

1 **Influence of Public Transportation in Munich: An Empirical MFD Traffic Analysis**

2 **Yamam Alayasreih*** 

3  Chair of Traffic Engineering and Control, Technical University of Munich, Germany

4  Email: yamam.alayasreih@tum.de

5 **Allister Loder** 

6  Chair of Traffic Engineering and Control, Technical University of Munich, Germany

7  Email: allister.loder@tum.de

8 **Klaus Bogenberger** 

9  Chair of Traffic Engineering and Control, Technical University of Munich, Germany

10  Email: klaus.bogenberger@tum.de

11 **Anna Takayasu** 

12  Chair of Traffic Engineering and Control, Technical University of Munich, Germany

13  Email: anna.takayasu@tum.de

14 * Corresponding author

15 Word count: 4693 words + 2 table(s) × 250 + 750 words for references = 5943 words

16

17 *Submitted:* May 9, 2024

18

19 Paper submitted for presentation at the 103rd Annual Meeting Transportation Research Board,
20 Washington D.C., January 2024

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 Public transportation strikes have a long-standing tradition in transportation research for analyzing
3 their impact on individual mode choice and collective traffic performance, e.g., congestion levels
4 or traffic speeds. In March 2023, Munich was twice affected by a one-day strike of almost all road-
5 based transportation services. We use this natural experiment to empirically analyze the impact of
6 public transportation operations on Munich's network traffic using the macroscopic fundamental
7 diagram (MFD) and data from 770 loop detectors. The MFD theory predicts that the MFD's shape
8 also depends on public transportation operations, the so-called 3D-MFD: the absence of public
9 transportation is expected to increase network capacity and critical density. We find that on strike
10 days, the inflow of cars into the city increases by around 15%, suggesting that some previous
11 public transportation travelers changed to the car. Further, we find the expected change in the
12 MFD shape, with the MFD capacity increasing by 4.7% and the critical occupancy by 8%, while
13 data also suggests a slight increase in free-flow speeds. Interestingly, we see that on the Friday
14 strike day compared to the Monday strike day, peak spreading behavior in the afternoon avoided a
15 network breakdown. Overall, we conclude that the increase in the capacity in car passenger travel
16 production due to the absence of public transportation was only one-third of the lost capacity in
17 public transportation passenger travel production based on conservative estimates of bus occupancy
18 levels.

19 *Keywords:* Strike; Public Transportation; Traffic Analysis; Capacity; Speed; Moving Bottleneck;
20 MFD

1 INTRODUCTION

2 Strikes are considered natural or forced experiments and have been used in transportation research
3 to investigate various aspects, such as their impacts on congestion and travel mode choice. For
4 example, analyses of the 2003 Los Angeles public transportation strike show that congestion wors-
5 ened substantially even though public transportation usually sees only a small fraction of the overall
6 travel demand (1, 2). The “congestion relief” benefit of public transportation and the external cost
7 of strikes are found to be substantial, stressing the importance of public transportation provision
8 and subsidies in reducing car externalize (2–4). While the reasons for a behavioral change during a
9 public transportation strike presumably only be obtained through questionnaires (5, 6), the primary
10 data source for assessment of strike impacts on traffic performance are loop detector data (2, 7) and
11 floating car data (4).

12 Strike-related traffic analyses have mainly focused on arterials or highway speeds, pre-
13 sumably as economic assessments are based on losses in travel time and the value of travel time
14 savings (3, 8). While speed might be informative from an economic perspective and for individual
15 travelers, public transportation operations impact traffic flow, e.g., reduced corridor capacity due
16 to mixed traffic (9, 10) as buses have additional stops (11), buses are moving bottlenecks (12–14)
17 and some even designated time-table speeds (15), and public transportation priority at intersections
18 (16–19). In other words, there is an impact on the network performance too. However, there has
19 been, so far, less focus on this collective impact on traffic flow and network performance.

20 Here, the macroscopic fundamental diagram (MFD) provides a unique methodological op-
21 portunity to study the strike impact on the overall network performance in terms of demand and
22 supply. The MFD is a network-wide relationship between the number of vehicles in the network
23 and their collective travel production or average speed (20). This relationship is assumed to be
24 a function of network structure and topology (21–23) as well as the presence of other modes of
25 transportation, e.g., public transportation (24, 25). Consequently, if a public transportation strike
26 occurs, the natural hypotheses are that some trips are shifted from public transportation to the car
27 and that the absence of public transportation improves car travel and traffic through less moving
28 bottlenecks, less public transportation service stops, and more green time at intersections due to
29 less public transportation priority. So far, the MFD has been widely used to study, e.g., the im-
30 pact of network topology (26), public transportation operations (27, 28), and the impact of road
31 investment (29), but it has never been used as a method to empirically assess the impact of a pub-
32 lic transportation strike on network traffic; in other words, comparing the same network with and
33 without public transportation operations.

34 In March 2023, Munich, Germany, experienced twice a strike of all road-based public trans-
35 portation and most rail-based services. We use this natural experiment to empirically investigate
36 the impact of public transportation on demand patterns and network-wide traffic using loop de-
37 tector data for an urban road network with and without road-based public transportation services.
38 We have the following hypotheses (i) strike leads to demand shifts towards car travel, based on
39 empirical evidence, e.g., (1, 2); (ii) strike results in changes in the MFD shape, with an increased
40 capacity, critical density, and free-flow speed, based on MFD theory, e.g., (30).

41 This paper contributes with the first empirical assessment of the impact of a public trans-
42 portation strike on network traffic flow using the MFD and data from Munich, Germany. By doing
43 so, we also provide the first empirical analysis of network-wide traffic operations in a metropolis
44 with and without public transportation operations, which allows us to approximate the benefit of
45 public transportation in terms of passenger travel. The results show that, indeed the MFD shape is

1 changed from a non-strike day to a strike day in terms of capacity, critical occupancy, and likely
 2 also in free-flow speed, as well as that the gains in car passenger travel production are only one-
 3 third of the losses in public transportation passenger travel using a conservative estimate of the
 4 average public transportation vehicle occupancy.

5 This paper is organized as follows and is further illustrated in Figure 1. First, we introduce
 6 the case study of Munich; next, we provide an overview of the dataset and the MFD-based analysis
 7 deployed in our study; later, we present the results from the Munich case and offer insights into
 8 the benefits of public transportation provision in terms of passenger travel; finally, we summarise
 9 future research directions and highlight important takeaways from the Munich case.

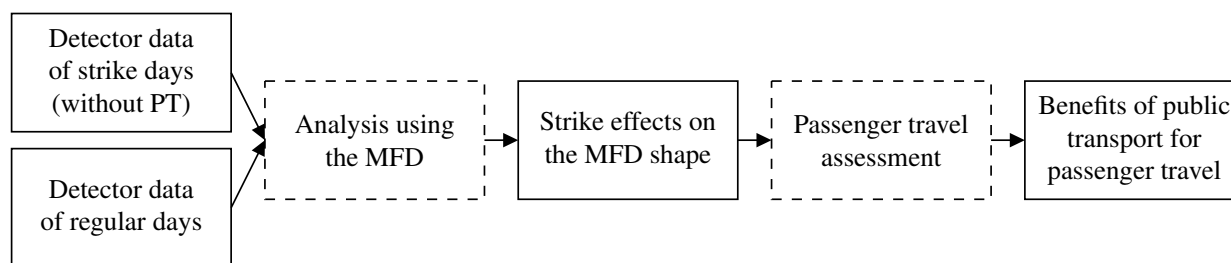


FIGURE 1 : Organization of this study

10 CASE STUDY MUNICH

11 The city of Munich, Germany, covers an area of 310 km² with a population of approximately
 12 1.6 million inhabitants. Excluding motorways and minor residential roads, Munich road network
 13 is 740 km-road long. The city of Munich and its metropolitan region is characterized by three
 14 ring roads: around the city, a highway beltway connects seven highways and allows to bypass
 15 the city for through traffic. The second ring road is the “Mittlerer Ring” (middle ring road), road
 16 number “B2R” surrounds the inner part of the city and also connects to the same highways that are
 17 connected to the highway beltway. The third ring road is the “Altstadtring” that surrounds the old
 18 city core, which is predominately pedestrianized. Moving between the highway beltway and the
 19 B2R is possible on highways, while moving between the B2R and the Altstadtring is only possible
 20 on signalized arterials. Figure 2a shows the road network at the level of B2R, the middle ring road.
 21 The B2R acts as a natural boundary separating the CBD from the city suburbs. Complementing the
 22 extensive road network is a public transportation network operated by Munich Transport and Tariff
 23 Association (MVG). The Public transportation network comprises eight suburban train lines and
 24 eight subway lines that connect the suburbs of the city by crossing the B2R. In addition, the network
 25 is enhanced by 18 tram lines and 118 bus lines, shown in Figure 2b, operating with headways
 26 between five and fifteen minutes. Many services operate in mixed traffic conditions and not on
 27 dedicated lanes. Table 1 shows the operational characteristics of road-based public transportation
 28 within the B2R. To promote sustainable modes, most road-based public transportation lines are
 29 prioritized at signalized intersections across the city. Nevertheless, the network-wide effect of
 30 public transportation and related prioritization strategy has never been investigated.

31 In March 2023, Munich encountered two significant strikes by public transportation person-
 32 nel, resulting in severe disruptions to transportation services. The first strike occurred on Friday,
 33 the 3rd, impacting the subway, trams, and buses. Subsequently, on Monday, the 27th, a broader
 34 strike affected all public transportation services, including rail-based services. These strikes, an-

nounced well in advance by the labor union, persisted for a full day. It should be noted that a few buses operated by private companies with sub-contracts from MVV continued to run. The snowy weather on the second strike date further limited accessible alternative transportation modes, such as walking or cycling. This network-wide natural experiment gives a unique opportunity to apply an MFD-based analysis to investigate the impact of public transportation.

Previous work involving the estimation of the MFD in Munich includes (31) simulation-based MFD model for the city, (23) empirically MFD for Schwabing sub-network, (32) analytical and empirical MFD for Leopoldstraße corridor. While these studies offer valuable insights, they also leave space for a broader empirical investigation.

In this study, we focus on the area inside the B2R, the colored area shown in Figure 2a. The B2R can be considered a natural urban boundary, not only in terms of urban structure but also in terms of traffic flow. The region inside is one large reservoir. The inflow and outflow to this network is limited to a few locations, usually connected with ramps to the B2R. In addition, the B2R region sees substantially more public transportation operations on almost all major streets in the network. Note that we exclude the B2R ring road itself from this analysis because it is a dual carriageway and almost unsignalized, being more an urban highway than an urban street.

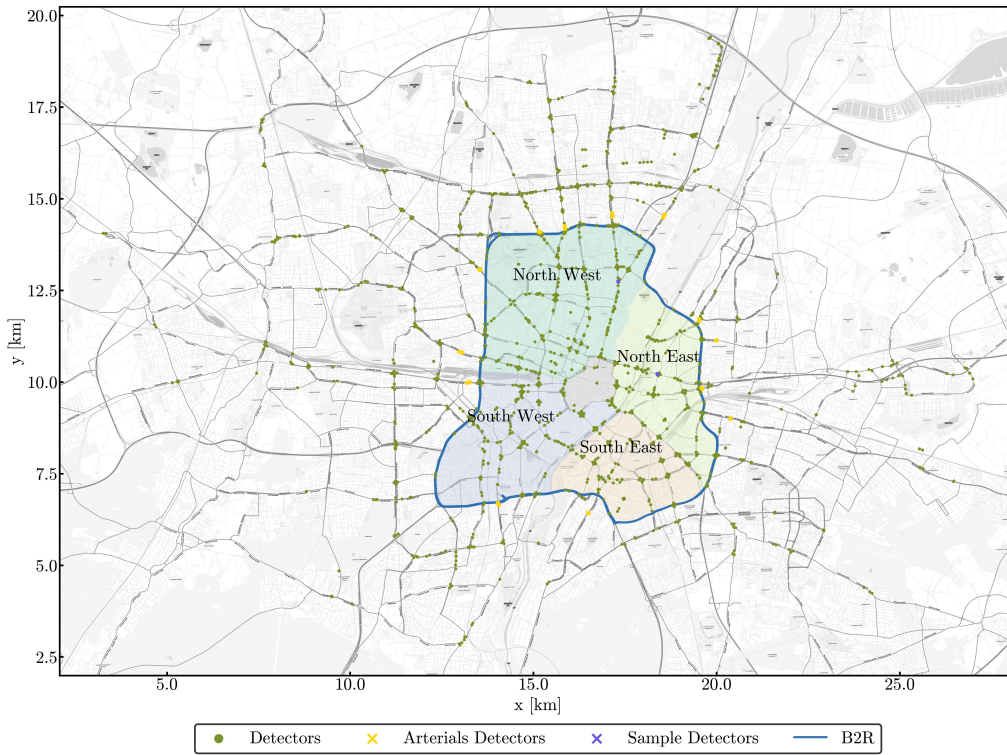
TABLE 1 : B2R Regions Characteristics

	Area [km ²]	Road Length [km]	Stops No. [#]	Routes Length [km]
North West	15.2	72	256	129
South West	11.0	43	174	90
North East	8.8	48	166	99
South East	7.0	24	110	47
Full region	43.6	188	735	376

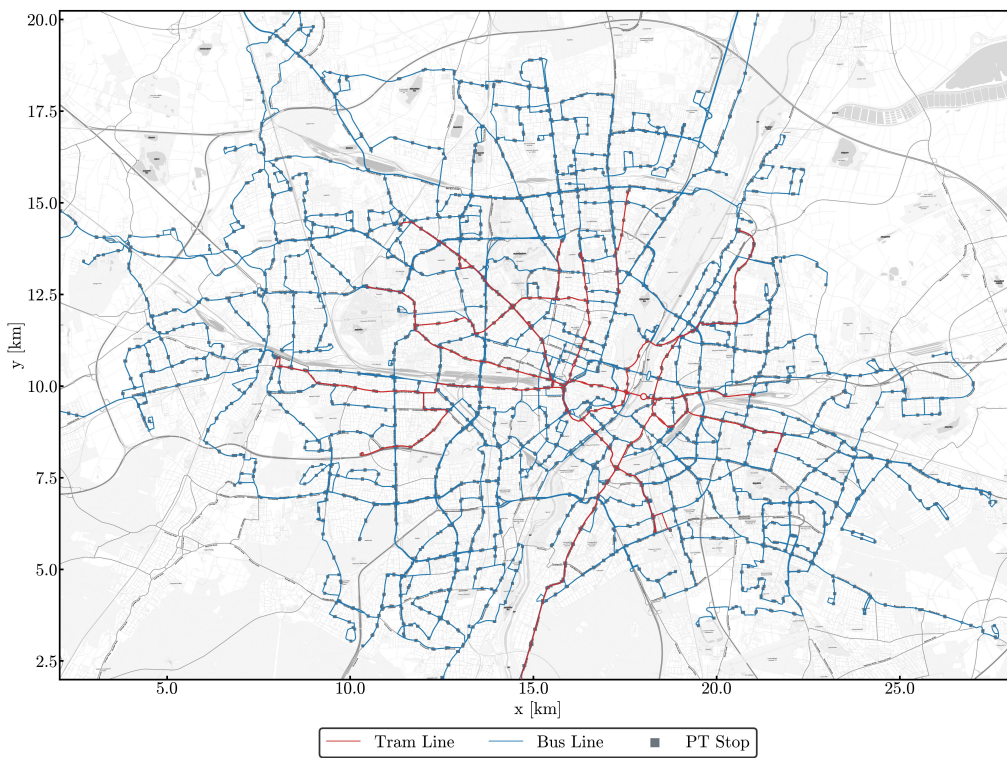
METHODOLOGY AND DATA

An MFD-based Approach

The large extent of both strike days as well as their level of impact makes the application of the MFD theory appealing. As the MFD provides an aggregated, macroscopic and urban-scale perspective on the dynamics of multi-modal traffic in urban road networks (33), it allows to focus on the main or “first order” effect of the strike at an urban level. The MFD extends naturally to several modes of transportation, where the “multi-modal” MFD then captures the interaction costs between modes of transportation at the network level. In an urban environment, the most relevant multi-modal MFD captures the interactions between car traffic and road-based public transportation (25, 30, 34), also called the “3D-MFD”. It quantifies the impact of the number of cars and public transportation vehicles in a network on the joint travel production of all vehicles in the network. Considering an urban road network with substantial public transportation operations, the 3D-MFD predicts that in case of a strike, the capacity, as well as the critical density, increases (30). In this analysis, we investigate how the capacity and the critical density are affected by the strikes. If an effect can be found, the effect size, together with the 3D-MFD theory, then allows to make an assessment of the cost and benefits of public transportation operations in Munich from a traffic engineering perspective without using operational public transportation data.



(a) B2R road network



(b) B2R road-based public transportation network

FIGURE 2 : B2R region under study

1 A key underlying assumption of the MFD is that homogeneous network characteristics as
2 well as homogeneous traffic load exist in order to make the estimated MFD representative of the
3 average traffic conditions in the network. The literature presents several approaches to obtain sub-
4 networks within a city that satisfy the homogeneity assumption (35–38). In this analysis, we first
5 estimate the car MFD for the entire core urban region within the B2R as shown in Figure 2 and
6 then partition the entire region into four sub-networks by following the natural borders of the four
7 reservoirs.

8 We estimate MFDs for strike days and non-strike days using the “re-sampling” method
9 (39), which has shown to reveal a smooth upper bound to all possible states, potentially describing
10 the network’s upper MFD, as well as the networks’ pockets of congestion, leading to an observed
11 congested branch (23).

12 **Traffic Data**

13 The city of Munich utilizes 9,815 loop detectors, mainly for traffic signal control purposes, here-
14 after, we focus on the 3,300 geo-referenced detectors. We obtained nine weeks of traffic data
15 between January 28th and April 13th; each detector has a record of traffic flow (count of vehicles
16 passing the detector) and occupancy (proportion of time the detector is occupied by a vehicle),
17 updated in an interval of 15 minutes.

18 The detectors were filtered in two stages, first, by removing the daily record for any detector
19 if (i) the detector was off or reported an error for more than 20% of the day, (ii) if either the flow
20 or occupancy measurements did not change for more than 80% of the day. Second, by removing
21 detectors if the 98th-percentile of all its records for the nine weeks is less than 300 veh/hr-ln. This
22 resulted in removing around 47% of the geo-referenced detectors; the final number of detectors
23 was 1,555, out of which 770 are within the B2R region, as illustrated in Figure 2a.

24 The resulting sample of loop detectors covers the road network inside the B2R region well.
25 Almost any major urban street is monitored in our study. Residential streets are not monitored but
26 also not considered in the MFD analysis. Thus, we consider the traffic data sample representative,
27 although the known location bias of loop detectors is still present in the data (40–42).

28 **RESULTS**

29 The absence of public transportation services is expected to shift commuters towards cars, conse-
30 quently increasing the traffic flow per lane. We estimated the average cumulative count of detectors
31 on arterials connecting the B2R region, Figure 2a, to assess the demand for commuting to and from
32 the CBD. Figure 3 illustrates the average detectors’ cumulative count for both strike days and non-
33 strike reference days, considering the corresponding weekday from one week before and one week
34 after each strike. Notably, the number of vehicles entering the B2R network significantly increased
35 on strike days, with an average inflow per lane rise of approximately 15.7%. The number of ve-
36 hicles leaving the B2R network was also consistent and comparable, with an average outflow per
37 lane rise of around 16.4%. Interestingly, the increase in demand for cars was more pronounced on
38 the first strike day compared to the second, despite the latter including all available public trans-
39 portation options. It appears that individuals who experienced significant travel delays on the 3rd
40 strike day chose to refrain from traveling altogether on the 27th strike day. The increase in demand
41 for private vehicles, a trend reported in previous studies, is also evident in Munich. Consider-
42 ing that the accessibility to alternative modes like walking and cycling was limited due to severe
43 weather, these results indicate the cancellation of many trips. This suggests that the newfound flex-

- 1 ibility in working locations, arising from the changes brought about by the COVID-19 pandemic,
 2 contributed to these travel behavior shifts.

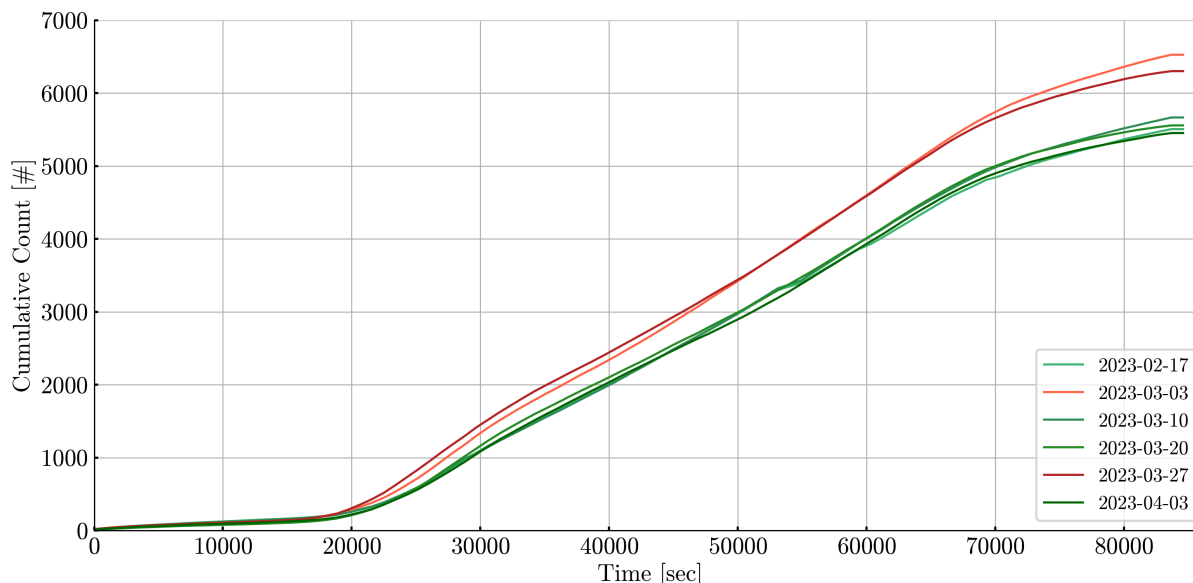


FIGURE 3 : Average cumulative inflow into the B2R network per lane on strike days and non-strike days

3 Additionally, we estimated the difference in peak flow for each detector within the B2R
 4 region, Figure 2a, on each strike day, comparing it to its corresponding weekday in the following
 5 week. The distribution of these differences for both strike days is shown in Figure 4. On average,
 6 the detector's peak flow was higher by around 76 and 69 veh/hr-ln for the first and second strike day,
 7 respectively, compared to the same weekday in the following week. It's clear that the distribution is
 8 skewed towards positive changes in the detectors' peak flow, with only around 13%, experiencing
 9 a negative change.

10 The increase in peak flow can be attributed to the observed increase in demand for some
 11 detectors. However, for others, it represents an actual increase in the link capacity due to the
 12 absence of public transportation services. This distinction becomes clearer when examining the
 13 Fundamental Diagram (FD) of individual links with high private car demand and frequent public
 14 transportation services. To estimate the FD, we pooled the detector's flow and occupancy measure-
 15 ments from strike dates. We, also pooled the traffic measurements from corresponding days in the
 16 dataset to serve as reference days. An example of the obtained FDs is shown in Figure 5, with the
 17 detectors highlighted in Figure 2a. Notably, an increase in capacity is evident in Figure 5a, while
 18 an increase in speed is observed in Figure 5b. This demonstrates the varying effects of the absence
 19 of public transportation services on capacity and speed at the link level.

20 To assess the impact of the absence of public transportation services at a network level, we
 21 estimate the MFDs for the B2R region and sub-regions, using the re-sampling method proposed
 22 by (39). The re-sampling method is designed to produce results that are less impacted by small
 23 demand variations, to consider pockets of congestion in the network, and to produce a smooth
 24 upper bound of the MFD. Considering the changes in demand due to the strike as seen in Figure 3,
 25 using the re-sampling method can be expected to make the results and implications less sensitive

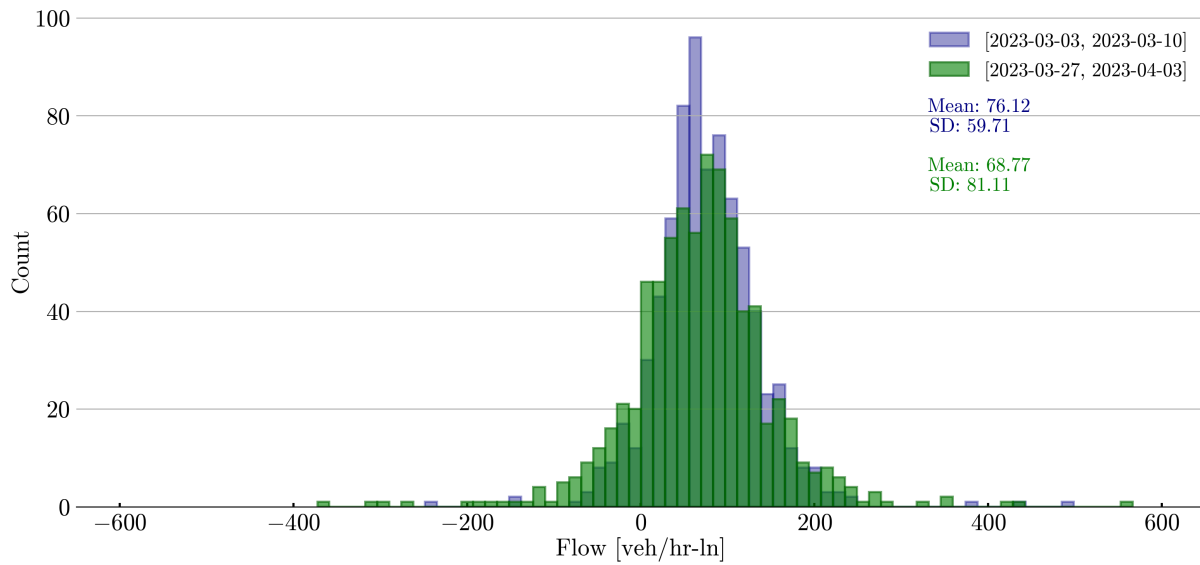
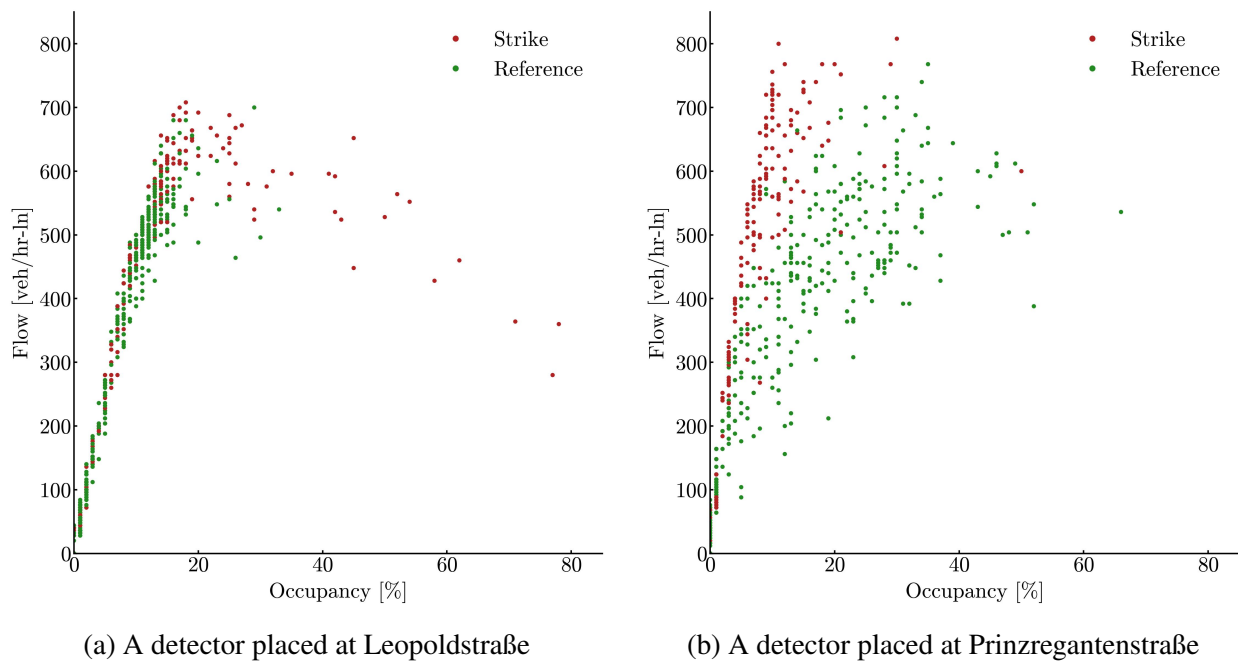


FIGURE 4 : The difference in flow 95th-percentile between strike days and non-strikes for all detectors



(a) A detector placed at Leopoldstraße

(b) A detector placed at Prinzregantenstraße

FIGURE 5 : The FD for sample detectors

1 to the changes in demand. After evaluating various parameter values, we ultimately selected a
 2 sample size of 500 subsamples with a fraction size of 0.6, enabling us to resample 60% of the
 3 aggregated data for each subsample. Figure 6 presents the resampled MFDs for both strike days
 4 and all corresponding weekdays in the dataset. For the pooled strike and reference MFD, the upper
 5 profile represents the median flow value of the highest 50 values in each occupancy bin of 1%,
 6 while the critical occupancy is determined at the 97.5th-percentile of the upper bound flow.

7 Intuitively, the re-sampling method obtains more scatter and the upper bound is less smooth
 8 when using only a few days instead of several weeks, as it is the case in our analysis with only
 9 two strike days compared to several weeks of non-strike days. The strike MFD reveals a rise
 10 of capacity flow by 4.7%, in addition to an 8% rise in the critical occupancy in the absence of
 11 public transportation vehicles. Table 2 presents the change in capacity and critical occupancy for
 12 the partitioned sub-regions of the B2R, where all sub-regions showed a considerable increase in
 13 the capacity flow on the strike days, but the increase in critical occupancy didn't follow the same
 14 pattern. However, it's essential to note that our sample size was limited, consisting of only 4
 15 regions. These findings of the resampled MFDs are in line with the 3D-MFD theory, stating that
 16 the maximum vehicular flow occurs when no public transportation vehicles operate.

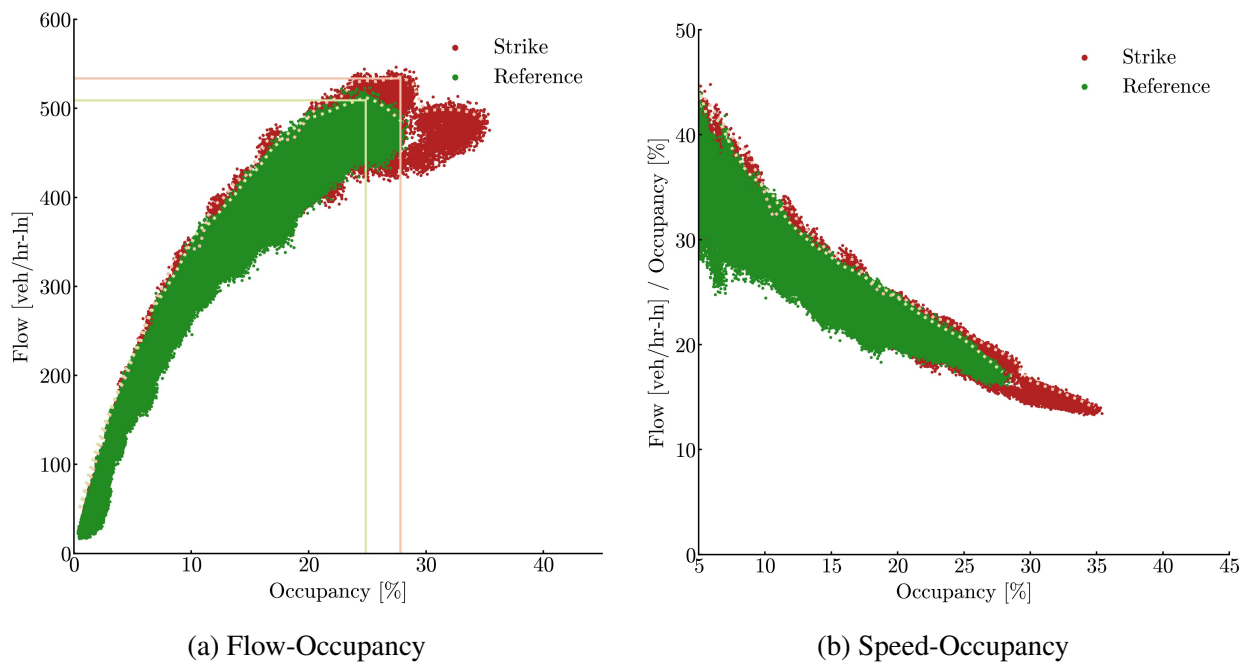


FIGURE 6 : B2R MFD

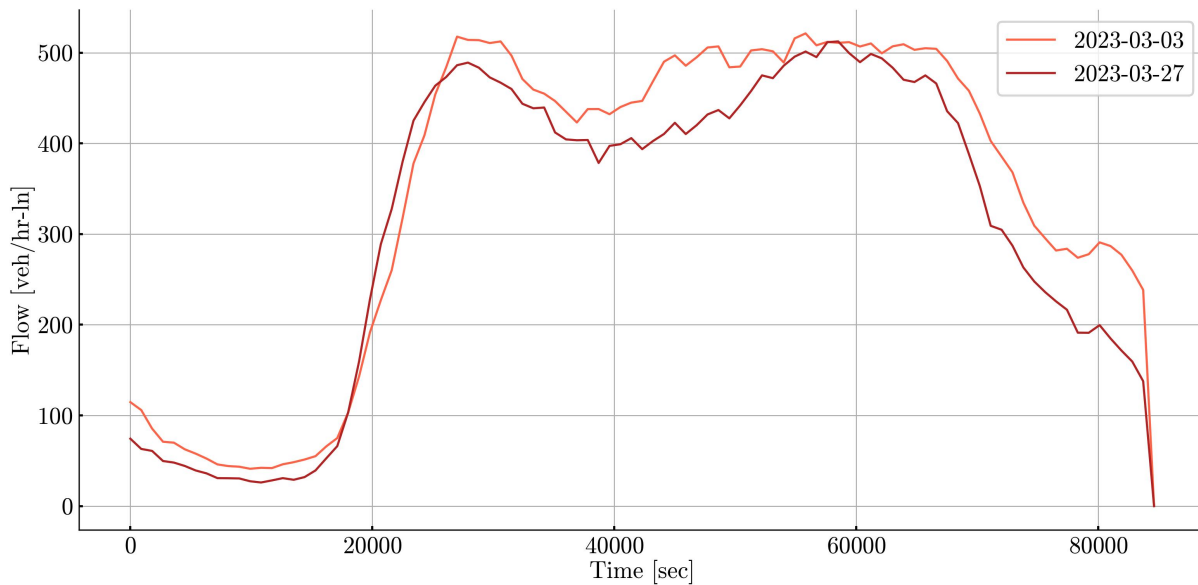
17 To better understand the variation in demand during the strikes, we analyzed the flow-time
 18 series shown in Figure 7. It is evident from the figure that on the first strike day (Friday, March 3rd),
 19 commuters exhibited greater flexibility by avoiding peak hour congestion and leaving earlier than
 20 usual. However, the slightly higher demand on that date than on the second strike day (Monday,
 21 March 27th) led to a prolonged peak period.

22 This demand pattern significantly influenced the resampled MFD for the strike days, de-
 23 picted in Figure 8. The figure illustrates a clear clockwise hysteresis pattern for the second strike
 24 day, characterized by a higher increasing branch during loading and a lower decreasing branch

TABLE 2 : B2R Regions Change in MFD Characteristics

	Capacity [veh/hr-ln]			Critical Occupancy [%]		
	Non-Strike	Strike	Increase [%]	Non-Strike	Strike	Increase [%]
North West	431	472	+9.5	26	28	+7.7
South West	475	519	+9.2	23	26	+13.0
North East	452	479	+5.6	28	29	+3.6
South East	413	448	+8.5	26	26	+0.0
Full region	509	533	+4.7	25	27	+8.0

1 during recovery. Such a hysteresis loop becomes evident as the network transitions from free flow
 2 to saturation and persists until all congestion effects have dissipated. Notably, this phenomenon
 3 was not observed when the demand spread over a longer peak period on the first strike day. This
 4 finding highlights the potential of a simple demand management scheme, such as flexible working
 5 hours, to avoid pushing the network into a congested state that takes a longer time to recover from.

**FIGURE 7** : Change in flow with time

6 ASSESSING THE BENEFITS OF PUBLIC TRANSPORTATION

7 We use the concept of the 3D-MFD (30) to make a macroscopic assessment of the cost and benefits
 8 of public transportation in Munich from a traffic engineering perspective. The total length of the
 9 relevant road network within the B2R area is around $R = 560$ lane-km (we multiply the road length
 10 from Table 2 by a factor of three). We approximate the average space-mean effective vehicle length
 11 with $s \approx 8$ m to estimate the accumulation of vehicles in the network

$$n_c = R \cdot \frac{\rho}{s}. \quad (1)$$

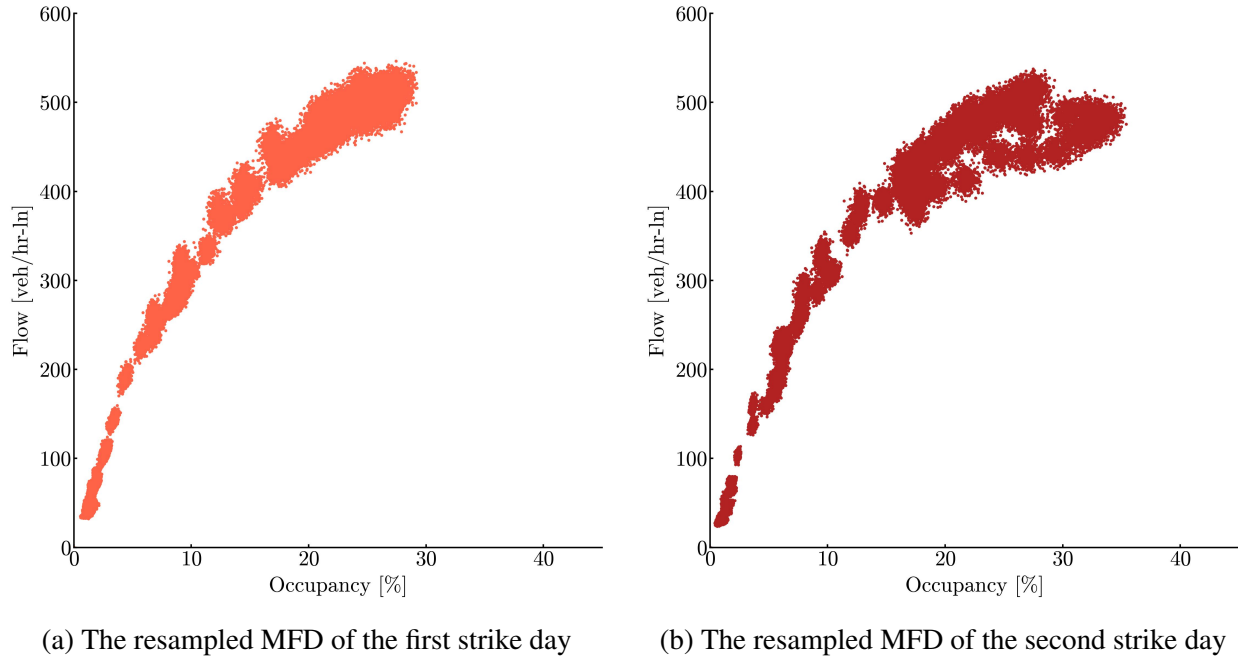


FIGURE 8 : Strike MFD hysteresis

1

2 Using the values for the critical occupancy from Table 2, we obtain as critical accumulation for
 3 non-strike days $n_{c,r}^* = \text{veh}$ and for strike days $n_{c,s}^* = \text{veh}$. In other words, the critical accumulation
 4 increases by $\Delta n_c^* = \text{veh}$ from a non-strike to a strike day. The relocation of the critical point in the
 5 MFD as seen in Figure 6 has implications on the critical speed too. During non-strike days, the
 6 critical speed is $v^* = 16.3 \text{ km/h}$, while on strike days the critical speed reduces to $v^* = 15.8 \text{ km/h}$,
 7 i.e., the critical speed reduces by $\Delta v^* = 0.5 \text{ km/h}$. In other words, during strike days, the network
 8 falls into the congested regime at slightly lower speeds.

9 Using the average car passenger occupancy during peak hours and the measured MFD
 10 capacity (see Table 2), the car passenger travel production $\Pi_{p,c}$ in passenger-kilometers per hour
 11 can be computed by

$$\Pi_{p,c}^* = h_c \cdot R \cdot q_{max}. \quad (2)$$

12

13 Assuming $h_c = 1.1$ during peak hours, we obtain for strike days $\Pi_{p,c}^* = 328,328$ passenger-km/h
 14 and for non-strike days $\Pi_{p,c}^* = 313,544$ passenger-km/h. Consequently, the absence of public
 15 transportation in the network increases car passenger travel production by 14,784 passenger-km/h
 16 or 4.7%.

17

18 For public transportation, we estimate the travel production in vehicle kilometers per hour
 19 during peak hours using the official GTFS data (43). Here, we find the travel production to be $\Pi_{pt} =$
 20 1717 veh-km/h (at an average peak-hour service headway of $h = 8.2 \text{ min}$). We conservatively
 21 estimate the average public transportation vehicle occupancy with $h_b = 25$ passengers per vehicle.
 22 This leads to the passenger travel production of public transportation during peak hours on non-
 strike days is (intuitively, on strike days, there are no public transportation operations, i.e., $\Pi_{p,pt} =$

1 0)

$$\Pi_{p,pt} = h_b \cdot \Pi_{pt} = 42,925 \text{ passenger-km/h.} \quad (3)$$

2

3 We can summarize that on strike days compared to non-strike days, car passenger travel production
4 increases by 14,784 passenger-km/h, while public transportation passenger travel production is
5 decreased by 42,925 passenger-km/h. In other words, at the critical point, public transportation
6 operations in Munich's B2R area can produce almost three times the amount of passenger travel
7 than car travel could do. This benefit, in terms of increased passenger travel production, comes at
8 the cost of an increased critical speed of $v^* = 0.5$ km/h for all vehicles.

9 DISCUSSIONS

10 The strike as a natural experiment provided us with the opportunity to contribute to the understand-
11 ing of changes in the MFD as a consequence of changes in the network as well as changes on the
12 demand side. Although we use the re-sampling method to reduce the impact of demand changes
13 on the results, data and methods of our study have limitations and require a discussion.

14 In general, as strikes are natural experiments, there is only little to no time in advance
15 for thorough planning of the data collection. As loop detector data is continuously recorded and
16 ubiquitously available, we can consider that the data source appropriate and its extent is sufficient
17 to monitor all relevant effects of this natural experiment; still, as seen with the increased scatter in
18 the re-sampled MFD on strike days, having more strike days in the sample is presumably increasing
19 the quality in the MFD estimation. Nevertheless, this analysis would benefit from using other data
20 sources as well, e.g., floating car data or automatic number-plate recognition data, which allow
21 for obtaining (partial) trajectories to enrich the analysis and corroborate the findings. Further, it is
22 known that loop detector data has biases in terms of location within the network as well within a
23 link (40–42, 44).

24 Regarding the selected method of using the empirical MFD for the strike day analysis,
25 other methods like calibrating a traffic simulation and/or deriving origin-destination matrices with
26 the available loop detector data, e.g., (45), are another possibility to infer the impact on travel
27 production between strike and non-strike days. Currently, there is almost no data on public trans-
28 portation services and average vehicle occupancy of public transportation services available for
29 Munich; consequently, the impact on passenger travel production can hardly be improved. Nev-
30 ertheless, we requested data from the public transport operator to refine our estimates. Last, our
31 analysis currently focuses on travel production, not trip production. Here, using data on average
32 trip lengths would allow us to use the trip production perspective (33, 46), which would improve
33 the assessment of the strike impact even further.

34 CONCLUSIONS

35 In this paper, we investigated the impact of public transportation on network traffic in Munich,
36 Germany: we use two strikes of road-based public transportation services to compare network
37 traffic on strike days, i.e., without public transportation operations, and non-strike days, i.e., with
38 public transportation operations. Using empirical data from more than 700 inductive loop detectors
39 in the central area of Munich, we found that on strike days the vehicle inflow into the area is
40 increased by 15.7% and that the shape of the MFD is also altered as a consequence of the absence
41 of public transportation services with the capacity increasing by 4.7% and the critical occupancy

1 by 8.0%. These two estimated MFDs can be considered a partial 3D-MFD that describes the
2 relationship between the numbers of cars and public transportation vehicles in the network and the
3 total production of travel in the entire network. Using this partial 3D-MFD we estimate that the
4 increase car passenger travel production at the capacity due to the absence of public transportation
5 is at most one-third of the losses in public transportation passenger travel production at capacity.
6 These findings emphasize the relevance of public transportation operations in cities. Nevertheless,
7 our findings also showed that the adoption of demand management schemes are effective solutions
8 to mitigate congestion. Implementing measures such as flexible working hours and hybrid work
9 options can evenly distribute travel demand, resulting in a degree of improvement in network traffic
10 flow without the need for extensive infrastructure or complex ITS systems investments.

11 In future research, we will aim to obtain additional data to enrich our analysis and to cor-
12 roborate our findings, e.g., trajectory data and floating car data. Considering previous research on
13 the impact of public transportation strikes on congestion and speeds, future research should also
14 focus on using those methods to estimate the “congestion relief” effect of public transportation
15 based on literature methods; then, a throughout economic assessment of the benefits and costs of
16 public transportation operations are naturally to follow. In addition, using the estimates of the par-
17 tial 3D-MFD for the central area of Munich, future research can use them as a starting point for
18 optimizing network-wide traffic operations and space allocation in order to optimize vehicle and
19 passenger throughput, e.g., using methods from literature (47). Last, the strike has been across the
20 entire country, thus using traffic data from other cities, it would be of interest from a traffic flow
21 and transport policy perspective to investigate the differences between cities.

22 In closing, our analysis quantifies the impact of public transportation on network traffic
23 using the idea of the 3D-MFD and emphasizes the importance of public transportation for cities.
24 While we do not focus on the typical congestion impact as measured in travel time losses (1, 2, 4),
25 we use the MFD perspective to provide the first analysis of network traffic from a traffic flow
26 perspective. We have shown that the MFD theory and 3D-MFD theory are appropriate for network-
27 wide assessments of large-scale network changes. Thus, considering all the cities worldwide that
28 are transforming their road-based transportation systems, these theory are of high value for them
29 to navigating to optimal policy decisions.

30 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

31 Yamam Alayasreih acknowledges funding by the German Federal Ministry for Education and Re-
32 search in the framework of the project MCube SUE. Allister Loder acknowledges funding by the
33 Bavarian State Ministry of Science and the Arts in the framework of the bidt Graduate Center for
34 Postdocs. Anna Takayasu acknowledges funding by the Stadt:up project and TUM Global Postdoc
35 Fellowship.

36 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

37 The authors confirm contribution to the paper as follows: study conception and design: Y. Alayas-
38 reih, A. Loder, K. Bogenberger; data collection: Y. Alayasreih, A. Loder; analysis and inter-
39 pretation of results: Y. Alayasreih, A. Loder, K. Bogenberger; draft manuscript preparation: Y.
40 Alayasreih, A. Loder, A. Takayasu. All authors reviewed the results and approved the final version
41 of the manuscript.

References

1. Lo, S.-C. and R. W. Hall, Effects of the Los Angeles transit strike on highway congestion. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, Vol. 40, No. 10, 2006, pp. 903–917.
2. Anderson, M. L., Subways, Strikes, and Slowdowns: The Impacts of Public Transit on Traffic Congestion. *American Economic Review*, Vol. 104, No. 9, 2014, pp. 2763–2796.
3. Adler, M. W. and J. N. van Ommeren, Does public transit reduce car travel externalities? Quasi-natural experiments' evidence from transit strikes. *Journal of Urban Economics*, Vol. 92, 2016, pp. 106–119.
4. Bauernschuster, S., T. Hener, and H. Rainer, When Labor Disputes Bring Cities to a Standstill: The Impact of Public Transit Strikes on Traffic, Accidents, Air Pollution, and Health. *American Economic Journal: Economic Policy*, Vol. 9, No. 1, 2017, pp. 1–37.
5. van Exel, N. and P. Rietveld, When strike comes to town... anticipated and actual behavioural reactions to a one-day, pre-announced, complete rail strike in the Netherlands. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, Vol. 43, No. 5, 2009, pp. 526–535.
6. Nguyen-Phuoc, D. Q., G. Currie, C. de Gruyter, and W. Young, Transit user reactions to major service withdrawal – A behavioural study. *Transport Policy*, Vol. 64, 2018, pp. 29–37.
7. Spyropoulou, I., Impact of public transport strikes on the road network: The case of Athens. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, Vol. 132, 2020, pp. 651–665.
8. Parry, I. W. H. and K. A. Small, Should Urban Transit Subsidies Be Reduced? *American Economic Review*, Vol. 99, No. 3, 2009, pp. 700–724.
9. Boyac, B. and N. Geroliminis, Estimation of the Network Capacity for Multimodal Urban Systems. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, Vol. 16, 2011, pp. 803–813.
10. Arnet, K., S. I. Guler, and M. Menendez, Effects of Multimodal Operations on Urban Roadways. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board*, Vol. 2533, No. 1, 2015, pp. 1–7.
11. Loder, A., T. Otte, and K. Bogenberger, Using Large-Scale Drone Data to Monitor and Assess the Behavior of Freight Vehicles on Urban Level. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board*, Vol. 2676, No. 11, 2022, p. 036119812210936.
12. Xie, X., N. Chiabaut, and L. Leclercq, Macroscopic Fundamental Diagram for Urban Streets and Mixed Traffic. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board*, Vol. 2390, No. 1, 2013, pp. 1–10.
13. Castrillon, F. and J. Laval, Impact of buses on the macroscopic fundamental diagram of homogeneous arterial corridors. *Transportmetrica B: Transport Dynamics*, Vol. 6, No. 4, 2018, pp. 286–301.
14. Muñoz, J. C. and C. F. Daganzo, Moving Bottlenecks: A Theory Grounded on Experimental Observation. In *Transportation and Traffic Theory in the 21st Century* (M. A. Taylor, ed.), Emerald Group Publishing Limited, 2002, pp. 441–461.
15. Daganzo, C. F., Structure of competitive transit networks. *Transportation Research Part B: Methodological*, Vol. 44, No. 4, 2010, pp. 434–446.
16. Wu, K. and S. I. Guler, Estimating the impacts of transit signal priority on intersection operations: A moving bottleneck approach. *Transportation Research Part C: Emerging Technologies*, Vol. 105, 2019, pp. 346–358.
17. Wu, K., M. Lu, and S. I. Guler, Modeling and optimizing bus transit priority along an arterial: A moving bottleneck approach. *Transportation Research Part C: Emerging Technologies*, Vol. 121, 2020, p. 102873.

- 1 18. Guler, S. I. and M. Menendez, Analytical formulation and empirical evaluation of pre-signals
2 for bus priority. *Transportation Research Part B: Methodological*, Vol. 64, 2014, pp. 41–53.
- 3 19. Skabardonis, A., Control Strategies for Transit Priority. *Transportation Research Record:
4 Journal of the Transportation Research Board*, Vol. 1727, No. 1, 2000, pp. 20–26.
- 5 20. Daganzo, C. F., Urban gridlock: Macroscopic modeling and mitigation approaches. *Trans-
6 portation Research Part B: Methodological*, Vol. 41, No. 1, 2007, pp. 49–62.
- 7 21. Daganzo, C. F. and N. Geroliminis, An analytical approximation for the macroscopic funda-
8 mental diagram of urban traffic. *Transportation Research Part B: Methodological*, Vol. 42,
9 2008, pp. 771–781.
- 10 22. Laval, J. A. and F. Castrillón, Stochastic approximations for the macroscopic fundamental
11 diagram of urban networks. *Transportation Research Part B: Methodological*, Vol. 81, No. 3,
12 2015, pp. 904–916, publisher: Elsevier B.V.
- 13 23. Loder, A., L. Ambühl, M. Menendez, and K. W. Axhausen, Understanding traffic capacity of
14 urban networks. *Scientific Reports*, Vol. 9, No. 16283, 2019.
- 15 24. Geroliminis, N., N. Zheng, and K. Ampountolas, A three-dimensional macroscopic fundamen-
16 tal diagram for mixed bi-modal urban networks. *Transportation Research Part C: Emerging
17 Technologies*, Vol. 42, 2014, pp. 168–181.
- 18 25. Loder, A., L. Ambühl, M. Menendez, and K. W. Axhausen, Empirics of multi-modal traffic
19 networks – Using the 3D macroscopic fundamental diagram. *Transportation Research Part C:
20 Emerging Technologies*, Vol. 82, 2017, pp. 88–101.
- 21 26. Ortigosa, J., V. V. Gayah, and M. Menendez, Analysis of one-way and two-way street configu-
22 rations on urban grid networks. *Transportmetrica B: Transport Dynamics*, Vol. in press, 2017,
23 pp. 1–21, publisher: Taylor & Francis.
- 24 27. Loder, A., I. Dakic, L. Bressan, L. Ambühl, M. C. Bliemer, M. Menendez, and K. W. Ax-
25 hausen, Capturing network properties with a functional form for the multi-modal macroscopic
26 fundamental diagram. *Transportation Research Part B: Methodological*, Vol. 129, 2019, pp.
27 1–19.
- 28 28. Dakic, I., L. Ambühl, O. Schümperlin, and M. Menendez, On the modeling of passenger
29 mobility for stochastic bi-modal urban corridors. *Transportation Research Part C: Emerging
30 Technologies*, Vol. 113, 2020, pp. 146–163.
- 31 29. Anupriya, P. Bansal, and D. J. Graham, Congestion in cities: Can road capacity expansions
32 provide a solution? *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, Vol. 174, 2023, p.
33 103726.
- 34 30. Geroliminis, N., N. Zheng, and K. Ampountolas, A three-dimensional macroscopic fundamen-
35 tal diagram for mixed bi-modal urban networks. *Transportation Research Part C: Emerging
36 Technologies*, Vol. 42, 2014, pp. 168–181.
- 37 31. Bracher, B. A. and K. Bogenberger, A Dynamic Pricing Scheme for a Congestion Charging
38 Zone Based on a Network Fundamental Diagram. In *2017 5th IEEE International Conference
39 on Models and Technologies for Intelligent Transportation Systems (MT-ITS)*, 2017, pp. 669–
40 674.
- 41 32. Tilg, G., S. Amini, and F. Busch, Evaluation of analytical approximation methods for the
42 macroscopic fundamental diagram. *Transportation Research Part C: Emerging Technologies*,
43 Vol. 114, 2020, pp. 1–19.
- 44 33. Daganzo, C. F., Urban gridlock: Macroscopic modeling and mitigation approaches. *Trans-
45 portation Research Part B: Methodological*, Vol. 41, No. 1, 2007, pp. 49–62.

- 1 34. Hamm, L. S., A. Loder, G. Tilg, M. Menendez, and K. Bogenberger, Network Inefficiency -
2 Empirical Findings for Six European Cities. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the*
3 *Transportation Research Board*, Vol. 2676, No. 8, 2022, pp. 99–111.
- 4 35. Ji, Y. and N. Geroliminis, On the spatial partitioning of urban transportation networks. *Trans-*
5 *portation Research Part B: Methodological*, Vol. 46, No. 10, 2012, pp. 1639–1656.
- 6 36. Saeedmanesh, M. and N. Geroliminis, Clustering of heterogeneous networks with directional
7 flows based on “Snake” similarities. *Transportation Research Part B: Methodological*, Vol. 91,
8 2016, pp. 250–269.
- 9 37. Saeedmanesh, M. and N. Geroliminis, Dynamic clustering and propagation of congestion in
10 heterogeneously congested urban traffic networks. *Transportation Research Part B: Method-*
11 *ological*, Vol. 105, 2017, pp. 193–211.
- 12 38. Ambühl, L., A. Loder, N. Zheng, K. W. Axhausen, and M. Menendez, Approximative network
13 partitioning for MFDs from stationary sensor data. *Transportation Research Record*, Vol. ac-
14 cepted, 2019.
- 15 39. Ambühl, L., A. Loder, M. C. J. Bliemer, M. Menendez, and K. W. Axhausen, Introducing a Re-
16 Sampling Methodology for the Estimation of Empirical Macroscopic Fundamental Diagrams.
17 *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board*, Vol. 2672,
18 No. 20, 2018, pp. 239–248.
- 19 40. Leclercq, L., N. Chiabaut, and B. Trinquier, Macroscopic fundamental diagrams: A cross-
20 comparison of estimation methods. *Transportation Research Part B: Methodological*, Vol. 62,
21 2014, pp. 1–12.
- 22 41. Ambühl, L., A. Loder, M. Menendez, and K. W. Axhausen, Empirical macroscopic fundamen-
23 tal diagrams: New insights from loop detector and floating car data. In *96th Annual Meeting*
24 *of the Transportation Research Board*, Washington D.C., 2017.
- 25 42. Lee, G., Z. Ding, and J. Laval, Effects of loop detector position on the macroscopic funda-
26 mental diagram. *Transportation Research Part C: Emerging Technologies*, Vol. 154, 2023, p.
27 104239.
- 28 43. MVG, *MVG Fahrplandaten*, 2023.
- 29 44. Ortigosa, J., M. Menendez, and H. Tapia, Study on the number and location of measurement
30 points for an MFD perimeter control scheme: a case study of Zurich. *EURO Journal on Trans-*
31 *portation and Logistics*, Vol. 3, 2014, pp. 245–266, publisher: Springer.
- 32 45. Yang, H., T. Sasaki, Y. Iida, and Y. Asakura, Estimation of origin-destination matrices from
33 link traffic counts on congested networks. *Transportation Research Part B: Methodological*,
34 Vol. 26, No. 6, 1992, pp. 417–434.
- 35 46. Arnott, R., A bathtub model of downtown traffic congestion. *Journal of Urban Economics*,
36 Vol. 76, 2013, pp. 110–121.
- 37 47. Dantsuji, T., D. Fukuda, and N. Zheng, Simulation-based joint optimization framework for
38 congestion mitigation in multimodal urban network: a macroscopic approach. *Transportation*,
39 Vol. 48, No. 2, 2021, pp. 673–697, publisher: Springer US ISBN: 0123456789.