

# Hybrid Approach for Short-Term Traffic State and Travel Time Prediction on Highways

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1 **A HYBRID APPROACH FOR SHORT-TERM TRAFFIC STATE AND TRAVEL TIME**  
2 **PREDICTION ON HIGHWAYS**

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**ABSTRACT**

1  
2 Traffic management and traffic information are essential in urban areas, and require a good knowledge  
3 about both the current and the future traffic state. Both parametric and non-parametric traffic state  
4 prediction techniques have previously been developed, with different advantages and shortcomings.  
5 While non-parametric prediction has shown good results for predicting the traffic state during recurrent  
6 traffic conditions, parametric traffic state prediction can be used during non-recurring traffic conditions  
7 such as incidents and events. Hybrid approaches, combining the two prediction paradigms have  
8 previously been proposed by using non-parametric methods for predicting boundary conditions used in a  
9 parametric method. In this paper we instead combine parametric and non-parametric traffic state  
10 prediction techniques through assimilation in an Ensemble Kalman filter. As non-parametric prediction  
11 method a neural network method is adopted, and the parametric prediction is carried out using a cell  
12 transmission model with velocity as state. The results show that our hybrid approach can improve travel  
13 time prediction of journeys planned to commence 15 to 30 minutes into the future, using a prediction  
14 horizon of up to 50 minutes ahead in time to allow the journey to be completed.  
15

## 1 INTRODUCTION

2 Traffic management and traffic information is essential in urban areas. This requires a good knowledge  
3 about both the current and the future traffic state. Today, the road infrastructure in urban areas is  
4 commonly equipped with different type of sensors, capturing speed, flows and travel time data. To use  
5 this data for traffic state estimation is a well-studied area and involves both data filtering techniques and  
6 traffic simulation models. Examples of filtering approaches for traffic state estimation can for instance be  
7 found in (1), (2), (3) and (4). Traffic simulation approaches are presented in (5), (6), (7), (8) and (9). With  
8 the deployment of traffic sensors of various kinds it has become more important to combine these two  
9 approaches (10), (11) and (12).

10 While traffic state prediction in general is based on the current traffic state estimate, it is usually  
11 considered to be a more complex problem than estimating the traffic state, since the future always is  
12 unknown. The literature consists of several examples of applications for traffic state prediction. First and  
13 foremost it is a critical component for real-time traffic control and management; see for example (13),  
14 (14), (15) and (16). The ability to accurately predict the traffic state could increase the traffic manager's  
15 ability to take action before the system reaches congestion and then at least forestall that event.

16 Common non-parametric methods for traffic state and travel time estimation are linear time  
17 series, K-nearest neighbors, locally weighted regression, Fuzzy logic, Bayesian networks and Neural  
18 networks. For an overview of commonly used methods see e.g. (17). In non-parametric models both  
19 parameters and the structure of the model need to be determined from data. Such models are created from  
20 a large amount of historical data. They can capture the traffic dynamics even though no knowledge of the  
21 traffic processes as such is needed. Non-parametric models all inherit the property that only traffic states  
22 already occurred can be predicted. Thus, they are appropriate for predicting recurring traffic conditions,  
23 but less appropriate for non-recurring traffic conditions, such as congestion due to road work, events or  
24 incidents.

25 There exist several examples of parametric models which can be applied for the purpose of traffic  
26 state prediction. Such examples include the microscopic simulation approach in (5) and (9), the  
27 mesoscopic simulation approach in (6) and the macroscopic traffic flow models in (7) and (8). Common  
28 for all these models is that they include parameters with a predetermined structure. Still, these parameters  
29 need to be calibrated according to empirical data. Parametric models all inherit the property of only  
30 describing traffic phenomena which follows from the predetermined relationship between model  
31 parameters. Also, they rely on boundary conditions, such as traffic demand, which need to be predicted  
32 for the entire prediction horizon.

33 One way of approaching the shortcomings of both non-parametric and parametric models is to  
34 combine them in a hybrid model approach (18). This is for example done in (19) and (20) by using non-  
35 parametric models for predicting demand profiles, to be used in a parametric model. This will, however,  
36 require accurate measurements of inflows at on-ramps and outflows at off-ramps, which can be difficult  
37 to obtain.

38 For real-time traffic state estimation purpose, output from a parametric model is assimilated with  
39 live sensor data in (11), using a Kalman filtering approach. In this paper we will extend the use of this  
40 approach to traffic state prediction. This results in a novel hybrid model, using the filter for assimilating  
41 parametric traffic state prediction output with non-parametric prediction of the point speed at several  
42 radar sensor locations. Thus, errors from demand profiles based on uncertain measurements can be  
43 compensated for by using point speed predictions at mainline sensor locations, which are based on more  
44 reliable speed measurements.

45 As parametric model we will use the cell transmission model with velocity as state (CTM-v) (11),  
46 which is a macroscopic traffic flow model, from the family of cell transmission models. This family  
47 includes several models which have previously been applied successfully for traffic state estimation on  
48 highways. For non-parametric prediction we will use Neural networks, which has shown to be a powerful  
49 tool for non-parametric traffic state, travel time and demand profile prediction (21), (22) and (23). The  
50 contribution of this paper is, however, not in the development of parametric and non-parametric models,  
51 but in the way they are combined in the hybrid framework.

1 In the remainder of this paper the hybrid modeling framework is presented, including the macroscopic  
 2 flow model and the Kalman filter. Next, the experimental setup is introduced and the results are presented  
 3 for a 7 km long section of the Stockholm ring road, followed by our final conclusions and suggestions for  
 4 future work.

## 5 THE HYBRID PREDICTION FRAMEWORK

### 6 The macroscopic flow model

7 Both the traffic state estimation and prediction will be based on the CTM-v, which is a first order traffic  
 8 model, developed from the density based cell transmission model (CTM- $\rho$ ). The CTM- $\rho$  model is in turn  
 9 based on the Godunov discretization of the well-known Lighthill-Whitham-Richards model (24). It is  
 10 possible to directly formulate a velocity based version of the LWR model, but the resulting partial  
 11 differential equation can only be solved numerically if the relationship between speed and density is  
 12 assumed to be affine. Therefore the transformation from density to velocity in the CTM-v is done within  
 13 the discretization scheme.

14 In the CTM-v, the traffic state is discretized into cells, and for each cell the velocity is used as  
 15 traffic state. At each time step the LWR partial differential equation is solved numerically using the  
 16 CTM-v. For each cell the relationship between speed and density is given by a fundamental diagram.  
 17 Using the velocity as state makes it easy to combine the model output with actual speed measurements  
 18 from traffic detectors. This is the main reason for adopting the CTM-v rather than the CTM- $\rho$ . The CTM-  
 19 v, however, requires the velocity function to be strictly decreasing and invertible. Thus, the commonly  
 20 applied Daganzo-Newell fundamental diagram cannot be used and instead a hyperbolic-linear velocity  
 21 function is adopted with a linear expression in free-flow and a hyperbolic expression in congestion

$$v = V_{HL}(\rho) = \begin{cases} v_f \left(1 - \frac{\rho}{\rho_{max}}\right) & \text{if } \rho \leq \rho_{cr} \\ -w_f \left(1 - \frac{\rho_{max}}{\rho}\right) & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

22 where  $\rho_{max}$  is the jam density,  $v_f$  the free flow speed,  $w_f$  the backward propagating shock wave speed and  
 23  $\rho_{cr}$  the critical density.

24 The demand is specified in terms of inflow rates and split ratios at diverging nodes. Inflow rates  
 25 are considered as boundary conditions to the CTM-v, and the split ratios are specified as parameters in the  
 26 model. For a comprehensive description of the CTM-v we refer to (11).

### 27 Traffic state estimation using ensemble Kalman filtering

28 As basis for the traffic state and travel time prediction, the current traffic state needs to be estimated. The  
 29 data fusion model, developed within the Mobile Millennium project and described in (11) and (25), is  
 30 appealing for many reasons. First of all it is developed to run in real-time and for a large network.  
 31 Furthermore, it can fuse different types of point speed measurements, but the Kalman filter also enables  
 32 the possibility to include travel time measurements (26). The state-space model of the system is  
 33 formulated as

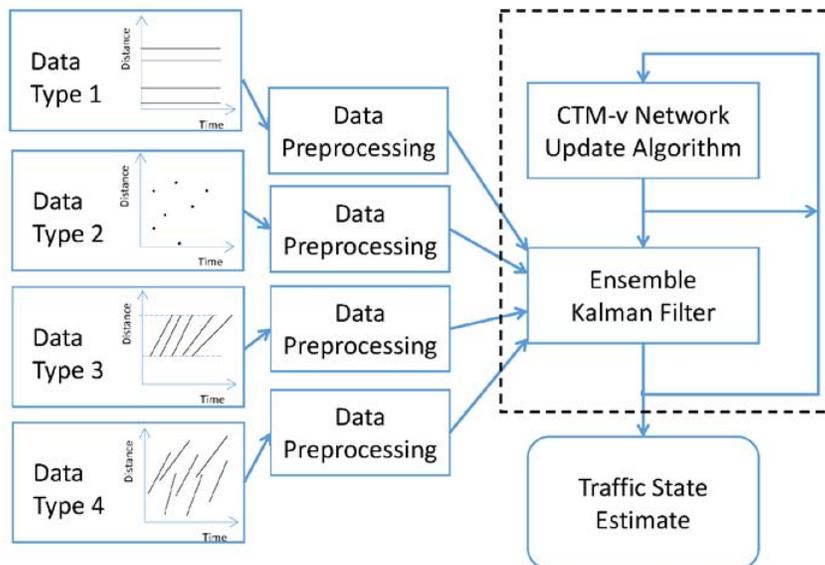
$$\begin{aligned} v^n &= M(v^{n-1}) + \eta^n \\ y_k^n &= h_k(v^n) + \chi_k^n \\ \eta^n &\propto (\mu_{mod}, Q^n) \\ \chi_k^n &\propto (\mu_{obs}, R_k^n) \end{aligned}$$

34 where  $v^n$  is the state vector in time step  $n$ , including the speed for each part of the road network (cell)  
 35 according to the spatial resolution of the system.  $M(\cdot)$  is the system model, here the CTM-v model.  $y^n$  is  
 36 the observation vector in time step  $n$  and  $h_k(\cdot)$  is the observation model for observation type  $k$ .  $\eta$  and  $\chi$  are  
 37 the possibly time-varying model uncertainty (with mean  $\mu_{mod}$  and covariance  $Q$ ) and observation noise  
 38 (with  $\mu_{mod}$  and covariance  $R$ ), respectively.

1 A number of different adaptations and extensions to the Kalman filter have been proposed over the years.  
 2 The basic Kalman filter is designed for linear problems but the extension of the CTM-v to networks  
 3 implies a non-linear and non-differentiable state equation. There exist different extensions to the Kalman  
 4 filter that can manage non-linearity, where one commonly used example is the extended Kalman filter  
 5 that has been used for traffic estimation by (27) and others. However, in the extended Kalman filter all  
 6 functions have to be differentiable, which is not the case for CTM-v. An alternative to the extended  
 7 Kalman filter is the Ensemble Kalman filter (EnKF). The EnKF, first presented by (28), is an extension of  
 8 the classical Kalman filter that has shown good performance also for non-linear dynamical models (29)  
 9 and can handle non-differentiability. The EnKF belongs to a class of particle methods that use Monte  
 10 Carlo representation of the probability density functions (PDFs) and their time evolution, and can be  
 11 viewed as a combination of the Kalman filter and the Particle filter.

12 In the EnKF the state estimate distribution, the error covariance matrix, is represented as a set of  
 13 ensembles which makes it suitable for problems with a large state vector, such as traffic state estimation  
 14 for large networks. The ensemble of model states is propagated forward in time which makes it possible  
 15 to calculate the mean and covariance of the error needed in the measurement update step. Although the  
 16 EnKF uses Gaussian assumption on the PDFs, the integration of ensembles through the model will inherit  
 17 important characteristics of potentially non-Gaussian PDFs as well as non-linearity in the model. For a  
 18 detailed description of the EnKF the reader is referred to (28).

19 The traffic state estimation framework is presented in Figure 1. Currently only data from fixed  
 20 sensors are available in the Stockholm area. This data is pre-processed and later assimilated with the  
 21 CTM-v every 60 seconds. The framework, however, support multiple data sources as is illustrated,  
 22 including probe data (e.g. data collected using GPS probes (30)).



23  
 24

**FIGURE 1 The traffic state estimation framework.**

### 25 The prediction framework

26 The traffic state prediction framework involves similar components as the estimation framework  
 27 presented in the previous section, and is illustrated in Figure 2. Starting from a known traffic state (given  
 28 by the most recent estimation) and predicted inflows and split ratios, the CTM-v can be run forward in  
 29 time from a known traffic state estimation. Prediction of inflows and split ratios can either be done using  
 30 non-parametric methods, as is done in (19), (20) and (31), or by simple averaging of historical data.  
 31 Accurate measurements of both inflow rates and split ratios can be difficult to obtain during congested  
 32 periods. Curbside driving together with blocking back of either the mainline or the ramps may for

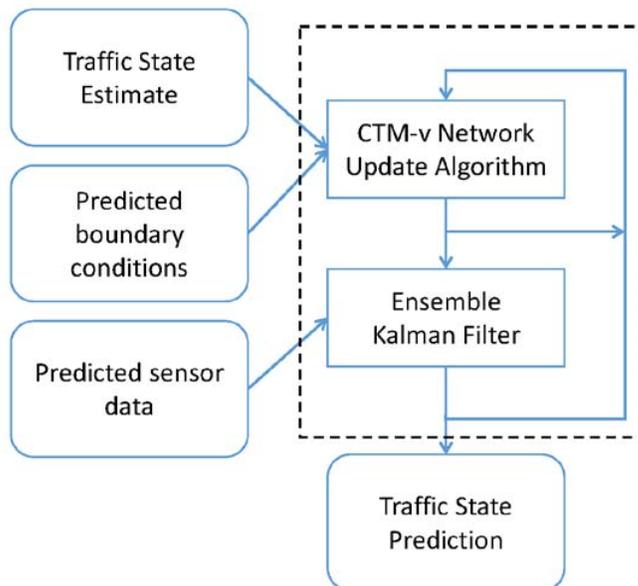
1 example result in measurements which does not represent the actual inflow and split ratio profiles. Also,  
 2 as is pointed out in (31), mainline flows are actually aggregations of upstream on-ramp flows, and  
 3 mainline sensor measurements thus have a reduced noise. This makes non-parametric prediction of  
 4 mainline flows more accurate in comparison to predictions of on-ramp flows.

5 It is also possible to combine the CTM-v model with non-parametric prediction of the mainline  
 6 sensor data, through the EnKF. This results in an alternative hybrid traffic state prediction. Thus, it is  
 7 possible to take advantage of both the parametric and the non-parametric prediction methods. Using  
 8 EnKF parameters to govern the influence of each method, either the parametric or non-parametric  
 9 prediction can be trusted more or less depending on the current traffic situation. As example the non-  
 10 parametric method may be more trustworthy during recurring congestion situations, and the parametric  
 11 estimation more reliable when we have non-recurring events such as incidents, which can be modeled as  
 12 reduced capacities in the CTM-v. This, however, introduce additional filter parameters related to  
 13 predicted measurement uncertainty, which need to be calibrated.

14 Prediction of sensor data, to be used in the hybrid prediction, can be done with a number of non-  
 15 parametric methods. Here, we will use a nonlinear autoregressive neural network with exogenous input  
 16 (NARX) model. Such a model is commonly used for short-term predictions based on time series analysis,  
 17 and can include time delay of inputs as well as time delayed feedback loops of outputs. In (32) such a  
 18 model is successfully applied for travel time predictions on a freeway. A similar approach is the state  
 19 space neural network, applied in (15) for prediction of travel times using travel times and flows from  
 20 fixed traffic sensors as input.

21 The input for predicting speeds at a specific sensor, with the NARX neural network, will be  
 22 speeds measured at the specific mainline sensor location, as well as speeds from the surrounding sensors.  
 23 The NARX model will include time delays of inputs as well as time delayed feedback of outputs. Thus,  
 24 the predictions will be based not only on the most recent measurements, but on the trend from several  
 25 recent measurements. Also, time of day and day of week (clustered in Mondays to Thursdays as one  
 26 cluster, and Fridays and weekend days as their own clusters). Outputs are the speeds for coming time  
 27 periods at sensor locations.

28 The setups of both the parametric and non-parametric estimation methods are further described in  
 29 the next section.



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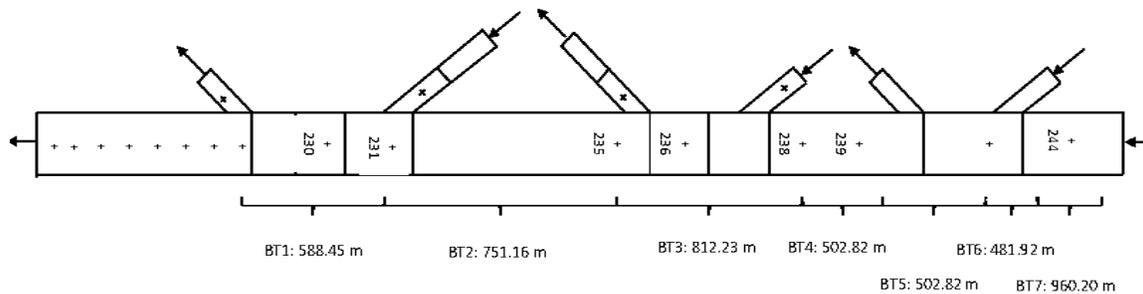
**FIGURE 2** The prediction framework.

## 1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

### 2 The Stockholm test site

3 To analyze the prediction framework we will study a section of the highway just north of central  
 4 Stockholm. The section is 7 km long and part of the southbound Stockholm ring road. Data from January  
 5 to March 2013 is used, and for this period radar detector data is available. During March Bluetooth sensor  
 6 data is also available. The radar detectors collect speed and flow for each lane, aggregated at one-minute  
 7 intervals, and are illustrated in Figure 3. Bluetooth sensors are placed every 500-1000 meters and collect  
 8 travel times from all active Bluetooth units which pass two consecutive sensors. The sections with  
 9 Bluetooth measurements are marked in Figure 3 with BT1 up to BT7, together with the length of each  
 10 section. There are three on-ramps and three off-ramps within the studied section, and the number of lanes  
 11 varies between two and four. Bluetooth data is only available for a limited number of days and has only  
 12 been used for calibration of EnKF parameters and for validation of the results presented in this paper.

13 In Figure 3, radar sensors with available data are marked with “+”. For sensors which are used for  
 14 the non-parametric prediction, the sensor-ids are included for future references.  
 15



16  
 17

**FIGURE 3 The Stockholm test site (not drawn according to scale).**

### 18 Set-up and calibration of the CTM-v model

19 Speeds and flow measurements from 23 days (only Mondays to Fridays are selected) have been used for  
 20 calibrating the fundamental diagrams as well as the inflow at on-ramps and split ratios at diverging nodes.

21 For cells within each of the marked sections in Figure 3, the same fundamental diagram is used.  
 22 All fundamental diagrams are specified using the same jam density, which is measured from aerial photos  
 23 over the Stockholm highway system (33). Free flow speed has been measured using data from Bluetooth  
 24 sensors. The most downstream section is a bottleneck, which usually is activated both during the morning  
 25 and afternoon peak period. Capacity measurements has been used for calibrating the shockwave speed  
 26 (given jam densities and free flow travel times) for the bottleneck. For the remaining sections standard  
 27 capacities been applied from (34), and for merging sections manually adjusted for the model output to  
 28 better fit measured data.

29 Profiles with daily variations of inflows and split ratios are constructed by taking mean values for  
 30 15 minute periods from the 23 days used for calibrations. For the most upstream on and off-ramp this is  
 31 done by comparing the flow before and after the on/off-ramp respectively. For the remaining on-ramps  
 32 the inflows are measured on the ramp itself, and for the split ratios, flow measurements from the mainline  
 33 and off-ramp sensors are compared. In the presence of queues, this computation of inflow and split ratios  
 34 introduces potential errors. The measured split ratios may be an effect of the mainline lane functioning as  
 35 an extended ramp and the inflows may be restricted by blocking back of queues from the mainline. With  
 36 no other available information, this is however the best available information to use. Although one should  
 37 be aware of these shortcomings in the evaluation process.

38 Sink capacities can be used for restricting the outflow, marked by outflow arrows. If the outflow  
 39 exceeds the sink capacity, the flow will block back. This can be used to model capacities in the  
 40 surrounding network, or to model blocking back from the surrounding network. For the studied highway  
 41 section sink capacities are only set for the outflow at the most downstream subsection, since blocking

back from the remaining network is mainly an issue in this subsection. The sink capacity is only lower than the bottleneck capacity at the most downstream section during the afternoon. A sink capacity, as well as, start and end time of the reduced capacity period, has been calibrated based on the 23 calibration days. Length of the afternoon congestion period and the maximum queue length have been the main comparisons used for this calibration. Overall, the afternoon is more difficult to model, due to the blocking back from the remaining traffic network. Validation of the model has been done with data from the 21st of March, and the resulting mean average percentage error (MAPE), as well as mean and maximum errors, are presented in Table 2.

### Prediction of sensor data

The non-parametric prediction of speeds at radar sensor locations, using the NARX neural network, is done for sensor 230, 231, 235, 236, 238, 239 and 244. We will refer to these predictions as “predictions of measurements”. The time resolution of the predicted measurements is important in order to capture changes in the traffic state. We use a prediction horizon of one hour, and for the first 10 minutes we predict measurements for 2 minute periods, based on mean speed measurements of all sensors for 2 minute periods. For predictions 10 to 30 minutes ahead in time we use a time resolution of 5 minute periods and for 30 to 60 minutes ahead in the future we use 10 minute periods. Using a time delay of five periods in the NARX neural network we look 10 minutes back in time for prediction 10 minutes ahead, 25 minutes back when predicting 10 to 20 minutes ahead in time and 50 minutes back when predicting 30 to 60 minutes ahead in time. The NARX neural network is set-up with an output feedback loop of the two most recent time periods and one layer with ten neurons. Each time period result in a neural network to train and in total we train 12 neural networks for each sensor location, using hour of day and day of week (grouped into working days and weekends), and speed measurements from all sensors. The training is done using 53 days during January, February and March 2013.

MAPE values for predicted measurements on the 21<sup>st</sup> of March 2013 are presented in Table 1. The MAPE values are based on the difference between predicted and a measured mean value for 2, 5 and 10 minute periods, depending on how far ahead in the future the prediction is. While the MAPE values are not necessarily increased when we predict one time period further ahead in time, the overall trend is that it is an increased uncertainty when predicting measurements further ahead in time. Sensor 244 stands out with the lowest MAPE value, and this is because there are very few time periods of a day when the congestion has reached this sensor, and predicting speeds during non-congested traffic states has shown to be much easier than to predict speeds during congested periods.

**TABLE 1 MAPE for predicted measurements**

Sensor	Prediction horizon measured in minutes ahead in time											
	1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26-30	31-40	41-50	51-60
<b>230</b>	4.41	4.51	4.77	4.60	4.76	5.61	5.12	5.44	5.42	7.10	7.35	7.48
<b>231</b>	6.05	6.17	6.37	6.55	6.50	7.41	7.62	7.65	7.98	8.46	9.23	10.23
<b>235</b>	6.15	5.65	6.21	6.15	6.09	6.71	7.11	7.00	6.36	11.51	13.01	11.42
<b>236</b>	4.91	4.99	6.38	5.03	6.08	6.82	5.93	6.20	5.97	11.88	13.59	11.89
<b>238</b>	4.70	4.27	5.11	4.88	5.23	7.52	7.01	7.28	7.08	14.69	16.56	15.26
<b>239</b>	4.46	4.35	4.80	4.54	4.67	5.69	6.17	5.97	6.89	9.97	10.07	9.16
<b>244</b>	2.73	2.84	2.92	2.78	2.79	3.29	3.28	3.18	3.06	4.56	4.86	4.98

### Estimation and calibration of Ensemble Kalman filter parameters

The measurement noise is assumed to have zero mean and the standard deviation has been estimated to 1 m/s from measurements. The model noise is assumed to have zero mean and standard deviation 0.8 m/s.

The model noise standard deviation has been calibrated by evaluating MAPE values between estimated

1 and Bluetooth travel times for a number of different parameter settings. The resulting MAPE values are  
2 presented in Table 2.

3 Predicted measurement uncertainty is assumed to have zero mean and our initial guess of  
4 standard deviation was to use the same as for the measurement noise. There is, however, an increased  
5 uncertainty in the predicted measurements and the best result has been obtained with a standard deviation  
6 twice the one of the measurement noise (2 m/s).

### 7 **Evaluation of the prediction framework**

8 For evaluation of the hybrid prediction framework we will present results using data from the 21<sup>st</sup> of  
9 March 2013. This data has not been used for either calibration or training purposes.

10 Speed maps will be used for comparing predictions of the traffic state, with and without  
11 measurements, with estimation results. Here the estimation will be used as reference, since it is the best  
12 available information, based on all available sensor data and CTM-v output.

13 Travel times will be predicted for a car entering the highway at time  $t$ , by driving a car through  
14 the speed map corresponding to the prediction done at time  $t$ . Thus this travel time prediction will make  
15 use of predicted traffic states ranging from 0 to 20 minutes ahead in the future, depending on how long  
16 time it will take to drive through the evaluated highway section (i.e. depending on the level of  
17 congestion). Similarly a travel time prediction for a car starting 30 minutes from now will make use of  
18 information from a prediction horizon ranging from 30 to 50 minutes into the future. As comparison, a  
19 naïve prediction, assuming the current traffic conditions will prevail during the next 60 minutes, is  
20 computed (resulting in an instantaneous travel time). Note that the naïve prediction only makes use of the  
21 most recent traffic state estimation. A MAPE value based on five minute averaged travel times will be  
22 used for comparing the predicted travel times with the reference travel time obtained from driving a car  
23 through the estimation speed map. This comparison will be biased from the fact that the estimation may  
24 not correspond to the ground truth. Also, since the prediction is done for a car driving the whole section,  
25 predicted traffic states further ahead into the future will be used for predicting the later part of the journey  
26 in comparison to the early part of the journey. The size of this difference depends on how long time it will  
27 take for a driver to drive through the complete highway section and is thus depending on the level of the  
28 congestion.

29 To avoid the shortcomings of comparing predicted and estimated travel times, MAPE values of  
30 predicted travel times versus measured travel times (also for five minute averages), using Bluetooth  
31 sensors, are computed for seven subsections for which there exists Bluetooth data. The seven subsections  
32 cover all but the last section of the highway in Figure 3, and we will compute two different MAPE values  
33 based on the measurements. The first one is the mean error across all sections, for the other one we sum  
34 up the subsection travel times into a total travel time across all subsections. Thus, the latter one will give  
35 approximate travel times for the seven subsections. For the total travel times we also provide mean and  
36 maximum absolute errors. Note that all errors computed between predicted and Bluetooth travel times  
37 will be based on cars starting at different locations (the beginning of each Bluetooth segment) of the  
38 highway at the same time. Each subsection is, however, short and thus predictions at most 35 minutes  
39 ahead into the future will be used.

40 The error values related to the estimation in Table 2 and 3 are based on a car driving through the  
41 speed map corresponding to an estimation done after the arrival of the car. Thus, the estimation makes use  
42 of measurements which were not available at the time the car entered the section. In comparison, the  
43 naïve prediction makes use of the most recent estimation, and assumes prevailing traffic conditions during  
44 the time it takes to drive through the section.

## 45 **RESULTS**

46 Table 2 show MAPE as well as mean and maximum absolute error value for comparison of predicted  
47 travel times with measured travel times. For comparison we also provide these error values for the  
48 estimation and for the prediction done by running only the CTM-v with boundary conditions but not

1 using the EnKF framework for assimilating the output with speed measurements. This can be done off-  
 2 line and therefore is a simple approach for predicting the travel times. It should be noted that the entry  
 3 marked “Estimation” is not a prediction but based on the realized travel times as given by the estimation  
 4 framework. Similarly “CTM-v” refers to the case when using the CTM-v with historical boundary  
 5 conditions only. In the other three methods we always start our prediction from the current estimation  
 6 (denoted “Naïve prediction”, “CTM-v prediction” and “Hybrid prediction”). Table 3 shows the same  
 7 error values for comparison of predicted travel times with estimated travel times.  
 8

9 **TABLE 2 Comparison of Predicted and Estimated Travel Times with Measured Travel Times**

Prediction/estimation method	Horizon			
	0	5	15	30
<b>MAPE based on subsection travel times</b>				
Estimation	11.5%	-		
CTM-v	19.3%			
Naïve prediction	13.8%	14.7%	18.5%	27.0%
CTM-v prediction	13.0%	17.6%	16.9%	16.9%
Hybrid prediction	13.0%	15.7%	15.3%	16.6%
<b>MAPE based on total subsection travel times</b>				
Estimation	4.8%	-		
CTM-v	12.8%			
Naïve prediction	5.3%	6.6%	19.5%	19.7%
CTM-v prediction	5.1%	9.2%	10.1%	10.9%
Hybrid prediction	5.5%	6.8%	7.7%	7.9%
<b>Mean absolute error in seconds based on total subsection travel times</b>				
Estimation	22	-		
CTM-v	56			
Naïve prediction	28	32	50	87
CTM-v prediction	25	45	48	49
Hybrid prediction	28	32	39	41
<b>Maximum absolute error in seconds based on total subsection travel times</b>				
Estimation	205	-		
CTM-v	378			
Naïve prediction	245	342	397	571
CTM-v prediction	304	423	445	378
Hybrid prediction	213	237	367	374

10  
 11 The three prediction methods which are based on the most recent estimation plus a prediction show  
 12 similar results for a car starting its journey at the time of the prediction time, when compared with the  
 13 Bluetooth reference travel times. For a journey taking place 15 and 30 minutes ahead in time, the hybrid  
 14 prediction is the best performing one considering subsection MAPE values, although the differences are  
 15 rather small when comparing with CTM-v prediction. For the case of a prediction 30 minutes ahead in  
 16 time, the naïve prediction is performing worse than the CTM-v. Considering the total travel time in Table  
 17 1, the hybrid prediction results in lowest maximum absolute error values for all prediction horizons, but  
 18 for predictions far ahead into the future it tends to the same value as the CTM-v prediction. This could be  
 19 related to the quality of predicted measurements being less reliable for predictions further ahead in time.

1 For shorter prediction horizons the use of predicted measurements clearly reduces the maximum error, in  
2 comparison to the other approaches.

3 When comparing against estimated reference travel times, the hybrid prediction is the best  
4 performing one from a mean value perspective, for all time horizons. For a worst case scenario the hybrid  
5 prediction perform best for a journey taking place 15 and 30 minutes ahead in time, and the CTM-v  
6 prediction perform best for journeys taking place 0 and 5 minutes ahead. For prediction of journeys taking  
7 place up to 15 minutes ahead, the differences between all three approaches are quite similar. The major  
8 difference appears for journey taking place 30 minutes ahead, for which the naïve prediction performs  
9 poorly, but for which the CTM-v and hybrid predictions have similar results as for a journey taking place  
10 15 minutes ahead in time.

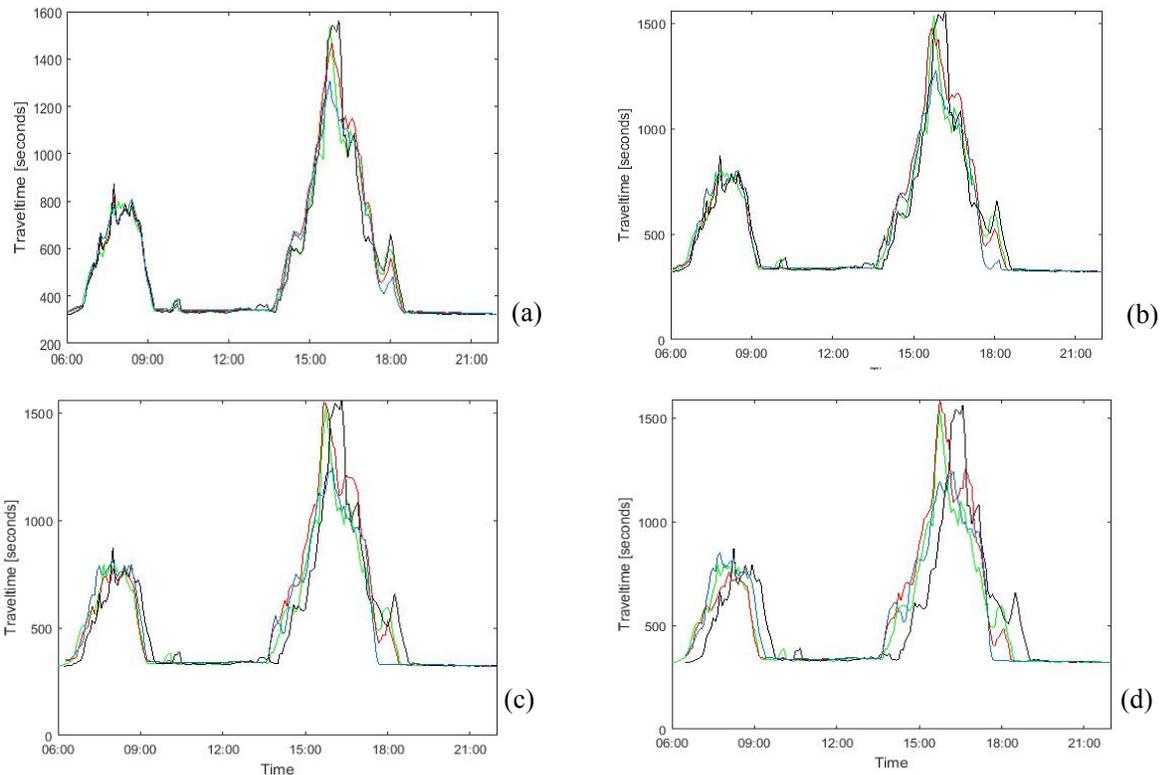
11 In Figure 4 the estimated and predicted travel times are shown for a journey taking place at the  
12 time of the prediction, and journeys taking place 5, 15 and 30 minutes ahead into the future. For a journey  
13 taking place at the time of the prediction (Figure 5a), the naïve prediction is very similar to the estimated  
14 travel time. For journeys taking place 5, 15 and 30 minutes into the future, the naïve prediction will  
15 simply be offset by 5, 15 and 30 minutes respectively. Thus, since we are comparing with estimated travel  
16 times, the height of each peak will be correctly predicted by the naïve prediction but it will be offset in  
17 time. During the morning peak period, both the CTM-v and hybrid predictions manage to follow the  
18 estimation well, but for the afternoon peak period the hybrid prediction performs better, both in terms of  
19 capturing the start and end of the congested period, as well as the length of the travel time.

20 Figure 5 show speed maps for the estimation, CTM-v, CTM-v prediction and hybrid prediction  
21 starting in a known estimation for a 30 minute prediction horizon. The upper part of the speed map  
22 corresponds to the end of the highway section illustrated in Figure 3, and vice versa for the lower part.  
23 First of all one can notice that the morning peak period is predicted rather well by the CTM-v, the CTM-v  
24 prediction and the hybrid prediction. The afternoon peak period is, however, more difficult. For the  
25 afternoon it is only the hybrid prediction which capture the last part of the congestion period. Overall the  
26 afternoon is more challenging to model since there is a blocking back from outside the modeled network.  
27 Clearly the predicted measurements in the hybrid prediction approach capture this better.

28  
29 **TABLE 3 Comparison Between Estimated and Predicted Travel Times**

Prediction method	Horizon			
	0	5	15	30
<b>MAPE</b>				
Naïve prediction	4.5%	6.1%	10.7%	17,4%
CTM-v prediction	3.9%	5.7%	7.1%	8,4%
Hybrid prediction	3.9%	4.8%	5.7%	6,1%
<b>Mean absolute error in seconds</b>				
Naïve prediction	27	40	67	107
CTM-v prediction	28	35	44	52
Hybrid prediction	26	32	38	41
<b>Maximum absolute error in seconds</b>				
Naïve prediction	443	518	525	562
CTM-v prediction	225	285	389	341
Hybrid prediction	285	333	248	287

30



**FIGURE 4** Travel time for a journey beginning in 0 (a), 5 (b), 15 (c) and 30 (d) minutes. Showing estimation (green), naïve prediction (black), only CTM-v prediction (blue) and hybrid prediction (red).

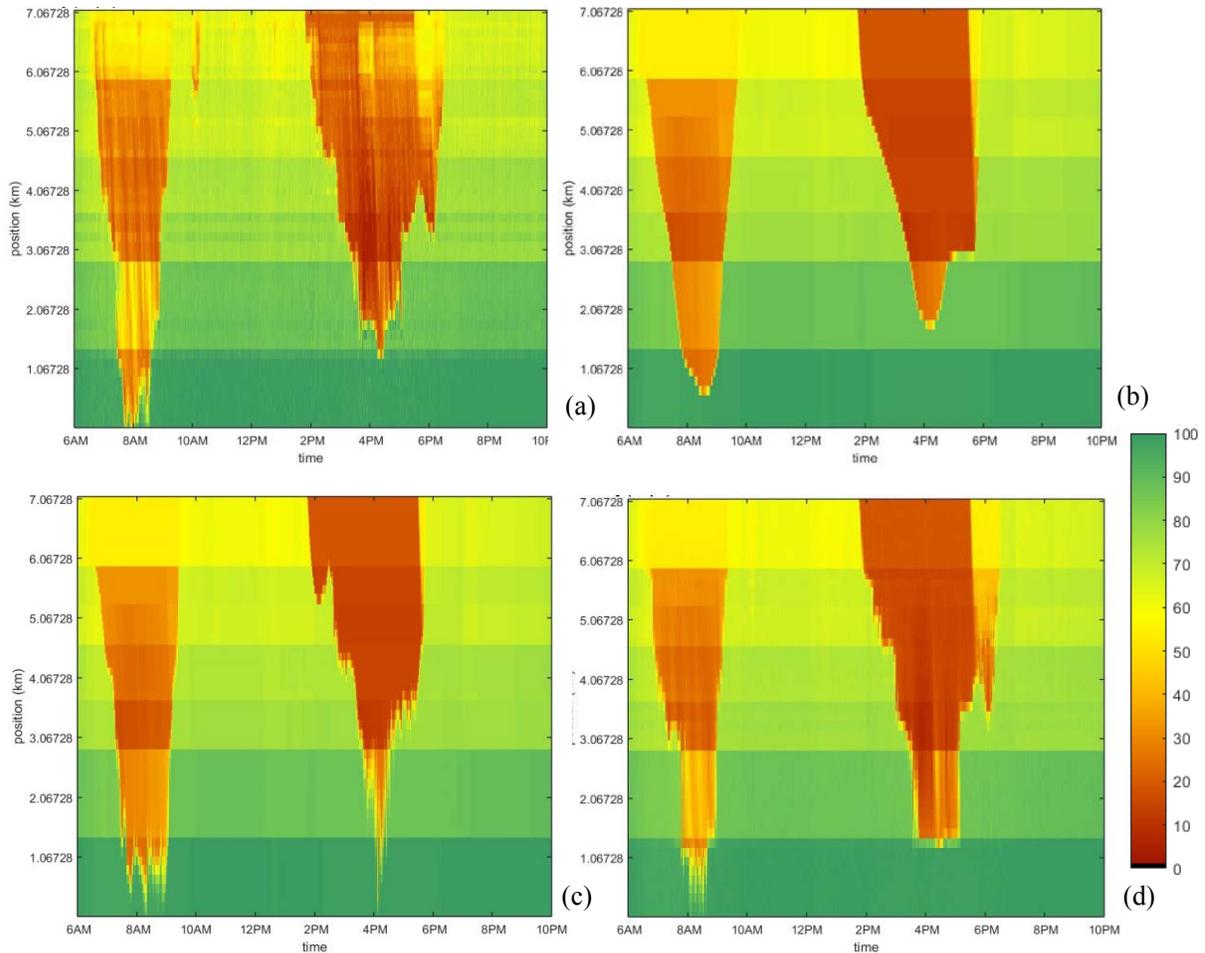
## 1 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

2 This paper evaluates a hybrid prediction approach for assimilating parametric and non-parametric traffic  
 3 state predictions, and applies the approach on a highway section in Stockholm. In our study we have  
 4 limited the non-parametric prediction to seven sensor locations. Both the CTM-v and hybrid predictions  
 5 outperform the naïve prediction for longer prediction horizons, but between the two approaches there are  
 6 smaller differences. Our findings also suggest that the hybrid prediction is an improvement in comparison  
 7 to the CTM-v prediction for all prediction horizons. Especially for the afternoon peak, for which there are  
 8 large uncertainties in the input flows, split ratios, and capacities, used within the CTM-v model. In terms  
 9 of worst case performance, the hybrid prediction is performing better than the CTM-v prediction when  
 10 comparing with Bluetooth measurements.

11 Overall the results are encouraging for continuing the work with the hybrid prediction approach.  
 12 For further improvement the work should focus on:

- 13 1. The combination of more advanced techniques for predicting inflows and split ratio, together  
 14 with predicted measurements.
- 15 2. Calibration of EnKF parameters related to predicted measurement uncertainty.
- 16 3. Evaluation of alternative techniques for predicting measurements.
- 17 4. Evaluation with an increased number of sensor locations used for prediction of measure-  
 18 ments.

19



**FIGURE 7** Speed maps for estimation (a) and CTM-v (b), 30 minute predictions are presented for CTM-v prediction (c), and hybrid prediction (d). The legend shows velocity in km/h.

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4

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