Subcycle-based Neural Network Algorithms for Turning Movement Count Prediction

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Keywords: Deep Learning, Intelligent Transportation, Machine Learning, Neural Networks, Turning Movement Count Prediction.

Abstract: Predicting intersection turning movements is an important task for urban traffic analysis, planning, and signal control. However, traffic flow dynamics in the vicinity of urban arterial intersections is a complex and nonlinear phenomenon influenced by factors such as signal timing plan, road geometry, driver behaviors, queuing, etc. Most current methods focus on predicting turning movement counts using data at coarser aggregations in the order of minutes or above. Important details such as platoon movements may be lost at such coarse resolutions. In this work, we propose machine learning approaches to imputing turning movement counts at intersections using data at subcycle resolutions, from 5 seconds to 375 seconds. In particular, we show that deep neural networks are capable of directly learning an abstract representation of intersection traffic dynamics using detector actuation waveforms and signal state information. We generate a large dataset of 30 million cycles by approximately replicating real-world traffic arrival patterns from archived loop detector data in a microscopic traffic simulator. We extensively evaluate our models and show that our models predict turning movement counts with greater accuracy when higher resolution data are provided.

1 INTRODUCTION

Turn movement counts (TMCs) are used for a wide variety of applications related to intersection analyses, intersection design, and transport planning. Recently, several advances in traffic control technologies and applications are driving additional needs for continuous, real-time, quality TMC data. These technologies include:

1. Adaptive control technologies: These systems dynamically change the signal phasing pattern locally at an intersection based on traffic demand.

2. Regional Integrated Corridor Management System (R-ICMS): This system will perform a microscopic simulation of the network using TMCs to validate the improvement to the network if a diversion route response plan is implemented or an optimized set of signal timing plans is deployed.

These applications have introduced additional traffic data needs beyond what has been provided with the traditional TMC data collection efforts, as follows:

1. Temporal coverage: The data need to be provided for intersections continuously, not just for a sampling of time for a few hours or days.

2. Spatial coverage: The data need to be provided for intersections throughout an entire corridor or network in order to support a regional application.

3. Cost effective: The data need to be able to be collected in a cost-effective manner, which requires the use of technology instead of manual counts. This derives from the need for temporal and spatial coverage.

4. Real-time: The data need to be available in real-time for use by real-time operations.

5. Higher granularity: The TMC data need to be accurate for several cycles to a few hours.

The traditional method of using a human to obtain this information manually is very time consuming and monotonous. Although approach volumes can be easily derived from the loop detectors, they only give information on how many vehicles are entering the intersection and not the TMCs. The focus of this work...
in on accurately and efficiently deriving TMCs using loop detector data by utilizing machine learning techniques.

So far, intersection systems have only given data at coarse levels of granularity (for example, traffic movement counts by hour) limiting their use. The recent advent of automated traffic signal performance measures (ATSPM) systems provides this information and signal timing information at a decisecond level. Availability of this information along with the availability of cheap GPU-based computing and deep neural network algorithms has opened up the possibility of modeling traffic behavior at the subcycle level and is the focus of this paper.

The rest of the document is described as follows. Section 2 presents the related work of different techniques used for turning movement counts prediction. Section 3 describes how we preprocess raw data and generate synthetic datasets from real-world controller log data using SUMO (Lopez et al., 2018). In section 4, we present the machine learning models developed for predicting turning movement counts and several experimental results. Conclusions are provided in Section 5.

Our contributions can be summarized as follows:

- We have developed a system for generating synthetic datasets with traffic distributions close to real world. We used detector controller logs from 300 intersections in Orlando to construct inflow waveforms and fed them into SUMO to run simulations.

2 RELATED WORK

In this section, we summarize the existing literature on turning movement counts prediction. We broadly categorize the existing literature and summarize each category.

2.1 Flow-based Methods

Some studies, (Chen et al., 2012; P. T. Martin, 1992; Wu and Thnay, 2001; Xu et al., 2013), have used mathematical techniques like linear programming to impute turning movement counts which balances inflow, outflow of traffic with some constraints. By modelling the flow with some constraints as linear equations, we can solve for every unknown movement if we have enough equations. To calculate westbound through volume at intersection i, the following equation can be used.

\[
W_{BT}^t_i = -N_{BL}^t_i - S_{BR}^{t+\Delta t} + W_{BR}^{t+\Delta t} + W_{BT}^{t+\Delta t} - \delta_{ij}^t
\]

where

- \( W_{BT} \): westbound through
- \( N_{BL} \): northbound left
- \( S_{BR} \): southbound right
- \( W_{BR} \): westbound right
- \( W_{BL} \): westbound left
- \( t \): time interval
- \( i,j \): intersections number
- \( \Delta t \): time taken to travel between i,j
- \( \delta_{ij}^{t+\Delta t} \): additional trips generated between intersections i,j during time interval \( \Delta t \).

In the equation, \( \Delta t \) is assumed to be zero if the distance between the two intersections is small because the volume fluctuations would be significantly low. Also, \( \delta_{ij} \) can be assumed to be zero if there are no trips generated between these two intersections.

Linear programming-based approaches (P. T. Martin, 1992) have been used to compute turning movement counts using flows. This approach requires measurements like detector flow, weight given to each link, and constraints on flow for each link. A system of linear equations is modelled with the above constraints and information. This system of equations is solved to get turning movement counts.

Methods based on origin-destination (O-D) matrices to compute turning movement counts (Wu and Thnay, 2001) uses already observed O-D matrices to predict future O-D matrices. They use a travel demand model, the Furness Method, and then use the equilibrium principle to assign future O-D matrices to the network.
Figure 1: Diagram showing a typical intersection. Arrival/departure waveforms are observed at stop bar (S) and advance (A) detectors.

The path flow estimator (Chen et al., 2012) computes complete link flows along with turn movement counts when some traffic counts at selected intersections are known. The proposed algorithm iterates over entropy and equilibrium terms to obtain the final solution. The first term, entropy, distributes trips to multiple paths. The second term, equilibrium, makes those trips cluster together on minimum cost paths. The algorithm has an outer loop to iteratively generate paths to the working path set as needed to replicate the observed link counts, turning movement counts, and selected prior O-D flows. The claim is that the method has advantages because of the single level convex programming formulation, when compared to other bilevel programming approaches.

2.2 Neural Network-based Approaches

These methods (Ghanim and Shaaban, 2019) use only approach volumes to predict corresponding turning movement counts. Figure 2 shows how a four-leg intersection is represented as a node where the number of vehicles leaving the node i is $P_i$: $P_i = \sum_{j=1}^{4} T_{ij}$. The turning movement counts between node i and node j are the number of trips from i to j. So, when a vehicle is approaching an intersection, they have four possible turns: left, through, right, and U-turn. For the four approaches, there are 16 possible movements. For intersection j, the number of vehicles attracted to it is $A_j$: $A_j = \sum_{i=1}^{4} T_{ij}$; this is the sum of all the trips with destination j. So 16 different turning movement counts should be modelled with the help of known values. Each $T_{ij}$ is modelled as a function of $P_i$ and $A_j$. (Lv

Figure 2: Representation of signalized intersection proposed in (Ghanim and Shaaban, 2019).
et al., 2015) uses a stacked autoencoder model to predict traffic flow. An autoencoder is a neural network that tries to reproduce its input. It acts as an identity function. It tends to learn features that form a good representation of its input. Stacked autoencoder models are created by stacking autoencoders in a hierarchical way. The generic traffic flow features are modelled with a stacked autoencoder model. They also take into account spatial and temporal correlations. They use a logistic regression layer as the top layer for supervised traffic prediction.

2.3 Other Approaches

Approaches such as the genetic algorithm-based framework (Pengpeng Jiao, 2005) are also used to obtain a dynamic relation between turning movement proportions and traffic counts at an intersection at each time step. The proposed objective function minimizes the sum of absolute differences between observed and predicted traffic counts. The objective function is made to converge using a revised parameter optimization model. Then, they finally propose a genetic algorithm to impute turning movement counts.

The current state of research is lacking in several aspects. The datasets used are often small and don’t represent a wide variety of traffic scenarios that may occur. Current methods use data aggregated at resolutions in the order of minutes and above and thus miss important details that may be found in more fine-grained data.

Our approach is different for two reasons:

1. Large number of samples collected using a realistic simulation framework
2. Results show that using more fine-grained data results in better accuracy for turning movement count prediction.

3 DATASETS AND PREPROCESSING

In this section, we describe the data preprocessing and dataset generation pipeline. We find that the present datasets on turning movement counts are inadequate for our needs. Hence, we use the SUMO microscopic simulator programmed with real-world traffic flows and signal plans to generate our dataset. Specifically, using SUMO helps us in the following ways:

- Datasets are often aggregated at 30-minute intervals, which is too coarse for our needs. SUMO allows us to generate data at 1-second resolution.
- Actual (ground truth) turning movement counts are not readily available nor is there a straightforward way of using controller log data for imputing them. SUMO logs allow us to get ground-truth turning movement counts.
- Another challenge is that we do not have a detector channel to acquire phase mappings for most of the intersections. So, the information from controller logs cannot be used in a structured manner (we do not know whether a detector belongs to a major or minor street or is advance or at a stop bar). Because we place the detectors in SUMO, we know their locations and functions precisely.

One important aspect of simulations is modeling the demand to be as realistic as possible. Programming random flows or using coarse origin-destination matrices for generating flows may lead to unrealistic traffic distributions. The real-world dataset we use to program our simulation consists of controller log data from 329 signalized intersections in Seminole County, Greater Orlando Metropolitan Area. For traffic flows, we use loop detector waveform data from advance detectors of these intersections and regenerate them in our simulations. We create a huge synthetic dataset of 30 million cycles, with traffic distributions similar to those observed in the real world. (The process is described in 3.2.)

3.1 Recorded High Resolution Loop Detector Data

High-resolution loop detector data and signal timing data captured by ATSPM (Day et al., 2014) is valuable for characterizing the performance of intersections using various Measures of Effectiveness (MoEs). Induction loop detectors attached to the intersection collect data at 10 Hz, indicating whether a vehicle passed over or not. Signal behavior is also captured. These data allow traffic engineers to analyze the performance of traffic intersections and improve safety and efficiency while cutting costs and congestion.

Table 1 shows a sample of high resolution data. The data consist of the following attributes:

1. SignalID: Intersection identifier
2. Timestamp: Time at which event was logged (decimal second resolution)
3. EventCode: What event at the signal was captured
4. EventParam: What was the value of the event or attribute at that timestamp.

These data also come with metadata which describe what different event codes and event param-
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Table 1: Raw event logs from signal controllers. Most modern controllers generate these data at a frequency of 10 Hz.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SignalID</th>
<th>Timestamp</th>
<th>EventCode</th>
<th>EventParam</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1490</td>
<td>2018-08-01 00:00:00.000100</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1490</td>
<td>2018-08-01 00:00:00.000300</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1490</td>
<td>2018-08-01 00:00:00.000300</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1490</td>
<td>2018-08-01 00:00:00.000300</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1490</td>
<td>2018-08-01 00:00:00.000300</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1490</td>
<td>2018-08-01 00:00:00.000300</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1490</td>
<td>2018-08-01 00:00:00.000300</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

eaters indicate, for example, event code 81 indicates a vehicle departure, event code 2 indicates start of green phase, etc. The event parameter identifies the particular detector channel or phase in which the event was captured.

3.2 Data Generation

In order to model an intersection, we need a large dataset to train our models. While several real-world datasets exist (Wang et al., 2019), they are of limited utility for our task because they do not model intersections under diverse traffic and signal timing conditions.

Along with diverse but realistic traffic flows, we also need to program realistic traffic signal plans. In the real world, it is highly unlikely that a traffic authority would implement undesirable signal timing schemes for gathering data because that would have adverse real-world consequences. On the other hand, microscopic simulators offer us the flexibility of implementing undesirable signal timing plans. We study the Orlando dataset and derive a signal timing plan as shown in Table 2.

The signal timing plan for the intersection is an actuated signal timing plan with minimum and maximum times, as shown in Table 2.

A yellow time of 5 seconds follows each phase. Thus, this leads to a theoretical minimum signal cycle length of 60 seconds and a maximum length of 180 seconds. This maximum is chosen with consideration of acceptable pedestrian wait times.

We use a three-stage approach for generating simulated data:

1. Generate a realistic intersection configuration in SUMO
2. Derive traffic waveforms from real data

3.3 Intersection Configuration

Our simulation consists of a one-intersection scenario with four approaches, based on standard NEMA (National Electrical Manufacturing Association) (US Department of Transportation, 2008) phasing. It consists of four through or right movements and four left-turn movements, one of each movement for the four approaches. Most urban arterials have an exclusive left-turn buffer at each approach to cater to the left-turning traffic. This prevents the left-turning traffic from blocking the through and right traffic until the buffer is filled.

Each approach is initially a single lane which fans out into a through-lane and an exclusive left-turn buffer. The left-turn buffers extend 60 meters and can hold 6-7 vehicles. There are two stop bar detectors per approach, one each for through/right and left turn lanes. There is one advance detector 90 meters from the intersection, just beyond the end of the left-turn buffer. This minimal configuration captures all the eight turn movements possible. Multiple lanes for each movement group can be handled by (a) aggregating detector counts per movement group and (b) training multiple models, one for each intersection geometry of interest. In this study, we only focus on the most general and minimal configuration.

In order to gather downstream data, we place gating traffic signals that mimic a downstream intersection 800 meters from the main intersection. They are simple one-phase signals without any side streets. Adding fully-fledged intersections with coherent real-world flows would have been computationally expensive and will be included in a follow-up extension to this work. There are four such gating signals, one along each of the four outbound directions.
3.4 Input Traffic Generation

Archived controller logs are used to construct inflow waveforms along all four directions. These waveforms are in turn used to inject vehicles into SUMO from four directions with an adaptive signal timing control. This way, we generate datasets whose inflow and outflow distributions are close to what we observe in the real world. For this, we used six months of controller logs from 90 intersections in the City of Orlando.

Thus, the main flow along corridor through and right directions will be between two to eight times the flow along the other streets. These ratios are based on the observed traffic flows in the recorded Orlando dataset.

We use advance detector logs from the Orlando dataset to generate vehicle flows at a 1-second resolution. We randomly sample flow patterns observed at these two detectors for the straight and side streets and ensure that they fall between the above-mentioned volume flow constraints. We program these arrival patterns into SUMO. These patterns are further shaped by the gating signals at the start of the four incoming approaches. This ensures variable platooning of volumes based on real-world data.

3.5 Parallel Dataset Generation

The data generation process makes use of the multiprocessing environment. At any instant, several simulations will be running in parallel: each thread runs a simulation, processes the logs, and dumps the dataset into the file system.

Each simulation generates logs which have information of every time step of the simulation. These logs are processed, and the following information is stored:

- Waveforms at all the stop bar and advance detectors for all the approaches
- Waveforms at all the advance detectors of nearby intersections
- Signal timing information
- Turn movement counts for all the possible movements.

Within a simulation, after an initial simulation warm-up of 600 seconds, logs are extracted in windows of 1,000 seconds. These usually contain 8-9 complete cycles on average. Thus, each data exemplar consists of a set of waveforms of different signals and detectors, queue lengths, and turn movement counts for a window of 1,000 seconds \((T = 200)\), aggregated at 5-second resolution.

A large dataset of 5 million such exemplars is thus generated, accounting for 30 million traffic cycles of simulation. The dataset is then split for training and testing in the ratio of 70:30.

The creation of such a vast dataset involved considerable engineering effort. The entire pipeline was implemented in the Python programming language. A multiprocessing library was used to run up to 60 parallel instances of SUMO and preprocess output XML logs in batches. Numpy (Harris et al., 2020) and Dask (Rocklin, 2015) were then used to create vectors for training and testing. These vectors were stored in HDF5 format using the H5PY (Collette, 2013) library.

Implementation, training, and evaluation of the deep learning models was done using the PyTorch (Paszke et al., 2019) library. University of Florida’s HiPerGator supercomputing resources were used to train and test multiple models in parallel.

We use this dataset for modelling a universal approximator for predicting turn movement counts. The inputs to the model are:

- Detector actuations for all advance detectors (four detectors)
- Detector actuations at stop bar detectors for through-right and left buffers (eight detectors)
- Detector actuations at early detectors of nearby intersections (outflow detectors) (four detectors).

The information from these 16 detectors is used to predict turn movement counts. The detector actuations are aggregated to some level to construct detector waveforms. These detector waveforms are in turn used as input to the neural network models.

4 MACHINE LEARNING MODELS FOR TMC PREDICTION

The input to the models is detector waveforms (aggregated to some time interval) at stop bar and advance detectors. The input layer has \(16 \times (\text{numberoftimesteps})\) neurons, each neuron takes input from one detector and one time point.

The waveforms are represented as 1-D vectors, each with \(T\) components. Here \(T\) refers to the length of time a particular sensor’s data is being considered, with each component being aggregated at a 5-second level.

We performed different experiments to analyze how the following parameters affect the TMC prediction.
• **Prediction Window**: This defines the time window for which we predict the TMCs. Based on our results, we observed that as the size of the prediction window increases, the accuracy for predicting turning movement counts increases.

• **Waveform Aggregation Level**: This denotes the time resolution for each step of the waveform constructed from detector actuations. We vary this to find the optimal value of aggregation level for the waveform (5 sec, 15 sec, 25 sec, etc.).

We now describe a modular neural network architecture where input is transformed to the first hidden layer by sharing a common weight matrix among the detector waveforms of all the directions. The basic reasoning is that the detector waveforms (stop bar and advance) of the four directions would have similar properties. So, for the feed-forward network we analyze the weights connecting the inputs to first hidden layer. Figure 10 shows the heat map of weights connecting the input layer to the first hidden layer of the feed-forward network. In the plot the absolute value of weights is taken, multiplied by 100 to highlight the trends. The red marker in the plot separates the four

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prediction Window</th>
<th>Waveform Aggregation level</th>
<th>MSE on Test Set</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>375 sec</td>
<td>5 sec</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>375 sec</td>
<td>15 sec</td>
<td>0.0005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>375 sec</td>
<td>25 sec</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>375 sec</td>
<td>75 sec</td>
<td>0.0004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>375 sec</td>
<td>375 sec</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Table showing MSE on test set for prediction window of 375 seconds for different waveform aggregation levels.
Figure 5: Actual vs. predicted turning movement counts for six different movements using a waveform model. The y-axis represents particular movements; the x-axis represents random exemplars of the test set.

Table 4: Table showing MSE on test set for different prediction windows.

<table>
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<td>15 sec</td>
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<td>0.0008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000 sec</td>
<td>20 sec</td>
<td>0.0008</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6: Plot showing MSE for eastbound through traffic for different bins, comparing different waveform aggregation levels.

Figure 7: Plot showing percentage error for comparing different bins. This plot suggests that the model is performing well irrespective of the saturation level: (a) southbound through; (b) eastbound through.

Figure 8: Comparison of percentage error for different bins comparing a fully connected network with the modular architecture. We can see that the modular architecture performs equally well with a lower number of parameters.

5 CONCLUSIONS

We have developed machine learning models for predicting turn movement counts for a single intersection, given information from stop bar and advance detectors. All of these data are available from ground sensors. Hence, this model can be easily adapted to practical datasets.
Subcycle-based Neural Network Algorithms for Turning Movement Count Prediction

• We developed neural network models for predicting turning movement counts for an intersection, given information from stop bar and advance detectors of the intersection and advance detectors of upstream intersections.

• We developed a system for generating synthetic datasets with traffic distributions close to real-world. We used detector controller logs from 300 intersections in Orlando to reconstruct inflow waveforms and fed them into SUMO for running simulations.

• We prove that using detector waveforms instead of aggregated traffic volumes leads to better accuracy for predicting turning movement counts.

• The neural network models developed perform well both under unsaturated and oversaturated conditions.

• We developed a modular neural network architecture for predicting turning movement counts. Instead of using different weight matrices across four directions (as in general feed-forward networks), we use a common weight matrix for all

Figure 8: Plot showing percentage error for comparing different prediction windows. This plot suggests that accuracy increases when predicting for a larger window size: (a) eastbound through; (b) southbound through.

Figure 9: Plot showing comparison between fully connected and weight-sharing model. The weight-sharing model is comparable or better.

Figure 10: Plot showing heat map of weights connecting input layer and first hidden layer. The horizontal black bar separates the four directions. The ordering of detector waveforms along the y-axis is as follows: east, west, north, and south.
the four directions in the first hidden layer of the network. This modular architecture performs equally well and has fewer learnable parameters in comparison with a feed-forward network.

Acknowledgements

The work was supported in part by NSF CNS 1922782 and by the Florida Department of transportation (FDOT) District 5. The opinions, findings and conclusions expressed in this publication are those of the authors and not necessarily those of FDOT D5.

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