

1 **MANAGEMENT OF URBAN MOBILITY TO CONTROL CLIMATE CHANGE IN CITIES**

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51 **Abstract**

52 The need of decarbonization of urban mobility is one of the main priorities for all countries to achieve
53 greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions reduction targets. In general, the transport modes which have
54 experienced the most growth in recent years tend to be the most polluting. Most efforts have been
55 focused on the vehicle efficiency improvements and vehicle fleet renewal; nevertheless more emphasis
56 should be placed on strategies related to the management of urban mobility and modal share. Research of
57 individual travel which analyzes CO₂ emissions and car and public transport share in daily mobility will
58 enable better assessments of the potential of urban mobility measures introduced to limit GHG emissions
59 produced by transport in cities. This paper explores the climate change impacts of daily mobility in Spain
60 using data from two National Travel Surveys (NTSs) (2000 and 2006) and includes a method by which to
61 estimate the CO₂ emissions associated with each journey and each surveyed individual. The results
62 demonstrate that in the 2000 to 2006 period, there has been an increase in daily mobility which has led to
63 a 17% increase in CO₂ emissions. When separated by transport mode, cars prove to be the main
64 contributor to that increase, followed by public transport. More focus should be directed toward modal
65 shift strategies which not only take the number of journeys into account but also consider distance. The
66 contributions of this paper have potential applications in the assessment of current and future urban
67 transport policies related to low-carbon urban transportation.

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71 **INTRODUCTION**

72 Transport is widely recognized to be one of the most significant sources of GHG emissions, in particular
73 CO₂ emissions, which is directly related to the consumption of carbon-based fuel, and the greenhouse
74 effect is regarded as one of the most serious threats to the environment today. In 1997, the Kyoto
75 Protocol highlighted the transport sector as key to achieving its target (1). Global CO₂ emissions from
76 transport represented 22.5% of global CO₂ emissions in 2008 in OECD countries and they have increased
77 by 44% from 1990 to 2008 (2). Car dependence has been identified as the main reason for this increase in
78 transport emissions. Crucially, many countries are currently experiencing an economic recession which
79 has had an impact on transport activity, most noticeably freight activity (2). Consequently, a slight
80 decrease in transport emissions is occurring in a timely manner. More specifically, in the case of Spain,
81 transport emissions have increased 70% between 1990 and 2009, reaching a total of 94.5 million tons of
82 CO₂ (3). As motorized modes are favored over other forms of transport, road transportation is the main
83 energy consumption mode in Spain, and consequently the main transportation pollutant source, making
84 up 80% of the total transport energy demand (4). Passenger emissions are rising more rapidly than freight
85 transport emissions, caused by an overall increase in daily mobility. These numbers put into perspective
86 the need to set specific emissions targets for passenger mobility and to develop policies aiming at
87 cohesive and concrete emissions reductions in passenger transport (5).

88 Local mobility is important, as 40% of all transport-related CO₂ emissions is produced in cities.
89 The need for decarbonization of urban mobility is a main priority if countries are to achieve GHG
90 emissions reduction targets. Moreover, the car is the main mode: 75% of all kilometers traveled
91 (passenger-km) in European urban areas are produced by car journeys (6). Presently, public transport
92 mode share is decreasing almost everywhere and now accounts for only 16% of journeys (6). In order to
93 achieve GHG emissions reduction targets, more emphasis must be placed on modal split policies that
94 highlight public transport and non-motorized transport as viable options. For instance Lapillone et al. (7)
95 obtained that public transport is four times more energy-efficient than cars. Moreover, where rail
96 infrastructures and bus lanes are available, public transport is able to compete with cars because of its
97 efficiency and the fact that travel times during peak periods tend to favor public transport users. Overall,
98 public transport offers a better level of service, mainly due to its regularity and reduced travel times.

99 Thus, a shift is required, both in travel behavior as well as in the perception of public transport as
100 unsafe, time-consuming and inconvenient among populations accustomed to traveling by car (8). The EU
101 Transport White Paper 2011 (9) sets challenging targets for a shift to more sustainable modes in urban
102 transportation in European countries. EU White Paper encourages cities to increase the modal share of
103 non-motorized modes. Modal shift policies are consistently among the best practices in urban areas for
104 reducing the environmental effects of urban transport. Rail modes are seen as an ecological form of
105 transportation (10). Buses offer flexibility, can be employed quickly in response to changing demand and
106 do not need specialized infrastructure as in the case of trains (11). Walking and cycling are carbonless
107 and environmentally-friendly solutions for individual urban transport (12). In Europe, cycling and
108 walking account for approximately 13% of urban passenger-kilometers (13). In Spain, motorized modes
109 are favored over other forms of transport and much investment is made in new road infrastructure in
110 dense urban areas. Moreover, Spanish daily commute patterns have indicated that the population is
111 slowly reverting from public transport to carbon-intensive automobile transport (5). The difference,
112 however, in the use of public transport in large and small urban areas is significant. In dense cities,
113 travelers are more likely to use public transport; in Madrid, Barcelona and Bizkaia, 20-30% of trips are
114 public transport-based, as compared with smaller urban areas where the share of public transport is 5-
115 11%. It is also important to highlight that in Spain a significant percentage (30-45%) of daily journeys are
116 made on foot (14).

117 The targets of this paper are to investigate if mobility patterns are evolving towards a low-carbon
118 urban transport. For this end the study aims to explore the influence of modal share on climate change
119 impacts by providing an overview of Spanish daily mobility trends from 2000 to 2006. The research
120 focuses on passenger trips and considers daily travel time, distance, and CO₂ emissions. The analysis will

121 enable better assessment of the potential of future urban mobility measures to limit GHG emissions
 122 produced by transport in cities. This research has potential applications in the evaluation of current and
 123 future urban transport policies to promote better mobility management in cities.

124 The paper is structured as follows: the next section presents the dataset and the methodology used
 125 to estimate CO₂ emissions linked to passenger transport using the Spanish NTS. Then, a general analysis
 126 of car and public transport share in daily mobility and the evolution of this indicator over time are
 127 provided. The average daily emissions per passenger are presented and car and public transport use are
 128 analyzed with a view toward climate change impacts. Lastly, an analysis of modal share will be used to
 129 show that measures must be taken at a local level, related to low-carbon urban transport, in order to reach
 130 climate change targets.

131 **DATA AND METHODOLOGY TO DETERMINE THE CLIMATE CHANGE IMPACTS OF** 132 **URBAN MOBILITY**

134 **Household travel survey data**

135 Urban transportation management needs to become familiar with urban mobility patterns. At a national
 136 level, National Travel Surveys (NTS) have become key tools for analyzing mobility patterns in order to
 137 propose policy recommendations. Some studies have been conducted that make use of this resource.
 138 Stead (15) analyzed transport emissions, their impact and trends in Britain using the 1989/91 NTS to
 139 recommend certain transport policies. It was determined that measures to increase occupancy and manage
 140 transport capacity were required to attain maximum reductions in vehicle emissions. Nicolas and Damien
 141 (16) highlighted the relevance of using NTSs to analyze individual trip behavior and to better consider
 142 environmental transport policies. French daily mobility remains car-based, and in order to combat the
 143 climate change impacts that occur as a consequence, policies that affect car fleet mix and its technology
 144 have been suggested (16). Recently, travel behavior and transport fuel use in the Netherlands and the
 145 United Kingdom were studied (17). In recent decades, travel patterns in both countries have more or less
 146 remained the same while individual CO₂ emissions per capita have increased. Fewer than half of all
 147 journeys in the Netherlands and less than two-thirds of all journeys in the UK are made by car. The
 148 results showed that car availability is consistently the most significant predictor of individual CO₂
 149 emissions, and its influence on emissions has only increased over time.

150 The Spanish household travel survey provides an overall view of mobility in Spain and its main
 151 patterns. The Spanish Ministry of Transport and Public Works (MOTPW) developed the Spanish
 152 Residents Mobility Survey (*MOVILIA*) in 2000 and 2006 (18, 19). The Mobility Survey requests
 153 information regarding trip origin and destination, travel mode, departure and arrival time, and trip
 154 purpose for one working day and one weekend day. In addition, information about individuals within
 155 households is gathered and includes location of residence, gender, age, income, car ownership,
 156 occupation, etc. Two daily mobility surveys have been conducted: *MOVILIA* 2000 and *MOVILIA* 2006.
 157 Both surveys employed the same trip definition, sampling method and survey mode. The 2006 data
 158 contains data some 230,000 trips made by over 49,000 people.

160 **TABLE 1 Technical Characteristics of the Spanish NTS (*MOVILIA*) 2000 and 2006**

	<i>MOVILIA</i> 2000	<i>MOVILIA</i> 2006
Main bodies involved	Ministry of Transport	Ministry of Transport
Statistical unit	Household	Household
Household members	All HH members (up to four people)	1 individual
Individual excluded from survey	No age limit	No age limit
Trip definition	Movement from origin to destination for a main purpose	Movement from origin to destination for a main purpose
Main mode definition	The main mode is either a stated main mode or determined following a mode	The main mode is either a stated main mode or determined following a mode

	MOVILIA 2000	MOVILIA 2006
	hierarchy where public transport (train>metropolitan bus>metro>urban bus)> car passenger> car driver> bicycle> on foot	hierarchy where public transport (train>metropolitan bus>metro>urban bus)> car passenger> car driver> bicycle> on foot
Trips excluded	Walking trips less than 10 min	Walking trips less than 5min
Geographical scope	Autonomous Region	Province
Sampling method	Random sampling stratified by geographic region and household structure	Random sampling stratified by geographic region and household structure
Type of questionnaire	One working day and one weekend day; by memory	One working day and one weekend day; by memory
Choice of the day/period	Randomly predefined day	Randomly predefined day
Survey period	2 months	1 month
Survey mode	Daily mobility and HH characteristics: face to face survey	Daily mobility and HH characteristics: face to face survey
Contact before survey	Official letter before survey	Official letter before survey
Computer aid-interview	Daily mobility: CAPI	Daily mobility: No
Number of reminders	130,000 reminders.	-
Response rate	70%	55%

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162 There are some differences between the two surveys. In 2000, the geographic scope only allows
163 for data to be separated at a regional level, while the second survey is broken down by province. As for
164 individuals surveyed, in 2006 only one individual per household was surveyed as compared to 2000 when
165 up to four members of each household were surveyed. This change was introduced because, despite the
166 increased number of individuals in the sample, the number of trips was not clearly defined in 2000.
167 Finally, walking trips of less than 10 minutes were excluded in 2000, while only walking trips of less
168 than 5 minutes were excluded in 2006.

169 170 **Estimating CO₂ emissions for urban trips**

171 The carbon dioxide emissions per passenger and trip are calculated by multiplying the trip distance by the
172 emissions factor for each aggregated transport mode (15, 16, 17, 20), as follows:

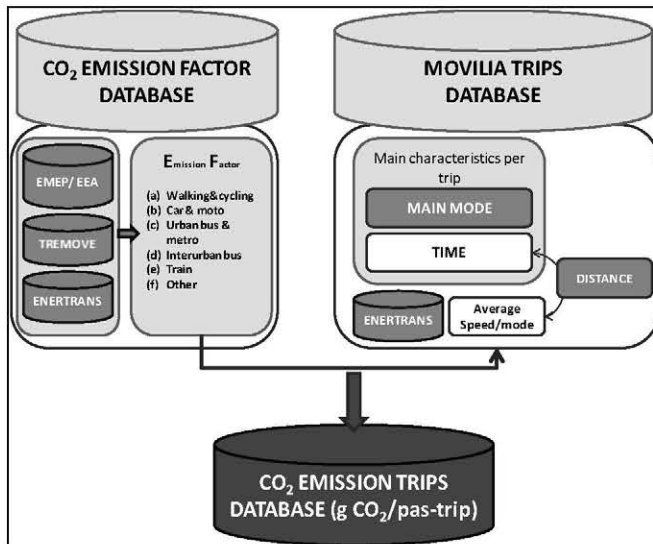
$$173$$

$$174 \text{CO}_2 \text{ emissions per passenger (gCO}_2\text{/(passenger-trip))} = EF_i \text{ (gCO}_2\text{/(passenger-km))} \times Dt \text{ (km)} \quad (1)$$

$$175$$

176 Where, EF is the average emission factors of the transport mode i (aggregation of all emission
177 factors of vehicle types considered in the mode of transport i) and Dt is the trip distance. The first step is
178 the estimation of CO₂ emissions factor for each mode of transport considered in the survey.

179 The *MOVILIA* survey data serves as a source of information with which to estimate the CO₂
180 emissions per passenger trip, by applying the emission factors of each transport mode. Each trip recorded
181 by the survey (from the available information) contains characteristics about the individual, travel time,
182 transport mode, and more. The main indicators which could be obtained from *MOVILIA* are: number of
183 trips and total travel time per passenger per day which are broken down by: day of the week (working or
184 weekend day), transport mode, purpose, and age class. One of the issues with the *MOVILIA* data is the
185 lack of information about trip distance and transport modes are aggregated in groups according to: (a)
186 walking and cycling (or soft modes), (b) car and motorcycle, (c) urban bus and metro, (d) interurban bus,
187 (e) train and (f) other (taxis, collective company transport, etc.). In Figure 1 the proposed methodology
188 for estimating the CO₂ emissions per passenger trip has been charted.



189
190 **FIGURE 1** Methodology for estimation of CO₂ emissions per passenger-trip in *MOVILIA* survey.
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192 For cars and motorcycles, the vehicle emission factors from *EMEP/EEA* – the European
193 emissions guidebook used to estimate the emission factor and relevant activity data in order to calculate
194 the exhaust emissions for different vehicles types (21) – are applied. Each vehicle type has its own
195 equation based on its age, fuel type and operating speed. According to *Enertrans* results for Spain (22),
196 the average speed of 40km/h and 35km/h for cars and motorcycles respectively has been used. The
197 average emission factor per passenger for cars and motorcycles for each year (2000 and 2006) was
198 estimated by introducing the occupancy rate and activity demand by vehicle type from the *TREMOVE*
199 database (23). For urban and interurban buses, the same approach based on *EMEP/EEA* methodology is
200 applied, taking into account the urban driving mode for urban buses. In the case of rail-based modes, the
201 emissions factors were obtained using previous studies which estimate the emissions factor data for rail
202 modes in Spain (24). As different transport modes are aggregated in the survey, i.e. urban bus/metro, in
203 these cases an aggregation factor for each mode of transport is applied based on their demand (passenger
204 per kilometer by each mode of transport from *TREMOVE* database). Finally, the Other category (f) in the
205 survey is defined as the aggregation of various other modes of transport, such as taxis, collective
206 company transport, etc. The emissions factor in this case is calculated based on an aggregation of the
207 average emissions factor of the different modes of transport.

208 The second step is focused on the indirect calculation of trip distance. The project *Enertrans* (22)
209 provides real average speed data for the different transport modes in Spain. These data, together with trip
210 time from *MOVILIA* (18, 19) are used to calculate the trip distance. Finally, by using Equation 1, the
211 carbon dioxide emissions per passenger and trip are calculated.

212 Figure 2 shows the average CO₂ emissions obtained in passenger-kilometer for each mode.
213 Private cars and motorcycles represent the highest producer of CO₂ emissions. The evolution of vehicle
214 fleet composition toward more efficient vehicles accounts for the slight decrease in average emissions
215 when comparing 2000 to 2006.

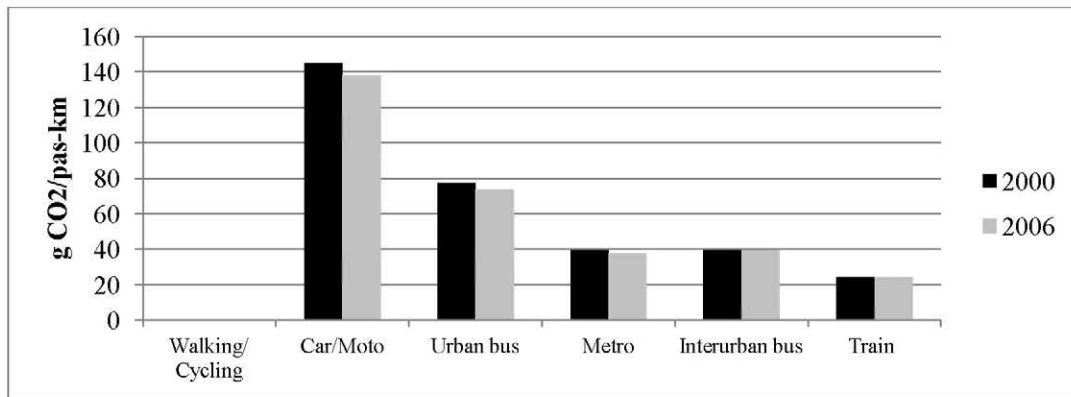


FIGURE 2 Average CO₂ emissions for main urban mobility modes in Spain.

TRENDS IN SPANISH PASSENGER URBAN MOBILITY: ANALYSIS OF CARS AND PUBLIC TRANSPORT USE 2000-2006

Before applying the methodology, this section will present an analysis of the mobility patterns by focusing on transport mode. The environmental impact of transport is strongly determined by overall transport activity and modal split. A comparison of the 2000 and 2006 *MOVILIA* surveys is discussed and will provide information to aid in understanding the results of the following section.

One of the important variables that influence the modal split is household car availability (17). In 2006, 31.6% of Spanish households had more than one vehicle with which to make journeys, while in 2000 this figure was only 27.6% – a difference of four points (see Figure 3). This shift has likely contributed to the increase in journeys by car and consequently to the rise in CO₂ emissions in urban mobility in Spain.

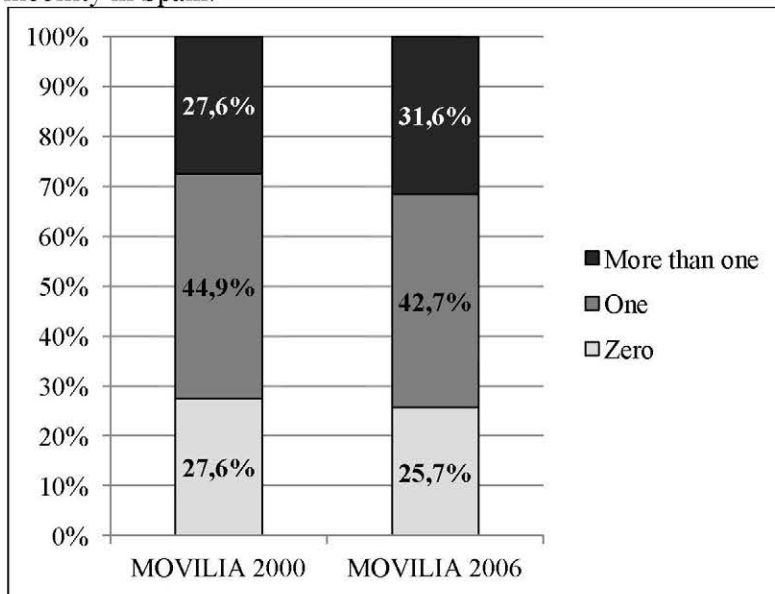


FIGURE 3 Share of household with one or more private vehicle.

The average number of trips per passenger per day on a working day is higher in 2006 – 3.3 trips/day – as compared with 2.9 trips/day in 2000 (see Table 2). With regard to travel time, considering only people traveling on working days, there is a slight increase in the average travel time from 71 minutes in 2000 to 73 minutes in 2006.

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238 **TABLE 2 Main Results per Individual on Working and Weekend Days**

		MOVILIA 2000	MOVILIA 2006
SAMPLE SIZE	Household	23,635	49,027
SAMPLE SIZE	Individuals	62,473	49,027
WORKING DAY			
% INDIVIDUAL WHO TRAVEL		65.5%	83.5%
No. TRIPS (average of individual who travel)		2.9	3.3
AVERAGE TRAVEL TIME		71min	73 min
WEEKEND DAY			
% INDIVIDUAL WHO TRAVEL		51.1%	72.0%
No. TRIPS (average of individual who travel)		2.5	2.9
AVERAGE TRAVEL TIME		76 min	80 min
USE OF MECHANICAL MODES			
CAR/MOTO		79.4%	81.3%
PUBLIC TRANSPORT		20.6%	18.7%

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240 Finally, as was expected, the car is the main motorized mode used by Spanish travelers in their
241 daily mobility. Moreover, in 2006 the use of the car is higher than in 2000, to the detriment of public
242 transport use. It is worth to have in mind that the share of walking trips in Spanish cities is rather high,
243 accounting more than 40% of the trips while public transport patronage is about 10%. These figures
244 influence the transfer potential of trips among transport modes. In addition, a recent study in Spain that
245 measured mobility patterns in areas with investment in new public transport infrastructure points out that
246 in many such cases a positive effect on the modal shift from the private- to public-based modes has been
247 observed (25).

248 In conclusion, from 2000 to 2006, Spanish daily mobility is increasing and moving toward a
249 more car-dependent lifestyle. People make more and longer journeys and the use of public transport is
250 clearly decreasing. This issue makes it clear that more research into the climate change impacts of daily
251 mobility and more strategies focused on managing daily mobility will be needed to achieve sustainable
252 mobility targets in cities.

253 254 **TRENDS IN MODAL SPLIT AND CLIMATE CHANGE IMPACTS IN SPANISH URBAN** 255 **MOBILITY**

256 The level of CO₂ emissions per individual journey is dependent on transport mode and on the distances
257 traveled in each mode or the total trip time. According to the calculation of individual CO₂ emissions
258 based on the Spanish NTS data for 2000 and 2006, private vehicles (cars or motorcycles) represent the
259 highest contributor of CO₂ emissions in Spain in both years. Figure 4 displays the share of private
260 vehicles and public transport in the number of trips, travel time and CO₂ emissions for 2000 and 2006.

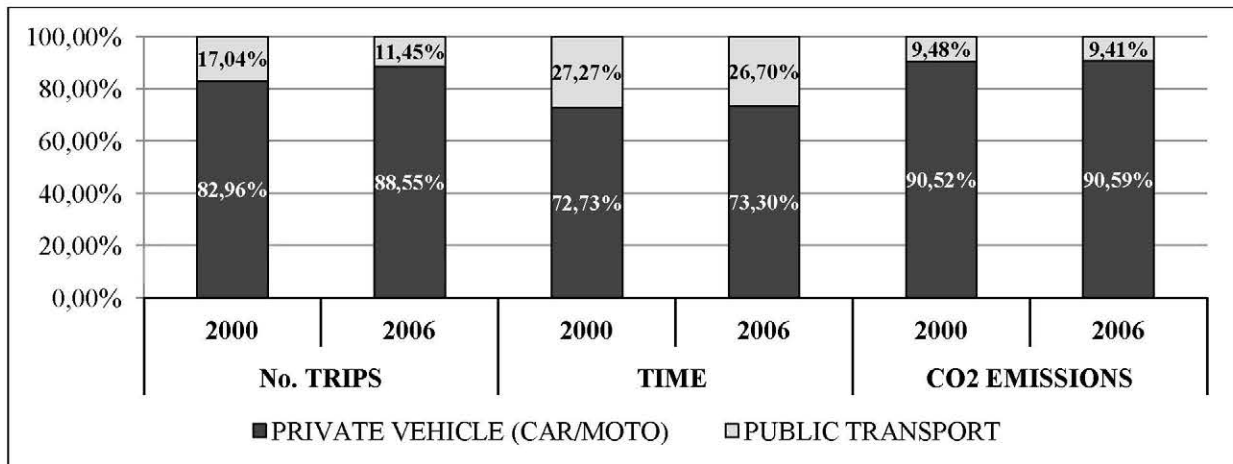


FIGURE 4 Share by private vehicle and public transport in the number of trips, time and CO₂ emissions: 2000 and 2006.

A comparison of the data for private vehicles and public transport provided the following results. The slight increase in the number of trips made by private vehicle has produced a decrease in public transport use (about 6 points) from 2000 to 2006. On the other hand, the time spent traveling each day in private vehicles and public transport remains constant in that period of time. This indicates that unless the number of trips by public transport has decreased, the time spent on each trip has increased and consequently the CO₂ emissions impact has not been significantly reduced. There has been a rise in the number of trips made by private vehicles and a slight increase in spent time traveling; thus, the travel time per journey made by private vehicle in 2006 is shorter than in 2000. Nevertheless, the increase in the number of private vehicle trips signifies an overall increase in CO₂ emissions in that period of time.

Soft modes have not been included in this analysis because of the differences between the two Spanish NTSs. In 2000, walking trips of less than 10 minutes were excluded, while only those of less than 5 minutes were excluded in 2006. However, it should be mentioned that the number of trips by soft modes represents an important share in Spanish urban mobility, around 40% of trips made by all transport modes.

Table 3 includes the results of the application of the proposed methodology and the comparison of the evolution from 2000 to 2006 (calculated as the percentage increase with respect to 2000). The comparison of soft modes has not been made because of the different definitions of soft modes journeys used in the two surveys. In the final section of the table, an impact assessment of each of the indicators is included. The (+) means that there was a slight increase in 2006 with respect 2000 levels and the (++) signifies a moderate increase. On the other hand, the (-) signifies a lightweight decrease and the (--) means that there was a measured decrease. The results were obtained for an average day (taking into account working and weekend days).

TABLE 3 Trends in Modal Split and CO₂ Emissions per Traveler on an Average Day

Traveler - average day		SOFT MODES	CAR/MOTO	PUBLIC TRANSPORT	OTHER	TOTAL
No. TRIPS	2000	0.83	1.09	0.22	0.08	2.22
	2006	1.44	1.19	0.15	0.06	2.84
	Δ%		9.2%	-31.8%	-25.0%	
TIME (min)	2000	15.30	19.59	7.34	1.91	44.14
	2006	24.84	24.51	8.93	1.89	60.16

Traveler - average day		SOFT MODES	CAR/MOTO	PUBLIC TRANSPORT	OTHER	TOTAL
	$\Delta\%$		25.1%	21.7%	-1.0%	
CO₂ EMISSIONS (g CO₂)/ day?	2000	0.00	1,797.45	188.32	180.42	2,166
	2006	0.00	2,142.75	222.52	170.95	2,536
	$\Delta\%$		19.2%	18.2%	-5.2%	17.1%
IMPACT ASSESSMENT	TRIPS		(+)	(--)	(--)	
	TIME		(++)	(+)	(-)	
	CO ₂ EMISSIONS		(+)	(+)	(-)	(+)

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290 Generally, the increase in Spanish daily travel has led to an increase in GHG emissions in cities:
291 there is a noticeable rise of the total CO₂ emissions of 17.08%. The results show that unless there has
292 been a decrease in the total number of daily journeys, public transport journeys have gotten longer, which
293 negatively impacts CO₂ emissions. Private vehicle share in daily mobility has increased by 9.2% in
294 number of trips and by 25.1% in travel time with respect to 2000 levels. The main consequence is that
295 private vehicles are the main contributor to the growth of total CO₂ emissions associated with daily
296 mobility in Spain. Soft modes have attracted a high rate of trips over the same period; nevertheless, this
297 has not been enough to stop the increase in CO₂ emissions.

298 In conclusion, there is a need to improve the public transport share by making it more
299 competitive with respect to private vehicles in cities. For example in the case of Madrid, Monzón et al.
300 (26) found that although Madrid has a good supply of public transport, car is still an attractive option in
301 urban areas and the time spent. Improved management of public transport infrastructure is key to
302 reducing the use of private vehicles and consequently the climate change impacts in cities.
303

304 CONCLUSIONS AND URBAN SUSTAINABILITY POLICIES

305 In Spain, emissions per passenger are rising rapidly due to an increase in daily mobility. More efforts
306 must be made to prevent the climate change impacts associated with this rise. This paper has analyzed
307 modal split trends and their relationship to climate change impacts. In order to assess the global
308 contribution of daily mobility to climate change, a relevant evaluation based on NTSs has been applied to
309 the case of Spanish daily mobility in 2000 and 2006. The changes of that period in car versus transit use
310 have been analyzed. The findings could be useful for transport planners to make an effective design of
311 policies to change mobility trends for meeting CO₂ emissions reduction targets.

312 The Spanish NTS data served as a source of information with which to estimate the CO₂
313 emissions per passenger trip, by applying the emissions factors of each transport mode. The carbon
314 dioxide emissions per passenger and trip are calculated by multiplying the trip distance by the emissions
315 factor for each aggregated transport mode. The evolution of vehicle fleet composition toward more
316 efficient vehicles accounts for the slight decrease in passenger-km emissions in 2006 as compared to
317 2000; even so, current efforts toward improvements in vehicle technology and fuel efficiency are not
318 enough to achieve the emissions reduction targets in cities.

319 The results of this analysis reveal that from 2000 to 2006 there has been an increase in daily
320 mobility which has produced a 17% increase in CO₂ emissions and car use is the main cause of that
321 increase. More focus must be directed toward public transport, which is key to moving towards a
322 decarbonization of urban mobility. Nevertheless, this strategy is somewhat limited; some studies of the
323 city of Madrid, Spain have suggested that only 18% of trips currently made by car could be made by
324 other modes, respecting trip time conditions, and without affecting their characteristics (27). In addition,

325 it has been shown that distance is an important issue to be taken into account (15). However, sustainable
 326 mobility in cities begins with better integration of policies which aim to coordinate environmental,
 327 economical and social considerations. Based on this study, it can be concluded that modal shift in cities
 328 may form part of the process of stabilizing the carbon footprint of urban mobility. Furthermore, this study
 329 suggests that low-carbon and energy efficiency strategies should focus not only in long distance trips, but
 330 also in urban movements, which account for 40% of emissions and are increasing along the years.

331

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336

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