

Metro-related transfers: A review of recent literature

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Abstract:

Metro constitutes an important form of public transport in large cities throughout the world. As metro transport encompasses long distances and large areas, many metro passengers have to transfer to other transport modes to complete their journeys. This paper reviews recent literature on metro-related transfers, and summarises and discusses key findings and issues regarding transfers between metro and other transport modes. A considerable number of studies in different countries explored transfer behaviour, influencing factors related to metro-related transfers, and travellers' perceptions of and satisfaction with these transfers. The paper discusses characteristics of travel behaviour associated to metro-related transfers and provides important implications for improving travellers' perceptions of and satisfaction with these transfers. It also offers recommendations on aspects of the

24 built environment that could facilitate transfers between metro and other travel modes. The paper is significant
25 in providing policy guidance for the integration of public transit and active and private transport, and is valuable
26 in directing future research in this field.

27 **Keywords:**

28 Metro; Transfer; Travel behaviour; Traveller's perception; Built environment

29

30 **1. Introduction**

31 Metro constitutes an important form of public transport in large cities throughout the world. For many people,
32 metro provides a convenient, reliable, comfortable, fast and affordable transport option for daily trips. In 2017,
33 about 168 million passengers travelled by metro systems per day in 182 cities in 56 countries in the world.
34 Among these metro systems, over 70% started operations within the last two decades. An unprecedented pace
35 of metro development and operation in recent years in a small number of Asian countries contributed greatly to
36 this rapid growth (UITP, 2018). Metro, that has been serving numerous residents for their mobility needs for
37 more than a century, has become an important component of public transport systems. For example, metro
38 accounted for 41% of total daily trips made by public transport modes in the Hong Kong Special Administration
39 Region, China (Transport Department, The Government of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region,
40 2020), and about 35% of total daily trips in London, United Kingdom (UK) (Transport of London, 2020). In
41 large dense cities with road traffic congestion, metro transport, which is more reliable than buses and yields
42 greater time-savings, constitutes a large proportion of long-distance trips made by public transit (Zhao & Li,
43 2017). Metro systems are predominantly located underground, constituting an important part of city
44 underground infrastructure and providing key infrastructure services to urban society (ITA Working Group
45 Number 13, 2004; Bobylev et al., 2012; Cui & Nelson, 2019). Complex underground structures, such as metro,
46 motor car garages, and pedestrian passages with access to shopping facilities, are important inter-modal transfer
47 infrastructure, especially in densely built city central areas (Bobylev, 2016; Cui et al., 2020). In addition, many
48 metro travellers use above-ground transfer infrastructure (e.g. bus stations, taxi depots, park and ride facilities
49 for cycling and driving) when they exit metro stations.

50 Undoubtedly, as metro transport encompasses long distances and large areas, many metro passengers have to
51 transfer to other transport modes to complete their journeys. Transfers are an essential component of a public
52 transit network. In London, 69% of metro trips involved one or more transfers, and in Santiago, Chile, 47%
53 involved one or more transfers (Raveau et al., 2014). Transfers can significantly influence the attractiveness of
54 public transit when travellers choose this travel mode. For example, the number of transfers disadvantages metro
55 use when travellers have a choice between metro and taxi (Li et al., 2018). Therefore, improved design and
56 operation of transfer facilities can increase the attractiveness of public transport, including metro (Zhao et al.,
57 2019). Compactness and shortening walking distances is also important to inter-modal transfer hubs. In addition,
58 connectivity is still a common challenge in developing public transit systems. The provision of varied feeder
59 modes (e.g. cycling, bus, car, walking and taxi) and high-quality feeder transit services connecting to metro
60 systems is a possible solution for the challenge and would increase both the attractiveness of metro transport
61 and passenger satisfaction (Guo & He, 2020; Lin et al., 2019). The integration of various transport modes to
62 improve access and egress trips related to metro stations has drawn global attention.

63 In metro cities, travellers use various modes, such as bus, rail, car, walking, bicycle, and taxi, to access or egress
64 metro stations. Commuting by transferring within the public transit network (including metro, rail and bus) is a
65 green and sustainable travel choice compared to private car use, and needs to be promoted when direct transit
66 lines are unavailable to the travellers to reach their destinations (Ye et al., 2018). Walking is a primary transport
67 mode to access or egress metro, and has healthy benefits and environmentally friendly features that meet
68 sustainable development goals (Bivina et al., 2020). In the urban periphery, where bus services are less
69 developed and metro stations are not accessible by walking, bicycles and taxis become important transfer modes.
70 Residents living in suburban areas use bicycles or taxis to the nearest metro station, and then travel by metro to
71 maximise travel efficiency and cost-effectiveness (Ni & Chen, 2020). Cycling as a transfer mode for short-
72 distance trips to and from transit stations is regarded as an important solution to the “first and last mile” problem
73 for metro services (Zhao & Li, 2017). In addition to traditional bicycles, to increase the use of bikes as a feeder
74 mode for metro, many cities have developed station-based bike-sharing systems or dockless bike sharing (DBS,
75 also called free-floating bike sharing systems) systems. These systems encourage bike use by travellers without
76 the worry of costs associated with purchase and maintenance of private bicycles, and reduce car travel via

77 driving or taxi. In particular, DBS features flexible pick-up and drop-off anywhere and is used on demand via
78 apps on smart phones for locating the nearest bike (Ni & Chen, 2020), enhancing the convenience and
79 affordability of bike use for metro transfers.

80 Metro systems, as the backbone of urban transport systems, are planned holistically, with transport, economic,
81 environmental, social, and technical considerations playing equally important roles (Volchko et al., 2020). Clear
82 understanding of transfer options and public perceptions is important not only for transport planning, but also
83 for urban strategic planning. Intermodal transfer acceptance and convenience for passengers are important
84 elements in urban transport mode policy, and urban sustainability strategy in general. Given the importance of
85 metro transport, the rapid development of metro systems in recent years, and the complex situation of metro-
86 related transfers involving various transport modes, empirical studies on metro-related transfers have been
87 plentiful in recent years. This provides an opportunity to conduct a literature review to synthesise the current
88 status of knowledge about transfers between metro and other travel modes, identify key arguments and aspects
89 of existing studies, and suggest future research directions. This paper reviews the literature on transfers between
90 metro and other transport modes. It explores issues surrounding metro-related transfers using public, private
91 and active transport modes, examining the role of metro-related transfers in transport networks. Transfers
92 included in this review are metro-metro, metro-bus, metro-rail, metro-taxi, metro-bike, metro-walking and
93 metro-car transfers. The research aims to answer the following questions: (1) what is the travel behaviour of
94 travellers transferring between metro and other transport modes, and do they have characteristic transfer
95 behaviours?; (2) how do they perceive their transfer experiences, and are they satisfied with transfer facilities
96 and services?; and (3) what are the factors influencing metro-related transfer behaviour?

97 **2. Methodology**

98 This paper reviews articles derived from searches of major databases, including Science Direct and Google
99 Scholar. Search terms were identified from existing literature and through the expertise of the research team.
100 The search terms included “metro”, “subway”, “underground railway”, “transfer”, “travel behaviour”, “travel
101 behavior”, “perception”, “satisfaction”, “metro-metro”, “metro-bus”, “metro-rail”, “metro-taxi”, “metro-bike”,
102 “metro-walking”, “metro-car” and “park & ride” (P&R). We focused on transport studies, travel behaviour,
103 transport and environment, and planning and design aspects. Since the purpose of this paper is to review the

104 recent literature, synthesise the current status of knowledge about metro-related transfers, and identify evidence
105 to answer research questions, we focused on empirical studies since the year 2000. Only English articles were
106 selected. In the abstract and full-text screening processes, studies were excluded if they do not discuss transfers
107 involving metro or do not provide empirical evidence about the research topic. Articles were cited according to
108 the relevance and value of the articles to the research questions.

109 The framework of this review paper on metro-related transfers is shown in Figure 1. In line with the research
110 questions, this review mainly focuses on three aspects of metro-related transfers: travel (transfer) behaviour,
111 influencing factors of metro-related transfers, and travellers' perceptions and satisfaction. Specifically, travel
112 behaviour studies include those that investigated passengers' transfer behaviour (e.g. mode choice, travel time,
113 travel distance, origin and destination, and travel purpose); studies on influencing factors of metro-related
114 transfers include those that examined socio-economic (e.g. income, education, and employment) and
115 demographic (e.g. gender and age) factors, the built environment (e.g. land use, and transport infrastructure and
116 service), the natural environment (e.g. weather), and other factors (e.g. technology); and studies on travellers'
117 perceptions and satisfaction include those assessing transferring conditions and quality (e.g. safety, accessibility,
118 comfort, convenience, and amenities). The framework of the review is shown in Figure 1.

119 It is unsurprising that the majority of the literature identified and reviewed comprises studies from Asia. The
120 reason is that Asian cities have contributed significantly to the rapid growth of metro development and operation
121 in the last two decades (UITP, 2018). A summary of the literature reviewed (40 publications) is shown in Table
122 1. Studies focus on transfer behaviour (21 publications), the influence of the built environment on transfer
123 behaviour (19 publications), the influence of other factors on transfer behaviour (17 publications), and travellers'
124 perceptions and satisfaction (15 publications). Existing studies employed different types of data (e.g. smart card
125 data, big data, questionnaire survey data, and household travel survey data) to investigate metro-related transfers.
126 Generally, questionnaire survey data and household travel survey data have individual and trip attributes, but
127 sample size is small compared with smart card data, which generally have no personal attributes. Smart card
128 data can be used to explore the spatial (e.g. orientation of connections, and core area vs suburban area) and
129 temporal (e.g. seasonal, monthly and daily) variations in transfer behaviour. Different research methods were
130 applied by previous studies. Most studies conducted descriptive statistical analysis that is appropriate for

131 describing the actual transfer behaviour. Some studies used different models (e.g. route choice models, mixed
132 logit models and multinomial logit models) to analyse the mode or route choice behaviour in detail. Perception
133 and satisfaction were analysed overwhelmingly by regression analysis of questionnaire survey data. The
134 following sections discuss findings from the review to answer the research questions of this paper. The
135 discussion is organised into three main sections: (1) metro-related transfer behaviour and its influencing factors,
136 (2) travellers' perceptions and satisfaction, and (3) the built environment and transfer behaviour.

137 **3. Metro-related transfer behaviour and influencing factors**

138 This section discusses findings from 21 publications on metro-related transfer behaviour and its influencing
139 factors (except for the built environment). A summary of travel behaviour literature is shown in Table 2.

140 **3.1 Transfers between metro and active transport**

141 Sun et al. (2016) conducted a case study on metro-walking transfers in Beijing, China and found that the mean
142 walking time from a metro station to a destination was 8 min., with the walking time consistent for different
143 types of destinations (e.g. recreational, office, and residential destinations). Walking was found to be the most
144 important egress mode of metro transfer trips in Nanjing, China (Wu et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2014), and is
145 particularly suitable for short egress trips within 1 km, and somewhat suitable for trips between 1 and 3 km.
146 Travel time considerably influenced walking as the metro egress mode, for both males and females (Wu et al.,
147 2018).

148 Metro-bike(share) transfer has been a focus of recent metro-related transfer research. One possible reason is
149 that recent metro development occurred primarily in Asian countries where cycling is used as a major transport
150 mode to access or egress metro stations. An increase in bike sharing also contributes to using cycling for metro
151 transfers. When used as a metro transfer mode, cycling is characterised by short travel distance and time, used
152 for trips with purposes that are not time-sensitive or moderately time-sensitive, and used particularly in morning
153 peak "first-mile" transfer trips. Most passengers completed bikeshare rides within 2 km in Nanjing and Shanghai
154 (Ji et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2019). An access distance between 1 and 3 km is positively associated with cycling
155 to metro stations in Nanjing, while for electric bikes, commuters were more likely to ride 1-5 km for metro
156 access trips (Wu et al., 2018). Riding distance was negatively related to metro-bikeshare transfer demand (Ji et

157 al., 2018). However, it is worth noting that the link between bike transfer choice and travel distance to metro
158 stations is not linear: if travel distance is within a reasonable cycling range (about 1-5 km in Beijing's case),
159 cycling is chosen; if the travel distance is above 5 km, motorised transfer modes are chosen; and if the travel
160 distance is below 1 km, walking is chosen (Zhao & Li, 2017). The average travel time to ride a bike to or from
161 a metro station was 8.2 min. with 77% of the trips being less than 10 min. in Shanghai (Lin et al., 2019). This
162 is consistent with the finding in a Nanjing study that commuters preferred to use bikeshare as a feeder mode to
163 transfer to or from metro when the cycling time was below 10 min. (Liu et al., 2020). Very few passengers (5%)
164 ride a bikeshare bike for 30 min. or more for metro transfers in Nanjing (Ma et al., 2018). Cycling, as a transfer
165 mode to access or egress metro stations, tended to be chosen for trips with purposes that are not time-sensitive
166 (e.g. visiting friends and shopping) and moderately time-sensitive (e.g. school and work) rather than trips with
167 purposes that are highly time-sensitive (e.g. business) in Nanjing, China (Chen et al., 2012).

168 Spatial and temporal characteristics can impact metro-bike transfer behaviour. In Shanghai, DBS was widely
169 used for commuting purposes during morning and evening peaks, particularly in the morning, possibly because
170 after work, more free time is available for travellers to choose alternative ways, such as walking, for metro
171 transfers (Lin et al., 2019). There were relatively fewer bikeshare transfer trips in Nanjing on weekends than on
172 weekdays (Ma et al., 2018). The trip duration using DBS for metro transfers in the morning travel peak on
173 weekdays is shorter than that in the evening peak and on weekends in Shenzhen, China (Li et al., 2020).

174 The majority of DBS transfer trips in Shanghai were generated in the dense urban area, suggesting the locations
175 of metro users (Lin et al., 2019). In Shenzhen, the core area had more and denser metro-DBS transfer trips, and
176 a higher share of short-duration trips (up to 7 min.) of all metro-DBS transfer trips, compared to suburban areas.
177 One possible reason is that the distribution density of DBS and the density of metro stations in the core area are
178 much higher than those in suburban area. In addition, compared with suburban areas, the land use and intensity
179 of developments in metro station areas in the core area better facilitate metro-DBS integration (Li et al., 2020).
180 Most bikes were parked at bike-metro transfer facilities in the late morning or early afternoon for half a day (4-
181 6 hours) for a metro station in a commercial district, or in the morning for the whole working time period (8
182 hours and over) for a metro station in a residential district. This possibly relates to work, school, or shopping
183 trip purposes (Chen et al., 2012).

184 The influences of demographic and socioeconomic factors on metro-bike transfers have been given great
185 attention. Wu et al. (2018) found that with ageing, the likelihood of choosing cycling to access metro decreased.
186 Men were less likely to choose cycling to metro stations rather than driving than women (Zhao & Li, 2017).
187 This is somewhat inconsistent with the finding of Wu et al. (2018) that males were statistically more likely to
188 cycle as a metro access mode. Females were positively associated with using electric bikes to access metro
189 stations, while high education was negatively associated with electric bike as an access mode choice (Wu et al.,
190 2018). Middle- and high-income travellers were more likely to cycle than take a bus to metro stations. Those
191 who own cars were less likely to ride bicycles and more likely to drive to metro stations (Zhao & Li, 2017). Wu
192 et al. (2018) found that household electric bike ownership was negatively related to using cycling to access
193 metro stations in Nanjing. Chen et al. (2012) found that between walking and cycling, age, gender, income and
194 bike ownership were not significant determinants of transfer mode choice; and between bus and bike, age,
195 gender, and bike ownership were not significant determinants.

196 Social differences with regard to metro-bikeshare transfers have been examined. There were no significant
197 differences in travel distance and time between males and females, locals and non-locals, and various age groups
198 in a Nanjing study (Ma et al., 2018). Gender (females) did not have a significant influence on DBS use for metro
199 transfers in Beijing (Ni & Chen, 2020). Private bike ownership affected metro-bikeshare use by young
200 commuters: the higher the private bike ownership, the higher the likelihood for them to frequently choose metro-
201 bikeshare for metro transfers. A possible reason is that bike owners mostly have a positive attitude towards bike
202 use, and thus are more likely to choose metro-bikeshare as a travel mode (Liu et al., 2020). An experiment in
203 Kaohsiung, Taiwan examined hypothetical bikeshare services and found that low-income earners, the middle-
204 aged, and local residents owning more than one motor vehicle were less likely to use bikeshare after exiting a
205 metro station, while those who were employed in industry and commerce, and who had bikeshare experience
206 were more likely to use bikeshare to exit from a metro station (Cheng & Lin, 2018).

207 Travellers' attitudes and preferences can also impact metro-bike transfers. In Beijing, travellers with a
208 preference for low-cost travel were more likely to cycle to metro stations, after controlling for socio-economic
209 variables. Travellers who like driving were more likely to travel to metro stations by cars than bicycles (Zhao
210 & Li, 2017). The natural environment (e.g. meteorological conditions) influences metro-bike transfer behaviour.

211 Compared with cloudy weather, bad weather conditions (e.g. foggy and rainy weather) reduced the trip duration
212 of metro-bike transfers in suburban areas in Shenzhen. It is likely that travellers gave up long-distance metro-
213 bike transfer trips due to bad weather conditions. Compared with sunny weather, cloudy weather increased the
214 trip duration of metro-bike transfers in the core area. It is likely that travellers undertook longer metro-bike
215 transfer trips because cycling is comfortable in cloudy weather conditions (Li et al., 2020) because of
216 Shenzhen's subtropical climate.

217 **3.2 Transfers between public transport modes**

218 The median intermodal transfer time between metro and bus varied in different cities. In Rennes, France, the
219 transfer time from bus to metro was very low, with the median time between 2 and 3 min. while it increased to
220 12-13 min. from metro to bus (Richer et al., 2019). The average intermodal transfer time between metro and
221 bus was also low in Seoul, Korea, about 8 min., consisting of walking time (5 min.) and waiting time (3 min.)
222 (Lee et al., 2019) while the median transfer time from metro to bus was below 20 min. in Nanjing, China (Zhao
223 et al., 2019). Bus was the dominant mode for comparatively long metro transfer trips exceeding 3 km in Nanjing.
224 Increased travel time significantly decreased the likelihood of commuters selecting bus to access metro stations,
225 possibly due to the comparatively low reliability of bus services (Wu et al., 2018). Females and older commuters
226 were positively associated with using bus for accessing metro stations, while high income was negatively
227 associated with bus access mode. For egress trips, age was positively associated with bus transfer mode (Wu et
228 al., 2018).

229 A few studies investigated metro-rail and metro-metro transfers. Guo and Wilson (2007) compared metro-rail
230 and metro-metro transfers in Boston, US and found high transfer penalties (longer transfer times) of the two
231 types of transfers (between 8.5 and 17 min. of walking), while a higher transfer penalty was found in metro-rail
232 transfers than metro-metro transfers. The higher transfer penalty for metro-rail transfers was caused by poor
233 connection and design of transport infrastructure. Pass holders, who enjoy free access to metro, had 3.7-3.8
234 minutes' lower transfer penalties compared with cash payers (Guo & Wilson, 2007). For metro-metro transfers,
235 the average transfer penalties in London metro and in Santiago metro were 7.0 min. and 10.2 min. respectively.
236 The larger metro system in London resulted in more transfer possibilities and travellers in London were more
237 used to transferring (Raveau et al., 2014). Moreover, overcrowding is a severe problem in many parts of London

238 metro, causing many metro users to use transfers to avoid overcrowding, although the decisions may be
239 unreasonable in the context of minimising transfer time (Guo & Wilson, 2011).

240 For taxi as a metro transfer mode, there were no obvious differences with regard to transfer proportion and trip
241 direction (from or to metro) during morning and evening peaks in Beijing, China. The majority of metro stations
242 with high ridership of taxi as a metro transfer mode were located in residential and employment areas. The
243 direction of the trip (to or from the metro) did not influence taxi transfer ridership. Females in Beijing were
244 more willing to ride a taxi to metro transfer than males (Ni & Chen, 2020).

245 **3.3 Transfers between metro and private transport modes**

246 A Nanjing study found that long distance (3-5 km and 5+ km) was positively associated with car use for
247 accessing metro stations. Car commuters were highly sensitive to travel time for accessing metro stations, and
248 travel time was negatively related to car use, possibly because drivers value time more highly than other mode
249 users (Wu et al., 2018). Transit station choice for P&R users was primarily determined by access distance and
250 the relative station direction (from their homes to their workplaces) in Greater Toronto and Hamilton Area,
251 Canada. Among the two factors, the influence of changes in station access distance was more significant than
252 changes in the relative station direction to their workplaces. Regional P&R users were more sensitive to access
253 distance than local P&R users (Mahmoud et al., 2014). Being male and having driving licenses were positively
254 associated with car use for metro access (Wu et al., 2018). Technology such as Smartphone multimodal traveller
255 information systems (SMTIS), significantly affected commuter drivers' decisions on changing from driving to
256 P&R in Shanghai, China. Demographic and socio-economic factors (e.g. gender, age, education level, income),
257 and P&R use experience influence the impacts of SMTIS (Gan & Ye, 2018).

258 **3.4 Comparing different transfer modes of metro users**

259 Zhao and Li (2017) compared metro transfer trips using various travel modes in Beijing and found that, with an
260 increase of distance to metro stations, the likelihood of driving or travelling by bus increased compared with
261 cycling. This suggests that when people live or work within a feasible cycling distance from metro stations,
262 cycling is an attractive transfer mode. Yang et al. (2014) found for all metro travellers, averagely, more than a
263 half of the total trip duration (metro travel duration and transfer trip duration) spent on transfer trips. The average

264 duration of a trip accessing metro stations (14.1 min.) was slightly longer than that of a trip exiting metro stations
265 (12.1 min.). Bus users had longer commuting times and spent a higher proportion of commuting times on
266 transfers than other mode users. Most metro commuters who used various transport modes for accessing and
267 egressing metro stations were young adults, commuters with college/bachelor degrees, travellers living in the
268 suburban areas, and those working in central locations.

269 **4. Travellers' perception and satisfaction**

270 Many studies examined travellers' perceptions of and satisfaction with metro-related transfers, since these types
271 of information are significant for identifying the merits and shortcomings of existing transport networks and
272 their planning, design and management, and therefore, finding appropriate approaches to improve the
273 environment and services of metro-related transfers to enhance travellers' transfer experiences. Interestingly,
274 most studies focused on cities in developing countries and regions. One possible reason is that compared to
275 developed countries and regions, transport infrastructure and services of developing countries and regions are
276 still under development, particularly in the context of rapid urbanisation, motorisation, and population growth.
277 Depending on the types of transfer modes, passengers' perceptions and satisfaction have been investigated with
278 regard to cost (e.g. ticket fare and time cost), safety and security, accessibility, connectivity, comfort (e.g.
279 walking environment), performance/service (e.g. waiting time), infrastructure and facilities, design (e.g.
280 accessible design, signage, and aesthetic appeal), amenities, and the impacts of demographic and socio-
281 economic characteristics on travellers' perceptions and satisfaction. A summary of studies on travellers'
282 perceptions of and satisfaction with metro-related transfers is shown in Table 3.

283 **4.1 Transfers between public transport modes**

284 Safety and security around metro stations, bus stop accessibility, connectivity between the subway station and
285 the bus stop, and the reliability and performance of bus services were reported to be the most important
286 conditions that significantly affected commuters' overall transfer experience in Bangkok, Thailand (Cherry &
287 Townsend, 2012). This finding is consistent with Cheng and Tseng's (2016) finding in Kaohsiung, Taiwan that
288 the enhancement of perceived value (e.g. convenience, accessibility, and high-quality service) was a priority for
289 travellers during their metro-bus transfers. In addition to perceived values, perceived transfer penalties (e.g. due

290 to poor connectivity and service, low comfort level and high time cost) and free bus transfer were also important
291 influencing factors on passenger transfer intentions (Cheng & Tseng, 2016). Comparatively, physical amenities
292 (e.g. signage, bus shelter, and sidewalk quality) were less important (Cherry & Townsend, 2012).

293 In Santiago, Chile, commuters reported disutility of intermodal station transfers, since the few intermodal
294 stations that were available in the city had very crowded transfer environments and long waiting and walking
295 times during rush hours (Navarrete & Ortuzar, 2013). After the city launched a new metro line, comparatively
296 negative perceptions of intermodality and transfers were reported by metro users, possibly due to the depth of
297 new metro tunnels and platforms, since they were constructed below the existing metro network. Therefore,
298 passengers must spend considerable time using stairs, escalators or elevators in their transfers (Pineda & Lira,
299 2019). Commuters valued the availability of an escalator, particularly when their transfers involved station-level
300 changes. For both males and females, the more transfers travellers have to make, the higher the valuation of
301 escalator availability; females more preferred the availability of escalators than males. Among different transit
302 transfer combinations, metro to metro and metro to bus were preferred, compared with bus to metro and bus to
303 bus, indicating that metro, as a superior mode, was preferred as the main component of the journey (Navarrete
304 & Ortuzar, 2013).

305 **4.2 Transfers between metro and active and private transport modes**

306 Research on travellers' perceptions of and satisfaction with transfer metro and active transport focuses on metro
307 and walking transfers. A high-quality walking environment that enhanced comfort, security and pleasure could
308 offset the negative effects of longer walking times in Xi'an, China (Li et al., 2017). This is consistent with a
309 study in Delhi, India, that travellers' perception of walking accessibility to metro stations can be better explained
310 by their satisfaction with various factors of the built environment than walking distance to metro stations (Bivina
311 et al., 2020). In addition, the built environment factors at the microscale (e.g. comfortable walking environments,
312 high-quality walking infrastructure and facilities, and accessible design) had more significant impacts on
313 perceived walking accessibility, compared with the built environment factors at the mesoscale (e.g. population
314 and employment densities and land use diversity) (Bivina et al., 2020).

315 In a case study of Kolkata, India, Sadhukhan et al. (2015) found that pedestrian environment and visual
316 communication were perceived to be more important than the ticket fare or direct cost, an interesting finding
317 that is inconsistent with the common belief that the ticket fare (cost) is the primary concern of public transport
318 systems in developing countries like India. A possible reason for this perception is that aggressive vendor
319 activities occupied pedestrian walkways near metro stations, resulting in a poor pedestrian environment and low
320 level of comfort of walking to and from metro stations. Signage to direct passengers to other transport mode
321 stops in some metro stations were missing. A Beijing study indicated that perceived greater visual connectivity
322 was related to shorter walking time. Perceived barriers to crossing the street (e.g. extreme street width, bridges
323 or stairs to underground passageways, and wide intersections often lacking medians) negatively impacted on
324 walking access to metro stations. Aesthetic appeal of the pedestrian realm affected walking time, and better
325 design of the walking environment related to better walking access (Sun et al. 2016). Car ownership influenced
326 metro commuters' perceptions with regard to the importance of transfer facility attributes at metro stations in
327 Kolkata city, while gender did not show this influence (Sadhukhan et al., 2018). Age and vehicle ownership
328 moderately and positively affected perceived walking accessibility, while trip purpose had a negative influence.
329 Income positively impacted on perceived walking accessibility (Bivina et al., 2020).

330 Travellers' perceptions about the choice of P&R for metro transfers (car-metro and bike-metro transfers) was
331 examined. Generally, commuters tended to use P&R to pay less in Shanghai, China. If commuters believed the
332 cost of P&R exceeded the cost of driving, most of them would not use P&R; if commuters believed the travel
333 time of using P&R was the same as or just little more than that of driving a car, most tended to use P&R. Income
334 and age were negatively related to using P&R; people with lower income and younger travellers were more
335 likely to choose P&R. Time sensitivity had significant impact on the use of P&R, and travellers with urgent
336 time schedules preferred P&R. Comparatively, the impact of cost sensitivity was not very significant. Therefore,
337 reducing travelling time was more effective in attracting more P&R users than reducing travelling costs (Liu et
338 al., 2012).

339 **4.3 Comparing different transport modes of metro users**

340 Yang et al. (2014) found that facility service qualities, as the primary factors in both access and egress, influence
341 the overall satisfaction of metro-related transfers in Nanjing. Escalators were highlighted as important transfer

342 facilities in Beijing. The installation of escalators, adding more escalators and better management of escalator
343 use were listed as the top three requirements from travellers (Ji et al., 2013). This is possibly because of Beijing
344 metro's long operation history of more than half a century; escalators are not always available or convenient to
345 use at old metro stations. Commuters' perceptions differed with regard to influencing factors on transfers with
346 the same access or egress mode (Wu et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2014). For example, bike-metro-bus users had
347 low average perceptions of bike parking safety, while bike-metro-walk users valued parking spaces near metro
348 stations. Bus-metro-bus users reported a negative perception about crowded spaces on buses (comfort) in the
349 access stage, while bus-metro-walk users valued the reliability of bus services (Yang et al., 2014). Compared
350 with commuters using other transport modes, commuters using metro always have a higher time sensitivity and
351 have a lower perceived transfer disutility (Ye et al., 2018).

352 **5. The built environment and metro-related transfers**

353 The impact of the built environment of the metro station area on metro-related transfers is examined by many
354 studies. Studies focused on built environment factors including density (e.g. population density, job density and
355 car density), diversity (e.g. mixed land use and job-housing balance), design (e.g. accessible design), destination
356 accessibility or transfer distance (time), connectivity, land use (e.g. type, number and percent), transport
357 infrastructure and facilities, and transport service. A summary of studies on the impacts of the built environment
358 on metro-related transfers is shown in Table 4.

359 **5.1 Transfers between metro and active transport**

360 Existing studies examined accessibility and connectivity impacts on metro-walk transfers. Physical obstacles to
361 crossing streets increased walking time, while greater connectivity decreased walking time. Greater connectivity
362 and pedestrian-friendly designs in metro station areas may facilitate walking access to metro stations (Sun et al.
363 2016). How the built environment impacts on metro-bike transfers is the focus in research on the built
364 environment and metro-related transfers. Accessibility was believed to be a key determinant of metro-bike
365 transfer behaviour. The frequency of bicycle-metro trips was positively related to a trip distance of no more than
366 500 m and was negatively related to a trip distance of more than 500 m (Wu et al., 2019b). Transfer distances

367 were negatively associated with DBS use in Shenzhen (Guo & He, 2020) and bikeshare use in Beijing, Taipei
368 and Tokyo (Lin et al., 2018) for metro transfers.

369 Land use (e.g. type, number, percent) was found to be an influencing factor on metro-bike transfer behaviour.
370 Mixed land use was positively associated with the use of bikes for metro transfers in Shenzhen. Residential land
371 use encouraged the use of bikes to access metro stations during the morning peak. Industrial land use had a
372 positive association with metro-bike integration. Parks and public squares increased the likelihood of use of
373 DBS for both metro access and egress trips during peak times (Guo & He, 2020). This finding is consistent with
374 another study in Beijing that found that the number of public parks was positively associated with the use of
375 bikes to and from stations. The friendly cycling environment provided by parks (e.g. less traffic and fewer car-
376 cycling conflicts, and no waiting for traffic lights) encouraged cycling behaviour (Zhao & Li, 2017).

377 Recreational land use encouraged metro-bikeshare transfers since travellers whose trip origin or destination was
378 recreational land were more likely to use bikeshare for metro transfers in Nanjing. Although traffic congestion
379 might be a problem around recreational locations for cyclists, the relatively higher density of bikeshare stations
380 allowed easy access to bikeshare by travellers, particularly for those who preferred cheap and time-saving modes
381 (Ji et al., 2018). This finding is inconsistent with that of a Beijing study that found the number of shopping
382 destinations was negatively associated with the likelihood of cycling to or from the metro station by commuters
383 (Zhao & Li, 2017). One major reason might be that the concentration of shopping destinations decreased land
384 use heterogeneity in metro station areas, discouraging cycling activities. Meanwhile, a concentration of
385 shopping malls in the metro station area encouraged walking (and shopping) behaviour. In the suburbs with a
386 large number of shopping malls in the metro station area, a large number of free parking spaces were usually
387 available and thus encouraged the use of cars (Zhao & Li, 2017).

388 Metro stations that were closer to the city centre and used by a higher number of passengers had more use of
389 DBS for metro transfers (Guo & He, 2020). Commuters whose home or workplace was close to a suburban
390 metro station, compared with those whose home or workplace was close to a metro station in the city centre,
391 were more likely to drive or travel by buses than cycle for metro transfer trips in Beijing. A possible reason was
392 that compared with the city centre, in suburbs the distances to metro stations were usually longer, and the cycling
393 facilities and services were fewer (Zhao & Li, 2017).

394 Density impacts on metro-bike transfers. The population density of the metro station areas significantly
395 influenced travellers' intentions of using bikeshare for metro egress trips (Cheng & Lin, 2018). Compared with
396 Taipei, population density and student density had more positive associations with bikeshare use, and transfer
397 distance had fewer positive associations with bikeshare use in Beijing; population density had more negative
398 associations with bikeshare use in Tokyo (Lin et al., 2018). On weekends, the population density in the suburbs
399 was positively associated with access duration, due to insufficient metro facilities, resulting in longer access
400 duration in Shenzhen (Li et al., 2020).

401 Transport infrastructure and facilities in metro station areas also considerably affect the choice of cycling for
402 metro transfers. The length of local roads was positively associated with the likelihood of using cars rather than
403 bikes in a Beijing study, possibly because many local roads in the station area encouraged motorised travel
404 (Zhao & Li, 2017). The length of branch roads was negatively related to cycling access duration; the impacts
405 were significant in the core area for weekdays, weak in the suburb for weekdays, and weak on weekends (Li et
406 al., 2020). Dedicated bike lanes were positively associated with DBS use for metro transfers in Shenzhen (Guo
407 & He, 2020). This is inconsistent with another study in Beijing that found the length of exclusive cycling lanes
408 was not associated with using cycling for metro transfers, an unexpected finding possibly due to the fact that
409 exclusive bicycle lanes were often occupied by cars as parking spaces in Beijing, particularly near metro stations
410 (Zhao & Li, 2017). The length of bicycle lanes did not significantly reduce access duration of DBS (Li et al.,
411 2020). Areas with dense metro distribution and main streets with many intersections were negatively associated
412 with DBS use for metro transfers (Guo & He, 2020). On weekends, the number of road intersections was
413 positively related to access duration, and the impacts were less significant on weekends due to less congested
414 roads. On weekdays, the number of major roads was positively associated with access duration (Li et al., 2020).
415 The availability of motorcycle parking spaces significantly impacted on travellers' intentions of using bikeshare
416 for metro egress trips (Cheng & Lin, 2018). Bike P&R spaces significantly impacted on metro station ridership
417 (Zhao et al., 2013).

418 Transport services in metro station areas are found to be a vital determinant of cycling for metro transfers as
419 well. The number of public bikes in the station area was positively associated with commuters' use of cycling
420 for metro transfers in Beijing (Zhao & Li, 2017). Bus stops was positively associated with bike use for metro

421 transfers in Shenzhen (Guo & He, 2020). This is inconsistent with the findings of Zhao and Li's (2017) study
422 in Beijing and Ji et al.'s (2018) study in Nanjing which found that the availability of many bus lines (bus density)
423 increased the likelihood of using bus rather than cycling (Zhao & Li, 2017). The density of other metro stations
424 in a metro station area was negatively associated with the transfer demand of bikeshare at the metro station. The
425 possible reason is that the density of metro stations was significantly and positively related to local development
426 level and high density, which often indicate heavy road traffic and potential high risk of injury for cyclists,
427 therefore, discouraging bikeshare use (Ji et al., 2018). The density of bikeshare stations in the metro station area
428 was positively associated with bikeshare use for metro transfers (Ji et al., 2018). Larger bike catchment areas
429 were related to better metro service, more frequent morning trips, more diverse users, and larger distances to
430 the city centre and terminal stations, but less dense metro stations (Lin et al., 2019). The road congestion level
431 was positively related to access duration on weekdays, and impacts were less significant on weekends due to
432 less congested intersections on weekends. The number of metro entrances and exits was significantly and
433 negatively related to access duration in the suburbs (Li et al., 2020).

434 **5.2 Transfers between metro and other transport modes**

435 Population density positively affected metro-bus transfer efficiency while the density of companies negatively
436 affected transfer efficiency between metro and bus in Seoul, Korea (Lee et al., 2019). Case studies in Nanjing
437 (Zhao et al., 2013), Shanghai (An et al., 2019) and Taipei (Lin & Shin, 2008) indicated that the numbers of
438 feeder bus lines and bus stops significantly and positively impacted on metro ridership, suggesting that
439 convenient metro-bus transfer promotes metro use. More edges between the access bus points within the
440 walkable area of a metro station entrance and other bus stops increased the level of accessibility of the metro
441 station areas and metro-to-bus intermodal transfers (Wu et al., 2019a).

442 With regard to metro-metro transfers, the length of the transfer passage negatively impacted on metro-metro
443 transfer efficiency and reduced the likelihood of metro use in Seoul. The new metro lines connected to existing
444 transfer stations that were not designed for such expansion resulted in longer transfer passage and reduced
445 transfer efficiency (Kim et al., 2017). For London Underground, the oldest metro system in the world that has
446 operated since 1863, the availability of an escalator, the longer ramps, and transferring at the same level
447 improved travellers' transfer experience in such an extensive network (Guo & Wilson, 2011).

448 With regard to P&R, the number of parking lots negatively affected metro ridership on weekends, indicating
449 that convenient parking facilities discourage public transit usage (An et al., 2019). Access distance significantly
450 affected transit station choice for P&R users in Greater Toronto and Hamilton Area, Canada (Mahmoud et al.,
451 2014). With regard to taxi, population density, the number of residences and offices, and economically
452 developed areas (measured by housing prices) positively influenced taxi use, and the number of nearby metro
453 stations negatively impacted on taxi transfer ridership. Commuters in the central areas with high housing prices
454 and well-developed arterial road network preferred taxi, especially during the evening peak (Ni & Chen, 2020).

455 **6. Discussion and conclusion**

456 This paper reviews recent literature on metro-related transfers, and summarises and discusses key findings and
457 issues regarding transfer behaviour, influencing factors related to metro-related transfers, and travellers'
458 perceptions of and satisfaction with these transfers. The review findings and the recommendations from the
459 review are summarised in Figure 2 and discussed below.

460 This research identified the characteristics of travel behaviour of metro-related transfers. Metro-bike(share)
461 transfer has been a focus in recent metro-related transfer behaviour research. When used as a metro transfer
462 mode, cycling is characterised by short travel distance and time, used for trips with purposes that are not time-
463 sensitive or moderately time-sensitive, and used particularly in morning peak “first-mile” transfer trips. Walking
464 is an important travel mode for metro transfers and most suitable for short trips (e.g. within 1 km walking
465 distance or around 8 min. walking time) to different types of destinations. Travel time significantly influenced
466 walking as a metro egress mode. The median intermodal transfer time between metro and bus varied in different
467 cities, ranging from 2 min. to 20 min., and bus was the dominant mode for comparatively long metro transfer
468 trips exceeding 3 km. However, existing studies rarely discussed weekday, holiday and time-of-year differences
469 in metro-related transfers. Considering that people’s travel behaviour (e.g. trip purpose, travel time and duration,
470 and trip destinations) on holidays may be very different from that on weekdays, and people may have different
471 travel patterns at different times of the year, these issues may form the basis of future research topics. In addition,
472 existing studies mainly focused on the influence of socio-economic and demographic factors on metro-related
473 transfers, but few studies examined other factors such as the natural environment (Li et al., 2020) and technology

474 (Gan & Ye, 2018). Future studies are needed to further investigate additional factors and comprehensively
475 consider the impacts of different types of influencing factors on metro-related transfers.

476 With regard to travellers' perceptions of and satisfaction with metro-bus transfers, safety and security around
477 metro stations, bus stop accessibility, connectivity between the subway station and the bus stop, and the
478 reliability and performance of the bus service significantly affected commuters' overall transfer experience.
479 Perceived values, perceived transfer penalties and free bus transfer are also important influencing factors on
480 passenger transfer intentions, while physical amenities are less important. Crowded transfer environments, long
481 waiting and walking times, and deep metro platforms result in negative perceptions of transit transfers. With
482 regard to transfers between metro and active transport modes, comfortable walking environments, visual
483 connectivity, high-quality walking infrastructure and facilities, and accessible design significantly impact on
484 walking accessibility. Age, income and vehicle ownership affect metro commuters' perceptions about metro-
485 walking transfers. Commuters tend to use P&R due to affordability. Income and age are negatively related to
486 using P&R. Time sensitivity significantly impacted the use of P&R, while cost sensitivity was not very
487 significant.

488 There are important implications for improving travellers' perceptions of and satisfaction with these transfers.
489 For example, research indicates that reducing travelling time was more effective in attracting P&R users than
490 reducing travelling costs. Policies or initiatives focusing on reducing P&R users' travelling time can facilitate
491 the switch from driving to more sustainable transport modes for parts of commuters' journeys. Obviously, many
492 metro passengers will have to transfer to other transport modes to complete their journeys after exiting metro
493 stations. Across different transport modes, generally, safety and security around metro stations have been
494 highlighted as significantly impacting on travellers' perceptions of and satisfaction with metro-related transfers,
495 particularly in developing countries like India. Facility service quality (e.g. escalators, comfort, accessibility
496 and reliability of feeder modes) influence overall satisfaction with metro-related transfers. Comparatively, the
497 ticket fare/ direct cost and physical amenities (e.g. signage, shelter, and sidewalk) are less important. There are
498 many potential planning and design strategies that may improve travellers' perceptions of and satisfaction with
499 metro-related transfers. For example, metro station areas can be treated as public realms, designing the physical
500 form of these areas for public space use, considering the urban context and how the station areas fit together

501 with other elements of the urban form, and developing metro station areas to meet the desired planning and
502 design objectives that are preferred by commuters. The service quality of infrastructure and facilities for metro-
503 related transfers is an important research topic. Questions regarding how to increase time efficiency, safety and
504 security, thus improving travellers' perceptions of and satisfaction with these transfers, require further
505 investigation. Existing studies mainly focused on performing cross-sectional studies and presenting short-term
506 results related to commuters' perceptions and satisfaction, as well as factors that influence metro-related transfer
507 behaviour. Future research using longitudinal studies is needed to better understand metro-related transfers.

508 This review also shed light on factors that affect metro-related transfers. Commuters' demographic and socio-
509 economic characteristics were associated with bus access and egress travel. Females and older commuters were
510 positively associated with using bus for accessing metro stations, while high income was negatively associated
511 with bus access mode. For egress trips, age was positively associated with bus transfer mode. High transfer
512 penalties exist in metro-rail and metro-metro transfers. The ownership of transit passes decreased transfer
513 penalties. Metro stations located in residential and work areas have high ridership of taxi as a metro transfer
514 mode. Gender difference exists with regard to using taxi for metro transfers. For example, females in Beijing
515 were more willing to ride a taxi to metro transfer than males. Long distance is positively related to car use for
516 accessing metro stations, while travel time is negatively associated with car use. Gender and technology
517 influence the use of cars for metro transfers.

518 Built environment affect metro-related transfers. Accessibility and connectivity impact on metro-walk transfers.
519 Great connectivity and pedestrian-friendly designs in metro station areas facilitate walking access to metro
520 stations while physical obstacles to crossing streets increase walking time. Accessibility, land use, density,
521 transport infrastructure and facilities, and transport services are key determinants of metro-bike transfer
522 behaviour. Density and bus infrastructure and service affected metro-bus transfer. The types of metro stations,
523 the length of the transfer passage, the availability of an escalator, longer ramps, and transferring at the same
524 level impact on metro-metro transfers. With regard to taxi, population density, the number of residences and
525 offices, and economically developed areas positively influenced taxi use and the number of nearby metro
526 stations negatively impacted on taxi transfer ridership.

527 These findings also offer policy recommendations on aspects of the built environment that could facilitate
528 transfers between metro and other travel modes. For example, to encourage cycling and walking – both cheap,
529 healthy, convenient, and sustainable transport modes – for metro transfers, the focus needs to be on the areas in
530 close proximity to metro stations. Transit-oriented development (TOD) policies are promising approaches for
531 promoting mixed land use, high-density developments and good connectivity, resulting in short distances
532 between metro stations and residential or job locations, facilitating the use of walking and cycling for metro
533 transfers; TOD has been implemented in many cities with emerging metro services. The study of metro-related
534 transfers in TOD precincts would be a useful future research direction. In addition, an obvious substitution
535 effect between cycling and bus use have been found at metro station areas with regard to metro-related transfers.
536 Considering the characteristics of cycling and walking as metro transfer modes, the distribution of bus
537 stations/stops at metro station areas may play an important role in affecting travellers’ choice of transfer mode.
538 An improvement in feeder bus services at station areas may have the result of decreasing metro-cycling transfers.
539 This is a dilemma facing policy-makers, particularly in cities where bike-transit integration may be an approach
540 to the “last mile” problem for metro and rail services. The effects of various metro-related transfer modes on
541 other transfer modes require future investigation. In addition, comparative studies involving two or more cities
542 would provide significant insight into metro-related transfers.

543 This review contributes to the planning of metro transport, a key public transport mode (especially in mega
544 cities), with emphasis on the integration of metro with the whole transport network via promoting smooth
545 transfers between metro and other transport modes. This study contributes to a better understanding of metro-
546 related transfers and the value of promoting metro transport and public transit towards sustainable development
547 goals. The paper provides important policy guidance for the integration of public transit and active and private
548 transport, and is valuable in directing future research in this field.

549 **Data Availability Statement**

550 No data, models, or code were generated or used during the study.

551

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