

1 **Development and Application of the Network Weight Matrix to Predict Traffic Flow for**
2 **Congested and Uncongested Conditions**

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14 Paper submitted for:

15 Presentation at 96th Annual Transportation Research Board Meeting, January 2017

16 Standing Committee on Transportation Network Modeling (ADB30)

17 6136 (errors:1) words + 7 figures + 7 tables

18 July 31, 2016

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 To capture a more realistic spatial dependence between traffic links, we introduce two distinct net-
3 work weight matrices to replace spatial weight matrices used in traffic forecasting methods. The
4 first stands on the notion of betweenness centrality and link vulnerability in traffic networks. To
5 derive this matrix, we assume all traffic flow is assigned to the shortest path, and thereby we used
6 Dijkstra's algorithm to find the shortest path. The other relies on flow rate change in traffic links.
7 For forming this matrix, we employed user equilibrium assignment and the method of successive
8 averages (MSA) algorithm to solve the network. The components of the network weight matrices
9 are a function not simply of adjacency, but of network topology, network structure, and demand
10 configuration. We tested and compared the network weight matrices in different traffic conditions
11 using Nguyen-Dupuis network. The results led to a clear and unshakable conclusion that spatial
12 weight matrices are unable to capture the realistic spatial dependence between traffic links in a
13 network. Not only do they overlook the competitive nature of traffic links, but they also ignore the
14 role of network topology and demand configuration. In contrast, the flow-weighted betweenness
15 method significantly operates better than unweighted betweenness to measure realistic spatial de-
16 pendence between traffic links, particularly in congested traffic conditions. The results disclosed
17 that this superiority is more than 2 times in congested flow situations. However, forming this ma-
18 trix requires considerable computational effort and information. If the network is uncongested the
19 network weight matrix stemming from betweenness centrality is sufficient.

20 **Keywords:** Spatial Weight Matrix; Spatial Econometrics; Traffic Flow; Vulnerability; Be-
21 tweenness Centrality

1 INTRODUCTION

2 For decades, transportation analysts tackled short-term forecasting of traffic conditions, while fo-
3 cusing on time series approaches (1). Following the emergence of spatial analysis in traffic studies,
4 a growing interest has aimed to embed spatial approaches in forecasting methods. At the core of
5 the spatial approach is the belief that traffic links in a network have spatial dependence. As far
6 as spatial dependence is concerned, traffic links on a network are spatially related, and the inten-
7 sity of this association declines with distance. Capturing this dependence has essentially remained
8 untouched since its inception at the birth of spatial weight matrices. While now acknowledged in
9 transportation science, its roots are found in geography and spatial econometrics.

10 Although embedding the spatial component in forecasting methods acts as a catalyst, its
11 functioning is hindered by the constraints of spatial weight matrices. The positivity of compo-
12 nents in spatial weight matrices postulates that traffic links have a positive spatial dependency. In
13 essence, this hypothesis is necessary to represent complementary (upstream and downstream) traf-
14 fic links. The complementary nature demonstrates traffic streams are alike to fluid streams, and
15 thereby vehicles observed at upstream at one time point will be observed at downstream at a later
16 time point. For simple single facility corridors, this may be sufficient. On the flip side of the coin
17 is the competitive nature of traffic links. The competitive nature acknowledges the close similar-
18 ity between traffic streams and fluid streams. It demonstrates competitive links bear a significant
19 proportion of diverted vehicles, when one of them is saturated or closed. Short-term forecasting of
20 traffic conditions was initially confined to scrutinizing complementary links. In consequence the
21 competitive nature of traffic links has been overlooked in the spatial weight matrix configuration.

22 We introduce two network weight matrices to fill the lacuna under the umbrella of network
23 econometrics. These matrices are a function not simply of adjacent traffic links, but of network
24 infrastructure, topology, and demand matrices. They have the potential of superseding the spatial
25 weight matrices in traffic flow forecasting, and we suspect other network applications.

26 Having this introduction, the remainder of the paper is divided into seven parts. First, we
27 review the traffic forecasting methods embedding spatial components, along with spatial weight
28 matrices used in traffic analysis. Second, we discuss the concepts of betweenness centrality and
29 vulnerability, as they are fundamental to derive network weight matrices. Third, we introduce two
30 distinct network weight matrices. Fourth, for pedagogical purposes, we delve into the deriving
31 process of network weight matrices for a toy network. Fifth, we introduce a general functional
32 form of the network econometrics model, which is followed by validity assessment of network
33 weight matrices in different traffic conditions. We finally conclude by broaching a number of
34 arguments and suggestions for future studies.

35 TRAFFIC FORECASTING: A SPATIAL ANALYSIS PERSPECTIVE

36 “Everything is related to everything else, but near things are more related than distant things”
37 (2). Tobler’s “law” opened a new gateway and the “near” and “related” concept has spread to
38 broader research disciplines. The footprint is seen in transportation science. Utilizing the “near”
39 and “related” concept in traffic forecasting methods has had an active history. However, it is still
40 as crude as it is perplexing. This concept emerged from two strands of thought in two discrete time
41 spans. The origin of the first strand dates back to 1984, in which Okutani and Stephanedes (3)
42 used the traffic flow on both the study link and its feeder links to predict traffic flow during the day.
43 This so-called state-space approach subsequently burgeoned and developed in the literature. While
44 this strand of traffic forecasting interested transportation scientists, the contemporary theoretical

1 movement is equally drawing attention, if not more so. This strand was noticed by Kamarianakis
 2 and Prastacos (4), who tested the performance of the space-time autoregressive integrated moving
 3 average (STARIMA) model for relative velocity forecasting on major arterials of Athens, Greece.
 4 Since then, a whole host of studies have been carried out trying to test the space-time model
 5 class in forecasting traffic conditions. Comparable in concept to the state-space approach, the
 6 space-time approach benefits from the relationship between traffic links to augment the forecasting
 7 performance. Table 1 summarizes research conducted in these strands. Studies are chosen such
 8 that they cover a range of study locations, study years, and method of analysis.

9 The state-space approach acknowledges the positive dependency between upstream and
 10 downstream traffic links by weighting the adjacent links. This weight is either equal among ad-
 11 jacent links or is a function of distance. The weighted information of adjacent traffic links is
 12 then embedded in the modeling framework as independent variables. A fundamental challenge of
 13 this approach is the definition of “nearness” and distance metric. In spatial models, however, this
 14 dependency is captured by the spatial weight matrix borrowed from the field of spatial science.

15 A spatial weight matrix for the set of L , is a $l \times l$ matrix, where its components, W_{ij} ,
 16 regularly satisfy three major rules:

- 17 1. $W_{ij} \geq 0$,
- 18 2. $W_{ii} = 0$, and
- 19 3. $\sum_{j=1}^l W_{ij} = 1$, for all $i = 1, 2, \dots, l$ (5).

20 The weight matrix W_{ij} , defines the relative weight of spatial dependence between traffic
 21 links. While the spatial weight matrix can capture the self-influence of traffic link i upon itself,
 22 the matrix is typically considered to have a zero diagonal matrix. Non-diagonal elements are
 23 determined by a number of theoretical methods, which akin to state-space model, their roots are in
 24 the definition of “nearness.”

TABLE 1 : Summary of selected studies on spatial network analysis

Study	Location	Scale	Method	Variable	Dependency
<i>Spatial Weight Matrix Approach</i>					
Cheng et al. (6)	London	Arterial	Moran's I	Time	Spatial weight
Zou et al. (7)	China	Arterial	Moran's I	Speed	Spatial weight
Min et al. (8)	China	Arterial	GSTARIMA	Flow	Spatial weight
Ma et al. (9)	China	Freeway	Moran's I	Speed	Spatial weight
Yang et al. (10)	China	Arterial	Moran's I	Speed	Spatial weight
Kamarianakis and Prastacos (4)	Greece	Arterial	STARIMA	Flow	Spatial weight
<i>State-space Approach</i>					
Van Lint (11)	The Netherlands	Freeway	Neural network	Time	Adjacent upstream and downstream
Stathopoulos and Karlaftis(12)	Greece	Arterial	Kalman filtering	Flow	Adjacent upstream
Van Lint et al. (13)	The Netherlands	Freeway	Neural network	Time	Adjacent upstream and downstream
Whittaker et al. (14)	The Netherlands	Motorway	Kalman filtering	Flow	Adjacent
Okutani and Stephanedes (3)	Japan	Arterial	Kalman filtering	Flow	Adjacent

25 In the remainder of this section, we delve into synthesizing spatial weight matrices used in
 26 traffic forecasting models, as their close connection with the contribution of the current research.
 27 In traffic analysis, the components of spatial weight matrices are typically determined by two ap-
 28 proaches: adjacency weights and distance weights. The former assumes the spatial dependence

1 only exists between adjacent traffic links, and the amount of this dependency is equal for all ad-
 2 jacent traffic links. This commonly leads to a spatial matrix with binary elements, in which zero
 3 and one values demonstrate spatial independence and spatial dependence, respectively. The latter
 4 seeks more realistic spatial dependence between traffic links. Unlike the adjacency weights, the
 5 distance weights approach assumes the spatial dependency is a function not simply of adjacency,
 6 but of the distance. Subsequently, manifold methods have been introduced to explore the effective
 7 distance threshold in traffic networks. We categorize them in two general methods:

- 8 1. **Radial distance weights:** This method considers a distance threshold around the stud-
 9 ied traffic links. The binary spatial weight components are then measured by Equation
 10 1, where d is a critical distance and there is no spatial dependence beyond this threshold.

$$W_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \leq d_{ij} \leq d \\ 0 & d_{ij} > d \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

11 This is a popular method among transportation analysts, which is known as d^{th} order
 12 neighbors. Cheng et al. (6), for instance, employ the first-order neighbor matrix to
 13 explore the spatio-temporal autocorrelation structure of road networks of London, Eng-
 14 land. Likewise, Kamarianakis and Prastacos(4) explore the spatial dependence between
 15 the relative velocity of traffic links in the city of Athens, Greece. They use the first-
 16 and second-order neighbors matrix to embed a spatial component in traffic forecasting
 17 models.

- 18 2. **Power distance weights:** Unlike radial distance weights method, this method assumes
 19 the spatial dependence reduces by distance as per Equation 2. In this equation, δ repre-
 20 sents any positive value, commonly equals one or two.

$$W_{ij} = d_{ij}^{-\delta} \quad (2)$$

21 Despite the prevalence of this method in spatial science and its widespread acceptance
 22 among transportation analysts, to the best of our knowledge, there is no study using this
 23 method to measure the spatial components in transportation science.

24 The methods of deriving spatial weight matrices used in traffic analysis have room to grow:

- 25 • The spatial weight matrix prejudices spatial dependence between traffic links.
- 26 • The spatial weight matrix overlooks the competitive nature of traffic links in a road net-
 27 work.
- 28 • The spatial weight matrix is a fixed matrix for a network structure.

29 These drawbacks motivated the authors to introduce two distinct network weight matrices
 30 to capture the realistic spatial dependence between traffic links. Subsequently, we test whether
 31 embedding the network weight matrices in traffic forecasting models improves the accuracy of
 32 predictions.

1 NETWORK TOPOLOGY AND STRUCTURE

2 Network topology stands on the foundation of the graph theory. A graph $G = (N, L)$ is a collection
 3 of n nodes ($N = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$), which are interconnected by l links ($L = \{1, 2, \dots, l\}$). The topology
 4 of a network is the arrangement and connectivity of links and nodes, which is represented by an
 5 adjacency matrix. The adjacency matrix is a square matrix, which its components demonstrate
 6 whether two nodes of m and n are attached by a link. Contingent on the type of connecting links, a
 7 network is classified as directed or undirected and weighted or unweighted. An undirected network
 8 encompasses a two-way connecting links, resulting in a symmetric adjacency matrix. While, one-
 9 way connecting links produces a directed network, in which the adjacency matrix is asymmetrical.
 10 A weighted network comprises of weighted links that signifies some distinguishing trait such as
 11 cost, capacity, and length. For an unweighted network, however, all links have the same weight,
 12 producing a binary adjacency matrix.

13 Having to do with network topology, manifold measures are utilized to characterize the
 14 topology, and thereby its ability to withstand link failures. Among the measures, we intend to
 15 briefly introduce the concepts of link betweenness and vulnerability, as they are fundamental to
 16 understand the deriving process of network weight matrices. In the following subsections, we
 17 expound on these concepts.

18 **Betweenness**

19 In transportation networks, not all links are equivalent. Traffic flow on a network is highly concen-
 20 trated on relatively few links. Hence, a fundamental question from the network science perspective
 21 is: How do you examine and measure the importance of a link in a network? The concept of cen-
 22 trality originating from social network science has been used to determine the importance of traffic
 23 links. The two widely used link centrality measures are degree and betweenness.

24 Freeman (15) first introduced the betweenness centrality measurement (hereafter Between-
 25 ness) for a node in a network. The betweenness of node n , by Freeman's definition, is the ratio of
 26 the shortest paths between each pair of nodes that pass through the given node n to all the shortest
 27 paths between nodes pairs. Girvan and Newman (16) generalized this definition for measuring
 28 betweenness of a link. In a network with N nodes, the betweenness of link i is formally defined by
 29 Equation 3. In this equation, S_{od} stands for the number of shortest paths between nodes m and n ,
 30 and S_{min} represents the number of shortest paths between nodes m and n that pass through link i .

$$B(i) = \sum_{m=1}^{N-1} \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} \frac{S_{min}}{S_{mn}} \quad (3)$$

31 The definition of betweenness is rooted in the shortest path assumption. It assumes traffic
 32 flow is passed from one node to another only along the shortest path. In most traffic networks,
 33 however, traffic flow does not stream only across shortest paths. To advance the betweenness
 34 index, Freeman et al. (17) proposed the flow betweenness measurement for a node, which is
 35 generalizable to a link. The flow betweenness of link i measures the amount of flow through this
 36 link when the maximum flow is transmitted between a pair of nodes, averaged over all pairs of
 37 nodes.

38 **Vulnerability**

39 The performance of traffic links depend on one another in a traffic network. This high level of
 40 interdependency has the potential of cascading failure. As a consequence, traffic network analysts

1 are endeavoring to fathom:

- 2 • What are the most critical links of a network?
- 3 • How do and to what extent degradation of traffic links affect network performance?
- 4 • How to assess the risk of transportation systems?

5 The concept of vulnerability tackles to answer these questions. Broadly defined, vulner-
6 ability refers to system performance following insecure conditions. More precisely, Berdica (18)
7 defines vulnerability as “a susceptibility to incidents that can result in considerable reductions in
8 road network serviceability.” In transportation science, the concept of vulnerability is largely used
9 to assess network performance resulting from degradation or disruption of nodes and links in a
10 traffic network. Ducruet et al. (19) scrutinizes the vulnerability of nodes in liner shipping net-
11 works. They conclude a node is vulnerable when it possesses low centrality and connection, but
12 high dependency. Jenelius et al. (20) measure the vulnerability of links in road networks as a
13 change in travel cost stemming from a link failure. Taylor and D’Este (21) use the notion of ac-
14 cessibility, the ease of reaching valued destinations, to define node and link vulnerability. By their
15 definition, a node or link is vulnerable if its removal remarkably diminishes the accessibility of the
16 road network.

17 Following the recapitulation of vulnerability concept in transportation literature and in par-
18 allel with existing definitions, we intend to define link betweenness vulnerability as follows:

19

20 *“The betweenness vulnerability of the link is determined by the change in the betweenness*
21 *of other links upon the elimination of the link.”*

22

23 We use this definition to extract the realistic spatial dependence between traffic links and
24 to form components of network weight matrices.

25 NETWORK WEIGHT MATRIX

26 In this section, we derive the network weight matrix. We use topological and structural properties
27 of the network in order to determine the realistic spatial dependence between traffic links. Con-
28 cretely speaking, we borrow two concepts of betweenness and betweenness vulnerability from the
29 network science to introduce two distinct network weight matrices. One relies on the betweenness,
30 and the other is inspired by the definition of flow betweenness.

31 Unlike the spatial weight matrix, which is unable to capture the competitive nature of links,
32 the network weight matrices have the potential to deal with both competitive and complementary
33 nature of traffic links. To shed some light on the notion of competitive and complementary links
34 in a network, we depict simple two-link networks in Figure 1. One represents two paths, while the
35 other consists of a path between its origin and destination. By definition, link i is complementary to
36 link j , as an increase in the cost of link i not only decreases the flow of link i , but it also diminishes
37 the flow of link j . However, link i and link k are competitive, as an increase in the cost of link i
38 decreases the flow of link i , but increases the flow of link k .

39 Levinson and Karamalaputi (22) propose an algorithm, which physically detects competi-
40 tive or parallel links in a road network. The algorithm acknowledges four attributes: (1) Angular
41 difference between two links, (2) Perpendicular distance, (3) Sum of the distance between the start

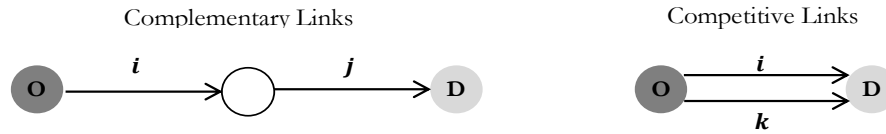


FIGURE 1 : A schematic example for complementary and competitive nature of traffic links

1 and end nodes of two links, and (4) The ratio of lengths of two links. However, we let the data
 2 speak for themselves. We postulate three major hypotheses to form network weight matrices:

- 3 1. The spatial dependence of competitive links is negative, and more vulnerable competi-
 4 tive links have more spatial dependence weight in a network.
- 5 2. The spatial dependence of complementary links is positive, and more vulnerable com-
 6plementary links have a greater spatial dependence weight in a network.
- 7 3. The components of network weight matrices are a function not simply of adjacency, but
 8 of the demand configuration and network topology.

9 To measure the components of the network weight matrix, we propose two distinct, yet
 10 comparable approaches depicted in Figure 2. The roots of both algorithms are in the concept of link
 11 vulnerability. In the first approach, $C_B(l, G(N, L))$ is betweenness centrality of link l in network
 12 $G(N, L)$, and $C_B(l, G(N, L - \{j\}))$ is betweenness centrality of link l following the elimination of
 13 link j from network $G(N, L)$. The change in betweenness centrality of link l , stemming from the
 14 elimination of link j , actualizes the w_{ij} component of the unweighted betweenness network weight
 15 matrix. We label this approach “unweighted betweenness,” as all links are equally weighted to
 16 one. Although the second and the first approaches are alike in the concept of link vulnerability,
 17 the second approach assigns different weights to each link. The assigned weight to each link is
 18 equal to the traffic flow that passes through the link. Appropriately, we label this approach “flow-
 19 weighted betweenness.” In this approach, $Q_B(l, G(N, L))$ is the flow of link l in network $G(N, L)$,
 20 and $Q_B(l, G(N, L - \{j\}))$ is the flow of link l following the elimination of link j from network
 21 $G(N, L)$. The change in flow of link l due to the removal of link j , forms the w_{ij} component of the
 22 flow-weighted betweenness network weight matrix.

23 NETWORK WEIGHT MATRIX CALCULATION: A TOY NETWORK PROBLEM

24 For pedagogical purposes, we derive the network weight matrices for a simple example. The toy
 25 network, depicted in Figure 3, consists of four nodes and five links. We extract the network weight
 26 matrices introduced in the preceding section for two disparate OD demand. It reveals the effects
 27 of demand configuration on spatial dependence between traffic links.

28 We adopt the standard Bureau of Public Roads (BPR) link performance function as per
 29 Equation 4. In this equation, t_i is the link travel time, t_i^0 stands for free-flow link travel time, v_i
 30 represents the assigned traffic volume, and c_i is the capacity of link i .

$$t_i = t_i^0 \left[1 + \alpha \left(\frac{v_i}{c_i} \right)^\beta \right] \quad (4)$$

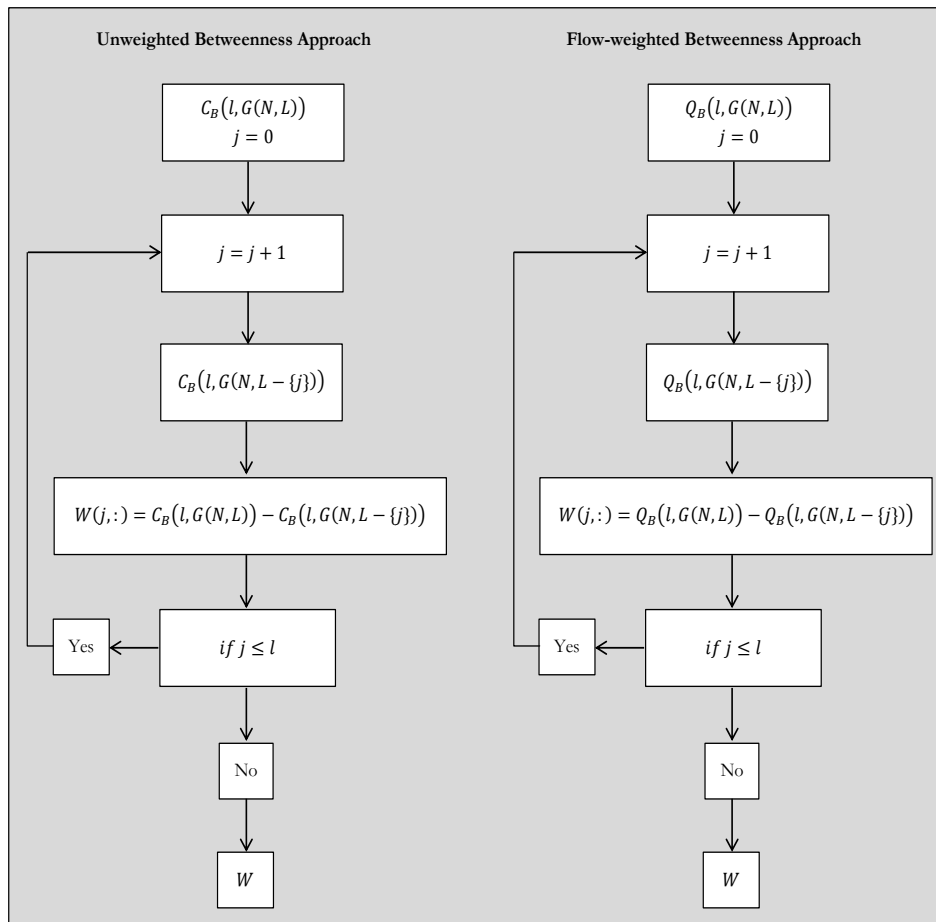


FIGURE 2 : The flowchart of network weight matrix measurement

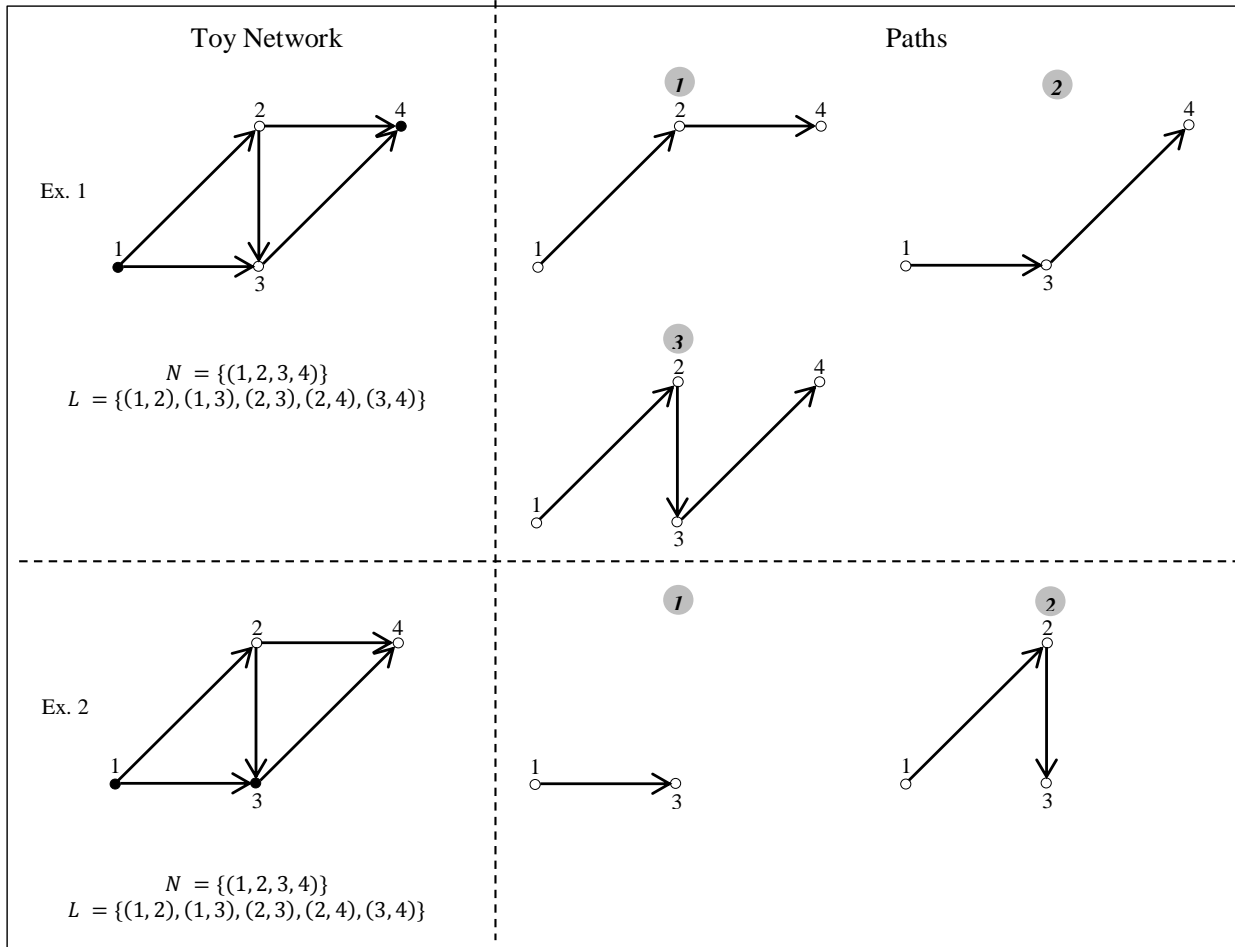


FIGURE 3 : A toy network and its link path graph

1 We outline the parameter values of each link in Table 2, which is extracted from Suwan-
 2 sirikul et al. (23). However, we slightly changed the free-flow link travel times of links (1,2) and
 3 (3,4) to have a unique shortest path between given OD pairs. In the following examples, we point
 4 out the derivation of network weight matrices in detail.

TABLE 2 : Parameter values of the toy network

Link	t_i^0	c_i	α	β
(1,2)	3.9	40.0	0.15	4.0
(1,3)	6.0	40.0	0.15	4.0
(2,3)	2.0	60.0	0.15	4.0
(2,4)	5.0	40.0	0.15	4.0
(3,4)	3.1	40.0	0.15	4.0

5 **Example 1:** The first instance passes 100 vehicles from node 1 to node 4 through three
 6 different paths. For the sake of understanding, we separately explain the process of deriving net-
 7 work weight matrices for two (unweighted) betweenness and two flow-weighted betweenness ap-
 8 proaches in this example.

9 Having to do with betweenness approach, we are able to calculate betweenness based on
 10 either the free-flow travel time or the ultimate link travel time derived from Equation 3 for each
 11 scenario. For simplicity, we employ the free-flow travel time to measure betweenness in this
 12 example. However, we later test both cases for evaluating network weight matrices. To find the
 13 shortest path, we employed Dijkstra’s algorithm. We represent the results in Table 3. For a network
 14 with all links scenario, looking at the betweenness indicates that the value of links (1,2) and (2,4)
 15 equal one, as path 1 is the shortest path between 1-4 OD pair. Following the removal of link (1,2),
 16 path 1 is no longer the shortest path and path 2 absorbs the traffic, as it is the only path in the
 17 network. Consequently, the values of links (1,3) and (3,4), which belong to path 2, take on the
 18 value of one. Differentiation of the betweenness of links when the network possesses all links and
 19 when link (1,2) is removed results in revealing the spatial dependence between link (1,2) and other
 20 links. The derived values form the first row of the network weight matrix depicted in Figure 4. The
 21 values disclose both complimentary and competitive nature of traffic links.

22 As expected, link (1,2) is intensely competitive with links (1,3) and (3,4), as removing link
 23 (1,2) shifts the traffic flow to link (1,3) and (3,4), which is the only path in the network. However,
 24 links (1,3) and (3,4) have do not any spatial impact on link (1,2), and thereby their corresponding
 25 components in the network weight matrix are zero. This is illustrated by the hypothesis of shortest
 26 path selection, which is the backbone of betweenness measurement. Link (1,2) belongs to the
 27 shortest path 1, which is selected by all users. Removal of link (1,3) does not change the path of
 28 flow in the network, and as a result the betweenness of the links is similar to the network with
 29 all links scenario. It is the shortcoming of betweenness measurement, which assumes all network
 30 users choose the shortest path.

31 Link (1,2) is complementary to link (2,4), as its removal paralyzes link (2,4). However, as
 32 shown in Figure 3, there is no spatial influence from link (2,4) on link (1,2). This is illuminated
 33 by two main reasons: (1) the studied links are directed and traffic link (1,2) is upstream of traffic
 34 link (3,4). Hence, flow streams from link (1,2) to link (3,4), and in the free-flow condition link
 35 (3,4) does not have any spatial influence on link (1,2). While in the congested situation, we might
 36 imagine the shockwave stemming from link (3,4) affects link (1,2). However, it is neither the case
 37 in this example nor is it measurable by betweenness index.

1 To implement the flow-weighted betweenness approach, we use the stochastic user equi-
 2 librium and the method of successive averages (MSA) solution algorithm to assign vehicular trip
 3 rates to the network (24). The results of the assignment are depicted in Table 3. Removal of link
 4 (1,2) paralyzes path 1 and path 3, and consequently the flow on links (1,2), (2,3), and (2,4) equal
 5 zero. Calculating the change rate in traffic flow of each link following the link (1,2) removal results
 6 in revealing spatial dependence between link (1,2) and other traffic links. The first row of network
 7 weight matrix depicted in Figure 4 discloses this dependency. For illustration, the components of
 8 the first row are calculated as follows:

$$9 \quad W_{(1,2)(1,2)} = 52 - 0 = 52$$

$$10 \quad W_{(1,2)(1,3)} = 48 - 100 = -52$$

$$11 \quad W_{(1,2)(2,3)} = 6 - 0 = 6$$

$$12 \quad W_{(1,2)(2,4)} = 46 - 0 = 46$$

$$13 \quad W_{(1,2)(3,4)} = 54 - 100 = -46$$

14 The values of the network weight matrix formed by flow-weighted betweenness approach
 15 alike the betweenness approach reveal both complimentary and competitive nature of traffic links.

16 Link (1,2) is directly competitive with links (1,3) and (3,4), in line with our hypotheses and
 17 results of the betweenness approach. In contrast with betweenness approach, the flow-weighted
 18 betweenness approach acknowledges the reciprocal spatial dependence between links (1,2) and
 19 both link (1,3) and link (3,4). The reason is the flow-weighted betweenness approach is not simply
 20 a function of shortest path, but of user equilibrium assignment. However, the unweighted between-
 21 ness approach stands on the foundation of all-or-nothing assumption. Interestingly, looking at the
 22 second row of the network weight matrix indicates that link (1,3) is competitive with links (2,3)
 23 and (2,4), but with different magnitudes. Although link (1,3) is highly correlated with link (2,3),
 24 there is a low correlation between link (1,3) and (2,4). It is empirically, true as a significant amount
 25 of flow shifts to link (2,3) by removing link (1,3) in comparison with the network with all links
 26 scenario. However, traffic flow of link (2,4) does not witness a remarkable change.

27 Unlike the unweighted betweenness approach, link (1,2) is complementary not only to
 28 link (2,4), but also to link (2,3). It is not surprising, given link (1,2) is a feeder of both links.
 29 However, there is no reciprocal spatial dependence between links (1,2) and (2,4), since traffic
 30 links are directed in this example and link (1,2) is the only feeder of link (2,4). When a link
 31 absorbs traffic from more than one feeder, the reciprocal spatial dependence shows up in network
 32 weight matrix. The instance of such dependence is link (3,4), which is fed by links (1,3) and (2,3).
 33 Consequently, not just links (1,3) and (2,3) spatially affect link (3,4), but they are affected by link
 34 (3,4) as well.

35 Comparing two network weight matrices demonstrates that the network weight matrix built
 36 on the flow-weighted betweenness approach captures the more realistic spatial dependence be-
 37 tween links than the unweighted betweenness approach. We hence hypothesize that the flow-
 38 weighted betweenness approach performs better than unweighted betweenness approach, particu-
 39 larly in congested traffic conditions. We later test this hypothesis.

TABLE 3 : Weight matrix calculation for Example 1

Network Scenario	Unweighted Betweenness					Flow-Weighted Betweenness				
	(1,2)	(1,3)	(2,3)	(2,4)	(3,4)	(1,2)	(1,3)	(2,3)	(2,4)	(3,4)
All links	1	0	0	1	0	52	48	6	46	54
Without (1,2)	0	1	0	0	1	0	100	0	0	100
Without (1,3)	1	0	0	1	0	100	0	52.38	47.62	52.38
Without (2,3)	1	0	0	1	1	50	50	0	50	50
Without (2,4)	1	0	1	0	1	52	48	52	0	100
Without (3,4)	1	0	0	1	0	100	0	0	100	0

Unweighted Betweenness						Flow-weighted Betweenness						
Links	(1,2)	(1,3)	(2,3)	(2,4)	(3,4)	Links	(1,2)	(1,3)	(2,3)	(2,4)	(3,4)	
$W_{=}$	(1,2)	1	-1	0	1	-1	(1,2)	52	-52	6	46	-46
	(1,3)	0	0	0	0	0	(1,3)	-48	48	-46.38	-1.62	1.62
	(2,3)	0	0	0	0	0	(2,3)	2	-2	6	-4	4
	(2,4)	0	0	-1	1	-1	(2,4)	0	0	-46	46	-46
	(3,4)	0	0	0	0	0	(3,4)	-48	48	6	-54	54

FIGURE 4 : Network weight matrices for Example 1

1 **Example 2:** Similar to Example 1, this instance passes 100 vehicles, but from node 1 to
2 node 2 through two different paths. We depict the results of flow-weighted and unweighted be-
3 tweenness for different scenarios in Table 4. We also represent the corresponding network weight
4 matrices in Figure 5. The process of deriving network weight matrices for unweighted and flow-
5 weighted betweenness is akin to Example 1. We hence eschew digging into the derivation, and
6 instead emphasize the dissimilarity between network weight matrices in two examples stemming
7 from the change in demand configuration.

8 Not surprisingly, the corresponding components to link (2,4) and (3,4) in network weight
9 matrices are zero, as they pass no flow from node 1 to node 2. In this example path 1 competes with
10 path 2, and thereby links (1,2) and (2,3) are competitive with link (1,3). The negative sign of the
11 components discloses this competitive nature. Comparing network weight matrices in two exam-
12 ples emphasizes the remarkable role of link (2,3) in 1-2 OD configuration. It is indeed true, as path
13 2 is the only substitute for path 1. The change in value of the components of the network weight
14 matrices in two examples reveals the role of demand configuration in spatial dependence between
15 traffic links. The spatial dependence between traffic links is not only related to the topology of the
16 network, but it is also defined by the demand configuration in traffic networks.

17 USE OF NETWORK ECONOMETRICS TO ESTIMATE TRAFFIC FLOW

18 Let us consider again the toy network in Figure 3, when traffic demand generates from node 1 and
19 attracts to node 4. The traffic flow of a particular link (2,3) is a function of travel cost on this link.
20 Pertaining to the spatial dependence between links, the travel cost on the upstream and downstream
21 links (1,2) and (3,4), which feed or absorb flows, could have significant impacts on flow of link
22 (2,3). All else equal, parallel links (1,3) and (2,4) could also significantly affect the flow of link

TABLE 4 : Weight matrix calculation for Example 2

Network Scenario	Unweighted Betweenness					Flow-weighted Betweenness				
	(1,2)	(1,3)	(2,3)	(2,4)	(3,4)	(1,2)	(1,3)	(2,3)	(2,4)	(3,4)
All links	1	0	1	0	0	51.85	48.15	51.85	0	0
Without (1,2)	0	1	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0
Without (1,3)	1	0	1	0	0	100	0	100	0	0
Without (2,3)	0	1	0	0	0	0	100	0	0	0
Without (2,4)	1	0	1	0	0	51.85	48.15	51.85	0	0
Without (3,4)	1	0	1	0	0	51.85	48.15	51.85	0	0

Unweighted Betweenness						Flow-weighted Betweenness					
Links	(1,2)	(1,3)	(2,3)	(2,4)	(3,4)	Links	(1,2)	(1,3)	(2,3)	(2,4)	(3,4)
(1,2)	1	-1	1	0	0	(1,2)	51.85	-51.85	51.85	0	0
(1,3)	0	0	0	0	0	(1,3)	-48.15	48.15	-48.15	0	0
(2,3)	1	-1	1	0	0	(2,3)	51.85	-51.85	51.85	0	0
(2,4)	0	0	0	0	0	(2,4)	0	0	0	0	0
(3,4)	0	0	0	0	0	(3,4)	0	0	0	0	0

FIGURE 5 : Network weight matrices for Example 2

1 (2,3), although in the opposite direction by diverting trips. Pertaining to the temporal dependence,
2 the observations of travel cost on lag time could also drive the traffic flow by influencing the
3 expectation of travelers on travel cost. In addition, the traffic flow of a lag time is regarded as a
4 continuation of current condition of traffic flow. Accordingly, the traffic flow in a traffic network
5 is estimated by a network econometrics model as follows:

$$\nabla^h q_t = \gamma + \sum_{c=0}^C \sum_{z=0}^Z \psi_{cz} W_z \nabla^h q_{t-c} + \varphi_t W X_t + \sum_{c=0}^C \sum_{z=0}^Z \theta_{ck} W_z \varepsilon_{t-c} + \varepsilon_t \quad (5)$$

6 In Equation 5, X_t is a vector of explanatory variables such as capacity and speed limit of
7 traffic links. The parameters of h , C , and Z are non-negative integers and stand for degree of
8 differencing, order of the autoregressive, and order of the moving-average, respectively. W_z is a
9 $l \times l$ network weight matrix for temporal lag z . Finally, ε_t denotes a normally distributed of error
10 terms.

11 The network econometrics model has distinctive characteristics:

- 12 • This model has the potential to achieve better results when network topology changes or
13 data is missing.
- 14 • This model accounts for demand uncertainty by developing a more comprehensive solu-
15 tion that is less likely to fail under extreme events. Consequently, it reduces the variance
16 of costs.
- 17 • The network econometrics model is statistical, and based on initial demands, network
18 structure, shortest path, and user equilibrium assumptions, and predicts flows rather than

1 the movement of individual vehicles. It does not incorporate physical models such as
 2 hydrodynamics or car-following. This model allows data to speak directly and play a
 3 more decisive role in traffic forecasting models

- 4 • The network econometrics model includes a network weight matrix, which captures re-
 5 alistic spatial dependence between traffic links.

6 In the following section, we focus on a specific functional form of the network economet-
 7 rics model, in which traffic flow is just a function of travel cost on the current state. This aims to
 8 evaluate the excellence of the network weight matrices in line with the main contribution of the
 9 current research.

10 NETWORK WEIGHT MATRIX VERIFICATION

11 In order to exhibit validity of the network weight matrices and comparing the efficacy of each of
 12 which, we adopt the Nguyen and Dupuis (25) network depicted in Figure 6. The network consists
 13 of 13 nodes, 19 directed links and 4 OD pairs. The characteristics of each link are represented in
 14 Table 5, which are extracted from Xu et al. (26). We test the network weight matrices for three
 15 different demand scenarios:

- 16 1. $q_{12} = 20$, $q_{13} = 40$, $q_{42} = 30$, and $q_{43} = 10$,
- 17 2. $q_{12} = 400$, $q_{13} = 800$, $q_{42} = 600$, and $q_{43} = 200$, and
- 18 3. $q_{12} = 800$, $q_{13} = 1,600$, $q_{42} = 1,200$, and $q_{43} = 400$.

19 The second scenario, which was used by Nguyen and Dupuis (25), gives a semi-congested
 20 traffic condition. In this scenario, links 6, 8, 12, 15, and 17 have not reached their capacity. The
 21 first and third demand scenarios are designed to assess the network weight matrices in uncongested
 22 and congested traffic regimes, respectively.

TABLE 5 : Link characteristics of the Nguyen-Dupuis network

Link	t_i^0	c_i	α	β	Link	t_i^0	c_i	α	β
1	7	300	0.15	4	11	9	500	0.15	4
2	9	200	0.15	4	12	10	550	0.15	4
3	9	200	0.15	4	13	9	200	0.15	4
4	12	200	0.15	4	14	6	400	0.15	4
5	3	350	0.15	4	15	9	300	0.15	4
6	9	400	0.15	4	16	8	300	0.15	4
7	5	500	0.15	4	17	7	200	0.15	4
8	13	250	0.15	4	18	14	300	0.15	4
9	5	250	0.15	4	19	11	200	0.15	4
10	9	300	0.15	4					

23 To test the network weight matrices, we develop five distinct models. The functional form
 24 of the models assumes a simple linear relationship between exogenous and endogenous variables.
 25 We are aware that this is a naive assumption. However, this does not jeopardize our results, as
 26 we aim to judge whether and to what extent the network weight matrices have the potential of ad-
 27 vancing the traffic flow forecasting. The first model simply considers a linear relationship between
 28 traffic flow in each link and its corresponding travel cost. The other models capture both direct

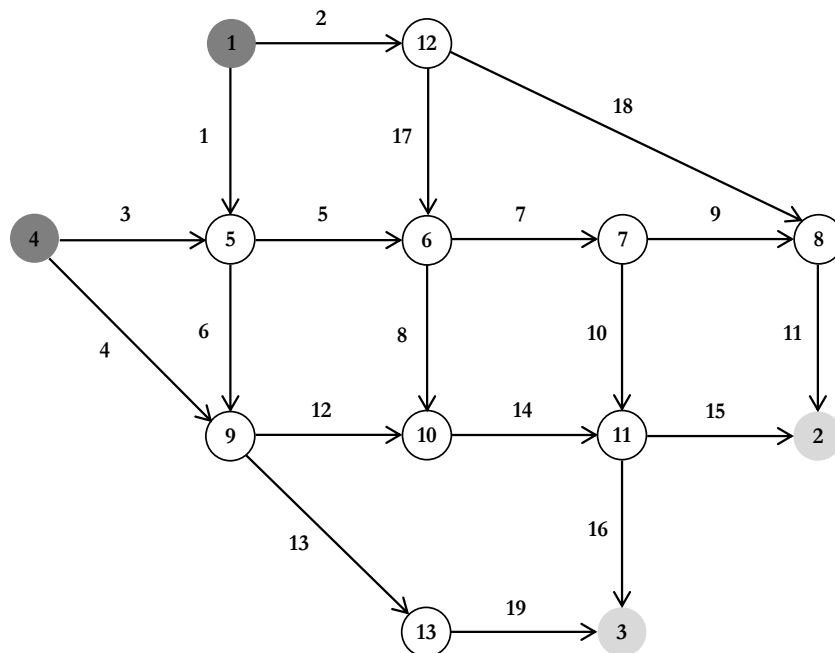


FIGURE 6 : The Nguyen-Dupuis network

1 and spatial relationship between traffic flow and travel cost. The models are unique in the method
 2 of measuring spatial dependence between traffic links. We depict the information of the models in
 3 Table 6. For estimation, we use the ordinary least squares (OLS) estimation method, which is the
 4 best linear unbiased estimator (BLUE) of the coefficients for both bivariate linear regression and
 5 spatial cross-regressive models. We summarize the results of the models in Table 7. The student's
 6 t-test for exogenous variables is reported in parentheses.

TABLE 6 : Specification of models used in this study

Models	Formula	Method of Spatial Dependence Measurement
Model 1	$q_t = \gamma + \mu_t X_t + \varepsilon_t$	No spatial component
Model 2	$q_t = \gamma + \mu_t X_t + \phi_t W X_t + \varepsilon_t$	Spatial Weight matrix: First-order neighbor
Model 3	$q_t = \gamma + \phi_t W X_t + \varepsilon_t$	Network weight matrix: unweighted betweenness based on t_i^0
Model 4	$q_t = \gamma + \phi_t W X_t + \varepsilon_t$	Network weight matrix: unweighted betweenness based on t_i
Model 5	$q_t = \gamma + \phi_t W X_t + \varepsilon_t$	Network weight matrix: flow-weighted betweenness

7 As for the significance of variables, the spatial component of Model 5 is significant con-
 8 stantly. It demonstrates that the network weight matrix deriving from the flow-weighted between-
 9 ness approach is able to capture the spatial dependence significantly in all traffic conditions. It is
 10 also true for Model 4. The spatial component of Model 2, however, is not statistically significant.
 11 This discloses that the traditional spatial weight matrix is unable to measure the realistic spatial
 12 dependence between traffic links. Finally, the cost component of Model 1 statistically defines the
 13 traffic flow in free-flow traffic condition. When the traffic condition transits from free-flow to con-
 14 gested flow, there is no significant linear correlation between traffic cost and traffic flow. This is
 15 generalizable to the coefficient of spatial component in Model 3. It was expected, as the network
 16 weight matrix used in Model 3 derived from the free-flow cost function, and thereby performs
 17 better in the free-flow traffic condition.

TABLE 7 : Results of the models in different demand scenarios

Models		Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3
Model 1	<i>Constant</i>	87.90 (4.29)	417.29 (3.01)	793.01 (4.07)
	Coefficient	-6.94 (-3.16)	1.44 (0.21)	2.66 (0.61)
	R^2	0.37	0.002	0.02
Model 2	<i>Constant</i>	99.62 (3.77)	423.96 (2.49)	804.47 (3.32)
	Coefficient	-7.48 (-3.18)	1.40 (0.20)	2.67 (0.59)
	Coefficient	-0.60 (-0.72)	-0.26 (-0.07)	-0.27 (-0.08)
	R^2	0.39	0.003	0.02
Model 3	<i>Constant</i>	1.62 (0.25)	428.51 (8.41)	903.57 (10.14)
	Coefficient	-9.41 (-5.11)	-41.99 (-1.07)	-7.21 (-0.25)
	R^2	0.60	0.06	0.003
Model 4	<i>Constant</i>	2.05 (0.31)	358.52 (6.49)	778.89 (7.81)
	Coefficient	-8.69 (-5.03)	-78.07 (-2.49)	-49.04 (-1.99)
	R^2	0.59	0.26	0.18
Model 5	<i>Constant</i>	8.59 (4.63)	356.54 (10.06)	808.95 (10.63)
	Coefficient	-0.05 (-18.09)	-4.29 (-5.21)	-4.52 (-3.11)
	R^2	0.95	0.61	0.36

1 As for the fit of the models, we compare the R^2 measure of goodness of fit for all models
2 in whole scenarios. We show the results in Figure 7. Model 5 performs far better than the other
3 models in all traffic conditions. There is not a significant difference between the performance of
4 model Mode 2, which embeds the spatial weight matrix, and Model 1. In the uncongested traffic
5 condition, Model 3 and Model 1 reach the same result, and both of them perform 1.6 times better
6 than Model 1. Model 5 performs 1.5 times better than Models 3 and 4, and thereby 2.5 times better
7 than Model 1. In the semi-congested and congested traffic conditions, Model 3 lose its ability to
8 capture the realistic spatial dependence between traffic links, while it yet performs far better than
9 both Model 1 and Model 2. Although the prediction power of Model 4 and Model 5 declines in
10 the semi-congested and congested traffic conditions, their relative power increases significantly. In
11 the congested traffic condition, for example, the R^2 measure of Model 4 and Model 5 is 8.7 and
12 16.7 times of Model 1, respectively. The results lead inexorably to the conclusion that the network
13 weight matrices more realistically measure spatial dependency between traffic links. This results
14 improves traffic flow forecasting models.

15 CLOSING REMARKS

16 Despite the fact that forecasting traffic conditions is sophisticated, it is still tractable and predictable
17 with a deep understanding of relationships between traffic components. Under this conviction, con-
18 tinuous attempts have been made to analyze transportation networks and modeling traffic condi-
19 tions. Correspondingly, two strands of methods have emerged, which embed the spatial component
20 in traffic forecasting framework: state-space and spatio-temporal approaches. However, the evolu-
21 tion of spatial traffic forecasting models were mainly based on spatial weight matrices, which may
22 not accurately reflect the spatial dependence between traffic links.

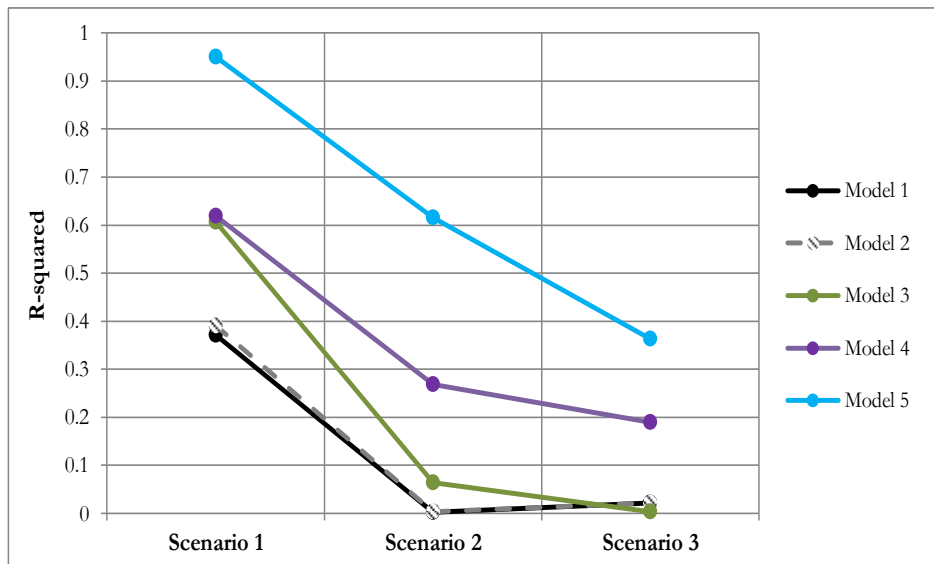


FIGURE 7 : The goodness of fit comparison of the models in all demand scenarios

1 We have introduced two distinct network weight matrices. The first is built on the notion of
 2 betweenness and link vulnerability in traffic networks. To derive this matrix, we assume all traffic
 3 flow is assigned to the shortest path, and thereby we use Dijkstra's algorithm to find the shortest
 4 path. The second relies on flow rate change in traffic links. For forming this matrix, we employed
 5 user equilibrium assignment and MSA algorithm to solve the network. This approach enabled
 6 us to capture more realistic traffic flow distribution, especially in the congested traffic conditions.
 7 Both network weight matrices acknowledge the network topology and demand configuration. If
 8 topological and hierarchical attributes correctly capture the substitutive effects on the network,
 9 we are able to better predict how traffic flow would redistribute on the network in cases of major
 10 network changes.

11 We have tested and compared the network weight matrices in different traffic conditions.
 12 Such a comparison exemplifies the capability of network weight matrices to advance traffic fore-
 13 casting. The best performing implementations for capturing spatial dependence between traffic
 14 links are the network weight matrices. The models with network weight matrices perform better
 15 than both the model without spatial weight matrix and without the spatial component. This leads
 16 inexorably to the conclusion that traditional spatial weight matrices are unable to capture the real-
 17 istic spatial dependence between traffic links. We also demonstrate that the network econometrics
 18 model encompassing the network weight matrix stemming from the flow-weighted betweenness
 19 approach performs far better than the other models, particularly in congested traffic conditions.
 20 However, forming this matrix requires considerable computational effort and information. If the
 21 network is in the uncongested state, we recommend the network weight matrix stemming from
 22 betweenness. Drilling down further, the key findings include:

- 23 • The spatial dependency that is captured by spatial weight matrix is unsuccessful in ex-
 24 plaining the spatial relationship between traffic links.
- 25 • The network weight matrix deriving from betweenness method performs well in free-
 26 flow traffic conditions, and loses its ability in congested traffic condition. However, mea-

1 suring betweenness by the ultimate travel cost instead of free-flow travel time enhances
2 the capability of this matrix in congested traffic conditions.

- 3 • The assigned flow method significantly operates better than betweenness method to mea-
4 sure realistic spatial dependence between traffic links, particularly in congested traffic
5 condition. The results disclose that this superiority is more than 2 times in congested
6 flow situations.

7 This study has led to a clear and unshakable conclusion that traditional spatial weight ma-
8 trices are unable to capture the realistic spatial dependence between traffic links in a network.
9 Not only do they overlook the competitive nature of traffic links, but they also ignore the role of
10 network topology and demand configuration in measuring the spatial dependence between traffic
11 links. Neglecting these elements is not simply information loss. It has nontrivial impacts on con-
12 cluding remarks and policy decisions. Although we believe this study is a valuable extension to
13 the current literature, as a first step it requires additional research.

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