# RNN as a Multivariate Arrival Process Model: Modeling and Predicting Taxi Trips

Xian Lai and Gary M. Weiss Department of Computer & Information Science *Fordham University* New York, USA {xlai4, gaweiss}@fordham.edu

Abstract—Understanding time-related geospatial data is a very interesting and challenging task, but is necessary to support an efficient and intelligent urban environment. In this paper we model taxi trips in New York City from historical data and by using a recurrent neural network. The goal of the model is to gain a better understanding of the spatial-temporal patterns related to taxi travel in New York City, so that we can better predict demand. This paper uses the taxi domain to explore the usage of different neural network models for this type of prediction task. In particular, three types of recurrent neural network cells are evaluated: vanilla cells, Long Short Term Memory cells, and Neural Turing Machine cells. The internal states of these models are also examined, during the learning process, to better understand the key features of the different cell structures.

Keywords—Time series; geospatial data; Recurrent Neural Network; vanilla RNN cell; Long Short Term Memory; Neural Turing Machine.

## I. INTRODUCTION

According to 2016 New York City Taxi and Limousine Commission Factbook, in 2015 13,600 licensed yellow taxi cabs made between 300,000 and 400,000 trips per day. These yellow cabs, along with other for-hire vehicles like Boro taxis, black cars, Uber, and Lift, help to satisfy the tremendous of transportation needs of New Yorkers.

Providing a reasonably accurate prediction of when and where passenger demand will occur is of great importance to taxi drivers and their companies, as this information can save time and fuel, and maximize profits. This information will also benefit passengers, since it would increase the availability of these transportation services, especially at busy hours and popular locations. It can also help to mitigate traffic congestion, reduce air pollution, and help inform other urban transportation systems (e.g., bike-sharing and ride-sharing services).

One approach might be to use existing arrival process work, which is a well-studied topic. Using this approach, the number of times an event occurs is modeled as Poisson distribution described by following probability mass function:

$$P(n;\lambda) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}, \qquad n = 0, 1, 2, ...$$

In this equation n is the number of occurrences of an event in an interval time and the arrival rate  $\lambda$  is the average times of occurrence. For a complex arrival process problem like taxi pick-ups or drop-offs, the arrival rate is often not constant, but rather depends on time and other complex factors.

Several studies have applied this approach to spatialtemporal datasets, prompted by the advent of sensor technologies like GPS and WiFi, which are easily incorporated into vehicles, or are available via the ride or car-sharing businesses that rely on smartphones. For example, Moreira-Matias et al. [3] used a sliding-window ensemble framework with a time-varying Poisson model, weighted time-varying Poisson model, and ARIMA model, to predict the spatial distribution of taxi passengers. Li et al. [4] proposed an improved ARIMA model, which considers not only the nearest historical data, but also the periodicity of the data to forecast passenger quantities in city hotspots. Kaltenbrunner et al. [5] used an AutoRegression Moving Average (ARMA) model to learn cyclic mobility patterns in the community bicycle program in Barcelona, and made short term predictions for the number of available bikes in a selected station. Min and Wynter [6] proposed a refined version of Vector-ARMA model to forecast the traffic in a road network.

The first two studies listed above only focused on modeling the time-dependent arrival rate (average passenger count) in fixed intervals as a single variable. While Kaltenbrunner et al. and Min et al. took spatial dependencies into account, they considered only limited number of neighboring locations. In a case like traffic prediction, high dependencies don't necessary exist in neighboring locations. Many important factors like transportation hubs far away should also be considered.

These studies all used ARMA models or variations of these models. These models describe the prediction as a weighted combination of a sequence of historical observations, and a sequence of errors following normal distribution, and only work with univariate data. However geographical data often requires the model to take input of variable-length and output a prediction of variable-length. To better model the process under a complicated urban environment, it is best to include the environment itself into the model. In other words, we should build a multivariate model taking account of taxi cab drop-offs in all locations, in order to predict the arrival rate in any particular location. In this paper, we present 3 types of RNN models that can handle multiple arrival processes simultaneously and learn the complicated relationship between them.

The paper is organized as follows. Section II describes the New York City taxi data set, while Section III provides relevant background information on Recurrent Neural Networks and the three cell structures that are used in these models. Our experiments and results are then presented in Section IV. Section V discusses the internal state or memory of these models during the learning o the spatial-temporal patterns of taxi trips. Section VI then provides our conclusions and describes future work.

# II. NEW YORK CITY TAXI DATA SET

The yellow taxi trips data set used in this study was collected and made available online by New York City Taxi and Limousine Commission [7]. The data set contains most of the yellow taxi trips in New York City from 2009 to 2017. The machines installed on each taxi logs, for each trip: the pickup and drop-off coordinates, timestamps, durations, distances, fare charged, and passenger count reported by the driver. For this study the drop-off GPS coordinates, drop-off timestamps and passenger counts were extracted and utilized.

This data was then preprocessed as follows. The trips were aggregated by predefined GPS coordinate grids and drop-off hours. Fig. 1 shows a visual representation of the data, where the opacity of each grid represents the number of drop-offs in the grid. Fig. 1 corresponds to the first hour in 2009. The figure shows that yellow taxis are quite busy on New Year's Eve, especially in Manhattan, with the exception of Harlem. The sizes of each grid and time interval were carefully chosen, since a size too large will lead to the loss of important local patterns, and a size too small will be unduly affected by noise and random patterns. One particular grid, grid 453 in Lower Manhattan near the Wall Street subway station, is highlighted because we designate this as the destination grid for our study—and focus on predicting the counts of passengers dropped off at this grid.

As the preprocessed data if Fig 1. shows, the travelling demand varies significantly across time and location. Locally,



Fig.1. grids shaded by passenger counts in 2009-01-01 00:00.



Fig. 2. pattern of grid #453 in all weeks in 2009 compared with 1st week

each coordinate grid exhibits its own volume and pattern, while the whole system shows a certain degree of continuity in space and time. Grid 453 has an intermediate level of volume and has a typical traffic pattern for an office area (when looking at data outside of New Year's Eve). Fig. 2 shows the hourly pattern of all weeks in 2009 at grid 453. The plot starts from Thursday and ends at Wednesday, and the weekend is designated by light grey shading. The tenth and ninetieth percentiles, and the means at the same hours of each week, are plotted and compared with the 1<sup>st</sup> week. We can see that the pattern from Friday night to Sunday evening are quite different from the other times, but in general, they follow a pattern over time.

# III. RECURRENT NEURAL NETWORK AND CELL STRUCTURE

In this section we provide relevant background knowledge about Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs), and the types of RNN cells that are used in our experiments. RNNs are powerful sequential data learning models, and consequently are widely used in domains like speech recognition and machine translation, especially when the input and output are variablelength vectors. RNNS are a subclass of artificial neural networks (ANNs), and as such they inherit the capabilities of ANNs to learn hidden variables and layers of abstraction. As Fig. 3 shows, the inputs of an RNN are encoded as hidden variables, merged with information from previous time steps and lower layers and passed to later time steps and higher layers. The portion of an RNN involved in one time step is called a cell. The whole RNN can be seen as a cell unrolled along the time dimension. Each cell maintains an internal state (memory) to process inputs at the current time step.



Fig. 3. Recurrent Neural Network model diagram.

# A. Vanilla Cell

The Vanilla cell is the most basic type of RNN cell. As Fig. 4 shows, in each time step, the cell performs following tasks:

- 1. the preprocessed input data is concatenated with the cell memory from prior time step;
- 2. the concatenated information is linearly projected back to the hidden layer size as new cell state;
- 3. the new cell state is passed through a *tanh* activation function to squeeze values into range [-1, 1];
- 4. the squeezed cell state is then passed to next time step or ejected out as output from this time step.

However, one well known problem of vanilla cell is that its cell state is directly exposed to the modification of input data so it is not stable and can explode or vanish when the RNN chain is long.



Fig. 4. Vanilla cell information flow diagram

## B. LSTM (Long Short Term Memory) Cell

The Long Short Term Memory (LSTM) proposed in 1997 by Sepp Hochreiter and Jürgen Schmidhuber [8], and improved in 2000 by Felix Gers' team [9], attracted a lot of attention due to its state of art performance in many time series learning tasks. As can be seen in Fig. 5, LSTM is more complicated than the vanilla cell. Besides the global cell state (long term memory) that passes through the entire sequence, it also has the local cell state (short term memory) that is only passed one time step. And it employs "gate" components to control the amount of modification to cell state. In each time step:

- 1. the preprocessed input is first concatenated with short term memory from the last time step;
- this concatenated information is then linearly projected to hidden layer size and passed through the activation function just like the vanilla cell as new input j;
- 3. this concatenated information is also used to generate the forget gate *f*, add gate *i*, and output gate *o*, which controls how much information in long term cell state should be forgotten, how much of new information should be added, and how much information in new long term memory should be output as short term memory;
- 4. finally both the long term and short term memory is passed to next time step. The short term memory is also ejected as output.

The gates protect the internal state from direct modification of inputs. If the concatenated information is not helpful for final prediction, the forget gate and add gate will be closed and



Fig. 5. LSTM cell information flow diagram

the long term memory remains unchanged. So the internal state is more consistent (smooth).

# C. NTM (Neural Turing Machine) Cell

Although the LSTM cell provides a stable and consistent long term cell state, it still has a big limitation: it can only remember and update "the current situation." It would be better if it could temporarily save the situations it encountered, so that for new predictions it can check the current situation against this temporary knowledge base. From the Bayesian perspective, the temporary knowledge base serves the role of prior distribution; in each time step the prior distribution is updated by the current situation and the posterior value, as informed by the current situation, is outputted. The learned knowledge base should be passed between iterations and saved as part of learned model for future predictions—this is unlike the vanilla or LSTM cells that only pass learned model variables.



Fig. 6. NTM cell information flow diagram

The Neural Turing Machine cell proposed in 2014 by Graves, Wayne and Danihelka [10] provides the benefits just described. An NTM cell is composed of two parts: controller and memory. The controller can be any type of RNN cell, while the memory is an n by m array (n memory slots of size m) with one or more reading and updating heads. The memory maintains a distribution of hidden variables along time. The following operations are performed by heads in each time step:

- **update**, performed by updating heads: The outdated knowledge is updated by first erasing then writing. The

updating can be performed on multiple slots and by multiple heads simultaneously.

 read, performed by reading heads: In next time step, the reading heads retrieve the relevant information from one or more slots in previous updated memory.

The updating and reading operations performed by different heads are independent of each other, and the slots written to and read from, can be different as well. The slots to read and write is decided by a process called attention focusing which is discussed in Section VB.

#### IV. EXPERIMENTS

This section describes the experiments and results.

#### A. Description of Experiments

Experiments were performed to compare RNN models with the three different types of cells mentioned in Section III. These models were trained to learn the spatial and temporal dependencies in the taxi dataset described in Section II, and then make short term predictions of passenger drop-off counts at grid #453. The predictions are based on the historical observations of all 5625 grids for the previous 24 time steps. All of the trips from the 1000th hour to the 3000th hour in 2009 were used for training, and the trips from the 3000th hour to 4000th hour were used for testing (i.e., evaluation). The first 1000 hours were omitted because they correspond to the holiday season at the beginning of January and are expected to exhibit a different pattern.

The three RNN models with different cell types were each trained for 150 iterations. They used different hidden layer widths and depths, but as mentioned earlier utilized the same training data. As illustrated in Fig. 7, in each training iteration, the inputs were rescaled into the range [-1, 1] and then fed into the RNN cell. Predictions were compared to the real data in the 25th hour, and the root mean squared error of training batch was calculated as loss value. It represents the difference of passenger counts between the predicted and actual value. Each induced model was evaluated using the testing data to predict the same 100 randomly selected time intervals. The mean and standard deviation of errors of these 100 predictions are calculated to show the accuracy and stableness of these models.

For the RNN models with NTM cell, we chose the LSTM cell as controller and connect the update heads of memory to



Fig. 7. RNN constructed for experiments



Fig. 8. Controller and memory of NTM cell used in experiment

the long term cell state and read heads to short term cell state as Fig. 8 shows. The long term cell state (current situation) is not only passed to next time step directly, but also written to the memory; in the next time step, the similar situations are read from the memory as an additional input for the cell together with long/short term cell state and data input. The number of memory slots is set to 128, and the size of the memory slot is the same as hidden layer size of the controller.

#### **B.** Experiment Results

In this section we first compare the performance of the three types of cells in the training phase and testing phase using 1 hidden layer of size 100. Then we compare the performance of different hidden layer widths and depths.

Fig. 9 shows the batch losses for 3 types of cells in the training phase. As mentioned before, the loss is the error of prediction for grid #453. The batch loss is the average of losses in a training batch of size 20. For each model, we performed 20 repetitions using the same training set and testing set. The batch losses of each iteration of 20 repetitions is recorded. The  $10^{\text{th}}$  and  $90^{\text{th}}$  percentile for each cell are calculated and plotted in the figure.



Fig. 9. Performance of training iterations (loss value).



Fig. 10. Performance of testing iterations (predictions).

As can be seen in Fig. 9, in 300 training iterations the LSTM cell outperformed the vanilla cell—it converged faster and achieved a lower mean batch loss. The NTM cell is too unstable for this learning task and constantly give bad predictions. The results on the test set are provided in Fig. 10. Based on these results, the LSTM cell yields the most accurate predictions and the stable predictions.

 TABLE I.
 PERFORMANCES OF DIFFERENT HIDDEN LAYER SIZES

| Cell            | Hidden Layer Sizes | Mean     | STD      |
|-----------------|--------------------|----------|----------|
| Vanilla<br>Cell | [25]               | 23.536   | 16.651   |
|                 | [50]               | 12.942   | 10.197   |
|                 | [100]              | 13.693   | 11.253   |
|                 | [200]              | 15.981   | 12.318   |
|                 | [400]              | 17.358   | 11.782   |
|                 | [800]              | 5598.69  | 18.149   |
|                 | [1600]             | 2240.872 | 2744.938 |
|                 | [100, 100]         | 25.338   | 14.274   |
|                 | [100, 100, 100]    | 12.179   | 8.953    |
| LSTM<br>Cell    | [25]               | 21.012   | 16.095   |
|                 | [50]               | 13.877   | 9.819    |
|                 | [100]              | 12.367   | 10.529   |
|                 | [200]              | 12.694   | 10.315   |
|                 | [400]              | 11.072   | 7.775    |
|                 | [800]              | 11.069   | 8.019    |
|                 | [1600]             | 15.317   | 10.638   |
|                 | [100, 100]         | 12.513   | 8.819    |
|                 | [100, 100, 100]    | 17.396   | 11.824   |
| NTM<br>Cell     | [25]               | 105.105  | 58.282   |
|                 | [50]               | 28.373   | 5.612    |
|                 | [100]              | 54.762   | 25.908   |
|                 | [200]              | 23.969   | 6.527    |
|                 | [400]              | 94.89    | 75.704   |
|                 | [800]              | 5667.148 | 4.794    |
|                 | [1600]             | 90.136   | 18.425   |
|                 | [100, 100]         | 320.039  | 222.159  |
|                 | [100, 100, 100]    | 523.032  | 31.834   |

Table 1 describes the performance of the three types of models with different hidden layer widths and depths. In general, adding more hidden layers does not necessarily improve performance. For the models with 1 hidden layer, an appropriate size is needed to generate good results (neither too large nor too small). The appropriate size depends on the type of cell: for vanilla cells the best size is around 50. Using a layer wider than 800 dramatically increases the error. For the LSTM cells, the ideal size is between 300 and 1000 (indicating more flexibility).

#### V. INTERNAL STATE OF MODELS

In this section we examine the internal state of all 3 types of cells and the state of memory component in NTM cell during the training phase.

#### A. State of cells

All processes learned by models are encoded as hidden variables in the internal cell state. They were investigated in terms of following:

- 1. The best groupings of grids—hidden variables in cell states—that have most predictable periodic patterns. Each can represent the traffic flow for a certain function, like an office building in the destination grid. If the model has more than one hidden layer, multiple layers of groupings will be used.
- 2. The optimal amplitude, frequency and phase of periodicity of each hidden variable. The model should be able to learn the periodicity of each individual hidden variable and fit the input sequence in the learned cycle.

Fig. 11 shows how the state of #15 hidden variable (one of many hidden variables with visible intensity pattern) of 3 types of cells were built up along time steps and modified in training iterations. It uses x axis as time step, y axis as iteration index and brightness to show intensity. Along the x axis, we can see in the first few time steps, all 3 models were building the cell state by adjusting the intensity level of this hidden variable. Both NTM cells and LSTM cells showed a nice learning process. The #15 hidden variable was first given high intensity and then gradually lowered to reduce the loss value. The vanilla cells struggled to find a stable level. The variable state fluctuated at the beginning due to the direct impact of noisy inputs. Along the y axis, LSTM cells found reasonable parameters for cell components almost right away. Vanilla cells took a few more iterations, and NTM cells costed around 80 iterations.

In Fig. 12, we show the weighting of all hidden variables in the last training iteration. Among 100 hidden variables used, only a portion of them are important for prediction—the others are ignored and thus have low intensities. The number of useful hidden variables in the 3 types of cells are all different. Vanilla cells use the least number of hidden variables while LSTM cells used more. Also, in the beginning time steps, we observe that the intensity adjustment process mentioned previously is not unique to #15 hidden variable.



Fig. 11. State of #15 hidden variable in first 150 iterations

#### B. State of memory component in NTM cell

The state of the memory component in the NTM cell in an intermediate training iteration is shown in Fig. 13. In it we can see the distribution of hidden variables spanning across memory slots. The newly updated slots in this iteration has higher contrast than other slots. Which slots to be updated or read are decided by attention focusing processes performed by read and update heads. The focus processes for different heads are similar except the long term cell state is used as key vector in updating and short term cell state from last time step is used as key vector for reading. Both of them are made of 2 steps:

#### a) focus by content:

- 1. A cosine similarity vector is generated by comparing the key vector to each memory slot (cosine similarity is independent of magnitude of signal, so similar information is picked up even if the signal is weak).
- This similarity vector is then sharpened so the most relevant information has higher probability to be read or updated.
- 3. Finally, the sharpened similarities are normalized as a probability distribution.



Fig. 12. State of all hidden variables in the last iteration

#### b) focus by location:

1. The distribution from focus by content is then linearly combined with weights at previous step controlled by a gate value. This step is used to prevent heads

iteration: 149, time step:23



Fig. 13. NTM memory state in #149 iteration at last time step

jumping around too easily. Time steps are continuous, the slots chosen in this time step should be close to where the memories are written in the past as well.

- 2. This linearly combined distribution is convoluted with a kernel decided by key vector. This step is used to take account of a few neighboring locations in distribution and shift the heads forward to other memory slots.
- 3. Finally, the convoluted distribution is sharpened again and normalized as final weights. The sharpening is also used for choosing the most relevant information.

Focusing by location can be seen as a procedure of heads designed for time series models. As time move 1 step forward, the heads are shifted forward as well. And the focusing by content is used to correct this procedure based on similarity. Fig. 14 shows the weights of all memory slots when performing reading and updating in each time step at last iteration. We can see both reading head and update head found 3 similar situations and gave weights corresponding to the similarity in each time step. Due to the focusing by location, the heads are shifting along time steps reading the "next scene" it remembers. Due to the focusing by content, the leftmost situation is adjusted leftward at around time step 3. The sharpening strength in both steps needs to be tuned. If the strength is too high, the heads will only pick up the most similar case. If the strength is too low, too many cases will be read or updated thus the memory will act like only has one slot.

#### VI. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper we evaluated 3 types of RNN models for multivariate arrival process learning. They incorporate the time



Fig. 14. Weights of memory slots in the last iteration

series data of all geospatial locations and learn the relationship between them by encoding them as small number of hidden variables. Although we only used them to predict one location in experiments, the models can be used to predict the arrival rates of any number of locations without modification. Among them, the models with LSTM cells are most stable and give the most accurate predictions due to the protection of gate components. The noise in inputs are filtered away when they go through the gates and the cell state has more clear periodicity comparing to other models.

The models in this paper are off-line models that cannot be updated using a small amount of new data, i.e., one hour. In the future, we plan to modify them to be online models so that they do not always need to be trained with full-length sequence. In addition, the models only predict one time step into the future, which is of limited use for the goal of optimizing distribution of taxis. We plan to modify the models so that they can treat the predictions as observations and forecast more time steps into the future. The boundaries of the grids used in the experiments are arbitrarily decided and it should be possible to find more meaningful grids using clustering techniques. Finally, the time interval is set to one hour and the number of historical observations used in training is set to 24. We will perform more experiments on smaller time intervals and try different sequence lengths, to determine the effect of the granularity of time intervals and to determine how much history is needed to best predict the current time step.

#### REFERENCES

- Sayarshad, H. and Chow, J. "Survey and empirical evaluation of nonhomogeneous arrival process models with taxi data." J. Adv. Transp. 2016. DOI: 10.1002/atr.1401
- [2] Ibrahim, R., Ye, H., L'Ecuyer, P. and Shen, H. "Modeling and forecasting call center arrivals: A literature survey and a case study." International Journal of Forecasting Volume 32, Issue 3, July– September 2016, Pages 865-874
- [3] Luis Moreira-Matias, João Gama, Michel Ferreira, João Mendes-Moreira, and Luis Damas. "Predicting Taxi–Passenger Demand Using Streaming Data", IEEE Transactions on Intelligent Transportation Systems, VOL. 14, NO. 3, Sep. 2013
- [4] X. Li, G. Pan, Z. Wu, G. Qi, S. Li, D. Zhang, W. Zhang, and Z. Wang, "Prediction of urban human mobility using large-scale taxi traces and its applications," Frontiers of Computer Science, February 2012, Volume 6, Issue 1, pp 111–121
- [5] A. Kaltenbrunner, R. Meza, J. Grivolla, J. Codina, and R. Banchs, "Urban cycles and mobility patterns: Exploring and predicting trends in a bicycle based public transport system", Perv. Mobile Comput., vol. 6, no. 4, pp. 455–466, Aug. 2010.
- [6] W. Min and L. Wynter, "Real-time road traffic prediction with spatiotemporal correlations," Transp. Res. C, Emerg. Technol., vol. 19, no. 4, pp. 606–616, Aug. 2011.
- [7] NYC Taxi & Limousine Commission, "TLC Trip Record Data", http://www.nyc.gov/html/tlc/html/about/trip\_record\_data.shtml, May 2018
- [8] Hochreiter, S and Schmidhuber, J. "Long Short Term Memory." Neural Computation 9(8):1735-1780, 1997
- [9] Felix Gers, Jurgen Schmidhuber and Fred Cummins, "Learning to Forget: Continual Prediction with LSTM", Artificial Neural Networks, 7-10 September 1999, Conference Publication No. 470 IEE 1999
- [10] Graves, A., Wayne, G. and Danihelka, I. "Neural Turing Machines." arXiv:1410.5401v2[cs.BE] 10 Dec 2014
- [11] TensorFlow: Large-scale machine learning on heterogeneous systems, 2015. Software available from tensorflow.org.