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3	UNDERSTANDING AND EMERGING TRENDS
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PUBLIC BIKESHARING IN NORTH AMERICA: EARLY OPERATOR UNDERSTANDING AND EMERGING TRENDS

28

29ABSTRACT

30Public bikesharing—the shared use of a bicycle fleet by the public—is an innovative mobility 31strategy that has recently emerged in major North American cities. Bikesharing systems typically 32position bicycles throughout an urban environment, among a network of docking stations, for 33immediate access. Approximately five years ago, information technology (or IT)-based 34bikesharing services began to emerge in North America. Between 2007 and March 2013, 28 IT-35based programs have been deployed–24 are operational, two are temporarily suspended, and two 36are now defunct in the United States (U.S.) and Canada. Bikesharing growth potential in North 37America is examined on the basis of a survey of all 15 IT-based public bikesharing systems 38operating in the U.S. and all four programs deployed in Canada, as of January 2012. These 39programs accounted for 172,070 users and 5,238 bicycles and 44,352 users and 6,235 bicycles in 40the U.S. and Canada, respectively, in January 2012. This paper reviews early operator 41understanding of North American public bikesharing and discusses emerging trends for 42prospective program start-ups.

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44**KEY WORDS:** Public bikesharing, North America, public transit, information technology, user 45survey

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47WORD COUNT: 5,750 words, plus 3 tables and 4 figures

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50INTRODUCTION

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51Public bikesharing has emerged as a new form of mobility that is altering the shape of public 52transportation systems in North American cities. Bikesharing programs operate by providing 53publicly accessible shared-use bicycles within an urban environment. Much of the recent growth 54in bikesharing has involved information technology (or IT) in which users access bikes at kiosks 55that communicate directly with a central system that permits the release and return of a bicycle. 56Since 1965 bikesharing has operated in less advanced forms, expanding worldwide to over five 57continents: Europe, North America, South America, Asia, and Australia (1). The recent evolution 58towards IT-based bikesharing has sparked a new era in transportation with a rapid proliferation 59of systems.

60 Public bikesharing programs operate with bicycle docking stations that are typically 61unattended and concentrated in urban settings. Unlike most carsharing systems (short-term auto 62access), bicycles are accessible instantaneously, without reservation, and trips can be one-way, as 63users can drop-off bicycles at any docking station with an available dock to securely lock the 64bicycle. For most systems, trips made in less than 30 minutes are free. Users can sign-up with 65bikesharing systems on an annual, monthly, daily, or per trip basis. Systems allow users to access 66bicycles by swiping a credit card, a membership card, and/or by mobile phone. When they finish 67using the bike, they can return it to any dock where there is room (including the same starting 68dock) and end their session.

69 Public bikesharing offers a number of environmental, social, and transportation-related 70benefits. It provides a quicker and zero emission means to access public transportation or to 71make short-distance trips between docking stations (1-2). Potential bikesharing benefits include: 721) increased mobility; 2) economic benefits (including cost savings from modal shifts and 73increased tourism); 3) lower implementation and operational costs (in contrast to shuttle 74services); 4) reduced traffic congestion; 5) reduced fuel use; 6) increased public transit use; 7) 75increased health benefits; and 8) greater environmental awareness (1).

Although before-and-after studies documenting public bikesharing benefits are limited, a 76 77few North American programs have conducted user surveys to record program impacts. Table 1 78presents a summary of trips, distance traveled, and estimated carbon dioxide (CO2) reductions 79 from studies completed in the United States (U.S.) and Canada, including results from the 80authors' recent survey of four public bikesharing operators in North America. The emission-81 reduction estimates vary substantially across studies due to different assumptions about user 82behavior, trip distribution, and trip substitution. Key assumptions that influence CO2 reduction 83 estimates pertain to public bikesharing trips that displace automobile trips. In addition to studies 84that have demonstrated reduced CO2 emissions and a modal shift toward bicycle use, evaluations 85 indicate an increased public awareness of bikesharing as a viable transportation mode. Fifty-nine 86percent of Nice Ride Minnesota users said that they liked the "convenience factor" most about 87their program (3). Denver B-cycle achieved a 30% increase in riders and a 97% increase in the 88number of rides taken in 2011 (4). These studies coupled with anecdotal evidence suggest that 89public bikesharing programs have a positive impact on the public perception of bicycling as a 90viable transportation mode.

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TABLE 1 Impacts of Public Bikesharing in North America

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94 By addressing the storage, maintenance, and parking aspects of bicycle ownership, public 95bikesharing encourages cycling among users who may not otherwise use bicycles. Additionally,

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96the availability of a large number of bicycles in multiple dense, nearby locations, frequently 97creates a "network-effect" further encouraging cycling and more specifically, the use of 98bikesharing for regular trips (e.g., commuting, errands).

99 This paper reviews early operator understanding of North American IT-based public 100bikesharing (2007-2012) and emerging trends for prospective program start-ups. There are six 101sections to this paper: 1) methodology; 2) market dynamics; 3) business models and funding; 4) 102accidents, insurance, and helmet use; 5) technology and system design; and 6) conclusion. 103

104**METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH**

105From May 2011 to June 2012, the authors completed stakeholder interviews on the state of 106public bikesharing in North America and conducted a total of 38 expert and operator interviews. 107Nineteen interviews were conducted with all IT-based public bikesharing programs operating in 108the U.S. and Canada as of April 2012. An additional 14 interviews were conducted with a 109combination of city and regional transportation personnel, public transit operators, policymakers, 110community bike coordinators, and bicycle/bikesharing vendors. Finally, the authors completed 111five interviews with brokers, underwriters, and attorneys in the bikesharing insurance industry in 112June 2012. The purpose of these interviews was twofold: 1) document the state of IT-based North 113American public bikesharing in 2012, and 2) highlight emerging trends for prospective start-ups. 114The scope of the study was focused on bikesharing programs accessible to the public and did not 115include college/university programs or those with a restricted user base. During the course of the 116study, the U.S. and Canadian dollars traded near parity and are treated as equal through the 117discussion.

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119NORTH AMERICAN BIKESHARING MARKET DYNAMICS

120The first North American public bikesharing program launched as a free system in Portland, OR 121in 1994. Over the next five years, similar public bikesharing programs emerged, all of which 122were modeled after either white-bike systems, which are also known as free bike systems, or 123alternatively as coin-deposit systems that require a refundable coin deposit to use a bicycle *(12)*. 124Bikesharing has evolved from these early systems (mid-1990s) to the deployment of IT-based 125bikesharing in the late-2000s *(12)*. This evolution has been categorized into four key phases or 126generations, which are summarized in Figure 1.

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FIGURE 1 Overview of public bikesharing generations.

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Since 2007, there have been 24 IT-based bikesharing program startups, one program 131suspension, and two program closures in the U.S. Since 2009, there have been four program 132launches and one program suspension in Canada. In the U.S., DecoBike Long Beach NY has 133temporarily suspended operations until the completed reconstruction of the boardwalk following 134Storm Sandy (Fall 2012). In Canada, Golden Community Bikeshare in Golden, British Columbia 135has temporarily suspended operations for one season for municipal fiscal austerity measures. As of January 2012, 15 U.S. IT-based bikesharing systems accounted for 172,070 users 137and 5,238 bicycles, and the four Canadian programs accounted for another 44,352 users and 1386,235 bicycles (summarized in Table 2). As of March 2013, an additional eight programs 139launched in the U.S. (for a total of 24 operational U.S. and Canadian programs–excluding 140programs temporarily suspended and one program closure in Chicago). The eight additional 141program locations include: Bike Nation Anaheim (CA); Bike Chattanooga (TN); Charlotte B-

142Cycle (NC); Houston B-cycle (TX); Kansas City B-Cycle (MO); Nashville B-Cycle (TN); 143Omaha B-Cycle (NE); and Spokies in Oklahoma City (OK). 144

145TABLE 2: IT-Based Public Bikesharing Programs in the U.S. and Canada (January 2012) 146

147Expansion of Existing IT-Based Public Bikesharing Systems

148The growth of public bikesharing systems has occurred at different rates in different areas. For 149example, in the U.S., Tulsa Townies—the first and oldest operating third-generation bikesharing 150system in North America—has not increased the number of bicycles over the five years since 151their inception. Conversely, DecoBike, which launched in 2011, has increased its bicycles by 15270% from 500 to 850. As the proliferation of IT-based public bikesharing in North America is 153relatively new, the dynamics of system growth are not yet well understood. Nevertheless, a few 154early trends are emerging. Eight programs (42%) have increased their fleet size since launching 155by between 20% and 200%. As of March 2013, there are nine programs with planned launch 156dates in 2013 (all in the U.S.). These program locations include: Chicago, IL; Columbus, OH; 157Fort Worth, TX; New York City, NY; Long Beach, CA; Salt Lake City, UT; San Diego, CA; San 158Francisco, CA; and Tampa, FL. There are an additional 33 locations exploring public bikesharing 159with unscheduled or non-publicly released launch timeframes (30 in the U.S. and three in 160Canada), as of March 2013; collectively these locations plan to deploy an estimated 24,000 161bicycles.

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163BUSINESS MODELS AND FUNDING

164One of the first considerations for a prospective program is the type of business model to apply. 165A number of public bikesharing business models have evolved with the advent of IT-based 166systems including: 1) non-profit, 2) privately owned and operated, 3) publicly owned and 1670perated, 4) public owned/contractor operated, 5) street-furniture contract, 6) third-party 169administration, and operations, there can be overlap among these models. A description of each 170business model is provided in Table 3.

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TABLE 3: Public Bikesharing Business Models

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174 As of January 2012, 11 (58%) of the 19 IT-based public bikesharing programs in the U.S. 175and Canada were non-profit, four (21%) were privately owned and operated, three (16%) were 176publicly owned and contractor operated, and one (5%) was publicly owned and operated. No 177programs were managed as part of a street-furniture contract. Non-profit programs accounted for 17882% of the membership and 66% of the shared bicycles as of January 2012. Publicly owned and 179contractor operated programs accounted for 10% of the membership and 17% of the bicycles 180deployed. Privately owned and operated programs accounted for 8% of the membership and 17% 1810f the shared bicycle fleets. The one publicly owned and operated service, located in Canada, 182accounted for less than 1% of members and fleets deployed.

Of the eight programs that have launched since our survey, six responded to questions 183 184relating to their business model. Thirty-three percent are non-profit (n=2/6), 33% are publicly 1850 and contractor operated (n=2/6), and 33% are privately owned and operated (n=2/6). Of 186the 42 programs planning to launch (n=9) and prospective bikesharing initiatives (n=33), 26 have 187identified a business model: five plan to launch as non-profits (19%), five as publicly owned and 188contractor operated (19%), seven as publicly owned and operated (27%), seven as privately 189owned and operated (27%), and two as vendor operated (8%). Non-profit carsharing programs 190will operate two of the planned programs (Buffalo Bikeshare in Buffalo, NY and City CarShare 191in San Francisco, CA). The increased diversity, and in particular, the growing privatization of 192initiatives is notable. With a few exceptions, public transportation is typically the domain of the 193public sector. Public bikesharing may be evolving to become another exception, where the 194private sector sees value in the provision of transportation services that reduce congestion, 195energy, and emissions. Whether or not this is a trend remains unclear. Nevertheless, the 196increasing diversity towards private sector funding presents the possibility that this transportation 197mode may be sustainable with limited to no governmental support.

199Funding

200Related to increasing diversification of business models, public bikesharing systems have 201generated a considerable diversity in start-up and operational funding. Funding for existing 202public bikesharing has frequently been obtained through a combination of sources including: 203advertising; user fees; grants; loans; sponsorships; health-care/tobacco settlement funds; and 204governmental funds for capital costs, operational costs, or both. In many locations, public 205bikesharing startups have received some combination of local, state, and/or federal government 206funding. Operational costs are typically funded through a combination of user fees, advertising, 207and sponsorships. Advertising-based business models and funding have been common in 208European bikesharing systems, while North American systems have relied on sponsorships. The 209main difference between the systems is whether an advertising firm runs the program or the 210program sells advertising.

Fifty-eight percent (n=11/19) of U.S. and Canadian organizations reported receiving 212some form of startup and/or operational funding. Sixteen percent (n=3) did not receive startup 213and/or operational funding. Five operators did not provide data on funding sources. The authors 214classified funding portfolio diversity ranging from—less diverse (three funding sources), to 215moderate (four funding sources), to more diverse (five funding sources)—based on the number 216of funding sources per operator. Figure 2 illustrates the diversity of funding for the North 217American public bikesharing industry as of January 2012.

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FIGURE 2 North American Public bikesharing funding.

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With respect to user fees, in most systems, the first half hour of public bikesharing is at 222no cost beyond the annual or monthly fees, and time charges increase in stepped amounts after 223that. Most annual and monthly users make trips of less than 30 minutes. Seventeen of the 19 IT-224based North American public bikesharing operators (89%) offer three membership options: 1) a 225short-term membership (e.g., 24-hour to 7-day pass); 2) monthly or 30-day membership option; 226and 3) a season or annual memberships. In Fall 2012, a new membership option emerged in the 227Montreal BIXI system: the "occasional user," where a user has an account and a key fob but does 228not actively maintain a subscription. Whenever an occasional user swipes their key fob in a dock, 229a 24-hour subscription is automatically purchased (Mitch Vars, unpublished data, October 2012). 230The cost for a 24-hour pass varies from US\$0 to \$10, averaging US\$5.49. The cost of a 30-day 231membership varies from US\$15 to \$40, averaging US\$31. The cost of an annual membership 232varies from US\$30 to \$95, averaging US\$66.

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234ACCIDENTS, INSURANCE, AND HELMET USE

235Accident rates are relatively low among North American operators, averaging 1.36 accidents 236reported system-wide in 2011 (n=14/19). However, differences in data collection make it difficult 237to compare bikesharing accident rates among operators. The operators interviewed tracked public 238bikesharing accidents in one of three ways: 1) total number of accidents, program-wide, 239annually; 2) the number of accidents per a number of rides; and 3) number accidents per distance 240of bikesharing use. One operator reported an accident rate of approximately one incident for 241every 50,000 to 60,000 rides, and another noted one accident after approximately 100,000 miles 242(or 161,000 kilometers) of riding. In this study, operators with more than 1,000 bicycles reported 243an average of 4.33 accidents per year; those with between 250 and 1,000 bicycles averaged 0.6 244reported accidents a year; and those with less than 250 bikes reported 0.3 accidents per year. In 245addition to collecting data about accident rates, the authors interviewed program operators about 246the nature of the accidents. Due to the relatively small number of accidents in North America, the 247authors were unable to identify patterns related to accident cause or severity.

249Insurance

250Not surprisingly, public bikesharing involves risk, and risk involves insurance. Insurance is a key 251institutional requirement when an organization is exposed to risk and liability, including public 252bikesharing. To better understand the current landscape of insurance in the bikesharing industry, 253the authors obtained insurance information from 15 of the 19 public bikesharing programs; three 254operators acknowledged carrying insurance but declined to provide additional details due to 255proprietary concerns. One operator neither responded nor confirmed carrying any type of 256insurance coverage. Operator surveys were supplemented with five expert interviews with 257brokers, underwriters, and attorneys with experience providing bikesharing insurance. Insurance 258varied considerably based upon the operator's business model because local governments, non-259profits, and for-profits have different insurance requirements and may have existing policies that 260can be extended to cover bikesharing systems as well (e.g., local governments and public transit 261agencies). Seven types of common insurance policies were identified that could be applicable to 262bikesharing, as listed in Figure 3 (*13*). The four most common types of insurance coverage 263carried by U.S. and Canadian bikesharing operators include: general liability coverage, workers' 264compensation, commercial auto, and inland marine coverage.

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FIGURE 3 Overview of North American Public Bikesharing Insurance.

Generally commercial liability is the most common form of insurance. Unless a 269bikesharing program is self-insured by a sponsor or local government entity, most carry some 270form of liability coverage. Despite all North American programs requiring a liability waiver, 271many were required to carry liability insurance as a condition for placing kiosks on either public 272or private land. Most operators perceived liability insurance as a necessary protection against 273potential legal action, since liability waivers are only a protection for legal action of users (not 274property owners or vehicles that may encounter bikesharing users).

Other forms of insurance, such as constructive loss, worker's compensation, commercial professional liability, inland marine, or riggers liability, were carried by a subset of

277operators. These insurance forms covered more specific types of risk pertaining to operations. In 278addition to insurance types, the experts indicated that there are three key factors that determine 279premiums: 1) geographic location, 2) limits and deductibles, and 3) system use. Insurance 280premiums can be designed around: 1) percent of kiosk sales (e.g., percent of ridership revenue); 2812) percent of gross revenue (e.g., percent of total revenue including ridership, sponsorships, 282advertising, etc.); and 3) number of rides (e.g., premiums based on how often the bicycles are 283used). Percent of kiosk sales were indicated to be a sub-optimal method of structuring premiums 284because many operators include some amount of "free use." Gross revenue was the least 285preferred method because including advertising revenue, along with kiosk sales, does not result 286in more risk. Finally, structuring premiums based on number of rides was perceived to be the 287most fair and accurate method, as the number of rides can be correlated to the amount of use and 288program risk an operator confronts.

289

290Helmet Use

291Public bikesharing experts and users generally perceive helmet laws as an obstacle to use 292because of the inconvenience associated with carrying a helmet, lack of availability for last-293 minute trips, and the challenges associated with providing sterile shared-use helmets. As of April 2942012, Golden Community Bike Share (Golden, BC) was the only North American program in 295which helmet use was required because British Columbia implemented a mandatory helmet law 296 for all ages in 1996 (14). The organization offers complimentary helmets with each bike rental. 297Seven additional operators offer helmets, although use is not mandatory. Three of them sell 298helmets at a central location operated by the bikesharing provider (Chicago B-cycle (now 299defunct), DecoBike, and San Antonio B-cycle), and two offer helmets for purchase when 300members join (Capital Bikeshare and New Balance Hubway). Additionally, two operators 301previously provided free helmets as part of membership (Denver B-cycle and Nice Ride 302Minnesota). Many operators offer helmets through partnerships with local bike stores and 303provide helmet purchase discounts. The authors' 2011 North American user survey of four public 304bikesharing programs found that the majority of respondents never wear helmets (6). In 305Montreal, 62% of survey respondents indicated never wearing a helmet while bikesharing 306compared to 50% in the Twin Cities, 45% in Toronto, and 43% in Washington, D.C (6). The 307survey also found that helmet use ranged between 20% and 38%, while using bikesharing. In 308Vancouver, BC, three private companies are developing options for providing sterile shared 309helmets, including a helmet-rental sanitizing machine and disposable helmets (e.g., SandVault's 310HelmetStation) (15).

311

312BIKESHARING TECHOLOGY AND SYSTEM DESIGN

313Another consideration for prospective program start-ups is the type of technologies deployed 314within their system. Common components of public bikesharing systems include: bicycles, 315docking stations and kiosks, user interfaces for locating bicycles and availability, and systems for 316bicycle re-balancing and demand management. Station placement is also a key consideration. 317

318Bicycles

319As of April 2012, 10 (53%) of the North American IT-based operators use Trek bicycles, six 320(31%) employ PBSC Urban Solutions bicycles, one (5%) uses the DecoBike Cruiser, and two 321(11%) employ bicycles of other brands, such as Kona and Worksmith. DecoBike uses a custom-322built bicycle exclusively for its system. Multi-speed bicycles are used by 17 (89%) of the

323 operators, and two operators deploy fixed-speed bicycles (11%). In addition, 17 of 19 IT-based 324operators (89%) use bicycles specifically built for their organization, while two (11%) employ 325bikes purchased off-the-rack. Twelve (63%) operators equip their bicycles with self-generating 326 lights, while six others (32%) use regular lights. One operator did not equip its bicycles with any 327lights to deter users from using the service at night. A total of 13 (68%) equip their bicycles with 328bells and baskets, and seven (37%) supply luggage racks. Ten operators provided per-bicycle 329cost estimates, ranging from US\$750 to \$7,000, with an average cost of US\$1,800; other 330operators declined to provide cost estimates. Estimates vary substantially, in part, because 331operators frequently buy a group of bikes with each kiosk.

Many public bikesharing systems collect data to track the movement of their bicycles. 332 333The most common technology used is radio-frequency identification (RFID) tags. This 334technology, used by 18 of 19 operators (95%), identifies when and where a bicycle leaves and re-335enters a docking station. It tracks the check-out and check-in of docking stations by location, 336bicycle, time, and user type, but it does not collect information on where the bicycle traveled in 337between. Seven of the 19 operators (37%), use both GPS and RFID technology, which augments 338check-in and check-out with trip data. In most systems, GPS technology is used to enable users 339to track their distance traveled, calories burned, and carbon offset, through the operator's 340website. One operator uses neither technology. Figure 4 illustrates the distribution of technology 341 within public bikesharing systems in North America.

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343 344

FIGURE 4 North American bicycle and docking stations trends.

345Docking Stations and Kiosks

346As of April 2012, three vendors provide kiosks and docking stations: PBSC Urban Solutions, B-347cycle, and SandVault. Ten of 19 IT-based operators (53%) use B-cycle docks and kiosks, six 348(32%) employ PBSC Urban Solutions/8D Technologies docks, and three (16%) use stations 349designed by SandVault. The number of ports at each docking station range from 7 to 130, 350averaging 20 per station. The majority of operators employ re-locatable or "mobile" docking 351stations and solar kiosks (either exclusively or combined with grid power) in their systems. See 352Figure 4.

353 Vendors usually sell complete station systems that include bicycles, kiosks, map frames, 354customer keys, spare parts, supplies, and shipping (16-17). Only five operators provided data on 355docking station costs. The average is US\$39,550 per station. Other studies have documented 356station costs ranging from US\$26,064 to \$58,000 (16-17). Station costs are difficult to compare 357 across programs because many purchase stations that include bicycles in the package. According 358to one study, the cost of a small station (four bicycles and seven docks) is US\$26,064 or a cost of 359US\$6,516 per a bicycle (16). A larger station (13 bicycles and 19 docks) costs up to US\$52,276 360(cost of US\$4,021 per a bicycle) (16). Four operators provided cost estimates for relocating a 361mobile station, averaging US\$4,000. Other studies have documented relocation costs of 362US\$2,000 for the contractor removal and reinstallation of a station (16). According to Toole 363Design, annual operating costs range from US\$12,000 to \$28,000 for a docking station with 11 364to 19 docks (17).

365

366User Interface

367IT-based public bikesharing generally requires a user interface to check bicycles in and out. 368Preregistration can create usage barriers (e.g., time constraints and credit card use), but typically

369it increases accountability and discourages theft. Eleven of 19 IT-based operators (58%) employ 370smartcards, six (32%) use smart keys, and two (10%) use access codes to retrieve bicycles in 371their systems. Four (24%) operators of the 17 that use either smart keys or smartcards also 372employ access codes to allow non-members to access the system. Thirteen of 19 operators (68%) 373indicated that a credit card is required for system use, and six reported that a credit card could be 374substituted for a debit card at their kiosks.

375

376System Balancing and Demand Management

377Operators employ a variety of methods to balance their systems, including physically moving 378bikes or offering incentives for users to move them to less popular docking stations. Many 379operators strive to maintain a specific ratio of bikes to docking ports to minimize rebalancing. 380The average in North America is one bicycle to every 1.7 docking ports. Targeted bicycle-to-381docking-port ratios are slightly higher in Canada (1:1.9) than in the U.S. (1:1.7). Publicly owned 382and contractor operated programs (e.g., Capital Bikeshare, BIXI Ottawa, and New Balance 383Hubway) tend to have the highest ratios, 1:1.8; non-profits have an average ratio of 1:1.7. 384Smaller programs (250 bicycles or less) reported rebalancing once or twice a season, whereas 385large programs need to rebalance continuously throughout the day. Ten out of 19 programs 386(53%) rebalance daily. Some strategies for system balancing include: use of computer systems to 387monitor system balance in real-time, use of bicycle depots for users to return bikes when stations 388are full, and locating docking stations closer together to lower rebalancing costs.

A few vendors have introduced the concept of dockless stations aimed at "dynamic self-390rebalancing;" however, these systems have not yet been implemented in public bikesharing. One 391vendor, Social Bicycles (SoBi), has a design in which its bicycles contain a solar-powered, GPS-392enabled lockbox—eliminating the need for docking stations. User incentives and disincentives 393both encourage dynamic self-rebalancing (e.g., users who lock a bike outside of designated hub 394areas incur a fee, while those who return the bicycle to a high-demand location receive a credit). 395Dynamic pricing and dockless bikes may offer additional flexibility to bikesharing systems and 396could be used in conjunction with or in substitute of dock-based bikesharing systems. However, 397one possible drawback of dockless bikesharing is derived from the increased onus it places on 398the user to find "in-service" bikes. Overcoming this challenge would require advanced guidance 399interfaces for users and possibly supporting rules pertaining to the visibility of "returned" 400bicycles to a dockless system.

401

402Station Placement Considerations

403Related to docking stations, a key consideration for prospective program start-ups is where to 404position stations, distance between kiosks, and how far stations must be placed from transit hubs 405to encourage multi-modal crossflow between public transit and bikesharing. Another 406consideration is whether to locate kiosks on public or private land. Five of 19 North American 407operators indicated that their stations are located entirely on public land (e.g., former on-street 408parking stalls, curbs, and other public rights-of-way), while another five are sited mostly on 409public land. Two reported that their stations are located on private land, and three stated that their 410docking ports are situated on both public and private lands (15 total of 19). The two operators 411with fleets of more than 1,000 bicycles rely more on public than private land in contrast to four 412of six with fleets ranging from 250 to 999 bicycles, which depend more on private than public 413land. Similarly, six of the seven fleets with less than 250 bicycles also rely more on private than 414public land. Operators indicated, in almost all cases, that use of the land is free. In a few cases, 416sponsors pay operators to locate public bikesharing on their property. In one instance, an operator 417had to pay to use a municipal property. Although operators generally do not pay for the use of 418land, there have been cases where programs have either had to move or install on-street furniture 419as part of their agreement.

Two operators (10%) indicated their preferred linear distance between docking stations is 421between 90 and 275 meters. Ten operators (53%) reported their preferred distance between 422stations is between 275 and 400 meters. Four (21%) indicated between 400 and 800 meters. One 423(5%) stated an optimum distance of 800 to 1,200 meters. Finally, two (11%) reported an 424optimum distance greater than 1,200 meters. In terms of distance from public transportation, 425three of nine respondents (33%) indicated that between 275 and 400 meters is their preferred 426maximum distance to locate docking stations from a public transit station to target transit riders. 427Three others provided a maximum distance of 25 meters, and another three reported between 25 428and 275 meters (nine reporting of 19). Determining optimal station placement can include the 429consideration of numerous factors and constraints; thus, there is a relatively wide distribution in 430spacing reported. This reflects both the diversity of operator environments, as well as the 431practical learning that the industry is experiencing with respect to station-network design. 432

433CONCLUSION

434The advent of public bikesharing in North America is one of the latest developments in the 435continually evolving shared-use mobility sector. With the incorporation of information 436technology into bikesharing, another transportation mode has begun to emerge across the 437continent within pioneering cities and towns. While the basic mobility provided by public 438bikesharing relies on the proven 100-year old operation of a bicycle, the instant access, 439distributed stations, improved travel speeds, and low cost have provided a new mechanism for 440people to travel emission free. The accessibility of public bicycles in remote locations away from 441people's homes releases them from the need to supply their own bicycle at the start of the day for 442tripmaking later. The effects of this subtle change could be notable on both mobility and 443emissions. Bikesharing provides easier access to urban destinations farther away, reducing the 444need for driving or taxi use. The speed and accessibility of bikesharing may also increase activity 445and exercise, offering public health benefits.

For public bikesharing to realize these benefits, it will need to become economically 447sustainable under supportive business models that reflect the needs/goals of each program. 448Although bikesharing continues to gain popularity in the U.S. and Canada, the industry has not 449yet converged on a dominant business model or funding strategy. In addition, such a convergence 450is not likely to occur in each location. In carsharing, for instance, the industry ultimately settled 451on both non-profit and for-profit operators employing the "classic" neighborhood carsharing 452model, which serves residential customers, as its primary user base in urban areas (at least 453today). While the pricing structures and customer base appear remarkably similar in public 454bikesharing, there is an even greater diversity of funding sources, operational settings, and 455business models. Other industry challenges remain key issues including: optimal station-456placement, risk management and insurance, and safety and technological management. The early 457experiences of public bikesharing systems will serve as important guidance for future operations 458and the expansion of this seemingly transformative mode.

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CO₂ Change in Respondents Year of Trips Km Reduction Vehicle Canada Driving Less Data per Day per Day (kg per Day) Ownership Often **BIXI Montreal** 2011 20,000⁵ -3.6%⁶ 36.3%⁶ **BIXI** Toronto 2011 -2.0%⁶ 25.4%⁶ CO₂ Respondents Reduction Year of Trips Km Reduction in Vehicle **Driving Less** United States per Year per Year Data (kg per Year) **Ownership** Often **Boulder B-cycle** 2011 $18,500^{7}$ $47,174^{7}$ **Capital Bikeshare (D.C.)** 1,249,454⁶ 41.0%⁶ 2011 -2.1%⁶ Denver B-cycle 202,731⁸ 280,339⁸ 2011 694.942⁸ New Balance Hubway (Boston) 140,000⁹ 2011 Madison B-cycle $18,500^{10}$ 46,80510 2011 Nice Ride Minnesota (Twin Cities) 217,530⁶ 2011 -1.9%⁶ 52.4%⁶ San Antonio B-cycle 22,70911 38,575¹¹ 2011 536

First generation: "Free bikes" Bicycles are typically painted one color, left unlocked, and placed randomly throughout an area for free use. First-generation systems do not use docking ports. In some of the systems, the bikes are locked; users must get a key from a participating local business and may also need to leave a credit card deposit, but actual bike use is free. Many first-generation systems eventually ceased operations due to theft and bicycle vandalism, but some are still operating as community-based initiatives. Second generation: "Coin-deposit systems" Bicycles have designated docking stations/parking locations where they are locked, borrowed, and returned. A deposit, generally not more than \$4, is required to unlock a bike. While coin-deposit systems helped reduce theft and vandalism, the problem was not eliminated, in part because of user anonymity. Many second-generation systems are still in operation. Third generation: "IT-based systems" IT-based systems use electronic and wireless communications for bicycle pickup, drop-off, and tracking. User accountability has been improved through the use of credit or debit cards. Third-generation bikesharing includes docking stations, kiosks, or user interface technology for check-in and check-out, and advanced technology (e.g., magnetic-stripe cards, smartcards, smart keys). Although these systems are more expensive than first- or second-generation systems, information technology enables public bikesharing programs to track bicycles and access user information, improves system management, and deters bike theft. IT-based systems are responsible for public bikesharing's recent expansion in both locations and scale. Fourth generation: "Demand-responsive / Demand-responsive, multi-modal systems build upon the technology of thirdmulti-modal systems" (1) generation systems by implementing enhanced features, such as flexible, clean docking stations or "dockless" bicycles; demand-responsive bicycle redistribution innovations to facilitate system rebalancing; value pricing to



FIGURE 1 Overview of public bikesharing generations.

be fully deployed.

encourage self-rebalancing; multi-modal access; billing integration (e.g., sharing smartcards with public transit and carsharing); real-time transit integration and system data dashboards; and global positioning system (GPS) tracking. Fourth-generation bikesharing is an evolving concept that has yet to

Organization	Location	Launch Year	Users	Bicycles	Stations		
Canada							
BIXI Montreal	Montreal, QB	2009	40,000	5,120	411		
BIXI Toronto	Toronto, ON	2011	4,200	1,000	80		
Capital BIXI	Ottawa, ON	2011	150	100	10		
Golden Community Bike Share	Golden, BC	2011	2	15	2		
Canadian Total			44,352	6,235	503		
United States							
Boulder B-cycle	Boulder, CO	2011	7,170	120	15		
Broward B-cycle	Ft. Lauderdale, FL	2011	1,029	275	20		
Capital Bikeshare	Washington, DC	2010	18,000	1,200	130		
Chicago B-cycle	Chicago, IL	2010	10,000	100	7		
DecoBike	Miami, FL	2011	2,100	850	85		
Denver B-cycle	Denver, CO	2010	79,701	520	51		
Des Moines B-cycle	Des Moines, IA	2010	1,298	18	4		
Hawaii B-cycle	Kailua, HI	2011	475	12	2		
Madison B-cycle	Madison, WI	2011	6,909	280	27		
New Balance Hubway	Boston, MA	2011	3,500	600	61		
Nice Ride Minnesota	Minneapolis/St. Paul, MN	2010	33,900	960	116		
Omaha B-cycle	Omaha, NB	2011	426	35	5		
San Antonio B-cycle	San Antonio, TX	2011	6,685	230	23		
Spartanburg B-cycle	Spartanburg, SC	2011	877	14	2		
Tulsa Townies *	Tulsa, OK	2007	N/A	24	3		
United States Total			172,070	5,238	551		

542 TABLE 2: IT-Based Public Bikesharing Programs in the U.S. and Canada (January 2012) 543 _____

* Tulsa Townies does not offer a membership option to users.

† It is important to note that user populations are reported differently by organization (e.g., some include daily members, others do not).

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Business Model	Definition	Example	
Non-Profit	 Goal of covering operational costs and expanding service Start-up and operational funding typically are supported by grants, sponsorships, and loans 	Denver B-cycle Denver, CO (Operational)	
Privately Owned and Operated	 Owned and operated by a private entity Operator provides all funding for equipment and operations May have limited contractual agreement with public entities for rights-of-way 	DecoBike Miami, FL (Operational)	
Publicly Owned and Operated	 Owned and operated by a public agency or local government Agency subsidizes bikesharing with system revenue 	Golden Community Bike Share Golden, BC (Operational)	
Publicly Owned/Contractor Operated	 Owned by a public agency or local government, responsible for funding and administering the system Operations are contracted to a private operator 	Capital Bikeshare Washington, D.C. (Operational)	
Street Furniture Contract	 Operator permitted to operate in a jurisdiction in exchange for advertising rights, generally with street furniture System funded through advertising revenue 	SmartBike D.C. Washington, D.C. (Defunct)	
Third-Party Operated	 Operated in partnership with local businesses in exchange for a percentage of the profit Hybrid operation scheme that can be paired with other business model 	Chicago B-cycle Chicago, IL (Defunct)	
Vendor Operated	• Operated by the same company that designs and/or manufactures the system equipment (the vendor)	Bike Nation Anaheim Anaheim, CA (Operational)	

TABLE 3: Public Bikesharing Business Models



General Commercial Liability: Provides protection for public and product liability risks that may include bodily injury or property damage caused by direct or indirect actions of the insured. Liability insurance is designed to offer protection against third-party insurance claims (e.g., someone who suffers a loss either from using a bikesharing system or a loss of a non-user resulting from the use of a bikesharing bicycle). Generally, unless self-insured by a sponsor or local government entity, most North American bikesharing programs carry some form of liability coverage. One broker indicated that the minimum premium for liability coverage started at \$5,000 annually for a basic \$1M policy. A key challenge of liability coverage is developing a single coverage limit that meets the requirements for all property owners (public and private) with kiosks on their land. The minimum liability coverage for property owners with bikesharing kiosks on their property often reflects the highest limits required by an entire group of property owners. These can be cost prohibitive, if a property owner requests an excessively large limit over other land owners (e.g., \$10M of liability coverage when other land owners only require \$3M). The operator and the broker often negotiate a coverage level that is acceptable to all property owners with bikesharing kiosks.

Premiums and Coverage - Only nine of the 15 U.S. operators were able to provide details on their program's liability coverage. These programs maintained a general liability policy with coverage ranging from \$1M to \$5M, with limits ranging from \$500,000 to \$2M per an occurrence and deductibles ranging from \$1,000 to \$10,000. Two operators reported paying an average cost of \$8,416; premiums range from \$5,000 to \$11,832 annually for this coverage. As of May 2012, only two operators noted having a total of 16 successful liability claims. Fifteen of these claims belonged to one large operator with more than 1,000 bicycles. All 19 North American operators require users to sign a liability waiver prior to using the system.

Constructive Total Loss: This is insurance that covers the repair costs for an item that is more than the current value of that item. It can also refer to an insurance claim that is settled for the entire property amount on the basis that the cost to repair or recover the damaged property exceeds its replacement cost or market value. Generally, the operators do not insure individual bicycles because repair or replacement costs would be less than the typical deductible. However, a few operators insure bicycles while they are parked at the kiosk ("kiosk loss") and in storage for seasonal programs.

Workers' Compensation: This insurance provides wage replacement and medical benefits to employees injured in the course of employment in exchange for mandatory relinquishment of the employee's right to sue his or her employer for the tort of negligence.

Premiums and Coverage - Five programs indicated carrying workers' compensation coverage, with coverage varying from \$100,000 per accident up to \$500,000. Premiums for this coverage ranged from \$684 to \$7,920 annually. As of May 2012, one of these five programs reported having one worker's compensation claim.

Commercial Automobile: This insurance provides financial protection against physical damage and/or bodily injury resulting from traffic collisions and against liability that could also arise. In public bikesharing, commercial automobile insurance is generally applied towards employees that rebalance bikes using trucks or other program vehicles, if applicable.

Premiums and Coverage - Four programs provided information on their commercial auto policies. Although these policies were largely dictated by state law, these programs maintained coverage including: \$500,000 per occurrence and \$3M per vehicle, with varying comprehensive and collision deductibles, averaging \$500 and \$1,000, respectively. The annual premiums for these policies averaged \$4,000.

Professional Liability (Errors and Omissions): This is a form of liability insurance that helps protect professional advice and service-providing companies from bearing the full cost of defending against a negligence claim made by a user and damages awarded in such a civil lawsuit.

Inland Marine: This insurance indemnifies loss to movable property (e.g., shipment of kiosks after purchase).

Premiums and Coverage - Two programs indicated carrying inland marine coverage. Their insurance carried a maximum limit of \$1,000 per an item and up to \$500,000 per an occurrence. The average cost of this coverage was \$5,146 annually.

Rigger's Liability: This insurance is designed to protect the movement and relocation of kiosks (specifically when kiosks are relocated using cranes). One insurance broker indicated selling rigger's insurance (i.e., insurance for a contractor's liability arising from moving property that belongs to others (e.g., lifting bicycle kiosks with a crane or other construction equipment).

