2012

Life Cycle Cost Analysis of Five Urban Transport Systems

BUS METRO RAIL MONORAIL LIGHT RAIL TRANSIT BUS RAPID TRANSIT

Funded by

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

It is crucial that India implement efficient and reliable Urban Passenger Transport Systems to ensure the sustenance of a high growth rate and alleviation of poverty. According to a study, by 2030, India will have more than 68 cities having a population of above a million people and 590 million Indians will be staying in cities and towns, twice the American population today. Further, cities' contribution to the GDP growth will be nearly 3/4th and more than 70% of new employment will be generated there. McKinsey's assesses that India need to construct 2.5 billion square meters of roads and 7,400 Km of Metro and Subways in the twenty year time-frame ending 2030. The urban transport scenario in India is unsatisfactory - there is severe quantity and quality deficit. The country is unmistakingly on the path of rapid increase of motorisation, which has accelerated in the past two decades.

The choice of the Urban Transport System is the key decision point for cities, states and the central government. It is most relevant because different classes of cities and different corridors in the same city require different public transport solutions. The country has so far failed to develop objective criteria for the selection of public transport modes. The Working Group for Urban Transport for the 12th Five Year Plan has suggested a shift from the current DPR based approach selection criteria to PHPDT, City/Town Population and Average Motorised Trip Length based.

Nonetheless, it will be appropriate if PHPDT, population and trip length criteria can also be clubbed with the "Cost Based Comparative Approach" to arrive at the proposed appropriate mix of public transport systems.

This study focussed at introducing a scientific cost based approach of arriving at "The Full Life Cycle Cost of different systems"- thereby making "Life Cycle Costs of the Systems" integral to informed decision taking. From this perspective the study marks a paradigm shift and IUT believes that the final outcome of the report shall be first tool available for informed decision making in the country by the policy planners and the union/state/city governments to make the choice of a particular urban transport mode or a combination of that.

Equally importantly, the study has focused on seeing the impact of external environment changes like changing inflation index, variation in interest rates and fluctuation of interest rates etc. that often influence and impact the systems stability and cost over its operational life. The purpose of this exercise has been to ensure that commercial decision-making is informed more particularly from the point of view of appropriate price discovery and consequent transparent subsidy regime definition, if such a situation emerges.

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In this report, IUT has evaluated five urban transport systems namely Metro Rail, Mono Rail, Light Rail (both at grade and elevated), Bus Rapid Transit System and Ordinary bus Services.

It is important to note that a system like metro rail has a civil structure (approximate 50% of CAPEX) whose life span runs in many decades (more than 50 years), whereas a system like normal urban bus service has a life span of just 10 years. Various components of different systems show substantial variability in terms of their life and such variability has been carefully accounted for. As a part of analysis due care has also been taken to emphasise how different systems with varying life and varying capacity limitation behave for life cycle cost analysis.

At the beginning of this research, a hypothetical case was assumed based on which the initial LCC of the urban transport systems has been calculated. A hypothetical case of 20 km corridor having a PHPDT of 15,000 is considered for which the LCC has been calculated for 30 year duration for each chosen system. Towards the end of the study, the results have been applied to real life scenarios.

Metro Rail System

Metro Rail is the most prevalent urban transport system in the world after urban bus and has gained further momentum in the recent years particularly due to upswing in the global crude prices. At present more than 175 cities in the world have operational metro rail, while 50 more are in the process of constructing it – 25 of them in China and 9 of them in India itself. The system has a flexible PHPDT carrying capacity and it varies from 20,000 to up to 90,000 depending upon the type of systems used (which impacts the minimum headway), rolling stock and train set configurations (depend upon the design of civil structures like station length).

For the purpose of this study, to understand the Capital Expenditure (CAPEX) requirements of this system, the actual construction costs as well as the DPR costs of Delhi Metro Rail Corporation (DMRC) Ph II, DMRC Ph III, Hyderabad Metro Rail Limited (HMRL), and Kochi Metro have been analysed. Post analysis of detailed aspect wise construction and implementation cost, CAPEX assumptions taken for this system (at 2012 prices) for the hypothetical 20 km corridor. The O&M cost data of this system has been assumed from the time series O&M data of DMRC which is currently the only operational large scale metro rail system in India.

Mono Rail System

Monorail is a sleek, elevated transit system which can be built to efficiently serve areas where metro rail cannot penetrate. As it requires a very narrow right of way, and navigate such areas which Metro Rail cannot, it can comfortably be built in an area dominated by high-rises and sharp turns.

Mumbai monorail which is under construction has an assumed PHPDT in first and last year of Project life between 7000-8500 PHPDT whereas the latest DPR of Kozhikode puts the first and last year peak PHPDT as 7000-11500 approximately. A three car mono rail system has been planned both for Mumbai and Kozhikode. A three car system depending upon specification can carry between 400-500 passengers. A monorail can carry a maximum PHPDT of about 28,000 if the highest possible system configuration is taken into account.

To understand the CAPEX requirements for this system, the available costs of Kozhikode Monorail, the proposed three corridors of Delhi Monorail and under construction Mumbai Monorail system have been used. The cost data of Kozhikode Monorail which is latest has been used as the basis of making assumptions in this study.

As no monorail system is presently operating in the country, the O&M costs data has been approximated by IUT using available number from project reports, emerging international trends and O&M cost benchmarks. Also the O&M cost data of first year of Kozhikode (2015-16) has been used to derive the O&M cost for the first year in this study for the hypothetical case.

Light Rail System

Light Rail or LRT is a preferred mode where ample right of way is available. Built at-grade or elevated (in portions of narrow right of way). Since LRT is generally built at-grade, they take away the pavement size thereby leaving less space for other modes of commute and may also have interfering space with bus and personalised vehicles. Unless segregated, they tend to ply at slower speeds as their speeds are restricted by other traffic flows, especially at junctions. In the Indian context, with the unplanned spread of the cities, providing the right of way at-grade may not be easy.

The Light Rail System is a preferred mode of transport in areas with a maximum PHPDT of around 23,000 for elevated structure. At grade LRT because of the inherent limitations of a mixed used traffic has a lesser systems capacity.

Elevated LRTS is known for being more efficient and has higher carrying capacity than monorail. Modern Light Rail has in recent decades made a comeback in Europe, Australia, and Americas and in recent years even in Asia.

Only 2007-08 price level CAPEX data is available for Delhi LRT and the same has been escalated to arrive at the cost of the hypothetical 20 km LRTS at 2012-13 levels. The O&M data of no Light Rail System is available as on date in the Indian context and thus for the sake of simplification per km O&M Cost of Elevated Light Rail has been assumed at the same level as that of Elevated Monorail

Bus Rapid Transit System

The Bus Rapid Transit System or BRTS is generally a closed mass rapid transit system with dedicated lanes for bus operations. Since its conception as a viable option in Latin America, many cities have adopted it with varied results. BRT is an advanced bus system serving travel corridors with an operational advantage such as exclusive lanes and traffic preference on signals. BRT is faster and more reliable service than ordinary bus services. BRT systems possess a unique advantage of implementation as they ply on segregated Right of Ways (ROW).

BRTS has arrived late in India - even later than arrival of Delhi Metro Phase I. Two cities - Delhi & Ahmedabad have commissioned a few kilometres of BRTS. While the BRTS of Delhi has performed sub-optimally since inception, Ahmedabad's experience has been somewhat better. Today, a dozen cities are planning or implementing BRTS. But the efficacy of the system in cities where ROW segregation at grade has difficulties is yet to be established.

Exceptions apart, the system can passenger flow of 4,000 to 10,000 PHPDT is what can be achieved with BRTS, more so in Indian consideration, and has much lower costs than the other transit systems like metro rail, monorail and light rail. But headway of 0.6 minute has been observed at different intersections of Delhi BRTS which has also been assumed for this study.

CAPEX estimates for BRTS have been derived using data from detailed project reports of Ahmedabad Phase I, Phase II and of Rajkot. Though O&M Cost Data for varied timeline is available, it has been considered prudent to base the assumptions made out of the most

recent comparable data available for DTC, BEST, BMTC, MTC(Chennai) & Thane taken from the Journal of Indian Transport (CIRT, Pune) – Latest Edition (April – June 2012). Also since it for ordinary bus systems, an additional O&M cost for the OCC, Security etc. has been incorporated to arrive at the BRTS O&M cost data to be used for this study. To bring the latest O&M cost to present price level a 9% increase was assumed for the manpower and 5% for the other costs.

Ordinary Bus Services

Ordinary Bus Service is a building block of any public transport system across the globe. The requirement of capital expenditure to kick start/maintain this system is one of the lowest among the other modes of urban transport and the bus operator does not have to contribute to the capital costs of creation of infrastructure. Till very recently, ordinary bus was the only mode of public transport in Indian cities. Except Mumbai (before arrival and expansion of Delhi Metro), all principal cities heavily depended on this mode. In many Indian cities, buses do carry up to fifty per cent of all the people commuting by mechanised transport. In Mumbai, whose lifeline is the suburban rail network, the ridership of buses is equally impressive at 5-6 million per day. On the contrary, in Delhi, DTC and Delhi Metro routes are not rationalised DTC is carrying daily commuter trips of 4.5 million.

An ordinary bus service can manage a passenger flow of 3,000 to 5,000 PHPDT. In medium and large sized cities, even today, ordinary buses remain and shall be the predominant mode of urban transport except in higher density corridors, where metro rail systems get created with time.

The CAPEX information for this mode is primarily picked from the Recommendations of Working Group on Urban Transport for 12th Five Year Plan. Similar to BRTS system, the O&M cost data of ordinary bus services have also been assumed from the latest available cost data of bus systems of different metropolitan cities in the CIRT journal.

Assumptions

It has been observed that in general headway of 2.5 minutes to 3 minutes is best suited for rail based system. Thus headway of 2.5 minutes has been considered for all rail based systems. In addition headway of 1 minute has been assumed for ordinary bus services whereas the same has been assumed at 0.6 minutes for BRTS. Based on the headway and capacity of coaches assumed at peak carrying capacity of 6 persons per square meter the total rolling stock requirements have been derived. For the sake of comparison, cost of per unit rolling stock has been assumed at Rs. 10 Crore for all the 3 systems. A station distance of 1 km for Metro Rail, station/shelter distance of 750 m for Monorail, Light Rail and BRTS system and shelter distance of 500 m for ordinary bus services has been assumed. The CAPEX requirements for five systems are presented in the table below:

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CAPEX of BRTS and ordinary bus is presented below:

The Working Group Report suggests the requirement of a depot for every 50 buses, with the cost per depot at Rs. 8 Crore. It also estimates one workshop for every 250 buses at Rs. 20 crore, as well as a terminal for every two million population for another Rs. 20 crore, The depots, workshops and terminal costs suggested in the WG report are inclusive of land acquisition and machinery costs.

CAPEX requirements of At Grade Light Rail are as below:

The assumptions which were taken in this study for deriving the operations and maintenance cost of the urban transport systems are divided mainly among three critical parameters:

After accounting for the 20% regeneration potential of present day modern rolling stock the average per car km traction energy consumption for metro rail, mono rail and light rail systems have been assumed as 2.38 KWh, 1.57 KWh and 1.96 KWh respectively. Similarly for auxiliary energy consumption a consumption of 250 KWh and 2200 KWh has been assumed for each station and depot respectively. For this study, IUT has adopted the initial electricity supply rate of Rs. 4 per KW (2012 prices). The same has been escalated at a rate of 5% per annum.

For bus based transport system efficiency of 3.5 km every litters/kg of fuel has been assumed. Since in general most of the bus based transport system in India is running on diesel thus IUT has considered diesel as fuel at Rs. 45 per litre, with an annual price increase at 5%. The model also incorporates CNG as an alternative fuel choice to ensure that the future scenarios are amiably depicted. The CNG price chosen for this study is Rs. 40 per kg with an escalation of 5%.

The staff requirement per km derived for the various systems has been provided in the table below:

For every bus a staff requirement of 5 has been assumed which has been segmented upon Traffic, Workshop & Maintenance, and Administration & Account. Similarly for rail based systems a detailed break up has been made for the staff required to carry out the operations as well as for the maintenance works.

Another important consideration in relation to Human Resources is the remuneration, for this purpose, a system average has been chosen based on the 6th Pay Commission. The remuneration has been kept at an average of Rs. 9 lakhs per annum with a yearly increment of 9%. The Assumed Unit Cost of Repair & Maintenance (2012 prices) is below:

For bus based systems, the repair and maintenance cost is assumed as:

Conclusions

The LCC derived for the various modes in the hypothetical case are as follows:

Headway for Rail Based Systems has been assumed at 2.5 minutes, whereas for BRTS it has been assumed at 0.6 minutes and for Ordinary Buses at 1 minute.

*LCC per seat (in INR Lakh) at NPV for the assumed lifespan of 30 years

**Number of Seats has been ascertained by multiplying the capacity of each vehicle set with the total sets required for the functioning of the system as ascertained in *Annexure I – [Rolling Stock Requirement Assessment.](#page-73-0)*

It is evident from the above table that LRTS (At Grade) has the least per seat life cycle cost of Rs 15.26 lakh. The LCC of both bus (Rs 17.34 lakhs) and BRT (Rs 22.21 lakhs) is higher than that of LRTS (At Grade). The LCC of Metro rail is high because it is a high capacity mode, much beyond the assumption of 15000 PHPDT made for the hypothetical case. Therefore for a proper comparison, the LCC of various modes has been calculated at different PHPDT levels i.e. demand or usage levels. The result is summarized in the table below. At this hypothetical stage it has been assumed that the capacity of the modes is not a limitation. This aspect of modal capacity and feasibility has been examined later in this section.

As evident from the above table, LRTS (At grade) remains the cheapest mode at various levels of demand. In all cases LCC reduces substantially as the PHPDT i.e. demand increases except in the case of the buses. Furthermore, in terms of life cycle cost, elevated LRTS also becomes cheaper than BRTS above 15,000 PHPDT.

The table further illustrates that elevated LRTS is cheaper than Metro rail at all PHPDT levels i.e. demand levels. Between Metro rail and Monorail, the table shows that monorail is cheaper than Metro rail up to 15000 PHPDT. However Metro rail is cheaper than Monorail above 15000 PHPDT. A comparison between Metro rail and Monorail is irrelevant because monorail is a medium capacity mode and also as Monorail is recommended for special locations where the road right of way is limited and elevated Metro rail or elevated LRTS will be unsuitable for environmental reasons.

Impact of Capacity Limitations

In actual practice, all modes have an upper limit to capacity; for example bus with a capacity of 80 persons operating at 1 minute headway can carry a maximum of 4,800 PHPDT and not 15,000 PHPDT as assumed in the hypothetical case. Similarly, Metro rail is a very high capacity mode compared to Monorail, LRTS and BRTS. The limiting capacity of each mode depends on factors such as the number of coaches in a train and the frequency of service. The maximum capacity of a mode as per the coach configuration of the train is presented in the table below. The LCC corresponding to each configuration is depicted in the last column of the table.

Headway for Rail Based Systems has been assumed at 2.5 minutes, whereas for BRTS it has been assumed at 0.6 minutes and for Ordinary Buses at 1 minute.

*LCC per seat (in INR Lakh) at NPV for the assumed lifespan of 30 years

It may be noted that with the increasing mode capacity and hence PHPDT, LCC for Monorail and LRT fall substantially in comparison to Metro rail, BRTS and Bus Services.

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1 INTRODUCTION

The World Bank, in its "Strategy Note on Urban Transport in India", holds firmly to the notion that it is crucial that India implement efficient and reliable Urban Passenger Transport Systems to ensure the sustenance of a high growth rate and alleviation of poverty. It further emphasises that such impact of urban transport on poverty reduction happens both through its indirect effects as a stimulator of poverty reducing growth and through its direct effects on the quality of life of the people. The McKinsey Report "India's urban awakening: Building inclusive cities, sustaining economic growth"¹ estimates by 2030 India will have more than 68 cities having a population of above a million people and 590 million Indians will be staying in cities and towns, twice the American population today. Further, cities' contribution to the GDP growth will be nearly 3/4th and more than 70% of new employment will be generated there. McKinsey's assessment of urban transport infrastructure requirement is humongous – just to take two critical parameters, the report assesses the need for constructing 2.5 billion square meters of roads and 7,400 Km of Metro and Subways in the twenty year time-frame ending 2030.

The urban transport scenario in India is unsatisfactory - there is severe quantity and quality deficit. The country is unmistakingly on the path of rapid increase of motorisation, which has accelerated in the past two decades. A study by Ministry of Urban Development (MOUD), Government of India, presents the following dismal scenario of the share of public transport in different classes of cities:²

Table 1-1: Traffic and Transportation Policies and Strategies in Urban Areas (May 2008)

The current country status is one of huge public transport infrastructure deficit and equally troublesome lack of last mile connectivity and safe infrastructure for non-motorised transport. Obviously, the country is in need of fast movement away from motorization to rapid provisioning of public transport.

The choice of the Urban Transport System is the key decision point for cities, states and the central government. It is most relevant because different classes of cities and different

² Page 24 "Recommendations of Working Group on Urban Transport for 12th Five Year Plan"

l ¹ "India's Urban Awakening: Building inclusive cities, sustaining economic growth", McKinsey Global Institute (April 2010)

corridors in the same city require different public transport solutions. The country has so far failed to develop objective criteria for the selection of public transport modes. The Working Group for Urban Transport for the 12th Five Year Plan has suggested a selection criteria based on the PHPDT, City/Town Population and Average Motorised Trip Length. The Working Group suggested criteria are as follows:

Table 1-2: Selection Criteria of Mass Rapid Transit Mode

The above, for the first time provides a tool for decision taking. Nonetheless, it will be appropriate that the above criteria is superimposed with the "Cost Based Comparative Approach" to arrive at the proposed appropriate mix of public transport systems, to decide one system in preference of the others and to arrive at transparently determined pricing mechanism for different urban transport systems. The current approach which decision takers follow for metro rail, monorail and BRTS is a DPR based approach. A project is approved based on upfront investment costs (EPC costs) associated with such systems. For buses it is more "top down" largesse under JNNURM, while LRT as a system has not yet been introduced in the modern avatar.

This study focussed at introducing a scientific cost based approach of arriving at "The Full Life Cycle Cost of different systems"- thereby making "Life Cycle Costs of the Systems" integral to informed decision taking. **From this perspective the study marks a paradigm shift and IUT believes that the final outcome of this report shall be the first tool available for informed decision making in the country by the policy planners and the union/state/city governments to make the choice of a particular urban transport mode or a combination of that.**

In addition to EPC costs, PHPDT and route length linked Operations and Maintenance costs, interest and other associated costs and replacement cost during the project life period have been considered integral to such an analysis. The emphasis has been to ensure that these costs are embedded in the process of calculating the "composite Life Cycle Cost" and "Unit Life Cycle Cost" duly taking into account all internalities and externalities, to arrive at a better understanding of how the sustenance of such a system impact the economies of scale with the purpose of assisting the correct decision making at the time of investment. Equally importantly, the study has focused on seeing the impact

of external environment changes like changing inflation index, variation in interest rates and fluctuation of interest rates etc. that often influence and impact the systems stability and cost over its operational life. The purpose of this exercise has been to ensure that commercial decision-making is informed more particularly from the point of view of appropriate price discovery and consequent transparent subsidy regime definition, if such a situation emerges.

The prime emphasis of the analysis of the "Life Cycle Cost of Public Transport Systems" has been its role in choosing a specific public transport mode suitable for a particular city or for a particular corridor of a city. Apart from being a key decision point in investment decisions, Life Cycle Cost Analysis as finally arrived at shall be critical input to the government and service providers in transparent pricing of the services/transparent provisioning of subsidy on the pricing regime.

Based on comparison of the LCC across the modes i.e. the lowest overall cost while achieving the required level of service in a hypothetical controlled context, IUT has evaluate, the following principal modes of public transport:

2 APPROACH AND METHODOLOGY

"Life-cycle costing" (LCC) is an economic evaluation tool used to compare available alternatives. Our approach for this study was developed carefully to meet the key objectives of the engagement in an organized, efficient and timely manner. Thus the approach followed built on success factors identified by IUT and the working team for the study from their previous experience of similar assignments. It is a combination of approach and skill that helps in delivering the assignment requirements.

A key factor for this assignment was to collect information related to Capital Expenditure and Operating & Maintenance costs from various primary and secondary sources. In our approach, a multi-disciplinary team was brought together significant national and international relevant experience in urban transport, O&M cost optimization of transport modes, financing transport projects, PPP, capacity building etc. Also the team included two uninitiated young members to bring out of box thinking.

A modular approach has been the key differentiator of our approach to this assignment; which has ensured in keeping a check the overall quality of the final output. The study has been carried out principally following a modular approach. The key modules are:

2.1 Module I - Scope and Objective Finalization

For the purpose of this study, five key urban public transport modes were selected which are – Metro Rail, Monorail, Modern Light Rail, Bus Rapid Transit and Ordinary Bus Service. The chosen systems represent "the big picture" of public transport in urban space. Since each of the selected urban transport modes has a different cost (both initial capital cost and recurring operating and maintenance cost), life, carrying capacities etc.; their life cycle cost comparison presented special difficulties. Because of which, within the common analysis parameters, the per unit life cycle cost too was attempted.

At the beginning of this research, a hypothetical case was assumed based on which the initial LCC of the urban transport systems has been calculated. A hypothetical case of 20

km corridor having a PHPDT of 15,000 is considered for which the LCC has been calculated for 30 year duration for each system. Towards the end of the study, the results have been applied to real life scenarios. The detailed methodology followed for the study is represented below:

Figure 1: Approach & Methodology Flowchart

It is important to note that a system like metro rail has a civil structure (approximate 50% of CAPEX) who life span runs in many decades (more than 50 years), whereas a system like normal urban bus service has a life span of just 10 years. Various components of different systems show substantial variability in terms of their life and such variability has been carefully accounted for. As a part of analysis due care has also been taken to emphasise how different systems with varying life and varying capacity limitation behave for life cycle cost analysis.

2.2 Module II - Primary and Secondary Information Collection

The landscape of urban transport in India presents a special difficulty with regard to robust data collection.

The oldest and most prevalent system of urban transport in the country is ordinary bus service and the nation, till very recently did not have an "Urban Bus Specification". The legacy services of BEST, DTC and other major cities used to run on buses made on truck chassis manufactured by Tata Motors and Ashok Leyland. These services had low capacity, low life spans and very high O&M costs. The man-power to bus ratio in these institutions too are abnormally high at 10 persons per bus.

The bus landscape has changed somewhat with the introduction of low-floor buses, AC buses and higher life span Volvo buses. At one end of cost efficiency are Bangalore City Bus Service and the first cluster bus services run by DIMTS in Delhi, and at the other end are old legacy urban bus transport services. As a part of the study, all these aspects needed harmonisation and normalization from cost perspective and the same has been carefully attempted.

On the contrary, in the case of Metro rail, the highest of the urban transport hierarchies has construction costs data and stabilised O&M cost data only available from one city and one organisation (DMRC). Of the other operational systems – Kolkata cost data is not comparable and Bengaluru's 6.7 kilometre long operational stretches is just one year old. Nonetheless, in case of metro rail estimated capital costs and estimated O&M cost data is available from the completed DPRs of a dozen cities. IUT during this module started with DMRC data, analysed other proposed system's data and has carefully arrived at its own normative numbers.

India has no operational monorail system. As yet there is no clarity available as to what is going to be the completed unit cost of construction of the Mumbai Monorail project. However, updated (December 2011) prefeasibility cost data for monorail in Delhi (Shastri Park to Trilokpuri) and DPR cost data (May 2012) for proposed monorail in Kozhikode are also available, both estimated CAPEX and OPEX. IUT has used the available data to arrive at its normative data post analysis of such cost data, duly comparing it with

internationally benchmark-able data. In the case of monorail, both CAPEX and OPEX have variability based upon the systems and technology platforms selected and IUT has tried to harmonising the same.

Modern light rail is so far an alien system for the country. The only domestic cost data available is a dated DPR (2007-08 price level) for approximately 45 km of light rail in Delhi. Apart from updating CAPEX and OPEX data in this DPR, IUT has also attempted at learning and gain insight from recent developments in the arena from Europe, Canada, Australia and other countries. An effort has been made to arrive at normative cost, duly taking into account the technological changes and growing technological platforms for LRT systems.

Likewise, BRTS as a system is new to India and except Delhi and Ahmedabad there are no operational systems. Nonetheless various DPR figures are available for CAPEX of fixed infrastructure. IUT has taken into account these numbers and the assumptions available in the latest reports of working group on urban transport for the 12th Five Year Plan. For BRTS allowances have been made for O&M data of depots, workshops and control centre.

During the stage of the preparation of the Intermediate Report, primary data was collected through various domestic agencies such as Delhi Metro Rail Corporation (DMRC), Delhi Integrated Multimodal Transit System (DIMTS), Brihan Electricity and State Transport (BEST), Delhi Transport Corporation (DTC), Bangalore Metropolitan Transport Organisation (BMTC), Larsen and Toubro (L&T) etc. The relevant data from feasibility reports, detailed project reports and completed costs wherever available too has been considered. The primary data was captured for all the cost aspects associated with the particular system operator and classified as direct and indirect costs. In addition, information was also collected for the trend in macroeconomic indicators such as interest rates and inflation index. During this stage, information was also collected with regards to the incorporation of inflation index by the urban transport operators in their actual costs for the next stage of analysis.

The culmination of this module was presented as the interim report, which inter-alia, among other aspects, also provided detailed cost assumption for each mode for derivation of the Life Cycle Cost Analysis (LCCA).

2.3 Module III - Life Cycle Cost Analysis

The first task of this module has been to finalize the mechanism for adjusting the impact of inflation index on the direct & indirect costs of the selected systems. Since the O&M cost of any urban transport system largely varies due to inflation, rise in ridership and ageing of system, a regression was done to generate an equation defining the relationship of inflation, ridership, and ageing of systems to the O&M costs. For all the selected systems, it was assumed that the full capacity will be reached within five years of their

commencement of operation, thus assigning the variation in costs with the change in inflation. A scientific analysis of inflation has been done for all the five major areas – manpower costs, energy costs (Oil, CNG or electricity as the case may be), normal repairs and maintenance costs, major overhauling costs and replacement costs over their 30 year operation cycle. The special problem in this inflation analysis is that all five vary in a non-linear manner.

As a final outcome of this study, an excel model of life cycle costs for all the selected five urban transport systems has been developed. Post this; the present value of this cost was derived. An analysis has been performed to calculate the per seat life cycle cost for all the five systems.

While making the 30 year life cycle cost calculations, two scenarios have been considered. The first scenario considers only the direct costs, whereas the second scenario considers both the direct and a suitable allocation of indirect costs.

At the end of this stage, sensitivity analysis for the selected fixed parameters has been included.

3 METRO RAIL SYSTEM

3.1 About the system

Metro Rail is the highest in the hierarchy of public transport systems. It normally runs at fully grade-separated right-of-ways. Metro rail is a high-capacity system with a train consisting of four to ten cars. Metro rail systems require an exclusive, completely grade-separated alignment, thru subways or elevated structures. The carrying capacity of Metro rail can be up to 70,000- 80,000 per hour per direction traffic (PHPDT) depending upon the capacity of rolling stock used, the train configuration and the installed systems (signalling and telecom to provide minimum possible headway).

Table 3-1: Metro Rail Capacity

Metro rail as a system is costly to build, operate and maintain. Nonetheless, for corridors with a Per Hour per Direction Traffic (PHPDT) of over 20,000, it is the only system of urban transport which works.

Metro Rail is the most prevalent urban transport system in the world after urban bus and has gained further momentum in the recent years particularly due to upswing in the global crude prices. At present more than 175 cities in the world have operational metro rail, while 50 more are in the process of constructing it – 25 of them in China and 9 of them in India itself.

Depending upon grade (elevated or underground), the quality and size of the stations, type of rolling stock (including automation features), signalling and other systems, ATS, ATP and ATO, both the CAPEX and the OPEX of metro rail show great variance.

3.2 CAPEX Information

The Indian tryst with capital cost estimation of Metro Rail started with Phase I of Delhi Metro. Capital cost estimates of Bangalore, Hyderabad and Chennai DPRs were based on awarded tender costs of DMRC Phase I. Recent capital costs like Pune, Ludhiana, updated Kochi, Lucknow, Jaipur, Navi Mumbai and Delhi Metro Phase III, have at its base the completion cost data of DMRC Phase II.

Though land costs in different cities are different, for a logical comparison, IUT has harmonised the land cost through averaging out and a specific percentage has been taken as the land cost. Though it has been possible to collect all the DPR's capital cost data, a representative sample of unit rates is provided below. Some of the estimates for obvious reasons are lump sum estimates (e.g. bridges, depot and OCCs) and have been subsequently averaged at the time of making the assumptions:

Table 3-2: Capital Cost Pricing Comparison

As completion costs of Ph-II of Delhi Metro and the estimated costs of Ph-III is the latest and most of the DPRs too have been prepared by DMRC, an average two has been used for making the capital cost assumptions at 2012 price. For bringing the cost to current level, a 5% annual escalation has been assumed.

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3.3 Operation & Maintenance Cost Information

The oldest operating metro rail system in the country is Kolkata, whose O&M cost is totally outside the comparative framework because of dated systems and very high per kilometre manpower deployed as compared to the modern systems. Bangalore has so far started operations of 6.7 km of network, which has just completed first year of operations (operations started in October 2011), and both its fixed infrastructure and systems are currently in defects liability period and do not reflect the representative cost structure.

As such only stabilised O&M cost is of Delhi Metro and many years data is available from this system. IUT has attempted harmonising of the O&M cost of DMRC for every year with the total passenger carried and the total length of the operating network during the year.

It can be seen from the table that staff cost and energy costs followed by repair and maintenance costs are the three key determinants of the O&M cost. But for subsidised energy (at no profit no loss), the energy costs have potential to become the highest contributor to O&M Cost.

Also, as the system becomes older, man power cost shall increase (because of more number of services to accommodate growing commuter numbers) and the repairs and maintenance cost too will increase because of aging and extensive utilisation effect. During the thirty year time span, there will also be need for replacement and refurbishing of systems including rolling stock. Rolling stock can be expected to have a life of 25 years (can be extended further with refurbishing) and S&T, Traction and other systems have a lesser time span of around 15-20 years.

A calculation of per km O&M cost for various years of Delhi Metro is given below.

Table 3-3: DMRC O&M Cost (2004-10)

LIFE CYCLE COST ANALYSIS OF FIVE URBAN TRANSPORT SYSTEMS *Bangalore Metro Rail Corporation Limited*

As evident form the above table, Staff cost is the most significant O&M cost in the list which was overtaken by energy cost in between but has remained the highest in 2009-10. Energy cost in the initial years of operations where less and has significantly increased over the period of five years. Per km O&M cost of DMRC has increased at an average 16.82% in the given five year data.

For the purpose of this study, per kilometre O&M cost of DMRC has been taken at 2010 prices and has been further escalated to arrive at 2012 prices. The O&M cost for the base year of operation i.e. year 2016 has been assumed at about Rs 166 Crore. A further micro analysis of the Repair and Maintenance cost of DMRC has been done to derive the unit R&M costs and is presented in the table below:

Table 3-4: Unit Repair and maintenance cost of DMRC

Thus the above table depicts that the per station maintenance cost of buildings has increased but has stagnated at about Rs 29 lakh per station per annum. Similarly the plant and machinery cost which is directly proportional to the rolling stock requirements has increased steadily after the completion of the initial Defect Liability Period (DLP) and has become an average of Rs 12.5 Lakh per car per annum. The other costs pertaining to repair and maintenance has remained low in the later years and were average 2.2% of the building and plant and machinery cost in the last three years of the available data.

4 MONORAIL SYSTEM

4.1 About the system

The Monorail is a sleek, elevated transit system which can be built to efficiently serve areas where metro rail cannot penetrate. As it requires a very narrow right of way, and can navigate such areas which Metro Rail cannot, it can comfortably be built in an area dominated by high-rises and sharp turns.

The cost of monorail system lies between the cost of LRT and elevated Metro rail. It can be a feeder to metro rail. It also has applicability for specific corridors in second and third tier cities, particularly where metro rail is not justified or feasible and bus services are sub optimal option. Even in metropolitan cities, where Metro Rail covers the main arterial networks, it can play the role of feeder service in carefully identified corridors.

At present one monorail system is under construction in Mumbai- and its PHPDT in first and last year of Project life is estimated between 7000-8500 PHPDT. Similarly, the latest DPR of Kozhikode puts the first and last year peak PHPDT as 7000-11500 approximately. A three car mono rail system has been planned both for Mumbai and Kozhikode.

Monorail and elevated LRT are similar in that they operate on elevated guide ways but monorail operates on guide way requiring only one beam (normally concrete) and mono rail cars have rubber tires. The beam typically measures around three feet in width. Two ways system requires two beams separated 5 m apart. A three car system depending upon specification can carry between 400-500 passengers. Its traction is typically 750 volt DC. It can be configured to run as driver less system.

Monorail systems can realize a number of benefits when compared to elevated LRT:

- Better performance on steep grades. It is quieter rubber tires on concrete or steel guide-ways.
- Less imposing elevated structure as it comprises of narrow beams are less wide than LRT
- Easier and less expensive construction as narrow beams requires less construction material and allows for use of pre-fabricated segments.

But true efficacy of monorail as a sustainable urban transport mode has many unanswered questions, *the biggest of them being switching and evacuation in an emergency.* IUT has tried to create both best case and optimum case scenario and few other cities are likely to follow the lead of Mumbai, Kozhikode, Delhi and Trivandrum.

4.2 CAPEX Information

It has been possible to source detailed cost data of Monorail from a) 3-corridor, 48 km proposed monorail project at Delhi 2007-08 feasibility report and b) The most recent capital cost data from DPR of proposed 14.2 Km Monorail at Kozhikode. Updated summary cost data for the 11.5 Km long Shastri Park – Trilokpuri corridor at Delhi has also been collected. The detailed cost estimates of 19.54 km under construction monorail at Mumbai is Rs. 2,716 crore, which comes to approximately 140 crore per km and is likely to rise higher.

The estimated costs for the Kozhikode Metro have been represented in the table below:

**Elevated structure at 22.55 crore per km, Stations at 8.8 crore each and E&M at 1.47 crore, including lifts & elevators at stations. Other costs have been estimated at lump sum basis.*

***The signalling cost is taken at 9 crore per km, telecom at 2 crore per station and AFC at 2.3 crore.*

The capital cost details of 3-corridor Delhi Monorail of 47.8 km as per the cost estimated at 2007-08 price level is in the table below:

Table 4-2: Delhi Monorail (3 – Corridor/47.8 Km) Capital Expenditure Estimates

Summarized cost up to date of 11.5 km long 12 station monorail corridor between Shastri

Park and Trilokpuri in East Delhi is as follows:

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Table 4-3: Shastri Park - Trilokpuri Monorail Capital Expenditure Estimates

As the data pertaining to Delhi Monorail is of a feasibility report conducted in 2007-08 and updated recently, the same has not been considered for assumptions. In its place, the cost data of Kozhikode Monorail which is latest has been assumed as the basis of assumptions. As Kozhikode Monorail data is at April 2012 price, no escalation is required to be assumed.

4.3 Operation & Maintenance Cost Information

As no monorail system is presently operating in the country, the O&M costs data has been approximated by IUT using available numbers from project reports, emerging international trends and O&M cost benchmarks. A rudimentary O&M cost data for first year operations of proposed 47.8 km monorail was estimated at Rs. 82 crore for 2011-12. Year-wise projected O&M cost data for proposed 14.2 km Kozhikode monorail is available with IUT and is tabulated below:

Table 4-4: Kozhikode Monorail O&M Cost Estimates

With regards to the operations and maintenance costs of Monorail systems, it is important to note that energy costs are the biggest expense, which at minimum varies between 35 – 45 per cent of the total expenditure. The second important cost component is the staff cost and per kilometre staff of 25 as assumed for the Kozhikode metro is compared apt (Per km manpower for Delhi Metro is 40). The Monorail O&M cost Data of first year of Kozhikode (2015-16) has been used to formulate the assumptions for the model..

5 LIGHT RAIL SYSTEM

5.1 About the system

Light Rail or LRT is a preferred mode where ample right of way is available. Built at-grade or elevated (in portions of narrow right of way), the Light Rail System is a preferred mode of transport in areas with a maximum PHPDT of around 20,000. At grade LRT because of the inherent limitations of a mixed used traffic has a lower system capacity.

Since LRT is generally built at-grade, they take away the pavement size thereby leaving less space for other modes of commute and may also have handicapped movement due to the intersecting bus and personalised vehicle traffic. Unless segregated, they tend to ply at slower speeds as their speeds are restricted by other traffic flows, especially at junctions. In the Indian context, with the unplanned spread of the cities, providing the right of way at-grade may not be easy.

Typical light rail systems possess a similar mixture of characteristics as bus rapid transit. Light rail transit has a lower capacity and lower speed (At-grade) than heavy rail and metro rail systems. LRT vehicles are lighter and generally operate singly or in two-car trains. IUT has assumed a two car set and has also done a futuristic analysis with four car set. The space requirement for the system is approximately 7-9 m exclusive ROW. It is said to be more viable means of affecting modal shifts than enhanced bus service.

Elevated light rail is another mass rapid transit option. The principal difference between elevated LRT and LRT at grade is the right of way. Elevated LRT runs on raised track supported by steel or concrete structures. The elevated guide-ways are typically 5-6 m above grade. These can reach more than 10 m above grade to bypass existing roads and bridges. The guide-way columns are typically spaced 30 m apart along the right of way. The advantage to elevated LRT over conventional light rail is that less right of way is required because track is elevated.

Elevated LRTS is known for being more efficient and has higher carrying capacity than monorail. Modern Light Rail has in recent decades made a comeback in Europe, Australia, and Americas and in recent years even in Asia. IUT has made an endeavour to incorporate learning from the recent development in LRT particularly in their capital and O&M cost structure

5.2 CAPEX Information

In the name of LRT, India has a rickety tramway now running on truncated routes in Kolkata and is not relevant for comparison. A project report was made in 2007-08 for a 45 km 3 – corridor LRT system in Delhi and its capital cost estimates are as follows:

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Table 5-1: Delhi LRT Capital Estimates

In recent decades modern LRT services both at grade and elevated have sprung up across various cities in Europe, Canada, USA (Baltimore being the most successful) and in more recent years in Australia and even some Asian cities. Working group reports on Urban Transport for the 12th Five Year Plan, which has provided cost assumptions for other principal modes of urban transport, has not provided any such guidance for LRT.

Only Delhi 2007-08 data is available and the same has been escalated to arrive at the cost at 2012-13 levels. The land cost estimated in the report which through back-end calculation including taxes and duties comes to approximately 17% and seems to have been considered on the higher side. Similarly, civil structures at 11.72% appear to be at lower side. Suitable adjustment has been done in assumptions to arrive at correct cost at the current level.

It has been ascertained from various sources and not much difference is there in per unit rolling stock cost of modern LRT with a monorail rolling stock or a metro rail rolling stock. Even in Kozhikode Monorail DPR, cost of one rolling stock has been assumed at Rs. 10 Crore. For the sake of comparison, cost of per unit rolling stock has been assumed at Rs. 10 Crore for all the 3 systems.

For the sake of comparison of LRT with elevated monorail and elevated metro, a hypothetical elevated LRT system too has been assumed, for which the capital cost structure has been derived interpolating and harmonising the cost data of monorail and elevated metro rail.

5.3 Operation & Maintenance Cost Information

For 3 corridors, 45 km LRTS at Delhi, the study carried out in 2007-08 estimated the first year cost of O&M at Rs. 112 Crore for the financial year 2011-12. In the absence of detailed information on the CAPEX and O&M costs domestically, IUT has also looked at the

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comparative numbers from international case-studies, and has tried to convert them to INR, using purchasing power parity and further modulation to suit Indian conditions.

For the purpose of O&M cost data of elevated LRT, an interpolation from past O&M cost data available for DMRC and prospective O&M cost data of Kozhikode Monorail has been suitably tweaked to arrive at LRT O&M cost.

6 BUS RAPID TRANSIT

6.1 About the system

The Bus Rapid Transit System or BRTS is generally a closed system mass rapid transit system with dedicated lanes for bus operations. Since its conception as a viable option in Latin America many cities have adopted it with varied results. Exceptions apart, passenger flow of 4,000 to 10,000 PHPDT is what can be achieved with BRTS, more so in Indian consideration, and has much lower costs than the other transit systems like metro rail, monorail and light rail, BRTS presents itself as a choice for regions with ample right of way to accommodate it. It can be a suitable choice for planned cities that are being developed, as the current status of congestion in the developed cities make such a development difficult.

BRT is an advanced bus system serving travel corridors with an operational advantage such as exclusive lanes and traffic preference on signals. BRT is faster and more reliable service than ordinary bus services. Bus Rapid Transit is supposed to have the flexibility with which it can be implemented. BRT systems possess a unique advantage of implementation as they ply on segregated Right of Ways (ROW)

The first, and still one of the best BRT systems in the world, is in Curitiba, Brazil. Opened in 1974, Curitiba's BRT features the following characteristics:

- i. Physically segregated exclusive bus lanes
- ii. Large, comfortable articulated or bi-articulated buses
- iii. Fully enclosed bus stops, where passengers pay to enter the BRT station through a turnstile rather than paying the bus driver
- iv. A bus station platform level with the bus floor
- v. Bus priority at intersections, largely by restricting left hand turns by mixed traffic vehicles
- vi. Private bus operators paid by the bus kilometre

BRTS has arrived late in India - even later than arrival of Delhi Metro Phase I. Two cities - Delhi & Ahmedabad have commissioned a few kilometres of BRTS. While the BRTS of Delhi has performed sub-optimally since inception, Ahmedabad's experience has been somewhat better. Today, a dozen cities are planning or implementing BRTS. But the efficacy of the system in cities where ROW segregation at grade has difficulties is yet to be established.

6.2 CAPEX Information

BRTS CAPEX estimates have been derived using data from detailed project reports of Ahmedabad Phase I, Phase II and of Rajkot. In addition, an estimated completion cost of BRTS in Delhi too is available, which is presented in the subsequent sections.

The CAPEX estimates for the Ahmedabad Phase I was for 58.3 km of BRTS corridor whereas its Phase II was for 26 km. The DPR for the Rajkot BRT was prepared for a route length of 10.7 Km. The table below provides breakup of CAPEX for a BRTS corridor:

Table 6-1: Comparative Tabular Representation of BRTS Capital Costs

The cost estimates above are dated but have been brought to the current level by increasing it at a rate of inflation during these years, for this purpose an inflation factor of 5% per annum. Also latest estimates for the per km infrastructure for BRTS as assumed by Working Group Report for 12th Five Year Plan is available- the working group report has assumed a Rs. 20 Crore per km cost of infrastructure creation for BRTS.

The total approved cost of Phase I and Phase II BRTS corridor in Ahmedabad was of Rs. 493 Crore and Rs. 488 Crore respectively. The Rajkot BRTS corridor had an approved cost of Rs. 110 Crore.

The capital cost analysis of Ahmedabad and Rajkot BRTS suggests, Phase I of the Ahmedabad BRTS was planned at a rate of Rs. 8.5 Crore per km whereas Phase II was planned at a rate of Rs. 18.76 Crore per km (which is close to working group on urban transport cost numbers). The DPR of Rajkot BRTS corridor suggests a per km cost of construction as Rs. 10.3 Crore. In addition, 3% of the gross total cost of construction has been assumed as contingency charges and another 0.5% as general consultancy and administrative charges.

The 14.5 km long BRTS corridor of Delhi from Ambedkar Nagar to Delhi Gate was planned at a cost of Rs. 215 Crore. The average cost of construction of BRTS corridor in Delhi was estimated at Rs. 14.83 Crore per km.

6.3 Operation & Maintenance Cost Information

Only BRTS corridor of Ahmedabad and Delhi are currently operational. A typical monthly maintenance cost of 5.8 km long operational BRTS corridor in Delhi is of about INR 30 lakh per month. Since the buses which runs on this corridor are either run by Delhi Transport Corporation (DTC) or are operated by private players under the cluster scheme of DIMTS, there is no information on the costs of bus operations on this corridor. The INR 30 lakh per month of maintenance cost of the Delhi BRT corridor broadly includes staff salaries, cost of operation control centre (OCC), repair & maintenance of information technology systems (signaling, CCTV surveillance etc.).

The Phase I of Ahmedabad BRTS has an operating length of 58 km on which the operating cost per passenger km is of Rs. 0.395.

The O&M data available for the operational BRTS corridors are difficult to conclude for consideration for this study thus for running the buses on BRTS corridor the O&M cost has been approximated to the general bus services with the following modifications: a) Additional costs due to OCC, and signalling systems will be added. b) Rolling stock efficiency in terms of lesser number of buses required, due to segregation of bus lane has been factored in.

7 ORDINARY BUS SERVICES

7.1 About the system

Ordinary Bus Service is a building block of any public transport system across the globe. The requirement of capital expenditure to kick start/maintain this system is one of the lowest among the other modes of urban transport and the bus operator does not have to contribute to the capital costs of creation of infrastructure.

Till very recently, ordinary bus was the only mode of public transport in Indian cities. Except Mumbai (before arrival and expansion of Delhi Metro), all principal cities heavily depended on this mode.

While bus operations should be a financially sustainable venture, the same in Indian conditions have fared rather poorly – sole exceptions in recent years being BMTC, Bengaluru and BEST, Mumbai. The perennial problem of Delhi bus systems has been the populist fare structure, disproportionately high man-power to bus ratio, increasing fuel cost and high repair, maintenance charges of over-aged buses. There have been some changes for the better in recent years with the introduction and provisioning of urban bus systems to cities and towns under the JNNURM.

In many Indian cities, buses do carry up to fifty per cent of all the people commuting by mechanised transport. In Mumbai, whose lifeline is the suburban rail network, the ridership of buses is equally impressive at 5-6 million per day. A unique feature of Mumbai's bus system is that it principally acts as east-west connector and bus routes have a symbiotic relationship with the suburban rail network. On the contrary, Delhi which now has metro rail system of substantial length and whose ridership is increasing fast (has crossed two million per day), DTC and Delhi Metro routes are not rationalised. Despite this, both metro rail and DTC have seen increase in ridership and the latter's daily commuter trips have reached 4.5 million.

An ordinary bus service can manage a passenger flow of 3,000 to 8,000 PHPDT. In medium and large sized cities, even today, ordinary buses remain and shall be the predominant mode of urban transport except in higher density corridors, where metro rail systems get created with time.

7.2 CAPEX Information

The CAPEX as gathered from Delhi Transport Corporation are for all the buses and associated infrastructure which were built during the Commonwealth Games 2010. The costs which were paid for the procurement of rolling stock are as below:

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Another key parameter of capital expenditure involved in the operations of ordinary bus services are depots. The landed costs of the depots which were built for the CWG 2010 in Delhi by DTC are as below:

Table 7-2: Commonwealth Games Depot Construction Costs

Remarks- Deviation approved by Transport Dept. Letter No.F.16 (56)/PLG/TPT/09/485 dt.14.1.10

The average cost of the depots made by DTC as per the table above comes to Rs. 10.3 Crore for an average 150-200 parking capacity.

The price as suggested in the Working Group (WG) Report of the 12th Five Year Plan for the procurement of buses in million plus cities is of Rs. 38.8 Lakh and for other low population cities, it has been assumed at Rs. 25.2 Lakhs. Nonetheless today, wide choices have become available with regard to buses and the cost of a bus acquisition in case of latest Volvo city buses (already in operation in a few cities) can be as high as Rs. 80-100 lakhs.

The Working Group Report suggests the requirement of a depot for every 50 buses, with the cost per depot at Rs. 8 Crore. It also estimates one workshop for every 250 buses at Rs. 20 crore, as well as a terminal for every two million population for another Rs. 20 crore, The depots, workshops and terminal costs suggested in the WG report are inclusive of land acquisition and machinery costs.

The contingency expenses which are considered for preparation of transport infrastructure for the ordinary bus services are at 3% in addition to a 0.5% general consultancy.

7.3 Operation & Maintenance Cost Information

A lot of data asymmetry exists in the O&M cost data at this stage, though IUT has been able to capture a big picture of the same. The data for DTC, BEST, NMMC and DIMTS have been collected and are presented in disaggregated manner.

As per the assessment carried out by the members of Indian Institute of Technology, Delhi in the Working Group Committee for Urban Transport in the 12th Five Year Plan, the operations and maintenance cost of Delhi Transport Corporation is as per the table below:

Table 7-3: DTC - O&M Cost

Under the cluster scheme of DIMTS, in its cluster 1 which is operational for last one year, per km cost of O&M is of **Rs. 5.5 per**

bus km.

Another assessment which was carried out by Tata Consultancy Services (TCS) for the Brihan Electricity and State Transport (BEST), a major portion of O&M costs are incurred for covering personnel and fuel costs which is 84% of the total.

Other Operating and non operating expenses as assessed in the study carried out by TCS for BEST is presented in the table below (in paisa per bus km):

Table 7-4: BEST - O&M Costs

LIFE CYCLE COST ANALYSIS OF FIVE URBAN TRANSPORT SYSTEMS

Bangalore Metro Rail Corporation Limited

Remarks: SD – Single Deck, AC- Air Conditioned, Midi – Mini Buses, DD – Double Deck

The report also projected the operating and non operating costs of BEST for a new procurement whose estimated costs are as per below:

Table 7-5: BEST O&M Cost Estimation 2006-11

As per the toolkit which was prepared by ADB for Public Private Partnership in Urban Bus Transport in Maharashtra, the O&M costs for 269 buses for year 2009 were estimated as per the table below:

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It has been possible to collect information of operations & maintenance costs of major metropolitan bus systems along with their physical performance data. The latest data available pertains to September, 2011. To bring the same to the latest a 9% increase was assumed for the manpower and 5% for the other costs. The following table forms the basis of assumptions for the bus systems (both ordinary buses and buses plying on BRTS corridor) based on the figures collected from various tables of latest available Central Institute of Road Transport (CIRT) journal.

It is evident from the above table that for the bus operations in major cities like Mumbai, Delhi, Bangalore, Chennai and Thane, the key component of the O&M cost involves

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staffs, fuel and lubricants, tyres and tubes and spare parts. The average fuel efficiency has been about 3.2 kilometres per litre in case of diesel operations whereas it is about 3 kilometres for the CNG based operations. The average cost of tyres and tubes and spare parts for every effective kilometre is approximately Rs 1.08 and Rs 1.07 respectively. Other cost of operation and maintenance is about 2% of the total O&M costs. These costs are 2011 prices and are suitably adjusted for the purpose of this study.

8 ASSUMPTIONS FOR LIFE CYCLE COST ANALYSIS

After critical analysis of the CAPEX and O&M costs of the five urban transport systems in the previous chapters of this report, a large fluctuation has been noticed in the costs incurred across different cities and in some cases even across different corridors in the same city. Due to this large variance across different cities, especially in the land cost, it was important that a hypothetical model be created for each mode.

Different modes are capable of operation in different configurations. For Rail based systems, since monorail is essentially modelled as an elevated system, we have chosen to develop the hypothetical models for all rail-based systems as elevated systems for providing key comparative differentiators.

The basis of this structure has been derived from an approximated mean of the data already available and escalation of the same. Some of the data available, which quote the latest figures, have been used directly as assumptions.

There are some general assumptions that are essential to the process of creation of the financial models for different modes of urban transport. In order to devise hypothetical models of the various modes it was essential to take care to ensure that the most logical variables be chosen to assist the functioning of such modes if they were to be practically tested.

This segment of the report focuses on the assumptions that have been derived for further processing the data into a format that has been utilised for estimating their life cycle costs.

8.1 Construction Duration, Phasing and Price Escalation

The construction period of any project is the period which tends to have the minimal cost impact operationally; however the capital cost impact of inordinately long construction period can be extremely high. Proper phasing and Price Escalation has impact on the total capital cost of any project, as each successive year spent in the construction impacts the total cost with a heavy increase in the overall cost. Such cost impacts are of inflation and additional financing cost. Time over run and cost overrun are intrinsically related.

For the purpose of calculation of the Life Cycle cost of the various modes the Annual escalation in prices has been considered at 5% after a lot of deliberation and after having studied various projects. For each year of the balance construction left thus the cost to be incurred in the next year gets escalated for 5%.

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In the case of the bus based systems the construction period has been taken at 3 years. Bus Systems have limited construction requirements. The major time consumers in this case are the time taken in the construction of the Depot, Workshops, Terminals and Bus Shelters. The time required for the procurement of the rolling stock is another constraint that has to be considered also which in turn is dependent on the requirement and availability in the market as there are only two suppliers (Tata Motors and Ashok Leyland) of normal buses and the buses sold by Volvo cost in the higher range of Rs. 80 Lakh to 1 core. In the case of BRTS, the ROW may also require extensive redevelopment. In a twenty kilometre stretch for BRTS it is safe to assume provisioning of one kilometre of road over bridge or road under pass for segregation of traffic and its cost has been factored

Rail based systems generally have a longer duration requirement. Experience suggests that a minimum one year is needed for preliminary works like land acquisition, various regulatory approvals and preliminary designs. For this model the default duration has been taken at 5 years for construction of Rail based system. Other than Delhi Metro no other rail based system has been completed in this country in five years but it has been assumed that with time and the country's movement along the learning curve, a 20 km rail based urban transport project can be completed in five years duration.

8.2 Requirement of Rolling Stock and Buses

The requirement of Rolling Stock for rail based systems (metro rail, mono rail and light rail) and Bus Coaches for bus based systems (for BRTS and ordinary Bus service) are dependent on carrying capacity, headway, average speed, distance between stations and bus shelters etc.

8.2.1 Headway

The Headway parameter is important for the systems to improve the efficiency of the fleet of rolling stock of different systems. It also is used to verify the technical feasibility of the systems at various PHPDT levels. While calculating the Rolling Stock Requirement the Headway parameter has been kept as a variable that changes dependent on the number of train sets (or buses) needed to be dispatched from a point within an hour. It is important to note that this is required for the system to be able to move the required number of passengers; however it is not necessary for the hypothetical situation that this variable headway fall in the range that is technically feasible for that particular system.

The technical feasibility has been calculated based upon the congestion on the network, the level of complexity of the technology and the current world standards. The minimum technically feasible headway for the various systems has been assumed as under:

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Table 8-1: Assumed Headway for the Urban Transport Systems

Some explanation is due for the headway adopted above. It is possible for ordinary buses to run with headway of one minute. In the case of BRTS a two double bus composition has been assumed and headway of 0.6 minute has been assumed as the team has observed the same being achieved at different intersections of Delhi BRTS. In case of Delhi Metro headway of 1.5 minutes has been proposed in the operations of its Phase III. But it has been observed that in general headway of 2.5 minutes to 3 minutes is best suited for rail based system. Thus headway of 2.5 minutes has been considered for all rail based systems.

8.2.2 Average Speed

The average speed of the various systems is dependent on the acceleration and deceleration speeds, the complexity of the system, signalling quality, the right of way segregation, the congestion on the system - both direct and indirect, the number of pauses in operation/stops that are required, the distance between stops and the duration of stops. Taking into account various parameters listed before, the following average speeds have been assumed based on facts available with the team.

Table 8-2: Assumed Average Speeds for the Urban Transport Systems

It is to be clearly understood that for highest of the urban transport systems, Metro Rail, the average speed assumed is what is already achieved by DMRC. Mono Rail and Light rail have been clubbed together at 30 km per hour. Similarly for the purpose of comparison Light Rail at Grade and BRTS speed has been assumed to be uniform at 25 km per hour. For ordinary buses the speed has been assumed as 15 km in mixed traffic condition. It is clarified that for all the three surface systems- ordinary buses, BRTS and Light Rail (At Grade) liberal average speed has been assumed.

8.2.3 Distance between Stations/Shelters

The distance between the Stations and Shelters refers to the average distance that should be maintained between two consecutive stations or shelters. This data has been used for calculation of the total number or stations/ bus shelters that will be required to be built along a particular route length, thereby arriving at the capital expense needed to be incurred for the same. The distances chosen for this study by IUT are as below.

Table 8-3: Assumed Distance between Stations/Shelters for the Urban Transport Systems

Till date after operationalization of the Phase II of Delhi Metro including the Airport Express line, the total operational route length of the system is 193 km with 145 stations, thus the average distance between the stations is nearly 1.33 km. If the Airport Express line is excluded then the total route length is about 170.3 km with 139 stations thus average distance between stations will remain 1.23 km only. For this study a conservative 1 km distance between Metro Rail stations has been considered. The Jacob circle – Wadala – Chembur section of the Mumbai Monorail is of approximately 19.54 km with 18 stations which corresponds to an average distance of 1.09 km between monorail stations. For this study a conservative 0.75 km distance between monorail stations has been considered. The proposed 45 km light rail system for Delhi has 39 stations planned on it which reflect on an average about 1.15 km distance between stations. For this study 0.75 km station distance has been considered to perform a conservative calculation. The Ahmedabad BRTS corridor network is 74.5 km in length and has 75 bus shelters on it. This conveys that the average shelter distance on this BRTS corridor is about 1 km, but for this study an average 0.75 km shelter distance has been considered. The bus shelter distance on an average varies from 0.5 km to 1 km cities to cities but for this study 0.5 km has been considered as a distance between bus shelters for ordinary bus services.

The above distances between the stations/shelters have been considered on the conservative side to get a life cycle cost which can be applied in general to varying nature of traffic corridors.

8.2.4 Carrying Capacity

The rail car/bus coach capacities have a major impact on the carrying capacity. In order to achieve a particular PHPDT, the capacities of rail based systems rolling stock/ buses decide the number of units that would be required. For the purpose of this study, the

capacities for the various systems have been assumed based on the actual figures available and verifiable in the systems in use today. The capacities for the various systems and the source for their choice have been provided below. The capacities chosen below have been assumed at peak carrying capacity of 6 persons per square meters.

Table 8-4: Assumed Carrying Capacity for the Urban Transport Systems (Per coach/car)

Though the manufacturers of these rail cars and buses suggest that up to 8 persons per square meter can be considered for crush load capacity calculation but for this study a medium range carrying capacity of the rolling stock at the rate of 6 persons per square meters has been considered.

8.2.5 Train Set configuration

The vehicle configuration has been derived based on the carrying capacities attributed to the various systems. The same has been done by using the carry capacities ascertained in the report by the Working Group for the 12th Five Year Plan. Also consideration has been given to the standard configurations used across the systems as currently operational world over. Changing the configuration will directly affect the load carrying capacity of the system; however only to the degree that it is not restricted by the technical configuration feasibility. For getting a better understanding of the situation, a maximum PHPDT capacity of all the modes have been calculated and is presented in the table below:

Table 8-5: Maximum PHPDT capacity of different modes at varying train configuration

In general practice, it has been observed that the rail based system runs on a minimum headway of 2.5 minutes or more. But in few of the cases (upcoming DMRC Phase III could be the case) after enhancing the signalling and telecom system, a headway as minimum as 1.5 minutes can also be achieved. For the purpose of this study, a minimum headway

of 2.5 minutes has been taken. From the above table it is evident that a metro rail with 8 car configuration train set can carry a maximum PHPDT of 52,800 whereas if the headway is brought down to 1.5 minutes the same would escalate up to 88,000. Similarly, in the case of monorail with a 9 car configuration of train set, a maximum PHPDT of 27,650 can be achieved at 2.5 minute headway which can increase further up to 46,000 if the headway can be reduced to 1.5 minutes. In case of light rail with 4 coach configuration of the train set, a maximum PHPDT of 23,250 can be achieved at 2.5 minute headway and which can further increase up to 38,720 if the headway can be reduced up to 1.5 minutes.

The configurations used in the formulation of this model for the Life Cycle Cost Analysis are as below.

Table 8-6: Assumed Vehicle Configurations for Urban Transport Systems

8.2.6 Requirement of Rolling Stock

Based on the assumptions made regarding headway, average speed, distance between stations/shelters, carrying capacity of coaches and train set configurations, the total rolling stock requirements for the hypothetical case has been derived and is presented in the table below:

Table 8-7: Rolling stock requirement for the Hypothetical Case

The detailed calculations relating to the above derivations have been attached as [The](#page-72-0) [result of the above analysis is summarised in the table below.](#page-72-0)

[Table 9-9: Summarized view of impact of mode capacity limitations on the LCC per seat](#page-72-0)

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[Headway for Rail Based Systems has been assumed at 2.5 minutes, whereas for BRTS it has been assumed at 0.6](#page-72-0) [minutes and for Ordinary Buses at 1 minute.](#page-72-0)

[*LCC per seat \(in INR Lakh\) at NPV for the assumed lifespan of 30 years](#page-72-0)

[It may be noted that with the increasing mode capacity and hence PHPDT, LCC for](#page-72-0) [Monorail and LRT fall substantially in comparison to Metro rail, BRTS and Bus Services.](#page-72-0)

Annexure I – [Rolling Stock Requirement Assessment](#page-72-0) of this report.

8.3 Depot & Workshops

Depots and Workshops are essential to the functioning of all urban transport systems. All the systems require a demarcated and equipped area for upkeep and maintenance of their rolling stock and coaches. The depot needs to be equipped with the daily maintenance and basic repair facilities, and also requires sufficient space to accommodate the desired number of vehicles. The cost of a depot varies based on the rolling stock quantity to be homed there and the type of equipment required.

Workshops on the other hand are specialised care centres for the rolling stock and often are part of the depot itself. Workshops cater to needs of complex periodic repair including intermediate and complete overhaul. The choice of workshop specifications and size is a function of the requirement of quality, quantity and price of the output.

For the purpose of this study, IUT has chosen to adopt the standards currently in vogue and has used them to derive a ratio based on a variety of parameter to compute the number of depots that will be needed for a particular system. The parameters derived are as below:

Table 8-8: Assumed Depot and Workshop Requirements for Urban Transport Systems

Source: Recommendations of Working Group on Urban Transport for 12th Five Year Plan

Also, based on current standards as chosen by the various DPRs and facts available with IUT, a ratio has been derived to deduce the 'number of car to facility cost' ratio, thereby calculating the cost of facilities required for accommodating the rolling stock requirements for the assumed systems. As the study is for 20 km of route kilometre, in the case of rail based systems one depot cum workshop has been assumed.

8.4 System Wise CAPEX assumptions

The assumptions taken for the selected systems are presented in the subsequent sections.

8.4.1 Metro Rail

Delhi Metro Phase III cost assumptions are the latest available information and the same can be used for the CAPEX calculation of the hypothetical 20 km long metro corridor for this study. It presents the following picture:

Table 8-9: Assumed CAPEX of Metro Rail for LCCA based on DMRC Ph-III assumptions

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The above DMRC data is for a hybrid system – a mix of underground and elevated. However, this report intends to compare the lifecycle cost of monorail, LRTS and metro rail. As such, for the purpose of hypothetical construct a simple, harmonised elevated 20 km stretch of metro rail has been assumed with the following cost parameters.

Table 8-10: Assumed CAPEX for 20 km Elevated Metro Rail system for LCCA

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Source: DMRC Ph-II completion & Ph-III Assumptions and IUT assumptions

8.4.2 Mono Rail

Since no monorail system is operational so far, only DPR figures were available for analysis of CAPEX. The CAPEX assumed for the hypothetical 20 km long monorail corridor is based on the DPR assumptions of Kozhikode and some interpolations and assumptions as below:

Table 8-11: Assumed CAPEX of Monorail system for LCCA based on Kozhikode DPR

The assumptions made for Monorail unit cost of construction for 20 km stretch is as follows.

Table 8-12: Assumed CAPEX for 20 km Monorail system for LCCA

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Source: Kozhikode Monorail DPR and IUT assumptions.

8.4.3 Light Rail

There is no light rail system present in the country and recently no DPR has been prepared for the same. The latest available DPR was prepared about 5 years ago for a 45 km stretch in Delhi. Based on the Delhi DPR, the updated cost is as below.

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Based on the assumptions made above, the total capital expenditure cost for a 20 km long light rail system at-grade would be approximately Rs. 2,300 Crore.

However, for the purpose of arriving at per km cost for LRT – at grade the following assumption has been made:

Table 8-14: Assumed CAPEX of At Grade Light Rail System for LCCA

The capital cost calculation of elevated Light Rail has been done because it will be more appropriate to compare elevated metro rail and elevated monorail with the elevated light rail. The cost arrived at is as follows:

Table 8-15: Assumed CAPEX of Elevated Light Rail Transit System for LCCA

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Having arrived at construction costs of the three systems, their unit cost competitive table has been given below.

Table 8-16: Comparative Assumptions for Elevated Rail-based Systems (INR in Crores)

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Based on the above cost data, the total cost per km and the total cost for a 20km stretch

for the rail-based systems have been computed as below:

Table 8-17: Assumed per km and 20 km stretch cost for rail-based systems (INR in Crores)

The calculations considered above do not include the taxes and duties; however their influence has been recorded in the final model as annexed in [Annexure III](#page-76-0) – THE LCCA [Calculation Tables](#page-76-0) of this report.

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8.4.4 Bus Rapid Transit

There are two BRTS systems which are operational in the country, one in Delhi and the other one in Ahmedabad, whereas there are several DPRs which are available. The assumptions were made after critical analysis of the costs assumed in Delhi, Ahmedabad and Rajkot. The assumptions are as below:

Table 8-18: Assumed CAPEX of Bus Rapid Transit system for LCCA

With above assumptions the cost of a 20 km long BRT system inclusive of bus costs would be approximately Rs. 1022.55 Crore. If we exclude the bus cost, the total CAPEX involved in development of 20 km BRT system will be down to Rs. 400 Crore.

8.4.5 Ordinary Bus Service

The CAPEX for ordinary bus services have been assumed using the latest infrastructure development cost of Delhi Transport Corporation for the CWG 2010. The assumed costs are as below:

Table 8-19: Assumed CAPEX of Ordinary Bus system for LCCA

With above assumptions the cost of a 20 km long ordinary bus system inclusive of bus costs would be approximately Rs. 300 Crore. If we exclude the bus cost, the total CAPEX involved in development of 20 km ordinary bus system becomes close to approximately Rs. 120 Crore.

As various costs such as the cost of road and flyovers are not involved in the development of ordinary bus services in the city, the cost of development is lowest as compared to the other selected urban transport modes. The development of roads in the mega cities and other metro cities could be assumed at a rate of Rs. 4 Crore per km. For other cities the cost of development of roads could be assumed at a rate of Rs. 2 Crore per km. Apart from road, to allow free flow of traffic (at railway crossings, major signals etc.), flyovers and road over bridges are also required whose developmental costs could be assumed at Rs. 25 Crore per Km.

8.5 System Wise Operation & Maintenance Cost Assumptions

The assumptions which were taken in this study for deriving the operations and maintenance cost of the urban transport systems are divided mainly among three critical parameters:

The assumptions taken for the components of the operations and maintenance costs for the selected systems are presented in the subsequent sections.

8.6 Energy Cost

Fuel is one of the most essential operational expenses in the operational cycle of the urban transport systems. For enterprise use, Electricity and Diesel are generally the two most common fuels.

8.6.1 Rail Based Systems

For rail based systems, electricity is the fuel of choice based on the technology and the environmental impact scenario. Metro Rail, Mono Rail and modern LRT all three run on electric traction.

The average crush load for Metro Rail, Mono Rail and Light Rail coaches has been considered as 50 tons, 28 tons and 35 tons based on the specifications provided by the manufacturers. From the DPR of various rail based system it was established that Traction

Energy Consumption per 1000 GTKM is 70 KWh. The example below reflects the calculations to derive the traction energy consumption:

Average Weight of a metro car with Normal and Crush Load has been taken as 50 Tonnes. Thus per car per km energy consumption is $= 50*70/1000 = 3.5$ KWh. The Regeneration potential of a rolling stock has been defined as 20%, thus average per car km energy consumption for metro rail systems is $= 3.5[*](1-20%) = 2.38$ KWh.

Similarly energy consumption per car km for monorail and light rail has been considered as 1.57 KWh and 1.96 KWh respectively.

Auxiliary Power consumption per station per day as per latest rail based DPR is 200 KW which is expected to become 300 KW by 2021. We are considering a consumption of 250 Kw per station per day for 2015. Load factor which has been considered is 100% for 24hr., 85% for 22 hr., 75% for 20 hr. (As per discussion with DMRC) of operations has been considered. Since in this study every day operation of 19 hours has been considered thus the Weighted Average Load factor is assumed as 70%.

Similarly the latest prepare DPRs suggest auxiliary power consumption for metro rail systems per Depot per day as 2000 KW which expected to become 2500 KW by 2021 and about 1050 KWh for mono rail and light rail systems. In this study a power consumption of 2200 KWh and 1050 KWh has been considered for metro rail and monorail/light rail systems respectively with a load factor of 60% in year 2015.

For this study, IUT has adopted the initial electricity supply rate of Rs. 4 per KW (2012 prices). The same has been escalated at a rate of 5% per annum.

8.6.2 Bus Based Systems

Buses in India usually run on either Compressed Natural Gas (CNG) or Diesel. Between Diesel and CNG, CNG is currently the more economical and more environmentally friendly source of energy; however it is also the more recent entrant as a fuel of choice and has as yet seen restricted use. Because of this the study has used the diesel prices and the initial Diesel pricing for this study has been chosen at Rs. 45 per litre, with an annual price increase at 5%. The price chosen has been derived by taking an average of the prices currently prevalent in the major metropolitan cities of the country. But in case of price deregulation diesel prices can go substantially up there by affecting the cost efficiency of BRTS and Ordinary Bus Services.

Between 1998 and 2003, the judiciary of India, both the Supreme Court and High Court have promoted the adoption of Natural Gas as the medium for public transport in India. Under the influence of the Supreme Court and High Courts, the cities of Delhi, Bangalore, Hyderabad, Chennai, Ahmedabad, Kanpur, Lucknow, Sholapur, Mumbai and Kolkata

were asked to submit action plans for improvement of air quality in the cities. Implementation of CNG was a common strategy adopted by all the cities. The cities which did not have access to CNG like Bangalore and Chennai, had listed LPG programmes to reduce the pollution levels of the city.

Despite restricted adoption of Natural Gas as a fuel substitute in the majority of the country, IUT has considered a model incorporating CNG as the fuel choice to ensure that the future scenarios are amiably depicted. The CNG price chosen for this study is Rs. 40 per kg with an escalation of 5%. However in actual calculation in the financial model it is the diesel prices which have been used and not the CNG prices.

8.7 Human Resource Cost

Human Resource and Energy Expenses together comprise bulk of O&M expenses of urban transport systems.

The five urban transport systems are each in their own way complex and have intricate organisational hierarchies. For the purpose of this study, IUT has chosen to simplify the reference to the human capital by generating a staff requirement per km ratio in the case of both rail based and bus based systems. This has been done by first generating the total staff requirement based on allocated job responsibility or job function and then dividing it by the total length of the system.

In the case of rail-based systems, data from DMRC was collated and used to derive a benchmark for use with the models created for Metro, Monorail and Light Rail. CIRT data was used to derive figures chosen for BRTS and Ordinary Buses.

Another important consideration in relation to Human Resources is the remuneration, for this purpose, a system average has been chosen based on the 6th Pay Commission. The remuneration has been kept at an average of Rs. 9 lakhs per annum with a yearly increment of 9%.

The staff requirement per km derived for the various systems has been provided in the table below:

Table 8-20: Assumed Human Resource Requirement for the Urban Transport Systems

The staff requirement for the bus based system is based on buses that are being required. For every bus a staff requirement of 5 has been assumed which has been detailed out in Annexure II – [Human Resource Requirement Detail](#page-75-0) of this report. E.g. the staff requirement

for 370 buses in case of BRTS is estimates as 1,850 which is 92.5 staffs per km (if the corridor length is 20 km as assumed in the hypothetical case). Similar are the calculations for ordinary bus services.

8.8 Repair and Maintenance Cost

8.8.1 R&M Cost for Rail Based Systems

The repair and maintenance cost figures of Delhi Metro which was available for this study in a granular detail as provided in section [Operation & Maintenance Cost Information](#page-25-0) of this report has been considered as the base. The base figure which has been assumed for this study to get the repair and maintenance costs is presented in the table below:

Table 8-21: Unit Cost of Repair & Maintenance (2010 Prices) of DMRC

The rates as presented in the above table has been escalated at the assumed inflation rate of 5% to arrive at the 2012 prices of the R&M for metro rail system and the same is presented in the table below:

Table 8-22: Assumed Unit Cost of R&M for Metro Rail System (2012 prices)

To arrive at the mono rail and light rail system which have lower R&M cost, the above considered R&M costs of Metro Rail system have been discounted by 25%. The assumed R&M cost for mono rail and light rail systems are presented in the table below:

Table 8-23: Assumed Unit Cost of R&M for Mono/Light Rail System (2012 prices)

8.8.2 R&M Cost for Bus Based Systems

Based on the analysis of the R&M cost of bus based system from the data compiled from CIRT journals, the summary of R&M cost is presented in the table below:

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Table 8-24: Unit cost of Repair and Maintenance (2011 prices CIRT analysis)

The R&M costs derived above has been extrapolated for 2012 prices using the inflation rate assumed in this study. The assumed R&M cost of bus based system is presented in the table below:

Table 8-25: Assumed Unit Cost of R&M for Bus Based Systems

In addition to the above R&M costs, another component of other O&M cost at the rate of 11% of the Staff, Energy and R&M cost has been considered in this study.

8.9 Replacement Cost

Due to constant wear and tear, it is essential that life duration be determined for the various components of each system, so that they may be replaced post completion of this period to ensure that they do not become a safety hazard and a drain on resources due to frequent breakdown and maintenance requirements.

The table below lists the replacement time in years, the components to be replaced and the percentage of replacement essential to further increase the life of the system as assumed by IUT for this study.

Table 8-26: Assumed Time and Percentage Replacement for Rail Based Systems

Table 8-27: Assumed Time and Percentage Replacement for Bus Based Systems

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8.10 Financial Assumptions

For arriving at the Life Cycle Cost IUT has assumed various financial assumptions for both development and O&M stage. Key factors influencing the total cost are elaborated below:

8.10.1 Taxes & Duties

Different urban transport systems in the country have had differential experience with regard to applicable Taxes & Duties Structure. But invariably in all the cases preferential tax treatment has been provided and the projects often have been provided with either a partial or complete waiver from the payment of applicable taxes and duties and such waivers have come both from central and state governments. However, the country does not have any uniform policy prescription in this regard. In the interest of harmonisation and ensuring level playing field, in the life cycle cost calculation taxes and duties at prevalent level have been assumed. IUT has chosen to include all relevant taxes and duties at full weightage in the study. The taxes and duties for rail-based systems and bus based systems differ in their structure and quantum.

8.10.1.1 Customs Duty

A customs duty is assumed as under:

Table 8-28: Assumed Customs Duty for Urban Transport Systems

8.10.1.2 Excise Duty

Excise duty assumed is as under and is based on Latest Estimates:

Table 8-29: Assumed Excise Duty for Urban Transport Systems

8.10.1.3 VAT

VAT or Value Added Tax assumed as follows:

Table 8-30: Assumed VAT for Urban Transport Systems

8.10.1.4 Sales Tax

Sales tax where applicable is assumed as follows:

Table 8-31: Assumed Sales Tax for Urban Transport Systems

8.10.1.5 Works Contract Tax

The Works Contract Tax has been levied as per the table below:

Table 8-32: Assumed Works Contract Tax for Urban Transport Systems

8.10.2 Escalation Rate

In order to bring the prices up to the 2012 levels all costs have been subjected to a uniform escalation at 5% though it is possible that there are year to year variations.

8.10.3 Interest Rate

Interest rate assumptions have provided special difficulties because for certain rail based systems loan has been provided for very long term and at a concessional rate whereas for bus based systems, the new low floor buses have been provided to various cities under JNUURM almost as a grant. Instead of assuming a market driven interest rate, a nominal 5% interest rate has been assumed for all the systems.

8.10.4 Discount Rate

The discount rate is the rate at which the future costs are discounted to ascertain their present value. IUT has assumed a uniform 10% discount rate for this study

8.10.5 Debt Equity Ratio

The Debt Ratio deals with the financing strategy adopted. It tells us the ratio of investment sought for the project in terms of equity and debt. In this case IUT has chosen different ratios based on the type of system, whether Rail based or Bus Based.

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8.10.5.1 Debt Equity Ratio for Rail Based Systems

For rail-based systems the debt equity ratio adopted is 70:30 and debt repayment period has been assumed to be 15 years.

8.10.5.2 Debt Equity Ratio for Bus Based Systems

The ratio chosen for bus-based systems is 70:30 but the debt repayment period has been assumed to be 10 years.

8.11 Depreciation

The Depreciation has been charged at different rates for different components of the systems. The charge has been levied at a uniform rate across the life-cycle of the urban transport systems from the time they begin operations.

The table below lists the different rates assumed for different components of the various systems. The table also lists the rate of depreciation to be charged post the refurbishment to extend the life of the system.

Table 8-33: Assumed Depreciation for the Urban Transport Systems

Table 8-34: Assumed Depreciation for the Rail based Systems post Refurbishment

9 LIFE CYCLE COST ANALYSIS

This chapter provides the results which were obtained from the LCC analysis performed for all the selected five systems. The preliminary section of the chapter explains the results obtained for the hypothetical case assumed in the beginning of the analysis whereas the later part of the chapter converts the analysis to bring in to account the design capacity of the modes in varying train compositions (in the case of guided modes), the PHPDT and the demand level i.e. actual possible usage.

9.1 Results of the Hypothetical Case

The LCC analysis for the systems has been based on the hypothetical premise of 15,000 PHPDT, 20 kilometre corridor and 30 years of projected costs.

In order to ascertain the LCC per seat, it was essential that the number of seats available be calculated. This has been ascertained by multiplying the capacity of each vehicle set with the total sets required for the functioning of the system as ascertained in *[Annexure I](#page-73-0) – [Rolling Stock Requirement Assessment.](#page-73-0)*

Per seat LCC obtained for the systems are in the table below:

Table 9-1: Results of the per seat LCC for the Hypothetical Case

*LCC per seat (in INR Lakh) at NPV for the assumed lifespan of 30 years

It may be noted that LRTS (At grade) has the least per seat life cycle cost of Rs 15.26 lakh. The LCC of both bus (Rs. 17.34 lakhs) and BRT (Rs 22.21 lakhs) is higher than that of LRTS (At grade). The LCC of Metro rail is high because it is a high capacity mode, much beyond the assumption of 15000 PHPDT made for the hypothetical case.

9.2 Scenarios under the Hypothetical Case at different Demand Levels

The Life cycle cost of each mode would depend on its usage i.e. demand level. Hence specific cases of impact on life cycle cost of various modes at different demand levels are evaluated in the succeeding paragraphs.

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9.2.1 Scenario I – 5,000 PHPDT

*LCC per seat (in INR Lakh) at NPV for the assumed lifespan of 30 years

It may be noted that at per seat LCC of Rs 17.89 Lakhs Buses qualify as the cheapest mode. It may further be noted that LRT (At grade) (Rs 28.59 is cheaper than BRTS (Rs 31.93 lakhs). Both Monorail and LRTS elevated have almost identical LCC at this level of traffic, while Metro Rail is the costliest alternative.

9.2.2 Scenario II – 10,000 PHPDT

*LCC per seat (in INR Lakh) at NPV for the assumed lifespan of 30 years

At 10,000 PHPDT, the LCC of all the modes except bus comes down substantially. Bus service is the cheapest mode, but bus service is unable to meet the demand, It may further be noted that LRTS (At grade) continues to be cheaper than BRTS.

9.2.3 Scenario III – 12,000 PHPDT

*LCC per seat (in INR Lakh) at NPV for the assumed lifespan of 30 years

At 12,000 PHPDT, the LCC of all modes except bus comes down further; indeed bus service cannot meet the demand. At this level, the LRT (At grade) becomes cheaper than bus service. It may further be noted that LRT (At Grade) continues to be cheaper than BRTS. However, the number of coaches in a train will need to be higher in case of Monorail and LRT, to meet the increase in demand.

9.2.4 Scenario IV – 17,000 PHPDT

*LCC per seat (in INR Lakh) at NPV for the assumed lifespan of 30 years

At a PHPDT of 17,000 the LCC of all modes except bus comes down further. The bus service cannot meet the demand. The LRT (At Grate) become considerably cheaper than both the bus service and BRT. In order to meet the increased demand the number of coaches in the case of Monorail and LRT will have to be increased to meet the demand.

9.2.5 Scenario V – 27,000 PHPDT

*LCC per seat (in INR Lakh) at NPV for the assumed lifespan of 30 years

At 27,000 PHPDT, the LCC of all modes except bus comes down even further. The bus services cannot satisfy the contract. For the first time Metro rail becomes cheaper than the monorail. At this level LRT (both) elevated and at grade becomes considerably cheaper than both the bus service and BRT. However, the number of coaches in a train in a train in the case of Monorail and LRT will have to be increased to meet the demand.

9.3 Summary of Per Seat LCC of Selected Systems

The analysis has shown that LRTS (At Grade) has the least per seat life cycle cost of Rs 15.26 lakh. The LCC of both bus (Rs 17.34 lakhs) and BRT (Rs 22.21 lakhs) is higher than that of LRTS (At Grade). The LCC of Metro rail is high because it is a high capacity mode, much beyond the assumption of 15000 PHPDT made for the hypothetical case. Therefore for a proper comparison, the LCC of various modes has been calculated at different PHPDT levels i.e. demand or usage level. The result is summarized in the table below. At this hypothetical stage it has been assumed that capacity of various modes is not a limitation. This aspect of modal capacity and feasibility has been examined later in this section

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It may be noted from the above table that LRTS (At grade) remains the cheapest mode at various levels of demand. In all cases LCC reduces substantially as the PHPDT (i.e. demand) increases except in the case of buses. Furthermore in terms of life cycle cost elevated LRTS also becomes cheaper than BRTS above 15,000 PHPDT.

The table further shows that elevated LRTS is cheaper than Metro rail at all levels of PHPDT i.e. demand level. Between Metro rail and Monorail, the table shows that Monorail is cheaper than Metro rail up to 15000 PHPDT. However Metro rail is cheaper than Monorail above 15,000 PHPDT. However, a comparison between Metro rail and Monorail is irrelevant because firstly monorail is a medium capacity mode and secondly monorail is recommended for special locations where the road right of way is limited and elevated Metro rail or elevated LRTS will be unsuitable for environmental reasons.

9.4 Impact of Capacity Limitations

In actual practice, all modes have an upper limit to capacity; for example bus with a capacity of 80 persons operating at 1 minute headway can carry a maximum of 4,800 PHPDT and not 15,000 PHPDT as assumed in the hypothetical case. Similarly, Metro rail is a very high capacity mode compared to Monorail, LRTS and BRTS. The limiting capacity of each mode depends on factors such as the number of coaches in a train and the frequency of service. The maximum capacity of a mode as per the coach configuration of the train is presented in *[Table 8-5: Maximum PHPDT capacity of different modes at](#page-46-0) [varying train configuration](#page-46-0)* of the report, reproduced below.

Table 9-2: Maximum PHPDT capacity of different modes at varying train configuration

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Headway for Rail Based Systems has been assumed at 2.5 minutes, whereas for BRTS it has been assumed at 0.6 minutes and for Ordinary Buses at 1 minute.

The LCC of the various modes for variable capacity and actual possible usage is shown in the tables below. The mode is considered 'Not Feasible' when the PHPDT exceeds the mode capacity.

Table 9-3: Metro Rail– per Seat LCC (in Rs Lakhs) at different PHPDT

Following an approach similar to the one explained earlier for Metro Rail, per seat LCC analysis of Monorail System with a 3, 6 and 9 coach train configuration has also been performed and is presented in the table below:

Table 9-4: Mono Rail - Per Seat LCC (in Rs Lakhs) at different PHPDT

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The per seat LCC calculated for elevated Light Rail system with a 2 and 4 coach train configuration at varying PHPDT is presented in the table below:

Table 9-5: Elevated Light Rail - Per Seat LCC (in Rs Lakhs) at different PHPDT

The results for at grade Light Rail System with the same train configuration as considered for elevated Light Rail System is presented in the table below:

Table 9-6: At Grade Light Rail - Per Seat LCC (in Rs Lakhs) at different PHPDT

Per seat LCC for BRTS on which buses can have one or two coach configurations has also been tested at varying PHPDT and the results are as below:

Table 9-7: BRTS - Per Seat LCC (in Rs Lakhs) at different PHPDT

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Finally for the fifth selected urban transport mode i.e. ordinary bus services, per seat LCC analysis has also been performed but only for a single coach bus configuration. The results of the same are presented in the table below:

Table 9-8: Ordinary Bus Service - Per Seat LCC (in Rs Lakhs) at different PHPDT

The result of the above analysis is summarised in the table below.

Table 9-9: Summarized view of impact of mode capacity limitations on the LCC per seat

Headway for Rail Based Systems has been assumed at 2.5 minutes, whereas for BRTS it has been assumed at 0.6 minutes and for Ordinary Buses at 1 minute.

*LCC per seat (in INR Lakh) at NPV for the assumed lifespan of 30 years

It may be noted that with the increasing mode capacity and hence PHPDT, LCC for Monorail and LRT fall substantially in comparison to Metro rail, BRTS and Bus Services.

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ANNEXURE I – ROLLING STOCK REQUIREMENT ASSESSMENT

An excel model was developed to assess the rolling stock requirement for the systems. The table below represents the model.

In the above table, given the *Corridor Length, Average Speed, PHPDT* and *Carrying Capacity*, the rest of the parameters are determined and used to calculate total rolling stock requirement.

The rakes/coaches required to accommodate the PHPDT in a single direction is derived by dividing the *PHPDT* with the *Carrying Capacity*. This derived figure in turn is used to calculate the theoretical headway by dividing 60 minutes with the vehicles that need to ply.

Given the above vehicle requirement in a single direction and the headway, the number of rakes/coaches that can be re-circulated is calculated. The formula for this calculation is in the box below:

Rakes/Coaches Re-circulated = (60/Headway) * {1-(Corridor Length/Average Speed)}

By summing the result of the above calculation with the previously calculated vehicular requirement in a single direction, the *Rake/Coaches (Both Direction)* is derived.

A reserve of 5% is maintained as *Traffic Reserve* and *Repair & Maintenance Reserve* individually.

The final Rolling Stock requirement is calculated by summing the *Traffic Reserve*, *Repair & Maintenance Reserve* and the *Rakes/Coaches (Both Direction)*.

For the purpose of these calculations the carrying capacity and vehicle configuration have been chosen as depicted in the table below:

A heavy size Hitachi monorail coaches are also available which can carry up to 175 person per coach considering 6 person per square meters and can carry up to 525 passengers in a 3 coach configuration train (axle load of 11 tons whereas it is 10 tons for the medium size specification).

ANNEXURE II – HUMAN RESOURCE REQUIREMENT DETAIL

The Human Resource Requirement that has been generated is derived using a basic staffing grid that has been created by IUT for this purpose. For rail-based systems this grid has been created using the data available from DMRC. For bus-based systems, the grid has been created using assumptions based on the data available from CIRT. The Grids have been depicted below in tabular form.

Human Resource Requirement Grid for Bus Based Systems:

ANNEXURE III – THE LCCA CALCULATION TABLES

Hypothetical Case

RESULTS OF THE HYPOTHETICAL CASE

1. All Prices Mentioned in this excel sheet is to be read in Indian National Rupee in Crores unless mentioned otherwise

2. Please edit the assumptions only in cells formatted as: **##**

3. Please use the Drop Down Menues to select the figures in the assumption cells otherwise a Spreadsheet ERROR will appear

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COMMON ASSUMPTIONS FOR ALL THE FIVE MODES

CAPEX ASSUMPTIONS

PHASING ASSUMPTIONS

Rail Based Systems

Bus Based Systems

ROLLING STOCK REQUIREMENTS

ENERGY DEMAND CALCULATIONS

STAFF REQUIREMENTS

REPAIR AND MAINTENANCE

LCCA FOR METRO RAIL SYSTEMS

abele de metro

LCCA FOR MONO RAIL SYSTEMS

Bangalore Metro Rail Corporation Limited

LCCA FOR ELEVATED LIGHT RAIL SYSTEMS

Bangalore Metro Rail Corporation Limited

LCCA FOR AT GRADE LIGHT RAIL SYSTEMS

LCCA FOR BUS RAPID TRANSIT SYSTEMS

LCCA FOR ORDINARY BUS SYSTEMS

