

1                   **Forecasting Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Urban Regions:**  
2                   **Microsimulation of Land Use and Transport Patterns in Austin,**  
3                   **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 roads<sup>1</sup>. 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](http://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

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<sup>1</sup> 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 CO<sub>2</sub>. 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. CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents for these forms of energy in Texas  
205 are 1.46 lbs CO<sub>2</sub> per kWh (EIA 2005) and 117.8 lbs CO<sub>2</sub> 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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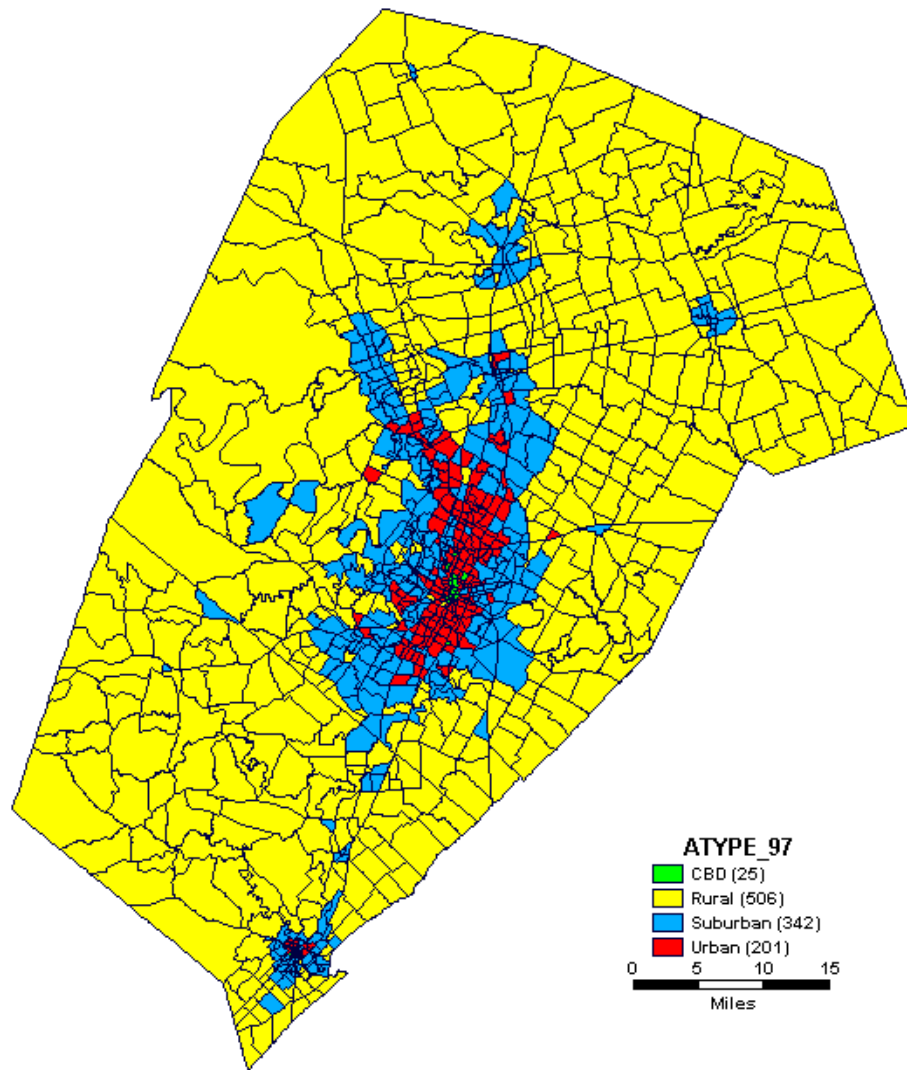
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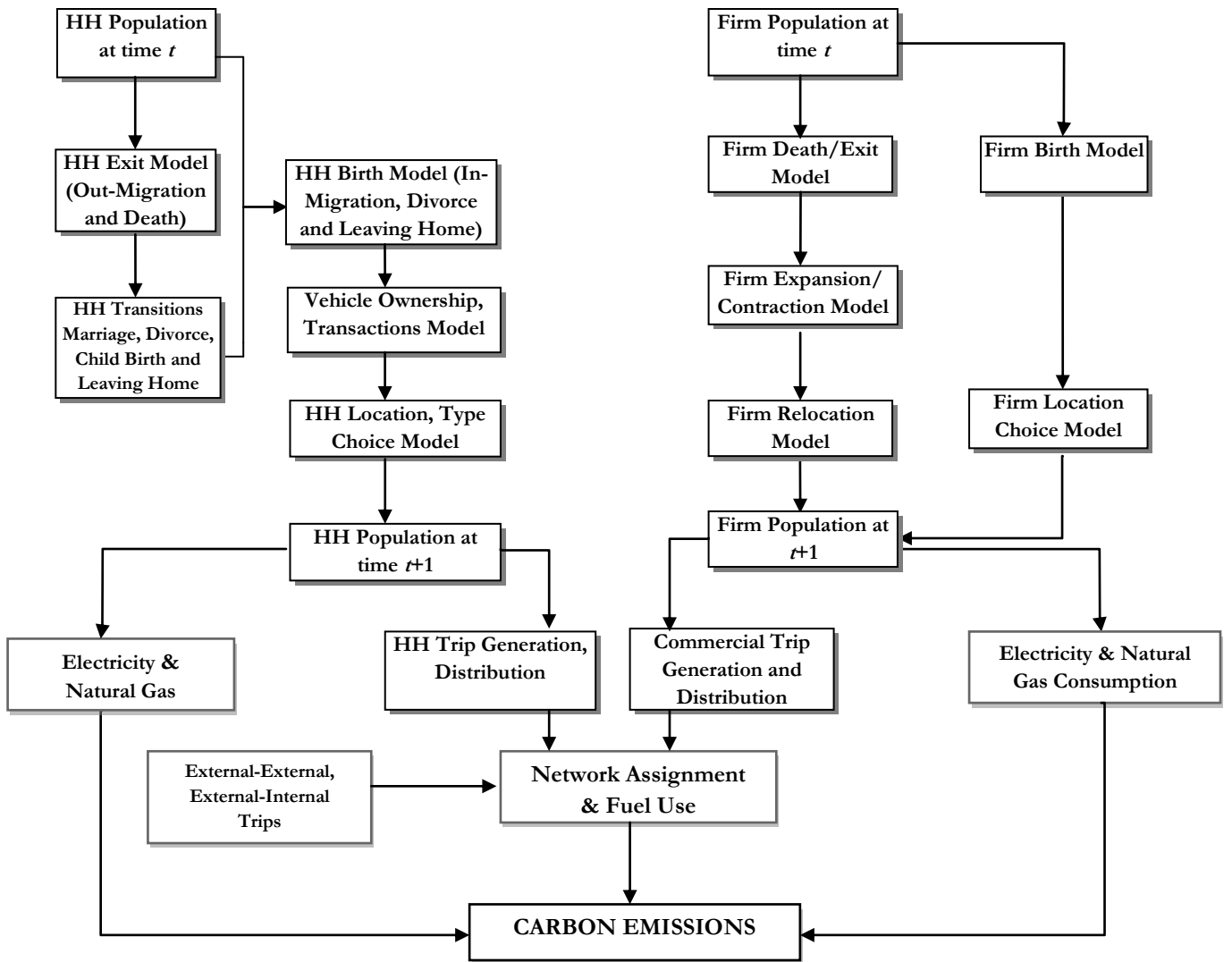


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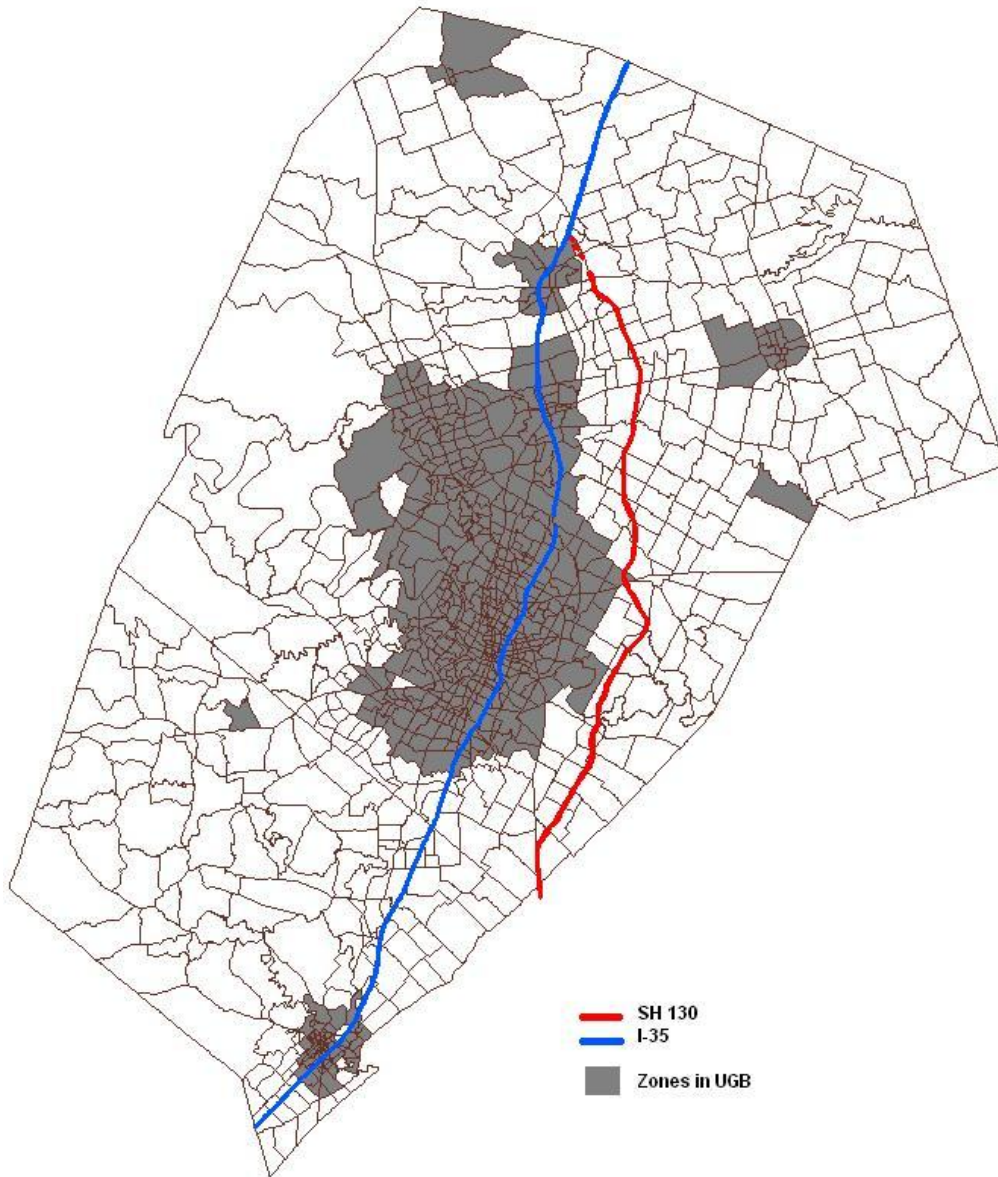
**Figure 1: The Austin Region (Travis, Williamson and Hays Counties)**

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**Figure 2: Overall Simulation Framework**

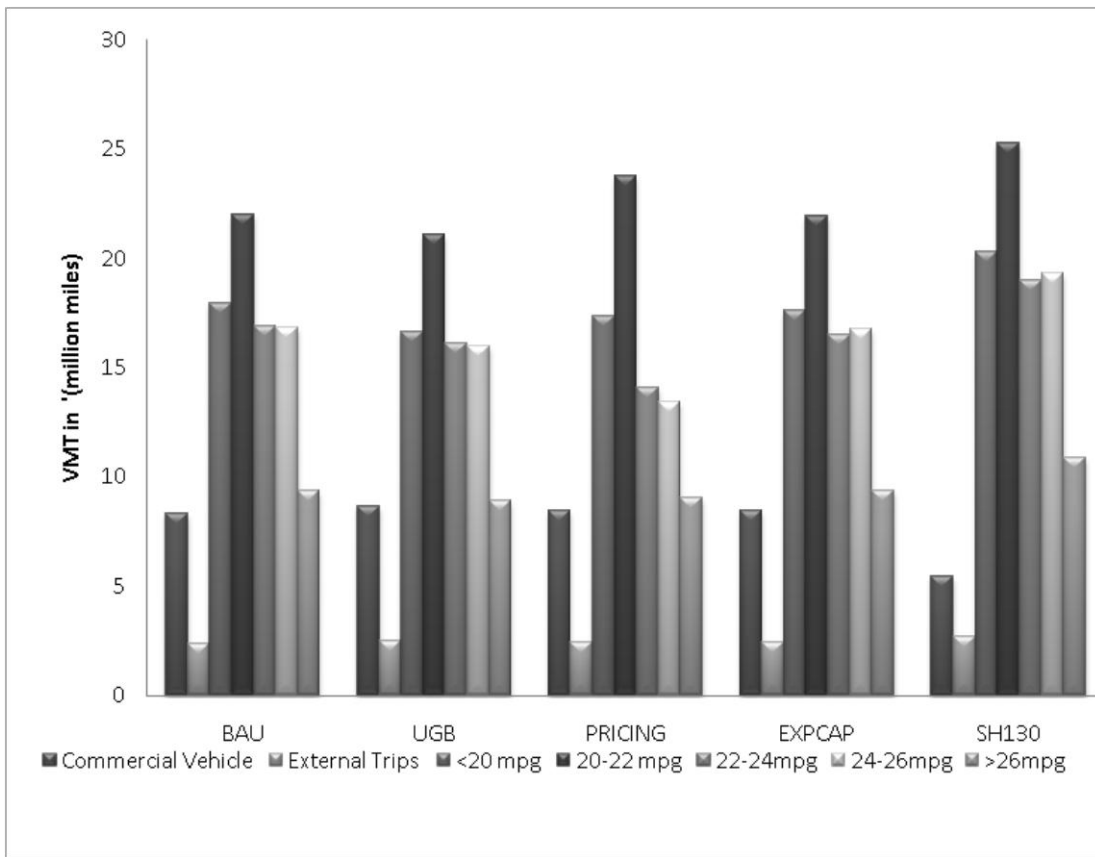


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398 **Figure 3: Illustration of Austin’s Example Urban Growth Boundary, I-35 Corridor and SH**  
399 **130 Corridor**

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

404

**Table 1: Vehicle Fleet Composition Estimates in 2030 by Scenario**

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

		<b>BAU</b>	<b>UGB</b>	<b>PRICING</b>	<b>EXPCAP</b>	<b>SH130</b>
<b>VMT (million per weekday)</b>		94	81	90	100	103
<b>% change as compared to BAU</b>			-13.83	-4.56	6.14	9.63
<b>GHG emissions ('000 metric tons of CO2 per year*)</b>		42	37	41	45	44
<b>% change as compared to BAU</b>			-13.07	-4.51	6.30	3.48
<b>Daily</b>		<b>0.62</b>	<b>0.66</b>	<b>0.63</b>	<b>0.60</b>	<b>0.60</b>
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
<b>Daily</b>		<b>45.20</b>	<b>43.52</b>	<b>44.59</b>	<b>46.93</b>	<b>47.70</b>
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
<b>2005</b>		6,866,971	15,226	10,025	115,403	256	1,384	11,410
<b>2030</b>	<b>BAU</b>	12,772,262	13,521	18,648	238,984	253	2,868	21,515
<b>% change</b>		86.12	-11.2	86.12	107.09	-1.09	107.09	88.56
<b>2030</b>	<b>UGB</b>	11,656,095	12,340	17,018	231,455	245	2,777	19,795
<b>% change</b>		69.74	-18.96	69.74	100.56	-4.20	75.9	73.43
<b>2030</b>	<b>Pricing</b>	12,718,493	13,464	18,569	236,651	251	2,840	21,409
<b>% change</b>		85.21	-11.58	85.23	105.06	-2.14	105.20	87.63
<b>2030</b>	<b>EXPCAP</b>	12,724,657	13,470	18,578	238,067	250	2,857	21,435
<b>% change</b>		85.30	-11.53	85.32	106.29	-1.56	106.43	87.86
<b>2030</b>	<b>SH 130</b>	12,99,5890	13,757	18,974	236,067	249	2,833	21,807
<b>% change</b>		89.25	-9.65	89.27	104.56	-2.38	104.70	91.12



**Table 4: Year 2030 per Capita Carbon Emissions Forecasts**

	<b>BAU</b>	<b>UGB</b>	<b>PRICING</b>	<b>EXPCAP</b>	<b>SH130</b>
<b>Transportation energy demand</b>					
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
<b>Residential energy demand</b>					
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