Individuals' Attitudes of Acceptance to Carsharing Mode: A Web-Based Survey in China

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2 ABSTRACT

3 In this study, individuals' attitudes of acceptance to carsharing were measured from three aspects, namely: carsharing mode choice behavior, highest acceptable price for using 4 carsharing, and willingness to forgo car purchases. The data were collected by a web-based 5 6 survey. The hierarchical tree-based regression (HTBR) method was applied to explore the 7 effects of potential influencing factors, and some interesting findings were obtained: participants knowing carsharing were more likely to use carsharing, pay higher price and 8 forgo car purchases; the most competitive trip purpose and trip distance for choosing 9 carsharing were respectively running errands and 11- 20 km; most of participants (47.1%) 10 were willing to pay 1-2 Yuan per minute for using carsharing; when car purchase restrain 11 12 policy (CPRP) was carried out in a city or the urban public transport service level (UPTSL) 13 was high, participants were more willing to give up buying new cars. Based on above findings, corresponding policies were proposed to provide guidance for successful 14 establishment of carsharing. 15

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17 **KEYWORDS**

18 Carsharing; Private car ownership; Sustainable transportation; Hierarchical tree-based 19 regression

2 1. INTRODUCTION

3 The exorbitance of automobile usage and its negative impacts on the energy and environment have been a major global issue and obtained growing concerns. Ahmad and 4 5 Oliveira (1) pointed that about 23% of energy-related CO_2 emissions were emitted by transportation sector. Moreover, the emissions from private vehicles accounted for nearly 6 half of the whole transportation sector. Therefore, numerous countries are gradually 7 involved in the efforts to relieve CO₂ emissions and have proved that by formulating 8 reasonably policies for a more sustainable transportation system, emissions from the 9 transportation sector can be reduced (2). 10

Promoting alternative fuel vehicles, such as hybrid and electric vehicles, offers an 11 12 efficient pathway to reduce CO₂ emissions from private vehicles. As an innovative and 13 sustainable transportation mode, carsharing, i.e., a mode where individuals can rent cars for a short time period, has been proved to have an obvious effect on the private vehicle 14 reduction (3). The carsharing has prominent advantages over the private car in the 15 following three aspects: Firstly, the emergence of carsharing makes remarkable 16 17 contributions to CO₂ emission reduction since the vehicles involved are electric vehicles. 18 Meanwhile, it offers an opportunity to introduce electric vehicles to a broader consumer base. Chen and Kockelman (4) found that in North America, approximately 51% of 19 carsharing members' average individual transportation energy use and CO₂ emissions could 20 be reduced. Secondly, as a beneficial complement to the urban public transport, carsharing 21 mode can provide users with more flexible and comfort service. By using carsharing, 22 23 people can arrive at their destination without transfer in the urban public transport system. 24 Thirdly, using carsharing is less expensive to enjoy a high-quality trip, while users can gain 25 the benefits of a private vehicle without paying the cost of ownership.

The carsharing originated in Europe between the 1940s and 1980s, and become 26 popularized in the early 1990s. For nearly 20 years, the knowledge and advanced operation 27 technologies of carsharing have spread throughout Europe and expanded to five continents, 28 29 including Europe, North America, South America, Asia and Australia (5). Exploring and understanding of individuals' attitudes to carsharing is the basic support for making 30 carsharing development planning, policies and strategies. Comprehensive studies been 31 carried in many developed counties (USA, Australia, Switzerland, Germany, and Korea et. 32 33 al) on the issue of improving individuals' willingness to postpone private cars and 34 participant in the carsharing (6-12).

However, previous findings in above developed countries significantly underrepresent the carsharing development prospect in China. The stage of private car development in China is quite different from that in development countries. As one of the world's largest automobile markets, China has been in a period of rapid urban motorization development, with the private vehicle ownership increasing from 6 million in 2000 to 123 million in 2014 (*13*). Inversely, the vehicle fleet in developed countries increases steadily at a low speed, or even diminishes in size. For example, in 2009, the number of private

privates of America reduced (14). Moreover, the low-quality transport service and 1 inadequate supply of urban public transport have caused that urban mobility in China is 2 increasingly reliant on private vehicles. But compared with developed countries, China has 3 obvious disadvantages in terms of either the road facility density or the urban public 4 5 transport service level. It might be more difficult for Chinese people to postpone private 6 cars due to the continuing growth of motorization and car dependency. Thus, exploration of individuals' attitudes to carsharing mode can reveal fundamental and valuable information 7 about the potential of private car reduction and carsharing promotion. 8

This study aims to explore individuals' attitudes of acceptance to carsharing 9 including the following three aspects: individuals' carsharing mode choice behavior under 10 given trip purposes and distances, which is critical for planners to reasonably distribute 11 12 carsharing infrastructures and vehicles; individuals' acceptable price for using carsharing, 13 which is vital for operators to accurately fix the price; and individuals' willingness to participant in carsharing and postpone buying new cars, which is the basic information for 14 environmental protection departments to estimate the contribution of carsharing to the CO₂ 15 emission reduction. To obtain the required data above, a web-based survey was conducted. 16 17 Moreover, the method of Hierarchical Tree-based Regression (HTBR) was used to characterize the differences in individuals' attitudes to carsharing between different groups 18 based on individual and external factors. Given the above, this study would contribute to 19 providing a better understanding of the carsharing development direction in China, and 20 21 make preliminary recommendations for carsharing planning and operation so as to improve its acceptance. 22

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24 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

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26 **2.1 Influencing Factors on Carsharing Mode Choice Behaviors**

Some potential factors have been considered to explore their influences on individuals' carsharing mode choice behaviors. Factors can be generally divided into two categories. One is individual characteristics (15-16), such as gender, profession, income, children in the household, car ownership, etc. The other one is the external factors including the quality of carsharing vehicles, the level of carsharing service, and the using costs, etc (11).

Since the emergence of carsharing, numerous surveys have been conducted to 32 investigate the characteristics of participants' demographic distribution. Cervero (15) 33 conducted a survey of City CarShare, a carsharing organization in San Francisco, and he 34 found that the members were relatively young while 67% of them were between age 20 and 35 40. Additionally, the members generally had moderate incomes, and approximately 75% of 36 them were from zero-car households. Fairly similar results were obtained by Martin and 37 Shaheen (16). Through analyzing the data from several North American carsharing 38 organizations, they found that 84% of carsharing members were well-educated, with at 39 least a bachelor's degree, and 43% of them had incomes less than \$60,000. Moreover, the 40 41 results revealed that 62% of members reported that they were zero-vehicle households

before joining carsharing. A web-based survey was conducted among participants of Seoul 1 electric vehicle sharing programs (10). Results showed that age and income significantly 2 influenced the sharing behaviors. Specifically, participants with higher income were found 3 to be less likely to change their sharing behaviors. Contrary to the findings in previous 4 5 studies that young people were more likely to participant in carsharing, they found that 6 older people showed higher willingness to continuously participate. From above studies, it 7 could be summarized that individuals with high education level and moderate income and not having a car might be more likely to participant in carsharing. 8

Except for individuals' personal attributes, some external factors were also found to 9 have significant impact on individuals' attitudes to participant in carsharing. The results of 10 an investigation conducted in Europe showed that residents would not like to use 11 12 carsharing if organizations provided poor services, bad vehicles and inconvenient ways to 13 rental spots, and fixed a high price (11). According to the data from Car Sharing Portland (CSP), Katzev (17) found that the distance to the nearest vehicle station and length of 14 membership were the two most important predictors of carsharing usage. Individuals living 15 closed to vehicle stations tended to have higher using frequency. Moreover, the longer 16 individuals joined membership in CSP, the fewer times they would be likely to use, 17 18 especially among those having personal vehicles. Short-term and long-term predictions on carsharing usage were carried out respectively using the indicators of weather and 19 20 socio-demographic data from the booking data of two carsharing systems in Munich (12). The results indicated that the weather had no impacts, but the age structure of a city had 21 distinct influences on the success of carsharing. Findings in previous studies have great 22 significations to estimate the potential carsharing acceptable degree among different 23 24 individual groups in China.

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26 **2.2 Impacts on the Environmental Improvements and Private Car Ownership**

27 The impact of carsharing operations on the environmental improvements has been examined by a considerable body of existing studies. By investigating 11 carsharing 28 organizations in North America, Martin and Shaheen (16) estimated that the annual CO2 29 emission reduction at the household level, and the results showed that 0.58 tons of CO₂ 30 could be reduced by each person, which was roughly equal to 11-16% of the average 31 American household's transport-related CO_2 emissions (18). A stated preference survey 32 was conducted among carsharing members in Ulm, Germany by Finkhorn and Muller (19). 33 34 They estimated a reduction of 0.15–0.31 tons of CO₂ emissions per member per year, considering the reduced vehicle ownership and vehicle-kilometer traveled (VKT) at the 35 same time. 36

As a vital factor influencing the CO₂ emissions, the vehicle ownership has been a research hotspot. In the research field of carshairing, reducing the number of private vehicles by promoting carsharing is widely recognized as the most effective way to realize environment sustainability. Extensive studies have paid continuous attention to the impact of carsharing on reducing the private vehicle ownership. Eighteen months after the

Short-Term Auto Rental (STAR) program was established in San Francisco in the early 1 1980s, Walb and Loudon (20) found that 17% of the members sold their vehicles, and 43% 2 of them would be willing to forgo a vehicle purchase. Katzev (17) studied the early 3 adopters of Car Sharing Portland (CSP), and found that after joining CSP, 26% of them 4 5 sold their personal vehicles and 53% give up vehicle purchases. Considering most of previous studies focused on a specific carsharing organization, Transit Cooperative 6 Research Program (TCRP) summarized 31 former studies about carsharing, and pointed 7 out that 21% of respondents would give up vehicles and 34% reported forgoing vehicle 8 purchases (3). In view of the rapid spread of carsharing in the world, Shaeen and Cohen (5) 9 made a systematic comparison of carsharing between Europe and North America based on 10 the previous 44 studies. The results revealed that each carsharing vehicle could contribute 11 12 to the reduction of 4-10 private vehicles in Europe, and 6-23 vehicles in North America. 13 Moreover, among those joining carshraing, the proportions of participants selling private vehicles were 15.6%-34% in Europe, and 11%-29% in North America. Above findings 14 suggest that carsharing has a significant impact on reducing the number of private vehicles. 15 Regina (7) compared the individuals' attitudes to private vehicle ownership not only 16 17 between members and non-members, but also between urban and suburban area in the San 18 Francisco. The results suggested that urban carsharing members owned fewer vehicles than others, and they were more likely to choose environment friendly vehicle. Nevertheless, 19 there are still no previous studies on individuals' willingness to participant in carsharing 20 21 instead of giving up buying new cars in China.

Based on the above literature review, we can know that a growing body of studies 22 have been carried out worldwide. But, there is no relevant study focus on individuals' 23 24 attitudes to carsharing in China. What makes things more complicated is that due to 25 different development backgrounds of carsharing, some specific factors which is quite important in China have never been analyzed in previous studies, such as car purchase 26 27 restriction policy, awareness of carsharing and so on. As thus, this study makes a new attempt about the issue by conducting a survey taking various potential influencing factors 28 29 into consideration, developing hierarchical tree-based regression models to estimate 30 individuals' attitudes to carsharing and explore the relationships between variables, and providing practical strategies for establishing and promoting carsharing system in China. 31

33 **3. METHOD**

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35 3.1 Survey and data

To collect the information about influencing factors on individuals' acceptance of carsharing in China, a questionnaire-based survey was conducted on a professional online survey platform. Of the 845 participants completing the survey, there were 826 valid responses that could be used to analyze participants' attitudes' to carsharing in China, after filtering the incomplete, incorrect and inaccurate data.

41 In the survey, participants were asked about their (a) demographic information, such

as gender, age, profession, education level, personal income, children in the household and 1 vehicle ownership; (b) awareness of carsharing and lowest acceptable price of carsharing 2 vehicles; (c) living cities' car-purchase restriction policy (CPRP) and urban public transport 3 service level (UPTSL); (d) carsharing mode choice patterns under different trip purposes 4 5 and trip distances; (e) highest acceptable price of using carsharing; (f) attitudes to forgoing 6 a vehicle purchase and participating in carsharing.

7 Table 1 is relevant statistical information about valid collected responses. Participants' education level was divided into three different categories according to their 8 highest school record, namely: low-education participants who had never been to a 9 university; middle-education participants who were studying for or had obtained a 10 bachelor's degree; and high-education participants who were studying for or had obtained a 11 12 graduate degree. Similarly, personal income level was also divided into three categories, 13 namely: low-income participants with less than 5 thousand Yuan per month; middle-income participants with income between 5 thousand and 10 thousand Yuan per month; and 14

Independent variables	Description/levels	Summary statistics		
		Ν	%	
Car purchase restriction policy	Have	546	33.9	
(CPRP)	Not have	280	66.1	
Urban public transport service	Low	363	43.9	
level (UPTSL)	Medium	133	16.1	
	High	330	40	
Gender	Male	420	50.8	
	Female	406	49.2	
Age	<20	52	6.3	
	21-30	472	57.1	
	31-40	233	28.2	
	41-50	53	6.4	
	Above 50	16	1.9	
Profession	Office worker	523	63.3	
	Non-office worker	303	36.7	
Education level	Low-education	110	13.3	
	Middle-education	612	74.1	
	High-education	104	12.6	
Personal income (¥)	Low-income	405	49.0	
	Middle-income	296	34.8	
	High-income	125	15.1	
Children in the household	None	375	45.4	
	Yes	451	54.6	

Car ownership	Having a car	514	62.2	
	Not having a car	312	37.8	
Awareness of carsharing	Know about it	429	51.9	
	Haven't heard	397	48.1	
Price of carsharing vehicles	Below 100 thousand Yuan	336	40.7	
	Among 100 to 200 thousand Yuan	319	38.6	
	Among 200 to 300 thousand Yuan	138	16.7	
	Above 300 thousand Yuan	33	4.0	
Trip purpose	Commute	826	16.7	
	Shopping	826	16.7	
	Go to a doctor	826	16.7	
	Visit relatives and friends	826	16.7	
	Run errands	826	16.7	
	Ferry children	826	16.7	
Trip distance	Trip distance less than 3 km	826	16.7	
	Trip distance between 4 and 10 km	826	16.7	
	Trip distance between 11 and 20 km	826	16.7	
	Trip distance between 21 and 30 km	826	16.7	
	Trip distance between 31 and 40 km	826	16.7	
	Trip distance more than 40 km	826	16.7	

2 3.2 Hierarchical Tree-based Regression (HTBR) method

3 Hierarchical Tree-based Regression (HTBR) is a flexible non-parametric statistical method for dealing with prediction and classification problems (21), which has been widely applied 4 for research in travel behavior in recent years. Compared with parametric statistical 5 methods, HTBR has several advantages. Firstly, most parametric statistical methods need 6 7 to propose model assumptions and pre-define potential relationships between dependent and independent variables, whereas HTBR does not require variables being selected in 8 9 advance as well as a specified assumption of function form. Thus, HTBR can effectively 10 avoid unreasonable assumptions that may lead to erroneous estimation (22). Secondly, by using a stepwise method, HTBR can straightforwardly yield predictions for dependent 11 variables and identify subgroups of target variable following the optimal splitting rules (23). 12 Thirdly, both continuous variables and nominal variables can be dealt with by HTBR, so 13 relationships between various variables can be explored efficiently and the results can be 14 illustrated visually. 15

In this study, there were three dependent variables, including participants' carsharing mode choice, highest acceptable price for using carsharing, and willingness to forgo car purchases. Moreover, independent variables were multi-categorical nominal variables. Therefore, HTBR method is quite suited for exploring the influencing relationships between independent and dependent variables.

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1 **4. DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSES**

3 4.1 Carsharing Mode Choice under Different Trip Purposes and Trip Distances

Figure 1 shows the distribution of participants' carsharing mode choices under different trip 4 5 purposes and different trip distances. From Figure 1(a), it could be found that among the 6 six trip purposes, running errands occupied the highest choosing proportion of carsharing mode, followed by visiting friends and relatives, commuting, shopping, drop-off and 7 pick-up of children, and finally go to a doctor. Specifically, participants' choosing rate 8 ranges from a minimum of 28.5% to a maximum of 64%. From Figure 1(b), 377 9 participants showed willingness to use carsharing mode when the trip distance was 11-20 10 km, accounting for the highest proportion, 46%. The results revealed that other relatively 11 12 competitive trip distance intervals of carsharing mode included 3-10 km and 21-30 km, the 13 choice rate of which were both higher than 30%. When the trip distance was within the other three intervals, including <3 km, 31-40 km and >40 km, the carsharing mode was not 14

15 attractive to participants.



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21 **4.2 Highest Acceptable Price for Using Carsharing**

Results obviously revealed that 389 participants (47.1%) could accept the price between 1 and 2 Yuan per minute. 211 participants (25.5%) insisted that only when the price was less than 1 Yuan per minute, they would consider to use carsharing. 187 participants (22.6%) could accept the price between 2 and 3 Yuan per minute, while only 39 participants (4.7%) would be willing to pay more than 3 Yuan per minute.

27 Specially, Table 2 lists the statistical information of participants' highest acceptable 28 price based on different categories of independent variables. From Table 2, the following 29 general characteristics of participants' acceptable price can be identified.

Compared with females, more males could accept relatively higher trip cost.
 Specifically, when the price was more than 2 Yuan, 32% of male could accept, but
 only 23% female could accept.

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- 31% of non-office workers thought that the price should be smaller than 1 Yuan, while the percentage of office workers (23%) was a little lower. Inversely, 34% of office workers showed acceptance of the price higher than 2 Yuan, while that of non-office workers was 22%. The results revealed that office workers were willing to pay more for using carsharing than non-office workers.
- With the increase of income, the percentage of accepting high price (>2 Yuan) would also increase, respectively 18% for low-income, 33% for middle-income, 48% for high-income.
- Participants having private cars were found to be more willing to accept high price than those not having cars. Particularly, the accepting percentage of each price interval for participants having private cars was 48% for 1-2 Yuan, 27% for 2-3
 Yuan, and 5% for >3 Yuan, which were all higher than percentages of participants not having a private
- Results showed that participants knowing carsharing could accept higher price.
 Specifically, 30% of participants knowing carsharing could accept the price
 between 2-3 Yuan, which was 16% higher than those not knowing carsharing.
- When participants could accept the price of carsharing vehicles less than 100 thousand, only 14% of them were willing to pay more than 2 Yuan. But, with the price of carsharing vehicles increasing to 200 thousand, more than 50% of participants could accept the price more than 2 Yuan. It indicated that participants would be willing to pay more when hoping carsharing vehicles to be expensive.

Table 2 Statistical Information of Participants' Highest Acceptable Price Based on Different Categories of Independent Variables

Independent variables	<1 Yuan		1-2 Yuan		2-3 Yuan		>3 Yuan	
	N	%	N	%	Ν	%	Ν	%
By CPRP								
Have	126	23	264	48	133	25	23	4
Not have	85	30	125	45	54	19	16	6
By UPTSL								
Low	102	28	165	46	79	22	17	5
Medium	38	29	59	44	28	21	8	6
High	71	22	165	50	80	24	14	4
By gender								
Male	98	23	189	45	108	26	25	6
Female	113	28	200	50	79	20	14	3
By age								
<20	15	29	22	42	11	21	4	8
21-30	121	26	233	29	99	21	19	4
31-40	51	22	106	46	54	28	12	5
41-50	16	30	23	43	12	22	2	4

>50	8	50	5	31	1	6	2	13
By profession								
Non-office worker	93	31	142	47	57	19	11	3
Office worker	118	23	247	47	130	25	28	5
By monthly income (Y)								
Low-income	141	35	195	48	55	14	14	4
Middle-income	58	20	141	48	82	28	15	5
High-income	12	10	53	42	50	40	10	8
By education level								
Low-education	35	32	53	48	15	14	7	6
Middle-education	152	25	283	46	149	24	28	5
High-education	24	23	53	51	23	22	4	4
By child								
No	116	31	180	48	63	17	16	4
Yes	95	21	209	46	124	27	23	5
By car ownership								
Having a car	101	20	245	48	141	27	27	5
Not having a car	110	35	144	46	46	15	12	4
By awareness of carsharing								
Know about it	67	16	211	49	130	30	21	5
Haven't heard	144	36	178	45	57	14	18	5
By price of the carsharing vehicle								
Below 100 thousand	135	40	154	46	35	10	12	4
Among 100 to 200 thousand	66	21	166	52	73	23	14	4
Among 200 to 300 thousand	8	6	57	41	63	46	10	7
Above 300 thousand Yuan	2	6	12	36	16	49	3	9

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2 4.3 Willingness to Forgo Car Purchases

To measure the influence of carsharing on the private car reduction, participants were asked whether they were willing to give up buying new cars if the carsharing service could satisfy their travel demand. Results showed that 513 (62.1%) participants were willing to forgo car purchases, which was obvious more than participants not willing to quit buying a new car.

Table 3 displays the statistical information of participants' willingness to forgo car
purchases based on different categories of independent variables. From Table 3, we can
identify the following general characteristics:

- When living in a city without CPRP, 55% of participants were inclined to give up buying a new car. The proportion would increase to 66% among participants living in a city having CPRP. The results revealed that CPRP could provide a meaningful pathway to reduce the private car ownership and promote the carsharing.
 - Only 5% of participants with low satisfaction on UPTSL would be willing to using carsharing instead of buying a car. Conversely, when having high satisfaction,

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more participants (37%) showed interests in forgoing car purchases. It indicated that with the increase of participants' satisfaction on UPTSL, their willingness to forgoing buying cars would dramatically increase.

- Results showed that males were more insistent to buying cars. The proportion of
 male participants accepting to forgoing car purchases was 59 %, while that of
 female was 65 %.
- A clear relationship between participants' attitudes to giving up buying cars and their income level was that the former increased with the latter. Particularly, the willing proportion of participants from the low-income group was 58%, while that of participants from the high-income group was 68%.
- 75% of participants having cars were willing to forgoing car purchases, which was
 obviously more than those not having cars (44%). It indicated that carsharing had a
 positive impact on reducing the number of cars in the household.
- Participants knowing carsharing would be more likely to accept forgoing car
 purchases (75%) than those not knowing carsharing (48%). Thus, carsharing
 orginazations should pay more attentions to widely advertise carsharing.

Table 3 Participants' Willingness to Forgo Car Purchases Based on Different Categories of Independent Variables

Independent variables	Willing to forgo car purchases		Not willing to forgo car purchases		
	Ν	%	Ν	%	
By CPRP					
Have	359	66	187	34	
Not have	154	55	126	45	
By UPTSL					
Low	134	37	229	63	
Medium	64	48	69	52	
High	315	95	15	5	
By gender					
Male	256	61	164	39	
Female	257	63	149	37	
By age					
<20	21	40	31	60	
21-30	280	59	192	41	
31-40	163	70	70	30	
41-50	38	72	15	28	
>50	11	69	5	31	
By profession					
Non-office worker	167	55	136	45	
Office worker	346	66	177	34	
By monthly income (Y)					
Low-income	234	58	171	42	

Middle-income	194	66	102	34
High-income	85	68	40	32
By education level				
Low-education	66	60	44	40
Middle-education	390	64	222	36
High-education	57	55	47	45
By child				
No	194	52	181	48
Yes	319	71	132	29
By car ownership				
Having a car	340	66	174	34
Not having a car	173	55	139	45
By awareness of carsharing				
Know about it	324	76	105	24
Haven't heard	189	47	208	53
By price of the carsharing vehicle				
Below 100 thousand	190	56	146	44
Among 100 to 200 thousand	207	65	112	35
Among 200 to 300 thousand	95	69	43	31
Above 300 thousand Yuan	21	64	12	36

5. HTBR MODELING RESULTS

3 Four HTBR models were constructed in this study. It should be noted that Model #1 and Model #2 were respectively constructed for predicting participants' carsharing mode 4 5 choice under different trip purposes and trip distances. For data inputs, the four models had nine same prediction variables (independent variables), including CPRP, UPTSL, 6 participants' gender, profession, income, children in the household, car ownership, 7 awareness of carsharing, and lowest acceptable price of carsharing vehicles. In addition, the 8 trip purpose and distance were regarded as two classification variables put into tree Model 9 #1 and Model #2. 10

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12 **5.1 HTBR Model #1 and Model #2–Predicting Participants' Carsharing Mode Choice**

The results of Model #1 and Model #2 are respectively displayed in Figure 2 and Figure 3. The final tree structures for participants' carsharing mode choice under different trip purposes and different trip distances respectively involves six splitting variables (trip purpose, awareness of carsharing, UPTSL, profession, children in household, and car ownership), and six splitting variables (trip distance, children in household, awareness of carsharing, car ownership, profession, and CPRP). As shown in Figure 2, the tree could be classified as follows.

20 *In the first level*: the purposes of commuting and visiting were classified into the 21 same subgroup, while shopping and ferrying children were in the same subgroup. The results meant that participants tended to make the same choice of whether to use carsharing mode under purposes in the same subgroups. Moreover, the proportion of participants choosing carsharing mode when running errands was the higheast (63.9%), followed by commuting and visiting (42.9%), shopping and ferrying children (36.0%), and finally going to a doctor (28.5%).

6 In the second level: when commuting, visiting, shopping or ferrying children, 7 participants' awareness of carsharing was the most important influencing factor for carsharing mode choice, while participants' satisfaction on UPTSL was the most important 8 when going to a doctor, and profession was the most important when running errands. 9 From Node 5 to Note 8, it could be found that participants knowing carsharing were more 10 likely to use it compared with those not knowing carsharing. When going to a doctor, 11 12 participants with high satisfaction on UPTSL would be more willing to use carsharing. 13 When running errands, 66.5% of office workers chose to use carsharing, which was 7.1% higher than the choosing proportion of non-office workers. 14

In the third level: when commuting and visiting, children in the household 15 significantly influenced the choice behavior of participants knowing carsharing: 16 participants having children were more likely to use carsharing; when shopping and 17 18 ferrying children, the choice behavior of participants not knowing carsharing was influenced by the car ownership: participants having cars were more likely to use 19 20 carsharing. The same conclusion could be addressed when analyzing the choice behavior of office workers when running errands; when going to a doctor, participants' profession was 21 the key factor influencing the choice behavior of participants with high satisfaction on 22 UPTSL: the proportion of non-office workers choosing carsharing (42.0%) was much 23 24 higher than that of office workers (30.4%).



FIGURE 2 HTBR Model #1-Predicting predicting participants' carsharing mode choice under different purposes.

As shown in Figure 3, the tree could be classified as follows.

In the first level: the distance intervals of 31-40km and >40km were classified into the same subgroup, which meant that participants' choice behavior characteristics was similar when the trip distance was over 30km. Moreover, the results revealed that participants were not willing to use carsharing mode when their trip distance was shorter than 3km or longer than 30km.

In the second level: For trip distance <3km and 21-30km, children in the household 7 was the most important classification factor for participants' choice, while participants' 8 awareness of carsharing mode, car ownership and profession were the most important for 9 trip distance 4-10km, 11-20km and >30km, respectively. Specifically, for trip distance 10 <3km, participants not having children were more likely to use carsharing. Inversely, when 11 12 the trip distance increased to 21-30km, 36.6% of participants having children were willing 13 to use carsharing, which was 10.7% higher than those not having children. For trip distance 4-10km, it was found that some participants would still not willing to use carsharing even 14 though they were aware of it. For trip distance 11-20km, 49.2 % of participants having cars 15 accepted to use carsharing, which was much higher than participants not having cars, and 16 17 37.2%. For trip distance >30km, 36.6% of office workers chose to use carsharing, which 18 was 10.7% higher than that of non-office workers.

In the third level: when trip distance was between 21km to 30km, the choice behavior of participants having children was significantly influenced by their awareness of carsharing: 41.8% of participants knowing carsharing chose to use the mode while only 26.3% of participants not knowing carsharing were willing to use. When trip distance was over 30km, CPRP had an obvious impact on the choice behavior of non-office workers: participants living in a city having CPRP were more likely to use carsharing.



FIGURE 3 HTBR Model #2-Predicting predicting participants' carsharing mode choice under different distances.

5.2 HTBR Model #3-Predicting Participants' Highest Acceptable Price for Using Carsharing

The results of Model #3 are displayed in Figure 4, which are applied for predicting participants' highest acceptable price. The final tree structure involved four splitting variables, including participants' income level, awareness of carsharing, gender and children in the household. As shown in Figure 4, the tree could be classified as follows.

In the first level: it was found that participants' income level was the most important 8 influencing factor on participants' highest acceptable price. For income <5000 Yuan, 34.8% 9 of participants could only accept the price lower than 1 Yuan, which was much higher than 10 proportions of participants with income 5000-10000 Yuan (19.6%) and >10000 Yuan 11 12 (9.6%). Similar trend could also be found for income between 1 Yuan and 2 Yuan. Inversely, 13 for income >10000, 48% of participants could accept the price over 2 Yuan, which was respectively 15.2% and 30.9% higher than the proportions of participants with income 14 <5000 Yuan and 5000-10000 Yuan. The results revealed that with the increase of income, 15 participants would be willing to pay more for using carsharing. 16

In the second level: For income <10000, participants' awareness of carsharing was the most important classification factor for participants' highest acceptable price. Specifically, from Node 4 to Node 7, it could be found that participants knowing the carsharing were more likely to pay higher price for using carsharing than those never hearing about carsharing.

In the third level: For income <5000 Yuan, the highest acceptable price of participants knowing carsharing was significantly influenced by gender: 32.8% of males could accept the price over 2 Yuan which was much higher than the proportion of female (12.5%). For income 5000-10000 Yuan, when participants not knowing carsharing, whether having children had an obvious impact on participants' highest acceptable price: if having children, participants tended to accept higher price.



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5.3 HTBR Model #4-Predicting Participants' Willingness to Forgo Car Purchases

The results of Model #4 are shown in Figure 5. The final tree structure involved five
splitting variables, including participants' satisfaction on URTSL, awareness of carsharing,
CPRP, income level and car ownership. As shown in Figure 5, the tree could be classified
as follows.

carsharing.

In the first level: it was found that participants' satisfaction on UPTSL was the most important influencing factor on participants' willingness to give up buying new cars. 95.5 % of participants with high satisfaction considered to give up car purchases if carsharing could satisfy their travel demand, while the proportions of participants with medium and low satisfaction were respectively 48.1% and 36.9%. It indicated that the higher the UPTSL was, the less new private cars would be by introducing carsharing.

16 *In the second level:* participants' awareness of carsharing were found to be the most 17 important influencing factor on the willingness to forgoing buying new cars of participants 1 with low or medium satisfaction on UPTSL. From Node 4 to Node 7, it was obvious that

2 participants knowing carsharing were much more willing to forgoing buying new cars.

3 CPRP was found to be the key factor influencing the willingness to forgoing buying new

4 cars of participants with high satisfaction. When living in a city having CPRP, 99.1% of
5 participants were willing to forgoing buying new cars, which was much higher than the

6 proportion of participants living in a city not having CPRP.

In the third level: For participants with low satisfaction on UPTSL and knowing carsharing, income was the most important influencing factor: when income was less than 5000 Yuan, 37.7% of participants were willing to forgoing buying new cars, which was much lower than that of participants with more than 5000 Yuan income, 59.2%. When living in a city having CPRP, car ownership had an obvious impact on the willingness to forgoing buying new cars of participants with high satisfaction on UPTSL: if having cars, all participants were willing to forgoing buying a new car

13 all participants were willing to forgoing buying a new car.



FIGURE 5 HTBR Model #4-predicting participants' willingness to forgo car purchases.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

3 Using the data collected from an online survey, this study has identified factors that influence individuals' attitudes to carsharing in China, including individuals' carsharing 4 5 mode choice behavior, highest acceptable price for using carsharing, and willingness to 6 forgo car purchases. Through correlation description analyses and HTBR methods, some important findings have been obtained. Relationships between factors and individuals' 7 attitudes of acceptance to carsharing can provides better insights in the development 8 potential of carsharing in China. As with any new concept, carsharing faces challenges in 9 getting a stronghold as a sustainable urban transport mode. Based on findings in this paper, 10 some challenges were outlined and corresponding policies were proposed to improve 11 12 individuals' acceptance to carsharing throughout the process of planning, operation and 13 management, which may also be applicable to other countries.

In the planning aspect, carsharing could be considered into urban and traffic 14 development planning documents as an important sustainable strategy, so as to provide 15 strong support for carsharing development from the governments. Besides, planning 16 17 schemes of carsharing pilot projects in China could be published to guide the implementation of carsharing system, especially for reasonably allocating carsharing 18 vehicles and infrastructures. In this paper, trip purpose and trip distance were found to be 19 the most two important influencing factors of carsharing mode choice behavior. For trip 20 purpose, results showed that most of individuals chose to use carsharing when running 21 errands, followed by visiting friends and relatives, commuting, shopping, ferrying children, 22 and finally going to a doctor. It can be said that the demands of using carsharing in China 23 24 mainly distribute in office blocks and neighborhoods. Thus, more carsharing vehicles could be planned to be allocated in neighborhoods major employment centers, and central 25 business areas (9). For trip distance, it was found that carsharing was attractive to 26 27 individuals when their trip distance interval was 3-30 km. As the trip distance was a determinant directly influencing the battery usage of carsharing vehicles, the findings about 28 29 attractive trip distance interval could provide important basic information for further 30 exploring and quantitatively calculating the optimal layout plan of carsharing infrastructures, such as parking lots, battery-charging stations and so on. 31

In the operation aspect, carsharing operators should focus on providing high-quality 32 and diversified service to satisfy individuals' different demands. In this paper, it was found 33 34 that the relatively competitive price range was <2 Yuan. In particular, participants' highest acceptable price for using carsharing was obviously effected by participants' 35 socio-demographic characteristics. The results showed that males were more likely to pay 36 higher price than females and participants with higher-income could accept higher price. 37 Moreover, participants hoping for high-price carsharing vehicle showed more willingness 38 to pay more. Thus, to satisfy the diversified demand, carsharing operators should provide 39 various choices of carsharing vehicles for individuals and reasonably set the price. Vehicles 40 41 of different price levels can be introduced into the carsharing system, and the using prices

can be set accordingly. Moreover, relatively expensive cars can be allocated around the 1 high-class residence communities, since individuals living there are always with 2 3 higher-income.

In the management aspect, great efforts should be made to improve individuals' 4 5 awareness of carsharing and strengthen the urban management policies to reduce private 6 cars. As expected, results indicated that individuals knowing carsharing were more likely to use carsharing, pay higher price and forgo car purchases. Similarly, TCRP (3) found that 7 only 0.03% of the US urban population joined carsharing in 2004, and the key reason was 8 the lack of knowledge about carsharing. In this study, approximately half of participants 9 (48.1%) had never heard about carsharing. It meant that lots of individuals in China did not 10 understand what carsharing was, how it differed from ridesharing, and how and where it 11 12 worked. Thus, to popularize carsharing in China and highlight its advantages in private car 13 deduction, it is quite urgent to make great efforts to dispel individuals' confusion about this new concept and increase their awareness. Marketing is considered to be the most effective 14 way to promote better understanding of carsharing among the public. Specially, marketing 15 can be carried out by different methods, such as delivering information on websites and in 16 newsletters, distributing materials at transportation fairs, encouraging media coverage, 17 issuing press releases, offering links from transportation department website to carsharing 18 service website, and forming nation-wide organizations to educate policy makers and the 19 20 wider public as to the role and benefits of carsharing. The results also showed that variables related to participants' living city significantly influenced their attitudes to forgo car 21 purchases. Particularly, when CPRP was carried out in a city or the UPTSL was high, 22 individuals were more willing to give up buying new cars. Thus, to realize the goals of 23 24 private car reduction, great efforts should be made to strengthen the urban management policies as well as improve the UPTSL. Measures controlling the increase of private cars, 25 such as CPRP and auto plate auction policy, should continue to be carried out, especially in 26 27 metropolis like Beijing, Shanghai, ShenZhen, etc.

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