The objective of this research was to identify a set of potential strategies that could improve California’s freight system performance and efficiency. The white papers focused on those strategies aimed at maximizing asset utilization by fostering collaborative logistics (CL) practices and/or freight demand management (FDM).

A number of stakeholders met with the ultimate goal of identifying inefficiencies faced by the freight system and putting forward a set of strategies to achieve a more efficient freight system. In doing so, a key first step was to provide insight as to the possible root cause(s) of major inefficiencies affecting the system. In addition to assessing inefficiencies, this research describes some of the aspects and necessary conditions that need to be considered when defining or identifying remediating strategies. Moreover, the research discusses a number of efficiency improvement strategies. These include:

- Voluntary Off-Hour Delivery Programs.
- Receiver-led Consolidation.
- Improvement of Traffic Mitigation Fee Programs.
- Implement Advanced Appointment/Reservation Systems.
- Developing an Integrated System for Dray Operations and Services.
- Load Matching and Maximizing Capacity.

In light of the Governor’s Executive Order, it is imperative that the various public agencies in the State initiate, continue or reinforce efforts to address some of these issues.
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STRATEGIES TO MAXIMIZE ASSET UTILIZATION IN THE CALIFORNIA FREIGHT SYSTEM: GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS AND POTENTIAL IMPROVEMENT STRATEGIES

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY
The freight system is one of the key contributors to a healthy economy. However, the vehicles, equipment, and facilities used by the different economic agents that conduct freight operations produce significant externalities: congestion, environmental emissions, and safety issues, among other impacts. Therefore, public and private initiatives, measures, or strategies to mitigate these negative externalities, and move the system onto a more sustainable path, are a priority.

In response to this need, the Freight Efficiency Strategy Development Group (FESDG), a collaborative effort between academia, public and private stakeholders, and government, was convened in August 2015 with the ultimate goal of identifying freight system inefficiencies in California and developing a set of potential efficiency improvement strategies.

This report discusses key findings from the effort. It provides a brief overview of the California freight system in terms of the main stakeholders, their roles and interactions; the impacts from the type of vehicles used to move cargo in, out and throughout the State; and various pressing inefficiencies.

When investigating the dynamic among the stakeholders, several key points are identified:

- The industry objectives, business models, and regulatory compliance requirements associated with each of the large number of stakeholders are some of the factors that evidence the system’s complexity.
- Although there is multiplicity of stakeholders, the performance of the system may be driven by the decisions of a limited number of players who have greater decision-making powers (e.g., shippers, receivers).
- Designing policies or strategies to foster behavioral shifts and efficiency improvements requires identifying the appropriate decision maker capable of influencing such change.
- The freight system is comprised of a number of supply chains, each with different operational patterns (e.g., distributive networks, spoke and wheel patterns, corridors).
- Freight activity manifests itself in different forms, depending on the layer of the economy: 1) international trade economy freight gateways (i.e., seaports, airports, land ports of entry); 2) domestic manufacturing/agricultural economy; and 3) the distribution and urban economy.
- Although usually overlooked, the freight traffic generated by the domestic manufacturing/agricultural and distribution economies is a magnitude larger than traffic generated by the international trade layers.

There are myriad types of efficiencies and inefficiencies worth discussing:
• The freight system experiences high levels of pressure from both external and internal factors. Government, market, and environmental conditions require the system’s players to squeeze profit margins, in some cases, creating inefficiencies at the expense of other players and even at the expense of their own sub-systems.
• Due to the silo nature of the freight system components, efficiency gains at the sub-system level do not tend to equate to net gains in terms of a system optimum.
• Congestion, highway capacity, safety, geometrics, surface conditions, and intermodal connections are key concerns of the trucking industry.
• There are several corridors and freight bottlenecks affecting the efficiency of goods and passenger movements in different regions of the State.
• Congestion (in its various forms) is an important factor contributing to the system’s inefficiencies.
• The share of accidents caused by trucks is small; however, accidents involving heavy-duty vehicles are more likely to result in fatalities.
• There are issues with truck routes and freight planning.
• Inefficiencies associated with the bulk of freight vehicle movements, and with the last mile and distribution economy, are the result of a lack of planning and consideration for the freight industry in general planning processes; the importance of the last mile and distribution economy has been neglected in particular.
• The general public and some public officials, usually associate the major freight issues with on-road motor carriers. However, these carriers are only the conduit between points of origin and destination; because of how the system works, shippers and receivers tend to be the ultimate decision makers that determine how, when, and where freight operations occur.
• Hours of Service Rules, especially the Hours of Service of Drivers Final Rule of 2011, if implemented, could introduce additional operational inefficiencies in the freight system. It is important to evaluate such Rule without affecting its safety and other intended benefits.
• There are concerns in the trucking industry about the predicted shortage of qualified truck drivers.
• Within the seaports, congestion and inefficiency can be seen at the intersections of multiple portions of the supply chain and multi-modal transactions across multiple business lines, all in one concentrated node.
• Port labor disruptions during contract negotiations, and/or lack of new terminal infrastructure, can impact California’s economic competitiveness.
• International cargo movement patterns that translate into congestion at seaports can also result in significant delays for trucks looking to pick up and drop off cargo. However, inefficiencies do not only affect the land side of marine terminals. Vessel loading and discharge is also susceptible to congestion, at a great expense to vessel operators.

In light of the Governor’s Executive Order, it is imperative that California’s various public agencies initiate, continue, and/or reinforce efforts to address freight efficiency issues such as those outlined above.
Although there could be a myriad of potential solutions, the research conducted and the efforts of the sub-groups of the Freight Efficiency Strategy Development Group that contributed to this project concentrated on those that could help improve or maximize asset utilization by fostering collaborative logistics (CL) practices and/or freight demand management (FDM). CL practices are defined as those activities initiated, maintained, and/or conducted by different supply chain or freight system stakeholders in which they collaborate, coordinate, or cooperate in terms of resources, knowledge, assets or information to achieve operational or economic efficiency improvements of a larger system. And, FDM strategies are defined as transportation policies that seek to induce changes in demand patterns and freight behaviors to increase economic productivity and/or efficiency, sustainability and environmental justice. Because of the very nature of the system itself, strategies do not work in isolation, and each strategy may require complementary strategies to be feasible and implementable (e.g., sponsored programs to acquire technology, incentives to foster behavioral changes, funding for capital investments).

The analyses provide some insight into expected impacts, planning, technical and operational requirements, and evaluation metrics for each strategy by analyzing a number of factors such as:

- **Nature of the Strategy:** Collaborative logistics practices (collaboration/cooperation) or freight demand management.

- **Geographic scope of the inefficiency/improvement strategy:** Area(s) where the inefficiency is acute, including at international gateways, on-road sections of the distribution network, and urban areas.

- **Expected benefits:** Anticipated benefits of the strategies (i.e., reduce congestion, increase environmental sustainability, enhance safety and security, enhance economic competitiveness, increase revenue generation and enhance livability)

- **Level of implementation effort/time/cost:** Estimated inputs required.

- **Primary stakeholders targeted by the strategy:** Stakeholders directly affected by the strategy.

- **Stakeholders’ role in the implementation/planning effort:** Stakeholder type(s) and anticipated role(s).

- **Potential for unintended consequences:** Any undesirable impacts that could be linked with a strategy.

The research process included a critical review of the available information (e.g., research reports, operational reports, implementation programs, pilot tests) of current freight operations, discussions and stakeholder engagement (academia, public and private stakeholders, and government) to identify strategies that could help improve the efficiency of the California’s freight system. The authors selected geographic scope (e.g., layer of the economy) as a categorical factor and discussed those strategies that would mainly affect the distribution economy and the international gateways. Results from the process allow identifying the following potential strategies:
• **Voluntary Off-Hour Delivery Programs.** This strategy is based on a voluntary program of pick-up and delivery operations in the off-hours.

• **Receiver-led Consolidation.** This type of strategies seeks to foster behavioral changes within supply chains by taking advantage of the power of receivers to push for cargo consolidation.

• **Development of a Chassis Pool of Pools Fully Integrated System.** The Development of a Chassis-PoP fully integrated system that seeks to transition the current PoP to an information and management system that provides the adequate type, quantity and quality of chassis available, and offers simplified administrative and billing services.

• **Improvement of Traffic Mitigation Fee Programs.**

• **Implement Advanced Appointment/Reservation Systems.** Seeks to develop and implement advanced appointment and reservation flexible system that integrates with other information systems to maximize asset utilizations.

• **Developing an Integrated System for Dray Operations and Services.** This strategy seeks to foster the development of cooperation and collaborative agreements between drayage operators, beneficial cargo owners, and in some cases, shipping lines and port terminals, to offer a shared service.

• **Load Matching and Maximizing Capacity.** There are many variations of load matching; examples include matching empty containers with loads; first come, first take pickups; and platforms to match small loads with available space in containers which are not already full.

• **Evaluation of Revised Vehicle Size and Weight Restrictions.** Allowing increases in truck length and size would provide the opportunity for significant gains in efficiency for certain portions of the freight industry, granted that safety considerations are addressed.

Each strategy showed that there is variability in the potential for their impacts, the levels of effort needed for their implementation, and the type of stakeholders involved in the planning, research, and implementation phases. Some of the strategies are likely to be widely understood by the practitioner community, while others require careful analysis and implementation to avoid unintended consequences. A qualitative assessment of the strategies showed that these strategies have the potential to generate positive effects in terms of increased operational efficiency, reduced congestion, and improved environmental sustainability; while not generating major impacts on safety, security and enhancing livability. However, the magnitude of those benefits could not be estimated, as additional research, simulation, modeling and analyses are required to identify the corridors, and/or specific locations (or stakeholders) where those benefits would be realized. The analyses also indicate that the development and implementation of some of these strategies, although mainly to be initiated by the private sector, would require critical external planning, financial and policy support from local/regional/State/Federal government, planning agencies, and other public authorities.

Overall, the development and further analysis of strategies and issues, requires efforts that concentrate on:

• Conducting sound freight planning at all levels; with emphasis on urban freight;
• Identifying behaviors that need to be fostered, or mitigated, among the various stakeholders;
• Developing participatory stakeholder engagement;
• Fostering information sharing;
• Developing plans, agreements and platforms for active conversation to address labor issues; and invest in workforce development; and
• Investing in research and continued improvement efforts.

In general, trying to achieve the goal of improving freight efficiency will require coordinated efforts between the public and private sectors, academia, communities, and any other relevant stakeholders. As there are numerous different types of issues identified within the freight system, it is not likely that a single strategy will result in significant improvements. This is a complex system requiring multi-part complex solutions. While some of the strategies are intended to mitigate pressing issues, others could help to adapt and be able to mitigate the impacts of future trends, and operational patterns. Designing a plan to improve the freight efficiency should consider a set or packages of complementary strategies.
Strategies to Maximize Asset Utilization in the California Freight System

CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

The freight system is one of the key contributors to a healthy economy. However, the vehicles, equipment, and facilities used by the different economic agents that conduct freight operations produce significant externalities including congestion, environmental emissions, and safety issues, among other impacts. Therefore, public and private initiatives, measures, or strategies to mitigate negative impacts and move the system towards a more sustainable path are a priority. In general, the type of strategies that could be implemented range from infrastructure improvements and technological advancements to freight transportation demand management strategies (which focus on behavioral changes). Although infrastructure and technology enhancements are essential components of a comprehensive improvement strategy, these alone cannot address underlying behavioral aspects that translate into system inefficiencies.

This concept is even more acute in a geographic location such as California, where important large traffic generators such as the maritime ports, international border, extensive agriculture and production lands, and huge consumption demand in its large metropolitan areas interact and exhibit diverse freight patterns, operations, and issues. The freight system experiences high levels of pressure from both external and internal factors. Government, the market, and environmental conditions require the system’s players to squeeze profit margins, in some cases, creating inefficiencies at the expense of other players and even sub-systems. Moreover, efficiency gains at the various sub-systems do not equate to a system optimum. Therefore, putting forward a plan to improve the efficiency of the California freight system as a whole requires an understanding of its multiple stakeholders, industry relations, and the current opportunities and constraints faced by the system.

In July 2015, Governor Jerry Brown issued Executive Order B-32-15, directing several state agencies to work together in developing an integrated action plan that will “…establish clear targets to improve freight efficiency, transition to zero-emission technologies, and increase competitiveness of California’s freight system…” and [the plan should] “…identify state policies, programs, and investments to achieve these targets…” As a consequence, the California Air Resources Board, the California Department of Transportation (Caltrans), the California Energy Commission (CEC), and the Governor’s Office of Business and Economic Development (GO-Biz) formed an interagency group to oversee the development of the California Sustainable Freight Action Plan (CSFAP). During the development of the plan, these agencies conducted a number of engagement and outreach activities to seek feedback and input. One of such efforts helped convene the Freight Efficiency Strategy Development Group (FESDG). The FESDG is a collaborative effort between academia, public and private stakeholders, and the government. Convened in August 2015, the purpose and main task of this group was to produce a series of white papers that identify promising strategies for increasing the efficiency of the freight system.
This report discusses the research from two of the white papers developed during this effort. One of the papers discussed inefficiencies faced by the freight system, while the second paper identified a set of potential strategies that could be analyzed to achieve a more efficient freight system by maximizing asset utilization by fostering collaborative logistics (CL) practices and/or freight demand management (FDM).

This report is organized as follows. Chapter II provides a brief overview of the California freight system, emphasizing key stakeholders, their roles and interactions. Chapter III discusses major inefficiencies affecting the system. Section IV discusses the potential improvement strategies. And Chapter V provides a set of general recommendations.
CHAPTER II. OVERVIEW OF THE CALIFORNIA FREIGHT SYSTEM

Key stakeholders, their roles and interactions

At first glance, various stakeholders in the California freight system can be clearly identified. These include carrier companies (e.g., rail, ocean vessel, truckers, etc.); shippers; receivers (e.g., beneficiary cargo owners, retailers, manufacturers, farms, businesses, households); public agencies; terminal, distribution, warehousing and ancillary facility operators; intermediaries and logistics operators; regulators; the general public; trade organizations; unions; law enforcement; and, non-governmental organizations.

According to the California Freight Mobility Plan\(^1\), the current core freight system includes:

- Twelve deep water seaports (11 private and 1 public),
- Numerous private port and terminal facilities,
- Twelve airports with major cargo operations,
- Two Class I railroads and twenty-six short-line railroads operating over approximately 6,000 miles of railroad track,
- Approximately 5,800 center-line miles of high-traffic-volume interstate and state highways,
- Three existing, and one future, commercial land border ports of entry (POE) with Mexico,
- Intermodal transfer facilities,
- Approximately 19,370 miles of hazardous liquid (includes crude oil, refined petroleum products, and other highly volatile liquids) and natural gas pipelines,
- A vast warehousing and distribution sector, and
- Numerous local connector roads that complete the “last mile.”

The sheer number of stakeholders (each with their own objectives, business models, regulatory compliance requirements, and areas of influence), makes describing their interactions, and even understanding the impact of efficiency improvement strategies, a daunting task. Within the system, there are numerous market forces that affect the way each individual player performs and the role that it plays; each subset of each supply chain aims to achieve the same end goal: to maximize its own utility and efficiency, and to minimize its own cost of doing business. It is important to note, as discussed before, that each individual player acting to maximize its own efficiency does not guarantee achieving a greater total systems efficiency.

At this point, it is important to mention that although all players may be performing inside a supply chain with many stakeholders, the performance of the chain may be driven by the decision of a limited number of them (having increased decision power). In many cases, the shippers and/or the receivers of the cargo are the ones defining the frequency of distribution, mode, routes, and even transaction schedules; with the rest of the players adjusting to these requirements. This highlights the need to fully identify these interactions when designing policies or strategies in order to reach the appropriate decision maker. In general, the effectiveness of any strategies will not only be their ability to address the key problem but also to reach the adequate stakeholder. For example, PierPass congestion charges are successful at shifting cargo

\(^1\) California Department of Transportation, California Freight Mobility Plan (Final) Chapter 2.1 ~ 2.3, 2013.
from peak demand periods to off-peak demand periods mainly due to the system design where the fees were paid by receivers and not by the motor carrier drayage companies.

**Cargo and Vehicle Movements**

Describing the freight system requires defining the supply chains that comprise the system. The system does not drive freight; freight demand drives the system. Each supply chain system is made up of thousands of investments in companies, properties, public infrastructure projects, vehicles and pieces of equipment. The different stakeholders that are a part of each supply chain react to the demand for freight. This is the ultimate manifestation of the freight economy, where monetary transactions translate into the movements of goods (and the vehicles that carry them) from points of production to those of (intermediate or final) consumption. To put it in perspective, these manifestations which occur over and over again within the freight system contribute to one-third of the economy and direct and indirect jobs in California.

Most supply chains are distributive networks; others are formed in spoke and wheel patterns or corridors. Some are defined within the boundaries of the State while others span state lines. In some cases, products to be consumed, transformed, or exported in the State, may have already entered and exited the boundaries several times. Some flows of cargo pass through urban areas while others have the urban areas as the destination. This is of great importance since efficiency improvements will not only be needed inside the State but upstream in their out-of-state supply chains. In many cases, last mile challenges and inefficiencies hinder the efficiency gains in the long haul portion of the transport. These impacts will vary across different types of geographies and urban areas.

Without loss of generality, one can assume these areas to be comprised of different levels of three main layers of the economy where freight plays a role: the international trade economy, domestic manufacturing/agricultural economy, and the distribution economy:

- International trade economy freight gateways include seaports, airports, and land ports of entry. Usually, these operations concentrate along specific freight corridors connecting the port or border facilities and import or export facilities such as warehouses and distribution centers or manufacturing plants and farms.
- Domestic manufacturing/agricultural economy include users who build, grow, transform, and store goods. This is an important layer which drives a significant portion of urban economies (the majority of the production centers are localized in or near urban areas).
- The distribution economy is related to the final consumption of the goods. Traditionally, the final recipients of goods were almost always freight intensive businesses, such as retail, wholesale, and food and beverage, but now direct residential deliveries constitute a growing and significant percentage of urban freight movements.

It is important to highlight that, although usually overlooked, the freight traffic generated by the domestic manufacturing/agricultural and distribution economies are of a magnitude larger than the international trade layers. *Table 1* shows the estimated average daily truck trips in Southern
California, with the internal\textsuperscript{2} truck traffic representing almost 85% of the traffic. This is similar to the proportion of urban goods movements compared to major freight generators in other geographic locations.

**Table 1: Daily Regional Truck Trips by Category by County\textsuperscript{3}**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Imperial</th>
<th>Los Angeles</th>
<th>Orange</th>
<th>Riverside</th>
<th>San Bernardino</th>
<th>Ventura</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>13,032</td>
<td>150,207</td>
<td>14,611</td>
<td>9,850</td>
<td>10,434</td>
<td>45,781</td>
<td>582,965</td>
<td>54.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External</td>
<td>2,061</td>
<td>47,962</td>
<td>1,014</td>
<td>4,231</td>
<td>7,601</td>
<td>2,347</td>
<td>72,278</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Port</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>50,665</td>
<td>1,490</td>
<td>659</td>
<td>1,957</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>54,791</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intramodal (KMO)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5,430</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>1,630</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>7,571</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8,886</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>1,206</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7,649</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12,005</td>
<td>682,200</td>
<td>14,720</td>
<td>95,241</td>
<td>124,149</td>
<td>46,025</td>
<td>125,921</td>
<td>11.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>95.1%</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{2} Internal Truck Trips: These are truck trips that have both an origin and a destination within the SCAG region and are generated by local industries, construction sites, domestic warehouses and truck terminals and residences.

\textsuperscript{3} http://scagrtpscs.net/Documents/2016/draft/d2016RTPSCS_GoodsMovement.pdf

Each of these economies brings a set of stakeholders and planning needs. Some are multi-modal in nature, while others are dominated by a single mode. Freight operations and patterns can also show a high degree of variability, depending on the composition (percentage of trade, manufacturing and distribution), imposing additional planning and modeling challenges.

While the analyses in this report will simplify the freight system in terms of these three layers, supply chains are complex and any further detail would require analysis of additional echelons or intermediary steps of the chain. Each of these layers will also exhibit distinct modes of transport, from large ocean vessel carriers transporting thousands of TEUs to cargo-bikes or even personal parcel deliveries at residential locations. Even at these different scales, the types of inefficiencies could be very similar, yet the approaches to solve them rather distinct.
CHAPTER III. KEY INEFFICIENCIES IN THE FREIGHT SYSTEM

In general, inefficiencies in the freight system take the form of congestion, which in turn can result in higher levels of environmental pollution, additional safety conditions, and negative impacts on economic growth and investment.

Inefficiencies in the On-road Trucking Sector

According to a 1998 state survey of trucking firms,\(^4\) congestion, along with highway capacity, safety, geometrics, surface conditions, and intermodal connections, was a principal concern of the industry. Since that time, growth in freight traffic, over the road or at specific freight bottlenecks have only caused more recurring and predictable congestion in selected locations; while the temporary loss of capacity, or nonrecurring congestion that is caused by incidents, weather, work zones and other disruptions, is still notably widespread even if less predictable\(^5\).

In California, the major congested highways in the peak period are concentrated in its two largest urban cores, in the San Francisco Bay Area and greater Los Angeles. According to the corridor reliability buffer index, the least reliable corridors in 2010 were\(^6\):

- Westbound I–80, Alameda County, BTI\(^7\): 79 percent in the AM peak.
- Westbound SR–22, Orange County, BTI: 75 percent in the AM peak.
- Eastbound SR–91, Orange County, BTI: 74 percent in the PM peak.
- Northbound SR–57, Orange County, BTI: 70 percent in the PM peak.
- Southbound SR–57, Orange County, BTI: 67 percent in the PM peak.

According to the American Transportation Research Institute (ATRI), the Los Angeles metropolitan area had the highest cost to the trucking industry due to congestion with $1.1 billion added operational costs\(^8\). Specifically, the top 5 bottlenecks identified are listed below\(^9\):

- SR-60 at SR-57 in Los Angeles County
- I-710 at I-105 in Los Angeles County
- I-10 at I-15 in San Bernardino County
- I-15 at SR-91 in Riverside County
- I-110 at I-105 in Los Angeles County.

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\(^6\) California Department of Transportation, California Freight Mobility Plan (Final) Chapter 2.1 ~ 2.3, 2013.

\(^7\) Buffer Time Index (BTI) is a reliability measure of travel time. Buffer Time is the difference between the average travel time and the 95th percentile travel time as calculated from the annual average. The Index is estimated considering a number of roadway sections (using VMT to weight the various) sections and controlling for the average travel rate across all the sections. In general, the measure could be explained as the extra BTI% travel time that a traveler should allocate due to variations in the amount of congestion delay on a trip.


In addition, the reader is referred to the Goods Movement Appendix in the 2016-2040 Southern California Association of Governments’ (SCAG) Regional Transportation Plan10 for a detailed analysis of freight bottlenecks affecting the freight system in the region.

In terms of safety, the California Highway Patrol (CHP) Statewide Integrated Traffic Records System (SWITRS) reported that of the 2,758 total number of fatal traffic collisions in 2010, 235 involved trucks (1 out of 10)11. Truck drivers were at fault in only 75 of the incidents, indicating that in fatal collisions between cars and trucks, automobile drivers are far more likely to be at fault than truck drivers. Similar proportions can be found when looking at injury collision statistics. However, though the share of accidents caused by trucks is small, accidents involving heavy-duty vehicles are more likely to result in fatalities.

Other inefficiencies can be associated with lack of information sharing. Some of these problems arise because of the silo nature of current operational patterns, and others stem from technical reasons. Still other transportation planning inefficiencies could take many forms, examples include issues with truck route planning, where the main problems are associated with: discontinuities between jurisdictions; lack of designated routes to developing or planned industry clusters; and wide divergences between designated and de facto truck routes.

The inefficiencies which are associated with the bulk of freight vehicle movements, the last mile and the distribution economy, are the inherent result of a lack of planning and consideration for the freight industry, in general, and neglect of the importance of the last mile and the distribution economy, in particular. Usually, this is the result of lack of visibility by Federal or Regional regulatory or management entities; in others because the “atomization” of the operations does not fall within the traditional definition of freight. This is both in terms of the cargo (volumes) and the vehicles or modes used. However, recent federal initiatives (STAA, ISTEA, SAFETEA-LU, MAP-21 and FAST) have increased the attention for the role of freight movements in urban and metropolitan areas.

On-road motor carriers, especially for-hire, both full truck load (FTL) or less than truck load (LTL) face challenges which are accentuated by the fact that the general public and public officials usually associate the major freight issues to their operations. It is perceived that these are the companies using the vehicles that generate congestion, parking problems, a disproportionate amount of emissions, and accidents (by severity and likelihood of resulting in casualties). However, because of how the system works, these carriers are only the conduit between points of origin and destination (explicitly shippers and receivers decisions) which are the ones that determine how, when, and where those operations occur. Developing strategies that solely focus on these stakeholders, which has been the traditional practice, will not take the system far enough as the additional costs and other system inefficiencies are mainly absorbed by these companies without affecting other legs of the chain.

In addition to the factors discussed before, hours of service rules and driver shortages could potentially limit operational efficiency improvements. These are discussed next.

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11 California Department of Transportation, California Freight Mobility Plan (Final) Chapter 2.1 ~ 2.3, 2013.
Hours of Service Rules

Hours of Service (HOS) rules have topped the list of leading trucking concerns for the past few years (see Figure 1). In 2004, a 34-hour restart was first introduced in hours-of-service rules. HOS have been (and continues to be) revised over the years. The latest update (Hours of Service of Drivers Final Rule) was published in the Federal Register on December 27, 2011, with an effective date of February 27, 2012 and compliance date of remaining provisions on July 1, 2013.

Changes to the 34-hour restart and the 30-minute break were the biggest changes to be made since 2004. The updates added the following changes and provisions to the existing HOS rules:12

1) **1 a.m. to 5 a.m. Restart Provision**: a valid 34-hour off-duty restart period must include two periods from 1 a.m. to 5 a.m.

2) **One Restart per Week Restart Provision**: use of the restart is limited to one time per week (once every 168 hours from the beginning of the prior restart).

3) **Rest Break Requirement**: a driver may drive only if 8 hours or less has passed since the end of the driver’s last off-duty or sleeper-berth period of at least 30 minutes.

![Figure 1: Distribution of industry issue prioritization scores](https://www.fmcsa.dot.gov/regulations/hours-of-service#sthash.fMoFHwkp.dpuf)

The Final Rule, however, was suspended in December 2014. Congress suspended the changes to the restart provisions after trucking groups complained regulators did not complete a study when

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12 Federal Motor Carrier Safety Administration - See more at: https://www.fmcsa.dot.gov/regulations/hours-of-service#sthash.fMoFHwkp.dpuf

developing the rules. Changes, especially the 2 consecutive 1-5am breaks, were broadly opposed by trucking interests. Regulators argued that the rules were meant to increase safety and reduce excessive work hours. The trucking industry claimed that shifting work hours to hours of greater congestion is more risky and that regulators failed to study this properly.

It is imperative that the State carefully addresses the potential negative impacts that the Hours of Service rules can have for freight efficiency, because the enforcement of the restart provisions of the Final Rule could introduce inefficiencies in the California Freight System. For instance, it would make difficult for some of the operators that want to participate in extended hours or off-hours operations as it will limit their early travel almost twice per week. Considering the uncertainty in trucking freight operations, the rule could reduce the efficiency of trucking carriers and impede the achievement of the mandate of the Governors’ Executive Order. Figure 2 shows an example of the inefficiencies that could be introduced by the rule. Depending on the scheduling, the restart rule could translate in a minimum of 1 hour lost and maximum of 17 hours for every restart. This is a major inefficiency as the 34 hour restart rule could become 51 hours. In some cases, due to differences in time zones, this could mean even longer down times. Parking availability is another factor that should be analyzed when evaluating the HOS rule.

Figure 2: The impact of Hours of Service Rules

As a result of the concerns, a study was ordered and scheduled to be reviewed by the U.S. Federal Motor Carrier Safety Administration (FMCSA) and Congress. This report is still pending as of February 2016. Recently, the FMCSA eased concerns that the suspension would be lifted and

rules would be reinstated this year. This has been referred to as a regulatory "snapback", and is feared and opposed by some trucking and shipping interests. The suspension cannot be lifted until Congress receives the agency’s report, but it has been somewhat unclear whether the FMCSA can simply reinstate the suspended rules after the report is delivered, or if Congress must act first.

Concerns associated with trucking hours of service rules include limited productivity and compensation issues. Congress’s suspension of the provisions is credited with freeing up as much as 1 to 3 percent of truckload capacity in 2015. “...Team operations were probably most affected...,” said Bill Matheson, president of intermodal and logistics services at trucking firm Schneider. “...The rollback gave them probably 2 to 3 percent of their productivity back...” It is also believed that studies are likely underestimating the negative impacts as well, since some drivers may have been cheating the system in order to avoid productivity losses, thus softening the impact seen in reported numbers. In terms of compensation, all truckers are majorly concerned with the possibility of fewer worked hours due to hours of service rules.

As mentioned, this is a complex issue, involving several conflicting interests. One aspect that is clear is that safety and other compensatory benefits from the HOS Rules must be maximized. This is to minimize the risk of drivers, road users, the general public, and the infrastructure. However, it is also required to identify, if feasible, HOS Rules structures and guidelines that mitigate the unintended consequences affecting operational efficiency.

Driver Shortages

In addition to hours of service rules, another concern related to labor in the trucking industry is the predicted shortage in qualified truckers. Hiring isn’t up, or at the same rate as in past, and retirements mean the loss of experienced drivers. The key findings from recent reports and news about the driver shortage problem include:

“...Over the past 15 years, the trucking industry has periodically struggled with a shortage of truck drivers

In 2014, the trucking industry was short 38,000 drivers. The shortage is expected to reach nearly 48,000 by the end of 2015. If current trends hold it is expected to grow to 175,000 by 2024. There is also a concern of quality, in 2012, 88% of fleets said that most applicants were simply not qualified.

Over the next decade, the trucking industry will need to hire a total 890,000 new drivers, or an average of 89,000 per year. Replacing retiring truck drivers will be by far the largest factor, accounting for nearly half of new driver hires (45%). The second largest factor will be industry growth, accounting for 33% of driver hires.

17 http://www.joc.com/special-topics/driver-shortage
Of the 7.1 million people employed throughout the economy in jobs related to trucking activity, 3.4 million were truck drivers in 2014. There are over 10 million CDL (Commercial Driver’s License) holders in the U.S., but most are not current drivers and not all are truck drivers. There are between 2.5 million and 3 million trucks on the road today that require a driver to have some sort of CDL. The bulk of the driver shortage is for over-the-road drivers operating heavy-duty tractor-trailers, for-hire truckload sector.

It is highly unlikely that the driver shortage could be reduced in any significant manner through modal shift. Truck driver hours-of-service, reduce industry productivity. Reductions in productivity exacerbate the driver shortage as it requires more trucks, and thus more drivers, to move the same amount of freight…”

Inefficiencies in the Maritime Sector

Within the seaports, congestion and inefficiency are reflected in the intersection of multiple portions of the supply chain and multi-modal transactions across multiple business lines, all in one concentrated node. To illustrate the many business stakeholders involved, Figure 3 shows a dynamic pyramid, with everyone’s ultimate customers—the shippers and receivers—on top. These cargo owners determine, in most cases, shipment sizes, frequencies, modes of transport, delivery and transport schedules and locations, and most importantly the demand and the prices that will be paid for services across the intermodal spectrum. At the next layer there are ocean vessel and rail carriers. Their immediate contractual privity to the shippers allows them to have a more dominant role along the chains than port terminals and drayage trucking transport operators. Marine terminal operators and public port authorities maintain highly-leveraged and intensive capital investments, which limit market entry conditions, and are dependent on the cargo volumes provided by ocean and rail carriers, which are demanded by shippers.

However, the relationship between ocean carriers and port terminal operators is facing increased challenges, especially due to external factors driving changes within the system such as labor, alliances, and congestion at the facilities. For example, recent labor shortages at the main (West Coast) ports due to contract negotiations (about 20,000 dockworkers) accounted for 80% of a bottleneck that impacted 36 vessels idling at sea.18 Port labor disruptions during contract negotiations and/or lack of new terminal infrastructure can impact California’s economic competitiveness. For instance, the impacts in 2014/15 during the protracted contract negotiation resulted in short- and long-term impacts affecting the system whereby many beneficiary cargo owners adopted a “four corner logistics strategy” to diversify their supply chains in order to reduce future vulnerability to labor disruptions at the San Pedro Bay ports. The “four corner logistics strategy” introduces redundancy in supply chains by not concentrating on Southern California, but rather one which relies on seaports in all “four corners” of the U.S. (i.e., southwest, northwest, northeast, and southeast). More challenges are posed in the development of ever

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larger vessels, which can boost vessel operating efficiencies, as well as the increased use of Vessel-Sharing Alliances (VSAs), with most major ocean carriers operating in VSAs of two to six member lines. The direct efficiencies from the vessels are well documented, i.e., > 18,000 TEU vessels provide 50% of more energy efficiency.\(^{19}\)

Congestion at seaports can also result in significant delays for trucks looking to pick up and drop off cargo\(^{20,21}\). Trucks can experience major delays just waiting for dispatch to a seaport, in addition to queueing outside the terminals and waiting time spent inside the terminals when conducting their transactions. Overall, time spent waiting is a significant inefficiency. This has a direct impact to drayage operations, and represents an opportunity to achieve efficiency improvements.\(^{22}\) Although truck queues and congestion at port terminals gates generate inefficiencies and other externalities, terminal operators serve their primary customers which are the steamship lines and major import/export companies by managing their internal dock operations under their longshore work rules, leases and contracts, and other constraints.\(^{23}\) However, inefficiencies not only affect the land side of these terminals. Vessel loading and discharge is also affected at a great expense to vessel operators. Other issues affecting the maritime sector, include chassis management and trade imbalances that result in the not revenue-generating transport of empty containers.

\(^{19}\) Kindberg, Lee (2015), “Delivering Sustainability: Ocean Shipping and Supply Chain Efficiency”, University of California, Davis, webinar, October 1\(^{st}\).


\(^{21}\) California Department of Transportation, California Freight Mobility Plan (Final) Chapter 2.1 ~ 2.3, 2013.


CHAPTER IV. POTENTIAL IMPROVEMENT STRATEGIES

The previous Chapters have discussed some of the characteristics of the California Freight System and key inefficiencies. In light of the Governor’s Executive Order, it is imperative that California’s various public agencies initiate, continue, and/or reinforce efforts to address freight efficiency issues such as those outlined above. This Chapter delves into some potential strategies that could be explored to address some of those inefficiencies.

The freight system is multi-faceted and there could be a myriad of potential solutions. The research conducted and the efforts of the sub-groups of the FESDG that contributed to this project concentrated on those that could help improve or maximize asset utilization by fostering collaborative logistics (CL) practices and/or freight demand management (FDM). For the purpose of this report, CL practices are defined as those activities initiated, maintained, and/or conducted by different supply chain or freight system stakeholders in which they collaborate, coordinate, or cooperate in terms of resources, knowledge, assets or information to achieve operational or economic efficiency improvements of a larger system. And, FDM strategies are defined as transportation policies that seek to induce changes in demand patterns and freight behaviors to increase economic productivity and/or efficiency, sustainability and environmental justice. It is important to make the distinction between FDM and freight traffic control. Freight traffic control strategies try to modify the freight traffic in the network, without consideration of freight demand, i.e., higher tolls in a highway. Instead, FDM strategies try to modify freight demand that could translate into a reduced number of freight trips24.

Because of the very nature of the system itself, strategies do not work in isolation, and each strategy may require complementary strategies to be feasible and implementable (e.g., sponsored programs to acquire technology, incentives to foster behavioral changes, funding for capital investments). This is especially the case for collaborative and cooperative based strategies. It has been a long standing practice in the freight system to engage in collaborative or cooperation agreements, whether by sharing information and knowledge or physical assets. This has been the case when facilitated by a third party which can demonstrate ultimate benefits to cargo interests and carriers. Regardless of collaborative and cooperative behaviors, the supply chain also remains an exceptionally competitive place, and consumers around the globe and in your neighborhood alike benefit from the continual downward pressure on the rates paid to transport goods.

Based on the analyses and discussions as part of the Freight Efficiency Strategy Development Group, the research identified a set of potential improvement strategies (see Table 2). The research process included a critical review of the available information (e.g., research reports, operational reports, implementation programs, pilot tests) of current freight operations, discussions and stakeholder engagement (academia, public and private stakeholders, and government) to identify strategies that could help improve the efficiency of the California’s freight system. The authors selected geographic scope (e.g., layer of the economy) as a

categorical factor and discuss those strategies that would mainly affect the distribution economy and the international gateways. The potential strategies include:

Table 2: Summary of Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Layer of the Economy</th>
<th>Nature of the Strategy</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distribution Economy</td>
<td>Collaboration/ Cooperation</td>
<td>Receiver-Led Consolidation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freight Demand Management</td>
<td>Voluntary Off-Hour Deliveries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade and Manufacturing Economies</td>
<td>Collaboration/ Cooperation</td>
<td>[Chassis] Pool of Pools (C-PoP)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Integrated Dray Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Load Matching/ Maximizing Capacity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freight Demand Management</td>
<td>Improving Traffic Mitigation Fee Programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Implement Advanced Appointment/Reservation Systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>Traffic Management</td>
<td>Relaxing Vehicle Size and Weight Restrictions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Voluntary Off-Hour Delivery Programs.** This strategy is based on a voluntary program of pick-up and delivery operations in the off-hours.
- **Receiver-led Consolidation.** This type of strategies seeks to foster behavioral changes within supply chains by taking advantage of the power of receivers to push for cargo consolidation.
- **Development of a Chassis Pool of Pools Fully Integrated System.** The Development of a Chassis-PoP fully integrated system that seeks to transition the current PoP to an information and management system that provides the adequate type, quantity and quality of chassis available, and offers simplified administrative and billing services.
- **Improvement of Traffic Mitigation Fee Programs.**
- **Implement Advanced Appointment/Reservation Systems.** Seeks to develop and implement and advanced appointment and reservation flexible system that integrates with other information systems to maximize asset utilisations.
- **Developing an Integrated System for Dray Operations and Services.** This strategy seeks to foster the development of cooperation and collaborative agreements between drayage operators, beneficial cargo owners, and in some cases, shipping lines and port terminals, to offer a shared service.
- **Load Matching and Maximizing Capacity.** There are many variations of load matching; examples include matching empty containers with loads; first come, first take pickups; and platforms to match small loads with available space in containers which are not already full.
- **Evaluation of Revised Vehicle Size and Weight Restrictions.** Allowing increases in truck length and size could provide the opportunity for significant gains in efficiency for certain portions of the freight industry, granted that safety considerations are addressed.
In general, the key factors identified and analyzed for these strategies include:

- **Nature of the Strategy:** *Collaborative logistics practices (collaboration/cooperation) or freight demand management.* Strategies may fall into either category, or may be a combination of both.

- **Geographic scope of the inefficiency/improvement strategy:** *Area(s) where the inefficiency is acute, including at international gateways, on-road sections of the distribution network, and urban areas.* More detailed geographic scopes can be: statewide, or specific to a layer of the economy, freight corridors, a certain metropolitan area, or particular locations within the State. Considerations of scope acknowledge the fact that the freight system, and the supply chains within it, span across various geographic areas, some of which extend beyond California.

- **Expected benefits:** *Anticipated benefits of the strategies.* Strategies will be able to address specific issues and inefficiencies based on the benefits they are expected to bring about. Benefits may include: Reduced Congestion; Increased Environmental Sustainability; Enhanced Safety; Enhanced Security; Enhanced Economic Competitiveness; Increased Revenue Generation; and Enhanced Livability.

- **Level of implementation effort/time/cost:** *Estimated inputs required.* While some strategies may require lower levels of implementation and design effort, smaller costs, and shorter implementation scales, others may require large commitments of resources, coordination, planning and policies.

- **Primary stakeholders targeted by the strategy:** *Stakeholders directly affected by the strategy.* Stakeholder types can include: shippers, receivers, or carriers. Defining primary stakeholders helps to identify the types of modes, industries or freight facilities that would be directly impacted by the strategy. This is significant, for instance, because it is important to be able to anticipate details in regards to traffic generation (including heavy-duty traffic, light duty traffic, through-traffic, large traffic generators (e.g., ports, airports, and warehouses), rail, maritime, and inland waterways, among others.

- **Stakeholders’ role in the implementation/planning effort:** *Stakeholder type(s) and anticipated role(s).* Strategies analyzed in this paper will require the participation of various stakeholders. Nearly all efficiency strategies will require private sector stakeholders to take the lead for the successful implementation of such strategies within their supply chains. Additionally, public entities will need to provide critical external planning, financial, or policy support.

- **Potential for unintended consequences:** *Any undesirable impacts that could be linked with a strategy.* It is imperative to analyze, anticipate, and avoid unidentified and unintended consequences. While real world results cannot truly be known until after the implementation of an improvement strategy, steps can be taken to anticipate and avoid any negative consequences. Past experiences can be analyzed to shed light onto potential issues and methods to circumvent such issues.

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The remainder of this Chapter will discuss those strategies related to the distribution economy and international gateways; and provide a summary overview of the various strategies with respect to their impacts and other planning factors.

Improving Performance of the Distribution Economy

The distribution (urban) freight system is usually overlooked, despite the fact that it can represent the vast majority of the freight traffic in a region. This traffic includes freight and services trips to commercial establishments as well as residential locations. As discussed before, in some cases, internal distribution can represent up to 80% of the freight traffic26 and a reduced number of locations (large building, conglomerate of establishments) within an urban core may could generate more freight traffic than a seaport or airport27.

Transportation policy should ensure that freight is moved as efficiently as possible, as hampering the flow of cargo is bound to have a negative effect on the economy. Improving the efficiency of the system guarantees that freight shipments are reliable and arrive on time so that there are no economic losses due to lost sales. In addition, reliable operations would increase business throughput by an efficient supply of raw materials. A recent project funded by the (Transportation Research Board) National Cooperative Freight Research Program (Project Report 33) conducted an in-depth analysis of the various public and private sector strategies that could be implemented to improve freight systems performance in metropolitan areas28.

The report (Planning Guide) produced a comprehensive classification and critical examination of the national and international evidence concerning their overall performance. More than 40 main strategies are discussed and grouped into seven major categories. Advantages, limitations, planning needs and efforts are discussed for each of the strategies. These range from those addressing supply at one end and demand at the other end. Operational and financial strategies are in the middle of the continuum. The categories include: Infrastructure Management; Parking/Loading Areas Management; Vehicle-Related Strategies; Traffic Management; Pricing, Incentives and Taxation; Logistical Management; and Freight Demand/Land Use Management (see Figure 4). The report, discusses the potential of some of these strategies to help alleviate major issues such as congestion, environmental and health impacts, and improve quality of life and the competitiveness of the economy. However, the potential results from the implementation of each strategy are dependent on sound planning and implementation efforts. Planning agencies and private sector businesses should carefully analyze the feasibility and applicability of these strategies to their context and specific issues. The reader is referred to the Planning Guide for complementary strategies that could be used to improve freight system performance.

One key aspect, related to freight efficiency in urban areas is the adequate allocation and management of parking, loading and unloading areas. In many locations, curb space is required to conduct freight operations (freight pick-ups and deliveries); but at the same time, other users are constantly competing for the scarce resource. In other cases, assigning the highest priority to freight may still require additional operational changes to avoid the issues associated with urban freight parking. Freight parking is a key issue for the industry that extends beyond the urban environments. This issue should be in the agenda of any planning and transportation organization. Similar difficulties are experienced when analyzing network capacity.

As a focus of this research, examples of Freight Demand Management (FDM) include off-hour delivery programs which incentivize receivers of the cargo to accept deliveries in the off-hours; and staggered freight programs in which businesses coordinate their deliveries or pick-ups throughout the day, rather than concentrating them in specific time periods (usually during traffic peak periods). Considering the experiences from national and international pilot tests and implementations programs, Voluntary Off-Hour Delivery Programs have the potential to play a key role in the State’s effort to improve freight efficiency, as they seek to modify freight behaviors. In terms of CL practices, among the various alternatives, Receiver-led consolidation programs show great potential as they offer similar benefits to traditional cargo consolidation schemes while overcoming some of the limitations and implementation challenges. The following sections will discuss these two strategies.

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Voluntary Off-Hour Delivery (OHD) Programs (Demand Management)

Off-hours is usually associated with late evenings and early mornings, though it varies from industry to industry, geographic location and land use. This strategy is based on a voluntary program of pick-up and delivery operations in the off-hours. Usually, participation is fostered by offering incentives to receiver establishments so that they change behaviors and allow their suppliers or carriers to make OHD. Although participation is voluntary, a successful implementation of the program requires public sector support. At the State or Federal level, public agencies should incorporate the type of funding and resource support needed for the design and implementation of the program into the legislation. The program will then be designed and implemented by local jurisdictions. Funding and support will be needed for the development of the specific types of programs, the design of the incentive scheme, stakeholder engagement and outreach activities, and more importantly for the staff to implement the various activities associated with the program. Although, there are a number of successful experiences, careful design and planning will require additional research to fully understand the freight behaviors in the areas under analysis. The research will help identify the potential target markets for implementation, the types and levels of incentives, the barriers for implementation, and to identify the appropriate performance measures to be used.

The resources required for the incentive program, will directly depend on the type of OHD program. For instance, the type of incentives analyzed in the literature include those that are continuously offered throughout the duration of the program, and those that are given as an initial one-time incentive. Incentives could be monetary or otherwise. The program implementation process in New York City evaluated various types of incentives\(^\text{32}\). The monetary incentives ranged from a one-time incentive of $500 to a $50,000 incentive with shift potentials ranging from 10% to 30%. The industry sector of the targeted stakeholders is a key factor determining the reach of an incentive package. Table 3 summarizes some of the studies that have investigated the receiver behavior in relation to the likelihood to participate in the program. In general, research results show that food and retail related industries are more likely to participate. Similarly, Table 4 shows the results for two different (but contiguous) locations in New York City.

Table 3: Summary of behavioral research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>HV 2007</th>
<th>HV 2013</th>
<th>DOM-S 2013</th>
<th>DOM-B 2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Industry Sector</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food and beverage stores</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Press and book</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothing stores</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apparel manufacturing</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-durable wholesalers</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous stores</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performing arts</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furniture stores</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal laundry services</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Commodity Received</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commodity: Alcohol</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commodity: Wood Lumber</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commodity: Food</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commodity: Textiles/clothing</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commodity: Medical supplies</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commodity: Office supplies</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commodity: Paper</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Incentive</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax deduction</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>+++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One-time monetary incentive</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trusted vendor</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shipping discounts</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public recognition</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business support</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Other receiver attributes</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of facility is single</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External warehouse</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of vendors</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of deliveries</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notation: (*) denotes not considered or not found statistically significant. (-) denotes a low negative effect. (+) denotes a low positive effect. (+++) denotes a moderate positive effect. (+++) denotes a high positive effect. Notes: New York City HV 200734, HV 201335; DOM-S 201336 the case of Santander; and DOM-B 2013 the case of Barcelona.

Table 4: Comparative analyses of the behavioral responses to OHD in different geographic areas\textsuperscript{37}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy</th>
<th>R1: Tax deduction for accepting OHD</th>
<th>R2: Shipping discounts for OHD</th>
<th>C1: Requests from customers and toll savings</th>
<th>C2: Requests from customers and financial rewards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wood/lumber</td>
<td>++ + --</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>+ (i)</td>
<td>+++ (ii)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical supplies</td>
<td>+ +</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper</td>
<td>+ -</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>++ +</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metal</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furniture</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronics</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stone and concrete</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textiles/clothing</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction and hardware</td>
<td>-- ++</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office supplies</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petroleum/coal</td>
<td>++</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plastic/rubber</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machinery</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household goods</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of employees</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased operational costs</td>
<td>-- --</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours of operation</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of deliveries</td>
<td>++</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessibility to building</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No control of delivery times</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number suppliers</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Truck drivers</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Containers from Baltimore</td>
<td>++</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Containers from Connecticut</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trips to Manhattan</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Located in Brooklyn</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time/distance to first stop</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trips to the Bronx and NJ</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of facility</td>
<td>++ (vii)</td>
<td></td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Line of business</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>+++ (ix)</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>-- (x)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delivering to the Bronx</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Union regulations</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parking related issues</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Factors impacting the behavioral response to the policies:

Most likely to accept OHD (+++) to Least likely to accept OHD (---)

(i) Only companies that receive and ship
(ii) Request from customers
(iii) Toll savings only for petroleum/coal, wood/lumber, food, and textiles/clothing industries
(iv) Toll savings
(v) Financial reward for food, computer/electronics, and textile/clothing industries
(vi) Financial reward for machinery/automotive and paper industries
(vii) Single
(viii) Headquarters
(ix) For shipper, 3PL, trucking, warehouse and mover carriers
(x) For shipper, manufacture, trucking and warehouse carriers
(xi) For Warehouse carriers

Notes:


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The various experiences and international studies about the potential implementation of OHD programs indicate that carriers can have direct benefits seen in the form of reductions in travel times during the off-hours (given that lower traffic volumes allow for higher speeds). In New York City, modest shift percentages can produce benefits of 5% to all network users. Moreover, during a pilot test conducted in the City, the travel mean speeds from the warehouses to the first stop in the delivery route improved by 70%. Other benefits include:

- Reductions in service/delivery times due to not having to wait for their delivery/parking spot;
- Reduction in idle times since there was no wait for the receiver to accept the cargo;
- Easy access to parking, loading and unloading zones closer to the establishment. This allowed the carrier to unload and transport larger shipments, thus reducing service times, and in some cases, trips to the establishment;
- Reductions in traffic infractions (with pre-implementation infractions in the order of $500 to $1,000+ per truck per month); and
- In some cases, travel time reductions allowed carriers to include additional stops per tour, thus minimizing the routes sent to the city. This translates in higher load factors, and asset utilization.

The program, could generate additional costs for carriers including wage differential to drivers in the off-hours; capital investments in information technology systems to improve operations, e.g., routing, dispatching, monitoring; and increased security costs. However, according to interviews and the experiences of the participants, their benefits were higher than the incurred costs. It is important to recognize that some carriers are not able to participate in this type of programs. Parcel and courier services, may not have the ability to participate due to their customers unwillingness to participate, regulatory constraints, access constraints, and hours of operations and service rules, among others.

In the case of receivers, benefits include reliability improvements in the service times, staff optimization, and environmental emissions reductions, among others. For the cases when the establishments are closed during the off-hours, costs may be incurred to hire personnel. Alternatively, unassisted off-hour delivery programs can be developed (use of double door systems, closed circuit TV, remote access control).

An additional benefit from the strategy is the impact in the traffic flow and parking conditions in the implementation area. A parking analysis in New York City revealed that about 25% of the ZIP codes in Manhattan have a demand for freight parking that exceed capacity. Moreover, the study analyzed the benefits of OHD to mitigate the parking issues. In addition to alleviating congestion and parking issues, estimates for New York City show that the program could lead to yearly

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reductions of 202.7 metric tons of carbon monoxide; 40 tonnes of hydrocarbons; 11.8 tonnes of nitrogen oxide; and 69.9 kg of particulate matter\textsuperscript{42}; similar analyses for the Mexico Federal District area indicate that the program could help overall emission between .8% and 4\%\textsuperscript{43}.

One of the key aspects of the program is its voluntary nature. Only those businesses that are able to participate (with or without the incentive package) will do it. However, there are several barriers that could hamper participation: traffic constraints during the off-hours (regulation banning freight vehicles during those periods of time); limited access to the building or businesses; staffing or scheduling; union regulations; overtime costs; driver issues; hours of service rules; safety and security reasons. As mentioned before, the research have shown that receiver participation is vital to the success of the programs, as carriers do not have the ability to impose off-hour delivery times to their customers. It is not recommended that off-hour deliveries be mandated as it could introduce inefficiencies, increase costs and externalities, and reduce economic competitiveness to those freight operations that could not implement them.

Given the body of knowledge about the program, it could be expected that with additional research to explicitly consider specific freight behaviors in California, the Program could be designed and implemented in a relatively short-term. Though, the program would require the involvement of a large number of stakeholders to identify participants, conduct planning and research, pilot test the incentive program, implement and monitor. The design must also pay special attention to mitigating potential noise disturbances and community perceptions. This type of FDM must also be associated with passenger demand management strategies to mitigate the potential issues of induced demand\textsuperscript{44}.

### Receiver-led Consolidation (Collaborative Logistics)

This type of strategies seeks to foster behavioral changes within supply chains by taking advantage of the power of receivers to push for cargo consolidation.\textsuperscript{45} The objective of the strategy is to achieve a reduction in the number of deliveries. This could be achieved by reducing the number of suppliers or vendors, or by fostering the use of urban consolidation centers from the existing suppliers. The general benefits associated with this type of strategies include those to the receivers, suppliers, and the system. Receivers benefiting from having consolidated shipments, avoiding the need to deal with multiple vendors. In some cases, they can achieve economic benefits by being able to negotiate preferential or volume rates. Suppliers and carriers can increase productivity, with the negative consequence that some suppliers will be replaced.


\textsuperscript{43} Jaller, M., S. Sanchez, J. Green, and M. Fandiño (2016). Quantifying the impacts of sustainable city logistics measures in the Mexico City Metropolitan Area. Transportation Research Procedia. (12):613-626

\textsuperscript{44} Jaller, M. and F. Alemi. The Need for a Comprehensive Demand Management Strategy that Considers both Passenger and Freight: Mitigating the Impact of Passenger Induced Demand. Presented at the Transportation Research Board Annual Meeting and International Urban Freight Conference (I-NUF). METRANS.

The overall reduction in deliveries, will translate in reduced freight traffic and the associated consequences.

The first case have been successfully implemented through the Delivery Servicing Plans (DSP). The idea behind DSP, developed by Transport for London, is that commercial establishments in large buildings or large traffic generators, or large corporations with decentralized procurement practices conduct trip generation assessments and identify potentials for consolidation. In London, regulation requires that new developments propose construction logistics plans and DSPs. However, these plans are not subsequently enforced, and landlords or managers may not have incentives to invest the resources required for their implementation. For an implementation in California, the public agencies could develop incentives schemes to foster the implementation of these types of plans. Successful implementations in large buildings have shown their potential to reduce the number of truck trips generated from 20% to 60%. Considering that in large dense urban areas, there may exist large traffic generators which could represent a significant proportion of the total freight traffic and associated externalities, these plans could help improve the freight efficiency and performance. Analyses of the potential for implementation of this type of strategies in New York City, showed that they could reduce truck traffic between 6.5% and 21%.

Public agencies should identify the types of regulations that could facilitate the development of these types of strategies, considering that the focus would be on the receiver of the cargo. Moreover, research is still needed to design programs that consider the characteristics and behaviors of the California freight system.

International Gateways

The international trade economy is of high importance in California, especially due to the sheer volume of cargo handled in Southern California by the San Pedro Bay Ports. Approximately 60% of total west coast intermodal containers pass through the Port of Los Angeles and Long Beach, and the exceptionally busy international border crossings between California and Mexico.

With respect to the seaports, along with the benefits of handling more containers than any other port complex in North America come the logistical inefficiencies of waits in and around terminals, congestion at corridors feeding these gateways, and other issues introduced by labor-related factors. Myriad different types of inefficiencies within marine terminals can affect both the truck traffic and vessel operations at international gateways. For example, although non-recurrent, port downtimes can negatively affect the shipping companies that own delayed vessels. However, vessels are typically handled efficiently, and most of the inefficiencies exist in the transfer of containers from the terminal to drayman.

Port terminal inefficiencies can be exacerbated by the arrival of larger ships, coupled with the rapid increase in popularity of Vessel Sharing Alliances (VSAs). VSAs are a great example of collaborative logistics strategies, where a number of independent shipping lines consolidate to share assets and maximize the use of their resources. While larger ships and alliances are tremendously important improvements in efficiency for ocean carriers, they can pose additional logistical challenges for marine terminals. A large vessel discharging cargo from multiple ocean carriers can complicate terminal management, as each shipping line in an alliance may have its own terminal agreements, trucking contracts, dispatching agreements, railroad agreement and operations management. In some cases, once the containers are unloaded, all synergies disappear. These large vessels can also create cargo surges of more than 10,000 container moves per call. This is also coupled with VSAs having as many as six carriers in one vessel (with some other effects such as the scattering of containers across multiple terminals). The call surges can result in an increased number of container repositioning moves within the terminals before the boxes are delivered to a trucker, further increasing terminal congestion. When this process is repeated week after week, it can make the delivery of containers more complex, costly, and inefficient.

However, as VSAs are becoming the norm, and the great efficiencies and advantages of larger vessels are internalized into the supply chain, marine terminals and public port authorities are working effectively and efficiently in order to handle the increases in demand. Positive examples resulting from preparedness, planning and collaboration include the recent experiences from port calls of 15,000 and 18,000 TEU vessels. Within 10 days in December 2015, the Port of Los Angeles (POLA) AMPT terminal handled 2 of the largest vessels ever to call a port in the America’s (15,000 + 18,000 TEU vessels); in February 2016, the Port of Long Beach (POLB) PCT terminal handled the Benjamin Franklin, a 18,000 TEU vessel as well. According to Port Authority officials, all 3 vessel calls were extremely well coordinated with all supply chain partners, including labor, and no congestion was experienced.

Given these challenges, it is important to develop strategies to foster collaboration between beneficial cargo owners, port terminals, the trucking and rail industry, equipment providers, and ancillary facilities such as warehouses and distribution centers. Although these would be private driven initiatives, public funding or incentives could be used to help support the development of collaborative relationships in strategic portions of the supply chain that could help maximize asset utilization. In addition, funds could be allocated to investigate and identify the success factors of the recent mega-ship handling experiences mega-ships. The following sections discuss some strategies that could be used to help mitigate some of the issues previously discussed and those identified in the inefficiency section.

**Development of a Chassis Pool of Pools Fully Integrated System (Collaborative Logistics)**

Chassis management has become a major issue for the intermodal supply chain, both in terms of chassis availability and also levels of utilization across the supply chains. These issues primarily emerged after many ocean carriers’ decided to no longer own and manage their own proprietary chassis fleets. Ironically, many of these new inefficiencies are the result of ocean carriers’ move towards greater system efficiencies whereby they removed equipment ownership barriers and terminal specificity issues. These issues persisted in the intermodal system as a result of the lines’
traditional chassis ownership and provision model. For purposes of this strategy, it is important to note that no matter who owns the equipment, chassis are critical to intermodalism, and it is impossible to move containers by truck on-road without them. As a result, being able to reduce the time and costs of chassis management by eliminating shortages or maintenance problems could improve system efficiency and become a commercial advantage in the services provided.

To cope with shortages of chassis, and also general availability problems, the Pool of Pools (PoP) initiative was created. This private initiative is comprised by the Direct Chassis Link Pool (DCLP), Trac Pacific Southwest Pool (TPSP) and Flexi-Van Los Angeles Basin Pool (FLBP). The PoP have alleviated the problem by providing more than 81,500 chassis to be used interchangeably and a new configuration of suppliers. The ports of Los Angeles and Long Beach utilize 31,866 chassis daily representing 40% of the total fleet. The PoP have helped reduce costs in operating private fleets and has an interchangeable pool to be utilized among all stakeholders reducing flips, decreasing times and fuel consumption, as well as generating a collaborative environment with stakeholders to share assets and information about their operations. However, the PoP experiences a number of issues including:

• “The number of chassis dwelling on terminal for greater than 60 days is almost 7,000 units. We need help in getting these units back into circulation.”
• “The number of Out of Service chassis is still over 5,000. We need help in getting these units repaired and back into service.”
• “Repositioning of chassis could be limited during this period, Pool of Pools will need each MTO to release surplus on-terminal chassis.”

These, among other issues, provide improvement opportunities for the PoP. Therefore, this strategy suggests:

The Development of a Chassis-PoP fully integrated system that seeks to transition the current PoP to an information and management system that provides the adequate type, quantity and quality of chassis available, and offers simplified administrative and billing services.

An effective provision of chassis requires the optimal and reliable provision of “certified” equipment to truckers. To be successful in the long run, the strategy requires that the private and public sector work together to create a reliable information and management system that provides an adequate quantity of chassis in optimal conditions. The scheme of a “gray pool” requires fully interchangeable equipment, simplification of management and billing, good and regular maintenance and repair of assets, and the development of robust information systems which provide to participants in the supply chain data regarding equipment availability timely and accurately. Having this information about the incoming equipment could help determine the reconfiguration of chassis at terminals and at virtual and off-site yards, and improve level of

49 http://www.fmc.gov/assets/1/Page/PortForumReport_FINALwebAll.pdf
51 “Need to transfer a container from the chassis it is resting upon to another chassis”, NCFRP Report 20
service. In addition, the average street dwell time for chassis is 4.5 days, thus reducing dwell time will improve the availability of chassis.

A report released by the Federal Maritime Commission (FMC) in July 2015, contains an overview of discussions from different stakeholders about port congestion and supply chain issues. Participants agreed on the need of more “gray pools” to provide chassis interoperability. Gray pools are most effective when there aren’t rules or provisions limiting motor carriers from utilizing any particular chassis, or chassis provider, and motor carriers are able to pick the provider from the pool that best suits their requirements. This type of equipment for intermodalism is possible only when facilitated by legal interchange agreements. In this regard, there is a Uniform Intermodal Interchange and Facilities Access Agreement (UIIA) which is an industry contract between truckers and drayage companies and water and rail carriers and leasing companies that serves as a standard interchange agreement for equipment but is not applied for chassis. The PoP has instituted its own interchange standards to facilitate its pool.

The improved Chassis-PoP should combine both the collaboration of different leasing companies that share a common interchangeable agreement of equipment but competing in service and price, and the ability to improve the land operations at the port facilities within a separate off-terminal yard or yards. In general, it would help reduce the number of flips between trucks and chassis and reduce the times of repair and inspection. Flips and trips to deliver chassis that belong to one terminal or operator is an inefficiency of the current system. Moreover, it would help reduce truck turn times at marine terminals, increasing the number of turns per vehicle, reduce the number of movements per chassis, and the number of out of service chassis.

The new Chassis-PoP integrated system will also help to improve roadability in addition to relieving congestion and inefficiency. The Federal Motor Carrier Safety Administration (FMCSA) requires chassis to be in optimal conditions before interchange, but truckers at marine terminals are inconvenienced if they are only told of the need to make repairs at the roadability gate after they have already received the chassis. The problem here occurs when roadability inspections are performed after the chassis is provided to the trucker. There is no inbound chassis interchange inspection, because truckers must report chassis conditions or problems when they drop the equipment as required by the FMCSA, but most do not. Without these required reports being filed, no quality assurance system exists to ensure that chassis provided are in good conditions until it is provided to the next trucker. Most chassis are repaired only if a trucker decides to take it to the roadability gate which impacts their hours of service, because they have to wait for them to be ready. Under this strategy, because roadability will be improved, it will stop the inefficiencies that result from a chassis in bad condition just going back into the pool and being directed to another trucker which will have to face the same problems and delay.

54 U.S. Container Port Congestion and Related International Supply Chain Issues: Causes, Consequences and Challenges, 2015
55 http://www.uiia.org/about/index.php
56 https://www.fmcsa.dot.gov
The POLA/POLB C-PoP is currently developing and implementing management systems to improve operations. Also, the FMC sanctioned POLA/POLB “Supply Chain Optimization” effort is working with the C-PoP to explore system improvements, including possible integration with other intermodal logistics management systems such as: eModal and the USDOT's FRATIS project, currently in the demonstration phase. The POLA/POLB are also working with LA METRO and CARB for incorporation of the aforementioned systems and “connected vehicle systems” into the proposed State’s CARB Sustainable Freight Action Plan (SFAC) Pilot Project, being considered for funding.

As demonstrated by the current efforts, the successful implementation of this strategy and expansion to other ports would require collaboration between various stakeholders. Moreover, the effectiveness of the system to maximize asset utilization requires integration with other management and information systems, within the marine terminals, and participating stakeholders. Public agencies support for pilot testing will be crucial in the development and evaluation of such integrated systems.

**Improvement of Traffic Mitigation Fee Programs (Demand Management)**

The Traffic Mitigation Fee (TMF) Program, PierPass, has been a success in the San Pedro Bay ports. This program fosters freight operations in the off-hours. Since 2005, as a result of severe congestion, the Off Peak program has been in place and a TMF has been charged to container movements during the day shifts to pay for the nighttime shifts. The program handles 17,000 truck trips on average per night during the 6 pm to 3 am shift; this represents around 55% of the daily truck trips. In 2015, the Port of Oakland announced that its marine terminals are considering the implementation of a similar Off peak program called OakPass.

According to a public report, while many carriers express willingness to move their operations to nighttime deliveries, there does not appear to be a corresponding response on the side of the businesses to operate during off-peak nighttime hours. During the interviews conducted as part of this project, it was identified that about one third of the warehouses in the SCAG region operate in the off-hours mainly because they are part of the PierPass program. By performing operations during these times, the program is able to improve operations related to: time spent waiting between dispatches, time spent waiting to enter the terminal, and time spent inside the terminal either picking up or dropping off a load. Moreover, reduced truck traffic during the peak hours improves operations to all users in the network. Considering that about 95% of all the truck trips to/from the POLA/POLB are to/from container terminals, any reduction in the number of trips during the daytime would have a significant environmental and traffic impact.

Despite the initial success of PierPass, there are current issues affecting its performance which could be optimized. The first issue has to deal with the perception of truck drivers about the direct benefits of operating at the night times. Due to claims of insufficient demand to meet the increased costs of operating in the off-hours, a number of port terminals have reduced the

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number of night (and weekend) shifts provided (only 4-5 terminals). In some cases, this reduction of shifts have resulted in perceived diminishing benefits from customers during these time periods. The reduction in direct benefits coupled with an increase in the TMF of $69.15 per TEU, have prompted criticism to the program. Efforts have been invested by the terminal operators to explain and support the fee increases\textsuperscript{60,61}.

In addition, due to the fixed and static format of the program, queues form outside terminals before the night shifts (by the number of drivers that want to take advantage of the differential pricing). Therefore, with the improvement of PierPass it is also important to improve the efficiency of truck dwell times and validations processes. According to PierPASS, usual truck turn times are at about 60-70 minutes average, 40 minutes for a pick-up transaction and 20-30 for a drop-off. But if some information about the truck is not fully supported by documentation, online appointment validation or any other issue that could raise, truckers are required to go to the trouble ticket windows which can take on average 1 hour (but could be much longer). As part of the Supply Chain Optimization (SCO) effort, the POLA/POLB are working with the Metropolitan Transportation Organization and other supply partners to explore modifications/improvements to the PierPass system, including better measuring of turn times and appointment systems. Regarding turn times, the POLA/POLB are considering partnering with a new system soon to be launched by the Harbor Trucking Association, which utilizes a smart phone/tablet application to constantly track trucks, and produce turn times. Additionally the POLA/POLB is considering incorporating this system, into the CARB SFAC Pilot Project.

In general, the program has provided benefits to the system, and has shown the success of implementing a Traffic Mitigation Fee that is charged to cargo owners instead to the truckers (as it is typical in other pricing or charging schemes). Therefore, the strategy put forward here, \textit{seeks to improve the TMF Program}. This could be accomplished by:

- \textbf{Addressing inefficiencies within the marine terminal} to increase the benefits experienced by the Program users. Inefficiencies in marine terminals exist regardless of the time period, therefore, to increase the benefits from the Program, the root cause of these inefficiencies must be addressed. When looking at system level improvements, terminal operators are best positioned to engineer solutions. Ports can help to foster terminal optimization and best practices, but non-operating ports cannot develop and implement a program. As part of the SCO effort, the POLA/POLB is exploring “push (as opposed to pull) terminal logistics IT systems to convey containers to/from drayman.

- \textbf{Revising the current pricing scheme}. A more dynamic congestion management pricing scheme may prove more optimal at reducing congestion and improving efficiencies during both the day and off-peak hours. These charges could be lower during periods of lower utilization during the day and some minimal charges could be instituted for periods of high demand and utilization during off-peak. Although a fully dynamic pricing scheme would optimize the port (terminal) utilization, it could create confusion among the various stakeholders. An alternative would be to identify block/segments of time, and charge them differently. The development of an appropriate pricing scheme requires additional research.

\textsuperscript{60} Rule 7 of the WCMTOA Schedule reads: “...the Fee shall be adjusted annually to reflect increases in labor costs based on Pacific Maritime Association maritime labor cost figures.” The approximate 3.5% increase in the TMF reflects this fee. It is part of ongoing rate increases applied per this Rule.

• Normalize the multiple existing industry performance and efficiency indicators in order to measure improvements or degradations of off-peak programs.
• Implementing appointment/reservation systems. The TMF Program could also be combined with the implementation of appointment and reservation systems.

Implementation of these strategic changes would reduce turn times of trucks and improve terminal efficiency. This in turn, would help reduce congestion, truck waiting times at the queues, and increase throughput. Some of the changes described above could be addressed in the short-term, though careful planning and research about optimal program design could require additional time and funding support. Public agencies could provide the funding and planning support for the development of the improved program, and at the same time, work with Port Authorities, terminals and other stakeholders to identify additional opportunities for perceived benefits. If a dynamic system is found to be the optimal pricing scheme, a data collection and information dissemination framework and system must be developed. This could require investment and planning beyond the marine terminals, thus requiring a higher level of coordination, planning and funding.

To be successful, there is a need for some specific common metrics to measure the turn time. As with the current system, queues outside the terminal constitute a potential unintended consequence. The ability of the system, the incentives/penalties, and the implementation of the reservations system could alleviate those issues. One important aspect to be considered when designing the pricing scheme is how this FDM strategy will affect the corridors and locations surrounding the marine terminals. Research to investigate such potential outcomes is recommended.

**Implement Advanced Appointment/Reservation Systems (Demand Management)**

It is clear that trucking is often characterized as the most irregular and unpredictable mode of transport in port-related operations. In a study on truck announcement times, van Asperen et al. notes that “...if we consider the different transport modes a container terminal has to deal with, then road transport by truck is the least coordinated”\(^{62}\). Despite a lack of coordination between trucking companies and other parts in the intermodal machine, general research results have shown that total number of truck arrivals tend to follow certain patterns. While a specific truck may not be predictable, truck arrival numbers have been shown to peak during certain hour windows within a day. This inefficient characteristic lends itself well to being addressed by truck scheduling strategies.

Consequently, the strategy put forward here **seeks to develop and implement and advanced appointment and reservation flexible system that integrates with other information systems to maximize asset utilizations**. However, developing such a system requires the analyses of various operational aspects and potential consequences resulting from the system’s implementation and the research about the effectiveness of appointment systems is not conclusive.

Many studies have chosen to use truck line (or queue) lengths and/or truck turn-around (or waiting) times as measurements of efficiency. Reducing line lengths and overall wait time lessens

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or erases the physical representation of truck traffic outside of ports, hence addressing the most visible problem with container-movement inefficiency. Appointment windows have been a popular solution, underlining the ultimate goal of evening out truck appointments over the day in order to take advantage of less busy time periods and avoid peak demand. Current trends indicate that trucks will be required to schedule appointments in 10 out the 13 container terminals in the San Pedro Bay by the end of next year.63

In a Marseilles study, authors attribute the success of their truck appointment system (TAS) to the fact that the system was well thought-out and thorough, rather than myopic. The authors of the study note that previous studies have failed to include all of the pieces of a system that need to be considered in order to effectively implement a scheduling strategy. In their study, they focused on the supply-demand relationship between truck or vessel arrivals and cargo-handling equipment availability at time of arrival. This could be evaluated for application in California ports.

According to a report that analyzed initial appointment systems implemented in some terminals in California indicated that “...the estimates of potential turn time savings from appointments suggests that a large proportion of trips would have to use appointments, and appointment trips would have to be given some priority to realize significant time savings. It is only under these conditions that an appointment system would reduce truck queuing enough to result in lower truck emissions...”65

Other studies have shown no impact or have even shown a negative result. In contrast with the success seen at Marseilles, Le-Griffin et al. concluded that addressing truck congestion by making appointments to let trucks through terminal entrance gates more quickly simply shifted the inefficiency of the system from outside of the gate to inside of the gate. Unintended consequences must be considered. This demonstrates that taking away the most visible representation of a problem, such as trucks, does not necessarily mean that that problem has been fixed, or that another problem has not been created.

Historically, truck appointment systems have not been as appealing to terminals because truck queues were more of a burden to trucking companies waiting in line than they were for terminal operators serving those lines. In addition, it is claimed that by setting appointments inefficiencies are introduced as they are associated with a fixed number of transactions in a day. However, as demonstrated by the Marseilles study, some research in recent years has begun to highlight the

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importance of considering the interconnection of all modes operating both in and out of a terminal. The value in coordination is starting to be more strongly recognized

As trucking appointment systems have been evaluated in many studies around the globe, investigating their feasibility in reducing congestion and improving efficiency in California ports would be wise. Developing such system requires an integrated effort between the public and private sector. It is important to identify the root causes for the irregular and unpredictable operations both in and out of the marine terminals. This would allow defining the rules and logics of the flexible system, and defining the appropriate time windows considering the uncertainties about the exact transaction times. Due to the mixed results reported in the literature, appointment systems should not be implemented lightly, rather they should be the result of significant research and planning efforts. The public authorities should provide the support (funding, access to information, stakeholder engagement) needed for those activities. One important aspect that would require careful attention is how to deal with the penalties and enforcement of appointments and reservations. Similarly as with the other strategies, the appointment system should be integrated with the other management systems put in place by some of the system stakeholders.

Nevertheless, it is expected that an appointment system (granted that terminal operations are optimized) would help mitigate some of the inefficiencies currently observed. The appointment system needs to be flexible enough to handle the operational needs when implementing strategies ranging from push systems, to peel-off and free-flow.

As mentioned before, as part of the SCO effort, the POLA/POLB is working with the MTO and other supply partners to explore modifications/improvements to the PierPass system, including appointment systems. An existing intermodal logistics system, eModal, which has been in existence and used by trucking companies, terminal operators, customs brokers, 3PL, etc., since 2002, provides appointment systems for several of the POLA/POLB terminals already. Emodal will be expanding their appointment systems to more terminals in 2016. The POLA/POLB is working with eModal and the terminal operators to have a universal and uniform system in place in the near future. Additionally, the POLA/POLB is considering incorporating this system into the aforementioned CARB SFAC Pilot Project.

**Developing an Integrated System for Dray Operations and Services (Collaborative Logistics)**

This strategy seeks to foster the development of cooperation and collaborative agreements between drayage operators, beneficial cargo owners, and in some cases, shipping lines and port terminals, to offer a shared service that can facilitate practices such as “free flow” or “peel off.” The main objective would be to optimize container flow in Port Terminals. A dray agreement does not necessarily involve the provision of a pool of vehicles, but it would require the implementation of information systems that allow, among other things, container visibility to entire supply chains, real time traffic data, roads and terminal turn time and queues.

In addition, a strategy like this could help with new port paradigms such as push systems. As the name indicates, in push systems, containers are “pushed” out of the terminal instead of being pulled by beneficial cargo owners at their discretion. This in essence would help reduce cost,
increase container velocity and truck turns, improve reliability and predictability, and improve labor and equipment deployment.

These new practices, push systems, peel-off, dray-off, and free flow are similar in the sense that they try to move boxes out of the terminal more efficiently. However they may impose additional challenges to individual operators, especially drayage companies that have contracts with specific clients. Push systems and peel-off type of systems could be implemented together, as push could be implemented for all sized shippers, and peel-off for large beneficial cargo owners. The success of these strategies heavily depends on the fluidity of the system which is affected upon inland facility operations and capacity.

The creation of the Dray system, would work similarly as the peel-off/dray-off cost model, but extended to the integrated operations with other stakeholders in the supply chain. Peel-off/dray-off models generally assume that the control and ownership of each box from ship to door is all managed by a single agency that minimizes overall costs. In general, the model estimates total terminal and drayage costs based on unit capital and operating costs and typical productivity factors.

The public sector, as in the case of the Chassis-PoP, should foster a competitive and collaborative environment. Moreover, investments would be needed to develop the integrated information system that should be compatible with solutions such as the California Freight Advance Traffic Information System (FRATIS), and other commercial systems. A pilot test at the Port of Los Angeles showed that using a commercial (online and app-based brokerage) system and a free flow strategy could increase productivity by 500% (250 container deliveries per shift vs. 50) and reduce the average driver turn times in half (42 mins vs. 85 mins).

An important aspect of a strategy like this would be the need for the implementation of incentives or the creation of an appointment system that is capable of handling the different requirements of port related activities, depending on the type of operational strategy in place. Moreover, this types of systems that rely on information sharing and technologies need to be developed considering data access and custodial, as well as the framework for their management. While the public sector could not mandate the collaboration between dray operators and services, it could provide the support for the analysis and research of effective incentive programs that foster participation and a behavioral change.

As part of the SCO effort, the POLA/POLB is exploring “push” (as opposed to pull) terminal logistics IT systems to convey containers to/from drayman.

**Load Matching and Maximizing Capacity (Collaborative Logistics)**

As cargo rates are increasing, ports are facing challenges to meet demand. Scheduling arrival of ships and aligning other elements in the supply chain to achieve a good level of service requires information systems and collaboration among stakeholders. One of the by-products of an effective and globalized containerized cargo is the ability of the system to keep a healthy number

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of “empties” in the system and available for shippers. The number of empties also reflects the relative balance of trade between nations, which is a function of the international economy and factors out of the control of any one seaport. As a result of the United States’ current imbalance of trade, for instance, in 2015 at the Ports of Los Angeles, while empties accounted for only 2.8% of imported containers they accounted for 57.3% of all exported containers (2.2 million TEUs). The transportation of these empty containers, primarily back to the terminal for export, require transportation services to and from facilities after use, but these are repositioning moves which are not revenue-generating, and although needed, the transport of empty containers can add to total system inefficiency. Some of the causes of empty container inefficiencies arise from size and type of equipment, lack of visibility and collaboration within stakeholders as well as information systems to track containers.

To remediate this issue, **Load Matching Strategies** could provide key benefits. The objective of load matching strategies is to reduce VMT associated with empty trips. There are many variations of load matching; examples include matching empty containers with loads; first come, first take pickups; and platforms to match small loads with available space in containers which are not already full.

These types of strategies have been implemented with some success in various regions of the country. For empties, empirical evidence indicates that it is possible to match between 20-30% of the trips. However, the main limitation in most cases is the positioning cost, or the cost to transport the empty container between its location and the location of the cargo. Although, analyses are still needed, these costs could be in the order of $200-$300 per movement. Therefore, the public sector could develop an incentive program to increase the likelihood of matching and thus contribute to reduce the number of empty trips in the system. Considering the higher numbers of empties compared to loaded outbound shipments, the potential benefits of fostering these types of strategies is high.

Other examples involve the development and use of information technologies to facilitate traditional freight services such as freight brokerage. These types of technology platforms allow participation from carriers, manufacturers and distributors, freight forwarders, 3PLs, brokers, or businesses that regularly or sporadically have freight needs. One of the key factors that benefits from these technologies is the ability to provide information about unused capacity, asset visibility and reduction of “dead head” miles or empties. These systems could help reduce some of the inefficiencies at the long haul (city to city) transport, short-haul, last mile, international, and even at the courier express services. Complementary strategies have also been developed to help mitigate some of the problems associated with “empties” at the warehousing level.

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69  https://www.portoflosangeles.org/Stats/stats_2015.html
Although some of the strategies are new technological platforms for traditional freight services, current on-demand technologies and sharing practices have resulted in new freight operations and behaviors. Public agencies should support the planning and research for the potential applications of such services. However, it is clear that technology and information systems could play a key role in maximizing asset utilization. Public sector agencies should also identify the adequate allocation of resources such that these planning and research efforts are conducive to an efficient system and do not interfere with private business models.

The Ports of Los Angeles and Long Beach are exploring a Virtual Container Yard (VCY) as part of their Supply Chain Optimization effort (SCO). The Ports have been in discussion with a private entity which will soon be launching a VCY service. The Ports and SCO participants will continue to promote such a service, and others that might emerge. However, the Ports will not actually deploy its own VCY to supplant or supplement other VCY services.

**All Layers of the Economy**

The previous strategies have concentrated on freight demand management and collaborative logistics; however, traffic management in the form of revised vehicle size and weight restrictions could have the potential to contribute to maximizing asset utilization. This strategy could affect the distribution economy as well as the freight corridors in the international gateways.

**Evaluation of Revised Vehicle Size and Weight Restrictions (Traffic Management)**

This strategy, does not specifically relate to demand management or collaborative logistics; however, due to its importance to alleviate some pressing issues (investment in rail infrastructure, driver shortages, and freight traffic) it is discussed here.

*Revising truck length and size restrictions could provide the opportunity for significant gains in efficiency for certain portions of the freight industry.* Heavier GVW maximums and longer trailer configurations, e.g., 97,000 lb weight limits or use of 2-3 trailer long combination vehicles (LCVs), could provide benefits in multiple different forms. In terms of expected benefits, examples of metrics measures used in some studies looking at the US system include reduced number of trips, reduced administrative costs, less congestion, fewer hours of idling, less demand for drivers, reduced total fuel usage, and lower total emissions.

Truck weight and size limits in the US have not been changed since the 1982, when the Surface Transportation Assistance Act (STAA) mandated an 80,000 lb federal weight (GVW) limit for interstate highways. This is exacerbated by the continued existence of a previous prohibition that requires that, in order to increase their size or weight limits on sections of the interstate highway within their borders, individual states must demonstrate a grandfathered right (from before 1956) to do so. Additionally, in 1991 ISTEA froze the weights, lengths, and routes of operation of long combination vehicles (LCVs). It is clear that vehicle size and weight restrictions is a complex issue. In 2015, the U.S. Department of Transportation released the results from a comprehensive study of safety, infrastructure, and efficiency issues of the Federal truck size and weight limits and the potential impacts of changing those limits. This comprehensive analysis shows some of the impacts associated with relaxing current mandates. Explicitly identifying safety risks and

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infrastructure costs to the State of California. Similarly to the discussion of HOS Rules, any consideration of this type of strategies have to avoid any impacts to safety and other factors. However, the study is not fully conclusive, as mentioned in the Supplemental overview materials:\(^74\):

“...Did the Study reach any significant findings?
The technical materials accompanying this letter yield one significant finding: efforts to assess the full effects of the size and weight of various trucks are hindered by many of the same significant data limitations identified in previous studies. The Department finds that the current data limitations are so profound that no changes in the relevant laws and regulations should be considered until these data limitations are overcome.”

This conclusion raises the need for further analyses, which is the main objective of this proposed strategy. A few different opportunities exist where truck weight and/or size increases would provide easily achievable efficiency benefits. “It is generally accepted that in the U.S. the ratio of mass-limited to volume-limited semitrailers ranges from about 50/50\(^75\) to 40/60.”\(^76\) According to a survey of the NPTC, 86 percent of companies experience some weight out, 76 percent experience some cube out, and 66 percent have both weigh outs and cube outs. A more in-depth survey found that fifty-six percent of companies’ shipments regularly weight out, and 34 percent regularly cube out. Any situation that involves a weight out can be equated with an opportunity for heavier weight allowances to have an impact on efficiencies. Similarly, any situation involving a cube out represents an opportunity for trailer size/length increases such as the use of LCVs.

Companies estimated that they could see a 10% reduction in truck trips if weight restrictions were increased, and a 6 percent reduction in trips if LCVs were allowed. For 5 companies that could benefit from weight restriction increases, an increase of 8,000 lbs in GVW allowance would save 7.5 million gallons of fuel, and an increase of 14,000 lbs would save 10.8 million gallons. Use of LCVs are estimated to achieve a 34.9% reduction in fuel usage, on average. “Of the three scenarios evaluated, the LCV option has the greatest projected influence on fuel consumption and emissions reduction”\(^77\). Looking at the scenarios, combined, can provide even more benefits. Assuming all companies in the study are representative of the general truck population in the US (an issue the authors acknowledged was an unknown), if both a 8,000 lb increase and use of twin 53-ft trailer LCVs were allowed, national annual diesel fuel usage would decrease by 2.6 billion gallons. If a 14,000 lb increase and LCVs were used, that reduction would be nearly 3 billion gallons.

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\(^74\) http://ops.fhwa.dot.gov/freight/sw/map21tswstudy/technical_rpts/ctswlsqapublicsuplmt.pdf


Investigating the potential for longer and/or heavier trucks in California could provide a significant prospect to address goals specified by the Governor’s Executive Order. Compared to other countries that already have looser restrictions on size and weight, the US has a large opportunity to increase their efficiency and have a more competitive freight system. According to Woodrooffe, “The potential gains in freight efficiency for freight that could make use of vehicle weight increases matching our NAFTA partners Canada and Mexico are 44 and 53 percent, respectively”. Large increases in efficiency that could be achieved by adjustments to the federal weight and size limits could provide efficiency gains that could possibly meet or exceed the Governor’s goal. It is important to consider, however, several factors that can have large effects on estimated results:

- Each company has different areas where efficiency gains can be achieved through the expansion of size and weight limits; not all companies would benefit from each possible loosening in regulation;
- “Larger trucks, including LCVs, will not be suitable for all roads, and route selection, permitting and monitoring will be important issues”;
- There could be increased wear-and-tear on the trucks, tires, and trailers, affecting the lifetimes of the equipment;
- Weight increases would be compatible with most existing infrastructure, but bridge weight restrictions need to be considered in addition to interstate highway restrictions;
- Heavier trailers that only have 2 axles will need a third axle in order to handle more weight. This raises cost concerns and issues surrounding who owns the trailer/would be responsible for retrofits/turnover in the trailer fleet. Estimating retrofit costs would be very difficult, considering the large variety of equipment/uses;
- LCV use has limitations largely based on infrastructure-related geometric constraints;
  - LCVs will likely require special government permitting and additional training for drivers; they also would require significant infrastructure changes in different areas of use, including on roads and also at the point of transition from interstate to urban area (e.g. needing drop yards); operational adjustments, on the side of the companies, would be needed as well;
- The use of for-hire carriers, versus private carriers, can have an impact on the feasibility (and cost burden) of weight increases and LCV use.

Additionally, impacts on California’s roadways and pavements need to be considered. The Transportation Institute at Texas A&M has conducted research in this general area. It is important to understand the infrastructure impacts associated with heavier trucks in California. Although a complex topic, the potential for improvements due to modifying size and weights restrictions warrants the need for additional research to identify those locations or corridors where they could be implemented. Federal and State Agencies should take the lead on identifying those opportunities. Concerns about infrastructure damage, safety, and other issues are valid reasons to invest resources to identify the feasibility of such strategies. However, technical feasibility may

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not equate with regulatory constraints. Research and technological advancements could shed light into ways, if they exist, to overcome such issues and alleviate some of the concerns raised by State groups such as the Peace Officers Research Association of California, California Police Chiefs Association, California State Association of Counties, League of California Cities, and California State Sheriff’s Association, among others.

**Summary of Strategies**

In general, the discussions for each strategy showed that there is variability in the potential for their impacts, the levels of effort needed for their implementation, and the type of stakeholders involved in the planning, research, and implementation phases. Some of the strategies are likely to be widely understood by the practitioner community, while others require careful analysis and implementation to avoid unintended consequences. Moreover, the amount of public information available about experiences and assessments, varies from strategy to strategy; this is especially the case for the required level of costs and implementation efforts. This section summarizes the various proposed strategies based on a qualitative assessment of some of the factors discussed in terms of potential benefits; stakeholders’ role in the implementation/planning effort; requirements; and the opportunities for the implementation of new technologies. The qualitative assessment is based on the discussion and critical analysis of each strategy. For each factor, a 3-level scale is used, indicating low, medium and high relationship (i.e., positive effect, level of involvement, and level of effort/investment). Lack of an assessment indicates that the criterion does not apply to the strategy, or that the relationship is very low. In general, the assessment is made considering that the strategy is feasible for implementation, and that the unintended consequences have been addressed. This assessment should be used as a general guideline, and for comparison purposes between the strategies. The assessment does not imply the real magnitude of the effects as it will depend on the specifics of the program to be implemented.

Table 5 shows the potential benefits expected from the implementation of each of the strategies. The assessment clearly indicates that these strategies have the potential to generate positive effects in terms of increased operational efficiency, reduced congestion, and improved environmental sustainability; while not generating major impacts on safety, security and enhancing livability. However, the magnitude of those benefits could not be estimated, as additional research, simulation, modeling and analyses are required to identify the corridors, and/or specific locations (or stakeholders) where those benefits would be realized. For instance, while some of the benefits could be perceived inside maritime terminals, other benefits such as reduced congestion could impact all network users (thus quantifying them is a complex task). For the cases for which information is available, overall emission reductions could be in the order of 4% as in the case of Off-Hour Deliveries. Another important aspect that limits the ability to quantify the benefits is the fact that, in most cases, the implementation of various strategies does not have an additive effect. Though, controlling for unintended consequences such as induced demand, it is expected that the benefit would be a compounded positive effect.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Potential Benefit</th>
<th>Increase Operational Efficiency</th>
<th>Reduce Congestion</th>
<th>Environmental Sustainability</th>
<th>Enhance Safety</th>
<th>Enhance Security</th>
<th>Enhance Economic Competitiveness</th>
<th>Public Sector Revenue Generation</th>
<th>Enhance Livability</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chassis-PoP</td>
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<td>Integrated Dray Services</td>
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<td>Improving Traffic Mitigation Fee Programs</td>
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<tr>
<td>Revising Vehicle Size and Weight Restrictions*</td>
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<td>Receiver-led Consolidation</td>
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<td>Voluntary Off-Hour Delivery Programs</td>
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(+) denotes a low positive effect. (++) denotes a moderate positive effect. (+++) denotes a high positive effect. * Safety is a major concern for strategies looking at revising vehicle size and weight restrictions.

When designing the various strategies and conducting the planning efforts, it is important to identify the stakeholders’ role in the process (see Table 6). For the purpose of this report, when referring to the local/regional/State/Federal government, planning agencies, and other public authorities’ involvement, the analyses refer to the level of engagement required from each of those stakeholders to provide critical external planning, financial, or policy support. A clear difference should be made between the stakeholder engagement for the design, planning and implementation process, and the specific stakeholders targeted by the strategy. For example, while receiver-led consolidation primarily targets shippers and receivers of the cargo, other stakeholders such as logistics operators and ancillary facilities would need to coordinate the changes in operational patterns; governmental involvement requirements may be limited. Voluntary off-hour delivery programs exhibit similar characteristics in terms of the targeted stakeholders; however, the implementation and planning efforts require engagement from many other stakeholders including, local, regional and national public agencies.
Table 6: Stakeholders’ role in the implementation/planning effort

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stakeholder</th>
<th>Shippers</th>
<th>Carriers - Road (Drayage /Distribution)</th>
<th>Carriers - Rail</th>
<th>Carriers - Maritime (Shipping Lines)</th>
<th>Receivers (Large and Small Establishments)</th>
<th>Port Terminals</th>
<th>Warehouses/ Distribution Centers</th>
<th>Logistics Operators</th>
<th>Local Government/ Planning / Authorities</th>
<th>State / Regional</th>
<th>Federal</th>
<th>Others (Trade organizations, scientists, academia, communities)</th>
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<tr>
<td>Chassis-PoP</td>
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In other cases, the planning effort should consider issues resulting from the improvement of operations of specific modes. For examples, relaxing truck size and vehicle restrictions may induce an undesirable mode shift from rail to truck; could increase safety risk; and, the infrastructure investments to facilitate the traffic of heavier vehicles may create equity differences between the publicly and privately owned infrastructures (e.g., rail). In this specific example, relaxing vehicle size and weight restrictions for over the road vehicles, could generate opposition from the rail industry, safety groups, and communities.

Each stakeholder could participate in the implementation and planning efforts in many forms. However, the type of requirements to develop a sound strategy could be categorized in:
cooperation and coordination efforts; need for incentives or taxation; the need for funding or capital investment; development of information technologies; development of new technologies such as hardware, equipment; infrastructure improvements; and regulatory framework. In essence, the requirements could be in terms of technological, financial, planning, policy or operational support. Table 7 summarizes the type/level of requirements expected for each strategy. The assessment shows that cooperation and coordination, development of incentives and taxation schemes, and the development or use of information technologies are the primary requirements for these strategies. Designing each strategy should try to guarantee participation from the targeted stakeholders. Examples include the off-hour delivery program and the use of incentives to foster participation; or the recent experiences with the SCO at the POLA/LB, where a number of stakeholders are cooperating and considering optimizing strategies. The cooperation and coordination among the stakeholders have resulted in successful stories such as the handling of the 3 largest vessels ever to call a port in the US.

Table 7: Requirements

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Cooperation and Coordination</th>
<th>Incentives / Taxation</th>
<th>Capital Investments</th>
<th>Information Technologies</th>
<th>New Technologies (Hardware, Vehicles)</th>
<th>Infrastructure Improvements</th>
<th>Regulatory Framework</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chassis-PoP</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>+++</td>
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<td>++</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated Dray Services</td>
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<td>++</td>
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<tr>
<td>Advanced Appointment/Reservation Systems</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Load Matching/Maximizing Capacity</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving Traffic Mitigation Fee Programs</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxing Vehicle Size and Weight Restrictions</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiver-led Consolidation</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>+</td>
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<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voluntary Off-Hour Delivery Programs</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>+++</td>
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<td>+</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

(+) denotes a low level of effort/investment. (++) denotes a moderate level of effort/investment. (+++ denotes a high level of effort/investment.

In addition to the previous factors, the proposed strategies could also provide some opportunities (directly or indirectly) to introduce or foster the implementation of new or sustainable technologies. These include, zero or near zero emission vehicles and equipment; improvement and retrofits to existing facilities; automation; and the implementation of
information technologies. The qualitative assessment (see Table 8) is done under the following assumptions: 1) these strategies will provide system efficiencies that translate onto operational efficiencies for the individual stakeholders; 2) system efficiencies also generate economic benefits; 3) operational and economic benefits will allow for the stakeholders to invest in some of those new technologies; and 4) other operational efficiencies, and improvements in the overall system conditions could allow for the use of the new technologies within their technical limitations (e.g., range of electric vehicles; loading capacity). Moreover, considering that the development of some of the strategies could involve incentive and funding programs, these programs could also include the adoption of these technologies.

Table 8: Additional opportunities for the adoption and implementation of new technologies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opportunities for Strategy</th>
<th>Sustainable Vehicles</th>
<th>Sustainable Equipment</th>
<th>Improved Facilities</th>
<th>Automation</th>
<th>Implementation of Information Technologies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chassis-PoP</td>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>(+++)</td>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>(+++)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated Dray Services</td>
<td>(+++)</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voluntary Off-Hour Delivery Programs</td>
<td>(+++)</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>++</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(+) denotes a low positive effect. (++) denotes a moderate positive effect. (+++) denotes a high positive effect.

In general, the analyses showed that there is no single strategy that could address the range of inefficiencies currently affecting the California Freight System. While some of the strategies are intended to mitigate pressing issues, others could help to adapt and be able to mitigate the impacts of future trends, and operational patterns. Designing a plan to improve the freight efficiency should consider a set or packages of complementary strategies.
CHAPTER V. GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

The previous sections discussed some of the key characteristics of the California Freight System. Specifically, the types of stakeholders involved, their dynamic relations, and a number of inefficiencies affecting the system. In light of the Governor’s Executive Order, it is imperative that the various public agencies in the State initiate, continue or reinforce efforts to address some of these issues. In general, these efforts should concentrate on:

**Conducting sound freight planning at all levels**

California is a diverse geographic location in terms of freight, with various requirements and constraints throughout the State. To improve the efficiency, planning should be conducted addressing the needs of the different sectors and layers of the economy. Although, the international trade economy gateways attract much of the attention and can dominate the planning agenda, the domestic manufacturing/agricultural and the distribution urban economies play a key role in the freight system. Consequently, planning resources are required at all levels, from the large Metropolitan Planning Organizations to the local jurisdictions. It is important also to recognize that across all the sectors and economies, congestion (in its various forms) is a key factor that hinders maximizing asset utilization, and should be a priority for planning organizations. Urban freight is also plagued with many inefficiencies such as lack of parking infrastructure, conflicting regulations, and higher costs of conducting business in many large dense areas.

**Planning efforts will allow identifying the types of freight behaviors that need to be fostered or mitigated among the various stakeholders**

These behavioral changes, will require in most cases, the design of effective incentive programs. These programs could include adequate recognitions programs, financial or non-monetary assistance, or pricing and taxation type of schemes. There are a number of programs in the State trying to achieve higher levels of sustainability. However, these programs do not fully consider operational or logistics changes, and for the most part, concentrate on technological improvements.

**Participatory stakeholder engagement**

Each individual stakeholder is or has invested great efforts to improve how they operate. Every company has an incentive to invest in technology, planning, and infrastructure in order to streamline their operations and to be more efficient given the pressures of the supply chain. In order to continue being competitive in a market where rates are at their lowest, companies are required to operate with high levels of sophistication and planning. However, while each individual company, industry, or mode is organizing itself in ways which are most effective and efficient for itself, the supply chain as a whole may still benefit from some third-party incentives which create even greater system efficiency. This in turn, requires the development of system level performance measures that are conducive of system-wide efficiencies.

Currently, there are already ongoing efforts for supply chain optimization and port optimization which are resulting in significant improvements and efficiency gains. For example, the Port of Long Beach’s Green Port Gateway project, funded by federal and local sources, was finalized in
2015. The main purpose was to improve tracks’ infrastructure to enhance rail efficiency and expand on dock capacity in the Port of Long Beach to haul cargo containers directly to and from marine terminals. As a result, 750 truck trips will be avoided by each train. The Port of Long Beach has established a goal of moving 35% of containers by rail in the next 5 years while aiming to achieve a long term target of 50%. The Port of Los Angeles policy is similar: to provide as much rail infrastructure as necessary, and facilitate intermodal logistics such that the movement of direct intermodal cargo (approximately 40-50%, depending upon terminal and steamship line) via on-dock rail is maximized to the greatest extent possible. The results from efforts such as these, highlight the important to recognize the role that planning, collaboration and cooperation, and incentives can have to further produce multi-modal and supply chain efficiencies. Considering how diverse each stakeholder’s operations can be, with their own constraints and opportunities, developing appropriate strategies requires insights and detailed analysis of how each supply chain operates. Often this is information that only specific industry experts can provide.

**Fostering information sharing**

It is important to develop the mechanisms to foster information sharing. Whether it is through Strategy Development Groups, Task Forces or any other collaborative spaces, public agencies should actively engage the various stakeholders in the freight and other sectors to fully identify the key problems, and develop sound solutions. Furthermore, information sharing may not only be incentivize for planning purposes, but also to recognize the value of information as an input and output to operational processes. All stakeholders participating in this Freight Efficiency Strategy Development Group (FESDG) have identified the need to manage information flows, thus developing information technologies and infrastructure are a must. However, it is also important to understand the full implications of these efforts, because of the very value of information. The resolution of the data, privacy concerns, open or controlled access, the structure of the managing agency, and the validity of the sources, are just a few among the number of factors that need to be addressed when developing such information systems and sharing practices.

**Other**

It is also important to highlight the need to develop plans, agreements and engage in conversations to address labor related aspects to optimize such resources. Labor difficulties impact all facets of freight, from modes to facilities. While some of the inefficiencies may be driven by safety concerns and the associated regulations, it is important to consider the full spectrum of impacts that regulations and decisions can have across other operational and tactical

factors. Labor issues, such as driver shortages, could also be addressed by investing in workforce development.

**Investing in research**

In general, trying to achieve the goal of improving freight efficiency will require coordinated efforts between the public and private sectors, academia, communities, and any other stakeholder. It is not likely that a single strategy will result in significant improvements. This is a complex system requiring complex solutions. As a result, it is important that public and private agencies and organizations support research efforts that can help shed light into the various complex issues affecting the system and potential specific solutions. As pointed out by the case of the U.S. Department of Transportation Comprehensive Truck Size and Weight Limits Study, additional research is still needed to identify and quantify the full impacts of various strategies. Moreover, investing on freight data could support research, and decision making.