


TMD evaluation with stated-preference-methods

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TDM Evaluation with *Stated-Preference-Methods*

Contribution to WP2 of the TASTe-Project

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Deliverable

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ABSTRACT

This paper outlines the *stated-preference* (SP) methodology and its cousin *conjoint analysis* (CA) as a possible tool for the a-priori evaluation of the TDM measures and for the development of choice models appropriate for the evaluation of the TDM measures.

The model of travel behaviour suggested highlights the nature of SP as an approach, which trades off simplification of the behavioral model against tractability and the ability to develop practical forecasting models. The review of the development of the SP and CA methodologies outlines their similarities, but also their differences, which are mostly due to their application environments and their respective professional traditions.

The main sections of the paper describe the various elements of the approach and how it can be implemented in practice. The paper stresses three areas in particular:

- a SP study is based on an a-priori behavioral hypothesis which is tested for a-priori specified market segments and behavioral frames of reference
- a SP study is a normal survey study; everything which applies to surveys applies to SP's in terms of methodology and required care
- the results of a SP study are sensitive to its timing. It has to be undertaken at a point in time, when the respondents have an incentive to reveal their true preferences, i.e. when neither the provision nor the price of the good/service have been decided upon.

When these points are accepted and implemented in the SP work, SP studies can make an important contribution to TDM implementation, as they help to identify early, if the measures can achieve their stated goals or only marginal changes to the transport system. SP studies allow the public to participate in the planning process in their role as customers of the transport system. This does not replace their contributions as citizens through the ballot box or the public participation process, but it helps the planner to reflect on any differences between their political willingness to initiate change and their private willingness to act on that change.

KEYWORDS

TASTe - 4th Framework Programme - TDM - Evaluation - Stated Preferences - Conjoint Analysis - Review

1 INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT

Travel Demand Management (TDM) measures try to influence one or more of the dimensions of travel behaviour to achieve the goals of the municipality or the city concerned. The most frequently cited dimensions are respectively:

<i>Dimensions of change</i>	<i>Dimensions of concern</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Departure time• Route• Mode• Destination	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Congestion• Traffic volumes• Safety• Noise and emissions

While the provision of new facilities or the increases/decreases in the capacity of existing facilities could be a TDM measure, the term is most frequently associated with so called *soft* measures, such as the provision of information, public awareness campaigns, changes in opening or working hours, car pooling initiatives etc. and with *changes in pricing* of public transport, parking, bridges, motorways or other roads. For a discussion of detailed measures see the earlier deliverables of the project.

The evaluation of such measures, which are in general outside the current scope of transport policy or transport practise is a challenge for the generally applied transport planning methodology. This methodology has been developed in the main to describe the effects of changes in network capacities on travel behaviour (Schnabel and Lohse, 1997; Ortuzar and Willumsen, 1994; ITE, 1994, Papacostas and Prevedouros, 1993; Hutchinson, 1974 or Chicago Area Transportation Study, 1960), but travel behaviour only conceived in terms of route, mode and destination choices. The methodology is based on models derived from the current situation in the study area and these models depend in their quality on the behavioural, network and situational variability of the study area. The supply situation is captured through inventories of the networks and services available and the demand situation is observed through surveys of the *revealed preferences* of the population, i.e. its actual travel behaviour. Policies not present in the study area cannot be modelled or only modelled by extrapolating from the current situation to ranges of values not currently present or to policies not currently present. While some TDM measures are within a safe range for such extrapolation, most are not.

Politicians and their public, in most instances, do not like to experiment with such, sometimes drastic and expensive measures without prior qualitative and quantitative assessment of their likely impacts. The gap between the available information from the revealed preferences (RP) of the population and

the information required to assess these future, hypothetical situations has been obvious for some time and has stimulated the development of a range of methodologies, which aim to close it. Examples are:

- *Expert forecasting and assessment*: Delphi-technique and similar
- *Personal intensive interviewing*
- *Stated-Preference (SP) methods or Conjoint Analysis* in all of their forms, see below

The boundaries between the two last approaches are fluent, as both attempt to place the interviewee into a future, hypothetical situation and to obtain a response to that future situation from him, which can be modelled within the framework desired. Transport planning has not developed these techniques from scratch, but has adapted and modified them from other disciplines, which had to address similar situations earlier, here in particular marketing. Still, the methodological history of transport planning remains visible in the way in which this adaptation has taken place and in the way, in which these approaches are used today.

The next section illustrates the position of the SP methods vis-a-vis a more realistic model of travel behaviour and highlight the drastic, but necessary and acceptable simplifications, which are inherent in SP surveys. The following section discusses the core of the SP approach, as understood in transport and marketing, and the methodologies used to implement it. The possible protocols, into which this core can be placed, are presented next. The question of when to implement SP-surveys to obtain valid responses is the subject of the last substantive section, which is followed by conclusions.

A large set of applications are listed in a separate list of references (see below).

2 POSITION OF SP IN A BEHAVIOURAL FRAMEWORK

TDM measures change the relative generalized costs of various behavioural alternatives and change behaviour as a result, but not necessarily in the direction intended as the behavioural system is much more complex than mostly acknowledged. Figure 1 shows a dynamic framework of travel behaviour to illustrate this point (Axhausen und Goodwin, 1991). Social norms and urban structures, which have to be accepted by the individual and household as given in the short term, constrain the life style choices for a given position in the life cycle. These long-term choices, such as housing type, residential location, family structure, type of work and work location, are based on the experiences of the person and household and on their available financial and social resources. They imply activity needs and desires, which are modulated by the seasonal and structural changes of the environment. The activities

selected are then allocated and roughly scheduled by the household for an intermediate time horizon, such as the week or month, and the members of the household are provided with the resources required to achieve them, such as a bicycle, a car, a season ticket for public transport or a mobile phone. The member will schedule these activities and tasks in detail over a shorter time horizon, such as a couple of hours, a day or a small number of days. Scheduling includes the time, duration, location and order of activities plus the required resources (vehicles, money, information, information technologies etc.). The execution of the schedule requires a constant comparison between plan (schedule) and progress, i.e. actual activity performance, which can be better and quicker than expected, but also worse and slower. The person has then the choice of altering his schedule in various forms based on the information available at the time, the slack in the schedule and the importance of the remaining activities. Equally, the traveller has to monitor his progress against his expectations to take, if necessary, corrective action during the trip by rerouting in a general sense including both route, parking type, parking location and mode or by rescheduling the activity programme undertaken. The experience of schedule performance against plan will lead to a feedback to the higher levels of the hierarchy through changes in daily scheduling, household scheduling and in the life-style choices to resolve the conflicts, which have become visible. Given the complexity of this feedback system, it is unclear a-priori at which level of the hierarchy and at which time horizon a specific TDM will become effective. It is useful to translate the framework into specific choices, which could be influenced, e.g.:

- Residential location
- Type of housing
- Resource availability, especially:
 - cars
 - season tickets
 - information technologies
 - parking facilities

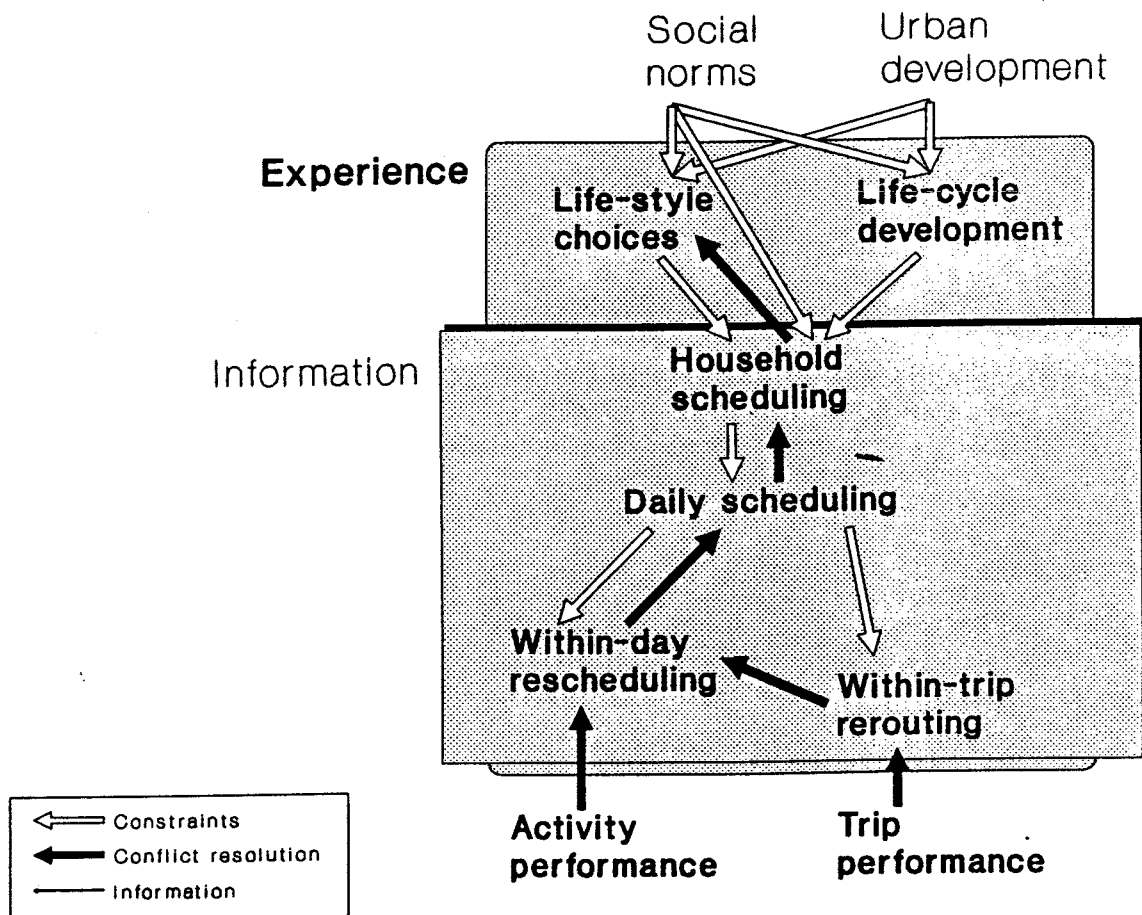
- Work/education location
- Amount of work/educational activities
- Work schedule/education schedule
- Resources at work/school (parking, information sources etc.)
- Commitment to other activities (church, social clubs, sports etc.) (amount, frequency and schedule)
- Location of other committed activities

- Choice of medium/long term projects, such as holiday preparation, education, training, visit to friends, information acquisition etc.
- General task and resource allocation in the household

- Activity schedule (including frequency and time of the scheduling):
 - Sequence of activities
 - Start time of activities
 - Duration of activities
 - Location of activities

- Size and membership of the party involved in the activities
- Costs of activity participation or expenses involved and their allocation between the members of the party (including non-monetary costs, such as social goodwill or "time trading")
- Departure time (with implied preferred arrival time)
- Mode sequence
 - Mode
 - Vehicle/means
 - Location of mode/means switch (station, stop, parking facility)
 - Type of mode switch facility (type of station or stop, type of parking)
 - Search strategies, if required
 - Size and membership of travelling party
 - Costs of mode use and their allocation between travellers (s.a.)
 - Route
 - Speed

Figure 1 A dynamic framework of travel behaviour



Source: Axhausen and Goodwin (1991), 1025

The very complexity of the choices involved force the travellers to rely very often on past choices, i.e. past solutions, to reduce the complexity of the decision and to speed it up, as time for generating a new good solution is often not available.

It is also clear, that the amount of information provided by external sources, such as parking guidance systems or route guidance systems, is small in comparison with the information embodied in these past choices and experiences. This is especially true in the "activity space" of the traveller, i.e. the locations and networks, which are used regularly.

The framework implies, that each behaviour we observe should be understood against the specific situation of the traveller at that time in terms of:

- the activity schedule ahead (as part of the tasks, commitments and projects of the person)
- the immediate past in terms of activity and trip performance and schedule deviations, if any
- information available
- experiences available

and in terms of the personal preferences, suitable for this situation. This clockwork of different rhythms and sequences moving around longer-term trends and decisions requires an enormous amount of information from the traveller, which the analyst has to disentangle.

Transport planning models have, as a rule, ignored this complexity for a number of pragmatic and theoretical reasons, among them computing capacities, cost and difficulty of data collection, lack of explanatory models and difficulty of forecasting. The time horizon at which the models operate has never been properly identified, but their contents imply that they intend to model the medium- to long-term decision horizon¹.

There is one tradition, which tries to acknowledge this complexity, although can do so only in parts due to the otherwise required unacceptable interview durations: the *situational approach* of Socialdata (Brög und Erl, 1980 or 1983). While it has been able to identify constraints on behaviour in terms of information, tasks and preferences, the lack of proper choice and forecasting models has held its application back. The intensive interviews of this approach have been used to elicit responses to hypothetical situations, but in general, only one or two new situations, which made it impossible to generalize the results to models of wider scope. While the intensive testing of one scenario can be very useful, the clients generally prefer models of a wider scope even if that implies lower validity.

¹ It is surprising then, that they are developed and estimated on the basis of short-term data (travel diaries and screen line counts) which in turn are supplemented with long-term data (the equilibrium results of the network models used in choice modelling).

The alternative approach, *Conjoint Analysis* or *Stated Preferences*, in the general tradition of the social sciences, sociology and microeconomics in particular, accepts the complexity, but focuses the attention of the respondent and researcher on those factors under the control of the authority or firm undertaking the study. This simplification is accepted as the price to obtain results of predictive value within an acceptable time frame (see Brög, 1997, for an opposing view).

The Stated-Preference or Conjoint-Analysis approach encompasses a wide variety of specific methodologies, which all share the aim of

- obtaining holistic statements of preference in a specified format
- for a series of (hypothetical) goods described by varying levels of a small number of attributes
- within a specified behavioral frame (overall context)

The decision problem is reduced for the respondent, as he has only the given response format, but he has both to imagine the stimuli and to adjust to the specified behavioural frame. The analyst loses the full behavioural context detail, but can focus on those aspects under management control. The control over the description of the hypothetical goods permits in addition the generation of better behaved statistical data for the estimation of appropriate decision models.

SP-methods can be placed into a larger family of survey methodologies, which all aim to obtain behavioral responses to hypothetical goods and situations. Lee-Gosselin (1996) suggested the name *Stated-Response* for all of the methods and then distinguishes SP, *Stated Tolerance*, *Stated Adaptation* and *Stated Prospect* depending on the control the interviewer exerts over the description of the good and the specification of the behavioural response (See Figure 2). SP methods are the most rigid as they constrain for the respondent both the description of the good and of the response. This loss of subtlety is balanced by the lower demands on the respondent and by higher response speeds/shorter interviews, which make the methodology cheaper to apply and which make it easier to find participants for the surveys.

Aside: Brief history of SP and CA

SP and Conjoint Analysis methods were first developed in the 1970's in response to the advances of psychometrics in the late 60's and early 1970's (Green and Rao, 1971). While the developers of the methodology moved then easily between transport and marketing, as can be shown by the work of J.J. Louviere (Louviere, Meyer, Stetzer and Beavers, 1971 etc.), this communality came to an end by the

Figure 2 Classification of Stated-Response approaches

		CONSTRAINTS	
		(expressed as attributes: personal/household/social/spatial/supply, etc)	
		<i>Mostly given</i>	<i>Mostly elicited</i>
BEHAVIOURAL OUTCOMES	<i>Mostly given</i>	<p style="text-align: center;">STATED PREFERENCE (focus = tradeoffs, utility)</p> <p><i>"Given the levels of attributes in these alternatives, which would you prefer: [A].....? [B].....? etc"</i></p>	<p style="text-align: center;">STATED TOLERANCE (focus = limits of acceptability, and thresholds for change)</p> <p><i>"Under what circumstances could you imagine yourself doing: [r1].....? [r2].....? etc....."</i></p>
	<i>Mostly elicited</i>	<p style="text-align: center;">STATED ADAPTATION (focus = reactive and trial behaviour; problem-solving, rules)</p> <p><i>"What would you do differently if you were faced with the following specific constraints: [.....detailed scenario]"</i></p>	<p style="text-align: center;">STATED PROSPECT (focus = learning processes; information seeking; the imaging, formation and testing of choice-sets; metadecisions)</p> <p><i>"Under what circumstances would you be likely to change your travel behaviour and how would you go about it [..broad context]"</i></p>

Source: Lee-Gosselin (1996), 124

early 80's and two streams of development emerged under the names of Stated Preferences and Conjoint Analysis, which are clearly influenced by the respective professional concerns and methods of transport planning and marketing. The development of Conjoint Analysis is well documented in a series of scholarly reviews in the marketing research literature (Green and Srinivasan, 1978; Böcker, 1986; Huber, 1987; Louviere, 1988). The growing usage of the methodology in marketing over the last two decades is equally well documented by three surveys of market research firms (Cattin und Wittink, 1982; Wittink and Cattin, 1989 and Wittink, Vriens and Burhenne, 1994). The development of the methodology in transport planning can only be reconstructed from a series of How-to-manuals, which have been published over the years (Kocur, Adler, Hyman and Aunet, 1982; Pearmain, Swanson, Kroes and Bradley, 1991; FGSV, 1996 or Pearmain, Swanson and Ampt (forthcoming), but see also Bates, 1988; Hensher, 1994 or Axhausen, 1995). The usage of the methodology in transport planning has not been surveyed yet. Wittink et al.'s work does not give a good estimate as the firms most active in transport were outside the scope of their surveys.

The psychometric tradition (Krantz, Luce, Suppes and Tversky, 1971) had been concerned with the construction of metric scales of utility from non-metric rankings and ratings of conjoint (compound)

goods, while the functional measurement tradition (Anderson, 1974) focused on the development of models of object perception. Both traditions were based on orthogonal designs of the stimuli (objects or descriptions of goods). The transformation of these traditions into a tool of market research and the change of name from conjoint measurement to conjoint analysis had been achieved by the early 70's (Green and Rao, 1971). Conjoint analysis was used to derive a) estimates of *utility part-worths* for each level of the attributes tested for each respondents and b) to forecast market shares for new products based on these part-worths. The estimation methodologies were based on the traditions of conjoint and functional measurement and paid substantial attention to different functional forms possible. Practise in marketing settled quickly on the widely understood and available OLS-approach (ordinary least squares estimation), especially after various studies had shown it to be no worse than the more sophisticated approaches based on ranks. The spread of the methodology through market research was sped up by the co-development of personal computers and various PC-based implementations of conjoint analysis, of which the *Adaptive Conjoint Analysis* (ACA) approach was by far the most important (Sawtooth, 1996). This programme combines utility estimation with the adaptive generation of the stimuli for a large number of attributes, which makes commercial application easy for market research practioneers.

While the first large review of Green and Srivasan (1978) had especially identified transport planning and urban public transport as a potential application area, market research firms did not initially obtain a foothold in this market, in contrast to air transport, which they entered via the market research of the airlines. While the early documented applications in transport had been performed in the US (see for example Kocur, Hyman et al., 1982; Louviere and Hensher, 1982; Lerman and Louviere, 1978, Norman, 1977; Davidson, 1973) the first wide-spread official acceptance of the methodology in transport planning was tied to work in the UK and the Netherlands (see for example the first UK Value of Time study (MVA, ITS and TSU, 1987)). The practioneers in the UK were normally transport demand modellers, which cast the analysis of the data into their framework of aggregate logit-modelling of choices (e.g. Ben-Akiva and Lerman, 1985), which had been developed in the 1970's. The now Stated-Preference methodologies were added to an existing set of SR-methods, such as *transfer pricing* (Stated Tolerance) (e.g. Bonsall, 1983) or the *Priority Evaluator*, a methodology developed in the UK to obtain preferences for public services under explicit public-sector budget constraints (Hoinville, 1971, 1973 or 1977; Pearmain, 1989). While various response formats were used in SP work (see below), the choice between alternatives became dominant by the 1990's in spite of it drawbacks (see below), again reflecting the influence of the general choice-based paradigm of transport demand modelling. The surge in SP applications in transport stimulated the development of various software tools to automate the generation of stimuli and performance of *computer-aided personal interviews* (CAPI).

The current return of SP to the US, the coming together of professional market researchers and transport planners in the commercialized public transport firms (bus, rail and air) and the growing interest in market research in choice-based conjoint formats (Louviere and Woodworth, 1983 or Sawtooth, 1995) opens up new opportunities for the further development of the methodology, both in application and model estimation (i.e. hierarchical logit-structures, joint estimation of SP and RP data (Ben-Akiva, Morikawa and Shiroishi, 1992 or Morikawa, Ben-Akiva and Yamada, 1991), utility functions of individuals etc.).

3 CORE SP METHODOLOGY AND IMPLEMENTATIONS

The core of the SP-methodology was defined above as:

- statements of preference in a given format for a
- series of goods, described by varying levels of a small number of attributes
- within a given behavioural frame

This definition needs to be complemented by the aim of the data collection, which is to develop estimates of the utility functions of the respondents or groups of respondents. These four aspects will be discussed in the next four subsections.

3.1 Formats of the preference statements

A number of formats has been developed to obtain holistic statements of the preference of the respondent for a given good. A good in the tradition of Lancaster (1966) is any physical good or service which can be described by the bundle of services it provides in terms of its characteristics, such as price, quality, weight, colour, comfort, reliability, prestige, brand etc. The respondent has the task to judge this bundle of attributes as one. SP methodologies, in contrast to other approaches is not interested in judgements of the individual attributes (See for example Schubert, 1991 and Tscheulin, 1992 for alternative approaches).

The following main formats are used in practise²:

- *Rating* of a single good on a given scale
- *Ranking* of a set of goods in order of preference
- *Choosing* between two or more competing goods. In the case of two goods it is common practise to request a statement of the strength of preference (likelihood of purchase)

Rating

In the case of rating the respondent is offered one good at a time and is asked to judge it on a common scale. Normally Likert-scales or related 7- and 9-point scales are used, but other scales (percent out of hundred) are equally common. This is an easy to understand format, but does not force the respondent to make trade-offs, as he could rate all goods offered in sequence with the same value. In spite of the ease of understanding its implementation is difficult for the respondent, as he has to keep track of past decisions and has to maintain the scaling consistently through a reasonably long list of goods.

Ranking

In ranking exercises the respondent is offered a set of goods, up to 15 or 20, which must be brought into a unique sequence of preference. This forces the respondents to make trade-offs, although ties can be accommodated, if desired. The ranking task is difficult and time-consuming for the respondent, as he has to make potentially $n*(n-1)$ comparisons to obtain the unique sequence requested. To reduce this difficulty the respondent is often asked to group the goods first into a small number of classes, then rank the classes and finally rank goods within the classes. While the original conjoint analysis literature used models based directly on rank, such as MANOVA (see Kruskal, 1965), to derive the utility estimates, the transport literature interpreted the ranks as a sequence of a binary choices to fit the data into their choice-based paradigm.

Ranking is still a popular approach in application, as it generates a large number of data items quickly and can be interesting and challenging for the respondent. Unfortunately, the literature has documented many cases, in which the utility estimates vary substantially depending on which part of the ranking sequence is used for estimation (See for example Ortuzar und Garrido, 1991; Ben-Akiva, Morikawa and Shiroishi, 1992 or Johnson and Orme, 1996). While rules-of-thumb for the selection of rank information for estimation are available, caution is necessary.

Choosing

² In the transport literature the transfer pricing approach (see Bonsall, 1983) and the priority evaluator (Hoinville, 1971, 1973 or 1977; for later applications see Pearmain, 1989) are frequently subsumed under SP. These two forms of SR-methodology will be excluded here from further discussion following the classification of Lee-Gosselin, 1996.

In choice-SP's the respondent has the task of selecting one good out of a small set of two to maybe five alternative goods. The advantage of this format is that it is simple to understand, quick and mimics the real life situation rather well. Its main disadvantage is that it generates little information for the utility estimation, as it provides information only about the best alternative.

In the case of the choice out of two alternative goods many applications replace the simple choice question by asking the respondent to indicate the strength of their preference. A typical format is a scale of likelihood of purchase (certainly yes, in most cases, in many cases ... or some other similar formulation). Some authors have suggested that the respondents should express the strength of their preference by indicating the utility-equalizing payment balancing the weaker with stronger option. While gaining additional information, which can be used in estimation as an indication of choice probability, the analyst has the additional problem of estimating, which choice probability was meant by which scale item. This problem is normally not addressed leading to the unsatisfactory practise of determining the implied choice probabilities untested a-priori (Ortuzar and Garrido, 1994).

3.2 Generation of the descriptions of the goods

The respondents are presented with a number of goods, which are grouped into various contexts depending on the preference format chosen. These goods are characterized by a number of selected attributes, which each occur at a specified number of levels, e.g.:

- price at two levels: 5 ECU and 8 ECU
- comfort at three levels: low, medium and high
- Brand at four levels: VW, Mercedes, Opel or Ford

It is possible to present the goods with *full* or *partial* profiles. In the case of full profiles, which is the rule in SP and the preferred option in Conjoint Analysis, the good is described simultaneously by all attributes which have been selected as relevant (see below for the question of how and how many attributes to select). In the case of partial profiles the good is described by a subset, traditionally two attributes at a time. The subset can vary between goods. This approach is still important as ACA implements it in its procedure.

In the case of full profiles the number of possible goods, which could be presented, becomes large very quickly, as it grows combinatorially:

$$\prod 2^{n_2} 3^{n_3} 4^{n_4} 5^{n_5} \dots$$

n_i : Number of attributes with i levels

$$\sum_i n_i = \text{Number of attributes}$$

While early studies used *full factorials*, i.e. all possible combinations, practise adopted *fractional factorials* very quickly to reduce the number of goods to a size manageable for the respondent without fatigue or loss of interest. Fractional factorials are a subset of the full factorials with a-priori specified statistical properties:

- they are (nearly) orthogonal, i.e. the main effects of the attributes can be estimated independently, but for a known amount of confounding with known higher order interactions
- they specify the number, if any, of higher-order, in particular two-way, interactions which can be estimated independently

The fractional factorials of a given full factorial are catalogued in a number of sources (Addelman, 1962a, b; Hahn and Shapiro, 1966; Kocur, Adler et al., 1982 or McLean and Anderson, 1984) and are also available in a number of software packages (SAS or SPSS, for example). Especially in the case, when no catalogued design is available, it is possible to generate the design as a random selection from the full factorial, which is tested for an acceptable correlation structure, i.e. orthogonality and absence of a strong "factorial" structure in the factor-analytic sense. A simple analysis of correlations can be misleading.

The loss of the three-way and higher interactions is judged to be no significant problem (Louviere, 1988), but the two-way interactions can be a problem, especially, if they are confounded with a weak main-effect, i.e. if the strength of the estimate of a main effect is attributable to a confounding two-way interaction of two different main effects, e.g. if the estimate of {A} is actually {A + C*E}. If the designer of the study is concerned about an interaction at the outset, then he should choose a design, which permits the independent estimation of the interaction. If the concern arises after the study, then careful analysis of the data is required, although the confounding cannot be removed after the fact.

In the case of ranking and choice-SP's it is advisable to remove dominant and dominated goods from the sets. That is goods which are either better/equal or worse/equal to all other alternatives in the set of goods presented. While such *anchor* goods are recommended in rating SP's at the top and the

bottom of the set to provide the respondent with a feeling for the scales of the attribute levels, it is not necessary to do so in ranking and choice-SP's.

Factorial designs can produce unrealistic combinations of attribute levels, especially if there are strong correlations in the real markets; e.g. price and distance in rail travel, speed and road type, brand name and prestige etc. It is either possible to remove such combinations in advance or to formulate the values of the "dependent" attributes as a function of a selected independent attribute. The function then specifies differences between or ratios of the variables concerned. It is possible this way to ensure enough variability in the data sets for estimation. For example in the case of travel times by bus and car, the rule could be: bus travel time = car travel time + (-0.2; 0.2; 0.4) * car travel time.

Fowkes and his colleagues (e.g. Fowkes, 1991; Fowkes and Wardman, 1988 and 1992; Pearmain, Swanson and Ampt, forthcoming) have pointed out, that strictly orthogonal designs can be undesirable, if the interest of the study is the ratio of two main effect parameters, such as the value-of-time-savings in transport. In this case deviations can improve the estimates of the ratio. They also point out that in this case, the goods need to be selected in a way, which offers a wide range of choices in the ratios and not in the values of main effects themselves.

In the case of choice and rating-SP's a *decision situation*, i.e. the group of goods to be ranked or the set of goods to be selected from, needs to be constructed. Louviere (1988) suggests a two-stage procedure of a) constructing m goods from a suitable fractional design with the n attributes for each good and b) a second fractional design with m attributes coded zero (not present) and one (present) indicating the presence of the mth good in the decision situation. Most transport applications use a different approach, in which they associate the first n₁ attributes of a fractional factorial with good 1, second n₂ with good 2 and so on. The first approach is suited to situations, in which the choice set can be variable in real life, as is the case with most consumer goods or destinations in transport, while the second approach is suited to situations in which the choice set will not vary, as is case with mode choice or tv channels.

Number of preference statements

The number of goods or decision situations (groups of goods) to be presented is a function of the model to be estimated (i.e. the number of parameters), the acceptable multicollinearity in the design and the level of aggregation of the analysis (e.g. person or group).

In the case of individual level models the estimation requires at least $n+1$ decisions/preference statements from the respondent to estimate the n parameters of the model. It is therefore not surprising that such models concentrate on simple main-effects models and a limited number of attributes to avoid overloading and fatiguing the respondents. Up to 20 decision situations plus some are deemed acceptable in conjoint analysis practise (Sawtooth, 1996).

For transport planning SP-practise lower values reflecting the higher loads of choice or ranking tasks are suggested (nine to twelve). Johnson and Orme (1996) suggest on the basis of a detailed analysis of studies conducted with Sawtooth CBC-software that up to 20 decision situations could be acceptable. The way, in which transport planning SP studies define their fractional factorials, results often in fractional factorials with a relatively large number of choice situations, in particular when interaction effects are explicitly estimated as well. It is therefore common practise to block the fractional factorial into groups of nine to twelve choice situations, which are then administered to each respondent. The model can then only be estimated at the group level, where all blocks are pooled. The total number of attributes is normally restricted to a maximum of 12-15, with a maximum of 5 to 6 per choice alternative, e.g. 5 attributes to define the car option, 4 to define the public transport option and 3 for cycling in a hypothetical mode choice study.

In the methods described so far, each respondent is presented with a fixed number of choice situations for which the structure, i.e. the coding of the levels, as 0, 1, 2 or +,- is known in advance. The exact values of the levels can be customized (see below).

Many authors have objected to this approach, arguing that many choice situations will not elicit new information as prior choices will already have revealed where the utility boundaries are located. To remove such redundant choice situations they have suggested *adaptive designs*, where the prior choices are used to construct the next choice situation/good. The most important of these approaches is the ACA approach, which dominates the commercial conjoint analysis market with the software of the same name (Sawtooth, 1996). In transport the work of Holden (1993) has received most attention. The attractions of these approaches are obvious, as they reduce the number of choices required from each respondent and as they make each choice situation more interesting for the respondent, because they are increasingly focused on the choice boundary. Still, concerns have been raised about the statistical properties of these approaches, in particular that they generate correlations between subsequent choice situations violating the (implicit) assumption of the analysis, that each observation can be treated as independent (Bradley and Daly, 1993).

The hybrid ACA approach falls slightly outside to what has been described so far as the orthodoxy of SP and conjoint analysis studies. The ACA approach combines both compositional and decompositional elements by starting the procedures with explicit questions about the importance and weight of each attribute followed by pairwise comparisons. Its main advantage is its ability to accommodate large number of attributes (20 or more), as the process screens out the unimportant ones early for each respondent.

3.3 Behavioural frame

The model of transport behaviour presented above suggests that a choice can only be understood against the frame of the particular situation, in which it was taken (e.g. schedule, resource availability, time pressure, information available, experience obtained so far, presence of other travellers etc.). It is therefore necessary to specify this behavioural frame to the respondent to assure that all respondents act/decide under the same constraints/assumptions.

This issue has not been addressed intensively in the market research conjoint literature until recently (Green and Krieger, 1995). It is also not addressed in *experimental economics* (Hey, 1992). In contrast, in the related *contingent valuation*³ literature (see for example Mitchell and Carson, 1989) on environmental (public good) evaluation these frame effects have been central methodological concerns from the start. The transport SP literature became quickly aware of the issue and is addressing it normally by using past journeys as the starting point for the construction of the choice situations, in particular of the values of the attribute levels. This base journey is typically the one just made, a journey made yesterday or the last journey of a particular type. The respondent is asked to use the constraints of that journey as his reference. While this clearly improves the realism of the answers, the analyst has the problem of characterizing these constraints properly in the estimation. The description of the base journey and of the socio-demographics of the respondent might or might not be sufficient for this task. Clearly the SP-literature, as known to the authors, has not made this aspect of the SP interview a concern so far.

³ *Contingent Valuation* (CV) is the name given to a range of survey approaches developed by economist to obtain valuations of public goods. This literature seems to independent from the conjoint and SP literatures, although developing at the same time. CV surveys generally employ auction models to obtain one valuation, or willingness-to-pay, for a specified public good. Experimental designs are not employed even if more than one scenario is tested.

The approach of the transport literature assures that a cross-section of situations is reflected in the data. This will be acceptable in many cases to the client, but it might be necessary to specify this behavioural frame more precisely to reflect a particular market or behavioural situation better. This greater precision is at the expense of the scope of the model, as specifying the behavioural frame clearly indicates that the model estimated is only valid for this frame. There are no studies known to the authors, in which the effects of different frames were tested.

3.4 Utility model

The proper specification of the underlying utility model was a major concern of the traditions underlying SP and conjoint analysis. Initially three main preference models and three main forms of aggregation were tested. The preference models are:

- the vector model:

$$u_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_{ip}$$

which stipulates that the utility of attribute i is a linear function of the value of the attribute i for good p

- the ideal point model:

$$u_i = \beta_0 - \beta_1 (y_{ip} - y_i^*)^2$$

which calculates the utility of an attribute in terms of the deviation of the attribute value from some ideal value y_i^*

- the part-worths model:

$$u_i = \beta_{ip}$$

which determines a separate utility value for each value of each attribute.

The aggregation rules are:

- Linear additive rule:

$$u_p = \sum u_{ip}$$

which adds the utilities across the attribute values u_{ip} of the product p

- Non-additive models:

Multiplicative: $u_i = \prod u_{ip}^{\beta(i)}$

Disjunctive: $u_i = \prod [1/u_{ip}]^{\beta(i)}$

which do not allow for the simple trade-offs of the linear model

- Lexicographic rule, which describes the choice a sequential process of ranking products by one attribute at a time, and stopping when the attribute gives an unique best alternative. Among the three products:

Product	Attribute values		
	1	2	3
A	10	30	5
B	10	28	50
C	8	50	2

The lexicographic chooser with the attribute order: 1, 2, 3, would first choose A and B as equal on attribute 1 and then decide on A as better on attribute 2.

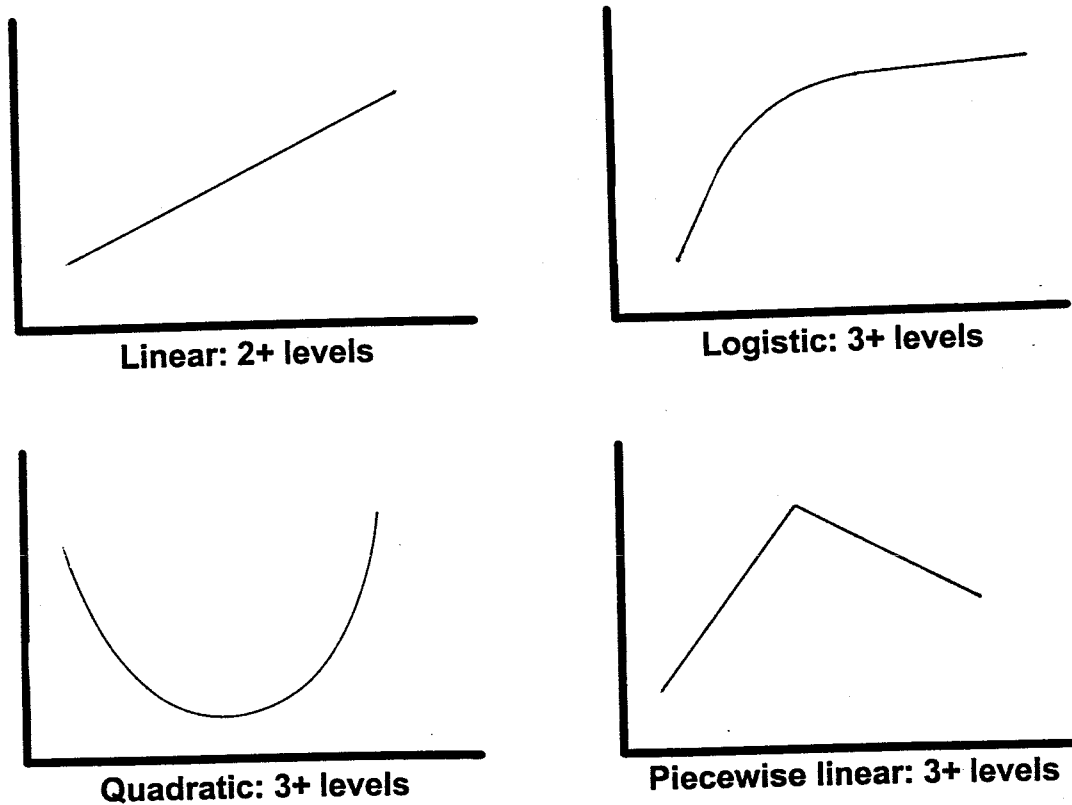
The conjoint analysis and SP-practise settled quickly on the linear additive models, as the most flexible model form, which can accommodate the two other utility formulation (through dummies and quadratic terms) and includes the lexicographic rule, as a particular pattern of parameter values (e.g. $\beta_1 \gg \beta_3 \gg \dots \gg \beta_n$). Conjoint analysis prefers the part-worths model, whereas SP uses the vector description. Current practice does not spend time on analysing these issues.

While the overall model form is not discussed any more, the detailed specification is still a major issue, as it determines the number of levels to be tested for each attribute. The conjoint analysis practise is relatively unconcerned with the specification of the number of levels per attribute, as the widely used ACA approach screens out irrelevant levels. This is feasible as many attributes in CA studies are ordinal, i.e. list of brands or unrelated product characteristics, which are captured in their respective utility through the quasi-dummy part-worths. Against the background of the usual vector-model SP studies would describe these from the start as dummy variables to indicate their presence or absence, thereby increasing the number of attributes to be tested. SP studies are also focused more strongly on continuous variables, such as costs, distances or times. For the continuous variables it is necessary to specify a-priori the functional form of the attribute (linear, quadratic, cubic, log etc.) as this in turn specifies the minimum number of levels required to test for this functional form (Figure 3).

A discussion of the estimation techniques is not required, as these are covered in detail in for example: Ben-Akiva and Lerman, 1985; Train, 1986; Chatterjee and Price, 1977; Daganzo, 1979; Greene, 1994; Wrigley, 1985; Pudney, 1989 or Box, Hunter and Hunter, 1978; Winer, 1971; Montgomery, 1984). It should be pointed out though, that the analysis in general ignores the serial correlation between

preference statements, which can have serious effects on the parameter estimates. The simple correction methods for the t-statistics might not suffice (Louviere and Woodworth, 1983).

Figure 3 Minimum number of levels per attribute and functional form



Source: after FGSV (1996), 25

4 SP-SURVEY PROTOCOLS AND PROCESS

The core of the SP approach defines the task of the respondent and the number of choice situations to be answered and how they are constructed. It does not specify, what model/hypothesis is being tested, how the values of attribute levels are derived and how the choice situation is presented to the respondent. This section will first discuss these three issues before summarizing the discussion by describing the overall process of a SP-study.

4.1 Model specification

The SP experiments are based on a known set of attributes and assumptions about the functional form of their influence for a given behavioural frame. These three sets of assumptions define a hypothesis about an abstract behavioural model, which is to be tested with the SP. It has to be stressed again, that this abstract model is a serious, but necessary simplification of the real decision process, as presented with the travel behaviour model above. The closer the stipulated behavioural frame is to the current environment the better, but the possibility to define future, hypothetical situations is a real strength of the approach. The degree of the simplification will vary with the study object and the behavioural frame, but it should always be kept in mind. The simplification is the price paid to obtain operational models with testable properties, such as goodness-of-fit or parameter significance.

The hypothesis to be tested should be developed from three sources:

- the *client*, who needs to specify the behavioural frame(s) of interest, the attributes of the good under management influence and the study object/good
- the *literature* as a source of information about the study domain, in particular providing information about the relative weights of attributes from prior studies
- the *traveller/customer* through in-depth personal or focus group discussions specifying possible behavioural responses and relevant attributes.

The three sources should, if the time and budget available permit, all be consulted to obtain a rounded view of the problem, as the client might be preoccupied with the new idea/good, as the literature might be addressing yesterday's concerns, while the customers could ignore new possibilities.

There is a natural tendency for this process to generate a collection of attributes, which is too numerous to be tested in a single SP-experiment, at least of the choice-type. Three approaches can be pursued in this case unless it is possible to pare the number down to a manageable level a-priori:

- the *ACA approach*, which uses the respondent's reaction in a first screening part of the survey to pare the number down. This has the disadvantage that some attributes, which are of particular interest to the client, could be lost. The client might want the respondent to react to this attribute.
- the *hierarchical approach* suggested by Louviere and Timmermans (1990a-d) and others. In this approach the attributes are distributed across a number of SP-experiments of lower rank, which measure trade-offs within particular abstract concepts, such as comfort, style, accessibility etc. These concepts are then used in a single higher rank SP to obtain trade-offs at the concept level.

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- the *linked approach*, where one or a small number of attributes are present in a series of SP-experiments. The parameters of a particular SP are then scaled against the parameters of these common attributes (the estimate could be derived from a SP or RP study). The approach has the advantages of simplicity and of an explicit scaling, but the disadvantage, that a master attribute/experiment has to be defined. In transport applications popular choices have been costs or fare and mode choice.

The explicit scaling is an advantage as it is known, that minor attributes can be overvalued by respondents, if the major attributes are not present in the SP or not evoked. An example would be an SP looking at bus stop design without fare, travel time or reliability attributes.

The attribute set defines one side of the equation, the decision alternatives offered define the other side of the equation. The conjoint tradition largely circumvents this problem by concentrating on objects or services of the same type, i.e. cars, credit cards, tv sets. The basic service provided is the same and all alternatives can be described with the same attributes. The attribute "brand" captures the prestige differences perceived by the respondent. In transport or similar applications this cannot be taken for granted. In the most widely studied case of mode choice very different services are offered by a car drive, a bicycle ride, a bus or a LRT trip, which need to be described by different attributes. The number of alternatives is a crucial issue, as the defined set might or might not be the relevant set for the respondent given the specified behavioural frame. The omission of relevant alternatives biases the results, as respondents either choose second best alternatives, refuse to choose at all or start to choose randomly. If the number of alternatives described with attributes becomes too large to handle, then it is possible to employ the linked approach again, but this time linking the sets of choice alternatives through one or more common members.

In addition to the described alternatives frequently undescribed alternatives, such as "None of the above", are added. While Sawtooth (1995) suggests only the use of the "None of the above" category in choice SP's, transport planners have used a wider variety of alternatives capturing responses at different levels of the trip response hierarchy, e.g. change of destination in the case of a mode choice SP, departure time change in the case of a route choice SP etc. Their inclusion can increase the realism of the SP task, but also increases the complexity for the respondent and lowers the precision of the estimated models, as the not described alternatives can only be included with alternative specific constants⁴.

⁴ Unless some further information about the alternative is available from other parts of the interview.

4.2 Determination of attribute level values

The hypothesis specifies the number of levels per attribute, but not the values of these levels. For the case that the values are fixed before the interview the recommendation is to choose values, which cover the natural variability for the study object at may be the 10% and 90% percentile for a two-level attribute and similar definitions for attributes with more levels. While most applications use levels which are symmetrical around the mean and equal differences between levels, there is no necessity to do so. The differences between the levels must be large enough to be noticeable, i.e. have a behavioural impact. The prior determination of the attribute level values requires that these are relevant to all respondents. This is normally true in consumer market research, but the experience in transport shows that it is normally not the case in its applications.

Transport applications have therefore either to resort to a-priori market segmentation to ensure the homogeneity of the respondents or to obtain the relevant values from the respondent.

A-priori segmentation

In this approach, the natural values are determined from prior surveys of travel behaviour. The respondents are then classified by location, car ownership, licence ownership or other relevant variables and are sent or given the appropriate SP with fixed values for the attribute values. This approach is costly and error-prone and is therefore rarely implemented.

Customized SP experiments

In customized SP experiments, which are the standard and preferred approach in transport research, the researcher will select a fixed experimental design and attribute level values, which are defined relative to user specified values, e.g.

- travel time of the user minus 5 minutes
- $0.5 * \text{fare paid by the user}$
- maximum of the search times given

The rules are supplemented by constraints, which ensure that the values remain in a realistic range, in particular to avoid negative values for prices, distances or travel times, and in realistic proportions.

Customized SP's consist of three phases. In the first phase, the details of the trip, journey or purchase of interest are recorded. These details cover at minimum the selected attributes, but normally additional attributes are collected as well. In the second phase the customized SP is calculated and implemented and made available to the respondent. In the third phase the respondent participates in the SP. The usual forms of survey administration can be employed: PAPI (paper and pencil interview), CAPI or CASI (computer-aided self-interview) etc. The most frequently implemented protocols are:

- *On-line PAPI*
 - Phase I) Interviewer conducts prior interview (in transport frequently a travel diary and/or a transfer price experiment)
 - Phase II) Interviewer constructs SP-experiment (description of the goods in the form of rating cards or choice/ranking sets)
 - Phase III) Respondent performs SP

- *Off-line PAPI* (e.g. Polak, Jones, Vythoukas, Meland and Tretvik, 1991)
 - Phase I) Respondent participates in a PAPI travel diary and returns it to the researcher
 - Phase II) The diary is coded and a PAPI-SP is generated on the basis of a selected trip and its attributes and sent to the respondent within a day or two of receipt of the survey.
 - Phase III) Respondent performs PAPI-SP and returns it to the researcher

- *On-line CAPI* (e.g. most of the recent transport SP's in the literature)
 - Phase I) CAPI travel diary or relevant survey
 - Phase II & III) CAPI SP is generated on-line and administered to the respondent

Each of the three has advantages and disadvantages, but the choice is generally not based on survey methodological concerns, but on questions of costs and availability of interviewers and CAPI terminals plus the structure of the overall study.

4.3 Presentation formats

SP tasks can be presented in any format, which allows the respondent to see, understand and integrate the different attributes of the experimental design:

- *Written descriptions* either as a listing of the attribute values or as a written text, may be in the form of an advertisement or product description. This is the standard format, in particular for CAPI interviews
- *Pictorial descriptions* are possible, but require substantial care, as the picture or sketch used must be concrete enough to convey the attribute values, but abstract enough to avoid contamination through other picture elements (for a detailed discussion see Swanson, Ampt and Jones, 1997). The quickly growing multi-media capabilities of CAPI-software will no doubt increase the use of pictorial descriptions in SP.

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- *Prototypes* can be employed, where the goods have a manageable size and weight. While very vivid and present for the respondent, the same concerns as with pictures have to be addressed: Can the design attributes be distinguished and recognized? Is there any contamination through outside variables?

Mixtures of these formats are possible, but must be treated with care to avoid an imbalance in the impact of the different information sources. Pictures could, for example, dominate a written description.

4.4 Study process

SP/CA studies should follow the logic of all interview/survey research, which suggests the following elements in the following order:

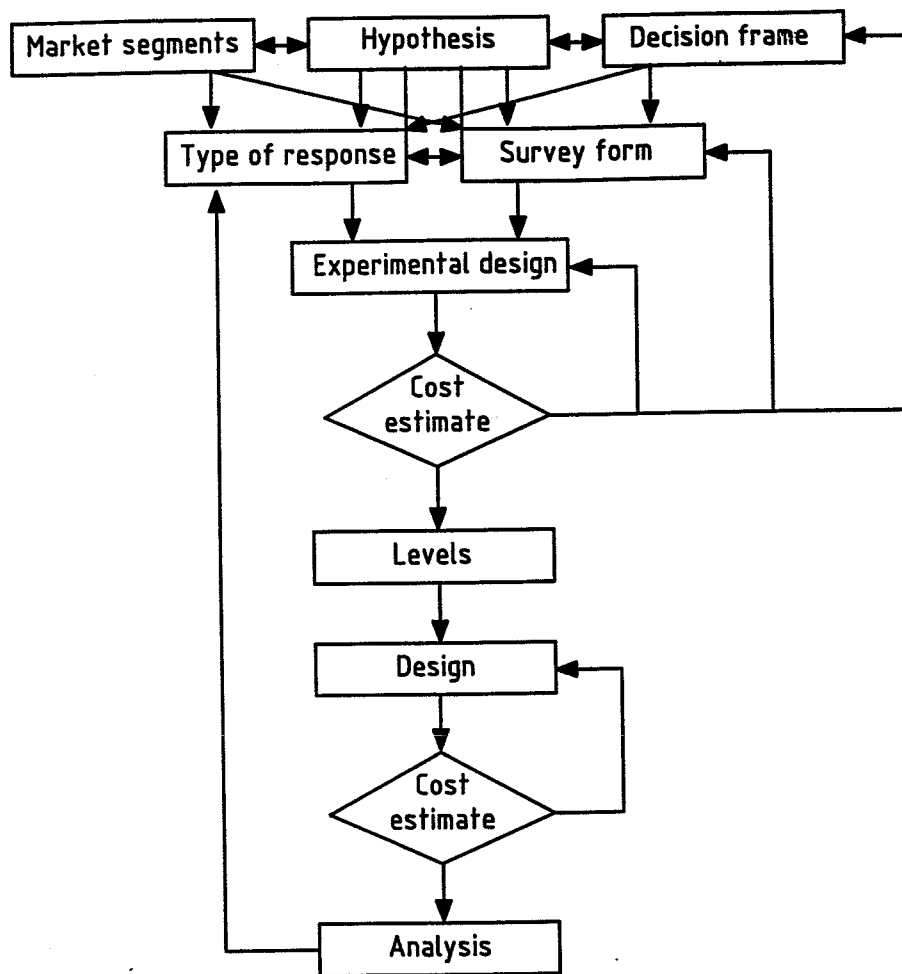
- *Literature review*
- *Focus groups or in-depth interviews*
- *Instrument development*
- *Small scale pilot of the instrument*
- *Revision of the instrument*
- *Application*

This process and the requirements of each step are discussed in depth in all basic survey methodology textbooks and does not need to be rehearsed here again. The process of the instrument development is specific enough to warrant a discussion at this point. Figure 4 gives an overview of the elements and their feed-backs.

The first three steps, definition of the market segments, of the hypothesis and of the behavioral frames to be studied, have to be undertaken together, as there are numerous interactions: an attribute can be irrelevant for a particular behavioral frame; a choice alternative is not available to a market segment or a behavioral frame is irrelevant for a market segment. The three aspects have to be consistent.

In CA market segmentation is frequently performed on the basis of the utility functions estimated. This a-posteriori segmentation is implemented at the aggregate level in transport applications through the use of socio-economic variables in the specification of the utility functions. Any a-priori segmentation has to be based on the overall modelling framework into which the SP-results are to be integrated. In transport modelling this implies the socio-demographic categories of the trip generation and distribution models.

Figure 4 Development process of an SP



Source: FGSV (1996), 23

Based on the first three choices, the survey protocol and the format of the preference statements have been selected to achieve the best fit with the study objectives, including the ability to estimate precise utility models. The experimental design (number of attributes, levels and choice alternatives) plus the choice of adaptive or customized varieties follows from the decisions so far.

A cost estimate is required at this point in the process to avoid unnecessary work later in the process. In transport planning SP practise the rule-of-thumb is that a minimum of 30, but better 50-70 returned surveys/interviews are required per block of choice situations, market segment and behavioral frame. For example:

- Three blocks of 12 choice situations each
- Two market segments (e.g. males and females, car owners and non-car-owners etc.)
- Two behavioral frames (e.g. work and shopping trips on a weekday)

Minimum sample size: $30 * 3 * 2 * 2 = 360$ successful interviews/returned surveys
Preferred sample size: $60 * 3 * 2 * 2 = 720$ successful interviews/returned surveys

Johnson (1996) suggests, that the sample size is determined as a function of the desired precision for the estimate of the choice proportions.

If the cost estimate is higher than the budget available, then a reduction of the complexity preferred so far or a simplification of the survey protocol is required. If not, then the next two steps concern the determination of the values of the attribute levels, including any analysis of existing data (s.a.) and the final design of the survey instrument (format of presentation, development of software, prototypes, pictures and forms etc.). A final cost estimate should be performed before the design is finalized and approved.

As a last step, or jointly with the selection of the attribute level values, the instrument should be tested with regards to its ability to estimate the desired models from its results. It is possible to specify utility functions for a hypothetical population and to use these functions to answer the SP instrument. The resulting hypothetical answers should be used in an estimation of the planned type and it should be verified that the specified utility functions can be recovered from the data and the parameters estimated with sufficient precision. If not, a further iteration starting with the format of the preference statement is required.

5 VALID CONTEXTS FOR SP

The internal validity of SP results in forecasting has been documented in numerous studies (See Louviere and his collaborators in a transport context or the literature in Green and Srivasan, 1978 or Leigh, McKay and Summers, 1984 from marketing). The studies of internal consistency use hold-out choice tasks of various formats, which are part of the SP/CA interview. These studies have consistently shown that the models derived can identify the choices made satisfactorily. The various studies in the transport literature, which have estimated joint models from SP and RP data, support this conclusion, as these models reveal scale differences, i.e. differences in variability, but reveal in general identical functional structures. Furthermore, the growing use of the technique indicates that the clients are satisfied with the results, which in turn must indicate a satisfactory track record in terms of insights and prediction.

More important for the practise in transport or public goods provision is the issue of when to conduct the study during the overall public decision process to which the study belongs. The transport and market research literature is generally silent on this point, but the contingent valuation literature does discuss it at length. Mitchell and Carson (1989) summarize their discussion as shown in Figure 5.

Figure 5 Valid contexts for SP studies

	Obligation to pay perceived as:		
	Amount offered	Uncertain amount	Fixed amount
	Provision of good perceived as contingent on revealed preference		
Motivation	True preference revelation (TP)	Variable (SB ₁)	Overpledge (SB ₂)
Direction	True value	Uncertain	Overbid
Strength	Strong	Weak to moderate	Strong
	Provision of good perceived as likely, regardless of revealed preference		
Motivation	Free Ride (SB ₃)	Free Ride (SB ₄)	Nonstrategic Minimize effort (ME)
Direction	Underbid	Underbid	Random
Strength	Strong	Weak to moderate	Moderate

Source: Mitchell and Carson (1989), 144

CV studies establish willingness-to-pay (WTP), normally in terms of entry fees for a facility or of dedicated taxes, an instrument frequently used in the US to pay for particular services or investments. They argue that it is possible to define a-priori expectations about the respondent's response strategy on the basis of two dimensions: the perceived obligation to pay the stated amount and the importance of the survey in the decision process. Only in one of the six resulting cases (the good will only be provided, if the WTP of the population (respondents) is high enough and if the price will be fixed at the WTP results) can we a-priori expect, that the respondents will reveal their true preferences. In all other cases will we either encounter strategic behaviour misguiding the analyst (Free riding or overpledging) or random behaviour of unknown properties. This approach highlights the need to engage in SP/CA surveys at particular points in the planning/design cycle, in particular, if the respondents have to give WTP indications, as is certainly frequent in transport related studies. This point is early in decision process, well before the decision has been taken to go ahead with the service/investment.

Other policy biases remain even at this point, but they can be much more easily identified and dealt with.

6 CONCLUSIONS

This paper has outlined the *stated-preference* methodology and its cousin *conjoint analysis* as a possible tool for the a-priori evaluation of the TDM measures and for the development of choice models appropriate for the evaluation of the TDM measures.

The model of travel behaviour suggested has highlighted the nature of SP as an approach, which trades off simplification of the behavioral model against tractability and the ability to develop practical forecasting models. The review of the development of the SP and CA methodologies outlined their similarities, but also their differences, which are mostly due to their application environments and their respective professional traditions.

The main sections of the paper described the various elements of the approach and how it can be implemented in practice. The paper stressed three areas in particular:

- a SP study is based on an a-priori behavioral hypothesis which is tested for a-priori specified market segments and behavioral frames of reference
- a SP study is a normal survey study; everything which applies to surveys applies to SP's in terms of methodology and required care
- the results of a SP study are sensitive to its timing. It has to be undertaken at a point in time, when the respondents have an incentive to reveal their true preferences, i.e. when neither the provision nor the price of the good/service have been decided upon.

When these points are accepted and implemented in the SP work, SP studies can make an important contribution to TDM implementation, as they help to identify early, if the measures can achieve their stated goals or if they are nice, but marginal changes to the transport system. SP studies allow the public to participate in the planning process in their role as customers of the transport system. This does not replace their contributions as citizens through the ballot box or the public participation process, but it helps the planner to reflect on any differences between their political willingness to initiate change and their private willingness to act on that change.

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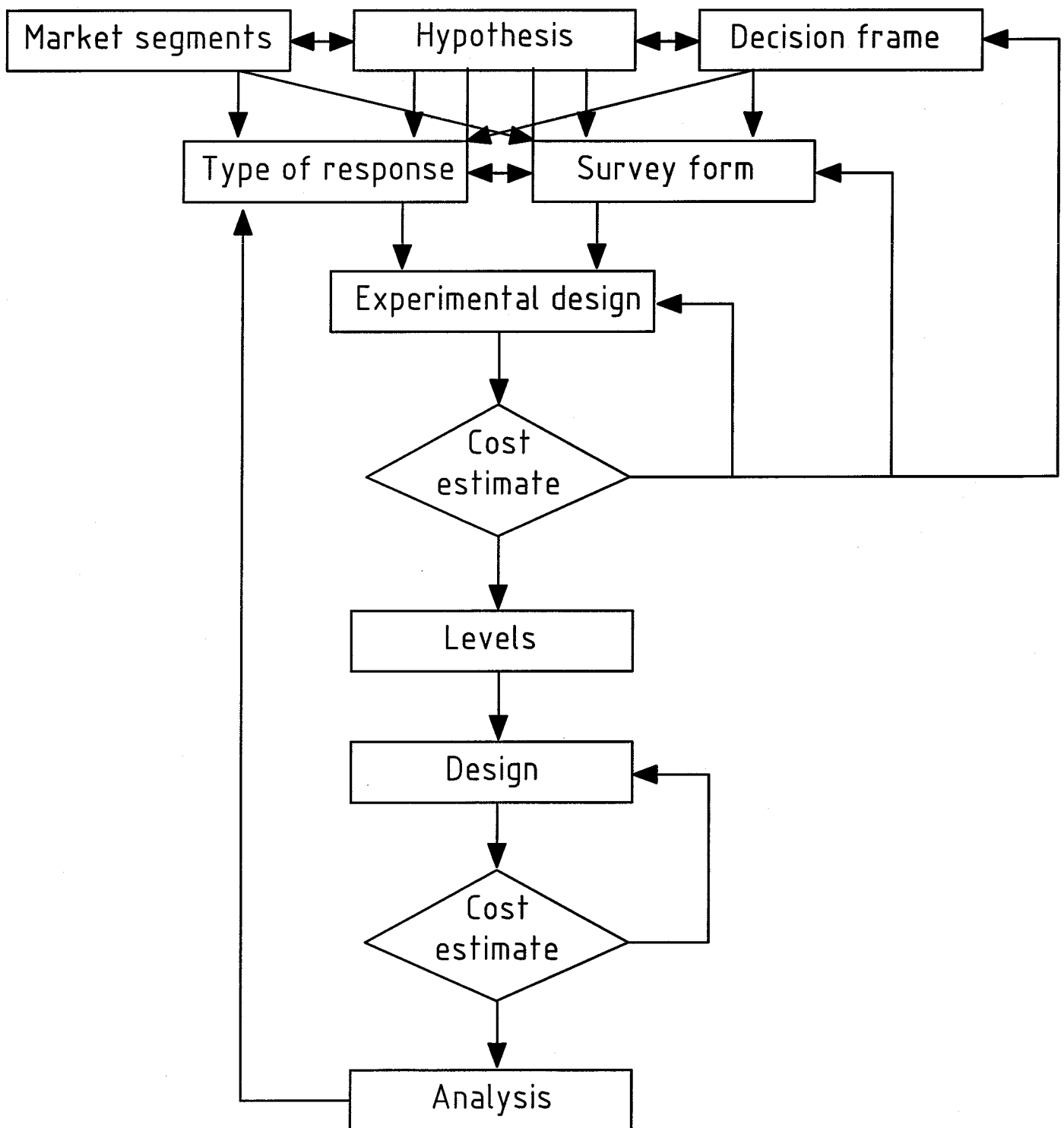
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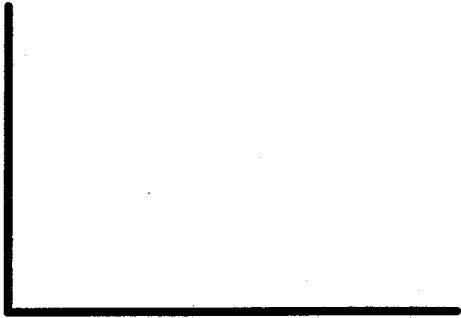
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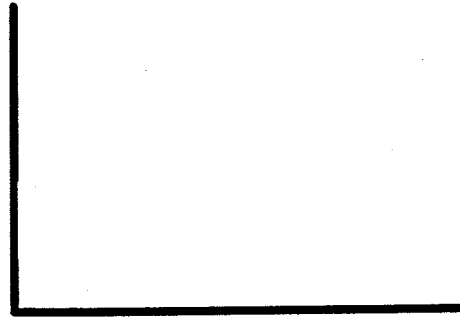
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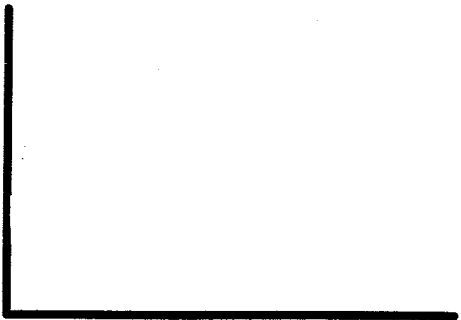




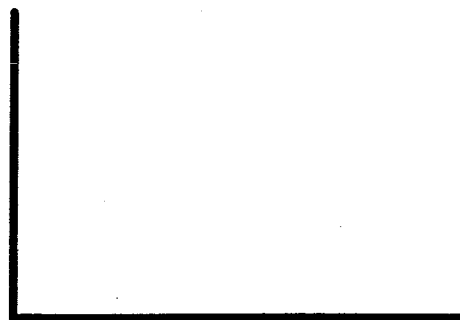
Linear: 2+ levels



Logistic: 3+ levels



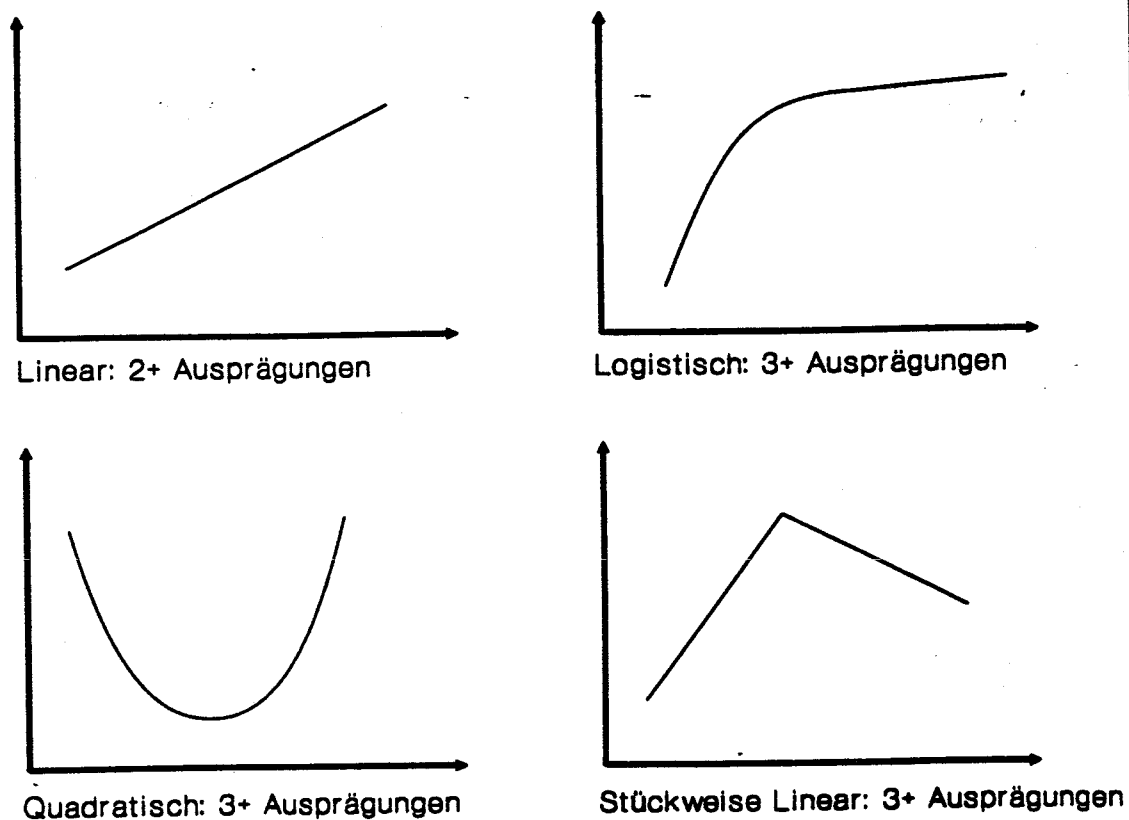
Quadratic: 3+ levels



Piecewise linear: 3+ levels

preference statements, which can have serious effects on the parameter estimates. The simple correction methods for the t-statistics might not suffice (Louviere and Woodworth, 1983).

Figure 3 Minimum number of levels per attribute and functional form



Source: after FGSV (1996), 25

4 SP-SURVEY PROTOCOLS AND PROCESS

The core of SP approach defines the task of the respondent and the number of choice situations to be answered and how they are constructed. It does not specify, what model/hypothesis is being tested, how the values of attribute levels are derived and how the choice situation is presented to the respondent. This section will first discuss these three issues before summarizing the discussion by describing the overall process of a SP-study.