

1 **USE OF SHARED AUTOMATED VEHICLES FOR FIRST-MILE LAST-MILE SERVICE:**
2 **MICRO-SIMULATION OF RAIL-TRANSIT CONNECTIONS IN AUSTIN, TEXAS**

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36 Submitted for presentation at the 99th Annual Meeting of the Transportation Research Board,
37 Washington, D.C., January 2020, and for publication in *Transportation Research Record*
38

39 Word Count: 6,805 words + 2 tables = 7,305 words (+ 3 figures)
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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 Fully-automated vehicles (AVs) coupled with ride-sharing and drivetrain electrification have the potential
3 to provide sustainable transportation. The initial hype around AVs has subsided, with cities and vehicle
4 manufacturers seeing low-speed shared AVs (SAVs) as a more practical mode for near-term AV
5 deployments. SAVs may be an attractive way to experience first-mile last-mile (FMLM) connections to
6 existing and future transit systems, replacing walk-to-transit, drive-to-transit, or even drive-only trips.
7 Using the SUMO (Simulation of Urban MObility) toolkit, this paper tests this hypothesis by micro-
8 simulating two fleets of SAVs providing FMLM ride-sharing service to 2.5% of central Austin’s trip-
9 makers along five stations of Austin’s light-rail transit Red Line. The geofenced areas around several
10 SAV-serviced stations are called Automated Mobility Districts (AMDs). With Red Line rail-service
11 headways of 15 minutes, and 15 SAVs serving FMLM connections to and from each AMD, simulations
12 suggest that 15.8% of the AMD travel demands would shift from drive-along to transit thanks to the
13 convenient station-based FMLM SAV services. AMD-area VMT is predicted to rise 26% in 5 miles × 8
14 miles central Austin area with average vehicle occupancy falling 30% (from 1 to 0.7 persons), due to
15 empty SAV driving (between riders). Private car VMT also falls in the AMD areas, possibly alleviating
16 congestion along network links outside the AMD areas. Providing frequent transit service or enlarging
17 SAV fleet sizes would significantly reduce passenger wait times, but coordination of train schedules and
18 SAV fleet routing plans is important to achieve cost-effective and delay-minimizing on-demand service.

19 **Keywords:** Shared Automated Vehicles, First-Mile Last-Mile Service, Automated Mobility Districts,
20 Microscopic Simulation

21

22 **INTRODUCTION**

23 In most U.S. cities, transit is a second or third or final mode choice, owing to two key reasons: Door-to-
24 door travel times via transit far exceed those provided by ready alternatives, such as privately-owned
25 automobile, owing primarily to transit access and egress times. Fixed schedules and fixed routes regularly
26 make transit uncompetitive, compared to private vehicles or and ride-hailing options. However, transit
27 generally enjoys a price advantage (thanks to heavy subsidies). For many decades, cities have grappled
28 with falling transit ridership shares and rising congestion, with clear and complementary relationships
29 between the two. While higher subsidies may increase transit ridership, the key to increase mode share of
30 transit services lies in reducing door-to-door travel times. Since it is impossible (and inefficient) to
31 provide transit service everywhere, providing efficient first-mile last-mile (FMLM) connections is an
32 important option for expanding transit’s catchment areas, lower access and egress times, and raising
33 ridership.

34 Currently, modes such as walking, bicycling and scooters are being used by individuals for FMLM
35 connections to transit. The most common FMLM mode is walking to the transit station (particularly to
36 bus stops), with park-and-ride, kiss-and-ride (where a family member drops a household member off at
37 the transit station), and TNC-and-ride, having meager mode shares. Each of these access-modes to transit
38 have their own drawbacks. Park-and-ride is often time-consuming as a transit rider has to finding a
39 parking space and walk to the station. While kiss-and-ride is convenient for the transit rider, it places
40 drop-off and pick-up burden on a family member. TNC-and-ride sometimes beats the purpose of taking
41 transit, as one has to pay for the TNC ride in addition to transit fares, and instead of using TNCs for
42 FMLM, it might make sense to use TNCs for the entire length of the trip (particularly in ridesharing).
43 Suffice to say that efficient FMLM connections to transit leave much to be desired.

1 It can be posited that emerging vehicle technologies could hold a key to increase efficiency in FMLM
2 connections. Shared Automated Vehicles (SAVs) have all the necessary facets to overcome the
3 drawbacks of the FMLM connections mentioned above. An FMLM connection by an SAV obviates the
4 need to search for parking (making it better than park-and-ride). It unburdens the responsibility of a
5 household member (or any driver for that matter) to drop-off and pick-up a transit rider (making it better
6 than kiss-and-ride). Since the driver is out of the equation, service providers can offer SAV connections to
7 transit at a reduced cost, or even as integrated into the transit fare (making it better than TNC-and-ride).
8 Finally, current demonstrations of SAVs show that they run at speeds of 30 to 40 mph making them a
9 faster alternative than walk-to, or bike-to transit.

10 This argument is bolstered by increasing interest in SAVs. The initial hype around AVs seems to have
11 subsided, with AVs being identified in the ‘trough of disillusionment’ in the Gartner Hype Cycle
12 (Ramsey, 2018). It is slowly being realized by cities and vehicle manufacturers alike that AVs are not
13 going to replace privately owned automobiles overnight, and that the short term deployment of AVs will
14 be in the form of SAVs in geofenced urban districts with high trip densities. Building on this idea,
15 researchers at the National Renewable Energy Laboratory have coined the term Automated Mobility
16 Districts (AMD), to define geofenced deployments of shared automated vehicles to realize the full
17 benefits that AV technology can offer in the near term (Young, 2018; Zhu, 2018). Many small scale
18 demonstrations in the U.S. and around the world corroborate the interest in SAVs and the concept of
19 AMDs (Mcity, 2018; City of Arlington, 2017; Smart Columbus, 2019).

20 As AMDs require high trips density to ensure the success of SAVs (to achieve high occupancy), transit
21 stations make the perfect use case for an AMD, as they see high densities of transit boarding and alighting
22 throughout the day. This research effort therefore intends to quantify the impacts of deploying SAVs as
23 FMLM connections to transit in geofenced regions. Microscopic simulation software SUMO (Simulation
24 of Urban Mobility) is used in this study to investigate the deployment of SAV fleets serving multiple
25 AMDs along the transit line between Austin downtown and Crestview station. First, a baseline scenario is
26 simulated considering walk as the only access and egress mode to transit. The baseline scenario is
27 compared with alternate scenarios that have SAVs serving as FMLM connections. The results from this
28 study can help cities and transit authorities use SAV technology to its maximum benefit, and increase
29 transit ridership.

30 The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. The next section presents a brief literature review on
31 AV, SAV simulation studies, as well as mode choice literature. The following section discusses the
32 simulation settings for the case study. The simulation procedure, along with a detailed description of the
33 two-level nested mode choice model used in this study is presented in the methodology section. Results
34 section presents the impacts of fleet size and transit service frequency on SAV-to-transit mode shares.
35 The final section presents some concluding thoughts and directions for future research.

36

37 **LITERATURE REVIEW**

38 The effectiveness of FMLM connections to transit has been the subject of many research endeavors.
39 Shaheen and Chan (2016) discussed the history of shared mobility within the context of the urban
40 transportation with a specific focus on FMLM connections to public transit. Yap et al. (2015) conducted a
41 stated preference survey in Delft, Netherlands to study the traveler’s attitudes regarding automated
42 vehicle as last-mile connection mode, finding that traveler’s associate more disutility to in-vehicle time in
43 an AV, compared to a manually driven vehicles, and that travelers’ attitudes regarding sustainability is the
44 most important determinant for choosing AVs.

1 Transit feeder systems have been investigated extensively, and many systems across the world are
2 benefiting from it. Delhi Metro Rail Network runs efficiently to complement and supplement different
3 other modes of transport in Delhi, India (Delhi Metro Rail Corporation Ltd., 2017). Over 170 buses are
4 operated by two companies serving 32 bus routes, as feeders to the Delhi Metro. Ji et al. (2016)
5 investigated the effects of personal demographics, trip characteristics, and station environments on public
6 bicycle usage for rail transit access. Helen et al. (2019) developed a modeling framework to optimize the
7 joint design of transit networks and SAV fleets using a bi-level mathematical programming formulation,
8 with a transit network frequency setting problem formulation for the upper-level problem, and the lower-
9 level problem of a dynamic combined mode choice in traveler assignment problem.

10 Agent-based and activity-based simulations are the most commonly used to investigate the impacts of the
11 AV technology. Liu et al. (2017) conducted a large-scale micro-simulation of transportation patterns in a
12 metropolitan area, relying on a system of shared autonomous vehicles, and concluded that foror travelers
13 whose households do not own a human-driven vehicle, SAVs appear preferable for trips under 10 miles.
14 Simulation of SAV fleet operations suggests that higher fare rates allow for greater vehicle replacement,
15 which is due to travel demands shifting away from longer trip distances when fares rise. Dandl and
16 Bogenberger (2018) compared the existing free-floating carsharing service with a hypothetical electric
17 autonomous taxi (aTaxi) system which shares the same demand in the area of Munich. They found that
18 one autonomous vehicle (3min to relocate) could substitute 2.2-3.7 conventional carsharing vehicles for
19 maximal waiting times of 7.5 min and 10 min, while the level of service is insufficient for the maximal
20 waiting time of 5 min.

21 However, transit is seldom involved in simulations as modeling complex interactions associated with
22 transit movement (park-and-ride; walk-and-ride) is not easy. Some recent studies involve transit, but they
23 do not consider the flexibility of incorporating the new automation technology. Alemi and Rodier (2017)
24 investigated the potential market, cost-saving and VMT reductions as well as greenhouse gas emissions of
25 the shift from driving alone to TNC and Bay Area Rapid Transit access services in San Francisco Bay
26 Area. Two modes are considered in this work while walk-and-ride are not considered in the mode choice.
27 Mo et al. (2017) investigated the mode choice of first-mile last-mile to/from mass rapid transit (MRT) in
28 Singapore under the impacts of the built environment through the data analysis of 24 thousand samples
29 from Household Interview Travel Survey. Residents in Singapore rely heavily on public transportation
30 and car use accounts for only 0.98% of the trips.

31 Young et al. (2017) defined and Automated Mobility District as a campus sized deployment of shared
32 automated electric shuttle fleet to serve FMLM connections, as well as short trips. The issues and
33 benefits of AMDs are framed within the perspective of intra-district, inter-district and boundary issues.
34 Based on the AMD concept, Zhu et al. (2018) simulated an AV fleet running on a fixed route to serve the
35 demand in a hypothetical AMD network, using the SUMO platform. AMD toolkit developed by Zhu et al.
36 (2018) is shown to be capable of simulating detailed vehicle movements for various operational
37 configurations of AV shuttles, running fixed-route on-demand service across an AMD.

38 This paper applies the AMD toolkit (Young et al, 2017; Zhu et al., 2018) to the Austin transit network
39 with multiple AMDs, focusing on the operations of SAVs as a FMLM solution to transit connectivity.
40 This work extends the capabilities of the AMD toolkit by incorporating complex operations of the transit
41 system, as well as the multidimensional interactions between pedestrians, SAVs, and transit.

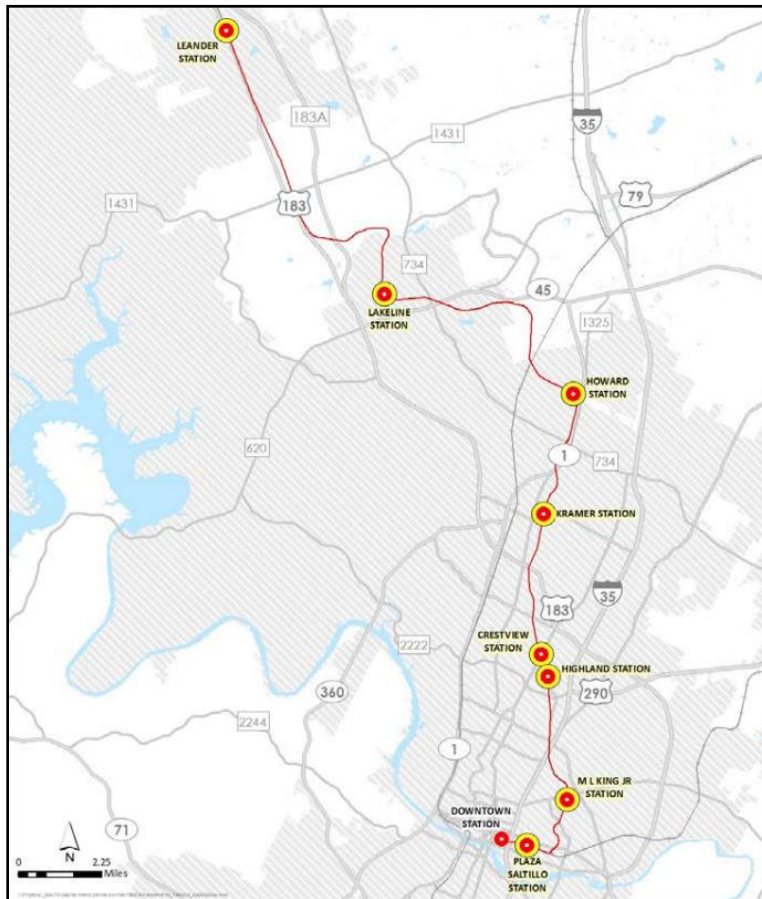
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1 **DATASET**

2 The road network data for Austin case study was obtained from OpenStreetMap (OSM) (Haklay and
3 Weber, 2008), and imported into the SUMO simulation environment. Morning peak travel demand data
4 for Austin city was obtained from 2030 scenario run of the Capital Area Metropolitan Planning
5 Organization (CAMPO) model (CAMPO, 2010).

6 Capital Metro’s Metro Rail Red Line Corridor provides a 32-mile commuter rail service that connects
7 downtown Austin and Leander City in Texas Since 2010 (Figure 1). The Red Line’s average daily
8 ridership in January 2018 was 2,552 and is anticipated to reach 10,000 daily riders by 2025 with a 15-
9 minute frequency between downtown and Kramer station (Capital Metro, 2018).



10

11

Figure 1. Current Red Transit Line in Austin (Capital Metro, 2018)

12 **Austin Network**

13 The year 2030 is considered for scenario runs in this analysis, with travel demand across a 5-mile × 8-
14 mile square region in central Austin, and with a more frequent transit service between Crestview station
15 and downtown Austin. Figure 2(a) shows the network obtained from OSM. The geographical extent of
16 the study area is limited to five stations of the Red Line, owing to computational complexity of the
17 microscopic simulation. Segments of Interstate-35 and Mopac freeways are included in the map to reflect
18 a realistic route choice for road users. The network downloaded from OSM is cleaned and vetted so that
19 there are no dead-end roads or invalid junctions. Signal settings for each intersection are left as default
20 (provided by SUMO), with rail having a higher priority over vehicles running on the roadway. Reflecting

1 real-world conditions, roadway vehicles will stop and let rail pass whenever the light rail approaches a
 2 shared intersection. Though rail connections are bi-directional in the real world, SUMO does not have the
 3 capability to simulated bi-directional railway lines. Therefore, two commuter rail lines are coded (one for
 4 each direction), with separate platforms created for the rail line in each direction. SAVs drop SAV-and-
 5 ride users at the curb nearest to the railway station, and the pedestrian will walk the rest of the way to get
 6 the platform of the commuter rail line.

7 AMDs are usually identified as neighborhoods or districts with high trip densities, such as a university
 8 campus, central business districts, or a military base (Young et al., 2017). In this study each 1.5 mile
 9 radial buffer from a station is considered as the operational extent of the SAV shuttle, and each AMD
 10 station comprises of 2-3 transit stops in total. Generally, 0.25 mile to 0.5 miles is seen as the walking
 11 distance to the transit stations (Nabors et al., 2008). Buffer size is limited to 1.5 miles in this study to
 12 avoid the overlap between AMDs, and also to improve the operational efficiency of SAVs. Each AMD
 13 has an SAV fleet that provides on-demand FMLM connections to transit trips in the corresponding AMD
 14 network. The two AMDs considered in this study are shown in Figure 2(b): The first AMD contains two
 15 stations: Crestview station and Highland station. The second AMD contains three stations: MLK station,
 16 Plaza Saltillo station and downtown station.

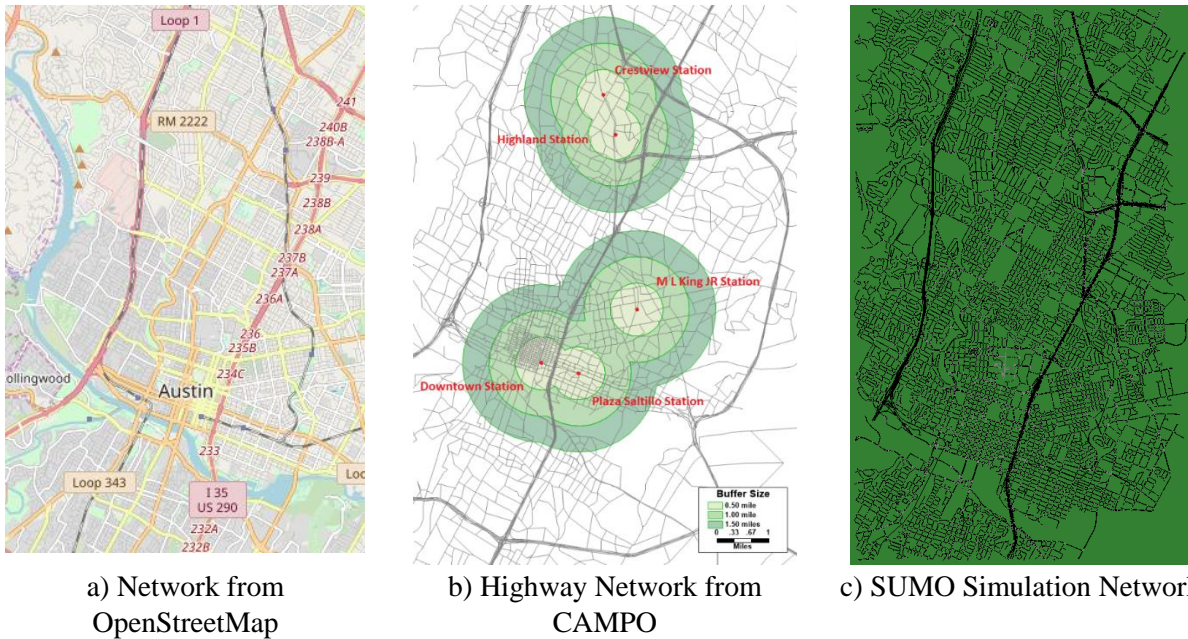


Figure 2. Network and AMD Boundary

17

18 **Travel Demand**

19 Travel demand used in this study reflects the demand forecasted for year 2030 by CAMPO regional travel
 20 demand model. The CAMPO model has 2,252 traffic analysis zones (TAZ) covering Austin’s six-county
 21 region. Travel demand between OD pairs from 246 zones is extracted from the CAMPO model for the
 22 purposes of this study. Since the network is obtained from OSM, a many-to-one association is established
 23 between the OSM links and the CAMPO TAZ boundaries. Based on CAMPO’s OD trip table, each
 24 individual trip is reformatted into an edge-based OD table where the origin edge and destination edge are
 25 randomly selected from links associated with the corresponding TAZs. Morning peak period (6-9am) is
 26 used as the simulation horizon. Departure times from each TAZ were dispersed using a normal
 27 distribution across simulation time horizon. There are 42,125 trips generated across the 246 TAZ region

1 from 6 am to 9 am. In this exercise, 1019 trips, which is a 2.5% sample of the morning peak trips are
2 simulated to circumvent exhaustive run times of the microsimulation.

3

4 **METHODOLOGY**

5 **Simulation of Urban Mobility Toolkit**

6 The simulation exercise in this effort is carried out using SUMO, which is an open-source, microscopic,
7 and multimodal traffic simulation toolkit (Krajzewicz et al., 2012). Using SUMO, it is possible to carry
8 out micro-simulations of multimodal vehicles considering effects of traffic signals, vehicle routes and
9 driving behavior models. Multimodal microscopic functions make SUMO a tool that can explicitly model
10 the interactions among pedestrians, SAVs and transit, e.g. access and egress of transit use, getting on and
11 off the SAV, and ride-sharing mechanism for on-demand services.

12 TraCI (Traffic Control Interface) is a toolkit in SUMO that allows to retrieve values of simulated objects
13 and to manipulate their behavior "on-line" (Krajzewicz et al, 2008). On-demand services in SUMO can be
14 implemented through TraCI by retrieving the information of on-demand requests and then dispatching
15 vehicles to serve the demand. On-demand service has been tested on a small AMD (1,364 edges and 570
16 nodes) in Greenville, SC, with about 300 trips served by a single capacity vehicle fleet of four vehicles
17 providing on-demand service and two vehicles running fixed route (Zhu, et al., 2017). This builds on
18 previous efforts by Zhu et al. (2017) by incorporating interactions between pedestrians, SAVs, and transit,
19 and by implementing SAVs as a FMLM connection to a larger transit line.

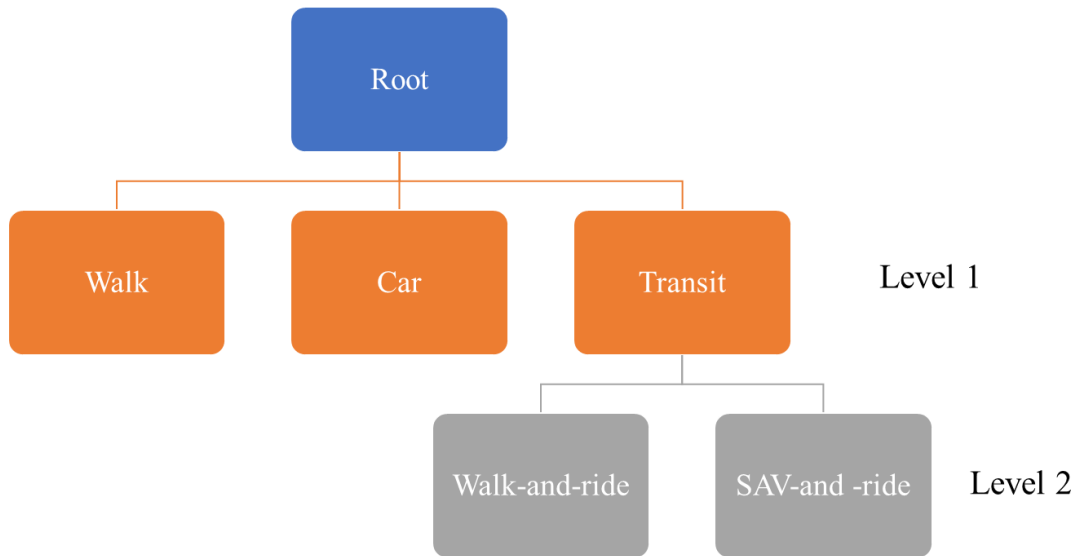
20 The SUMO simulation routine starts with importing travel demand and road network information into the
21 software. Demand data includes trips by mode (derived from the OD trip table as describe above), and
22 network data comprises of all the roadway links, transit lines, curbs, and platforms. For this simulation
23 study, travelers are given a choice spectrum comprising of four modes namely walking, private
24 automobile (also referred to as the car), walk-and-ride transit, and SAV-and-ride transit. It is important to
25 note here that the shares for various modes are determined based on characteristics of the modes (wait-
26 time, in-vehicle travel time etc.). For the preliminary analysis presented in this paper, routes for walk, car
27 and walk-and-ride modes are determined based on shortest-paths measured by free-flow travel time in
28 SUMO. During the simulation, pedestrians, and private vehicle drivers follow the routes assigned by
29 SUMO, while interacting with other modes in the simulation. Origin station, and destination station are
30 defined for the walk-and-ride and SAV-and-ride users at mode choice stage, but more detailed
31 interactions between SAV, transit and SAV-and-rides users are modeled in TraCI. Transit is coded as a
32 high capacity commuter rail running from Crestview station to downtown, and back to its origin. The
33 commuter rail runs with a frequency of 15 minutes, and a stop time of 30 seconds at each station.

34 Vehicles and persons are evaluated and simulated second by second, in the SUMO simulation. Pedestrian
35 and car mode users follow the assigned route plan, while SAV-and-ride users make a request and wait for
36 the shuttle to pick them up (at their origin location or the transit station). Dynamic-ride sharing (DRS) is
37 not considered in this effort. So, vehicles evaluate requests from passengers and generate a plan that picks
38 up all the passengers and drops them off based on their trip request times. An SAV-and-ride user's trip
39 consists of the following segments: making an on-demand request at the origin, getting on and off an
40 SAV, walking to transit station, waiting to the origin transit station and taking transit to destination
41 station, walking out of the station and making another on-demand request, getting on and off SAV, and
42 walking to the final destination. For the analysis presented in this paper, mode of access and egress is
43 assumed as the same, meaning that walking from origin location to transit station, and taking an SAV at

1 destination station is not allowed. The authors acknowledge that this is an important limitation, and plan
 2 to address this in future research efforts. Access-, and egress-walking distance is limited within one mile
 3 around the station, and SAV fleets serve only in the AMDs designated to them (i.e., SAVs designated to
 4 serve FMLM connections for the Downtown-Plaza-ML King Jr AMD, will not honor trip requests from
 5 the Crestview-Highland station AMD). At the end of the simulation routine, SUMO outputs second-by-
 6 second vehicle traces, as well as ride-sharing plans, which help in computing performance metrics for
 7 various modes used in the simulation.

8 **Mode Choice**

9 The mode choice decisions in this simulation are modeled at the trip level, using a nested logit model
 10 (Ben-Akiva and Lerman, 1985). SUMO generated network travel times, and wait time information is used
 11 to calculate mode shares. A two-level nested logit model is used, considering walk-and-ride and SAV-
 12 and-ride nested under transit mode, which is compared with walk and drive at the same level (shown in
 13 Figure 3). Parameters, and their coefficients in the mode choice model are adapted from relevant literature
 14 (Liu et al., 2017, Chen and Kockelman, 2016; Wen et al., 2018). In-vehicle travel time (IVTT) for car
 15 mode is set as \$17.67 per hour, following Liu et al (2017). Out-of-vehicle travel time (OVTT),
 16 comprising of wait and walk times, is assumed to be twice as much as IVTT. The same OVTT value is
 17 used for all modes, knowing that different modes will have different configurations of wait and walk
 18 times. For example, walk mode will not have any wait time associated with it as an individual simply
 19 walks from origin to destination. Car mode is assumed to provide door-to-door connectivity. Therefore, it
 20 does not have wait and walk time components. For SAV-to-ride, the OVTT parameter consists of wait
 21 time (for SAV at the origin), walking and waiting time for transit, as well as walking and waiting (for
 22 SAV at the transit station). Operating cost of car is assumed to be 60 cents per mile, whereas transit fares
 23 has a \$2 flat fee (Liu et al., 2017). Constants for car utility (-15.3) and walking distance coefficient (-1.2)
 24 are obtained from Wen et al. (2018).



25
 26 Figure 3. Two-Level Mode Choice Structure

27 Assuming a walking speed of 3.1 mph, the utility of walking mode is:

28
$$V_{walk} = -1.2 \times d_{walk} - 35.34 \times t_{walk}$$

29 After obtaining the driving distance and free-flow travel time from the network, the utility of car mode is:

$$V_{car} = -15.3 - 0.6 \times d_{driving} - 17.67 \times t_{driving}$$

Value of IVTT for both modes nested under transit is assumed to be half of car (Liu et al., 2017). The nesting coefficient for the transit nest is set as 0.7 based on mode choice component of the CAMPO travel demand model (Brinckerhoff, 2012). Average waiting time and walking time (both access and egress to both transit and SAV) are assumed to be 2.5 minutes (Brinckerhoff, 2012). Therefore, $t_{access_{walk}} = t_{egress_{walk}} = t_{FM-waiting_{SAV}} = t_{LM-waiting_{SAV}} = t_{waiting} = 2.5$, which means the access and egress walking time to/from transit, first-mile (FM) and last-mile (LM) waiting time for SAV, and waiting time for train are assumed to be the same.

The calculation of the utility function for transit mode is a bit more involved compared to that of other modes. First, the transit stations closest to a trip's origin and destination locations are identified. If both these stations are identified to be the same (reflecting the 'short' travel time of the trip), transit mode is precluded from the choice set. Since SAV operates within a designated AMD, the SAV-and-ride mode is not considered as a feasible mode, if distance from a trip's origin location to a transit station is greater than 1.5 miles, which is the radius of AMD. For walk-and-ride mode, if the distance to access-, or egress-station is greater than 1 mile, walk-and-ride mode is taken out from the available mode set, since distance threshold for walk mode is set at one mile. The transit travel distance is computed as the railway distance between platform centroid points of the boarding and alighting stations. Average speeds of urban rail systems in the U.S. are observed to be between 19 mph to 38 across the U.S. (Light Rail Progress, 2001). So, the speed of transit mode is set to be 32 mph, and is not affected by congestion on the roadway.

After obtaining the locations of the origin and destination stations, the FM and LM distance ($d_{FM_{SAV}}$ and $d_{LM_{SAV}}$), as well as FM and LM travel time ($t_{FM_{SAV}}$ and $t_{LM_{SAV}}$), utility of walk-and-ride mode can be computed using:

$$V_{w\&r} = -2 - 8.84 \times t_{rail} - 35.34 \times (t_{access_{walk}} + t_{egress_{walk}}) - 35.34 \times t_{waiting}$$

And the utility of SAV-and-ride comes out to be:

$$V_{SAV\&r} = -2 - 8.84 \times t_{rail} - 1 \times (d_{FM_{SAV}} + d_{LM_{SAV}}) - 8.84 \times (t_{FM_{SAV}} + t_{LM_{SAV}}) - 35.34 \times (t_{FM-waiting_{SAV}} + t_{LM-waiting_{SAV}} + t_{waiting})$$

Therefore, the utility of transit is:

$$V_{transit} = 0.7 \times \log \left(\exp \left(\frac{V_{w\&r}}{0.7} \right) + \exp \left(\frac{V_{SAV\&r}}{0.7} \right) \right)$$

Based on the utility equations shown above, mode shares are computed for all modes. Following this step, route plans are generated for all modes except SAV-and-ride.

Real-time Simulation Control

Since the routes for walk only mode, car, walk-and-ride modes are generated apriori to the real-time simulation, and the real-time simulation control will primarily focus on passenger, and SAV movements for the transit riders choosing SAV-and-ride option. At each time step (i.e., every one second), SAV-and-ride transit users are tagged with different flags so that the controller can obtain, and react to a riders' current status, and location. SAV ride requests from passengers are evaluated every 300 seconds. Armed with information of passengers' pick-up and drop-off locations, routing plans are generated for each vehicle in the SAV fleet to pick-up and drop-off passengers based on the order of their trip request. A

- 1 naïve logic implemented in the preliminary analysis, and will be enhanced with dynamic ride sharing
2 (DRS) functionalities (such as enroute passenger pickup) in future research.
- 3 The various stages in SAV-and-ride operation are described in detail below. The terms transit rider, user,
4 and SAV-and-ride user are used interchangeably in the description.
- 5 Stage 0: Initialization. Information regarding origin edge, first-mile SAV pick-up edge, first-mile SAV
6 drop-off edge, and origin transit station is identified for each SAV-and-ride user. At this stage, an SAV-
7 and-ride user commences walking to the network edge where they will be picked up.
- 8 Stage 1: SAV-and-ride user arrives at first-mile departure location (mid-way point of the pick-up roadway
9 link) and waits for a ride. Any SAV-and-ride user arriving at a departure location will be assigned with an
10 SAV at the next vehicle re-plan step (i.e., the next 300 second time bin).
- 11 Stage 2: SAV-and-ride user boards the vehicle and the vehicle proceeds to pick up the next user assigned
12 to it. In the event that all the seats on the SAV are occupied or when there are no more passenger pick-up
13 requests (in a given time step), then the SAV heads to drop-off the passengers.
- 14 Stage 3: When the SAV has picked up all assigned SAV-and-ride transit users, the users' stage will be
15 changed to stage 3. The SAV will drop off all the passengers at their designated station locations.
- 16 Stage 4: SAV-and-ride user is dropped off at the transit station and commences walking to the origin
17 transit station platform. There is a walking leg involved here since transit riders cannot be dropped by the
18 SAVs directly on the transit platform.
- 19 Stage 5: SAV-and-ride user arrives at the origin station and waits for the train. Once a user reaches this
20 stage, the rest of his/her journey will be identified and cached, including destination transit station, last-
21 mile SAV pick-up edge, last-mile SAV drop-off edge and final destination edge.
- 22 Stage 6: Once the train arrives at the station, the rider will board the train.
- 23 Stage 7: The SAV-and-ride user is dropped off at the destination station and walks to location where
24 he/she will be picked up by an SAV.
- 25 Stage 8 - 11: These stages represent the SAV routing logic for the last mile, as described in steps 1-3.
- 26 Stage 12: SAV-and-ride user arrived at the final destination edge.
- 27 The SAVs are controlled using TraCI module in SUMO, constantly reacting to the status of the SAV-and-
28 ride transit users. Maximum vehicle speed of SAVs is set at 45 mph, considering most automated shuttles
29 currently being demonstrated see top speeds around 40 miles or so. Various stages in SAVs operations are
30 described below:
- 31 Stage 0: Initialization. SAVs are placed at random locations in their designated AMDs.
- 32 Stage 1: Idling. Before receiving a request (evaluated 300 seconds), SAVs are parked, and wait for a trip
33 request.
- 34 Stage 2: Routing and running. Once a routing plan is generated for an SAV to pick-up and drop-off riders,
35 it will proceed to the first pick-up point. Each SAV will first pick-up all the passengers assigned to it on a
36 trip, and then drop-off the passengers in the sequence they were picked up.
- 37 Stage 3: Re-distribute. After an SAV has finished dropping off all passengers, it is re-located to a nearby
38 location on the network where it can park itself and wait for the next trip request (reflecting a real-world

1 situation where ride hail drivers often relocate themselves to a location in anticipation of future trip
 2 demand) .

3

4 **AUSTIN APPLICATION RESULTS**

5 For the Austin case study, baseline scenario considers only considers walk, drive, and walk-and-ride
 6 modes as the modal alternatives. Transit in the baseline (as well as FMLM) scenario is assumed to be
 7 running between Crestview station and downtown Austin with a frequency of 15 minutes. FMLM
 8 scenarios are tested with each AMD served by a fleet of fifteen SAVs serving the SAV-and-ride users. A
 9 cost of \$1 per mile is assumed as the fare for the SAV (Liu et al., 2017). Table 1 shows the mode share
 10 results for baseline scenario as well as FMLM scenario. Both scenarios are run with 2.5% of the total
 11 travel demand for the defined region.

12 A transit survey conducted in Austin in 2011 shows a total of 1,755 daily transit trips for the rail line
 13 across all stops (Brinckerhoff, 2012). Since this paper considers 2.5% of total demand, the analysis would
 14 capture 44 trips spread across all the 9 stations. Further assuming that these boardings are distributed
 15 uniformly across all stations, 24 daily transit trips would be captured in five stations investigated (among
 16 9 stations that have been built currently) in this paper, across the whole day. Therefore, 8 trips during AM
 17 peak for walk-and-ride mode align reasonably well with the 2011 field observation. Both baseline
 18 scenario and FMLM scenario see the same number of walk-and-ride trips. The one-mile constraint on
 19 walk to transit constraint might be playing a part in keeping the mode share for walk-and-ride constant.
 20 SAV-and-ride mode gains a large mode share (of 161 trips) from car and a small mode share (of 8 trips)
 21 from walk. The reasons for this could be cost-, and time-effectiveness of SAV mode, compared with car
 22 and walk modes respectively. Although SAV modes gain mode share, it is observed that the average
 23 vehicle occupancy (AVO) of all vehicles for the FMLM simulation dropped to 0.7 from 1 in the baseline.
 24 The primary reason for this is the empty vehicle travel encumbered by SAVs both in traveling to pick up
 25 the first passenger, as well as in relocating after dropping off the last passenger. Empty vehicle travel
 26 accounts for 36% of SAV VMT (and 24% of total VMT), which is in close alignment with deadhead
 27 miles quantified using real-world TNC data (Heno and Marshall, 2018; Fagnant et al., 2015). The naïve
 28 ride-matching and routing logic used for preliminary analysis can also be a reason for the high SAV VMT
 29 observed here. Based on this logic, SAVs always pick-up passengers in the order of their requests, and
 30 drop-off in the order of their pick-ups (as opposed to geographical proximity to the shuttle location). A
 31 positive result from the deployment of SAVs in AMDs is that car VMT has seen a reduction of 23.5%
 32 (from 2,827 to 2,162). This could reduce congestion on the highway and increase travel speeds, but could
 33 lead to increased congestion at local places around transit station. Future efforts will investigate the
 34 feedback of from mode choice model on network performance.

35 Table 1. Comparison results of base case and FMLM served by SAVs

	Mode Share				Average vehicle occupancy	Vehicle-miles traveled			
	Car	SAV&Ride	Walk&Ride	Walk		Car	SAV	Empty	Total
Base	70.83%	0.00%	0.79%	28.39%	1.0	2,827	0	0	2,827
	721 trips	0	8	289					
FMLM	55.01%	16.60%	0.79%	27.60%	0.7	2,162	1,516	851	3,554
	560 trips	169	8	281					

1 After exploring the impacts of implementing SAVs as a modal alternative to car, and walk-and-ride
 2 modes, sensitivity analysis exercises were carried to understand the impact of fleet size and transit
 3 frequency on the performance of the SAV mode. FMLM scenario presented above has a transit
 4 frequency of 15 minutes and two fleet sizes of 15 vehicles in the two AMDs. Building on this, scenarios
 5 were developed to test the performance of SAV-to-ride mode, based on transit frequencies of 5 min, 10
 6 min, 15 min and 20 min, and increasing SAV fleet size from 5 to 20 vehicles (in increments of 5
 7 vehicles). With a more frequent transit service, FMLM service performance was observed to be quite
 8 stable, but waiting time for transit saw a significant reduction, as expected. The average travel time for
 9 FMLM (SAV service to-, or from- the transit station) is around 30 minutes, which is longer than one
 10 would normally expect. An intelligent ride-sharing mechanism, possibly a DRS, would help reduce the
 11 access-, and egress-times for SAV-and ride mode. Contrary to sensitivity on transit frequency, transit
 12 performances are stable with changes in SAV fleet size. A larger fleet size would lead to lower average
 13 vehicle occupancy but also less wait time, as the need for sharing trips reduces with increasing fleet size.
 14 Analyses such as these can help determine the optimal operational characteristics for FMLM deployments
 15 to weigh SAV performance against investment decisions.

16 Table 2. Sensitivity analysis on transit frequency and fleet size.

Scenarios		SAV (average value of FM and LM)				Transit		
		Average vehicle occupancy	Waiting time	Total travel time (wait + onboard + walk)	Distance (miles per trip)	Waiting time	Total travel time (wait + onboard + walk)	Distance (miles per trip)
				minutes per person			minutes per person	
Frequency (minutes)	5	0.69	5.87	30.31	1.29	2.93	29.56	2.02
	10	0.70	5.87	28.81	1.40	5.49	32.32	2.02
	15	0.69	5.77	27.16	1.43	6.99	33.62	2.02
	20	0.65	5.25	28.26	1.23	10.55	37.18	2.02
Fleet size (vehicle number in each AMD)	5	0.93	11.01	51.74	1.05	6.99	33.62	2.02
	10	0.79	7.48	35.13	1.32	6.99	33.62	2.02
	15	0.69	5.77	27.16	1.43	6.99	33.62	2.02
	20	0.66	5.29	24.27	1.32	6.99	33.62	2.02

17

18 **CONCLUSION**

19 Extending the concept of deploying shared automated vehicles in geofenced regions with a high trip
 20 density (labeled as an Automated Mobility District, or an AMD), this paper explores the idea of using
 21 shared automated vehicles (SAVs) to provide first mile last mile (FMLM) connectivity to transit in
 22 AMDs. Although there are some mesoscopic agent-based simulations on transit, transit operations are
 23 oversimplified and FMLM service is rarely investigated. This paper makes one of the first attempts at
 24 understanding the scope for adopting SAVs for FMLM connections using the microscopic simulation tool
 25 SUMO. This paper not only models detailed transit operations (such as stopping duration, schedule,
 26 shared intersections by railway and roadway, and railway platform for getting on and off), but also makes
 27 a foray into incorporating operational logic associated with deploying SAVs for FMLM connections to
 28 transit. Outputs from the microsimulation represent second by second passenger and vehicle movements,
 29 which can be used to obtain accurate estimates of VMT, energy and fuel consumptions, and performance
 30 metrics for the SAV mode (e.g. ride-sharing time, walking time and waiting time). Furthermore, this
 31 paper extends the AMD concept to a larger network with multiple AMDs at the same time. With

1 increasing interest from cities in SAV technology as an urban mobility solution, AMD deployments
2 (where SAVs are used to provide on-demand service) can be anticipated in the near future.

3 A case study analysis was conducted where fleets of SAVs provide FMLM service to Austin’s Red transit
4 line around central Austin area. Travel demand data from Austin’s CAMPO model is used for this
5 analysis, and a 2.5% percent of the travel demand for the region is considered for the microscopic
6 simulation analysis. An open source microscopic simulation tool (SUMO), was augmented with a nested-
7 logit mode choice model to conduct the analysis. With SAV fleet serving FM or LM requests in their
8 designated AMDs, it was observed that 15.8% of the travel demand would shift from car mode to SAV-
9 and-ride mode. Though SAV-and-ride mode gains mode shares from car, and walk-and-ride modes, it
10 was observed that systemwide VMT would increase (and average occupancy would decrease) with the
11 implementation of SAVs, owing primarily to the empty vehicle travel of SAVs. The empty VMT from
12 SAVs accounts for 36% of SAVs’ VMT and 24% of total VMT in the system. This calls the need for
13 developing deadhead minimization routines, to reduce empty VMT from SAVs, and AVs. From the
14 scenario analysis exercises, it was seen that frequent transit service would significantly reduce the
15 passenger waiting time at the station, but it would not improve the performance of SAV fleet. Increasing
16 SAV fleet size on the other hand would reduce wait time for SAV pick-ups as expected.

17 While this paper makes an initial attempt at simulating SAVs as an FMLM connection to transit, a few
18 shortcomings remain to be addressed. It was observed that the naïve ride-matching and routing logic
19 implemented in this study led to increased empty vehicle travel in the systems. Immediate efforts will
20 focus on enhancing operational logic with features such as dynamic ride sharing and deadhead
21 minimization. Access-, and egress-legs to transit were enforced to be the same in the simulation for
22 simplicity. This will be relaxed in the next iteration, as transit riders in all likelihood can take an SAV to
23 access a transit station, but walk to the final destination for the egress-leg of the trip. The results presented
24 in this paper consider 2.5 % of the demand for the region of interest, owing to computational complexity
25 of the micro-simulation. Solutions will be explored to simulate 100% of the AMD’s travel demand using
26 advanced computing resources.

27

28 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

29 This work was authored (in part) by the National Renewable Energy Laboratory, operated by Alliance for
30 Sustainable Energy, LLC, for the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) under Contract No. DE-AC36-
31 08GO28308. Funding was provided by the DOE Vehicle Technologies Office (VTO) under the Systems
32 and Modeling for Accelerated Research in Transportation (SMART) Mobility Laboratory Consortium, an
33 initiative of the Energy Efficient Mobility Systems (EEMS) Program. The authors acknowledge Stan
34 Young of NREL for leading the Urban Science Pillar of the SMART Mobility Laboratory Consortium. The
35 following DOE Office of Energy Efficiency and Renewable Energy (EERE) managers played important
36 roles in establishing the project concept, advancing implementation, and providing ongoing guidance:
37 Prasad Gupte, Erin Boyd, Heather Croteau, and David Anderson. The views expressed in the article do not
38 necessarily represent the views of the DOE or the U.S. Government. The U.S. Government retains and the
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6

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