Knowledge Pool

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Contents

Preface

This is a *continuously developing* database, which is a part of DAVeMOS project. It aims at gathering concepts and evidence of the systemic impact of transport digitalisation and automation. Therefore, the authors of this work welcome any feedback, questions and contributions that the readers may have.

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The knowledge pool was last compiled on:

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## [1] "27 January 2021"
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Table of content

Chapter 1

Introduction

This work gathers and defines essential concepts related to automation and digitalisation of transport system together with the description of their impact, both negative and positive on **individual**, **systemic** and **economy level**. This knowledge pool is driven by the fact that automation and digitalisation are progressing quickly, although not uniformly across all areas within transport context. Therefore, to understand spectrum of possibilities that they bring, it is necessary to explain key concepts, demonstrate their level of maturity and current market penetration, and finally assess their impact on different levels. Given this approach, the page of each topic contains the following elements:**definition** of the phenomenon, **key stakeholders** who are the main parties responsible for and affected by the given technological development. Then, we include two subsections on **current state of art in research and practice**. The former one summarizes the most recent research in a given topic while the latter explains the current stage of implementation of given technology in the real world. Further, section named **relevant initatives in Austria** covers the leading initiatives within given topic and potential for Austrian actors. Moreover, we provide the summary table of the impacts of the concept on selected **sustainable development goals** (SDGs). Beyond, to provide an objective measure of technology maturity within each topic we include so-called **technology readiness scale** (Willismson & Beasley, 2011) as described below:

Furthermore, we evaluate the readiness of a given technology to be acceptable in the society and how well it contributes to the public good using **societal readiness scale** (McCulloch, 2019):

Finally, we provide a list of **outstanding questions** and **links to additional sources** on the topic.

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Figure 1.1: Technology readiness scale

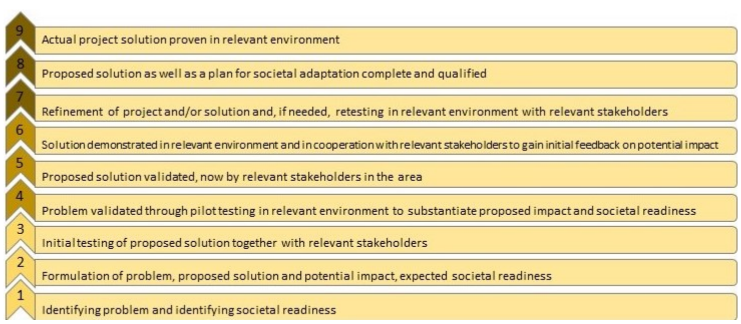

Figure 1.2: Societal readiness scale

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Chapter 2

Physical road infrastructure

2.1 Dedicated lanes for connected and automated vehicles (CAV)

Synonyms

AV-dedicated lanes, *dedicated corridors*

Definition

Dedicated lane for connected and autonomous vehicles features additional infrastructure or sensors to increase the reliability of Advanced Driver Assistant Systems (ADAS). Only automated driving vehicles are allowed to drive on these lanes. The typical applications include cooperative and adaptive cruise control based on sensors with the infrastructure, lane keeping, fuel use optimization and road pricing possibilities (Broek et al., 2011). The introduction of dedicated lanes for CAV is expected to have direct consequences on the traffic flow on the highways and a nearby road network. In particular, a study conducted in Singapore showed that dedicated lanes on the highways can reduce travel time of CAVs by approximately 25% (if the saturation on the lane is not reached) at the cost of a delay for conventional cars of approximately 7%, due to the reduced capacity (Ivanchev et al., 2017). They were also demonstrated to have a positive effect on fuel consumption. Moreover, the throughput, defined as a number of vehicles passing through the road in a given time interval, increased as a result of introduction of dedicated lanes for AVs (Kumar et al., 2020). This effect, however, was associated with a decrease in throughput of smaller roads due to the preference of AVs for highways because of time savings, which in turn can result in time loss for conventional cars. What is more, the benefits from increased capacity of AV-only lanes can be further amplified through setting a higher speed limits for these lanes (Ye & Yamamoto, 2018). With respect to the demand for different road types the study found that the introduction of dedicated CAV lanes will increase the demand of conventional cars for major road (but smaller than highways) and minor roads as a substitution for more congested highways due to the dedicated AV lanes. In contrast, study by Chen et al. (2016) showed that the implementation of CAV dedicated lanes has a potential of maximizing traffic capacity on these lanes in a mix-traffic context while having effectively no impact on conventional traffic capacity. Further, in order to use efficiently CAV dedicated lanes, which may be underutilized at the early stage, it is proposed to allow conventional cars to enter the AVs-only lanes after toll payment. This solution stems from currently operational across the world High Occupancy Vehicle (HOV) lanes. This joint approach is claimed to improve the throughput of individual road as well as enhance system-wide flow distribution within the network (Liu & Song, 2019).

Key stakeholders

- **Affected**: Conventional Cars' Drivers, Car Manufacturers, Insurers
- **Responsible**: Road Infrastructure Agencies, Local and National Governments

Current state of art in research

Current research focuses on gathering the evidence of the impact of the introduction of dedicated lanes on traffic flow, driver behavior adoption, safety and efficiency. Furthermore, it analyses the factors which influence them, by testing different design and operation configurations, road types and utilization policies (Rad et al., 2020). Both, field operational testing and driving simulator studies have been conducted to investigate the influence of different designs of dedicated lanes on drivers in conventional cars and those featuring some degree of automation (Guin et al., 2008, Zhong, 2018). In particular, a number of studies compared distinct access types of dedicated lanes (Zhong, 2018, Yang et al., 2019). They showed that dedicated lanes with limited access performed better in terms of travel time and throughput compared to dedicated lanes with continuous access. Moreover, the probability of vehicles platooning was significantly higher on dedicated lanes with limited access. On the other hand, it was showed that collision rates near the entry or exit of these limited access lanes are higher (Rad et al. 2020).

Current state of art in practice

Currently state of Michigan together with several private partners including Ford and Alphabet Inc. are planning to dedicate 65 km of a highway between

Detroit and Ann Arbor for the sole movement of autonomous vehicles including buses and shuttles (Krisher & Eggert, 2020). Similar initiatives are taking place in other countries, for instance, China set out to build nearly 100 km of 8-lane highway linking Beijing and the Xiongan New Area, from which 2 lanes will be allocated for the automated traffic. The completion of the construction phase is predicted by the end of 2020, while its opening is for traffic is expected in June 2021 (Syncedreview.com, 2020). In Europe, there is on-going SHOW (SHared automation Operating models for Worldwide adoption) project which aims to deploy about seventy automated vehicles in 21 European cities. To assess how they can best be integrated vehicles will be used in different settings in mixed traffic and dedicated lanes. However, for safety reasons the driver will be on-board (CORDIS, 2020).

Relevant initiatives in Austria

- tugraz.at
- ait.ac.at

Impacts with respect to Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

Impact level	Indicator	Impact direction	Goal description and number	Source
Individual	Fuel consumption reduced	+	Environmental sustainability (*7,12,13,15*)	Ivanchev et al., 2017
Individual	Travel time reduced	+	Sustainable economic development (*8,11*)	Zhong, 2018; Yang et al., 2019
Systemic	Collision rate reduced	+	Health & Wellbeing (*3*)	Zhang et al., 2020
Systemic	Emissions rate reduced	+	Environmental sustainability (*7,12,13,15*)	Al Alam at al., 2010
Systemic	Congestion	~	Sustainable economic development (*8,11*)	Ivanchev et al., 2017; Kumar et al., 2020

Impact level	Indicator	Impact direction	Goal description and number	Source
Systemic	Novel designs tested	+	Innovation & Infrastructure (*9*)	Guin et al., 2008; Zhong, 2018; Krisher & Eggert, 2020
Systemic	SHOW EU initiative	+	Partnership & collaborations (*17*)	CORDIS, 2020

Technology and societal readiness level

TRL	SRL
5-6	1-3

Open questions

1. What are the potential benefits of dedicated AV lanes when coupled with smart platooning strategies?
2. How and to what degree will joint concepts by automotive sector, fleet and road operators will improve traffic management establishing dynamic traffic regulations even across borders?
3. What are the roles and responsibilities of the different stakeholders of physical infrastructure for connected and automated vehicles?
4. Should the vehicle cope with any road infrastructure, and if not, what demands can be set to adapt the existing infrastructure?
5. How to ensure continuity between those different environments?
6. Which tools (e.g. micro- and macroscopic transport modelling, impact assessment) can enable cities to assess the impact of automated vehicles on their physical road infrastructure and balance the needs of automated vehicles against the needs of existing modes (conventional vehicles, public transport, pedestrians and cyclists). (ERTRAC, 2019)

Further links

- knowledge base
- show project

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2.2 Cooperative lane control for connected and automated vehicles

2.3 Operational design domains

2.4 Rail crossing information system

2.5 Electric road system

2.6 High occupancy toll lanes

2.7 Public transport priority systems

Synonyms

pre-emption of public transport vehicles, public transport priority (PTP), Transit signal priority (TSP), road-space priority (RSP)

Definition

To encourage people to use public transport and thereby travel more sustainably, it is necessary that public transport operates reliably and efficiently. For example, public transport is the most efficient mode of transport at the intersections, where the difference in the number of people who can pass through a junction in a given time is particularly impressive between cars and public transport. The ratio is between 1 to 10 and 1 to 20 (Schwendinger, 2019). In contrast, a bus at full capacity that is stuck in congestion increases the travel time of many more passengers, compared to single cars in a similar position. Time delays due to traffic signals account for up to 25% of the total travel time of buses (Seredynski et al., 2015). Furthermore, energy prices and emissions generated become more relevant for public transport operators, to compete with the motorized private transport (Gassel et al., 2012). The implementation of public transport priority measures can help improving time and energy efficiency of public transport service. The delays caused by traffic signals can be reduced by the introduction of Transit Signal Priority (TSP) such as early green, green extension, phase rotation, phase insertion and actuated transit phase, favouring public transport (Seredynski et al., 2015). TSP systems can increase the attractiveness of public transport, reduce the operation cost and reduce tailpipe emissions and energy use. On the other hand, they increase the travel time of general traffic, therefore the acceptance is limited (Seredynski et al., 2015). Another widely used systems are separated bus lanes or independent tracks for trams. These are especially relevant in 30 km/h zones, so the public transport vehicles can be excluded from the regulation. But since space is a limited good, independent lanes or tracks are not always possible to implement (Schwendinger, 2019). For Vienna priority of public transport vehicles is of high importance (WIENER STADTWERKE GmbH, 2018). The first measures to shorten the travel time of the bus route 15A at Wienerberg took effect in Autumn 2018. Measures to give priority to public transport are also becoming more important in other cities such as Linz, Graz or Innsbruck. Trams in Graz have priority switching at almost all traffic lights, while there is a further need for bus lines, especially for those from the surrounding area (Schwendinger, 2019).To promote e-mobility, some countries introduced bus lane access to e-vehicles (Figenbaum et al., 2015). Wiener Linien is clearly against this measure, because cars, regardless of their propulsion system, cause delays in the bus lanes and slow down public transport (WIENER STADTWERKE GmbH, 2018).

Key stakeholders

- **Affected**: Road Users, Public Transport Users, Public Transport Operators
- **Responsible**: State Authorities, Transport Infrastructure Operators, Technology Providers

Current state of art in research

Current research aims at building on the existing solutions such as TSP and proposes so-called Green Light Optimal Speed Advisory (GLOSA) driver assistance systems. A multi segment GLOSA can take several lights in a sequence on route of a bus into account and allows the driver to adjust the speed, so that the bus can arrive at the intersection when the light is green. By that, the comfort of passengers can be increased and the fuel consumption as well as the tailpipe emissions be decreased, without negatively affecting the general traffic (Seredynski et al., 2014). However, Stahlmann et al. (2018) argue that so far, most GLOSA simulation studies are too optimistic in terms of communication performance and recommend further improvement of GLOSA systems. Moreover, the Green Light Optimal Dwell Time Advisory (GLODTA) systems look into exploiting additional dwell time at the near-side bus stop (Seredynski et al., 2014). According to Seredynski & Viti (2017) they can support on-route battery charging of electrical buses and also replace existing holding strategies used to regulate punctuality of bus services. Due the limited acceptance of TSP systems, more research regarding the efficient use of green time provided to public transport is needed. Therefore, the focus is on the improvement of the bus detection methods. The latest TSP are working with GPS-based Virtual Detectors (VD), which eliminate the need of on-street detection infrastructure, but their disadvantages is low accuracy (Seredynski et al., 2015). Haitao et al. (2019) developed an integrated and systematic framework for the optimization of bimodal urban networks using 3D-MFDs, considering the complexities of bimodality to manage traffic more efficiently and provide public transport priority. Results of the evaluation show that the proposed strategy always performs better than existing perimeter control schemes in terms of passenger mobility.

Current state of art in practice

A common measure in use is the positioning of stops before intersections, which combines the standing time at the traffic lights with the passenger change and thus leads to travel time reductions (Schwendinger, 2019). All around the world Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) systems have gained popularity. Cervero (2013) defines them as “bus-based system that mimics the high-capacity, high-performance characteristics of urban rail systems at a much lower price” that runs either on exclusive transit-ways, dedicated bus lanes or some grade of separation. Regarding TPS, the cloud-based systems using GPS locations are standard technology (see Figure 1). However, there are still many outdated systems in use that are based on short-range radio. These systems require that all traffic lights are equipped with receivers. All buses in a fleet need special transmitters and an onboard system for positioning, which makes it an overall expensive system. At the same time, this technology is rather unreliable and maintenance intensive (SWARCO, 2021).

Relevant initiatives in Austria

- digitales.wien.gv.at
- wienerlinien.at
- kapsch.net-1
- kapsch.net-2
- swarco.com

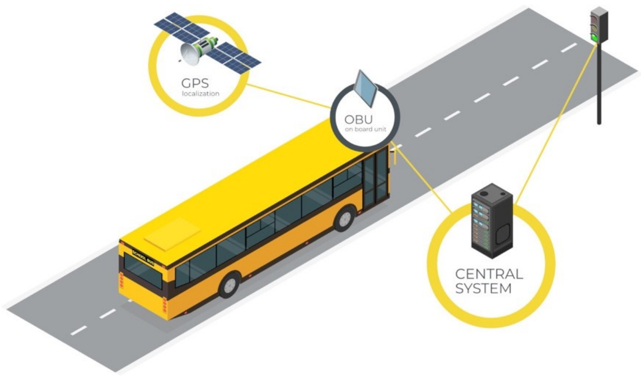

Figure 2.1: Smart priority for public transport (SWARCO, 2021)

- mobility.siemens.com

Impacts with respect to Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

Impact level	Indicator	Impact direction	Goal description and number	Source
Individual	Higher equality for people who do not drive	+	Equality (*5,10*)	Litman, 2017; Cervero, 2013
Individual	Less travel time for public transport users, more travel time for car users	~	Sustainable economic development (*8,11*)	Seredynski et al., 2015
Systemic	Public transport becomes more competitive compared to other transport modes	+	Equality (*5,10*)	Schwendinger, 2019

Impact level	Indicator	Impact direction	Goal description and number	Source
Systemic	Less fuel consumption	+	Environmental sustainability (*7,12,13,15*)	Gassel et al., 2012; Seredynski et al., 2015
Systemic	Transit is often the most cost-effective mode	+	Sustainable economic development (*8,11*)	Litman, 2015
Systemic	More infrastructre for public transport	+	Innovation & Infrastructure (*9*)	Cuthill et al., 2019

Technology and societal readiness level

TRL	SRL
4-8	5-8

Open questions

1. Who is responsible for the implementation of PTP systems?
2. How will Vehicle-to-Vehicle (V2V), Vehicle-to-Infrastructure (V2I) and in future Vehicle-to-Pedestrian (V2P) change PTP systems?
3. How could also emergency vehicles be prioritised?
4. How to deal with mixed fleets - half new, half old?
5. What are the benefits compared to the costs?
6. Which standards should be used?

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2.8 Transformation of public space and digital solutions

Chapter 3

Highway infrastructure management

3.1 Unmanned aerial vehicles for infrastructure maintenance

Synonyms

Drones, remotely piloted vehicles, remotely piloted aircraft, uav

Definition

Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAVs), commonly known as drones are promising technologies that can be used in inspection and data gathering for infrastructure maintenance and management purposes. These include, for example, detection of wear and tear, monitoring of the progress at a highway construction site or the analysis of traffic (Frederiksen et al., 2019). UAVs typically include a portable control station for the human operator and under current legislation their operation in urban areas is limited to flying within visual line of sight (VLOS). UAVs typically feature various sensors and recorders, including video, far and near infrared, radar or laser-based range finders and specialized communication devices (Shaghlil & Khalafallah, 2018). Majority of them can transfer real-time data between the UAV and the control station. Moreover, some feature additional onboard data storage capabilities for enhanced data collection (Shaghlil & Khalafallah, 2018). The use of drones for infrastructure-related tasks provide not only savings with respect to time, labor and costs, but they also allow for reduction in risks when dangerous operations usually performed by human can be substituted with drones. Finally, the environmental impact is diminished when drones, which produce considerably less CO2, are used instead of currently employed helicopters. Nevertheless, the use of drones as a tool for inspecting infrastructure can also pose certain challenges with respect to current technology, legal framework, privacy concerns and social acceptance.

Key stakeholders

- **Affected**: Direct users of the roads and beneficiaries affected by the supply of transport services
- **Responsible**: Government agencies responsible for planning, executing, and financing of maintenance activities, citizens, contractors and subcontractors, private companies and manufacturers

Current state of art in research

Current research efforts and field trials-based studies are advocating the case of using UAVs for bridge inspection and monitoring. Previous study presented a proof of concept of utilising UAVs for bridge and high mast luminaires. Several experiments in controlled conditions were performed to test UAV response in relation to wind conditions. Moreover, image quality was examined in different flight scenarios, low light conditions, altitude and payload (Otero et al., 2015). Overall, the results are in favour of using drones for infrastructure inspections, not just in terms of saving human labor but also detecting the damages. The advantages of the drone use were also demonstrated in terms of reduced traffic control and decreased use of under bridge inspection vehicles (Zink and Lovelace, 2015). On the other hand, specific skills of the drone operators were found to hinder efficient use of drones for large-scale bridges (Wu et al., 2018). Further, some technological barriers also slow down the popularity of drones in infrastructure inspection, where an average flight time of the drone given its battery life is approximately 30 minutes. Therefore, current research aims at increasing the energy-efficiency by the use of path planning and algorithms to minimize energy utilization while maximizing coverage for traffic monitoring (Outay et al., 2020).

Current state of art in practice

Current use of drones is heavily regulated by national and international governments worldwide where the most considerable restriction is the requirement for drones to remain under VLOS of the controller. Beyond, the regulatory bodies put forward various specification with respect to physical aspects of the drones such as weight or sensors, training requirement of the operators and drones', data acquisition regulations and operation itself such as flight timeframe, altitude etc. (FAA, 2016; Outay at al., 2020). All of them, significantly restrict fast and wide application of drones in different areas. Therefore, the authorities attempt to provide regulations to tackle safety and privacy as well as noise concerns of the citizens. At the moment drones are used in oil and gas industry to conduct local surveys in off-shore facilities (Undertaking, 2016). Meanwhile in the transport sector, Danish company Dronops, after safety clearance, has been granted permission from Danish Road Authority to fly along a highway to monitor the traffic, where drone provides data from multiple sensors as well as video recordings. At the moment, the drone can only fly in good weather conditions and it is cable-linked to its power source located on the ground to allow for continuous day-long monitoring at 120 m above the ground. Importantly, the output data is used by Danish Road Authority and local council (Frederiksen et al., 2019).

Relevant initiatives in Austria

- smartcity.wien

Impacts with respect to Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

Impact level	Indicator	Impact direction	Goal description and number	Source
Individual	Employees risk reduced	+	Health & Wellbeing (*3*)	Outay et al., 2020
Systemic	Road safety increased	+	Health & Wellbeing (*3*)	Outay et al., 2020
Systemic	Emissions rate reduced	+	Environmental sustainability (*7,12,13,15*)	Outay et al., 2020
Systemic	Job posts created	+	Sustainable economic development (*8,11*)	Jenkins & Vasigh, 2013
Systemic	Faster road infrastructure innovation	+	Innovation & Infrastructure (*9*)	Fan & Saadeghvaziri, 2019

Technology and societal readiness level

TRL	SRL
3-4	5-7

Open questions

1. What are the factors influencing social acceptability of drones?
2. What actions from the policymakers need to be undertaken to minimalize cyber-attacks?
3. What aspects need to be considered by the governments before the integration of more sensors to record other relevant data along with the integration of video data with other geospatial information?

Further links

- rolandberger

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3.2 Electric charging stations

Chapter 4

Traffic management

4.1 Platooning

4.2 Real-time traffic information and monitoring

4.3 Cooperative - intelligent transport system

4.4 Dynamic route guidance

4.5 Variable speed limits and dynamic signage system

Synonyms

Variable speed limits (VSL), dynamic speed limits (DSL), Verkehrsbeeinflussungsanlagen (VBA), Changeable Message Signs (CMS), Dynamic Signage System

Definition

Speed limits are based on safety, mobility and environmental considerations. While fixed speed limits represent the appropriate speed for average conditions, variable or dynamic speed limits (DSL) take account of the real time traffic, or the road and weather conditions. Therefore, the latter reflect the safe speed better (Mobility and Transport, 2020). The road users are typically informed of the current speed limit by electronic signs above or beside the lanes (De Pauw et al., 2018), as shown in figure 1. These can be supplemented with warning signs (dynamic signage system). For example, if the usual speed limit is 100 km/h, the DSL could change to 80 km/h and further to 60 km/h, to limit rear-end collisions, if there is e.g., a traffic jam ahead or weather conditions are difficult.

Figure 4.1: Dynamic signage system in Austria (ASFiNAG, 2019b)

With respect to the impact on the societal level, a Belgian study, by E. De Pauw et al. showed a significant decrease (-18 %) in the number of injury crashes after the introduction of a DSL system (De Pauw et al., 2018). F.G. Habtemichael and L. de Picado Santos (2013) found that a DSL system has the highest safety benefit during highly congested traffic conditions. The operational benefit in turn was the highest during lightly congested traffic conditions. However, the success of DSL is highly dependent on the level of driver compliance (Habtemichael & de Picado Santos, 2013). Besides the safety aspects, the goal of DSL is to harmonize the traffic flow. Heavy traffic can cause shock waves, which result in longer travel times and large variations in the speeds of the vehicles. The latter again may lead to unsafe situations. By using DSL this phenomenon could be reduced (Hegyi et al., 2005). Traffic flow efficiency can be improved more, when DSL is combined with coordinated ramp metering (Carlson, 2010). Speed limits can also be temporary lowered, due to high emission values. If the emission values combined with the amount of traffic, reach a specific level, the DSL-System responds automatically and lowers the speed limit for a certain time. How high that level is, depends on the local policies (ASFiNAG, 2019c).

Key stakeholders

- **Affected**: Motorways users
- **Responsible**: Motorway Infrastructure Agencies, Technology Providers, Policymakers, State authorities

Current state of art in research

Studies show, that in retrospect most DSL implementations in Europe were efficient traffic safety and flow improvement. In the United States the increase in safety was significant as well, but the flow improvement was controversial (Lu & Shladover, 2014). Hassan et al. (2012) discovered that during bad weather conditions the combination of Changeable Message Signs (CMS) and DSL was the best way to improve safety. Current research shows that the benefits of DSL systems could be improved by integrating it in a fully connected vehicles (CV) environment (Wu et al., 2020). Currently, research focuses on the integration of C-ITS, to connect the infrastructure to the vehicles. European standards should be developed during the next years (Erhart, 2019).

Current state of art in practice

DSL systems are implemented and used around the world. The used algorithms differ, however. DSL integrated with C-ITS has been implemented in a test environment (Erhart, 2019). Austrian motorways are managed by the ASFiNAG - currently they have 17 DSL systems in use. That means that about 19 % of the Austrian Motorway-System are currently equipped by an DSL system (ASFiNAG, 2019a). So, there is potential for expansion. One global player in traffic management is the Austrian company Kapsch TrafficCom. Worldwide they have implemented their systems on more than 3.500 km of motorway (Kapsch TrefficCom). Kapsch TrafficCom's approximately 5,000 employees generated revenues of EUR 738 million in the fiscal year 2018/19.

Relevant initiatives in Austria

- Asfinag
- Asifinag blog
- kapsch.net
- strabag-iss.com
- pke.at
- aigner-stahlbau.at

Impacts with respect to Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

Impact level	Indicator	Impact direction	Goal description and number	Source
Individual	Fatal collisions reduced	+	Health & Wellbeing (*3*)	Hegyi et al., 2005
Individual	Travel time reduced	+	Environmental sustainability (*7,12,13,15*)	Habtemichael & de Picado Santos, 2013
Systemic	Fatal collisions reduced	+	Health & Wellbeing (*3*)	Hegyi et al., 2005
Systemic	Annual greenhouse gas emissions decrease	+	Environmental sustainability (*7,12-13,15*)	Schimany, 2011

Technology and societal readiness level

TRL	SRL
7-9	8-9

Open questions

1. Which algorithms for DSL are the most efficient ones?
2. How can DSL be further developed?
3. How can fail-safe operation be improved?
4. How can DSL be combined with C-ITS?

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4.6 Passengers and goods fleet management

4.7 Urban access management

Chapter 5

Road pricing

5.1 Congestion charging

Chapter 6

Digital road infrastructure and connectivity

6.1 Vehicle to infrastructure communication

6.2 Infrastructure support levels for automated driving

6.3 Vehicle to vehicle communication

6.4 Wireless communication

Chapter 7

Passenger information system

7.1 Digital journey planner

7.2 Rail telematics for passenger services

7.3 Multimodal information and route planning

7.4 Real-time, location-based information

Chapter 8

Multimodal integrated system

8.1 First-last mile solutions

8.2 Distance or time-based fares

8.3 Mobility as a service

8.4 Park and ride

8.5 Contactless public transport cards

Synonyms

Contactless smart card, smart card ticketing

Definition

Smart card ticketing means, that the passenger's entitlement to travel is stored electronically on a chip that is usually embedded in a plastic card and validated when the card is presented to a smart reader (Turner & Wilson, 2010). On the contrary to contact smart cards, which have to be inserted into a smart card reader, contactless smart cards must only be near to the readers (about 10 cm) to exchange data (Mezghani, 2008). There are three types of standards used, called Type A, Type B (both complying with ISO 14443 standard) and FeliCa, while FeliCa provides faster transmission and is mainly used in Asian countries (Kurauchi & Schmöcker, 2017). Smart and integrated ticketing systems are expected to deliver greater flexibility and simplicity for passengers, by offering increased speed, convenience and security against loss and theft (Turner & Wilson, 2010). Economic and societal benefits from smart cards ticketing include the reduction in costs as a result of fewer paper tickets being sold, reduced queuing time, faster throughput of passengers at ticket gates, reduced boarding time for buses and reduced loss of revenue through fraud (Turner & Wilson, 2010). England's Department of Transport has planned a strategy, to introduce integrated and smart ticketing to the majority of the UK by 2020. Their research suggests that net annual benefits of over £1 billion per year to passengers, operators and local authorities can be the result (Turner & Wilson, 2010). Another advantage of using smart cards ticketing, is the large amount of data on passengers' behaviour, which can be collected with lower cost (Kurauchi & Schmöcker, 2017). In Austria smart cards have not been implemented on a large scale. Only the City of Wales has smart cards for the public transport in use (Wels Linien). ÖBB (ÖBB, 2021) and Wiener Linien (Wiener Linien, 2021) don't have smart cards in use, but online tickets for smart phones, using QR Codes. Wiener Linien are currently researching on a more efficient solution for the usage of digital tickets, since they developed, that ticket controls of digital tickets take longer than for paper tickets (Wiener Linien, 2021b).

Key stakeholders

- **Affected**: Public transport users, ticket inspectors
- **Responsible**: Public transport operators, public transport associations, public transport authorities, smart card producers, Industry suppliers

Current state of art in research

The latest research goes in the direction of using smart phones or other mobile devices for smart ticketing. An initiative, led by NFC Forum and GSMA achieved in 2015 together with global public transport representatives, the Smart Ticketing Alliance and the JR East as well as standards bodies, including CEN and ISO, harmonizing the specifications of mobile device NFC interfaces and public transport readers and cards. Together they established standards for testing mobile devices and public transport equipment (NFC Forum, 2016).

Furthermore current research addresses the issues of big data and how collected data through contactless smart cards can be best analysed (see Kurauchi & Schmöcker, 2017).

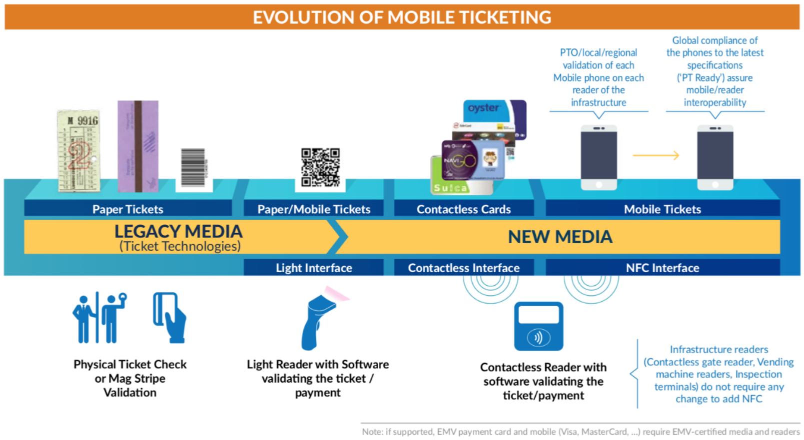

Figure 8.1: The evolution of mobile ticketing (NFC Forum, 2016)

Current state of art in practice

Many countries, regions or cities, have smart card ticketing systems in use, like the whole of Netherlands, Helsinki Region, Minsk, Berlin, Auckland, Sydney and many more (see Wikipedia contributors, 2021). The systems itself differ and depend on the local ticketing and fare systems. While London, for instance, is using an access control system, Helsinki's system is trust based. Furthermore, a distinction can be made between pre-paid (debit) and post-paid (credit) systems (Kurauchi & Schmöcker, 2017).

Relevant initiatives in Austria

- taikai.network
- variuscard
- austriacard

Impacts with respect to Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

Impact level	Indicator	Impact direction	Goal description and number	Source
Individual	Personal, travel expenditure reduced	+	Sustainable economic development (*8,11*)	Turner & Wilson, 2010
Individual	Access to digitalised transport	+	Innovation & Infrastructure (*9*)	Turner & Wilson, 2010
Systemic	Public transport capacity increases	+	Sustainable economic development (*8,11*)	Turner & Wilson, 2010
Systemic	Facilitates integration of the fare systems of several operators within a city	+	Partnership & collaborations (*17*)	Kurauchi & Schmoecker, 2017

Technology and societal readiness level

TRL	SRL
7-9	7-9

Open questions

1. How can the large amount of provided data be best used?
2. What advantages and disadvantages would an implementation in the main cities of Austria have?

Further links

- itso

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8.6 Information and assistance for people with special needs

8.7 Mobility/Freight hubs

Chapter 9

Connected and autonomous driving

9.1 Parking infrastructure for autonomous vehicles

9.2 Connected vehicles

9.3 Automated vehicles

Chapter 10

On-board technology for connected and automated vehicles

10.1 Advanced driver assistance system

10.2 Parking assistance system

10.3 Lane keeping

10.4 Distane keeping

10.5 Crash avoidance

10.6 Mainteinance assistance

10.7 Digital maps

10.8 E-Horizon

10.9 Emergency call

Chapter 11

Freight and commercial transport

11.1 Automated road freight

11.2 Freight dreyage optimisation

11.3 Tracking and tracing of dangerous goods

11.4 Intermodal Freight

11.5 Real-time disruption management and route planning

11.6 Traffic signal control

11.7 Urban Deliveries

11.8 Parcel load pooling

11.9 Intelligent truck parking and delivery space booking

11.10 Delivery drones

11.11 Commercial vehicle on-board safety systems

11.12 Truck Platooning

Chapter 12

Collective mobility vehicles

12.1 Demand responsive transit

12.2 Personal rapid transit

12.3 Bus rapid transit

12.4 Light rail transit

12.5 Passenger drones

Synonyms

urban air mobility (UAM), vertical take-off and landing (VTOL), unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs)

Definition

Drones or unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) could become the most iconic technology of the 21st century. Drones combine three key principles of technological modernity - computing, autonomy and limitless mobility. Capabilities that until now could only be used by the military are becoming accessible to most of the population. Potential use cases for drones range from surveillance and reconnaissance missions to novel forms of logistics and personal transport. The commercial use of drones is associated with enormous economic opportunities.

However, even though drones are already common as surveillance/sensing devices in security services, geodesy or agriculture, their use as a means of transport is still at the beginning (Kellermann et al., 2020). Delivery drones are currently able to lift weights of up to 2-3 kg and carry out flight missions in an urban space (Kellermann et al., 2020). However, passenger drones have also already demonstrated the technical ability to transport passengers within or between cities (LeBeau, 2016; Holt, 2018; Hawkins, 2018). It is not only a historic turning point in aviation, but the beginning of a new era in which flat airspace could become the "third dimension" of transport (Kellermann et al., 2020). The name of the new type of vehicle is still far from being agreed internationally. There are several names to choose from, such as passenger drone, manned multicopter, Passenger Air Vehicle (PAV), Electric Vertical Take-off and Landing Aircraft (EVTOL), autonomous air taxis, unmanned aerial taxis, flying cars or even a new term (Pramer & Sommavilla, 2020). The autonomous air taxis will be a mixture of helicopter and drone. But this also means that they will be vertical take-off and landing (VTOL) vehicles. There are several reasons why drone-related industries are being supported significantly. One of the reasons is that the airspace is still fairly free of traffic. The risk of collisions is (relatively) low and autopilots for aircraft have long been established. Industry experts therefore suspect that we could see self-flying air taxis even before self-driving cars. Being able to do without pilots would make an air taxi service even cheaper and make it possible for more people to afford it (UNIQA, 2019). The European Commission estimates the economic impact at €10 billion annually until 2035 and foresees the creation of more than 100,000 direct jobs. Taking into account indirect macroeconomic effects in drone-related industries, the Commission even projects 250,000 to 400,000 additional jobs (SESAR, 2016).

Key stakeholders

- **Affected**: Citizen, Insurers
- **Responsible**: National Governments, City government, Private Companies

Current state of art in research

Since all prototypes are owned by private companies and the technology is not really shared due to competition, there are few technical research papers. The media analysis about drones for parcel and passenger transportation shows that currently the research is focused in the following areas (see table below):

Topics	Percentage	Number of studies
General Surveys	18.9%	21
Logistics (general)	18.0%	20

Topics	Percentage	Number of studies
Attitude and Acceptance Research	13.5%	15
Law and Regulations	11.7%	13
Ethics and Technology Assessment	10.8%	12
Sustainability Assessment	8.1%	9
Urban and Transportation Planning	7.2%	8
Political agenda/strategies	6.3%	7
Passenger Transportation	2.7%	3
Humanitarian Logistics	2.7%	3

And although there are currently no autonomous air taxis, there is an initial research examining the factors of consumer willingness to fly in autonomous air taxis. This study identified four factors that turned out to be significantly positive: Familiarity, Value, Fun Factor, Sense of Happiness and two as significantly negative: Aversion to New Technology and Fear (Winter et al., 2020). When comparing the GHG emissions of conventional cars with VTOL passenger drones, the passenger drone actually performs a little better than the ordinary car from 35 km onwards. The reasons for this break-even point are, on the one hand, the energy-intensive take-off and landing hover mode and, on the other hand, the enormous efficiency of flying from point A to point B. Given the expected significant time savings over flying, passengers may have an incentive to share VTOL journeys. Therefore, it seems likely that the average occupancy of VTOLs will be greater than that of conventional passenger cars (Kasliwal et al., 2019).

Current state of art in practice

There are quite a few providers working to develop the unmanned aerial taxis. Munich-based start-up *Lilium* successfully launched a one-and-a-half-ton prototype vertically into the air and hovered in place in early May 2019. It sounds like a helicopter, but it doesn't look like one: The Lilium Jet has wings and 36 all-electric jet motors. That makes it quieter and more energy efficient (and makes it look more futuristic) than a helicopter. Lilium expects to be able to start commercial everyday operation not before 2025. But *Lilium* is far from the only manufacturer. *Joby Aviation, Volocopter, AeroMobil, Kittyhawk* and *Zee.Aero* are just a few of the companies hoping to place the most successful model on the market. Already established companies are also taking the concept very seriously. Mobility company *Uber*, aircraft manufacturers *Airbus* and *Boeing*, and car companies such as *Daimler* and *Porsche* are in the race (UNIQA, 2019). Some manufacturers such as Boeing (LeBeau, 2016), Airbus (Hawkins, 2018) and Volocopter (Holt, 2018) have already conducted the first flight tests of their prototypes. The European Union proposes that support services such as flight planning, flight permits and clearances, and dynamic airspace information will be available for drone flight from 2022. From 2027, services such as collision avoidance and capacity management in congested areas will follow. From 2035, according to the European Commission's timetable, the full integration of unmanned aerial vehicles into controlled airspace with manned aviation should be completed (Wiener Zeitung, 2019). The air taxi will not be shuttling crowds of tourists between Schwechat and Stephansplatz in the next ten years. But thanks to the decreasing noise levels of the rotors, which are no longer noticeable in the "normal city noise", as Volocopter claims, they will be used more and more often in one or the other metropolis with millions of inhabitants - possibly also in Vienna (Pramer & Sommavilla, 2020).

The first approved test track in Austria for an unmanned aerial taxi is located in Linz. There is already a functioning prototype in Austria that was developed by *Ehang* in China and built by *FACC* in Innviertel. The aircraft costs around 300,000 euros, weighs 360 kilos, is equipped with 16 electric motors and 16 rotors and is designed to autonomously transport two people. The batteries of the eight-armed drone are sufficient for about 50 kilometres. In its own production line in Ried, 300 units are to be delivered by the end of next year. In order for them to be able to take off in Europe and also for Linz AG, they are working with Austro Control on the "approval regulations", explains FACC board member Robert Machtlinger. In Linz it was once again said that this type of passenger transport is seen as a supplement to bus and train. The air enables the fastest connection from A to B in urban areas. However, before the first test route is set up in the Upper Austrian capital for this autonomous transport, 5G mobile radio must first be installed, which was planned for spring 2020 (DerStandard, 2019).

Relevant initiatives in Austria

- derbrutkasten.com
- derstandard.at-1
- derstandard.at-2

Impacts with respect to Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

Impact level	Indicator	Impact direction	Goal description and number	Source
Individual	It is expected to be too costly for general use	-	Equality (*5,10*)	Pramer & Sommavilla, 2020
Individual	The flight price is expected to settle in the range of a very expensive taxi	-	Sustainable economic development (*8,11*)	Pramer & Sommavilla, 2020
Systemic	Slightly reduced GHG emissions compared to conventional cars from 35 km onwards	~	Environmental sustainability (*7,12,13,15*)	Kasliwal et al., 2019
Systemic	Increased investment until 2035 and creation of job opportunities	+	Sustainable economic development (*8,11*)	SESAR, 2016
Systemic	Stationary areas for safety checks	~	Innovation & Infrastructure (*9*)	Pramer & Sommavilla, 2020

Technology and societal readiness level

TRL	SRL
5-6	1-3

Open questions

1. Who will develop the regulations for passenger drones?
2. How much space is needed for take-off and landing, and will this differ between the various providers?
3. What types of routes will be replaced with flying taxis?
4. Will some companies work together and share their technologies?
5. What other areas of application will there be?
6. What will be the thematic priorities for development in the coming years?
7. What name will be agreed internationally for this type of vehicles?

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12.6 Automatic train operations

Chapter 13

Big data

13.1 Automatic identification system fir maritime transport

13.2 Big data lifecycle

13.3 Location-based data

13.4 Aircraft tracking system

13.5 Big data tools for maping and forecasting travel behaviour

Chapter 14

Shared mobility

14.1 Car sharing

Synonyms

Car-Sharing scheme, CSS

Definition

In recent years, the growth of car sharing services as a new and more sustainable way of travelling has led to a shift in private mobility from ownership to use of services. The basic idea of car sharing is quite simple: the sharing of a fleet of vehicles by members to make trips on a per-trip basis. Although, the first car sharing scheme for economic reasons dates back to 1948 in the city of Zurich, Switzerland, other attempts at public car sharing schemes in the following years were not successful. Several successful car sharing schemes were launched in the 1980s, with a consolidation in the early 1990s, thanks to an increasing awareness of citizens and a real boom due to a greater diffusion of ICT and mobile services in the 2000s. Car sharing increases the mobility of community members to reach destinations otherwise inaccessible by public transport, walking or cycling, while raising citizens' awareness of the social and environmental impacts of using private cars. It encourages and supports multimodal communities by providing an additional transport option. From the point of view of building a sustainable city, the vehicles used in car sharing are usually fuel efficient and lead to positive effects in reducing urban emissions and urban congestion (Martin and Shaheen, 2011).

Nowadays, there are different variants of car sharing available on the market. These include:

- Station based

In station-based CarSharing, the cars are parked in fixed parking spaces as close to home as possible. Customers pick up the car there and return it after the journey. Only with this variant, the reservations are possible several days or weeks in advance, but the end time of the booking must also usually be planned in advance. This ensures a high degree of predictability in vehicle availability. Station-based CarSharing is also the cheapest CarSharing variant. The largest providers in Germany (by fleet size) are stadtmobil, cambio, teilAuto and book-n-drive.

- Free-floating

With free-floating CarSharing, the cars are randomly distributed within a defined business area. Users locate and book them via smartphone. The booking is only possible shortly before the start of the journey and until booking, availability and exact location of the vehicle are uncertain. After the journey, the cars can be parked within the business area. All bookings are open-ended. With this variant, reservations in advance are not possible. Both the availability and the location of the vehicle are therefore difficult to predict. Free-floating, however, allows one-way journeys within the business area. Prices are higher than those of station-based CarSharing. The largest providers in Germany are ShareNow, Sixt share and We share.

- Combined sharing

Since 2011, combined CarSharing offers were established that offer station-based and free-floating vehicles from a single source. Combined offers in Germany are available, for example, from stadtmobil, book-n-drive, teilAuto and cambio. The prices are usually based on the lower prices of station-based CarSharing. Free-floating users, on the other hand, largely keep their car. Their motorisation at the time of the study was 485 private cars per 1,000 inhabitants (Bundesverband CarSharing e.V., 2020).

Key stakeholders

- **Affected**: Citizens
- **Responsible**: Authorities, Municipalities, International lobbyists, Private Companies

Current state of art in research

The CarSharing variants have different traffic-reducing effects. The EU research project STARS investigated the traffic-relieving effect of different CarSharing variants under uniform framework conditions. The study shows that many users of station-based and combined CarSharing get rid of private cars shortly before or during CarSharing participation. At the time of the study, the households, therefore, only had a motorisation rate of 108 and 104 cars per 1,000 people in the surveyed households. These values are already below the target of 150 cars per 1,000 people recommended by the Federal Environment Agency Germany for climate and environmentally friendly urban transport in the future.

The replacement rates in different CarSharing studies from Germany vary. On the one hand, this is due to different survey methods. Only in the studies since 2018 have used a largely uniform survey method in Germany. On the other hand, the latest research has shown that the replacement rate depends strongly on the CarSharing variant studied. For station-based CarSharing and combined CarSharing, there are exclusively positive replacement rates. For pure free-floating CarSharing, both positive and negative replacement rates can be observed. In some cases, fewer private cars were removed by free-floating CarSharing than were put on the road by the CarSharing service.

According to calculations made by Finanztip together with the ADAC, car sharing is already profitable if the number of kilometres driven per year is less than 10,000, or less than 800 kilometres per month. The costs for a private vehicle with 10,000 annual kilometres driven are identical to the costs that would be incurred for car sharing. Other studies see the limit only at 11,250 kilometres (Hoyer, 2013) or 15,600 kilometres (Seipp, 2014). At 5,000 kilometres per year with one's own medium-sized vehicle, one would save on average between 900 and 1,500 euros per year with a car-sharing provider. In summary, accrding to Evers (2018) car sharing is profitable, if one:

- does not depend on a car every day
- does not regularly drive longer distances over 100 kilometres
- drives a total of less than 10,000 kilometres a year

Current state of art in practice

Europe is currently the most important market for car sharing providers. In 2016, 5.8 million people used the 68,000 carsharing vehicles here. Recently, car manufacturers also started to enter the market directly, such as Daimler, BMW and the FCA Group, which are directly involved in car sharing activities, in order to find new channels to market the cars they produce. The market is growing fast and with this increasing demand comes the need for better understanding and control of the system. In fact, car sharing is not just a matter of business or fleet optimisation, but forms a complex system consisting of different actors, including citizens, authorities and municipalities, businesses. The system becomes complex because of the strong links between the actors as well as the impact on the governance of a city when a large car sharing service is introduced, such as the integration with the existing public transport network and the policies that allow different companies to compete in the same urban area (Ferrero et al., 2018).

Relevant initiatives in Austria

- VCÖ
- ÖBB

Impacts with respect to Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

Impact level	Indicator	Impact direction	Goal description and number	Source
Individual	Uniform access to car in the population	+	Equality (*5,10*)	VCOE - Mobilitaet mit Zukunft, 2018
Individual	Cost reduced	+	Sustainable economic development (*8,11*)	Evers, 2018
Systemic	Reduced traffic and improved air quality	+	Health & Wellbeing (*3*)	Martin & Shaheen, 2011
Systemic	Car-free households are no longer disadvantaged	+	Equality (*5,10*)	VCOE - Mobiliteat mit Zukunft, 2018
Systemic	Reduced emissions	+	Environmental sustainability (*7,12,13,15*)	Martin & Shaheen, 2011
Systemic	Car sharing fleet grows steadily	+	Innovation & Infrastructure (*9*)	Stadt Wien, no date

Technology and societal readiness level

TRL	SRL
7-9	5-7

Open questions

1. What is the role of policymakers and minicipalities in supporting car sharing in addressing challenges associated with long-term strategic decisions such as operation area, parking locations or size and type of the fleet, considering specific characteristics of a given city?

Further links

- share_now

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14.2 Bicycle and e-bicycle hire

Synonyms

bike-sharing schemes (BSS), station-based bike-sharing schemes (SBBSS), free-floating bike-sharing schemes (FFBSS)

Definition

Bike-sharing schemes have become a key component of urban transport policy over the past decade, as shown by the increase in the number of bicycles recently seen in major cities around the world. The concept of bike-sharing is a service for individuals to get around comfortably by bike without owning one. The bicycle is an energy-efficient, safe, CO_2-neutral and space-saving means of transport. It has a low environmental footprint (when used). In urban areas it is a good alternative to the car for short journeys. For longer journeys or for getting to work in an urban environment, it is an excellent complement to public transport. Although at the beginning of the 21st century most BSSs were docked, today's BSSs consist of both docked and dockless BSSs, which have recently emerged in several cities such as London, New York, San Francisco, Beijing and many others (El Arbi and Stephane, 2020). Modern urban short-term bicycle rental systems or public BSSs offer 24-hour access to bicycles, can be picked up and returned at self-service docking stations, and are distributed throughout the city (Midgley, 2011). As technology advances, global positioning systems (GPS) allow operators to track the bikes and reposition them if necessary, while user registration and credit card identification reduce anonymity and theft. The development of, mainly European, BSSs has typically been categorized into four different generations, which in some properties merge into each other. The use of the 1965 "White Bikes" in Amsterdam was possible without personal registration and the bikes could be found all over the city without fixed stations. The model collapsed within a few days due to vandalism and theft. The second generation used locks and heavy bikes. Vandalism rates decreased, but bikes were still stolen because of the anonymity of the customers (DeMaio, 2009). The third generation became smarter and more attractive through technological improvements such as automated smart cards, electronic bike locks and payment systems. Users received a code via SMS to unlock the bikes. The current fourth generation, could include movable solar-powered docking stations, GPS-based real-time availability apps on mobile phones and more electric bikes (Zademach and Musch, 2018).

Key stakeholders

- **Affected**: Mobile citizen, pedestrians,
- **Responsible**: National Governments, International lobbyists, (Public) Transport Agency, Non-Profit-Organizations, Private For-Profit Companies, Private Companies (e. g. outdoor advertising companies)

Current state of art in research

Research mostly focuses on customer behaviour such as trip length or travel time and behavioural influences on the use of bike-sharing systems, for example, road density, traffic density or bicycle infrastructure.

For example, study by Ma et al. (2020) shows that suburban commuters are very likely to use SBBSS to travel to the nearest public transport hub quickly while avoiding long walks or waiting for buses. Moreover, the study by Li et al., (2019) demonstrated that introduction of bikes for hire near points of interest and tourists attractions can significantly increase their use in urban areas while discouraging in suburban locations. Further, it was showed that discount programs such as discounts for regular users, compensation incentives or discounted prices for the elderly increase the attractiveness of this form of transport among different population segments.

In terms of general system functioning, a study by Fishman et al., (2014) shows that one of the major inconvenience of bike-sharing systems are fixed, docked stations. Therefore, to improve the flexibility, attemps are made to introduce shared bikes with locks (Zhang et al., 2019). Furthermore, the maintenance of the dockless system is also problematic, where on one hand, the high maintenance cost reduced the profit margin of the companies while on the other hand, defective bikes can reduce the satisfaction of the customers and decrease the uptake. Therefore, current research focuses on the development of the mechanisms to monitor the condition of the bicycles while maintaining cost efficiency.

Current state of art in practice

Public bike-share systems are one of the world's fastest growing public transport modes, with an average annual growth of 37% since 2009. The fastest increase takes place in China, a country that is experiencing a rapid uptake of electric bicycles (e-bikes). Sales of e-bikes are outpacing all other motorized modes. The figure 14.1 shows the rapid growth of the two emerging technologies, e-bikes and bike-share systems (Campbell et al., 2016).

Private BSS operators from China (*Mobike, Ofo*) and Shanghai (*oBike*) are currently introducing large fleets of station-less rental bikes in cities worldwide. The roll-out, especially in European cities, has encountered problems as city

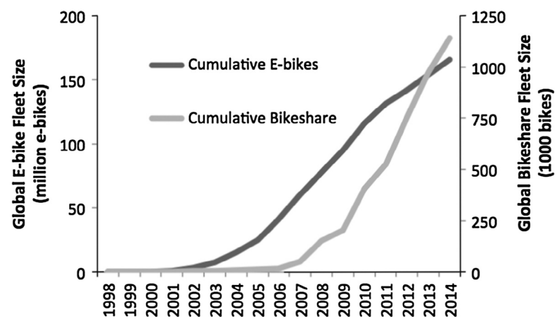

Figure 14.1: Growth in personal e-bike and public bikeshare systems (Campbell et al., 2016)

governments have not been able to coordinate the introduction (Zademach and Musch, 2018). Many bikes have been found abandoned around the cities. In addition, there are fears in some cases that the private companies introduced the BSS with the sole reason of tapping into private user data (Schöffel et al., 2017). Furthermore, the company Montreal introduced "BIXI", fixed, portable, solar-powered and modular stations. They are self-contained and the stations can be placed, moved and relocated to desired locations within 20 minutes. "Mega" docking stations are available for special events (Midgley, 2011). The number of BSSs has grown to over 800 units worldwide (Fishman, 2016). The public-private partnership model has been the most widespread, and the implementation of BSSs has been possible in cities with limited public funds (Zademach and Musch, 2018). In Austria, there are multiple companies currently offering bicycle or e-bicycle sharing services such as *Citybike, Ofo or oBike.* Nevertheless, about a year after their launch, the Asian providers of stationless rental bikes in Vienna (start-ups *Ofo* and *oBike*) have been in retreat from the federal capital (Rachbauer, 2018b). This has been a result of strict rules with respect to stationless rental bikes in Vienna announced on 1st August 2018. A failure to comply with the rules resulted in the bikes being removed for a fee. Previously, the traffic road act (*StVO*) allowed the placement of rental bikes in public spaces and the city lacked the means of action against the providers. With the help of a so-called local police ordinance, the city hall required that the bike-sharing companies pick up objectionable bikes on weekdays within four hours and at night and on weekends within twelve hours after notification. If they did not comply, the bikes were removed for a fee. In addition, administrative fines of up to 700 euros were possible. Moreover, a limit of maximum 1500 bicycles per provider was also set. Now, the bikes are given a number and each one has to be registered with the city. According to Blum, setting up several companies to circumvent the upper limit is not allowed. The rental companies themselves also have to meet certaine criteria, for instance, there must be a company headquarters in Vienna and a service hotline. *Ofo* and *oBike* already meet these requirements (Rachbauer, 2018d). Across Austria the situation with rental bikes differs significantly, for example in Innsbruck, renatal bikes were first introduced in 2014 and and are succesfully opearting. Meanwhile, in Linz rental bike system has been approved in 2017 and the docking stations are currently under construction. Further, in Salzburg the S-Bike rental system is operating and linked to federal funding (Affenzeller, 2020, Citybike Salzburg, no date a). On the other hand in Graz there is no uniform bike rental system and these services are provided by shops and hotels (Rachbauer, 2016).

Relevant initiatives in Austria

- citybikewien
- citybikesalzburg
- nextbike
- tpis.at

Impacts with respect to Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

Impact level	Indicator	Impact direction	Goal description and number	Source
Individual	Possibility to use the bikes for the first 30-60 minutes free of charge	+	Equality (*5,10*)	Citybike Salzburg, no date b; Citybike Wien, no date; Nextbike Niederoesterreich, no date
Individual	Continuous advancement in bike features	+	Innovation & Infrastructure (*9*)	Zademach & Musch, 2018
Systemic	Wider access to this cheap or free mobility service	+	Equality (*5,10*)	El Arbi & Stephane, 2020

Impact level	Indicator	Impact direction	Goal description and number	Source
Systemic	Air pollution, noise pollution and congestion reduced	+	Environmental sustainability (*7,12,13,15*)	El Arbi & Stephane, 2020
Systemic	Investment in bike sharing infrastructure	+	Innovation & Infrastructure (*9*)	der Grazer, 2019; Hillebrand, 2019; Affenzeller, 2020; Tech & Nature, 2020
Systemic	48% of all systems are operated as public-private partnerships	+	Partnership & collaborations (*17*)	Midgley, 2011

Technology and societal readiness level

TRL	SRL
7-9	5-7

Open questions

1. What measures can be implemented to tackle the vandalism of the bikes?
2. Which bike system (docked vs. free-floating) is more sustainable in the long-term?

Further links

- cyclocity.com

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14.3 E-scooters

Synonyms

electric scooter

Definition

E-scooters are electrically powered scooters which move at a similar speed to bicycles. They are one of micro-mobility solutions which is growing trend in urban mobility. It encompasses all human-powered micro-vehicles, such as bicycles and scooters, but also new micro-vehicles such as e-scooters, e-bikes and some other small, electrically powered vehicles (Oeschger, Carroll and Caulfield, 2020). Most of the modern vehicles of this type are available for both shared and private use and are gaining wide acceptance. E-scooters have promised a solution to the last mile problem since their introduction in 2017 (Siegfried et al, 2021). They are seen as alternatives to cars and provide potential for reducing traffic congestion, noise and pollution. Initial results suggest that e-scooters are mainly used for distances between 1 and 6 km. Empirical evidence shows that e-scooters can substitute walking rather than driving for these short distances (James et al., 2019; Portland Bureau of Transportation, 2019). In addition to the potential positive environmental impact of e-scooters on the transportation system, some safety concerns have been raised. Most e-scooter users who had an accident have ridden without a helmet (Liew et al, 2020). In general, e-scooters are almost exclusively issued without protective equipment (Allem and Majmundar, 2019). The safety issues do not only affect the riders themselves, but also have an impact on other road users, especially pedestrians (Sikka et al., 2019). It has even been criticised that technology follows the idea of “sell first, safety later” (Choron and Sakran, 2019).

Key stakeholders

- **Affected**: Mobile citizens, pedestrians, insurers
- **Responsible**: National governments, city government, private Companies

Current state of art in research

Since e-scooters are already well-established technology, most research focuses on safety and accidents, user behaviour and potential environmental impact of uptake of this micro-mobility option. Some studies advocate e-scooters as an environmentally friendly solution for crowded cities, others report contradictory results and point to safety issues. Moreover, research also explores whether the presence of e-scooters reduces bicycle thefts (Gössling, 2020). In Gothenburg, Sweden, the police reported that the number of bicycle thefts halved after the introduction of e-scooters and rental bikes (Sydsvenskan, 2019).

Current state of art in practice

E-scooter providers such as *Lime* and *Bird*, which launched operations in California in 2017, can now be found in over 100 cities worldwide and have since recorded millions of rides. E-scooter provider *VOI* has experienced similar growth in Europe and entered the market in 10 countries in just one year after launching in Sweden and has recorded over 16 million rides (Oeschger et al., 2020). The results of a survey indicate that e-scooters are primarily seen as entertainment and not as a means of transport (Siegfried et al., 2021). Maximum speed limits are an important issue and internationally there are different approaches. Los Angeles and Dallas, for example, have no speed limit, as far as can be deduced from the news; while the limit in Vienna is 25 km/h (Schwarz, 2019). Paris is discussing reducing the speed limit to 20 km/h on cycle paths and 8 km/h in parks and pedestrian areas (Négroni, 2019). One problem with the maximum speeds is that some of the e-scooter models can go much faster than 25 km/h (Le Figaro, 2018). To counteract the negative consequences of the introduction of e-scooters, cities have evaluated and implemented various rules and guidelines. Media analysis suggests that the city councils should introduce the following rules as a minimal requirement: speed limits, restrictions on the exclusive use of bicycle infrastructure and a designation of parking spaces for rental and return. Behavioural campaigns and fines, are needed to limit negative consequences of e-scooter use (Gössling, 2020). In Vienna, only very few e-scooters are used on bicycle paths (between 4.9% and 7.1% compared to other bicycle path users). Given the modal split of Vienna (7% cycling), it can be concluded that e-scooters do not yet have a significant role in Vienna's transport system (Laa and Leth, 2020).

Relevant initiatives in Austria

- autorevue.at
- stadt-wien.at
- wien.gv.at
- oeamtc.at
- oesterreich.gv.at

Impacts with respect to Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

Impact level	Indicator	Impact direction	Goal description and number	Source
Individual	E-scooter trips replace mainly walking trips	-	Health & Wellbeing (*3*)	Laa & Leth, 2020
Individual	More expensive compared to public transport	-	Sustainable economic development (*8,11*)	Widholm, 2021; Wiener Linien, 2021
Individual	Increase in participants on existing road infrastructure	~	Innovation & Infrastructure (*9*)	Laa & Leth, 2020
Systemic	Highest user share among young males	-	Equality (*5,10*)	Laa & Leth, 2020
Systemic	E-scooter trips repalce more sustainable transport modes	-	Environmental sustainability (*7,12,13,15*)	Laa & Leth, 2020
Systemic	Growth in micromobility sector	+	Sustainable economic development (*8,11*)	Goessling, 2020

Technology and societal readiness level

TRL	SRL
7-9	7-9

Open questions

1. Will an increasing presence of e-scooters on the bicycle infrastructure or in pedestrian zones require separate solution in urban road infrastructure?

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14.4 Ride-hailing

Chapter 15

Alternative power sources

15.1 Hydrogen fuel cell

Definition

Hydrogen Fuel Cells are systems that use hydrogen as fuel to generate electrical energy in a Fuel Cell and drive the vehicle with electrical structure. In a technical manner, they show similarities with electric vehicles. The advantages of Fuel Cell Electrical Vehicles (FCEV) are emission-free (water only), fast refuelling, noiseless driving, more economical fuel consumption and efficiency, easy maintenance. Regardless of these benefits, FCEV has some disadvantages, such as limited range, lack of hydrogen refuelling stations, safety problems, low profitability for car manufacturers, high prices and lower awareness and acceptance (Tanç et al., 2019; Borgstedt et al., 2017; Iribarren et al., 2016). Moreover, FCEVs have higher energy density than electric batteries which enables them to drive further with heavier loads. At the same time, it raises constraints on weight and size of the energy storage in the vehicles. Consequently, FCEVs are more suitable for freight transport, commercial vehicles, buses, trains, ships and aircrafts, where the performance requirements are higher. Prototypes of all the examples mentioned already exist (Eichlseder et al, 2018). In terms of private cars, the FCEVs are likely to provide advantage for long-distance travelling (Roadmap Europe, 2019).

Key stakeholders

- **Affected**: Conventional Cars' Drivers, Citizen
- **Responsible**: National Governments, Car Manufacturers, International lobbyists, Private Companies

Current state of art in research

The goal of alternative propulsion systems is to minimize or eliminate completely the climate-damaging CO_2 emissions, consequently the European Community Research Program proposes electromobility as a priority research area. In particular, the most substantial research is carried out on methods of hydrogen production using biological and photochemical processes because 95% of hydrogen currently produced on an industrial scale comes from fossil hydrocarbons and only 5% from water by electrolysis. Where the only emission-free production process of hydrogen is the electrochemical water splitting in electrolysis, when the required electricity is generated from wind-, water or solar energy. This process results in high degrees of purity and usually achieves efficiencies of up to 85% (Eichlseder et al., 2018). Moreover, the electric vehicle policy aims at technology optimization, market development, durability and capacity of the batteries and charging stations (Alvarez-Meaza et al., 2020).

Current state of art in practice

Hydrogen in transport is only at the beginning of its development (in 2013 the first light FCEVs were introduced for leasing only). Compared to other alternative propulsion systems such as battery electric vehicles (BEVs), which were introduced to the vehicle market earlier, FCEVs show a similar upward trend. At the end of 2017, the total number of FCEVs in Europe reached 799 vehicles, of which 602 were passenger cars and 197 light commercial vehicles, while the total number of BEVs reached 447,150 vehicles. At the end of 2018, the number of FCEVs in Europe rose to about 1,110 (Apostolou and Xydis, 2019). At the end of October 2019, 41 fuel cell passenger cars were registered in Austria. Worldwide, about 12,900 fuel cell vehicles were in operation at the end of 2018, 11,200 of them passenger cars. 46 percent of the vehicles are on the road in the USA, 43 percent in Asia and 11 percent in the EU (1,110 cars). In terms of commercial vehicles, China dominates with over 400 buses, followed by the USA with 55 and the EU with around 80 (Eichlseder et al., 2018). In terms of the number of hydrogen refuelling stations (HRS) worldwide, just about 375 stations are in operation today, compared to 320 in 2017. Most of these are publicly available, the rest are demonstration/research projects and are used to supply hydrogen to private fleets. At the end of 2018, Europe was the region with the most HRS in operation with more than 170 HRS, while Asia (mainly Japan) was second with about 130 HRS and America (mainly the US) third with more than 70 stations installed. Figure below shows the number of HRS by country at the end of 2018 (Apostolou and Xydis, 2019):

The European Strategic Energy Technology Plan proposes hydrogen and fuel-cell technologies as crucial for obtaining green-house gases reduction goals by 2050 (Roadmap Europe H., 2019; Alvarez-Meaza et al., 2020).

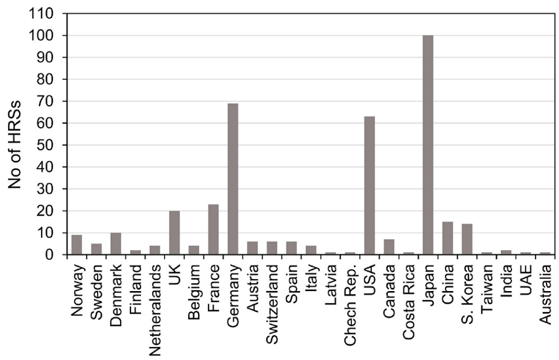

Figure 15.1: Number of hydrogen refuelling stations worldwide (Apostolou and Xydis, 2019)

Relevant initiatives in Austria

- hydrogen train

Impacts with respect to Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

Impact level	Indicator	Impact direction	Goal description and number	Source
Individual	Improved air quality	+	Health & Wellbeing (*3*)	Colella, Jacobson and Golden, 2005
Individual	High prices of hydrogen cars and hydrogen fuel	-	Equality (*5,10*)	Kanna and Paturu, 2020
Individual	Cost for individuals	~	Sustainable economic development (*8,11*)	Apostolou and Xydis, 2019
Systemic	Emissions reduced, improved air quality	+	Health & Wellbeing (*3*)	Colella, Jacobson and Golden, 2005

Impact level	Indicator	Impact direction	Goal description and number	Source
Systemic	Distribution and allocation of goods worsens	-	Equality (*5,10*)	Kanna and Paturu, 2020
Systemic	Reduced emissions, replacement of fossil fuels, energy transition	+	Environmental sustainability (*7,12-13,15*)	Colella, Jacobson and Golden, 2005
Systemic	Not yet profitable for manufacturers	+	Sustainable economic development (*8,11*)	Roadmap Europe, 2019
Systemic	Number of hydrogen refuelling stations increases	+	Innovation & Infrastructure (*9*)	Apostolou and Xydis, 2019
Systemic	Sharing technologies internationally	+	Partnership & collaborations (*17*)	International Partnership for Hydrogen and Fuel Cells in the Economy, no date

Technology and societal readiness level

TRL	SRL
7-8	6-8

Open questions

1. Who will drive the progress of hydrogen technology in heavy duty mobility in the future?
2. How to store large amounts of energy at low weight and in a restricted space within the vehicle? (Roadmap Europe, 2019)

Further links

- europarlament
- ec.europa
- fch.europa

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15.2 Battery electric

15.3 Plugin hybrid vehicles

Synonyms

Hybrid, HEV, PHEV

Definition

Plug-in hybrid vehicles effectively combine the electric drive with either a conventional combustion engine or other engines that use alternative fuels. This has the advantage that the vehicles can travel long distances, but consumption and emissions are reduced. An energy management system ensures that the optimum amount of energy is drawn from the two energy sources while driving. The ratio of energy consumption is influenced by the driving cycle. The faster the vehicle drives, the more energy is needed (Aswin and Senthilmurugan, 2018).

A hybrid vehicle is superior in terms of the reduced carbon footprint, better mileage than conventional vehicles, financial assistance for purchase, lower annual cost and a regenerative braking system. At the same time, the disadvantages include high purchasing cost, lower fuel efficiency because the extra parts installed take up more space and add weight, and higher maintenance costs due to the dual engine. Additionaly, some concerns have been risen about the risk that the battery may explode in the event of an accident (Aswin and Senthilmurugan, 2018).

However, the safety aspect referred to above can be neglected, as the results in the EuroNCAP crash test show that hybrid vehicles are just as safe as vehicles with conventional drive systems. Toyota's Hybrid Synergy Drive technology (HSD) also serves as an example, where Toyota's hybrid system - based on the airbag trigger signal - immediately switches off all electrical systems in the event of an accident and interrupts the battery contact (ADAC, 2019).

Currently, there are several types of hybrid vehicles available on the market:

- Series hybrid

The series hybrid model consists of an internal combustion engine that drives a generator instead of driving the wheels directly. The wheels of the car get their power from the electric motors. The generator powers both the charging battery and the wheels of the car. Series hybrids generate the maximum energy at the time of acceleration and return the energy at the time of regenerative braking. The electric vehicles are designed in such a way that a motor is connected to each wheel. The combination of motor and wheel has the disadvantage of increasing mass and thus affecting handling, but the advantage of improved traction control.

- Parallel hybrid

The parallel hybrid vehicle is an integration of an electric motor and an internal combustion engine connected in parallel to the mechanical transmission. The parallel hybrid architecture incorporates both the engine and the electric generator into one unit located between the transmission and the combustion engine. The battery is recharged by regenerative braking. There is a mechanical coupling between the engine and the wheel, recharging the battery cannot occur when the car is moving.

- Combine hybrid

The combined hybrid vehicle is a fusion of parallel and series hybrid (series-parallel hybrid). There is a double connection (electrical and mechanical) between the drive axle and the engine. The power transmission to the wheels can be either electric or mechanical. At low speeds it behaves like a series hybrid electric vehicle, but at higher speeds series drive trains are less likely to be preferred and the vehicle motor takes over. This model is significantly more expensive than parallel models as they require a mechanically split drive system, an additional generator and high computing power for dual control (Aswin and Senthilmurugan, 2018).

Key stakeholders

- **Affected**: Conventional Cars' Drivers
- **Responsible**: National Governments, Car Manufacturers, International lobbyists, Private Companies

Current state of art in research

Current research efforts focus on the reduction of battery size while maintaining the electric driving performance. Therefore, the study by Song et al. (2018) suggest 30.4 kWh as an optimal battery capacity. Another, large research developments are performed with respect to reduction of emissions and continuous testing of environmental efficiency in comparison to conventional cars. In an

ADAC test of plug-in hybrids, just two cars scored well in the Ecotest, namely Hyundai Ioniq and Volvo V60. The Hyundai was very energy-efficient, while the Volvo consumed more energy and emited more carbon dioxide, but its exhaust gases were cleaner. This allowed it to score well in terms of pollutants. However, the test results leave no doubt that large and heavy cars like the BMW X5 and Mercedes GLE, even as plug-in hybrids, consume a lot of energy and therefore cannot be counted as eco-mobiles (Kroher, 2020). Interestingly, recent test conducted on the newest models of PHEV showed that they pollute the environment two to four times more than the manufacturers claim which undermined the public opinion on the environmental advantages offered by the PHEV (Plötz et al., 2020; Bannon, 2020).

Current state of art in practice

The development of the hybrid electric vehicle is evolving into the next generation of the mode of transport, in line with EU's policy aims of reduction of greenhouse gas emissions. Nevertheless, current market penetration is still relatively low, contributing to 1% of total car registrations (as of 2019). In Europe, the leaders in the uptake of plug-in hybrid vehicles are Finland and Sweden followed by the United Kingdom (European Environment Agency, 2020).

In Austria the number of plug-in hybrid vehicles quadrupled in 2020 from January to October compared to the same period last year. By the end of October, about 5,500 new vehicles of this type had been registered. Of the approximately 14,700 applications for e-car subsidies so far this year, 90 percent are purely electric, ten percent are plug-in hybrids and range extenders (Ortner, 2020). The results of a study by the Frauenhofer Institute show that the actual climate balance of plug-in hybrid passenger cars is poor, the real CO_2 emissions are twice as high as the values determined in the test cycle, for company cars the real CO_2 emissions are even three to four times as high. The VCÖ calls for a rapid change in the subsidies for plug-in hybrid cars in Austria (VCÖ, 2020).

By 2020, there are already 800 public e-charging points in Vienna, with number close to a thousand, Vienna is one of the leading e-mobility cities in Europe (Fischer, 2020).The Austrian energy companies - members of the BEÖ - have driven the expansion of the public charging infrastructure in recent years. With over 5,000 charging points between Vienna and Bregenz, Austria provides one of the densest charging networks in Europe (Sitte, 2020b). Until now, all building owners had to agree to the installation of an e-charging station. This unanimity is to fall soon. Accordingly, the installation of charging stations in apartment buildings will be made easier from autumn onwards (Sitte, 2020a).

Relevant initiatives in Austria

- oesterreich.gv

- vcoe.at

Impacts with respect to Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

Impact level	Indicator	Impact direction	Goal description and number	Source
Individual	Carbon dioxide emissions reduced	+	Health & Wellbeing (*3*)	Koellner, 2020
Individual	Number of e-chargining points increases	+	Innovation & Infrastructure (*9*)	Sitte, 2020a
Systemic	Emissions reduced for small and light vehicles only	~	Environmental sustainability (*7,12-13,15*)	Kroher, 2020; VCOE, 2020
Systemic	Exhaust gas treatment strategies are developed	+	Innovation & Infrastructure (*9*)	Schaefer, 2020

Technology and societal readiness level

TRL	SRL
8-9	7-9

Open questions

Further links

- europarlament
- ec.europa
- fch.europa

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Chapter 16

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