


The MFD and the built environment

A new perspective on traffic problems in towns

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1 ABSTRACT

2 Travel behavior in urban areas has been widely analyzed from the demand side, while the extent
3 to which the infrastructure imposes constraints on such travel behavior and leads to delays and
4 congestion has almost never been studied. For car-based transportation, the recently developed
5 theory of the macroscopic fundamental diagram (MFD) describes the relationship between the
6 accumulation of vehicles and their trip ending rate as a function of the infrastructure, opening the
7 door to new and meaningful studies that address the gap mentioned above. In this paper, we use
8 empirical traffic data from 42 cities around the world to estimate their MFDs, compare them with
9 respect to their functional behavior and the extent of delays, and explain the observed differences
10 as a function of the network topology, e.g. intersection density, average betweenness. We find
11 that the average betweenness centrality in a network seems to be a very clear indicator for the
12 level of traffic performance. This indicates that it is indeed possible to use some topological
13 features to predict traffic performance at the macroscopic level.

1 INTRODUCTION

2 The goal of transportation is to connect people for social and economic interactions (1). Given
3 the rising urbanization levels worldwide, providing and investing in transportation infrastructure,
4 especially in cities, is crucial for economic success (2–5). Despite increasing congestion levels,
5 the car - autonomous or not - will remain among the most important modes of transportation in
6 cities (6, 7). In general, drivers experience either an uncongested or congested traffic state. In
7 the uncongested state, the flows of vehicles are constrained by the travel demand, while in the
8 congested state the flows are constrained by the infrastructure capacity leading to overcrowding,
9 traffic jams, and the resulting delays (8, 9).

10 Although the understanding of how the infrastructure constrains the flow of vehicles has
11 significant implications on how we build our cities, the focus so far has been almost exclusively
12 on the demand side (10–15). Smeed (16) was among the first who raised the question on the
13 relationship between the layout of the road network, the desired travel speeds, and the total
14 capacity. Even though not many followed his path, a few studied the relationship with empirical
15 data (17–19) and traffic simulation (20–23). They provided further evidence that delays caused
16 by infrastructure constraints can be described by the design of the road network. The recently
17 introduced theory by Daganzo and Geroliminis (24) on the *Macroscopic Fundamental Diagram*
18 (MFD) provides an analytical relationship between the design of the road network and the
19 infrastructure constraints on traffic flow. This analytical relationship holds for homogeneous
20 road networks with similar streets; a condition which might not always hold in complex real
21 urban road networks (25–27). The MFD relates the accumulation of vehicles in a network to the
22 travel production (measured in vehicle kilometers) with a concave and well-defined curve. The
23 MFD is consistent with the physics of congestion and its distinct maximum in travel production
24 has led to new network-wide traffic control schemes and traffic models (28–30). Figure 1 exhibits
25 the MFD for London around St. Pancras station and explains the parameters describing its
26 shape.

27 Here we use the theory of the MFD to uncover the relationships between the design of the
28 urban road network and the infrastructure constraints this one imposes on the flow of vehicles.
29 The existing analytical method relies on technical information that might be highly variant or
30 not even available. Nevertheless, we can estimate the shape of the MFD from empirical traffic
31 data (25). We compare MFDs and the design of the road network from 42 cities around the
32 world to derive these relationships. We address then two questions: (i) how is the design of the
33 road network linked to the MFD shape? and (ii) how do the structure of the road network affect
34 the macroscopic dynamics of traffic in the MFD?

35 The contributions of this study are twofold and follow the lines of the two research questions.
36 From the findings on the first question, urban planners and traffic engineers can derive how the
37 changes to the road network affect the infrastructure constraints and the traffic performance.
38 From the findings on the second question, planners can derive strategies to reduce the duration
39 or severity congestion.

40 DATA AND METHODOLOGY

41 This sections contains two parts. The first subsection presents the estimation of the MFD, the
42 extraction of the parameters defining its shape, and the indicators we use to measure the traffic
43 dynamics at the macroscopic level. The second subsection describes the preparation of the road
44 network and the extraction of the network features. All data sources are spatially prepared to
45 estimate all parameters and values for the same areas.

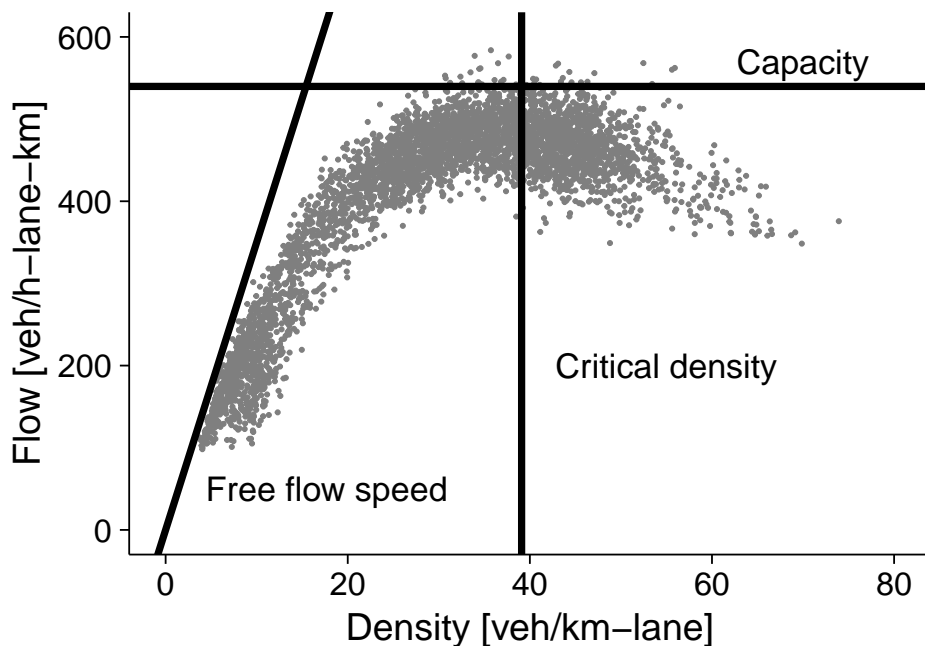


FIGURE 1 MFD estimated for London around the St. Pancras station. Both axes are normalized by the network length in lane-kilometers, such that multiplying them by the network length then leads to the relationship between accumulation and vehicle production. Line 1 marks the capacity of the network, line 2 the critical density, line 3 the free flow speed.

1 Table 1 lists the cities from which we collected data. For most cities, we acquired at least
 2 one week of historical data, but less if data export options were a limiting factor.

3 MFD

4 All the data used comes either directly from transport authorities or open data portals. The
 5 vehicle flows q [vehicles/h-lane] are measured by inductive loop detectors and correspond to
 6 single lane measurements and have been aggregated on 3-5 min intervals. Traffic density k
 7 [vehicles per lane-kilometer] is for most cities derived from detector occupancy (share of time
 8 that vehicles occupy the sensor) during the aggregation interval, while for Utrecht we combined
 9 detector flow measurements with speed measurements from floating car data (31, 32).

10 We spatially prepared the data for several purposes: (i) mapping the loop detector locations
 11 to the road network to link the traffic performance to the information on the road hierarchy
 12 and other topological features (33), (ii) identifying the monitored link length of each detector,
 13 and (iii) identifying the distance of the detector to the downstream traffic signal for a potential
 14 correction of the density estimation (25, 27). To construct the MFD we then use the length-
 15 weighted averages of flow and density across the network (25, 31). The network average flow q
 16 in vehicles per hour per lane-kilometer is computed as follows, where l_i represents the length of
 17 link i .

$$18 \quad q = \frac{\sum_i l_i q_i}{\sum_i l_i} \quad (1)$$

1 The total travel production within the perimeter is then obtained by multiplying the flow q by
 2 the total network length. The network average vehicle density is then given by:

$$3 \quad k = \frac{\sum_i l_i k_i}{\sum_i l_i} \quad (2)$$

4 The total accumulation of vehicles within the perimeter is then computed by multiplying the
 5 density k by the total network length.

6 From each estimated MFD we extract the parameters defining its shape and other indicators
 7 of traffic dynamics. Table 2 lists all parameters and indicators, including a description. We
 8 recover the shape defining parameters free flow speed, u_f , and capacity, q_{cap} , by the 95th
 9 percentile of speed and flow respectively; while the critical density, k_{crit} is estimated from the
 10 mean density of all flow values above the 95th percentile of flow, see Figure 1.

11 Based on the MFD, we introduce in this analysis six additional indicators of the traffic
 12 dynamics, all with a very clear physical meaning: (i) delay likelihood, (ii) accumulation, (iii)
 13 Gini index of density, and (iv) share of congestion. The delay likelihood is defined as the
 14 daily average of the differences of free flow speed and actual speed over free flow speed. The
 15 accumulation is the integral of $k(t)$. The Gini index of density computes the inequality index
 16 for the distribution of density. The lower the value the more evenly is the density distributed
 17 over the course of the day. The share of congestion describes the fraction of time when the
 18 vehicle flows are constrained by the infrastructure. We estimate these indicators for the time
 19 period between 5:00 and 24:00.

20 Road network features

21 In his seminal work, Smeed (16) explained differences in the speed-flow-relationship of several
 22 British cities as a function of the total area dedicated to cars and the area effectively used by
 23 cars. Using the macroscopic two-fluid theory of town traffic, the influence of network features
 24 such as average link length, number of lanes per link, intersection density, and signal operation
 25 characteristics, on the performance of urban speeds have also been analyzed (17, 18). However,
 26 given the small sample size, recovering statistical significant relationships has not been fully
 27 possible. Using the MFD theory, Knoop et al. (21) compared various network designs using
 28 traffic simulation and their findings support the theory that the MFD is network-specific, but
 29 also that more heterogeneous networks exhibit lower capacity. However, not only the built up
 30 environment affects traffic performance, but also the routes chosen by drivers. Evidence suggests
 31 that vehicle flows in road networks are reduced with overlapping routes and drivers not changing
 32 routes adaptively in case of disturbances (37–39).

33 Thus, we analyze here road networks not only by their geographic extent and design, but
 34 also by their characteristics as a network. A network is defined as a graph consisting of nodes
 35 and edges. Network analysis has spread over many disciplines from social sciences to biology,
 36 in particular all disciplines that study patterns of connections (40, 41). Intuitively, road networks
 37 are represented by roads as edges and intersections as nodes, the so called primal approach
 38 (42, 43). Here, we follow such approach and represent all possible origins and destinations also
 39 as nodes.

40 Table 3 summarizes the network features we consider in this preliminary analysis including
 41 a description.

TABLE 1 List of cities in this analysis paired with the population within municipality borders (Data from Eurostat and UN Data). The Table also provides the free flow speed as obtained from the Google Directions API for the calibration of the MFD as well as the number of available detectors and days of data. Note that in many cases the cities have more detectors installed but we limit our efforts to central areas.

No	City	Country	Population [1000]	Free Flow Speed [km/h]	Detectors	Days
1	Augsburg	Germany	277	26.2	777	20
2	Basel	Switzerland	167	32.2	83	7
3	Bern	Switzerland	129	26.1	769	7
4	Birmingham	United Kingdom	1097	28.2	114	6
5	Bolton	United Kingdom	128	26.3	202	22
6	Bordeaux	France	754	23.0	591	7
7	Bremen	Germany	549	30.3	583	14
8	Cagliari	Italy	154	26.0	133	50
9	Constance	Germany	81	35.6	129	7
10	Darmstadt	Germany	150	30.8	393	5
11	Dresden	Germany	531	35.1	55	4
12	Duisburg	Germany	487	31.6	590	14
13	Essen	Germany	570	35.4	38	36
14	Frankfurt	Germany	701	31.0	112	1
15	Graz	Austria	270	33.4	300	10
16	Groningen	Netherlands	198	29.7	55	6
17	Hamburg	Germany	1746	34.0	419	105
18	Innsbruck	Austria	125	30.1	49	30
19	Kassel	Germany	194	30.9	601	4
20	London	United Kingdom	8478	26.4	5804	22
21	Luzern	Switzerland	81	26.7	159	361
22	Madrid	Spain	3142	36.1	2123	20
23	Manchester	United Kingdom	517	31.2	221	22
24	Marseille	France	1054	23.7	178	32
25	Munich	Germany	1408	31.9	548	1
26	Paris	France	3236	30.7	513	366
27	Rotterdam	Netherlands	618	34.8	277	6
28	Santander	Spain	176	33.8	378	3
29	Speyer	Germany	50	28.9	199	14
30	Stockport	United Kingdom	136	29.5	104	22
31	Strasbourg	France	228	27.2	220	25
32	Stuttgart	Germany	604	31.8	298	8
33	Torino	Italy	902	30.8	787	21
34	Toronto	Canada	2809	27.1	214	61
35	Toulouse	France	747	30.8	910	7
36	Trafford	United Kingdom	210	37.4	181	22
37	Utrecht	Netherlands	328	32.4	1072	4
38	Vienna	Austria	1767	34.8	217	24
39	Vilnius	Lithuania	540	33.3	581	1
40	Wigan	United Kingdom	103	32.1	146	22
41	Wolfsburg	Germany	122	40.9	405	14
42	Zurich	Switzerland	385	24.0	1225	7

TABLE 2 MFD measures. The MFD shape parameters free flow speed, u_f and capacity, q_{cap} are extracted from the 95th percentile of the respective distribution of speed and flow, while the critical density, k_{crit} , is obtained from the mean density of all flow values above the 95th percentile of flow . All other indicators of traffic dynamics are calculated for weekdays between 5:00 and 24:00.

Measure	Description
MFD shape parameters	
Free flow speed	Initial speed, u_f , in the network with only little traffic load. Corresponds to the slope of the MFD at the origin and is measured as the 95 th percentile of speed.
Critical density	Number of vehicles, k_{crit} , in the network that maximizes the vehicle flow (the production of vehicle kilometer per hour). The value is obtained where $q(k)$ is maximized.
Capacity	Corresponding vehicle flow, q_{cap} , or travel production at the critical density. The value is obtained where $q(k)$ is maximized.
Indicators of traffic dynamics	
Delay likelihood	The delay likelihood is defined as the daily average of the differences of free flow speed and actual speed over free flow speed.
Accumulation	The accumulation is the integral of $k(t)$.
Gini index of density	The Gini index of density computes the inequality index for the distribution of density. The lower the value the more evenly is the density distributed over the course of the day.
Share of congestion	Share of time throughout the day during which the vehicle flow is restricted by the infrastructure, i.e. $k(t) > k_{crit}$.

1 CONCLUSIONS AND EXPECTED FINDINGS

2 s This paper presents the first empirical comparison of infrastructure constraints on vehicle flow
3 in various cities around the world. This study has been made possible by the idea of the MFD
4 (31), and the increased availability of large-scale traffic data. We propose to use the estimated
5 MFDs for two analyses: (i) link the shape of the MFD and thus the infrastructure constraints to
6 design of complex real urban road networks, and (ii) identify factors that influence the duration
7 of congestion, i.e. the duration of the binding of infrastructure constraints. This study contributes
8 to the understanding on how the design of a city (networks, population, space, etc.) affects
9 congestion and delays, and could have thus several important implications on how we build our
10 cities. As a matter of fact, from the preliminary results, we expect the average betweenness
11 centrality in a network to be an important indicator of the level of performance. This indicates
12 that it is indeed possible to use some topological features to predict traffic performance at the
13 macroscopic level. More research, however, is necessary to properly formulate some predictions.

14 Importantly, we will also consider traffic signal cycle parameters as well as the influence
15 of public transport networks to further infer the shape of the MFD. Last but not least, we will
16 also carry out a sensitivity analysis with respect to the MFD parameter estimation method, the

TABLE 3 Network features. All network features are estimated for the same areas as the MFDs. The networks are queried from OpenStreetMap and all residential, service, and unclassified roads are removed. Networks are further processed to result in a graph with edges from major intersection to major intersection. Attributes to the existing layers of OpenStreetMap are added when needed.

Variable	Description
Share of area covered	Total area of the road network divided by the entire perimeter area. The total area of the road network is calculated by multiplying each link by the number of lanes and 3.5 m of width. In case of a river, we subtracted the river area from the perimeter area.
Average link length	An link is defined as the connection between intersections (nodes). In this computation, we do not consider all links shorter than 40 m as most of these are turning lanes at intersections.
Average number of lanes	Length-weighted average number of lanes per driving direction in the network.
Intersections density	Density of signalized intersections and roundabouts per square kilometer in the analyzed area.
Fraction of one-way streets	Ratio of lane kilometer of one-way streets over the total network length in lane kilometer.
Average betweenness centrality	Betweenness centrality of a node is the fraction of shortest paths passing through that node out of all possible shortest paths. The network average value is obtained by calculating the mean over all nodes.

1 chosen area and the influence of inhomogeneity.

2 Regarding the indicators of traffic dynamics, we aim at explaining the variation across cities
 3 with factors such as population density, degree of urban sprawl, provision of public transport,
 4 and the value of time as a measure of wealth. We expect the results will then show what level of
 5 congestion is unavoidable (in light of the Downs-Thomson paradox) given a certain city size,
 6 and to what extent measures as public transport can mitigate it.

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