



UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

This is a repository copy of *Nonmotorized Commuting Behavior of Middle-Income Working Adults in a Developing Country*.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:
<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/176491/>

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Zannat, KE orcid.org/0000-0003-3108-5732, Ashraful Islam, KM, Sunny, DS et al. (4 more authors) (2021) Nonmotorized Commuting Behavior of Middle-Income Working Adults in a Developing Country. *Journal of Urban Planning and Development*, 147 (2). ISSN 0733-9488

[https://doi.org/10.1061/\(asce\)up.1943-5444.0000681](https://doi.org/10.1061/(asce)up.1943-5444.0000681)

This is protected by copyright. All rights reserved. This is an author produced version of an article published in *Journal of Urban Planning and Development* . Uploaded in accordance with the publisher's self-archiving policy.

Reuse

Items deposited in White Rose Research Online are protected by copyright, with all rights reserved unless indicated otherwise. They may be downloaded and/or printed for private study, or other acts as permitted by national copyright laws. The publisher or other rights holders may allow further reproduction and re-use of the full text version. This is indicated by the licence information on the White Rose Research Online record for the item.

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



eprints@whiterose.ac.uk
<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/>

1 **Non-motorized commuting behavior of middle-income working adults in a**
2 **developing country**

3
4 **Khatun E Zannat**

5 Doctoral Researcher, Choice Modelling Centre, Institute for Transport Studies, University of Leeds,
6 LS2 9JT, United Kingdom, Email: tskez@leeds.ac.uk

7 Assistant Professor, Department of Urban & Regional Planning, Chittagong University of Engineering
8 and Technology (CUET), Chittagong - 4349, Bangladesh

9 **K.M. Ashraful Islam**

10 Lecturer, Department of Urban & Regional Planning, Chittagong University of Engineering and
11 Technology (CUET), Chittagong - 4349, Bangladesh; Email: ashraful.cuet.bd@gmail.com

12 **Dewan Salman Sunny**

13 Graduate Planner, Department of Urban & Regional Planning, Chittagong University of Engineering
14 and Technology (CUET), Chittagong - 4349, Bangladesh; Email: u1405006@student.cuet.ac.bd

15 **Tabassum Moury**

16 Graduate Planner, Department of Urban & Regional Planning, Chittagong University of Engineering
17 and Technology (CUET), Chittagong - 4349, Bangladesh; Email: mourytabassum@gmail.com

18 **Rajsree Das Tuli**

19 Graduate Planner, Department of Urban & Regional Planning, Chittagong University of Engineering
20 and Technology (CUET), Chittagong - 4349, Bangladesh; Email: rajsreetuli04@gmail.com

21 **Ashraf Dewan, PhD**

22 Senior Lecturer, Spatial Sciences Discipline, School of Earth and Planetary Sciences (EPS), Curtin
23 University, Perth, Western Australia 6102, Australia; Email: A.Dewan@curtin.edu.au

24 **Mohammed Sarfaraz Gani Adnan, PhD***

25 Researcher, Environmental Change Institute, School of Geography and the Environment, University of
26 Oxford, South Parks Road, OX13QY Oxford, United Kingdom; Email:

27 mohammed.adnan@oriel.ox.ac.uk

28 Assistant Professor, Department of Urban & Regional Planning, Chittagong University of Engineering
29 and Technology (CUET), Chittagong - 4349,

30

31 **Corresponding author at: Mohammed Sarfaraz Gani Adnan; Environmental Change Institute, School of*
32 *Geography and the Environment, University of Oxford, South Parks Road, OX13QY Oxford, United*
33 *Kingdom; mohammed.adnan@oriel.ox.ac.uk*

34

35 **Abstract**

36 Although non-motorized transport (NMT) offers economic, environmental, and health benefits to
37 individuals and communities, understanding non-motorized travel behavior is a challenging task due to
38 complex interactions of a wide range of factors. Whilst behavioral models offer a conceptual framework to
39 understand human behavior, their use in the study of travel behavior in developing countries is still in its
40 infancy. This study uses three behavioral models — the theory of planned behavior, the theory of triadic
41 influence, and the ecological model of health behavior— to identify potential factors influencing intentions
42 and behavior toward the use of NMT by middle-income working adults, inhabiting Chittagong City
43 Corporation (CCC) area of Bangladesh. A total of 720 middle-income working adults (aged between 18
44 and 65 years) was randomly selected and interviewed at major commercial and retail business areas of the
45 CCC. Multiple linear and binary logistic models were developed to quantify the extent of the influence of
46 different factors on non-motorized mode choice behavior. Results indicated that personal factors (proximal)
47 such as attitude, subjective norm, and behavioral control influence respondents' intentions and motivation
48 in choosing NMT. However, the current use of NMT was less controlled by intention, while factors
49 associated with the social, cultural, and built environment had (distal) significant influence. The findings
50 of this study could assist urban planners in adopting structural and non-structural measures to promote
51 NMT use.

52 Key words: Non-motorized transport; travel behavior; behavioral model; commuting; developing countries.

53 **1. Introduction**

54 A large number of cities have become automobile-dependent, both in developed and developing
55 countries, evidently threatening environmental well-being (Clarke and Mcip 2008; Hook and Replogle
56 1996; Kenworthy and Laube 1999). The transport sector reportedly contributes to 25% of total greenhouse
57 gas emissions (a major contributor to global warming). Since the beginning of the 21st century, on average,
58 the annual rate of carbon dioxide emission from the transport sector has been estimated to be 1.5% (Black
59 2010). This sector is an integral part of urban life, determining the economic growth of a city (Moore and

60 Pulidindi 2013). To ensure a balance between urban development and environmental sustainability, finding
61 an alternative mode of transport is essential for city planners and transport engineers (Baltes 1996; Guo et
62 al. 2007).

63 Non-motorized transport (NMT) is widely recognized as being an environment-friendly mode of
64 transport that offers economic, environmental, and health benefits (Khan et al. 2014). Along with an
65 improved public transport system, promotion of NMT could increase physical activities, leading to health
66 benefits to urban dwellers (Ermagun and Levinson 2017), reduce car use, air pollution, and congestions
67 (Bopp et al. 2015; Lachapelle et al. 2011; Pérez et al. 2017). The NMT system requires less road space,
68 hence a lower level of investment, compared to motorized transport (MT) system (Ahsan and Sufian 2014).
69 Despite NMT provides multiple benefits, this form of transport generates a small proportion of the total
70 trips in different countries (e.g., 8.1% in the US cities, 15.8% in Australia/New Zealand cities, 10.4% in
71 Canadian cities, 31.3% Western European cities, and 28.5% in high-income Asian cities) (Baltes 1996;
72 Bopp et al. 2015; Droege 2008; Kaczynski et al. 2010) and is often marginalized compare to other transport
73 modes (Gouda and Masoumi 2017). Various studies demonstrated that an increase in automobile-dependent
74 short-distance trips could lead to a reduction in the use of NMT (Caspersen et al. 2000; Cohen et al. 2014;
75 Davis 2010; Gordon-Larsen et al. 2005). In developing countries, NMT accommodates a greater number
76 of passengers and goods than MT (Hossain 1996) and generally influences the informal labor market,
77 supporting the livelihood of numerous marginalized people (Hasan and Dávila 2018). Nevertheless,
78 transport planning policies in contemporary cities, particularly those in developing countries, are
79 predominantly based on MT (Hasan and Dávila 2018). Understanding travel behavior is therefore important
80 to promote NMT in different cities (Kerr et al. 2010).

81 Travel behaviors are usually studied using theories from psychology, social science, and urban
82 studies (Cerin et al. 2006; Chaney et al. 2014; de Bruijn et al. 2005; Feuillet et al. 2015; Hess et al. 2017;
83 Muñoz et al. 2016; Saelens et al. 2003). Among different theories or models, the theory of planned behavior
84 (TPB) (Ajzen 1991), the theory of triadic influence (TTI) (Flay and Petraitis 1994), the ecological model
85 of health behavior (McLeroy et al. 1988; Sallis et al. 1997), social ecology (Stokols 1992), and social

86 cognitive (Bandura 1999) theories are widely used to understand travel behavior. The TPB is an extension
87 of the reasoned action theory. According to the TPB, human behavior is driven by a combination of
88 intention, occasion, situation, and forms of action. The theory further states that perceived behavioral
89 control (e.g., confidence in one's ability) influences behaviors, which was termed as a concept of perceived
90 self-efficacy. Perceived behavior control can directly explain behavioral achievements. However, the extent
91 of the influence of intention or behavioral control on human behavior is contextual. The intention is
92 dependent on three independent psychological or proximal determinants: attitude toward that behavior,
93 subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. The relative importance of each independent latent
94 variable depends on the behavior and situation (Ajzen 1991). On the other hand, the TTI was developed to
95 understand health behavior (e.g., smoking, snacking). Similar to the TPB, the TTI also considers personal
96 behavioral intention (proximal factors) as an indicator of behavior. However, cultural origin, social
97 situation, and inherited disposition influence individual attitude, social norms, and self-efficacy. Hence, the
98 TTI additionally considers background or distal factors such as socio-cultural and environmental features
99 to explain behavior (Flay and Petraitis 1994). According to the ecological model, intrapersonal (e.g.,
100 biological, psychological), interpersonal (e.g., social, cultural), communal and physical environmental
101 factors, and planning decisions influence individual behavior (Sallis et al. 2008). The forerunner of the
102 ecological model was Urie Bronfenbrenner (McLeroy et al. 1988). According to Bronfenbrenner's model,
103 behavior is affected by multiple levels of influence. From socio-ecological perspectives, the well-being of
104 people is more dependent on the social plus physical environment along with their attributes. Therefore,
105 unlike behavioral models that focused primarily on individual and social factors, the ecological model
106 reinforces the importance of understanding the complex nature of the environment encompassing the
107 community and incorporates multiple levels of analysis to understand dynamic interrelations between
108 people and the environment (Sallis et al. 2008). Several studies used explicit assumptions of these
109 behavioral theories to explain non-motorized travel behavior, and provided insights on factors, influencing
110 travel behavior (Cerin et al. 2006; Chaney et al. 2014; de Bruijn et al. 2005; Hess et al. 2017; Kerr et al.
111 2010; Saelens et al. 2003). However, most of the existing studies are focused on the contexts of developed

112 countries such as those are in Europe and the USA. The use of behavioral models in understanding the
113 travel behavior of commuters in developing countries is still in its infancy.

114 Individual travel behavior primarily depends on personal, psychological, social, and environmental
115 factors. Generally, factors associated with the built environment have a greater influence on non-motorized
116 travel behavior compared to different individual targeted interventions (e.g., capacity building program,
117 social movement) (Baltes 1996; Craig et al. 2002; Feuillet et al. 2015; Frank et al. 2004; Zannat et al. 2020).
118 Urban building density, population density, land use diversity, and design, destination accessibility, and
119 access to transit are common indicators of the built environment, empirically proven as significant
120 indicators of travel demand (Cervero and Kockelman 1997; Ewing and Cervero 2010). According to Baltes
121 (1996), the use of NMT depends on personal preferences that are influenced by factors within and outside
122 of personal control. For example, Bopp et al. (2011) reinforced that a combination of individual (eco-
123 friendly attitude) and built environmental factors are associated with active travel (a form of NMT).
124 Together, the social environment of the workplace (such as the relationship with colleagues) can also
125 influence non-motorized mode choice behavior. Individuals' lifestyle, perception of safety and comfort of
126 using NMT, awareness about the benefits of non-motorized travel, travel time and reliability, and individual
127 capabilities to travel by NMT can also be related to non-motorized travel behavior (Muñoz et al. 2016).
128 However, the degree of influence of different factors on non-motorized travel behavior is contextual. For
129 instance, when people live in a place with adequate physical facilities, individual factors (e.g., self-efficacy,
130 perceived benefits) influence travel behavior greatly than physical factors (e.g., accessibility to a
131 destination, physical facilities) (De Geus et al. 2008). The purpose of travel determines the level of influence
132 of physical and social environments on individual travel behavior. For example, an improved physical
133 environment positively influences non-motorized travel for commuting purposes, while both physical and
134 social environments influence non-motorized trips related to recreational purposes (Hess et al. 2017;
135 Hoehner et al. 2005). Since a wide range of factors is associated with non-motorized travel behavior, a
136 positive association of one factor in a context does not essentially indicate a similar relationship in other

137 contexts. Therefore, it is necessary to understand the synergies among diversified factors to identify the
138 optimum set of interventions to promote non-motorized travel in different contexts.

139 The purpose of this study is twofold. First, this study tested how well various behavioral models
140 (Figure 2) explain NMT commuting travel behavior of people of a developing country. Second, this study
141 identified potential factors influencing peoples' intentions and behavior toward the use of NMT. It focused
142 on middle income working adults, inhabiting the Chittagong City Corporation (CCC) area of Bangladesh.
143 Bangladesh is one of the developing countries, facing multiple challenges due to a lack of adequate and
144 proper planning. Major cities of the country are characterized as 'low per capita Gross Domestic Product
145 (GDP) NMT dominant cities' (Hook and Replogle 1996), facing rapid motorization to meet mobility
146 demands of a rapidly growing population. Developing a guideline for promoting NMT in Bangladesh is a
147 challenging task, due to a lack of empirical data and evidence-based study. The outcome of this study is
148 expected to provide information to predict latent motorized/NMT demand, which could help to promote
149 the use of NMT for commuting purposes.

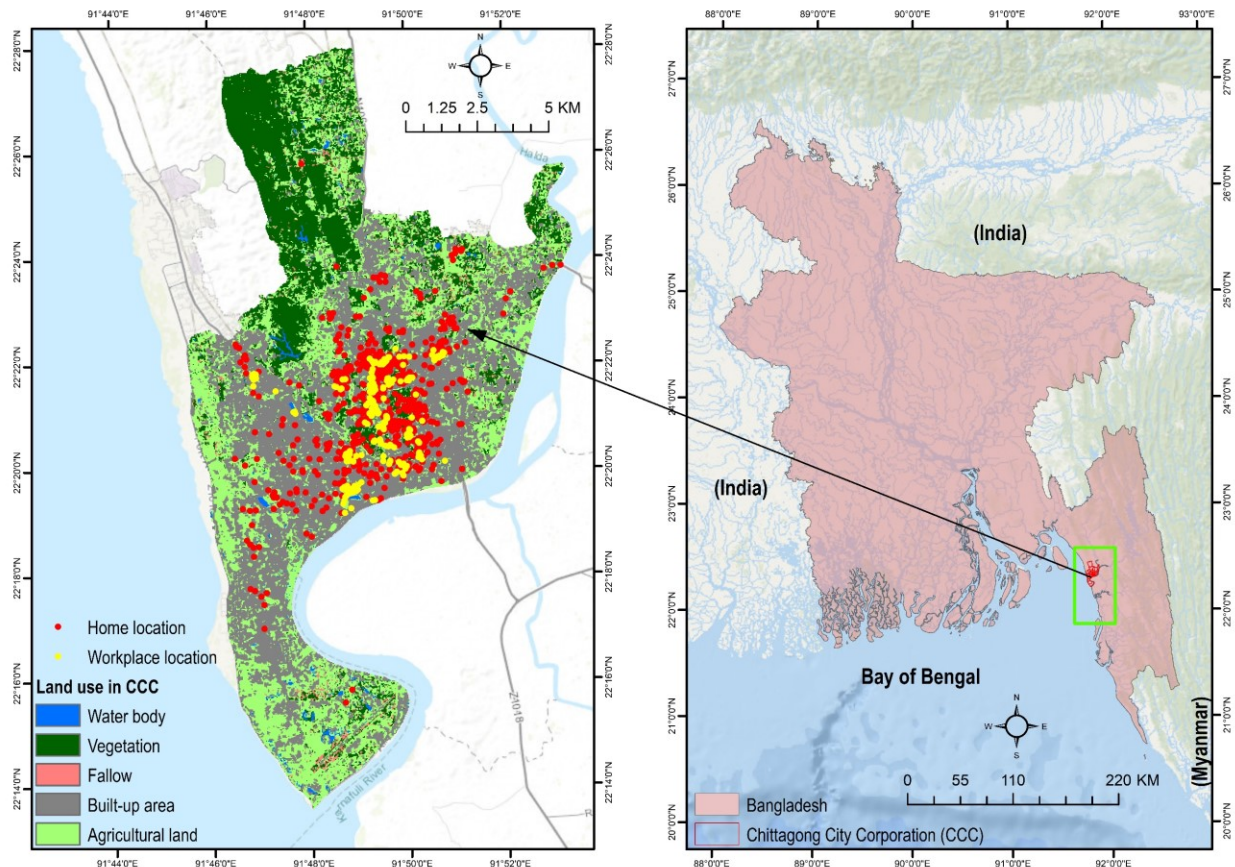
150 **2. Methodology**

151 This study was conducted in four stages. First, a conceptual framework was developed based on
152 the assumptions of three behavioral theories. They are the theory of planned behavior (TPB), the theory of
153 triadic influence (TTI), and the ecological model of health behavior. Second, different factors influencing
154 non-motorized travel behavior were consulted to prepare a questionnaire. Third, a semi-structured
155 questionnaire survey was conducted to collect information on different aspects of the travel behavior of the
156 target group. Finally, the conceptual framework was evaluated by developing statistical models that
157 estimated the extent of the influence of different factors on non-motorized mode choice behavior.

158 **2.1. The study area**

159 Chittagong City Corporation (CCC) is located in the southeastern region of Bangladesh (Figure 1).
160 It is the second-largest city and the commercial capital of the country. About 4 million people inhabit within
161 177 km² area of CCC. The administrative area of CCC is divided into 41 wards (smallest administrative

162 unit) (Zannat et al. 2019). Like other major cities of the country, Chittagong city is growing at an alarming
 163 rate, fueled primarily by rural-urban migration. The city was ranked as the tenth fastest-growing city in the
 164 world in 2010 (Mia et al. 2015). In this city, NMT represents walking, cycling, rickshaw, rickshaw van,
 165 and pushcarts, where rickshaw and rickshaw van are propelled by manual pedaling. Transport policies
 166 adopted in CCC mainly focus on promoting motorized transport, especially private automobiles. For
 167 example, major policies in the ‘Long-Term Development Strategy (LTDS) for Traffic and Transportation
 168 in Chittagong’ include widening of existing roads, as well as constructing new roads, while rehabilitation
 169 or construction of pedestrian pathways was given less priority (Zannat et al. 2019). As a result, automobile
 170 dependency has been increasing, resulting in traffic congestion, environmental pollution, road crashes, and
 171 aesthetic degradation (Shamsher and Abdullah 2013). Despite different environmental and health benefits
 172 associated with the use of NMT, little attention has been given to promote this sector in CCC.



173

174 Figure 1. Location map of CCC in Bangladesh, showing the origin-destination of the respondents and
175 land use categories of the study area. [Sources: Esri, HERE, Garmin, Intermap, increment P Corp.,
176 GEBCO, USGS, FAO, NPS, NRCAN, GeoBase, IGN, Kadaster NL, Ordnance Survey, Esri Japan,
177 METI, Esri China (Hong Kong), © OpenStreetMap contributors, and the GIS User Community; land use
178 data from Abdullah et al. 2019.].

179 In this study, middle income working adults were selected as the target group to understand the trade-off
180 between motorized and NMT use. In Bangladesh, 50% of the total population are middle-income people
181 (average monthly income approximately 25,000 Bangladeshi Taka, BDT), with 40% belong to the lower-
182 income group (average monthly income $\leq 10,000$ BDT) and the remaining 10% are the higher-income group
183 (average monthly income approximately 150,000 BDT) (Rahman 2016). Unlike other income groups,
184 middle-income working adults of Bangladesh shows heterogeneous mode choice behavior, as they use
185 various combinations of MT and NMT. On the other hand, private cars are the primary mode of transport
186 for the higher-income group, while the lower-income group is predominantly dependent on foot. Due to
187 limited public transport service coverage, middle and lower-middle-income groups are dependent on
188 different forms of NMT. The majority of people in CCC use a combination of public transport and NMT
189 as their primary mode of travel (CDA 2009; Zannat et al. 2019). Therefore, understanding the impact of
190 potential factors (except income) influencing NMT use of middle-income working adults may provide
191 useful insights into the city planning.

192 **2.2. Developing a conceptual framework**

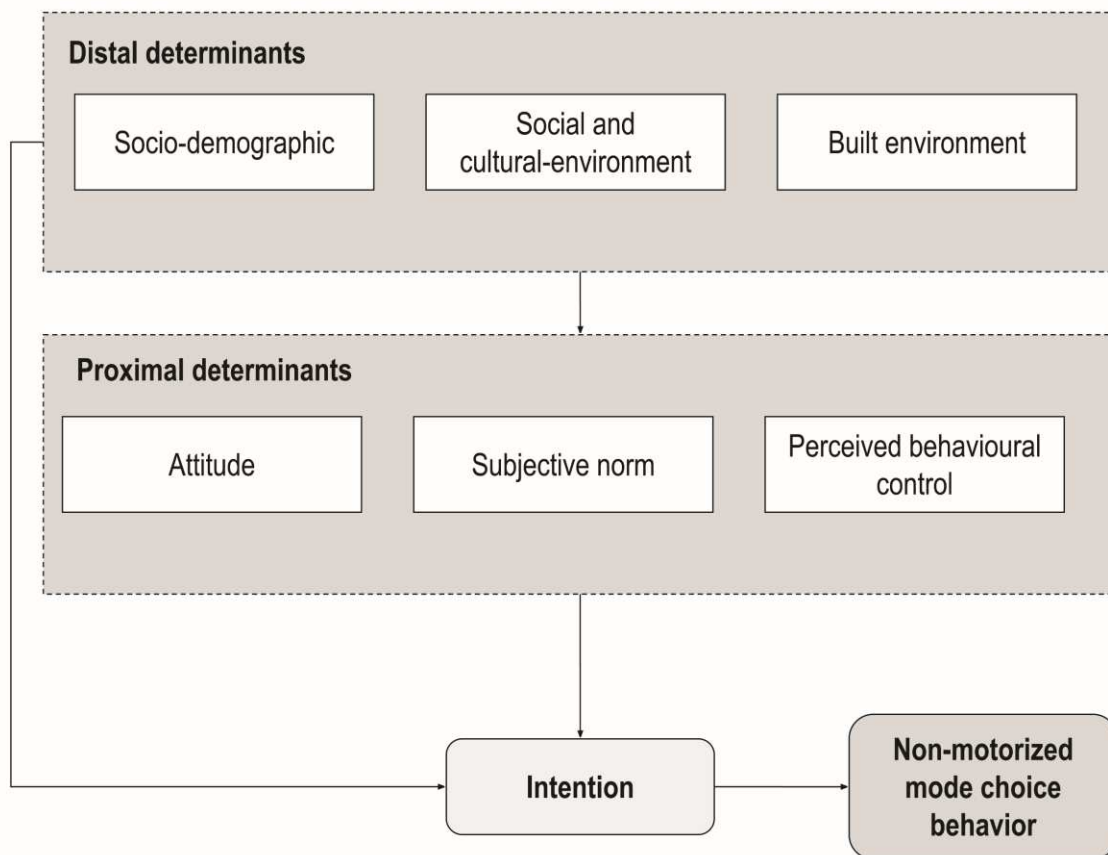
193 To understand the NMT commuting behavior of middle-income working adults, a conceptual
194 framework was developed, based on the assumptions of three behavioral theories noted above, along with
195 the concepts of microeconomics. It was assumed that (i) individual commuters tend to behave in a way that
196 is rational and narrowly self-interested, that they aim to optimize the outcome; (ii) individuals' preference
197 can be determined by behavioral indicators.

198 The TPB highlights the importance of psychological or proximal factors (e.g., attitude, subjective
199 norm, perceived behavioral control) related to a certain behavior. Different studies used various proximal

200 factors in explaining and predicting travel behavior (de Bruijn et al. 2005; Kerr et al. 2010). These proximal
201 factors can be accurately assessed through direct questioning if the underlying beliefs are not the focus of
202 a study (de Bruijn et al. 2005). With regard to this theory, this study hypothesized that the choice of
203 commuting mode (NMT/MT) can be predicted by analyzing the users' intention which can be predicted
204 from proximal determinants. Although the significance of psychological factors in understanding non-
205 motorized travel behavior is highlighted in several studies, de Bruijn et al. (2005) found a relatively lower
206 influence of psychological factors in understanding travel behavior compared to other health-related
207 behavior (e.g., snacking behavior). The theory does not focus on external factors such as sociodemographic
208 variables, social and cultural context, which may influence non-motorized mode choice behavior.
209 According to the TTI, external or distal determinants of health behavior can be divided into three categories:
210 cultural environment, social environment, and individual factors. This study assumed that distal
211 determinates from triadic influence affect non-motorized travel behavior. The importance of individual
212 factors is commonly examined in travel behavioral studies (Handy and Xing 2011; Ogilvie et al. 2008;
213 Simons et al. 2017; Titze et al. 2007). This study considered the association between socio-demographic
214 factors (e.g., age, gender, education, car ownership) and non-motorized mode choice behavior of
215 commuters. Also, the importance of social environment and cultural environment (e.g. religion and
216 ethnicity) was highlighted in similar studies (De Geus et al. 2008; Hess et al. 2017; Titze et al. 2007; Van
217 Cauwenberg et al. 2012). Although de Bruijn et al. (2005) considered that the physical environment is part
218 of the social environment, this study separated them to make the conceptual model more comprehensive
219 and adaptable in the context of developing countries to predict travel behavior. This is because, unlike other
220 human behaviors, the physical environment plays an important role in understating commuters' travel
221 behavior.

222 The ecological models emphasize the importance of environmental context and consider that
223 human behaviors are affected by multiple levels of associated factors. The multiple levels of factors signify
224 the importance of factors related to the individual (e.g., socio-economic and attitudinal factors), physical
225 environment (e.g., both natural and built environmental factors), and social environment. The social

226 environment and individual factors are highlighted in the previous two models. The influence of built
227 environment factors (e.g., land use, density, organization of destinations and accessibility, walkability) and
228 their spatial organization (e.g., at the street, neighborhood, and city scales) were also examined in several
229 studies to understand the use of NMT (Craig et al. 2002; Feuillet et al. 2015; Feuillet et al. 2016; Owen et
230 al. 2004). However, the influence of different built environment factors is context-dependent, therefore,
231 their influences could vary according to different socio-economic settings (De Geus et al. 2008; Handy and
232 Xing 2011; Zhang et al. 2014). This study assumed that both social and built environment factors influence
233 NMT use for commuting purposes.



234

235

236

237

Figure 2. Conceptual framework. (Data from de Bruijn et al. 2005.)

238 **2.3. Questionnaire design**

239 A questionnaire was designed to collect information on middle-income commuters’ travel patterns,
240 their attitude towards NMT use, and their perception of existing en-route NMT facilities. Several studies
241 were reviewed to develop the questionnaire (Table 1 and Table 2). Information on the type of modes
242 (walking, cycling, rickshaw, bus, car, CNG autorickshaw (a form of autorickshaw powered by Compressed
243 natural gas (CNG)), human hauler, and motorbike was collected that respondents had been frequently (at
244 least 3 working days in a week) using for commuting purposes (Gondo 2010). Figure 4 (in Appendix) shows
245 photographs of different transport modes available in the study area. The choice of modes was categorized
246 into two classes: non-motorized (walking, cycling, rickshaw) and motorized (bus, CNG autorickshaw,
247 motorbike) modes. The respondents were asked whether they intend to walk, cycle, and use rickshaws for
248 work trips in the future. The responses were provided on a relative scale of 1 (never) to 5 (always).

249 Following the conceptual framework, we selected 25 independent variables, grouped under two
250 categories: distal and proximal determinants. Distal determinants included information related to the social
251 and cultural characteristics of the respondents, as well as, built environment characteristics of the en-route
252 from home to workplace. As shown in Table 1, several questions were asked to explain each distal
253 determinant. A single response can be unreliable as misleading a statement or placing a checkmark in the
254 wrong place can result in incorrect responses. On the contrary, multiple items have a little systematic impact
255 on the overall score of discrete indicators — greater reliability (Ajzen 2005). To evaluate how closely
256 related the questions were as a group, a reliability check was performed using Cronbach’s alpha score (Field
257 2013).

258 Proximal determinants included information related to attitude, subjective norm, and perceived
259 behavioral control of the respondents. Information related to different variables under proximal
260 determinants can be obtained by asking direct questions to the respondents (de Bruijn et al. 2005). Again,
261 several questions were asked to quantify each of the proximal determinants (Table 2).

262 *[insert Table 1]*

263 *[insert Table 2]*

264 Table 1 Summary of questions related to major distal determinants used in this study

Category	Variables	Description	Response Category	Questions/checklist	Reference
Biological and psychological factors	Self-efficacy	People's belief about their ability to execute a certain course of action in a given situation. People with a strong sense of self-efficacy view challenging problem as a task to be mastered.	5-point Likert scale from 1 (not confident) to 5 (confident)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Confidence of the respondents with their ability to use NMT within CCC; Confidence of the respondents to use NMT as part of their regular commuting trips. 	(Handy and Xing 2011; Simons et al. 2017)
	Self-esteem	Opinion of people about themselves. Healthy self-esteem motivates people to feel positive about their decision.	5-point Likert scale from 1 (very low) to 5 (very high)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Respondents' satisfaction level with their action; Respondents' level of competence compared to their colleagues; Respondents' level of certainty in implementing decisions; 	(de Bruijn et al. 2005)
	Perseverance	The ability to stick to a plan and keep doing something despite obstacles.	5-point Likert scale from 1 (very low) to 5 (very high)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Likelihood of success in achieving a defined goal. Level of hard-working. 	(de Bruijn et al. 2005)
Social and cultural environmental factor	Relation	Connection among people who have recurring interactions.	5-point Likert scale from 1 (very bad) to 5 (very good)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Respondents' relationship with their family; Respondents' relationship with their colleagues. 	(de Bruijn et al. 2005; Handy and Xing 2011)

Built environmental factors	Walking environment	Perception of the existing condition of en-route built environment to facilitate various NMT-based trips.	5-point Likert scale from 1 (very bad) to 5 (very good)	En-route from home to workplace, the existing condition of (if any) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pedestrian sidewalk; • Street furniture such as sitting arrangement, benches, shed, bin etc.; • Street-side activity such as a retail shop, restaurant; • Green element along the street; • Crosswalks/foot-over bridges; • Center island/Median/Rest point; signals and signage; streetlight; existing en-route footpath surface condition. 	(Zannat et al. 2019)
	Cycling environment		5-point Likert scale from 1 (very bad) to 5 (very good)	En-route from home to workplace, the condition of (if any): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Separate cycle lane; • Cycle parking facility; • Cycle maintenance facility; • Low-cost cycle maintenance shop 	(Handy and Xing 2011)
	Rickshaw facilities		5-point Likert scale from 1 (very bad) to 5 (very good)	En-route from home to workplace, the condition of rickshaw stand/park and rickshaw lane (if any)	From the authors' observation in the study area
	Management of non-motorized facilities		5-point Likert scale from 1 (very bad) to 5 (very good)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Priority of NMT at intersections; • Traffic calming initiative (speed reduction/volume reduction); • Education and training for promoting NMT; 	(Mondschein et al. 2017)

Safety	5-point Likert scale from 1 (very bad) to 5 (very good)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Law enforcement to ensure justice for NMT users Mark your experience regarding safety (e.g., crime and traffic).	(Handy and Xing 2011; Simons et al. 2017)
--------	---	--	---

265

266

267 Table 2 Summary of questions regarding major proximal determinants used in this study

Variables	Description	Response Category	Question	Reference
Attitude	Subjective evaluation of behaviour which is often associated with experience and upbringing.	5-point Likert scale from 1 (very bad) to 5 (very good)	Feelings about frequent use of NMT.	(Handy and Xing 2011; Kerr et al. 2010)
Subjective norms	The belief that a person or a group of people will approve and disapprove a behaviour.	5-point Likert scale from 1 (very bad) to 5 (very good)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Respondents' perception on frequent use of NMT; • Family members' perception on frequent use of NMT. 	(Kerr et al. 2010)
Perceived behavioural control	People's perceptions of their ability to perform a given behaviour.	5-point Likert scale from 1 (very low) to 5 (very high)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Level of confidence about frequent use of NMT for future trips; • Level of success in that situation. 	(Kerr et al. 2010)

268

269 **2.4. Survey design**

270 A survey was conducted in August 2018 at major commercial centers and retail business areas in
271 CCC. The sample size was calculated using equation 1 (Israel 1992). A minimum number of respondents
272 required at a 95% confidence level with a normal distribution response of large population size were then
273 determined.

$$n = z^2 pq / e^2 \quad (1)$$

274 where n is the minimum sample size; z is the z -value of given confidence level (for 95% confidence
275 level it is 1.96); p is the estimated proportion of an attribute that is present in the population, and q is the
276 $(1-p)$ and e is the tolerance level (assumed as 5%).

277 Around 4 million people live in CCC, of which 69.8% are working adults (BBS 2018). About 2
278 million people are middle income working adults (as 50% of the working population is middle-income
279 people according to Rahman (2016)). Since the population size was large, and the variability in proportion
280 (proportion of middle-income people use NMT) was not known, we assumed $p = 0.5$ (maximum
281 variability), and thus, q would be 0.5. Hence, the estimated minimum size of the sample was 384. While
282 conducting the survey, about 20% of people were unwilling to respond to clarify their income range. Also,
283 some people avoided answering certain questions. As a result, some missing information could introduce
284 systematic bias in our results. So, a total of 720 working adults (aged 18 to 65 years) were interviewed in
285 41 wards (smallest administrative unit) of CCC. The authors contacted randomly selected organizations
286 (which were the workplace of our target group) via email, phone, or in-person to organize the survey.
287 During the survey, questions were asked in Bengali and the survey team explained each question to the
288 respondents in non-technical language.

289 **2.5. Analytical approaches**

290 The conceptual framework developed in section 2.2 was tested in two steps. First, two multiple
291 linear regression models were developed to understand intention of the respondents in choosing NMT for
292 their near future work trips. Second, two binary logistic regression models were established to understand

293 the respondents' non-motorized mode choice behavior. These two forms of models were developed based
294 on the premise that intention towards the future choice of NMT is associated with the choice of modes at
295 present (de Bruijn et al. 2005).

296 **2.5.1. Analyzing intention of the respondents towards NMT use**

297 Stepwise multiple linear regression models were developed, incorporating distal and proximal
298 determinants as independent variables and intention of the respondents toward the use of NMT as a
299 dependent variable. Since intention was measured by averaging scores of three questions (respondents'
300 intention to walk, cycle, and use rickshaw (see section 2.3)), the dependent variable was continuous.
301 Therefore, this study used multiple linear regression models instead of ordered logit models. To check
302 multicollinearity among independent variables, the variance inflation factor (VIF) of selected independent
303 variables was estimated (Midi et al. 2010), using the package 'car' of R statistical package (Fox et al. 2018).
304 The VIF determines the degree of variance if estimated coefficients were inflated by multicollinearity. The
305 values exceeding 2.5 create a concern for the model, while a value greater than 10 indicates multicollinearity
306 (Midi et al. 2010). Independent variables with a VIF value of <2 were selected for the final model. Since
307 'distance from home to the workplace' and 'average travel time required to reach workplace' variables were
308 highly correlated, only the travel time variable was included in the model. Also, variables that had
309 unacceptable α coefficients (i.e., values below 0.50) were excluded during model development (e.g., self-
310 esteem and perseverance). The multiple linear regression model explains the relationship between two or
311 more predictors and a dependent variable by fitting a linear equation to observed data. Each value of
312 independent variable X is associated with a value of dependent variable y as in equation 2.

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_n X_n + \varepsilon \quad (2)$$

313 where y is the mean value of intention to use NMT for a future work trip; X is different distal and
314 proximal determinants; n is the number of independent variables (22); $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n$ are the regression
315 coefficients; β_0 is the intercept; ε is the random error in prediction or residuals.

316

2.5.2. Analyzing non-motorized mode choice behavior

To identify factors influencing the current mode choice behavior of the respondents, binary logistic regression models were developed. Based on the assumption of the conceptual model, an iterative process was applied to select an optimum number of variables according to their order of importance. Instead of using stepwise methods (forward and backward), a manual procedure was deemed useful that highlighted the contribution of each predictor to the models. In addition, this procedure helped to avoid overfitting or underfitting the models (Field 2009).

The models incorporated the choice of binary modes (motorized and non-motorized) as a dependent variable and distal and proximal determinants as independent variables. Again, multicollinearity was diagnosed among 26 explanatory variables (including intention as an independent variable) by estimating the VIF. Variables with unacceptable α coefficients (e.g. self-esteem and perseverance) were excluded during model development. A total of 25 independent variables were incorporated into the models. To estimate the influence of distal determinants considered in the conceptual model, only distal determinants were incorporated in the first model. In the next step, three proximal determinants and the variable ‘intention’ were included along with distal determinants in the second model.

The regression coefficients and p -value of independent variables as well as the R^2 value of the model were then estimated. Derived regression coefficients were incorporated in the following equation:

$$p = 1/(1 + e^{-z}) \quad (3)$$

where probability (p) ranges from 0 to 1 on an S-shaped curve, explaining the likelihood of an individual to choose NMT for commuting purposes. The linear combination of independent variables z is estimated using the following equation:

$$z = b_0 + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + \dots + b_nx_n \quad (4)$$

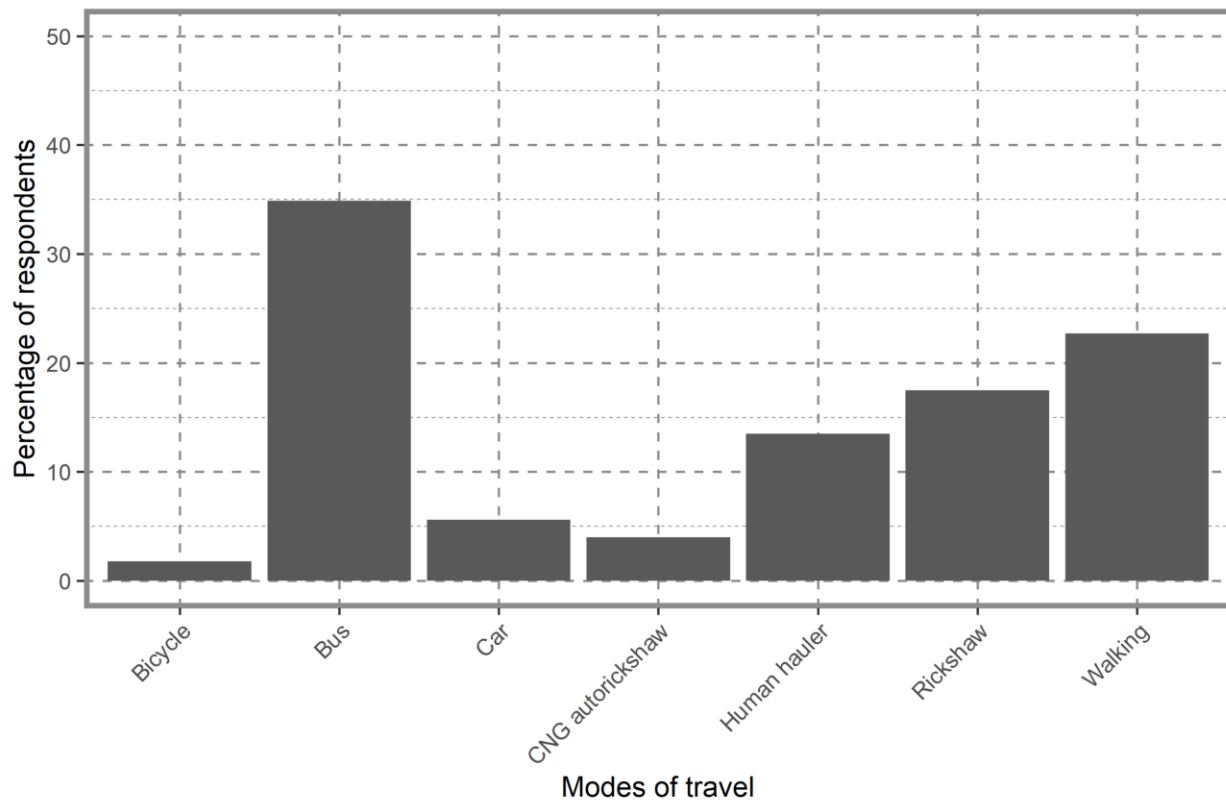
where b_0 is the model intercept, b_i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, n$) indicates the regression coefficients of independent variables, and x_i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, n$) represents the value of 25 variables. The logistic regression model also provides a log distribution which is also called logit. Logit is generally explained by the odds ratio which

340 means the likelihood of an independent variable to be the member of a target group of dependent variables
341 (Field 2013).

342 3. Results

343 3.1. Travel characteristics of the respondents

344 Most of the respondents used bus as their primary mode for commuting (Figure 3). About 22.7%
345 of the total work trips were on foot. The proportion of cycle users was the least compared to other modes.



346

347 Figure 3. Mode choice characteristics of the respondents.

348 Table 3 summarizes the values of all independent variables and Cronbach's alpha. Notably, average
349 scores of variables representing perceptions of the respondents of existing en-route NMT facilities from
350 their home to workplace is low. Such a situation indicates that the respondents were unsatisfied with
351 existing built environment facilities available for NMT users. However, relatively higher average scores
352 (>3) were estimated for variables such as intention, attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral
353 control. This suggests a positive perception of the respondents toward the use of NMT.

354 Table 3 Summary of independent variables, Cronbach's alpha (α) and mean scores (SD)

Variables	%, Mean Score and SD	Cronbach's alpha (α)
Socio-demographic		
Age	37.50±10.94	
Gender		
Male (0)	90.8%	
Female (1)	9.2%	
Education		
Non-College Level (0)	28.5%	
College level (1)	71.5%	
Marital Status		
Single (0)	27.5%	
Married (1)	72.5%	
Dwelling type		
Rented (0)	78%	
Owner occupied (1)	22%	
Household size	4.78 ±2.07	
Biological & Psychological		
BMI	0.11±0.46	
Self-Efficacy (1-5)	3.90±0.60	0.75**
Self-Esteem (1-5)	3.25±1.14	0.49*
Perseverance (1-5)	3.98±0.63	0.27*
Social-cultural environmental		
Home District		
Chittagong (0)	70.8%	
Non-Chittagong (1)	29.2%	
Job type		
Private job (0)	63.3%	
Government job (1)	36.7%	
Relation	4.64±0.54	0.65**
Built environment		
Perception about home to workplace walking environment (1-5)	2.42±0.60	0.67**
Perception about home to workplace cycling environment (1-5)	1.63±0.62	0.64*
Perception about home to workplace rickshaw facilities (1-5)	2.29±0.54	0.62*
Perception about management of the en-route non-motorized facilities (1-5)	2.10±0.68	0.63*
Perception about safety (1-5)	2.59±1.10	0.68**
Transport related information		
Ownership of vehicle		
Yes	12.1%	
No	87.9%	
Average travel time (in minute)	20.62±14.30	
Frequency of work trips per week	7.21±4.38	
Distance between home and workplace (km)	2.40±2.50	
Personal (Proximal)		

Intention (1-5)	3.11±1.26	
Attitude (1-5)	3.02±1.16	0.62**
Subjective norms (1-5)	3.05±0.98	0.61**
Perceived behavioral control (1-5)	3.19±0.83	0.63**

355 ** *a coefficient between 0.60 and 0.8 (acceptable)*

356 * *a coefficient below 0.50 (unacceptable)*

357

358 3.2. Factors affecting intention to use NMT for future work trips

359 The results of statistically significant factors influencing intention of the respondents in choosing
360 NMT for their future work trips are shown in Table 4. Model 1 only included distal determinants which
361 resulted in a coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.078, where education, marital status, age, self-efficacy,
362 perception about existing en-route cycling facilities, and rickshaw facilities were statistically significant
363 variables. However, when both distal and proximal determinants were included in the model, corresponding
364 R^2 increased to 0.309. In that case, all the three selected proximal determinants were statistically significant,
365 in addition to three distal determinants. This result indicates that the respondents, with a higher score for a
366 positive attitude, perceived behavioral control, and subjective norm toward using NMT, are likely to use
367 NMT for future work trips. In relation to the distal determinants, perceptions of cycling facilities, education,
368 and marital status were significant as well. For all variables, positive coefficients (β) indicate a positive
369 association of independent variables with the dependent variable. For instance, an estimated β of 0.171 for
370 cycling facilities means, a unit increase in the perception of better cycling facilities leads to an increase in
371 the likelihood by 0.171 times that the respondents would consider NMT for their future trips. Conversely,
372 estimated negative β (-0.283) for marital status indicates that married people are more likely to use NMT
373 for the future work trips. About 68% of the married respondents expressed a stronger intention (mean rating
374 >3) toward NMT for future work trips.

375 Table 4 Results of multiple linear regression models

Variables	Model 1			Model 2			VIF
	β	p-value	R^2	β	p-value	R^2	
Perception about cycling facilities	.217	.007*	0.078	.171	.015*	.309	1.19
Perception about rickshaw facilities	.186	.038*		.088	.261		1.13

Perception about walking facilities	.133	.177	.064	.383	1.23
Perception about management for non-motorized user	.135	.055	-.032	.603	1.14
Perception about safety on road	.042	.327	-.023	.536	1.06
Education	-.368	.000*	-.326	.000*	1.05
Relation	.107	.256	-.068	.414	1.24
Self-efficacy	.202	.012*	.105	.133	1.11
Marital status	-.336	.008*	-.283	.010*	1.52
Age	-.012	.017*	-.005	.254	1.54
Attitude towards non-motorized transport use			.296	.000*	1.24
Subjective norm			.256	.000*	1.26
Perceived behavioral control			.327	.000*	1.32

376

377 3.3. Factors affecting the existing non-motorized mode choice behavior

378 This study analyzed the individual and compound influence of distal and proximal determinants on
379 the existing choice of modes of the respondents. Table 5 summarizes the outcome of the logistic regression
380 model, showing the relationship between the choice of non-motorized/motorized modes and distal
381 determinants. The ratio of the respondents using non-motorized and motorized modes for their work trips
382 was 42% and 58%, respectively. The estimated odds ratio of each independent variable explained the type
383 and extent of influence on those variables on the choice of non-motorized mode. An odds ratio of a variable
384 >1 indicates a positive impact, whereas, a value <1 suggests a negative relationship with the choice of non-
385 motorized modes. The estimated *p*-value indicates that eight distal determinants significantly influence the
386 mode choice behavior of middle-income people.

387 Among statistically significant variables, cycling facilities, safety, education, and self-efficacy
388 exhibit odds ratio >1, implying that these variables positively influence the existing non-motorized mode
389 choice of the respondents. Notably, the educational status shows a positive association with the existing
390 choice of NMT, despite it has a negative influence on the intention to use NMT in the future (Table 4). The
391 respondents, who have a higher level of education (e.g., university graduate) and use NMT at present, show

392 little intention to use NMT for future work trips. About 82% of the respondents who owned private vehicles
 393 (12% of the total respondents) were university graduates. On the other hand, four variables were negatively
 394 associated with the existing choice of NMT for a work trip: walking facilities, management, travel time,
 395 and relation.

396 Table 5 Relationship between existing choice of modes (NMT/non-NMT) and selected distal
 397 determinants

Variables	Odds ratio	p-value	95% CI	R²
Perception about cycling facilities	1.648	.003*	1.188-2.287	0.356
Perception about rickshaw facilities	1.093	.446	.870-1.373	
Perception about walking facilities	.725	.037*	.536-.981	
Perception about management for non-motorized user	.713	.003*	.578-.894	
Perception about safety on road	1.280	.002*	1.098-1.493	
Travel time from home to work (in minute)	.904	.000*	.887-.922	
Education	1.848	.003*	1.230-2.776	
Relation	.644	.022*	.441-.939	
Self-efficacy	1.566	.006*	1.140-2.151	
Gender	.796	.453	.438-1.446	
Age	1.003	.685	.987-1.020	
BMI	1.156	.448	.795-1.682	
Home district	.990	.957	.673-1.454	

398

399 Table 6 exhibits the estimated compound influence of distal determinants, proximal determinants,
400 and intention on the current choice of modes. The model included a total of 14 distal and 3 proximal
401 determinants and intention which yielded an R^2 of 0.393. The inclusion of proximal determinants and
402 intention with the distal determinants led to an increase in R^2 from 0.356 to 0.393. A total of 10 variables
403 significantly influences the choice of modes of the respondents. Notably, the influence of the perception
404 about management for the non-motorized user was insignificant in this compound model. The Respondents,
405 who perceived a better safety condition for NMT users, along with the availability of cycling and rickshaw
406 facilities, have a greater tendency to use non-motorized mode for their trips to workplace. For instance, the
407 odds ratio of 1.561 for the variable 'perception about cycling facilities' indicates that a one-point increase
408 on the scale of this variable leads to an increase of the odds over 56%, suggesting that the respondents
409 would use NMT. Likewise, a one-unit increase in the perception scale about rickshaw facilities would
410 increase the likelihood of NMT use by 54.4%. However, if the travel time of a respondent increases by one
411 unit, the chance of using NMT might decrease by 10%.

412 Similarly, perception of the en-route walking facility is negatively associated with the use of non-
413 motorized mode, as, with one unit increase in the scale of perception on existing walking facilities from
414 home to workplace the probability to use NMT could reduce by 0.581. This is primarily because
415 respondents, who were highly satisfied with the walking environment from their home (mean satisfaction
416 level >3), had an average travel distance of 2.21 km. Therefore, they traveled relatively a longer distance
417 from their home either by public transport (bus) or private or semi-private vehicles (car/CNG
418 autorickshaw), although the perception of the walking environment was better.

419 In the case of psychological variables, respondents with a higher self-efficacy and poor relationship
420 with their colleagues were more likely to use NMT. The estimated odds ratio of 1.441 for self-efficacy
421 means one unit increase in the scale of self-efficacy may increase the likelihood of NMT use by 44.1%.
422 Other psychological variables, such as the relationship with colleagues and family members, were
423 negatively associated with the use of NMT. A better relationship with colleagues and family members tend
424 to restrict the use of NMT due to perceived low socioeconomic status or poor safety of transport. In the

425 case of proximal determinants, respondents' attitudes positively influenced the current use of NMT.
 426 However, an odds ratio of less than one for perceived behavioral control indicates a negative association
 427 with the existing use of NMT. The respondents who primarily used NMT for work trips were less confident
 428 in using this mode of transport continuously. More than 60% of the respondents, who have a higher
 429 confidence level in using NMT, traveled more than 1.5 km distance, on average, to reach their workplace.
 430 But, intention to use NMT for a future work trip was not significantly associated. This indicates that the
 431 use of NMT by the target group is less controlled by intention.

432 Table 6 The relationship between current choice of modes (NMT/non-NMT) and selected distal and
 433 proximal determinants

Variables	Odds ratio	p-value	95% CI	R²	VIF
Perception about cycling facilities	1.561	.010**	1.112-2.193	0.393	1.26
Perception about rickshaw facilities	1.544	.017*	1.080-2.209		1.16
Perception about walking facilities	.581	.002**	.412-.821		1.24
Perception about management for non-motorized user	.831	.212	.622-1.111		1.16
Perception about safety on the road	1.360	.000**	1.150-1.609		1.11
Travel time from home to work (in minute)	.904	.000**	.886-.922		1.05
Education	.529	.003**	.346-.809		1.09
Relation	.672	.049*	.453-.998		1.24
Self-efficacy	1.441	.029*	1.037-2.003		1.15
Gender	1.209	.545	.653-2.239		1.05
Age	1.006	.451	.990-1.023		1.04

BMI	1.129	.543	.763-1.672	1.07
Home district	1.032	.875	.694-1.535	1.06
Attitude towards non-motorized transport use	1.458	.000**	1.212-1.754	1.36
Intention to use non-motorized transport for work trip	.993	.935	.837-1.178	1.44
Subjective norm	1.014	.900	.821-1.251	1.34
Perceived behavioral control	.793	.025*	.568-.962	1.39

434

435 **4. Discussion**

436 Predicting human behavior is a complex process, especially in transport studies. Existing studies
437 considered different combinations of environmental, socio-cultural, and personal factors to explain people’s
438 travel behavior. Whilst there are different models to analyze human behavior, only a few studies have
439 attempted to ensemble multiple models to understand human travel behavior comprehensively, targeting a
440 developing country. This study endeavored to provide a comprehensive framework, combining three
441 behavioral models to elucidate the complex nature of human travel behavior, residing in a developing
442 country. A conceptual model was tested using both stated and revealed preference approaches to understand
443 non-motorized mode choice behavior of middle-income people in CCC of Bangladesh. Primary data were
444 collected from randomly selected middle-income working adults (aged 18 to 65 years), with a questionnaire
445 survey at major commercial and retail business areas in 41 wards of CCC. A total of 720 respondents was
446 surveyed. Various factors were selected from existing literature and categorized as distal and proximal
447 determinants. The extent of influence of selected factors on current mode choice behavior and intention
448 toward the use of NMT in the future was quantified by establishing an array of regression models.

449 The NMT in CCC primarily includes walking, cycling, rickshaws, and rickshaw van, which people
450 use individually and/or collectively. Besides, motorized modes of transport include public transport

451 (bus/minibus), car, CNG autorickshaw, human hauler, and motorbikes. Results from this study showed that
452 different distal and proximal deterrents — which are the components of the conceptual model —
453 significantly influence the non-motorized mode choice behavior of people. Regarding the stated preference
454 of the respondents in choosing NMT for future work trips (i.e., intention), this study revealed that proximal
455 determinants have a higher degree of influence than that of distal determinants. This supports the hypothesis
456 derived from the TPB that intention can be predicted from proximal factors. On the other hand, in the case
457 of the respondents' current mode choice, distal determinants have a greater influence on the use of NMT
458 than proximal determinants, which supports the assumption derived from the TTI. Further, different types
459 of proximal and distal determinants and their multi-level influence reinforces the hypothesis of the
460 ecological models of health behavior that human behaviors are affected by multiple factors, acting at
461 different levels.

462 In the case of distal determinants, perception of safety (e.g., crime and traffic collision), as well as,
463 availability of facilities to support NMT (cycling and rickshaw) encouraged the respondents to use non-
464 motorized modes. Ogilvie et al. (2008) suggested incorporating individuals' perceptions of the environment
465 from origin to destination while estimating the probability to use NMT. Other studies also found a positive
466 association between perceptions of safety and the use of active transport (Titze et al. 2007). In CCC area,
467 the probability to use NMT increases when the respondents have a better perception of the safety and
468 availability of en-route cycling and rickshaw facilities. The major transport policies and interventions
469 adopted in Bangladesh least prioritize the use of rickshaws and rickshaw vans (Hasan and Dávila 2018).
470 The existing condition of NMT facilities available in CCC area was not up to the average satisfaction level
471 of the respondents (<3). Perception of better-walking facilities negatively associated with the current use
472 of NMT in the study area, a result that contradicts existing studies (Craig et al. 2002; Simons et al. 2017;
473 Van Cauwenberg et al. 2012). The travel time of the respondents significantly influences the choice of
474 modes in CCC, as longer travel time discouraged the use of NMT for a work trip, which is in accord with
475 other studies (Handy and Xing 2011; Ogilvie et al. 2008). The influence of travel time in determining the
476 choice of NMT in CCC is greater than the perception of better pedestrian facilities.

477 Besides, the perception of built environment factors, personal, psychological, and social factors
478 influence the choice of NMT for a work trip. Among different factors considered in this study, greater self-
479 efficacy, low level of education, marital status, and poor relationship with colleagues and family had a
480 significant role in choosing NMT. Several studies identified a positive influence of self-efficacy on
481 individuals' choice of NMT (Bopp et al. 2011; De Geus et al. 2008; Merom et al. 2008; Simons et al. 2017).
482 Notably, this study showed that higher-level educational status reduces the probability of using NMT,
483 which contradicts the observation of Simons et al. (2017). The respondents of this study who held at least
484 a college degree had a better work placement and higher social status. It encouraged them to use
485 personalized vehicles (e.g. private car or motorcycle) for a work trip, depending on their income. Further,
486 a good relationship with colleagues and family members was also inversely associated with the use of NMT.
487 Several studies also found an association of the choice of modes with colleagues and family members'
488 about NMT usage (Handy and Xing 2011; Muñoz et al. 2016). Hence, the social environment is an
489 important factor that influences the use of NMT.

490 Among the proximal determinants, attitude toward the use of non-motorized mode and perceived
491 behavioral control were estimated to be significant determinants in explaining current behavior. People who
492 provided a higher rating, representing their positive attitude toward NMT, generated a greater proportion
493 of non-motorized work trips — a result which was observed in the study by Handy and Xing (2011). A
494 positive attitude toward the use of NMT is developed reasonably from the beliefs that people consider
495 benefits (i.e. increase in utility) while choosing a mode of transport (Ajzen 1991). Therefore, most of the
496 NMT users in the study area were aware of the benefits of this form of transport. However, perceived
497 behavioral control was inversely related to the use of NMT, which is supported by the findings of Merom
498 et al. (2008). Most of the NMT users in CCC were less confident about the frequent use of this mode of
499 transport, due to difficulties (e.g., long travel time and distance, poor safety, topographical condition) that
500 they experienced while using NMT.

501 **5. Conclusion**

502 Whilst cities in developing countries generate a higher share of NMT trips, there has been limited
503 understanding of non-motorized travel behavior due to complex interactions among personal,
504 psychological, social, and environmental factors. This study aimed at identifying different factors
505 influencing existing and potential future non-motorized mode choice behavior in the context of a
506 developing country. Despite the contribution made in this study, achieving a comprehensive understanding
507 of the non-motorized mode choice behavior of people in developing countries is a challenging task. This
508 study only focused on middle-income working adults. Besides, ‘accessibility to destination’ was considered
509 as a built environment factor, while other factors such as residential/workplace density and land use were
510 not included in the models. Furthermore, a limited number of distal determinants related to biological and
511 social factors were considered. Though the model developed to analyze intention of the respondents toward
512 the use of NMT was statistically reliable, a coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.309 indicated that the
513 independent variables explained just over 30% of the dependent variable (i.e., choice of NMT as a mode of
514 transport). Therefore, further research is warranted to improve the robustness of the model(s).

515 Despite these limitations, this study is a novel attempt to address a major challenge of predicting
516 non-motorized travel behavior, combining multiple behavioral models. Such an approach can assist urban
517 planners in adopting (i) infrastructural interventions (e.g., provision of sidewalks or cycle lane, different
518 types of barrier, divider, buffer or set back, street amenities, street furniture, and green elements) (Aziz et
519 al. 2017; Forsyth and Krizek 2010), (ii) spatial planning measures (e.g., compact development, organization
520 of destinations and accessibility, street-neighborhood-city scale design and management of built
521 environment) (Kim et al. 2014; Tight et al. 2011), and (iii) non-structural measures (e.g., traffic and safety
522 management, time and cost management, monitoring and evaluation of constructed project targeting NMT
523 user, the green movement and social awareness for NMT use) (Faherty and Morrissey 2014; Ho et al. 2017)
524 to promote the use of NMT. Evidence from this study underlined that improvements in the physical
525 environment for different sociodemographic groups would encourage more commuters to shift from MT to
526 NMT. Together, applications of spatial planning (e.g., mixed-use) approach and NMT dominant city
527 concept are required to develop an NMT friendly city. This study emphasized the need to consider proximal

528 and distal determinants to understand latent NMT/motorized travel demand for work trips. The proposed
529 models can be applied to other sociodemographic groups, trip purposes, and cities of Bangladesh, as well
530 as, in other developing countries which may assist in formulating guidelines to promote the use of NMT
531 and achieve sustainable urban transport systems.

532 Appendix. Photographs of Different Transport Modes

533 Figure 4 shows images of different transport modes available in the study area.



534
535 Figure 4. Typical modes of transport in CCC: (a) bus; (b) private car; (c) CNG autorickshaw; (d) human
536 hauler; (e) motorbike; (f) pedestrian; (g) bicycle; (h) rickshaw; and (i) rickshaw van. (Images by authors.)

537 **Data Availability**

538 Some or all data, models, or code that support the findings of this study are available from the
539 corresponding author upon reasonable request.

540 **Acknowledgement**

541 We are pleased to express our gratitude to the Department of Urban and Regional Planning (DURP)
542 of Chittagong University of Engineering and Technology (CUET) for providing logistic support to carry
543 out this study.

544 **6. Reference**

- 545 Abdullah, A. Y. M., Masrur, A., Adnan, M. S. G., Baky, M. A. A., Hassan, Q. K., and Dewan, A. (2019).
546 "Spatio-Temporal Patterns of Land Use/Land Cover Change in the Heterogeneous Coastal Region
547 of Bangladesh between 1990 and 2017." *Remote Sensing*, 11(7), 790.
- 548 Ahsan, H. M., and Sufian, A. A. (2014). "Present condition and safety issues of non-motorized vehicles in
549 Bangladesh." *Journal of Civil Engineering (IEB)*, 42(1), 93-101.
- 550 Ajzen, I. (1991). "The theory of planned behavior." *Organizational behavior and human decision
551 processes*, 50(2), 179-211.
- 552 Ajzen, I. (2005). *Attitudes, personality, and behavior*, McGraw-Hill Education (UK).
- 553 Aziz, H. M. A., Nagle, N. N., Morton, A. M., Hilliard, M. R., White, D. A., and Stewart, R. N. (2017).
554 "Exploring the impact of walk-bike infrastructure, safety perception, and built-environment on
555 active transportation mode choice: a random parameter model using New York City commuter
556 data." *Transportation*, 1-23.
- 557 Baltes, M. (1996). "Factors influencing nondiscretionary work trips by bicycle determined from 1990 US
558 census metropolitan statistical area data." *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the
559 Transportation Research Board*(1538), 96-101.
- 560 Bandura, A. (1999). "Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective." *Asian journal of social psychology*,
561 2(1), 21-41.
- 562 BBS (2018). "Report on Labour Force Survey (LFS) 2016-17 ", Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics, Dhaka,
563 Bangladesh.
- 564 Black, W. R. (2010). *Sustainable transportation: problems and solutions*, Guilford Press.
- 565 Bopp, M., Gayah, V. V., and Campbell, M. E. (2015). "Examining the link between public transit use and
566 active commuting." *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 12(4),
567 4256-4274.
- 568 Bopp, M., Kaczynski, A., and Wittman, P. (2011). "Active commuting patterns at a large, midwestern
569 college campus." *Journal of American college health*, 59(7), 605-611.
- 570 Caspersen, C. J., Pereira, M. A., and Curran, K. M. (2000). "Changes in physical activity patterns in the
571 United States, by sex and cross-sectional age." *Medicine and science in sports and exercise*, 32(9),
572 1601-1609.
- 573 CDA (2009). "Preparation of Detailed Area Plan (DAP) for Chittagong Metropolitan Master Plan
574 (CMMP)." Chittagong Development Authority, Chittagong.
- 575 Cerin, E., Saelens, B. E., Sallis, J. F., and Frank, L. D. (2006). "Neighborhood Environment Walkability
576 Scale: validity and development of a short form." *Medicine and science in sports and exercise*,
577 38(9), 1682.
- 578 Cervero, R., and Kockelman, K. (1997). "Travel demand and the 3Ds: Density, diversity, and design."
579 *Transportation research part D: transport and environment*, 2(3), 199-219.

- 580 Chaney, R. A., Bernard, A. L., and Wilson, B. R. A. (2014). "Characterizing active transportation behavior
581 among college students using the theory of planned behavior." *International quarterly of*
582 *community health education*, 34(3), 283-294.
- 583 Clarke, R. A., and Mcip, R. P. P. "Designing Major Urban Road Corridors for Active Transportation: The
584 Ottawa Case." *Proc., Proc., Annual Conference and Exhibition of the Transportation Association*
585 *of Canada—Transportation: A Key to a Sustainable Future*.
- 586 Cohen, J. M., Boniface, S., and Watkins, S. (2014). "Health implications of transport planning, development
587 and operations." *Journal of Transport & Health*, 1(1), 63-72.
- 588 Craig, C. L., Brownson, R. C., Cragg, S. E., and Dunn, A. L. (2002). "Exploring the effect of the
589 environment on physical activity: a study examining walking to work." *American journal of*
590 *preventive medicine*, 23(2), 36-43.
- 591 Davis, A. (2010). "Value for money: an economic assessment of investment in walking and cycling."
592 *London: Department of Health and Government Office of the South-west*.
- 593 de Bruijn, G.-J., Kremers, S. P. J., Schaalma, H., Van Mechelen, W., and Brug, J. (2005). "Determinants
594 of adolescent bicycle use for transportation and snacking behavior." *Preventive medicine*, 40(6),
595 658-667.
- 596 De Geus, B., De Bourdeaudhuij, I., Jannes, C., and Meeusen, R. (2008). "Psychosocial and environmental
597 factors associated with cycling for transport among a working population." *Health Education*
598 *Research*, 23(4), 697-708.
- 599 Droege, P. (2008). *Urban energy transition: From fossil fuels to renewable power*, Elsevier.
- 600 Ermagun, A., and Levinson, D. (2017). "Public transit, active travel, and the journey to school: a cross-
601 nested logit analysis." *Transportmetrica A: Transport Science*, 13(1), 24-37.
- 602 Ewing, R., and Cervero, R. (2010). "Travel and the built environment: A meta-analysis." *Journal of the*
603 *American Planning Association*, 76(3), 265-294.
- 604 Faherty, T. R., and Morrissey, J. E. (2014). "Challenges to active transport in a car-dependent urban
605 environment: a case study of Auckland, New Zealand." *International Journal of Environmental*
606 *Science and Technology*, 11(8), 2369-2386.
- 607 Feuillet, T., Charreire, H., Menai, M., Salze, P., Simon, C., Dugas, J., Hercberg, S., Andreeva, V. A., Enaux,
608 C., and Weber, C. (2015). "Spatial heterogeneity of the relationships between environmental
609 characteristics and active commuting: towards a locally varying social ecological model."
610 *International journal of health geographics*, 14(1), 12.
- 611 Feuillet, T., Salze, P., Charreire, H., Menai, M., Enaux, C., Perchoux, C., Hess, F., Kesse-Guyot, E.,
612 Hercberg, S., and Simon, C. (2016). "Built environment in local relation with walking: Why here
613 and not there?" *Journal of Transport & Health*, 3(4), 500-512.
- 614 Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS:(and sex and drugs and rock'n'roll)*, Sage.
- 615 Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics*, sage.
- 616 Flay, B. R., and Petraitis, J. (1994). "A NEW THEORY OF HEALTH BEHAVIOR WITH
617 IMPLICATIONS FOR PREVENTIVE INTERVENTIONS."
- 618 Forsyth, A., and Krizek, K. J. (2010). "Promoting walking and bicycling: assessing the evidence to assist
619 planners." *Built Environment*, 36(4), 429-446.
- 620 Fox, J., Weisberg, S., Price, B., Adler, D., Bates, D., Baud-Bovy, G., Bolker, B., Ellison, S., Firth, D., and
621 Friendly, M. (2018). "Package 'car'."
- 622 Frank, L. D., Andresen, M. A., and Schmid, T. L. (2004). "Obesity relationships with community design,
623 physical activity, and time spent in cars." *American journal of preventive medicine*, 27(2), 87-96.
- 624 Gondo, T. (2010). "Towards a Sustainable Urban Transport System: An Analysis of the Epistemology and
625 Planning Policy Direction for Non-Motorized Transport in Ethiopian Cities." *IUP Journal of*
626 *Infrastructure*, 8(3).
- 627 Gordon-Larsen, P., Nelson, M. C., and Beam, K. (2005). "Associations among active transportation,
628 physical activity, and weight status in young adults." *Obesity Research*, 13(5), 868-875.

629 Gouda, A. A., and Masoumi, H. E. (2017). "Sustainable transportation according to certification systems:
630 A viability analysis based on neighborhood size and context relevance." *Environmental Impact*
631 *Assessment Review*, 63, 147-159.

632 Guo, J. Y., Bhat, C. R., and Copperman, R. B. (2007). "Effect of the built environment on motorized and
633 nonmotorized trip making: substitutive, complementary, or synergistic?" *Transportation Research*
634 *Record*, 2010(1), 1-11.

635 Handy, S. L., and Xing, Y. (2011). "Factors correlated with bicycle commuting: A study in six small US
636 cities." *International Journal of Sustainable Transportation*, 5(2), 91-110.

637 Hasan, M. M. U., and Dávila, J. D. (2018). "The politics of (im) mobility: Rickshaw bans in Dhaka,
638 Bangladesh." *Journal of transport geography*, 70(C), 246-255.

639 Hess, F., Salze, P., Weber, C., Feuillet, T., Charreire, H., Menai, M., Perchoux, C., Nazare, J.-A., Simon,
640 C., and Oppert, J.-M. (2017). "Active Mobility and Environment: A Pilot Qualitative Study for the
641 Design of a New Questionnaire." *PLoS One*, 12(1), e0168986.

642 Ho, C., Mulley, C., Tsai, C.-H., Ison, S., and Wiblin, S. (2017). "Area-wide travel plans—targeting
643 strategies for greater participation in green travel initiatives: a case study of Rouse Hill Town
644 Centre, NSW Australia." *Transportation*, 1-28.

645 Hoehner, C. M., Ramirez, L. K. B., Elliott, M. B., Handy, S. L., and Brownson, R. C. (2005). "Perceived
646 and objective environmental measures and physical activity among urban adults." *American*
647 *journal of preventive medicine*, 28(2), 105-116.

648 Hook, W., and Replogle, M. (1996). "Motorization and non-motorized transport in Asia: Transport system
649 evolution in China, Japan and Indonesia." *Land use policy*, 13(1), 69-84.

650 Hossain, A. B. (1996). "Effect of non-motorized transport on the performance of road traffic in metropolitan
651 Dhaka." Master of Science, Bangladesh University of Engineering and Technology (BUET).

652 Israel, G. D. (1992). "Determining sample size." *PEOD6*, Agricultural Education and Communication
653 Department, Florida Cooperative Extension Service, Institute of Food and Agricultural Sciences,
654 University of Florida, Gainesville.

655 Kaczynski, A. T., Bopp, M. J., and Wittman, P. (2010). "Association of workplace supports with active
656 commuting." *Prev Chronic Dis*, 7(6), A127.

657 Kenworthy, J. R., and Laube, F. B. (1999). "Patterns of automobile dependence in cities: an international
658 overview of key physical and economic dimensions with some implications for urban policy."
659 *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, 33(7), 691-723.

660 Kerr, A., Lennon, A., and Watson, B. (2010). "The call of the road: factors predicting students' car
661 travelling intentions and behaviour." *Transportation*, 37(1), 1-13.

662 Khan, M., Kockelman, K. M., and Xiong, X. (2014). "Models for anticipating non-motorized travel choices,
663 and the role of the built environment." *Transport Policy*, 35, 117-126.

664 Kim, S., Park, S., and Lee, J. S. (2014). "Meso-or micro-scale? Environmental factors influencing
665 pedestrian satisfaction." *Transportation research part D: transport and environment*, 30, 10-20.

666 Lachapelle, U., Frank, L., Saelens, B. E., Sallis, J. F., and Conway, T. L. (2011). "Commuting by public
667 transit and physical activity: where you live, where you work, and how you get there." *Journal of*
668 *Physical Activity and Health*, 8(s1), S72-S82.

669 McLeroy, K. R., Bibeau, D., Steckler, A., and Glanz, K. (1988). "An ecological perspective on health
670 promotion programs." *Health Education & Behavior*, 15(4), 351-377.

671 Merom, D., Miller, Y. D., van der Ploeg, H. P., and Bauman, A. (2008). "Predictors of initiating and
672 maintaining active commuting to work using transport and public health perspectives in Australia."
673 *Preventive medicine*, 47(3), 342-346.

674 Mia, M. A., Nasrin, S., Zhang, M., and Rasiah, R. (2015). "Chittagong, Bangladesh." *Cities*, 48, 31-41.

675 Midi, H., Sarkar, S. K., and Rana, S. (2010). "Collinearity diagnostics of binary logistic regression model."
676 *Journal of Interdisciplinary Mathematics*, 13(3), 253-267.

677 Mondschein, A. S., Lehman, J., Johnson, S. P., Ohlms, P. B., and Miller, J. S. (2017). "Road user education
678 and multimodal planning: can capability be part of the process?" *Transportation Research Record:*
679 *Journal of the Transportation Research Board*(2654), 20-28.

680 Moore, T., and Pulidindi, J. (2013). "Understanding Urban Transportation System: An action guide for city
681 leader." Center for Research and Innovation.

682 Muñoz, B., Monzon, A., and López, E. (2016). "Transition to a cyclable city: Latent variables affecting
683 bicycle commuting." *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, 84, 4-17.

684 Ogilvie, D., Mitchell, R., Mutrie, N., Petticrew, M., and Platt, S. (2008). "Personal and environmental
685 correlates of active travel and physical activity in a deprived urban population." *International
686 Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity*, 5(1), 43.

687 Owen, N., Humpel, N., Leslie, E., Bauman, A., and Sallis, J. F. (2004). "Understanding environmental
688 influences on walking: review and research agenda." *American journal of preventive medicine*,
689 27(1), 67-76.

690 Pérez, K., Olabarria, M., Rojas-Rueda, D., Santamariña-Rubio, E., Borrell, C., and Nieuwenhuijsen, M.
691 (2017). "The health and economic benefits of active transport policies in Barcelona." *Journal of
692 Transport & Health*.

693 Rahman, H. Z. (2016). "Bangladesh 2016: Politics, Governance, and Middle Income Aspirations Realities
694 and Challenges ", Power and Participation Research Centre (PPRC), Dhaka, Bangladesh.

695 Saelens, B. E., Sallis, J. F., and Frank, L. D. (2003). "Environmental correlates of walking and cycling:
696 findings from the transportation, urban design, and planning literatures." *Annals of behavioral
697 medicine*, 25(2), 80-91.

698 Sallis, J. F., Johnson, M. F., Calfas, K. J., Caparosa, S., and Nichols, J. F. (1997). "Assessing perceived
699 physical environmental variables that may influence physical activity." *Research quarterly for
700 exercise and sport*, 68(4), 345-351.

701 Sallis, J. F., Owen, N., and Fisher, E. B. (2008). "Ecological models of health behavior." *Health behavior
702 and health education: Theory, research, and practice*, 4, 465-486.

703 Shamsher, R., and Abdullah, M. N. (2013). "Traffic congestion in Bangladesh-causes and solutions: a study
704 of Chittagong metropolitan city." *Asian Business Review*, 2(1), 13-18.

705 Simons, D., De Bourdeaudhuij, I., Clarys, P., De Cocker, K., de Geus, B., Vandelanotte, C., Van
706 Cauwenberg, J., and Deforche, B. (2017). "Psychosocial and environmental correlates of active and
707 passive transport behaviors in college educated and non-college educated working young adults."
708 *PloS one*, 12(3), e0174263.

709 Stokols, D. (1992). "Establishing and maintaining healthy environments: Toward a social ecology of health
710 promotion." *American Psychologist*, 47(1), 6.

711 Tight, M., Timms, P., Banister, D., Bowmaker, J., Copas, J., Day, A., Drinkwater, D., Givoni, M.,
712 Gühnemann, A., and Lawler, M. (2011). "Visions for a walking and cycling focussed urban
713 transport system." *Journal of Transport Geography*, 19(6), 1580-1589.

714 Titze, S., Stronegger, W. J., Janschitz, S., and Oja, P. (2007). "Environmental, social, and personal
715 correlates of cycling for transportation in a student population." *Journal of Physical Activity and
716 Health*, 4(1), 66-79.

717 Van Cauwenberg, J., Van Holle, V., Simons, D., Deridder, R., Clarys, P., Goubert, L., Nasar, J., Salmon,
718 J., De Bourdeaudhuij, I., and Deforche, B. (2012). "Environmental factors influencing older adults'
719 walking for transportation: a study using walk-along interviews." *International journal of
720 behavioral nutrition and physical activity*, 9(1), 85.

721 Zannat, K. E., Adnan, M. S. G., and Dewan, A. (2020). "A GIS-based approach to evaluating environmental
722 influences on active and public transport accessibility of university students." *Journal of Urban
723 Management*.

724 Zannat, K. E., Raja, D. R., and Adnan, M. S. G. (2019). "Pedestrian facilities and perceived Pedestrian
725 Level of Service (PLOS): A case study of Chittagong Metropolitan area, Bangladesh." *726 Transportation in developing economies*, 5(2), 9.

727 Zhang, Y., Li, Y., Liu, Q., and Li, C. (2014). "The built environment and walking activity of the elderly:
728 an empirical analysis in the Zhongshan metropolitan area, China." *Sustainability*, 6(2), 1076-1092.

729