This study utilizes **drone-based data** to capture high-resolution driver behavior and traffic patterns on an urban arterial. Leveraging these insights, AI-driven models are developed to **estimate traffic risk probabilities** at both microscopic and macroscopic levels, addressing research gaps and offering a more holistic, real-time perspective on road safety

AI-Driven Framework for Real-Time Prediction of Microscopic and Macroscopic Driving Risk Using Holistic Data

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Traffic Events

dataset was

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3rd
Dataframe

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Accurate prediction of driving risks is crucial for urban road safety. With traffic crashes resulting in significant human and economic losses globally, real-time risk estimation is vital.

Traffic modeling is approached at **three levels**: macroscopic (overall flow), microscopic (individual driver-vehicle behaviors), and mesoscopic (group interactions). Microscopic models, involving car-following and lane-changing, help identify and mitigate risky behaviors like frequent lane changes. Macroscopic models use aggregated data to reveal broader safety trends, such as speed dispersion correlating with collision risks. **Integrating these two scales** offers a more comprehensive understanding of road safety, yet such integration, especially using new technologies like drones, remains underexplored

Figure 1: Blocks covered by each drone of the swarm

1st
Dataframe **Vehicle Metrics**

gregated data for vehicle pai llowing and leading vehicles nd risk metrics including:

- Track ID
- Position
- Type Speed
- Longitudinal acceleration,
- Lane-polygon • Time-to-Collision (TTC)
- $T C_{i} = \frac{x_{i-1}\left(t\right) x_{i}\left(t\right) t}{\sqrt{C}}$ $-\dot{x}_{i}\left(t\right)-\dot{x}_{i-1}\left(t\right)$

re: x speed of the vehicle, x the $\,$ sition, \boldsymbol{l} the vehicle length $-$

ic metrics for each polyd ry 0.04s timeframe, inclue

- Average vehicle speed
-
- Total number of vehicles Density (veh/km
-
- Traffic flow (veh/h)
- $= k \times v_{avg}$.

 $\mathbf{e}{:}\mathit{v}_{i}$ speed of the i-th vehicle (k ingth of the road segment (km)

❖ **LSTM-based modeling shows strong potential for real-time driving risk prediction**, demonstrating effectiveness at

❖ **Bi-directional LSTM models offer slightly better precision** than uni-directional models due to their ability to capture future states, but both configurations still struggle with low recall, indicating difficulty in identifying all true risky events. ❖ **Drone-collected traffic data provides a richer**, more dynamic perspective compared to traditional static or vehicular

- both microscopic and macroscopic levels when combined with drone-collected data.
-
- data, enabling more comprehensive risk assessments.
- and other road users can enhance accuracy and generalizability.

❖ **Further refinement and integration of additional data sources** - including traffic, infrastructure, environmental factors,

Data Overview

Objective

The pNEUMA dataset, collected in Athens, Greece (2018), consists of high-frequency (25Hz) vehicle trajectory data captured by ten drones over five days. As shown in Figure 1, the drones covered a 1.3 km² area with over 100 kilometers of roadways and nearly 100 intersections, capturing nearly half a million vehicle trajectories. This study focused on Panepistimiou Street, a five-lane urban arterial in Athens (i.e., Block 2,3 and 5).

Microscopic Risk Prediction: LSTM Configurations

Acknowledgments

⁷ neumar **Solutions would like to acknowledge the use of the pNEUMA dataset in this study – open-traffic.epfl.ch**

❑ **Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks** were employed to predict driving risk by modeling sequential data. Both **uni-directional and bi-directional LSTMs** were explored, where the former processed data in a single temporal direction, and the latter considered both forward and backward temporal sequences to enhance the contextual understanding of risky events.

❑ The LSTM models featured a **robust architecture** with at least two layers using 'tanh' activation functions, L2 regularization, and dropout rates over 40% to **prevent overfitting**. The output layer used a sigmoid activation function for binary classification. Models were trained with a batch size of 32 for up to 400 epochs, applying early stopping to halt training when validation loss stopped improving. Configurations were optimized by varying layers, dropout rates, neurons, and optimizers (Adam and SGD).

❑ The LSTM analyzed driving data through a **10-second observation window (X)**, a **1-second reaction window (Y)** for driver response exclusion, and a **2-second prediction window (Z)** to flag risky events. As shown in Figure 3, the model used sequential data from the observation window (X) to predict events in the prediction window (Z). The input data shape was (250, 35, 69505), representing observations, features, and snapshots.

Conclusions

LSTM models were developed to predict microscopic driving risks, specifically focusing on speeding events. Models included **uniand bi-directional configurations** with varying layers (2-3), dropout rates (40-50%), neurons (16-128), and optimizers (Adam and SGD). Uni-directional models processed sequences in a single direction, while bidirectional models captured both past and future contexts, offering potentially richer insights and improved accuracy. Bi-directional models were expected to perform better **by leveraging temporal dependencies** in both directions, which is critical for predicting sequential behaviors such as harsh braking or speed changes based on both past and future contexts. As shown in Table 1, the models were designed with varying complexity to evaluate their effectiveness in capturing these dependencies.

The performance of the LSTM models was evaluated using accuracy, precision, recall, and AUC. These metrics provided a comprehensive assessment of the models' ability to predict driving risk events, ensuring robust evaluation for real-time assessments.

Table 2 summarizes the performance metrics for the tested LSTM models. **Bi-directional models generally outperformed unidirectional models in terms of precision**, likely due to their ability to consider future states.

For example, Model 7, a bi-directional LSTM with three layers and 40% dropout, achieved the **highest precision of 94%** but had a lower recall of 18%, indicating it was highly accurate when identifying speeding events but struggled to detect all occurrences. Model 1, a uni-directional LSTM, had a slightly lower precision of 76% and a slightly higher recall of 22%, showing a trade-off between precision and recall.

Microscopic driving risk probabilities predicted by LSTM models were aggregated to assess risk at the road section level. Risk probabilities of individual vehicles and their interactions within specific road segments were analyzed over **102-second intervals**. This transformed microscopic predictions into a macroscopic view, offering insights into overall risk profiles.

Model 7 initially estimated microscopic risk, focusing on speeding events at the vehicle level, and aggregated this data at the road section level. Future research should expand this approach to include lane changes, harsh acceleration, and braking, considering all road users.

Road segments were divided, and risk probabilities were summed over time to generate segment-specific scores. Aggregated risk data, normalized and visualized in Figure 4, highlight the variation in driving risk for a specific road section across time

restructured into 0.04s

intervals, and

Panepistimiou lanes were

mapped as polygons for

accurate positioning.

Three dataframes were

developed and merged

into a unified dataframe:

lisky traffic events, setting thresholds for safety indicators: • Thresholds used included:

- TTC: 1.5 seconds • Harsh braking: 4.9 m/s^2
- Harsh acceleration: 4.9 m/s • Speeding: +10 km/h over limi
- Lane change detection was performed by flagging vehicle that appeared in different polygons between two consecutive time frames.

Introduction and the Methodology

❑ The models utilized driving metrics such as **vehicle type, speed, longitudinal acceleration, relative distance, and time-to-collision** for the ego vehicle and its closest neighbors. Target variables included **lane changing, speeding, harsh acceleration, and harsh braking**. Figure 2 depicts the ego vehicle (**green**) and surrounding vehicles (**black**), whose data were used to estimate microscopic

-
- risks.
-
-

Figure 2: Ego Vehicle and Spatiotemporal Risk Aggregation

Figure 3: Time-Series Windows for Driving Metrics and Event Prediction

Table 1: Configuration of the LSTM tested for the prediction of speeding events

Table 2: Performance metrics for the LSTM models

Macroscopic Driving Risk Probability

Microscopic Risk Prediction: Performance Metrics

Figure 3: Evolution of aggregated macroscopic risk in time for a specific section of Panepistimiou street for 100 seconds