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Urban route average travel time estimation considering exit turning movements

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1 ABSTRACT

2 This paper presents a methodology for real-time estimation of exit movement specific
3 average travel time on urban routes by integrating real-time cumulative plots, probe vehicles and
4 historical cumulative plots. Two different approaches, *Component* based and *Extreme* based are
5 discussed for route travel time estimation. The methodology is tested using simulation and validated
6 with real data (from Luzern, Switzerland) that demonstrates its potential for accurate estimation.
7 Both approaches provide similar results. The *Component* based approach is more reliable with a
8 greater chance of obtaining a probe vehicle in each interval, though additional data from each
9 component is required. The *Extreme* based approach is simple, and only requires data from upstream
10 and downstream of the route, but the chances of obtaining a probe that traverses the entire route
11 might be low. The performance of the methodology is also compared with a method solely based on
12 probe (*Probe-Only*). The proposed methodology requires only a small number of probes for accurate
13 estimation, whereas *Probe-Only* requires a significantly larger number of probes.

14 **Keywords:** Movement specific travel time, Urban route travel time, Cumulative plots, Probe, Data fusion.

15 1 INTRODUCTION

16 Travel time is the time needed to travel from point upstream (*u/s*) to point downstream (*d/s*) on the
17 network. It is an important network performance measure and it quantifies congestion in a manner
18 easily understood by all transport users. Travel time estimation has been researched for many years,
19 with most of the literature focusing on freeways [1-3]. Urban network travel time estimation is
20 challenging for various reasons including external control of traffic using signals, non-conservation
21 of traffic on urban links (due to parking etc.), significant differences in travel time for different exit
22 turning movements, and etc.

23 Loop detectors are the oldest and most widely used traffic data sources and hence, the majority of
24 traffic models are based on detector data. Researchers have proposed a number of models with
25 various degrees of complexity ranging from simple volume delay functions [4-14], regression
26 analysis-based [15-20], to applied machine learning algorithms [21-23] for urban network travel time
27 estimation.

28 Mobile sensors such as probe vehicles are equipped with vehicle tracking equipment (e.g. taxi fleet
29 with GPS) and can provide data for a vehicle's trajectory (time stamp and position coordinates) and
30 hence its travel time. Probes represent a random sample from the population of the vehicles
31 traversing the link. Therefore, the average travel time of all vehicles traversing the link can be
32 estimated by statistical sampling techniques [24, 25]. Researchers [25, 26] have shown interest in
33 determining the minimum number of probes required for statistically significant travel time
34 estimation.

35 Researchers have also applied data fusion techniques [27-31] to fuse data from different sources,
36 specifically detector and probe vehicles, with the aim of improving the accuracy and reliability of the
37 estimates.

38 An urban route can consist of a number of intersections. The flow on an urban link between two
39 consecutive signalized intersections can be from different entrance links upstream, towards different
40 exit links downstream (For instance, in Figure 1a, there are nine different combinations of flows such
41 as, A→Lft, B→Lft, etc.) and based on the delay experienced by the vehicle at the intersections, the
42 travel time for these combinations may be different. For route travel time estimation one is interested
43 in one of these combinations based on the flow associated with the route. Figure 1b is a real,
44 individual vehicle travel time for two different exit movements on one of the urban signalised links.

45 It can be seen that travel time from *u/s* to *Lft* movement (thin black line) is significantly higher than
 46 that from *u/s* to *Thru* movement (thick grey line). Average link travel time (thick black line) is not a
 47 true representative of different movements. Hence, it is worth analysing travel time for different
 48 movements associated with the link. Moreover, movement specific travel time provides a detailed
 49 understanding of the network performance. For instance, excessive travel time for an exit movement
 50 can identify the critical movement at an intersection. The aforementioned literature is limited to the
 51 average link travel time estimation, and generally to estimate movement specific link travel time,
 52 penalties are added to the average link travel time. The considered penalties are static, whereas in
 53 reality they are dynamic and are correlated with the downstream link performance (for instance a
 54 spill back from the downstream link restricts the entry flow). Therefore, the existing approach of
 55 using penalties cannot capture the dynamics of real traffic and can result in significant errors in
 56 movement specific estimation. The objective of this paper is to define an accurate and robust
 57 methodology for movement specific link average travel time estimation and apply it to route travel
 58 time estimation.

59 Initially, the methodology for movement specific link travel time estimation is discussed. Then two
 60 different approaches for route travel time are discussed. Finally, the result of testing and validation
 61 are presented.

62 2 METHODOLOGY

63 2.1 Exit movement Specific Travel Time

64 The classical analytical procedure for travel time estimation is based on defining cumulative plots
 65 (cumulative counts of vehicles versus time) $U(t)$ and $D(t)$ at upstream and downstream locations,
 66 respectively [32]. Refer to Figure 2a, if vehicles represented in $U(t)$ between time from t_1 to t_2 ; and
 67 $D(t)$ between time from t_3 to t_4 , are same then area, A , between the plots is the total travel time and
 68 the average travel time \overline{TT} within an estimation interval $T_{EI} (= t_4 - t_3)$ is as follows:

$$69 \quad \overline{TT} = \frac{A}{N} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N [D^{-1}(i) - U^{-1}(i)]}{N} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N D^{-1}(i) - \sum_{i=1}^N U^{-1}(i)}{N} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{where: } N = U(t_2) - U(t_1) = D(t_4) - D(t_3)$$

70 Here N is the number of vehicles that depart downstream (arrives upstream) during the time t_3 to t_4
 71 (t_1 to t_2).

72 The classical procedure is vulnerable to the relative deviations (RD) amongst the plots and in urban
 73 networks there are potential sources of RD such as mid-link sources/sinks, and detector counting
 74 errors etc. For instance, if an upstream detector is undercounting (*see* Figure 2b), then both $U(t)$ and
 75 $D(t)$ can cut each other and the classical procedure cannot be applied. Bhaskar et al., [33] have
 76 developed a methodology named CUMulative plots and PRobe Integration for Travel timeE
 77 estimation (CUPRITE) by integrating cumulative plots and probe vehicle data to address the issues
 78 related to RD. In this paper, we extend the methodology to consider different exit movements at *d/s*
 79 and estimate route travel time based on two different approaches: *Component* based and *Extreme*
 80 based. The following subsections explain issues concerned with the estimation of movement specific
 81 travel time (section 2.1.1) and introduce the architecture (section 2.1.2) and detailed explanation
 82 (sections 2.1.3 to 2.1.5) of the proposed methodology. The approaches for route travel time are
 83 presented in section 2.2.
 84

85 2.1.1 Issue

86 Say, for an urban link, $U_m(t)$ and $D_m(t)$ are upstream and downstream cumulative plots for m^{th} exit
 87 movement, respectively; $U_T(t)$ (2) is the cumulative plot based on total flow from the upstream links
 88 (Refer to Figure 1a: $m = \text{Lft, Thru and Rt}$ and U_T is the cumulative plot at u/s based on the flow from
 89 A, B and C).

$$90 \quad U_T(t) = \sum_{\forall m} U_m(t) + \varepsilon \quad (2)$$

91 Where ε are the counts associated with mid-link sink, error in detector counting, etc.

92 If $U_m(t)$ and $D_m(t)$ are known then the classical procedure can be applied for estimation travel time
 93 for m^{th} downstream exit-movement. Assuming detectors are at the stop-line, **$D_m(t)$ and $U_T(t)$ can be**
 94 **obtained, whereas $U_m(t)$ is unknown.** If we have probe data then $U_m(t)$ is defined by integrating
 95 $U_T(t)$, $D_m(t)$ and probe data (Section 2.1.4). However, probe data is not always available, at least for
 96 different estimation periods in real time. To address this issue we propose a hybrid technique where
 97 we use historical effective scaling factors to define $U_m(t)$ from $U_T(t)$ (Section 2.1.5).

98 For simplicity of discussion we use the term exit moment. To be precise we consider the combination
 99 of different movements, based on link geometry and signal phases. For instance: for d/s in Figure 1c,
 100 travel time for all the movements is independently considered ($D_{\text{Rt}}(t)$, $D_{\text{Lft}}(t)$, and $D_{\text{Thru}}(t)$ are
 101 obtained from detector d_1 , d_2 , and d_3 , respectively), whereas, for d/s in Figure 1d, through and left
 102 movements are jointly considered ($D_{\text{Rt}}(t)$ and $D_{\text{Thru+Lft}}(t)$ are obtained from detector d_4 and sum of
 103 counts from detectors d_5 and d_6 , respectively).

104 2.1.2 Architecture

105 The proposed architecture of CUPRITE for exit movement specific travel time estimation is
 106 presented in Figure 3. The following steps are involved:

- 107 Step 1 $U_T(t)$ and $D_m(t)$ are estimated. If detector data is pulse data (vehicle data), then
 108 cumulative plots are obtained by cumulating the pulses. If detector data is
 109 aggregated data (say counts every one minute) then detector data is integrated
 110 with signal timings, where counts during the signal red phase time are
 111 assigned as zero and counts during signal green phase time are segregated into
 112 saturation flow rate and non saturation flow rate. Refer to [34] for the
 113 integration of detector counts and signal timings for accurate estimation of
 114 cumulative plots.
- 115 Step 2 Initial estimate of $U_m(t)$ is obtained by applying *vertical scaling* on $U_T(t)$
 116 (Section 2.1.3);
- 117 Step 3 If probe data is available then the *points from where $U_m(t)$ should pass* are
 118 defined and $U_m(t)$ is redefined by applying *vertical scaling* on it (Section
 119 2.1.4). Here, iff the link has no mid-link delay (such as mid-link intersection,
 120 or bus stop) and the system is undersaturated, one can consider virtual probes
 121 [33] i.e. virtual vehicles with travel time as freeflow link travel time, and
 122 departing d/s at the end of signal green phase time.
- 123 Step 4 Apply the classical procedure (1) between redefined $U_m(t)$ and $D_m(t)$ to
 124 estimate average movement specific travel time.

125 2.1.3 Initial Estimate of $U_m(t)$

126 Say variables: d , p , and m , represent days of the week, time periods during the day, and m^{th} exit
 127 turning movement, respectively; $S_{m,p,d}$ represents the scaling factor for m^{th} exit movement, p^{th} period

128 of d^{th} day of the week (e.g., $S_{lft,7:00-7:15am,Monday}$ is the scaling factor for left exit movement, from 7:00 to
 129 7:15 on Monday); and $t_{e,p}$ and $t_{s,p}$ is the time corresponding to the start and end of the p^{th} average
 130 travel time estimation time period, respectively. The default value of $S_{m,p,d}$ is 1.0 (It could also be
 131 assigned to the expected average proportion of link flow for the respective exit movement.). **In**
 132 **Section 2.1.5 we will discuss how $S_{m,p,d}$ is defined by using an historical database.**
 133 Initial estimate for $U_m(t)$ (Figure 4a) is obtained by vertical scaling $U_T(t)$ with respective scaling
 134 factor $S_{m,p,d}$ for each time period (3). First, $U_m(t=0) = U_T(t=0)$. Thereafter, counts for the movement
 135 m during each time period are estimated and $U_m(t)$ is obtained by cumulating the estimated count, as
 136 explained below:

$$\forall \text{Time Periods and } \forall t \in [t_{s,p}, t_{e,p}]$$

$$137 \quad Y(t) = S_{m,p,d} [U_T(t) - U_T(t_{s,p})] \quad (3)$$

$$U_m(t) = U_m(t_{s,p}) + Y(t)$$

138 Here, for any time t between time $t_{s,p}$ and $t_{e,p}$:

139 $Y(t)$ is the count for the movement m from time $t_{s,p}$ to time t ;

140 $U_T(t) - U_T(t_{s,p})$ is the count from total cumulative plot from time $t_{s,p}$ to time t ;

141 $S_{m,p,d} [U_T(t) - U_T(t_{s,p})]$ are scaled count for the movement m from time $t_{s,p}$ to time t ;

142 $U_m(t_{s,p})$ is the cumulative count for movement m at time $t_{s,p}$;

143 $U_m(t)$ is obtained by cumulating the estimated counts $Y(t)$.

144 The above process is repeated for each time periods.

145 Note: If $S_{m,p,d} = 1$ then, $U_m(t) = U_T(t)$.

146 *2.1.4 If Probe Data is Available: $U_m(t)$ is estimated by integrating probe data with cumulative plots*

147 Here, the probe vehicle is the vehicle which provides a time stamp when at the intersection (position
 148 where cumulative plots are generated). There are issues related to probe data such as frequency of
 149 data, map-matching of data, etc. Addressing such issues is beyond the scope of this paper. We
 150 assume that the known value of time, t_u and t_d when a probe vehicle is at upstream and downstream
 151 intersection, respectively.

152 Given the probe data, we fix the probe to $D_m(t)$ i.e., assign its rank in cumulative plots as $D_m(t_d)$.
 153 Thereafter, we *define points from where $U_m(t)$ should pass* and finally apply *vertical scaling* on the
 154 initial estimate of $U_m(t)$ to redefine $U_m(t)$ as explained below.

155 Say we have n probe vehicles and the database for the probe is defined as lists of $[t_u]$ and $[t_d]$ where
 156 the size of each list is n . The value of j^{th} element in the list represents the data from the j^{th} probe. The
 157 following steps *define the points from where $U_m(t)$ should pass*:

158 Step 1 Sort list $[t_d]$ in ascending order of its values. This is required as the rank of the
 159 probe in the cumulative plots is defined based on $D_m(t)$.

160 Step 2 Sort list $[t_u]$ in ascending order of its values in order to make sure that the
 161 redefined $U_m(t)$ is monotonically increasing.

162 Step 3 The required points through which $U_m(t)$ should pass are $(t_{uj}, D(t_{dj}))$; where t_{uj}
 163 and t_{dj} are j^{th} value in the sorted list of $[t_u]$ and $[t_d]$, respectively.

164 $U_m(t)$ and $D_m(t)$ were initially two independent cumulative plots. When the traffic condition is
 165 free-flow (say at time $t_0 = 1:00$ am) then counts for cumulative plots can be initialised to zero
 166 ($U_m(t_0) = D_m(t_0) = 0$). This is the initial reference point (P_0). Say $[P_1, P_2, P_3, \dots, P_n]$ is the list of n
 167 points from where $U_m(t)$ should pass, then for redefining $U_m(t)$ for point P_i , the reference point is P_{i-1} .

168 Say we have: a) a reference point $(t_{Ref}, U_m(t_{Ref}))$, i.e., the point in which we have confidence that it is
 169 the correct point on the plot; and b) point (t_p, Y_p) through which $U_m(t)$ should pass. Then (refer to
 170 equations(4), (5) and (6) and Figure 4b) we redefine $U_m(t)$ by applying a correction to it such that all
 171 points on the plot:

- 172 1) Before time t_{Ref} have no correction;
 173 2) Between t_{Ref} and t_p are scaled vertically; and
 174 3) Beyond t_p are shifted vertically so that the redefined $U_m(t)$ is continuous at time t_p
 175 and is parallel to $U_m(t)$.

$$176 \quad U_m(t) = U_m(t) + Correction \quad (4)$$

$$177 \quad Correction = \begin{cases} 0 & \forall t \leq t_{Ref} \\ (scale - 1) * (U_m(t) - U_m(t_{Ref})) & \forall t_{Ref} < t < t_p \\ (scale - 1) * (U_m(t_p) - U_m(t_{Ref})) & \forall t \geq t_p \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

$$178 \quad scale = \begin{cases} \frac{Y_p - U_m(t_{Ref})}{U_m(t_p) - U_m(t_{Ref})} & \text{if } U_m(t_p) \neq U_m(t_{Ref}) \\ 1 & \text{if } U_m(t_p) = U_m(t_{Ref}) \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

179 2.1.5 How to Define the Historical Database of Effective Scaling Factor: $S_{m,p,d}$

180 The redefined $U_m(t)$ with probe data (Section 2.1.4) is used to develop a historical database of
 181 effective scaling factors for different times of the day and days of the week. The effective scaling
 182 factor incorporates the scaling required for an exit turning ratio and also due to probable loss/gain of
 183 vehicles to/from mid-link sinks/sources. To develop the database, at the end of each day $U_T(t)$ and
 184 $U_m(t)$ are integrated to define the effective scaling factor for time periods with at least one probe
 185 vehicle.

186 Refer to Figure 5. Say we have a historical database of the effective scaling factor (with the default
 187 value of $S_{m,p,d} = 1$). For each of the periods shown in the figure, first the scaling factor from the
 188 historical database is obtained and an initial estimate of $U_m(t)$ from $U_T(t)$ (Section 2.1.3) is defined
 189 using equation (3) (Figure 5a and b) . Thereafter, if probe vehicle data is available, then $U_m(t)$ is
 190 redefined as discussed in Section 2.1.4 (Figure 5c and d) . Finally (Figure 5e), for periods using the
 191 probe vehicle only, the redefined $U_m(t)$ and $U_T(t)$ are integrated to define the scale $s_{m,p,d}$ (7) for a
 192 record of m^{th} exit movement, p^{th} time period of d^{th} day of the week.

$$s_{m,p,d} = \frac{Y_{T,d,p} - Y_{m,d,p}}{Y_{T,d,p}}$$

193 Where: (7)

$$Y_{T,d,p} = U_T(t_{e,p}) - U_T(t_{s,p})$$

$$Y_{m,d,p} = U_m(t_{e,p}) - U_m(t_{s,p})$$

194 Where:

195 $t_{e,p}$ and $t_{s,p}$ are the time corresponding to the start and end of the p^{th} time period, respectively;
 196 $Y_{T,d,p}$ and $Y_{m,d,p}$ are the counts observed during p^{th} time period in $U_T(t)$ and redefined $U_m(t)$,
 197 respectively (see Figure 5e).

198 The historical database is updated with the estimated scale $s_{m,p,d}$. Therefore, the database consists of
 199 the values of effective scaling factor $s_{m,p,d}$ properly classified with the corresponding time of the day
 200 and day of the week. The database is self-updated daily, with new values defined at the end of the

201 day as explained above. The required scaling factor $S_{m,p,d}$ (8) is the median of values of effective
 202 scaling factor defined in the historical database.

$$203 \quad S_{m,p,d} = \text{Median of } s_{m,p,d} \quad (8)$$

204

205 2.2 Route Travel Time

206 For route travel time estimation we consider the following two approaches:

207 2.2.1 Component Based (R_C)

208 Here we divide the entire route into different components, and the sum of time-slice travel time from
 209 each component is route travel time. The component is an exit movement specific link between two
 210 consecutive signalised intersections. We consider the pairs of cumulative plots at upstream and
 211 downstream for each component. Each pair of cumulative plots is independent from the other pair in
 212 the network and RD amongst each pair is corrected independently by applying the methodology
 213 explained in section 2.1. Here:

- 214 1) $U_{c,m}(t)$ and $D_{c,m}(t)$ represent a pair for m^{th} movement of component (link) c ;
- 215 2) If we have n components, then $c = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n-1$, n where n is the most downstream component
 216 and 1 is the most upstream component.
- 217 3) We are interested in estimating average travel time for the vehicle that departs the route
 218 between time period $t_{s,n}$ to $t_{e,n}$.

219 Referring to Figure 6a, we first investigate the downstream component (n) and define average travel
 220 time during the above time period. Then, we look at the time period from $t_{s,n-1}$ to $t_{e,n-1}$ during which
 221 the vehicles are observed at the upstream component ($n-1$) where: $t_{s,n-1} = U_{n,m}^{-1}(D_{n,m}(t_{s,n}))$ and
 222 $t_{e,n-1} = U_{n,m}^{-1}(D_{n,m}(t_{e,n}))$, and define the average travel time for all vehicles that depart during time $t_{s,n-1}$
 223 to $t_{e,n-1}$ from component $n-1$. This process is repeated for further upstream components. The sum of
 224 travel times for each component is the route travel time (refer to the example in Figure 6a).

225 2.2.2 Extreme Based (R_E)

226 Here we estimate route travel time by directly considering the area between the cumulative plots at
 227 extreme points of the route i.e., upstream entrance and downstream exit of the route.

228 To better understand this approach, a self explaining example for R_C and R_E approaches is illustrated
 229 in Figure 6, where we are interested in estimating route travel time from point S to point E (left exit
 230 at intersection C). For R_C (Figure 6a), three components SA , AB and BC are defined with pairs of
 231 cumulative plots $(U_{SA,T}, D_{SA,Thru})$, $(U_{AB,T}, D_{AB,Thru})$, and $(U_{BC,T}, D_{BC,Lft})$, respectively, and where $U_{c,T}$
 232 is the total upstream cumulative plot (2) for component (link) c . For R_E (Figure 6b) the pair
 233 considered is $(U_{SA,T}, D_{BC,Lft})$. Each of these pairs is considered independently, and upstream
 234 cumulative plots are redefined as explained in Section 2.1.

235 3 TESTING

236 The methodology is tested using simulation. A network of five consecutive signalised intersections
 237 with stop-line detectors is considered (see Figure 7) and we define a route from intersection A to
 238 intersection E . Probe vehicles are randomly selected from vehicles traversing the route. For each
 239 travel time estimation period: a) Actual average travel time ($actual_i$) for the route is obtained from
 240 the simulated vehicles that traverse the complete route; b) CUPRITE (with approach R_C or R_E)
 241 provides the estimated average travel time ($estimated_i$). The performance of CUPRITE is evaluated
 242 in terms of accuracy (11), where initially, for each travel time estimation period absolute percentage
 243 error (APE) (9) is obtained. Thereafter, Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE) (10) is defined.

$$APE_i = \left(\frac{|actual_i - estimated_i|}{actual_i} \right) * 100 \quad (9)$$

$$MAPE = \frac{\sum_{i=1toN} APE_i}{N} \quad (10)$$

$$A_M(\%) = (100 - MAPE) \quad (11)$$

Here, first R_C and R_E estimation techniques are compared for flow F1 (where 90% of the flow at upstream traverses the route). Thereafter, the result of R_E application is provided for the following flow values:

- 1) F2: 50% of the flow at upstream traverses the route.
- 2) F3: 20% of the flow at upstream traverses the route.

Flow F1 is analogous to a route with major traffic flow. Flow F2 and F3 are analogous to the route where there is significant traffic in-flow and out-flow within the route. Two different case studies are performed:

- 1) Case M1: Here the comparison between the R_C and R_E approaches is performed for flow combinations F1 and for undersaturated (Case M1.U); and oversaturated traffic conditions (Case M1.O).
- 2) Case M2: Here different flow combinations (F1, F2 and F3) are analysed for R_E approach and compared with the average travel time from probes in each estimation period (“Probe-Only” method). A comparison of R_E with Probe-Only is made to evaluate the benefit of integrating cumulative plots with probes.

For R_C the components defined are through movements from A to B ; B to C ; C to D ; and D to E . For R_E cumulative plots at upstream entrance at intersection A and downstream through exit at intersection E are considered.

3.1 Case M1

Figure 8 is a graph of accuracy versus fixed number of probes per estimated period (S_n) for undersaturated (case M1.U) and oversaturated (case M1.O) traffic conditions. During undersaturated traffic conditions, the virtual probe can be defined for each component and hence even in the absence of a real probe, accurate travel time can be obtained for R_C ($A_M > 96\%$ for $S_n = 0$) (see Figure 8a). During oversaturated traffic conditions, virtual probes are not considered and the accuracy for R_C increases with an increase in S_n (see Figure 8b).

Accuracy for R_C is slightly higher than that from R_E . As explained in Section 2.2, for R_C cumulative plots for each component of the route are to be accurately estimated, whereas for R_E cumulative plots only at the upstream entrance and downstream exit of the route are required. **Therefore, although R_C is more accurate and there are higher chances of getting probe for each component than the one traversing the complete path, detector data and signal timings are required for each component. R_E is simple to apply and data only at upstream and downstream points of the route is required, but the required probe should traverse the complete route, which could be a less frequent event.**

3.2 Case M2

In the previous section it is demonstrated that R_C performs better than R_E . Therefore, in this section we perform further testing using R_E . This provides a lower boundary for the performance as the approach R_C can slightly improve the accuracy. The results for the three different flows F1, F2 and F3 are presented in Figure 9.

285 1) With at least one probe per estimation interval the performance of CUPRITE is
 286 generally more than 95%, and increases with any increase in the number of
 287 probes. However, a significantly large number of probe vehicles are required to
 288 obtain comparable accuracy from the Probe-only method.
 289 2) With less number of probes there is significant benefit to integrating cumulative
 290 plots with probe vehicles. For instance for $S_n = 1$ there is more than 5%
 291 improvement in accuracy. The availability of large numbers of probes per
 292 estimation period is quite rare and it demonstrates the significant benefit of
 293 integrating multiple data sources (detector data, signal timings and probe vehicle).
 294 For the above analysis the “true” average travel time for the route is obtained by all the vehicles that
 295 traverse the complete route. For F3 (*see* Figure 9c) only 20% of the vehicles traverse the complete
 296 route. Therefore, for large $S_n (>15)$ the accuracy from the *Probe-only* method is significantly higher.
 297 The above analysis indicates that CUPRITE can be applied for route travel time estimation for
 298 different flow combinations with implicit consideration of mid-route delay due to the presence of
 299 mid-route intersections.

300 4 VALIDATION

301 The methodology is validated on real data collected at Lucerne, Switzerland (Figure 10). The signal
 302 control at the site is equipped with an actuated signal controller VS-PLUS [35] that provides stop-
 303 line detector counts and signal timings. Individual vehicle data is obtained from manual number plate
 304 surveys from 3:00 pm to 6:00 pm on signalised intersections, indicated from *A* to *K* in Figure 10.

- 305 a) Traffic from *A* to *D* has significant flow from the freeway off ramp entering the city. It has a
 306 significant mid-link sink between intersection *C* and *D* where around 20% vehicles are lost to
 307 the side street to enter the city centre bypass;
- 308 b) Traffic from *D* to *I* passes through the city centre with bottlenecks at *F* and *I*. It also carries
 309 traffic to the railway station;
- 310 c) And traffic from *I* to *K* has no mid-link sink or source, but a significant amount of mid-link
 311 delay due to pedestrians. This route is along the lake side with a significant number of
 312 tourists.

313 This site characteristic includes detector counting errors; mixed traffic with buses; on-street bus
 314 stops; non conservation of traffic on the link due to side parking and side streets; significant mid-link
 315 delay due to pedestrian crossings; and urban links passing through the city centre.

316 CUPRITE is applied to estimate travel time for route *A*→*F*; route *D*→*I*; and route *D*→*K*. Each
 317 estimation period uses multiples of signal cycles, and accuracy during each period is defined using
 318 equations (9), (10) and (11) where actual travel time is from the aforementioned number plate survey.
 319 Both R_C and R_E are applied and compared. Figure 11*a*, *b* and *c* summarise the accuracy for three
 320 routes for R_C and R_E for $S_n = 1, 2$ and 3 , respectively. It is observed that **accuracy from CUPRITE**
 321 **is more than 89% for different route combinations and increases by around 2% to 4% with an**
 322 **increase of S_n from 1 to 3, respectively.** Consistent with the testing results, **R_C performs better**
 323 **than R_E .**

324 Figure 12 represents the time series of average travel time from CUPRITE and from number plate
 325 survey data for R_E and R_C along the aforementioned routes for $S_n=1$. It can be seen that the
 326 **methodology has the potential to capture the time series of travel time and period to period**
 327 **travel time variations.** For instance, *A*→*F* route has increasing, decreasing and again increasing
 328 travel time for time from 15:30 to 16:00, 16:00 to 16:30 and 16:30 to 17:00, respectively. This is
 329 very well captured by the methodology.

330 5 CONCLUSION

331 One of the major limitations of existing travel time estimation models is that they estimate average
332 travel time for the whole link. Generally, to estimate movement specific link travel time, penalties
333 are added to the average link travel time. However, this cannot capture the dynamics of the traffic,
334 and for real applications can result in significant error. This paper provides a methodology for robust
335 and accurate exit movement specific travel time and its application for route travel time estimation.
336 Two different approaches *Component* based and *Extreme* based are discussed for route travel time
337 estimation.

338 The testing of the methodology for different flow combinations clearly indicates that the
339 methodology can be applied for accurate estimation of route travel time with appropriate
340 consideration of exit movement specific travel time. The validation of the methodology with real data
341 from a typical urban network (with detector counting errors, mid-link sources and sinks, mixed
342 traffic with buses, etc) provides confidence in the robustness of the methodology and its better
343 network applicability. The results also demonstrate that the integration of different data sources has
344 the potential to enhance the accuracy of the estimation. For instance, $S_n = 1$ there is more than 5%
345 improvement in accuracy from the methodology than only from probes.

346 The application of the methodology provides detailed understanding of the network performance. For
347 instance, excessive travel time for an exit movement can identify the critical movement at an
348 intersection. The methodology accurately captures time series of travel time which can be used for
349 developing an historical database of travel time. The latter is the basic requirement for travel time
350 prediction. Hence the methodology can be extended by integrating it with prediction tools for
351 accurate travel time prediction.

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448 **7 LIST OF FIGURES**

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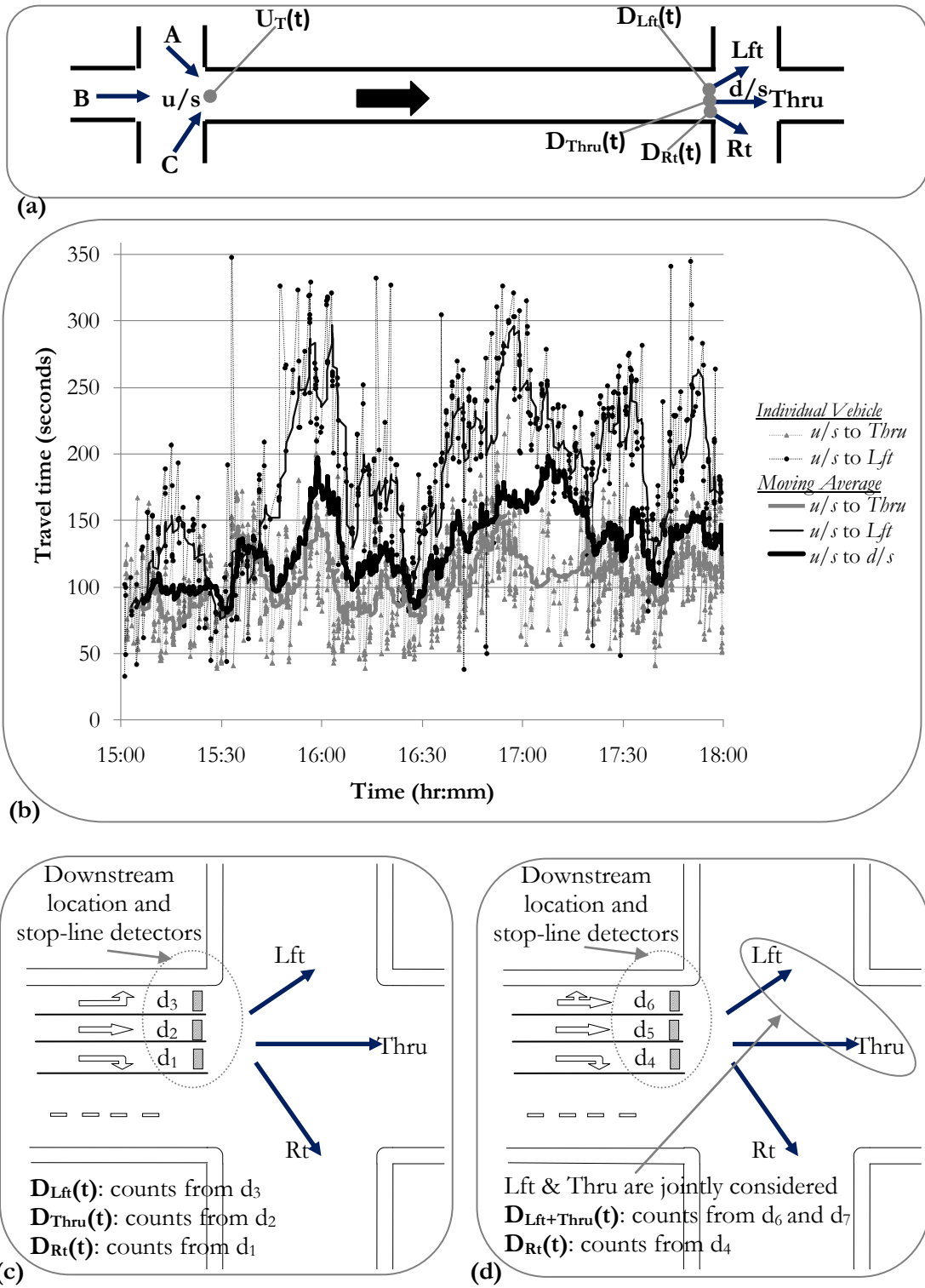
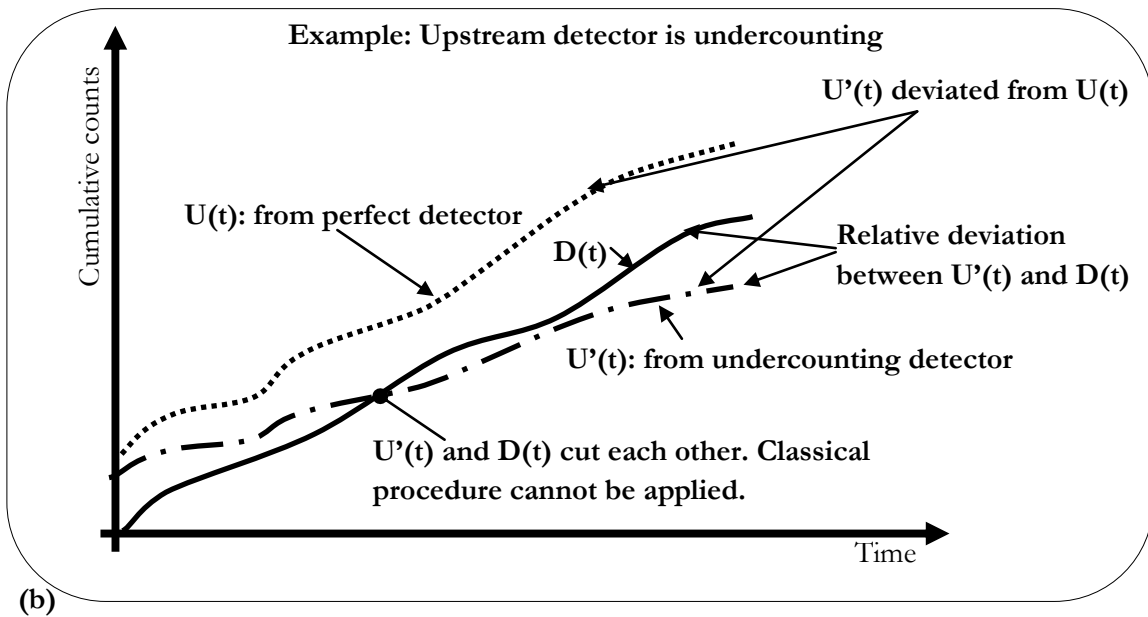
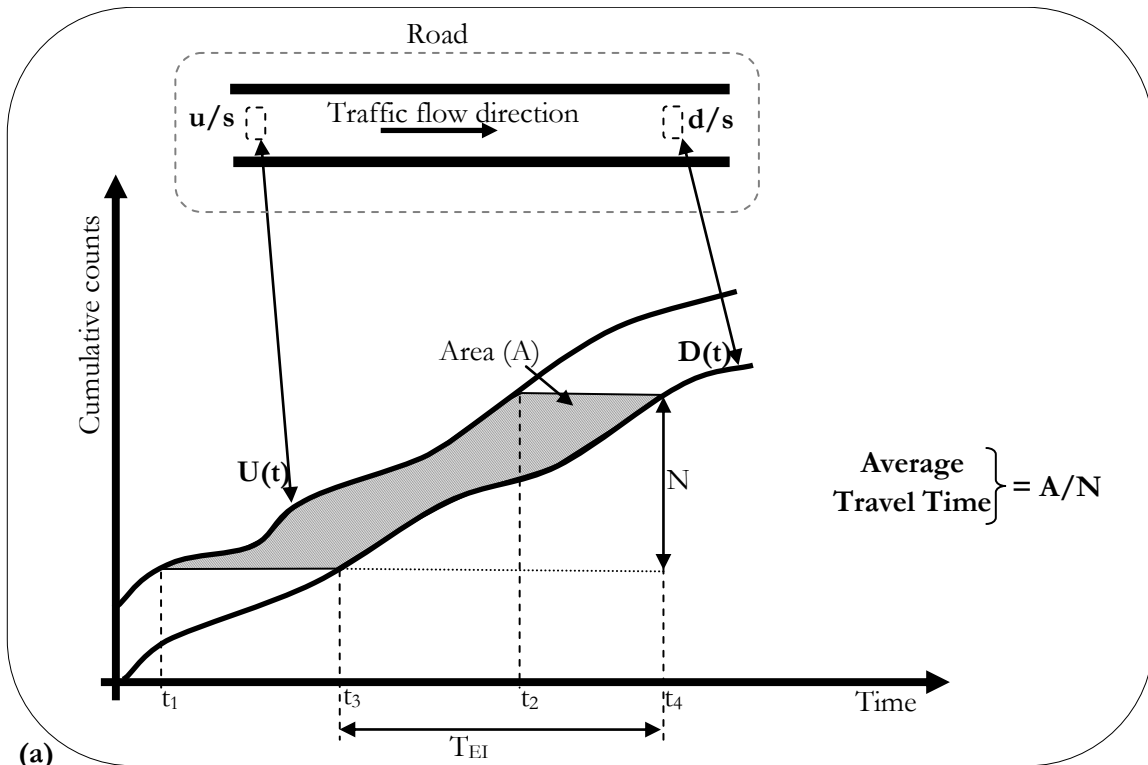


Figure 1: a, c and d) Illustration of an urban link with different flow and geometric configurations; b) time series of real travel time for different exit movements from a signalised link at Luzern, Switzerland.

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Figure 2: Classical analytical procedure and its vulnerability to relative deviation (RD) amongst the plots.

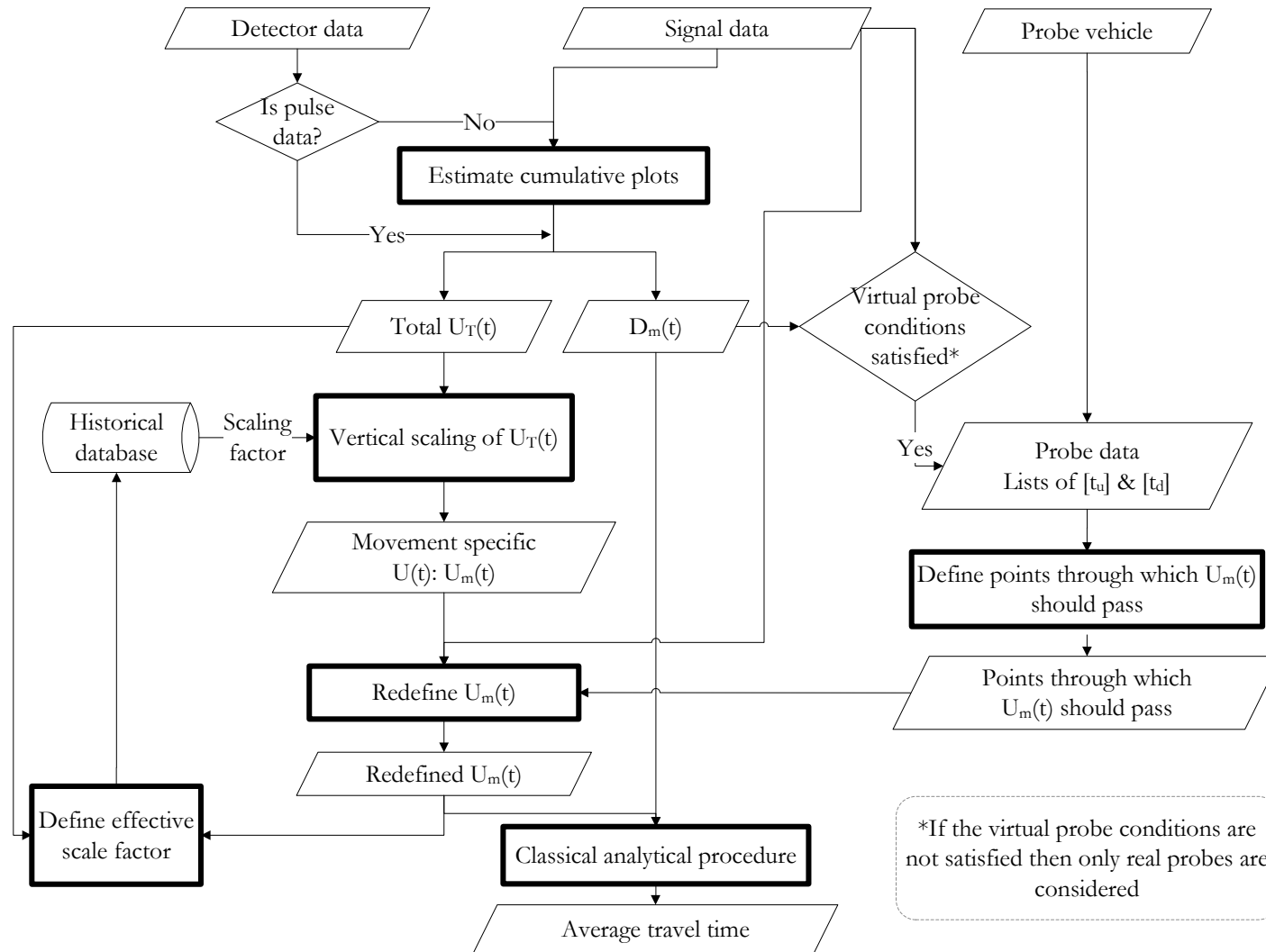
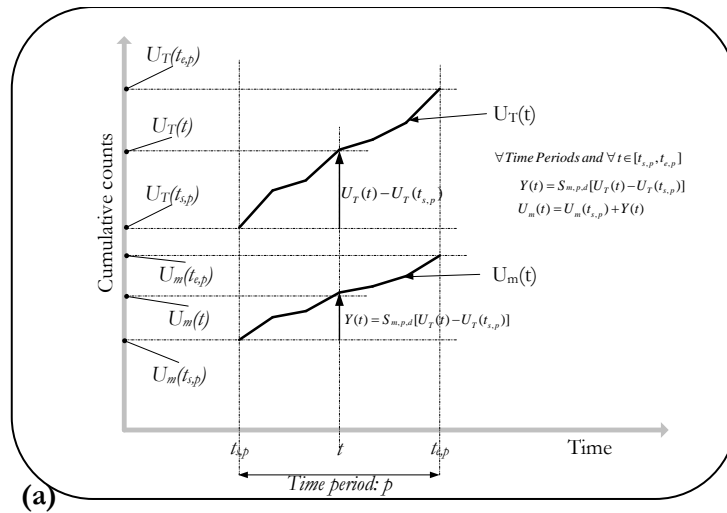
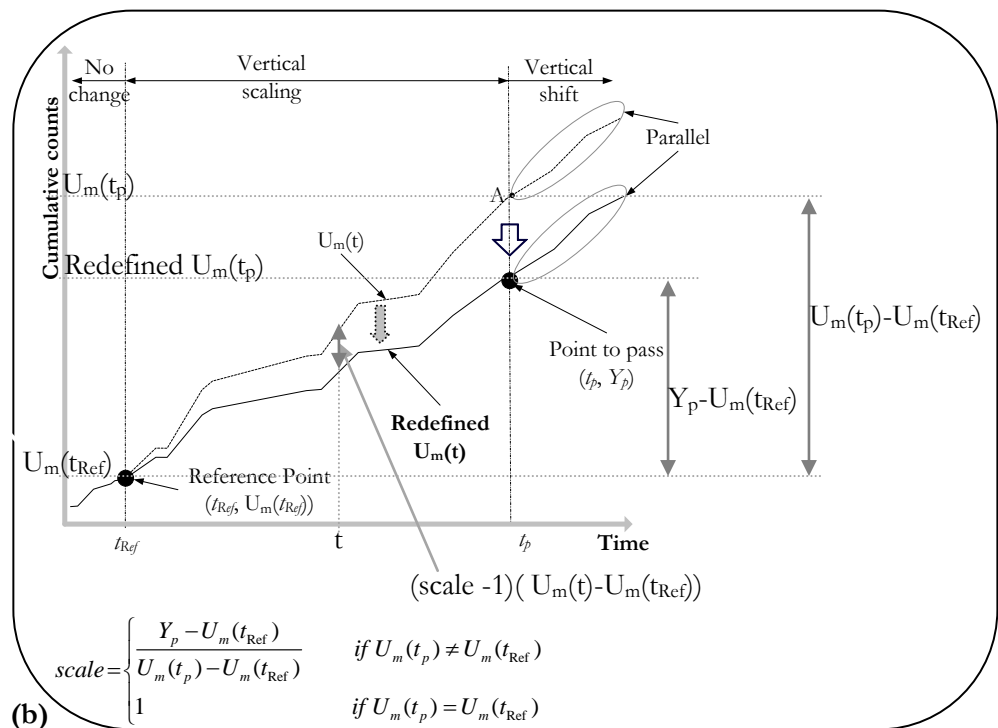


Figure 3: CUPRITE architecture for link-movement specific travel time estimation.



(a)

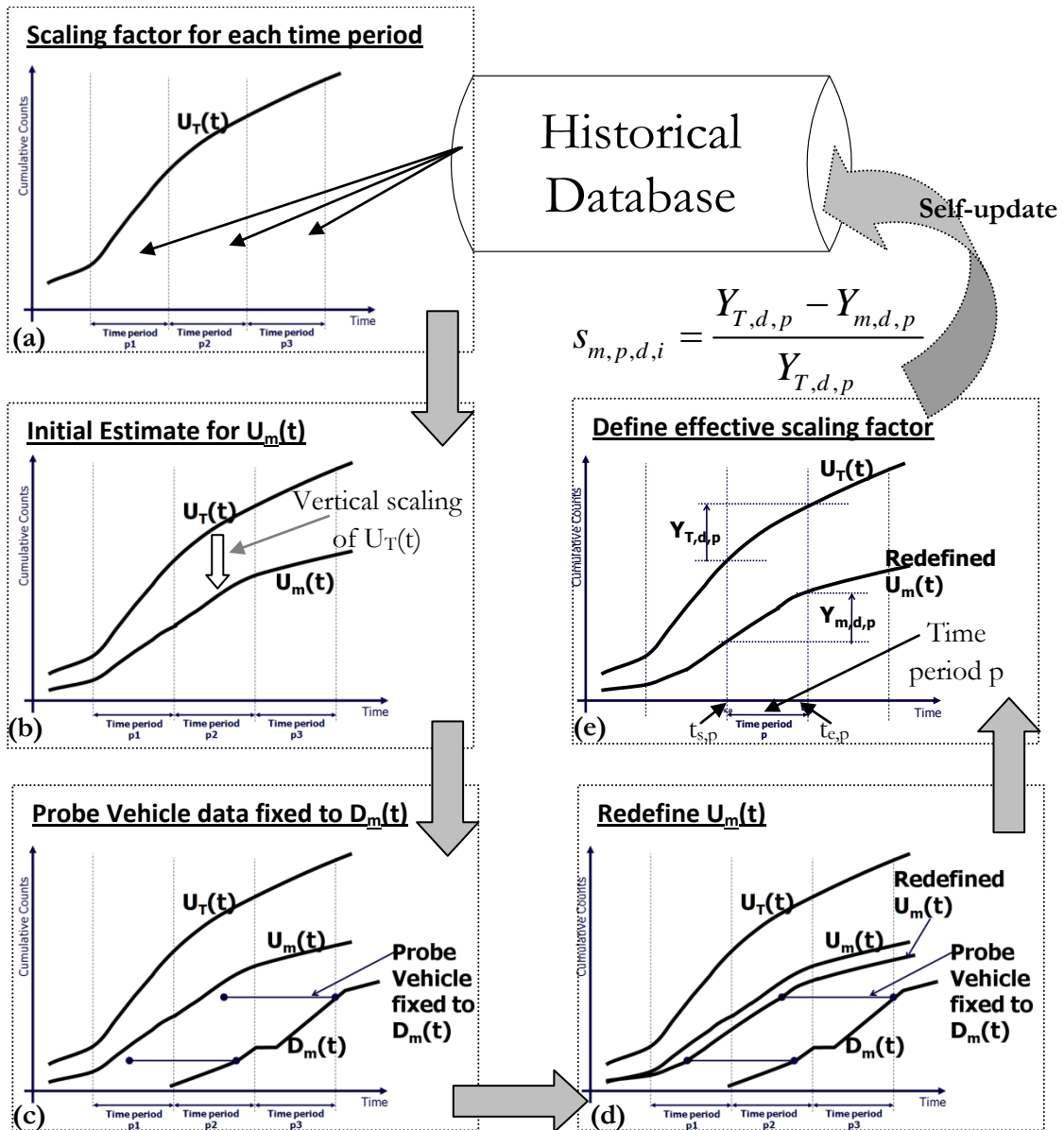


(b)

$$scale = \begin{cases} \frac{Y_p - U_m(t_{Ref})}{U_m(t_p) - U_m(t_{Ref})} & \text{if } U_m(t_p) \neq U_m(t_{Ref}) \\ 1 & \text{if } U_m(t_p) = U_m(t_{Ref}) \end{cases}$$

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Figure 4: a) Vertical scaling of $U_T(t)$ for initial estimate of $U_m(t)$; b) Integrating $U_m(t)$ with probes.



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Figure 5: Example of the methodology for estimation of upstream cumulative plot for each exit turning movement.

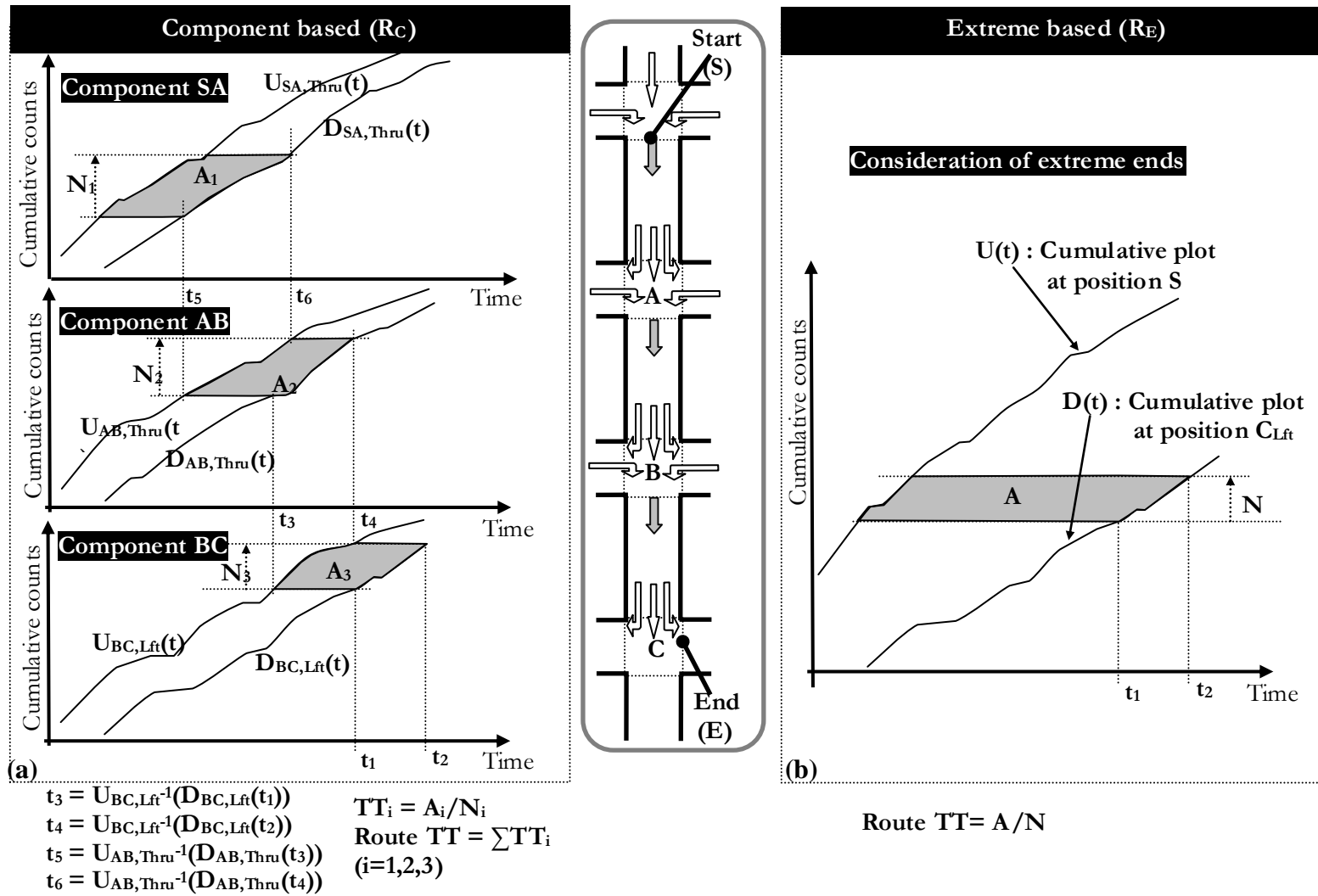
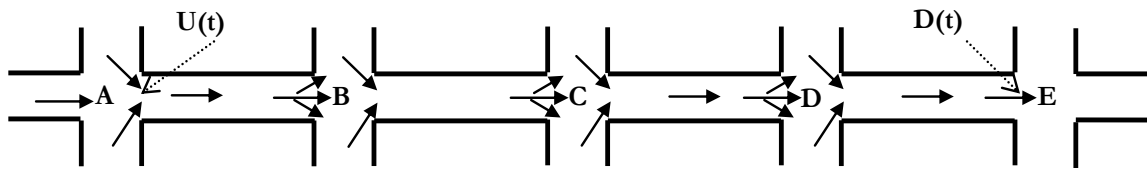


Figure 6: Example for RC and RE.

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- F1 : 90% of the vehicles in $U(t)$ are also in $D(t)$
- F2 : 50% of the vehicles in $U(t)$ are also in $D(t)$
- F3 : 20% of the vehicles in $U(t)$ are also in $D(t)$

- All intersections are signalized
- All links are two lanes, with separate left and right movement lane.
- Length of each link is approx 500 m

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Figure 7: Network for CUPRITE testing for route travel time estimation.

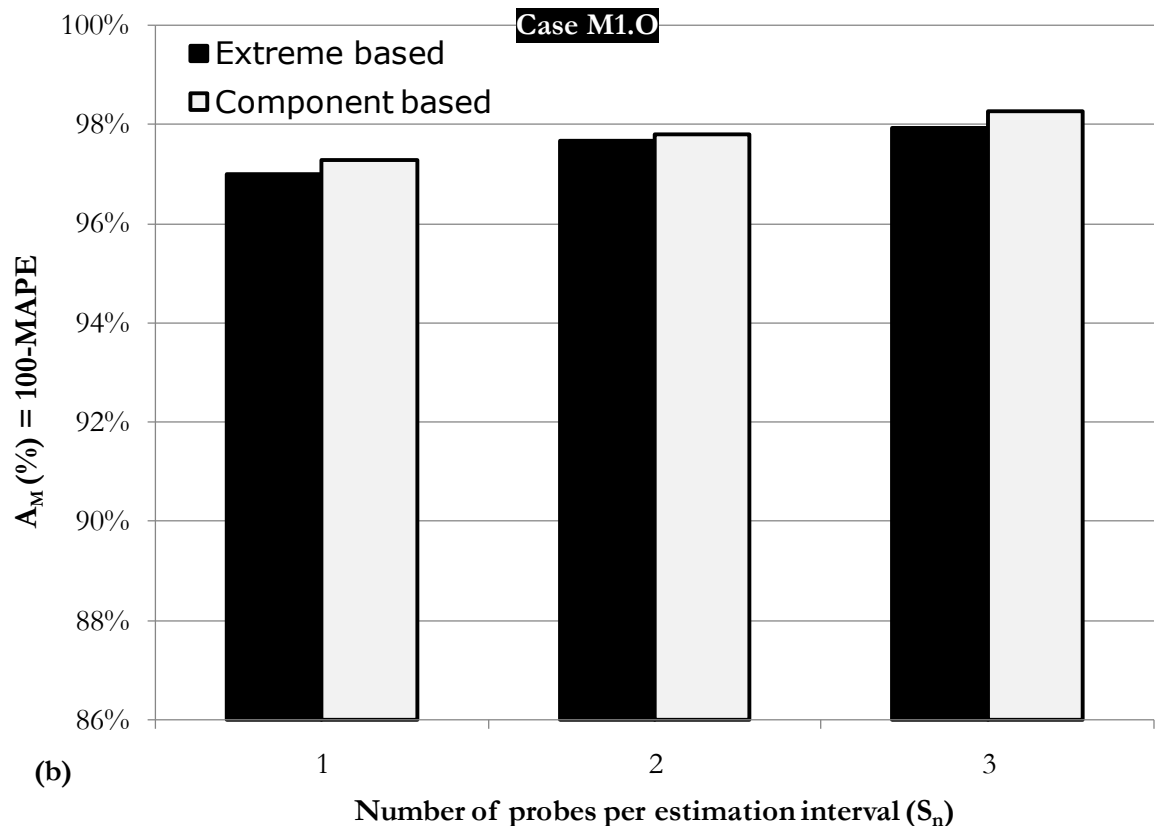
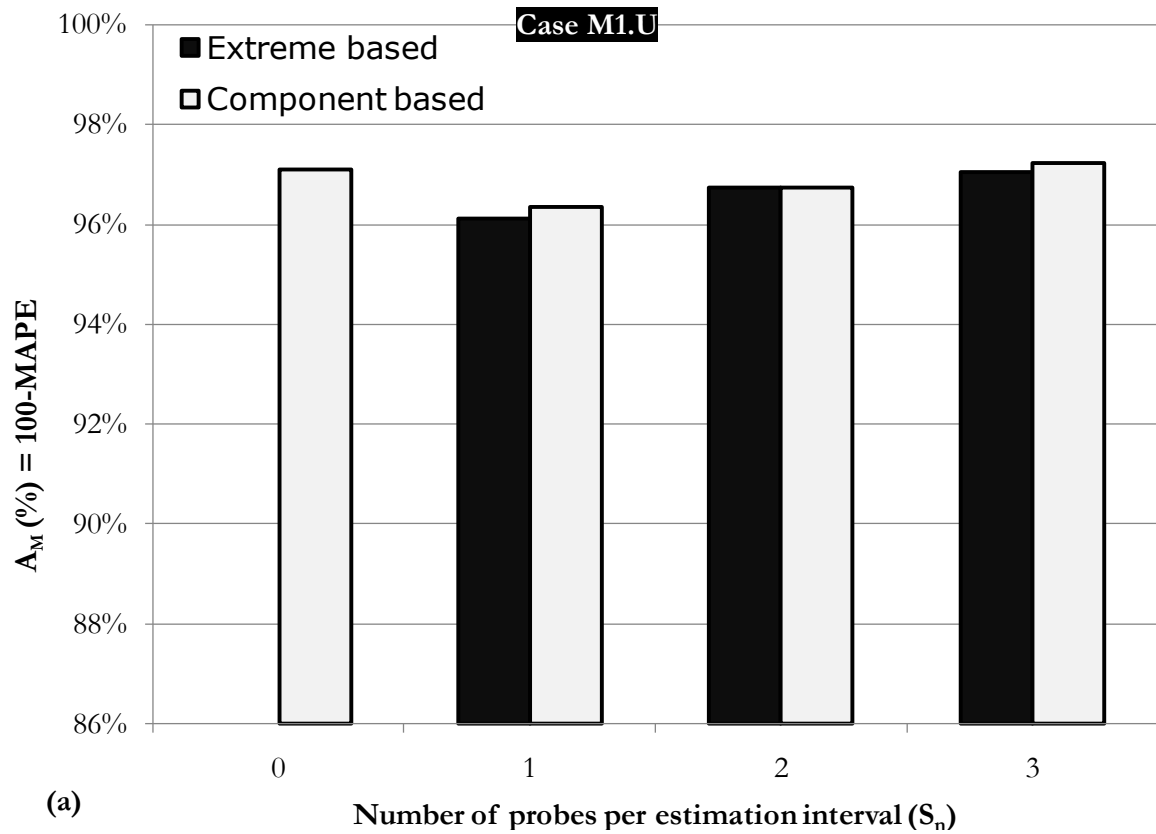


Figure 8: Case Study a) M1.U and b) M1.O for Flow = F1 versus S_n .

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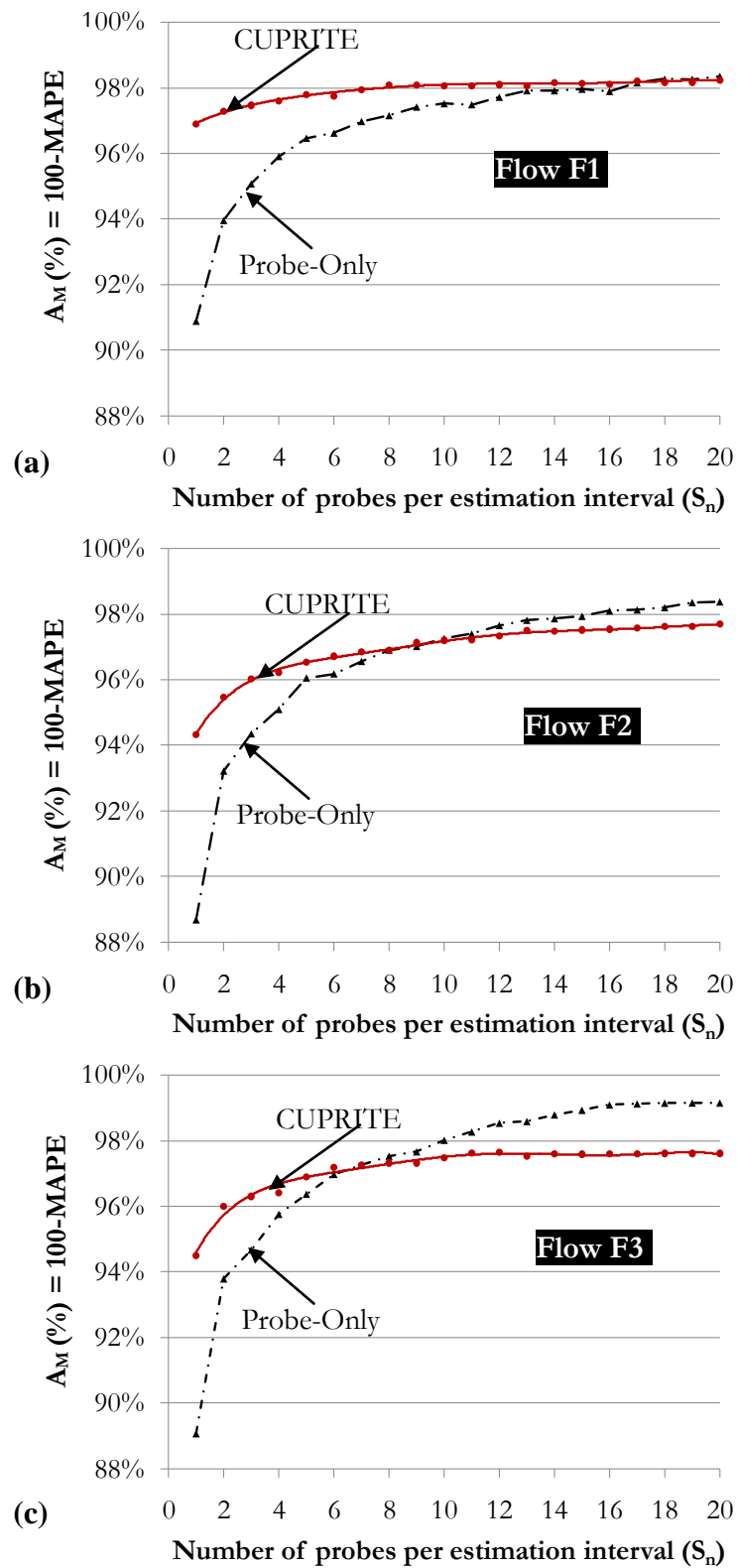
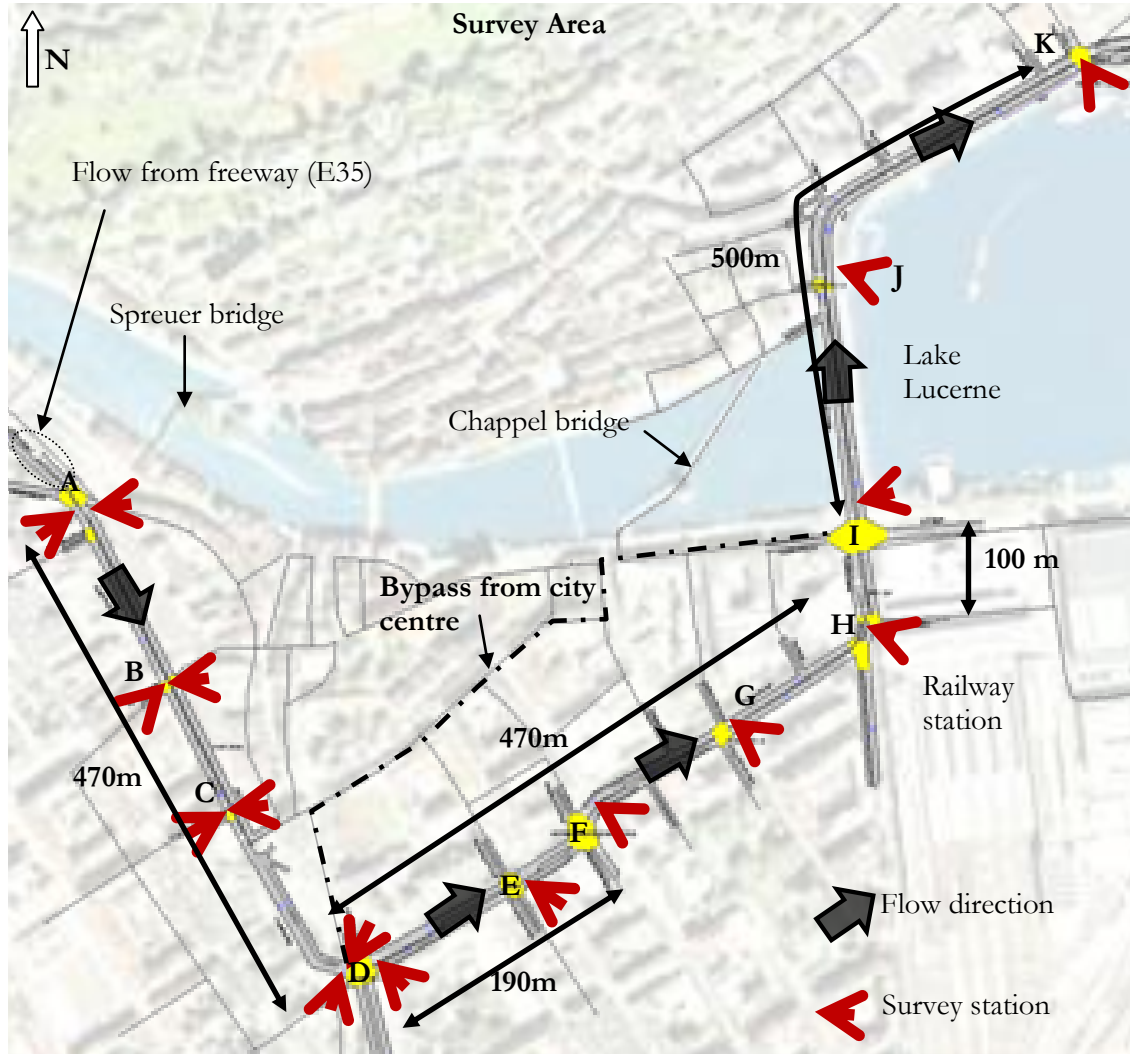


Figure 9: R_E and Probe-only performance versus S_n): a) F1; b) F2 and c) F3.

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Figure 10: Study area (Luzern, Switzerland)

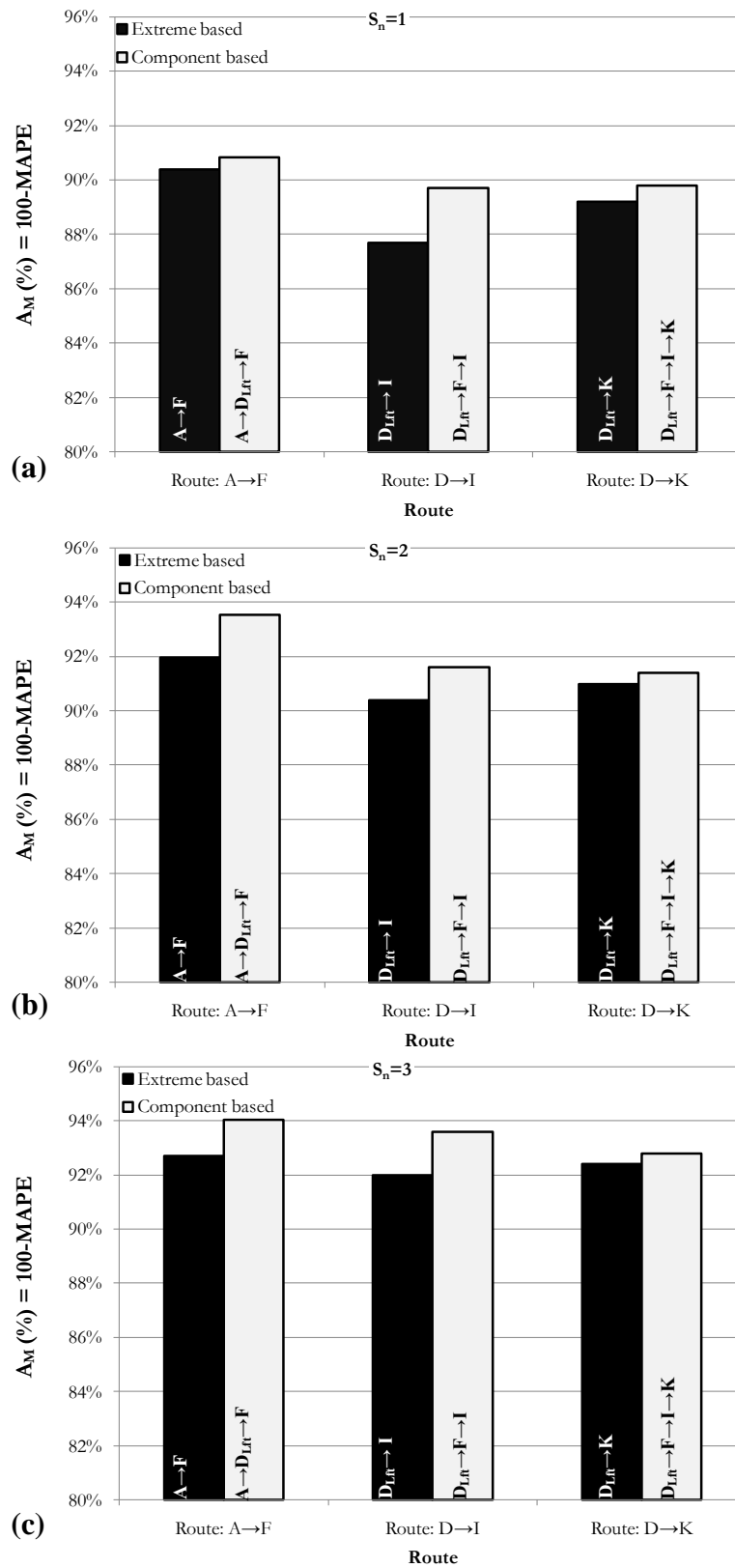
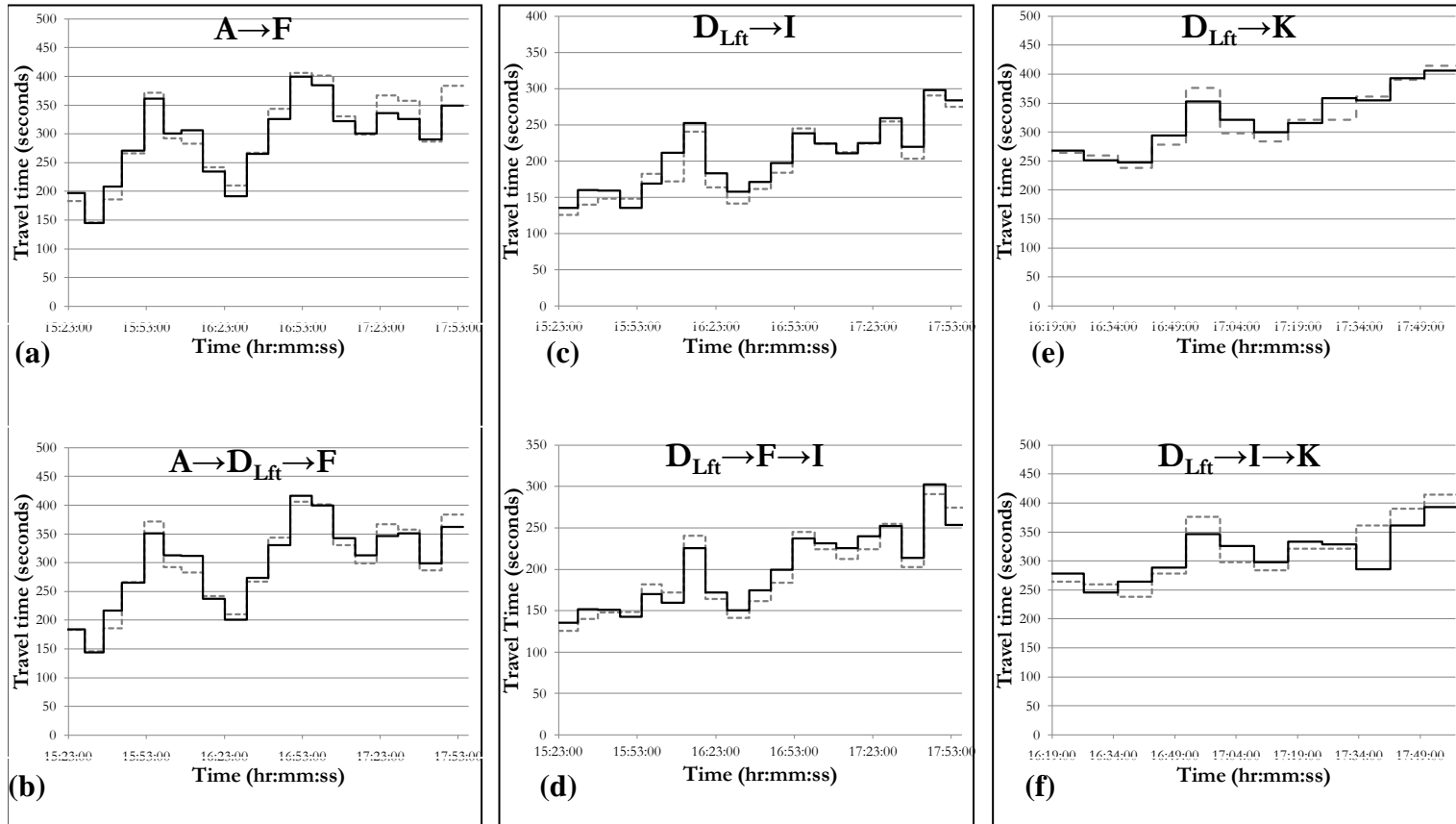


Figure 11: Route travel time validation for routes on Luzern data.



--- Actual Average

— CUPRITE ($S_n=1$)

Figure 12: Time series of estimated and observed travel time on different routes at Luzern

