

# Car ownership dynamics: An ordered logit approach with irregularly spaced panels

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## Abstract

This paper investigates car ownership dynamics based on irregularly spaced panel data. The data originates from a national travel survey, where a fraction of the respondents are recurrent due to the random sampling scheme of the survey. While this creates a rich sample collected over a long time period and with desired variation between the panel observations, it introduces an estimation challenge due to the irregular spacing of the panel observations. This challenge is addressed by estimating changes in car ownership based on a generalised ordered logit in which the irregular nature of the spacing between panel observations is controlled by including panel-specific weights in the log-likelihood function. The estimated model, which is formulated as a first-difference approach, includes several variables explaining the change of car ownership. Specifically, it is found that accessibility improvements, measured as the number of people that can be reached by public transport within a certain time interval, significantly reduce the likelihood of acquiring additional cars in the observation period. In line with the literature, it is also confirmed that changes in income, number of adults and driver's licenses within the household have a significant impact on household car ownership changes.

*Keywords:* Panel analysis, Discrete choice, Irregularly spacing, Econometrics, Car ownership dynamics

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## 1. Introduction

Longitudinal data is essential for modelling the relationship between individual's choices (such as car ownership), life course events and exogenous factors that change over time. Yet, studies using long panels are rare (e.g. Prillwitz et al. (2006); Yamamoto (2008)) due to panel attrition (Lugtig (2014)) and the relatively high investment associated with this type of data collection. As a result, researchers typically apply shorter panels comprising 2 or 3 waves (e.g. de Haas et al. (2018); Clark et al. (2016); Scheiner and Holz-Rau (2013)), pseudo panels composed by aggregated cross-sectional data from different years (e.g. Dargay

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9 and Vythoukias (1999); Habib et al. (2014)) or retrospective surveys (e.g. Oakil et al.  
10 (2014); Fatmi and Habib (2016)). However, while shorter panels are easier to collect they  
11 do not constitute a basis for examining the often lagged reactions to life events (Dargay and  
12 Vythoukias (1999)). Pseudo panels, on the other hand, do not have this limitation as these  
13 are often based on repeated cross-sectional data. However, in the process of constructing  
14 pseudo panels, data is aggregated over individuals with similar characteristics. This leads  
15 to information loss and potential aggregation bias in the resulting models (King (1997)).  
16 Similarly, retrospective surveys are based on how individuals recall past events and such  
17 data is often inaccurate and biased (Oakil et al. (2014)).

18 An alternative data source, which has not yet been discussed in the literature, is the use  
19 of recurrent respondents from national travel surveys. Due to the random sampling scheme  
20 of these surveys, it happens that over time respondents will be asked to participate in the  
21 survey more than once. In turn, these respondents compose a special type of panel that  
22 consists of irregular spaced observations. This alternative data resource has a number of  
23 advantages. Firstly, it is a cheap way of getting access to panel data that includes all of  
24 the details of a regular cross-sectional travel survey. Secondly, by using irregular spaced  
25 panels, one indirectly benefits from heterogeneity in the data as the time-spacing between  
26 two consecutive panel observations may vary considerably. While this does mean that the  
27 panel observations are scattered over time it also means that the time period covered by the  
28 panel is often long. Thirdly, the panel is unlikely to suffer from response fatigue due to the  
29 time-spacing. Finally, because irregular spaced panels derived from national travel surveys  
30 (mother survey) are essentially created on the basis of randomly selected persons, they are  
31 representative with respect to the mother survey and thereby typically also with respect to  
32 the population.

## 33 2. Data

### 34 2.1. Data sources

35 The analysis presented in the paper is based primarily on data collected by the Danish Na-  
36 tional Travel Survey. The Danish National Travel Survey (TU, Transportvane-Undersøgelsen  
37 in Danish) collects information about the travel behaviour of a representative sample of the  
38 Danish population between the age of 10 and 84 years (Christiansen (2018)). The survey is  
39 administered by the Center for Transport Analytics of the Technical University of Denmark  
40 and has been consistently collected since 2006 interviewing on average 8,200 individuals per  
41 year. The participants of the TU are selected by means of a stratified random sample pro-  
42 cedure from the Danish Civil Registration System (Det Centrale Personregister, in Danish)  
43 in order to form a representative sample of the population.

44 Although the data collected by the TU is by design cross-sectional, the sample procedure  
45 is with 'replacement' which means that, occasionally, individuals will be interviewed more  
46 than once. Hence, the longer the survey runs the richer the possibility to derive panel data  
47 from the cross-sectional mother survey. The analysis is based on a derived TU panel of 1,547  
48 individuals that have participated in the survey twice but in different years. Since the time-  
49 spacing between the two surveys is different for every individual, the paper presents a simple

50 estimation methodology that can be applied when the panel observations are irregularly  
 51 spaced.

### 52 3. Model formulation

#### 53 3.1. Methods

54 The model formulation considers the choice of owning a set of cars  $c \in C$  at a given point  
 55 in time  $t = 1, \dots, T$  for a set of households  $h = 1, \dots, H$ . The utility function associated  
 56 with this choice is expressed as:

$$U_{h,t,c} = V_{h,t,c}(x_{h,t,c}) + \epsilon_h + \epsilon_{h,t,c} \quad (1)$$

57 Where  $x_{h,t,c}$  represents a set of explanatory variables that may potentially vary with  
 58 alternatives  $c \in C$ , time periods  $t \in T$  and households  $h \in H$ . As presented in Section ??,  
 59 it is expected that  $x_{h,t,c}$  consists of several confounding variables of which some are stronger  
 60 predictors for  $c$  than others. The first error-term  $\epsilon_h$  is a panel effect which accounts for  
 61 variation over households, while the second error term  $\epsilon_{h,t,c}$  represents the alternative and  
 62 time-specific error component for each household.

63 In a traditional panel context, it is common to translate this problem into first-order  
 64 differences as a mean to reduce the effect of panel heterogeneity. In this case, we do so by  
 65 considering the utility function that represents the changes in  $c$  for two consecutive time  
 66 periods, namely  $\Delta c = c_t - c_{(t-1)}$ . Hence, we consider:

$$\tilde{U}_{h,t}(\Delta c) = \tilde{V}_{h,t,\Delta c}(x_{h,t}) + \tilde{\epsilon}_{h,t,\Delta c} \quad (2)$$

67 This can reasonably be approximated by:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{U}_{h,t}(\Delta c) &= \tilde{V}_{h,t,c}(x_{h,t}) - \tilde{V}_{h,(t-1),c}(x_{h,(t-1)}) + \epsilon_{h,t,c} - \epsilon_{h,(t-1),c} \\ &= \Delta \tilde{V}_{h,t,c}(x_{h,t}) + \Delta \tilde{\epsilon}_{h,t,c} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

68 In the case where  $\epsilon_{h,t,c}$  represent IID Gumbel distributed error terms, the difference  $\Delta \epsilon_{h,t,c}$   
 69 follows a logistic distribution. Hereby follows that, even in the case where the choice of  $c$   
 70 is modelled as a standard multinomial logit model, the model that explains the differences  
 71 will belong to the same family of models with logistic distributed errors.

72 A natural choice of model in this situation is the ordered logit model. One of the  
 73 shortcomings of the ordered logit model is the assumption of generic attributes across the  
 74 ordered choices. However, this restriction can be relaxed by considering the generalised  
 75 ordered logit model or variants of this model.

#### 76 3.2. Probabilistic model with irregular spaced panels

77 The above section discusses how a random utility model can be expressed in terms of  
 78 first-order differences and provides insight into how the choice set and the probability model  
 79 are affected. However, due to the irregular spaced panels, it is not possible to use a standard

80 estimation technique as the different panel intervals will introduce a scaling problem. Hence,  
 81 this paper provides an alternative estimator for this problem.

82 Each individual  $n = 1, \dots, N$  is observed at different points in time,  $t_0(n), \dots, t_T(n)$ .  
 83 In contrast to most common situations, the duration between interviews represented by  
 84  $\Delta t_t(n) = t_t(n) - t_{(t-1)}(n)$ , differs for each individual. That is, a panel data set with irregularly  
 85 spaced observations.

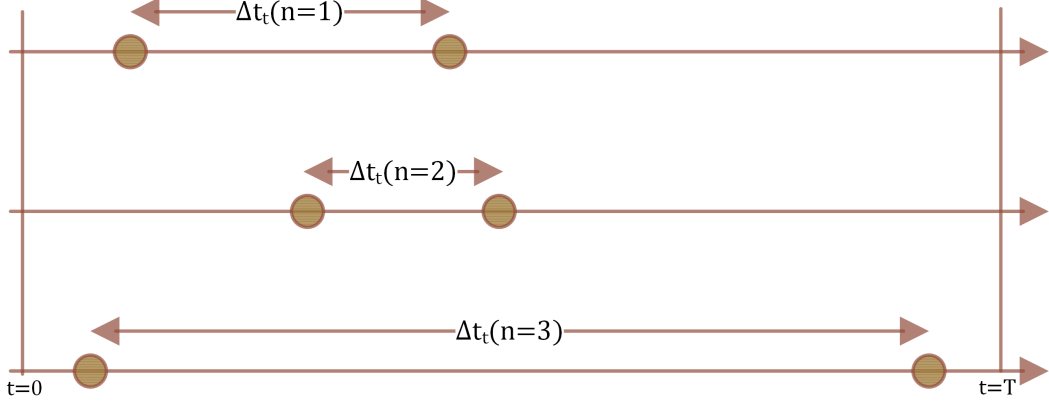


Figure 1: Irregularly spaced panel observations of  $n$  individuals.

86 In order to simplify and tailor the notation to the specific data set, we consider the special  
 87 case where only two distinct spaced observations exist for each individual as illustrated in  
 88 Figure 1. We write this as  $\Delta t_n = t_t(n) - t_0(n)$  where  $\Delta t_n$  represents the time-spacing  
 89 between interviews of an individual  $n$ . Consider also the corresponding dependent variables  
 90  $Y_0(n)$  and  $Y_t(n)$  and a vector of corresponding explanatory variables  $X_0(n)$  and  $X_t(n)$ . The  
 91 variables  $Y_0(n)$  and  $Y_t(n)$  represent the state of a given point in time and the state change  
 92 for  $n$  going from  $Y_0(n)$  to  $Y_t(n)$  can now be expressed as  $\Delta Y_t(n) = Y_t(n) - Y_0(n)$  which  
 93 reasonably can be modelled as a function of  $\Delta X_t(n) = X_t(n) - X_0(n)$ .

94 Clearly, if  $\Delta t_n \rightarrow \infty$  the probability of a state changing increases all other things equal.  
 95 If we are to investigate how  $\Delta Y_t(n)$  is triggered by changes in life events as captured in  
 96  $\Delta X_t(n)$ , we would ideally like these effects to be measured on a normalised basis. In other  
 97 words, econometrically speaking, we need to correct for the length of the period. To find  
 98 the form of this correction term, consider the joint probability of the state space  $P_n(\Delta Y_t(n))$   
 99 under the assumption of independence over the  $T$  regularly spaced intervals between  $t = 0$   
 100 and  $t$ . That is:

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_n(Y_t - Y_0 | X_t, X_0) &= P_n(Y_1 - Y_0 | X_1, X_0) P_n(Y_2 - Y_1 | X_2, X_1) \dots P_n(Y_t - Y_{(t-1)} | X_t, X_{(t-1)}) \\
 &= \prod_{i=1}^t P_n(Y_i - Y_{(i-1)} | X_i, X_{(i-1)})
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{4}$$

101 We can assume that right-hand side probabilities are similar and that each of these  
 102 expresses an annual rate of change. That is:

$$P_n(Y_t - Y_0|X_t, X_0) = P_n(Y_i - Y_{(i-1)}|X_i, X_{(i-1)})^t \quad (5)$$

103 From which it follows that:

$$P_n(Y_i - Y_{(i-1)}|X_i, X_{(i-1)}) = \sqrt[t]{P_n(Y_t - Y_0|X_t, X_0)} \quad (6)$$

104 In other words, when seeking to estimate the unknown probabilistic model for  $P_n(Y_i -$   
 105  $Y_{i-1}|X_i, X_{i-1})$  this can instead be estimated by considering the empirical weighted log-  
 106 likelihood function given by:

$$\log L(\beta|X_t, X_0) = \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{1}{\Delta t_n} \ln[P_n(Y_t - Y_0|X_t, X_0)] \quad (7)$$

107 As a result, the likelihood function reduces to a simple weighted probability model where  
 108 a change that happens over a long period of time is scaled down to an average annual effect.

## 109 4. Model estimation results

### 110 4.1. Sample characteristics

111 As presented in Section 3, the variables are included in the model as differences between  
 112 the years in which they were observed.

113 The results of the different models are provided in Table 1. The ordered logit model  
 114 yields proportional odds and generic parameters estimates (rows indicated with -), while the  
 115 generalised ordered logit model produces non-proportional estimates (rows indicated with 1  
 116 and 0). The final model is a reduced version of the generalised ordered logit, where each of  
 117 the parameters was tested for proportional and non-proportional odds and removed from the  
 118 model when insignificant. Therefore, for the final model presented in Table 1, parameters  
 119 estimates are located in the correspondent row for each of the variables according to the  
 120 modelling findings. To assess the relative performance of the models, we consider the Log-  
 121 Likelihood value and Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). As expected, the generalised  
 122 ordered logit is the model with the highest likelihood, however, when adjusting for the  
 123 number of additional parameters (as represented by the AIC) and performing a likelihood  
 124 ratio test the final model is the best performing. Thus, our main attention will be directed  
 125 to the final model (the model to the right in Table 1). All of the parameters related to  
 126 variables for socio-economic effects and spatially related features have the expected sign.

127 Among the socio-economic variables, increases in income and number of driver's licenses  
 128 in the household positively contribute to the likelihood of increasing the number of cars. This  
 129 is in line with Prillwitz et al. (2006), that find a positive correlation between increase in the  
 130 monthly income of a household and car ownership growth. As mentioned in the literature  
 131 review, increases in the number of driver's licenses are also found to be strong predictors  
 132 of increases in car ownership levels (Clark et al. (2016)). In regards to the relationship of

133 car ownership levels and changes in employment status, we observe the same patterns as  
134 in [Prillwitz et al. \(2006\)](#), namely that becoming employed leads to an increase in house-  
135 hold car ownership level. Regarding the influence of household composition, an increase in  
136 the number of adults positively affects the likelihood of increasing the number of cars, as  
137 previously revealed in the literature ([Oakil et al. \(2014\)](#); [de Haas et al. \(2018\)](#)). Instead,  
138 our final model shows that an increase in the number of children in the household does not  
139 significantly affect the likelihood to acquire nor relinquish a car. The effect of children in the  
140 final model differentiates from the findings of the ordered logit model and the generalised  
141 ordered logit model where a positive effect of having children on acquiring a car is observed,  
142 as also shown in [Yamamoto \(2008\)](#), [Giuliano and Dargay \(2006\)](#) and [Nolan \(2010\)](#).

143 Additionally, the analysis of the spatially related features reveals that when the accessi-  
144 bility by public transport increases, the likelihood of acquiring a car significantly decreases.  
145 This is in accordance with the findings of [Klein and Smart \(2019\)](#) that considered accessi-  
146 bility to jobs by public transport. Oppositely, when the accessibility by car increases, the  
147 likelihood of purchasing a car increases.

148 Furthermore, there is a very significant and positive effect of gaining home parking  
149 facilities on the likelihood to increase the number of cars owned in the household. Changes  
150 in the home to work distance do not significantly affect changes in car ownership of a  
151 household in our final model, which differs from what [Fatmi and Habib \(2016\)](#) find.

152 Finally, there is a clear negative effect on the likelihood to acquire a car when relocating  
153 to a place with higher population density, which can be seen as a proxy for urbanisation.  
154 According to [Nolan \(2010\)](#), this highlights the importance of urban density with respect  
155 to household car ownership decisions. Furthermore, taking into account this variable is  
156 particularly interesting as a mean to filter out effects that may have otherwise been explained  
157 by the accessibility variables.

Variable	Ordered Logit			Gen. Ordered Logit			Final Model			
	Param.	Std Error	p-val	Param.	Std Error	p-val	Param.	Std Error	p-val	
<b>Intercept</b>	-									
	1	-1.63	0.08	0.00	0.58	0.13	0.00	-1.66	0.08	0.00
	0	2.19	0.09	0.00	2.12	0.11	0.00	2.29	0.10	0.00
<b>Socio-economic</b>										
$\Delta \ln(HH \text{ income})$	-	0.26	0.12	0.04				0.27	0.12	0.03
	1				0.36	0.22	0.10			
	0				0.05	0.18	0.78			
$\Delta D.Lic/members$	-	1.64	0.29	0.00				1.62	0.29	0.00
	1				2.92	0.53	0.00			
	0				1.53	0.40	0.00			
$\Delta Numb. adults$	-	0.73	0.09	0.00						
	1				1.20	0.16	0.00	0.50	0.11	0.00
	0				0.83	0.13	0.00	0.92	0.12	0.00
$\Delta Numb. children$	-	0.33	0.09	0.00						
	1				0.58	0.17	0.00	0.13	0.11	0.23
	0				0.55	0.13	0.00	0.54	0.12	0.00
<i>Became employed</i>	-	0.52	0.20	0.01						
	1				0.59	0.37	0.12	0.74	0.21	0.00
	0				-0.17	0.34	0.62	0.03	0.32	0.93
<i>Became unemployed</i>	-	-0.16	0.21	0.45						
	1				-0.36	0.36	0.32			
	0				-0.51	0.28	0.07			
<b>Spatially related</b>										
$\Delta \ln(H-W \text{ dist.})$	-	0.17	0.08	0.03						
	1				0.36	0.14	0.01	0.07	0.10	0.48
	0				0.32	0.12	0.01	0.34	0.12	0.00
$\Delta Home \text{ parking}$	-	0.59	0.16	0.00				0.56	0.16	0.00
	1				0.95	0.29	0.00			
	0				0.47	0.23	0.04			
$\Delta Dist. \text{ to rail}$	-	0.19	0.10	0.05						
	1				0.27	0.17	0.12			
	0				0.25	0.14	0.07			
$\Delta Pop. \text{ density}$	-	-0.23	0.06	0.00				-0.24	0.07	0.00
	1				-0.41	0.12	0.00			
	0				-0.13	0.09	0.13			
$\Delta \ln(Acc_{PT})$	-	-0.36	0.10	0.00						
	1				-0.82	0.21	0.00	-0.54	0.16	0.00
	0				-0.11	0.10	0.29	-0.32	0.10	0.00
$\Delta \ln(Acc_{CAR})$	-	0.41	0.20	0.04				0.37	0.21	0.08
	1				0.69	0.37	0.06			
	0				-0.31	0.29	0.30			
<b>N. of parameters</b>		12			24			15		
<b>AIC</b>		2358.27			2353.84			2346.78		
<b>-2 log L</b>		2330.27			2301.84			2312.78		

Table 1: Model estimates.

## 158 5. Conclusion

159 It is common practise to collect large-scale national travel surveys by sampling individuals  
160 randomly and with replacement. As a result, over time a portion of the surveyed individuals  
161 will appear in the survey more than once and thereby form a panel of observations. While  
162 there will generally not be many recurrent respondents in the panel, such panel data does  
163 include information richness by embracing different time-spacing between observations. In  
164 some of the cases, there might be only one year between two observations, whereas in other  
165 cases, it might be as much as 12 (in this example of the Danish National Travel Survey).  
166 Due to this, the panel covers desirable variation in terms of capturing the effect of life events,  
167 even if it only captures few observations per individual. Moreover, the survey is cheap as it  
168 is indirectly derived from the mother survey and it does not suffer from panel attrition as  
169 the spacing between observations prevents this. Another desirable property is that, due to  
170 the random sampling, it is commonly representative for the mother survey and thereby for  
171 the population.

172 While there are many desirable properties of such a survey, it does raise a non-trivial  
173 estimation challenge in that the time-spacing between observations is not the same. If  
174 capturing life events or triggers in the model, it is evident that such triggers are more likely  
175 to occur the longer the spacing is. Hence, it is required that we propose an estimation  
176 strategy that accounts for this irregular spacing. The paper suggests an individual specific  
177 weighting of the likelihood function to overcome this problem, an approach that can easily be  
178 extended to all types of discrete choice models. We present the estimation results for three  
179 variations of ordered logit models that explain changes in car ownership as a function of  
180 changes in a range of variables including income and accessibility. The models are based on  
181 approximately 1,500 Danish panel observations and are formulated as a first-order difference  
182 approach.

183 From the final model we conclude that public transport accessibility does have an effect  
184 on acquiring more cars in the household even when controlling for population density. This  
185 is further explored in a scenario where public transport travel time is changed. In addition,  
186 the model includes a range of other confounding variables which all support the findings of  
187 the international literature in saying that more driver's licenses, more adults, more children,  
188 a new employment and availability of home parking facilities all contribute positively to an  
189 increase in the car ownership level of the household.

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