights resources for developing measures to facilitate high quality performance based planning.

Cycling Improvement Economic Evaluation
Foltýnová and Kohlová (2007), analyzed impacts of improved cycling infrastructure on cycling activity using a stated preferences survey to determine willingness to bicycle in response to various cycling improvements in the city of Pilsen, Czech Republic. Considering just direct health and air pollution reduction benefits, the cycling facility improvements are not considered cost effective.

Bicycle Improvement Benefit/Cost Analysis (Gotschi 2011)
This study assessed how Portland, Oregon’s bicycling investments compare with its estimated benefits. Bicycling activity is estimated using past trends, future mode share goals, and a traffic demand model. This analysis indicates that by 2040, $138 to $605 million in total investments will provide $388 to $594 million in estimated healthcare benefits, $7 to $12 billion in reduced deaths, and $143 to $218 million in fuel savings. The benefit-cost ratios are positive, and very large when reduced deaths are included.

Grabow, et al. (2011) estimated the value of improved health from reduced local air pollution emissions and improved public fitness if 50% of short trips were made by bicycle during summer months in typical Midwestern U.S. communities. Across the study region of approximately 31.3 million people, mortality is projected to decline by approximately 1,100 annual deaths, providing benefits estimated to exceed $7 billion/year.

Evaluating Rail Station Walking and Cycling Investments (METRO 2016)
The report, Metrorail Station Investment Strategy estimates that $13 million invested by the Washington DC in pedestrian and cycling facilities around Metro rail stations provides $24 million in benefits including travel time savings and reduced crashes, based on methodologies described in the TIGER Benefit-Cost Analysis Resource Guide (USDOT 2015).

Valuing Bicycling in Wisconsin (Grabow, Hahn and Whited 2010)
The study, Valuing Bicycling’s Economic and Health Impacts in Wisconsin estimated the economic value of bicycling in the state of Wisconsin, including economic activity from bicycle manufacturing and sales ($593 million), tourism and recreational value ($924 million), health benefits of increased physical activity ($320 million) and pollution emission reductions ($90 million). Total estimated benefits average about $360 per resident. The study also investigated factors that affect cycling demand.
Colorado Economic and Health Benefits of Cycling and Walking (BBC 2016)

Economic and Health Benefits of Bicycling and Walking (BBC 2016) estimated that bicycling and walking provide approximately $4.8 billion annual benefits in the state of Colorado, and a 60% increase in walking and cycling activity could provide an additional $1.5 to $2.3 billion worth of health benefits. It uses various sources to estimate walking and cycling activity in Colorado, including participation in special walking and cycling events, visitors who use these modes, and other benefit analysis methods. However, the study methods are incomplete and biased.

The study’s safety benefits analysis only considers direct crash reductions from improved pedestrian and cycling infrastructure but fails to account for the “safety in numbers” effects, through which increased walking and cycling activity tends to reduce total per capita traffic casualty rates in a community by reducing total automobile traffic, reducing high-risk driving, and increasing driver awareness (Jacobson 2003; Murphy, Levinson and Owen 2017). Health benefits are estimated using the Health Economic Assessment Tool (WHO 2014), which, Mansfield and Gibson (2015) argue can significantly overestimate health benefits by using static assumptions about mortality rates as people age, but on the other hand, walking is a particularly appropriate way for people who are currently overweight and sedentary to become more physically active, and so may provide additional health benefits than conventional models assume.

As with many economic impact studies intended to promote a particular industry, it incorrectly treats walking and cycling expenditures as a benefit. For example, it would be wrong to assume, as they do, that purchasing an imported bike for $700 wholesale, and then selling it for $1,000 creates $1,000 in economic benefits in Colorado; at most, it creates $300 net revenue, but a more accurate method measures net productivity and employment gains using a regional economic model. Probably the greatest true active transport economic benefit is the ability of pedestrian and cycling improvements to allow households to reduce their vehicle ownership and use, and therefore shift their spending from vehicles and fuel to other goods with more regional inputs; most consumer goods create five to ten times the regional employment and business activity as vehicles and fuel.

This study focuses excessively on special walking and cycling events, and gives too little consideration to resource savings and benefits provided by shifts from motorized to non-motorized modes, including consumer savings and affordability (savings to lower-income households), congestion reductions, road and parking facility cost savings, and pollution emission reductions, and so significantly underestimates total benefits. Overall, this study fails to reflect best practices for comprehensive evaluation of active transportation benefits.

Portland Regional Active Transportation Plan (CH2M Hill 2013)

Portland, Oregon’s Metro Regional Active Transportation Plan includes a separate report which describes and where possible quantifies the Plan’s benefits and costs. Benefit categories include:

- Improved access to destinations.
- Improved safety for all users, regardless of age and ability.
- Increase access for low-income, minority, non-white, non-English-speaking, youth (under 18), disabled, and elderly (over 65) populations (Equity).
- Increase the number of trips made by walking and bicycling (Increased Activity).
- Support for the region’s strategic planning objectives and its ability to provide synergistic benefits, including achieving a cultural shift that responds to latent demand for bicycling and walking.
**Pedestrian Improvements for Economic Development**

A study titled, *The Relationship Between Pedestrian Connectivity and Economic Productivity in Auckland’s City Centre*, (Rohani and Lawrence 2017) investigated the value of walkability (pedestrian connectivity) to the Auckland, New Zealand economy. The study used quantitative analysis to measure the contribution that walkability makes toward agglomeration efficiencies in commercial centers by facilitating face-to-face interactions that increase knowledge generation and sharing. The study found statistically significant positive associations between pedestrian access and labour productivity, and concludes that commercial center walkability improvements can support economic development.

**Justifications for Improving Cycling Conditions (Balsas 2017)**

The article, *Blending Individual Tenacity with Government’s Responsibility in the Implementation of US Non-motorized Transportation Planning (NMT)*, argues that public safety, health and fairness justify more efforts to create safe, accessible, convenient, comfortable, and attractive walking and bicycle facilities for everyone. It identifies a variety of conceptual, institutional and planning reforms needed by individuals, practitioners and agencies to achieve these goals.

**Comparing Automobile and Cycling Cost in Copenhagen (Gössling and Choi 2015)**

The study, *Transport Transitions in Copenhagen: Comparing the Cost of Cars and Bicycles*, compared total costs of automobile and bicycling. The analysis reveals that car travel is more than six times more costly (Euro 0.50/km) than cycling (Euro 0.08/km), and driving costs are likely to increase in the future while cycling costs appear to be declining.

**Neighborhood Design and Health**

The study project, *Neighbourhood Design, Travel, and Health* (Frank, et al. 2010), describes various factors that affect walkability, ways to measure those factors, and the impacts of neighborhood walkability on per capita automobile travel, physical activity and fitness in the Vancouver, BC metropolitan region. The results indicate that:

- Adults living in the 25% most walkable neighborhoods walk, bike and take transit 2-3 times more, and drive approximately 58% less than those in more auto-oriented areas.

- Residents in the most walkable areas, with good street connectivity and land use mix, were half as likely to be overweight than those in the least walkable neighborhoods.

- Living in a neighbourhood with at least one grocery store was associated with nearly 1.5 times likelihood of getting sufficient physical activity, compared to areas without grocery stores. Each additional grocery store within a 1-kilometer distance from an individual’s residence was associated with an 11% reduction in the likelihood of being overweight.

- More walkable neighborhoods have less ozone but more nitric oxide pollution, so impacts are mixed overall. Some neighborhoods have relatively high walkability and low pollution.
Recommendations for Comprehensive Evaluation

As this report discusses, conventional economic evaluation tends to consider a limited set of active transport benefits, and so tends to undervalue active transport improvements (Rajé and Saffrey 2016; Semler, et al. 2016). Most communities that invest significantly in active travel, such as Davis, California and Eugene, Oregon, do so without formal benefit/cost analysis; policy makers intuitively realized that active transport can provide much greater benefits than conventional planning indicates (Buehler and Handy 2008). Now that these networks are mature, residents of these cities enjoy substantial benefits, including consumer cost savings, parking cost savings, accident reductions, improved public health, reduced pollution, and stronger local economies. More comprehensive economic evaluation may help other communities recognize these benefits and therefore overcome the political and institutional barriers to improving active transport.

Below are guidelines for comprehensive active transport evaluation.

- Recognize the many roles that walking and cycling can play in an efficient transport system, including basic and affordable mobility, access to motorized travel, exercise, enjoyment and tourism.
- Use comprehensive travel surveys that count all active travel, including non-commute trips, automobile and transit access trips, and recreational walking and cycling activity.
- Consider total active travel demand, including factors expected to increase future demands such as aging population, rising fuel prices, increased urbanization, and rising health and environmental concerns. Also consider latent demand and therefore the increased walking and cycling activity that would result from improved walking and cycling conditions.
- Consider network and synergistic effects. Evaluate active mode improvements as an integrated program that includes facility improvements, traffic calming, encouragement programs and demand management strategies, rather than evaluating each project or program individually.
- Consider all categories of benefits from improved and increased active transport, including improved mobility for non-drivers, consumer savings, user enjoyment, health benefits, congestion reduction, road and parking cost savings, energy conservation, emission reductions, increased economic development, and support for efficient land use development. Do not limit analysis to just the benefits traditionally considered in motorized transport project evaluation.
- Use appropriate methods for measuring economic impacts, which measure overall net impacts on economic productivity and incomes. Do not simply treat consumer expenditures on walking and cycling equipment as economic benefits.
- Consider active transport’s leverage effects on automobile ownership and use; in appropriate conditions, each additional mile of walking and cycling can reduce 5-10 miles of automobile travel, particularly if pedestrian and cycling improvements reduce automobile ownership or help create more compact communities. This can significantly increase benefits.
- Consider all funding sources. Walking and cycling programs should receive substantial funding from both transportation and recreational funding sources because active transport provides both transport and recreational benefits.
Criticisms
The following criticisms are sometimes raised against claims of non-motorized benefit analysis.

Inferior Good – Declining Demand
People sometimes argue that active transportation is an inferior good, that is, as people become wealthier they shift from non-motorized to motorized transport, so investments in active mode facilities is wasteful and efforts to encourage active travel is either futile or harmful to consumers. Although it is true that as people shift from poverty to a mid-level income they tend to shift from non-motorized to motorized travel, further increases in wealth do not necessarily reduce walking and cycling. Many higher-income cities and countries have relatively high walking and cycling mode share. Activities such as bicycle commuting and neighborhood walking appear to be popular among higher-income people, provided that conditions are favorable (good cycling facilities, walkable neighborhoods, etc.). If this is true then active transport is not an inferior good in areas with good walking and cycling conditions, so improving such conditions is efficient and responsive to consumer demands.

Slow and Inefficient
Critics sometimes argue that, since active modes are slower, they are inefficient, as discussed in the Costs section of this report. While it is true that walking and cycling are often slower than automobile travel, they have an important role to play in an efficient transport system. Improving walking and cycling conditions can contribute to time and money savings that increase efficiency. Walking and cycling are the most efficient modes for shorter trips, which often support motorized travel; for example, by allowing motorists to walk from vehicles to destinations, or to walk rather than drive among various destinations located close together, such as various shops in a commercial center. Improvements, such as pedestrian shortcuts and better roadway crossings, improve active travel speeds. From some perspectives, such as when evaluated based on effective speed (total time spent in travel, including time devoted to working to pay for vehicles and fares) non-motorized travel is often more time-efficient than motorized travel overall. Improving active travel can save drivers’ time by reducing traffic congestion and the need to chauffeur non-drivers. The most efficient transport system is one in which travelers have viable options, including good walking and cycling conditions, so they can choose the most efficient mode for each trip, considering all benefits and costs.

Excessive Costs and Subsidies
Some pedestrian and cycling projects and programs may have relatively high subsidy costs per mile of travel, and so seem cost-inefficient. For example, a special pedestrian signal or pedestrian bridge may cost tens or hundreds of thousands of dollars, and depending on use and how costs are allocated, the costs may average many dollars per user, which seems high compared with roadway costs per automobile passenger. However, such analysis often underestimates true automobile travel costs and subsidies (ignoring, for example, parking subsidies and total accident costs). A pedestrian signal or bridge may allow walking or cycling to replace automobile trips that impose many dollars in total costs.

Unfair to Motorists
Motorist organizations sometimes argue that motor vehicle user revenue (fuel taxes and registration fees) expenditures on pedestrian and cycling facilities is an unfair diversion of money that should be dedicated to roadway facilities. This reflects a horizontal equity principle that consumers should generally “get what they pay for and pay for what they get.” However, such
arguments only reflect half of the equation ("get what they pay for") and ignore the other ("pay for what you get"), which would require that virtually all roadway costs be financed by user fees, which would require 50-100% increase in such fees. In addition, special walking and cycling facilities are largely needed because of the risk and pollution that motorized traffic imposes on pedestrians and cyclists, and to reduce conflicts so motorists can drive faster than would otherwise be required. To the degree that this is true, motorists have a responsibility to help finance active mode facilities.

**Inefficient and Wasteful**

There is sometimes criticism that demand for active travel is exaggerated by wishful thinking, and that a particular facility or program will fail to attract users and achieve benefits as claimed. This certainly could occur, but it may reflect other problems with program design rather than an overall lack of demand. For example, a sidewalk or crosswalk improvement may attract few users if it is located in an automobile-dependent location, and a walk-to-school encouragement program may fail if walking conditions are inferior. However, where an appropriate combination of physical improvements and support are implemented, impacts are often significant, and many non-motorized projects and programs have exceeded expectations.
Conclusions
Walking and cycling play unique and important roles in an efficient and equitable transport system. They provide basic mobility, affordable transport, access to motorized modes, physical fitness and enjoyment. Improving active transport conditions benefits users directly, and benefits society overall, including people who do not currently use walking and cycling facilities.

Conventional transport project evaluation methods tend to overlook and undervalue active transport. Conventional travel statistics imply that only a small portion of total travel is by active modes (typically about 5%), but this results, in part, from survey practices which overlook many short and non-motorized trips. NMT represents a relatively large portion of total trips and travel time (typically 10-20% in urban areas), and many of the trips it serves are high value, and would be costly to perform by motorized modes. More comprehensive evaluation considers additional active transport benefits, including indirect reductions in vehicle travel, and additional benefit categories.

Some benefits are relatively easy to measure. Transport economists have developed methods for monetizing (measuring in monetary units) traffic congestion, road and parking facility costs, vehicle expenses, crash risk, and pollution emissions. Some non-motorized benefits can be estimated by adapting these values; for example, by applying the same methods used to measure reductions in vehicle congestion delays to calculating the value of reduced barrier effect delay and pedestrian shortcuts. Values used to evaluate traffic deaths and injuries can be used to value the fitness and health benefits of active transport. Affordability can be quantified by indicating cost savings to lower income users. Other impacts may be more difficult to monetize but should at least be described. These include user enjoyment, option value, support for equity objectives, more compact and accessible land use development (smart growth), economic development, improved community livability, and additional environmental benefits such as habitat preservation.

There are many ways to improve and encourage active travel. Although most communities are implementing some of these strategies, few are implementing all that are justified. Most of these strategies only affect a portion of total travel, so their impacts appear modest, so they are seldom considered the most effective way of solving a particular problem. However, they provide multiple and synergistic benefits. When all impacts are considered, many communities can justify much more support for walking and cycling.
References and Information Resources


*Bicyclepedia* ([www.bicyclinginfo.org/bikecost](http://www.bicyclinginfo.org/bikecost)), a free bicycle facility benefit/cost analysis tool.

*BikeAble* ([www.railstotrails.org/our-work/research-and-information/bikeable](http://www.railstotrails.org/our-work/research-and-information/bikeable)), by the Rails to Trails Conservancy, is a customizable tool for evaluating community connectivity and bicycle network improvements.

*BikeScore* ([www.walkscore.com/bike-score-methodology.shtml](http://www.walkscore.com/bike-score-methodology.shtml)) evaluates local walking conditions on a scale from 0 - 100 based on four equally weighted components, bike lanes, hills, destinations and road connectivity and bike commuting mode share.


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