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3 **Mode Substitution Effect of Urban Cycle Tracks: Case Study of a Downtown**  
4 **Street in Toronto, Canada**  
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**1 ABSTRACT**

2 With the growing environmental and health concerns associated with automobiles, municipalities  
3 across North America are investing in cycling infrastructure. These new infrastructures are often  
4 assumed to facilitate a mode substitution effect, i.e., encourage drivers to take up cycling as a  
5 mode of transportation. This study explored the potential impact of cycle tracks (i.e., physically  
6 separated bicycle lane within a street right-of-way) on short-term travel mode substitution  
7 behaviour. We present a quasi-experimental case study of Sherbourne Street, located in  
8 downtown Toronto, Canada, that was redeveloped in 2012 to include cycle tracks. The study  
9 used a street intercept survey method to record quantitative data on current and retrospective  
10 travel behavior. A short-term mode substitution effect was observed, with 38% of the sample  
11 reporting that they would use other travel modes than cycling before the Sherbourne Street  
12 redevelopment for making a trip to their current destination; the majority of them were  
13 previously transit users. Binomial logistic regressions indicated that younger cyclists were less  
14 likely to substitute a car trip for a cycling trip. Those who did not use Sherbourne Street  
15 previously to reach their current destination were more likely to substitute their travel mode.  
16 Improved safety was the most commonly reported reason for mode substitution. This study  
17 contributes to a very limited literature by providing much needed insights into impacts of cycle  
18 tracks on travel behaviour. Methodologically, this paper can inform the development of easy to  
19 implement survey/audit tools to be used by professionals at the community level.

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

2 In recent decades, researchers, practitioners and advocacy groups across North America have  
3 taken notice of cycling as a more sustainable and healthier alternative to the private automobile  
4 (1, 2). As the popularity of cycling continues to grow, more research has focused on the benefits  
5 of cycling. Numerous cross sectional studies have reported an association between cycling and  
6 improved health outcomes, and that those cycling regularly meet the recommended fitness levels  
7 (1, 3, 4). Moreover, individuals choosing to travel by bicycle instead of driving assist in  
8 decreasing the number of automobiles in use, which may lead to a reduction in the harmful  
9 emissions (3, 5, 6).

10 Cycling facilities including bicycle lanes and bicycle tracks (i.e., physically separated  
11 bicycle lanes within the street right of way) remain the most common approaches to promote  
12 cycling in urban settings (7). The research literature has demonstrated an association between an  
13 increased supply of bicycle lanes and/or cycle tracks and higher cycling rates/ cycling mode  
14 share (8-10). For example, a cross sectional study, using data from 42 major US cities, found that  
15 the addition of one linear mile (1.6 km) of bicycle lane per square mile within cities was  
16 associated with a rise of approximately one percent in city-wide cycling ridership (8). However,  
17 the direct effects of these cycling infrastructure on travel mode switch (i.e., from other  
18 alternative modes to cycling) remains an understudied topic in current literature (11, 12). In the  
19 absence sufficient evidence of the role of cycling infrastructure in generating “new” cycling trips,  
20 the true impact of cycling lanes/tracks on healthy and sustainable travel behavior remains  
21 unclear.

22 This paper builds on this limited literature, and presents results from a case study of one  
23 street located in downtown Toronto, Canada, that was redeveloped in 2012 to include a bicycle  
24 track. The goal of the research is to explore the short term mode substitution effects. It was  
25 hypothesized that the cycle tracks would enable some road users (who were driving, using transit,  
26 walking or were using other travel modes than cycling) to switch their travel modes to cycling  
27 during the first few years of implementation. This short term substitution of travel mode for one  
28 specific trip may indicate a process of behavioural change that may lead to longer term  
29 substitution behaviour, and a change in overall travel mode choice patterns (11).

30 To our knowledge, the study is first of its kind in that it specifically focuses on the short  
31 term mode substitution effect of cycle tracks. It presents a quasi-experimental research on the  
32 nature and extent of travel substitution from other modes to cycling a few years after the  
33 implementation of a transportation project. Results from this study begin to provide in-depth  
34 understanding of the impacts of cycle tracks, which are becoming more common feature of  
35 downtown streets in many North American cities including the City of Toronto.  
36 Methodologically, this paper advances a very limited literature that has attempted to examine  
37 travel mode substitution behaviour (i.e., 11, 12). More broadly then, pilot studies such as the one  
38 presented here may provide a framework for conducting future research on this topic, as well as  
39 contribute to the development of survey/audit instruments that can be used by professionals to  
40 measure the impact of cycling infrastructure and related investments (11, 13, 14).

## 41 42 CYCLING INFRASTRUCTURE AND TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR: A BRIEF 43 LITERATURE REVIEW

44 An emerging literature has explored the relationship between cycling infrastructure and travel  
45 behaviour. A recent study conducted in Portland, Oregon, U.S., indicated that the majority (56%)  
46 of the people surveyed were “interested but concerned” cyclists (15). This group, curious and

1 interested in cycling, are afraid to do so and as a result not regularly cycling, is likely to be a key  
2 target market for cycling-related capital investment (15, 16). Dill and McNeil (15) also reported  
3 that physically separated cycle tracks may increase the level of comfort and enable cycling  
4 uptake among this population group. Recent research supports this finding, and suggests that for  
5 cyclists sharing a road with automobiles there is a perceived risk attributed to the possibility of  
6 collision (17). Not surprisingly, researchers have repeatedly emphasized that bicycle lanes may  
7 overcome these perceived risks and attract new inexperienced riders, particularly female riders  
8 who report being more concerned for their safety when cycling (1, 4, 9, 18, 19).

9 The existing literature also suggests that cyclists may travel greater distances to use  
10 routes that offer infrastructure that improved the safety and efficiency for users (4, 20). In  
11 particular, inexperienced cyclists are more likely to add to their trip length in order to use  
12 physically separated cycling infrastructure (e.g., cycle tracks) (4). Other recent research indicates  
13 that physically separated cycling infrastructure (e.g., off-street paths and “bicycle boulevards”)  
14 may have a stronger influence on route choice compared to bicycle lanes (21). Travel behaviour  
15 may also vary across trip purpose; Broach et al (21) reported that commuters were less sensitive  
16 of the characteristics of the bicycle infrastructure, compared to those cycling to non-work  
17 destinations.

18 A limited literature has explored the direct relationship between cycling infrastructure  
19 and a change in mode choice behaviour (i.e., travel mode substitution). For example, Piatkowski  
20 et al. (11) explored trip and mode-substitution behaviour at five locations in Denver, Colorado,  
21 and Sacramento, California in the U. S.. The surveys were typically collected at dedicated active  
22 transportation facilities, but the study did not directly measure the impact of specific  
23 infrastructure. The study identified that between 23.7% and 72.4% of the current cyclists would  
24 drive if they had not cycled. Frequency of car trips per week was positively associated with the  
25 likelihood of a car-to-cycle mode substitution. In a more recent study focusing on the use of  
26 multi-use trails (i.e., an off-street pathway separated from motor vehicles typically for pedestrian  
27 and cyclists only) for commuting trips in Albuquerque, New Mexico, U. S. found that 25% of  
28 cyclists would have made their commute trips by car had the trail not been present (12). The  
29 research also found that a desire to exercise was a significant predictor for continuing to cycle  
30 without a multi-use trail, indicating that the opportunity to participate in a healthier lifestyle  
31 presented was a major motivation for a potential mode substitution (12).

### 32 33 **CASE STUDY: SHERBOURNE STREET**

34 Sherbourne Street in downtown Toronto, Canada, was examined as a case study for this research.  
35 The street was the first in the city of Toronto to include cycle tracks on both sides of its right-of-  
36 way. Sherbourne Street was selected for redevelopment in 2012 based on its strategic location in  
37 Toronto’s existing bicycle network (22). The street runs through four different neighborhoods:  
38 North St. James Town, Cabbage Town, South James Town and Moss Park. It has varying  
39 densities and uses ranging from high-rise apartments in the north end near Bloor Street East,  
40 which is often considered as the northern border of downtown Toronto with a major  
41 concentration of high rise residential, office and high-end retail uses, to low-rise commercial and  
42 retail. Both north and south-bound buses run along the street, connecting transit riders to the  
43 Sherbourne Subway Station and the waterfront. The redevelopment of the street included a total  
44 of 2.44 km of cycle tracks extending from Bloor Street East to King Street, connecting to  
45 existing bicycle lanes at Wellesley Street, Gerrard Street, Shuter Street and Bloor Street East (22).

1 Bicycle boxes, which are painted boxes at intersections that enable cyclist to advance first,  
2 were added to major intersections such as Wellesley Street and Sherbourne Street. All on-street  
3 parking was removed, with additional spots being added on neighboring streets (22). Following  
4 its completion in 2012, the average daily cycle count rose from 995 in 2011 to 2,827 by 2014  
5 (23).

## 6 7 **METHOD**

### 8 9 **Data**

10 Street intercept surveys were conducted to collect data from current cyclists on Sherbourne  
11 Street. Two major intersections along the cycle track were chosen as data collection points. A  
12 student researcher stood near an intersection, and utilized the ‘fixed line approach’ for recruiting  
13 road users stopped at red lights (24). Cyclists travelling on both directions, who were eighteen  
14 years of age and above, were recruited. Surveys were conducted during October and November  
15 2014; one student researcher collected data on seven weekdays from 7:30am to 9:00am during  
16 the morning commute, and from 5:00pm to 6:30pm during the evening commute. Surveys were  
17 also conducted on three weekend afternoons from 4:30pm to 6:00pm.

18 A total of nine short questions were asked to cyclists, which typically took approximately  
19 one minute (Table 1). The survey questions focused on cyclists’ current (i.e., on the day of the  
20 survey) and retrospective (i.e., before the redevelopment in 2012) travel behaviour, socio-  
21 demographic characteristics, as well as on the characteristics of the trips. A total of 219 cyclists  
22 participated in the survey.

23 Conceivably, several types of “new cyclists” may contribute to an increase in the cyclist  
24 volume on a street. The first group consists of individuals who previously were cyclists, but did  
25 not use the street in question (i.e., Sherbourne Street) for travelling. Some of them may switch  
26 their travel routes to use the newly constructed cycle tracks (4, 20, 21). Some other cyclists may  
27 have changed their residential location and currently live near, and as a result use, the street with  
28 cycle tracks.

29 In this study, the focus was placed on the second group of “new cyclists”, who have  
30 recently substituted their previous travel modes for cycling. This short term mode-substitution  
31 can occur in three different ways. First, some individuals may switch their travel mode as well as  
32 the travel route to take advantage of the new cycle tracks (15). Second, individuals who are more  
33 favourable to cycling may move to a bikable neighbourhood (widely known as self-selection in  
34 urban planning literature), and some of them may take up cycling due to improved cycling  
35 infrastructure such as a cycle track (7). Lastly, individuals who previously used Sherbourne  
36 Street to reach the destination of their current trip may switch/ substitute their mode of  
37 transportation (from cars, transit or other alternatives to cycle) due to the presence of cycle tracks.

38 Potential travel behaviour change (i.e., short-term mode substitution) was captured in the  
39 survey by one key question: “Before the redevelopment of Sherbourne Street, what travel mode  
40 would you use to get to the destination of your current trip?” Those who did not (or rather, would  
41 not) cycle before the redevelopment and instead travelled by transit, car, walking or other modes  
42 were identified as individuals who substituted their previous trip with cycling. Those who  
43 potentially substituted their travel modes were investigated about the potential reasons for  
44 switching. Another question in the survey asked if participants previously used this street before  
45 the installation of the cycle tracks.

46 Adjusting for missing responses, the final dataset included trip records for n=214

1 individuals, including 183 weekday and 31 weekend trips.

2

### 3 **Statistical Analysis**

4 A logistic regression approach was adopted to explore mode substitution by a cyclist. Separate  
5 binomial logistic regression models were estimated to examine the factors associated with  
6 substitution (1) from all other modes to cycle, (2) from private automobile (i.e., car) to cycle and  
7 (3) from transit to cycle. Multinomial logistic regressions were initially considered, but were not  
8 used for multivariate analysis primarily because of a relatively small sample size.

9

10 **TABLE 1 Summary of characteristics of cyclists and cycling trips (n = 214)**

11

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<i><b>Demographics</b></i>	
Gender	
Male	61.21
Female	38.79
Age	
<40 yrs	64.95
≥40 yrs	35.05
Previously used the road before the redevelopment	
Yes	37.85
No	62.15
<i><b>Purpose and Travel Times</b></i>	
Purpose of trip	
Commuting (work)	68.69
Commuting (school)	9.81
Social	15.89
Recreational	4.67
Other	0.93
Total time to complete trip	
<15 mins	14.49
15+	85.51
Time spent from trip origin to Sherbourne Street	
<15 mins	77.57
15+ mins	23.43
Time spent from Sherbourne Street to trip destination	
<15mins	86.92
15+ mins	13.08
<i><b>Travel mode substitution</b></i>	
Changed to cycling since 2012 (after redevelopment)	38.32
Cycling before redevelopment	61.68

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## 14 **RESULTS**

15 Current cyclists on Sherbourne Street in downtown Toronto were surveyed to explore the  
16 impacts of a recently built cycle track on travel mode substitution. Table 1 summarizes the  
17 characteristics of cyclists who were surveyed, as well as the trips they took during the time of the  
18 survey. Of the cyclists who were surveyed, 61% were male, and 65% were between the ages of  
19 18 and 40 years old. The majority surveyed are “new” users of Sherbourne Street; as only 38%  
20 of all current cyclists travelled along Sherbourne Street before the 2012 redevelopment that  
21 introduced a cycle track.

22

Between 2012 and 2015, 38% of all respondents potentially switched their travel mode

1 to cycling (Table 1). The others (62%) cycled before, but did not use Sherbourne Street for  
 2 travelling to the destination of their current trip. A closer examination of the previous mode of  
 3 transportation for the same or similar trip (Table 2) revealed that the majority of those who  
 4 substituted their travel modes to cycling would previously have used transit as their primary  
 5 travel mode (55%), followed by driving (i.e., private automobiles, 24%) and walking (13%).  
 6 While this transit-to-cycle mode substitution was more common for commuting trips (compared  
 7 to social, recreational and other trips), the difference across trip purpose was not statistically  
 8 significant ( $\chi^2=6.20$  ;  $p = 0.1845$ ).

9  
 10 **TABLE 2 Reported mode of travel for same/ similar trip prior to the 2012 redevelopment**  
 11

	All trips (n = 214)		Commute (work or school) (n = 168)		Other (Social, recreational, other) (n = 46)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Private auto (i.e., car)	20	9.35	15	8.93	5	10.87
Transit	45	21.03	40	23.81	5	10.87
Cycle	132	61.68	100	59.52	32	69.57
Walk	11	5.14	8	4.76	3	6.52
Other	6	2.80	5	2.98	1	2.17

12 Note:  $\chi^2$  of the difference between commute and other trips is 6.20 (df = 4);  $p = 0.1845$   
 13

14 Binomial logistic regressions were estimated for reported mode substitution (from all  
 15 other modes to cycle, from car to cycle, and from transit to cycle); the findings are summarized  
 16 in Table 3. Results from the regression analysis indicate that route substitution was probably the  
 17 most important correlate of travel mode switch. The likelihood of a mode substitution to cycling  
 18 (from any other mode) was 11 times (Odds Ratio,  $OR = e^{2.40} = 11.02$ ) higher among cyclists who  
 19 had not travelled along Sherbourne Street for the same or similar trips before the 2012  
 20 redevelopment. In addition, a mode switch from driving to cycling was less likely to occur  
 21 among individuals aged <40 years ( $\alpha=0.10$ ), and more likely to occur among those who had to  
 22 travel > 15 minutes to get to Sherbourne Street (compared to those who travelled  $\leq 15$  minutes).  
 23 In contrast, an individual was less likely to substitute a transit trip for cycling when the total trip  
 24 length was < 15 minutes (compared to >30 minutes trip length;  $OR = 0.22$ ).  
 25

**TABLE 3 Binary logistic regression of mode substitution to cycling (n = 214)**

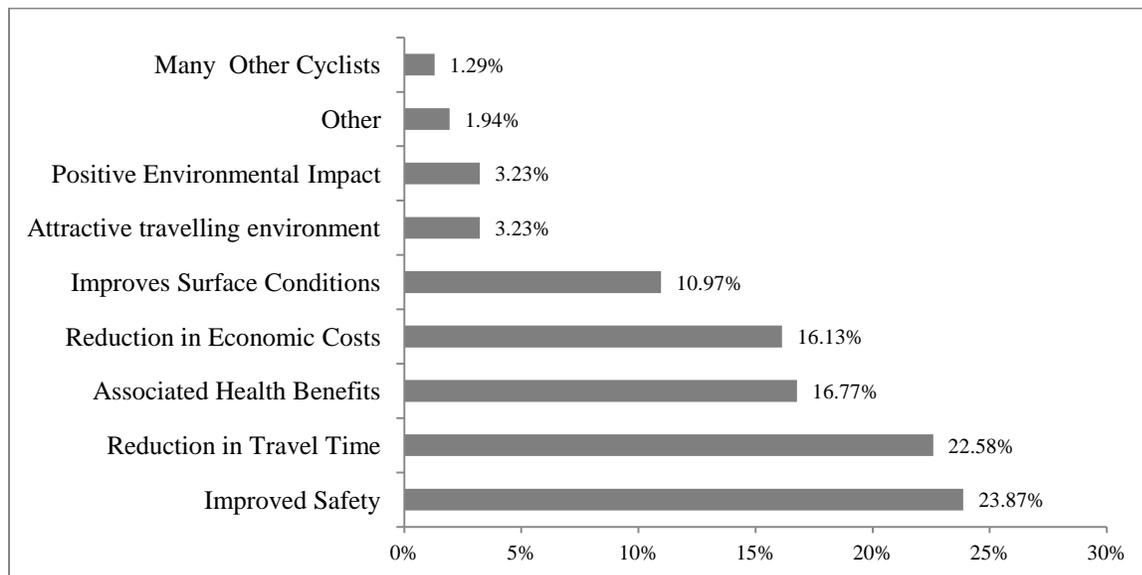
	From All Modes <sup>1</sup>		From Car <sup>2</sup>		From Transit <sup>3</sup>	
	Not adjusted for route substitution Coef (S. E.)	Adjusted for route substitution Coef (S. E.)	Not adjusted for route substitution Coef (S. E.)	Adjusted for route substitution Coef (S. E.)	Not adjusted for route substitution Coef (S. E.)	Adjusted for route substitution Coef (S. E.)
Gender (ref: Female)						
Male	-0.38 (0.30)	-0.19 (0.34)	-0.20 (0.50)	0.12 (0.54)	-0.54 (0.36)	-0.43 (0.38)
Age (ref : ≥40 yrs)						
< 40 yrs	0.36 (0.31)	0.22 (0.35)	-0.64 (0.49)	<b>-0.92 (0.52)</b>	0.20 (0.37)	0.10 (0.40)
Purpose (ref: Other)						
Commute	0.29 (0.42)	0.27 (0.47)	-0.48 (0.65)	-0.47(0.68)	0.81 (0.61)	0.78 (0.63)
Trip length (ref: >30 mins)						
< 15 mins	-0.40 (0.58)	0.07 (0.66)	0.41 (0.95)	0.86 (1.02)	<b>-1.74 (0.79)</b>	<b>-1.51 (0.82)</b>
15-30 mins	-0.55 (0.46)	-0.28 (0.51)	0.02 (0.71)	0.40 (1.23)	-0.84 (0.51)	-0.60 (0.55)
Dist from origin (ref: ≤15 mins)						
>15 mins	-0.61 (0.44)	-0.11 (0.50)	<b>1.14 (0.67)</b>	<b>0.85 (0.77)</b>	<b>-1.15 (0.54)</b>	-0.85 (0.57)
Dist from destination (ref: ≤15 mins)						
>15 mins	-0.72 (0.55)	-0.62 (0.62)	-1.40 (1.14)	-1.61 (1.23)	-0.14 (0.61)	0.19 (0.66)
Day of week (ref: weekday)						
Weekend	-0.13 (0.51)	-0.08 (0.58)	-0.60 (0.90)	-0.18 (0.94)	-0.05 (0.70)	-0.21 (0.74)
Route substitution (ref: no)						
Yes (i.e., did not use road before)		<b>2.40 (0.42)</b>		<b>2.36 (0.83)</b>		<b>2.04 (0.56)</b>
Constant	-0.11 (0.62)	<b>-2.17 (0.79)</b>	<b>-1.62 (0.93)</b>	<b>-4.00 (1.33)</b>	-0.89 (0.79)	<b>-2.67 (0.98)</b>
McFadden's $\rho^2$ (adj.)	0.03 (0.00)	0.19 (0.16)	0.07 (0.01)	0.16 (0.10)	0.07 (0.03)	0.16 (0.12)
AIC	294.79	251.45	141.78	131.2	222.6	205.23

NOTE: 1: Ref: previous travel mode was bicycle; 2: Ref: previous travel mode was transit, cycle, walk or other; 3: Ref: previous travel mode was car, cycle, walk or other.

Coefficients in **bold** are significant at  $\alpha=0.05$ ; coefficients in **bold italics** are significant at  $\alpha=0.10$ .

1 Those who had recently (i.e., since 2012) substituted their travel mode from any other  
 2 mode to cycling were also prompted to outline their reasons for switching modes. Respondents  
 3 were able to choose multiple responses (i.e., “all that applies”). A total of 80 respondents picked  
 4 n=155 responses, which are summarized in Figure 1. Improved safety (24%), reduction in travel  
 5 time (23%), and associated health benefits at 17% were the most commonly mentioned reasons  
 6 for switching travel modes (Figure 1). Among the other potential reason, the presence of other  
 7 cyclists, positive environmental impact and attractive travelling environment were the least  
 8 frequently mentioned ones.

9  
 10 **FIG 1 Reasons for substituting modes of transportation to cycling**



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 13 **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

14 This paper presents a novel quasi-experimental study of the short-term mode substitution  
 15 behaviour. Using a case study of Sherbourne Street in downtown Toronto, and a methodical  
 16 approach that is somewhat similar to Piatkowski et al. (11), we specifically explored mode shift  
 17 to cycling after the implementation of a cycle track.

18 The results indicate that 38% of the current cyclists on Sherbourne Street would have  
 19 used other modes of travel for the same/ similar trip (i.e., to reach the destination of their current  
 20 trip) before the redevelopment in 2012. We also found that more than half (55%) of these new  
 21 cycling trips were previously made using transit (Table 2). Car to cycle mode substitution, which  
 22 is perhaps the most desired type of mode substitution outcome from a policy perspective (11),  
 23 was relatively low at 22%. Other recent studies have reported higher car- to- cycle mode  
 24 substitution rates in the U.S. (11, 12). However, within the context of downtown Toronto, an  
 25 area that is served by subways, streetcars and buses, and where the mode share for transit and  
 26 cycling is already high, our results are not surprising. Instead, they suggest that the addition of  
 27 cycle tracks may result in a reduction in both public transit users and private automobiles,  
 28 contributing to some relief from transit and automobile congestion, both of which remain  
 29 important topics of discussion among transportation engineers/ planners, politicians, civic  
 30 engagement groups and popular media in Toronto. With transit lines running above design

1 capacity, reducing transit congestion may also have indirect positive impacts encouraging other  
2 mode substitutions to transit (e.g., from cars to transit) across the district.

3 Of all the current cyclists on Sherbourne Street, 62% would cycle for travelling to their  
4 current destination before 2012. However, 45% of those who previously cycled did not ride on  
5 Sherbourne Street before the redevelopment, indicating a substantial route substitution after the  
6 introduction of the cycle tracks. The result is not surprising in the context of current evidence  
7 that suggests that inexperienced cyclists may add to their trip length in order to use physically  
8 separated cycling infrastructure (4, 21).

9 This potential route substitution was also the most important predictor of mode  
10 substitution in our models (Table 3). A strong association between travel route change and mode  
11 substitution, as observed in this study, indirectly supports the existing literature that has  
12 hypothesized that physically separated cycling infrastructure, such as the cycle tracks, may  
13 improve perceived comfort and safety among inexperienced and concerned cyclists, and may  
14 enable cycling uptake among some (15). Moreover, improved safety was the most commonly  
15 reported reason behind travel mode substitution to cycling (Fig. 1), further emphasizing the  
16 importance of cycle tracks in enabling cycling in an urban setting. Part of the observed  
17 association between travel route change and cycling uptake (i.e., short term mode substitution)  
18 may also relate to residential self-selection, as outlined in previous research (7) and was  
19 discussed in the Methods section of this paper. The cause-effect relationship between travel route  
20 change and mode substitution, however, could not be directly explored within the scope of this  
21 study, and a more in-depth examination of this topic remain subject to our future research.

22 With regard to the socio-demographic characteristics, only 39% of all cyclists that were  
23 surveyed were women, which is consistent with current literature that has consistently reported  
24 lower cycling rates among women (25, 26). Moreover, previous studies reported an association  
25 between younger age and cycling (27, 28), which is consistent with what was found in Toronto;  
26 65% of the cyclists that were surveyed were <40 years old. However, our model results indicated  
27 that younger individuals (< 40 years old) were less likely to substitute a car trip for a cycling trip  
28 (Table 3;  $\alpha = 0.10$ ). The result is not surprising particularly in the context of downtown Toronto,  
29 where many young adults do not own cars and/or drive less frequently, and perhaps as a result,  
30 not many of the new cyclists were drivers before the Sherbourne Street redevelopment. Current  
31 research has also reported a statistical association between higher female ridership and cycling  
32 infrastructure (9). No such association was found in our study.

33 Regarding the trip characteristics, previous research suggested that the impact of cycling  
34 infrastructure can be different on commuting trips versus other destinations (11, 21). Our models  
35 indicated no such difference. Most cyclists (86%) travelled >3.75 km (i.e., >15 mins at 15 km /  
36 hr) to complete their trips (Table 1). Travel time did have some statistical association with mode  
37 substitution to cycle, both from a car or from transit (Table 3). Those who are currently travelling  
38 <15 minutes to reach their destinations were less likely (Odds Ratio,  $OR = e^{-1.51} = 0.22$ ) to  
39 substitute their mode of travel from transit to cycling, compared to those travelling >30 minutes.  
40 In contrast, for those who travelled >15 mins to Sherbourne Street from their trip origin, the  
41 likelihood of a car-to-cycle mode substitution was higher ( $OR = 2.34$ ), compared to those who  
42 had to travel  $\leq 15$  mins. These findings are at odds with the existing literature that emphasizes the  
43 importance of access to cycling infrastructure in facilitating cycling (4, 11, 29). However, when  
44 examined in the context of Sherbourne Street, the results are not surprising. For example, for  
45 those trips where travel distance between trip origin and Sherbourne Street was >15 mins, no one  
46 walked, and higher proportion of respondents drove before the 2012 redevelopment. Not

1 surprisingly then, the likelihood of substituting a car trip for a cycling trip was higher after the  
2 implementation of the cycle track.

3 Building on a very limited literature (11, 12), this study presents an easy-to-implement  
4 method of using an intercept survey asking retrospective questions about behavioural change to  
5 examine the short term impact of cycling infrastructure. The results begin to provide insights into  
6 the cycling mode substitution behaviour in downtown Toronto and perhaps in other similar urban  
7 situations. However, the scope of this study was somewhat limited by the methodical approach  
8 (i.e., short intercept survey) that was adopted in this research. For example, travel route change  
9 was one of the most important indicators of mode substitution, but this relationship could not be  
10 explored more directly. Existing literature has also reported a cultural and attitudinal shift toward  
11 cycling in recent years across North America (7, 30, 31). Thus, some increase in cycling could be  
12 expected due to changes in attitudes even without the new facility and we acknowledge this  
13 potential confounding factor could not be accounted for in this study (32, 33). More generally,  
14 our findings may not be generalizable to other urban and/or rural contexts that have a different  
15 (e.g., less dense and diverse) built form, lower transit use or a different urban cycling culture.

16 With very limited literature on this topic, there is great opportunity for further research  
17 both refining the methodology and exploring variables such as other socioeconomic factors and  
18 cycling attitude/ culture. This future research would provide a clearer understanding of the mode  
19 substitution effect that this study begins to uncover, and provide sound data on cycling  
20 infrastructure that would enable urban planners, policy advisors, and politicians to plan for  
21 healthier and more sustainable communities.  
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