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1 **Air Itinerary Shares estimation using Multinomial Logit Models**

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10 **Air Itinerary Shares estimation using Multinomial Logit Models**

11 The main goal of this study is the development of an aggregate air itinerary
12 market share model. In order to achieve this, multinomial logit models are
13 applied to distribute the city-pair passenger demand across the available
14 itineraries. The models are developed at an aggregate level using open-source
15 booking data for a large group of city-pairs within the US Air Transport System.
16 Although there is a growing trend in the use of discrete choice models in the
17 aviation industry, existing air-itinerary share models are mostly focused on
18 supporting carrier decision-making. Consequently, those studies define itineraries
19 at a more disaggregate level, using variables describing airlines and time
20 preferences. In this study, we define itineraries at a more aggregate level, i.e., as a
21 combination of flight segments between an origin and destination, without further
22 insight into service preferences. Although results show some potential for this
23 approach, there are challenges associated with prediction performance and
24 computational intensity.

25 Keywords: word; air itinerary shares; discrete choice models; multinomial logit;
26 aggregation level;

27 **1. Introduction**

28 Good forecasts of future demand for air traffic as well as good forecasts of how airlines
29 are likely to serve this demand are essential to enable supply to adapt to growth in
30 demand. While the majority of existing research focuses on improving air travel
31 demand models, there is a growing interest in developing better itinerary share models
32 than those that already exist. Itinerary share models can be crucial to support airline
33 network planning and scheduling since important decisions on resources allocation and
34 pricing are made based on itinerary demand. These decisions are essential as airlines
35 plan their operations, purchase equipment and make strategic decisions. Airport
36 authorities also benefit from good forecasts, given the long timescales associated with
37 airport development and capacity expansion. Improving the accuracy of itinerary share

38 models is therefore a powerful tool for airline and airport authority planning and
39 decision making, translating into more efficient operations, improved revenue
40 management and increase profitability. Consequently, for the past 15 years, efforts have
41 focused on developing this type of model, shifting away from the Quality of Service
42 indices (QSI) used during the period when the industry was regulated, and/or more
43 simplistic approaches – such as time-series and simplistic probability models based on
44 historical trends – (Garrow, 2010). In contrast, discrete choice models model demand by
45 capturing *how* individuals make decisions and trade-offs among airports, airlines, price,
46 level of service and other factors that define the air passenger journey.

47 Most of the current research centres on developing innovative approaches using
48 such discrete choice modelling. These approaches, which aim to model competition and
49 customer behaviour to determine air-travel itinerary shares (also known as demand
50 assignment models), are expected to more accurately predict air travel demand. While
51 most of the discrete choice models applied in urban transport are built using
52 disaggregate data and include information about the individual making the decision –
53 i.e. the passenger –; in air transport, data disaggregation as well as data accessibility are
54 limiting factors. The need to quickly adapt to changes in demand makes flexibility
55 crucial for carriers and other stakeholders in the industry. For this reason, most of the
56 models built to support decision-making rely on booking data, which is generally
57 proprietary. Furthermore, airlines do not typically record much of the passenger data
58 that is relevant to passenger decision making, such as age, gender and income. This data
59 is not typically available, except for a small subset of passengers through surveys,
60 which are time consuming and costly to complete.

61 Most of the early studies on demand assignment for air travel focus on studying
62 the distribution of demand across one single dimension, i.e. only focusing on modelling

63 passenger choice in terms of one single criteria, such as airport-choice or airline choice.
64 These early models were mostly applied to analyse air travellers' choice within multi-
65 airport cities or regions – i.e., airport choice models (Hansen, 1995; Windle & Dreesner,
66 1995) – or across airlines – airline choice models (Prousaloglou & Koppelman, 1995)
67 –. Although the former is the most widely studied topic in discrete choice modelling
68 within air transport, and has given a deeper understanding to the relationship between
69 airport attributes and airport market share, a more aggregated assignment of air travel
70 volume is also needed. Only a few studies present approaches for itinerary market share
71 estimation across multiple dimensions (i.e., modelling a passenger's simultaneous
72 choice in terms of multiple criteria, e.g., airline, flight time, fare-class etc.) using
73 discrete choice modelling. Of those, early models used a multinomial logit (MNL)
74 approach (Adler, 2001; Coldren *et al.*, 2003; Grosche and Rothlauf, 2007; Atasoy and
75 Bierlaire, 2012), while more recent models also apply nested logit (NL) models
76 (Coldren and Koppelman, 2005; Hsiao and Hansen, 2011), mixed multinomial logit
77 (MMNL) models (Warburg *et al.*, 2006) and other alternatives approaches (Gramming
78 *et al.* 2005; Carrier, 2008). The mentioned aggregate passenger-allocation studies can
79 be classified according to the type of data they are based on: revealed preference data
80 (RP) or booking data; stated preferences (SP) data or survey data; or a combination of
81 both. Studies using RP data do not usually provide full insight into passenger choice
82 behaviour since models are estimated based on real booking data, and no information
83 regarding other alternatives at the moment of booking is generally available. This
84 limitation often leads to RP models performing poorly due to the high demand
85 inelasticity of the booking data used to estimate the model (Garrow, 2010). In contrast,
86 SP data collected from surveys allows for modelling of new non-existing alternatives, as
87 well as more accurate estimation of the sensitivity of travellers to characteristics of their

88 trips. However, studies using SP data may be subject to bias due to the nature of the
89 experiment in which the individuals are asked to make hypothetical choices by making
90 trade-offs among the attributes of the choice set (e.g., level of service, air fare etc.).
91 Although such surveys provide a customer response to a wider range of choices,
92 providing a better estimate of how individuals make tradeoffs, they are tailored to the
93 needs of the survey writer, which limits the natural range of choice sets to only those
94 that the survey writer is aware of (Garrow , 2010; Louviere *et al.*, 1999). Studies based
95 on SP data are also often limited to a small range of markets, limiting their application
96 to a small network set.

97 Although the models applied in the studies described above are generally
98 effective for the purposes to which they are applied, they do not allow for an estimation
99 of how passenger market demand is distributed across the available itineraries at the
100 most aggregate level, only considering average market air fare and travel time, level of
101 service and basic airport attributes as inputs.

102 This paper presents the full air itinerary share model introduced by Busquets *et*
103 *al.* (2016), refined to better capture passenger choice effects, model validation, and
104 estimated at the most aggregate level possible, linking annual city-pair demand to the
105 different itineraries available within the entire US Air Transport System (ATS).

106 The remainder of the paper is structured as follows: The paper's objectives are
107 presented in Section 2. The modelling approach is detailed in Section 3, with
108 information regarding the input variables used to estimate the model. The model is
109 estimated on one dataset, and validated on another. Section 4 provides information
110 about these two datasets. Modelling results are presented in Section 5, followed by the
111 model validation results in Section 6 and a discussion on future work in Section 7.

112 2. Objectives

113 The primary objective of this research is to develop an air itinerary choice model to
114 directly estimate the distribution of passenger demand across available routes for a
115 given O-D pair, using only aggregate data describing average air fare and travel time,
116 level of service and basic airport characteristics. Ultimately, this model will be
117 combined with models for forecasting air travel demand and air traffic, all within the
118 same 3-stage framework (described in Busquets *et al.*, (2015)). This framework consists
119 of the following stages:

- 120 (1) Forecast city-pair passenger demand;
- 121 (2) Distribute this demand across available itineraries; and
- 122 (3) Forecast air traffic as a function of route demand.

123 This modelling approach is inspired by previous research that focused on
124 improving the Federal Aviation Administration's (FAA) forecasting methodology and
125 for which further potential improvements have been identified. The 3-stage framework
126 is expected to allow for identification of the key drivers of evolution in the US ATS as
127 well as to predict future air traffic growth within the US ATS. In order to achieve these
128 objectives, the approach includes three elements beyond that of the existing research:

- 129 • The use of data mining techniques to model the US ATS evolution in order to
130 predict air traffic with improved accuracy and precision levels while maintaining
131 the simplicity of existing econometrics, gravity and time-series models.
- 132 • The consideration of a larger set of explanatory variables than is typically
133 considered in existing air traffic forecasting approaches.
- 134 • Explicitly modelling the distribution of city-pair passenger demand between
135 itineraries.

136 This paper addresses the last of these three elements, which develops the
137 framework's stage 2 – to distribute passenger demand across available itineraries. The
138 approach described in this paper is therefore expected to:

- 139 • Highlight the most important factors underlying the air traveller's choice
140 behaviour within the domestic US ATS;
- 141 • Perform air itinerary share model refinement and verification for the entire US
142 ATS following previously work (Busquets *et al.*, 2016); and
- 143 • Explicitly model the distribution of city-pair passenger demand between
144 itineraries within the US ATS.

145 The model presented in this paper is expected to generate better predictions of airport-
146 pair air traffic flows once integrated with the air traffic demand model presented by
147 Busquets *et al.*, (2015).

148 **3. Approach**

149 ***Data***

150 Based on the literature review, there are a large number of factors that describe an
151 itinerary. An itinerary, as defined in this paper, is a flight segment or combination of
152 flight segments connecting a given city-pair. In this study, itineraries are either non-
153 stop, or one-stop (i.e., a combination of two flight segments involving an aircraft change
154 during the connection). Considering constraints in data availability and the different
155 attributes that are considered to contain the most relevant information for an itinerary,
156 the input variables for the itinerary market share model are chosen as described in Table
157 1.

158 [Table 1]

159 The output variable for the model developed in this paper is the market share (S_i)
160 of a given itinerary i . This is defined as the ratio of the demand of the itinerary i (d_i), to
161 the total demand for the market served by itinerary i (D_m), as shown in Eq. (1). The total
162 demand for market m is given by the sum of passengers travelling on all itineraries that
163 serve that market.

$$164 \qquad S_i = \frac{d_i}{D_m} \qquad (1)$$

165 ***Detailed Forecasting Methodology***

166 Following the work presented by Busquets *et al.* (2015), which introduced the 3-stage
167 model described in §2 to forecasting future air traffic levels, this paper focuses on fully
168 developing its stage 2 – to distribute passenger demand across available itineraries. The
169 objective of this phase is therefore to transform Origin-Destination (O-D) demand by
170 city-pair into passenger demand by airport-pair using an air itinerary choice model.

171 Stage 2 of the 3-stage model described by Busquets *et al.* (2015) consists of 2
172 steps: identification of available itineraries estimated using logistic regression
173 (described in detail in Busquets *et al.* (2015)), followed by the distribution of the O-D
174 demand by city-pair obtained from the O-D demand model (stage 1 in the 3-stage model
175 described by Busquets *et al.* (2015)) across the available itineraries using a discrete
176 choice model. The first step is motivated by the scope of this research to improve the
177 current FAA's forecasting methodology while maintaining the simplicity of current
178 models and is inspired by a previous research (Kotegawa, 2012). The second step is the
179 focus of this paper. This air itinerary model allows the flight segment passenger demand
180 by airport-pair to be estimated, based on the passenger itinerary demand from all O-D
181 city-pairs. It is not feasible to develop a model for each possible O-D market, so in
182 order to apply the discrete choice model, the US is divided into five regions, as done by

183 Coldren, et al. (2003): four Continental time zones (Central, East, Mountain and West)
184 and a region for Alaska and Hawaii. This specific O-D market grouping is an attempt to
185 capture similarities among all city-pairs. The number and nature of these regional
186 clusters will be modified using clustering techniques in future work. Given these
187 regions, 18 region-pairs have been defined considering all 16 possible combinations of
188 the Continental time zones – e.g., Central-Central (C-C), Central-East (C-E), Central-
189 Mountain (C-M), Central-West (C-W), etc., West-Mountain (W-M), West-West (W-W)
190 –; as well as a region-pair for Alaska and Hawaii to the Continental US and an region-
191 pair for the Continental US to Alaska and Hawaii. For each region-pair, henceforth
192 referred to as an 'entity', an air itinerary share model is developed.

193 This attempts to model the aggregate share of all or groups of decision makers -
194 i.e., air travellers - choosing each alternative as a function of the trip characteristics. In
195 contrast to existing research, the itinerary share estimation is done at the most
196 aggregate level, without considering variables specific to the traveller, such as
197 passenger preferences and perceptions, or variables specific to the service provider,
198 such as airline operating the given route, departure time or aircraft type, among others.
199 Instead, only attributes related to average air fare and travel time, level of service and
200 basic airport characteristics are considered. The focus of the model is to estimate the
201 distribution of annual passenger market demand among itineraries, which will be used
202 as one of the input variables in the third stage of the air traffic estimation model
203 described in §2, per annum.

204 In order to develop the air itinerary share model, RP data is used, avoiding the
205 risk of response bias and allowing for the consideration of a much larger network of
206 city-pairs within the US ATS. The RP data used is 10% ticket survey of booking data
207 from airlines operating within the US domestic market (BTS-RITA, 2003-2010). The

208 city-pairs considered, M , are all within the domestic US ATS and are defined by origin
 209 and destination. The universal choice set, C , is formed for all possible itineraries within
 210 the entire ATS connecting these city pairs. The choice problem is defined for each city-
 211 pair, $m \in M$, with the choice set being all the possible itineraries connecting that given
 212 city-pair, represented by I_m . Each itinerary i is characterised by a set of attributes such
 213 as level of service, price, time and basic airport characteristics. As a simplification, only
 214 two possible levels of service are considered, non-stop and one-stop flights. For the one-
 215 stop flights, the connections available are through one of a set of 24 US hub airports
 216 defined for this study.

217 The annual share of passenger demand assigned to each itinerary between a
 218 given city-pair is modelled as an aggregate multinomial logit (MNL) function and is
 219 given by Eq. (2) where S_i is the passenger share assigned to itinerary i , V_i is the utility
 220 function or value of itinerary i and the summation is over all itineraries for a given city-
 221 pair. The utility function (V_i) is a linear function of the explanatory variables and
 222 assumes that each vector of attributes characterizing an alternative can be reduced to a
 223 scalar value, which expresses the attractiveness of each alternative. Consequently, it is
 224 expected that the individual or group of individuals will choose the alternative with the
 225 highest value, maximizing their utility. Equation (3) shows the general expression for
 226 V_i , where X_i is the vector of attributes defining alternative i ; and β' represents the
 227 coefficients to be estimated capturing the influence of the corresponding attribute on the
 228 alternative i (Atasoy & Bierlaire, 2012).

$$229 \quad S_i = \frac{\text{Exp}(V_i)}{\sum_j \text{exp}(V_j)} \quad (2)$$

$$230 \quad V_i = \beta' \cdot X_i = \beta_1 \cdot X_{i1} + \beta_2 \cdot X_{i2} + \dots + \beta_k \cdot X_{ik} \quad (3)$$

231 Attributes included in the X_i vector are described in Table 1 (§3). Some interactions
232 between the attributes are accounted for by the model. After evaluating several model
233 specifications, the interactions that define the utilities considered in this paper were
234 identified as follows:

- 235 • Accessibility: The interaction between airport accessibility information and
236 multi-airport city information is accounted for (i.e., the *masORIG* and *masDEST*
237 variables). Four possible interactions are possible, two regarding the origin
238 airport and two regarding the destination airport. However, because coefficients
239 need to be normalised, the coefficients regarding accessibility for origin and
240 destination airports within cities that are not multi-airport systems are set to 0.
- 241 • From/to hub variables: The interaction between the hub variables (i.e., whether
242 the itinerary is from and to a hub, only the origin or destination airport is a hub,
243 or none of the itinerary airports are hubs) and markets that contain at least one
244 non-stop itinerary is considered. From/to hub variables are normalised by setting
245 the variable from and to a hub (i.e., the *hub2hub* variable) to 0.

246 During the estimation of the model, for each city-pair considered, the utility and
247 likelihood function are computed, with the latter being used to calculate the final
248 estimated log likelihood.

249 Although all 18 air-itinerary share models have been developed, in this paper
250 estimated results are only presented for six entities (the entities C-M, M-C, C-W, W-C,
251 M-W and W-M). Due to issues with computational intensity during the estimation
252 process for some entities, reduced estimation datasets were generated by sampling a
253 subset of the total number of city-pairs within the given entity. The size of the reduced
254 estimation datasets was chosen after evaluating preliminary model estimation results

255 obtained when considering different estimation dataset sizes. Due to the aggregate
256 nature of the data used in this study and the fact that this data represents only a 10%
257 sample of real booking data, limiting assumptions are implicitly included when
258 estimating the model. For example, some itineraries have a very small probability of
259 occurring, heavily influencing the results obtained for the model estimated as well as its
260 performance. Moreover, due to the large number of city-pairs considered in the
261 estimation data and the large number of coefficients to be estimated, the model
262 estimation becomes computationally too intensive. For these reasons, the data is
263 reduced to 10 datasets containing information on 100 randomly chosen city-pairs, which
264 are then each used to estimate the model, reducing the complexity of the problem. The
265 final estimated model coefficients are computed as the average of the 10 different
266 models. The performance of each of the entities' air itinerary share model is validated
267 with data not used for the model estimation. Table 2 reports summary statistics for all
268 the entities. The set of hub airports varies between entities, as some hubs do not make
269 sense for some entities for geographical reasons. Table 2 shows the busiest flows in the
270 US ATS network, i.e., the East Coast corridor (East - East entity), the Central corridor
271 (Central – Central entity) and between the Central region and East Coast (Central-East
272 and East-Central entities). A total of 17,200 city-pairs and 104,806 itineraries within the
273 US ATS network are accounted for in the development of the air itinerary share models.

274 To better understand the results obtained from the air itinerary share model,
275 indicators such as passengers' 'willingness to pay' can be computed. Value of time
276 (VOT) is the willingness of passengers to pay for one hour of travel and is defined by
277 Eq. (4), which is computed for each given itinerary i . Note that because *Travel Fare*
278 *Ratio* is a function of the average air fare in the market and *Travel Time Ratio* is a
279 function of the minimum flight time possible in the market, when computing the utility

280 V_i , average air fare (\overline{TF}) and minimum flight time (TT_{sh}) are also included in the
281 formulation of VOT.

$$282 \quad VOT_i = \frac{\partial V_i / \partial time_i}{\partial V_i / \partial price_i} = \frac{\beta_{FlightTimeRatio}}{\beta_{AirFareRatio}} \cdot \frac{\overline{TF}}{TT_{sh}} \quad (4)$$

283 [Table 2]

284

285 Once the itinerary choice model is estimated using the MNL function, Eq. (1) is
286 applied to compute the market share of passengers on each itinerary. The estimated
287 passenger demand per itinerary is then used to compute segment demand – i.e.,
288 passenger demand per airport-pair – which will ultimately be used as an input for stage
289 3 of the 3-stage model described in §2, as described in detail by Busquets *et al.* (2015).

290 **4. Application**

291 The models described above are applied to a network of 337 airports within the US
292 ATS, as used in the Aviation Integrated Modelling (AIM) Project (2006). The choice of
293 the US air transport network is motivated by improving the current FAA's forecasting
294 methodology, and by the availability of data. The availability of data for the analysis of
295 air transport systems can be challenging, with the US being one of the few countries to
296 provide open source data.

297 The RP data used for this study includes passenger demand data and airfares
298 extracted from the Airline Origin and Destination Survey (DB1B) (BTS-RITA, 2003-
299 2010), which contains a 10% sample of airline tickets from reporting carriers. Travel
300 times and costs are also extracted from BTS-RITA (2003-2010). The air itinerary choice
301 model is estimated using Biogeme (Bierlaire, 2003). Flight delay information is

302 obtained from the FAA Aviation System Performance Metrics (ASPM) database (FAA,
303 2007-2010).

304 The RP data considered for estimating the model is from 2007, to be in line with
305 the period considered when estimating the ultimate 3-stage model described by
306 Busquets *et al.* (2015). The data used to validate the model is from 2010.

307 Once the model is estimated, it will be applied in future work to estimate the
308 itinerary shares in the same network of 337 airports into the future. These results will
309 then be compared to those of the Terminal Area Forecasts (TAF) produced by the FAA.

310 **5. Model Estimation Results**

311 Parameter estimates for the six air itinerary share models mentioned above are reported
312 in Table 3 below. From the entities shown, parameters for the C-W and W-C entities are
313 estimated using 10 different folds of 100 randomly selected city-pairs. The estimated
314 coefficients are averaged to define the final model coefficients. For the C-M, M-C, M-
315 W and W-M entities, the entire estimation dataset is used to estimate the air itinerary
316 share model. As Table 2 shows, the C-W and W-C entities have 724 city-pairs and just
317 over 5,200 itineraries, while the rest of the entities' datasets reported in this paper
318 contain a much lower number of city-pairs and itineraries, making the estimation
319 process less computationally intensive.

320 Model performance is described using the likelihood ratio test and rho-squared
321 parameter (ρ^2). The likelihood ratio test provides an evaluation of the entire estimated
322 model by evaluating whether it is possible to reject the null hypothesis that a more
323 restricted model (i.e., a model with zero coefficients) is equal to the estimated one. The
324 ρ^2 metric is an indicator of overall goodness of fit.

325 All estimated coefficients are statistically significant at the 95th percentile
326 confidence level.

327 The *Travel Fare Ratio* and *Travel Time Ratio* coefficients are both of the
328 expected sign, negative, indicating that fares and travel time are a resistance to travel. In
329 contrast, some of the coefficients associated with delay at the origin and destination
330 airports are positive, suggesting a correlation between delay and itinerary attractiveness,
331 which is unexpected. For entities C-M, M-C, M-W and W-M, the sign of the
332 coefficients alternates between positive and negative, indicating a positive correlation
333 between delay and itinerary attractiveness associated with Mountain (M) airports. For
334 the C-W and W-C entities both delay parameters are positive. These results may be an
335 indication of airport importance since larger and/or hub airports are expected to have
336 more passengers and flights, and therefore higher delay. This suggests that passengers
337 are more inclined to travel to and from large airports, which is likely because of the
338 increased number of routing alternatives available at these airports.

339 The coefficients associated with airport accessibility are also positive, with the
340 exception of the *AccessDEmas* coefficient for the C-M entity and the *AccessORmas*
341 coefficient for the W-C entity. This is opposite to what one would expect since an
342 increased travel time to/from an airport is a resistance to air travel, and given the
343 influence on door-to-door travel time, a negative sign would be expected. However, the
344 coefficients associated with all airport accessibility time variables are small, - with the
345 exception of the *AccessORmas* coefficients for the M-C and M-W entities -, indicating
346 low influence of passenger preferences on itinerary choice.

347 [Table 3]

348

349 The estimated *Airline Ratio* coefficients tend to be in the order of $10e-2$ and
350 positive - with the exception of the coefficient associated with the C-W entity -,
351 indicating low influence of passenger preference on itinerary choice. Coefficients
352 associated with level of service are represented by dummy variables in the models and
353 are characteristics of every entity. These variables show the passengers preference in
354 terms of level of service and connecting hub choice. Due to the fact that each entity has
355 a specific set of hubs and different assumptions have been made in building the
356 connection alternatives, a comparison of the estimated coefficients across entities is not
357 possible.

358 For the variables associated with origin and destination hub information (*Ihub*
359 and *no_hub*), both coefficients are generally negative, except for the C-W and W-C
360 entities. One would expect a negative correlation between itinerary attractiveness and
361 traveling from or to a hub airport (i.e., *Ihub*=1), and also between itinerary
362 attractiveness and travelling from and to a non-hub airport (i.e., *no_hub*=1). In both
363 cases fewer alternatives would exist than for an itinerary between two hubs. The
364 positive correlation for entities C-W and W-C may be because these sets of variables
365 interact only with itineraries belonging to markets in which non-stop options exist, and
366 itineraries from or/and to a non-hub airport may be associated with lower delay as well
367 as lower travel fare ratio than itineraries from and to a hub.

368 Regarding the model performance, both the likelihood ratio test and rho-squared
369 parameters for the six entities show reasonable goodness of fit. Although all the models
370 show a likelihood ratio test large enough to reject the null hypothesis that all
371 coefficients are equal to zero; rho-squared values tend to be largest for those models for
372 which the entire dataset has been used during estimation. While the C-M, M-C, C-W
373 and W-C entities have a rho-squared value of about 0.7; the rho-squared values for the

374 C-W and W-C entities are lower than 0.6. The same trend is found for the other air
375 itinerary models estimated.

376 To further analyze the results and understand the effect that the level of service
377 has on the willingness to pay, VOT is computed – using Eq. (4) – for an example case.
378 Table 4 shows the VOT values for the six air itinerary share models presented in this
379 paper. For each of the entities an example case has been chosen and the corresponding
380 VOT value has been computed. Considering that VOT values in the literature are
381 typically under \$100/hour (Hsiao & Hansen, 2011; Atasoy & Bierlaire, 2012) several
382 observations can be highlighted from the results presented in Table 4. While the
383 estimated VOT for the specified city-pair belonging to the W-M entity is high compared
384 to the literature (i.e., \$144.42/hr), the estimated values for the case examples from the
385 other entities are well below \$100/hr, and therefore comparable to those found in the
386 literature. This may be because of a lack of differentiation between fare classes, the
387 level of aggregation of the data used or the differences between the entities' estimation
388 datasets.

389 [Table 4]

390 **6. Model Results Validation**

391 The estimated air itinerary share models are validated using data associated with city-
392 pairs existing in the corresponding entity for the first quarter of 2010. To evaluate the
393 performance of the model, the market share by itinerary predicted by the model is
394 compared to the observed market share obtained directly from the DB1B dataset (BTS-
395 RITA, 2003-2010). Absolute errors are averaged across itineraries, shown in Table 5.
396 Validation results obtained show an average mean absolute error, expressed in terms of
397 percentage deviation, of 14.2%, ranging from 7.5% for the W-E entity to 27.2% for the

398 M-M entity. Most of the percentage errors in itinerary share are lower than those in the
399 literature (e.g., the model developed by Coldren et al. (2003) for 2010 passenger
400 itinerary shares has a mean absolute error of 16.6%). Only the percentage errors
401 associated with the M-M entity, the Hawaii & Alaska-US Continental entity and US
402 Continental-Hawaii & Alaska entity are larger. The model specifications and data
403 aggregation, however, differ markedly, so such a direct comparison of model
404 performance is difficult.

405 It is believed that the primary differences lie in the fact of the estimation dataset
406 used to estimate the M-M air itinerary share model has the smallest number of
407 observations compared to the other entities, as shown in Table 2. The high mean
408 absolute error values obtained for the Hawaii & Alaska-US Continental entity and the
409 US Continental-Hawaii & Alaska entity, may be due to the different assumptions
410 implicit in the datasets. While the rest of the entities contain city-pairs with the same
411 time-zone difference, these two entities contain a variety of time zones, which may
412 affect the estimation results.

413 [Table 5.]

414 **7. Conclusion and Future Work**

415 In this paper a step is made to improve on existing air traffic forecasting methodologies
416 through a better understanding of the factors driving demand, supply and network
417 dynamics. In order to achieve this, an aggregate air itinerary share model is presented
418 that only uses aggregate data, without further insight into service preferences, in
419 contrast to other models in the literature. Given this aggregate input data, the developed
420 model attempts to model demand effects and passenger travel decision more accurately
421 than is possible using other methods. Ultimately, when integrated into a 3-stage model

422 for air traffic forecasting, better predictions of airport-pair traffic flows are expected.

423 An aggregate multinomial logit model is estimated to predict how market
424 demand is distributed across available itineraries. In an attempt to capture similarities
425 between city-pairs, eighteen models are developed, each modelling traffic-flow between
426 two major regions of the US ATS. In this paper, results for six entities are presented (C-
427 M, M-C, C-W, W-C, M-W and W-M entities). Due to computational limitations some
428 of the models are estimated using a reduced dataset containing information about 100
429 city-pairs in each of 10 runs. Results obtained from the estimated model show high
430 goodness of fit. All estimated coefficients are significant at the 95th percentile
431 confidence level and are generally of the expected sign.

432 The estimated models are validated by computing the mean absolute error
433 between the predicted market share and the observed market share. Data for city-pairs
434 from the 1st quarter of 2010 is used for validation. Validation results show an average
435 mean absolute error of 14.2%, ranging from 7.5% for the W-E entity to 27.2% for the
436 M-M entity. In general, the validation results obtained are slightly better than
437 comparable numbers in the literature (Coldren et al., 2003). However, because of
438 differences in model specifications and data aggregation, a direct comparison is
439 difficult. Model evaluation parameters including likelihood ratio test and Rho-squared
440 show reasonable values, with the likelihood ratio test values large enough to reject the
441 null hypothesis and the Rho-squared values showing a reasonable goodness of fit.
442 Estimated VOTs are found to be in line with those in the literature for all the entities, -
443 i.e. under \$100/hr -, with the exception of VOT for the W-M entity. This may be
444 because of a lack of differentiation between fare classes, the level of aggregation of the
445 data used or the differences between the entities' estimation datasets.

446 Model estimation results obtained to date look promising, showing that the
447 application of multinomial logit modelling for air itinerary share estimation at the
448 aggregate level is possible. However, computational intensity is a significant problem,
449 requiring the approach to be adjusted to estimate the model with reduced datasets of 100
450 city-pairs in each of 10 runs. This leads to some issues with the estimated coefficients,
451 and may reduce model performance. Hence, further work will focus on improving
452 model estimation results through the use of alternative techniques. Those under
453 consideration include neural networks using various learning algorithms such as
454 backpropagation and Levenberg-Marquardt.

455 In future work the best performing model will be used to estimate the air
456 itinerary shares between city-pairs, so that passenger demand by airport-pair can be
457 predicted and ultimately used as one of the input variables for the final stage of the 3-
458 stage model. Additionally, by providing more accurate itinerary shares, this model
459 could be used to aid the decision making process across multiple stakeholders (e.g.
460 airlines, airport providers, government' agencies, etc.). Route network expansion,
461 equipment purchase or airport expansion are some examples in which its application
462 could be beneficial. Moreover, subject to adequate model refinement, there is the
463 potential of a broader model application to include other transport modes as one of the
464 choice criteria. This would allow for the analysis of, e.g., competition between air and
465 ground transport over short distances.

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470 **Tables**

471 Table 1. Input variables considered to influence air itinerary market share.

Variable	Name	Description
Level of service	LoS	Dummy variable indicating the level of service of the itinerary i (non-stop or one-stop) with respect the best level of service within its market (either non-stop or one-stop with the best connection).
Travel Time Ratio	TT_i^{Ratio}	Ratio between travel time of itinerary i and travel time of shortest itinerary in the market sh .
Travel Fare Ratio	TF_i^{Ratio}	Average fare paid on a specific itinerary i divided by the market average fare.
Multi-airport system (MAS) Origin	$masORIG_i$	Dummy variable indicating whether the Origin airport is within a multi-airport system or not.
Multi-airport system (MAS) Destination	$masDEST_i$	Dummy variable indicating whether the Destination airport is within a multi-airport system or not.
Origin airport average delay	\overline{Dly}_{ORIG}	Average departure delay of origin airport for the previous year.
Destination airport average delay	\overline{Dly}_{DEST}	Average arrival delay of destination airport for the previous year.
Origin airport	$Access_{ORIG}$	Average distance between city center and origin

Accessibility		airport.
Destination airport Accessibility	$Access_{DEST}$	Average distance between city center and destination airport.
Origin and destination airports are hubs	$hub2hub_i$	Dummy variable indicating whether itinerary i is between two hub airports.
Either the origin or destination airport is a hub	$1hub_i$	Dummy variable indicating whether itinerary i is from or to a hub airport.
Neither origin nor destination airports are a hub	no_hub_i	Dummy variable indicating whether itinerary i is not from nor to a hub airport.
Airlines Ratio	$AirlinesRatio_i$	Ratio between the number of airlines serving itinerary i and the number of airlines serving the shortest itinerary sh .

472

473 Table 2. Summary statistics for all entities.

Origin Region	Destination Region	City-pairs	Itineraries	N° itineraries per city-pair	N° Hubs
Hawaii & Alaska	US Continental	438	2,063	19	15
US Continental	Hawaii & Alaska	437	2,052	19	15
Central	Central	1,547	6,335	16	11
Central	East	2,562	14,415	27	19

Central	Mountain	462	1,867	17	17
Central	West	724	5,216	38	19
East	Central	2,552	15,150	38	18
East	East	3,520	21,157	27	17
East	Mountain	508	2,895	18	20
East	West	867	9,268	87	24
Mountain	Central	463	1,899	15	18
Mountain	East	527	3,150	24	18
Mountain	Mountain	134	359	5	6
Mountain	West	252	1,230	27	11
West	Central	724	5,222	38	19
West	East	862	9,274	90	24
West	Mountain	265	1,313	29	11
West	West	356	1,941	31	9
Total		17,200	104,806		

474

475 Table 3. Estimated coefficients for the air itinerary choice model corresponding to
476 entities C-M, M-C, C-W, W-C, M-W and W-M.

Variable Name	C – M	M – C	C – W	W – C	M – W	W – M
<i>Level of Service</i> (relevant to every entity)	--	--	--	--	--	--
<i>Markets Containing Non-Stop itineraries:</i>						

<i>hub2hub</i>	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
<i>1hub</i>	-1.590	-2.090	0.013	0.626	-1.090	-0.846
<i>no_hub</i>	-1.410	-2.650	0.095	0.928	-1.970	-1.380
<i>Airlines Ratio</i>	0.012	0.017	-0.550	0.017	0.010	0.023
<i>Travel Fare Ratio (TF^{Ratio})</i>	-3.840	-4.080	-0.789	-1.321	-1.970	-0.754
<i>Travel Time Ratio (TT^{Ratio})</i>	-1.030	-1.020	-0.170	-0.329	-0.844	-1.530
\overline{Dly}_{ORIG}	-0.174	3.950	0.086	0.627	2.010	-0.026
\overline{Dly}_{DEST}	2.930	-0.092	0.542	0.227	-0.067	1.110
<i>AccessDEmas</i>	-0.919	0.020	0.044	0.015	0.002	0.331
<i>AccessORmas</i>	0.098	0.864	0.098	-0.001	0.749	0.005
<i>LogLikelihood Ratio Test</i>	523,121	435,323	1,030,223	191,252	908,296	906,390
<i>Rho-squared (ρ^2)</i>	0.724	0.691	0.587	0.559	0.715	0.714

*Note: All variables are statistically significant at the 95% confidence level.

477

478 Table 4. Comparison between Value of Time for the C-M, M-C, C-W, W-C, M-W and
479 W-M entities.

Entity	Origin City	Destination City	\overline{TF} (\$)	TT_{sh} (hr)	VOT (\$/hr)
C – M	Chicago	Denver	137.1	2.51	14.66
M – C	Denver	Chicago	136.6	2.24	15.26
C – W	Chicago	Reno	183.5	4.04	9.79
W – C	Reno	Chicago	184.3	3.59	12.78
M – W	Denver	Los Angeles	150.5	2.17	29.76
W – M	Los Angeles	Denver	151.0	2.12	144.42

480

481 Table 5. Mean absolute error in itinerary share computed in terms of percentage
 482 deviation.

Origin Region	Destination Region	Number of City-pairs	Number of Itineraries	Mean absolute Error in Itinerary Share (%)
Hawaii & Alaska	US Continental	422	1,889	22.60
US Continental	Hawaii & Alaska	435	1,963	24.17
Central	Central	1,490	6,088	13.46
Central	East	2,460	13,457	11.35
Central	Mountain	463	1,931	17.94
Central	West	679	4,814	9.03
East	Central	2,461	13,748	11.14
East	East	3,503	19,487	11.07
East	Mountain	523	3,066	14.06
East	West	785	7,622	8.63
Mountain	Central	464	1,895	16.69
Mountain	East	517	3,049	14.53
Mountain	Mountain	121	309	27.21
Mountain	West	250	1,130	13.22
West	Central	683	4,868	9.40
West	East	786	7,577	7.49
West	Mountain	262	1,243	11.42
West	West	343	1,653	11.97

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