

1 **Making Headways: An Analysis of Smart Cards and Bus Dwell Time in Los Angeles**

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**1 ABSTRACT**

2 This report provides an analysis of smart card fare payment systems and their relationship to dwell  
3 time of Los Angeles Metropolitan Transportation Authority (Metro) buses. First, the primary  
4 determinants of dwell time are discussed through a review of existing literature and research. Then,  
5 I use data collected from automatic passenger counter (APC) and automatic fare payment (AFC)  
6 systems to estimate a regression model of dwell time with Metro's smart card fare payment system  
7 relative to other factors. Variables such as passenger boarding and alighting, wheelchairs, bicycles,  
8 vehicle configuration, and service type are also examined and compared to the dependent variable.

9 An ordinary least squares regression model estimated with these variables explains 45  
10 percent of the variance in dwell time. Statistically significant coefficients show that smart cards  
11 contribute roughly two seconds per person, while cash or other media contribute about four  
12 seconds. Using a smart card to purchase a pass or stored value at the farebox contributed about  
13 eight seconds. While smart cards contribute less to dwell time than other forms of fare payment,  
14 they are not the strongest determinant overall. An articulated bus, for example, reduces dwell time  
15 by three seconds on average, and as much as 13 seconds in crowded conditions; similarly,  
16 wheelchair boarding and alighting add as much as 35 seconds. These findings suggest that smart  
17 cards can be instrumental in managing delay at stops, but are best used with other strategies.

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

2 Proponents of electronic ticketing systems claim that smart cards such as Metro’s Transit Access  
3 Pass (TAP) can decrease the amount of time transit vehicles spend at stops while processing  
4 boarding passengers, or “dwell time.” Because of many factors – an abundance of passengers,  
5 Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) requirements, or congestion – dwell time can vary  
6 considerably. Long dwell times can degrade schedule adherence, cause delays, and cultivate a  
7 negative perception of transit as slow and unreliable. Long dwell times also contribute to longer  
8 runtimes, which increase the cost of service because more buses are required to maintain consistent  
9 headways. While a given amount of dwell time is accounted for in scheduling, transit agencies are  
10 very concerned with reducing the variance in dwell time to the extent possible because the  
11 marginal cost of extra transit service is very high, particularly during peak hours.

12 Although it is just one of the many aspects that determine the length of dwell times,  
13 electronic fare payment is thought to help schedule adherence by streamlining fare collection. In  
14 this way, TAP cards could possibly reduce the amount of time each person spends paying their  
15 fare. All things being equal, a passenger may save time by simply touching his or her TAP card to  
16 a validator rather than sliding dollar bills and coins into the fare box. Despite the fact that even the  
17 longest time spent paying fare may amount to a quarter of a minute, multiplying a few seconds of  
18 time savings per patron over hundreds of bus runs by thousands of stops serving tens of thousands  
19 of passengers could contribute a great deal to schedule adherence, service quality, and travel times.

20 The objective of this research is to examine the effect of TAP card usage on bus dwell  
21 times. I hypothesize that higher ratios of TAP cards to cash fare payments per stop will result in  
22 shorter dwell times overall because of the reduced fare processing times per person with TAP. My  
23 analysis relies on a number of tests conducted on automatically generated data, and indeed finds  
24 statistically significant reductions in bus dwell time associated with higher TAP card usage. Using  
25 linear regression analysis to statistically control for other factors known to influence dwell times,  
26 I find that fares paid with a TAP card contribute less to dwell time than other, non-TAP  
27 transactions, *ceteris paribus*.

28 However, the influence of TAP card usage on dwell times is not as strong as for other  
29 factors analyzed in my model. In addition, I observe that the effect of TAP card usage on dwell  
30 times appears to erode appreciably in crowded conditions. In other words, if reducing dwell times  
31 were the only, or even the primary, goal of implementing TAP cards – which is decidedly not the  
32 case – there are likely more cost-effective ways to reduce dwell times – such as all-door boarding  
33 at high-volume stops and stations.

34

## 35 CONTEXT AND PRIOR WORK

36 Researchers have identified a litany of factors that can influence the variability of dwell time, and  
37 as a result the policies, procedures, and even transit vehicles have changed over time to reduce  
38 delay at stops. Before the literature on the determinants of dwell time is examined, I first define  
39 what dwell time is and then place it conceptually in the context of bus transit route capacity. Next,  
40 I define the determinants of dwell time, and then explore relevant research findings for each.

41 Transit agency staff often regard dwell time as a factor of delay that is most within their  
42 influence, so there is a well-developed literature on the factors that most affect dwell time and  
43 dwell time variance. Accordingly, I draw on this work in developing my findings outlined later in  
44 the report, as well as in developing my research methodology. However, analysis using  
45 automatically generated data is relatively new, so I could find only a few articles that analyzed  
46 extremely large datasets on dwell times. Thus, beyond its immediate relevance for Metro, this

1 research also seeks to fill a gap in the literature concerning the role of smart cards in dwell time  
2 variability; I do this by testing a process for combining two datasets that do not have a pre-defined  
3 relationship, which I explain further in the methodology section.

#### 4 **Definition of Dwell Time**

5 The Transit Capacity and Quality of Service Manual (TCQM), published by the Transit  
6 Cooperative Research Program (TCRP) offers the definition of dwell time as “the amount of time  
7 a transit vehicle spends at stops and stations serving passenger movements” (1) as well as the time  
8 from the beginning of this sequence of movements to the end: bus arrives at stop, doors open,  
9 passengers embark/disembark, doors close, and bus departure (2).

10 According to the TCQM, dwell time is a function of passenger volume, fare payment  
11 method, vehicle type and size, and circulation of passengers within the vehicle (3). Within the  
12 realm of passenger activity, fare collection is a major determinant of dwell time (4). However, the  
13 role of smart cards is not mentioned explicitly and the strength of the relationship between their  
14 use and dwell times is not estimated.

15 While past dwell time studies were carried out through manual observation, (5) advances  
16 in automatic vehicle location (AVL) and automatic passenger counter (APC) technologies enable  
17 researchers to leverage vast amounts of data to analyze many thousands of dwell time observations,  
18 along with other variables, for more nuanced analyses.

#### 19 **Passenger Volumes and Load**

20 Many researchers have proven the correlation between passenger volume and dwell time.  
21 Milkovits (6), Lin and Wilson (7), Rajbhandari, Chien, and Daniel (8), and Deuker, et al. (9),  
22 estimate a model for the dwell time of transit vehicles based on passenger activity. In addition to  
23 finding a positive correlation between passenger volumes and dwell times, all three found that that  
24 existing vehicle passenger load factors prior to arriving at the stop are correlated with longer than  
25 normal dwell times.

#### 26 **Service Type**

27 Some research has shown that dwell times tend to differ based on whether the type of service was  
28 local (makes frequent stops serving only one or two passengers at each) or a limited-stop service  
29 (sometimes called “express” or “rapid” service, which makes fewer stops but serves more people  
30 at each, in order to move more quickly). Fernández, et al. (10) calculated a dwell time model based  
31 on observations of the bus transit network in Santiago, Chile. They found that trunk lines operating  
32 with high demand, low-floor vehicles, and less frequent stops, boarding time per person increases  
33 when there are more than 15 people in line. On feeder services, the boarding time is slower, and if  
34 there are many people, the boarding time slows even further. The differences between limited-stop  
35 express routes and local routes with many stops are accounted for in this research by examining  
36 the two different types of bus service separately.

#### 37 **Vehicle Configuration and Passenger Circulation**

38 Configuration of the transit vehicle itself can allow for easier passenger movement in times of  
39 crowding thereby allowing patrons to board the bus more quickly. Daamen, et al. (11) and  
40 Fernández, et al. (12) conducted live experiments using a mock transit vehicle and platform. They  
41 found that dwell times associated with passenger crowding were correlated with door size and also  
42 whether or not the passenger had luggage. Fernández, et al. found that, in almost every case, wider

1 doors had a significant effect on reducing boarding and alighting times; with wider doors, platform  
2 height had a very small effect on boarding and alighting times (13). Deuker, et al., also found that  
3 low-floor busses had shorter dwell times, *ceteris paribus* (14).

4 Aashtiani and Iravani (15) focused on how the layout of the transit vehicle could improve  
5 passenger circulation and reduce crowding on the vehicle. The models they developed successfully  
6 estimated bus dwell times by accounting for both the design of the bus and in-vehicle passenger  
7 congestion, supporting the notion that dwell times are affected by not only passenger movement,  
8 but also by existing passenger loads prior to the stop. Larger vehicles with more doors were also  
9 found to deal with passenger congestion more effectively.

## 10 **Fare Payment Procedures**

11 Generally, paying with cash is the slowest method of all fare payment procedures because of the  
12 time it takes to assemble the correct amount of money and then to insert it into the farebox (16). It  
13 is also one of the dwell time determinants that is most within control of a transit agency (17). Until  
14 recently, non-cash fare payments were either a proof-of-payment system wherein customers  
15 bought a fare before entering the bus, or “flash passes” that allowed a customer to board after the  
16 driver visually inspects the pass. Now, new technologies allow for smart cards that can store a  
17 variety of passes and cash value to pay for a trip. Theoretically, this could enable passengers to  
18 board the bus faster than by paying in cash. Research concerning the relationship between smart  
19 cards and dwell is relatively new because data has only recently become available. However, a  
20 small number of existing studies attempt to quantify it.

21 First, the TCQM reports that, based on manual observations, the average service time  
22 involving a smart card is 3.5 seconds, whereas paying cash for the fare is 4.0 seconds (18). A  
23 shorter processing time per passenger implies that the higher smart card usage would result in a  
24 shorter dwell time. Iseki et al. (19) undertook a meta-analysis of the cost-benefit reports from three  
25 transit agencies in the United States that are implementing smart card fare payment systems. The  
26 analysis was concerned with quantifying some of the often-reported but mostly unquantified  
27 benefits of smart cards, including decreased fare payment time. The authors found that fare-  
28 processing time was reported to be a definitive benefit of smart card systems, and in particular  
29 discovered that Metro experienced an improved average fare processing time of 2.27 seconds  
30 compared to 3.07 seconds for a non-smart card transaction (20).

31 Fernández, et al. found that fare payment methods had a significant effect on dwell times,  
32 but the effect was smaller than door size. On-board smart card payment reduced times by 10 to 35  
33 percent while off-board pre-payment (proof-of-purchase) reduced boarding times by 25 to 45  
34 percent (21). Milkovits (22) conducted a study to model the determinants of dwell time and their  
35 significance using automatically generated bus transit data. Among other factors, he modeled the  
36 role of smart cards specifically. His findings indicate that the time savings difference in using  
37 smart media fare cards over magnetic stripe cards is only significant when buses are not crowded  
38 due to standing passengers restricting prompt boarding.

39 To summarize, prior work has found that passenger volumes, service type, vehicle  
40 configuration, and fare payment procedures all have important roles in determining the length and  
41 variability of bus dwell time. The relative influence of smart cards, however, has not been  
42 investigated in much detail. Additionally, the use of automatically-generated transit data are just  
43 beginning to allow for rigorous statistical analyses with very large sample sizes. Drawing on the  
44 research literature to inform the selection of variables and methodology for analysis of large,  
45 computer generated data, I attempt in this analysis to fill the gap of knowledge regarding smart

1 card systems and their effects on dwell time. My data pre-processing, variable construction, and  
2 calculations rely extensively on the prior work discussed in this section.

### 3 4 **METHODOLOGY**

5 To conduct this research I use transit data generated from on-board systems to estimate a regression  
6 of Metro bus dwell times, with the goal of determining the effect of smart card fare collection  
7 relative to other factors. By using ordinary least squares regression to statistically control for a  
8 wide array of factors thought to affect dwell times – rather than examining TAP card usage  
9 irrespective of these other factors – I am able to leverage massive volumes of available data to  
10 estimate the independent effect of TAP card usage on dwell times, and easily attain statistically  
11 significant findings.

12 The data provided by Metro are very rich, and allows for a range of controls to account for  
13 the many other factors that influence dwell time. The trade-off, however, for such a large sample  
14 size is a lack of fidelity associated with malfunctioning hardware. Accounting for this required  
15 numerous pre-processing steps. Along with a description of the data itself, this section provides  
16 the justification for route and sample size, exclusions, pre-processing, and variable selection.

### 17 **Data Sources**

18 Metro provided Universal Farebox System (UFS) and Automatic Passenger Counter (APC) data  
19 from March 3 to March 16, 2014. March was selected because of the relatively few holidays and  
20 special service days during that time. Because prior work suggests that limited-stop services have  
21 different dwell times than local services (23), two contrasting Metro bus lines were selected for  
22 analysis: a limited-service, low ridership neighborhood route (Local Route 120) and a high-  
23 volume, high frequency rapid route (Rapid Route 720).

24 The two primary sources of information are the Automatic Passenger Counter (APC)  
25 system and Unified Farebox System (UFS). The APC records the number of passengers who board  
26 and alight from the bus at a given stop and the number of passengers onboard the bus after it  
27 departs from a stop. The APC also contains information about the physical characteristics of the  
28 vehicle such as number of seats, direction of travel, and the geographic coordinates of the bus at  
29 each stop. The UFS records fare box transactions, including TAP card and cash payments.  
30 Additionally, bus operators use it to record some non-fare payment activity such as bicycle and  
31 wheelchair loadings. While the UFS automatically generates fare payment records when they are  
32 received, the operator is responsible for noting all other records in a timely fashion. However, as  
33 with any system dependent on human action, this does not always occur as it should. Finally, while  
34 cash payments are recognized by the system, it cannot determine which fare the cash was for until  
35 the operator classifies it. For example, if a passenger pays the Senior/Disabled fare of 75 cents, the  
36 UFS will not recognize it as such until the transaction is classified “S/D Fare” by the operator.  
37 Otherwise, it remains unclassified.

38 The TAP card data contain information about the type of fare media used and the status of  
39 the transaction, which could be either a “sale” or “use” depending on whether the passenger was  
40 purchasing a card with pass or fare while boarding or expending a fare already stored on the card.  
41 It is important to note that fare products such as day passes can be purchased from the fare box on  
42 a TAP card. It is possible, and perhaps likely, that such a transaction may take longer than simply  
43 using the TAP card. Fortunately, these transactions are recorded separately in the data.

44 Because the UFS and APC systems are not explicitly linked, there are significant obstacles  
45 to relating them. Without a shared key index, there is no direct way to associate a given APC  
46 record with a UFS record. Dwell time and fare payment information were thus joined on the basis

1 of date and time, using vehicle identification number as a control to prevent the possibility of two  
2 records being matched temporally, but not geographically. If a fare record was generated between  
3 the dwell time of a given stop, and the vehicle ID number is a match, those records are related in  
4 my data.

5 The lack of direct connection also gives rise to the possibility that their clocks are not  
6 synchronized. While the APC derives the time from the global position system (GPS), the UFS is  
7 updated only when its data are downloaded at the bus facility, which is scheduled to happen nightly  
8 but may not always occur. Since the UFS clock is not updated throughout the day, it may slowly  
9 fall out of line with the APC. Adding further uncertainty is the fact that the computer that stores  
10 the UFS data and updates the clock may itself be incorrect. If the time is not consistent across the  
11 APC and UFS, then their data may be incorrectly associated by my methodology. A time  
12 differential could be calculated to account for this, however if the system clocks are  
13 unsynchronized it would be on a bus-by-bus and day-by-day basis. Systematic differentials for the  
14 entire sample would be impossible to estimate from manual observation because the data are just  
15 over a year old at the time of this writing.

16 Extending the time frame used for establishing a relationship between dwell time and fare  
17 payment could help to account for clock-related discrepancies. Also, UFS, wheelchair, or bicycle  
18 records may be created after the bus operator closes the doors, meaning that they are not clearly  
19 associated with a stop because the time stamp falls outside of the dwell time. Many UFS records  
20 rely on the operator to manually enter data, so this may occur if the operator closes the doors before  
21 all the passengers completed boarding; or if the operator tallies a bicycle before or after cycling  
22 the doors; or if the operator tallies a wheelchair before or after cycling the doors. In order to account  
23 these situations, a grace period of fifteen seconds after the door closed was added to each dwell  
24 time observation. Then, a fare box, bicycle, or wheelchair record that is created between the door  
25 opening time and the end of the grace period are related to that stop. An additional variable was  
26 created that counts the number of fare records (not including bicycles or wheelchairs) that occur  
27 between the door closing time and the grace period to account for the effect of passengers in the  
28 process of paying fare after the doors have closed.

29 Metro's Service Performance Analysis (SPA) group purged the data of most erroneous  
30 records before releasing it to me. This purge included consolidating instances of APC records  
31 where the doors cycled in rapid succession and removing records that were obviously created by  
32 malfunctioning hardware. I was not provided with the raw data, so it is not possible to determine  
33 how these changes may have affected the result of the analyses.

34 Finally, the APC dwell time calculation I use in this study is not consistent with the  
35 literature; in my data, dwell time is the difference between the doors fully opening and the doors  
36 fully closing, while the TCQM definition includes arrival and departure times. The Automatic  
37 Vehicle Location (AVL) coordinates embedded in the APC data are not precise enough to measure  
38 those movements. However, because this research is concerned with the effect that smart cards  
39 have on dwell time as it relates to passenger activity, and given that decelerating into and  
40 accelerating out of stop is not thought to be affected by smart card use, I find this discrepancy  
41 acceptable.

## 42 **Exclusions**

43 Dwell time records with a passenger service time below a half-second were excluded from my  
44 sample to account for malfunctioning APC units. To further account for malfunctioning equipment  
45 or misreported data, records of stops with dwell times of zero were also excluded. Often, these  
46 records had no indication of boarding or alighting passengers.

1 Sometimes, buses may wait with the door open at layover or terminal stops, leading to a  
2 longer dwell time not associated with passenger activity. Therefore any record generated at a  
3 known time point, layover, or terminal stop was deleted.

4 Remaining outliers were excluded by deleting records with a dwell time longer than 180  
5 seconds (3 minutes). While occasionally very high numbers of passenger boardings could account  
6 for dwell times greater than three minutes, it is far more likely that such lengthy dwells are due to  
7 atypical circumstances, such as operator-passenger conflicts.

8 After excluding over 25,000 records, the sample size remains quite large with 540,407 fare  
9 payment records and 99,453 dwell time records across 342 operators and 187 vehicles.

## 11 ANALYSIS

12 Descriptive analysis of the variables reveals trends and establishes context of the transit operating  
13 environment. Here, I define the variables and explore their relationships to each other. Differences  
14 in means t-tests establish whether and to what extent the variables have a statistically significant  
15 relationship to dwell time. A multivariate ordinary least squares (OLS) linear regression model is  
16 then estimated to highlight the relative importance of a TAP card for dwell and passenger service  
17 time while controlling for other factors. The OLS regression is run for the whole sample and for a  
18 subset of the sample characterized by high passenger crowding. Table 1 below shows a summary  
19 of the variables considered in the regression and a short description of their origin.  
20

**TABLE 1 Variable Descriptions**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Description</b>
Dwell Time	<i>A dependent variable. Time between doors opening and doors closing.</i>
Passenger Service Time	<i>Time necessary for boarding and fare processing per person, calculated as dwell time divided by boarding passengers.</i>
Ons (no UFS)	<i>The number of boarding passengers when they are greater than the number of UFS transactions at each stop.</i>
Offs (Offs > Ons)	<i>The number of alighting passengers when they are greater than boarding passengers.</i>
TAP Fare	<i>The number of UFS transactions involving a TAP card for fare payment or pass use.</i>
Non-TAP Fare	<i>The number of UFS transactions not involving a TAP card.</i>
TAP (Sale of Stored Value or Pass)	<i>The number of UFS transactions involving a TAP card for purchase of stored fare value or pass.</i>
Fares in Grace Period	<i>Number of UFS transactions that occurred during the door grace period (15 seconds after closing).</i>
Wheelchairs	<i>Number of boarding or alighting wheelchairs per stop.</i>
Bikes	<i>Number of bicycles loaded or unloaded per stop.</i>
Dwell Load	<i>Number of people onboard when the bus arrives at a stop.</i>
Peak Hour	<i>A dummy variable that indicates if the bus stopped during rush hour. (1 = Yes / 0 = No)</i>
Night Time	<i>A dummy variable that indicates if the bus stopped at night. (1 = Yes / 0 = No)</i>



Articulated Bus	<i>A dummy variable that indicates if the bus is articulated or not. (1 = Yes / 0 = No)</i>
Service Type	<i>A dummy variable that indicates the service type – Rapid or Local. (1 = Rapid / 0 = Local)</i>
Abnormal Passenger	<i>A dummy variable associated to a passenger service time greater than 18 seconds, with only one boarding or alighting. (1 = Yes / 0 = No)</i>
Wide Doors	<i>A dummy variable that indicates whether the bus has wide doors (space for two people to alight simultaneously). (1 = Yes / 0 = No)</i>
Low Floor	<i>A dummy variable that indicates whether the bus is a low floor model or not. (1 = Yes / 0 = No)</i>

### 1 **Passenger Activity**

2 The length of dwell time is highly dependent on the volume and characteristic of passenger  
3 activity. Therefore, I create as many variables as possible to control for the variety of passengers  
4 and activities that occur at each stop.

#### 5 *Passenger Service Time*

6 The time it takes for each passenger to board the bus and pay their fare, calculated by dividing  
7 dwell time by boarding passengers. Though this variable is not included in the regression because  
8 it is calculated from the dependent variable, it serves to highlight differences in the time taken per  
9 passenger and further illustrate a given variable's influence on dwell time.

#### 10 *Ons (no UFS)*

11 Because boarding passengers and fare payment variables were found to be highly co-linear, this  
12 variable only counts boardings when they exceed the number of fare transactions per stop. Because  
13 APC units count boardings regardless of the door, this variable can control for fare evasion or other  
14 instances where a passenger does not interact with the UFS.

#### 15 *Offs (Offs > Ons)*

16 Passengers alighting will not contribute to overall dwell time unless there are far more of them  
17 than boarding passengers. Therefore, alighting passengers are not included in the analysis except  
18 where the number of alighting passengers is greater than the number of boarding passengers. This  
19 is captured in the variable "Offs (Offs > Ons)."

#### 20 *Dwell Load*

21 Passengers on a bus before it stops would affect dwell time by adding to the interior congestion  
22 that boarding passengers must wade through (24). Dwell Load is thus calculated by subtracting  
23 boarding passengers from the APC's load count. When the result of this calculation is a negative  
24 number, Dwell Load is zero.

#### 25 *Bikes and Wheelchairs*

26 Because the data are manually tallied by Operators and thus of unknown integrity, I aggregated  
27 loading and unloading into one variable each for bicycles and wheelchairs.

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1 *Irregular Passenger Activity*

2 The data may not always account for wheelchairs or other passengers – such as the elderly – who  
3 need extra time to board, pay, and sit down. An operator may wait for an elderly passenger before  
4 closing the doors and departing. I attempt to control for these situations by creating a dummy  
5 variable based on an abnormally long dwell time (greater than 18 seconds) with one boarding or  
6 alighting passenger.

7  
8 *Peak Hour and Night*

9 These variables control for changes in people’s behavior based on the time of day or peak hour  
10 service. Peak Hour and Night are two categorical binomial dummy variables that indicate whether  
11 or not the bus stopped during peak hour service or at night.

12  
13 *Fare Payment*

14 TAP-Related fares are stored value cash or pass uses. Non-TAP Fares are cash fare payments or a  
15 visual inspection of a paper pass. It also includes tallies of insufficient fares or invalid transactions.  
16 These data are not excluded because they still represent a passenger interacting with the farebox  
17 in some way, thus contributing to dwell time. TAP-Sale of Pass are records of a rider purchasing  
18 a pass at the farebox.

19  
20 **Service Characteristics**

21 Based on prior research suggesting that the type of service and vehicle configuration can also  
22 impact dwell times, I create dummy variables to describe vehicle and route information.

23  
24 *Bus Type: Low-Floor, Articulated, and Door Width*

25 To control for the influence of vehicle configuration on dwell time, I created three dummy  
26 variables: low-floors, body type (articulated or standard), and door width. Sixty-foot articulated  
27 buses were 75% of the sample; 45’ non-articulated, low-floor buses were 24% of the sample; 40’  
28 low-floor buses were one percent of the sample; and 40’ high-floor buses were less than one  
29 percent of the sample.

30  
31 *Service Type*

32 A dummy variable that controls for the differences in operating environment between the Rapid  
33 720 and Local 120.

1 **Variable Descriptive Statistics**

2 After processing, the mean dwell time of both lines is 26.7 seconds per stop, and the mean  
3 passenger service time is 7.3 seconds per person (Table 2, below). Line 720 has consistently longer  
4 dwell time, passenger service time, boarding and alighting passengers, and crowding than line 120.  
5 This may be attributed to the 720's higher passenger volumes, as demonstrated through the original  
6 "On" and "Off" data which are included for reference in the table. High standard deviations  
7 demonstrate the extreme variability of passenger activities across both routes.

**TABLE 2 Variable Descriptive Statistics**

	<u>Routes 720 and 120 (N = 99,453)</u>					<u>Route 720 (N = 74,723)</u>					<u>Route 120 (N = 24,730)</u>				
	Mean	Median	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.	Mean	Median	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.	Mean	Median	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.
<i>Dwell Time</i>	26.7	17	25.6	1	180	29.9	20	26.8	1	180	17.1	11	18.2	1	180
<i>Passenger Service Time</i>	7.3	5	11.1	0	180	7.4	4.8	11.1	0	180	6.9	5	11.1	0	179
<i>Ons</i>	3.4	2	4.8	0	52	4.2	2	5.3	0	52	1.2	1	1.7	0	31
<i>Offs</i>	3.6	2	4.8	0	65	4.4	3	5.2	0	65	1.3	1	1.7	0	31
<i>Ons (no UFS)</i>	0.7	0	1.6	0	44	0.9	0	1.8	0	44	0.4	0	0.9	0	30
<i>Offs (Offs &gt; Ons)</i>	2.1	0	3.8	0	65	2.5	0	4.3	0	65	0.9	0	1.5	0	31
<i>Dwell Load</i>	22.9	18	19	0	107	26.1	22	20.3	0	107	13.2	12	8.8	0	71
<i>TAP Fare</i>	2.2	1	3.6	0	59	2.7	1	4	0	59	0.5	0	1	0	13
<i>Non-TAP Fare</i>	0.7	0	1.6	0	31	0.9	0	1.7	0	31	0.4	0	0.9	0	13
<i>TAP (Sale of Value or Pass)</i>	0	0	0.2	0	5	0	0	0.2	0	5	0	0	0.2	0	4
<i>Wheelchairs</i>	0	0	0.1	0	3	0	0	0.1	0	3	0	0	0.1	0	2
<i>Bikes</i>	0	0	0.1	0	3	0	0	0.1	0	3	0	0	0	0	2

1 **Relationship to Dependent Variable**

2 Differences in means t-tests revealed statistically significant relationships between all of the  
 3 categorical variables and dwell time, except for peak hour service. While irrespective of other  
 4 factors this may be true, the regression analysis finds peak hour service to have a statistically  
 5 significant coefficient.

6 **Model Results, Interpretation, and Discussion**7 **TABLE 3 Model Outputs**

8

	<b>Total Sample</b>					<b>Congested Conditions</b>				
	<i>Adjusted R-Square: .45   N = 99,453</i>					<i>Adjusted R-Square: .49   N = 7,327</i>				
	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	p	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p
<i>(Constant)</i>	11.5*	2.8		4.1	0	9.0*	3		3	0
<i>Ons (no UFS)</i>	3.8*	0	0.2	100.2	0	3.1*	0.1	0.3	32.2	0
<i>Offs (Offs &gt; Ons)</i>	0.8*	0	0.1	46.4	0	1.0*	0.1	0.1	15.3	0
<i>TAP Fare</i>	2.7*	0	0.4	130.1	0	3.0*	0.1	0.5	48.2	0
<i>Non-TAP Fare</i>	4.6*	0	0.3	100.7	0	4.0*	0.2	0.3	26.3	0
<i>TAP (Sale of SV or Pass)</i>	9.0*	0.3	0.1	29	0	5.9*	1.3	0	4.5	0
<i>Fares in Grace Period</i>	-2.6*	0.1	-0.1	-41.3	0	-1.7*	0.2	-0.1	-6.9	0
<i>Wheelchairs</i>	36.9*	0.6	0.2	65.7	0	42.5*	2.2	0.2	19.2	0
<i>Bikes</i>	4.5*	0.7	0	6.9	0	1.8	2.1	0	0.9	0.4
<i>Dwell Load</i>	-0.01	0	0	-1.9	0.06	0.04	0	0	1.6	0.1
<i>Peak Hour (1=Yes/0=No)</i>	-1.0*	0.1	0	-7.9	0	0.3	0.4	0	0.6	0.6
<i>Night Time (1=Yes/0=No)</i>	-2.1*	0.1	0	-15.6	0	-2.1*	0.5	0	-4.4	0
<i>Articulated Bus (1=Yes/0=No)</i>	-3.3*	1.2	-0.1	-2.7	0	-11.9*	5	-0.1	-2.4	0
<i>Service Type (1=Rapid/0=Local)</i>	6.1*	1.2	0.1	5	0	14.1*	4.3	0.1	3.3	0
<i>Wide Doors (1=Yes/0=No)</i>	0.4	0.8	0	0.5	0.6	0.4	3.8	0	0.1	0.9
<i>Low Floor (1=Yes/0=No)</i>	1	2.9	0	0.3	0.7	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Irregular Passenger (1=Yes/0=No)</i>	24.0*	0.5	0.1	50.2	0	15.8*	2.7	0	5.8	0

\* Significant at the .001 Confidence Level

9 Table 3 above shows the output of the linear regression model in both an aggregated and congested  
 10 form. A model using the entire sample can explain 45% of the variation in dwell time. Here, a TAP  
 11 card used to pay for bus fare contributed fewer seconds per person to the overall dwell than their

1 non-TAP counterparts. Increased volumes of passengers using TAP cards at a stop could then  
2 “reduce” dwell from the length caused by an equivalent number of non-TAP payments. Using a  
3 TAP card to purchase stored value or a multi-day pass at the farebox contributed the most time,  
4 perhaps because it is a relatively complex process. Also, the relationship may be exacerbated  
5 because the procedure is not widely published by Metro (25) so passengers or operators may be  
6 unfamiliar with the process.

7 Interestingly, fares paid during the grace period had a negative relationship to dwell time.  
8 My interpretation is that a fare paid during the grace period amounts to a “free” boarding in terms  
9 of dwell time; a fare payment recorded after the doors have closed by definition cannot count  
10 towards an increase in dwell time. While a bus operator who waits for everyone to pay and be  
11 seated would increase dwell time under the same circumstances, I do not believe this finding  
12 should serve as motivation for an operator to close the doors as quickly as possible. Driving while  
13 people are trying to pay for a fare could cause some passengers to lose their balance, and ensuring  
14 passenger safety should remain a priority for transit agencies.

15 Boarding passengers with no corresponding fare record contributed 3.8 seconds per person  
16 to dwell time. This finding is supported by literature that suggests an average boarding time of 4  
17 seconds per passenger (26). When alighting passengers outnumbered their counterparts, each  
18 person contributed less than a second. This is expected considering that an alighting passenger  
19 does not need to interact with the farebox and wider rear doors can often accommodate two lines  
20 of people exiting at once.

21 Wheelchairs were associated with very large increases in dwell times (36.9 seconds), which  
22 is consistent with common operational knowledge. Lift operations require the Operator to hold the  
23 queue of boarding passengers so the ramp can open and allow the wheelchair passenger to enter  
24 or exit. If there is crowding on the bus, passengers must be moved away from the wheelchair area,  
25 causing further delay. Irregular passenger activity – when one person entering or exiting the bus  
26 took 18 seconds or more - contributed 24 seconds to dwell time.

27 Interestingly, bicycles were not associated with similarly long increases to dwell time. This  
28 may be because loading or unloading a bicycle can be done simultaneously with passenger  
29 boarding. Unless the bicycle loading process was longer than the passenger boarding time the  
30 overall effect would be similar to that of just another person.

31 Dwell times are shorter at night. Initially, I thought that a negative relationship would be  
32 due to the perception of safety – waiting for the bus at night may cause riders to step into the  
33 relative safety of the bus as fast as possible. However, a more realistic explanation may be that  
34 less people ride the bus at night, as sunset is well outside of peak hour service. However, this  
35 interpretation is problematic because volumes of boarding and alighting passengers are already  
36 controlled for in the regression.

37 Rapid service was associated with longer dwell times than local service. This is consistent  
38 with the literature and is explained by the less frequent but more crowded stops associated with  
39 limited service, despite the fact that reliability and speed between stops are improved. This  
40 relationship could be exaggerated to some degree because the 720 and 120 are so extremely  
41 contrasted in terms of ridership and crowding. A dataset that contains more Rapid routes may find  
42 that not all of them are as crowded as the 720, thus diminishing relationship relationship’s strength.

43 All of the coefficients in the regression were statistically significant except for Wide Doors,  
44 Low Floor, and Dwell Load. These findings are contrary to those in prior work. For doors and  
45 floors, this may be explained by the fact that the bus types with these configurations are a miniscule  
46 portion of the sample. The small beta values associated with both variables support this

1 interpretation. Further, in this small number of cases, these vehicles were likely to have been put  
2 into service atypically. For example, a non-articulated, low-floor, wide-door standard bus pressed  
3 into service on a Rapid line (usually served by articulated vehicles) might experience longer  
4 boarding and alighting times due to very high passenger loads in comparison with more typical  
5 operating conditions. Because the prior work indicates that both low floors and wide doors are  
6 associated with improved dwell times (27), I suspect that a sample with more variety of vehicle  
7 configurations would result in statistical significance for these floor and door variables.

8 An ordinary least squares regression model may not be the ideal model form to analyze  
9 dwell loads. For example, passenger congestion may influence dwell time only when the bus  
10 approaches seating capacity and people begin to stand. At that point, the crowding effect imposed  
11 by standing passengers upon boarding passengers would increase with each subsequent person.  
12 Thus, congestion may have an “increasingly increasing” exponential effect. Further iterations of  
13 this model should use a congestion variable similar to one developed by Milkovits, who calculated  
14 it as the square of the number of standees multiplied by the number of boarding passengers (28).

### 15 **Crowding**

16 While the definition of crowded conditions on a transit vehicle is not institutionally defined, I use  
17 the ratio of passengers on board to total seats (“Load Factor”) as a scale. Based on Milkovits’  
18 methodology, passenger congestion becomes an issue when the number of people equals the  
19 number of seats, because not everyone will sit down given the opportunity (29). To see how  
20 congested conditions affect the model, I re-ran the regression after filtering the sample for records  
21 with a load factor of one or higher. The output of the model is displayed in **Error! Reference**  
22 **source not found.**

23 With an adjusted r-square of 0.49, this model can explain 49 percent of the variance in  
24 dwell time. Similarly to the prior model, the impact of wide doors and dwell load were not found  
25 to be statistically significant. Low floor buses were automatically excluded from the model. Peak  
26 hour service also lost significance, as did the influence of bicycles.

27 With congestion, almost all of the variables contribute more time than in the prior model,  
28 including the TAP card. Notable exceptions include irregular passenger activity and articulated  
29 bus. An explanation for the former may be that there are less instances of such passengers in the  
30 highly constrained sample. Articulated buses reduce dwell time by almost 12 seconds in this  
31 model, whereas in the previous model the reduction was a more modest three seconds, highlighting  
32 these buses’ ability to effectively deal with crush loads. This finding suggests that higher-capacity  
33 articulated buses are well-suited for managing dwell times given crowding.

34 Importantly, this model shows how on-board crowding can exacerbate dwell times.  
35 Variables which contribute to shorter dwells are less effective, while those that are associated with  
36 longer dwell times are magnified. From this, I infer that heightened crowding inhibits some of the  
37 benefits that the TAP card offers in terms of dwell time – however it doesn’t totally eradicate them.

38 Research from prior work achieved higher explanatory power than these models, perhaps  
39 due to heightened specificity. For example, Milkovits estimated separate models for each door, on  
40 each bus, in crowded and open conditions (30). In my analysis, the model is generalized across all  
41 doors and bus types. Using one model to explain the variances across two very different routes and  
42 vehicle configurations may be responsible for a loss of explanatory power. A future analysis that  
43 includes all Metro bus routes and a more specified model may improve the model’s power.  
44

## 1 CONCLUSION

2 The goal of this research is to determine if TAP cards had a statistically significant impact on the  
3 dwell times of busses in Los Angeles, using automatically generated data provided by Metro. A  
4 review of prior work established the relationships between a variety of determinants and dwell  
5 time, including passenger volumes, service type, vehicle configuration, and fare payment  
6 procedures.

7 Pre-processing of the data focused on removing outliers. Despite these exclusions, variance  
8 of dwell time along predicting variables – particularly passenger crowding – was high. Numerous  
9 differences-in-means tests found that, individually, all but one of the variables had statistically  
10 significant differences in mean dwell time. A regression analysis then highlights the influence of  
11 each variable relative to each other.

12 The linear regression model suggests that, all things held constant, a person paying fare  
13 with a TAP card contributes less time to dwell than other methods of payment with statistical  
14 significance. While two seconds of dwell time reduction per boarding may not sound like much,  
15 consider this: If 100,000 current customers (or about 20% of current non-TAP paying customers)  
16 were to switch to TAP cards, Metro buses would spend about 56 fewer hours *per day* waiting at  
17 bus stops. Less time at stops means higher average bus speeds, and higher bus speeds means lower  
18 headways and faster travel times. Thus, the “two second solution” may be more significant for  
19 improving Metro transit operations than it might at first appear.

20 Importantly, however, the TAP card begins to contribute more – rather than less – time to  
21 delay at stops in crowded conditions, suggesting that the benefits of TAP vis-à-vis dwell time are  
22 diminished with high passenger volume. Considering that smart card fare payment systems are  
23 incredibly expensive to install and operate, it would behoove transit planners to evaluate them as  
24 a tool in the transit system design toolbox, and not the golden ticket.



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