

1 **Is Bicycling Contagious? Effects of Bike Share Stations and Activity on System**
2 **Membership and General Population Cycling**

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38 **PAPER SUBMITTED TO THE TRB BICYCLE COMMITTEE FOR:**

39 Presentation at 95th Annual Transportation Research Board Meeting, January 2016, and

40 Publication in the Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation

41 Research Board.

42
43 **SUBMISSION DATE: 8/1/2015**

44 **Word Count: 4329 + 5 figures and tables = 5579 word-equivalents**

45 **ABSTRACT**

46 This paper presents new evidence about the role of bike share systems in travel behavior
47 using a diffusion of innovation framework. We hypothesize that bike share systems have
48 a contagion or spillover effect on (*H1*) propensity to start using the system and (*H2*)
49 propensity to bicycle among the general population. We test the first hypothesis by
50 modeling membership growth as a function of both system expansion *and* the existing
51 membership base. We test the second hypothesis by using bike share activity levels near
52 one's home in a model of household-level bicycle participation and trip frequency.

53 Our study shows mixed results. Bike share membership growth appears to be
54 driven, in a small part, by a contagion effect of existing bike share members nearby.
55 However, we did not identify a significant relationship between proximity to bike share
56 and cycling participation or frequency among the general population. The findings hold
57 implications for marketing, infrastructure investments, and future research about bike
58 share innovation diffusion and spillover effects.

59 **KEYWORDS:** *Bike Share; Diffusion of Innovation; Travel Behavior*

60 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

61 This paper presents new evidence about the role of bike share systems in travel
62 behavior using a diffusion of innovation framework. We hypothesize that bike share
63 systems have a contagion or spillover effect on (*H1*) propensity to start using the system
64 and (*H2*) propensity to bicycle among the general population. We test the first
65 hypothesis by modeling membership growth as a function of both system expansion *and*
66 the existing membership base. We test the second hypothesis by using bike share activity
67 levels near one's home in a model of household-level bicycle participation and trip
68 frequency.

69 Our study shows mixed results, and holds numerous implications for policy,
70 practice, and research. Bike share membership growth appears to be driven, in a small
71 part, by a contagion effect of existing bike share members nearby. However, in this
72 early stage of bike share's evolution, we did not identify a significant relationship
73 between proximity to bike share and cycling participation or frequency among the
74 general population.

75 At the time of writing, this is the first paper the authors are aware of that attempts
76 to assess the effect of presence of bike share stations and trip activity on propensity to
77 bicycle among the proximate population.

78 The next section reviews relevant literature about bike share and bicycle mode
79 choice and participation. The following section describes the data and methodology
80 used. We then share findings about whether bike share influences its own membership
81 and general population decisions to bicycle, respectively. Finally, we discuss the
82 implications, limitations, and opportunities for future research.

83 LITERATURE REVIEW

84 While bicycling is not a new mode, modern bicycle sharing schemes (bike share)
85 are a new phenomenon and can be used as a special case study of the innovation diffusion
86 framework. The rich datasets available from bike share systems open the door for future
87 study about diffusion of system membership, with both social/cultural influences and
88 increasing utility as additional users join the system. Parkes et al. (1) studied the spread
89 of bike share systems through Europe and North America. The number of systems in
90 place over time follows an S curve in Europe and appears to be approaching maturity as
91 of 2012. In North America, the curve appears to still be in the "birth" or early "growth"
92 phase. Therrien et al. (2) studied bike share diffusion at the individual level using a stated
93 preference survey in Vancouver, BC, where residents indicated how likely they would be
94 to use a proposed bike share system. Their binary logistic regression model identified
95 characteristics associated with self-reporting as likely to use the new system, and they
96 stratified their sample based on these characteristics into Rogers' (1962) categories of
97 adopters.

98 Effects of Cycling and Bike Share on Other Modes

99 At the time of writing, this is the first research that the authors are aware of that uses bike
100 share system activity or use measures as explanatory variables for general population
101 cycling. However, research about externalities of cycling and spillover effects of
102 technological adoption is not new. Recent research has explored potential relationships
103 between bike share systems and transit use (3) (4). Ma et al (3) studied association
104 between Capital Bike Share and Washington, DC's Metro rail system. They found that

105 bike share activity within a transit station's catchment area was positively associated with
106 transit ridership, and asserted a spillover effect, though the direction of causality in their
107 findings was not clearly established. Wang et al (5) study neighborhood social effects on
108 mode choice, and Efthymiou et al (6) study factors associated with adopting vehicle
109 sharing systems. More generally, research about nonmotorized transportation oftentimes
110 focuses on public health externalities (7) (8).

111 **Diffusion of Innovation**

112 Diffusion of innovation theory emerged in the first half of the 20th century.
113 Technological innovations diffuse into society following a logistic growth curve. Early
114 demand for the innovation motivates additional future demand. Early diffusion of
115 innovation scholars identified two plausible causal mechanisms for the observed
116 trajectory: (1) income distribution of the population affecting who is able to assume the
117 risks associated with new technologies, and (2) and a heterogeneous population in which
118 certain people are more inclined to be "early adopters" than others(9).

119 Bicycling, although not a "new" innovation, can be analyzed from this
120 framework. From this perspective, the presence of bicyclists on the street has the
121 potential to induce additional demand for bicycling. There is evidence of both the
122 income distribution and heterogeneous population diffusion mechanisms operating for
123 bicyclists.

124 Duesenberry's (1949) income distribution theory posits that the cost of an
125 innovation falls with greater consumption, enabling a larger segment of the population to
126 afford it(9). For bicycling, one major cost is risk or perception of risk. The visibility of
127 cyclists changes driver behavior, which increases the safety for bicyclists (lowers the
128 risk/cost), which in turn increases utility of bicycling for others (10–12). Jacobsen (12)
129 observed an inverse relationship between rates of bicycling and incidence of collisions
130 with motor vehicles across multiple cities, countries, and over time. As drivers see more
131 bicyclists on the street, they learn to anticipate the presence and behavior of bicyclists
132 and drive more cautiously. This is consistent with Duesenberry's cost theory. As the
133 number of bicyclists on the street increases, their visibility triggers greater acceptance
134 and caution among drivers, increasing safety for bicyclists. Put another way, the cost (in
135 terms of risk) falls as more people bike, so bicycling becomes accessible to new segments
136 of the population.

137 Rodgers (1962) argued that innovations diffuse through heterogeneous
138 populations based on individual propensity to adopt new technologies. Rodgers groups
139 the population into five categories based on their adoption speed: Innovators, Early
140 Adopters, Early Majority, Late Majority, and Laggards. Innovators and early adopters
141 readily consume new technologies, while slower groups need to see the technology tested
142 among their peers before they adopt it. With bicycling, this can be thought of as a social
143 influence effect. As bicycling becomes increasingly visible, popular, and normalized,
144 slower adoption groups become more comfortable with the idea of bicycling (13, 14).
145 Evidence from literature suggests that an individual's decision to bike is influenced by
146 their exposure to bicycling in their social network and around the city. Goetzke and Rave
147 (15) found a positive relationship between one's social network and city's bicycle culture
148 and one's propensity to bike for shopping and recreation trips in Germany. Fuller et al.
149 (16) studied the effects of the BIXI public bicycle-sharing scheme (bike share) on all

150 types of bicycling, and found that people who are exposed to the BIXI system are more
151 likely to bike.

152 **METHODOLOGY**

153 **Theory and Hypothesis**

154 In Rogers' heterogeneous population diffusion of innovation theory, bike share systems
155 (e.g., Nice Ride Minnesota) can be thought of as a "brand" of cycling. Adoption of the
156 brand and the technology depend on individual tendencies toward innovation and
157 imitation, and overall rates of adoption. The high visibility of bike share systems and
158 bicycles suggests that bike share systems may have a distinct effect on further adoption of
159 the system and cycling in general. Additionally, the rich datasets available from bike
160 share systems provide a unique opportunity to study diffusion and spillover effects of
161 bicycling.

162 Equation (1) describes the probability of adopting a technology ($b_i(t)$) as a
163 function of both inclinations toward innovation ($p_i(t)$) and imitation ($q_i(t)$) and the
164 proportion of adopters ($G(t)$) at time t , using the equation presented by (9).

$$165 \quad b_i(t) = p_i + q_i G(t) \quad (1)$$

166 Nice Ride, as a "brand" of bicycling, is highly visible. People who have a higher
167 exposure to Nice Ride users are expected to have an increased likelihood of bicycling,
168 due to the larger effects of imitation (q_i). In other words, the probability that an
169 individual adopts Nice Ride (a "brand" of bicycling for the purposes of this study) is a
170 function of that person's tendency toward innovation (early adoption) and their tendency
171 to imitate their peers, taking into account how many of their peers are in fact using the
172 technology (bicycling).

173 We hypothesize that bike share systems have a contagion or spillover effect on:

174 H1. Propensity to start using the system, and

175 H2. Propensity to bicycle among the general population.

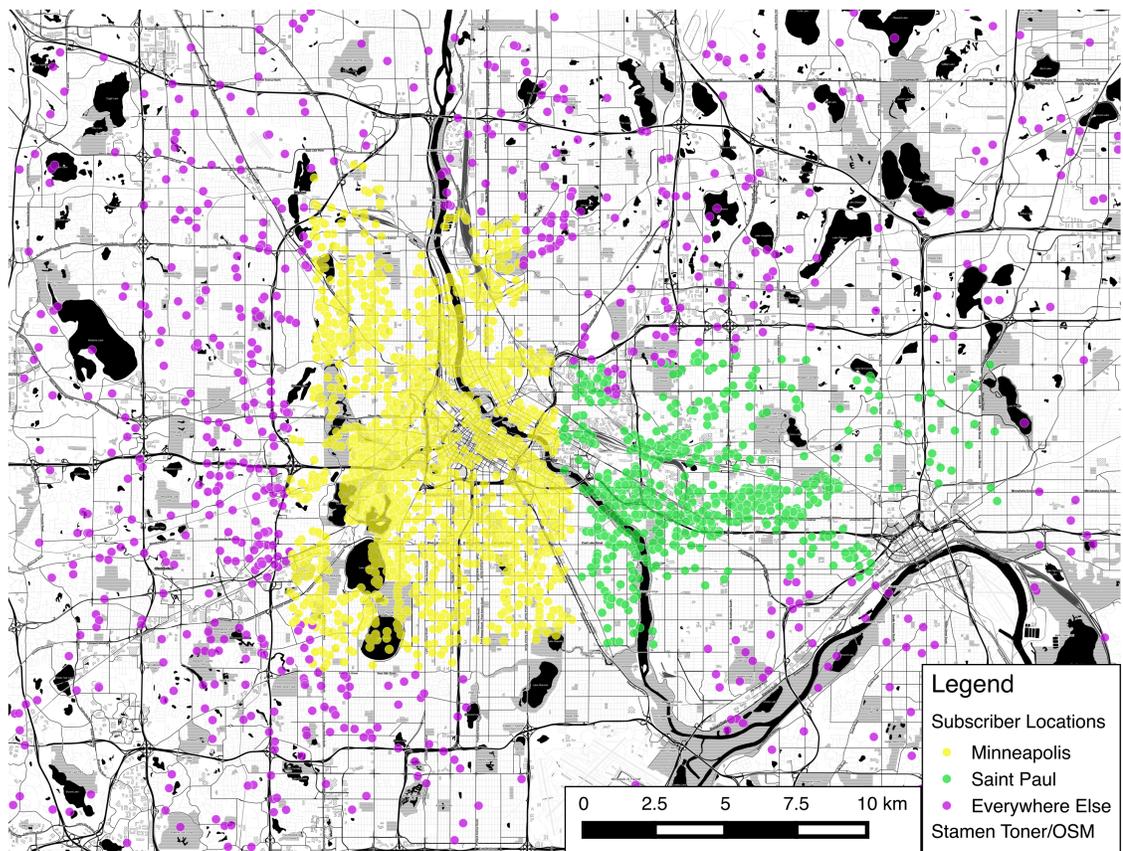
176 We use two different models to test these hypotheses, using Nice Ride Minnesota as
177 a case study. For H1, we use a lagged variable regression model to predict net bike share
178 system membership change in a Census Block Group as a function of prior bike share
179 system membership levels, controlling for system expansion both locally (nearby
180 stations) and system-wide. A positive and significant coefficient on the prior bike share
181 system membership would indicate a potential diffusion of innovation effect in which
182 early bike share adopters influence the decisions of people around them.

183 For H2, we model a household's propensity to bicycle and frequency of bicycle trips
184 as a function of bike share trips starting or ending near the household, controlling for
185 dedicated bicycle infrastructure and population density near the home location and
186 sociodemographic characteristics of the household. A positive and significant
187 coefficient on bike share trip activity would suggest a potential diffusion or spillover
188 effect of bike share on general population cycling, where the visibility of a specific brand
189 (bike share cycling activity) nearby changes one's own propensity to use the technology
190 (any type of cycling).

191 **Data Sources**

192 This study used two main sources of data: trip and subscriber records from the local bike
193 share system, and regional travel behavior inventory survey data about general population
194 households and daily trips.

195 The Nice Ride Minnesota bike share system in Minneapolis and St. Paul has
196 completed five seasons of operation. Ridership has increased steadily from the first
197 season (about 100,000 trips) through 2013 (over 300,000 trips). Nice Ride Minnesota
198 provided a database of subscribers and trips taken on the Nice Ride bike share system.
199 The origin station, destination station, start time, end time, and subscriber ID are
200 electronically recorded for every trip. The subscriber database contains the date joined,
201 age, geographic location, gender, and subscription type. FIGURE 1 shows the geocoded
202 approximate locations of Nice Ride’s subscribers. Walk-up day pass users are not
203 included in the subscriber database or the map.



204
205 **FIGURE 1 Map of Nice Ride Minnesota Monthly, Annual, and 30-day Pay As You**
206 **Go Subscribers.**

207 The regional planning agency (Metropolitan Council) administers a travel
208 behavior inventory (TBI) every decade, which includes travel diaries for all members of
209 households that participate. Data from the 2011 TBI were provided by the Metropolitan
210 Council to explore effects of Nice Ride on cycling among non-Nice Ride subscribers

211 (general population). The TBI surveyed 14,055 randomly selected households (about 1%)
 212 in the Minneapolis-St. Paul Metropolitan Region. Each resident over the age of 5 kept a
 213 24-hour diary with a record of all trips made by all modes. The survey was administered
 214 on weekdays spanning from December 2010 to February 2012, including Nice Ride's
 215 2011 season. The analysis only includes Minneapolis households (N=1,941) due to Nice
 216 Ride's limited presence in St. Paul at that time.

217 Each household record contains the number of trips made by all members of the
 218 household, the number of bicycle trips, sociodemographic characteristics, and a set of
 219 spatial measures around the household (e.g., population density and availability of
 220 bicycle infrastructure near the home). These variables are defined in the next section.

221 **Variables and Modeling**

222 This study included two main sets of models: One testing H1: effects of Nice Ride
 223 system membership on membership growth; and one testing H2: effects of Nice Ride trip
 224 activity on household cycling participation and frequency among the general population.

225 *Nice Ride Membership Growth Model (H1)*

226 The effect of Nice Ride system membership on membership growth was analyzed
 227 using a lagged variable linear model of *net change* in membership density on census
 228 block groups from the previous season as a function of the density of members in the
 229 previous season, controlling for local system growth and system-wide growth. Equations
 230 2A and 2B show these relationships, and variable symbols definitions and descriptive
 231 statistics are presented in TABLE 1. Local growth is measured as net change in station
 232 density from the previous season. System-wide growth is modeled in two different ways:
 233 an indicator variable for the current season, using the 2011 season as the base case
 234 (Equation 2A), or the net change in number of stations system-wide from the previous
 235 season (Equation 2B). For example, there were 65 stations in 2010, and 116 stations in
 236 2011, so the system growth variable for 2011 is $116 - 65 = 51$. The model was built
 237 using data from the 2010, 2011, 2012, and 2013 systems, and 4,199 census block groups
 238 in the cities of Minneapolis and St. Paul.

$$239 \quad \Delta m_{t_0 \rightarrow t_1, i} \rightarrow f(m_{t_0, i}, \Delta s_{t_0 \rightarrow t_1, i}, t_1) \quad (2A)$$

$$240 \quad \Delta m_{t_0 \rightarrow t_1, i} \rightarrow f(m_{t_0, i}, \Delta s_{t_0 \rightarrow t_1, i}, \Delta S_{t_0 \rightarrow t_1, I}) \quad (2B)$$

241 *General Population Cycling Model (H2)*

242 Households near Nice Ride stations, particularly Nice Ride stations with high
 243 levels of use, are hypothesized to have both higher rates of participation in cycling
 244 (defined as any household member making at least one trip by bicycle) and frequency of
 245 bicycle trips than households not near Nice Ride stations. The general population cycling
 246 model explores household participation in and frequency of bicycling. Participation is
 247 defined as whether any household member reported making one or more bicycle trips on
 248 their assigned travel day. Frequency is the total number of bicycle trips made by all
 249 members of the household. Participation and frequency are modeled jointly using a zero-
 250 inflated negative binomial regression model. The explanatory variables included the
 251 number of Nice Ride bike share trips starting or ending within 400 meters (1/4 mile) of
 252 the household, along with other sociodemographic and built environment variables,

253 summarized in TABLE 1. The researchers selected the number of Nice Ride trips
 254 starting or ending within 400m as the key variable of interest. We hypothesized that Nice
 255 Ride’s visibility is the causal mechanism behind a potential spillover effect. Trip activity
 256 at a station implies both visibility of the station itself and visibility of bicyclists using
 257 Nice Ride on the streets around the station, whereas a simple measure of stations near the
 258 household is an incomplete measure of visibility. Due to multicollinearity between Nice
 259 Ride measures, it was inappropriate to use multiple Nice Ride station and trip activity
 260 measures in the same model.
 261

262 **TABLE 1 Descriptive Statistics of Modeling Variables**

Variable	Description	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Hypothesis H1 / Model 1: Spillover Effects on System Membership						
$\Delta m_{t_0 \rightarrow t_1, i}$	Dependent variable: Net subscribers per 1,000 residents from t_0 to t_1 for block group i	4,199	0.56	2.97	-30.36	62.20
$m_{t_0, i}$	Subscribers per 1,000 residents in t_0 for block group i	4,199	1.55	4.71	0.00	78.95
$\Delta s_{t_0 \rightarrow t_1, i}$	Net stations per km ² from t_0 to t_1 for block group i	4,199	0.06	0.87	-23.02	23.02
$\Delta S_{t_0 \rightarrow t_1, I}$	Net stations from t_0 to t_1 for entire system I	4,199	35.00	11.43	25.00	51.00
$t_1 = 2011$	2011 season binary indicator (base case)					
$t_1 = 2012$	2012 season binary indicator					
$t_1 = 2013$	2013 season binary indicator					
Hypothesis H2 / Model 2: Spillover Effects on General Population Cycling						
h_b	Dependent variable: Household participation in cycling (binary)	1,941	0.12	0.33	0.00	1.00
h_{rb}	Dependent variable: Number of household bike trips	1,941	0.40	1.34	0.00	12.00
s_{od}	Number of Nice Ride trips within 400m (1,000’s) ¹	1,941	0.86	2.46	0.00	15.34
e_k	Population density within 400m (people per acre)	1,941	14.31	7.80	0.58	49.32
e_l	Km of bike lanes within 400m	1,941	0.20	0.46	0.00	2.88
e_p	Km of bike trails within 400m	1,941	0.11	0.23	0.00	1.82
h_r	Number of trips by any mode ²	1,941	7.81	5.36	1.00	37.00
h_w	Number of workers	1,941	1.04	0.81	0.00	4.00
h_u	Student(s) (binary)	1,941	0.22	0.42	0.00	1.00
h_c	Child(ren) under 6 (binary)	1,941	0.08	0.28	0.00	1.00

¹ 2010 Nice Ride system data

² Sample restricted to Minneapolis households that made at least one trip

263 **RESULTS**

264 **Diffusion effects on expanding membership**

265 TABLE 2 presents the findings for the diffusion models 1A and 1B of bike share
 266 membership on membership growth. The R^2 for both models are approximately 0.07,
 267 meaning that 7% of the change in block group Nice Ride membership per 1,000 residents
 268 can be explained by system growth (new stations) and membership growth nearby. All
 269 variables in both models are significant. The coefficients for subscribers and increase in
 270 stations are nearly identical between the two models.

271 TABLE 3 shows the elasticities of each variable with other variables held at their
 272 means for Model 1B. A 1% increase in the base year's members per 1,000 residents is
 273 associated with 0.1 additional new members in the following season, suggesting a modest
 274 spillover effect of membership on future membership. The elasticities show that the
 275 system wide growth variable has largest effect on membership growth at the block group
 276 level, with a 1% change in the number of new stations across the system added associated
 277 with an almost 4% change in membership growth, or 2.2 additional new members in a
 278 block group. With the system wide new station variable held at its mean, each 1%
 279 increase in stations per kilometer in a block group is associated with 0.02 additional new
 280 members.

281 **TABLE 2. OLS Regression Model of Spillover Effects on Membership Growth**

Variable	Model 1A			Model 1B		
	Seasonal indicator variables			System growth variable		
	Coef		SE	Coef		SE
$m_{t_0,i}$	0.061	***	0.010	0.061	***	0.010
$\Delta s_{t_0 \rightarrow t_1,i}$	0.300	***	0.052	0.300	***	0.052
$t_1 = 2011$	<i>(Base Case)</i>					
$t_1 = 2012$	-1.353	***	0.110			
$t_1 = 2013$	-1.681	***	0.111			
$\Delta s_{t_0 \rightarrow t_1,l}$				0.064	***	0.004
Constant	1.456	***	0.078	-1.781	***	0.149
R^2	0.0714			0.0713		

*** Significant at $p < 0.01$

** Significant at $p < 0.05$

* Significant at $p < 0.10$

282 **TABLE 3. Marginal Effects of Model 1B Variables on Membership**

	% Change in $\Delta m_{t_0 \rightarrow t_1,i}$	Numeric change in $\Delta m_{t_0 \rightarrow t_1,i}$
	(ey/ex)	(dy/ex)
1% change in $m_{t_0,i}$	0.170	0.095
1% change in $\Delta s_{t_0 \rightarrow t_1,i}$	0.033	0.019
1% change in $\Delta s_{t_0 \rightarrow t_1,l}$	3.990	2.226

Elasticities calculated with other variables held at means

283 **Spillover effects on general population cycling**

284 TABLE 4 presents the results from three different models of bicycling
 285 participation and frequency.

286 The binary logistic regression of participation in cycling has the highest Pseudo-
 287 R², at 0.0810. Although McFadden Pseudo-R² does not have the same interpretation as
 288 R² in linear regression, this still indicates that bicycling is not well explained by this set
 289 of variables. The α parameter is significant in all three models is significant, suggesting
 290 that the dependent variable h_{rb} is over-dispersed and negative binomial regression is
 291 appropriate (shown in TABLE). Additionally, a Vuong test comparing the zero-inflated
 292 models to standard negative binomial regression is significant at the $p < 0.01$ level (not
 293 shown).

294 **TABLE 4. Models of Spillover Effects on General Population Cycling Participation**
 295 **and Frequency**

	Model 2A		Model 2B		Model 2C	
	Binary logit model of participation		Negative binomial model of frequency		Zero-inflated negative binomial model of participation and frequency	
	Coef	SE	Coef	SE	Coef	SE
Participation Equation						
s_{od}	-0.045	0.041			-0.051	0.042
e_k	0.047 ***	0.010			0.045 ***	0.010
e_l	-0.180	0.197			-0.185	0.205
e_p	0.606 **	0.302			0.741 **	0.332
h_r	0.076 ***	0.014			0.067 ***	0.015
h_w	0.392 ***	0.098			0.453 ***	0.104
h_u	0.313 *	0.175			0.282	0.182
h_c	0.006	0.233			0.063	0.248
Constant	-3.897 ***	0.244			-3.714 ***	0.256
Frequency Equation						
s_{od}			-0.026	0.040	0.022	0.025
e_k			0.050 ***	0.012	0.010	0.007
e_l			-0.104	0.236	0.007	0.146
e_p			0.277	0.394	-0.351	0.237
h_r			0.123 ***	0.021	0.044 ***	0.010
h_w			0.227 *	0.123	-0.183 **	0.075
h_u			0.334	0.218	0.134	0.117
h_c			-0.222	0.318	-0.192	0.162
Constant			-3.206 ***	0.293	0.657 ***	0.188
$\ln(\alpha)$			2.369 ***	0.096	-1.754 ***	0.328
McFadden Pseudo-R ²	0.0810		0.0353		0.0650	

*** Significant at $p < 0.01$
 ** Significant at $p < 0.05$
 * Significant at $p < 0.10$

297 The variable of interest, the number of Nice Ride trips starting and ending near a
298 household (s_{od}), is not significant in any of the models. This analysis does not find
299 evidence of a spillover effect of Nice Ride on household participation in and frequency of
300 bicycling. Additional models using the number of stations within 400 meters instead of
301 trip activity were also insignificant.

302 Several other variables were significant in the models, however. Population
303 density was positive and significant in all three models (participation equation only in
304 2C). Bike paths or trails within 400 meters of home were positively associated with
305 participation in cycling (Models 2A and 2C). Additionally, the household structure
306 (number of workers, the presence of students, and over- all number of trips made) was
307 associated with participation and frequency.

308 **DISCUSSION**

309 This research showed a potential diffusion or spillover effect of existing bike share
310 members on future system adoption and membership growth. However, the effect was
311 not apparent when we generalized the research; we found no evidence of spillover effects
312 onto traditional cycling in the 2010-2011 system and survey data. It is possible that this
313 is because bike share members are unique and distinct from traditional cyclists; however,
314 other research suggests this is not the case. For example, bike share members own their
315 own bicycles at roughly similar rates (17).

316 We proposed that bike share trip activity would increase propensity to cycle among
317 people nearby because Nice Ride's presence is particularly visible. However, the system
318 may be too young or too small of a component in the transportation system to have a
319 measurable effect at this time. Bicycling comprises only a small percentage of trips made
320 in Minneapolis and St. Paul, with slightly fewer than 90,000 bicycle trips per day
321 between the two cities (or 5% and 2% mode shares, respectively)(18). In comparison,
322 there were only about 217,000 Nice Ride bike share trips during the entire 2011 season,
323 from April to November, or about 1,000 trips per day – a tiny percentage of an already
324 small mode share. That bike share membership has spillover effects on future members
325 suggests there is potential for broader spillover effects as systems mature. Bike share
326 systems worldwide continue to expand, affording opportunities for future research into
327 spillover effects on larger, more established systems. However, at this time with the
328 levels of data available in this study, there is no evidence of these effects.

329 The findings, especially the significant effect of existing membership on membership
330 growth, have several implications for policy. While the *overall system-wide* growth
331 variable had the largest effect on membership growth in Model 1b, existing membership
332 levels in a block group had a larger effect than *local* system growth. Bike share
333 organizations may be able to harness this energy through “Take your friend on a bike
334 ride” types of marketing schemes. Unless and until future research shows otherwise, bike
335 share systems should not be treated as a substitute for other infrastructure improvements
336 that increase propensity to cycle, such as providing safe facilities.

337 The study design and findings also provide a foundation for new research into bike
338 share diffusion of innovation effects. As bike share systems continue to emerge and
339 evolve throughout the world, so too will new sources of bike share data and opportunities
340 for exploring these relationships. This research has several notable limitations that invite
341 further inquiry to the topic. The travel behavior inventory was administered after Nice
342 Ride had only been operational for one season. Nice Ride's largest system expansion

343 after the initial investment occurred over the second season, which coincided with light
344 rail construction in many of the areas that received new stations. Small segments of the
345 population, such as cyclists, are difficult to represent in general population surveys
346 administered to a low percentage of the population. Although preliminary models
347 controlling for weather did not produce different results in the household bicycling
348 participation and frequency models (not shown in the final model), weather is always a
349 concern when researching nonmotorized travel in extreme climates such as Minnesota.

350 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

351 The authors acknowledge the Center for Prevention at Blue Cross and Blue Shield of
352 Minnesota, the Metropolitan Council, and Nice Ride Minnesota for support of the
353 original studies on which this research is based. They bear no responsibility for the
354 analyses or opinions expressed by the authors in this paper.

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