

1 **Data Challenges and Solutions in Implementing State-Level Mileage-Based User Fees in**
2 **the United States**

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 Mileage-based user fees (MBUF) have been proposed as an alternative to the federal and state
3 motor fuel tax for transportation funding. Multiple pilot programs have been conducted by states and have
4 demonstrated technical feasibility. Results from pilots indicate effective data collection and MBUF
5 calculation methods, private sector involvement via value-added services, interstate compatibility, and
6 generation of public support through program involvement. Two permanent MBUF programs have been
7 implemented, by Oregon and Utah. While pilots have found success on technical fronts, rate setting is an
8 area that requires additional research. Rates need to be set correctly upon program implementation,
9 considering factors such as anticipated administrative costs and disbursement needs. Increasing MBUF
10 rates after implementation is expected to be met with resistance by the public and policy makers. Oregon
11 and Utah currently use 1.8¢ per vehicle mile travelled (VMT) and 1.5¢ per VMT, respectively. This
12 paper aims to provide a guideline for states to determine MBUF rates using existing data, so that states
13 can set appropriate initial rates, and to address complications may arise in the process. An extensive
14 compilation and comparison of available data on revenue, disbursements, and VMT was conducted. Three
15 frameworks to calculate MBUFs for state administered roads are proposed, considering geographical
16 scope, vehicle and area type, and across a range of disbursement categories. The resulting MBUF rates
17 vary dramatically, suggesting that States need to critically explore the connection between disbursement
18 needs and vehicle activity rates before setting rates or risk program failure.

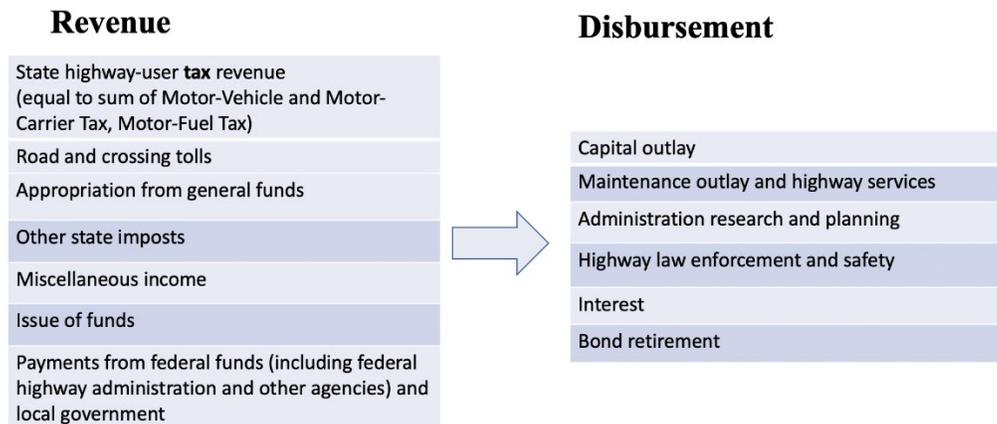
1 **1. INTRODUCTION**

2 Transportation infrastructure funding in the USA largely comes from motor fuel taxes, which is
3 charged per gallon purchased at the pump. As state DOT expenditures increase and the fuel tax revenue
4 decreases, government agencies are looking for alternative methods of revenue generation. The federal
5 government has completed studies on mileage-based user fees (MBUF)--which would replace the per
6 gallon tax with a per-mile tax for each vehicle--but has not taken large-scale action (1). While a federal-
7 level pilot program has yet to be established, numerous state departments of transportation (DOTs) have
8 conducted pilot projects, and Oregon and Utah have created permanent MBUF programs. The private
9 sector has provided technology and account management services to programs and pilots. Some of the
10 benefits of MBUFs include increased cost recovery for new facilities, congestion management and traffic
11 reduction, the ability to privately finance roadways, possible incentives for fuel efficient vehicles through
12 lower rates, and a greater wealth of data for use in improving planning models (2).
13

14 This paper aims to discuss the existing literature on MBUF programs for passenger vehicles and
15 to help states ensure they meet transportation funding needs given known data gaps, by aiding future state
16 program implementation efforts through rate setting support. This paper also studies the available
17 repositories of state-level data on revenue and disbursement categories of transportation funding. The
18 paper aims to demonstrate which data may separately be needed to be collected for the design of various
19 alternatives to the fuel tax.
20

21 **1.1. Motor Fuel Tax Regimes and the Transportation Funding Status Quo**

22 At present, the price of fuel paid by road-users at the pump includes state and federal fuel taxes
23 (referred to hereafter as a ‘gas tax’), as well as any associated sales tax, and is a fixed per gallon rate. This
24 system does not require user identification or the collection of mileage data and ensures that the tax is
25 paid with the purchase of gas. The gas tax is collected by a small number of fuel wholesalers, and is
26 reallocated back to the respective state and federal DOTs, although states may receive slightly more or
27 less back than they paid in (3). There are modest administrative costs associated with the collection and
28 disbursement of gas taxes, which come primarily from implementation, operation, enforcement, and
29 compliance costs. Gas taxes are attractive to jurisdictions as they have “low administrative and
30 compliance costs”, as well as “ease of implementation” according to the National Surface Transportation
31 Policy and Revenue Study Commission (4). While state gas tax is intended to be used for transportation
32 infrastructure maintenance and improvement, funds are often diverted to help with needs in other areas
33 such as mass transit, debt service, sidewalk and pedestrian projects, school, police, or even state-level
34 executive departments (3,5). Figure 1 summarizes the categories of inflowing revenue, and categories of
35 disbursement outflows for various expense categories.
36
37



38 Figure 1: Typical Revenue and Disbursement Categories for Transportation Funding.
39

1 **2. MBUF PILOTS & PROGRAMS: BACKGROUND**

2 Before guidelines for rate setting are presented, it is important to gain an overview of the state of
 3 MBUF testing, research, and implementation. This allows for a better understanding of why rate setting is
 4 such a complex problem and how states can solve it. Given the fuel tax status quo, this section provides
 5 an overview of domestic U.S. MBUF efforts. Understanding the necessary shifts of administrative and
 6 technological requirements from the fuel tax system to a MBUF program is important for both
 7 policymakers and consumers.
 8

9 **2.1. Overview of Pilots and Programs**

10 MBUF pilot programs and feasibility studies have been conducted throughout the United States
 11 since 2007. OReGO is an opt-in permanent MBUF program run by Oregon’s DOT. Utah Road User
 12 Charge (RUC), the other permanent MBUF program in the U.S., is also opt-in but is only available to
 13 alternative fuel vehicles (AFV) (1,6,7). Pilots have primarily been conducted by state DOTs. Two state
 14 coalitions have been formed, RUC West and the Eastern Transportation Coalition (formerly known as the
 15 I-95 Corridor Coalition). These coalitions have focused on interstate compatibility, with the goal of
 16 making driving between states seamless for users of MBUF systems (8,9). All pilots have recruited
 17 participants on a volunteer basis. Some have conducted screening measures due to technical limitations
 18 (10). Table 1 shows how various pilots and programs compare. These programs were selected because
 19 they have sufficient literature available to the public.
 20
 21

Table 1: Categorization of Selected Key MBUF Pilots and Programs.

Organizer	Scope (Local/State/Regional/Participants National)	Number of	Support (Y/N)		Focus	Status	Data Collection Method				Flat Rate
			Out of state drivers	AFVs			Odometer Readings	GPS OBUGPS	Non- Embedded Telematics OBU	Embedded Telematics	
U of Iowa	National	2650	Y	-	Test national feasibility & assess public perception	Completed 2011	x	x	x		
OR DOT	State	>1600 (authorized for 5000)	N	Y	Permanent opt-in program OReGO	Permanent since 2015		x	x		x
CO DOT	State	147	N	N	Test feasibility & assess public perception	Completed 2017	x	x	x		x
MN DOT	Regional (Wright County)	500	N	-	Test feasibility & assess public perception	Completed 2017		x	x		
UT DOT	State	Unknown	N	Y	Permanent opt-in program for AFVs	Permanent since 2020	x	x		x	x
CA DOT	State/Regional	5,129	Y	Y	Test feasibility, complexity, security, acceptability, and interoperability	Completed 2017	x	x	x	x	x
Eastern Transportation Coalition	Regional	155	Y		Included Understand what’s hybrids, necessary for smooth no EVs MBUF transition- focus on out of state mileage, amenities	Completed 2018		x	x		

22 In most MBUF pilots, users are offered multiple options to report mileage. These options
 23 correspond to the data collection methods in Table 1. Odometer readings can be reported by submitting
 24 pictures online or in person at vehicle inspections. Although this option presents challenges to the state,
 25 such as tracking out of state mileage and relying on users to provide their mileage in a timely manner, it
 26

1 protects user privacy. An onboard unit (OBU) is a small device that usually plugs into vehicles' OBD-II
2 port to track mileage and provide additional features. OBUs were the most common approach in pilot
3 programs. Use of embedded telematics entails working with auto makers to take advantage of a vehicle's
4 existing telematics software to track mileage without additional hardware. Embedded telematics and
5 OBUs are accurate and effective, with the added bonus of being semi-permanent and automatic, meaning
6 users do not have to remember to turn them on or report data manually. Use of phone apps to track
7 mileage was also explored in pilot programs. These apps seem to be less accurate than OBUs and less
8 reliable as they require users to remember to turn them on when they start driving (11). Flat fees allow
9 users to participate in MBUF without submitting mileage data, instead paying to drive unlimited miles for
10 a fixed period.
11

12 One of the draws of implementing MBUF in place of a fuel tax is that it is a more direct source of
13 funding that fulfills the "user pays" principle. As a fee, the generated revenue will likely have restrictions
14 on where it can be used, i.e. only for road maintenance and improvement services. Therefore, all
15 passenger vehicle owners, including those of AFVs, would be paying for the deterioration they deal to the
16 roads they use. MBUF has been examined in terms of equity across multiple characteristics. One study
17 found, with a high degree of certainty, that MBUF is no more or less regressive than the fuel tax
18 (12). However, current MBUF programs (OReGO and Utah's RUC program) require credit or debit cards
19 as payment. This could prove to be a significant barrier to socioeconomic equity considering 25% of US
20 households are unbanked or underbanked (13). Privacy has been identified as a concern to the public,
21 which could be a constraint for program development. The general public remains skeptical, even if
22 MBUF pilots and programs implement specific technical safeguards to ensure privacy, including
23 differential rate structures for those unwilling to share location (14). While most pilots have circumvented
24 this issue by limiting the data collected to vehicle-specific characteristics, such as mileage, fuel
25 efficiency, and fuel consumption, it has resulted in a tradeoff between accurate location tracking, and thus
26 rates charged, and easing the public's privacy concerns.
27

28 Pilots have found technological success and demonstrated potential to generate revenue via
29 MBUF. They have found limited success in gaining public support. After participation, pilot participants
30 have generally positive views of MBUF (6,10,11,15,16). Areas identified for additional research include
31 privacy, interstate compatibility, implementation and administrative costs, and rate setting. Pilots have
32 also begun to address how the private sector can be integrated into MBUF, a public sector project, via
33 value-added and account management services.
34

35 **2.2. Rate Setting Efforts**

36 Most MBUF pilots have not attempted to determine the optimal per mile rate or rate setting
37 structure, instead choosing to focus on studying technology, implementation, and public perception
38 issues. In addition, most pilots have generated hypothetical revenues. Real money is not exchanged
39 between agency and user. Programs, on the other hand, have found success in collecting revenue. Pilots
40 have often chosen a per mile rate that aims to approximate the per mile rate that users pay under the fuel
41 tax (6,10,11,15,16). This approximated rate is typically found by dividing the fuel tax revenue in the state
42 by the total vehicle miles traveled by gasoline powered passenger vehicles. However, modeling a
43 permanent rate after the existing fuel tax revenue model will carry over the deficit and prove insufficient
44 to fund the transportation system.
45

46 Some pilots have varied their rate based on different factors (10). For example, Minnesota's pilot
47 found its baseline rate using the same method as other states. It then created a rate schedule with rates
48 slightly under the baseline and slightly over it to encourage certain behaviors, like keeping location
49 tracking on (15). Programs have not placed emphasis on dividing by vehicle class. Oregon has a separate
50 weight-by-mile tax for its freight vehicles (26,000 lbs.), and so OReGO does not charge vehicles by
51 weight or class, citing reasons that weighing vehicles is impractical and that passenger vehicles (under

1 10,000 lbs.) cause less damage than freight vehicles (17). However, while pilots have not tested variable
2 mileage rates based on vehicle class, studies have suggested increasing and varying rates as alternative
3 solutions to decrease agency cost. States have considered a rate structure that could vary fees based on
4 factors like location, time of day, vehicle age and fuel economy, vehicle weight, etc. (10,16,18). No
5 program has implemented this permanently. Both vehicle registration fees and MBUF rates should be
6 indexed to account for inflation.
7

8 The rate setup for OReGO and Utah’s RUC program, the two permanent domestic programs, are
9 similar. OReGO uses a fixed rate of 1.8¢ per VMT, which has increased from its initial rate of 1.5¢ per
10 VMT when the program started (17). According to OReGO, this rate was set to approximate fuel tax that
11 would be paid by a vehicle getting about 20 MPG with an administrative cost component (6). Utah’s
12 RUC program charges a fixed rate of 1.5¢ per VMT until users hit the flat annual fee limit of \$120, which
13 is equivalent to driving 8000 miles at the given rate. Utah AFV Drivers that opt out of RUC have to pay
14 the flat fee of \$120 specifically for AFVs during annual registration. As such, Utah’s DOT decided to cap
15 the program at the same flat fee (7).
16

17 **3. INFERENCES FROM PAST MBUF STUDIES RELEVANT TO RATE SETTING**

18 Pilot programs have demonstrated that there is no “one size fits all” MBUF solution, but that
19 good strategies exist. Overall, more research is needed in this area to determine rates that generate the
20 necessary amount of revenue for states and maintain a fair and straightforward system that citizens can
21 understand. Minnesota’s pilot program report states that rate setting is “probably one of the largest
22 challenges when it comes to deploying MBUF” (15).
23

24 **3.1. Addressing the Funding Deficit**

25 Pilot programs’ rates have been generally estimated as “revenue neutral”, with the goal of
26 generating the same revenue as the existing state fuel tax system. However, a rate set in this manner may
27 not be enough to meet states’ DOT expenditures. MBUF revenue, or any fuel tax alternative considered,
28 should meet road capital and maintenance expenditures at a minimum. Increased revenue from MBUF
29 may affect how much federal funding is received by the state (19). As a thought example, a state could
30 consider that they need to generate a level of funding “X”, which is inclusive of the funding available
31 from state gasoline taxes and which is not otherwise disbursed into non-highway activities such as law
32 enforcement or administrative costs. They could also seek to obtain additional revenue above the
33 equivalent gas tax amount to account for alternatively fueled vehicles, or to remedy deferred maintenance
34 after years of lower than necessary funding. But finding this amount is critical, as users will likely balk at
35 subsequent fee increases beyond those set at the time of program initiation.
36

37 Each state has a different portfolio of revenues which needs to be considered to close the deficit
38 gap and set the appropriate MBUF rate. For example, New York has already attempted to generate more
39 funding through increasing motor vehicle registration and drivers’ license fees, but feels that these prices
40 are hitting the maximum value that the public is willing to pay. Therefore, short term borrowing should
41 also be considered to close the funding gap, while investing in long term MBUF technology (20). This
42 would facilitate a reasonable MBUF rate and decrease the funding deficit in a timely manner. An
43 alternative solution to addressing the funding deficit is through a phased approach in introducing MBUF.
44 In the short term, the existing fuel tax would increase, the vehicle registration fee system would be
45 indexed, along with additional minor tax adjustments, as their planning and implementation costs are
46 negligible in comparison. Pilots can be introduced in the medium term to help generate public awareness
47 and support, as well as policy support. The long-term solution would remove the fuel tax and implement a
48 permanent MBUF program (18). While setting the appropriate rate has not been the focus of MBUF
49 studies and pilots so far, the funding deficit should not be ignored as it is inherently tied to rate setting and
50 cost considerations.
51

1 **3.2. Program Administrative Costs**

2 One drawback of MBUF is that its administrative costs are higher than those of the fuel tax. The
3 fuel tax is collected from a relatively small number of fuel wholesalers, whereas MBUF will require
4 setup, billing, and account management for all users. If using the MBUF rate based on fuel tax revenue
5 model, high MBUF administrative costs may cause an even larger road funding deficit. The
6 administrative cost of MBUF is highly dependent on the type of technology employed, the number of
7 participating drivers, total revenue, etc. While MBUF has the potential to generate much more revenue
8 than fuel taxes, the implementation cost is anticipated to be significant and could greatly impact an
9 already depleted transportation fund. If an MBUF program generated the same amount of revenue as the
10 gas tax, the administrative cost of MBUF could reach almost 20% of the revenue generated. This is much
11 higher than the gas tax's administrative costs, which are estimated to be 0.2%-1% of revenue for federal
12 taxes, and 1% of revenue for state taxes (14).

13
14 Research and cooperation with the private sector to further develop technologies may decrease
15 costs. Agencies should look towards short or mid-term solutions, such as those mentioned in the previous
16 section, for solving the funding shortfall from the gas tax and the added burden of MBUF implementation
17 costs. Adding a yearly flat rate charge for users to use the roads, adding compliance mechanisms to
18 ensure users pay, and cooperating with other states to achieve economies of scale could also help address
19 cost issues.

20
21 **3.3. Logistics of Fee Assessment**

22 Any MBUF system should be designed to replace the fuel tax in the long term to avoid double
23 charging users. Charting a path to where state gas taxes are not being paid at the pump remains one of the
24 main challenges in a transition to MBUF. However, near term solutions to prevent double taxing
25 exist. OReGO demonstrates real life success of net value invoicing. Fuel consumption is reported by an
26 OBU or is estimated by applying the recorded miles driven to the vehicle's combined EPA rating. This
27 fuel consumption is multiplied by the gas tax and is then turned into a gas tax credit on user invoices
28 (6). As mentioned previously, Utah has taken double taxation into consideration by capping the potential
29 RUC charges at \$120, the flat rate charged to AFV drivers who opt out of the MBUF program (7).

30
31 Going forward, for states considering MBUF/RUC programs, with respect to setting fees, three
32 critical high-level decisions need to be made:

- 33 1. How much is highway revenue expected to be collected through fees, net of any diversions to
34 non-highway purposes?
35 2. What type of fee will be set (e.g., flat fee per year, or fee per-mile driven)?
36 3. Will the fee vary by vehicle type, area of residence, type or location of highway traveled, etc.?
37

38 **4. DATA SOURCES AND CASE STUDY FOR RATE SETTING**

39 Given the overall goals and trajectories of recent MBUF/RUC programs in the US, specifically
40 with respect to the critical task of creating fee structures and rates, the available repositories of state-level
41 data on collections and disbursements of transportation funding were studied. This section demonstrates
42 which sources are useful and available to states looking to set rates, as well as what data they may
43 separately need to collect for various types of fees. One of the best-known data sources about highways
44 and funding is US DOT's Highway Statistics (HS) series of data releases. HS has been produced on a
45 nearly annual basis from 1992-2018, with annual reports containing information on motor fuel, motor
46 vehicle registrations, driver licenses, highway user taxation, highway mileage, revenues, and
47 disbursements (21). The data are collected and reported to US DOT by state DOTs.

48
49 Given that there is no central documentation of the datasets, all tables in the HS data were
50 exhaustively studied. This included creating connections between tables to cross-validate entries (e.g.,
51 ensuring total entries in one table matched corresponding values in another, matching federal funds

1 distributed to those spent, etc.) and to perform other quality checks. Table counts and formats vary over
 2 time, with subsections varying from 7 to 14. Some tables (e.g., SF-12) are not reported for some years. In
 3 terms of data on revenues, disbursements, and VMT as needed for MBUF studies, four primary
 4 conclusions were made. First, it can be difficult to track from the HS data the flow between revenues such
 5 as gas taxes and disbursements, especially when concerned about specific types of roads. Second, there is
 6 bias towards collecting and reporting data for particular high-level road systems of federal interest
 7 (federal-aid highways, National Highway System, etc.). Third, it can be challenging to track revenue
 8 flows from a source through different level of roadway ownership (federal, state and local) and functional
 9 systems. Finally, connecting revenues, disbursements, and VMT at higher resolution is challenging
 10 because there is a mismatch between estimates of VMT and mileage between tables, e.g., state level
 11 disbursement for different roads exists, but not corresponding VMT at state level on different roads.
 12 Relying solely on the nationally organized HS data could be problematic for any type of detailed MBUF
 13 setting exercise.
 14
 15

Table 2: Available State-Level Highway Statistics Revenue, Disbursement and VMT Data (21).

Name	Description of Table Contents and Detail
Revenue Tables (units: thousands of dollars)	
HDF	Highway-user revenue sources (e.g., federal fuel tax, state fuel tax, state, and local tolls) and their disposition (e.g., for highways, for mass transit) for all levels of government (federal, state, and local)
HF-1	Disposition of highway-user revenues for highways, all levels of government
SF-1	Revenues used by the state for highways, from all sources (e.g., state fuel taxes, vehicle taxes, and federal funds, etc.).
SF-3	Revenues used by state for only state administered highways (same columns as SF-1)
Disbursement Tables (units: thousands of dollars)	
HF-2	Disbursement (e.g., capital outlay, maintenance outlay, administration, etc.) of transportation revenues across all units of government. Capital and maintenance include the disbursement on state-administered, local-administered, and federal roads, respectively
SF-2	Disbursement (e.g., capital, maintenance, administration, etc.) of state government funds on state administered highways and local roads and streets
SF-21	State receipts and disbursements for highways detailed in Tables SF-1 (receipts) and SF-2 (disbursements). A key difference between state results is the presence of toll roads.
LGF-2	Disbursement (e.g., capital, maintenance, administration, etc.) from local government
SF-4	Disbursement (e.g., capital, maintenance, administration, etc.) of state administered highways, not including local roads and streets (SF-2 includes this).
SF-12	State capital and maintenance outlays, classified by functional system and rural/urban/urbanized area
VMT Tables (units: millions of miles)	
VM-1	Annual vehicle distance traveled by highway functional system and vehicle type, a national scale table
VM-2	Annual vehicle traveled by functional system for each state

1 Despite the data challenges mentioned above, in terms of revenue and disbursements, and VMT,
 2 there is significant detailed data already accessible by state stakeholders in the HS data to formulate
 3 revenue targets. Given the findings above related to the likely needs of states pursuing MBUFs, and the
 4 available data sources were summarized, and some example calculations were provided to help
 5 demonstrate the criticality of ex ante analysis when setting rates. *Table 2* summarizes the data of most
 6 interest to agencies considering MBUF rate setting. Additional or more detailed data may be available
 7 within state DOTs to improve upon these results but were not pursued given the intentional scope of
 8 publicly accessible data.
 9

10 The two other critical needs for fee setting mentioned above were related to type of fee (flat or
 11 not), and the level of resolution of the fees (e.g., equal for all types of roads and vehicles, or varying by
 12 vehicle type, location or road type). Data available in highway statistics can support many but not all of
 13 these strategies. The most relevant data for these activities are those associated with the applicable
 14 revenue/disbursement categories within the scope of the MBUF, and the VMT. Table 3 summarizes four
 15 potential methods for estimating an exact replacement of disbursements for state administered roads using
 16 national data sources (HS), that might be useful in framing the discussions about the funds needed via
 17 MBUFs. Note that these are not necessarily “revenue neutral” from gas tax replacement because states are
 18 typically generating multiple revenue streams to pay for transportation infrastructure. These examples all
 19 solve for the MBUF rate needed to pay for the selected disbursements, regardless of the revenue
 20 categories such as driver or vehicle license fees (which could be accounted for in the rates if desired). The
 21 scope focused on state-administered roads as the financial and VMT data can be directly seen in the HS
 22 data; however, some of the funding for these roads comes from federal sources.
 23
 24

Table 3: Example MBUF rate policies for state-administered roads using data from year 2018 (21).

Calculation Method		Tables Used	Example Calculation		
			Location	Disbursement Categories Included	Result (¢/mi)
Example 1: Total highway spending in PA / Total VMT in PA		SF-12 / VM - 2	Pennsylvania	Total Capital + Maintenance outlay	4.8
		SF-4 / VM-2	Pennsylvania	Total Capital + Maintenance outlay + service + administration + safety	7.2
				Total disbursement	10.7
Example 2: Total disbursement in USA / Total VMT in USA		HF-2 / VM-1	National	Total Capital + Maintenance outlay	4.9
				Total Capital + Maintenance outlay + service + administration + safety	6.0
				Total disbursement	6.9
Example 3: Disbursement in urban or rural area in PA / Total VMT in rural or urban area in PA)	Urban Area	SF-12 / VM - 2	Pennsylvania	Only urban area Capital + Maintenance outlay	3.8
	Rural Area			Only rural area Capital + Maintenance outlay	6.8

1 In Table 3, Example 1 shows an MBUF set in Pennsylvania to pay for only capital and
2 maintenance of highways in 2018 should be set at 4.8¢ per mile, by dividing total highway disbursements
3 to these two categories from SF-12 by the total annual VMT on all roads in PA in VM-2. However,
4 Pennsylvania also disburses significant funds to other categories, and the rate needed to pay for all
5 disbursement categories (including police enforcement and others that are partly paid by fuel taxes) would
6 be 10.7¢ per mile. An intermediate example rate is 7.2¢ per mile. Example 3, an MBUF that is tiered to
7 urban or rural travel would yield rates of 3.8¢ and 6.8¢ per mile, respectively, which is consistent with a
8 single overall rate of 4.8¢ per mile. This was found by dividing total annual spending on rural or urban
9 roads by the total VMT of rural or urban roads. Nationally, Example 2 shows an MBUF parallel to those
10 for just Pennsylvania would be priced between 4.9 and 6.9¢ per mile.

11
12 While this is a hypothetical example given an artificial constraint of state-administered roads, it
13 demonstrates the wide range of MBUFs needed as additional disbursements are covered. Existing revenue
14 generation comparisons are relevant in aggregate terms (total fuel taxes collected per year) to compare
15 against these values to assess how the revenue from the MBUF would compare to that of the state gas tax.
16 But the details of this example also demonstrate the data constraints. It is not possible, for example, to use
17 the existing HS data to find total disbursements on Interstate highways as well as total VMT on
18 Interstates; thus, estimating an example MBUF rate for only Interstate highways is not possible. Likewise,
19 there is insufficient data to fully separate VMT amongst the light- and heavy-duty fleets, to create
20 separate MBUFs for passenger vehicles and commercial trucks, as is being done through pilots.

21 22 **5. DISCUSSION**

23 These results demonstrate the complexities embedded in the transition from fuel taxes to
24 MBUFs. There are various other challenges associated with setting rates, such as out-of-state drivers and
25 privacy considerations. Even if states set rates as demonstrated above, they would be challenged to fully
26 collect these revenues, as out-of-state vehicles under a different MBUF regime would not be paying to the
27 State; however, out of state vehicles tend to be a relatively small percent of VMT. Only a handful of
28 pilots have been successful in tackling the issue of out-of-state drivers. These have mostly used GPS-
29 enabled OBUs to identify the taxing jurisdictions in which the vehicle traveled for accurate MBUF
30 charges (10,11). On the other hand, states that choose not to collect revenue from out-of-state drivers
31 requires in-state drivers to make up the difference.

32
33 As more states participate, presumably rates can be set and collected for each state using common
34 technology. Experiences with multi state tolling systems, like E-ZPass and its Interagency Group (IAG),
35 have already accomplished multi-state technology integration and implementation. The International Fuel
36 Tax Agreement and the International Registration Plan provide other examples of cross-jurisdictional
37 cooperation (9). Privacy is another important consideration in developing and setting rates. Location-
38 based fee approaches have a tradeoff of providing less privacy for users by requiring location
39 tracking. Users of any MBUF system should have options for data collection that allow them to avoid
40 sharing their location to an agency, as demonstrated in several pilots. This can facilitate public acceptance
41 (22). A sample program might offer users an OBU with location tracking enabled, an OBU without
42 location tracking enabled, or a flat fee that allows users to use roads without having their mileage tracked
43 at all for an annual price. Connecting this example to the sample calculations in Table 3, users who
44 choose the location enabled OBU might pay the rate listed in the result column (e.g., in Example 3 a
45 rural-urban rate of either 3.8¢ or 6.8¢ per mile). Users who are unwilling to enable location tracking
46 would be charged the maximum (6.8¢), which assumes all of their driving is in the highest rate. Users are
47 thus motivated to provide location data, which is synergistically valuable for state infrastructure planning.
48 The magnitude of the flat fee could be determined by assuming that flat fee users drive significantly more
49 miles than the average user (e.g., at the 90th percentile of VMT) and multiplying their assumed mileage by
50 either the location enabled or non-location enabled rate. Setting a high flat fee ensures that users that drive
51 many miles cannot use the flat fee to avoid paying their fair share.

1
2 **6. CONCLUSION**

3 MBUF pilots and studies have been carried out by state DOTs to investigate whether MBUF is a
4 viable replacement for the fuel tax. Pilots and studies demonstrate that MBUF is technically feasible and
5 the necessary infrastructure design exists for efficient data and revenue collection. However, there are
6 many outstanding administrative, privacy, cost, and other policy considerations that have not been
7 resolved by research or pilots.
8

9 A commonly stated goal of MBUF programs is to fund highways by replacing state gas tax
10 revenues. However, various states have more complex revenue and disbursement mechanisms that would
11 require more complex MBUF arrangements. In particular, states should be more focused on which
12 disbursements – not revenues – they are trying to offset with transportation fees. The main issue
13 addressed in this study is how to determine the financial viability of a MBUF program. Setting the rate
14 requires careful consideration of anticipated administrative costs (which are not yet well understood) and
15 disbursement goals, so rates do not need to be increased soon after implementation, undermining
16 consumer acceptance.
17

18 While this paper provides a guideline on how states can approach the rate setting issue, it is
19 highly dependent on the state and its unique set of circumstances (e.g. revenue portfolio, funding deficit
20 amount). The process of analyzing current data revealed that current data does not provide full necessary
21 visibility into the relationship between revenue generated and disbursement. Without full visibility, states
22 may struggle to determine an optimal MBUF rate. It took an exhaustive effort to compile and cross-check
23 the HS data. In addition, the inevitable commingling of federal and state fuel tax revenues makes it
24 difficult to accurately assess funding needs only from state-level sources. States and the federal
25 government need to create better datasets that more explicitly separate funding sources to aid with these
26 considerations. To make rate setting studies more feasible, data could be organized into a single
27 repository that builds upon the infrastructure of the Highway Statistics data but adds additional levels of
28 detail that are likely collected by states but not reported to the US DOT.
29
30

31 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

32 RS and SD performed MBUF pilot literature review and edited entire document. LL
33 and CY performed the review of HS data and synthesized data opportunities and challenges
34 into this manuscript. PA and ZF contributed to overall discussions related to the structure and
35 message of the manuscript and edited it. HM and DM guided and supervised research,
36 provided studies and data sources, and edited final manuscript.
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GLOSSARY

Table 4 introduces common terminology used when discussing MBUF.

Table 4: Terminology Reference Table

Term	Explanation
MBUF	Mileage Based User Fee
VMT	Vehicle Miles Traveled. Refers to the total amount of mileage traveled, not a fee unless “fee” is written after it
RUC	Road User Charge. Same as MBUF
OBU	Onboard Unit. A device placed onboard a vehicle to track mileage data. Often offers other features as well, e.g. vehicle health reports
OBD-II	Onboard device port. A specific port contained in most vehicles that devices such as OBUs can plug into and connect with the car. Typically found with cars manufactured after 1996.
CAM	Commercial Account Manager. Private company responsible for administering MBUF users’ accounts, billing, and customer service.

SAM	State Account Manager. Performs the same services as CAMs for users who do not want to interact with a private company, or cannot.
AFV	Alternative Fuel Vehicle. Includes electric vehicles, plug-in hybrids, and gasoline hybrids

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