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# Cost/Benefit Analysis of Automated Transit Information Systems 

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Technical Report to
Urban Mass Transportation Administration
Department of Transportation
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## ABSTRACT

This report discusses the costs and benefits associated with automating the route-finding portion of a telephone transit information system that responds to telephone inquiries. The various costs of implementing such a system are categorized and compared with those of a manual system over an appropriate time span using a present value approach. A queuing model, described in the report, is used for computing manpower requirements of the two systems, manual and automated. Outputs of the queuing model for a wide range of input parameters are tabulated in an appendix. Benefits from automating transit information route-finding are discussed, and measures of performance improvement available as output from the queuing model are provided.

Key Words: Automation; cost/benefit; models; queuing; telephone systems; transit information; transportation.

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Transit companies provide prospective riders with information about transit itineraries and service through the use of several different media: signs at transit stops, stations and in vehicles; printed schedules and maps (available in stores or transit facilities, or mailed to prospective riders); advertising messages in newspapers; and possibly a telephone information facility. It is this latter service, the one provided by the telephone transit information center, which is the subject of the present report. Our specific aim is to investigate the costs and benefits arising from automating such a service. Possible tradeoffs among the various media used to furnish transit information will not be analyzed; treatment of that broader topic would require an extensive marketing study, and the particular mix of media which best supplies information in a city is very likely to depend on particular characteristics of the transit system, transit riders, and alternative transportation modes available in that city.

In the typical telephone transit information center, transit system employees (whom we will call "operators") answer inquiries from prospective riders about schedules, routes and particular trip itineraries. Presently, the operators in most manual systems consult maps and schedules in piecing together the requested trip information. Operators must be quite familiar with both the transit system and the regional geography in order to locate a trip's origin and destination and to find appropriate routings for the trip between a transit stop near the origin and one near the destination. Automation of the route-finding function is under consideration, and this report is designed to aid in the evaluation of
such proposed systems.

In an automated system the operator would ascertain from the caller the desired trip and would input this information to a computer, which would find an appropriate ("best") itinerary and report it back to the operator. The operator would then relay this itinerary to the caller. Although the possibility of further automating the response to the caller (through the use of an automated voice response device) has been proposed, it is not included in the analysis below, since several problems with its implementation remain unsolved. Thus the automated systems to be evaluated here have an operator to converse with the caller, to translate the request and to relay the answer; these systems include automation only of the route-finding portion of a call. Such an automated system will be compared to a similar manual system in which the route-finding function is performed by operators consulting hardcopy maps and schedules.

An important first step in weighing a (partially) automated transit information system against a manually oriented system is to survey the individual cost elements incurred by the two systems. Accordingly, the following sections will provide a framework for specifying and classifying in detail the various costs associated with such systems. Moreover, a general cost model (which employs a queuing analysis to generate appropriate manpower estimates) will be described for combining, over a given time horizon, the cost elements intc an estimated total system cost. The cost differential between the systems can then be compared with the net benefits accruing from automation to obtain a final evaluation of the impact of automation on a transit information system.

The less mathematically oriented reader may wish to skip the detailed description of the queuing model in Section 3 and Appendix A, concentrating on the description of the cost elements in Section 2, the use of the queuing model output for estimating the number of operator positions in Section 4, the discussion of benefits in Section 5, and the tables in Appendix B.

## 2. COST ELEMENTS

The major elements of total cost are identified in Tables 1 and 2 for both an automated and a manual information system. The type of automation envisioned requires utilizing a computer code to provide point-to-point trip itineraries, under some appropriate criterion for a "best" trip or several alternative "good" trips. Several such criteria are discussed in some detail in a previous report [4]. Those portions of an incoming transit information request which involve comprehending the caller's question and providing the response are assumed here to remain under manual control.

In Tables 1 and 2 the cost elements are further classified according to whether they represent initial (capital) costs, recurring (annual) costs or both. In addition, those cost elements which depend on the number of transit information operators are identified. Detailed descriptions of the individual items that constitute these cost elements are provided in the sections that follow. The costs for an automated system are presented in Sections 2.l.1-2.l.ll, while those for a manual system are described in Sections 2.2.1-2.2.6.

Note that although some categories of cost appear to be similar in the automated and manual systems, the costs associated with those categories may vary in magnitude between the two systems. For example, telephone and furniture costs may be higher in computer assisted systems in order to interface effectively with the terminals or operator activities. Costs of these apparently related categories may also vary significantly depending on the particular design of the information center.

## TABLE 1

## Cost Elements for Automated <br> Information System *

| Cost Description | $\begin{gathered} \text { Initial } \\ \text { Cost } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Recurring } \\ \text { Cost } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | Dependent on Number of Information Operators |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Computer Space Preparation | x |  |  |
| Computer Hardware (Leased) |  | x | x |
| Software Development | x |  |  |
| Computer Operation |  | x |  |
| Terminals | x | x | x |
| Data Base Management |  | x |  |
| Information Operator Personnel |  | x | x |
| Furniture | x | x | x |
| Telephones | x | x | x |
| Physical Plant Overhead | x | x |  |
| Training of Operators | x | x | x |

*Items below the dotted line appear in both Tables 1 and 2; those above, appear only in Table 1.

## TABLE 2

## Cost Elements for Manual Information System

| Cost <br> Description | Initial <br> Cost | Recurring <br> Cost | Dependent on <br> Number of <br> Information <br> Operators |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Data Base Management | x | x |  |
| Information Operator Personnel <br> Furniture | x | x | x |
| Telephones <br> Physical Plant Overhead | x | x | x |
| Training of Operators | x | x | x |

### 2.1 Cost Elements for an Automated Information System

### 2.1.1 COMPUTER SPACE PREPARATION

Automation of the transit information facility is expected to require a computer dedicated to this task. (Use of an existing computer configuration would require appropriate modification of the costs included here, which do not consider shared computer usage.) Therefore, additional space and appropriate preparation of that space will be necessary in order to provide the proper environment for the new computer. In particular, the following items will contribute to the (initial) expense of computer space preparation and should be included in this cost element:
a) Routine site preparation
b) Special electrical preparation
c) Installation of air conditioning
d) Installation of sound conditioning
e) Installation of data communication cabling ducts
f) Flooring modification
2.1.2 HARDWARE

These costs refer to the required computer hardware, which is assumed to be obtained on lease. This assumption is used for convenience of reference since such leasing costs could be replaced by amortized value of purchase cost if equipment purchase is deemed more appropriate for a particular system. The annual leasing cost should be incremented by the amounts necessary for maintenance and repair (if not provided in the leasing contract).

To some extent the choice of hardware configuration is dependent on the number of information operators, inasmuch as sufficient computing power must be available to offer time-sharing service to the operator terminals without excessive wait time. Some peripheral equipment may be purchased, rather than leased as needed.

### 2.1.3 SOFTWARE

Software costs represent an initial outlay to provide operating system software and the applications software for algorithms that perform the point-to-point trip processing. In addition, one should include in this figure the one-time cost of creating for the computer a data base representing the transit network. A certain amount of supervisory assistance from the transit authority will be required in creating this data base, and therefore an appropriate amount for supervisors' salaries and fringe benefits should also be included. Programs for editing and updating the data base are also required. Additional programs to provide management information on system performance may be included in the system program package.

### 2.1. 4 COMPUTER OPERATION

This item consists primarily of salaries for the computer system operators. The number of operators required per shift and the number of shifts per day and week will depend on the sophistication of the computer operating system, the number of hours per day during which the transit information center will be answering requests and whether or not
updates are performed during the day or later at night. In addition, this figure should reflect electricity costs for the computer system and any additional air conditioning required. Another item falling under this heading (if not already included in hardware costs) is a contract assuring maintenance and service for the computer equipment.

### 2.1.5 TERMINALS

The one-time costs referred to here are expenditures for the initial purchase of terminals. The number of these purchased will depend on the number of operator positions required to meet the initial level of demand; the number of such positions can be estimated through the use of the queuing model. In addition, it is appropriate to include the cost of purchasing additional terminals, which are to be used for training, for maintenance and for performing updates. To the extent that demand increases (on an annual basis), additional operator positions will be needed to meet this demand and still maintain a desired level of service. Recurring costs for these additional positions will be reflected in the cost of additional terminals.
2.1.6 DATA BASE MANAGEMENT

This item refers to the cost of maintaining and updating the computer data base. In contrast to the activity of creating an appropriate data base (see Section 2.1.3), this aspect will involve a recurring cost (in addition to an initial programming expense), the magnitude of which
depends on the frequency of updates and the overall complexity of the underlying transit network. It is possible that such updates could be entered through one of the information operator terminals during offpeak hours. If instantaneous corrections to schedules or routings are required, a separate spare terminal could be used to enter such changes.

### 2.1.7 INFORMATION OPERATOR PERSONNEL

An important factor in comparing automated and manual information systems is the level of staffing required for the transit information operators. This staffing level depends on the number of operator positions which are being used at any one time by the systems. In turn, the number of operator positions reflects the capacity of the system, in terms of the maximum number of calls which can be simultaneously handled. Since operator working shifts cannot be immediately and completely compatible with changes in the level of demand (number of requests for information) during the day, it is appropriate to assume that a constant number of operator positions are manned throughout the peak demand period. Indeed, it is at such times of maximum demand that the information system would most likely exhibit overloading or congestion and a high incidence of lost calls. It is the ability of an information system to cope under such circumstances that is a key issue in assessing how well the system is providing service.

In order to provide a consistent basis for comparing the automated and the manual systems during periods with a constant number of operator positions maintained, a queuing model (which is described in fuller
detail in Section 3) is used to calculate relative manpower requirements for the two systems. This queuing model estimates the minimum number of operator positions required by each system to achieve a prescribed level of service. For example, one might specify that the percent of calls which encounter a busy signal during the period should not exceed $1 \%$. Alternative measures for the "level of service" are: the expected number of lost calls (i.e., the average number of callers encountering a busy signal), the average number of persons "on hold" at any time, the average length of time a person who is not serviced immediately must wait before an operator is free, and the average time required for the caller to complete the transaction (including any time spent "on hold" together with the time spent communicating with the information operator). The queuing model employed here represents an acknowledged simplification of a complicated process, but it can provide a useful benchmark for estimating the relative manpower requirements of alternative information systems. The formal specification of this queuing model is given in Section 3, where the types of input required by the model as well as its underlying assumptions are discussed.

Once the number of operator positions $s$ has been determined for a given time period (using the tables of Appendix B produced via the queuing model), the required number $n$ of operators for the automated system can be calculated from: $s$, the ratio of demand in peak and non-peak periods, and the number of hours worked per week by an operator. The total cost contribution of operator salaries and fringe benefits is then simply $n$ times the appropriate average salary plus benefit figure
for a single operator. In addition, one should include salary and fringe benefit costs for any supervisory personnel required to coordinate the information operators.

### 2.1.8 FURNITURE

The one-time costs referred to here are expenditures for the initial furnishings of the transit information facility, such as desks and filing cabinets. The number of desks purchased initially will depend on the number of operator positions required to meet the initial level of demand; the number of such positions can be estimated through use of the queuing model. To the extent that demand increases (on an annual basis), additional operator positions will be needed to meet this demand and still maintain a desired level of service. Recurring costs for these additional positions will be reflected in the cost of extra desks and cabinets.
2.1.9 TELEPHONES

Initial costs will be incurred for installing operator telephones and for instituting an Automatic Call Distribution System (ACDS), if such a system is not already present. The ACDS is required for routing calls to the information system. Most probably the operator terminals will be connected directly into the mainframe computer system; if not, then additional fixed costs are incurred in providing data phone lines between the computer and the terminals. Recurring costs take the form
of operating (rental) costs for telephone service to each of the operator positions. Such costs depend on the number of operator positions provided and thus would reflect any increase in the number of operator positions as a result of increased demand.

### 2.1.10 PHYSICAL PLANT OVERHEAD

These costs are those for preparing the site which houses the information operators and terminals (e.g., space partitioning) as well as undertaking routine electrical preparation, installing air conditioning and installing sound conditioning. Besides such initial expenditures, there will be a number of recurring expenditures for both the information operator room and the computer room: namely, the costs for rental of space, utilities, insurance and janitorial services. It is assumed here that the space provided for the information operators is sufficient to allow for any later expansion in the number of operator positions to meet increased demand.

### 2.1.11 TRAINING OF OPERATORS

It will be necessary to train the operators in using the terminal, inputing data about itinerary requests and interpreting output, but extensive training in city geography and available routes will not be required. Training emphasis in an automated system could focus more directly on improved communications skills, including how to elicit information more efficiently and how to articulate more clearly. Costs
of training will depend on the operator turnover rate, the number of training hours required per operator, the need for special materials, and the cost of supervisors who conduct training.

### 2.2 Cost Elements for a Manual System

### 2.2.1 <br> DATA BASE MANAGEMENT

Initial costs are incurred here in setting up the data base from which route and schedule information can be generated for the transit information operators. This cost will be reduced considerably if an appropriate data base already exists or if currently available schedules are already in a form appropriate for use by the information operators. In any event, recurring costs will be encountered in updating and maintaining such a data base for use in periodically providing up-to-date route and schedule information to the operators.
2.2.2 INFORMATION OPERATOR PERSONNEL

As in the case of the automated system, manpower requirements for the manual system can be estimated using the queuing model of Section 3 . The major difference is that now one of the input parameters to this model is changed: namely, the parameter describing the average number of calls which can be serviced per operator per hour during a busy period. As described in Section 3.2, the difference between the automated and manual systems would be reflected by more rapid servicing of
calls in the former system compared to the latter. That is, an automated system having fewer operator positions can achieve the same level of . service as a manual one. Once the number of operator positions $s$ required in the manual system to meet certain minimum performance levels has been determined, then the total number $n$ of operators can be found as well as the total cost of such personnel. The cost of maintaining supervisory personnel, at their appropriate salary and benefit levels, should also be included in this cost element. A manual system may require more intensive use of supervisors than will an automated system, since the system requires greater use of judgement by the individual operators.

### 2.2.3 FURNITURE

A manual system requires certain furniture for the transit information operators, in particular desks large enough to accommodate the various maps and schedules required to answer calls effectively. Moreover, there is a need for certain general office equipment (e.g., filing cabinets) and special equipment (possibly map display cases). As the number of operator positions expands to meet demand, recurring annual costs for furnishing these additional positions will be incurred.
2.2.4 TELEPHONES

Initial costs are incurred for installing operator telephones as well as for instituting an ACDS if one were not already available.

Recurring costs will result from charges for ordinary telephone service. The total charge will increase with any increase in the number of operator positions (which entails an increase in the number of incoming lines).
2.2.5 PHYSICAL PLANT OVERHEAD

This cost element will include initial expenditures for preparation of the site housing the transit information operators, undertaking routine electrical preparation, installing air conditioning and installing sound conditioning. There are a number of recurring expenditures for the information operator room, including the rental cost of the space, utilities, insurance and janitorial services. Again, it is assumed that the space allocated for the information operators will be sufficient to absorb any later addition to the number of operator positions.
2.2.6 TRAINING OF OPERATORS

It is necessary to train new information system operators in city geography, in transit system operations, routes and schedules, and ín communication. Usually operators receive a period of intensive training in these skills in a classroom and then serve an "apprenticeship" period answering transit information requests with a gradually decreasing level of supervision. The training and apprenticeship periods vary with the complexity of the transit system, the type of program, and the
background of the information operators (for example, former bus drivers would need considerably less training in city geography or the transit system). Training costs include full operators' salaries for the period of classroom training, partial salaries (reflecting lower productivity) for the apprenticeship period, salaries of supervisory personnel and teachers for the time spent involved in training, and expenses for instructional equipment and materials. Total training costs are affected by operator turnover rate and the size of staff required.

### 2.3 Aggregation of Cost Elements

We defer to the next section the procedure for estimating the number of operator positions, a calculation which influences the magnitude of several cost elements. (Tables 1 and 2 indicate which cost elements are so influenced.) The issue discussed in this section is how to aggregate the various cost elements into a total cost figure, for either a manual or an automated information system.

The steps of this aggregation process can be illustrated by using the sample worksheets in Tables 3 and 4, which refer respectively tó automated and to manual systems. Here the use of Table 3 is discussed in detail; however, a similar procedure also applies to Table 4.
TABLE 3
Sample Worksheet for Aggregating Automated System Costs

| COST | $\begin{aligned} & \text { INITIAL } \\ & \text { COST } \end{aligned}$ | RECURRING COSTS BY TIME PERIOD |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { PRESENT } \\ & \text { VALUE } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ELEMENT |  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |  |
| Space Preparation |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | TC(1) |
| Hardware |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\mathrm{TC}(2)$ |
| Software |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\mathrm{TC}(3)$ |
| Computer Operation |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | TC(4) |
| Terminals |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\mathrm{TC}(5)$ |
| Data Base |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\mathrm{TC}(6)$ |
| Operator Personnel. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\mathrm{TC}(7)$ |
| Furniture |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\mathrm{TC}(8)$ |
| Telephones |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | TC(9) |
| Physical Plant |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | TC(10) |
| Training |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | TC(11) |
|  | K ${ }^{(0)}$ | K(I) | ) | (3) |  | $K(5)$ | K(6) | K ( 7 ) | (8) | (9) | (10) | TC(A) |

TABLE 4
Sample Worksheet for Aggregating Manual System Costs

| COST <br> ELEMENT | $\begin{aligned} & \text { INITIAL } \\ & \text { COST } \end{aligned}$ | RECURRING COSTS BY TIME PERIOD |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | PRESENT VALUE |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |  |
| Data Base |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | TC(1) |
| Operator Personnel |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\mathrm{TC}(2)$ |
| Furniture |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\mathrm{TC}(3)$ |
| Telephones |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | TC(4) |
| Physical Plant |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\mathrm{TC}(5)$ |
| Training |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | TC(6) |
| K ( 0 ) |  | K(1) | (2) | 3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | $K(7)$ | (8) | (9) | (10) | $\mathrm{TC}(\mathrm{M})$ |

(1) Decide upon (based on estimated life cycle) the number $T$ of time periods which will constitute the planning horizon and specify the length of the time period. For example, Table 3 was developed in terms of one-year periods (so all cost figures to be entered here are treated on an annual basis) and a ten-year planning horizon ( $T=10$ ).
(2) Prepare and enter estimates of each initial cost element, and for the corresponding cost elements recurring in every time period. Certain of these estimates will require projections for the number of operator positions in each time period; such projections can be found using the queuing model tables of Appendix B. See Section 4 for a description of the use of these tables. In addition, certain unit costs (e.g., operator personnel costs) will increase over time as a result of inflationary forces. For example, a $6 \%$ annual inflation factor might be assumed applicable for operator salaries. One simple way to account for such rises is to assume a constant "inflationary" factor of $i$ percent per year over the time horizon. Then the unit cost in period $k+l$ will equal that in period $k$ multiplied by $1+i$, and thus the total stream of costs over time can be successively calculated by beginning with period l. For example, an inflation factor of $6 \%$ might not be . uncommon for operator salaries and benefits, while a rate of $3 \%$ might apply to telephone costs; on the other hand, computer hardware costs may remain relatively constant over the time horizon.
(3) For every cost element, combine the initial costs and the recurring costs. One method of doing this is by converting the stream of recurring
costs into a present value, taking into account an acceptable annual discount rate (e.g., 9-10\%). More specifically, if $d$ is the discount rate, then a cost of $C$ dollars in time period $l$ is equivalent to a cost of $C /(l+d)$ dollars in time period 0 , the present. In a similar way, $C$ dollars in time period $t$ is equivalent to $C(l+d)^{-t}$ dollars in time period 0. Therefore, the stream of recurring costs can all be converted into equivalent "period 0 " costs and then combined with initial costs. The total (period 0) cost $T C(j)$ for cost element $j$ is then

$$
T C(j)=I C+\sum_{t=1}^{T} R C(t)[1+d]^{-t}
$$

where IC denotes the initial cost of element $j$ and $R C(t)$ is the recurring cost of element $j$ in period $t=l, \ldots, T$. There are other ways of combining initial and recurring costs (see [12], for example). However, the present-value method seems most appropriate, since it allows one to compare total costs (capital, operations and maintenance) over a specified time period in terms of constant dollars. It is customary to convert costs to the "present value" to facilitate comparisons with other different investment opportunities. Also, by considering total (present value) costs, one can easily determine how many years will be required before two alternative systems are comparable (if at all) in terms of total cost.
(4) Compute the total system cost by summing the total cost elements found in Step (3). Then the total cost for the automated system, $T C(A)$, based on the eleven cost elements of Table $l$, is given by

$$
T C(A)=\sum_{j=1}^{11} T C(j)
$$

A similar procedure applies when calculating the total cost $T C(M)$ for the manual system.

Thus the total or aggregated costs can be determined for the two systems over the selected time horizon. There are several possible uses for these quantities. First, they give an idea of the magnitude of the total cost for either system over the selected or planning horizon. These costs are given in terms of present dollars, and represent how much the proposed system would cost if all expenditures were made today. In addition, by considering the difference in total cost between the systems, one obtains a cost differential (in present dollars) which can be compared with the benefits accruing from automation. Section 5 discusses in more detail the nature of such benefits and how a comparison of benefits and costs can be made. Furthermore, as mentioned earlier, these cost figures can be obtained over different time horizons, and so it can be determined when (if at all) the costs of the two systems would become comparable.
3. QUEUING ANALYSIS

### 3.1 Queuing Model

The representation of the transit information process using a queuing model can be described by reference to Figure l. The physical system consists of some number $s$ of servers (corresponding to operators in service) and a queue of maximum length $Q$ (corresponding to a fixed number of telephone hold positions). Arriving calls randomly enter the system at an average rate of $\lambda$ per hour; if a server is free, an arriving call is serviced immediately, but otherwise the call joins the current queue. (If the queue is full, an arriving call receives a busy signal, i.e., it cannot enter the system and so the call is "lost".) While in the queue, a particular caller will renege--i.e., become tired of waiting and leave the system without service--according to a negative exponential probability distribution with parameter $\alpha$. When a server becomes free, he/she services the next caller (assumed to be chosen from the front of the queue). The length of time required for service varies from call to call, and it is assumed to follow a negative exponential probability distribution with mean $1 / \mu$. The parameter $\mu$ can also be interpreted as the rate (average number per hour) at which a busy server processes the calls.

Under the above assumptions, the system will attain an equilibrium condition, or steady state. The queuing calculations to be described will all be based on the analysis of this steady state. In particular,

RENEGING

## CALLERS



ARRIVING

## CALLS

Figure 1
these calculations make it possible to estimate the probabilities $P_{m}$ of finding $m$ calls in the system at any time instant. These probabilities can be used, in turn, to calculate ${ }^{l}$ important characteristics of the queue, namely:
(a) The percent of calls unable to enter the system because the queue is full (calls "turned away" by a busy signal)
(b) The average number of calls per hour unable to enter the system
(c) The average number of callers in the queue at any instant
(d) The average length of time a person who is not immediately serviced must wait in the queue
(e) The average length of time required for a call to pass through the system (i.e., the total call length time)

Several of the above outputs have been tabulated for a variety of different input specifications and are displayed in Appendix B. The use of such tables is described in Section 4.

### 3.2 Input Specifications

This section discusses the various input specifications needed for the queuing analysis and how the necessary parameters can be estimated. There are four basic types of input data that must be provided to the queuing model, and these are discussed in turn below.

[^0]The first type of input consists of projected call arrival rates $\lambda_{i}$ for each of the years $i=l, \ldots, T$ comprising the time horizon (e.g., the amortization period of the system). The quantities $\lambda_{i}$ are measured in units of number of calls per hour, and they represent the average rate at which calls are attempting to enter the system. Since attention is really focused on the peak period during the day, it is probably reasonable to assume that over this period the arrival rate is constant. In order to estimate these quantities $\lambda_{i}$ it would be useful to have data pertaining to the current year: more specifically, data on the number of calls attempting to enter the system per hour. Two difficulties may arise with currently available data, and may thus necessitate a special data collection effort.

First, existing data may only indicate the number of calls per week of operation. Such quantities can be converted into a peak hour rate by assuming, for example, that 60 percent of the calls arrive during the busiest eight hours of a day. Then an estimate for the peak hour arrival rate $\lambda$ is

$$
\lambda=(R / 7) \times(.60 / 8),
$$

Where $R$ is the measured number of calls per week. Off-peak rates may be calculated similarly. The factor 7 in the above expression is used to convert the weekly rate into a daily rate. In some cases a different factor (such as 5) might be more appropriate, depending on the number of days per week that the information facility operates.

A second issue that arises in u'sing existing arrival rate data is that the estimated rates should include all calls attempting to enter the system, not just those calls which succeed in entering. In other words, the value for $\lambda$ should include calls that receive a busy signal. However, the most widely available hardware measures the number of calls actually received. There are two possible approaches for dealing with this difficulty. First, one could assume that all callers receiving a busy signal will call back again at another time, and so the total number of calls received will ultimately be the same as the number of callers attempting to utilize the system. This approach suffers from the drawback that while the number of callers serviced will not be affected by this procedure, the total number of calls will be affected, as will the statistical distribution over time of arrivals, and so the input stream can no longer be guaranteed to follow strictly the Poisson process [3], assumed above. Moreover, a caller who finds a busy signal may not return the call during the same period; since the analysis treats periods within a day separately, such a caller would be effectively "lost" to our representation of the system.

An alternative approach is to estimate the proportion of calls lost (or assume a reasonable proportion for calls receiving a busy signal). The measured arrival rate during any period can then be "inflated" by this factor. The above method is only approximate. However, if a more accurate determination were required, then an iterative refinement process could be used to estimate this factor accurately. Namely, an initial guess for the factor is made, then the queuing model is employed (using data appropriate for current operations) to produce an
estimate of the proportion of lost calls. This new estimate is used to modify the arrival rate and the model is again used, resulting in an improved estimate for the proportion. The procedure is iteratively applied until successive estimates agree, whereupon an appropriate estimate for the proportion $p$ of lost calls will be available. The measured arrival rate $\lambda^{*}$, which excludes lost calls, can then be modified to produce an estimate $\lambda$, which will include lost calls; namely, $\quad \lambda=\lambda^{*} /(1-p)$.

Alternatively, if one assumes that the reneging rate $\alpha$ is effectively zero, a mathematical expression can be derived which gives a good approximation to the true value $\lambda$, based on the observed arrival rate $\lambda^{*}$. This analytical expression (the origin and use of which is described further in Appendix A) approximates rather closely the actual relationship between $\lambda$ and $\lambda^{*}$ over the range $l \leq s \leq 60$, where $s$ denotes the number of servers (operator positions) in the system.

Finally, recall that estimates must be provided for $\lambda_{i}$ in each of the years to be used in the analysis. If service-demand projections for future years are not available, it may not be unreasonable to assume' that the call rates increase at some rate a\% per year (or time interval) for the duration of the time horizon being considered.

The next type of input information needed for the queuing analysis consists of the service rates $\mu_{i}$ for each of the years. It is probable that these service rates do not change significantly from year to year, and so only their common value $\mu=\mu_{i}$ needs to be
estimated. (If, however, there are strong reasons to believe that the service rate will change appreciably over time, then appropriate estimates $\mu_{i}$ should be provided for each year.) The required value $\mu$ describes the service rate per busy server (in units of number of calls serviced per hour). Since $I / \mu$ gives the average duration of a service in hours, it is probably easier to estimate this quantity than to estimate $\mu$ directly. Existing data on the average duration of time to service a call can then be used to give an estimate of $1 / \mu$, and thereby a service rate $\mu_{M}$ for the manual system. In order to estimate the service rate $\mu_{A}$ for the automated system, it will be assumed (see [4] for justification) that the computerized system can reduce the duration of a call by $20 \%$ compared to a manual system. Therefore $\mu_{A}$ can be estimated using $\mu_{A}=1.25 \mu_{M}$. This relation was used in developing the tables in Section 4, but is not a basic requirement of our analysis method.

A third input parameter is the reneging rate $\alpha$, also assumed to be constant from year to year. The value $\alpha$ measures in a sense the number of reneging calls per hour. More precisely, $\quad$ //a represents the average length of time (in hours) a person will wait on hold before leaving without service.

The tables in Appendix $B$ correspond to the case in which $\alpha=0.0$ (that is, no reneging occurs). Similar tables can be provided for other values of $\alpha$, but have not been included here. Indeed, the case $\alpha=0.0$ is computationally simpler, the volume of tabular material becomes excessive if several values of $\alpha$ are used, and no data are available on the range of reasonable values for this parameter. Moreover,
the system size figures resulting from the use of the tables for $\alpha=0.0$ overestimate manpower requirements and thus provide a conservative overestimation of costs.

In addition to the input parameters described above, a value needs to be provided for the maximum length of queue (number of hold positions) that can be accommodated in the system. This value $Q$ may be specified by the hardware of the Automatic Call Distribution System being used. For ease of display and use, the tables produced in Appendix $B$ have as input the total number of lines $(Q+s)$ with $Q$ varying usually between $s$ and $2 s$, the range found in [7] and used in [12].

### 3.3 Model Assumptions

Use of the queuing model described in the preceding sections requires that certain assumptions be fulfilled, if not exactly then at least approximately. Certain other simplifying assumptions have been made for the purpose of computational and expository convenience, and these can be changed without affecting the model's validity. In this section the intrinsic assumptions of the model (assumptions which must hold, at least approximately, for the model to be valid) are categorized under the following four components of the queuing system.
(1) Input Calls. It is assumed that the input calls form a Poisson process (see [3] for a mathematical description of this process). Such a process describes a stream of arrivals that occur in a "purely random" manner, i.e., the time until the next arrival is completely uninfluenced by when the last arrival occurred. In practice, it has
been found [2], [5] that the pattern of arrivals at a telephone system is quite closely approximated by a Poisson process. Accordingly, such a process would also seem to be appropriate for arrivals at a transit information facility. It should be noted that in a Poisson process, the arrival rate $\lambda$ is assumed to remain constant over the period of interest. Since the present analysis concentrates on the period of peak demand for the information facility, this requirement of a constant arrival rate is likely to be fulfilled.
(2) Queue Discipline. It is supposed here that the queue operates on a "first come, first served" basis; that is, earlier arrivals to the system will always be served before later arrivals. Such an assumption will be satisfied for any reasonable policy of handling incoming calls. In particular, the use of ACDS will ensure that this is the case. Employing ACDS also has the advantage of allowing a prerecorded message to be played to callers as they enter the system. This message can, for example, serve as a screening device for callers (routing callers to other transit property phone numbers if they are seeking other than itinerary information) or to alert callers as to the format for information requests.
(3) Service Times. The queuing model assumes that the service times (times for an operator to answer completely a request) are distributed according to a negative exponential distribution with parameter $\mu$. This particular form of probability distribution (as well as the form of the input call distribution) is the "traditional" form that has been assumed in order to facilitate mathematical analysis. In fact, under these assumptions the steady-state probabilities for the queue can
be given in an explicit form (see Section 3.4). With other assumptions about the arrival and service time distributions, the analysis becomes more difficult, and it is unlikely that there are closed-form expressions for measures of system performance, such as queue length, waiting time and lost calls. While the arrival pattern of calls conforms quite closely to a Poisson process, the assumption of a negative exponential distribution for service times requires careful consideration. In general, a negative exponential distribution is appropriate when a large number of calls require short service times, and a smaller number of calls require longer service times [2]. In the present circumstances, this may only be approximately true, since there is a minimum service time for each call; for example, it does not appear possible for a call to require less than (say) 15 seconds of service time. By contrast, the negative exponential distribution would predict that short calls of (say) 0-15 seconds are quite probable. Perhaps a more accurate (but less tractable) assumption about service times would be that the length of a service in excess of, say, 15 seconds follows a negative exponential distribution.

Since the queuing analysis is to be used mainly for comparing the two systems, strict adherence of service times to a negative exponential form may not be necessary. In fact, the assumption of exponentially distributed service times provides in a sense a conservative approach to comparing the systems, since it tends to underestimate the contribution of an automated system. The reason for this is that the exponential distribution puts relatively more emphasis (higher probability) on calls of a short duration compared to calls requiring a longer service time.

But the automated system ought to perform better relative to the manual system when there are more time-consuming (i.e., more complicated) calls. Finally, it should be noted again that it is necessary to confine the queuing analysis to a period during which the parameter $\mu$ for the service time distribution will be (approximately) constant over the time span of interest.
(4) Reneging. The general queuing model assumes that the time an individual caller will wait before reneging follows an exponential distribution with parameter $\alpha$. This assumption is imposed mainly for mathematical tractability, and verification would require the collection of data on actual customer behavior. Again the assumption of exponentially distributed reneging times implies that shorter reneging times are more likely than longer ones. Therefore, this situation will obtain in practice to the extent that early impatience of callers outweighs their patience. A convenient baseline for comparing the manual and automated systems is the case $\alpha=0$ : that is, when no reneging is "allowed" by the model. This case provides worst-case estimates for many of the quantities characterizing the level of service. For example, average waiting time will be longest when reneging is not allowed, since reneging callers reduce the waiting times of all callers following them in the queue.

### 3.4 Mathematical Description

This section will detail the mathematical calculations used to analyze a transit information facility. Specifically, the facility is modeled as a multiple server queue having a maximum queue size. Arrivals
are assumed to be generated by a Poisson process, while service times and reneging times are assumed to be governed by an exponential distribution. For notation, we define

```
\(\lambda=\) arrival rate (number/hr),
\(\mu=\) call service rate (number/hr),
\(\alpha=\) reneging rate (number/hr),
s = number of servers,
Q = maximum queue size,
\(M=s+Q=\) maximum number allowable in system,
\(r=\lambda / \mu\).
```

Then the steady-state probability $P_{m}$ of finding $m$ callers in the system can be calculated using the recursive relations

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
P_{m}=(r / m) P_{m-1} & \text { for } & l \leq m \leq s, \\
P_{m}=\frac{\lambda}{\mu s+(m-s) \alpha} P_{m-1} & \text { for } & s<m \leq M,
\end{array}
$$

and the fact that the probabilities must sum to 1 :

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{M} P_{i}=1
$$

The proportion of callers that find the system full (i.e., the proportion of lost calls) is just $P_{M}$, and the expected number of calls lost per
hour is then $\lambda P_{M}$. In addition, it is straightforward to calculate the expected number $L_{q}$ of calls in the queue as

$$
L_{q}=\sum_{i=s}^{M}(i-s) P_{i}
$$

Once $L_{q}$ has been found, then the average waiting time $\bar{W}_{q}$ for a caller who does not find a server free on arrival can be determined [1]:

$$
\bar{W}_{q}=\frac{L_{q}}{\lambda\left(r_{o}-P_{M}\right)}
$$

where $r_{0}=\sum_{i=s}^{M} P_{i}$ is the probability that all servers are busy. Finally, the average length of time $W$ spent by a caller in the system (including both queuing and service times) is given by

$$
W=\frac{1}{\mu}+\frac{L_{q}}{\lambda\left(1-P_{M}\right)}
$$

It should be noted that the values for $\bar{W}_{q}$ and $W$ include the queuing times for reneging callers, as well as callers who are ultimately served.

These calculated quantities $\left(P_{M}, \lambda P_{M}, L_{q}, \bar{W}_{q}\right.$ and $\left.W\right)$ can serve as measures of the level of service provided by the queuing system (transit
information facility). Therefore, such measures can be used either individually or collectively to determine the minimum number of servers that will be required in order to meet certain service level standards. Further details on this procedure are given in the following section.

## 4. MANPOWER ESTIMATES USING THE QUEUING MODEL

Once the necessary inputs to the queuing model have been specified (Section 3.2), the mathematical calculations of Section 3.4 can be employed to determine values for various characteristics of a queuing system with those input parameters. The particular queue characteristics detailed in Section 3.1 provide measures of the amount of congestion in the system, with special emphasis on the number of lost calls, waiting time in the queue and total transaction time. If in addition certain minimum performance standards are prescribed for these measures, then estimates can be made for the number of operator positions required to achieve such standards.

For ease of application, tables have been prepared which give queue characteristics for transit information facilities with various input specifications. These tables are listed in Appendix B for the case $\alpha$ $=0.0$, according to arrival rate $\lambda$, service rate $\mu$, total number of telephone lines $L$ and number of servers $s$. From these latter two parameters one can calculate the maximum queue length $Q=L-s$. Three different queue characteristics are listed in each table. For example, the first table refers to an arrival rate $\lambda=200$ calls/hour and a service rate of 15 calls per hour. The entries corresponding to 40 lines and 13 servers are
(a) number of hold positions $=27$
(b) percentage of lost calls $=4 \%$
(c) average waiting time $=286$ seconds
(d) average time in the system $=500$ seconds

If we require the proportion of lost calls to be at most $1 \%$, then for the given specifications $s=14$ operator positions will be required. If, in addition to this requirement, we insist on an average waiting time in the queue of no more than 100 seconds, then $s=16$ operator positions will be needed.

A user of this model can choose any single criterion or set of criteria for minimum performance levels, and such choices will enable the determination of a required number of operator positions $s$. Such values for $s$ can be determined for both the manual and automated systems (which will differ only in that service rates follow $\mu_{A}=1.25 \mu_{M}$ ), and these values can then be entered into the appropriate cost calculations described in Section 2. Since the difference in number of operator positions between the two systems is of major interest, the exact performance levels which are set may not be crucial. However, levels should be set which are reasonable in light of current operating policy and desired quality of service. As guidelines here, we suggest as typical using a maximum of $1 \%$ calls lost and a maximum waiting time of one to two minutes. The sensitivity of the number of operator positions to various design factors, such as the arrival rate, the service rate, and the number of hold lines should also be taken into account, so that variation from the design level will not adversely affect the system performance.

## 5. BENEFITS

The previous sections have described how to estimate and compare the costs of an automated and a manual transit information system. It is not at all clear that automation will necessarily cost less, over its useful lifetime, than a comparable manual operation. In addition, even if an optimal automated system would save money, in the long run other considerations such as union contracts or tight budgets may necessitate selection of a less efficient system, in which case the theoretical savings predicted by the cost model would not be attained. On the other hand, there are benefits associated with an automated transit information center other than direct cost savings; there are also potential disadvantages to this type of automation. This section explores these concepts in detail.

We will first describe, and quantify where possible (using the queuing model of Section 3), the system improvements resulting from automation. Next we will discuss the benefits from these improvements and note who is benefited by each improvement, an important consideration since a transit company may be unwilling to fund automation if it does not perceive adequate benefit to the transit property. Also the public may be reluctant to see tax dollars used to pay for a system which does not provide much public benefit. Automation must either provide sufficient benefit to the transit company to underwrite its cost, or provide additional benefits to the public which justify public subsidy.

Although we will indicate methods for quantifying the levels of system improvements, we will not attempt to relate them directly to
system costs by assigning dollar values to the benefits, since such values could differ widely from system to system and would tend to be arbitrary. Rather, for decision-making purposes, we prefer to provide the levels of system improvement; these then can be evaluated directly on their own separate merits.

### 5.1 Improvements Resulting from Automation

Table 5 provides a list of improvements resulting from a well-designed and implemented automation of the transit information center. They provide benefits both to the transit company and to transit system users. These include improved service and productivity resulting from the faster response of the computer, increased reliability and consistency because the computer always supplies the same answer to the same question, a reduction in the training required for operators, the ability to rapidly incorporate changes in the transit system into the data base, the capability of automatically gathering statistics about the operation of the information center, and the development of a data base which can be used for such other purposes as scheduling and automated printing of schedules.

These improvements, to be discussed more fully in the following sections, bring benefits to the transit property in the form of increased efficiency and goodwill, to the transit system user in the form of easier access to information and greater confidence in the response, and to society in general to the extent that easier access to transit information increases transit ridership. There are also benefits to society as a whole from the automation of a transit information facility, but

## TABLE 5

Benefits from Automation

| Improvements | Benefits |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | To Transit Company | To Users |
| Shorter service time | increased productivity | quicker response |
| Shorter wait time | better service | less time used |
| Fewer waiting | fewer lines | less frustration |
| Fewer lost calls | better service | less frustration, fewer recalls |
| Increased reliability | better service | more confidence |
| Increased consistency | better service | more confidence |
| Less operator training | cheaper, can use new people sooner | more confidence |
| Rapid response to changes | better service, flexibility | more confidence |
| Management Information System | better evaluation of performance | -- |
| Data Base available for other users | increased efficiency and productivity | --- |
|  |  |  |

they are somewhat diffuse and difficult to measure and assess. They include reductions in road congestion, pollution and energy usage resulting from any increased patronage because of better availability of information on transit service. Improvements in information dissemination which lead to increased patronage may also result in expanded transit service instituted to meet the larger demand, thus providing better service to all users, both new and old customers. Improvements in the access to transit information may aid local business, such as the tourist industry or downtown stores, and might also attract new business. All of the benefits to society suggested here depend upon a demonstrated relationship between transit system patronage and the availability of transit information, a relationship which has not yet been proved. Thus, although we note these possible benefits to society as a whole, we make no attempt to quantify them, and they are not emphasized in this analysis. Transit information dissemination is a part of the broader subject of marketing mass transportation.

### 5.2 Benefits to Transit System Users and Transit Properties

Benefits to the transit system user are more tangible than those to society. They include a reduction in customer frustration in obtaining information on proposed trips: information is more accessible since the telephone is busy less often and the wait time is shorter. A second benefit is the time savings in obtaining information because of quicker response and shorter wait time. Finally, increased reproducibility and consistency of computer responses enhance public confidence and perhaps even reduce the need for confirmatory calls. All of these advantages
make it much easier and less frustrating to obtain desired information concerning transit travel, allowing more people to have access to information and perhaps actually encouraging rather than discouraging potential riders to seek such information. More consistent answers, while not necessarily "better" than manually produced routes, may be perceived as better simply by virtue of their consistency.

Benefits to the transit company from automation are many. The first is increased productivity in a very labor-intensive operation. Since personnel salaries have risen faster than most other costs, companies are anxious to automate any activity which can be automated without overwhelming expense. A second benefit from a well-designed computerized system is ease of making changes to the data base. Either new sets of routes and schedules or temporary changes in them, as well as special services, can be incorporated easily and quickly, and old data can be readily discarded (by being overwritten with new). A third benefit is the improvement in customer relations because of the better service. When potential riders can obtain with relative ease needed information about desired trips, they have a better opinion of transit system service in general. Contributing also to the improved service is the increased reliability and consistency of responses. Callers will no longer be disconcerted by receiving a different routing if they get a different operator or call at a different time. The first response given is guaranteed to be the "best" route, according to the chosen criterion; the computer has considered, and rejected, many alternatives.

Another benefit to the transit" company from automating its information facility is a reduction in training costs, since extensive training in
city geography and transit routes is no longer necessary. Training for the operators of an automated center would emphasize dealing with callers, eliciting the information to specify information requests, articulating clearly and using methods of responding to the requests to aid the caller's retention of information. While these functions are important in a manual system also, training for an automated system can focus more specifically on them, and personnel recruiters can emphasize these characteristics in hiring operators.

Two ancillary benefits resulting from automation of the transit information center are (a) the availability of continuing statistics about the operation and (b) the availability of the data base for other uses within the transit company. The computer program package should include, at very little additional expense, programs to collect and print, upon demand, various statistics about the operation of the center, such as how many calls are answered at each station during specified intervals of time, the size of the hold queue (perhaps average, maximum and minimum or fraction of the time the queue is full), and the length of calls. In addition, statistics can be generated on the operation of the transit system, such as the trips requested, what areas (origins and destinations) are represented, the routes chosen, and the times of day requested. Such statistics can be used to evaluate performance of the operators, to examine causes of any problems, to suggest geographic areas in which to focus information campaigns, to provide a partial basis for establishing new routes or changing old ones, and to indicate new names or addresses to be added to the geographical location data base. Once the data base has been encoded for use by the transit information system, it is available for other uses such as scheduling of vehicles
and crews, or automated printing of schedules. It is usually the case that the computerization of one activity leads naturally to automation of other related functions, and the availability of a common data base facilitates this process.

A final hoped-for benefit from automating the transit information center is increased patronage resulting from the greater accessibility of schedule and routing information. This is based on the assumption that some potential transit trips are not now being made (at least by mass transit) primarily because of lack of easy access to routing and schedule information, and that the improved accessibility of that information will encourage the trips to be made by mass transit. Although researchers have attempted to establish a positive relationship between the investment in improved telephone transit information provision and increased ridership, they have been unable to do so [7]. Thus we note increases in patronage as a potential benefit of automation, but do not focus on it as a prime justification for implementation.

### 5.3 Measuring the Benefits

As noted in the discussions above, many of the benefits or possible disbenefits of automation are difficult to measure because of the subjectivity of the assessment and the differences among transit properties and cities. We can, however, use the queuing model in Section 3 to quantify the degree of automation-induced improvement in such factors as the number of lost calls, the average waiting time in queue, the queue length and the time to service a request". The levels of improvement can then be compared to any cost differential which was calculated using the
cost model of Section 2. Subjective assessments by the local transit people and any other interested parties (local Department of Transportation, citizen groups, etc.) can then be used in assessing the value of the improvements as compared with any incremental costs of the automated system over a manual system. If the automated system can be justified solely on the basis that it costs less than a manual system handling the same number of calls, quantification of the levels of performance improvement will not be as important in the evaluation as if the automated system is more costly, or the breakeven point is in the distant future, or the cost difference though favorable is smaller than the uncertainty in the values of the cost estimates.

### 5.4 Disadvantages to Transit System Users and Transit Properties

There are, however, some potential drawbacks for the transit system user from automation. The computer routing is based on one criterion (or at the most a small set of criteria), and some special requests may either have to be ignored or be answered manually. Examples of such requests are requests for routes which avoid certain areas of the city because of fear of crime, or for "triangle" routes in which the user wants to stop at intermediate points to run an errand. The operators could come to rely on the computer to the point that they will be unable to supply intelligent variances to the routes provided, for example advice to walk up two blocks to save an additional fare.

Easier access to the automated information system may increase demand on the telephone information system, even if improvements are
made in other methods of information dissemination. (In a similar vein, the telephone company notes persisting calls to the information operator despite the availability of telephone books and even charges for the service.) Initial improvements in access to information may thus lead only to a newly saturated system with all the long waits of the old one, though more customers are served.

A final drawback to a computer-aided information system may be that the routings it provides depend on better on-time performance by transit vehicles than is actually attained. This may be somewhat alleviated by using minimum transfer times in computing the routes. However, the public may still perceive deviations from schedule more vividly when computerized transit information responses are very explicit. Some of these disadvantages, such as the improvement-induced demand, may also apply to an improved manual system. Although all of these (lack of flexibility in route selection, increased demand for telephone information, and heightened perception of system delays) are potential drawbacks to automation, we do not know how to measure their effects, and their magnitudes are likely to vary greatly from city to city and from transit property to transit property. Effective management may be able to minimize or eliminate some of these disadvantages. Potential benefits, however, appear to outweigh the possible disadvantages.

Automation of the transit information center may also have disadvantages to the transit company. First among these is that increasing the accessibility of transit information may increase the demand for that information. As more potential riders discover that telephone
information service has improved, they may be encouraged to use the service more often for more types of trips. The result could be that the new automated system quickly becomes saturated, and service deteriorates to a level similar to that existing before automation. More people are being served, but they have to wait as long and face a busy signal as often as in the old manual system.

A second disadvantage of the automated system is that operators can tend to rely on the computer to supply answers to simple questions which, in the manual system, they might have answered "off the top of their heads". The result of such actions may be lengthening of the response to some short requests. Automation is expected to speed significantly the longer calls which require more complicated routes, but may increase the length of shorter calls, thus reducing the variation in call length, making it depend less on the complexity of the requested route and more on the ability of the caller to formulate his question.

Increased operator reliance on the computer will also be a great disadvantage during periods in which the computer is not operational. To take advantage of the reduced training costs available with an automated system, the operators will not receive the intensive instruction in city geography and the transit system that would be required to deal efficiently with queries in a manual setting. Even operators previously adept in the manual system can become so accustomed to using the computer that their skills in a manual operation become rusty.

Another possible effect of automating the transit information center is a greater public perception of delays because more patrons know at what time the vehicle is to arrive or depart. With information less accessible, fewer people know actual scheduled stop times, so the system's on-time performance (or misperformance) is not as widely known. When told specific departure or arrival times by the telephone information operator, riders may expect the system to adhere more precisely to the scheduled times than actually occurs. Wider dissemination of precisesounding information about an inherently imprecise system may call attention to system variability.

A final difficulty which may arise from computerizing the transit information function is that changes in the on-line procedures or process (as opposed to those in the data base) may require altering a computer program, which can be time-consuming and expensive. The need for such changes can be minimized by careful system design, but all possibilities cannot be foreseen initially and some future program changes will probably be necessary.

Again it is believed that the benefits to the transit company from automation outweigh potential disadvantages, but no attempt has been made here to quantify the relative merits and disutilities involved because of their subjective nature and the differences among cities and transit properties.

### 5.5 Other Transit Information System Improvements

The cost-benefit analysis presented here has focused on a comparison between a manual and an automated transit information system, in which a computer is used to select a "best" route. Other modifications in methods of providing information are possible and should be considered by any transit property planning to upgrade its information service. Among these are several methods of improving the telephone information service, short of using a computer. They include the use of microfiche to speed retrieval of schedule and routing data, improvements in the workspace of the operators and the organization of their materials, the inclusion of a message to those waiting on hold aiding them in formulating their requests, and the channeling of incoming calls from particular originating zones to operators with special knowledge of the transit service in those zones. Besides considering improvements in the telephone information service, a transit property should also examine the broad spectrum of methods to enhance the provision of information. Examples include wider availability of printed schedule and routing information, more informative signs, and use of mail for specific requests or for dissemination of schedule and route updates or changes. All of these methods of improving the public's access and awareness of transit information should be studied in the context of the specific system being analyzed. This report has focused on evaluating a computer-aided telephone information service, because such a change represents a wide departure from previous attempts at improved service, but this focus is not meant to suggest that such an approach is either the only or the best plan for any particular situation.

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## APPENDIX A

AN APPROXIMATION FOR THE REIATIONSHIP BETWEEN $\lambda$ and $\lambda^{*}$

As noted in the text, care has to be exercised in describing arrival rates associated with the queuing system under study. The use of the queuing model to provide manpower estimates is based on obtaining an estimate $\lambda$ of the rate at which calls attempt to enter the system. In practice, however, it is more likely that one is able to measure the rate $\lambda^{*}$ at which calls actually enter the system (i.e., calls which are not turned away by encountering a busy signal).

The fundamental relationship between these two quantities is the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda^{*}=\lambda\left(1-P_{M}\right) \tag{I}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $P_{M}$ denotes the probability that the system will be found to be full (i.e., all hold positions are occupied) at any given instant of time. It is possible [5] to express $P_{M}$ analytically in terms of the parameters $r=\lambda / \mu$, $s$ and $q$ (see Section 3.4 for their respective definitions) using
(2)

$$
P_{M}=\frac{r^{s+q}}{s^{q} \cdot s!} /\left\{\sum_{i=0}^{s-1} \frac{r^{i}}{i!}+\frac{r^{s}}{s!} \sum_{j=0}^{q}\left(\frac{r}{s}\right)^{j}\right\}
$$

This expression is obtained under the assumption that reneging does not occur, i.e., $\alpha=0$.

Given, therefore, $\lambda$ (along with other parameters such as s, $\mu, q$ ) it is possible using (1) and (2) to find $\lambda^{*}$. In fact, these equations provide a direct functional relationship of the form $\lambda^{*}=g(\lambda)$. However, it is really the inverse of this relationship that addresses the major issue here: namely, given $\lambda^{*}$, calculate the corresponding value of $\lambda$. There appears to be no simple analytical way to invert the given relation$\operatorname{ship} \lambda^{*}=g(\lambda)$ in order to obtain the relationship $\lambda=f\left(\lambda^{*}\right)$ that is sought. The object of this Appendix, then, is to present an approximation to this latter relationship that will be reasonably accurate over appropriate ranges for the parameter values.

To begin, it is useful to study the relationship $\lambda^{*}=g(\lambda)$ which is defined by (1) and (2). Certain observations relevant to this relationship can be readily established. First, as $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ it can be shown, using (I) and (2), that $g(\lambda) \sim \lambda$. In other words, for "small" values of $\lambda$, $\lambda^{*}$ and $\lambda$ will be nearly identical; intuitively, this is reasonable since for
small $\lambda$, the turning-away of calls will be rare. Second, as $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$ it can be verified that $g(\lambda) \rightarrow s \mu$. That is, for very large arrival rates the system essentially becomes saturated, and the rate $\lambda^{*}$ at which calls can enter the system approaches the maximum effective rate su at which calls (from $s$ busy servers) can leave the system. Third, it can be verified that the function $g(\lambda)$ is a (strictly) monotone increasing function of $\lambda$, and $g(\lambda) \leq \lambda$ holds for all $\lambda$. The above observations show that the relationship expressing $\lambda^{*}$ as a function of $\lambda, \lambda^{*}=g(\lambda)$, has the general form shown in Figure 2. This figure displays the horizontal asymptote at $\lambda^{*}=s \mu$ as well as the (dashed) Iine of equality $\lambda^{*}=\lambda$.

Consider now the functional value $\mathrm{g}(\mathrm{s} \mu)$ at $\lambda=\mathrm{s} \mu$. Then, using (1) and (2), it is straightforward to deduce that

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(s \mu)=s \mu\left[1-\{q+\phi(s)\}^{-1}\right], \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi(s)=\frac{s!}{s^{s}} \sum_{i=0}^{s} \frac{s^{i}}{i!} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

We first find an approximation to $\phi(s)$, as a function of $s$, and this will provide in turn an approximation to $g(s \mu)$.

An asymptotic expansion ${ }^{1}$ of $\phi(s)$ as $s \rightarrow \infty$ can be obtained by using the Euler-Maclaurin formula [II]. Essentially this asymptotic expansion takes the form

$$
\phi(s) \sim \beta_{1}+\beta_{2} s^{\beta} 3+\beta_{4} s^{-\beta_{5}},
$$

with specific positive values assigned to $\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{5}$. This particular approximation is quite good as $s$ becomes large, and is accurate for values of $s$ even as small as l0. In order to obtain a best approximation over the range $s=1,2, \ldots, 60$ (which covers reasonable values for the number of servers), a nonlinear least squares fit was obtained using a computer routine ${ }^{2}$ developed at NBS. This approximation $A(s)$ is of the specific form

$$
\begin{equation*}
A(s)=.606+1.26 s^{.499}+.133 s^{-.251} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

${ }^{\text {Whe }}$ are indebted to Dr. F. J. Olver (University of Maryland, and NBS) for providing a derivation of this expansion.
${ }^{2}$ This data-fitting routine has been implemented by Dr. James Filliben of the NBS Statistical Engineering Laboratory. This implementation is based on a computer program of A. J. Miller (CSIRO, Sydney, Australia) and incorporates features of the Levenberg-Morrison-Marquardt method [8].


Figure 2
The Functional Relationship $\lambda^{*}=g(\lambda)$
and yields a residual standard deviation of 0.000013 ; such a small value for the residual standard deviation indicates an extremely good fit of (5) to the function (4) over the range of interest.

Given equation (5), it is now possible to tackle the original problem of approximating the relationship $\lambda=f\left(\lambda^{*}\right)$. What is required then is a function $h\left(\lambda^{*}\right)$ which is asymptotically equal to $\lambda^{*}$ as $\lambda^{*} \rightarrow 0$, and which approaches $\infty$ as $\lambda^{*}$ approaches s from below (see Figure 2). In addition, such a function could be made to have the ordinate $\lambda=s \mu$ when the abscissa is $\lambda^{*}=g(s \mu)$. Since the calculation of $g(s \mu)$ requires knowing $\phi(s)$ and since the latter is somewhat involved to calculate, we use instead the approximation $\mathrm{A}(\mathrm{s})$ for $\phi(\mathrm{s})$. Accordingly, we require that $h(x)$ have the value $s \mu$ when $x=s \mu\left[1-\{q+A(s)\}^{-1}\right]$. One of the simplest functional forms for $h$ that will meet the above requirements is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(x)=x+B(s, q) x^{2} /(s \mu-x) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
B(s, q)=[q-1+A(s)]^{-2} . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is direct to show that $h(x)$ does in fact satisfy the three properties mentioned above. For example, it is clear from (6) that $h(x) \geq x$, as also required.

In order to illustrate this procedure, consider the case when $s=14$, $q=20$ and $\mu=38$. Direct calculations give

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A(14)=5.377 \\
& B(14,20)=(24.377)^{-2}=0.001683 \\
& h(x)=x+\frac{0.001683 x^{2}}{532-x}
\end{aligned}
$$

Suppose for example that one observes the value $\lambda^{*}=518$. The last equation above can then be used with $x=518$ to estimate the true arrival rate $\lambda$ : namely, $\lambda \simeq h(518)=550$. As a matter of fact, the true value of $\lambda$ corresponding to $\lambda^{*}=518$ is found to be $\lambda=549$. As another example, when $\lambda^{*}=472$ then $\lambda \simeq h(472)=478$, while the true value is $\lambda=475$.

In the above cases, the approximation provided by (5)-(7) gives quite close agreement to the true values for $\lambda$. One caveat must be borne in mind, however, when using this type of approximation to the $\lambda=f\left(\lambda^{*}\right)$ relationship. Namely, since $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$ as $\lambda^{*} \rightarrow s \mu$, the function $f\left(\lambda^{*}\right)$ becomes extremely steep in the vicinity of su. That is to say, small
changes in $\lambda^{*}$ in this vicinity will produce disproportionately large changes in the corresponding value of $\lambda$. The approximation that has been given here is made to agree closely with the true $\lambda=f\left(\lambda^{*}\right)$ relation for values of $\lambda$ that are not too large. It cannot, however, approximate to any reasonable accuracy the steep behavior of $f\left(\lambda^{*}\right)$ as $\lambda^{*}$ becomes close to $\mathrm{s} \mu$.

In practical terms, this means that the approximation defined by (5)-(7) should not be used when $\lambda^{*} \simeq s \mu$. More specifically, it has been found that if $\lambda^{*}>(.95)$ s $\mu-$ i.e., if $\lambda^{*}$ is within $5 \%$ of $s \mu-{ }_{*}$ the above approximation will not be accurate. As a matter of fact, if $\lambda^{*}$ is really as close to $s \mu$ as this, then the true value $f\left(\lambda^{*}\right)$ is so sensitive to changes in $\lambda^{*}$ that accurate estimation of $\lambda$ is in principle very difficult. The reason is that if $\lambda^{*}$ is sufficiently close to $s \mu$ then just the uncertainty in the measurement of $\lambda^{*}$ is enough to create an extremely large uncertainty in the true value of $\lambda$. In such a case (which corresponds to an almost complete saturation of system capacity), the true value of $\lambda$ may be unobtainable to any reasonable accuracy. Fortunately, this type of situation (near-complete saturation) is not expected to occur in actual applications.

To summarize, a reasonably accurate approximation (over the range of parameter values of interest) has been provided here. The basic procedure is as follows.

1. Determine appropriate numerical values for $s, \mu$ and $q$.
2. Calculate $A(s)$ using (5), and then $B(s, q)$ using (7).
3. Given any observed arrival rate $\lambda^{*}$ for calls which successfully enter the system, compute $h\left(\lambda^{*}\right)$ using (6). The value $h\left(\lambda^{*}\right)$ then provides an estimate of the true arrival rate $\lambda$ for calls attempting to enter the system.

Finally, it should be emphasized that the above approximation is based upon the assumption of no reneging in the queuing system. Unfortunately, it does not appear possible in any straightforward way to extend the procedure given here to the case with reneging: i.e., when $\alpha>0$.

APPENDIX B

TABLES FOR USE IN ESTIMATING MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS

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\vec{N} \dot{\sim}-\vec{N} \underset{\sim}{n} \quad \dot{\sim}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { LINES } \\
& 40
\end{aligned}
$$

8
©

| w | 山 | 山 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| U 山 | U | U 山 |
| いト。 | $\rightarrow$－ | ート。 |
| $\geq$＊ | $\geq$ N | $\geq \ll$ |
| ${ }_{\sim}^{\alpha}$ | $\stackrel{\sim}{\sim}{ }_{\sim}^{\sim}$ | 込 |
| $\sim$ | n | u |



$$
\underset{\sim}{N} \infty 000 \quad \infty \quad=0 \quad \infty_{N}^{\infty}=0
$$

PERCENTAGE OF LOST CALLS
（SONOJヨS）ヨWIL 9NIヨกヨกO ヨコVタヨav
（4）AVERAGE TIME IN SYSTEM（SECONDS）
ツ：「 ○ O
NOホM NOホN

$\stackrel{m}{\sim} \circ$

O1OOONONONO NO
웅․․․
$=190 \stackrel{m}{N}$
$\stackrel{\sim}{N} \circ \stackrel{m}{N}$
oro ${ }_{\mathrm{N}}^{\mathrm{N}} \mathrm{N}$

$$
\sigma:=0 N \sim
$$

$\vec{m} \circ{\underset{N}{n}}_{\infty}^{\infty}$


ARE：


 （3）AVERAGE QUEUE ING TIME（SECONOS） （3）AVERAGE QUEUE ING TIME


$01=0$ nin $\quad$ Nonn mon m


$\underset{\sim}{\sim} 1 \infty 00 \underset{\sim}{\infty} \underset{\sim}{\infty} \quad \underset{\sim}{\infty} \circ \infty$ のごコロジ


NIMONN M NOMNM MOMNN




～～～～ロ



M M O N N N N
N
NONN N N
$\underset{\sim}{N} \quad \dot{m} \cos _{i n}^{N} \hat{i}$





$\stackrel{\circ}{\circ} \mathrm{O} \stackrel{m}{+}$

$\stackrel{\circ}{\mathrm{m}}$
$\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}$


| $\cdots 1 r o+o$ | N | NOOO． | $\cdots 1$ rompor | Nomm | Nomp |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\sim 10000$ | ＠Ono | $\stackrel{\sim}{\sim} \mathrm{O}$ | $\underset{\sim}{\sim}$ | $\xrightarrow{\infty} \bigcirc$ | $\stackrel{\infty}{\sim} 0+{ }_{m}^{0}$ |
| $=10000$ | $900{ }_{\text {O }}$ | $\mathrm{N}_{\sim} 000$ | $=100000$ | 9000 | Nomo |
| O10OM | NOMO | moro | $\bigcirc 10000$ | 웅№m | ¢ $0 \sim 0$ |
| $01=0 \infty$ | － $\mathrm{NOO}_{+}$ | $\bar{m} \bigcirc 00$ | a1こorm | NOr | mor m |
| の1～0ご | N○ココ | NOご | $\propto 1 \underset{\sim}{\sim}$ | N $\sim_{\sim}$ | NOM |
|  | $\underset{\sim}{m} \bigcirc \bigcirc \underset{\sim}{m}$ | $\mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{m}} \mathrm{O} \sim \mathrm{m}$ | $\cdots$ Nom | $\underset{\sim}{m} \circ=\mathrm{m}$ | $m_{m}{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{F}$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & \stackrel{\alpha}{\alpha} \\ & \stackrel{y}{\sim} \\ & \underset{\sim}{\sim} \\ & \sim \\ & \sim \end{aligned}$ |  | $\stackrel{+}{m} 0 \stackrel{\sim}{\sim}$ |  | さ゚ぎ | 即○さ |
| － |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | N○○は | $\cdots$ |  |  | $\operatorname{mon}_{m} \mathrm{~mm}$ |
| * | $\stackrel{0}{\sim}$ | $\stackrel{\circ}{\infty} \stackrel{\circ}{\sim} \underset{\sim}{\infty} \stackrel{0}{m}$ | ＋¢ ¢ ¢ ¢ ¢ | $\stackrel{\sim}{\sim} \mathrm{m} \underset{\sim}{\sim}$ | m N |
| m İNoNon | $\underset{\sim}{N} \underset{N}{N} \underset{\sim}{N} \underset{\sim}{N}$ | $\begin{array}{cc} \wedge & n \\ m & n \\ 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ i \end{array}$ |  |  |  |
|  |  | $\stackrel{\infty}{m} \sim_{n}^{m} \underset{\sim}{m} \underset{\sim}{m}$ | $\text { N } 1 \times \mathrm{O}_{\mathrm{O}}^{\circ} \mathrm{O} \underset{\mathrm{~m}}{\mathrm{~m}}$ |  | $\text { mo }{ }_{m}^{\circ} \text { in }$ |
|  | $\begin{array}{r} \alpha \wedge \\ \stackrel{N}{N} \stackrel{\infty}{\infty} \underset{=}{\infty} \\ = \\ \hline \end{array}$ |  | $-19 N N \hat{N}$ |  | $\begin{gathered} o n \\ M \sim N \\ \underset{\sim}{N} \underset{\sim}{N} \end{gathered}$ |
| $\sum_{\substack{\infty \\ 山 己 N}}^{\infty}$ | ¢ | $\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}$ | ${\underset{j}{\sim}}_{\substack{n \\ N}}$ | ¢ | $\stackrel{\circ}{+}$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & \underset{\sim}{u} \\ & \underset{\sim}{\rightleftarrows} \\ & \underset{\sim}{z} \\ & \underset{\sim}{\alpha} \\ & \underset{\sim}{\alpha} \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |  |



[^1]
\[

$$
\begin{array}{llllll}
\infty & 1 & \infty & \infty & \infty \\
m & \infty & m & n
\end{array}
$$
\]

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
N & m & m & m \\
N & \& & n \\
N
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
N & 0 & \infty & w \\
m & & w & w \\
& & w
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{llllllllll}
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & N \infty & 0 & 0 & n \\
m & N & N & m \infty & m & m & \infty \\
m & & n & & & n
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{c:c}
n & m=0 \\
m \\
N
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
m & 0 & 0 \\
N & n & 0 \\
& & N
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
m \circ \infty & \infty \\
m & n & 0 \\
N
\end{array}
$$

$$
\stackrel{0}{\infty}:-0 \stackrel{\infty}{\infty} \underset{\infty}{\infty}
$$

$$
\text { No } \begin{gathered}
\infty \\
m \\
\infty \\
n
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
m \circ m \dot{d}
$$

\[

\]

$$
\begin{array}{l:ccc}
m i n \\
m & 0 \\
n & n \\
n
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
0 \sim N & 0 & 0 \\
N & \infty & n \\
m & m & 0 \\
m
\end{array}
$$

NUMBER OF SERVERS

$$
\begin{array}{l:lll}
N & \infty & \infty \\
N & \rightarrow & \infty \\
N
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\infty & N & n \\
N & m & n \\
& \ldots & n
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\infty & N & m \\
m & N \\
m & m \\
N
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{l:l}
0 \\
N & 1
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{gathered}
m \\
N=N
\end{gathered} \begin{array}{cc} 
\pm \\
N & 0 \\
m
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{r}
M \rightarrow \pm \pm \\
M_{N}+
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{rll}
\Rightarrow & n & \pm \\
a & \infty & N \\
N & n
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
0 & 0 & n & \pm \\
N & 0+1 & 0 & 0 \\
N & M
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a 0 a \\
& m=a \\
& m \\
& 0
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
N & 0 & 0 \\
m & m & 0 \\
N & N
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{rrr}
N & 0 & 0 \\
\sim & n \\
m & 0 \\
m
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{l:llll}
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & n \\
N & N & N & N & N
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
00 \\
M N M \\
N & d
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{r}
0 \\
\text { ON N } \\
\text { N } \\
\text { M }
\end{array}
$$

LINES
:

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

LINES
40
in
:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { PERCENTAGE OF LOST CALLS } \\
& \text { AVERAGE OUFUFINGT1ME (SEEANOS) } \\
& \text { AVERAGE TME INSYSTEM (SECONDS) }
\end{aligned}
$$








| $\sim$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\sim$ | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| $\sim$ |  |  |  |

$\begin{array}{rrrr}\infty & \infty \\ \sim\end{array}$

$\Rightarrow 100 \mathrm{~N}$
OM N NOMM
010
오N
○ = $+$ $\circ^{\circ}=0$


mo 0

$\infty \underset{\sim}{\infty} \mathfrak{N}$
NON ON N N
NON
MON


ニNMG

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \ddot{山} \\
& \underset{\alpha}{\alpha}
\end{aligned}
$$

| $\hat{m} \mid \stackrel{m}{N} \infty \underset{\sim}{\infty} \underset{m}{\infty}$ | $\underset{m}{m} \sim \underset{\sim}{n}$ |  | $\underset{N}{\wedge} \mid \underset{N}{\circ}-\infty \times \underset{\sim}{\infty}$ | Moro |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\stackrel{\bullet}{m} \mid \stackrel{q}{\mathrm{~N}} \mathrm{O}=\stackrel{m}{\mathrm{~m}} \mathrm{~m}$ | がㅇ․․․․ |  |  | $\stackrel{\otimes}{M} \underset{\sim}{\alpha} \underset{\sim}{N}$ |  |
|  | $\stackrel{n}{m} \sim \underset{\sim}{\sim} \underset{\sim}{\sim}$ |  | $\stackrel{n}{N} 1 \stackrel{n}{N}$ | $n_{m}^{n} \div \frac{0}{N} \stackrel{0}{\infty}$ |  |
| $\sum_{\substack{1 \\ \hline}}^{n}$ | 앙 | － | $\stackrel{n}{\underset{2}{2}}$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}$ |
|  |  |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \underset{\sim}{w} \\ & \underset{\sim}{\sim} \\ & \underset{\sim}{\sim} \\ & \underset{\sim}{\sim} \end{aligned}$ |




| $\underset{\sim}{N}: \infty-\infty \times \underset{\sim}{\infty} \underset{\sim}{\alpha}$ | $\underset{N}{\infty} \circ \underbrace{\infty}_{\phi}$ | mo 0 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ～1のNが告 | $\underset{\sim}{a}-\infty$ | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 0 & 0 \\ m & 0 \\ 0\end{array}$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & \sim \\ & \stackrel{\sim}{\alpha} \\ & \underset{\sim}{\underset{\alpha}{2}} \end{aligned}$ |  |  |
|  | ¢～Na |  |
|  | $m \sim \sim \sim \sim_{\sim}^{\sim}$ | ゴさ |
|  |  | NOMN N N N N |







$\stackrel{\sim}{\text { 岂 }}$



 （2）PERCENTAGE OF LOST CALLS
（3）AVERAGE QUEUEING TIME（SECONOS）
（4）AVERAGE TIME IN SYSTEM（SECONDS） ARE：
（1）NUMBER OF HOLD POSITIONS
$\therefore 1 \underset{\sim}{m} \circ \underset{\sim}{m} \quad \underset{\sim}{m} \circ \underset{\sim}{m} \quad \underset{M}{m} \circ \underset{\sim}{m}$









NONO NOO．N


M 오N 으N


| の1 | $\vec{m} \stackrel{n}{\sim} \underset{\sim}{N}$ | ごN No No | r | MOMN N N N N N N | $\begin{gathered} m \\ \underset{\sim}{\circ} \mathrm{O}_{\mathrm{m}}^{\infty} \underset{\mathrm{m}}{\infty} \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\infty \mid \underset{N}{\infty} \underset{\sim}{\infty} \underset{\sim}{\infty} \underset{\sim}{N}$ | NMM M N N |  |  | $\stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{\circ} \circ \underset{M}{n} \underset{M}{n}$ | $\pm \underset{+}{+} \underset{+}{\underset{\sim}{N}} \underset{\sim}{\infty}$ |


| へ\|MJNNN N N |  | $\begin{gathered} m \\ +4 N o \\ y \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n$ |  |  |
| ※ | $\stackrel{\bigcirc}{+}$ | io |




| $\infty$ |
| :--- |
| $\stackrel{8}{\circ}$ |



告
$\stackrel{\circ}{4}$


SERVICE
RATE
60

 $\propto 1 \sim O N \sim N O N N O N O N$

 ARE:



 AVERAGE QUEUEING TIME（SECONOS） （SONOTヨS）WヨISAS NI ヨWIL ヨפV४ヨav

| の1こ0 | $\vec{\sim}$ | $m^{\circ} \approx \stackrel{m}{N}$ | ※゙N○ご | へ○』N | $\stackrel{\sim}{\sim}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\stackrel{\infty}{N}: \stackrel{N}{\sim}$ | $\text { N○ } \underset{\sim}{N}$ | $\underset{N}{N} \circ \stackrel{n}{N} \underset{\sim}{N}$ | $\underset{\sim}{N}: \infty \bigcirc \underset{\sim}{\text { N }}$ | $\sim$－$\sim_{\sim}^{\infty}$ | $\stackrel{\infty}{\sim} \stackrel{\circ}{\sim}$ |
| N：MONN | $\underset{\sim}{m} \circ \underset{\sim}{\sim} \underset{\sim}{\infty}$ | $m_{m}^{\circ} \vec{m} \vec{m}$ | ごのーロが | $\mathfrak{\sim} \circ \stackrel{m}{N}$ | No ${ }_{\sim}^{\sim}{ }_{\sim}^{\infty}$ |
| $\stackrel{0}{\sim} \mid \pm \sim \sim \stackrel{\sim}{\sim}$ | $\stackrel{ \pm}{\sim}{ }_{\sim}^{\circ}{ }_{m}^{\circ}$ | $\underset{m}{g} \circ \circ \underset{\sim}{\circ}$ | へ： | －${ }_{\sim}^{\circ} \stackrel{\text { N }}{\text { N }}$ O |  |


| こ ָ̄ M̄ | N゙ローN゙N | $\underset{N}{n} \circ \underset{\sim}{n} \underset{\sim}{n}$ | moin in | の1こN罧 No | $\tilde{\sim}-\infty$ | mora |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \ddot{\ddot{u}} \\ & \stackrel{u}{4} \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| لِّ 山ِ |  | $\stackrel{0}{\sim}$ | $\stackrel{\circ}{m-1}$ | $\otimes 1 \underset{m}{\infty}$ |  | N－O |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { I } \\ & \text { U } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & n \\ & \stackrel{n}{\widetilde{\alpha}} \\ & \underset{\sim}{\underset{\sim}{x}} \end{aligned}$ |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & u \\ & \stackrel{y}{4} \\ & \stackrel{1}{2} \\ & \underset{\sim}{2} \end{aligned}$ |  |  |
| 2 |  | へ ${ }^{m}{ }_{\text {No }}^{\infty}$ | $\mathrm{m}^{m} \mathrm{~m}$－ | $\underset{\sim}{4} \sim 1 m \infty o o$ | m ¢ ${ }^{\text {m }}$ | $\cdots$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & n \\ & \stackrel{u}{د} \\ & \frac{1}{4} \\ & > \end{aligned}$ | $\frac{4}{0}$ |  |  | 若 |  |  |
|  |  | $\stackrel{\infty}{\sim}{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{O}$ O | ${\underset{N}{n}}_{\infty}^{\circ} \underset{\sim}{\underset{\sim}{N}} \underset{\sim}{N}$ |  | $\stackrel{\text { ¢ }}{\sim}$ |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \underline{\alpha} \\ & \stackrel{0}{\square} \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \stackrel{q}{山 己} \\ & \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{4} \end{aligned}$ |  | ペํ N No | $\stackrel{o}{m}-\underset{\sim}{\sim} \underset{\sim}{\infty} \underset{\sim}{\infty}$ | $\stackrel{n}{n}$ |  | 呙むさ |
| ㅇ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 11 | － | $\stackrel{\circ}{m} \pm \underset{\sim}{\infty} \underset{\sim}{n}$ |  |  | N ${ }_{\text {N }}^{\text {¢ }}$ |  |
| 00.8$\frac{0}{2}$$\frac{0}{2}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\leq$ | $\cdots 1 \sim \infty$ |  | $F \stackrel{\oplus}{\underset{\sim}{\sim}} \underset{\mathrm{~m}}{\stackrel{1}{n}}$ | $\cdots \stackrel{m}{\sim}$ | N $\sim$ | M ${ }_{\sim}^{\sim}$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\frac{1}{4}$ $\frac{2}{2}$ 2 $\frac{\alpha}{\alpha}$ $\frac{\alpha}{d}$ |  | NNOO.O | $\underset{\sim}{\sim} N \underset{N}{N} \underset{N}{N}$ | $\stackrel{N}{\sim} \mid \stackrel{\infty}{\sim} \underset{\sim}{\infty} \underset{\sim}{\infty} \stackrel{\infty}{\infty}$ | $\stackrel{\infty}{\sim} M \stackrel{M}{\sigma} \stackrel{m}{N}$ | $\begin{gathered} \infty \\ m \\ m \\ N_{N}^{\infty} \\ N \\ m \\ m \end{gathered}$ |
| $\underset{\substack{\underset{\sim}{\sim}}}{\underset{\sim}{\sim}}$ | $\stackrel{n}{\underset{2}{山 己}}$ | 옹 | 앙 | $\begin{gathered} n \\ \sum_{幺}^{\sim} \\ j \end{gathered}$ | $\stackrel{\circ}{+}$ | i |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |




む1：
（3）AVERAGE QUEUE ING TIME（SECONOS）
（4）AVERAGE TIME IN SYSTEM（SECONDS）
$\because 1 n 00$ N N N O N N N N O O N M1NOOO NOOO NOOO

${\underset{\sim}{\circ}}_{\circ}^{\sim} \sim \mathrm{m}$
$\stackrel{\circ}{\circ} \sim \underset{\sim}{n}$
$\underset{\sim}{N} \mid \infty \times \underset{\sim}{\infty}{\underset{\sim}{\infty}}_{\infty}^{\infty} \times \underset{\sim}{\infty}$
$\underset{\sim}{\infty} \circ \stackrel{m}{\sim}$

MiNOロ゚ NONO NON
$\because 19 \circ \infty N$ N
 $\therefore 1 \circ^{\circ} \circ \underset{N}{\circ} \quad \circ \circ \mathrm{~m}$ 700 PER HOUR VALUES IN EACH CELL ARE：

| $\cdots 19 \rightarrow \stackrel{y}{m}$ | No～～N |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \sim \\ & \underset{\sim}{山} \\ & \underset{\sim}{\sim} \end{aligned}$ |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| $\underset{\text { d }}{>}$ |  |  |
|  | ¢ N ${ }^{\text {N N }}$ |  |
|  |  |  |
| 年 |  |  |
| $\frac{\infty}{2}$ |  |  |
|  | M으N N | ¢○ロ |


| の1～Nの边 | $\vec{m}-\infty$ | の－inco |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathfrak{Z}$ |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| $\underset{\sim}{\text { a }}$ |  |  |
| $\cdots \infty$ |  | $\stackrel{\sim}{\sim} \times \infty$ |
| 吕－ |  |  |
| 先 |  |  |
| $\frac{1}{2}$ |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| ミ， 1 NNN゚ | $m \sim \infty$ | - N N N N |











LINES
30
$\stackrel{\circ}{\checkmark}$
SERVICE
RATE
70

番
is
范
$\circ$
is

$m 1$ NOMONOM NOMO
$\rightarrow 1$
$\underset{\sim}{m i N O N O M N O N O M}$
（1）NUMBER OF HOLD POSITIONS
（2）PERCENTAGE OF LOST CALLS
（SONOJヨS）$\exists W 1 \perp$ SNI ヨnヨกO Э9VYヨA甘（（ ）
（SONOJヨS）WヨSAS NI $\exists W I \perp \exists 9 \forall 8 \exists A \forall$（t）

$$
=100 \infty \quad \stackrel{a}{m} \quad \underset{m}{m} \quad \underset{N}{\infty} \circ \infty \underset{m}{m}
$$

$$
\therefore 1000 \infty \quad \stackrel{\circ}{N} \circ \Rightarrow \infty \quad \circ \quad \circ \Rightarrow \infty
$$

$$
\infty 1 N-N \quad N \quad N O O N \quad N O M N
$$

$$
+\infty
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sim \\
& \alpha \\
& w \\
& > \\
& \alpha \\
& w \\
& \omega \\
& \sim
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\frac{4}{4}
$$

| $n$ |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\sum_{j=1}^{\omega} 0$ | 0 | 0 |
| $N$ | $m$ |  |

$n$
$\sum_{n}^{n}$
$j$
웅
$\stackrel{\circ}{9}$
SERVICE
RATE
90
06
$\exists 1 \forall 8$
$\exists 21 \wedge 43 \mathrm{~S}$

SERVICE
RATE
90


M｜NONNN NOONNNN NON
$\therefore 100 \infty 0$
 （1）NUMBER OF HOLO POSITIONS
（2）PERCENTAGE OF LOST CALLS
（3）AVERAGE QUEUEING TIME（SECONDS）
（4）AVERAGE TIME IN SYSTEM（SECONDS）



の1＝0 N N N N N N M N N N
$\cdots \quad \pm 0 \infty \quad$ NONO N N N N N N N N
※1NーO～N






| 0 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\stackrel{\sim}{\omega}$ |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| व |  |  |
| いめ！ | $へ$－ | Nmod |
| －1－$\rightarrow$ a | N $N$ | M O \％ |
| $4$ |  |  |
| 岀 |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ |  |  |
| 2N1 000 |  |  |
| マー1－10 | $N=00$ | M－ホ |

TRUE ARRIVAL RATE（LAMBDA）$=800$ PER HOUR

| $\pm 1 \stackrel{0}{\sim} \stackrel{\sim}{\sim} \stackrel{\infty}{\sim}$ | $\stackrel{\bullet}{N} \sim N \underset{\sim}{N} \underset{\sim}{N}$ | MNON N N N N N |  | $\stackrel{\sim}{\sim} \stackrel{\sim}{\sim}$ | $\begin{gathered} a \wedge N \\ M \sim N \\ \sim \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\underset{\sim}{m}: \underset{\sim}{\sim} \underset{\sim}{M}$ | $\stackrel{\sim}{N} \stackrel{\infty}{N} \underset{\sim}{N}$ | ¢ ${ }_{\sim}^{\infty} \underset{\sim}{\sim}$ | O1ONN N No No | ¢ | O N N N N N N N N |
| $\underset{\sim}{N} 1 \propto \stackrel{\infty}{\sim} \sigma_{0}^{N}$ | $\stackrel{\infty}{\sim} \stackrel{n}{N} \stackrel{\circ}{n} \underset{\sim}{N}$ | $\stackrel{\infty}{\infty} \stackrel{\sim}{N} \underset{\sim}{\circ} \underset{\sim}{\infty}$ | $\text { の } 1 \text { N N N N N }$ | $\bar{m} \underset{\sim}{N} \underset{\sim}{N} \underset{N}{N}$ | -~~No on |
| こ!のーロ~N N |  | $\stackrel{o}{\mathrm{~m}} \underset{\mathrm{~m}}{\stackrel{+}{\mathrm{N}}} \stackrel{\mathrm{~N}}{\mathrm{~m}}$ | $\infty \mid \underset{\sim}{\infty} \circ \underset{\sim}{n} \mathrm{~m}$ | $\underset{M}{N} \circ \overbrace{N}^{\infty} \underset{N}{\infty} \underset{\sim}{\infty}$ | $\begin{array}{ccc} \sim \\ \sim \end{array}$ |
|  | $\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}$ | in | $\stackrel{n}{{\underset{\sim}{z}}_{\sim}^{w}}$ | \％ | is |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |






（2）PERCENTAGE OF LOST CALLS
（3）AVERAGE QUEUEING TIME（SECONDS）
（4）AVERAGE TIME IN SYSTEM（SECONDS）
ヅミ゚のま N゚のま N゚のの
M N NON N NON N NOM

O1OONN OOH OOH OM



$\because!$

べにのが
$\underset{\sim}{n} \circ \underset{m}{m} \underset{\sim}{\sim} \quad \underset{m}{n} \circ \underset{\sim}{\infty} \underset{\sim}{\sim}$

の1ごの $\stackrel{\circ}{\infty}$
～○ ${ }^{\text {N N N }}$ N
$m^{\circ}$
m○品罢

$N$
$\sim$
$\stackrel{\infty}{+} \mid \sim N \sim \underset{\sim}{\infty}$
N○M M N
$N$
NON N N N
$\sim$

がMN N




$\underset{\sim}{\infty}$ iN N N M N M N N M N O O O
in：M No in
$m n$
$m$
$\stackrel{m}{\infty} \stackrel{\sim}{N} \underset{\sim}{N} \underset{m}{\infty}$
$\stackrel{\sim}{\sim}$

ま！ののñ
$\stackrel{\circ}{\underset{N}{n}}$
～の ${ }_{\sim}^{\circ} \stackrel{\infty}{\sim}$

$\stackrel{n}{n}: \stackrel{n}{\sim} \infty \times \underset{\sim}{n}$
n m

$\therefore 1$ 으․
$\stackrel{a}{\underset{\sim}{N}}$
윾․․․ ～
$\stackrel{\circ}{-\infty} \underset{\sim}{n} \underset{M}{N}$

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RRVICE
RATE
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LINES
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RA 20
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SERVICE
RATE
20
SERVICE




$$
\therefore 1 m 0=m
$$

$$
\stackrel{m}{m} \circ \underset{\sim}{m} \quad m \circ N m
$$

$$
01 \pm 00
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$$
\stackrel{\sim}{\sim}
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$$
\therefore 10000 \quad \infty \quad \sim \quad 00
$$

$$
0 \circ 00
$$

-1

| 11 |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{O} O N \\ & N \\ & N \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{l:lll} \infty & N \infty \\ & \sim \\ N & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & N \propto \sim \\ & M \sim \\ & \sim \\ & \sim \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{lc} \mathcal{N} \\ 寸 & \sim N \\ \sim & N \\ \sim \end{array}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { E } \\ & \dot{0} \\ & \frac{\infty}{\Sigma} \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 」 | の：Nペ～N | $$ |  |  |  | $\begin{array}{lll} m & n \\ \forall & 0 \\ n & 0 \\ \sim & m \end{array}$ |
| $\underset{\underset{\alpha}{\underset{\alpha}{\alpha}} \underset{\sim}{2}}{ }$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{\alpha} \\ & \lambda \\ & \frac{\alpha}{\alpha} \\ & \frac{\alpha}{\alpha} \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{array}{ccc} M & n & m \\ M \\ \hdashline M & \infty \\ \sim & \infty \\ \sim \end{array}$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \underset{\sim}{\mu} \\ & \stackrel{\alpha}{\sim} \\ & \end{aligned}$ | $\sum_{z}^{u}$ | $0$ | $8$ | $\sum_{i=1}^{n}{ }_{j}^{n}$ | $\stackrel{\square}{3}$ | $\bigcirc$ |
|  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & w \\ & u \\ & \underset{\sim}{w} \\ & \underset{\sim}{\alpha} \\ & \underset{\alpha}{\alpha} \\ & \underset{\sim}{u} \\ & \sim \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |









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This report discusses the costs and benefits associated with automating the route-finding portion of a telephone transit information system. The various costs of implementing such a system are categorized and compared with those of a manual system over an appropriate time span using a present value approach. A queuing model, described in the report, is used for computing manpower requirements of the two systems, manual and automated. Outputs of the queuing model for a wide range of input parameters are tabulated in an appendix. Benefits from automating transit information route-finding are discussed, and measures of performance improvement available as output from the queuing model are provided.
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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The mathematical details of such calculations are described in Section 3.4.

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