

Modelling Public Transport On-board Congestion: Comparing Schedule-based and Agent-based Assignment Approaches and their Implications

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1 **MODELLING PUBLIC TRANSPORT ON-BOARD CONGESTION: COMPARING**
2 **SCHEDULE-BASED AND AGENT-BASED ASSIGNMENT APPROACHES AND**
3 **THEIR IMPLICATIONS**

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ABSTRACT

26

27 Transit systems are subject to congestion that influences system performance and level-of-
28 service. The evaluation of measures to relieve congestion requires models that can capture
29 their network effects and passengers' adaptation. In particular, on-board congestion leads to an
30 increase of crowding discomfort and denied boarding and a decrease in service reliability.
31 This study performs a systematic comparison of alternative approaches to modelling on-board
32 congestion in transit networks. In particular, the congestion-related functionalities of a
33 schedule-based model and an agent-based transit assignment model are investigated, by
34 comparing VISUM and BusMezzo, respectively.

35

36 The theoretical background, modelling principles and implementation details of the
37 alternative models are examined and demonstrated by testing various operational scenarios for
38 an example network. The results suggest that differences in modelling passenger arrival
39 process, choice-set generation and route choice model yield systematically different passenger
40 loads. The schedule-based model is insensitive to a uniform increase in demand or decrease in
41 capacity when caused by either vehicle capacity or service frequency reduction. In contrast,
42 nominal travel times increase in the agent-based model as demand increases or capacity
43 decreases. The marginal increase in travel time increases as the network becomes more
44 saturated. While none of the existing models capture the full range of congestion effects and
45 related behavioural responses, existing models can support different planning decisions.

46

47 **Keywords:**

48 Public transport; Transit networks; Network assignment; Congestion; Capacity; Model
49 comparison; Simulation model.

50

1 1. INTRODUCTION

2 Transit systems are subject to congestion that influences system performance and level-of-
3 service. Congestion occurs in various elements of the transit network, including passenger
4 congestion at stops, on-board and in walkways and vehicle congestion at stops and
5 infrastructure [1, 2]. Transport planners and operators design and apply strategic and tactical
6 measures to increase service capacity and thus reduce congestion. For example, increasing
7 service frequency and increasing vehicle capacity might have the same consequences on total
8 line capacity but have different implications on service reliability, waiting times and the
9 probability of denied boarding. An inadequate modelling of a congestion-related phenomenon
10 may result in an unrealistic distribution of passenger loads and an underestimation of the
11 generalized travel cost and hence hinder the evaluation of alternative investments. Since
12 congestion relief measures require significant investments, it is crucial to develop models and
13 tools to adequately capture their impacts and assess their benefits. Transit assignment models
14 (TAM) are used for predicting the distribution of passengers over a transit network. This
15 paper is concerned with on-board passenger congestion and how alternative modelling
16 frameworks and tools capture related impacts. Similarly, to car traffic, congestion induced
17 travel externalities on fellow passengers need to be accounted for in TAM since such
18 externalities increase the marginal travel cost.

19 Most previous studies described on-board crowding as a static and deterministic
20 travel attribute. The impact of congestion was thus considered in terms of the average on-
21 board occupancy rate. Similarly, crowding is often estimated as the ratio between average
22 supply and average demand [3, 4, 5]. The static notion of congestion implies that the appraisal
23 of a project that increases line capacity has a uniform impact on on-board crowding without
24 considering load variations [6]. However, the on-board occupancy level is in reality a random
25 variable that varies even along a single trip leg. A service that is on average uncongested
26 could lead to denied boarding in the extremes.

27 The effects of on-board congestion on passenger travel times are differentiated in this
28 paper as follows: (a) *crowding discomfort* – the greater impedance associated with in-vehicle
29 time. An increasing passenger load will also generate an increase of the discomfort of sitting
30 passengers; (b) *denied boarding* – prolonged travel time and dissatisfaction due to the
31 inability of passengers to enter a vehicle because its occupancy reaches design capacity; (c)
32 *service reliability* – inducing longer waiting and in-vehicle times due to the relation between
33 on-board congestion, dwell time at stops and headways. There is considerable empirical
34 evidence that these effects induce higher travel impedance [7].

35 There is limited knowledge about the implications of various modelling approaches
36 and their respective consideration of congestion effects on assignment results. The objectives
37 of this paper are: (1) to review the theoretical foundations of alternative approaches to model
38 on-board congestion in transit networks; (2) to perform a systematic comparison of the results
39 obtained by alternative assignment approaches in terms of both travel time and passenger load
40 distribution under a range of travel demand and service capacity scenarios, and; (3) support
41 planners and model developers in applying and extending transit assignment tools by
42 discussing the practical and scientific implications of model capabilities and limitations and
43 thereof provide recommendations to both planners and model developers communities. In
44 particular, the congestion-related functionalities of a schedule-based model and an agent-
45 based TAM were studied.

46 The outline of the paper is as follows: alternative modelling approaches for
47 congestion in transit are reviewed in Section 2, followed by the presentation of two specific
48 models that are contrasted in this study (Section 3). The implications of these modelling
49 approaches under various operational scenarios were analyzed using an example network
50 presented in Section 4. The results in Section 5 indicate that the models yield significantly

1 different flow distributions under certain circumstances. Section 6 concludes the paper with a
2 discussion of model implications and limitations and their potential to support policymaking.

3 **2. CONGESTION IN TRANSIT ASSIGNMENT MODELS: A REVIEW**

4 There is a growing literature on modelling congestion in TAM with a remarkable increase in
5 interest in the last decade, see reviews by Fu et al. [8] and Gentile et al. [9]. Different
6 modelling approaches aimed to account for these effects in order to obtain a realistic
7 distribution of passenger flows over transit services. TAM are conventionally classified into
8 frequency-based and schedule-based models - differing in their network supply representation
9 and their implications on the passenger loading procedure. Passengers are assigned to
10 common line corridors in frequency-based models while schedule-based models assign
11 passengers to specific vehicle trips. For a review of the fundamentals of transit assignment
12 modelling, the reader is referred to Gentile et al. [10]. Most of the developments were made in
13 either accounting for on-board discomfort or considering capacity effects on passengers'
14 queuing. In addition to these two approaches, agent-based simulation models more recently
15 emerged as an alternative approach to TAM. In the following, we will focus on the main
16 modelling features that enable capturing the impacts of on-board congestion on discomfort,
17 denied boarding and service reliability.

18 Already in their seminal work that introduced the concept of optimal strategies,
19 Spiess and Florian [11] suggested an implicit way to account for congestion effects by
20 assigning link travel times as an increasing function of the corresponding passenger flow.
21 This approach was then adopted by later studies [12, 13]. An iterative network loading
22 process is required in order to redistribute passenger demand and obtain equilibrium
23 conditions. Similarly, to traffic assignment models, static TAM do not guarantee that capacity
24 is not exceeded as all passenger demand is loaded to the network even if it cannot be absorbed
25 by the capacity available.

26 The abovementioned studies accounted for the impact of congestion by assigning
27 longer in-vehicle times. Alternatively, the congestion effect could be considered through
28 assigning weights to waiting times by computing the effective frequency [14, 15]. This
29 implies shifting the travel impedance caused by congestion from links to nodes. The former is
30 more adequate for capturing on-board discomfort, which most value-of-time studies found to
31 be directly proportional to in-vehicle time [7]. In contrast, the latter is arguably more
32 appropriate for capturing denied boarding and the reliability effects attributed to congestion.
33 Unlike car traffic, the effect of congestion induces an asymmetric cost due to vehicle capacity
34 constraints. Note that similarly to the flow-capacity ratio method, the effective frequency
35 method discourages passengers from choosing saturated links, but it does not, however,
36 guarantee that the capacity will not be exceeded. An infinite penalty when exceeding capacity
37 was introduced in both schedule- and frequency-based TAM [16, 17]. Cepeda et al. [17]
38 applied a capacitated equilibrium static transit assignment model for the Stockholm transit
39 network. The iterative process reduced the number of oversaturated links but retained flow-
40 over-capacity ratios exceeding one without reaching a feasible flow distribution. This is
41 especially important for highly saturated networks where capacity constraints are binding for
42 important network elements.

43 The effective frequency method may result in unrealistically long travel times due to
44 the static representation of service capacity. Modelling extensions addressed this limitation by
45 considering the share of passengers that will fail to board a network line. In the case of a
46 frequency-based model this is performed by constructing a quasi-dynamic model where the
47 share of passengers that exceeds the residual capacity of the respective time period is
48 transmitted to the next period [18, 19]. The effect of on-board discomfort and capacity
49 constraints can be modelled by the simultaneous introduction of in-vehicle and waiting time
50 delay components [20]. Applying the same approach in schedule-based models can guarantee

1 that capacity constraints are satisfied at the individual vehicle level by introducing new arcs
2 between successive vehicle trips [21, 22]. The impact of priority rules was modelled by
3 introducing a bottleneck queue model for representing the FIFO queuing process and derive
4 the excessive queuing time [23, 24].

5 Similarly, to the discriminative effect of capacity constraints, the on-board
6 discomfort effect does not affect all passengers uniformly as implied by the aforementioned
7 flow-capacity ratio method. Fail-to-sit probability was therefore introduced to satisfy the set
8 of priority rules and the seat capacity constraint [25, 26, 27].

9 TAM often assume that service is perfectly reliable although already early
10 contributions highlighted that this is an important limitation, which is inconsistent with both
11 analytical and empirical studies [11]. Latter developments of TAM have contributed to the
12 refinement of relaxation of some of these assumptions by sampling service attributes
13 assuming that they are independently distributed [28]. However, service reliability propagates
14 dynamically in transit systems with the bunching phenomenon being the most noticeable
15 phenomenon [27]. Moreover, congestion reinforces this process [30].

16 The schedule-based approach facilitates the modeling of congestion effects at the
17 individual vehicle trip rather than on a common corridor. However, similarly to frequency-
18 based models, it has a limited capability to capture the dynamics of service reliability and its
19 evolution along the line. Furthermore, the static and aggregate representation of passenger
20 demand prevents the consideration of en-route travel decisions at the individual level. A
21 review of TAM concluded that the main challenges are dealing with supply uncertainties and
22 adaptive user decisions. They identified the dynamic loading process and the agent-based
23 simulation as two potential approaches [31].

24 Agent-based simulation models facilitate the dynamic representation of individual
25 passengers and the emergence of congestion effects based on numerous inter-dependent local
26 decisions. This makes these models particularly suitable for modelling congestion effects.
27 Agent-based models were developed and applied for modelling the circulation of passengers
28 at stops and on-board [32, 33]. However, the development of agent-based TAM is only in its
29 early stages. Toledo et al. [34] presented a transit simulation model that models the interaction
30 between traffic dynamics, transit operations and passenger demand. They demonstrated that
31 the model is capable of emulating the bunching phenomenon. On-board occupancy on each
32 transit vehicle is updated throughout the simulation, and capacity constraints are explicitly
33 enforced. The modelling of passenger flow and service unreliability propagation allows
34 capturing the dynamic congestion effects and support appraisals of capacity investments [35].

35 Previous studies have shown that accounting for on-board congestion effects yields
36 significantly different assignment results [17, 26]. Whilst commercial TAM software
37 packages such as TransCAD, EMME and VISUM include the option to account for capacity
38 using variants of the flow-capacity ratio multiplier and effective frequency techniques, recent
39 advances in TAM enable the representation of dynamic congestion effects. As the literature
40 review clearly demonstrates, previous studies have made significant advances in modelling
41 congestion in TAM, while embarking on distinctive modelling approaches. This recent
42 growth in literature on diverse methods to model congestion in TAM calls for a methodic
43 analysis of the implications of alternative modelling approaches, this being the focus of this
44 study. In the following, schedule-based and agent-based approaches to TAM are compared,
45 while frequency-based is omitted from the subsequent analysis.

46 **3. MODELLING APPROACHES**

47 The implications of alternative modeling approaches are investigated in this study by
48 performing a systematic examination of two distinguished TAM that differ in their network
49 representation, assignment principles and the consideration of on-board congestion effects.
50 The macroscopic TAM approach is represented by the scheduled-based TAM, implemented

1 in VISUM software [36]. This modeling approach is compared with BusMezzo, an agent-
2 based TAM [37]. While both models represent individual vehicle trips along with their
3 specific characteristics, trips' inter-dependence and passengers' route choice are treated
4 differently. The following provides a brief description of the respective VISUM and
5 BusMezzo assignment models followed by an investigation of their congestion functionalities.

6 **3.1 Schedule-Based Assignment**

7 The schedule-based TAM implemented in VISUM loads passenger flows on individual trips
8 based on a static and deterministic representation of the transit system. The downstream
9 attributes of all potential time-dependent paths are therefore known a-priori. A choice-set
10 generation procedure is performed as a pre-assignment step by using the branch and bound
11 technique. The procedure computes a search tree, which generates a choice-set that is
12 composed of all feasible alternatives. Thereafter, it eliminates alternatives that are dominated
13 by other alternatives within the same time interval.

14 Passengers are assumed to have perfect information concerning the timetables and
15 perfectly coordinate their arrival at stops with the departure time of the selected vehicle trip.
16 This implies that passengers do not experience waiting time at their origin stop and transfer
17 waiting times are known and determined by the respective timetables. The number of
18 passengers that are assigned to a specific time-dependent path is calculated based on a
19 discrete choice model. Passenger demand is sliced in VISUM into desired departure time
20 intervals minimizing the impedance associated with shadow waiting time (i.e. waiting time
21 spent in the origin due to the difference between desired and actual departure times). An
22 iterative assignment is performed until a stochastic user equilibrium is obtained. The model is
23 primarily used for long term planning purposes.

24 **3.2 Agent-Based Assignment**

25 The agent-based TAM implemented in BusMezzo simulates the path decisions of individual
26 passengers and the movements of individual vehicles. The dynamic and stochastic
27 representation of the transit system is integrated into an event-based mesoscopic traffic
28 simulation tool. Vehicle travel times are determined by the joint traffic and transit dynamics
29 and consist of running, queuing, dwelling and recovery times. Running times are derived from
30 speed-density relations while queuing times are determined by stochastic server rates, which
31 reflect the delay at intersections. Flow-dependent dwell times are assigned at stops and
32 recovery times are obtained from the explicit representation of vehicle scheduling. Different
33 modes – private car, bus, metro etc. - are modeled with different vehicle types, capacities and
34 operation regimes. Further details concerning the supply representation and its validation are
35 provided in Toledo et al. [34].

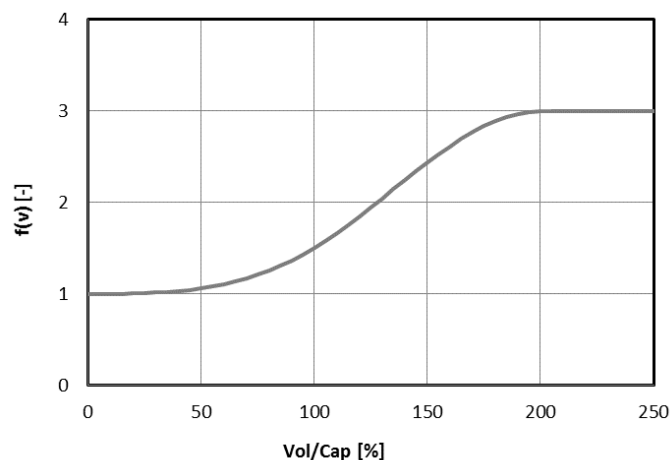
36 Passengers are generated based on a time-dependent OD matrix following a Poisson
37 arrival process. A non-compensatory deterministic choice-set generation model produces a set
38 of alternative paths for each OD pair based on the static network representation. Throughout
39 the simulation each passenger undertakes a sequence of successive walking, boarding and
40 alighting decisions. The utility associated with each possible alternative is evaluated by
41 passenger's preferences and expectations. When evaluating path attributes, passengers take
42 into consideration the expected utility of the entire downstream path. The latter depends on
43 prior knowledge, the current state of the system and real-time information. Passenger path
44 flows are the outcome of the underlying individual passenger decisions. BusMezzo is
45 designed as an operations-oriented model for short- to mid-term planning.

46 **3.3 Modelling Congestion Effects**

47 Congestion in transit networks could emerge from a systematically underserved passenger
48 demand. The selected schedule-based and agent-based models imply a distinctively different

1 approach towards representing service capacity. The former does not explicitly represent
 2 vehicle run capacities. Instead, an additional impedance is assigned to the respective route in
 3 the iterative network loading to reflect the disutility inflicted by denied boarding. However,
 4 VISUM assigns any demand that is loaded to a given network even if this results in infeasible
 5 loads. In contrast, BusMezzo constantly updates the on-board occupancy for each vehicle
 6 throughout the simulation period and guarantees that capacity constraints will not be
 7 exceeded. It is assumed that passengers wishing to board an arriving vehicle form a boarding
 8 FIFO queue based on their arrival time at the stop. Passengers who fail to board due to
 9 capacity constraints can reconsider their travel decisions. Vehicle capacity corresponds to
 10 design capacity – number of seats and standees, rather than crash capacity. Since passengers’
 11 choice execution depends on capacity constraints, the stochastic assignment results are
 12 influenced by the choices made by other passengers. Seating priority rules are applied in
 13 BusMezzo by giving priority to passengers already on-board and for those that intend to alight
 14 further downstream. In contrast, VISUM does not assign seats to individual passengers and
 15 hence does not involve any priority rules.

16 Crowding and the discomfort it induces are a negative externality of the interaction
 17 between passengers’ route choice. Since discomfort is not known a-priori, an iterative loading
 18 procedure is required in order to obtain equilibrium conditions. This procedure in VISUM
 19 includes an impedance term based on the volume to capacity ratio, which is calculated based
 20 on the loads obtained by previous iterations using the method of successive averages. Vehicle
 21 capacity is defined as the design capacity provided by the manufacturer. Alternative crowding
 22 impedance functions could be selected in VISUM. Figure 1 presents a commonly used
 23 function estimated by the Swiss Federal Railway (SFR) [38]. The logistic function is designed
 24 to reflect the increasing discomfort and to assign greater penalties for boarding overcrowded
 25 vehicles. However, there is behavioral evidence that perceptions of on-board discomfort
 26 cannot be adequately captured based on density [39], resulting with a discontinuous step-wise
 27 function of the in-vehicle time multiplier, as concluded in the meta-analysis in [7]. The
 28 iterative loading terminates when convergence criteria of the stochastic user equilibrium are
 29 satisfied. In contrast, the BusMezzo version used in this study does not support iterative
 30 network assignment and therefore does not capture the impact of discomfort on route choice.
 31 Equilibrium conditions can therefore not be guaranteed. However, an ex-post analysis can
 32 assign different value of time coefficients for each vehicle run segment based on the number
 33 of standees and vehicle capacity [35].



34
 35

FIGURE 1 SFR crowding function

36 A lineup of the main differences between the two modelling tools is presented in Table 1.
 37 While both models represent transit supply in terms of individual vehicle runs and passengers

1 are thus assigned to trip-segments, VISUM represents passenger demand as aggregate flows
 2 whereas BusMezzo assigns individual passengers that undertake adaptive path choices.
 3 BusMezzo has a richer representation of the supply phenomenon and its uncertainty whilst
 4 VISUM accounts for a greater number of variables in the path utility function.

5 The schedule-based and agent-based models differ fundamentally in how passengers'
 6 trips are initiated. These distinctive assumptions reflect the models focus on low frequency vs.
 7 high frequency services, respectively. These differences have implications on how
 8 passengers' waiting times are modelled. VISUM assumes that all the waiting time is spent at
 9 the origin and is therefore captured through the difference between the desired and actual
 10 departure times while the latter is perfectly coordinated with the scheduled vehicle arrival
 11 time. In contrast, passengers' waiting time in BusMezzo is derived from the time difference
 12 between passenger's generation time and a positive boarding decision that could be executed.

13 **TABLE 1 Comparing modelling features in VISUM and BusMezzo**

14
 15 While capacities are usually sufficient to accommodate average volumes, on-board congestion
 16 is often the outcome of significant fluctuations of passenger loads on individual vehicle runs.
 17 Congestion in transit networks evolves through the dynamic interactions between supply
 18 uncertainty and passengers' decisions. Transit supply is deterministic and considered perfectly
 19 reliable in VISUM. Load variations in VISUM are hence exclusively the outcome of temporal
 20 demand variations and trip departure time adjustments. BusMezzo represents the sources of
 21 service uncertainty and the relation between headways, passenger loads and dwell times,
 22 which generate a positive feedback loop due to the inter-dependency between consecutive
 23 vehicle runs that contributes to delays and uneven loads [29, 34].

24 **4. APPLICATION**

25 The implications of the schedule-based and agent-based modelling approaches were analyzed
 26 using an example network allowing to demonstrate the main effects while remaining tractable.
 27 Section 5 describes the example network, scenarios and their implementation details, followed
 28 by a comparison and discussion of the assignment results

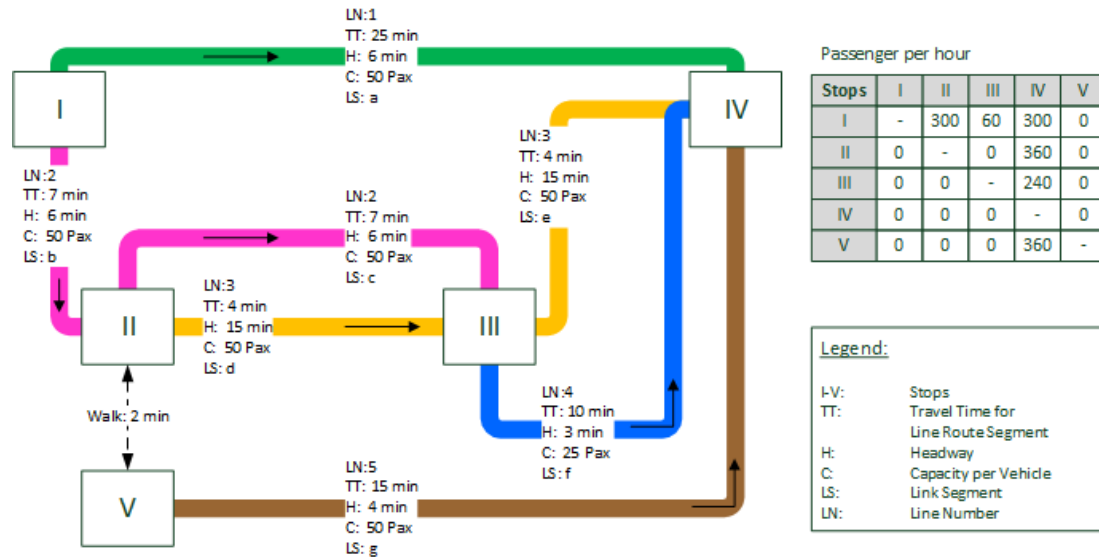
29 **4.1 Network Description**

30 A network based on the one presented by Spiess and Florian [11] was selected for
 31 investigating how TAM capture the congestion effects (Figure 2). This network was chosen
 32 for its simplicity while facilitating the illustration of all relevant phenomena and reflect the
 33 implications of alternative models. The network provides a simplified yet realistic
 34 representation of real-life scenarios where passengers may choose between local and rapid
 35 services, direct and indirect connections. Passenger flow distribution is thus the result of non-
 36 trivial trade-offs between waiting time, in-vehicle time, walking time, number of transfers,
 37 delays and on-board crowding. Moreover, versions of this network are occasionally used in
 38 the TAM literature and its properties were investigated [24].

39 The network consists of 5 stops, 1 walking link between stop II and V and 5 lines.
 40 Line headways vary from 3 minutes for Line 4 to 15 minutes for Line 3. Link travel times are
 41 in the range of 3 to 15 minutes, resulting in an in-vehicle travel time of 15 and 25 minutes
 42 from stop I to stop IV, depending on the path selected. The capacity of each vehicle is 50
 43 passengers except for the high frequency Line 4 which is operated by vehicles with a capacity
 44 of 25 passengers. Vehicle capacity induces a strict constraint in BusMezzo, whereas in
 45 VISUM it is embedded into travel impedance through the SFR crowding function.

46 Passenger demand is generated for six origin-destination relations with a total
 47 generation rate of 1,620 passengers per hour. The superposition of passenger demand yields

1 on-board congestion. Passenger path choice involves the decision between a slow and direct
 2 line (e.g. Line 1 for passengers travelling from I to IV) to faster and indirect path alternatives
 3 (e.g. Line 2 + Line 3, Line 2 + Line 4). In addition, passengers may choose between fast but
 4 infrequent connection (e.g. Line 3 for passengers travelling from III to IV) to more frequent
 5 albeit slower lines (e.g. Line 4).



6
7
8
9 **FIGURE 2 Example network details**

10 **4.2 Scenario Design**

11 A set of network, demand and modelling scenarios was constructed in order to enable a
 12 systematic comparison of assignment model results in terms of passenger loads and travel
 13 times. The base case scenario corresponds to the assignment of the demand matrix in Figure 2
 14 to the example network with the respective vehicle capacities and line frequencies. The
 15 assignment was performed in VISUM and BusMezzo, in the presence and absence of capacity
 16 constraints, in order to investigate their influence (Section 5.1).

17 In addition to the base case scenario, the remaining scenarios were designed to test
 18 model performance under different demand levels and service capacity. The demand level
 19 was incrementally increased, testing the sensitivity to a progressively saturated network
 20 (Section 5.2). Alternatively, network saturation can emerge from a reduction in service
 21 capacity. The latter could arise from either a lower vehicle capacity or a reduction in service
 22 frequency. The consequences of an incremental decrease in either vehicle capacity or service
 23 frequency on passengers' distribution and network performance were investigated (Section
 24 5.3). All of these scenarios were simulated in both VISUM and BusMezzo [40].

25 **4.3 Implementation and Specification**

26 A systematic and meaningful model comparison requires a careful design of case study and
 27 model specifications that will ensure comparable application results as well as allow
 28 pinpointing the important modelling differences and their consequences. Hence, all modelling
 29 components were reviewed and were made as consistent as possible in order to focus on the
 30 differences in modeling on-board congestion effects and remove alternative modelling
 31 differences as much as possible.

32 Network supply is substantially simplified and is considered deterministic in order to
 33 allow a consistent and comparable implementation in both models. Although BusMezzo
 34 supports the modelling of traffic dynamics, vehicle scheduling and flow-dependent dwell
 times, the results of the case study would have been highly dependent on these sources of

1 uncertainty and the specification of these modelling components would hinder model
 2 comparability. All sources of randomness like delays or service disruptions were therefore
 3 removed from the network representation in BusMezzo, implying a perfectly reliable service.
 4 The representation of passenger information was unified to avoid inconsistencies.

5 In order to harmonize the two modelling approaches, the expected value of passenger
 6 waiting time in VISUM was computed as half the headway, assuming a random arrival
 7 process and given that transit supply is deterministic in this case study. This was implemented
 8 by assigning passengers in VISUM into sufficiently short desired departure time intervals of
 9 one minute so that the impedance due to departure adjustment is negligible. The penalty for
 10 departures earlier than the desired departure time was assigned with a very high impedance.
 11 Hence, passengers could only take a vehicle trip that departs later than their desired departure
 12 time. This implementation enables a comparison of model results while maintaining the trip
 13 departure time functionality in VISUM to allow passengers to adjust their departure time in
 14 response to crowding. The utility of an alternative path a for individual n at time τ is defined
 15 in VISUM (Eq. 1) and BusMezzo (Eq. 2) as follows:

$$17 \quad u_{a,n}^{VISUM} = \beta_a^{ivt} \cdot t_a^{ivt} \cdot f(v) + \beta_a^{walk} \cdot t_a^{walk} + \beta_a^{wait} \cdot t_a^{wait} + \beta_a^{trans} \cdot t_a^{trans} + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

$$18 \quad u_{a,n}^{BusMezzo}(\tau) = \beta_a^{ivt} \cdot t_a^{ivt} + \beta_a^{walk} \cdot t_a^{walk} + \beta_a^{wait} \cdot t_{a,n}^{wait}(\tau) + \beta_a^{trans} \cdot t_a^{trans} + \varepsilon \quad (2)$$

19
 20 | Where t_a^{ivt} , t_a^{walk} and $t_{a,n}^{wait}(\tau)$ are the in-vehicle, walking and waiting times, respectively.
 21 The in-vehicle and walking time are fixed and known a-priori in both models. This is also true
 22 for waiting times in the case of VISUM. In contrast, passenger waiting times in BusMezzo
 23 depend on the random arrival process and are therefore time-dependent and passenger-
 24 specific. The utility function in VISUM also incorporates $f(v)$, the respective crowding
 25 | multiplier, which depends on the expected passenger occupancy v (Figure 1). t_a^{trans} is the
 26 number of transfers and ε is an error term. The corresponding coefficients were assigned with
 27 | the following values: $\beta_a^{ivt} = -1$, $\beta_a^{walk} = -2$, $\beta_a^{wait} = -2$, $\beta_a^{trans} = -5$. The values of the
 28 coefficients are based on the commonly accepted values reported in the literature [41]. Fares
 29 are not considered a route choice determinant in this study. The multinomial Logit (MNL)
 30 model was applied in both models for computing the door-to-door path choice probabilities
 31 (VISUM) or each path decision involved in passenger movement (BusMezzo).

32 The simulation time was set to 3 hours, while passenger generation was restricted to
 33 1 hour to provide warm-up and clean-up periods. The OD-matrix was used as a uniform
 34 arrival rate at stops or split into even one-minute time slices in BusMezzo and VISUM,
 35 respectively. Since BusMezzo is a stochastic simulation model, the performance of each
 36 scenario needs to be evaluated based on the average results of several simulation runs. Based
 37 on the variations in average passenger travel time, 10 replications were found to yield a
 38 maximum allowable error of less than 0.5 %.

39 5. RESULTS

40 The analysis and comparison of scenario results are presented in the following sections. In
 41 particular, the implications of modelling approaches on mean travel time, transfer rates (the
 42 share of passengers whose selected path involves an interchange) and the underlying
 43 passenger load distribution are highlighted and discussed.

44 5.1 Base Case Scenarios

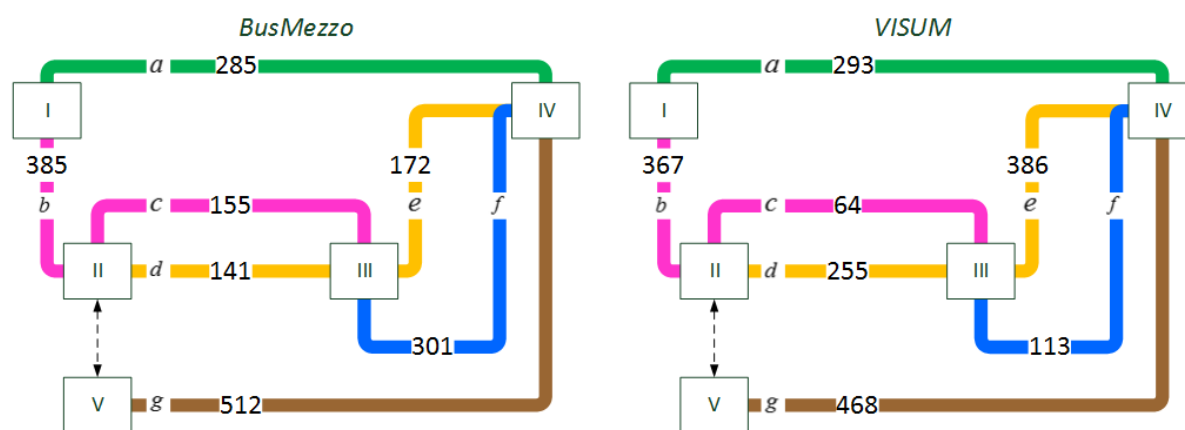
45 Table 2 summarizes the total travel time and transfer rate for the base case scenario. Total
 46 travel times consist of walking, waiting and in-vehicle travel times. The difference between
 47 the travel times obtained by the two models in the unconstrained scenario stems from the
 48 different representation of the passenger arrival process at stops. VISUM, which allows for

1 representing shadow waiting time, generates shorter travel times than those obtained from
 2 random arrival in BusMezzo. The average travel time of 16.8 min remains unchanged in
 3 BusMezzo when capacity constraints are enforced because the base case demand level does
 4 not provoke congestion effects in the form of denied boarding. Thus, the average transfer rate
 5 per passenger remains unchanged. However, crowding levels are sufficient to cause route
 6 choice adjustments in VISUM due to the increase in in-vehicle impedance invoked by the
 7 SFR function. This effect occurs because line 3 is the favorite alternative for passengers
 8 travelling from stop II to stop IV. The short travel time, however, is countered by the low
 9 frequency and the high occupancy rate. When congestion is considered, more passengers shift
 10 to the more frequent but slower line 5, resulting in a travel time increase and transfer rate
 11 decrease.

12 **TABLE 2 Summary of base case scenario results**

13

14 Travel times do not disclose the more substantial difference in assignment results in
 15 terms of passenger loads. While the two models yield similar loads on links a, b and g , which
 16 are fairly independent from the rest of the network, significant differences are observed for
 17 the remaining links as is evident in Figure 3. The two models lead to distinctively different
 18 loads on links that form a common corridor – links c, d , and e, f . The different distribution of
 19 passengers within each corridor stems from the different representation of passenger route
 20 choices. On both common corridors, the assignment involves choosing between a slow and
 21 frequent service (c, f) or a fast and infrequent service (d, e). BusMezzo assigns more
 22 passengers to the line with the higher frequency. The dynamic path choice model in
 23 BusMezzo provokes a boarding decision every time that a transit vehicle arrives at the stop.
 24 Each waiting passenger then takes a probabilistic decision based on the expected implications
 25 of boarding the vehicle versus waiting at the stop. Note that a high frequency line may trigger
 26 several boarding decisions before the first arrival of a low frequency line occurs. Hence, the
 27 probability that a passenger waits at the stop when the low frequency line finally arrives
 28 depends on the joint probability of successive decisions to stay. In contrast, route choice is
 29 performed pre-trip in VISUM. The choice-set generation process removes alternatives that
 30 involve longer in-vehicle times with both earlier departure time and later arrival time. This
 31 filtering rule implies that slow and frequent services are often dominated by fast and
 32 infrequent services and are thus removed from the choice-set. Furthermore, this trend is
 33 reinforced in the choice phase. Since the waiting time at the origin stop and the uncertainty
 34 are not considered in VISUM, model results favor fast and infrequent services over slow and
 35 frequent services, when compared with BusMezzo.



36
37

FIGURE 3 Assignment results of BusMezzo and VISUM for the base case scenario

1
2 The effect of load distribution can also be investigated in terms of the average vehicle
3 occupancy rate for each line-segment. The direct lines 1 and 5 (links a and g) are assigned
4 with a moderate occupancy level of approximately 50% and 70%, respectively, by both
5 models. These occupancy levels neither induce a decisive role for the congestion parameter in
6 VISUM nor for denied boarding in BusMezzo. In contrast, the corridor between stops II and
7 IV exhibits significant congestion effects that yield distinctively different results in VISUM
8 and BusMezzo. VISUM assigns to segment c passenger loads that are sometimes almost twice
9 as much as vehicle capacity allows for, whereas BusMezzo enforces capacity constraints and
10 passengers are retained to choosing alternative options.

11 In addition to the significant differences in passenger loads there are striking
12 differences between the transfer rates in VISUM and BusMezzo. In the unconstrained case,
13 the transfer rate in BusMezzo is 10 times higher than in VISUM. A closer investigation
14 revealed that this drastic difference arises from the different modelling approaches applied at
15 the choice-set generation phase. Whilst VISUM filters the choice-set by applying time-
16 dependent filtering rules based on the static timetable, BusMezzo maintains all reasonable
17 paths and then applies dynamic filtering rules upon passengers' decision. Furthermore,
18 VISUM removes path alternatives that induce transfer without the consideration of
19 uncertainties. Hence, alternatives that might become attractive under certain circumstances
20 (e.g. missed the designated bus trip) will have zero probability to be selected. In contrast,
21 BusMezzo assigns passengers to the paths that remain in the choice-set based on the
22 respective expected utilities. Since the paths that involve transfers happen to be more
23 congested in the case study network than the direct paths, rerouting in VISUM results with
24 fewer transfers in the constrained scenario.

25 **5.2 Demand Scenarios**

26 The sensitivity of the TAM to demand level was examined by incrementally increasing travel
27 demand either uniformly (5.1.1) or locally (5.2.2).

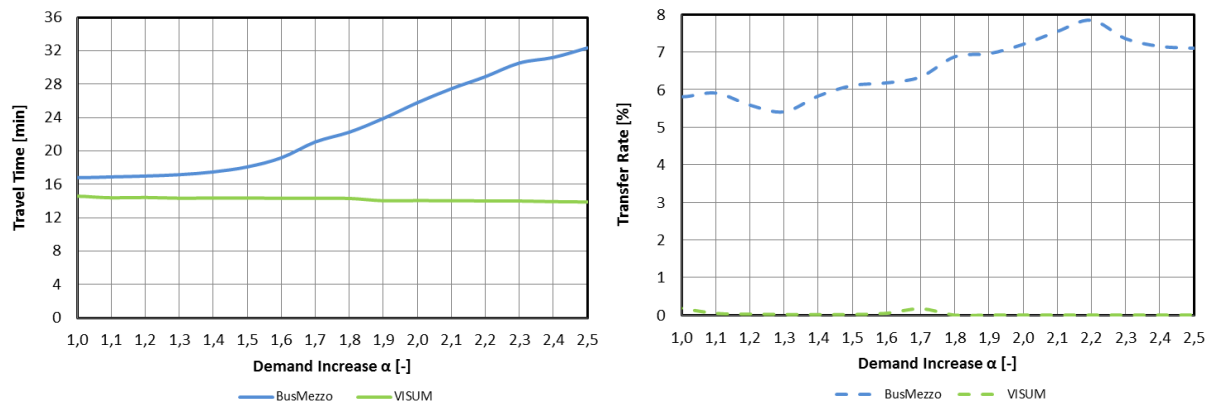
28 **5.2.1 Uniform Demand Increase**

29 The base case demand was incrementally increased in order to study the sensitivity of
30 assignment results and analyze TAM performance under an increasingly saturated network.
31 The passenger demand specified in the original OD-matrix was uniformly amplified by α
32 ranging between 1 and 2.5 with 0.1 intervals. This range of values was selected as it can
33 mimic the impact of the peak period demand. Figure 4 presents the total travel time and
34 transfer rate for each demand level in VISUM and BusMezzo.

35 It is evident that the results of VISUM are insensitive to changes in the demand level.
36 Even when demand is 2.5 times the base case, the average travel time is not affected and the
37 transfer rate remains almost zero, implying that the vast majority of passengers use a direct
38 line. Only limited rerouting takes place in the increased demand scenarios because the total
39 demand is amplified uniformly and hence there are only limited gains to be made by shifting
40 from one route to the other. The reasons for the low transfer rate were discussed in the
41 previous section. Hence, in-vehicle times are almost unaffected. Since any number of
42 passengers can theoretically be assigned to a vehicle in VISUM, waiting times are not
43 prolonged. Even though the impedance for the connection increases, it has marginal effects on
44 the passenger distribution because the congestion level increases equally across the network.
45 Furthermore, once the volume exceeds 200% of the desired capacity, the impedance becomes
46 constant (Figure 1).

47 A very different pattern can be observed when analyzing BusMezzo results. Total
48 travel times increase first slowly for $\alpha = [1; 1.4]$ and then increase sharply when demand

1 increases by 40-70% followed by a milder monotonous increase for higher increases in
 2 demand levels. This increase is primarily attributed to the longer travel times inflicted by
 3 denied boarding. The transfer share fluctuates with a generally increasing trend as demand
 4 increases. This trend emerges, as passengers that fail to board are more likely to switch to
 5 substituting indirect paths.



6
 7 **FIGURE 4 Average travel time (left) and average transfer rate (right) under increased**
 8 **demand**

9 5.2.2 Demand Increase for a Selected OD-pair

10 A single travel demand relation, travelling from stop I to stop IV, was selected for further
 11 investigation. This relation was selected because it provides a number of relevant travel
 12 alternatives for travelers to choose from. Line 1 (green) offers a high frequency and direct
 13 connection. In saturated cases, Line 2 (pink) and transferring to Line 3 (yellow) at stop II or
 14 III offers a fast connection. At stop III passengers can also transfer to Line 4 (blue) which is
 15 slower but more frequent. Finally, passengers can also make a short walk between stops II and
 16 V and take Line 5 (brown).

17 The load distribution results on line segments are presented in Figure 5. The color
 18 represents the line number using the same scheme as in Figure 2. Solid lines stand for the first
 19 line segment and dashed lines for the subsequent segment. In order to provoke congestion
 20 effects, the base case OD-matrix was uniformly multiplied by $\alpha = 1.5$. The demand on the
 21 selected OD-pair varied by β ranging between 0.5 and 3.0 with 0.1 intervals using the
 22 modified demand matrix.

23 Due to the absolute vehicle capacity restriction in BusMezzo, lines can only absorb
 24 the increasing demand until the vehicle capacity limit is reached. Since the network is already
 25 close to capacity limits, the share of passengers travelling with Line 1 increases only for
 26 $\beta = [0.5, 1.6]$. Beyond this demand level, additional passengers are simply forced to wait for
 27 the next approaching vehicle, or even worse, passengers are not able to board any vehicle,
 28 have to wait, and never arrive at their destination within the analysis period.

29 Unlike its insensitivity to a uniform demand increase, assignment results in VISUM
 30 are sensitive to a discriminate demand increase. Similar to BusMezzo, Line 1 absorbs the
 31 increasing number of passengers when β is within the range of $[0.5, 1.0]$. When demand
 32 exceeds this level, the congestion-dependent impedance for Line 1 reaches a critical level and
 33 passengers start shifting to alternative routes using the first segment of Line 2 and transfer at
 34 stop II to Line 3. The share of passengers transferring to Line 3 peaks at $\beta = 1.4$ and then
 35 abruptly decreases as passengers shift to continuing with Line 2 to stop III to remain seated
 36 and thus minimize the perceived on-board time. At stop III passengers switch to the fast
 37 infrequent Line 3 because of the shorter travel time it offers in comparison to Line 4. Even
 38 when the demand level exceeds $\beta = 1.5$, the short travel time and the high capacity of Line 3
 39 are more attractive than the frequent but much slower Line 4 which offers less capacity. Since

- 1 VISUM absorbs any demand assigned, all passengers are assumed to reach their destination
 2 within the analysis period without accounting for passengers that are possibly left behind.

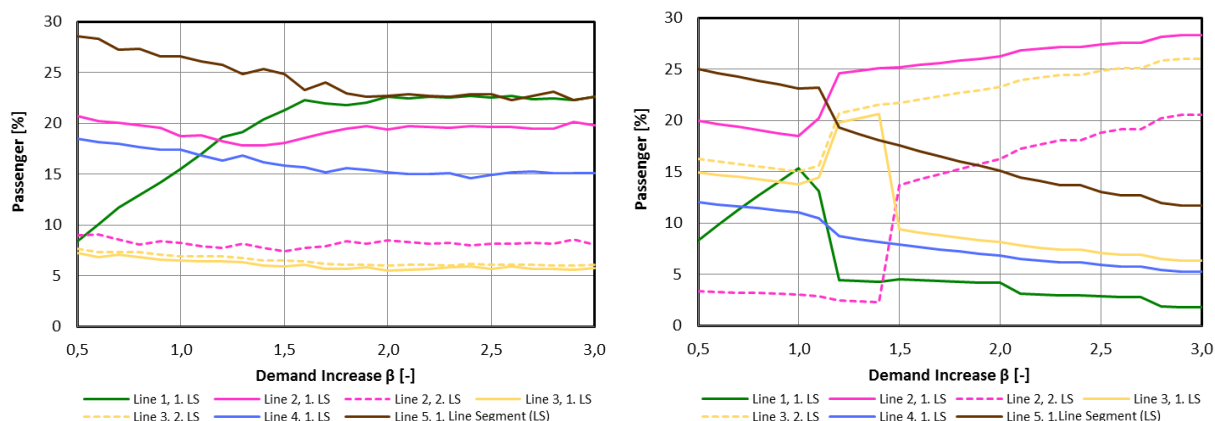


FIGURE 5 Load distribution share on line segments for BusMezzo (left) and VISUM (right)

5.3 Reduced Capacity Scenarios

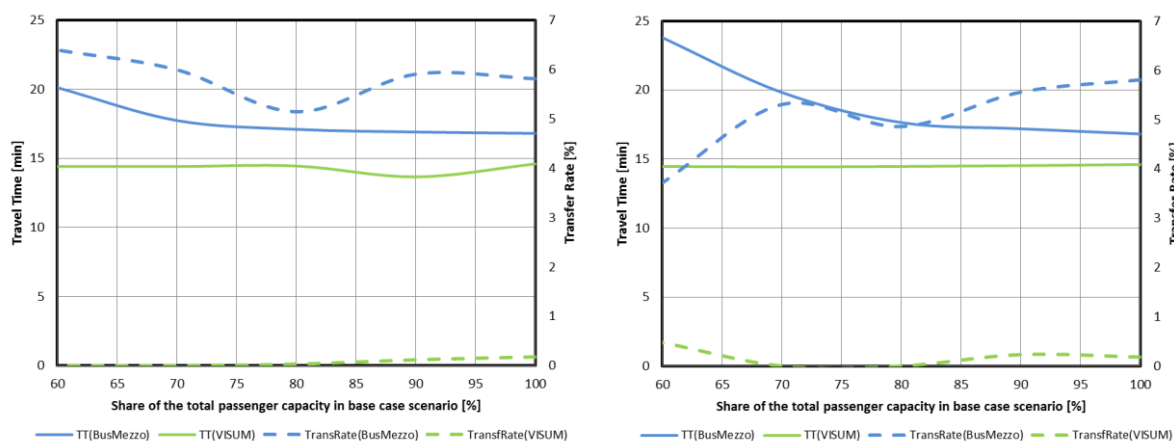
The demand that a transit network can absorb depends primarily on the number of vehicle trips and their corresponding capacities. A set of reduced capacity scenarios was designed and simulated to examine the sensitivity of the assignment models to an increasing saturation due to limited network capacity. First, the vehicle capacities specified in the base case (Figure 2) were incrementally reduced down to 60% of the original level with 10% intervals rounding to the closest discrete value. Second, service frequencies were similarly reduced down to 60% with 10% intervals where frequencies were rounded to the closest minute. Passenger arrival pattern is assumed random in all scenarios for comparison reasons although lower frequencies may lead to a shift into a more coordinated arrival pattern.

Figure 6 displays the average passenger travel time (left horizontal axis) and transfer rate (right horizontal axis) for reduced vehicle capacity scenarios (left) and reduced service frequency scenarios (right). The general pattern observed in the increased demand scenarios (Figure 4) is also apparent in Figure 6 albeit with more fluctuations. Total travel time is almost constant and transfer rates remain very low in VISUM for all scenarios. Minor fluctuations occur due to changes in transfer coordination that incidentally influence the impedance associated with a non-direct connection when evaluating time-dependent paths in the choice-set generation and choice phases. The decrease in transfer rate under reduced vehicle capacity scenarios is caused by the overcrowding and the non-linear increase in impedance associated with it on link f which deters passengers travelling from I to IV from transferring.

Total travel times in BusMezzo follow a monotonically increasing function for decreasing capacities. The travel time increase becomes steeper for lower capacities and the increase is steeper when capacity reduction is driven by frequency reduction than if driven by vehicle capacity reduction. While both capacity reductions lead to an increasing number of passengers experiencing denied boarding, frequency reduction has an additional effect on prolonging passengers initial waiting times as well as the waiting time for subsequent vehicles.

Interestingly, transfer rates in BusMezzo follow a non-monotonic function with a generally increasing trend for lower vehicle capacities and a generally decreasing trend for lower frequencies. The former resembles the trend for increasing demand levels as it is caused by passengers that fail to board and switch to a more complex path. Unlike vehicle capacity

1 reduction, frequency reduction influences not only the dynamics of the path choice process
 2 but also the initial choice as passengers incorporate expectations about downstream waiting
 3 times, thus discouraging transfers. Moreover, the properties of the MNL choice model imply
 4 that everything else being equal, a uniform reduction in frequencies leads to a rise in the share
 5 of passengers choosing more frequent services. Since in this network example direct and
 6 slower paths are also more frequent, passengers are more inclined to choose direct lines under
 7 reduced frequency scenarios.



8

9 **FIGURE 6 Travel time and transfer rate under: reduced vehicle capacity (left) and**
 10 **reduced service frequency (right)**

11 6. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

12 This paper reviewed and compared alternative approaches for modelling on-board congestion
 13 in transit networks. In particular, the congestion-related functionalities of a schedule-based
 14 model, VISUM, and an agent-based TAM, BusMezzo, were studied. Based on the comparison
 15 of theoretical foundations and the analysis of their performance under a range of scenarios,
 16 practical and modelling implications are discussed in the following sub-sections.

17 6.1 Practical Implications and Recommendations

18 Decision makers and analysts should be aware of the capabilities and shortcomings of the
 19 TAM used when evaluating different scenarios and their implications on assignment results.
 20 Modelling assumptions and functionalities have to be carefully reviewed before selecting the
 21 most appropriate model for a specific network and application. This is especially true when
 22 the passenger loads predicted by the TAM are used as a basis for service design and capacity
 23 allocation decisions. An inadequate model selection and results interpretation could
 24 potentially result in a poor capacity utilization and contributing further to congestion effects.
 25 For example, models for strict capacity constraints can better cater for highly saturated
 26 networks, whereas networks characterized by high temporal variations in demand levels
 27 should be studied using models that consider departure time choices.

28 The evaluation of investments to increase capacity and measures to relieve
 29 congestion requires models that can capture their network effects and the corresponding
 30 passengers' adaptation. While none of the existing models captures the full range of
 31 congestion effects and related behavioural responses, each model can support certain planning
 32 decisions. Due to its capability to model departure time adjustments, schedule-based models
 33 are more suitable for assessing long-term investments as long as the network can absorb the
 34 forecasted demand level. Furthermore, a model such as VISUM is especially suitable when
 35 departure time adjustments are important. This is for example the case of designing a low-
 36 frequency feeder service to a railway network, networks with low connectivity that rely on

1 scheduled transfers, or where passengers choose between a frequent local service and an
 2 infrequent express service. In contrast, agent-based models are potentially better equipped to
 3 capture service reliability, overcrowding and en-route decisions. These are particularly
 4 relevant for public transport systems that operate close to capacity and experience crush loads.
 5 An model that enforces strict capacity constraints such as BusMezzo is essential for capturing
 6 congestion effects in public transport systems that are highly saturated. BusMezzo is
 7 particularly suitable for modelling dense networks that offer many route choice alternatives
 8 and where transfers play an important role, such as the core of metropolitan networks. In
 9 addition, agent-based TAM are well-positioned to model the congestion impacts of tactical
 10 and operational measures such as vehicle layout, timetable design, control strategies and
 11 information provision as well as service disruptions.

12 The results suggest that differences in modelling the passenger arrival process, the
 13 choice-set generation and the route choice, yield with systematically different passenger
 14 loads. In practice, model parameters such as utility function coefficients have to be estimated
 15 and calibrated based on local conditions. Assignment results will greatly depend on the trade-
 16 offs assumed between travel time components and the role of congestion in passenger
 17 decisions. VISUM assigned passengers to infrequent but fast and direct lines when compared
 18 to BusMezzo. Furthermore, the former is insensitive to a uniform increase in demand or
 19 decrease in capacity when caused by either vehicle capacity or service frequency reduction.
 20 While the generalized travel time increases due to discomfort, passengers' distribution and
 21 travel times remain unaffected even in highly saturated networks. This stems from the limited
 22 rerouting invoked and the unconstrained capability of vehicles to absorb any number of
 23 passengers. In contrast, total travel times increase monotonically in BusMezzo as demand
 24 increases or capacity decreases. The marginal increase in travel time increases as the network
 25 becomes more saturated. An increase in a specific demand relation may lead to abrupt
 26 changes in passenger loads in VISUM as opposed to the gradual route shift in BusMezzo.
 27 Although frequency and vehicle capacity reduction scenarios may yield the same overall
 28 capacity reduction, they result in different assignment results in the agent-based model due to
 29 their distinctive implications on dynamic rerouting and waiting times.

30 **6.2 Modelling Implications and Outlook**

31 There is currently no TAM that fully captures the three on-board congestion effects –
 32 discomfort, capacity constraints and service reliability. Each of the existing models captures
 33 only part of the on-board congestion effects in transit systems. VISUM models the potential
 34 day-to-day departure time and route choice adjustments due to discomfort (and implicit
 35 capacity constraints). BusMezzo represents the within-day implications of congestion by
 36 enforcing strict capacity constraints and modelling load variations due to service irregularity.
 37 As indicated in the literature review, recent developments in the schedule-based TAM domain
 38 allows guaranteeing that capacity constraints are binding at the individual vehicle level and
 39 that queuing and sitting priorities are respected. Future studies may examine the properties of
 40 the latest developments which are not yet available in commercial software. Similarly, the
 41 comparison performed in this paper could be further extended by considering also a
 42 frequency-based model and applying alternative models to a real-size network. In order to test
 43 models validity, future research should apply alternative TAM to a real-world network and
 44 compare model results with empirical passenger flow data.

45 Even though many real-world public transport systems include a combination of high
 46 and low frequency services, there is ,to the best of our knowledge, no hybrid TAM.
 47 Developing such a model is in our opinion an important approach for future research. In
 48 particular, special attention needs to be given to trips that involve transferring from high
 49 frequency to low-frequency services due to the implications on departure time choice. The

1 combination of TAM and traffic simulation models, such as in the case of BusMezzo,
 2 facilitates the modelling of on-road congestion effects, in particular in the case of mixed-
 3 traffic. Moreover, models that belong to the same overarching approach might vary
 4 substantially in their congestion-related capabilities. The advantages of several models could
 5 be integrated into project appraisal, as was recently demonstrated in evaluating the benefits of
 6 a metro line extension in Stockholm, Sweden [35].

7 The shortcomings of contemporary TAM urge for the development of more
 8 elaborated representation of congestion phenomena. Future research should take into account
 9 all congestion effects – discomfort, denied boarding and reliability – and their emergence.
 10 Agent-based approaches enable the dynamic modelling of passenger flows on-board vehicles
 11 and at stops to better capture priority regimes [42]. The integration of within-day dynamics
 12 with an iterative day-to-day network loading will enable the representation of variations in
 13 congestion between service elements as well as different levels of passenger choices. For
 14 example, Kim et al. [43] demonstrated how the metro car choice can be modelled to
 15 reproduce the uneven distribution of passengers over metro trains. The latter further increases
 16 the experienced crowding level. Passengers' response to congestion also depends on their
 17 expectations and cultural preferences. Raveau et al. [44] found that travellers in Santiago have
 18 greater tolerance towards crowding than their counterparts in London. Further research on
 19 passengers' behavior, perceived congestion and degree of adaptation will enable the
 20 modelling of congestion effects and their interaction across network elements, beyond merely
 21 on-board congestion.

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1 **TABLE 2 Comparing modelling features in VISUM and BusMezzo**

	Modelling feature	VISUM	BusMezzo
Supply	Service provision	Deterministic	Stochastic
	Traffic dynamics	Macroscopic	Mesoscopic
	Mixed-fleet composition	X	X
	Line-segment/ individual run representation	Individual	Individual
	Vehicle scheduling		X
	Service delays, incidents		X
	Control strategies		X
	Capacity constraints		X
	Flow-dependent dwell time		X
Demand	Generation Process	Deterministic	Stochastic
	OD-level with connectors (walking links)	X	X
	Random taste variation		X
	Passenger flows/travellers representation	Flows	Individual
	Choice model	Deterministic	Stochastic
	Passenger prior-knowledge	Timetable	Frequencies
	Real-time information provision		X
	Adaptive en-route choices		X
	Day-to-day learning	X	*
Path choice determinants	Fare	X	
	Access time	X	X
	Access stop waiting time	**	X
	In-vehicle time	X	X
	Transfer walk and waiting time	X	X
	Number of transfers	X	X
	Egress time	X	X
	Departure time choice (hidden waiting time)	X	
	Mode specific constant	X	
	Discomfort because of crowding	X	

* recently implemented

** waiting time at the access stop is assumed to be zero as it is transferred into hidden waiting time through departure time choice adjustments

2

3

1 **TABLE 2 Summary of base case scenario results**

	Average total travel time		Average transfer rate	
	VISUM [min]	BusMezzo [min]	VISUM [%]	BusMezzo [%]
Unconstrained Capacity	13.3	16.8	0.58	5.8
Constrained Capacity	14.6	16.8	0.18	5.8

2