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Modelling of Traffic Flow with Bayesian Autoregressive Model with Variable Partial Forgetting

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Abstract

Computing the future road traffic intensities in urban and suburban areas is considered in this paper. The statistical properties of the traffic flow advocate the use of a low-order linear autoregressive models, in which the previous intensities determine the following ones. To achieve adaptivity, the Bayesian modelling framework was chosen. The regression coefficients are considered random, hence they are modelled using a suitable distribution. The incoming data then recursively correct this distribution. A significant improvement of the overall modelling performance is further reached with techniques allowing the parameters vary by modification of their distribution. We present the partial forgetting method, allowing to individually track the parameters even in the case of their different variability rate. Division of the reality into several hypotheses leads to different statistical distributions of the respective parameters. The obtained mixture of distributions is then projected back into a single distribution of the same type.

1 Introduction

Statistical modelling of traffic intensities in the urban areas becomes a significant task [6]. Increasing road traffic is accompanied by a wide range of negative factors, influencing the environment (air pollution), local economy (“opportunity costs”, fuel costs, wear of vehicles and roads), health and other domains, see, e.g. [7, 13, 14]. Obviously, there appear yet many other externalities.

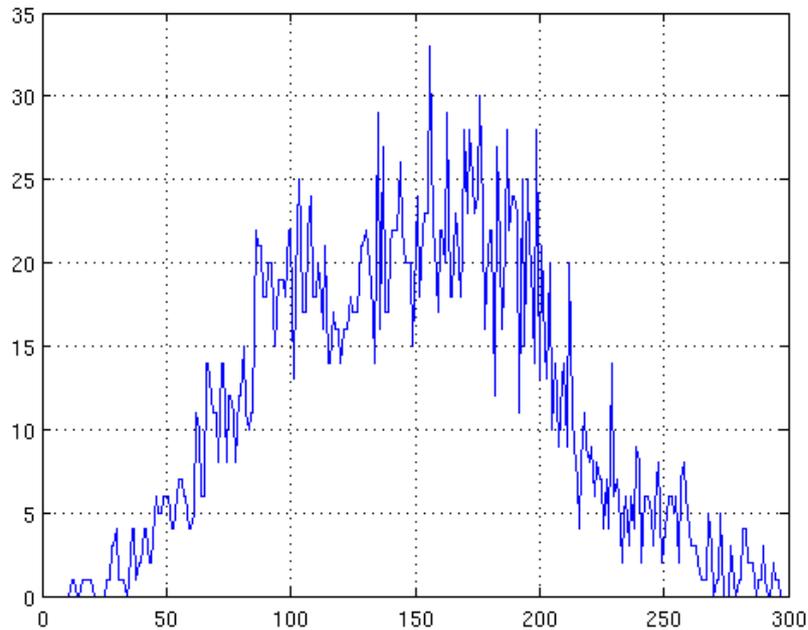


Figure 1: Example of daily traffic intensities

Modelling of traffic intensities may be evaluated with the autoregressive models of low order, but their basic forms can fail, simply due to the short-time variability of the measurements’ mean value. To solve this non-stationarity, we employ an offset to model the short-time mean value.

Specific notation: ‘ denotes transposition, $f(a|b)$ is a conditional probability density function in which a random variable (and its realization) a is conditioned by a random variable b (or its realization). $\mathbb{E}[\cdot]$ denotes mean value of the argument. Time $t = 1, 2, \dots$ is discrete. x^* denotes a set of x values. Furthermore, let us introduce the notational convention

$$f(x = x_t|y = y_t, \mathbf{d}(\tau)) \equiv f_{t|\tau}f(x|y).$$

2 Normal regressive model

We employ the n -th order autoregressive model AR(n) in the form

$$y_t = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i y_{t-i} + k_t + e_t, \quad t = 1, 2, \dots, \quad (1)$$

where y_t denotes traffic intensity measured at time instant t , a_i are regression coefficients and k_t denotes the offset of the model. Its purpose is to model the mean value of the signal. The term e_t stands for the normally distributed white noise with zero mean and constant variance σ^2 [12],

$$e_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2). \quad (2)$$

Under the assumptions on noise whiteness, the regressive model (1) may be expressed with a probability density function (pdf) [8]

$$f_{t|t-1}(y|\Theta) \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\psi}'_t \boldsymbol{\theta}_t, \sigma^2) \quad (3)$$

where $m = n + 2$, $\boldsymbol{\psi}_t \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t \in \mathbb{R}^m$ denote a column regression vector and a vector of regression parameters,

$$\boldsymbol{\psi}_t = (y_t, \dots, y_{t-n}, 1)' \quad \text{and} \quad \boldsymbol{\theta}_t = (a_{1,t}, \dots, a_{n,t}, k_t)'$$

The term Θ_t is a set of model parameters, which in the case of the normal model (3) is $\Theta_t = \{\boldsymbol{\theta}_t, \sigma^2\}$. In this work, we focus especially on the regression coefficients aggregated in $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$. Under general conditions, it is possible to avoid using the offset k_t , however, it will play a fundamental role in the further reading.

2.1 Estimation

Suppose that the model (3) is known up to a set of parameters Θ_t , whose elements are to be estimated. The Bayesian paradigm, considering the parameters to be random variables, allows us to represent their distribution with a pdf

$$f_{t|t-1}(\Theta) \equiv f(\Theta_t | \mathbf{d}(t-1)). \quad (4)$$

Apparently, their distribution is conditionally dependent on the previous measurements, which are besides a potential expert information the only source of information available to the model. The estimation steps are:

2.1 Estimation

Data update: incorporating new measurements into the distribution of parameters through the Bayes' theorem [8]:

$$f_{t|t}(\Theta) = \frac{f_{t|t-1}(y|\Theta)f_{t|t-1}(\Theta)}{\int_{\Theta^*} f_{t|t-1}(y|\Theta)f_{t|t-1}(\Theta_t)d\Theta} \quad (5)$$

Time update: reflecting the (potential) time-variability of parameters in Θ_{t+1} [8]:

$$f_{t+1|t}(\Theta) = \int_{\Theta^*} f(\Theta_{t+1}|\Theta_t, \mathbf{d}(t))f_{t|t-1}(\Theta)d\Theta. \quad (6)$$

Let us first analyse the time update procedure. If the parameters are constant, then the normal model $f(\Theta_{t+1}|\Theta_t, \mathbf{d}(t))$ is identical with the Dirac distribution. In this case, the integral in (6) represents an identity functional and

$$f_{t+1|t}(\Theta) = f_{t|t}(\Theta).$$

The consequences are obvious: (i) the time update may be omitted if the parameters are constant, and (ii) under the normality of the model and under the quadratic criterion, the constant parameters' point estimates are identical to the frequentists' ones obtained from the static linear regression.

The recursive Bayesian estimation exploits the fact, that given a conjugate prior distribution, the posterior is of the same type. The normal distribution, describing the model (3) is a member of the exponential family; it can be proved, that any member of this family, meeting certain conditions, possesses a conjugate counterpart. One of these conditions is the existence of a sufficient statistics [3], allowing to avoid working with a large set of data by their transformation into a set of smaller non-increasing dimension

$$f(a|\mathbf{d}(t)) = f(a|\mathbf{S}_t). \quad (7)$$

The single-output normal model (3) is conjugated with the Normal inverse-gamma $\mathcal{NiG}(\mathbf{V}, \nu)$ prior. Its sufficient statistics are the number of degrees of freedom $\nu \in \mathbb{R}$, sometimes referred to as the counter, and the extended information matrix $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$. The data update rules (5) for these two statistics are [12]

$$V_{t|t} = V_{t|t-1} + \begin{pmatrix} y_t \\ \boldsymbol{\psi}_t \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_t \\ \boldsymbol{\psi}_t \end{pmatrix}' \quad (8)$$

$$\nu_{t|t} = \nu_{t|t-1} + 1 \quad (9)$$

2.2 Prediction

The direct use of statistics V can lead to numerical difficulties due to the inversion operation. Therefore, we prefer to use its factorized representation, characterizing alternative definition of the \mathcal{NiG} pdf. The \mathcal{NiG} pdf with the decomposition $\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{L}'\mathbf{D}\mathbf{L}$, where \mathbf{L} is a unit lower triangular matrix and \mathbf{D} is a diagonal matrix, has the form [8]

$$\mathcal{GiW}(\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{D}, \nu) \equiv \frac{\sigma^{-(\nu+n+2)}}{\mathcal{I}(\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{D}, \nu)} \times \exp \left\{ \frac{-1}{2\sigma^2} \left[(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})' \mathbf{C}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) + D_y \right] \right\}.$$

With the generalization of \mathbf{L} and \mathbf{D} to block matrices of corresponding dimensions (D_y scalar)

$$\mathbf{L} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ \mathbf{L}_{y\psi} & \mathbf{L}_{\psi} & \\ & & \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{D} = \begin{bmatrix} D_y & & \\ & & \\ & & \mathbf{D}_{\psi} \end{bmatrix}$$

$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \equiv \mathbf{L}_{\psi}^{-1} \mathbf{L}_{y\psi}$ is the least-squares estimate of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$,

$\mathbf{C} \equiv \mathbf{L}_{\psi}^{-1} \mathbf{D}_{\psi}^{-1} (\mathbf{L}_{\psi}^{-1})' \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is the covariance of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$,

$D_y \in \mathbb{R}^+$ is the least squares remainder,

\mathcal{I} stands for the normalization integral

$$\mathcal{I}(\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{D}, \nu) \equiv \Gamma(0.5\nu) \sqrt{\frac{2^{\nu} (2\pi)^n}{D_y^{\nu} |\mathbf{D}_{\psi}|}}. \quad (10)$$

More on properties of the distribution can be found in related literature, e.g., [8].

2.2 Prediction

Bayesian prediction with a parametric model follows from the rule

$$f_{t+1|t}(y) = \int_{\boldsymbol{\Theta}^*} f_{t+1|t}(y|\boldsymbol{\Theta}) f_{t|t}(\boldsymbol{\Theta}) d\boldsymbol{\Theta} = \frac{\mathcal{I}_{t+1}}{\mathcal{I}_t}. \quad (11)$$

Under the assumption of model normality and under the quadratic criterion

$$\sum_{t \in t^*} (y_t - \boldsymbol{\psi}'_t \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_t)^2 \rightarrow \min$$

we may use the point estimates of $a_{1;t}, \dots, a_{n;t}$ and k_t to obtain the prediction of y_{t+1} . Generally, the knowledge of regression vector for any t allows us to evaluate the predictions relevant to this index. This is equivalent to multiple steps-ahead prediction, or smoothing if we regress some intermittent value.

3 Estimation with forgetting

It has already been mentioned in Section 2.1 that the potential parameters time variability often has to be taken into account. If we deal with traffic intensities, the time update becomes very important. The intensities vary during day and week, which can be expressed as the time variation of the mean value. Recall the model (1) and remind, that the mean value is modelled with the offset k . Hence the goal is to release the offset and let it vary with the true intensities.

If we further analyse the situation, the lack of knowledge of parameters' time evolution becomes evident. The only known data are the past intensity measurements and there is no other clue. In this case, we employ forgetting in place of the time update (6). Instead of explicit modelling of parameters' evolution in time, or finite data window modelling, we release the parameters by gradual discarding the old and potentially outdated information. There exist several forgetting methods, e.g., directional forgetting [10] or linear forgetting [11], however, the most popular yet the most basic one is the exponential forgetting [5, 12]. For the Bayesian models, it is defined as follows

$$f_{t+1|t}(\Theta) = [f_{t|t}(\Theta)]^\alpha; \quad \alpha \in (0, 1).$$

The term α stands for the forgetting factor; it is usually greater than 0.95. In the normal model (3), whose prior pdf is of normal inverse-gamma type, the forgetting demonstrates itself in the form

$$\mathbf{V}_{t+1|t} = \alpha \mathbf{V}_{t|t} = \alpha \mathbf{L}'_{t|t} \mathbf{D}_{t|t} \mathbf{L}_{t|t} \quad (12)$$

$$\nu_{t+1|t} = \alpha \nu_{t|t}. \quad (13)$$

3.1 Hypotheses of partial forgetting

The exponential forgetting is doomed to fail if used for modelling of dynamic systems with different variability of parameters, which becomes evident if we summarize the properties of traffic intensities:

1. In certain time intervals, e.g., during nights, probably no parameter varies.
2. In other time intervals all parameters vary slowly.
3. Generally, during the daytime, the mean value varies significantly.

3.2 Determination of probabilities

Let these three cases label as hypotheses H_0 , H_1 and H_2 and suppose, that at each time instant, the regression coefficients obey some true distribution $g_{t+1|t}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$. Now, we formalize the hypotheses as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} H_0 &: \mathbb{E} [g_{t+1|t}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{d}(t), H_0] = f_{t|t}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ H_1 &: \mathbb{E} [g_{t+1|t}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{d}(t), H_1] = [f_{t|t}(\boldsymbol{\theta})]^\alpha \\ H_2 &: \mathbb{E} [g_{t+1|t}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{d}(t), H_2] = f_{t|t}(a_1, \dots, a_n, k) [f_{t|t}(k)]^\alpha \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

where again $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ and where $\mathbb{E} [g_{t+1|t}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{d}(t), H_i]$ has the meaning of a point estimate of the true but unknown pdf. It expresses our presumption of the true pdf under the knowledge of data $\mathbf{d}(t)$, parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t+1}$ and the true hypothesis H_i at time t . The meaning of H_2 is simple – we decompose the pdf $f_{t|t}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ using the chain rule and forget only the marginal pdf related to the offset. Each of the three hypotheses characterizes one specific case, but any of them can appear during the modelling. The conceptually correct solution is to use the mixture in which each pdf is weighted by its non-negative probability $p_{i,t|t} \leq 1$

$$\mathbb{E} [g_{t+1|t}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{d}(t)] = \sum_{i=0}^2 p_{i,t+1|t} \mathbb{E} [g_{t+1|t}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{d}(t), H_i], \quad \sum_{i=0}^2 p_{i,t+1|t} = 1. \quad (15)$$

3.2 Determination of probabilities

The probabilities $p_{i,t|t}$ express the probability of each hypothesis at the particular time instant. Their evaluation is as follows:

Data update reflecting the modelling abilities of the hypotheses

$$p_{i;t|t} \propto p_{i;t|t-1} \int_{\boldsymbol{\Theta}^*} f_{t|t-1}(y | \boldsymbol{\Theta}) \mathbb{E} [f_{t|t-1}(\boldsymbol{\Theta}) | \boldsymbol{\Theta}, H_i, \mathbf{d}(t)] d\boldsymbol{\Theta}. \quad (16)$$

Time update allowing the weights to vary

$$p_{i;t+1|t} \propto p_{i;t|t}^\alpha, \quad (17)$$

Another approach represents the use of Monte Carlo methodology, e.g., the particle filter and the Rao-Blackwellized particle filtering in particular.

3.3 Approximation

The mixture-based modelling requires a complex treatment, which discards its use for our purpose. To avoid it, we prefer to approximate the mixture (15) by a single pdf, using the Kullback-Leibler divergence [9] as a minimization criterion.

The Kullback-Leibler divergence of two pdfs f, g of a random variable X , acting on a common set X^* , holds the following form:

$$\text{KL}(f||g) = \int_{X^*} f(x) \ln \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} dx. \quad (18)$$

It can be shown, that the Kullback-Leibler divergence is a non-negative functional with equality for $f = g$ almost everywhere [1].

We search the argument minimizing the expectation on the Kullback-Leibler divergence,

$$\tilde{g}_{t+1|t}(\Theta) = \arg \min_{g \in \mathcal{G}_{t+1|t}^*} \mathbb{E} \left[\text{KL} (g_{t+1|t} || \tilde{g}_{t+1|t}) \mid \Theta, \mathbf{d}(t) \right].$$

The pdf $\tilde{g}_{t+1|t}$ represents the best approximation of the mixture (15) and may be used for further modelling.

For two \mathcal{NiG} distributions the Kullback-Leibler divergence has the following form [8]:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{KL}(g||\tilde{g}) &= \ln \frac{\Gamma(0.5\tilde{\nu})}{\Gamma(0.5\nu)} - 0.5 \ln |\mathbf{C}\tilde{\mathbf{C}}^{-1}| + 0.5\tilde{\nu} \ln \frac{D_y}{\tilde{D}_y} \\ &+ 0.5(\nu - \tilde{\nu})\Upsilon(0.5\nu) - 0.5n - 0.5\nu + 0.5\text{Tr}(\mathbf{C}\tilde{\mathbf{C}}^{-1}) \\ &+ 0.5\frac{\nu}{D_y} \left[(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} - \hat{\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}})' \tilde{\mathbf{C}}^{-1} (\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} - \hat{\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}}) + \tilde{D}_y \right], \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

where $\Upsilon(\cdot)$ denotes the digamma function.

Let us substitute the mixture obtained in (15) for $g_{t+1|t}$ and search for its best approximation $\tilde{g}_{t+1|t}$ by minimization of (19) with respect to the parameters of the \mathcal{NiG} distribution. The resulting parameters are as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{t+1|t} &= \left(\sum_{i=0}^2 \lambda_{i;t+1|t} \frac{\nu_{i;t|t}}{D_{yi;t|t}} \right)^{-1} \left(\sum_{i=0}^2 \lambda_{i;t+1|t} \frac{\nu_{i;t|t}}{D_{yi;t|t}} \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{i;t|t} \right) \\ \tilde{D}_{y;t+1|t} &= \tilde{\nu}_{i;t|t} \left(\sum_{i=0}^2 \lambda_{i;t+1|t} \frac{\nu_{i;t|t}}{D_{yi;t|t}} \right)^{-1} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{C}}_{t+1|t} &= \sum_{i=0}^2 \lambda_{i;t+1|t} \frac{\nu_{i;t|t}}{D_{yi;t|t}} \times \left[(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{i;t|t} - \hat{\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}}_{i;t|t}) (\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{i;t|t} - \hat{\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}}_{i;t|t})' \right] + \sum_{i=0}^2 \lambda_{i;t+1|t} \mathbf{C}_{i;t|t} \end{aligned}$$

$$\tilde{\nu}_{t+1|t} = \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + \frac{4}{3}(A - \ln 2)}}{2(A - \ln 2)}$$

$$A = \ln \left(\sum_{i=0}^2 \lambda_{i;t+1|t} \frac{\nu_{i;t|t}}{D_{yi;t|t}} \right) + \sum_{i=0}^2 \lambda_{i;t+1|t} \ln D_{yi;t|t} - \sum_{i=0}^2 \lambda_{i;t+1|t} \Upsilon(0.5\nu_{i;t|t}).$$

The proof can be found in [2]. A normal inverse-gamma distribution with these parameters may be used as the best approximation of the true parameters pdf in (3).

4 Example

We use the Mixtools library developed at the Institute of Information Theory and Automation, Academy of Sciences of the Czech Republic and the python Bayesian modelling library pybamo. In this example, we demonstrate the modelling of traffic intensities depicted in the Fig. 1 using an autoregressive model of first order. The preset non-informative prior has parameters $\text{diag}V_0 = (0.1, 0.01, 0.01)$ and $\nu_0 = 10$. The forgetting factor α for H_1 is 0.95, for H_2 it is 0.9. The probabilities of hypotheses are flattened with $\alpha = 0.99$. The course of parameter estimates is depicted in the Figure 2. Evidently, the offset follows quite well the variations of the traffic intensity mean value. The Fig. 3 shows the course when the estimation was evaluated without forgetting. The one-step ahead prediction errors (partial forgetting) have mean -0.017, median 0.002 and standard deviation 3.673.

5 Conclusions

The paper described the Bayesian modelling of traffic intensities with low-order normal autoregressive models. As the parameters (regression coefficients) are supposed to vary with different rates, the use of partial forgetting method was proposed. The method was briefly described and the results were demonstrated in an example.

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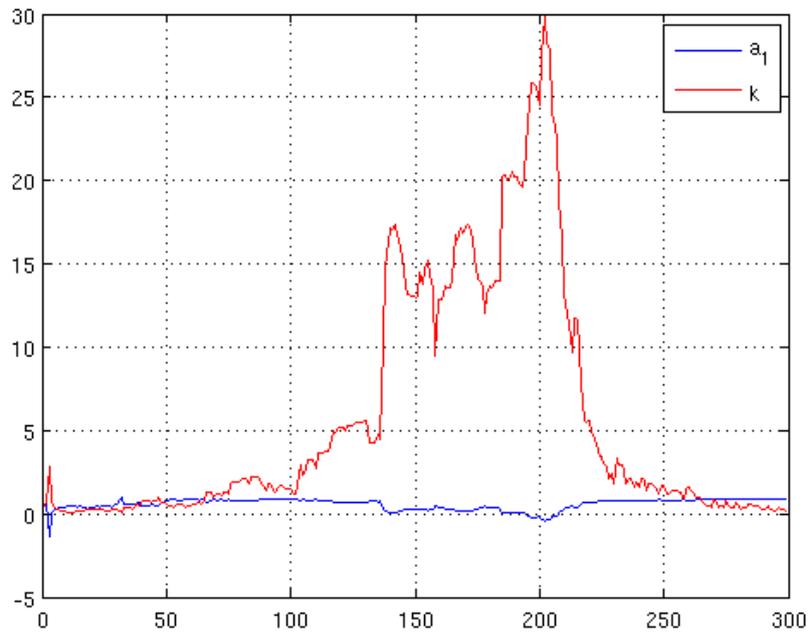


Figure 2: Evolution of parameter estimates (partial forgetting).

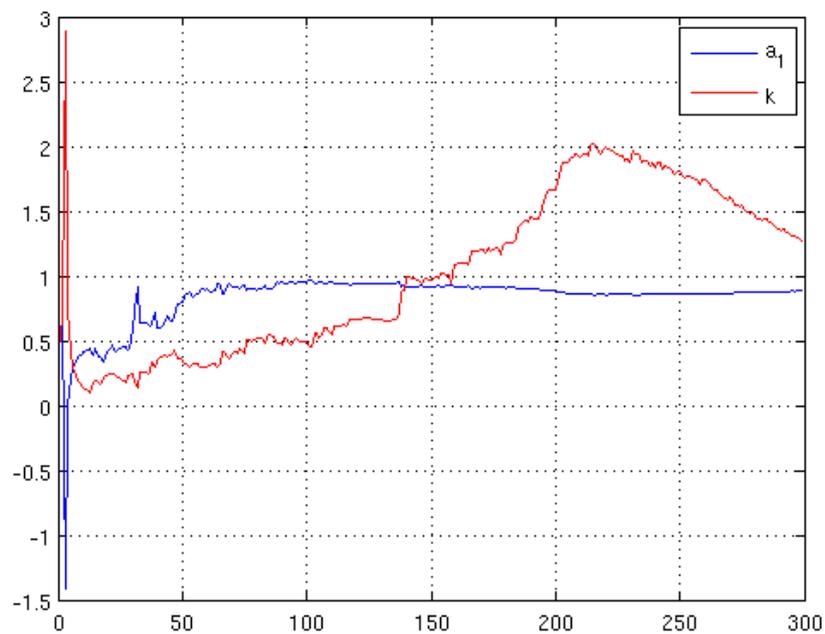


Figure 3: Evolution of parameter estimates (no forgetting).

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