Paper title: Travel Demand Management at Australian Universities: recognition, contemplation or action?

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Abstract (200 words):
Travel Demand Management (TDM) Plans have been employed internationally as tools for large trip generators to encourage sustainable commuter travel. In Australia, there is an absence of legislation or regulation addressing travel demand management and little action is undertaken in this field. Recent development of a TDM good practice kit for universities promoted research to ascertain how Australian universities are managing the transport demands of staff and students. This paper reports on a survey of Australian universities which found that few universities are proactively managing travel demand of staff and students and many cater to high levels of car use.

The paper describes some of the actions that universities can employ to reduce car trips and increase the proportion of travel on more sustainable modes. It concludes that the likely competitive advantage for universities is high with capital savings and a more amenable environment amongst the range of benefits.
Introduction

There has been little progress with sustainable travel practices at most Australian universities despite over a decade of national and state policy statements urging the need for sustainable travel in Australia (Department of the Environment and Heritage, 1992; Department of Transport, Ministry for Planning, Main Roads Western Australia et al, 1996; Western Australian Planning Commission, 1997; Queensland Transport, 1998; National Transport Secretariat, 2003). The 2004 Australian Road Summit noted that road transport faced enormous pressures and that strategies emphasizing travel behaviour change and travel demand management are now high on the agendas of transport agencies (Smart Urban Transport, 2004).

Travel demand management is one approach aimed at achieving more sustainable travel patterns by influencing a reduction in the number of car trips. Travel Demand Management Plans (TDM Plans) are most applicable for institutions generating a high volume of vehicular trips. Regulatory and incentive levers are used to achieve a redistribution of trips from low occupancy car travel to the more sustainable travel modes of walking, cycling, public transport and high occupancy vehicles.

Australian universities are significant travel generators. Campuses usually have a student and staff population in the thousands, and attract a large number of daily visitor trips in addition to staff and student travel. Tertiary institutions located on suburban sites are experiencing growing parking demands. Surrounding road networks suffer high traffic volumes during peak hours that delay public transport services and discourage walking and cycling. Employees lacking adequate transport alternatives will commute by car, a practice that contributes to congestion during peak hours, and creates a significant demand for on-site parking. Within Australia the mode share for travel to work by car was 64% in 2001, having grown from 55% in 1991 (Australian Bureau of Statistics 1994; Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001). Congestion during peak periods reduces the efficiency of road transport networks and undermines the amenity of local areas (Newman & Kenworthy 1999). The high levels of car use add to global greenhouse emissions and diminish local air quality.

Travel planning for universities needs to be cognisant of the particular characteristics which set universities apart from other large employers. Extended hours of operation generate travel demand during periods of low frequency transit service outside of peak transit hours. Within university departments, teaching schedules of faculty staff can vary significantly presenting particular constraints to developing shared transport programs. Students are often time poor, their travel is constrained by cost and influenced by work and other commitments outside of university study. The diversity of ages, life styles, cultures and occupations contributes to complex travel patterns at universities and presents a particular challenge to implement special forms of travel demand management programs.

Travel Demand Management Plans are a tool aimed at managing the travel choices of employees and visitors (Environmental Resources Awareness Group & Conservation Council of Western Australia 1999; Enoch & Potter 2003; Rye 2002). The aim is a reduction in the number of car trips, with an increase in travel by other modes. The key is in providing an integrated package of measures that support the aim of the plan (Environmental Resources Awareness Group &
Conservation Council of Western Australia 1999; Rye 2002). The approach to influencing travel behaviour is three pronged: information and education; incentives; and regulation or disincentives. This framework is applied across the actions of the plan.

Developing and implementing a TDM plan has the potential for considerable economic, environmental and social benefits. A 'TravelSmart' initiative in South Perth, Western Australia, aimed at encouraging households to reduce their car trips, demonstrated a private user benefit of AUD$2.54 million for the 35,000 people participating (Ker & James 1999). This is equivalent to a saving of approximately AUD$76 per person/annum. There are also cost savings coming from reduced investment in, and maintenance of road and car parking infrastructure. Furthermore less car parking contributes an opportunity for more productive use of land. Other benefits include improved health of staff, as well a marketing edge of a sustainable, accessible environment. Institutions with travel plans contribute to a wider community benefit via increased public transport patronage and associated revenue gain, reduction in road building and maintenance through a reduced rate of traffic growth and reduced air pollution.

In Australia, to date, there has been an absence of federal government legislation encouraging travel planning in the workplace. State governments have addressed the issue, and most are devoting some resources (albeit limited) to travel demand planning. Commuter plans have been trialled through the Australian Conservation Council’s Smogbusters program. However, the catalyst for developing a commuter plan has usually been the desire by individual businesses to address greenhouse gas emissions, on-site parking issues and to a lesser extent, congestion on the surrounding road network (Estill Associates & Department for Planning and Infrastructure, 2003; Mason, 2000).

This paper reports on the findings of a survey which examines whether Australian universities have recognised the need for travel demand management, and if so, to what extent they have taken action to manage the transport demands of staff and students. The extent of action is then compared to travel demand management action by leading universities across the world.

The extent of action by Australian Universities in Travel Demand Management

Our research sought to explore the extent of action to manage travel demand across Australian universities as a whole. To determine how universities were addressing their transport impact, a postal survey was undertaken to ascertain the current state of travel planning in Australian universities. The questionnaire focussed on three key aspects: first, assessing the existing transport infrastructure available at each university’s main campus; second, how universities managed staff and student use of that infrastructure; and finally, what methods (if any) were utilised to influence modal choice of people accessing the university site.

The survey sought information about travel to the main university campus, which was defined as the campus with the largest total student and staff population. The survey focussed only on main campuses for a number of reasons. Firstly, developing and implementing a travel demand management plan has an associated cost and greatest cost effectiveness will be achieved where a large number of participants are assured. In this regard, it was expected larger campuses were more likely to have undertaken some travel planning. Secondly, university campuses with a large
staff and student population are more likely to have experienced pressure on available transport infrastructure. This pressure may have prompted some interventionist action to address network problems.

Questionnaires were issued to 40 Australian universities, twenty five useable questionnaires were returned, giving a response rate of 63%. The majority of responding universities indicated the main campus is situated in a suburban area (14 universities) with a further five campuses each located in the city or rural/regional areas. One university defined its geographical location as that of the city fringe.

Transport infrastructure and management – existing access arrangements

The majority of universities provided car parking for students (84%) and all provided parking for staff. Of the four campuses that did not provide student car parking, three were located in the city and one on the city fringe. It is not surprising that city campuses provide the least amount of car parking and imposed some restrictions on student use of the parking as they are spatially constrained with limited opportunity for expansion of car parking. Existing infrastructure must be used more efficiently, achieved partly by limiting availability to certain sectors of the university population.

Geographical location appears to strongly influence the amount of car parking available. Three of the five city campus universities provided no parking whatsoever. Of the campuses with less than 500 bays of car parking, 75% were situated in a city. Campuses providing more than 4,000 parking bays were predominantly located in suburban areas (75%).

In addition to this designated parking, six of the responding universities allowed overflow parking within areas on campus including internal streets and parkland. Overflow parking often occurs in inappropriate locations that inconvenience pedestrians and cyclists, and an absence of formal thoroughfares between such car parks and buildings can create dangerous conditions during peak periods. Overflow parking also implies that car drivers can have unfettered access to the university, conveying preferential treatment for car travel. The grounds management and environmental costs of using such areas should be regarded as a monetary subsidy favouring car use.

In addition three-quarters of responding universities have nearby areas of off-campus parking. Almost half (47%) of the off-campus parking sites offered unrestricted parking (by time or by cost). 11% of universities indicated off-campus parking is inconsistently regulated with a mix of parking controls in some locations and an absence of restrictions in other areas. For those universities with off-campus car parking subject to some form of controls, metered street parking and time restricted parking spaces were most common (see Figure 1). Ensuring appropriate controls are applied to off-campus parking requires dialogue between the university, local government and local land users. A good TDM Plan will involve all relevant stakeholders to ensure that parking sites adjacent to the university campus are subject to regulations supporting the aims of the travel management plan.
The pricing structure applied to on-campus parking for staff and students can be seen in Figure 2. While the majority of universities (76%) employ pricing controls for campus car parking, one quarter continue to provide free car parking despite its role in promoting car use. 52% of universities indicated they utilise both annual and daily charges. Annual car parking charges alone, applied by 26% of universities, can actually act as an incentive to parking on campus. Once the initial purchase has been made there exists a financial incentive to use the pass and appropriate its full value. Daily parking charges, particularly when set at an hourly rather than daily rate, encourage the use of parking occasionally for a limited period and are possibly the most effective disincentive to parking on-campus. (Department for Transport, 2002). However, only 5% of universities utilised daily charges.
The application of parking controls also varied between parking allocated for staff and students. In comparison with students, more universities required staff to purchase annual parking permits (8% and 24% respectively). 12% of universities required students to pay daily charges, while only 4% applied daily charges to staff parking. The difficulty with any such variation in parking controls is that it could be argued that one sector of the university population receives preferential treatment. Unless a justifiable basis can be established for variations in parking controls, the same charging regime should be applied to all staff and students.

In addition to parking provision for access by car, most Australian university campuses are served by a range of public transport and non-motorised infrastructure. Almost all of the universities provided outdoor bicycle racks (96%) with half also providing indoor parking or lidded bicycle racks. On reflection, the survey should have assessed adequacy of supply and suitability of locations.

Almost one quarter of the universities lacked high frequency public transport services (those with a frequency of 15 minutes or less). Public transport services running at least every 15 minutes offer flexibility comparable to the car (Department for Transport 2002; Estill Associates & Department for Planning and Infrastructure, 2003). For universities attempting to reduce car trips to campus, frequent public transport services are a basic necessity to attract ridership. For those universities with public transport services (75%), bus access predominated, indicative of the high level of road infrastructure available in Australia. In contrast access by train was limited. Three universities had no railway station at all in the locality; five did not have a train station within comfortable walking distance of the university (1km). Eleven universities had a station within 6 kms of campus; to take advantage of this would require good integration with other transport modes such as cycle and bus.

Achieving frequency improvements and services dedicated to meeting the transport demand at the campus may require promotion and support or funding directly from the university. Half of the university campuses had one or more buses directly servicing the campus, with almost a third of these universities partly or fully funding the service. Some universities indicated a dedicated bus was a night shuttle bus, a service that transports staff and students around campus, to student housing and car park areas after dark. Such a service although necessary, is not adequate to meet the wider transport needs of a university seeking more sustainable travel patterns. They should not be seen as a substitute against safer cycling and walking facilities. Reductions in car trips to campuses will only occur if this and regular and frequent public transport services are available to and from the residential areas of university staff and students.

Achieving reductions in car trips also requires that staff and students are aware of alternative travel modes, and how to use these modes. Surprisingly, a third of the universities do not promote travel by non-car modes. Given that 88% of the universities had one or more public transport services within proximity to the campus and 96% provided facilities for bicycle parking, failure to at least promote these modes is an important oversight. Providing on-campus information (eg. web-based maps and guides) about the available non-car transport infrastructure as well as about car parking availability is possibly the least expensive step in travel planning.
Travel Demand Management planning at universities

Not surprisingly given the slowness to embrace commuter planning in Australia, only six of the twenty-five universities had TDM Plans. Half of the plans had been initiated very recently (2003). Three plans were initiated in consecutive years between 1997 and 2000. The primary reason for initiating a TDM Plan was to reduce single occupant vehicle trips (2 out of 6 universities) with a variety of catalysts for the remaining plans (see Figure 3).

None of the plans directly tackled the need to reduce single occupant car journeys in the described actions, instead the plans showed a preference for focusing on improvements to public transport and cycling infrastructure. All of the plans lacked specific actions to manage the availability, convenience and cost of car parking at the universities, with the exception of two plans that were still in the development phase. International best practice indicates that by managing parking with restrictions and pricing disincentives, greater reductions in single occupant vehicle trips are achieved (Department for Transport 2002). In Australia this needs to be supported by improvements in other modes at the same time.

Improvements to infrastructure for sustainable travel modes were noted as part of the actions for all TDM Plans. One university plan also included actions to provide a maintenance course for cyclists. All the plans described actions to provide information and promote sustainable transport modes. The overriding finding from the six plans is that infrastructure improvements for walking, cycling and public transport are necessary at all universities, and the six universities recognise the need for ensuring staff and students are better informed about sustainable transport. It is clear that these universities have chosen these actions as priorities before tackling the disincentive approaches relating to car access.

Decision making

In developing the TDM Plans, some described the need to create a framework for policy and procedure that would work to deliver an effective travel demand management program. All
universities saw management of the TDM Plans as being undertaken by the universities alone. Only one university involved the state transport department in the decision making process for the plan. Without adequately involving stakeholders outside of the university, it is unlikely a TDM Plan will achieve any significant and long-term changes to the modal distribution of travel patterns. Off-campus infrastructure must be available for sustainable transport modes, and must provide an environment that is conducive to various combinations of walking, cycling or public transport. For this to occur, car traffic needs to be managed and increased priority given to pedestrians, cyclists and public transport services. Such changes will require the university to collaborate with stakeholders (including state and local government) with short and long-term benefits available from involving these parties at the outset.

Action outcomes of existing TDM plans

Of the three university travel plans initiated prior to 2003, results indicate achievements in infrastructure improvements and travel behaviour change. Two of the three universities have gained more frequent public transport services resulting in a higher proportion of trips to the university by this mode. One university also reported an increase in the proportion of carpool trips. Improvements in ticketing and information associated with the transport services were also reported. Other achievements reported include the creation of a dedicated transport office, and changes to the university vehicle fleet aimed at reducing greenhouse emissions.

Overall there is limited detail as to the individual plan successes at the universities and this may be related to the paucity of rigorous evaluation and monitoring. No university described a systematic process of monitoring and evaluation as part of the TDM planning process. One university currently developing a TDM Plan indicated monitoring would occur by undertaking transport surveys at relevant times to assess the degree of modal change. However, two universities with existing TDM plans did not undertake any monitoring, one indicated they would “review” the plans achievements, but provided no further detail as to what the review process entailed.

Evaluation enables measurement of a plan's progress towards set targets. It brings rigour to plan design and can help decision-makers maintain a plan that is responsive to changes in travel demand and travel patterns (Bridgeman & Davis 2000). Results of the evaluation can be utilised for promoting the success of the plan, securing new infrastructure or further financial support. Where benchmarks have not been met, the survey results can be utilised to justify further action to achieve change (Roads and Traffic Authority, no date). Evaluation and monitoring are therefore an essential part of travel plans and efforts should be extended to developing a program in the early phases of TDM planning.

University Travel Demand Management: international best practice

Our literature review of international best practice at universities shows that there is a wealth of solutions that can be implemented to achieve sustainable travel practices. Some universities stand out as leaders in travel demand management: University of British Columbia, University of Washington and Oxford Brookes University (Australian Greenhouse Office, 2003). Often such
progress is made through individuals acting as champions, but the task has been made easier where government policy underpins travel demand management practice. Our review found that developing a Travel Demand Management Plan involves three key steps: understanding the issues facing sustainable travel at the university; finding the champions for the TDM Plan; and taking action to achieve desired outcomes.

Understanding the issues

Understanding how a Travel Demand Management plan relates to the broader sustainability issues within the university will assist in setting the context for the planning process. Universities may have policies and practices that present additional barriers to be addressed in travel planning. These may include incentives for car use via salary packaging, priority and seniority allocation of car parking, reimbursement of car travel expenses, and lack of reimbursements for travel by other modes. The student union/guild may subsidise student parking permits. The absence of information and support and facilities for more sustainable transport modes is another barrier.

Finding champions

Gathering support for travel planning requires that staff, students and stakeholders are involved in the plan’s development. Where staff, faculty and students have not been included in planning phases, little participative support and even obstruction to implementation has occurred (University of Western Australia 2003; Curtin University Access and Parking Committee 2003). Endorsement of the TDM plan will be necessary by senior staff within the university. High level decision-makers in appropriate departments should be targeted to ensure their support for the plan. Universities should also aim to find a champion for the plan, a person who is willing to participate in the plan actions and promote the TDM plan at orientation days, induction days and relevant functions.

Involving stakeholders is an important component of travel plans. Establishing good relationships with local authorities, public transport service providers, neighbouring businesses and government will be necessary to successfully achieve off-site infrastructure improvements (Department for Transport 2002). Universities with the greatest successes from travel planning established Transport Committees for the regular participation of stakeholders. The Committee focuses on “problem diagnosis, policy development and introduction of implementation measures” (Oxford Brookes University 1999), ensuring stakeholder resources and time are used effectively.

Taking action

The third step in planning for sustainable travel involves: auditing the university site and surrounds; surveying staff and students; devising the travel plan; monitoring and evaluating the outcomes. Conducting an audit of the existing transport infrastructure suggests that pedestrian infrastructure is assessed to a distance of 2km, cycling infrastructure to a distance of 5km, whilst public transport (and multi-modal with bicycles) is assessed for the metropolitan or regional area,
and that all modes should be accessible for people with a disability. An access audit should consider a detailed range of performance criteria for each mode of travel.

In addition to the 'infrastructure audit', undertaking a survey of staff and student travel patterns is important to understanding how the existing transport infrastructure is utilised and facilitates identification of users' real needs (rather than those perceived by administrators or auditors or consultant experts). A survey also presents the opportunity to identify attitudes towards potential initiatives of the TDM Plan. Attitudinal information and infrastructure changes indicated by staff and students can be utilised to justify proposed actions in the plan. The overarching purpose of the questionnaire is to guide the actions of the plan and generate baseline data against which change can be measured.

To reduce the impacts of the university on its locality, Travel Demand Management plans need to address the variety and level of service of transport modes available to the university and adjoining areas, and in conjunction with disincentives for motor vehicle use, offer incentives for travel by more sustainable modes. For pedestrians, safe and convenient infrastructure must be available and its provision can be linked to the university's bike plan for efficient use of resources. Incentives to support and encourage walking to university include a night shuttle bus which will transport staff and students to their doorstep within a certain distance of the university (for example up to 1.5km), and take passengers to other key destinations including student housing and nearby commercial areas. On-campus security for pedestrians is imperative and should include emergency phones monitored by closed circuit television and security officers available to provide an escort through the campus at night.

Transport networks to the university must provide a safe and convenient environment for the novice cyclist. This requires that heavily trafficked roads have shared cycle/pedestrian paths available adjacent to the carriageway or bike lanes. For on-road cyclists, busy intersections require advanced stop lines ahead of motor vehicle traffic. Ensuring cyclists move through an intersection and into bike lanes ahead of motor vehicles reduces the potential for conflict between cyclists and cars and improves efficiency of all traffic movement at intersections (Poinsatte & Toor 1999; Main Roads Western Australia 2002). On campus, cyclists require parking in a visible location outside faculty buildings (for passive surveillance of bicycles) and lockable compounds for storage of more valuable bicycles.

End-of-trip facilities (ETF’s) are essential for both pedestrians and cyclists, and are best located within faculty and administrative buildings for improved personal safety (University of Western Australia 2003). Ideally ETF’s will include full height lockers which can store clothes and cycling equipment. Some North American universities (for example University of British Columbia) run a bike shop through the student union, providing space to carry out minor bike repairs and also offer tool hire and an on-site mechanic for a reasonable fee (Poinsatte & Toor 1999). All cyclists invariably encounter mechanical faults that can be alleviated by an on-campus commercial outlet stocking bicycle repair kits, parts and staffed by personnel knowledgeable in bike repairs. Such a shop becomes the point for all information on cycling groups, buddy schemes, safety and education programs. The university can further support cyclists by bulk purchasing insurance and passing on the discount when selling insurance to individual staff and students (Department for Transport 2002).
Universities should work closely with service providers to ensure public transport provides good penetration into the university campus, which will improve accessibility and provide high profile for this mode. Public transport service providers will largely dictate service improvements to the university unless the university provides full or partial service funding. Greater leverage may be achieved with a Universal Pass (U Pass) scheme or integrated ticketing by providing an assured capital stream to the public transport service provider. U Pass schemes are common in the United States where the schemes are structured around compulsory student membership which then provides free or subsidised public transport, access to all other initiatives in the TDM Scheme and discounts at sponsoring businesses. The compulsory purchase of the U pass guarantees the university and participating service providers' predictable annual revenue regardless of the frequency with which U Pass cards are used. Such a scheme provides the university with persuasive power during negotiations for public transport improvements. Universities can also get some leverage by charging higher parking fees.

Coupled with incentives to use public transport and non-motorised modes, regulation of single occupant vehicles (SOV's) must also form part of the TDM Plan, although consideration must be given to the potential for SOV's to compete with public transport. A permit system coupled with enforcement, offers a mechanism to limit parking availability to SOV's. Parking charges must also be applied. In the UK Oxford Brookes University (1999) distributes parking permits based on categories of ‘need’. When applying for parking permits, staff and students should be required to provide information about the availability of public transport services (Department for Transport 2002). This process may reveal to the applicant there is little need for car travel to the university.

Permits can be made more readily available to car pool vehicles. Carpool parking should be located most conveniently in the university and the cost of daily car pool parking lower than for SOVs. Car pool participants must have access to a guaranteed ride home if the pool vehicle is not available and participants should also have access to a limited number of single use parking permits enabling them to occasionally drive their own vehicle. University vehicles should be available to staff during the day for work-related travel whilst a shuttle bus to the nearest commercial district can provide transport for staff and students errands. The key to car pool programs is to remove the barriers that discourage people from car pooling (Poinsatte & Toor 1999).

The final step in a TDM Plan is monitoring and evaluation. Monitoring involves periodically collecting and reviewing information whilst evaluation focuses upon determining how well the plan's objectives are being achieved (Morrison & Pearce 2000). Monitoring requires that staff and students are re-surveyed to ascertain their travel patterns and attitudes to transport initiatives (University of British Columbia & Translink 2002; Department for Transport 2002; University of Western Australia 2003; Roads and Traffic Authority, no date). Infrastructure audits can be addressed in the questionnaire through specific questions regarding 'missing links' in the transport network. Audits of parking supply and parking controls should be undertaken annually in conjunction with local residents and/or businesses to ensure any new or de facto off-site parking locations are not undermining restrictions on campus or impacting negatively on the locality. To determine the extent of the plan's success, evaluation will compare the results established from the monitoring against the plan's objectives. Where results show limited success this can assist in providing the justification for future stronger actions.
Conclusion

In Australia, the last decade has seen the development of policies for sustainable travel emanating from federal and state governments. However, Australian universities as a whole are in their infancy in TDM. Only a quarter of surveyed universities are taking action to manage travel demand. Of these universities, half of these have only recently embarked on developing travel demand management plans indicating slowness to embrace commuter planning.

Australian universities are significant trip generators, and many are located in suburban areas with poor access by non-car modes. Consequently, universities contribute a significant and negative impact, through congestion on the local road network and ever growing demands for on-site and off-site car parking. Current access to these universities is heavily car dependent. Yet of the few travel demand management plans that have been developed, little action is taken to create a disincentive to car travel by addressing parking provision and charges. Instead these TDM plans focus on improving access by public transport. None see the need to take action on both fronts. Until it is recognised that the potential public transport market are the existing car commuters, encouraged to drive by cheap, ample car parking at universities, the likelihood of success in changing travel patterns is limited.

The review of best practice indicated the need for a comprehensive approach based on three steps. First understanding the issue, this involves the university assessing its current practices and policies to see if they pose barriers to travel behaviour change. Second the need to find champions for the TDM plan. This means gaining support not only from persons targeted for behaviour change, but also by partnering with local government and public transport providers and advocates and researchers within and outside the universities. The final step, taking action, focuses on devising the TDM plan, implementing its actions and evaluating the outcomes.

When this approach is considered in the context of Australian universities, two aspects need attention. Universities with TDM plans were seeking to improve public transport access, but their success will be hindered by the lack of awareness of the need for dialogue with public transport service providers and adjoining local government. It is also imperative to ensure high priority and safety and convenience for walking and cycling is maintained or provided up to 5km off campus to reduce the number of short car trips and not overload public transport. Furthermore, if TDM planning is to be seen as a long term solution, the need for clear monitoring and evaluation is important.

An opportunity exists now for Australian universities as a whole to become leaders in sustainable travel management, setting an example for the wider community. However, the incentive for them to do so needs to be clearly articulated. This may require a directive or legislation at the Federal level or funding for demonstration projects. Without this, universities will continue to rely on individual champions to act as the catalyst, and the evidence to date shows this to be a slow process.
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