

1 **MULTIPLE-DAY AGENT-BASED MODELING APPROACH OF STATION-**
2 **BASED AND FREE-FLOATING CARSHARING**

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 The number of carsharing users and cars is growing all over the world and although there is a
3 comparatively small share in modal shift, carsharing is getting more and more important as
4 additional transport mode especially in metropolitan regions. The consequence is a growing usage
5 of carsharing and therewith a changing travel behavior. This implies a need for a further
6 development of planning tools so that this “new mode” can be considered in the planning process.
7 This paper illustrates the integration of carsharing in an agent-based travel demand model that
8 simulates the travel behavior of the population in the Greater Stuttgart area within one week. Since
9 it is the first time that carsharing usage is simulated for more than one day, the described model
10 allows analyzing the intensity and variability of carsharing usage from a longitudinal perspective.
11 The model results show the variation of carsharing usage between the days of the week.

1 INTRODUCTION

2 The importance of carsharing as a mode of transport is increasing. Especially in
3 metropolitan areas carsharing is a growing market and more or less part of urban mobility. In
4 Germany, the number of carsharing users and the number of cars offered in sharing systems has
5 increased throughout the last years and forecasts show an ongoing trend. Within the last year, for
6 example, station-based carsharing had an increase in customers by 50,000 (+18.7%), free-floating
7 carsharing even had an increase in customers by 254,000 (+138.8%) (1). Hence, the use of the
8 “new mode” carsharing has more than ever become a component of many people’s daily travel.

9 Commercial carsharing can be classified into two systems: station-based and free-floating
10 carsharing. Station-based carsharing is the traditional carsharing system in Germany. The cars are
11 located at stations where the customers can rent a car. After the ride, the car has to be returned to
12 the same station. Customers have to make the reservation for the booking in advance. Station-
13 based carsharing providers usually offer different types of cars, like compact cars, station wagons
14 and vans. Free-floating systems operate without stations. The cars are spread within a defined area.
15 Customers check the availability and location of cars online with a computer or a smartphone. In
16 contrast to station-based systems, customers are able to rent a car without making a reservation.
17 At the end of a ride, customers can park the car where ever they want within a certain area. Free-
18 floating carsharing providers typically offer just one type of car.

19 The ongoing success of free-floating carsharing during the last years is also largely driven
20 by car manufactures. In addition, they invest in upcoming mobility-service companies such as
21 moovel (Car2Go by Daimler) or Drive-Now (BMW) to offer flexible mode choices options to
22 the trip makers and promote their carsharing services. These mobility-service companies provide
23 multi- and intermodal information about trips with all modes to improve customers’ mobility
24 planning.

25 Growing usage of carsharing cars (1) and thus changing travel behavior (2), especially in
26 large cities, implies a need for further development of planning tools so that this “new mode” can
27 be considered in the planning process. In this paper, we describe how we integrate carsharing in
28 the agent-based travel demand model mobiTopp (3) which simulates travel behavior within one
29 week. To our knowledge, this is the first time carsharing usage is simulated with a transport
30 planning tool for more than one day and therefore can be analyzed from a longitudinal perspective.

31 This paper is structured as follows: First, we briefly introduce the related work. Second,
32 we describe the agent-based model mobiTopp. Third, we discuss the implementation of the
33 customer model, the modifications of the mode choice model and the calibration processes.
34 Finally, we show the results and end with a short conclusion.

35 LITERATURE ANALYSIS

36 Since we model carsharing customers and their usage of carsharing services in a microscopic travel
37 demand model, our literature analysis focusses on two topics – estimating the number of carsharing
38 customers and the travel demand of carsharing customers.

1 Research on carsharing customers is often related to studies on the potential growth of
2 carsharing. The main statement is that the number of carsharing systems, as well as their demand,
3 is growing over the world. After the first commercial introduction in the late 1980s in Switzerland,
4 station-based carsharing services arose in Germany (4) and in North America (5) at the beginning
5 of the 1990s followed by Japan and Singapore (6) at the beginning of the millennium. With the
6 start of the first free floating operation system in Ulm, Germany, in 2008, an innovative and more
7 flexible form spread into the market to make carsharing more flexible and attractive. Germany has
8 recorded yearly growth rates of carsharing members of more than ten percent. In 2014, 750,000
9 people are carsharing customers of more than one hundred operators in Germany (7). Several
10 studies on the estimation of carsharing potential focus on the yearly car-mileage of users. Petersen
11 (8) and Prettenthaler and Steininger (9) determine a break-even-point of yearly car-mileage, where
12 people switch from owning a car to sharing a car. Schuster et al. (10) developed an economic
13 model, which describes costs as central to the decision of owning or sharing a car, and applied it
14 to the City of Baltimore, USA. Nobis (4) estimated a potential for carsharing customers of about
15 6 % of licensed drivers living in cities with more than 20,000 inhabitants in Germany, considering
16 both socio-demographic criteria and current travel behavior. Ciari and Weis (11) were probably
17 the first to take a microscopic approach to modelling the choice of becoming a customer of a
18 carsharing provider considering personal socio-demographic attributes and the accessibility to
19 shared cars by using a binary logit model.

20 In spite of increasing membership and usability rates, the state of research in modeling
21 carsharing is still at the beginning. Probably Rodier and Shaheen (12) were the first attempting to
22 estimate the demand of carsharing. However, the representation of carsharing in the mode choice
23 of their four-step demand model was very basic: Stations were distributed at transit stations and
24 employment centers only, and the usability was restricted on direct links between these stations
25 which resulted in a high level of vehicle availability but a low level of flexibility. Since every agent
26 could use carsharing, a customer model has not been implemented. The mode choice of travelers
27 was mainly based on travel time and costs.

28 In recent literature, the MATSIM community deals with representing carsharing in a
29 microscopic agent-based model. Ciari et al. (13) already discuss several reasons why agent based
30 simulation is a good tool to simulate carsharing: An agent-based model is not only suitable for
31 modeling rational choices, it is also suitable for a description of the environmental framework at a
32 high resolution. Ciari, Schuessler and Axhausen (14) describe how the existing microscopic travel
33 demand model MATSim was adapted to represent carsharing. They employ a station-based
34 carsharing system with a first simple approach (no membership is needed, availability of an
35 unlimited number of cars at the stations, costs are not considered), using the existing MIV utility
36 function for carsharing, and applying it to the simulation area of Greater Zurich. The results show
37 that the approach basically works, but further extensions are needed to get reliable results. Ciari,
38 Bock and Ballmer (15) developed the approach further in various points: station-based systems as
39 well as free-floating systems are represented, the capacities of the system are taken into account,
40 carsharing vehicles are physically simulated and specific components like time and cost for access

1 and egress, rental time, etc. of carsharing travel are defined. With this model, which is applied to
2 the Berlin area, it is possible to analyze comprehensive information on travel demand in
3 geographical as well as in behavioral matters in the course of one day.

4 In distinction to the approaches mentioned above our simulation represents car sharing
5 usage during one week. Due to this, we are able to analyze intensity and variability of carsharing
6 usage from a longitudinal perspective.

7 THE AGENT-BASED SIMULATION MOBITOPP

8 MobiTopp (3), (16) is a travel demand model based on the principle of agent-based
9 simulation (17). In the simulation model, each person of the planning area is represented as a
10 separate entity, a so-called agent. Each agent has an activity schedule, consisting of activities of
11 different types (e.g. home, work, education, leisure, shopping), to be executed during the
12 simulation period of one week. During the simulation, each agent makes decisions where to
13 execute each activity and which mode to use to get to the chosen destination. Each agent is modeled
14 in the context of its household, cars are owned by households not by the individual agents, meaning
15 that actual car availability for an agent in a multi-person household may depend on the behavior
16 of the other household members. The temporal resolution of the simulation is one minute; the
17 spatial resolution is based on zones.

18 The process flow of mobiTopp consists of two phases: a setup phase and a simulation
19 phase. In the setup phase, facts that do not change over a longer period are modeled, e.g.
20 population, car ownership or season ticket ownership for public transport. During the simulation
21 phase, destination choice and mode choice are modeled for all agents in a chronological manner.

22 The essential step in the setup phase is population synthesis. Population synthesis is based
23 on socio-demographic data of persons and households on a zonal level and on a household travel
24 survey. For each household of the survey a weight is calculated by an iterative fitting procedure
25 similar to the approach used by Müller and Axhausen (18), adjusting the survey data to the zonal
26 statistics. The population is generated by randomly drawing the adequate number of households
27 from the weighted survey data. For each household drawn from the survey a corresponding
28 simulation household is created, inheriting the attributes (e.g. household size, number of cars
29 owned) from the survey household. For each person of the survey household an agent is created,
30 inheriting the attributes (e.g. age, sex, employment) and the activity schedule (sequence of
31 activities with start time and duration for each day) of the survey person. In the next step, fixed
32 locations for work and education activities are assigned, as the locations for these types of activities
33 usually don't change during a week; the location for home activities is already determined by the
34 zone for which the household was created. Ownership of season tickets for public transport is
35 determined based on a binary logit model.

36 During the simulation phase, the travel behavior of all agents is simulated chronologically
37 and simultaneously based on their individual activity schedules. When an agent finishes an
38 activity, he looks for the next activity in his activity schedule. The agent chooses a location for this

1 activity. In the case of an activity with fixed location (home, work, education), the location
2 determined during the setup phase is used; in all other cases a destination choice model is used.
3 Afterwards the agent makes a mode choice. When the mode is chosen, the agent starts the trip to
4 the destination. When the destination has been reached, the agent executes the activity and the
5 cycle of executing an activity, destination choice, mode choice, and making a trip repeats. The
6 number of activities and hence the number of cycles is determined by the activity schedule; so are
7 the planned start times and the durations of the activities.

8 Destination choice is modelled as an extended gravity model, based on the attractivity of
9 the possible destinations, the necessary travel time and cost to reach not only the possible
10 destination but also the next fixed destination (3), taking into account that the way back from a
11 possible destination is also important in the choice of a destination.

12 For mode choice a multinomial logit model is used (16). The choice set of available modes
13 is modeled carefully: in principle the full choice set is only available when the agent is at home,
14 when there is a car available in the household and the agent is the holder of a driver's license. If
15 the agent is not at home and the last mode used has been walking, public transport or car passenger,
16 the choice set consists only of these three modes, since the agent has neither a car nor a bicycle
17 available. If the agent is not at home and the last mode used has been car driver or cycling, the
18 choice set comprises only the last mode. This simplification is made to guarantee that a used
19 vehicle returns home in any case. The simplification is justified because a tour starting and ending
20 at home which starts with a bicycle or car typically ends with the same vehicle. The possibility of
21 sub-tours, starting and ending at another location than home and using another mode than the main
22 tour is ignored by this simplification. The inaccuracy made by this simplification is not severe,
23 since the share of such sub-tours observed in reality is low. Executing an activity is modeled as
24 waiting for the duration of the activity. Making a trip is modeled as waiting for the duration of the
25 trip and a subsequent arrival at the destination zone in case of one of the modes walking, cycling,
26 car passenger, public transport. When the mode car driver is chosen and the agent executes a trip
27 beginning at home, the agent uses a household's car, which then is temporarily not available for
28 other household members. Ending a car trip at home involves returning the car to the household's
29 car pool.

30 The scenario used in the following is a model of the Greater area of Stuttgart consisting of
31 the city of Stuttgart and the five surrounding administrative districts. The Greater area of Stuttgart
32 has a population of about 2.7 million inhabitants of which 2.5 million are modeled (only persons
33 aged 6 and above are modeled). The Greater area of Stuttgart is divided into 1012 model zones. In
34 addition there are 159 zones covering the surrounding area that are potential destinations in the
35 destination choice model.

36 The destination choice model and the mode choice model have been jointly calibrated to
37 match trip length distribution and modal split for several aggregation levels of data of a household
38 travel survey conducted in the Greater Stuttgart area (19).

1 **MODELING CARSHARING**

2 Modeling carsharing is a complex task. First, there are hardly any usable data of carsharing users
3 and usage, which is the base of every model and crucial for its quality. However, especially in the
4 fast-growing free-floating carsharing sector, data about users and usage of carsharing is too
5 valuable for most of the companies to make it available to someone who is not a research-partner.
6 Second, the share of people using carsharing is still very small, so it is hard to validate and calibrate
7 the model parts. And third, the modeling process itself is complex due to the load of indispensable
8 additional model objects like carsharing stations, the exact positions of the free-floating cars or
9 essential new model features such as a carsharing customer model or an extended mode choice
10 model.

11 The simulated scenario models the current situation in the Greater Stuttgart area, where
12 three major carsharing companies exist. Two of them, Stadtmobil Stuttgart and Flinkster, offer a
13 station-based system. Stadtmobil Stuttgart is the leading provider of station-based carsharing
14 services in the Greater Stuttgart area with about 11.000 customers in the private and commercial
15 sector and over 450 cars. Flinkster is a subsidiary of the German railway company Deutsche Bahn
16 AG and runs its business nationwide. With around 70 cars in the Greater Stuttgart area they also
17 play an important role in the carsharing business. Flinkster operates mainly in the center of
18 Stuttgart (urban area), whereas Stadtmobil also operates in rural areas. The third provider, Car2Go,
19 offers a free-floating system. Car2Go is a joint-venture of the Daimler AG and the car rental
20 company Europcar. With around 27.000 customers and around 500 cars, Car2Go is the only
21 provider of free-floating carsharing in the Greater Stuttgart area. Car2Go operates in the inner city
22 of Stuttgart as well as in the inner cities of Esslingen and Böblingen. All 500 cars of Car2Go are
23 electric cars (Smart eDrive) and thus have a range of 100 – 130 km.

24 In order to model carsharing for this area, it is crucial to model both station-based and free-
25 floating carsharing systems to cover all aspects and effects of carsharing within the model.
26 However, these two systems differ in their usage rules. In the station-based system, the user has to
27 rent and return the car at the same place, whereas in the free-floating system the user can rent and
28 return a car anywhere within a defined area. Both rules have to be considered. In addition, we
29 modeled each provider in order to be able to evaluate them separately.

30 We model carsharing cars explicitly with attributes like current position and current
31 availability. The current stock of available cars at the corresponding carsharing station and in the
32 corresponding zone changes when the usage of a carsharing car starts or ends. Furthermore,
33 variables like the current user, the mileage driven and the current fuel/power level are stored during
34 and after the simulation.

35 **Carsharing Customer Model**

36 In order to integrate carsharing into mobiTopp, it is crucial to assign memberships of carsharing
37 providers to the agents. Customers have to be at least 18 years old and they need to have a driver's
38 license. We use a binary logit approach with several socio-demographic input variables to

1 determine the carsharing customers. Due to the different socio-demographics of their customers,
2 we calibrated an independent car sharing customer model for each carsharing provider.

3 The data used to estimate and calibrate the models are from different sources. Due to the
4 lack of household travel survey data on carsharing membership for the Greater Stuttgart area, we
5 used survey data from a 2012 household travel survey (HTS) in the Greater Karlsruhe area for our
6 estimation of the carsharing customer model. One has to note that Karlsruhe has an exceptional
7 position regarding carsharing. Though there is only one station-based carsharing provider, the
8 number of carsharing cars and customers per 1,000 inhabitants is highly above the nationwide
9 average. There are also differences in the socio-demographics between Stuttgart and Karlsruhe.
10 Hence, we weighted the Karlsruhe data by age, sex, household size and numbers of cars owned by
11 the household. The sample size of the Karlsruhe HTS amounts 7,840 respondents with 216
12 carsharing customers.

13 The carsharing customer model contains seven influencing categorical variables that are coded as
14 25 binary variables, and one with ratio level (see Table 1). The ratio variable “fz_fl” is the number
15 of carsharing cars of the carsharing providers per square kilometer. For the estimation of the
16 parameters of the costumer model we used the logistic regression procedure in the software SAS.
17 The estimation was based on the weighted data from the Karlsruhe HTS.

18 **Calibration of the Customer Model**

19 We calibrated the parameters for the three carsharing providers in the Stuttgart area, so that the
20 model results match the real data. For the calibration of the Stadtmobil customer model, we used
21 detailed customer data provided by Stadtmobil Stuttgart. This data contains detailed information
22 about age, sex and the residence of all customers. For the Car2Go customer model we used socio-
23 demographic data of customers of Multicity (free-floating provider) and for the Flinkster customer
24 model we used socio-demographic data of customers of Flinkster. Both data are from the Berlin
25 area and were provided by the Innovation Centre for Mobility and Societal Change (InnoZ)
26 collected in the project “BeMobility 2.0”. This data contains information about age, sex and
27 profession of 160 customers of Multicity and 213 customers of Flinkster. The estimated and
28 calibrated parameters for the Stadtmobil customer model are shown in Table 1. As mentioned
29 before, the variables are the same for all customer models.

1 **Table 1 Influencing values, variables and estimated as well as calibrated parameters of the**
 2 **customer model for Stadtmobil based on data provided by Stadtmobil Stuttgart**

| Variable | Characteristic | Estimated parameter | Standard deviation | Parameter after calibration | Level of measurement |
|---|---------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|
| | Intercept | -3.2062 | 0.9707 | -6.5162 | |
| Sex | female | -0.8767 | 0.1902 | -0.5607 | nominal |
| Season ticket ownership | yes | 0.1395 | 0.1879 | 0.1095 | nominal |
| Occupation | full-time employed | 0.1263 | 0.4906 | 0.0763 | nominal |
| | part-time employed | 0.8843 | 0.4821 | 0.8843 | nominal |
| | unemployed | -1.8083 | 1.1397 | -1.8083 | nominal |
| | school student | 1.4458 | 0.7828 | 1.4458 | nominal |
| | university student | -0.3485 | 0.6127 | 0.5085 | nominal |
| | trainee | -0.5818 | 0.9982 | -0.5818 | nominal |
| | non-working | 0.8886 | 0.6879 | -0.2886 | nominal |
| | retired | -0.4708 | 0.6666 | -0.1008 | nominal |
| No of cars in the household | 0 | 2.1474 | 0.6009 | 2.1474 | nominal |
| | 1 | -0.27 | 0.5751 | -0.27 | nominal |
| | 2 | -1.1234 | 0.5823 | -1.1234 | nominal |
| | 3 | -0.0864 | 0.6072 | -0.0864 | nominal |
| | 4+ | 0 | 0 | 0 | nominal |
| No of carsharing cars per km ² | fz_fl | 0.3391 | 0.0614 | 1.2591 | ratio |
| Household size | 1 | -0.7138 | 0.3455 | -1.5638 | nominal |
| | 2 | 0.00315 | 0.3325 | -0.40315 | nominal |
| | 3 | 0.1005 | 0.3235 | 0.1005 | nominal |
| | 4 | 0.3201 | 0.3133 | 0.4201 | nominal |
| | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | nominal |
| Age | 18-24 | 0.00665 | 0.712 | -0.69665 | nominal |
| | 25-34 | 0.4547 | 0.5728 | 1.3747 | nominal |
| | 35-49 | 0.9732 | 0.5556 | 0.9332 | nominal |
| | 50-64 | 0.2065 | 0.5264 | 0.9065 | nominal |
| | 65+ | 0 | 0 | 0 | nominal |

1 **Extended Mode choice Model**

2 In a final step the existing mode choice model was extended in order to simulate carsharing by
3 adding the two modes free-floating carsharing and station-based carsharing to the mode choice set.
4 Furthermore, we defined the following six principles to minimize the extensions for the existing
5 mode choice model but still ensure the reliability of the model.

- 6 1. The carsharing modes are only available if a car of the carsharing provider is available
7 in the origin zone.
- 8 2. As the mode carsharing is typically dominated by the mode car driver due to the lower
9 access and egress times and lower costs, the mode carsharing is only available if the
10 mode car driver is not available for the current trip.
- 11 3. The parameters for the carsharing modes are based on the parameters of the mode “car
12 driver” as these modes only differ in access and egress times as well as in the cost for
13 the trip.
- 14 4. We assume that the density of carsharing stations and the available cars correlates with
15 the possibility to find a parking lot. Thus, we use the variable “parking pressure” of the
16 existing model in order to compute the individual access and egress times for every
17 zone.
- 18 5. Cars of station-based carsharing providers always have to be returned to the station
19 where they have been picked up. To ensure this constraint in the model, the mode
20 “station-based carsharing” can only be initially chosen when the agent is at home and it
21 can’t be changed until the person returns back home.
- 22 6. Cars of a free-floating carsharing provider have to be picked up and returned in the
23 operational area. Therefore, switching to another mode is not allowed when the agent is
24 outside the operational area.

25 According to these principles, the mode carsharing is only available in the choice set in
26 general, if the agent a) is customer of a carsharing provider, b) has no car available for the trip, c)
27 a carsharing car is available in the origin zone and d) isn’t restricted to another mode. Another
28 restriction is the above-mentioned necessity to be at home to use station-based carsharing.

29 The access and egress trips to the carsharing car are not modeled explicitly due to the zone-
30 based spatial resolution, but they are considered in the access and egress times, which were added
31 to the travel times for the mode “car driver” to get new travel times for the carsharing modes. For
32 access and egress times, we distinguished between station-based and free-floating carsharing by
33 considering the different characteristics of the access and egress process.

34 The costs for the carsharing modes are based on real costs for the different carsharing
35 systems. The cost for free-floating carsharing amounts to 0.29€ per minute, whereas the cost for
36 station-based carsharing amounts to an average of 2.80€ per hour and 0.23€ per kilometer. The
37 hourly rate of station-based carsharing is always rounded up to the next full hour. Unfortunately,
38 the time and therefore the cost for the whole trip cannot be considered in mode choice, so that the
39 estimation for the trip time using station-based carsharing is slightly too high.

1 **Calibration of the Extended Mode choice Model**

2 We calibrated the mode choice model for the carsharing modes using trip length distributions (see
3 Figure 3), as this was the only reliable information available for both free-floating and station-
4 based carsharing. We used detailed booking data of Stadtmobil for the calibration of station-based
5 carsharing. This data contains information about the distance driven during a booking and its
6 duration. In order to compare the modeled trip data with the booking data, we had to aggregate the
7 model results to bookings. We assumed that one booking contains all consecutive trips with the
8 same car and that the trip started immediately after the start of the booking. Unfortunately, we had
9 no data available for Flinkster, so we assume that the mode choice behavior of Flinkster customers
10 resembles the behavior of Stadtmobil customers.

11 For the calibration of free-floating carsharing, we collected data from a Car2Go application
12 programming interface (API). The API provides information transmitted by cars available: their
13 actual position and their fuel level. Data were retrieved in intervals of 5 minutes over one week.
14 The reason why a car became unavailable is a booking process for most cases, but it could also be
15 a technical error or a maintenance operation. Hence, we evaluated the data for plausibility. Using
16 GIS software, we were able to generate synthetic booking data. Then, we calculated the trip length
17 by using the difference of the power level before and after the ride assuming an average power
18 consumption of 15.1 kwh/100km for the Smart eDrive (20). We did not aggregate the modeled
19 trip data for free-floating carsharing, assuming that a free-floating carsharing car is basically
20 returned after each trip.

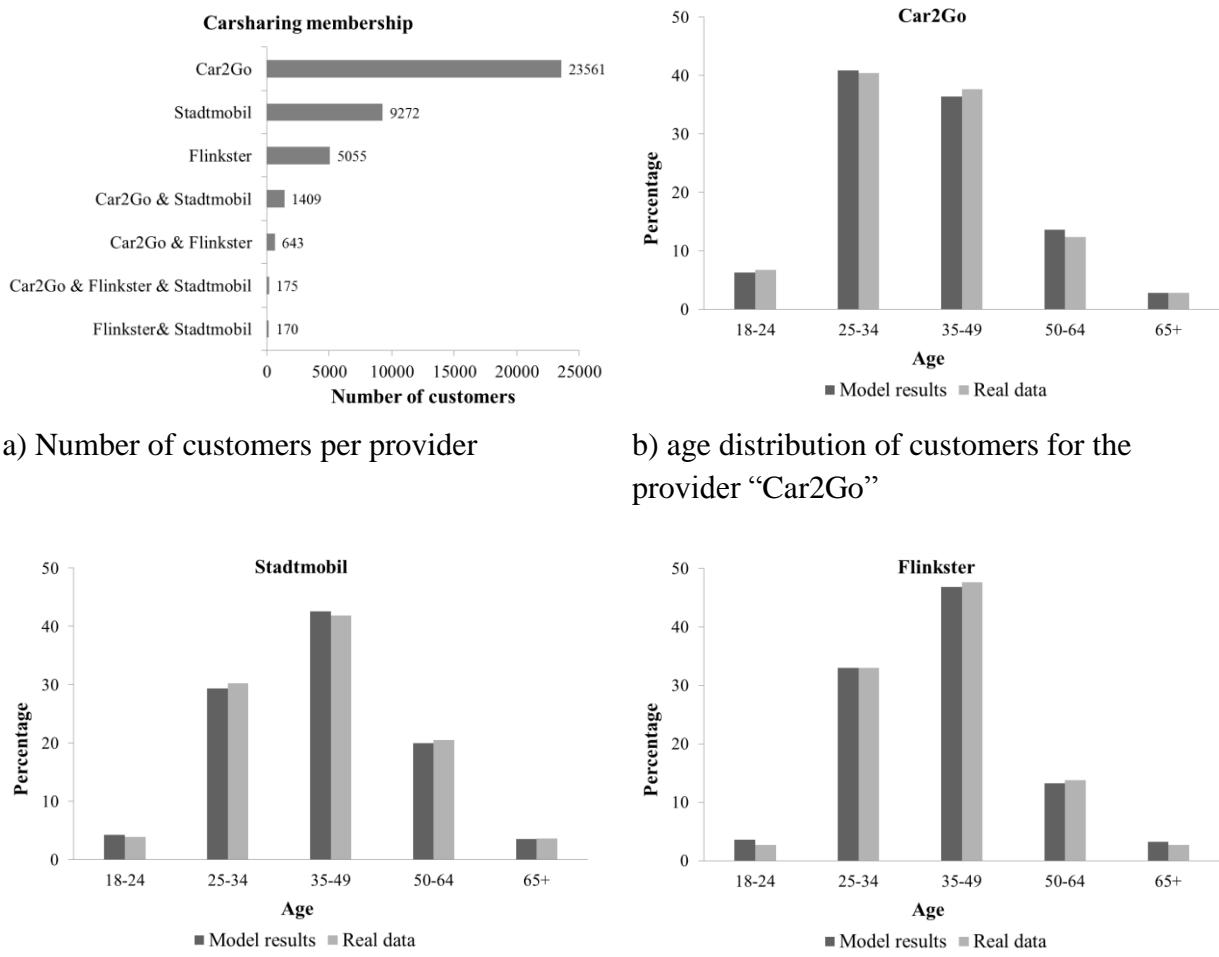
21 We used the parameters of the mode car driver and adjusted them for both carsharing
22 modes. In the calibration process, we adjusted the constant parameters for station-based carsharing
23 from 0 to -1.5 and for free-floating carsharing from 0 to -0.5. Further, we changed the parameter
24 for the variable “short trip” from 0 to -1.0 for both carsharing modes and the parameter for the
25 variable “distance” from 0 to 0.15 for station-based and from 0 to -0.05 for free-floating carsharing.

26 **DISCUSSION OF MODEL RESULTS**

27 The discussion of the model results focusses mainly on longitudinal analysis. Below, we basically
28 consider the providers Car2Go and Stadtmobil, since we have no suitable data for the provider
29 Flinkster to validate the results.

30 **Carsharing Customers**

31 Figure 1a) shows the numbers of customers of the carsharing providers. With 25,788
32 customers, Car2Go is the leading provider in the Stuttgart area. Stadtmobil ranks second with a
33 total number of customers of 10,851. Since the customer models are applied independently of each
34 other, agents can be customers of several carsharing providers. Hence, there are 2,397 agents who
35 are customers of more than one carsharing provider which is around 6% of all customers.



1 **Figure 1 Distribution of carsharing customers: a) Number of customers per provider, b) age**
2 **distribution of customers for the provider “Car2Go”, c) age distribution of customers for the**
3 **provider “Stadtmobil”, d) age distribution of customers for the provider “Flinkster”**

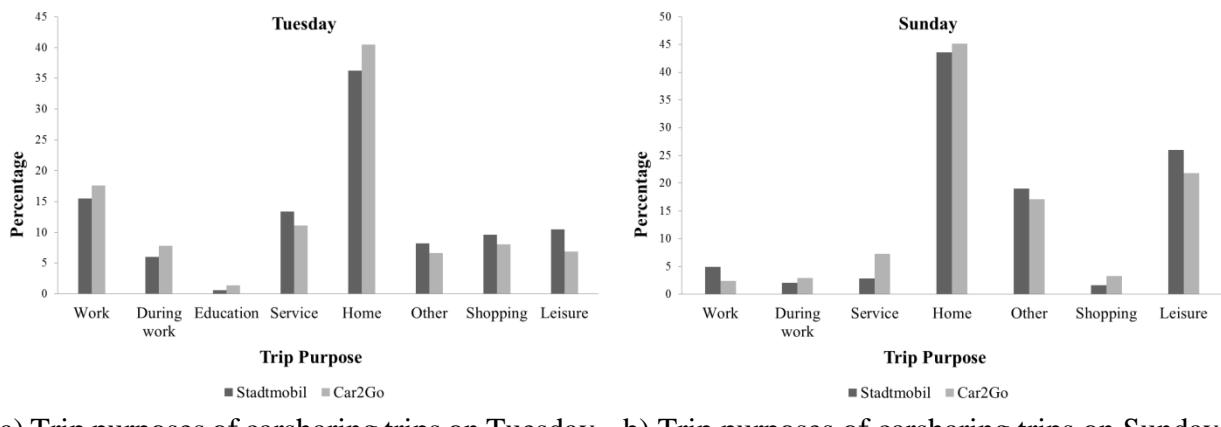
4 Figure 1b) - d) shows the age distribution of the customers. The model results of the age
5 distribution of Car2Go and Flinkster users are compared to the Berlin data of Multicity and
6 Flinkster, whereas the model results of the age distribution of Stadtmobil users are compared to
7 the customer data provided by Stadtmobil. Customers of the free-floating provider Car2Go are
8 dominated by the age class of 25 to 34 years, whereas the dominating age class within station-
9 based providers (Stadtmobil, Flinkster) is the class of 35 to 49 years. Hence, the more flexible free-
10 floating concept seems to be more attractive to younger people. The share of customers younger
11 than 25 years is very low for all providers. Nevertheless, this share is higher for Car2Go customers.

12 Although we used data from different sources for the providers Stadtmobil and Flinkster,
13 the age distributions for both station-based providers are similar. However, the share of customers

1 under 50 years is slightly higher for Flinkster customers, which could be caused by the fact that
2 more elderly people live in rural areas and Flinkster operates in more urban areas.

3 **Trip Purposes**

4 Figure 2 shows the model results of different trip purposes for a regular weekday (Tuesday) and
5 Sunday. The variation between the days of the week is as expected; in particular shopping trips,
6 leisure trips and trips to work vary between Tuesday and Sunday. On Sunday, shopping trips and
7 trips to work are seldom due to the fact that stores are closed and most people don't have to work.
8 Moreover, there are no education trips on Sunday. About half of the trips are trips back home on
9 both days. On Sunday, there are less service trips than on Tuesday.



a) Trip purposes of carsharing trips on Tuesday b) Trip purposes of carsharing trips on Sunday

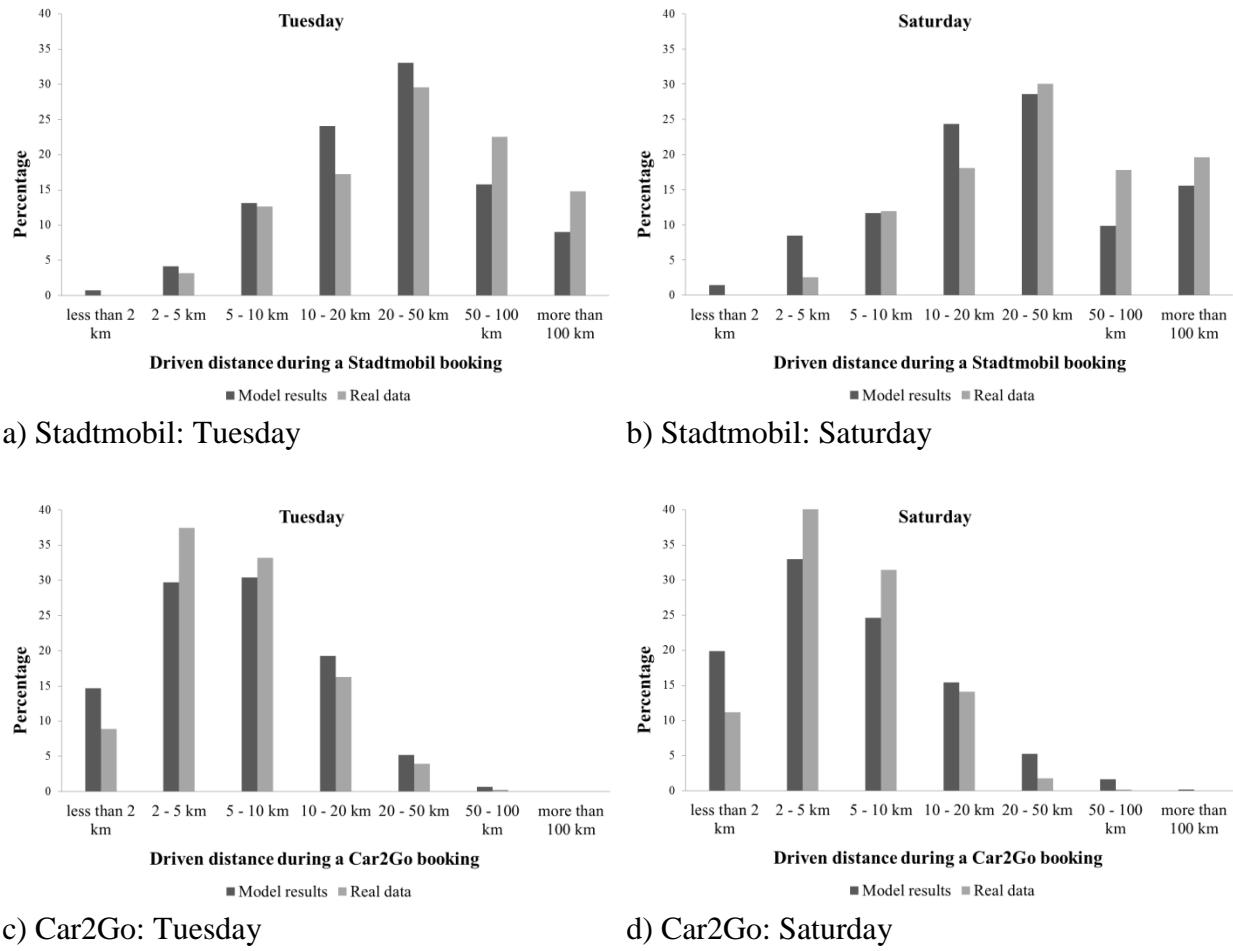
10 **Figure 2 Trip purposes of carsharing trips on a) Tuesday and b) Sunday**

11 **Trip lengths**

12 Figure 3 shows the distributions of kilometers driven during a booking regarding StadtMobil and
13 Car2Go for a normal weekday (Thursday) and Saturday. The model results reflect the reality
14 regarding both providers, StadtMobil and Car2Go.

15 In general, StadtMobil is used for longer trips, whereas Car2Go is rather used for shorter
16 trips. A reason for that could be the different pricing schemes and, of course, the fact that Car2Go
17 uses electric vehicles which are restricted to around 100 km of range. Moreover, the type of
18 carsharing cars offered could play a role. StadtMobil offers different types of cars, which are more
19 suitable and comfortable for longer distances.

20 The model results for StadtMobil show that on Saturday there are more trips of more than
21 100 km than on a normal weekday. This behavior also reflects the differences in the share of trip
22 purposes between weekdays and weekends. On weekends, for example, there are more leisure trips
23 than shopping trips, and leisure trips tend to be longer on weekends. Other trips include trips to
24 visit someone, which also tend to be longer on weekends. However, this behavior cannot be
25 observed in the results for Car2Go. There are no differences noticeable between weekdays and
26 weekends, neither in the model results nor in the real data.



1 **Figure 3 Distributions of kilometers driven during a carsharing booking: StadtMobil (a) and**
2 **(b) and Car2Go (c) and (d)**

3 Histogram of Number of Trips

4 Figure 4 shows the model results regarding the number of bookings and the real number of
5 bookings in the greater Stuttgart area on a Monday and a Sunday for Car2Go as well as for
6 StadtMobil. The number of real StadtMobil bookings has been provided by “stadtMobil carsharing
7 AG”, the number of real Car2Go bookings has been collected using the Car2Go-API. Figure 4a)
8 and b) illustrate the usage of StadtMobil during the day. The histogram of real numbers of bookings
9 is in contrast to the modeled data. This could be due to the fact that the model results are aggregated
10 trip-based data, whereas the real data are based on bookings. It is noticeable that the real data
11 shows peaks around 9 am, 12 am, 3 pm and 6 pm every day, even on Sunday. A reason for this
12 could be the booking process, during which customers have to choose the start of their booking in
13 advance. It is likely that people select distinct times of day more often. Moreover, the model only
14 implies that the beginning of the trip is also the beginning of the booking, not taking into
15 consideration that, people could start the booking in advance and start their trip later. Overall
16 however, the modeled and real total numbers of bookings match in the course of each day.

Figure 4c) and d) illustrates the usage of Car2Go during the day. The modeled numbers of bookings match the real numbers during the day. It is noticeable that the numbers on Monday differ from the numbers on Sunday. On Monday there are typical weekday-travel peaks, whereas on Sunday there are less remarkable peaks. On Sunday, the number of bookings around midnight is quite high. A reason for that could be that people substitute the cab to get home by Car2Go.

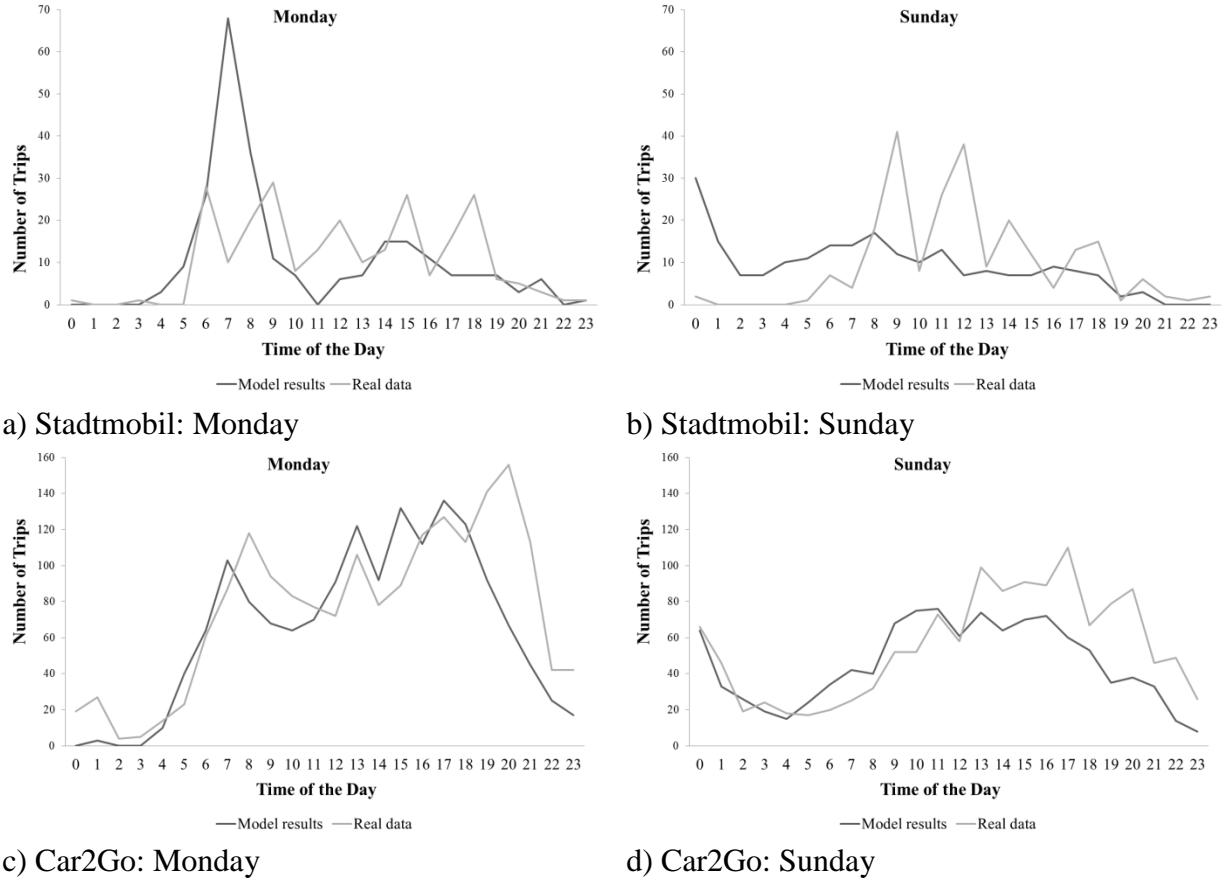


Figure 4 Histogram: number of StadtMobil bookings on a) Monday and b) Sunday and number of Car2Go bookings on c) Monday and d) Sunday in the greater Stuttgart area

CONCLUSION

In general, a multiple-day model generates more results than a one-day model. It is possible to analyze issues regarding differences in usage between the days of the week. Therefore it is important to model these differences to understand carsharing usage and thus be able to consider the aspects of carsharing usage in the planning process.

In our work, we integrated station-based and free-floating carsharing in the multiple-day agent-based model mobiTopp. For this we estimated and calibrated a carsharing customer model and enhanced the mode choice model by two carsharing modes. Despite a moderate data basis, we succeeded in generating reliable model results. The model results illustrate the variations in trip

length between a weekday and a weekend-day as well as the free-floating carsharing usage in relation to the time of the day. The results also show plausible variations in the share of trip purposes like shopping and leisure for both station-based and free-floating carsharing. However, as the model results are trip-based and real data is based on bookings, it is not possible to evaluate the model results regarding temporal usage of station-based carsharing. This gap has to be bridged in future versions of the model by either using more detailed data or by explicitly modeling each booking.

Another key aspect is the spatial resolution. In order to model access and egress trips explicitly, the model needs to use a higher spatial resolution than zones. With the current model version, the impedances between the zones in destination and mode choice are the same no matter where the agent is located within the zone. To improve the model, we plan to use geographical coordinates in the future; this would result in modelling individual access and egress trips as well as in individual impedances for destination and mode choice for every trip.

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