

1                   **TRAVEL-TIME VALUATION FOR AUTOMATED DRIVING: A USE-CASE-**  
2                   **DRIVEN STUDY**

3  
4                   Rita Cyganski\*

5                   German Aerospace Center, Institute of Transport Research

6                   Rutherfordstr. 2, 12489 Berlin, Germany

7                   Phone: +49 30 67055-147, Fax: +49 30 67055-283

8                   E-mail: rita.cyganski@dlr.de

9  
10                  Eva Fraedrich

11                 Humboldt-University Berlin, Geography Department – Transport Geography

12                 Unter den Linden 6, 10099 Berlin, Germany

13                 Phone: +49 30 2093 6863, Fax: +49 30 2093 6856

14                 E-mail: eva.fraedrich@geo.hu-berlin.de

15  
16                 Barbara Lenz

17                 German Aerospace Center, Institute of Transport Research

18                 Rutherfordstr. 2, 12489 Berlin, Germany

19                 Phone: +49 30 67055-206, Fax: +49 30 67055-283

20                 E-mail: barbara.lenz@dlr.de

21  
22  
23                 \* Corresponding Author

24  
25  
26  
27                 Paper Submitted for presentation and publication at TRB 94<sup>th</sup> Annual Meeting

28                 Submission date: August 1, 2014

29                 Number of tables and figures: 6 (1.500 words)

30                 Word count without references: 6.952

31  
32                 Paper Number: 15-4259

33 **ABSTRACT**

34 An application-oriented evaluation of the implications of fully automated driving is of  
35 growing importance, particularly with regard to future user acceptance and usage. One of the  
36 most remarkable benefits of fully automated driving discussed is the potential of alternative  
37 travel-time use. Radical changes in time valuation and a rise in productivity are being  
38 discussed, which are highly relevant when evaluating transport-related measures,  
39 infrastructure investments and mode choice behavior. However, the lack of empirical  
40 examination and the inclusion of important aspects about the usage context, constraints and  
41 perceived benefits make predictions difficult.

42 This paper aims to bridge the gap by examining user acceptance and perceived  
43 advantages of automated vehicles on the basis of four specific use cases within the course of  
44 a quantitative online survey in Germany. The study includes detailed information on  
45 respondents' current use of, and attitudes towards, today's available transport modes, as well  
46 as their perception of the advantages of automated vehicles. Special focus is placed on  
47 current and future travel-time use.

48 Significant differences found in the adaption of specific use cases emphasize the  
49 importance of a differentiation of fully automated driving. Perceived benefits with respect to  
50 time use were mainly window gazing and relaxing, whereas the possibility of working  
51 seemed to be less valued. A probit model analysis examined influencing factors on the  
52 propensity of regarding working while traveling as an advantage - a strong significance of the  
53 current time use on public transport and long-distance train trips, gender and rational attitude  
54 towards public transport was revealed.

## 55 INTRODUCTION

56 The implementation of automated vehicles is envisioned in the not-too-distant future,  
57 although there are remaining uncertainties on various levels (technological, regulatory, etc.).  
58 Fully automated driving is often considered to have radical implications on future transport  
59 systems: it is supposed to reduce crashes or even eliminate them completely, it may have  
60 significant impact on traffic flow, reduce emissions, etc. (cf. 1, 2, 3). On the user side, the  
61 alternative use of time while driving is considered to be one of the most remarkable benefits.  
62 There are various directions that have been discussed in light of modified use of time while  
63 driving (cf. 4, 5, 6, 7). However, the assumed benefits are speculative to date and their  
64 perception and assessment by (potential) users lack systematic empirical examination.  
65 Current studies rarely go beyond the question of whether automated driving or automated  
66 vehicles are attractive for future users. In doing so, important aspects about the context of  
67 use, preconditions and constraints as well as perceived benefits and aims might not be  
68 addressed adequately. A recent study on automated driving was able to show that people do  
69 not have a uniform perception of automated driving and that their evaluation of the  
70 technology differs depending on the context (cf. 8). This demands the application of specific  
71 use cases into the research process to better explore these variances.

72 The aim of the paper is to contribute to the debate on the role of automated vehicles in  
73 connection to the transport system, its users and future mobility: in which way could fully  
74 automated driving change our transport behavior as well as the way we move? What are  
75 current perceptions and attitudes towards automated driving and how could they relate to  
76 future mode choice and anticipated travel-time use? The paper explores specific contexts of  
77 the use of fully automated driving in relation to individual user perspectives in Germany. A  
78 special focus is placed on the topic of alternative travel-time use. A quantitative online survey  
79 was conducted to examine the interrelationship of transport mode use, travel-time and  
80 specific uses cases of automated driving.

81 When we speak of ‘fully automated driving’ or ‘automated driving’ in the following,  
82 we refer to the Society of Automotive Engineers (SAE) taxonomy that contains six levels of  
83 increasing vehicle automation (8). This study focuses on the SAE level 4 and 5 specifications  
84 and also only introduces applicable use cases in the survey itself – assuming that, especially  
85 with regard to alternative travel-time use and valuation, fundamental changes would not be  
86 expected below level 4 automation where a human driver is, at least, required to “respond  
87 appropriately to a request to intervene” (9).

## 88 USE OF TRAVEL-TIME AND AUTOMATED DRIVING

89 In the discussion of the prospective benefits that automated vehicles may provide, the  
90 possibility of an altered time use – associated with an increase in productivity or comfort – is  
91 one of the most prominent examples (cf. 5, 7, 11, 12). Automated driving may lead to a more  
92 positive valuation of the time spent while on the road. Morning commute time especially is  
93 perceived as notably unpleasant and even less popular than work itself (13). Commuting is  
94 also associated with a range of health problems including stress and depression as well as a  
95 higher level of social stress (cf. 14). About 80% of U.S. workers are assumed to lose around  
96 fifty potentially productive minutes due to commuting every day – a vast economic source of  
97 unused potential (7). In Germany, about 8.5 million workers travel for more than an hour  
98 between their home and their workplace every day (14).

99 At the same time, travel-time savings are among the important factors when  
100 evaluating transport-related measures or infrastructure investments by means of a cost-  
101 benefit-analysis (cf. 15). Also, time is highly relevant in determining mode choice in travel  
102 demand models. Usually, access and egress times are differentiated from in-vehicle-time; in  
103 the case of public transport, waiting and transfer times are often considered separately. No  
104 difference is made, though, with respect to time use while traveling. Traditionally, time spent  
105 traveling is regarded as “dead time”, taken away from the possibility of spending it more  
106 enjoyably (16, p. 190) and therefore as having a negative impact on the utility associated with  
107 mode choice. Travel-time savings are accordingly accounted for on the positive side of mode  
108 evaluation (e.g. 17). On the other hand, various studies suggest a subjective value of time,  
109 depending for instance on the activities performed during the trip, influencing the perceived  
110 usefulness of the travel-time (e.g. 18, 19). Recently, a growing body of research is devoted to  
111 influencing factors for travel-time valuation that take into consideration the value of  
112 commuting in company (13), the importance of commuting time as a transitional phase  
113 between work and leisure (20), traveling in cars as places of retreat or “cocoon” (21, p. 105,  
114 22) or even as “sanctuary escape from the world” (19, p. 702), family quality time (23), etc.  
115 Furthermore, the digital information age allows for a more flexible and extensive use of time  
116 while traveling (15).

117 Automated driving is supposed to lead to radical changes in the valuation of travel-  
118 time and also to new possibilities of engaging in activities while traveling. However,  
119 empirical examination has hardly yet taken place, leaving unclear how travelers would spend  
120 their time in fully automated vehicles and how this would contribute to specific perceptions  
121 and evaluations of different transport modes in the future. The following survey aims at  
122 bridging that gap and includes detailed information on respondents’ present travel-time use  
123 and valuation, their attitudes towards different modes of transport as well as perspectives on a  
124 future with automated vehicles.

## 125 A USE-CASE-DRIVEN STUDY ON AUTOMATED VEHICLES

126 Including automated vehicles in transport research requires specifying how the  
127 implementation of these systems may influence everyday mobility. This depends strongly on  
128 specific usage contexts – and on the advantages that they might offer in comparison to means  
129 of transport that are available today. Although there have been a rising number of studies that  
130 deal with attitudes towards, and acceptance of, automated driving, they rather focus on  
131 specific automated driving functions (e.g. automated parking) (e.g. 4, 6, 7, 24). Presenting  
132 practical applications, the explanatory validity of examinations could be enhanced with  
133 respect to benefits and consequences. The following study is part of a multi-disciplinary joint  
134 German and US-American project, funded by the Daimler and Benz foundation, where  
135 specific use cases were identified to “describe typical usage scenarios for autonomous  
136 driving” (25, p. 3). Although the selection is not exhaustive, the four use cases represent  
137 proxies of fully automated applications that cover the range from human driver + automated  
138 functions to no human driver allowed any more. The following section describes the use  
139 cases and gives an overview of expectations and assumptions as they are currently found in  
140 the literature, with particular focus on altered time use.

141

142

**143 Use case 1: Highway pilot**

144 The vehicle is able to take over the driving task “exclusively on interstates or interstate-like  
145 expressways”, managing “navigation, path tracking, and control” as well as the “safe  
146 handover” (25, p.17). It is capable of executing all driving tasks whenever in automated  
147 driving mode – and does therefore not require any situational awareness by the driver during  
148 that time. Two main benefits from an individual user perspective are 1) the relief of tasks that  
149 are often regarded as stressful (monotonous driving for long time periods, traffic jam or road  
150 work scenarios with exhausting braking and accelerating tasks) (cf. 4) and 2) the possibility  
151 of spending time that was formerly tied to concentrating on the driving task in a different –  
152 potentially perceived as more worthwhile – way. Further benefits might be increases in safety  
153 (by minimizing the risk of accidents) and efficiency (by fluidizing traffic flow) – both could  
154 decrease travel-time.

155         Whereas today mostly public transport usage offers the possibility of spending time  
156 actively while traveling, a future with highway pilots could have significant impacts on the  
157 use of cars on long distances offering the same advantages as trains without having to share  
158 the space with other, unknown, passengers.

**159 Use case 2: Valet parking**

160 The vehicle is able to “re-park” itself after driver, passengers and cargo have got out and to  
161 return automatically “from the parking location to a desired destination” (25, p. 18). As the  
162 vehicle “can be privately owned, but might as well be owned by a carsharing provider or  
163 similar business model” (25, p. 19), this use case could show significant impacts on car  
164 ownership rates: decreased access effort would potentially increase comfort and the number  
165 of persons using shared vehicles, especially in inner-city regions (1, 7).

166         In a recent survey, two-thirds of the respondents declared that they would want to use  
167 this automated function– the number was even higher if the respondents lived in dense urban  
168 spaces (cf. 24). Benefits for users are therefore obvious: automated valet parking could help  
169 to ease time and parking pressures that often occur in areas where space for private parking is  
170 limited, cost-intensive and also frequently combined with long ways to and from the parking  
171 location. The function would facilitate the carrying of children and cargo, and make the use  
172 of cars easier for people with mobility constraints. Parking search traffic would be minimized  
173 substantially with positive effects on inner-city traffic and reduction of travel-time.

**174 Use case 3: Fully automated vehicle**

175 The driver can hand over the driving task to the vehicle whenever desired and “pursue other  
176 activities” (25, p. 17). There might be a decrease in inhibition thresholds for inexperienced,  
177 insecure or elderly drivers that would lead overall to rising car use and ownership rates as  
178 well as a decline in the use of public transport modes (cf. 1, 3). If a driver’s license is still  
179 required for these types of vehicles, though, predictions on possible impacts on car use and  
180 ownership rates become more difficult.

181         From the individual user’s perspective, increased safety as well as changing travel-  
182 time valuation might be important benefits. Benefits could especially apply for commuters  
183 that normally don’t drive ‘for fun’ (i.a. 1, 6) – time onboard could be spent more productively  
184 or more meaningfully. This could have significant impacts on the transport system (see  
185 above) but also on future land use: if positive travel-time valuation increases, people could

186 tend to accept longer commuting distances, live in the suburbs, or even in rural areas, while  
187 working in the city.

#### 188 **Use case 4: Vehicle-on-demand**

189 The vehicle executes the driving task “in all scenarios with occupants, with cargo, but also  
190 completely without any payload” and could be made “available at any requested location”  
191 (25, p. 22). Passengers can only enter destination input or press a safe execute ‘button’ and,  
192 as a result, there won’t be a driver cockpit anymore. This use case implies large-scale  
193 changes in the overall transport system. It allows for individual, flexible and comfortable  
194 mobility. The vehicles could bring car ownership rates down radically and lead to a car-  
195 sharing boom (26, 7). This would have significant impacts on land use, as parking space  
196 could be freed for alternative use.

197 Vehicles-on-demand could help to provide seamless use of transport means and  
198 therefore increase multimodal behavior. But it could also serve as a rival to public transport,  
199 increase VMT and the use of cars on the streets dramatically (see i.a. 1, 27). Land use  
200 consequences could therefore be analogous to the fully automated vehicle. Overall, the  
201 numerous implications are hardly foreseeable to-date and developments could go in various  
202 directions.

#### 203 **STUDY DESIGN AND CORE ATTRIBUTES**

204 The focus of recent empirical work on automated driving (cf. 4, 6, 7, 24) is usually on general  
205 attitudinal and acceptance issues, experiences with driver assistance systems, desired  
206 assistance or convenience functions. The studies rarely account for differentiation of the  
207 possible heterogeneous variants of automated driving and are not aimed at providing insights  
208 on behavioral changes or prospective application situations. We therefore conducted a survey  
209 which differentiates automated driving between the use cases described above and focuses on  
210 attitudes and anticipated uses of the respondents.

211 The online survey was collected in 2014 via an online market research panel where  
212 respondents were compensated financially for their participation. It was stratified by gender,  
213 age, income and education to receive a nearly representative sample for the German  
214 population. It consisted of 1,000 completed questionnaires. The first section of the  
215 questionnaire included information on the socio-demographics of the participants, as well as  
216 their level of knowledge and interest in the topic of automated driving and previous use of  
217 driver assistance systems. Subsequently, the current use of, and attitude towards, the available  
218 transport modes were collected. Additionally, the respondents were interviewed on their  
219 usual time use when traveling by car, long-distance train and public transport. In this paper,  
220 ‘public-transport’ (PT) is hereafter to be understood as urban rail and metro systems, buses  
221 and trams whereas ‘train’ is understood as long-distance services of 100 km distance and  
222 more.

223 In the second part of the survey, participants were asked detailed questions to one  
224 randomly selected use case (250 cases for each use case). Questions addressed anticipated use  
225 and deployment purposes, prospective substitute transport modes, perceived usefulness and  
226 expected changes in time use. Furthermore, attitudes towards the described vehicle, the  
227 respective need for intervention, and different aspects of design requirements were also asked

228 for. TABLE 1 contains an overview of the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents  
 229 and the sample structure.

230 **TABLE 1: Key characteristics of the data set**

<b>Attribute</b>	<b>Level</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Gender	female	56%
Age (years)	18-29	9%
	30 - 49	34%
	50 - 64	32%
	65+	26%
	Children under 18 in the HH	no
Highest educational level = High school degree	yes	30%
Highest professional qualification = University degree	yes	18%
Occupational status	full-time ( $\geq 35$ h/w)	32%
	part-time (18-<35 h/w)	13%
	other	55%
Household net income (Euro)	< 900	7%
	900-<1500	18%
	1500->2000	15%
	2000 - < 2600	14%
	2600 - < 3600	19%
	3600+	28%
Driving license	yes	90%
Rail card	Yes	9%
Number of cars in the household	0	13%
	1	52%
	2	29%
	3+	7%
Annual car mileage as driver (km)	< = 5.000 km (8.050 mi)	17%
	5.001 – 10.000 km (8.050 – 16.100 mi)	32%
	10.001 – 15.000 km (16.100 – 24.150 mi)	28%
	15.001 – 20.000 km (24.150 – 32.200 mi)	12%
	+20.000 km (32.200 mi)	12%
Usual car usage (driver)	(almost) daily	55%
	1-3 days a week	23%
	1-3 days a month	5%
	less than monthly	5%
	(almost) never	12%
Usual car usage (passenger)	(almost) daily	6%
	1-3 days a week	25%
	1-3 days a month	23%

	less than monthly	28%
	(almost) never	18%
Usual train usage (>=100 km)	(almost) daily	0%
	1-3 days a week	1%
	1-3 days a month	6%
	less than monthly	46%
	(almost) never	47%
Usual public transport (PT) usage	(almost) daily	14%
	1-3 days a week	10%
	1-3 days a month	18%
	less than monthly	30%
	(almost) never	29%

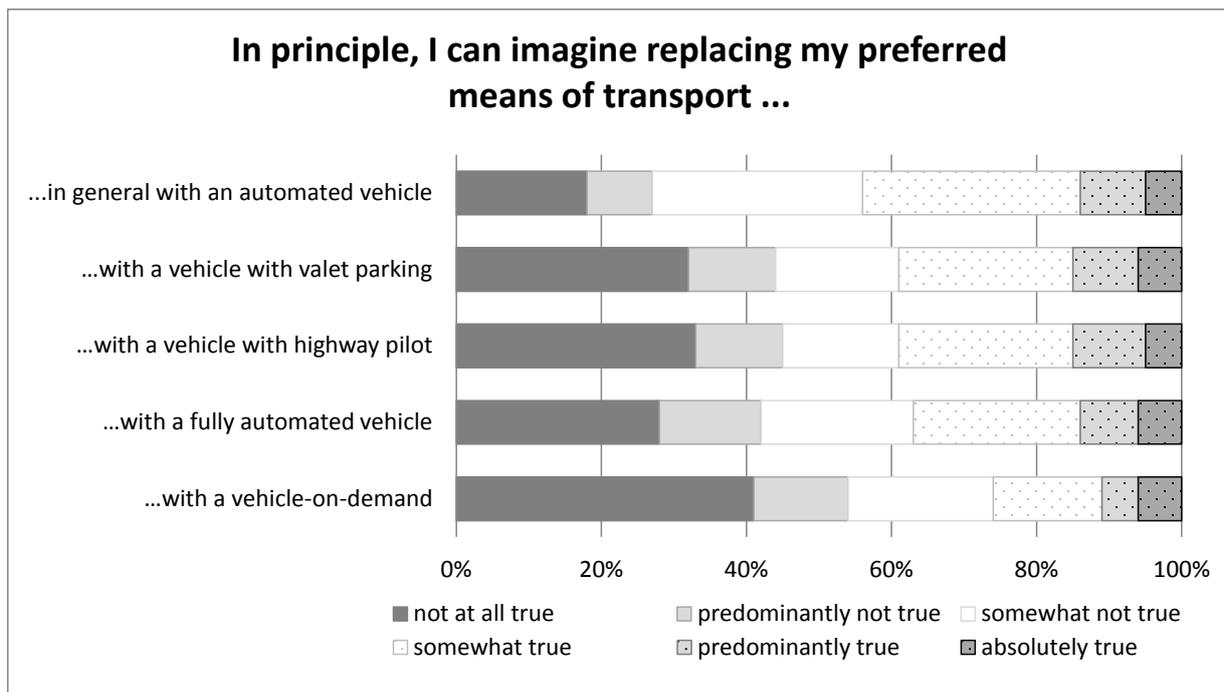
---

231 Descriptions of the use cases contained the core aspects of the scenarios but were  
232 deliberately kept short to allow the survey participants space for their own interpretations.

### 233 **General results**

234 A majority of the respondents (57%) declared general interest in automated driving.  
235 However, 44% said that they don't have any knowledge of the topic at all and only 4% stated  
236 they are well or very well versed, or consider themselves as experts. Most often (78%),  
237 people come back to mass media when they want to get information on automated driving –  
238 almost two-thirds (64%) said they turn to experts (defined as dealer and service provider in  
239 the questionnaire), 56% talk to friends or colleagues and 40% seek exchange on social media  
240 platforms.

241 A vast majority (62%) would not want to hand over the complete vehicle operation  
242 and almost two-thirds would prefer to see themselves rather in the role of a supervisor (64%)  
243 than in the role of a passenger when driving in an automated vehicle. A question in the first  
244 section of the survey addressed the general willingness of respondents to replace their  
245 currently preferred mode of transport with an automated vehicle (which at this time was not  
246 further specified). In the further course of the survey, they were asked again whether they  
247 could imagine replacing their preferred mode of transport with an automated vehicle – this  
248 time after they had been introduced to any one of the four use cases. The answers towards the  
249 first question (automated vehicle in general) were quite undetermined: 59% declared they  
250 could “somewhat” or “somewhat not” imagine replacing their preferred means of transport by  
251 an automated vehicle, and only 27% rejected it. For the specific use cases (e.g. vehicle-on-  
252 demand), the respondents' reactions were less indifferent and also more negative – 54% for  
253 example rejected a vehicle-on-demand (see Figure 1).



254

255

256

**FIGURE 1: Stated willingness to replace the mode currently preferred with an automated vehicle**

257

### Results regarding present and future travel-time use

258

259

260

261

262

263

In order to obtain a first glance at possible implications of automated vehicles regarding the way people would spend ‘mobility time’, the questionnaire included questions on their current and anticipated future time use. The survey first asked which activities they were generally engaged in when traveling by public transport, long-distance train or car.

FIGURE 2 presents the results for the activities conducted while traveling by train and car. Time use in public transport resembles the one in trains and is only reported in written form.

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

By far the most mentioned activities pursued in public transport and trains were enjoying the landscape and the journey as well as conversing with companions or other passengers. 50% of the public transport users and two-thirds of the train users reported frequently or always enjoying the ride. Frequently or always using the time for conversations were 42%, 49% respectively. This is followed by listening to music, reading or relaxing as oft-mentioned activities. The answers thus appear to be in line with the findings reported by Lyons et al. (2007) for the activities conducted by British rail passengers (28): according to their study, window gazing was – especially on short trips – the most mentioned activity on train trips.

273

274

275

276

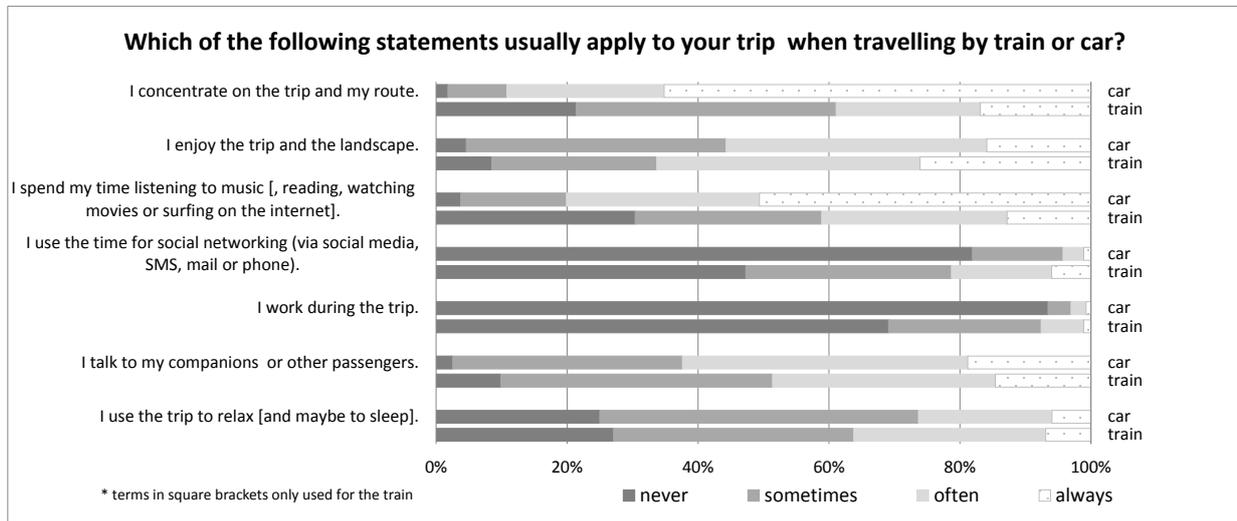
277

278

279

A notable 77% and 69% of respondents say they never work in short- or long-distance transport respectively, contrasted with almost 6% and 8% of respondents that work often or always when traveling by public transport or train. The answers differ – particularly on the train – statistically significantly by gender, income, education level, household size and the presence of children in the household (differences are listed subsequently as statistically significant when reaching a Pearson value of 0.05 or lower in a chi-square test). Thus 74% of women, but only 63% of men, reported never working in the train. Also, the probability of

280 working often or always on the train is, at 10%, twice as high for people with a net household  
 281 income of more than 2.600 Euros per month as in the group with a net household income  
 282 below 2.600 Euros. Employment status proves to be statistically not significant. Our findings  
 283 correspond well with the work of Gardner and Abraham, who reported on commuting  
 284 activities that “[...] participants tended to neglect the potential for journey time to be used  
 285 productively [...]” (16, p. 190).

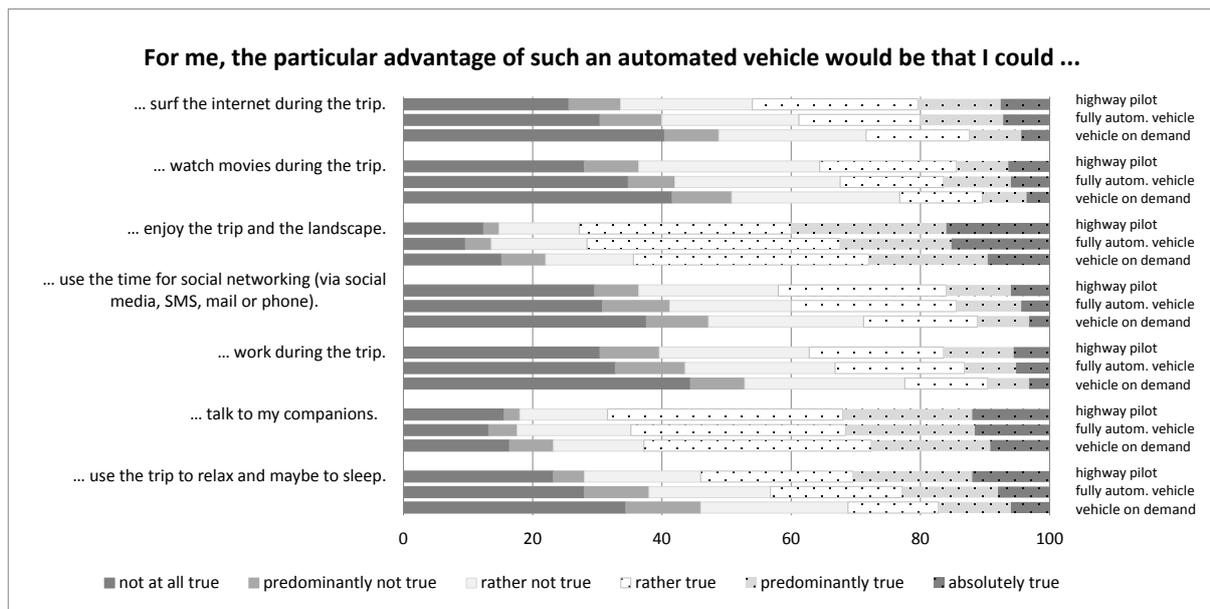


286 **FIGURE 2: Usual time use when traveling by car (N=824) and train (N=1.000)**

287 Focusing on the ride and the route is naturally the main activity in the car. Around  
 288 80% of the car drivers are meanwhile often or always listening to music, about two-thirds  
 289 chat with their passengers. More than half of the respondents stated that they often or always  
 290 enjoy the ride and the scenery while driving. Lastly, 7% of the car drivers reported to at least  
 291 sometimes work in the car.

292 Subsequently, respondents were asked about perceived advantages of the different  
 293 automated vehicles in the scenarios. FIGURE 3 shows the results for the highway pilot as  
 294 well as the fully automated vehicle and the vehicle on demand. Except for the opportunity to  
 295 talk with fellow passengers, answers show strong statistically significant differences between  
 296 the highway pilot and use cases 3 and 4 (fully automated vehicle, vehicle-on-demand), thus  
 297 indeed indicating a perceived distinction of the scenarios by the interviewees. The particular  
 298 advantages most respondents could agree with were the enhanced possibility of enjoying the  
 299 trip and the landscape as well as the chance of talking to fellow travelers. In both cases, about  
 300 a third stated they considered this predominantly or strongly an advantage of the fully  
 301 automated vehicle.

302 The small proportion of those who see an advantage in the ability to work on the  
 303 move is striking: only 13% of the respondents agree predominantly or strongly with the  
 304 related statement. In the case of the highway pilot, this share drops below 10%. The little  
 305 attraction the possibility of working in the car seems to hold is surprising when looking at the  
 306 results of a German survey conducted by Autoscout24 (24). Here, almost a third of the  
 307 respondents wished for the opportunity to use their car as a mobile office.



308

309 **FIGURE 3: Perceived advantages of the different automated vehicles presented in the**  
 310 **uses cases by the respondents (N=250 each)**

311 Overall, advantages of automated vehicles were predominately identified for those  
 312 activities already favored in today’s conventional cars. Not having to concentrate on the  
 313 driving procedure is welcomed as a possibility for having more time or less distraction,  
 314 especially for window gazing and talking.

315 **Influencing factors on the propensity of working in an automated car**

316 In order to identify the factors influencing the decision to work in an automated car, an  
 317 ordered probit model (29) was used. The dependent variable is the 6-step ordinal variable  
 318 indicating the users’ answers as to whether they considered the possibility of working a  
 319 special advantage of an automated vehicle (see FIGURE 3). The independent variables are  
 320 binary dummies or continuous variables (partially stemming from originally ordinal scales)  
 321 of socio-demographic attributes and usual travel behavior as well as statements of mode  
 322 perception and attitudes. Additionally, their current time use when traveling by public  
 323 transport, train or car was used as explanatory variables.

324 In order to harness all observations for the analysis, we formulated a single model  
 325 with use-case-specific constants for the case of the fully automated vehicle as well as the  
 326 vehicle-on-demand. All independent variables (see TABLE 1 and TABLE 2) are standardized  
 327 to ease identifying and comparing their importance. Only the final selection of important  
 328 predictors is presented here, but robustness checks with diverging predictor sets of up to all  
 329 variables did not produce substantial differences in identifying important predictors. Analysis  
 330 was limited to respondents using cars on a regular basis (90% of the sample). The model  
 331 produces a solid result with an R-squared of .13 and five significant cut-off points that are  
 332 statistically different from each other. Detailed results are presented in TABLE 3. Significant  
 333 p-values are marked with one up to three stars indicating a significance niveau of  $p < 0.1$ ,  
 334  $p < 0.05$  and  $p < 0.01$ , respectively.

335 **TABLE 2: Independent variables used additionally to those presented in table 1 for**  
 336 **probit model analysis**

Variable	Scale type
<b>Subject area: travel behavior</b>	
Usual usage of: car sharing	ordinal 1-5 (c)
Usual usage of: ride sharing	ordinal 1-5 (c)
<b>Subject area: mode perception</b>	
Driving means above all relaxation for me.	ordinal, 1-6 (a)
I admire people who set up their everyday lives so that they do not own a car anymore.	ordinal, 1-6 (a)
Through the use of the car I can save a lot of time.	ordinal, 1-6 (a)
I can organize my everyday life without a car very well.	ordinal, 1-6 (a)
On driving a car I like that it is comfortable.	ordinal, 1-6 (a)
The car is the cheapest means of travel for me.	ordinal, 1-6 (a)
For ecological reasons, I feel obliged to do without the car in everyday life as often as possible.	ordinal, 1-6 (a)
I just need the private space of your own vehicle.	ordinal, 1-6 (a)
For me, driving on public transport is relaxing.	ordinal, 1-6 (a)
Local public transport is the cheapest means of travel for me.	ordinal, 1-6 (a)
I appreciate the public transportation because there is usually something interesting to watch.	ordinal, 1-6 (a)
For environmental reasons, I find it useful to use public transport.	ordinal, 1-6 (a)
For me, the public transportation is not very attractive, because I do not know if I can find a free seat.	ordinal, 1-6 (a)
Public transport is a safe means of transport for me.	ordinal, 1-6 (a)
How important is social reputation when choosing your means of transport?	ordinal, 1-6 (d)
How important are costs when choosing your means of transport?	ordinal, 1-6 (d)
How important is time when choosing your means of transport?	ordinal, 1-6 (d)
How important is comfort when choosing your means of transport?	ordinal, 1-6 (d)
How important is independence when choosing your means of transport?	ordinal, 1-6 (d)
How important is stress avoidance when choosing your means of transport?	ordinal, 1-6 (d)
<b>Subject area: current time use</b>	
I use the trip to relax and maybe to sleep.	ordinal, 1-4 (e)
I talk to my companions or other passengers.	ordinal, 1-4 (e)
I work during the trip.	ordinal, 1-4 (e)
I use the time for social networking (via social media, SMS, mail or phone).	ordinal, 1-4 (e)
I spent my time listening to music, reading, watching movies or surfing on the internet.	ordinal, 1-4 (e)
I enjoy the trip and the landscape.	ordinal, 1-4 (e)
I concentrate on the trip and my route.	ordinal, 1-4 (e)
<b>Subject area: automated driving</b>	
In principle, I can imagine replacing my previous preferred means of transport by	ordinal, 1-6 (a)

an automated vehicle.

How would you rate your personal knowledge on the subject of "Automated Driving"?

ordinal, 1-6 (b)

I am interested in the subject of "Automated Driving".

ordinal, 1-6 (a)

a: 1) not at all true 2) predominantly not true 3) rather not true 4) rather true 5) predominantly true 6) absolutely true

b: 1) no knowledge 2) heard of already 3) read some articles 4) well acquainted with the topic 5) very knowledgeable 6) expert

c: 1) (almost) never 2) less than monthly 3) 1-3 days a month 4) 1-3 days a week 5) (almost) daily

d: 1) highly unimportant 2) very unimportant 3) rather unimportant 4) rather important 5) very important 6) highly important

e: 1) never 2) sometimes 3) often 4) always

337

338 **TABLE 3 : Results of an ordered probit model for considering the possibility to work as**  
 339 **an advantage of automated vehicles**

Variable	Coef.	Std. Err.	Significance
<b>Socio-demography</b>			
Female	-0.233	0.047	***
ln (Age)	-0.084	0.054	
Children in HH	0.089	0.047	*
Rail card	-0.113	0.047	**
3+ cars in HH	0.140	0.048	***
Annual car mileage (km) 10k+	-0.089	0.049	*
<b>Usual travel behavior, attributes of modes and mode perception</b>			
Regular mode: car (driver)	0.133	0.051	***
Regular mode: car (pass.)	-0.091	0.048	*
Regular mode: train	0.106	0.051	**
Importance: Image	0.103	0.046	**
Importance: Time	0.133	0.048	***
PT trips are relaxing	-0.157	0.061	***
PT is cheapest for me	0.093	0.056	*
PT makes sense for ecol.	0.164	0.056	***
PT is a safe & secure mode	0.122	0.061	**
<b>Actual time use</b>			
PT time use: work	0.249	0.055	***
PT time use: landscape	0.208	0.056	***
Train time use: work	0.144	0.056	***
Train time use: digital comm.	0.129	0.054	**
Train time use: landscape	-0.108	0.057	*
Car time use: landscape	-0.101	0.051	**
<b>Use case differentiation</b>			

Use case fully automated vehicle	0.156	0.048	***
Use case vehicle-on-demand	0.269	0.048	***
<b>Cut-off Points</b>	<b>Value</b>	<b>Std. Err.</b>	
cut1	-0.359	0.058	
cut2	-0.091	0.057	
cut3	0.718	0.062	
cut4	1.569	0.080	
cut5	2.331	0.115	
Ordered probit regression	Number of obs	=	624
	LR chi2(23)	=	247.98
Log likelihood = -853.49691	Prob > chi2	=	0.0000
	Pseudo R2	=	0.1268

340 Usual socio-demographic attributes show little relevance for the answering scheme.  
 341 Whereas women are substantially less likely to view the option of working positively, neither  
 342 employment status nor educational level and household income have a significant influence.  
 343 The (logged) age of the respondent shows a slightly diminishing effect on the dependent  
 344 variable but is not highly significant ( $p=.116$ ). The presence of children in the household has  
 345 a slightly positive effect on the likeliness of working in automated cars. Whereas the number  
 346 of cars in the household did not show significant continuous impact on this dependent  
 347 variable, being a member of a household with a high car ownership rate (3+ cars) does have a  
 348 strongly positive impact. Ownership of a rail card, as well as an elevated annual car mileage,  
 349 both being proxies for a generally high level of traffic participation, exhibited a statistically  
 350 significant negative impact.

351 We then looked to see if respondents habitual travel behavior helped to predict if they  
 352 would welcome the option of working in an automated vehicle. Those who used cars or trains  
 353 frequently proved to be more likely to do so. Often being a car passenger, though, reveals a  
 354 negative impact on this dependent variable. No significant impact was found in relation to  
 355 using public transport, bikes, car pooling and car sharing.

356 Next, we analyzed variables related to the perception of cars and public transport.  
 357 None of the car-related perception items (pleasure of driving, exhibiting driving expertise, car  
 358 as a place of relaxation/comfort) were found to have a statistically significant impact.  
 359 Variables indicating a rational, ecologically-oriented attitude towards public transport,  
 360 though, affected the dependent variable positively. In contrast, considering public transport  
 361 trips relaxing had a negative impact.

362 In the survey, we examined the importance of fulfilling specific needs, such as  
 363 independence, balancing stress-freedom, cost, safety, comfort or eco-friendliness when  
 364 choosing a transport mode. All dimensions mentioned, as well as driving experience, proved  
 365 insignificant; exclusively a focus on time and image aspects show a positive impact on seeing  
 366 the possibility to work as an advantage of automated vehicles.

367 The stated current time use exhibited strong explanatory power. While time use when  
 368 traveling by car did not prove relevant, with the exception of enjoying the trip and the  
 369 landscape, active time use in train and public transportation is highly correlates with the

370 outcome of the dependent variable. The more frequently respondents spend time working -  
371 especially in public transportation but also in long-distance trains - the more likely they are to  
372 consider working possibilities as an advantage of automated vehicles. The frequency of time  
373 use on trains for social networking showed further positive impact. The latter was of no  
374 significance on shorter rides with public transport, though. The frequency of using time on  
375 either mode for relaxing and sleeping, reading, listening to music or even talking to  
376 companions appears irrelevant. Also, the frequency of using time for concentrating on the trip  
377 and the route showed no significance. How often people spent time enjoying the trip and the  
378 landscape had a significant impact in all three modes – with the impact being highly  
379 significant and positive in the case of public transport and with a negative effect for train and  
380 car use.

381         Neither interest in or acquaintance with automated driving, nor being open minded  
382 towards replacing the current transport mode, showed a statistically significant impact on  
383 seeing the advantages of altered time use. Despite the discussed similarity between the three  
384 use cases and their associated predictors (which remain mostly the same, as our robustness  
385 checks confirmed), the two use-case-specific constants show substantial differences in the  
386 absolute level of the dependent variable. The probability of welcoming the option of working  
387 is, compared to the base case (the highway pilot), substantially higher in the case of the fully  
388 automated vehicle, and especially the vehicle-on-demand – the two use cases explicitly  
389 involving urban context.

## 390 **CONCLUSION AND OUTLOOK**

391 A use-case-driven evaluation of the possible implications of fully automated driving is  
392 gaining importance, especially with regard to future user perspectives. The online survey that  
393 was carried out emphasized the significance of differentiation: When respondents were asked  
394 whether they could imagine replacing their preferred means of transport with an automated  
395 vehicle, approval ratings varied strongly depending on a non-specific question or the  
396 introduction of specific use cases.

397         The notion of wasted, unproductive time being turned into economically valuable  
398 time is one dominant argument in the debate on automated driving. The way people will  
399 spend their time while traveling in future might not only affect the valuation of different  
400 transport modes but also the distances travelers are willing to overcome. This may possibly  
401 have radical impacts on the transport system as well as on land use. Therefore, the study  
402 focused on current and potential future time use.

403         Currently, listening to music, talking to passengers and enjoying both the trip and the  
404 landscape are activities people are engaged in most often while driving. The latter is also the  
405 most prominent activity on train and public transport rides. Working while traveling, in  
406 current time use, plays only a minor role – which is not only due to the fact that people might  
407 not want to spend their time working while traveling but also to the fact that there are various  
408 jobs where work-related activities cannot be executed while en route. Focusing on  
409 prospective time use, the survey was therefore able to verify that the underlying assumption  
410 of people wanting to spend their time ‘productively’ while traveling, if only they could, has  
411 to be regarded with caution. When asked what they considered to be the advantages of fully  
412 automated vehicles, only a minor share explicitly declared working while traveling to be a

413 benefit. Instead, respondents favored activities for automated driving that they already prefer  
414 today in conventional cars – e.g. window gazing, conversing or listening to music.

415 The factors influencing the propensity to regard potential ‘freed’ time to work in an  
416 automated vehicle as an advantage of the future technology were examined by means of a  
417 probit model. Current time use in particular was identified as an important predictor of the  
418 perception and evaluation of potentially being able to work while traveling in an automated  
419 vehicle – simply put, respondents that report work as frequent activity during their trips to  
420 date are more likely to wish to work in an automated vehicle in the future. On the other hand,  
421 the more people spend their time enjoying the landscape on longer trips today, the less likely  
422 they are to imagine spending their time working in the future. Frequent travel by car or public  
423 transport has a positive effect on this perception – regardless if people enjoy driving a car or  
424 not. Furthermore, factors that could be attributed to a ‘tight time regime’ gained almost no  
425 significance: while male respondents showed a slightly higher likeliness of wanting to work,  
426 no correlation could be stated for income and full-time occupational status – only if time was  
427 considered to be an important factor concerning mode choice, positive effects were identified.

428 The similarities between current and future time use patterns could support the  
429 assumption that people considered time spent at current activities adequately invested, thus  
430 perceiving that “[t]ime in the car [...] is not necessarily time that is lost” (21, p. 104) but  
431 possibly associated with a positive utility in itself (32, 19). Time available in a fully  
432 automated vehicle, therefore, may not be so much regarded as a future “[...] gift, that I can  
433 use just for myself” (30, own translation). In contrary, people might already now perceive  
434 their time as spent in a subjectively meaningful way and experience travel as “a gift rather  
435 than a burden.” (31, p. 81) This notion is also supported by others: Mokhtarian and Salomon  
436 found out that about a third of their respondents stated they used their commute time  
437 productively, while almost half disagreed with the statement that their travel-time was  
438 generally wasted time (19). Similarly, Lyons showed in his study that only 13% of  
439 respondents considered their time as wasted whereas 30% stated they made very worthwhile  
440 use of their travel-time (32). In an earlier paper, Lyons et al. were able to indicate that  
441 commuters are more likely to consider their travel-time as wasted than people traveling for  
442 leisure or business reasons (28), indicating that repetitive traveling might rather be a source  
443 of considering time as wasted.

444 Another possible way of interpretation might be though, that many current car users  
445 or users of the transport system in general, still only have a vague idea about specific benefits  
446 that automated driving could bring. Peters and Dütschke, in their study on the acceptance of  
447 electric mobility, suggested that attitudes towards new, little-known systems are in general  
448 difficult to assess and therefore rather based on previous mobility patterns (33). This not only  
449 demands for an even more-specific identification and specification of use cases of automated  
450 driving when analyzing potential impacts. The results also emphasize the necessity of both  
451 empirical as well as analytical work allowing for a more detailed examination of the  
452 perception and valuation of travel-time. This also gains importance in relation to transport  
453 modelling as “[i]mproving our forecasts of travel behavior may require viewing travel  
454 literally as a ‘good’ as well as a ‘bad’(disutility)” (19, p. 695, 15). In this context “simply  
455 knowing what people are doing is not enough” (32, p. 2) as the perception of having time  
456 spent worthwhile is depending on the type of journey, and particularly on the individual und  
457 her/his specific needs.

458 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

459 We gratefully acknowledge the work of Ingo Wolf from the Freie Universität Berlin,  
460 with whom the survey was developed and carried out in cooperation. Also, the authors would  
461 like to thank Alexander Kihm from DLR for his support with the statistical analysis and the  
462 Daimler Benz Foundation for financial support of the project.

463 **REFERENCES**

- 464 1. Fagnant, D. J. and K. M. Kockelman. Preparing a Nation for Autonomous Vehicles:  
465 Opportunities, Barriers and Policy Recommendations for Capitalizing on Self-Driven  
466 Vehicles. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, Transportation  
467 Research Board. Washington D.C., 2013, pp. 1-26.
- 468 2. Hoogendoorn, R., Arem B. Van and S. Hoogendoorn. Automated Driving, Traffic  
469 Flow Efficiency and Human Factors : Literature Review. *Proceedings of the 93th*  
470 *Annual Meeting of the Transportation Research Board*. Washington D.C., 2014.
- 471 3. Brookhuis K. A., de Waard D. and W. H. Janssen. Behavioural impacts of Advanced  
472 Driver Assistance Systems – an overview. *Special Issue: Implementation Issues of*  
473 *Advanced Driver Assistance Systems, European Journal of Transport and*  
474 *Infrastructure Research*, Vol. 3, 2001, pp. 245-254.
- 475 4. Continental. *Continental Mobilitätsstudie 2013*. Continental AG, December 2013.  
476 [http://www.continental-corporation.com/www/download/pressportal\\_com\\_en/](http://www.continental-corporation.com/www/download/pressportal_com_en/general/ov_automated_driving_en/ov_mobility_study_en/download_channel/pres_mobility_study_en.pdf)  
477 [general/ov\\_automated\\_driving\\_en/ov\\_mobility\\_study\\_en/download\\_channel/pres\\_mo](http://www.continental-corporation.com/www/download/pressportal_com_en/general/ov_automated_driving_en/ov_mobility_study_en/download_channel/pres_mobility_study_en.pdf)  
478 [bility\\_study\\_en.pdf](http://www.continental-corporation.com/www/download/pressportal_com_en/general/ov_automated_driving_en/ov_mobility_study_en/download_channel/pres_mobility_study_en.pdf). Accessed July 29, 2014.
- 479 5. Sokolow, A. Autonome Autos: Autobranche vs. Google. *heise online*, Dec. 2013.  
480 [http://m.heise.de/newsticker/meldung/Autonome-Autos-Autobranche-vs-Google-](http://m.heise.de/newsticker/meldung/Autonome-Autos-Autobranche-vs-Google-2072050.html)  
481 [2072050.html](http://m.heise.de/newsticker/meldung/Autonome-Autos-Autobranche-vs-Google-2072050.html). Accessed July 29, 2014.
- 482 6. Silberg, G., Manassa, M., Everhart, K., Subramanian, D., Corley, M., Fraser, H., and  
483 V. Sinha. *Self-Driving Cars: Are We Ready?* KPMG, 2013.
- 484 7. Silberg, G., Wallace R., and G. Matuszak. *Self-driving cars: The next revolution*.  
485 KPMG and Center for Automotive Research, 2012.
- 486 8. Fraedrich, E. and B. Lenz. Automated Driving – Individual and Societal Aspects.  
487 *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research (TRR)*. 93<sup>rd</sup>  
488 in press.
- 489 9. SAE. J3016. *Taxonomy and Definitions for Terms Related to On-Road Motor Vehicle*  
490 *Automated Driving Systems*. 2014.
- 491 10. Smith, B.W. *Summary of Levels of Driving Automation for On-Road Vehicles*. 2013.  
492 <http://cyberlaw.stanford.edu/loda> Accessed November 14, 2014.
- 493 11. Munsch, E. Autonomes Fahren: Platz sparen mit dem Bordcomputer. *Zeit Online*,  
494 May 2014. [http://www.zeit.de/mobilitaet/2014-05/autonomes-fahren-feldversuch-](http://www.zeit.de/mobilitaet/2014-05/autonomes-fahren-feldversuch-schweden)  
495 [schweden](http://www.zeit.de/mobilitaet/2014-05/autonomes-fahren-feldversuch-schweden). Accessed July 29, 2014.

- 496 12. Schulz, T. Google-Auto: Unterwegs im selbstfahrenden Auto. *Spiegel Online*, May  
497 2014. [http://www.spiegel.de/auto/aktuell/google-auto-unterwegs-im-selbstfahrenden-  
auto-a-969532.html](http://www.spiegel.de/auto/aktuell/google-auto-unterwegs-im-selbstfahrenden-<br/>498 auto-a-969532.html). Accessed July 29, 2014.
- 499 13. Kahneman, D., and A.B. Krueger. Developments in the Measurement of Subjective  
500 Well-Being. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, Vol. 20, No. 1, 2006, pp. 3–24.
- 501 14. Tatje, C. Arbeitsweg: Die Pendlerrepublik. *Zeit Online*, May 2014.  
502 <http://www.zeit.de/2014/22/mobilitaet-pendler-arbeitsweg>. Accessed July 29, 2014.
- 503 15. Lyons, G. and J. Urry. Travel time use in the information age. *Transportation  
504 Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, Transportation Research Board. Washington  
505 D.C., Vol. 39, No. 2-3, 2005, 257-276.
- 506 16. Gardner, B. and C. Abraham. What drives car use? A grounded theory analysis of  
507 commuters' reasons for driving. *Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology  
508 and Behaviour*, Washington D.C., Vol. 10, No. 3, 2007. pp. 187-200.
- 509 17. Shires, J. D. and G.C. Jong. An international meta-analysis of values of travel time  
510 savings. *Evaluation and Program Planning*, Vol. 32, No. 4, 2009, pp. 315-325.
- 511 18. Gamberini, L., Spagnolli, A., Miotto, A., Ferrari, E., Corradi, N. and S. Furlan.  
512 Passengers' activities during short trips on the London Underground. *Transportation*,  
513 Vol. 40, No. 2, 2012, 251-268.
- 514 19. Mokhtarian, P.L. and I. Salomon. How derived is the demand for travel? Some  
515 conceptual and measurement considerations. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy  
516 and Practice*, Washington D.C., Vol. 35, 2001, pp. 695-719.
- 517 20. Redmond, L. S. and P. L. Mokhtarian. The Positive Utility of the Commute:  
518 Modeling Ideal Commute Time and Relative Desired Commute Amount.  
519 *Transportation*, Vol. 28, No. 2, 2001, pp. 179-205.
- 520 21. Kent, J. L. Driving to save time or saving time to drive? The enduring appeal of the  
521 private car. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, Washington D.C.,  
522 Vol. 65, 2014, pp. 103-115.
- 523 22. Steg, L. Car use: lust and must. Instrumental, symbolic and affective motives for car  
524 use. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, Washington D.C., Vol. 39,  
525 2005, pp. 147–162.
- 526 23. Price, L. and B. Matthews. Travel time as quality time: parental attitudes to long  
527 distance travel with young children. *Journal of Transport Geography*, Vol. 32, 2013,  
528 pp. 49-55.
- 529 24. Autoscout 24. *Unser Auto von morgen: Studie zu den Wünschen der Europäer an das  
530 Auto von morgen*. AutoScout24, München, 2012. [http://about.autoscout24.com/de-  
de/au-press/2012\\_as24\\_studie\\_auto\\_v\\_morgen\\_en.pdf](http://about.autoscout24.com/de-<br/>531 de/au-press/2012_as24_studie_auto_v_morgen_en.pdf). Accessed July 29, 2014.
- 532 25. Wachenfeld, W. and H. Winner. *Use Cases for Autonomous Driving*. Villa Ladenburg  
533 Kolleg „Autonomes Fahren“, June 2014.  
534 [https://www.daimler-benz-stiftung.de/cms/images/dbs-bilder/foerderprojekte/villa-  
ladenburg/Villa\\_Ladenburg\\_Use\\_Cases\\_English\\_Release\\_2.pdf](https://www.daimler-benz-stiftung.de/cms/images/dbs-bilder/foerderprojekte/villa-<br/>535 ladenburg/Villa_Ladenburg_Use_Cases_English_Release_2.pdf). Accessed July 29,  
536 2014.

- 537 26. Litmann T. Ready or waiting? *Traffic Technology International*, January 2014, pp.  
538 37–42.
- 539 27. Willumsen, L. G. *Forecasting the Impact of Self-Driving-Cars. What to do about*  
540 *them in our models and forecasts*. Presented at Citilab Asia User Conference, Karon,  
541 Thailand, Nov. 5, 2013.
- 542 28. Lyons, G., Jain, J. and D. Holley. The use of travel time by rail passengers in Great  
543 Britain. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, Transportation  
544 Research Board of the National Academies Washington D.C., Vol. 41, No. 1, 2007,  
545 pp. 107-120.
- 546 29. Greene, W. H. *Econometric Analysis*. 5<sup>th</sup> Edition, Prentice Hall, New Jersey, 2002
- 547 30. Rinspeed. Rinspeed – Creative think tank for the automotive industry. Where the  
548 future is reality – today. 2014 <http://www.rinspeed.eu/aktuelles.php?aid=15>. Accessed  
549 July 29, 2014.
- 550 31. Jain, J. and G. Lyons. The gift of travel time. *The Journal of Transport Geography*,  
551 Vol. 16, No. 2, 2008, pp. 81-89.
- 552 32. Lyons, G., Jain, J., Susilo, Y. and S. Atkins. Comparing Rail Passengers' Travel Time  
553 Use in Great Britain Between 2004 and 2010. *Mobilities*. Vol. 8, No. 4, 2013, 560-  
554 579.
- 555 33. Peters, A., and E. Dütschke. *Zur Nutzerakzeptanz von Elektromobilität. Analyse aus*  
556 *Expertensicht*. Fraunhofer ISI, Karlsruhe, September 2010.  
557 [http://www.fraunhofer-isi-cms.de/elektromobilitaet/Media/forschungsergebnisse/  
558 12865295256482-10.92.21.153-FSEM\\_Ergebnisbericht\\_Experteninterviews.pdf](http://www.fraunhofer-isi-cms.de/elektromobilitaet/Media/forschungsergebnisse/12865295256482-10.92.21.153-FSEM_Ergebnisbericht_Experteninterviews.pdf)  
559 Accessed July, 29, 2014.