

# WARWICK algorithm for separating recurrent and outstanding congestion in Motorways and long-term travel time estimation\*

Alvaro Cabrejas Egea<sup>1</sup> and Colm Connaughton<sup>2</sup>

**Abstract**—Accurate highway travel times estimation is a requirement for a working for Advanced Traveler Information Systems (ATIS). Here we present the WARWICK method for separating recurrent and outstanding congestion from a travel time time series using wavelet analysis and then produce estimates for the following week in an accurate and computationally inexpensive manner. We train and test this method using 12 weeks of real time travel data gathered at link level in the M6 and M11 in the United Kingdom. The approach is based on a time travel series analysis of travel time data from the UK's National Traffic Information Service (NTIS) currently in use. Time series of travel times are characterised by a noisy background component showing the expected seasonal patterns and occasional large spikes associated with congestion events. The separation algorithm here presented uses statistical analysis of the Wavelet Transform of the travel times across different time scales to split the original signal into two signals in the time-frequency domain: background and spikes, and then inverse transform them to use them for estimation. We process and combine 8 weeks of these signals, using spectral filtering and non-parametric locally weighted regression (LWR) to predict travel time in the link in the following week with a resolution of one minute, repeating this process 4 times on a rolling basis. We find that the error is meaningfully reduced compared to estimates obtained by basic time segmentation of the data and compared to the estimates published by the NTIS system.

## I. INTRODUCTION

### A. Background

Highways England (HE) is responsible for most Motorways and major roads in England, comprising the Strategic Road Network (SRN). The SRN is monitored by the National Traffic Information System [1], which collects and processes travel time, speed, flow and overhead space data in real time using sensors on the road and in vehicles. The smallest components of the SRN are the so called links, which are segments of motorway between 500 and 20000 metres in length. NTIS uses the historic series of real time logged data to assign each link in the network with a traffic profile. Traffic profiles contain, for each minute of a day in a given date, the expected travel time to transverse the link to which it is associated. These profile values are published together with the measured travel times, but the methodology followed to calculate them is not publicly available.

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<sup>1</sup>Alvaro Cabrejas Egea is with MathSys Centre for Doctoral Training, University of Warwick, CV4 7AL, Coventry, United Kingdom and The Alan Turing Institute, NW1 2DB, London, United Kingdom a.cabrejas-gea@warwick.ac.uk

<sup>2</sup>Colm Connaughton with the Warwick Mathematics Institute & Centre for Complexity Science, University of Warwick, CV4 7AL, Coventry, United Kingdom c.p.connaughton@warwick.ac.uk

While the profiles, in fairly used roads, vary with the day of the week and time of the day, their inter-week variation remains low, with major trends changes taking longer (order of months) than the biggest temporal unit considered (weeks). This display of stability over time, means that calculating profiles is a different problem when compared with short-term forecasting. Since there is no a-priori mathematical definition of typical travel times, here, we will take it as the value that minimises the Mean Absolute Relative Error (MARE) or Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE), when comparing it with the subsequently sampled real travel times.

In this paper, we follow up on the future work in [2], providing a novel algorithm capable of generating one week of expected travel times, removing the heuristically set threshold in said paper and using only governmental agencies publicly available data. Our approach is based on spectral and statistical analysis of previous data and does not require any a-priori segmentation of days into classes. Rather, the algorithm relies on patterns of intra- and inter-day variability which are learned from input data.

### B. Previous Work

Available literature on travel times is extensive, but most recent research is focuses on short-term forecasting with fewer studies looking into the long term [3] [4]. From a methodological point of view, statistical methods and machine learning take most of the attention [5]. Within the last group, neural networks are getting a level or relevance [6] [7]. Others take closer approaches to this paper: using historical data [8] [9], differentiating between peak and non-peak [10], performing spectral analysis [11] or Locally Weighted Regressions [12] [13] [14] [15] [16] [17]. Wavelet use has been previously found useful in combination with Kalman filters [18], neural networks [19] [20] [21] [24] and statistical analysis [22] [23]; but these either cover short predictions, use the Wavelet analysis of travel times for other purposes such as incident detection, or don't focus on the spectral properties across timescales or are not real-world data based. Comparisons between some of these studies and others can be found in [25], [26], [27] and [28]. Most of these methods have been specifically tuned for the conditions on which they have been developed and transferability to other sites is often not evaluated. To assess the transferability of our method, it is tested on two different motorways and 39 sites and scored independently in each of them. The method here presented, uses a combination of Continuous Wavelet Transform [29], tree decisions, spectral analysis, and Locally Weighted Regression (LWR).

## II. EXAMPLES OF TRAVEL TIMES

The most straightforward way to measure the instantaneous state of traffic over a stretch of road is the vehicles' travel times. These are normally measured by induction loops placed under the lanes. The instantaneous travel time measured for a given segment of road for a given minute of the day, will be the average time that the vehicles passing through it in said minute took to go from the entry to the exit loops. In Figure 1, it can be observed that while most

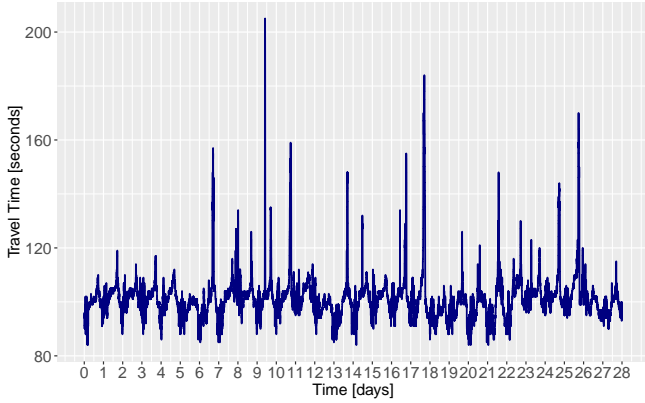


Fig. 1: Travel time in link 1170079 of the M6 over a period of 28 days between 07/Mar/2016 and 04/Apr/2016.

of the time, the travel time in a link repeats a vaguely predictable patterns during most of the days, with minima during nights corresponding with the bounded free flow time (except for speeding drivers). As the morning rush starts, travel time will rise leading to the morning traffic jams which are generated from the collective drivers behaviour. More effects of this collective dynamics can be observed in the afternoon during the evening rush; normally being able to find a plateau between these two peaks. After this, the travel times progressively decay towards the night period of free-flow regime. In Figure 1, we can also observe that there are a series of peaks found out of this oscillating yet typically bounded behaviour. In these, the travel time can increase up to several times fold the normal values. These large oscillations are not nearly as predictable both in intensity and inter-oscillation period than the recurrent congestion described previously. Lastly, in figure 2, we can

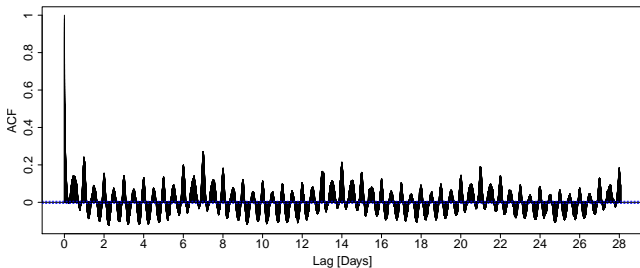


Fig. 2: Autocorrelation function of the Travel Time series in figure 1 with a maximum lag of 4 weeks.

see the Autocorrelation Function for the Travel Time, plotted with a maximum lag of 4 weeks. Here we can see a double seasonal pattern with periods of 1 day and 1 week. This regularity seen in time travel time series can and is often used by modellers to approximate and forecast travel times as is explored over the next sections.

## III. BASIC METHODS FOR PROFILE ESTIMATION

### A. Use of Exponentially Weighted Moving Average

As explained in [2], the most basic approach to profile estimation is to apply an Exponentially Weighted Moving Average (EWMA) on the same minute of every day, assuming that similar behaviour is expected at the same time of the day. In this manner, the estimated profile  $\hat{x}(i, d+1)$  on the  $i$ -th minute of a given date  $d$ , for a memory parameter  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$  and with measured travel time  $x_i^d$ , will be:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{x}_i^{d+1} &= \alpha x_i^d + (1 - \alpha) \hat{x}_i^d \\ &= \alpha x_i^d + \alpha^2 x_i^{d-1} + (1 - \alpha - \alpha^2) \hat{x}_i^{d-1} \\ &= \alpha x_i^d + \alpha^2 x_i^{d-1} + \alpha^3 x_i^{d-2} + \left(1 - \sum_{i=1}^3 \alpha^i\right) \hat{x}_i^{d-1} \quad (1) \\ &= \dots\end{aligned}$$

The main issue with EWMA-based profiles is the effects generated due to the way in which the memory decays as we can see above in equation 1. Recent measurements are

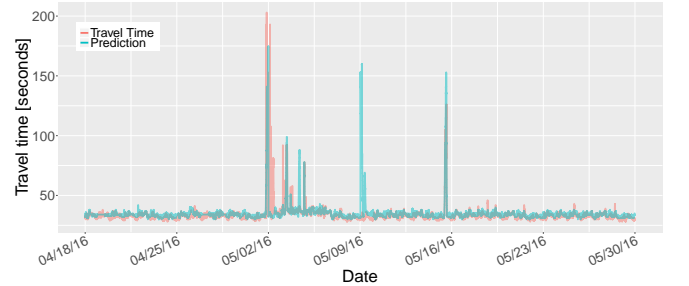


Fig. 3: False EWMA predictions after a large deviation.

weighted exponentially more heavily than events farther in the past. Thus if an extreme fluctuation occurs, the following profile estimates will be biased, partially replicating this event and over-estimating the travel times until enough new measurements arrive to dissipate this effect.

### B. Segmentation

In addition, to recognize and use the specific differences of some special dates in the year, and the intra-week variation, this family of methods makes heavy use of date based segmentation. The EWMA is applied across dates which fall in the same category (i.e. Saturdays, weekdays, New Year, ...). This segmentation in classes, when combined with the shortcomings presented in Section III-A can generate some long lasting perturbations, which can propagate for weeks into the future predictions, while not being reflected on the observed travel times. A possible instance of this effect can be seen in Figure 3. It follows that in order to generate a

valid segmentation, operational and geographical expertise about specific roads is needed, given that the EWMA approach is effective exclusively for endemic congestion. This dependence can lead to the creation of legacy systems which become difficult to maintain after a few years, decreasing their usability over time unless extra effort is put into transmitting this knowledge and continually train new staff. These modelling and staffing limitations make Segmentation and EWMA based profiles suboptimal both in performance and operation.

#### IV. DATA

##### A. Data Gathering and Selection

Data was gathered from 2 different Motorways in England. The M6 and M11 were selected due to their high usage and combination of recurrent and outstanding congestion, being key in several heavily used commuting routes.

- The dataset comprises 90 days (12 complete weeks) of data (07/03/2016-05/06/2016).
- Links were discarded if they had more than 10% of missing data or if they contained any access ramps.
- The previous condition left 14 different links in the M6 and 25 links in the case of the M11.
- Whenever missing data was detected for 10 or less minutes, it was linearly interpolated.
- Whenever missing data was detected for over 10 minutes, it was left as missing values.

The initial 8 weeks are used by the algorithm to predict one complete week ahead. One week later, the process is repeated, deleting the oldest week of training data and incorporating measurements of the week predicted in the previous step. This procedure is performed 4 times.

##### B. Data Contents

For each link on a specific date, the data consists of one sample per minute, containing:

- Measured travel time
- Profile (expected) travel time
- Traffic Flow
- Overhead Space

#### V. BACKGROUND AND SPIKES

##### A. Characteristics

As described in [2], during our initial exploration of the data we found that, from the point of view of travel times, traffic operates in two differentiated regimes that we denominated Background and Spikes.

- Background:
  - Stable around a mean value.
  - Oscillates with small amplitude and high frequency.
  - Suitable for spectral filtering (smoothing) and seasonal analysis.
- Spikes:
  - Zero most of the time.
  - Quickly go to extreme values.

- Oscillates with great amplitude and high inter-oscillation period, creating far reaching effects.
- Non-periodic as per detection in time-frequency domain, however, non harmonic seasonality can be extracted via non-parametric regression .

In this context, if we assume Gaussian noise  $\xi$ , and given the additive properties of wavelet decomposition, the decomposition will be of the form:

$$\text{Travel Time}_t = \text{Background}_t + \text{Spikes}_t + \xi \quad (2)$$

The objective is to separate them in such a way that the moments of smooth and normal operation, together with the recurring congestion are captured as part of the Background and used for spectral smoothing, attempting to mitigate the prediction error induced by the high frequency oscillations and obtaining a basic view of what can be daily observed, so seasonal patterns can be extracted in the shorter and longer periods shown in 2. Meanwhile, the spikes, containing the non-recurring congestion, can be treated separately searching for seasonality left in larger time scales than those in which the travel time signal oscillates, as also suggested by Fig. 2. Ideally, after this seasonal extraction step of the decomposition, the remainder should only contain isolated large rare events deviating from the profile and white noise.

##### B. Wavelet Time Series Decomposition

To perform the decomposition, we will take advantage of the additive properties of the wavelet transform. First the time series  $\vec{x}_t$  of length  $t$ , and elements  $x_i$  with  $i \in [0, t]$  is turned into a zero mean series  $\vec{x}_t - \text{mean}(\vec{x}_t)$  and used as input for a Continuous Wavelet Transform (CWT) [30] [31] using a Morse wavelet [32] and 140 timescales levels. The output of this first transform is a complex matrix  $\vec{W}_{\text{levels} \times t}$ , for the elements of which we calculate their modulus  $\rho$ , phase  $\phi$  and power  $P$ . A heatmap of  $P^2$  for the original time series can be seen in the first subplot in Figure 4. In the figure we can observe that the most influential dynamics occurring during the series length, happen at the timescales where it was expected based on Figure 2, namely 1 day (1440 minutes) and 1 week (10080 minutes). In the figure, we also observe that surges in power across different timescales occur at the same time as the non-recurring congestion, since in order to approximate this signal, the CWT algorithm needs to combine several wavelets with smaller periods than those dominating the recurring part of the series.

In order to isolate this non-recurring component, the series is sequentially assessed over all the time domain for a single timescale level  $l$ , generating a series  $\vec{x}_t^l$ . After fixing  $l$ , we calculate the Median and Inter Quantile Range of  $\vec{x}_t^l$  to search for outliers. A maximum threshold value is set equal to  $T = \text{median}(\vec{x}_t^l) + \alpha * \text{IQR}(\vec{x}_t^l)$ , with  $\alpha \in [0, \text{inf}]$  being a parameter that defines how aggressively we target spikes. The results produced here were obtained with  $\alpha = 1$  to showcase the most basic setup.

Then, the individual elements of  $\vec{x}_t^l$ ,  $x_i^l$  are individually evaluated: if found below the limit, they are stored in a Background container  $B_i^l = x_i^l$ ; otherwise, the fraction below

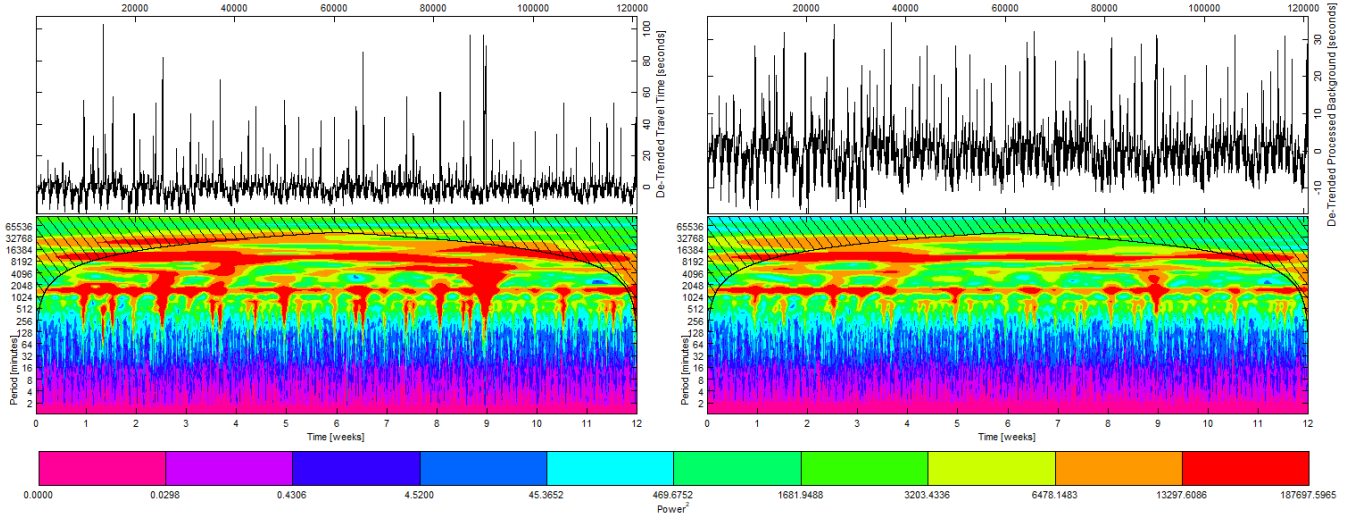


Fig. 4: Left: Power of DWT of the original Travel Time series for Link 1170079 of the M6. Right: Power of DWT of the extracted Background  $\vec{B}_t$  series, as detailed in Section V-B, for Link 1170079 of the M6

the threshold will be nonetheless passed on to the background  $\vec{B}_i^l = \text{median}(\vec{x}_t^l) + \alpha * IQR(\vec{x}_t^l)$ , with the remaining part going into the Spikes storage  $\vec{S}_i^l = x_i^l - B_i^l$ .

Once all levels have been processed in this manner, we use the previous information about  $\phi$  to reconvert the two series from being characterised in terms of  $(\rho, \phi)$  to the complex components of the DWT. After this step, we apply the Inverse DWT to  $\vec{B}_t$  and  $\vec{S}_t$ , obtaining the two series that can be observed in Figure 5.

### C. Series Recombination

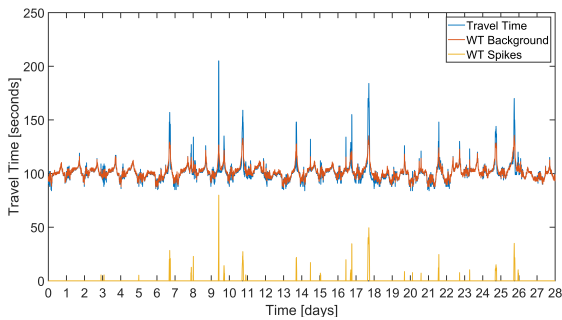


Fig. 5: Recombination post Inverse Wavelet Transform

Due to small noise introduction during the inverse transform a threshold is applied to  $\vec{S}_t$ , where elements representing spikes of less than 3 seconds in amplitude are set to zero.

For future prediction steps, an indicator function was defined, taking for every minute the value:

$$\delta_i^{spike} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x_i > \text{Threshold} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

## VI. WARWICK TRAVEL TIME PREDICTION ALGORITHM

Given the cyclic nature of traffic, the aim was a prediction algorithm that accounts for the periodic variations and endemic congestion while being resilient to fluctuations and rare events. This algorithm also should meet the tests set in [2], namely:

- Be robust, mitigating the propagation of isolated events into future estimates, unlike methods using EWMA.
- Not require the use of time segmentation and be valid for regular and "special" dates.
- Be location agnostic, the internal parameters should be set algorithmically based on the data.
- Have Gaussian, mean 0, uncorrelated residuals.
- Near flat Trend term, given the different time scales between seasonal cycles and changes in the general motorway flow.

For this we introduce the WARWICK algorithm (Wavelet Augmented Regression With spikes and baCKground) from section VI-B.

### A. Naive Segmentation (Null)

To obtain an accurate comparison of the performance of the algorithm developed in the following subsections, we coded a basic implementation of a segmentation based algorithm. It involves a weighted combination of the training data points using uniform weights. For the  $i$ -th minute of a given week and using a training set composed of the previous of  $n$  weeks (8 in this paper), the Naive Segmentation (NS) profile is:

$$\hat{x}(i, n) = \sum_{\text{week}=1}^n \frac{x_n^i}{n} \quad (4)$$

### B. WARWICK: Spectral Component

The main issue with the Background signal is the low amplitude, high frequency fluctuations that can be found

almost ubiquitously. Signal smoothing can be performed in the frequency domain by removing a range of frequencies while retaining the information bearing bands. For this task, the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) [35] was used as follows:

- 1) Calculate Background Power Spectrum using FFT
- 2) Remove frequencies corresponding to periods under 4 hours and over 1 week
- 3) Repeat for all  $n$  weeks in training set
- 4) Apply EWMA to the modified weekly Power Spectra
- 5) Compute the Inverse FFT Transform

### C. WARWICK: Seasonal Component

Seasonal-Trend Decomposition based on LOESS (STL) [33] was used for the seasonality analysis since it can handle any type of seasonality, allowing the user to control its change over time as well as the smoothness of the trend while being very robust to outliers [34].

Below, the sequence of steps taken to extract the Seasonality Components is described, in line with the data streams represented in Fig. 6.

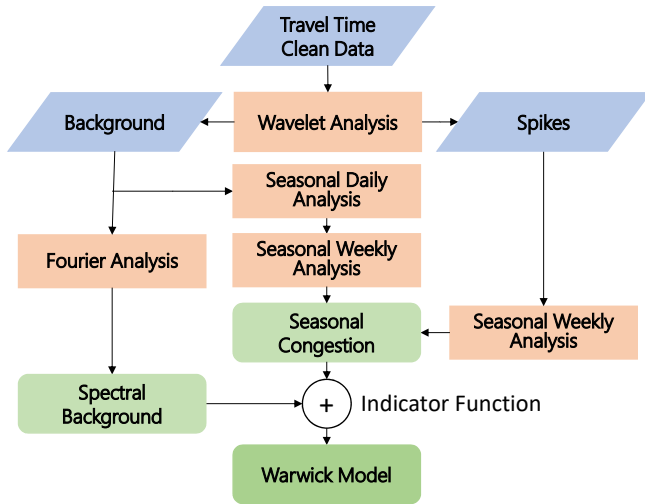


Fig. 6: Flowchart of the data streams in the algorithm

Note that these must be applied to the  $n$  training weeks as a single unit.

- 1) Analyse Background for daily seasonality
- 2) Extract and sum the series corresponding Trend and Remainder from Step 1
- 3) Analyse output from 2 for weekly seasonality
- 4) Add daily and weekly Seasonal components from Step 1 and Step 3 to obtain global seasonality
- 5) Average seasonality across training weeks
- 6) Linearise Trend term from output of Step 3
- 7) Add linearised trend to seasonality obtained in Step 6
- 8) STL Decomposition of Spikes for weekly seasonality
- 9) Add Spike's Seasonal component to the output of 8

In a successful analysis, after Step 3, the Background's Remainder should be zero mean, Gaussian distributed. Background's Trend should have a near zero slope. This should

hold if performed again after Step 8, with the addition that the Trend should also be nearly zero in absolute value, since the time scales in which a global Trend can meaningfully vary should be much greater than the prediction scope of this algorithm.

### D. WARWICK Hybrid Profile

In order to create the final Seasonal-Spectral WARWICK profile, one of the two estimations generated in the previous points is taken, depending on what is the identified regime:

$$\text{WARWICK} = \text{Seasonal} * \delta_{\text{spike}} + \text{Spectral} * (1 - \delta_{\text{spike}}) \quad (5)$$

## VII. ACCURACY RESULTS

In this section the accuracy of the WARWICK algorithm is compared against the Published Profiles and the NS Model. For each temporal point  $i$ , with a prediction  $\hat{x}_i$ , and an actual value of  $x_i$ , the Mean Average Relative Error (MARE) is defined as:

$$\text{MARE} = \frac{\left( \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\|x_i - \hat{x}_i\|}{x_i} \right)}{n} \quad (6)$$

For complete Motorways, the Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE) has been calculated for each temporal point  $i$  as:

$$\text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \hat{x}_i)^2}{n}} \quad (7)$$

In both cases the error for a Link is defined as the average MARE or RMSE across all prediction points. The error for a Motorway is the average of the error across all its links.

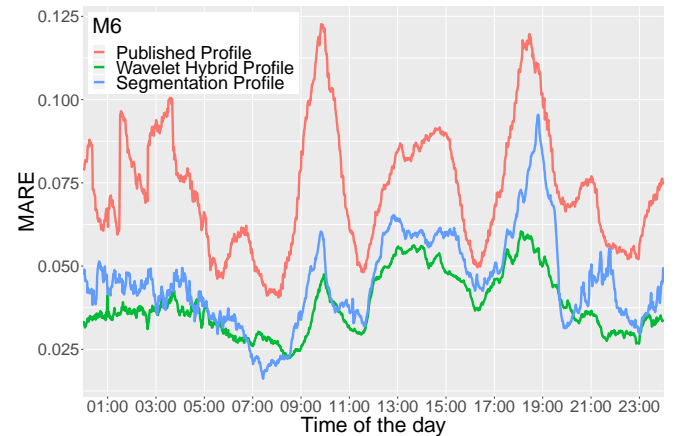


Fig. 7: MARE over the times of the day for the M6

As it can be seen in Figs. 9 and 10, the WARWICK Profile has a higher accuracy than the Published Profiles and the NS Model for all percentiles of travel time except for the highest values where they all perform poorly. The greatest difference occurs between percentiles [50 – 95], where the Published Profile becomes more inaccurate.

In Figures 7 and 8, WARWICK shows a higher accuracy than the Published Profiles and the NS Model for all times of the day, locations and training lengths. The most relevant improvement happens during morning and evening peak



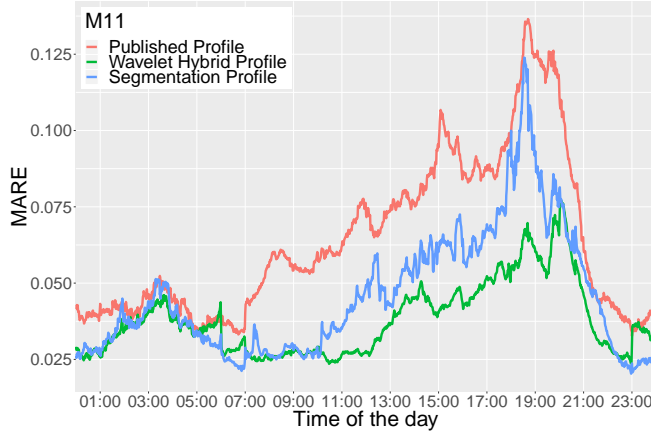


Fig. 8: MARE over the times of the day for the M11

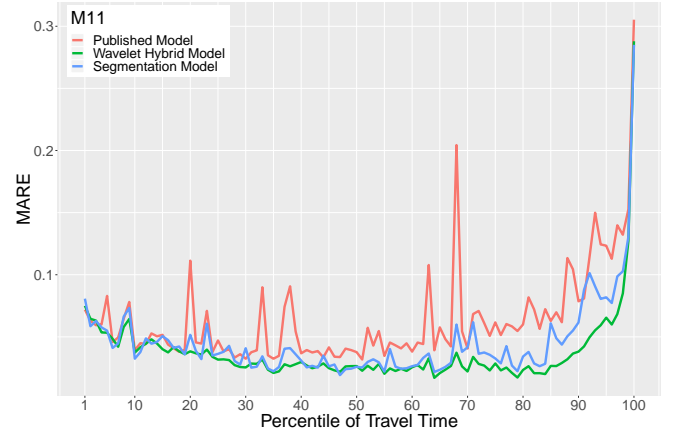


Fig. 10: MARE across percentiles of travel time for the M11.

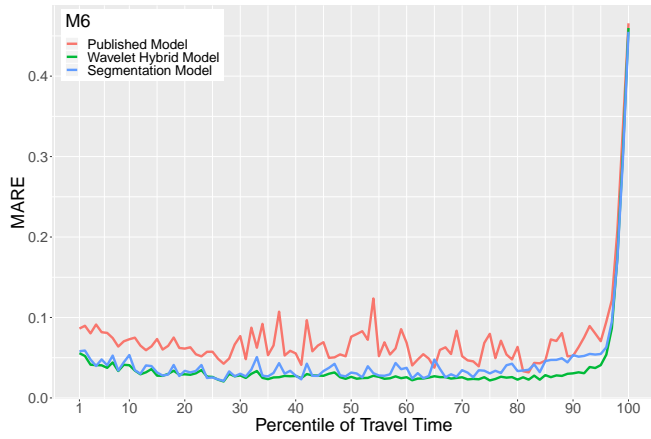


Fig. 9: MARE across percentiles of travel time for the M6.

hours, with no meaningful performance worsening relative to the morning plateau when compared with the other two profiles. The error at peak times is reduced by at least 50% in all cases, reaching as much as 63.4% in the case of the M6 morning rush.

## VIII. FUTURE WORK

The algorithm presented above meets the requirements described in Section VI and earlier defined in [2]. In the future a sensitivity analysis should be conducted to explore the limits of the algorithm in terms of minimum training data set, as

TABLE III: MARE per Link on M6 and M11

Links M6	MARE	Links M11	MARE
117007401	0.0290	199048301	0.0510
117007501	0.0680	199048701	0.0279
117007601	0.0293	199048801	0.1053
117007801	0.0826	199048901	0.0239
117007901	0.0435	199049002	0.0306
117008401	0.0484	199049101	0.0213
117009102	0.0338	199049402	0.0223
117011901	0.0295	199049501	0.0181
117012001	0.0584	199049702	0.0297
117012101	0.0370	199049801	0.0408
117012201	0.0605	199050002	0.0445
117012301	0.0379	199050101	0.0272
117016001	0.0496	199050202	0.0288
123025901	0.0427	199050901	0.0433
		199063301	0.1203
		199063701	0.0500
		199063801	0.0265
		199064203	0.0230
		199065202	0.0259
		200021668	0.0280
		200024801	0.0233
		200028639	0.0241
		200028641	0.0188
		200028645	0.0435
		200028648	0.0499

TABLE IV: Global MARE & RMSE per Motorway

Motorway	MARE	RMSE [s]
M6	0.0385	0.0464
M11	0.0379	0.0484

TABLE I: WARWICK Profile - MARE Distribution Per Motorway

% rel. error	<-25%	-25% to -15%	-15% to -5%	-5% to 5%	5% to 15%	15 % to 25%	>25%
M6	1.57	0.51	3.22	81.73	12.14	0.70	0.13
M11	0.78	0.32	3.29	81.33	12.47	1.09	0.73

TABLE II: Publied Profile - MARE Distribution Per Motorway

% rel. error	<-25%	-25% to -15%	-15% to -5%	-5% to 5%	5% to 15%	15 % to 25%	>25%
M6	1.58	0.54	5.69	56.21	30.79	3.17	2.02
M11	0.85	1.15	19.21	62.83	13.21	1.65	1.10

well as maximum performance with increased training. Also, more sophisticated analysis of the Wavelet Transform series can be achieved, focusing on the information-bearing bands and using adaptive thresholds for the separation. Given the flexibility offered by this method, it could be extended for incident detection or adaptation to other problems besides road traffic.

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