

1 **Forecasting Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Urban Regions:**
2 **Microsimulation of Land Use and Transport Patterns in Austin, Texas**

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21 **ABSTRACT**

22 Policymakers, planners, engineers, and others seek effective ways to anticipate and manage
23 greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions for a sustainable future. Here, a microsimulation model was
24 developed to forecast Austin’s demographic and firmographic attributes over time, using a
25 variety of national and local, aggregate and disaggregate data sets. Year 2030 household energy
26 demands and GHG emissions estimates are compared under five different land use and transport
27 policy scenarios. Application of an urban growth boundary provided the lowest increase in
28 overall vehicle miles travelled (VMT) and GHG emissions, while network additions resulted in
29 the highest rates of increase. Average energy consumption per household is estimated to fall over
30 time (by 11- 19%, depending on the scenario), but the region’s overall energy consumption is
31 estimated to increase dramatically -- by nearly 88% in terms of home energy consumption (in the
32 trend scenario) and 108% in the transport sector, relative to the 2005 base-year conditions. Such
33 increases are considerably higher than proposed GHG targets, presenting a serious energy and
34 emissions challenge for Austin as well as other U.S. regions.

35 **Keywords:** land use modeling, urban system forecasting, microsimulation, energy consumption,
36 greenhouse gas emissions, travel demand modeling

37 **BACKGROUND**

38 Climate change is an issue that has received much attention in the past few years. Energy
39 demands associated with travel, space conditioning and powering household devices are leading
40 contributors of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. There is a growing awareness that the way of
41 life practiced in the world's wealthier countries accompanied by increasing energy needs is
42 unsustainable (Salomon et al. 2002). Energy consumption within and across urban regions has
43 distinct spatial and urban dimension (Moeckel et al. 2002). Increasing income levels and
44 continuing low transport costs lead urban workers to choose housing locations in suburban
45 locations in order to enjoy lower land prices and larger homes. This results in higher urban and
46 rural demands for travel and energy.

47 The U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA 2005) estimates that the nation's
48 transportation and residential sectors contribute 28% and 17% of total U.S. emissions,
49 respectively. U.S. GHG emissions rose 13% between 1990 and 2003, while those from the
50 transportation sector rose 24% (Brown et al. 2005). To estimate future fuel demands (and their
51 associated GHG emissions), one must anticipate vehicle holdings and usage patterns.
52 In addition to transport, households use electricity, natural gas and other energy sources regularly
53 for space conditioning and powering household devices. Emissions from U.S. buildings continue
54 to grow at over 2% annually (EIA 2005). While U.S. energy demands per capita have fallen over
55 25% in the last 25 years, the nation's population increases have more than offset any potential
56 emissions savings. Accurate prediction of future travel demand and energy consumption patterns
57 is the first step in planning development and controlling future emissions. Understanding life-
58 cycle transitions in the demographic and firmographic profiles of households and firms and
59 changes in the trip-making process are critical for accurate forecasting. Technological advances
60 now provide the computational capacity to trace such regional actors individually and
61 microsimulation offers a convenient platform for anticipating these emissions at a disaggregate
62 level. Other researchers have sought to anticipate behavior, especially households and, to a lesser
63 extent, firms (see, e.g. Miller et al. 1998, Timmermans 2003, Waddell et al. 2003, Salvini et al.
64 2005, and Maoh et al. 2005). Hensher (2007) used an integrated transport-land use simulator to
65 anticipate GHG emissions from the transport sector in Sydney, Australia. Tirumalachetty et al.
66 (2009) developed a framework to anticipate location choices and energy consumption of
67 households and firms over time in Austin, Texas. This paper is an extension of that work, where
68 GHG emissions are compared under a variety of scenarios.

69 **MODEL DEVELOPMENT**

70 Microsimulation models seek to replicate the evolution of individual agents like households and
71 firms and thus are generally data intensive. In the absence of panel data for Austin households
72 and firms, this study develops a microsimulation model to forecast demographic and
73 firmographic characteristics, using various national and local, aggregate and disaggregate data
74 sets, under various assumptions regarding life-cycle events. The sub-models include models of
75 demographic development, household formation, firm lifecycles, housing and vehicle choices.
76 One key advantage of microsimulation lies in its detailed outputs, which can be manipulated
77 (and aggregated) in a number of ways. This section outlines the different processes modeled in
78 the system; more details on these processes and their accompanying data sources can be found in
79 Kumar (2007) and Tirumalachetty (2009).

80 **The Region**

81 The Austin metropolitan region consists of 1,074 traffic analysis zones (TAZs) spread over three
82 counties: Travis, Williamson and Hays. The region is shown in Figure 1. For the 2005 base year
83 of 2005, there are approximately 450,000 households in the region and over one million people.
84 In model application, households and firms evolve by application of the sub-models described
85 below.

86 **Overview of Modeling Framework**

87 The systems household evolution relies on models for births, deaths, marriages, divorces, in and
88 out migration, all modeled as logit transitions (Tirumalachetty et al. 2009). Markov transition
89 matrices are used to model firm size transitions. Vehicle acquisition and use models capture
90 holdings in a dynamic context, along with household level changes. The travel demand model
91 uses standard approaches: least square regression models for trip generation by households; joint
92 multinomial logit models for destination, mode, and time-of-day (TOD) choice; constant vehicle-
93 occupancy assumptions; and static deterministic user equilibrium traffic assignment routines.
94 Lemp (2007) provides more details on the travel demand model. In order to appreciate travel cost
95 changes (per mile) the changes in emissions due to changing vehicle ownership patterns, traffic
96 assignment was done using a multi-class assignment in TransCAD (Caliper Corporation, 2002).

97
98 Household vehicle fleets were classified into five average fuel economy categories (less than 20
99 mpg, 20 to 22 mpg, 22 to 24 mpg, 24 to 26 mpg, and over 26 mpg), based on the average of
100 vehicles held by each synthetic household. Trips generated in each zone were distributed among
101 the five categories, as per local household fuel-economy shares. Commercial and external trips
102 were loaded as separate classes, for a total of seven assigned classes. For GHG emissions
103 estimation, fleet-wide average fuel economy (20 mpg) was assumed for external trips and 8 mpg
104 is used for commercial trips.

105
106 Figure 2 shows the overall simulation framework. Households and firms are added and removed
107 at one-year intervals. Firm and household populations are assumed to evolve independently (but
108 growth rates are pre-specified, thus ensuring regional balance), and the commercial and
109 household trips are combined and loaded onto the transportation network. Travel demand
110 modeling was performed every 5 years, so travel times and accessibility measures could be
111 updated for the household and firm location modules.

112 113 **Policy Scenarios**

114 Five scenarios were used to forecast changes in land use patterns and household and firm energy
115 demands: (a) Business as usual (BAU), (b) Imposition of an urban growth boundary (UGB), (c)
116 Gas tax and road tolls (PRICING), (d) Expanded (doubled) capacity of Austin's primary
117 freeway (EXPCAP) and (e) Introduction of a new highway bypass (SH130). In the BAU, no
118 changes are made to the transportation network. This scenario serves as a basis for comparing
119 results across all other scenarios. In the UGB scenario, the location alternatives of all new
120 households and firms are restricted to the 617 (out of 1,074) TAZs that enjoyed at least two job
121 equivalents per acre in 2005 or were contiguous with such zones (Figure 3). In the third scenario
122 (PRICING), gas prices are set to \$6 per gallon (rather than the base level of \$3/gallon) and a

123 fixed toll of 10 cents per mile is imposed on all roads¹. The last two scenarios investigate
124 changes in the location patterns and energy demands due to expansion of Austin’s freeway
125 system. In the expanded capacity scenario (EXPCAP), capacity along the regions’ most
126 congested transportation corridor – I-35(nearly 80 center-line miles in length) is doubled. In the
127 last scenario, a new highway, SH 130, is introduced into the network and its effect is studied.
128 SH-130 is a 4-lane, 49-mile highway, extending from Interstate 35 (I-35) north of Georgetown
129 southward to U.S. 183, southeast of Austin (www.sh130.com). It passes through Williamson and
130 Travis counties and bypasses Austin’s congested core, along with famously congested sections
131 of I-35. Figure 3 highlights the I-35 and SH 130 corridors.

132

133 **RESULTS**

134 Microevolution of all Austin firms and 10 percent of the region’s households was carried out
135 using yearly transitions while travel demand modeling was performed externally once every five
136 years, as in any other region level microsimulation. The model’s computational demands present
137 a major challenge. Tracking 45,180 households (a 10-percent sample) and more than 100,000
138 individuals over a span of 25 years, with time-of-day and mode choice models, is tedious, taking
139 more than 3 days to run on a standard desktop machine (2GB RAM and 2.66GHz).Over the 25-
140 year period, the number of households and persons are simulated to grow by 109% and 70%,
141 respectively. Average household size is expected to fall by 7% by 2030, while real income per
142 household is expected to remain largely unchanged and average vehicle ownership (per
143 household) increases by just 10%. During the simulation period, the number of firms is expected
144 to grow at 32% with a steady increase in all sectors. With respect to household locations and
145 GHG emissions, simulations suggest interesting differences across scenarios. These are
146 explained in detail below.

147 **Location Choices**

148 Households exhibit strikingly different location patterns under the five scenarios. As expected,
149 the models predict much greater household density in centrally located zones when a growth
150 boundary policy is implemented (UGB) as compared to the BAU case. In the expanded capacity
151 scenario (EXPCAP), households clearly shift towards zones alongside I-35. Housing types relate
152 closely to location choices. In the UGB scenario, the shift to multi-family housing units is greater
153 (60% by 2030) because of relatively scarce land in development permitted zones. A similar
154 increase in multi-family units is seen in the last two scenarios, as policies network expansion
155 raise central area accessibility values, attracting households back to Austin’s center, while
156 densifying development alongside its major highway corridors. In general, firms tend to locate in
157 central zones, with no evidence of significant location-pattern differences across scenarios.

158 **Vehicle Choices**

159 Table 1 list vehicle counts by type in year 2030. Average vehicle ownership is highest in the
160 BAU scenario, and lowest in the pricing scenario, as expected. Under BAU more households are
161 located in rural zones which are associated with higher vehicle ownership. The effect of a gas tax
162 (in the pricing scenario) is somewhat apparent in the number and composition of year 2030
163 vehicles, as the model predicts slight reductions in the shares of large cars and pickups, thus

¹ Austin’s network consists of 10,594 links in the base year.

164 allowing for a higher percentage of compact and subcompact cars (due to higher fuel efficiency
165 than large cars) as well as SUVs. SUVs are more fuel efficient than their closest substitute
166 pickups and vans. Personal vehicle fleet composition is nearly identical in the EXPCAP and
167 SH130 scenarios, with a reduction in the share of pickups and an increase passenger car shares,
168 relative to the BAU scenario.

169 **Vehicle Miles Travelled and GHG Emissions**

170 Figure 4 shows VMT for each of the seven personal-vehicle classes across the five scenarios.
171 Consistent with vehicle ownership shares, the BAU scenario has the largest fraction of VMT in
172 the lowest fuel economy class (thanks to its relatively high pickup-truck share). The base year
173 (2005) had 4 million weekday trips generating over 40 million VMT. VMTs generated under the
174 scenarios are reported in Table 2 along with average VMT-weighted volume-to-capacity (v/c)
175 ratios and speeds. In the BAU case, VMT is forecasted to increase 130% by 2030.
176 Implementation of an UGB restricts the predicted rise to 98 percent, whereas the pricing scenario
177 restricts VMT growth to 120%. The highest increase is evident SH130 scenario (150 %), nearly
178 10% higher VMT than BAU. Expansion of I-35 also increases regional VMT by 6% as
179 compared to the base case in 2030. The split of VMT among the different times of day is fairly
180 constant across scenarios except in the pricing scenario, where more trips are observed in the off-
181 peak time period. V/C ratios and average speeds are higher in the UGB scenario as compared to
182 the BAU scenario, which is expected, due to densification of central zones, In contrast V/C ratios
183 drop and average speeds increase in EXPCAP and SH130 scenarios.

184
185 To translate VMT changes into GHG emissions, EPA (2006) conversions are used. A gallon of
186 gasoline is assumed to produce 8.8 kilograms (or 19.4 pounds) of CO₂. EPA's computer model
187 for estimating highway vehicles emission, MOBILE 6, estimates fleetwide fuel economy as 20.3
188 mpg, which is used for external trips. Multi-class assignment of trips based household level fuel
189 economies of vehicles were used for internal trip making by households. The estimates provided
190 here are for vehicle emissions only, and do not include lifecycle emissions, associated with the
191 production of vehicles and their maintenance and disposal. Table 3 provides these results. Laws
192 passed recently require the nation's fleet of new light-duty vehicles to average 35 miles per
193 gallon by the year 2016. Plug-in hybrid electric vehicles will be selling soon and are expected to
194 save owners 50% or more in fuel costs. Such policies and technologies are essential to
195 significantly reduce carbon emissions from the transport sector.

196 **Household Energy Demand**

197
198 Household energy demand was estimated by applying the regression model results from
199 Residential Energy Consumption Survey (RECS) data (Tirumalachetty et. al 2009) for each
200 household. Based on National Center for Climatic Data (NCDC 2006) estimates, the number of
201 Heating Degree Days (HDD) and Cooling Degree Days (CDD) for the Austin region (relative to
202 a base temperature of 65 degrees Fahrenheit) are 1674 and 2974. These values are assumed
203 constant throughout the simulation period (though climate changes could increase both values,
204 by making weather patterns more extreme. CO₂ equivalents for these forms of energy in Texas
205 are 1.46 lbs CO₂ per kWh (EIA 2005) and 117.8 lbs CO₂ per Btu for natural gas (EIA 2005).
206 Thanks to shift toward multi-family housing units, energy consumption is forecasted to increase
207 at a much lower rate than VMT, as seen in Table 3. Nevertheless, total energy demand and,

208 presumably, associated GHG emissions are estimated to rise at alarming rates. Given that world
209 leaders and climate-aware experts seek steep GHG cuts in developed countries like the U.S.
210 (e.g., hitting 1990 levels by 2020 and an 80% reduction by 2050 [IPCC 2007]), a shift to
211 renewable feedstocks (like wind, cellulosic fuels, and solar power), application of emerging coal
212 technologies, and improvements in power generation and transmission practices may help offset
213 many (if not most) of these potential emissions increases. Anticipating such technology shifts is
214 beyond the scope of this paper. Nevertheless, such shifts seem clearly needed, to come anywhere
215 close to hitting targets.

216

217 **Per Capita Emissions**

218 Emissions from residential and transportation sectors sum to 9.68 tons per Austinite per year in
219 the BAU scenario (Table 4). This is 58% lower than the nation-wide average value of 23.4 tons
220 per capita in 2005 (WRI 2009), mainly because industrial and commercial energy contributions
221 and other forms of transportation (e.g., air travel) are not included here.

222

223 In the UGB scenario, as mentioned earlier, development is constrained to zones with two or
224 fewer job equivalents per acre. This resulted in higher central zone densities along with a shift to
225 multifamily housing units (60% of households by 2030, versus 55% in the BAU scenario, and
226 63% in year 2005). This also resulted in a slightly higher share of subcompact and compact cars,
227 and thus a lower rate of related energy demands and GHG emissions. Overall, this scenario's per
228 capita emissions stand at 8.65 tons per year in 2020, which is 11% lower than the BAU
229 scenario's level. In the PRICING scenario, the shares of compact and subcompact cars are also
230 higher resulting in 4% lower per capita GHG emissions from the transportation sector. In the last
231 two scenarios, the per capita GHG emissions are higher (by 3.5 and 2.3%, respectively, in
232 EXCAP and SH130 scenarios), which is mainly due to higher emissions from transport fuel
233 consumption, due to longer travel distances. Thus UGB policy appears most effective in curbing
234 emissions from both transportation and household energy consumption.

235

236 Across the scenarios, the total number of households and firms vary by less than 3% (for
237 households) and 6% (for firms). Greater variation is seen in the case of firm counts due to their
238 smaller overall values and the discrete nature of firm existence and location choice. Firms have a
239 somewhat unbelievably high preference for central zones when selecting new locations in all the
240 scenarios, mainly due to the use of cross-sectional data sets for location choices.

241

242 **SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS**

243

244 This paper describes the microsimulation of household and firm evolution, vehicle ownership,
245 land use patterns, and related greenhouse gas emissions by 2030 under five distinctive scenarios.
246 Households and firms are key agents of urban growth, and systems-based modeling techniques
247 help anticipate their long-term location and home-type choices, vehicle purchase decisions, and
248 travel patterns, thereby facilitating analysis of carbon emissions under a range of meaningful
249 policies. Travel demand model results suggest an increase in regional VMT when network
250 capacity is increased, which is no surprise. The UGB scenario provided the lowest increase in
251 overall VMT and modeled GHG emissions.

252

253 Annual per capita emissions in Austin’s 2030 UGB scenario are estimated to be 8.65 tons, which
254 is 11% lower than the BAU scenario’s level. The number of (personal) vehicles is estimated to
255 jump 143 percent over the 25-year forecast period, while average vehicle ownership (per
256 household) is simulated to increase just 19 percent in the BAU scenario. Even though average
257 GHG emissions per household are estimated to fall, the region’s overall energy consumption
258 estimates rise (by nearly 88% for home energy and 108% for transport-related energy, under the
259 BAU scenario). Such forecasts present a tremendous energy-security and climate challenge.
260 These levels are considerably higher than proposed emissions targets, which seek a 17 percent
261 cut by 2020 and more than 80 percent cut by 2050.

262
263 While important challenges in this work involve lack of quality data sets and high run times, the
264 microsimulation approach was found feasible, even for a region as complex as Austin. A wide
265 variety of data sets and behavioral models were used to estimate future GHG emissions based on
266 household and firm demographics, vehicle ownership and use decisions, and building choices.
267 And the calibrated behaviors and system simulation provide useful insights into future energy
268 demands. Such insights may prove priceless for the challenging investment and policy decisions
269 that confront our communities, at the local, regional and planetary levels.

270

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272

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276

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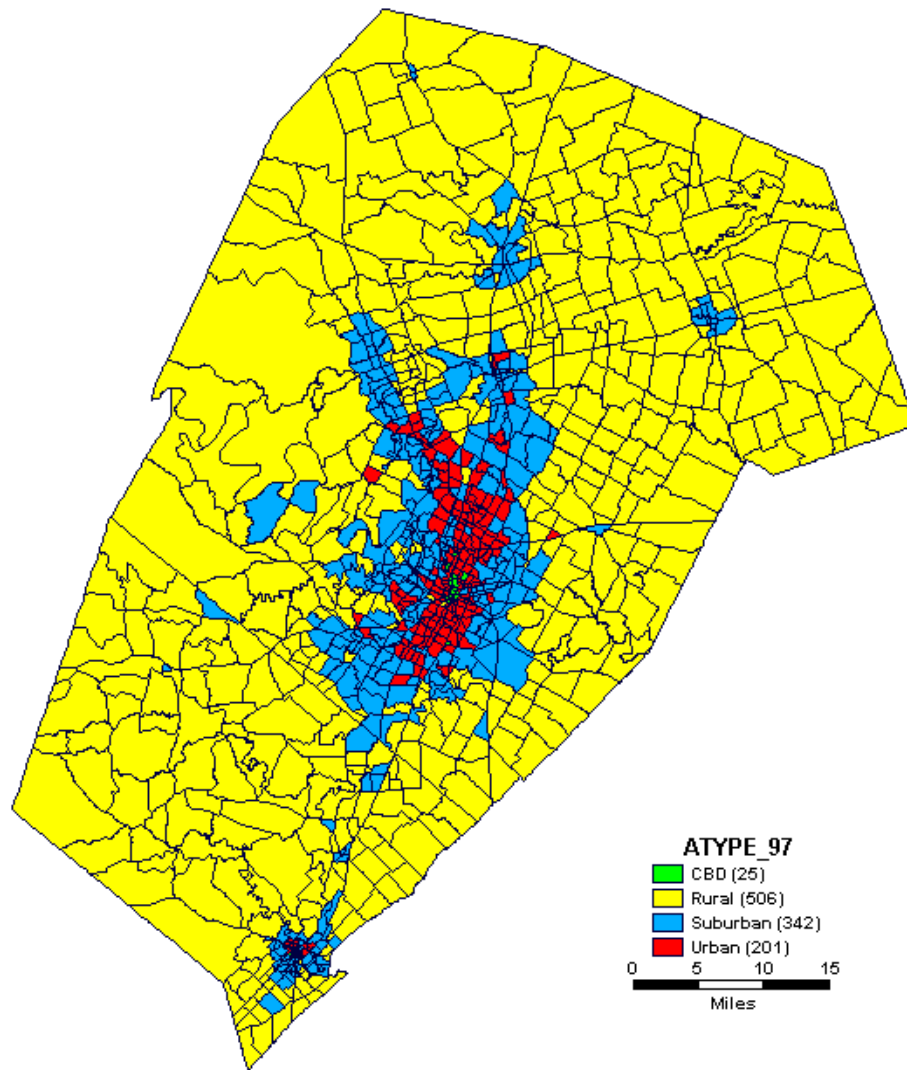
368 Table 4: Year 2030 Per Capita Carbon Emissions

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Figure 1: The Austin Region (Travis, Williamson and Hays Counties)

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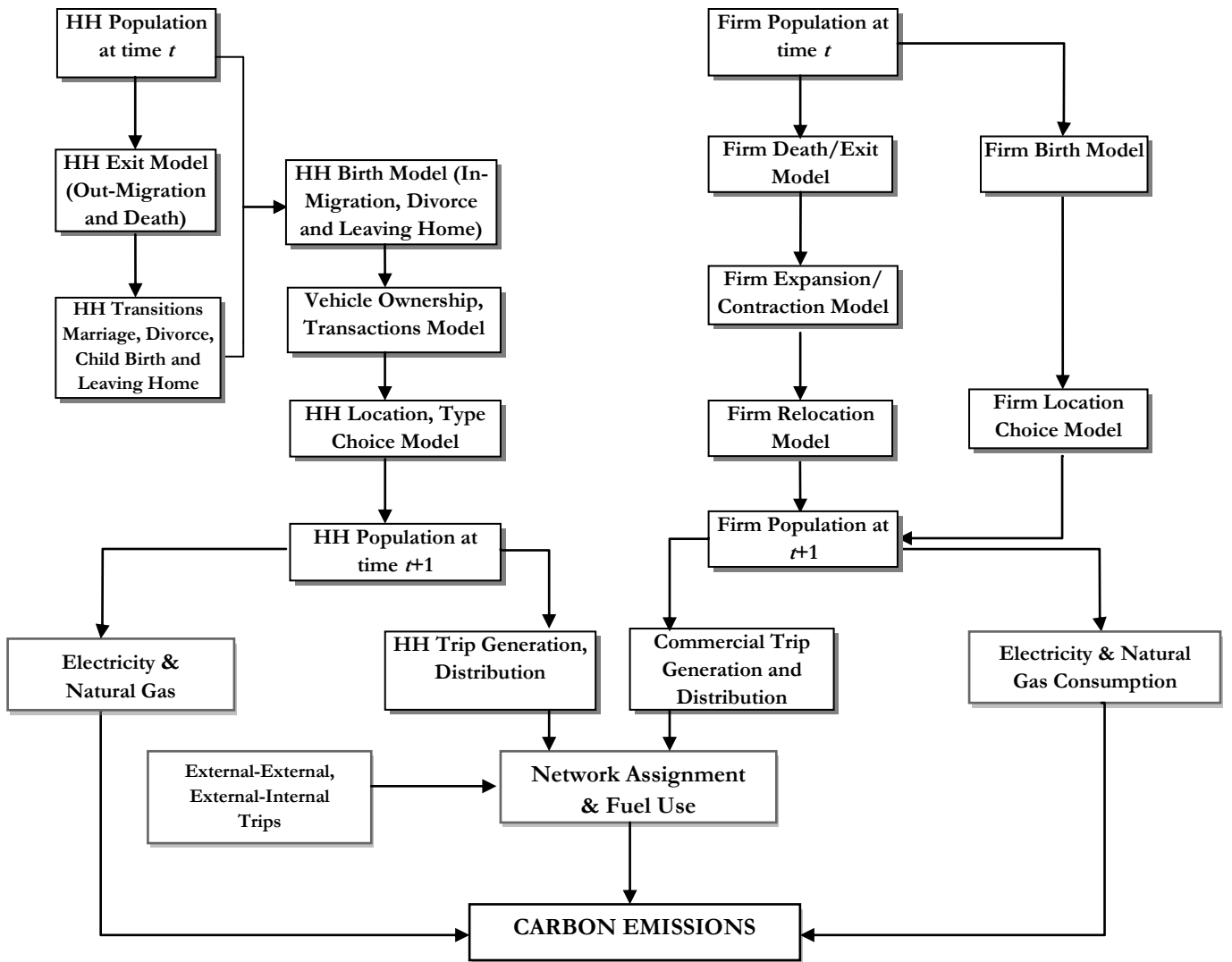
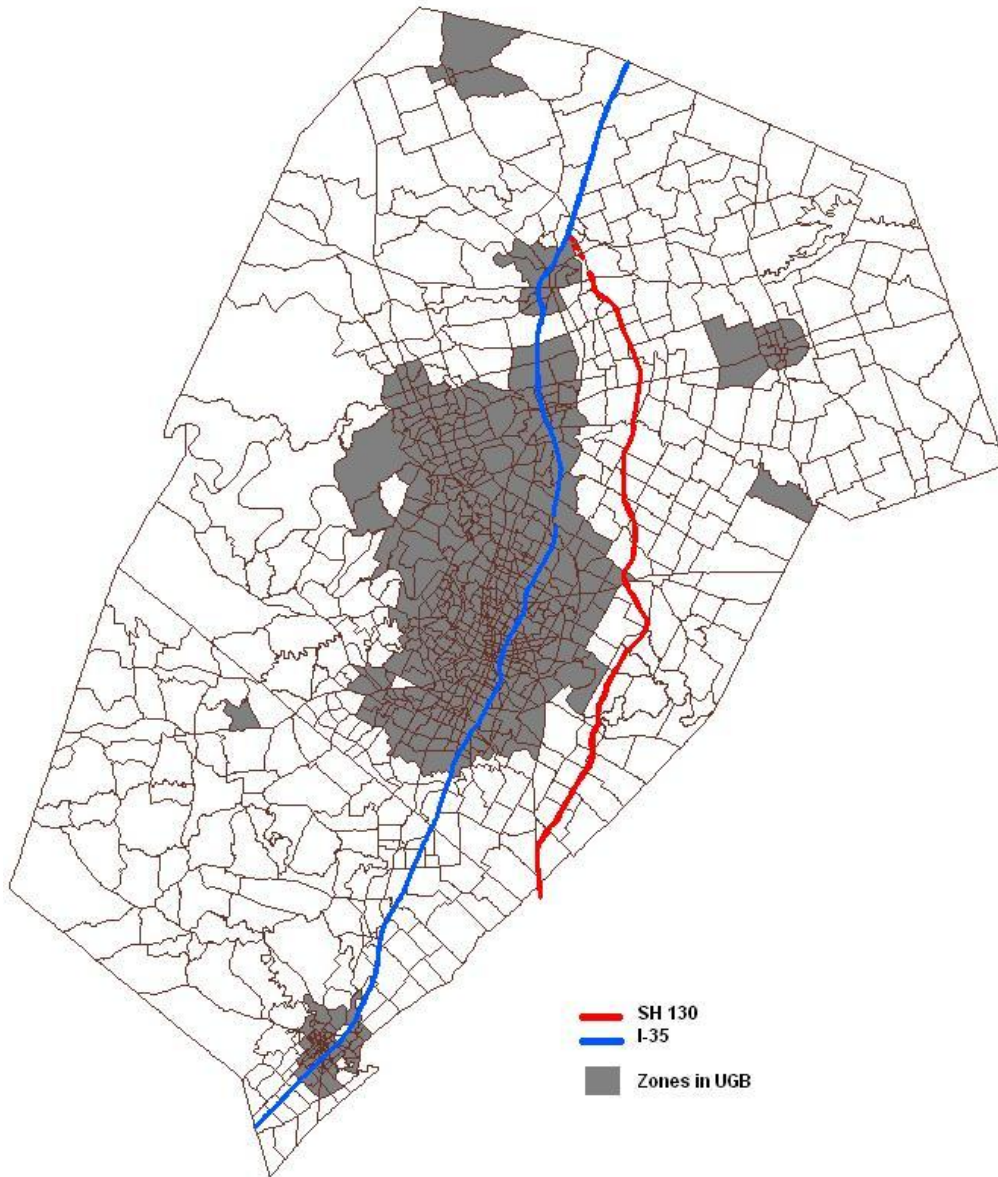


Figure 2: Overall Simulation Framework

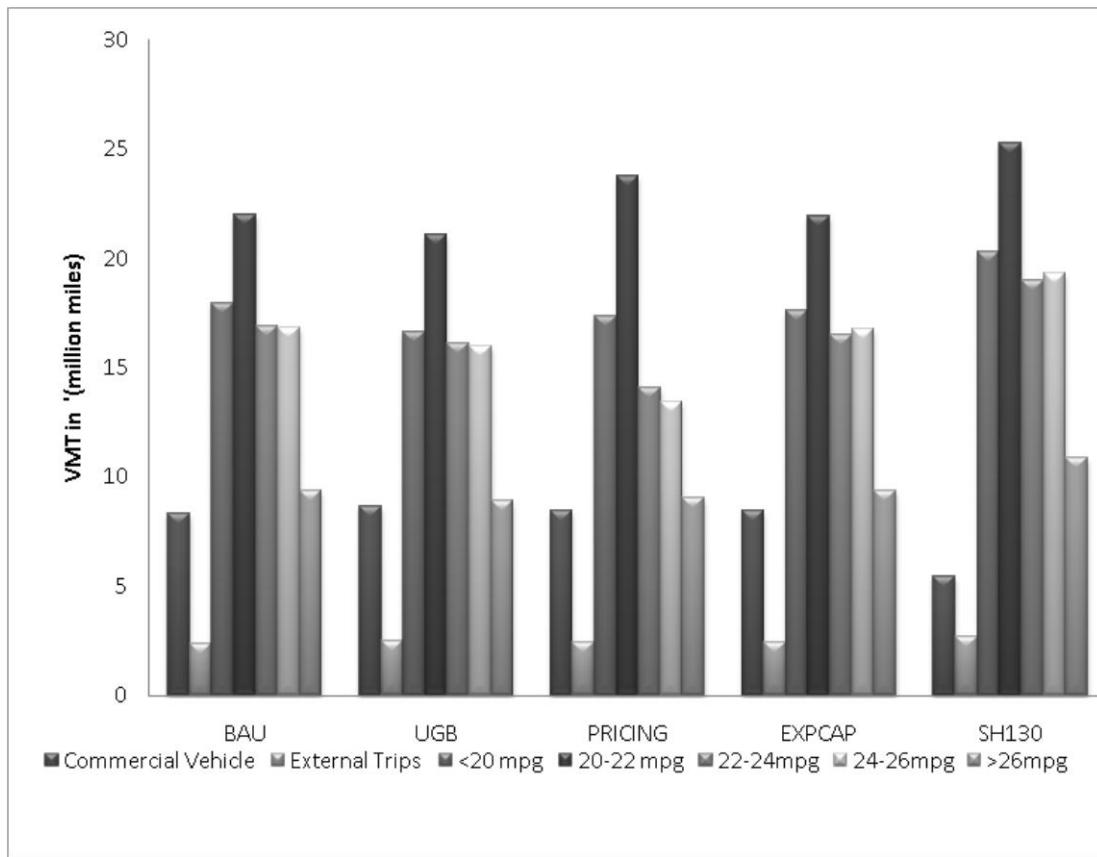


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398 **Figure 3: Illustration of Austin’s Example Urban Growth Boundary, I-35 Corridor and SH**
399 **130 Corridor**

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Figure 4: Vehicle Miles Traveled by Roadway Class in 2030 across Scenarios

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Table 1: Vehicle Fleet Composition Estimates in 2030 by Scenario

Variable	BAU		UGB		PRICING		EXPCAP		SH130	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Avg. # vehs. per household	2.26		2.08		1.95		2.05		2.02	
CUVs	43,634	2.05	45,839	2.34	42,423	2.31	37,069	1.92	38,576	1.91
Large cars	148,141	6.96	137,518	7.02	129,841	7.07	135,148	7.05	136,334	6.75
Luxury cars	278,191	13.07	252,900	12.91	236,910	12.90	249,252	12.91	249,768	12.37
Midsize cars	363,968	17.10	345,950	17.66	319,185	17.38	336,326	17.42	339,573	16.82
Pickups	406,963	19.12	345,166	17.62	309,636	16.86	358,529	18.57	356,295	17.65
Subcompact cars	73,858	3.47	74,244	3.79	68,135	3.71	69,698	3.61	66,662	3.30
Compact cars	102,379	4.81	101,082	5.16	93,846	5.11	94,797	4.91	95,936	4.75
SUVs	365,458	17.17	349,867	17.86	322,491	17.56	341,153	17.67	337,139	16.70
Vans	343,960	16.16	306,575	15.65	292,005	15.90	308,717	15.99	398,444	19.74

Table 2: Network VMT, Greenhouse Gas Emissions, V/C Ratios and Speeds in 2030

		BAU	UGB	PRICING	EXPCAP	SH130
VMT (million per weekday)		94	81	90	100	103
% change as compared to BAU			-13.83	-4.56	6.14	9.63
GHG emissions ('000 metric tons of CO2 per year*)		42	37	41	45	44
% change as compared to BAU			-13.07	-4.51	6.30	3.48
Daily		0.62	0.66	0.63	0.60	0.60
Flow-Weighted Average V/C Ratios	AM	0.66	0.70	0.69	0.62	0.62
	MID	0.58	0.63	0.59	0.58	0.58
	PM	0.65	0.68	0.63	0.64	0.64
	OP	0.58	0.65	0.62	0.56	0.56
Daily		45.20	43.52	44.59	46.93	47.70
Flow-Weighted Average Speeds	AM	34.6	32.88	36.4	35.52	35.51
	MID	47.27	42.74	46.17	47.51	48.98
	PM	42.27	39.74	43.17	44.51	45.98
	OP	56.64	58.72	52.63	60.18	60.33

*Annual emissions were estimated assuming 300 work-day equivalents per year.

Table 3: Household Energy Demand and GHG Emissions over Time, by Scenario

		Electricity demand (MWh /year)	Electricity demand per household (kWh/year)	Annual CO2e emissions from electricity	Natural gas ('000 ccf/year)	Natural gas per household (ccf/year)	Annual CO2e from natural gas	Total annual CO2e emissions
2005		6,866,971	15,226	10,025	115,403	256	1,384	11,410
2030	BAU	12,772,262	13,521	18,648	238,984	253	2,868	21,515
% change		86.12	-11.2	86.12	107.09	-1.09	107.09	88.56
2030	UGB	11,656,095	12,340	17,018	231,455	245	2,777	19,795
% change		69.74	-18.96	69.74	100.56	-4.20	75.9	73.43
2030	Pricing	12,718,493	13,464	18,569	236,651	251	2,840	21,409
% change		85.21	-11.58	85.23	105.06	-2.14	105.20	87.63
2030	EXPCAP	12,724,657	13,470	18,578	238,067	250	2,857	21,435
% change		85.30	-11.53	85.32	106.29	-1.56	106.43	87.86
2030	SH 130	12,99,5890	13,757	18,974	236,067	249	2,833	21,807
% change		89.25	-9.65	89.27	104.56	-2.38	104.70	91.12

Table 4: Year 2030 per Capita Carbon Emissions Forecasts

	BAU	UGB	PRICING	EXPCAP	SH130
Transportation energy demand					
Daily VMT (million)	94	81	90	100	103
Daily carbon emissions ('000 metric tons of CO2)	42	37	41	45	44
Annual carbon emissions per capita (metric tons)	5.51	4.82	5.28	5.86	5.69
Annual average VMT per capita	10,293	8,993	9,859	10,943	10,618
Residential energy demand					
Electricity emissions ('000 metric tons of CO2)	8325	7597	8290	8294	8471
Natural gas emissions ('000 metric tons of CO2)	1280	1240	1268	1275	1265
Annual carbon emissions per capita (metric tons)	4.16	3.83	4.14	4.15	4.22
Total annual carbon emissions per capita (metric tons)	9.68	8.65	9.42	10.01	9.91