

# Using routing apps to model real-time road traffic emissions

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DOI:

[10.1002/wea.3729](https://doi.org/10.1002/wea.3729)

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*Document Version*

Peer reviewed version

*Citation for published version (Harvard):*

Pearce, H, Gong, Z, Cai, X & Bloss, W 2020, 'Using routing apps to model real-time road traffic emissions', *Weather*, vol. 75, pp. 341-346. <https://doi.org/10.1002/wea.3729>

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1 **Using routing apps to model real-time road traffic emissions**

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25 **Abstract**

26 General awareness of air quality has grown significantly in recent years, with ‘Low Emission’  
27 and ‘Clean Air’ zones proposed for many cities across the UK. However, cities are a complex  
28 landscape and air pollutant concentrations can vary greatly from street to street. Therefore a  
29 synthesis of techniques to quantify air pollution is required to account for variations in traffic,  
30 meteorology, and urban geometry. While the transport sector accounts for much of the outdoor  
31 air pollution in UK cities, a limiting factor of current techniques is that traffic is approximated  
32 at coarse temporal and spatial resolutions. For example, the UK Department for Transport  
33 provides manual hourly counts of traffic volume for point locations, but these tend to only be  
34 for major roadways and the data is typically collected on one day of the year. Here, we present  
35 a novel technique that helps to ‘fill in’ the gaps in our traffic data by harnessing the power of  
36 real-time queries to online mapping services, such as Google Maps, to obtain vehicle speed  
37 information. This dataset can then be used to determine more accurate emission factors for  
38 oxides of nitrogen at the resolution of a single street. Initial results are promising, shown here  
39 by the application of this technique to the Birmingham (UK) road network.

40

41 **Key words**

42 Air quality, traffic emissions, API, exposure, human health

43

44 **Funding information**

45 This research was undertaken during a PhD studentship funded by DREAM, a subsidiary of  
46 NERC. More information can be found at: <http://www.dream-cdt.ac.uk/>

47

48 Word count: 3498

49

## 50 **Introduction**

51 Countries around the world face pressing social, environmental, political and economic  
52 issues. Air quality transcends all of the above; poor air quality disproportionately impacts  
53 minorities and those on a low income (Di et al., 2017), while contributing to 40,000 premature  
54 deaths and an economic burden of £20 billion per year in the UK alone (Royal College of  
55 Physicians, 2016) As more than 50% of the world's population now resides in urban  
56 environments, it is these relatively small spatial areas in which the most acute pollution  
57 episodes are likely to have the largest impact on the greatest number of people.

58 The sources and profile of pollutants varies greatly throughout the world. In the UK, the  
59 key pollutants driving adverse health outcomes are nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) and fine particulate  
60 matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>), with 64% of new paediatric asthma cases in urban centres attributed to elevated  
61 NO<sub>2</sub> levels (Achakulwisut et al., 2019). The primary source of NO<sub>2</sub> in roadside locations  
62 originates from vehicle transport. Yearly net emissions data from road transport is freely  
63 available at 1 km resolution from the National Atmospheric Emissions Inventory (NAEI).  
64 However, this top-down approach loses the granularity of particular roads and junctions that  
65 are emission hot-spots at different times of the day.

66 Measuring road traffic emissions of NO<sub>2</sub> at high spatial and temporal resolutions is costly  
67 and logistically challenging. Here, we develop a cheaper and universally applicable  
68 methodology to infer road transport emissions at the resolution of an individual road. We utilise  
69 the vast amount of data generated by the widespread use of mapping products to better  
70 understand traffic flows on city roads. While the total number of vehicles on a busy road link  
71 is relatively static as it is limited by road space and demand, the speed of vehicles on road links

72 is highly variable due to congestion effects. However, this is often not included in traditional  
73 air quality models, where vehicles are assumed to be freely flowing at the legal speed limit of  
74 the road (e.g. Bright et al., 2013; Zhong et al., 2015). By capturing a real-time estimation of  
75 vehicle speed, a more accurate emission factor (g/km) for oxides of nitrogen (NO<sub>x</sub>) can be  
76 calculated for each vehicle on a road link. Total emissions for a road link are in turn calculated  
77 from the emission factor and the number of vehicles using the road link. The subsequent  
78 pollutant concentrations that people are exposed to arise from the meteorological, chemical,  
79 and physical processing of emissions within the environment. This study focusses on  
80 improving the accuracy of traffic-related NO<sub>x</sub> emission calculations, while future work will  
81 model environmental interactions.

82 Firstly, the ability of different map platform providers to capture real-time traffic conditions  
83 in an isolated study area was assessed. Secondly, the novel methodology was applied to  
84 Birmingham's road network to assess the spatial variation of road traffic activity and hence  
85 emissions. This work involved automating requests to mapping products to obtain journey  
86 times for defined road links at multiple times of the day. To the best knowledge of the authors  
87 this methodology of scraping mapping providers for such a purpose has not been reported  
88 previously.

89 Birmingham (UK) was chosen as a representative western city of 1.1m inhabitants  
90 (Birmingham City Council, 2018a), with changing policy measures related to air quality  
91 emissions from road transport: a Clean Air Zone (CAZ) is due to come into force in mid-2020  
92 to reduce the number of older vehicles known to emit more pollutants (for diesel engines pre  
93 Euro 6 standard, petrol engines pre Euro 4 standard) entering the city centre (Birmingham City  
94 Council, 2018b). The proposed area to be included within the CAZ is shown in Figure 1 by  
95 yellow shading. While this study uses Birmingham as a test-bed, it is important to note that it

96 could be applied to any road network where a mapping platform provides navigational  
97 assistance and users feed-back their anonymised location data to the platform.

98

99

## 100 **Study area and data**

### 101 Crowdsourced real-time traffic data

102 This study exploits advances made by mapping platforms that integrate real-time traffic  
103 information into their algorithms to predict the journey time for a determined route (Google,  
104 2019; Here, 2019; Microsoft, 2018; TomTom, 2019). While the providers historically relied  
105 on in-situ traffic measuring equipment at limited sites, they are now able to incorporate data  
106 received from the users of the platforms on any road, assuming the correct location settings  
107 configuration and user sharing permissions (Dhar and Garg, 2014). When drivers actively use  
108 such applications to determine routing information during a journey, their location is  
109 periodically fed back into the system to determine their travel speed, which then informs other  
110 drivers of the road conditions ahead (Google, 2009). This is known as crowdsourcing as it  
111 utilises a large population of users contributing data to a server, which are then anonymised  
112 and aggregated to identify useful patterns of traffic. While the raw database is not freely  
113 available from such providers on individual trips, by utilising the platforms' Application  
114 Programming Interfaces (APIs) it is possible to collect journey time data that is influenced by  
115 such patterns for specific road segments at regular intervals.

116

### 117 Road network

118 Information regarding the road network for the Birmingham area was obtained from  
119 the Ordnance Survey Open Roads dataset. The study area covers a total extent of  
120 approximately 5 km by 5 km, centred on the city's Central Business District. This area includes

121 both within and outside the proposed CAZ, but it was necessary to limit the spatial extent due  
122 to the free usage limits of the mapping platforms. Only major ('A' and 'B') roads were included  
123 in this analysis to balance temporal and spatial resolution given the limitation of the monthly  
124 requests to the mapping products. In total, 920 road links were included within the analysis,  
125 with an average link length of 71.3 m.

126

### 127 Traffic counts

128 Traffic counts of vehicle flows were required to provide the total number of vehicles  
129 and fleet composition on different parts of the road network. The UK Department for Transport  
130 (DfT) conducts manual counting of road traffic volume and composition on selected roads  
131 which is freely available for download from their interactive web portal. The data consists of  
132 hourly totals between 0700 and 1900 UTC for both traffic flow directions (if applicable),  
133 classed by different categories of road traffic: motorbikes, cars and taxis, buses and coaches,  
134 light goods vehicles (LGVs) and heavy goods vehicles (HGVs). There are several limitations  
135 to be aware of when using this data: not all roads are monitored with this method; field counts  
136 are not necessarily conducted every year; and data collected for a specific day is assumed to be  
137 representative of an average day for the whole year. However, this is currently the most  
138 accessible way to freely obtain the total number of vehicles for a road link and the fleet  
139 composition. Therefore, a road link was associated to the nearest available count point and the  
140 most recently recorded data for each location was obtained for analysis. We note that that this  
141 could be improved by investigating other avenues of data acquisition, but at present this method  
142 provides a basis for initial exploration. In total, 87 count points were used, 53 and 34 for A and  
143 B roads respectively, where the most recent count data was recorded in October 2017.

144

145

## 146 **Methodology**

### 147 Collecting real-time traffic data

148 Before applying this method to all of Birmingham's major road links, it was necessary  
149 to test and compare multiple mapping providers with an API; several mapping platforms  
150 provide this service, but there is limited information on the algorithms used to generate journey  
151 time results. For a one week period in December 2018 four products were tested on a 1.6 km  
152 stretch of the A4540 ring road in Birmingham: Google Maps' Distance Matrix API, TomTom's  
153 routing API, HERE's routing API, and Bing Maps Routes API. These were chosen due to the  
154 availability of an API service that claimed to be updated with real-time traffic information.  
155 Each API was queried every 15 minutes for a total of 7 days for the preliminary testing area  
156 denoted in Figure 1.

157 The time taken to travel each road link was obtained by querying a map provider's API.  
158 The inputs to the API specify the origin, destination, mode of transport, and typically a 'key'  
159 which is unique to the user to enable accountability. Once submitted, a script was returned  
160 containing the journey time it would take to travel between the specified origin and destination  
161 at the exact time that the request was submitted, due to live traffic influencing the result. This  
162 is conceptually akin to the popular use of a mapping application, but by using the API it is  
163 scalable to multiple roads and repeatable at different times of the day with only minor  
164 adjustment.

165 The results of the preliminary analysis are shown in Figure 2. As a guideline, the  
166 expected time to drive the distance of 1.6 km during free-flow conditions at the speed limit (48  
167 km/h) would be 2 minutes. Bing Maps showed the least variability in predicted journey times,  
168 ranging from 5 minutes 24 seconds during peak afternoon rush hour (1700 UTC), to 2 minutes  
169 46 seconds overnight, whilst only updating the traffic-influenced journey time every hour.  
170 TomTom, Google, and HERE returned similar journey times to each other with traffic data

171 updated (i.e. reported times changing) between each 15 minute query. All three highlight a  
172 peak in morning traffic (0800-0900 UTC) returning journey times of between 4 and 6 minutes,  
173 and a larger peak in afternoon traffic (1630-1730 UTC) returning journey times of between 6  
174 and 10 minutes. Throughout the one week period, broadly three phases of traffic flow were  
175 shown: a typical weekday (Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Friday), weekend (Saturday and  
176 Sunday), and the effect of scheduled but infrequent social events (Thursday). On Thursday  
177 (December 13, 2018) the measurement period coincided with a local football game held at  
178 Birmingham City Football Club, only 0.5 km from the ring road (A4540). The largest journey  
179 time reported was by Google Maps at 1700 UTC (17 minutes 40 seconds), corresponding to a  
180 travel speed of just 5.5 km/h for the 1.6 km of road sampled. In comparison to a typical  
181 weekday, this shows an increase in journey times by a factor of 2. While Bing's performance  
182 was limited, the other three products show a potentially great improvement on the current  
183 knowledge of traffic flow in comparison to manual counts, both in temporal resolution and  
184 extent.

185         While Bing was ruled out of further analysis, the remaining products were compared  
186 by their respective availability of free queries to the platforms. TomTom included 2,500 free  
187 transactions per day, HERE allowed 250,000 transactions per month (approximately 8,300 per  
188 day), and Google provided 40,000 elements per month (correct as of October 2019). A single  
189 API request of one origin-destination pair constitutes one query to the API. Due to the quantity  
190 of data that could be obtained by using the HERE platform, this was chosen as the source of  
191 journey times for all of Birmingham's major roads.

192         The technique outlined for the comparative preliminary study above was scaled up and  
193 applied to all 920 major road links in a 5 km by 5 km area covering Birmingham City Centre  
194 and the A4540 ring-road. This was achieved by generating an individual URL for each road  
195 link using the start and end latitude/longitude co-ordinates as the origin and destination fields,



196 the mode of transport was set to “car”, real-time traffic updates were enabled, and the departure  
197 time was specified as the time that the script was being submitted. When run, this R script then  
198 returned the journey time taken to travel from the start to the end of each link with real-time  
199 traffic information influencing the output. This script was then scheduled to run every hour on  
200 the hour between 0700 and 1900 UTC to mirror the count data, and would typically take less  
201 than 2 minutes to complete. The only restriction on number of calls to the API was the free  
202 usage limit. By utilising 12 runs of the script (920 calls in each script) every weekday for a  
203 month resulted in a total monthly API call volume of just less than 250,000.

204

#### 205 *Infer average vehicle speed*

206 Vehicle NO<sub>x</sub> emissions are dependent on travel speed due to implications with engine  
207 efficiency. Therefore the technique explored here enables the calculation of speed-related  
208 vehicle emissions at an hourly resolution. The OS Open Roads dataset also provided the length  
209 of each road link. Hence, by using the simple relationship between speed, distance, and time,  
210 averaged across each link/segment, it was possible to calculate the average speed of vehicles  
211 per road link for every hour. While this doesn't account for variations in speed within the link,  
212 or for an individual's driving behaviour, it does provide a significant insight into the speed of  
213 travel experienced on road links during different periods of the day.

214

#### 215 *Calculate speed-related emissions*

216 Total emissions are calculated from a combination of an emission factor (g/km) and the  
217 activity (veh/hr) on a road link. The NO<sub>x</sub> emission factor was obtained from Defra's speed-  
218 related emission function database, which itself is based on the Copert 5 model, but only  
219 requires average vehicle speed as an input (NAEI, 2017). The nearest DfT traffic count  
220 location to each road link was utilised for vehicle number and fleet composition (number of

221 cars, motorbikes, LGVs, HGVs, and buses/coaches). DfT manual count data for the A38 have  
222 previously been compared to private manual counting, alongside data obtained from  
223 Automatic Number Plate Recognition cameras. Both total vehicle number and fleet  
224 composition from the DfT were found to be in good agreement with the other datasets. As the  
225 traffic count data didn't provide information on engine size or Euro class, an urban fleet  
226 outside of London was assumed. For passenger cars this resulted in diesel and petrol engines  
227 accounting for 45.1% and 48.8% of the fleet respectively, with further disaggregation by  
228 engine size and Euro class. Electric vehicles were not included. The speed-related and  
229 vehicle-specific emissions factors were then multiplied by the number of vehicles of the  
230 respective class to obtain the total NO<sub>x</sub> emissions per road link (g/hr).

231

## 232 **Results and discussions**

233 In this section a sample of the results will be discussed, comprising data from a  
234 typical weekday in October 2019 for an inter-peak period (1200 UTC) and a peak traffic period  
235 (1700 UTC). Both vehicle speed and calculated vehicle emissions will be presented for these  
236 time periods.

237

### 238 Speeds

239 Average vehicle speeds for road links across the Birmingham network are shown in Figure  
240 3. It is clear that even during the interpeak period there are a significant number of road links  
241 that experience speeds below 10 km/h, namely the A4540 ring road and the A38. The average  
242 speed of travel on the A38 ranges from 8.6 km/h at 1200 UTC to 4.8 km/h at 1700 UTC.  
243 Similarly, average speed at midday on the A4540 was 11.0 km/h, reducing to 6.9 km/h in the  
244 afternoon peak. The slowest speeds (< 1 km/h) recorded at both the interpeak and peak periods  
245 occurred on the same road link to the south of the city centre where the A38 and A4540

246 intersect (Figure 1(c)). This junction is controlled by 4-way traffic lights and is a major  
247 interchange for travel into, out of, and around the city centre.

248 At midday the average speed travelled on A roads was lower (12.7 km/h) than that travelled  
249 on B roads (18.7 km/h). Meanwhile during the peak traffic flows at 1700 UTC the average  
250 speed of travel on both A and B roads decreased to 8 km/h and 14.9 km/h respectively. This  
251 can be seen visually in Figure 3 by the shift from blue road links on the outskirts of the city at  
252 1200 UTC, to orange and red shading at 1700 UTC. This clearly shows the effect of congestion  
253 on Birmingham's road links, and highlights the importance of accounting for reduced vehicle  
254 speeds during peak travel periods; without which, models could greatly underestimate vehicle  
255 emissions on the network.

256

### 257 Emissions

258 Calculated emissions derived from vehicle speeds determined as outlined above and  
259 vehicle data from count locations are shown in Figure 4. To mitigate against visual distortion  
260 by very large emissions, the data were split into five equal quantiles for mapping purposes.  
261 Missing values on the outer edge of the maps occurred due to the sub-setting of the larger OS  
262 Open Roads dataset which disconnected some links from their origins/destinations. Missing  
263 values in the city centre were due to the model not being able to appreciate flows in one-way  
264 systems. In total, missing values accounted for 0.4% of the total length of roads links measured.

265 The road link with the slowest speeds was also the road link with the largest emissions  
266 at the intersection between the A38 and the A4540 at both peak and off peak times. This is  
267 expected as it is known to be a junction where there are a large number of vehicles and stop-  
268 start driving behaviour accompanied by short-lived accelerations. Figure 4 highlights that the  
269 largest emissions both at peak and off peak times occur at large junctions along the A38 which  
270 transects the city centre. This could be explained by the total vehicle flow on this major route,

271 combining with stop-start driving behaviour resulting in inefficient drive cycles. Meanwhile  
272 the lowest emissions at 1200 UTC were calculated along a section of the B4126 (Figure 1(e)),  
273 and at 1700 UTC the lowest emissions were calculated for a short section of the A45 (Figure  
274 1(f)). Reduced emissions typically occur in the middle of road sections, likely to be due to free-  
275 flowing traffic away from the influence of intersections and roundabouts.

276 Emissions on A roads were found to be more sensitive to congestion effects than on B  
277 roads; the difference in emissions calculated between off peak and peak times was larger for A  
278 roads. The majority of this difference can be accounted for by a section of the A4540 along the  
279 Belgrave Middleway, on the eastern link to the intersection with the A38. Therefore cars  
280 travelling in a westerly direction along the A4540 towards the A38 are observed to be most  
281 impacted by evening congestion across the network. A traditional approach that simply uses  
282 the legal speed limit of a road section would therefore underestimate emissions in these cases,  
283 as engines operating at lower speeds with more stop-start behaviour generate greater exhaust  
284 emissions.

285

## 286 **Conclusions and future work**

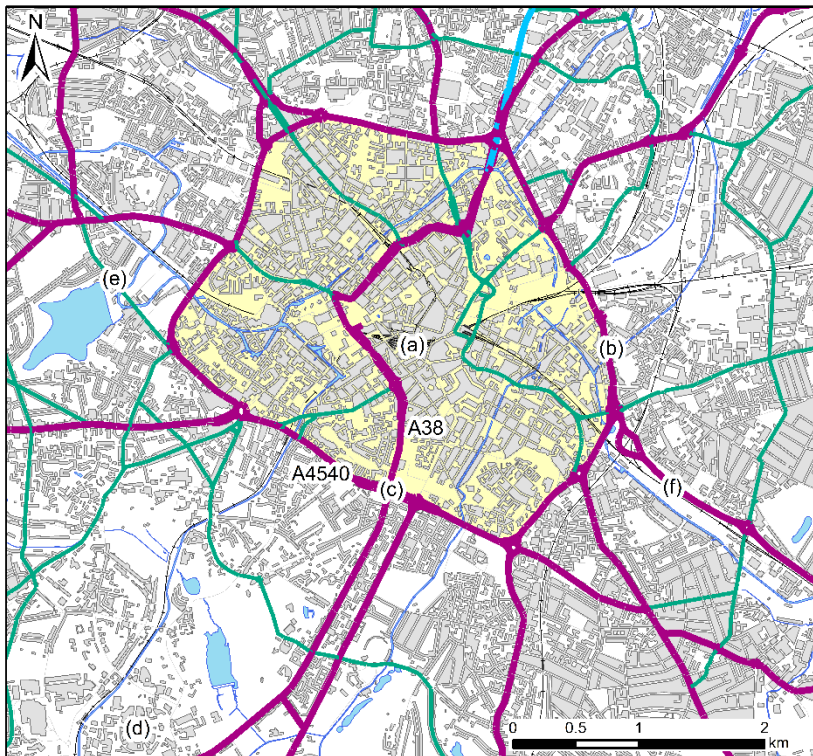
287 An innovative approach to generating a vehicle emissions map of Birmingham's roads  
288 at hourly intervals has been presented. By utilising mapping platforms that update in real-time  
289 due to crowdsourced feedback from users it is possible to obtain an average speed of vehicles  
290 along a specified road section. While several API platforms are available, 'HERE' was chosen  
291 due to its larger free usage allowance, enabling the scaling of the methodology to all of  
292 Birmingham's A and B roads within a 5 km radius of the city centre. A snapshot of the results  
293 for one day are presented to highlight the large spatial and temporal differences in emissions  
294 throughout the city, which are captured using this new approach, but would be missed by  
295 conventional methodologies. In summary: speeds reduce and emissions increase during peak

296 travel times as expected. It has also been possible to identify specific hotspots of emissions,  
297 such as the A4540 and A38 intersection to the south of the city centre.

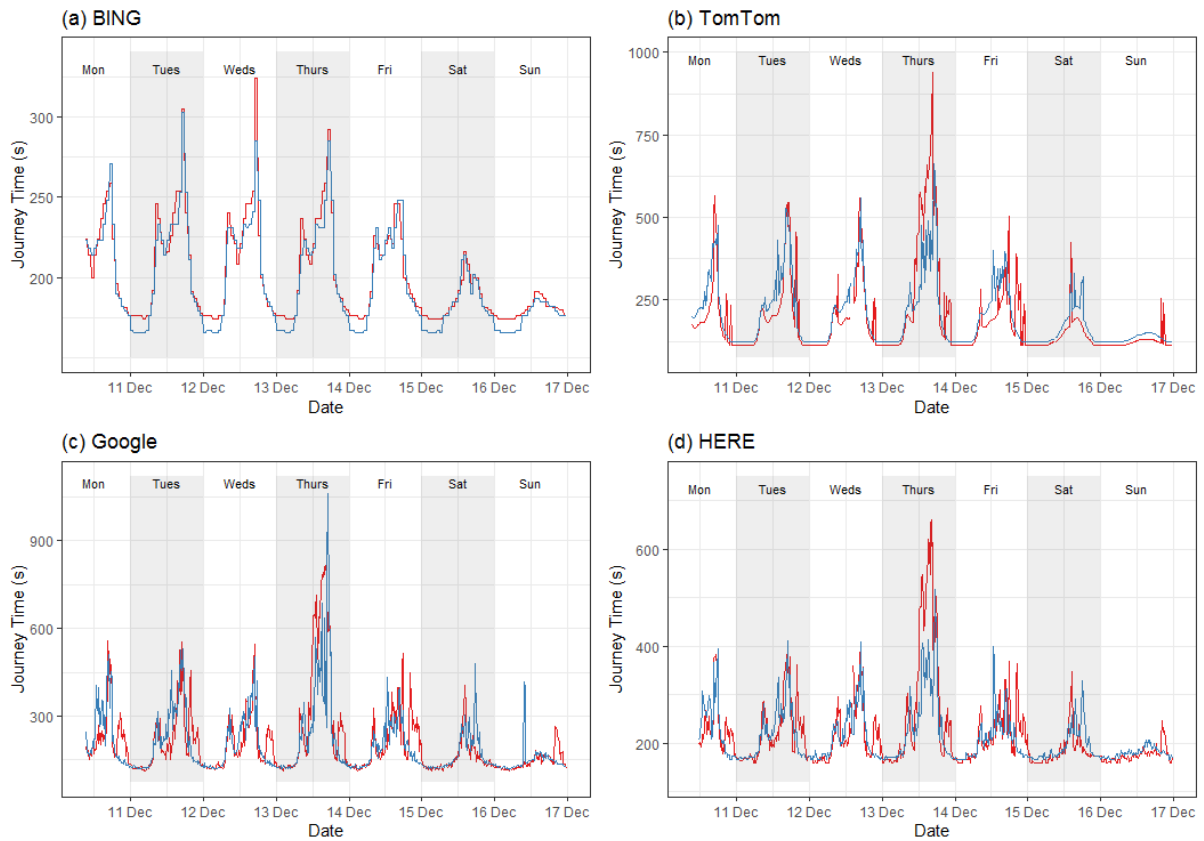
298 A limitation of this methodology is the fleet composition and volume used from count  
299 point locations sporadically located across the study region. However, at the time of analysis  
300 this was the most robust available data that could be sourced. Future analysis could address  
301 whether there are diurnal, weekly, and seasonal vehicle emission patterns. Furthermore, a  
302 sensitivity test could be conducted by comparing the emissions calculated as above by using  
303 real-time speed per link, to the emissions generated if all cars were able to travel in free flow  
304 at the speed limit of the road link. Additionally, there could be a comparison to emissions  
305 generated by following the methodology used for the UK's road transport emissions inventory,  
306 including typical average speeds per road type.

307 The API requests will continue to be automated during the implementation of the Clean  
308 Air Zone, enabling a comparison between before and after policy implementation. There is  
309 potential that the CAZ will improve vehicle flow on roads within the zone due to a reduced  
310 number of vehicles using the network. However this may also shift vehicles to the A4540,  
311 resulting in greater congestion and increased journey times away from the city centre. While  
312 this methodology is in its infancy, it is clear that it could provide significant insight into real-  
313 world vehicle behaviours at the spatial and temporal scales relevant for public health and policy  
314 planning. We note that in the future, increasing penetration of electric and hybrid vehicles are  
315 likely to reduce at-source tailpipe emissions, but also alter non-exhaust emissions (brake, tyre  
316 and road-surface wear, resuspension) all of which also display a significant vehicle speed  
317 dependence (Air Quality Expert Group, 2019), necessitating treatments such as that pioneered  
318 here.

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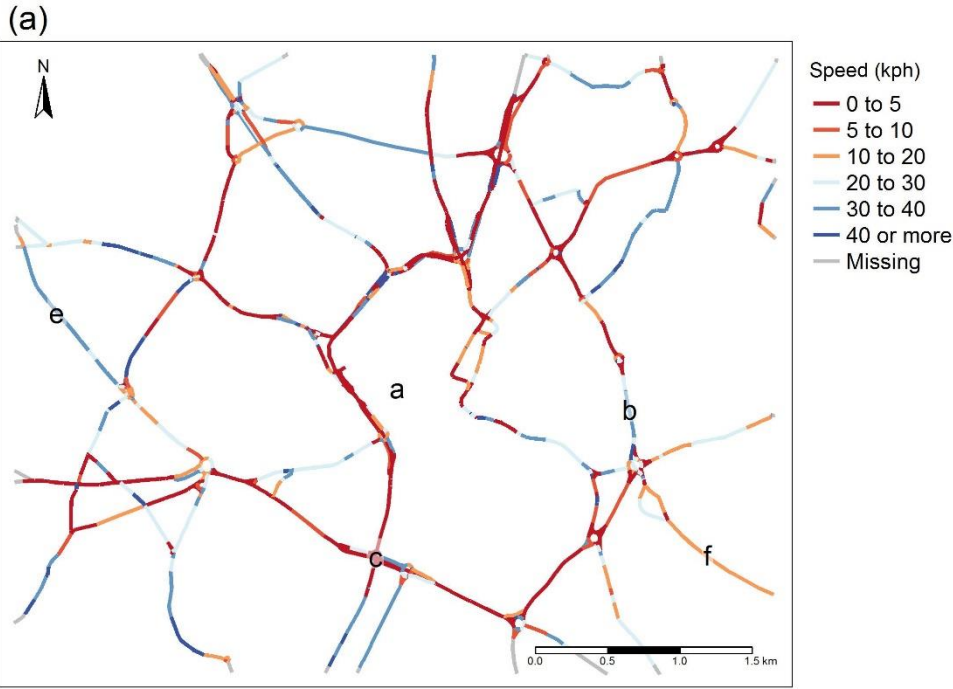


323  
324 **Figure 1** Map of Birmingham with reference points: New Street Station (city centre) (a),  
325 preliminary testing area (b), A38/A4540 cross-roads (c), University of Birmingham (d),  
326 B4126 (e), and the A45 (f). A roads are coloured in pink with the A38 and A4540 highlighted,  
327 while B roads are coloured in green. Yellow shading indicates the area within the ring-road  
328 that will be included within the Clean Air Zone.  
329

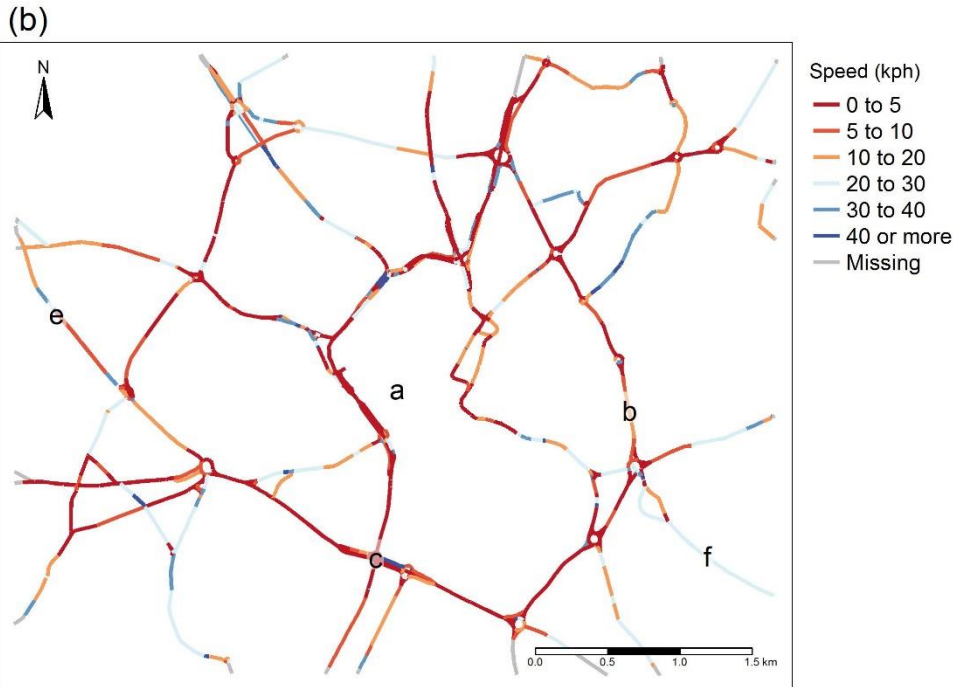


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**Figure 2** Comparison of journey times returned by four different mapping platforms: Bing (a), TomTom (b), Google (c), and HERE (d). Data gathered during one week in December for southerly (blue) and northerly (red) vehicle travel for a one mile stretch of A4540 ring road. Note: dates are denoted at 0000 UTC.



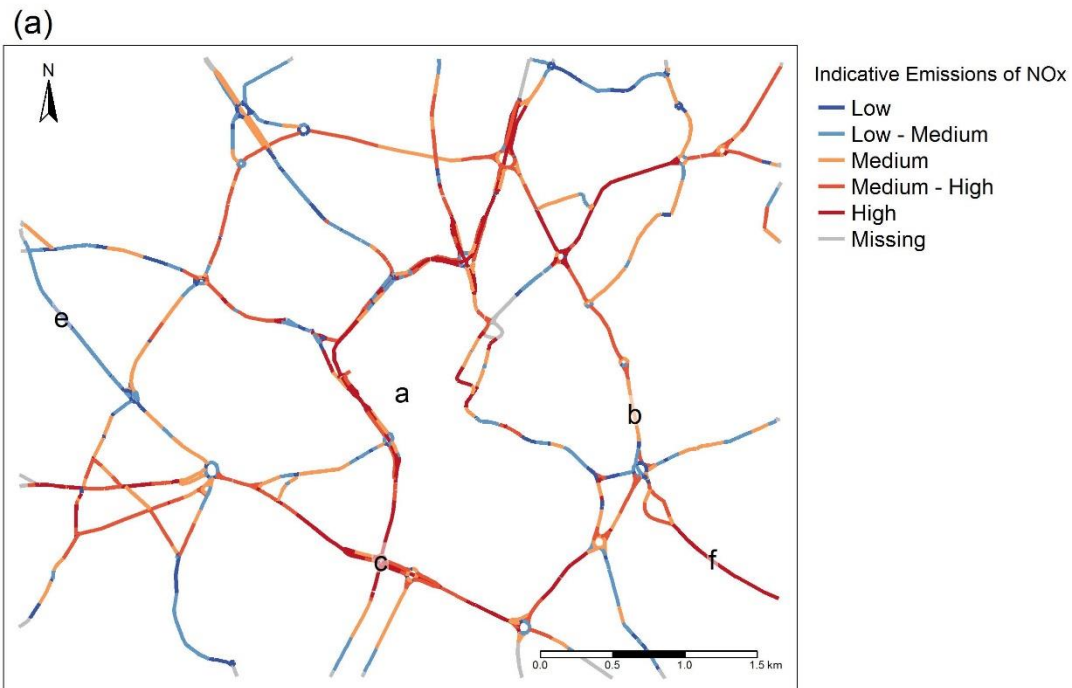
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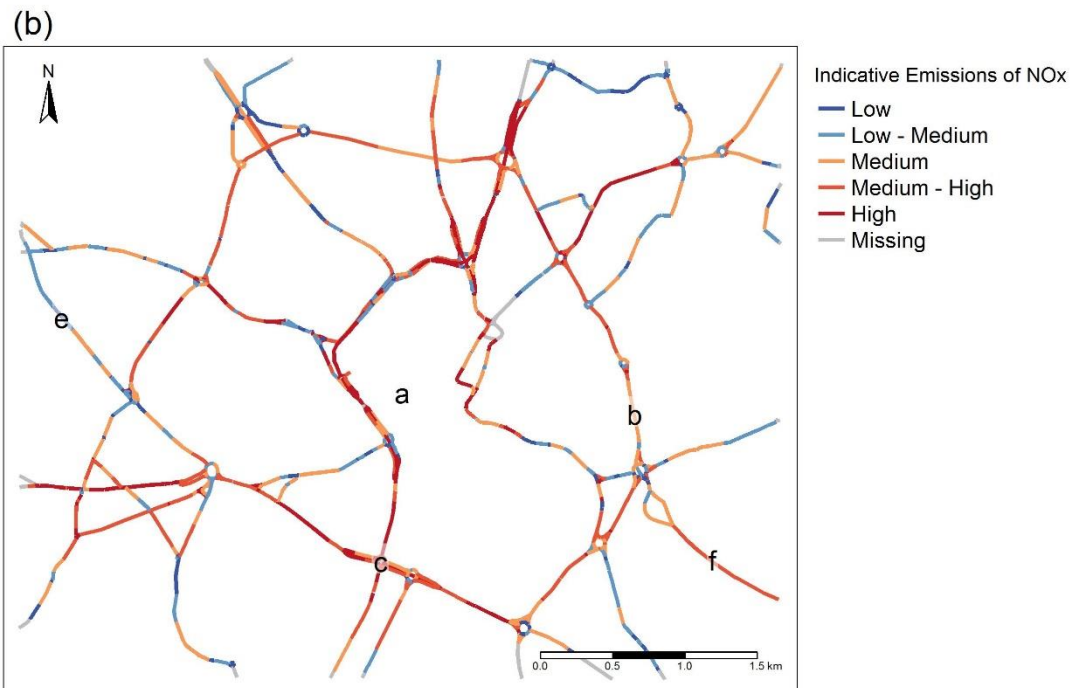
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350 **Figure 3** Example of speeds obtained from HERE API queries on road links across the  
 351 Birmingham network on October 22 2019 for (a) inter-peak (1200 UTC) period and (b) peak  
 352 (1700 UTC) period. Within figures, labels refer to the location of reference points: New  
 353 Street Station (city centre) (a), preliminary testing area (b), A38/A4540 cross-roads (c),  
 354 University of Birmingham (d) [out of bounds], B4126 (e), and the A45 (f).





355



356

357 **Figure 4** Example of emissions obtained from HERE API queries on road links across the

358 Birmingham network on October 22 2019 for (a) inter-peak period (1200 UTC) and (b) peak

359 (1700 UTC) period. Within figures, labels refer to the location of reference points: New

360 Street Station (city centre) (a), preliminary testing area (b), A38/A4540 cross-roads (c),

361 University of Birmingham (d) [out of bounds], B4126 (e), and the A45 (f).

362

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