

1 **Dynamic Travel Time Prediction using Pattern Recognition**

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21 **ABSTRACT**

22 Travel-time information is an essential part of Advanced Traveler Information Systems (ATISs)
23 and Advanced Traffic Management Systems (ATMSs). A key component of these systems is the
24 prediction of travel times. From the perspective of travelers such information may assist in
25 making better route choice and departure time decisions. For transportation agencies these data
26 provide criteria with which to better manage and control traffic to reduce congestion. This study
27 proposes a dynamic travel time prediction algorithm that matches current traffic patterns to
28 historical data. Unlike previous approaches that use travel time as the control variable, the
29 approach uses the temporal-spatial traffic state evolution to match traffic states and predict travel
30 times. The approach first identifies candidate historical time intervals by matching real-time
31 traffic state data against historical data for use in prediction purposes. Subsequently, the selected
32 candidates are used to predict the temporal-spatial evolution of traffic. Lastly, dynamic travel
33 times are constructed using the identified candidate historical data. The proposed algorithm is
34 tested on a 37-mile freeway segment from Newport News to Virginia Beach along the I-64 and I-
35 264 freeways using historical INRIX data. The prediction results indicate that the proposed
36 method produces predictions that are more accurate than the state-of-the-art K-Nearest Neighbor
37 methods reducing the prediction error by 15 percent to less than 3 minutes on a 50-minute trip.

38

1 INTRODUCTION

2 Congestion has proven to be a serious problem across urban areas in the United States. In 2007, it
3 cost highway users 4.2 billion extra hours of sitting in traffic and an extra 2.8 billion gallons of
4 fuel. This all translated into an additional \$87.2 billion in congestion costs for road users in 2007,
5 which showed a 50% increase in cost compared to data from the previous decade. Even though
6 the recent economic downturn is said to have marginally eased the congestion problem
7 nationwide, new evidence shows an uptrend in traffic and consequently congestion [1].

8 Tackling congestion (both recurrent and non-recurrent) has proven to be a challenge for
9 highway agencies. Adding capacity in response to congestion is becoming less of an option for
10 these agencies due to a combination of financial, environmental, and social issues. Therefore, the
11 main focus has been on improving the performance of existing facilities through continuous
12 monitoring and dissemination of traffic information. The minimum that can be accomplished is to
13 inform the public or, specifically, the potential users of what they should expect on the roadways
14 before and during their trips. Additionally, this information can be applied to provide alternatives
15 to users so that they may make informed decisions about their trips. This is the essence of
16 Advanced Traveler Information System (ATIS) applications such as 511 that have been
17 implemented nationwide. In many states relevant traffic information is also posted on variable
18 message signs (VMSs) that are strategically positioned along highways. Consequently, there is a
19 need to provide predicted travel times to road users for better planning their trips and choosing
20 their route of travel, further reducing congestion.

21 Various traffic sensing technologies have been used to collect traffic data for use in
22 computing travel times, including point to point travel time collection (license plate recognition
23 systems, automatic vehicle identification systems, mobile, Bluetooth, probe vehicle, etc.) and
24 station based traffic state measuring devices (loop detector, video camera, remote traffic
25 microwave sensor, etc.). Private companies such as INRIX integrate different sources of
26 measured data to provide section-based traffic state data (speed, average travel time), which is
27 used in our study to develop algorithms for predicting travel times. The benefit of using section-
28 based traffic state data is that travel time can be easily calculated from traffic state data. More
29 importantly, the section-based data provides the flexibility for scalable applications on traffic
30 networks.

31 By providing section-based traffic state data, there are two approaches to compute travel
32 time depending on the trip experience [2, 3]. Dynamic travel time is the actual, realized travel
33 time that a vehicle could experience during a trip. If a vehicle leaves its origin at the current time,
34 the roadway speed will not only change across space but also across time during the entire trip.
35 Consequently, dynamic travel time can be obtained by using a prediction algorithm to compute
36 the speed evolution in future time steps. Instantaneous travel time is the other approach available
37 to compute travel times without the consideration of speed evolution across time. It is usually
38 computed using the current speed along the entire roadway; in other words the speed field is
39 assumed to remain constant in time. The instantaneous travel time is close to the dynamic travel
40 time when the roadway speed does not change significantly across time space during the trip.
41 However, this approach may deviate substantially from the actual, experienced travel time under
42 transient states during which congestion is forming or dissipating during a trip [4].

43 Some attempts have been conducted using macroscopic traffic modeling to predict short-
44 term traffic states, however the accuracy degrades rapidly with the increase in the prediction time
45 span [5, 6]. It should be noted that traffic state in the near future usually cannot provide enough
46 information to cover the entire trip, especially for long trips. For instance, in the case of a 100-

1 mile trip, departures at the current time would still be traveling one hour in the future even under
2 free-flow traffic conditions. For this case, the traffic state for the following one hour or more
3 should be predicted in order to compute dynamic travel times. An alternative to solving this
4 problem is to use historical data. The historical dataset provides a pool of past experienced traffic
5 patterns which can be used to predict future traffic states. The key issue is determining the similar
6 historical traffic patterns to match with the changeable real-time traffic information.

7 The purpose of this study is to develop an algorithm to predict dynamic travel times for
8 departures at the current time or in the future (look ahead time duration). The proposed method
9 seeks historical candidates with similar traffic patterns to the current conditions. Afterward, the
10 future traffic state can be predicted by the subsequent traffic state of each candidate. Dynamic
11 travel times for each candidate are aggregated with associated weights to compute future travel
12 times. A freeway stretch from Newport News to Virginia Beach is selected to test the proposed
13 algorithm using five-minute aggregated traffic data for 2010 provided by INRIX. The travel time
14 prediction results during the summer season demonstrate that the proposed method produce
15 higher prediction accuracies compared to state-of-the-art K-Nearest Neighbor methods, especially
16 during highly congested weekdays.

17 The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. A literature review of previous travel
18 time prediction methods is provided. Subsequently, the proposed methodology of using current
19 and historical traffic state data to predict dynamic travel times is presented. This is followed by a
20 description of the test data for the case study and the comparison results of using proposed
21 approach and the traditional k -NN algorithm for prediction. The last section provides the
22 summary conclusions of the research and some research recommendations for future research.

23 LITERATURE REVIEW

24 During the past decades, many studies have been conducted to predict travel times. Some of the
25 reviews of different methods can be found in earlier publications [7-10]. According to the manner
26 of modeling, those methods can be classified into time series models including Kalman filter [11,
27 12], Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) models [12-14] and data-driven
28 methods, such as neural networks [9, 15], support vector regression (SVR) [16, 17] and K-
29 Nearest Neighbor (k -NN) [8, 18, 19] models. These techniques are implemented through direct
30 and indirect procedures to predict travel times using different types of state variables. Travel time
31 is directly used as the state variable in model-based or data-driven methods to predict travel times.
32 Indirect procedures are performed by using other variables (such as traffic speed, density, flow,
33 occupancy , etc.) as the state variable to predict traffic status, and then future travel time can be
34 calculated based on the transition to predicted traffic status.

35 Time series models construct the time series relationship of travel time or traffic state, and
36 then current and/or past traffic data are used in the constructed models to predict travel times in
37 the next time interval [20]. A Kalman filter (KF) is a popular method for data estimation and
38 tracking, in which time update and measurement update processes are included. A time series
39 equation is used to predict state variables and then state values are corrected according to the new
40 measurement data. The main advantage of a KF is that the recursive framework ensures traffic
41 data is efficiently updated only using data from previous states and not the entire history [5].
42 Kalman filters were proposed to predict travel times using Global Positioning System (GPS)
43 information and probe vehicle data [12, 21]. The state transient parameter in the time series
44 equation is defined from average historical data to calculate future travel times. The similar idea
45 was used in the Bayesian dynamic linear model for real-time short-term travel time prediction
46 [11]. The system noise can be adjusted for unforeseen events (incidents, accidents or bad weather)

1 and integrated into the recursive Bayesian filter framework to quantify random variations on
2 travel times. The experiment results based on loop detector data from a segment of I-66
3 demonstrates the proposed method produces higher prediction accuracy under both recurrent and
4 non-recurrent traffic conditions. However, in these methods a problem exists in that the travel
5 time in the previous time interval is needed to calculate the future travel time. For real-time
6 applications, the travel time is usually greater than the time interval step size. Hence, the actual
7 travel time from the previous time interval is not available to apply in the algorithms used to
8 predict travel times for the next time interval.

9 A seasonal ARIMA model was proposed to quantify the seasonal recurrent pattern of
10 traffic conditions (occupancy) [13, 14]. Moreover, an embedded adaptive Kalman filter was
11 developed in order to update the occupancy estimate in real-time using new traffic volume
12 measurements. Consequently, multi-step look ahead occupancy information are estimated to
13 obtain a data matrix representing the temporal-spatial traffic condition for the future trip. Since
14 travel time cannot be directly computed through traffic conditions (occupancy), future traffic
15 speed can be calculated using occupancy data by assuming an average vehicle length and using a
16 constant conversion factor known as the g -factor in the literature. Consequently, dynamic
17 freeway corridor travel times are predicted with the consideration of traffic state evolution along
18 the corridor. However, this approach may be difficult to implement since the described recurrent
19 pattern of traffic conditions may not be found everywhere.

20 Data-driven methods usually predict travel times using a large amount of historical traffic
21 data. Time series models are not specified in the data-driven methods, considering the complex
22 stochasticity of traffic systems. Neural networks can be trained from historical data to discover
23 hidden dependencies which can be used for predicting future states. A space neural network
24 (SSNN) method was proposed to predict freeway travel times for missing data [9]. The missing
25 data problem was tackled by simple imputation schemes, such as exponential forecasts and
26 spatial interpolation. Travel time was the direct state variable used for the training process and the
27 experiment results demonstrated the SSNN methods produced accurate travel time predictions on
28 inductive loop detector data. Supported vector machine (SVM) is a successor to ANNs, which
29 has greater generalization ability and is superior to the empirical risk minimization principle as
30 adopted in ANNs [17]. The application of SVM to time series forecasting is called SVR. The
31 SVR predictor was demonstrated to perform well for travel time prediction. The point to point
32 travel time is usually used as the input to ANNs and SVRs. However, both methods require long
33 training processes and are nontransferable to other sites [8].

34 The k -NN method can be used to find several candidate sequences from historical data, by
35 matching with current to short past data sequences. Travel time and occupancy sequences were
36 used to predict dynamic travel times using the k -NN method with combined data from vehicle
37 detectors and automatic toll collection systems [8]. The occupancy was used since travel time
38 sequence was collected for the recent past time intervals. The results from the case study
39 demonstrated the improvement of prediction accuracy by combining two types of sequences for
40 the matching process. Moreover, a k -NN method was proposed by selecting candidates through
41 the Euclidean distance and data trend measures to predict freeway travel times under different
42 weather conditions [18]. Unlike ANNs and SVRs, k -NN methods are easy to implement at
43 different sites without data training required.

44 In summary, existing methods are either insufficient or have limitations for predicting
45 dynamic travel times for departures at the current time or future times. The proposed approach
46 used in this study is a data-driven method, yet outperforms the previous methods by fully

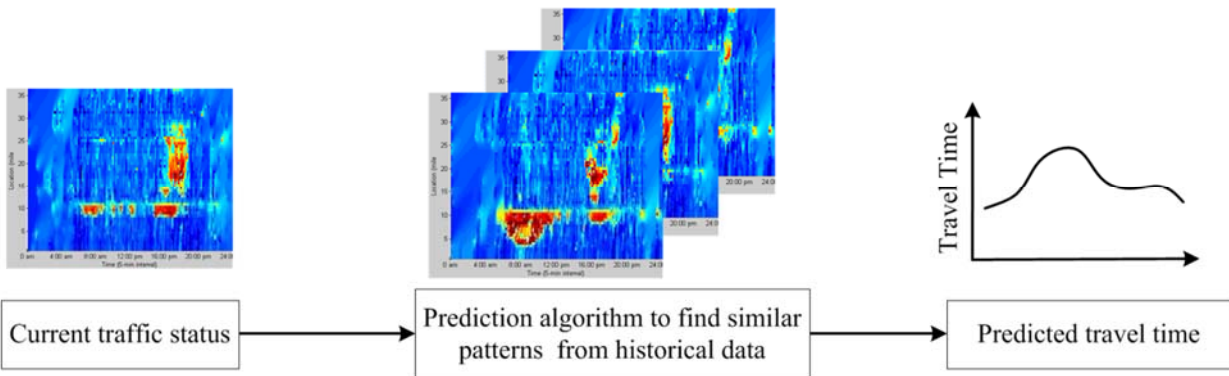
1 utilizing the relationship between traffic states and travel times. Moreover, other than previous
 2 studies using travel time sequences as input, the proposed method uses temporal-spatial traffic
 3 data to match traffic patterns between real-time and historical data. The temporal-spatial traffic
 4 matrix can be further applied with advanced pattern matching techniques to extract candidates
 5 more efficiently and accurately to obtain better travel time prediction results.

6 METHODOLOGY

7 The Dynamic Travel Time Prediction Framework

8 The proposed algorithm comprises three stages: identify current traffic status, obtain similar
 9 traffic patterns from historical data, and predict travel times. The framework of the three stages is
 10 demonstrated in Figure 1. The current traffic status is initially selected to represent the traffic
 11 status of all freeway sections from short-past to the current time interval. The traffic status in this
 12 case is a matrix across temporal and spatial axes. Thereafter, the historical traffic speed data with
 13 the same dimension to current traffic status is selected as a candidate. Based on the dissimilarity
 14 to the current speed matrix, several candidates are extracted to represent the historical recurrent
 15 traffic patterns that are similar to the current status. Finally, the subsequence dynamic travel times
 16 of those candidates are aggregated to represent the travel time distributions in the future.

17 The proposed algorithm fully utilizes the relationship between traffic state and travel time,
 18 and the selected candidate traffic state maps are used to predict future travel times. Consequently,
 19 the full coverage of historical traffic state data is required in the proposed approach. However, the
 20 problem of missing data is common in the field and thus must be addressed. Many traffic state
 21 estimation methods were proposed in order to obtain full coverage traffic state data by solving the
 22 mentioned problems [22, 23]. In the following sections, the traffic status is the full coverage
 23 traffic data after the process of state estimation. A detailed description of state estimation
 24 methods is beyond the scope of this paper and thus is not discussed further in this paper.



25

26

Figure 1: Framework of Proposed Dynamic Travel Time Prediction Algorithm.

27 Matching Traffic Patterns

28 A candidate selection scheme is proposed to select temporal-spatial traffic state candidates from a
 29 historical dataset by matching with the real-time traffic state. Suppose c denotes the current time;
 30 the current traffic state $[c-L+1, c-L+2, \dots, c]$ and the matching temporal-spatial traffic data $[t-$
 31 $L+1, t-L+2, \dots, t]$ from a historical dataset are denoted by tail time c and t , respectively. Here, L
 32 is the data length across time intervals to be matched. It should be noted that the traffic data of
 33 each time interval is a vector that covers all spatial sections (N sections) of the freeway stretch,

1 therefore the traffic data for L time intervals is a matrix with dimension L by N . Various pattern-
 2 matching methods can be used to define the dissimilarity between the current traffic status and
 3 historical data, such as the Euclidean distance [24-27], data trends [18, 28], image pattern
 4 recognition [29, 30], neural networks [15, 31], etc. In this study, the average Euclidean distance
 5 between the current temporal-spatial traffic data and each data matrix with the same dimension
 6 from the historical dataset is calculated using Equation (1) to represent a dissimilarity measure.
 7 Other advanced methods can be adopted to increase the matching speed and accuracy and are
 8 being considered as part of future research efforts.

$$d(c, h) = |M(c, L) - M(h, L)| / (L \cdot N). \quad (1)$$

9 where $M(c, L)$ and $M(h, L)$ represent the traffic data of the current and historical time intervals,
 10 respectively; $d(c, h)$ is the average Euclidean distance between the traffic speed matrix data of
 11 different time intervals.

12 A small dissimilarity measure indicates the matching historical data is similar to the
 13 current traffic pattern. Consequently, several candidates are selected according to the ascending
 14 order of the dissimilarity measure. Here, the maximum number of candidates is denoted by K ,
 15 and the minimum acceptable dissimilarity is defined by d_{MIN} . The set of candidates H_c is selected
 16 as

$$\begin{aligned} H_c &= \{h_1, h_2, \dots, h_{K'}\} \\ \text{where } h_1 &= \arg \min d(c, h) \\ & d(c, h_1) \leq d(c, h_{i+1}) \\ K' &= \max \{i \mid i \leq K, d(c, h_i) \leq d_{MIN}\} \\ & |h_i - h_j| \geq \varepsilon, \quad i \neq j \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

17 where h_i is the selected candidate from historical dataset; K' denotes the resulting number of the
 18 selected candidates; ε is used to avoid selecting adjacent candidates from the same day in the
 19 history data. The selected candidates represent the best matching to the current traffic status and
 20 will be used to calculate future travel times.

21 Dynamic Travel Time Prediction

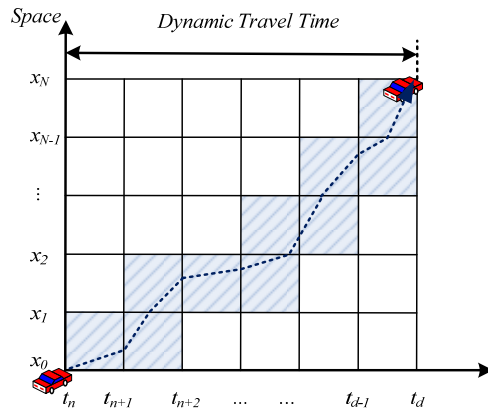
22 The future dynamic travel times on the current day can be calculated based on the selected
 23 historical candidates. Considering the stochastic nature of a traffic system, the travel time
 24 prediction problem can be recognized as a time series prediction for nonlinear dynamic (chaotic)
 25 systems [32, 33]. The future traffic state for the current day can be predicted by the subsequent
 26 traffic state of each candidate from the historical dataset. The linear combination of each
 27 candidate's subsequent traffic state is used to predict the future traffic status, and the
 28 corresponding weight is defined as the inverse of the dissimilarity measure of each candidate. The
 29 prediction traffic state starting from time interval $c+p$ is obtained as

$$M(c+p) = \sum_{i=1}^{K'} w(h_i) \times M(h_i+p) \quad (3)$$

$$w(h_i) = \frac{d(c, h_i)^{-1}}{\sum_{i=1}^{K'} d(c, h_i)^{-1}} \quad (4)$$

where $M(h_i+p)$ represents the p steps ahead subsequent traffic state for i^{th} candidate; and $w(h_i)$ denotes the weight of i^{th} candidate data.

1 The next step is to calculate the dynamic travel time based on the subsequent traffic state
 2 of each candidate. Dynamic travel time is the actual, realized travel time that a vehicle could
 3 experience during a trip. If a vehicle leaves a trip origin at the current time, the roadway speed
 4 will not only change across space but also across time during the entire trip. Therefore, the traffic
 5 state evolution over space and time is considered in our approach as shown in Figure 2 in the
 6 computation of dynamic travel times. The speed values of shaded cells are used to compute
 7 dynamic travel times. In this paper, the traffic state is assumed to be homogenous within each cell.
 8 Therefore the trajectory slope, which represents the traffic speed, is a constant value in each cell.
 9 Assume the trip starts from time interval t_n . In this way, once the vehicle enters a new cell, the
 10 trajectory within this cell can be drawn as the straight dotted line in Figure 2 with the slope value
 11 equal to the traffic stream speed. Finally, the dynamic travel time can be calculated when the
 12 trajectory reaches the downstream boundary of the last freeway section (destination).
 13



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Figure 2: Illustration of Dynamic Travel Time.

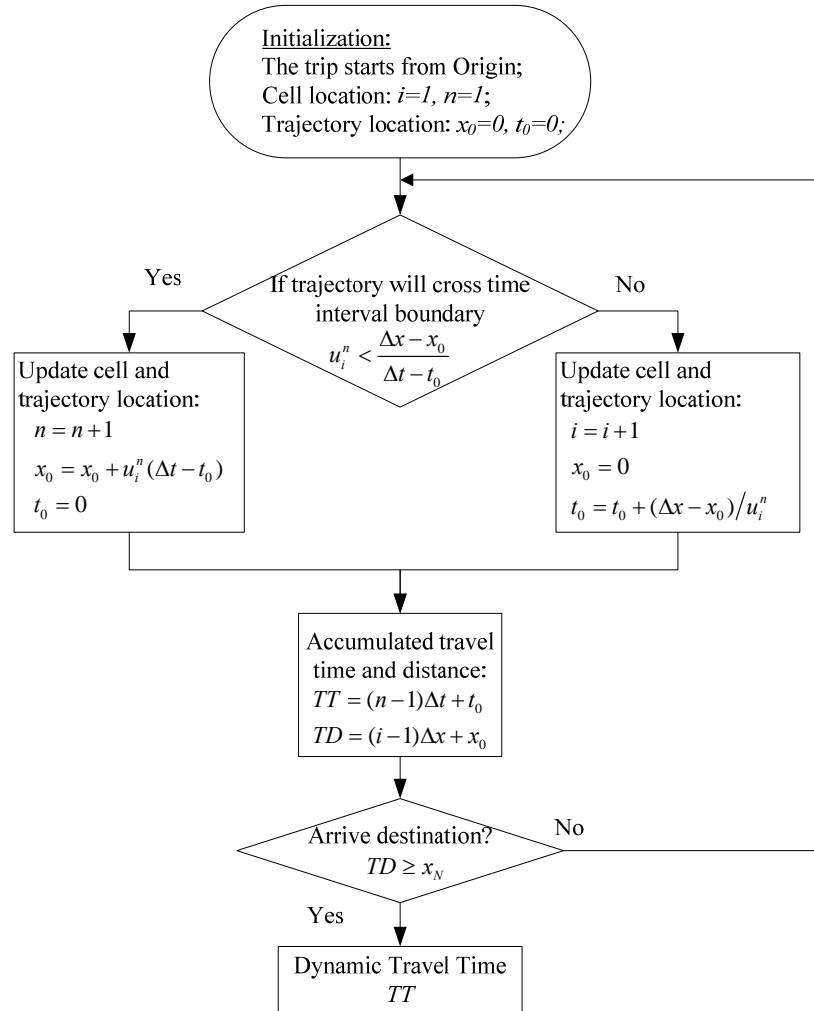
16 The procedure for estimating dynamic travel times is shown in Figure 3. The dynamic
 17 travel time of each subsequent candidate can be obtained and the corresponding weight (recurrent
 18 probability) is defined by the dissimilarity measure of Equation (4). Finally, the travel time
 19 distribution of the future trip can be represented as

$$TT(c+p) = \{TT(h_i+p), w(h_i) | i = 1, L, K'\} \tag{5}$$

where $TT(c+p)$ represents the dynamic travel time starting from time interval $c+p$; and $TT(h_i+p)$ denotes the subsequent travel time of i^{th} candidate according to the calculation of Figure 3. The travel time prediction result can also be calculated as the average value using Equation (6).

$$\overline{TT}(c+p) = \frac{1}{K'} \sum_{i=1}^{K'} w(h_i) \times TT(h_i+p) \tag{6}$$

20



1
2 **Figure 3: The Flow Chart of Dynamic Travel Time Calculation.**

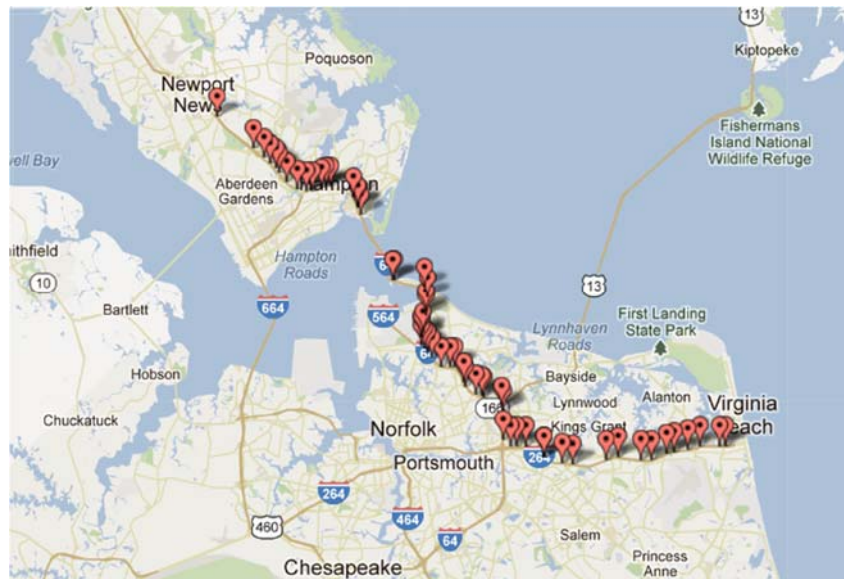
3 **CASE STUDY**

4 The performance of the proposed dynamic travel time prediction approach is tested on a study
5 section. The description of the test data is first introduced and followed by the comparison
6 between the proposed approach and traditional k -NN methods for travel time prediction.

7 **Data Description**

8 The case study is conducted based on privately developed INRIX traffic data collected during
9 2010, which is mainly collected by GPS equipped vehicles. The collected probe data is
10 supplemented by traditional road sensors, as well as mobile devices and other sources [34]. As a
11 result, the traffic data is the average speed of a roadway segment and aggregated at 5-minute
12 intervals. The INRIX data on the main segments along I-64 and I-264 are used to construct the
13 travel database in our study. Since heavy traffic volumes are usually observed along I-64 and I-
14 264 heading to Virginia Beach during summer seasons and weekends, efficient and accurate
15 travel time prediction can be helpful to travelers in planning their trips and reducing traffic
16 congestion around the area. A 37-mile freeway stretch is selected to test the prediction algorithm,
17 which includes most of the congested areas heading towards Virginia Beach from Richmond. The

1 selected freeway stretch is located from Newport News to Virginia Beach along I-64 and I-264
 2 and includes 59 sections as shown in Figure 4. The average length of all the sections is 0.65 miles
 3 and the longest section is the 3.7 miles segment located at Hampton Roads Bridge-Tunnel
 4 (HRBT).

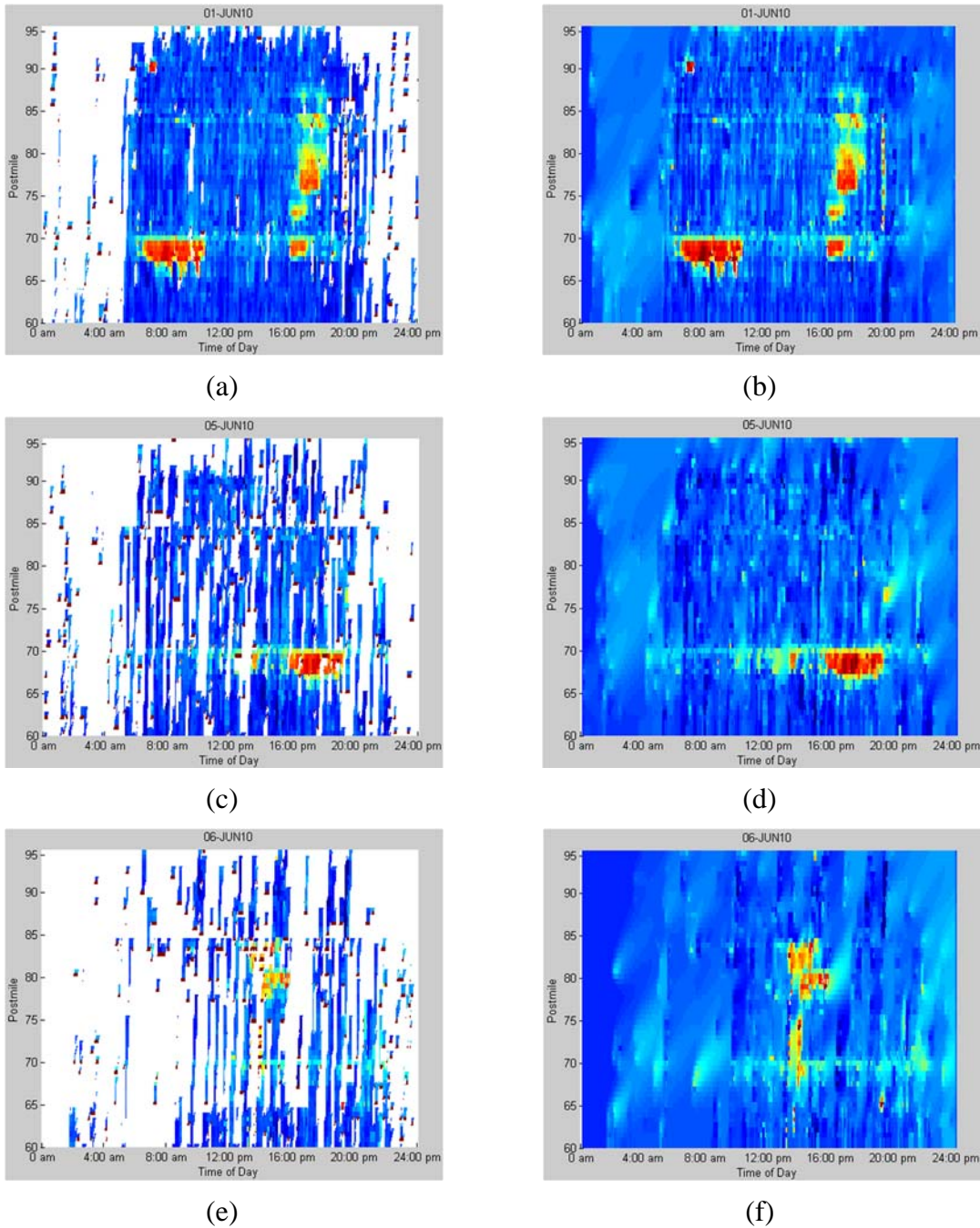


5
 6 **Figure 4: Selected 37-mile Freeway Stretch for Algorithm Testing.**

7 A procedure of data reduction is conducted on the raw data to obtain daily traffic data,
 8 which is a speed matrix along time and space. The data samples for typical weekday and weekend
 9 traffic occurring in June 2010 are presented in Figure 5. The figure illustrates a significant
 10 amount of missing data, especially for June 5 and 6, 2010 (Saturday and Sunday). It appears from
 11 inspection of the data that the weekends involve more missing data than weekdays, which may
 12 pose a problem especially when making travel time predictions for weekends. According to the
 13 speed map of Figure 5 (a), most missing data (white areas) for a typical weekday occur between
 14 21:00 p.m. and 5:00 a.m. (i.e., during the night and early morning hours). Normally there are few
 15 traffic volumes during this time period and free-flow speed could be assumed. However,
 16 sometimes the missing data also occur around a congested area (e.g., Figure 5 (c) and (e)).
 17 Consequently, free-flow speed cannot be simply assumed for all missing data.

18 As demonstrated earlier, various traffic data estimation algorithms have been developed
 19 for different data sources. Since ramp traffic data are not available, large errors will be introduced
 20 if macroscopic traffic models are used to estimate missing data. Alternatively, a statistical
 21 approach of data imputation is employed here that utilizes neighboring speed data over temporal
 22 and spatial conditions to estimate missing data. Here, the average value of eight neighboring cells
 23 is used to estimate the missing speed data in our dataset. Advanced approaches such as using
 24 kernel regression over temporal and spatial coordinates can be considered in the future. The
 25 samples of estimated speed maps for typical weekday and weekend traffic in June 2010 are
 26 presented in the right-hand column of Figure 5. Consequently, the full coverage daily temporal-
 27 spatial traffic data on the selected freeway stretch is estimated and can be used in the proposed
 28 travel time prediction algorithm.

29



1 **Figure 5: Samples of Daily Temporal-spatial Traffic State Variation.**

2 As heavy congestion for the selected freeway stretch usually happens during the summer
 3 holiday season and weekends, the evaluation of the travel-time prediction algorithm focuses on
 4 traffic data from June to August of 2010. Here, traffic data from June and July are used as the
 5 historical data set; the data from August are used for the testing data set. The dynamic travel time
 6 of August 2010, which serves as the ground truth data, is calculated every five minutes using the
 7 daily temporal-spatial traffic data as demonstrated on Figure 2. The prediction span p equals zero
 8 for this test, which indicates that predictions are made from the current time. Different values of p

1 will be used for the future research to evaluate the prediction performance considering different
 2 look ahead times. Finally, the average travel time is predicted using Equation (6).

3 **Test Results**

4 Different parameters are tested to identify the best combination to minimize the prediction error.
 5 The L parameter, which represents the data length across the time axis (look ahead time duration),
 6 is varied between 10 to 60 minutes at 10-minute intervals. H is another parameter representing
 7 the shift distance across the time axis when searching for a traffic data slice from the historical
 8 data set. The size of H should not be too small otherwise, many overlapping candidates may be
 9 extracted by matching to the real-time traffic pattern, and the computation time would be
 10 significant. Conversely, detailed information may be ignored if the value of H is too large.
 11 Therefore, the domain of the H value is also tested from 10 to 60 minutes at 10-minute
 12 increments. The value of ε is chosen as 12 to avoid selecting adjacent candidates from the same
 13 day in the history dataset. The maximum number of candidates K is 20 and the minimum
 14 acceptable dissimilarity d_{MIN} is set at 0.3.

15 Both relative and absolute prediction errors are calculated to evaluate the proposed
 16 algorithm. The relative error is computed as the Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE) using
 17 Equation (7). This error is the average absolute percentage change between the predicted and the
 18 true values. The corresponding absolute error is presented by the Mean Absolute Deviation
 19 (MAD) of Equation (8). This error is the absolute difference between the predicted and the true
 20 values.

$$MAPE = \frac{100}{I' J} \mathop{\text{ã}}_{j=1}^J \mathop{\text{ã}}_{i=1}^{I'} \frac{|y_i^j - \hat{y}_i^j|}{y_i^j}. \quad (7)$$

$$MAD = \frac{1}{J' I} \mathop{\text{ã}}_{j=1}^J \mathop{\text{ã}}_{i=1}^{I'} |y_i^j - \hat{y}_i^j|. \quad (8)$$

21 Here J is the total number of days in the testing data set (i.e., 30 days); I is the total
 22 number of time intervals in one day (i.e., 204 intervals occurring every five minutes between 5:00
 23 a.m. and 22:00 p.m.); and y_i^j and \hat{y}_i^j denote the ground truth and the predicted value, respectively,
 24 of the dynamic travel time for the i^{th} time interval on the j^{th} day in August 2010.

25 The relative and absolute errors calculated by the proposed method across various
 26 parameters are presented in Table 1. Both the minimum relative error of 5.96 percent and the
 27 minimum absolute error of 2.96 minutes are obtained assuming that $L = 20$ minutes and $H = 40$
 28 minutes. According to the tables, prediction errors are comparatively stable values of 6 and 3
 29 minutes when L is less than 40 minutes. The change of the H value seems to have little impact on
 30 the average prediction accuracy. The optimum values of parameters can be used as a reference for
 31 applications on different sites.

Table 1: Relative (MAPE) and Absolute (MAE) Errors by Proposed Travel Time Prediction Method

MAPE (%)		Time Interval of H (min.)					
		10	20	30	40	50	60
Time Interval of L (min)	10	6.09	5.98	6.13	5.98	6.00	6.03
	20	6.07	6.01	6.14	5.96	5.99	6.05
	30	6.17	6.05	6.14	5.99	5.97	5.98
	40	6.24	6.12	6.14	6.10	6.06	6.02
	50	6.27	6.15	6.20	6.15	6.21	6.12
	60	6.37	6.32	6.31	6.25	6.33	6.20

MAD (min.)		Time Interval of H (min.)					
		10	20	30	40	50	60
Time Interval of L (min)	10	3.02	2.98	3.05	2.99	2.99	3.00
	20	3.05	3.00	3.06	2.96	3.00	3.02
	30	3.11	3.04	3.08	3.01	3.00	3.00
	40	3.15	3.08	3.08	3.07	3.04	3.03
	50	3.17	3.09	3.11	3.10	3.12	3.09
	60	3.22	3.19	3.18	3.14	3.19	3.14

To better evaluate the proposed method used during this study, a traditional k -NN algorithm [18, 19] is tested to predict travel time using the same historical and testing data sets. However, instantaneous travel time is used in the k -NN method instead of dynamic travel times as is used in the literature. Assuming the purpose is to predict, the travel time starts from time interval t , the traditional k -NN method uses the travel time sequence between recent past $t-L$ and time interval $t-I$ to find a similar data sequence in the historical dataset. However, the dynamic travel time for the recent past travel time sequence may not be available since the trip has not been completed (the travel time is around 38 minutes for free-flow conditions for the selected 37-mile freeway stretch). Therefore, instantaneous travel times between time interval $t-L$ and $t-I$ are used in the K -NN method to predict travel times in the next time interval t .

1

Table 2: Relative (MAPE) and Absolute (MAE) Errors by K-NN Method

MAPE (%)		Time Interval of H (min.)					
		10	20	30	40	50	60
Time Interval of L (min)	10	6.80	6.68	6.85	6.68	6.70	6.74
	20	6.78	6.71	6.86	6.85	6.69	6.76
	30	6.61	6.59	6.61	6.69	6.66	6.68
	40	6.97	6.84	6.86	6.81	6.77	6.73
	50	7.01	6.87	6.93	6.87	6.94	6.83
	60	7.11	7.06	7.05	6.98	7.07	6.92
MAD (min.)		Time Interval of H (min.)					
		10	20	30	40	50	60
Time Interval of L (min)	10	3.51	3.53	3.55	3.51	3.53	3.52
	20	3.52	3.49	3.51	3.50	3.53	3.56
	30	3.52	3.48	3.47	3.51	3.56	3.54
	40	3.56	3.58	3.54	3.60	3.59	3.64
	50	3.59	3.61	3.58	3.67	3.64	3.68
	60	3.67	3.64	3.64	3.68	3.71	3.73

2

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4 The same parameter of 20 candidates is used to select the historical travel time sequence
5 using the average Euclidean distance. The weight of each sequence is also calculated using the
6 inverse of dissimilarity measure estimated in Equation (4) and then the weighted average travel
7 time for the future trip is computed. The relative and absolute errors calculated by the traditional
8 k -NN method across various parameters are presented in Table 2. The optimum parameter of L ,
9 which represents the domain of continuous time included in the traffic map slice, is 30 minutes;
10 the corresponding minimum relative and absolute prediction errors are 6.59 and 3.47 minutes,
11 respectively. Therefore, the average performance of the proposed method includes fewer errors
12 compared to the traditional K-NN method. The main difference between the two methods is that
13 the travel time sequence is used to obtain similar traffic patterns from historical data in the k -NN
14 method, while the traffic status across the temporal and spatial axes are used in the proposed
15 method. The temporal-spatial traffic status provides more dynamic information given that it
16 accounts for the spatial variation in the information. Consequently, such information serves a
17 better pattern-matching result from the historical data and results in a more accurate travel time
18 prediction performance. Moreover, the instantaneous travel time predicted by the k -NN method
19 may deviate substantially from the dynamic travel time under transient states during the trip.
20 Based on the testing results, we observed that the predicted travel time using the k -NN method is
21 usually underestimated when congestion is forming and is overestimated when congestion is
22 dissipating.

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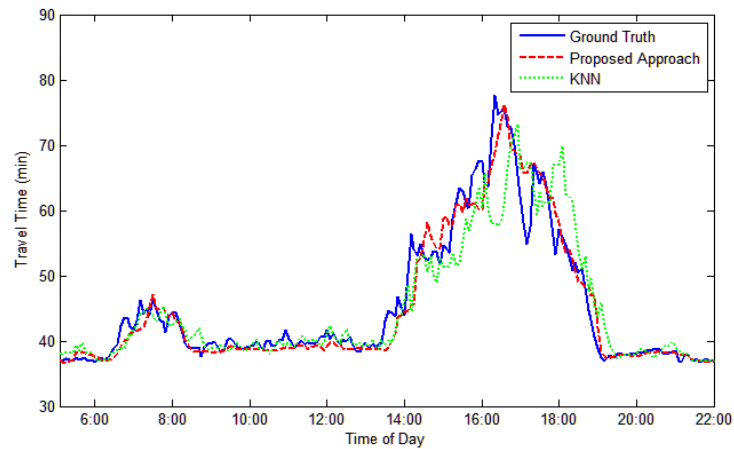
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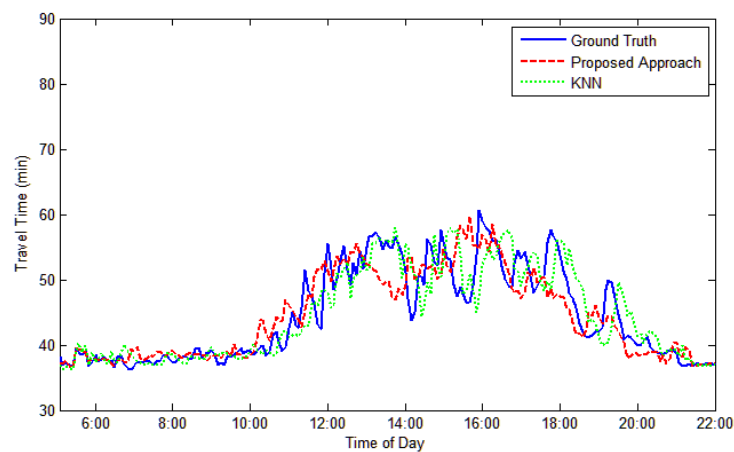
31

A comparison of the two methods for a typical weekday (i.e., August 2, 2010) is presented
in Figure 6 (a). The typical weekday traffic occurring on the selected 37-mile freeway stretch
usually includes two peak hours during the morning and afternoon peak. The heavy traffic jam
occurred during the afternoon peak hours. The ground truth curve in Figure 6 indicates that the
travel time during this period could be more than two times (78 minutes) the travel time occurring
during a free-flow period (38 minutes). The red curve obtained from the proposed method is a
better fit to the ground truth data for congested and uncongested time periods. However, the blue
curve obtained by the k -NN method underestimates the actual travel time during congested
afternoon periods and overestimates the actual travel time as the peak ends around 18:00 pm.
Consequently, the proposed method produces more accurate travel time prediction results

1 compared to the k -NN method for the subject day. Specifically, the proposed approach offers a 15
 2 percent reduction in the prediction error compared to state-of-the-art k -NN method.
 3



(a)



(b)

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 7
 8 **Figure 6: Comparison of Prediction Results for Typical Weekday (August 2, 2010) and**
 9 **Weekend (August 7, 2010)**

10 Another comparison of the two methods for typical weekend traffic occurring on August 7,
 11 2010, is presented in Figure 6 (b). Unlike typical weekday traffic, light traffic congestion occurs
 12 during the weekend that lasts for an extended time as many travelers go to Virginia Beach during
 13 that time period. Although the prediction accuracy is almost the same during this day when using
 14 the two methods, the green curve calculated by traditional k -NN approach also indicates that the
 15 deviation from ground truth data happens under transient states during which congestion is
 16 forming or dissipating. The red curve from the proposed method seems to be a smooth result from
 17 the ground truth curve, because the current matching method by average Euclidean distance may
 18 not work well to reflect the dynamic change in traffic patterns. It is expected that the prediction
 19 results under this situation will be improved by using more advanced data matching algorithms as
 20 part of future research efforts.

1 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

2 This study develops a travel time prediction algorithm by matching traffic patterns from historical
3 data to current real-time conditions. The real-time and historical temporal-spatial traffic data is
4 used as the input of proposed approach to predict future traffic patterns based on past experience.
5 The average Euclidean distance is used as the criterion to calculate a dissimilarity measure in the
6 matching process to select candidate similar traffic patterns. The selected similar traffic patterns
7 are then used to predict dynamic travel times for departures from the current time or from future
8 time intervals. A freeway stretch from Newport News to Virginia Beach is selected as the test site
9 to evaluate the prediction accuracy of the proposed algorithm. The section-based INRIX data
10 along the selected freeway is used to obtain daily temporal-spatial traffic data. The proposed
11 method is demonstrated to enhance predictions relative to state-of-the-art k -NN methods by
12 reducing the prediction error by 15 percent to within 3 minutes on a 50-minute trip.

13 The proposed algorithm employed during this study provides a framework to use traffic
14 data across temporal and spatial axes to predict dynamic travel times. It is proposed that other
15 popular pattern recognition techniques and data-mining areas be incorporated within the proposed
16 algorithm to more efficiently and accurately obtain similar traffic patterns from historical data.
17 On the other hand, since the historical dataset only included two months of previous traffic state
18 data, more extensive testing will be performed to further test the proposed method. Moreover, the
19 performance to predict travel time reliability based on the proposed algorithm, as well as weather
20 and incident impacts on traffic prediction should be examined in future studies.

21 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

22 This research effort was funded partially by Virginia Department of Transportation (VDOT) and
23 partially by the Mid-Atlantic University Transportation Center (MAUTC). The authors also
24 appreciate Ralph L. Jones and Philomena Lockwood from the Virginia Department of
25 Transportation for their assistance and feedback.

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