

1 **Uniquely Satisfied: Exploring Cyclist Satisfaction**

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38 Word Count: 5,005 words + 4 Figures and 1 Table

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41 **For Citation please use:** Willis, D., Manaugh, K., & El-Geneidy, A. (2013). Uniquely satisfied: Exploring
42 cyclists trip satisfaction. *Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour*, 18, 136-147.

Uniquely Satisfied: Exploring Cyclist Trip Satisfaction

ABSTRACT:

Despite increasing interest and focus on cycling planning and infrastructure, many research and policy frameworks overlook two important aspects of cycling: motivations and trip satisfaction. While many studies have found that cyclists are more satisfied with their commute than other mode users, few have explored why. We hypothesize that different types of cyclists—defined by their reasons for cycling and seasonal mode patterns—will derive different levels of satisfaction from cycling. Therefore, this study attempts to 1) examine the effect of built environment characteristics (e.g. intersection density, land use), trip characteristics (e.g. distance and slope) and season on cycling trip satisfaction, 2) group respondents into 'cyclist types' based on a cluster analysis of motivations for cycling and their alternate (winter) mode, and 3) understand how these personal characteristics moderate the relationship between built environment and trip characteristics and expressed trip satisfaction. This is accomplished using a university-wide travel survey administered in winter 2011, in which commuters to McGill University were asked to report their last trip to McGill. If the person uses a different mode during the fall he was asked to report it as well. Individuals were also asked to report their level of satisfaction with these trips. Surprisingly, the expected relationship between distance, slope and objectively measured elements of the built environment and trip satisfaction was not found. Similar to previous research, cyclists are found to be more satisfied with their commute than other mode users. Year-round cyclists are less satisfied with their travel than those who only cycle in good weather; while "Cycling Enthusiasts" are significantly more satisfied than most cyclists motivated by convenience. This work emphasizes the need to look beyond the built environment and trip characteristics to better understand cyclist trip satisfaction.

KEYWORDS: Cycling, bikeability, trip satisfaction, motivation, active transportation, built environment

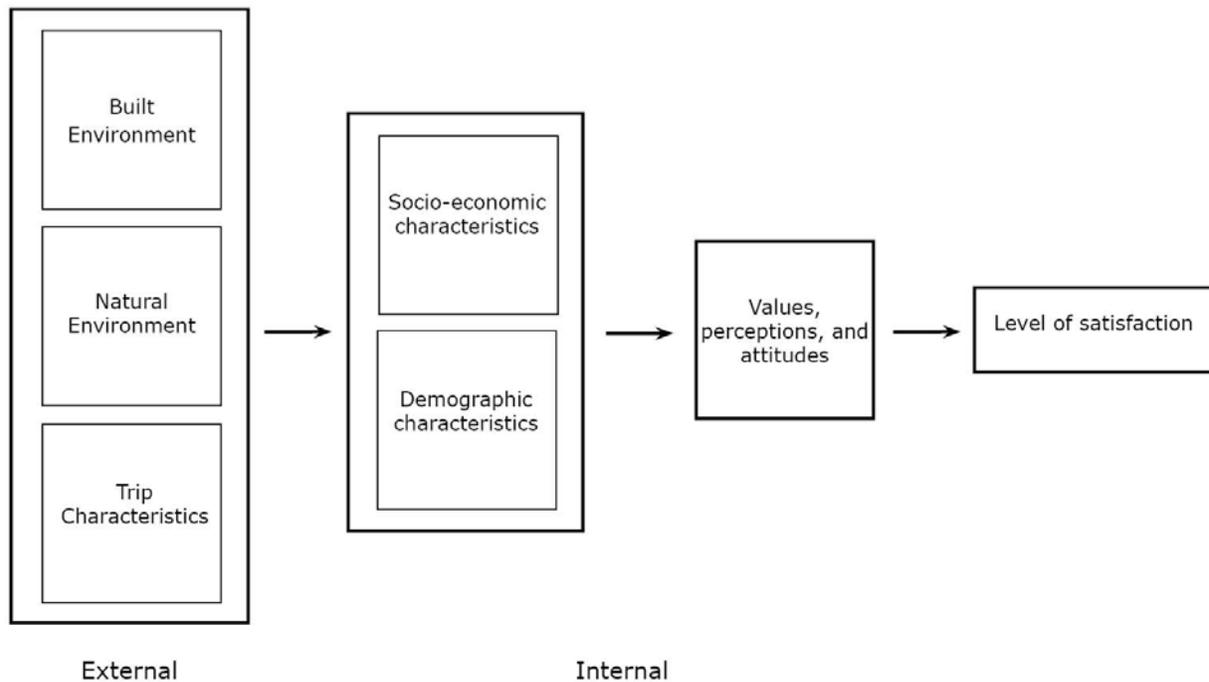
1 **1. INTRODUCTION**

2 Many studies have found that cyclists are more satisfied with their commute than other mode
3 users (Turcotte 2005; London 2011). However, the reason for this high level of satisfaction is
4 rarely explored. Much of the literature on cycling concerns motivators and deterrents to cycling.
5 These studies have found that built-environment (e.g. land use, density, connectivity, street
6 network) and personal (e.g. motivations, attitudes, perceptions) characteristics affect the
7 likelihood to cycle for transportation (Timperio, Ball et al. 2006; Titze, Stronegger et al. 2007;
8 Ogilvie, Mitchell et al. 2008; Robertson-Wilson, Leatherdale et al. 2008; Titze, Stronegger et al.
9 2008; Winters, Brauer et al. 2010). Fewer studies, however, have explored how these same
10 elements may impact cyclist satisfaction. Many studies, especially those based on one-day travel
11 surveys or cordon counts (without a corresponding questionnaire), may not be able to distinguish
12 long-term, seasonal behavior. This study stresses that people, especially cyclists in our study area
13 of Montreal, Canada use various modes throughout the year.

14 We hypothesize that the two most important factors in differentiating among cyclist types
15 are a cyclist’s “bad weather” or winter mode and their reasons for choosing to cycle (Jensen
16 1999). Further, we hypothesize that a person who cycles simply because public transit is not a
17 convenient or affordable option will experience her trip differently than a person who is actively
18 seeking exercise or trying to engage in environmentally-friendly behavior. An aspiring
19 environmentalist who is “forced” to drive in winter due to distance or lack of transit service may
20 view her fall cycling trip quite differently than a person who walks or uses public transit in the
21 winter. In addition, we hypothesize that different types of cyclists will respond differently to
22 commonly-cited elements of the built environment such as bicycle lanes and land use mix. For
23 example, more experienced cyclists may be much less affected by the presence or type of bicycle
24 lanes. Many studies of active transportation assume—at least implicitly—that these elements
25 uniformly affect both mode choice and traveler satisfaction, however recent work (Waterman
26 2005; Manaugh and El-Geneidy 2011), has found significant variation in how elements of
27 neighbourhood walkability affect members of different types of household and how reasons that
28 people walk moderate perception and satisfaction with walking trips.

29 This research framework expands on the work of Alfonzo (2005) who identified a
30 “hierarchy of walking needs”. Alfonzo’s social-ecological framework sheds much-needed light
31 on how personal, household, and cultural factors interact with objective physical elements of the
32 natural and built environment to lead to travel choices. The general research framework is
33 presented in Figure 1 showing that physical characteristics of a cycling trip (which include
34 distance, slope, land uses, density, and connectivity), do not lead directly to trip satisfaction but
35 are filtered through socio-economic factors (age, income, gender). Finally, and perhaps most
36 importantly, personal values, beliefs, and reasons to cycle will ultimately moderate the derived
37 satisfaction from a cycling trip.

38



1
2 **FIGURE 1: Research Framework**

3 With these issues in mind, this research aims to address three main questions: 1) Do established
4 correlates of bicycle commuting (built environment, distance, slope) also influence cyclist trip
5 satisfaction? 2) What types of cyclists can be identified based on motivations and seasonal mode
6 use? And 3) How do cyclists' personal characteristics (winter mode, motivations) affect trip
7 satisfaction? As mentioned above, we hypothesize that the reasons that one cycles may have a
8 greater impact than elements of built environment and distance.

9 The next section will provide a brief review of relevant literature, followed by a
10 description of the survey instrument and methodology. This will be followed by our findings and
11 discussion, finally, directions for future research will be presented.

12
13 **2. LITERATURE REVIEW**

14 The literature on cyclist trip satisfaction is generally limited. It concentrates on surveys
15 describing cyclist satisfaction without analyzing this satisfaction (Turcotte 2005; London 2011).
16 The literature of types of cyclists is bigger, segmenting cyclists according to the frequency of
17 their bicycle trips, trip purpose, stereotypes about cyclists and cyclists' motivations and attitudes
18 (Jensen 1999; Bergstrom and Magnusson 2003; Anable 2005; Gatersleben and Haddad 2010;
19 Larsen and El-Geneydy 2011). This brief literature review covers four broad topics: satisfaction
20 in general; elements that have been found to influence satisfaction with cycling trips (as well as
21 other modes); the important non-utilitarian benefits of cycling and travel in general; and, finally,
22 types of cyclists.

1 **2.1 Measuring Satisfaction**

2 Perhaps the most important theory put forth to explain customer satisfaction has been the
3 expectancy disconfirmation model which defines satisfaction as a comparison of pleasant past-
4 purchasing experience (Oliver, Balakrishnan et al. 1994; Oliver 2010). Along with Fornell’s
5 satisfaction model, the expectancy disconfirmation model has been used in econometric analysis
6 of customer satisfaction. This is often done with structural equation models linking different
7 customer satisfaction measures (e.g. expectations, loyalty, complaints, etc.) with predefined
8 formulas (Johnson and Fornell 1991; Fornell 1995). Other types of satisfaction measurement
9 approaches include statistical and data analysis techniques, the quality approach method, and
10 consumer behavioral analysis (Grigoroudis and Siskos 2009).

11 While traditional models of customer satisfaction often presume the customer’s
12 psychology to be an essentially unknowable element acting on the satisfaction outcome, more
13 involved behavioural models have attempted to go beyond this “black box” formulation. By
14 drawing on key concepts from work on consumer satisfaction in the fields of marketing and
15 psychology, travel behavior researchers have expanded the understanding of how expectation,
16 experience, and habit may influence satisfaction. Notable research, for example, has examined
17 the distinction between positive and negative effect, or the satisfaction with a discrete transaction
18 with some transportation service, and cumulative satisfaction with transportation services over a
19 longer period of time (Friman and Gärling 2001).

20 **2.2 Satisfaction with travel**

21 In the realm of satisfaction with transit service, past research has explored the importance
22 of service reliability, frequency, comfort and short commutes—attributes which adhere to the
23 assumptions of utility maximization of public transit users (Weinstein 2000; Tyrinopoulos and
24 Antoniou 2008; Cantwell, Caulfield et al. 2009). Variables such as cleanliness, privacy, safety,
25 convenience, stress, social interaction and scenery have also been found to contribute to
26 transportation-specific satisfaction (Stradling, Anable et al. 2007). These “non-instrumental”
27 variables have been seen to affect both mode choice and satisfaction levels. While many studies
28 have used aesthetic elements of the cycling environment to predict mode choice, few have
29 attempted to measure cycling satisfaction with the same factors.

30 Several studies have found that cyclists are more satisfied than motorists and public transit
31 riders with their most recent trip. The Travel in London Report 4 (London 2011) found that
32 cyclists were 78% satisfied, slightly less than walkers (81%), but more than transit riders (76%)
33 and motorists (72%). Meanwhile, cyclists were the least satisfied with the transportation network
34 and road conditions: 67% were satisfied with the operation of the Transport for London Road
35 Network and 49% were satisfied with the streets and pavements. A study in Canada had similar
36 findings. Canada’s General Social Survey (Turcotte 2005) found that cyclists were the most
37 numerous in liking or greatly liking their commute (57% as compared to 47% of walkers, 23% of
38 those who use transit and automobile, 28% of transit riders and 38% of drivers). Neither of these
39 studies suggests *why* cyclists may be more satisfied than other road users. Gatersleben and
40 Uzzell (2007) looked at perceptions of daily commutes for different mode users. Building on
41 work by Russell (Russell 1980; Russell 2003) they divided modes according to whether they are
42 arousing (or not arousing) and pleasant (or unpleasant) and categorized cycling as both pleasant
43 and arousing. They found that cyclists perceive the most danger and the least delays, as well as
44 some inconvenience, largely due to other road users. They also found cyclists enjoy the scenery

1 along their commute, the enjoyment of the activity itself and respond in the same numbers as
2 drivers that they value the flexibility of cycling. Further, cyclists had the shortest commute time
3 of all mode users.

4 **2.3 Non-utilitarian benefits of travel**

5 In an important study, Ory and Mokhtarian explore the many needs met by daily travel
6 beyond mobility and access to desired locations. These include adventure and variety-seeking,
7 status, curiosity, exposure to scenery and fresh air, escape, and exercise (Ory and Mokhtarian
8 2005). In recent years, researchers have begun challenging traditional applications of utility-
9 maximization modeling which tended to assume that distance, time, and slope (for active
10 transportation) are always “disutilities” that rational travelers wish to minimize. Until recently
11 many research approaches based on random utility modeling treated personal values and beliefs
12 as essentially unknowable and deliberately left these aspects in the error term in mode choice and
13 other statistical models. Paez & Whalen (2010) find active users often desire *longer* commutes.
14 Other research explores the idea that “high effort-liked activities” bring more subjective
15 satisfaction than “low-effort-liked activities”(Waterman 2005). How these may relate
16 particularly to cyclists will be explored in the discussion section.

17 **2.4 Types of cyclists**

18 Several studies have tried to distinguish cyclists as mode users. Some studies have
19 divided cyclists into different groups, including recreational cyclists and commuter cyclists, and
20 groups according to their frequency of cycling (occasionally, regularly, frequently) (Larsen and
21 El-Geneidy 2011). Recent papers have discussed types of cyclists based on stereotypes
22 (Gatersleben and Haddad 2010). Larsen et al. (2011) found that different types of cyclists travel
23 longer distances than others and prefer different types of bicycle facilities. For instance, cyclists
24 who ride frequently in all conditions are 69% less likely to use a bicycle facility. Jensen (1999)
25 distinguished three groups of cyclists, combining them with transit users: “The cyclists/public
26 transport users of heart”, “The cyclists/public transport users of convenience” and “The
27 cyclists/public transport users of necessity”. Cyclists of heart choose not to own a car and prefer
28 the exercise, scenery and experience of cycling while cyclists of convenience cycle because it is
29 simply the most convenient option and cyclists of necessity cycle because they cannot afford to
30 drive. Gatersleben and Haddad (2010) measured how cyclists and non-cyclists perceived a
31 typical cyclist and found four stereotypes of cyclists: the “responsible cyclist”, the “commuter
32 cyclist”, the “lifestyle cyclist” and the “hippy-go lucky cyclist”. Anable (2005) grouped people
33 into different groups according to their transportation habits and attitudes. The two non-car
34 owning groups were “car-less crusaders” and “reluctant riders”, although one group of car-
35 owners, “aspiring environmentalists” had the most positive attitudes towards cyclists. Finally,
36 one study grouped cyclists according to their travel season; Bergstrom and Magnusson (2003)
37 proposed four categories of cyclists: winter cyclists, summer-only cyclists, infrequent cyclists
38 and never cyclists.

39 **3 DATA AND METHODS**

40 **3.1 Survey Design and Dissemination: The McGill Travel Survey**

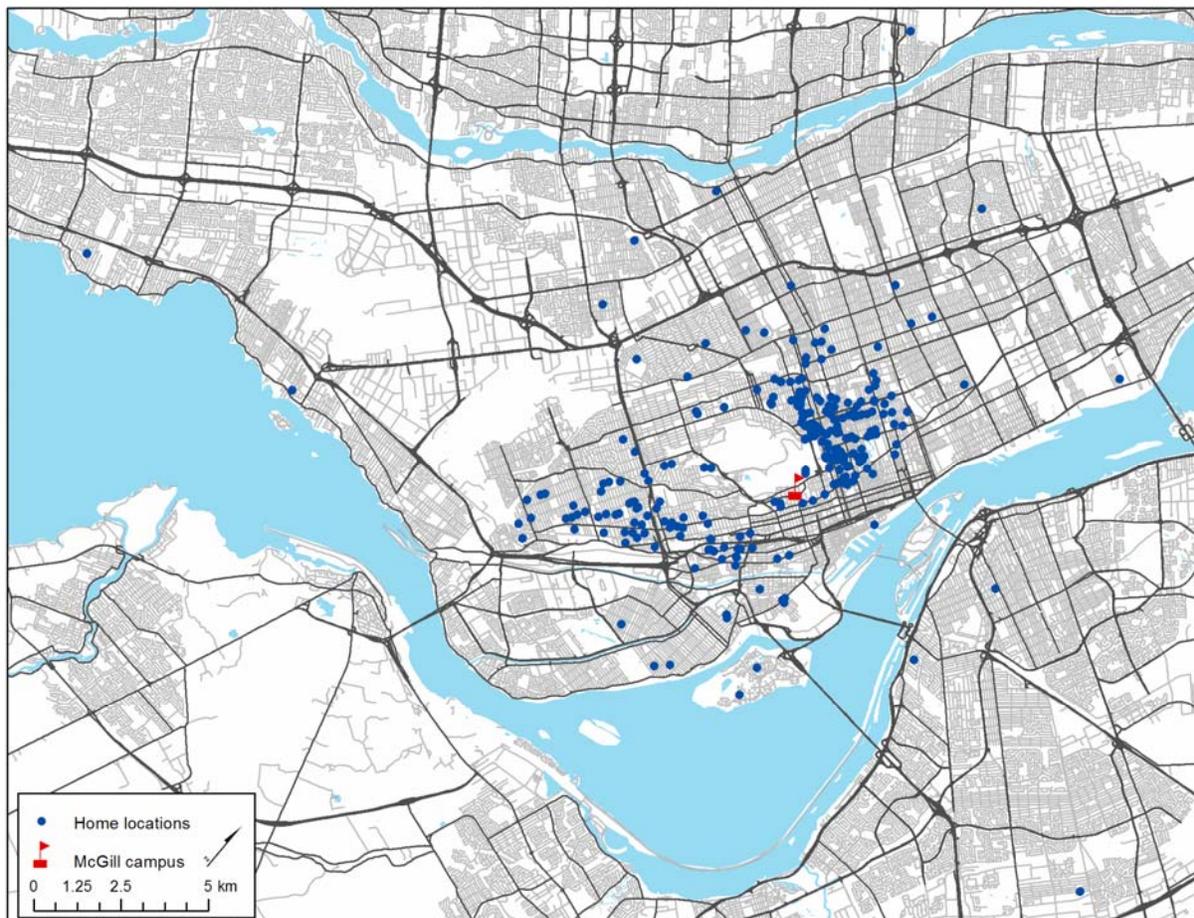
1 The data is drawn from the McGill Travel Survey, conducted in March and April 2011 in
2 Montreal, Quebec, Canada. It targeted McGill students, faculty and staff. The survey collected
3 travel information, including home location—via postal code or closest intersection—and
4 McGill campus destination (lower, middle, or upper campus). The survey asked individuals for
5 their primary mode and their first and second reasons for choosing this mode. It further asked
6 participants to describe the details of their last commute to McGill. Since the survey was
7 conducted in the Winter seasonality was taken into consideration through asking the respondents
8 if they would do the same trip on a “nice fall day”, and if not, to describe this trip as well. In
9 order to capture trip satisfaction respondents were asked the following question, “How would
10 you rate your satisfaction with this trip to McGill?” They were given the option of very
11 unsatisfied, unsatisfied, neutral, satisfied or very satisfied. The satisfaction question was asked
12 twice for individuals who reported a different mode during the Fall day compared to the winter
13 one so we can capture the commuters satisfaction with both trips. Therefore, the satisfaction
14 attached to each described commute is known¹. In addition, socio-economic and demographic
15 characteristics, such as age, gender, work or student status, car and bicycle ownership, were
16 collected.

17 The survey was sent to 19,662 members of the McGill community via e-mail, providing
18 individuals with a link to the online survey. The survey was sent to all faculty and staff with a
19 McGill e-mail address (8,493), and those who did not have a McGill e-mail address were
20 solicited with a postcard sent to their campus work location. Due to concerns with
21 overburdening students with survey requests, the survey could only be sent out to 11,000
22 students. This resulted in an oversampling of employees. The survey remained active for 35
23 days. A total of 5,016 responses were received, yielding a response rate of 25.5%. Following a
24 series of data cleaning operations, through which incomplete and nonsensical survey responses
25 were removed, 4,692 survey responses remained. Of the total sample, 268 (under 6%) were
26 cyclists; 58 were year-long cyclists and 210 were seasonal cyclists (meaning they only indicated
27 a fall cycling trip).

28 The location of the McGill University campus as well as the home location of all cyclists
29 is shown in Figure 2. The McGill campus is centrally-located near Montreal’s Central Business
30 District and served by two separated cycling paths. In addition, the campus is well-served by bus
31 and subway service and is a short walk from a commuter train station. Perhaps the two most
32 important natural elements of the city in terms of overall “bikeability” are its notoriously long
33 and snowy winters and the mountain from which the city derives its name. Mont Royal can be
34 seen as the predominantly open area just north of campus. Trips to (and from) campus can be
35 quite steep depending on home location.

36

¹ Two trips were collected: the respondents’ last trip to campus and the trip they would make on a “nice fall day”. This additional trip is intended to capture respondents’ mode in warm (non-winter) weather. Only “Winter” and “Fall” trips were collected both to limit survey response time and to guarantee greatly consistency among students, faculty, and staff, many of whom would not commute in the summer. In addition, the semesters at McGill are called “Fall” and “Winter”. Therefore, it makes more sense to respondents to consider these two seasons for commuting to campus. Further, due to the length of Montreal winters, it is appropriate to refer to the months of March and early April as “winter”.



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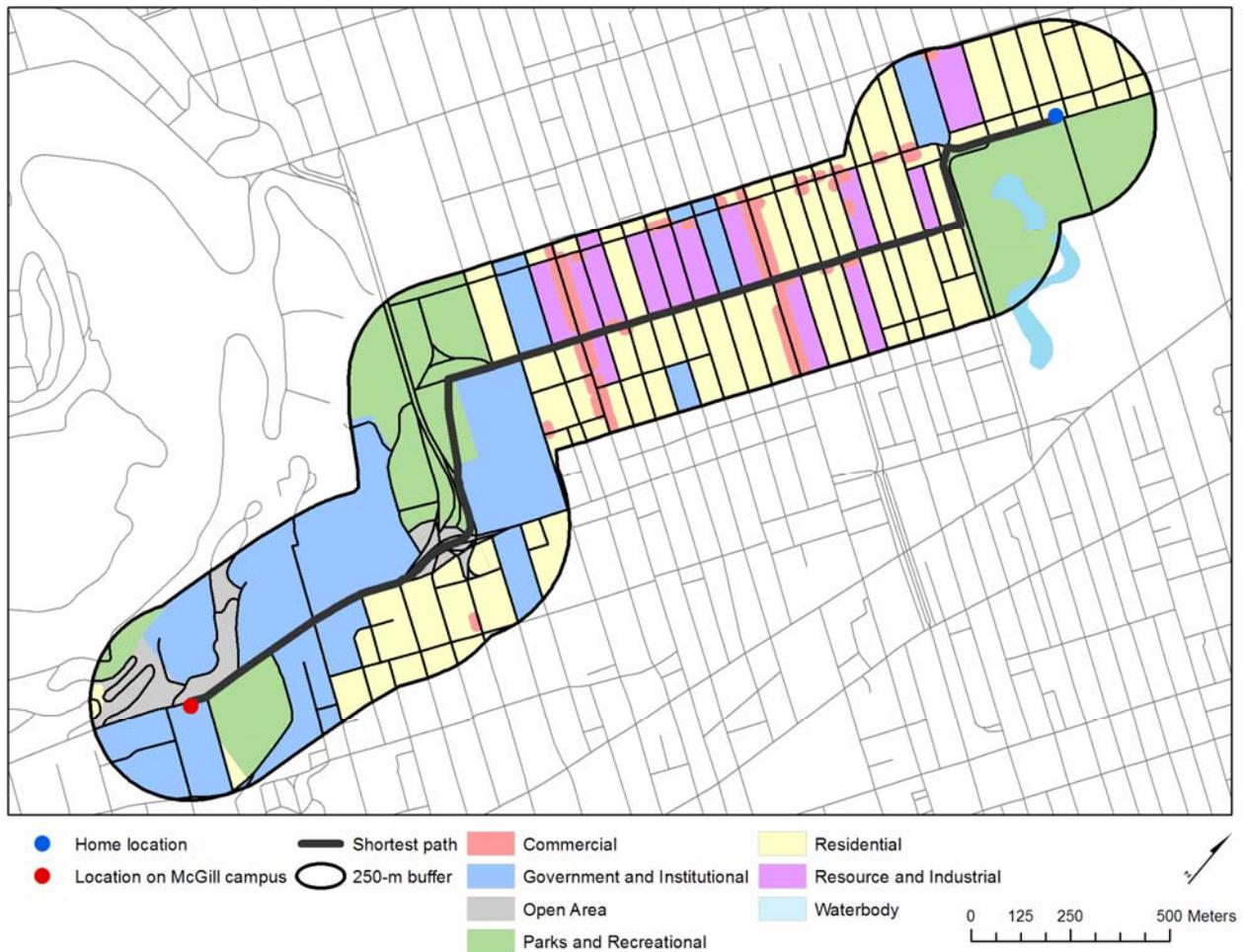
2 **FIGURE 2 Location of campus and home locations of all cyclists.**

3 **3.2 Measuring “Bikeability”**

4 The literature on cycling for transportation has found that many elements of the built
 5 environment, such as the proportion of local roads and bicycle paths; land uses, including
 6 commercial, open area, residential, park and recreation and water; and both population and
 7 intersection densities, impact an individual’s likelihood to cycle (Cervero and Kockelman 1997;
 8 Nelson and Allen 1997; Handy, Boarnet et al. 2002; Cervero and Duncan 2003; Dill and Carr
 9 2003; Cervero, Sarmiento et al. 2009; Dill 2009; Berrigan, Pickle et al. 2010; Dill, Handy et al.
 10 2010; Lee, Jennings et al. 2010; Winters, Brauer et al. 2010; Buehler and Pucher 2011; Forsyth
 11 and Krizek 2011). This is sometimes referred to as “bikeability” (Winters and Cooper 2008;
 12 McNeil 2011). Thus, the higher the proportion of local roads and bicycle routes, residential, park
 13 and recreation and water land use and population and intersection density, the more bikeable a
 14 route becomes. The authors hypothesized that if the built environment has an impact on the
 15 decision to cycle for transportation, it would also have an impact on trip satisfaction. Therefore,
 16 the bikeability of cyclists’ routes was measured in order to determine the impact of the built
 17 environment on satisfaction.

18

1 The measure of bikeability was focused around the route from home locations to campus.
 2 Our data contained the postal code or nearest intersection to each respondent's residence but did
 3 not contain the actual routes of cyclists. For this reason, the shortest route between cyclists'
 4 origin and destination using Network Analyst was used. As cyclists tend to deviate from the
 5 shortest path (Aultman-Hall, Hall et al. 1997; Shafizadeh and Niemeier 1997; M.A. and Bhat
 6 2003; Krizek 2006; Tilahun, Levinson et al. 2007; Larsen and El-Geneidy 2011), a 250-meter
 7 buffer around each route was created. A similar methodology was adopted by Winters et al.
 8 (2010). The 250m was chosen in order to include at least one street on either side of the shortest
 9 path. Within each buffer, proportions of different land uses, intersection density, population
 10 density and proportion of different types of roads and bicycle paths, were measured, as was the
 11 distance of the shortest line. This can be seen in Figure 3, showing the home and campus
 12 destination of a respondent (Land use is shown for illustrative purposes).



13

14 **FIGURE 3 Illustration of shortest path and 250m buffer.**

15 The slope of each cyclist's route was measured using the RunningSlope Script, which divides
 16 each route into 100-m segments and outputs the slope. The measure of slope was the proportion
 17 of 100-m line segments with slope greater than 5%.

1

2 4 FINDINGS

3 4.1 Preliminary Analysis: Cyclists are uniquely satisfied

4 Cyclists in the McGill Travel Survey were significantly more satisfied (combination of
 5 “satisfied” and “very satisfied” responses) than other mode users (88%), with a chi square p-
 6 value of less than 0.01. While their satisfaction dropped in the winter months, it did not drop as
 7 much as other modes (83%). Only walkers were more satisfied than cyclists in the fall (91%).
 8 However, this difference is not statistically significant. Table 1 reports the overall satisfaction of
 9 every mode as well as the seasonal satisfaction with trips. It is clear from this table that cyclists
 10 form a uniquely satisfied group of commuters.

11 **TABLE 1 Satisfaction rates by mode**

	Overall Satisfaction	Fall Satisfaction	Winter Satisfaction
Bicycled	88%	89%	83%
Walked	76%	91%	72%
Took transit	64%	81%	63%
Drove	60%	69%	59%

12

13 4.2 The Effect of Personal and Environmental Characteristics on Satisfaction

14

15 As previously mentioned the literature on cycling for transportation has found that certain socio-
 16 economic, demographic and built environment characteristics affect the decision to cycle. To test
 17 this, an independent samples t-test was performed to determine whether a significant difference
 18 between the means of cyclists who were “very satisfied” and other cyclists who were less
 19 satisfied. Built environment characteristics, such as proportion of local roads and bicycle paths,
 20 proportion of open area, parks and recreation, water and residential land uses, and intersection
 21 density were not significantly different between groups. However, slope and population density
 22 were significantly different between those who said they were very satisfied and those who were
 23 not very satisfied. The full findings are reported in **Table 2**. These findings show how
 24 remarkably similar the cycling environment is for cyclists regardless of their satisfaction levels.

25

26 When season was considered, those who cycled in the fall were significantly more
 27 satisfied than those who cycled in the winter, with a chi square p-value of less than 0.01. While
 28 there is no strong relationship between satisfaction and the built environment, there is a strong
 29 relationship between satisfaction and season. The next step was to consider how personal
 30 characteristics of cyclists influence their levels of satisfaction. We found that age, gender, status
 31 at the university (e.g. Faculty, Student, Staff) and car ownership were not significant in
 32 explaining the variance in satisfaction levels. However, cyclists who stated the environment as
 33 their first reason for cycling were significantly less “very satisfied” (40% as compared to 64%,
 34 chi-square p-value of less than 0.05). Cyclists who cycled only in the fall, and took transit in the
 35 winter, were significantly more “very satisfied” (69.7% as compared to 52.9% chi-square p-
 36 value less than 0.05).

1 **TABLE 2: Characteristics of the built environment on the commute of very satisfied and**
 2 **not very satisfied cyclists**

	“Very satisfied”	Not “very satisfied”
Distance (km)	4.2	4.3
% Local roads	62.7%	62.2%
% Bike paths	21.2%	21.2%
% Open Area	3.1%	3.3%
% Parks and recreation	12.4%	13.0%
% Water	0.4%	0.4%
% Residential	47.9%	48.2%
Slope (% 100-m line segments with slope greater than 5%)*	12.0%	10.3%
Population density*	446.6	377.6
Intersection density	95.3	94.3
N	167	101

3 *=t-test significance <0.01

4 **4.3 Who are the cyclists?**

5 The inconclusive findings in regards to built environment factors led us to more deeply explore
 6 the differences among cyclists. The intention was to uncover relationships among reasons for
 7 cycling and expressed satisfaction. To better understand cyclists, respondents were grouped
 8 using a Two-Step Cluster analysis. Two variables, one that combines first and second reasons
 9 for choosing cycling as a mode of transportation and one variable expressing a cyclist’s alternate
 10 (winter) mode, were inputted. The alternate mode was examined as most cyclists in the sample
 11 (78%) cycled only in the fall and therefore used another mode in the winter months.

12 There are two broad categories of cyclists: “fair-weather cyclists” who predominantly (or
 13 exclusively) cycle during warm months and “year-round cyclists” who cycle in the winter as
 14 well. Within these two broad categories, cyclists are split up according to their alternate mode
 15 (transit, driving or walking) and by their reasons for choosing cycling as a mode of transportation
 16 (e.g. convenience, exercise).

17 ***FAIR-WEATHER CYCLISTS***

18 Fair-weather cyclists refer to all cyclists who responded that they do not cycle in the
 19 winter. These cyclists were more satisfied from their cycling trip than their alternate mode of
 20 transportation (transit, walking or driving) during the winter months. Among fair-weather
 21 cyclists, there are transit riders and non-transit riders. This section briefly describes each of the
 22 six clusters.

23 ***Transit riders***

24 All cyclists in the “transit riders” category stated that they took transit in the winter. In general,
 25 they were less satisfied with their transit trip than with their fall bicycle trip. The first group
 26 identified are *Cycling enthusiasts* (n=41). A majority (80%) state that they chose to cycle
 27 because it is good exercise, nearly half state they cycle because it is good for the environment
 28 (49%) and 41% say they cycle because it is a pleasant ride. They are the most satisfied overall

1 (95%) and the most very satisfied (76%). Curiously, they cycle on average the longest distances
2 (6.08km) and the largest percentage of their trip towards campus is uphill (61%).

3 All *Active, convenience-motivated transit-riders* (n=42) state that they cycle for exercise
4 and convenience/because it is “faster than other modes”, and all cyclists in this group use transit
5 as their alternate form of transportation. Overall, 71% are very satisfied and 86% are satisfied
6 overall. They cycle an average of 4.6km. All *Convenience-motivated transit-riders* (n=65) stated
7 convenience or speed as their reason for choosing to cycle and everyone took transit on an
8 alternate trip. 65% are very satisfied and 89% are satisfied overall. They cycle just below 4km on
9 average.

10 ***Non-Transit Riders***

11 All cyclists in the “non-transit riders” category state that they took other modes than transit
12 (driving, walking) when responding to the survey. In general, they are less satisfied with this
13 alternate mode than with their bicycle trip on a “Nice Fall Day”. 96% of *Convenience-motivated*
14 *walkers* (n=48) state that they cycle because it is convenient or “faster than other modes” and
15 when they are not cycling, 83% of them walk while 17% of them drive. On average, they
16 commute 2.78km. Around 52% were very satisfied from their cycling trip and 88% were
17 satisfied overall. All *Active-environmentalists* (n=25) stated that they cycled because it is a good
18 form of exercise and over half state that it is good for the environment (52%). When they are not
19 cycling, 24% drive, and 28% walk, although 48% of the group cycle year-round. They were least
20 satisfied with their cycling trip; only 38% were very satisfied and 80% were satisfied overall.
21 They cycle on average 5.52km.

22

23 ***YEAR-ROUND CYCLISTS***

24 94% of the *Year-round cyclists* (n=47) state they cycle because it is convenient or “faster
25 than other modes” and one third of the cluster state that cycling is a good form of exercise. 69%
26 are very satisfied and 87% satisfied or very satisfied. They cycle an average of 3.5km.

27 **4.4 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CLUSTERS**

28 *Cycling Enthusiasts* travel significantly longer distances than *Convenience-motivated transit-*
29 *riders*, *Year-round cyclists* and *Convenience-motivated walkers*. In general, cyclists motivated by
30 convenience cycled shorter distances than those motivated by exercise or the environment.

31 These findings are presented in Figure 4 and Table 3. Table 3 presents each cluster’s
32 average distance and trip satisfaction rates with significance tests. Only *Cycling enthusiasts* have
33 a significantly higher rate of satisfaction than the other groups. Interestingly, this group also
34 displays a significantly longer average cycling distance. *Convenience-motivated transit riders*,
35 *Convenience-motivated walkers*, and *Year-round cyclists* on the other hand, have significantly
36 shorter cycling distances.

37 To better visualize the relationship among trip satisfaction, motivations to cycle, and
38 distance, the radial graphs in Figure 4 were generated. The motivations that people cite for
39 cycling were plotted on five axes (as percentages). To make this more clear, the two responses
40 that deal with cycling as a response to constraints (‘I do not have access to a car’ and ‘other
41 forms of transportation are too expensive’) were grouped under “constraints”. Similarly for the
42 two responses that cite proximity and convenience, which were aggregated into “convenience”.
43 The remaining 3 axes plot the percentage of people who are “satisfied” with their cycling trip,

1 the percentage that cycle year-round, and the distance cycled. Distance was standardized as a
 2 percentage of the longest cluster; therefore cycling enthusiasts have a value of "1" while all other
 3 groups show the proportion of their average trip relative to this group.

4
 5 **TABLE 3: Satisfaction and Distance by Cluster**

	Satisfaction	Distance cycled (km)
Cycling Enthusiasts	95% *	6.08 ¹
Exercise and Convenience-motivated transit riders	86%	4.61
Convenience-motivated transit riders	89%	3.99 ²
Convenience-motivated walkers	88%	2.78 ²
Active Environmentalists	80%	5.52
Year-round cyclists	87%	3.51 ²

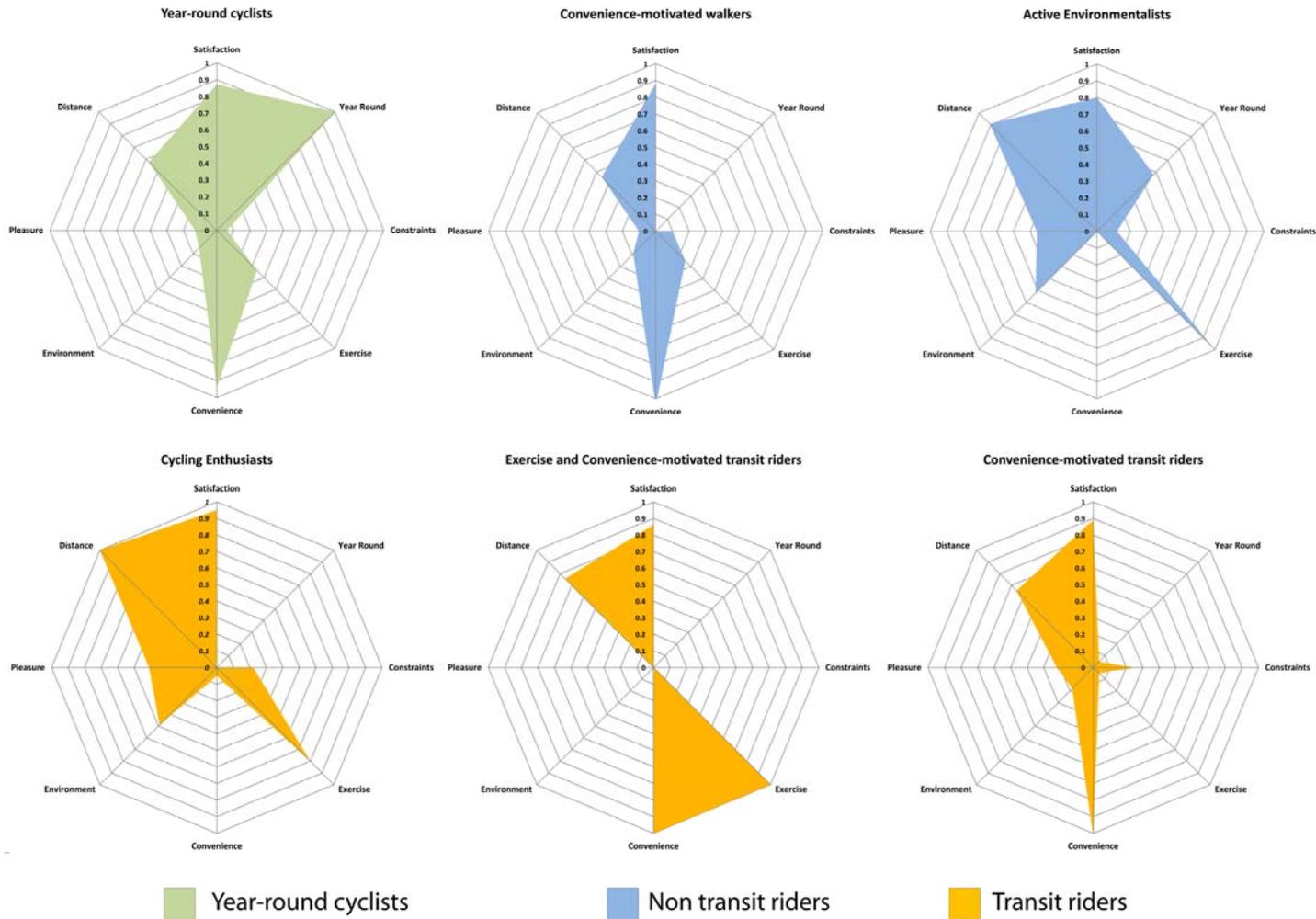
* Statistically significant (p<0.01) chi square test
¹ Statistically significant (above average) independent sample t-test
² Statistically significant (below average) independent sample t-test

6
 7 *Cycling enthusiasts*, who take transit in winter months and are motivated by a desire to
 8 exercise and engage in environmentally-friendly behavior, both cycle much longer than average
 9 and are more satisfied. *Convenience-motivated transit riders*, on the other hand, who cite
 10 convenience and neither exercise nor environmentalism, cycle on average much shorter than the
 11 enthusiasts but are much less satisfied. The relationship between satisfaction and the desire to
 12 exercise and concern for the environment does not hold for *Active environmentalists*, who are
 13 significantly less satisfied. This may be attributable to the fact that 48% of this group cycled
 14 during the winter months. Interestingly, though not necessarily a surprise, we see clearly that
 15 year-round cyclists cycle shorter distances and cite convenience as their main motivation for
 16 cycling much more than other groups.

17 *Cycling enthusiasts* are significantly more satisfied than other groups although they cycle
 18 on average further than other groups. This lends tentative support of the underlying hypothesis
 19 that personal values (as captured by the reason to cycle) are more important than objectively
 20 measured physical trip characteristics in predicting satisfaction levels.

1 **FIGURE 4: Relationship among satisfaction, distance, and reasons for cycling.**

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1 5 DISCUSSION

2 Our original hypothesis that cyclist trip satisfaction is affected by the built environment,
3 the natural environment and trip characteristics was inconclusive. The only elements of the
4 physical environment that seem to affect satisfaction in our study were slope and population
5 density, with no effect from land use, connectivity or street types. The slope finding was
6 surprising, as more satisfied cyclists experienced greater slope. Season was the most significant
7 indicator of satisfaction, with cyclists taking fall trips more satisfied than cyclists taking winter
8 trips. It is interesting that while the built environment (land use, connectivity, and street
9 network), safety, distance and slope may influence the likelihood to cycle; they do not predict
10 levels of satisfaction in our sample. Further, while certain groups are more likely to cycle (young
11 men, for instance) they are not necessarily more satisfied. Overall, cyclists are very satisfied with
12 their commute to work or school. It is interesting to explore why cyclists may be much more
13 satisfied with their commute than other mode users even in cases where they are least satisfied
14 with the road network (London 2011). While the evidence is only slight, the higher (and
15 statistically significant) satisfaction rates of *Cycling enthusiasts* do lend support to the theoretical
16 framework presented in Figure 1. The following section will explore some ideas of how and
17 why cyclists may be more satisfied than other mode users and how observed and unobserved
18 personal traits may moderate the relationship between physical factors, internal factors and trip
19 satisfaction.

20 5.1 Independence

21 In many ways, cycling offers the independence of driving without the inconveniences; a
22 cyclist can leave when they choose, without the stress of being caught in traffic. One survey
23 respondent stated that their primary motivation for cycling was independence and empowerment:
24 “I think that bicycling is generally the most empowering way to travel. I can fix my bicycle
25 myself, I do not have to rely on [transit] schedules”. In fact, in research conducted by
26 Gatersleben and Uzzel (2007) cyclists stated in the same numbers as motorists (14%) that the
27 most pleasant part of their commute was the flexibility. Cycling was considered arousing, like
28 driving, whereas transit and walking were considered not arousing. Sometimes driving is too
29 arousing however, resulting in stress (Gatersleben and Uzzell 2007).

30 5.2 Economical

31 Cyclists may be satisfied because they save money by not purchasing and maintaining a
32 personal vehicle or buying a transit pass. A transit pass in Montreal can cost over \$100 per
33 month, and the Canadian Automobile Association estimates that owning a car costs \$6,239 per
34 year (for a compact car), or approximately \$17 per day and this cost does not include gas or
35 parking (Canadian Automobile Association).

36 5.3 Pleasure

37 Cyclists may enjoy the activity of traveling itself more than other mode users.
38 Gatersleben and Uzzel (2007) found that for 21% of cyclists the most pleasant aspect of their
39 daily commute was enjoyment of the activity itself, and 37% stated the scenery. In our study,
40 nearly half (47.7%) of cyclists stated exercise as their first or second reason for cycling, and
41 another 20% stated the pleasant ride. Therefore, the ride itself is enjoyable. Further, if cyclists

1 are choosing this mode for exercise they may be less affected by increased distance or slope, or
 2 actually positively affected. In another sense, commuting by bicycle is like multi-tasking; just as
 3 transit riders can read, listen to music and make phone calls while commuting, cyclists are able
 4 to both exercise and commute at the same time.

5 6 **5.4 Identity**

7 Cyclists may self-identify as “cyclists” more frequently than other mode users self-
 8 identity as “drivers” or “transit riders”. Satisfaction levels may simply be a reflection of
 9 engaging in activity that one identifies with as either socially desirable or fitting with one’s
 10 values. Abou-Zeid and colleagues (Abou-Zeid and Ben-Akiva 2011; Abou-Zeid and Ben-Akiva
 11 2012; Abou-Zeid, Witter et al. 2012) have explored the power of “social comparisons”. This is
 12 especially relevant in Montreal which has a strong “cycling culture”.

13 **5.5 Distance**

14 On the other hand, cyclists may be more satisfied simply because they have a shorter
 15 commute than other mode users (Gatersleben and Uzzell 2007). In this study, cyclists commute
 16 on average shorter distances than drivers and transit riders, but slightly longer distances, on
 17 average, than walkers. However, in terms of time, they have the fastest commute; the average
 18 time a cyclist commuted was 16 minutes, compared to 20 minutes for walkers, 38 minutes for
 19 transit users and 36 minutes for drivers.

20 21 **6 CONCLUSION**

22 We initially hypothesized that trip characteristics and the natural environment and built
 23 environment affect trip satisfaction and that this effect is mediated by personal characteristics
 24 such as socio-economic and demographic characteristics and motivations (Figure 1). While this
 25 initial hypothesis was somewhat inconclusive, this study has several noteworthy findings. First,
 26 we found there are several kinds of cyclists on the roads in Montreal. The most satisfied were
 27 *Cycling Enthusiasts*, who cycle the longest distances on the least objectively measured bikeable
 28 roads and with the greatest uphill commute, using transit during the winter months. Cyclists who
 29 use this mode year-round are most often motivated by convenience (*Year-round cyclists*). The
 30 least satisfied cyclists were those who both cycled year-round and were motivated by exercise or
 31 the environment (*Active-environmentalists*). Second, slope and population density along the
 32 route are significantly different between “very satisfied” cyclists and all other cyclists. Lastly,
 33 season has an important effect on cyclist satisfaction. Just 22% of cyclists in our survey cycled
 34 during winter. These winter cyclists also reported lower satisfaction rates than fall cyclists. This
 35 means that a large portion of cyclists are using a different mode in the winter months (walk,
 36 transit or drive), suggesting that winter cycling in Montreal is difficult. This is probably
 37 attributable to the harsh weather and challenging cycling network conditions during this period.

38 Other studies have similarly found cyclists to be the most satisfied commuters, even
 39 when they are dissatisfied with the transportation network (London 2011). This may be
 40 attributable to the relative short commute that cyclists have (just 16 minutes in this study), the
 41 cost savings, the exercise benefits or the relative independence afforded by having a bicycle.
 42 Cyclists are able to use the road network like a car, go longer distances than walkers and with

1 more flexibility transit users, carry small to medium-sized loads and park next to their
2 destination. Research should seek to further explain these high levels of satisfaction and
3 understand what makes cyclists such enthusiastic commuters overall.

4 5 **6.1 Limitations and Future Research**

6 While the survey is representative of the McGill community, the authors make no claim that
7 this sample is representative of the city of Montreal. Future research could explore cyclist
8 satisfaction more widely by surveying cyclists outside of a university setting. Future research
9 should examine the multi-faceted nature of satisfaction, such as satisfaction with individual
10 elements of the commute (e.g. distance, slope, safety) and could seek to attribute satisfaction to
11 particular characteristics of the commute. Examining these individual components will allow a
12 more nuanced look at satisfaction.

13 In the present study, we see that many factors that may lead to—or dissuade from—the
14 decision to cycle for transportation do not have the expected effect on derived satisfaction.
15 Ettema et al. (2010) and Middleton (2009) argue that “experienced utility” is a much more
16 appropriate measure in understanding how individuals experience and perceive their travel
17 choices than “decision-utility” (Kahneman and Sugden 2005). This distinction could be a
18 welcome and much-needed addition to travel behavior research. Echoing recommendations made
19 by Ory and Mokhtarian (2005), further refinement of both attitudinal questions and measurement
20 of satisfaction with travel is necessary to address many of the concerns mentioned herein.

21 **7 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

22 We would like to thank the McGill Office of Sustainability and McGill Campus and Space
23 Planning for their feedback and guidance at various stages of this project. We would also like to
24 thank Daniel Schwartz, from IT Customer Services, for his assistance in developing the online
25 survey and managing the distribution of the survey to the McGill Community. Thanks to
26 Marianne Hatzopoulou, Naveen Eluru, Jacob Mason and Cynthia Jacques for their help
27 throughout the survey design process. Thanks to the two anonymous reviewers for their feedback
28 on the earlier version of the manuscript. Finally, we express our gratitude to the McGill
29 Sustainability Projects Fund and the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of
30 Canada (NSERC) for providing funding for this project.

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