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Predicting the spatiotemporal legality of on-street parking using open data and machine learning

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retail stores, health-care services, accommodation and food services are positively associated with the number of parking violation tickets.

1. Introduction

KEYWORDS:

Open data

data fusion

machine learning

urban computing

2. Related work

3. Data

4. Methods

1. Introduction

5. Results

6. Prototype

Parking is an important element in the transportation system and plays an important

7. Conclusion

role in people's travel decisions. Parking availability information and pricing can

influence people's departure and arrival time, travel mode choices, and activity

Acknowledgements

duration. Almost all U.S. cities have minimum parking requirements for each type of

Disclosure statement

land use, which determines the minimum number of parking spaces that should be

provided by land developers. Most on-street parking is free or underpriced compared to garages and parking lots and therefore it is often over-demanded. This makes searching

Additional information

for a parking spot in metropolitan areas a great challenge comparable to the Hunger

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Games, especially in highly populated areas such as downtown districts, job centres,

etc. First, the supply and demand of parking spaces is unbalanced with the increasing

number of vehicles but limited parking facilities in urban areas. Second, the

urbanization process is accelerating in most metropolitan areas and attracting more job

opportunities, human flows, business and social activities. These popular destinations

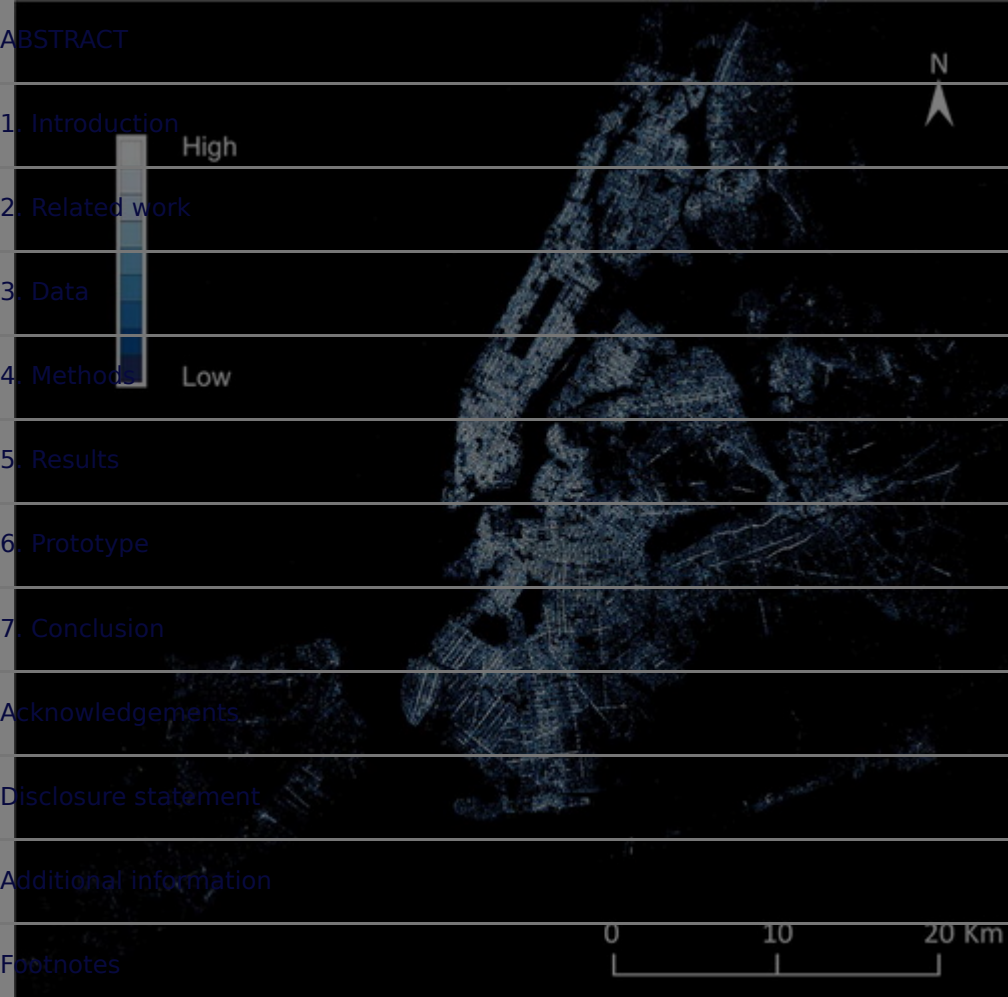
together with underpriced parking generates more travel demand and parking needs.

Third, parking availability and legality are highly variable spatially and temporally.

Figure 1. X ation tickets

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On-street parking is often a cost-effective choice compared to parking facilities such as garages and parking lots. However, limited space and complex parking regulation rules make the search process very difficult. Moreover, there is almost no real-time information about available on-street parking spots and it is legal or illegal to park. Even if the driver is a local resident, compound parking rules can still surprise the driver

and generate... proximity... periods... cities in... generate... show... two... overlay... The Man... parking... spatiote... les, gain time ket cost kets 3. Figure 1 ts over the ets without ets in NYC. n-street derstand the l reliable

machine learning models to predict the spatiotemporal legality of on-street parking using NYC open data².

1. Introduction

Another important aspect that needs attention when analysing the point-based parking violation data is the scale effect and the modified area unit problem (MAUP). The scale

effect may cause variations in statistical results among different spatial aggregation

levels and MAUP affects results when point-based measures are spatially aggregated

into different zoning configurations (Openshaw [1984](#); Fotheringham and Wong [1991](#)).

How much detail a machine learning model needs while still producing an acceptable error rate is worth of exploration. To this end, we propose a data-driven framework for

understanding and predicting the spatiotemporal legality of on-street parking by

training machine learning models using the NYC parking tickets open data. And four

types of spatial analysis units (i.e. point, street, census tract, and grid) are used to

examine the impact of spatial aggregation scale in machine learning predictive models.

Additional information

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. First, in [Section 2](#), we present the

literature review on parking availability prediction studies in transportation and

computer sciences. Then, in [Section 3](#), we introduce the datasets and preprocessing

steps in order to feed the data into machine learning models. In [Section 4](#), we

formulate the problem into regression and classification approaches, and briefly

introduce a set of machine learning models used in this study. In [Section 5](#), we test our

framework at different spatial scales and compare the model performance. In [Section 6](#),

we show the designed Web prototype for exploring the parking legality information in

NYC. Finally, we conclude this work with some considerations on the potential of this

work for [Section 7](#).

2. Related work

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balance the parking demand and supply (Litman [2018](#)). With better parking information provided, drivers can enhance their parking decision-making and prevents parking overflow from one place to another (Caicedo, Blazquez, and Miranda [2012](#)).

1. Introduction

2. Related work

There have been many research efforts towards improving the search efficiency for an available parking space given its impact on driving time, traffic, and even air pollution

3. Data

(Todorović and Panta [2006](#)). One study found that 30% of the average traffic cruising in investigated areas was actually caused by searching for parking, with an average

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search time of 8.1 min (Shoup [2006](#)). Google AI research team developed a logistic regression model to predict parking difficulty (e.g. limited parking or easy) by utilizing

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anonymous aggregated trajectory information from mobile users who opt to share their location data (Cook, Li, and Kumar [2017](#)). They used grids as a spatial unit for training

Acknowledgements

the model. Using this, Google launched a new feature for the Google Maps App across 25 US cities that offers predictions about parking difficulty close to users' destination.

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There also have been studies focused on detecting the availability of parking spaces either using instrument parking infrastructure with special sensors (Chatman and

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Manville [2014](#)) as well as using crowd-sensing solutions (Chen, Santos-Neto, and Ripeanu [2012](#); Zheng, Rajasegarar, and Leckie [2015](#); Pflügler et al. [2016](#); Bock,

References

Attanasio, and Di Martino [2017](#)), but both types of studies rely on the existence of predefined parking spaces or the development of mobile applications such as

PhonePark, iPark, and UPDetector (Xu et al. [2013](#); Yang, Fantini, and Jensen [2013](#); Ma, Wolfson, and Xu. [2014](#)). This study focuses on determining the legality of a parking

space at a given time and day and the location at different spatial scales by utilizing machine learning algorithms and using publicly available parking violation ticket

information. Some of the challenges in parking using machine learning algorithms are discussed in this paper.

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modelling, and groundwater studies (Naghibi, Pourghasemi, and Dixon [2016](#)). In this study, we examine the importance of spatial resolution when incorporating spatial data with machine learning. At the time of writing, machine learning models examining the spatial heterogeneity at different spatial resolutions are still an emerging study area (Lu et al. [2018](#); Yang et al. [2019](#)). Such research incorporates Tobler's First Law of Geography (Tobler [1970](#)) and the scale effect, which is to say that more detailed spatial resolution should provide more related features and likely produce less error than less detailed spatial resolutions. The idea that a machine learning model is able to provide these predictions at all is Tobler's First Law of Geography in practice, and potentially transferable according to the Third Law of Geography which focuses on the similarity of geographic configuration of locations in spatial predictions (Zhu et al. [2018](#)). By examining different spatial resolutions or at aggregating into different spatial analysis units, we provide insights into how much detail a machine learning model needs while still producing an acceptable error rate.

3. Data

3.1. Parking violation tickets open data

As mentioned above, we downloaded over 10.8 million parking violation tickets generated in NYC in the fiscal year 2017 and 11.7 million in fiscal year 2018 from the NYC Open Data platform. Each ticket contains information including a summons number, violation code, street address, ticketing time, vehicle plate, etc.

3.2. Po

In order to identify areas with more parking tickets, we identified tail stores, health-care stores, and over 137,000 points of interest (POIs) [3](#). The POIs are first identified by their two-digit NAICS code. We identified Gas Extractions and Wholesale Trade 42



Scientific Tech 54, Administrative Support and Waste 56, Educational Services 61, Health Care and Social Assistance 62, Arts & Entertainment & Recreation 71, Accommodation & Food Services 72, Other Services 81, Public Administration 92. In addition, the category of Parking Lots and Garages (NAICS Code: 812,930) is treated as a separate POI category since it is directly related to parking activity. This gives a total of 24 categories of POIs at the root level of categorization as part of model features (See Figure 5 in detail).

3.3. Human mobility patterns

In addition to the static spatial distribution of POIs information, we also retrieved the fine-resolution visit patterns of all POIs from the aforementioned SafeGraph database which covers dynamic human mobility patterns of millions of anonymous smartphone users. For each POI, the records of aggregated visitor patterns illustrate the number of unique visitors and the number of total visits to each venue during the specified time window, which could reflect the attractiveness of each venue. The mean hourly visits over a week were recorded as a 168-dimensional vector to show the dynamic stream of visit patterns. If a visitor stays for multiple hours, a visit will be shown in each hour during which the visitor stayed.

Figure 2. The spatial distribution of parking violation tickets at four spatial scales and the temporal variation curves of tickets.



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3.4. Data preprocessing

In this study, we discretized the study area into four spatial scales (point level, street level, census tract level, and 1 km grid level) and the time into 168 hourly slots (7 days of a week * 24 h of a day) to capture the snapshots of the legality of street parking. To

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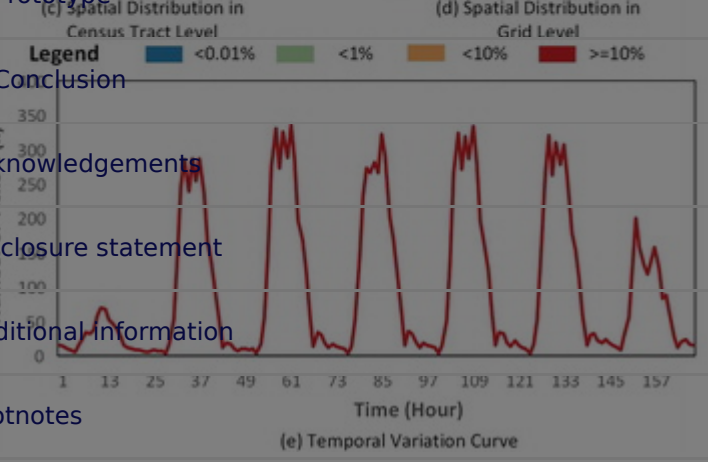
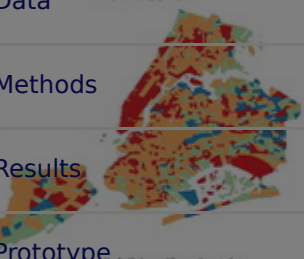
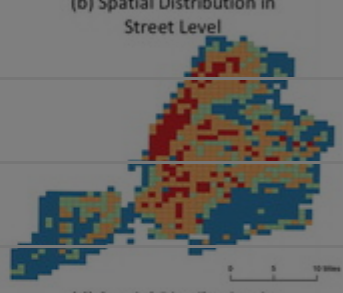
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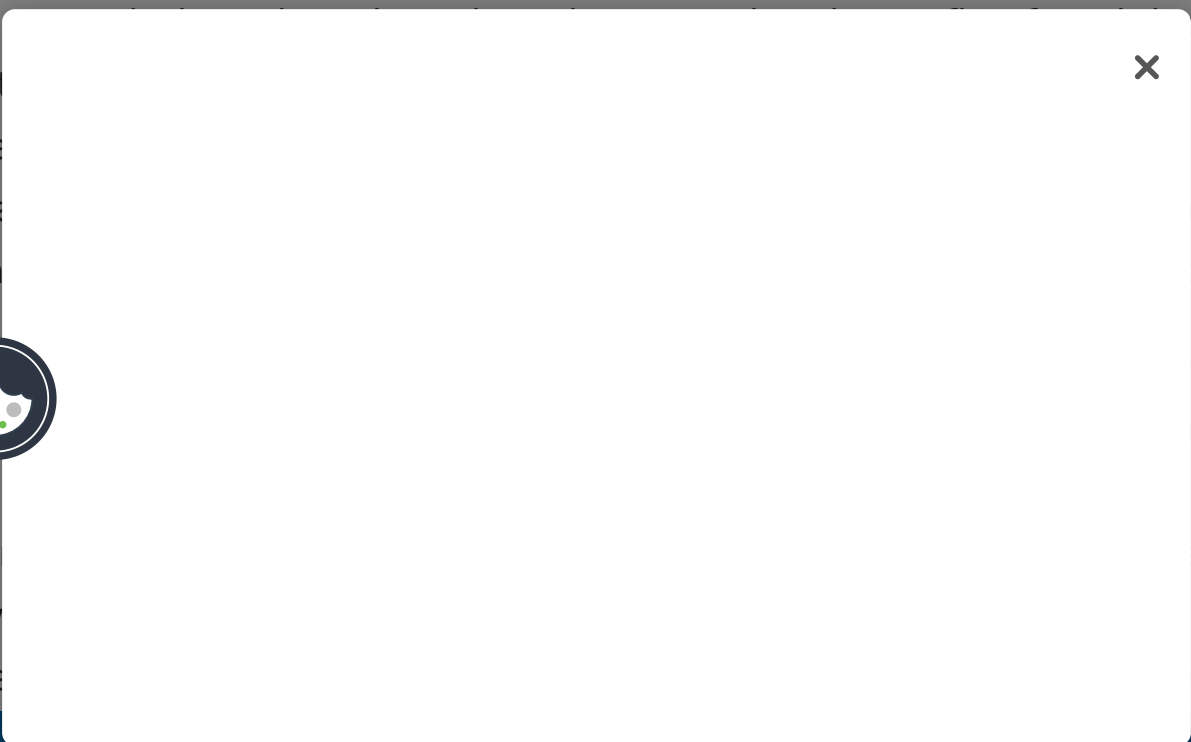
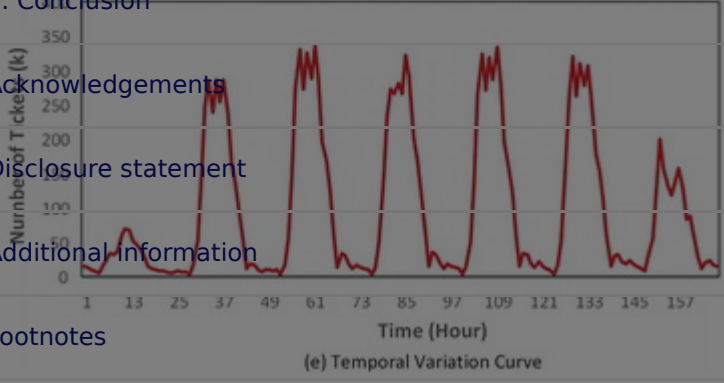
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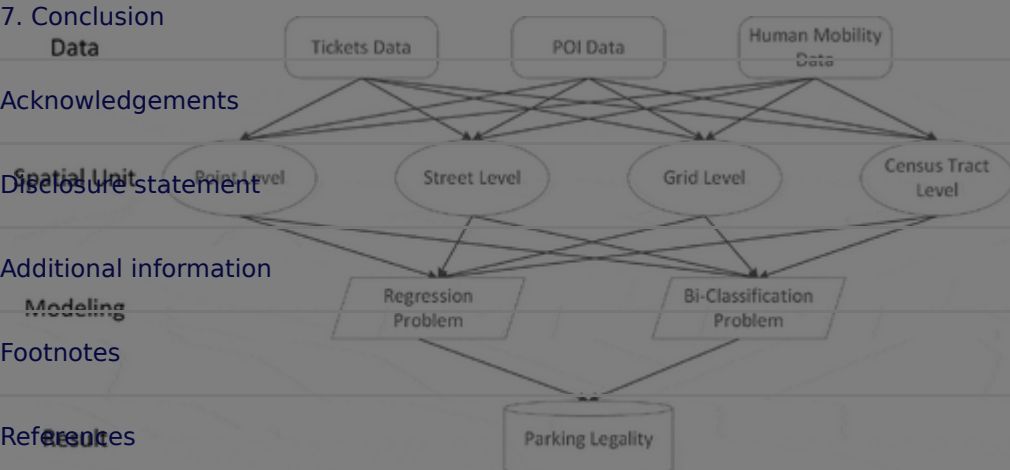


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In this section, we provide the details of our proposed framework to understand and predict the parking legality. In this framework, we approach the parking legality prediction as a regression problem to predict the number of parking violation tickets given a location and time, and as a binary classification problem to interpret parking legality. To this end, a series of machine learning models are trained in four spatial scales with processed datasets that are mentioned in the previous section. The architecture of our proposed framework is shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3. The proposed parking legality predictive framework using multi-source data and machine learning.



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4.1. Prediction of parking violation counts

To investigate the impact of the spatial scale on different regression models, we selected the following six machine learning models for this study:

MLR: Multiple Linear Regression

SVM: Support Vector Machine

Decision Tree



Random Forest: The random forest (RF) constructs a multitude of decision trees and outputs the results by computing the mean of the predictions of each individual tree (Breiman [2001](#)). RF is trained on different parts of the same training set, with the goal of reducing the variance.

GBRT: The gradient boosted regression trees (GBRT) use a gradient boosting method to construct a set of decision trees as base learners and outputs the result by computing the sum of the base learners (Friedman [2001](#)). XGboost uses a more regularized model formalization to control over-fitting issue and thus is chosen in this study (Chen and Guestrin [2016](#)).

DNN: Deep neural network (DNN) is a multi-hidden-layer artificial neural network whose artificial neurons can respond to a surrounding unit within a portion of the coverage (Goodfellow, Bengio, and Courville [2016](#)). As shown in Figure 4, we constructed a DNN architecture consisting of four fully connected dense layers with reclinear activation functions and two dropout layers with a 0.5 rate to regularize the DNN and improve the generalization error. The output layer uses a linear activation function for regression and a sigmoid activation function to produce a probability between 0 and 1 for binary classification using a threshold of 0.5. The mean square error (MSE) is used as the loss function for regression training while the cross-entropy is used for classifier training.

Figure 4. The multilayer architecture of deep neural network used in this study.



Evaluating the performance of the models and comparing them with existing models. Training the models and evaluating their performance.

Where y_i is the number of observed parking violation tickets at the location i , \hat{y}_i is the corresponding predicted value, and N is the number of fed data into each model.

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4.2. Prediction of parking legality

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In addition to interpreting parking legality as a regression problem by estimating the number of violation tickets, it can also be interpreted as a binary classification problem of whether the corresponding time and place can be legally parked by analysing the historical parking violation ticket information. Therefore, a specified location and time with at least one ticket is marked as 'positive case' (i.e. the machine learning binary classification when the number of tickets ≥ 1) to represent 'Risky Parking' and the others will be marked as 'negative case' (i.e. the number = 0 and no ticket issued) to represent 'Legal Parking'.

Acknowledgements

In addition to the aforementioned SVM, random forest, and DNN machine learning approaches that can also be used for the classification problem, four additional classification models are used in this study:

Additional information

KNN: k-nearest neighbours algorithm (KNN) classifies an object by a vote of its neighbours, with the object being assigned to the most common class among its k nearest neighbours in feature space (Cover and Hart et al. [1967](#)).

References

Logistic regression: It uses a logistic function to model the relationship between one dependent binary variable and one or more nominal, ordinal, interval or ratio-level independent variables (Berkson [1944](#)).

Naive Bayes: Naive Bayes is a probabilistic classifier that makes classifications using the Maximum A Posteriori decision rule in Bayesian setting (Marsen [1961](#)).

SGD: Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) is a vector optimization algorithm that updates the model parameters at a fixed interval of time and space (Zhang [2018](#)).

Evaluation: The overall performance of the proposed model is evaluated using the True Positive Rate (TPR) and True Negative Rate (TNR) metrics. The overall legality prediction accuracy is calculated as the average of the TPR and TNR.

$$\text{Recall} = \text{TP} / (\text{TP} + \text{FN}) \quad (4)$$

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{\text{TP} + \text{TN}}{\text{TP} + \text{TN} + \text{FP} + \text{FN}} \quad (5)$$

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$$F1 = 2 * \frac{\text{Precision} * \text{Recall}}{\text{Precision} + \text{Recall}} \quad (6)$$

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Figure 5. The result of selected variables vs. R-squared at the census tracts level and at the 1 km grid level.

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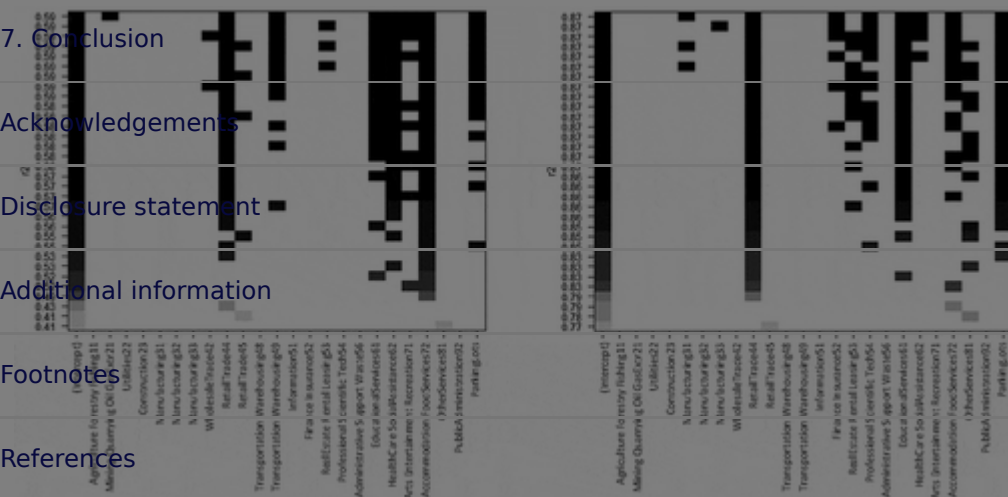
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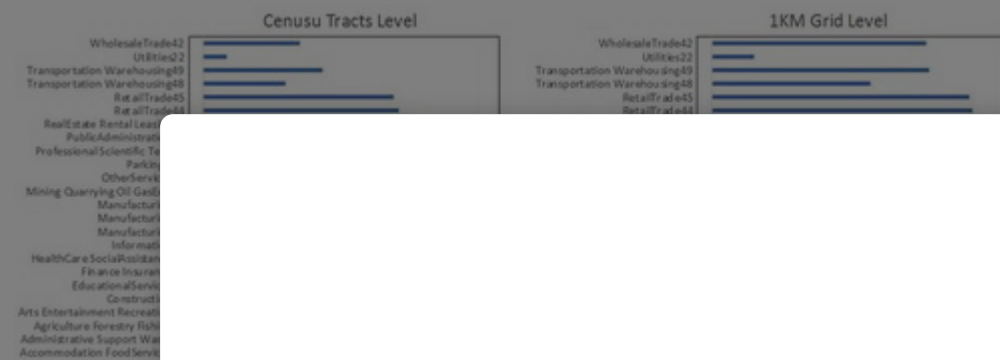
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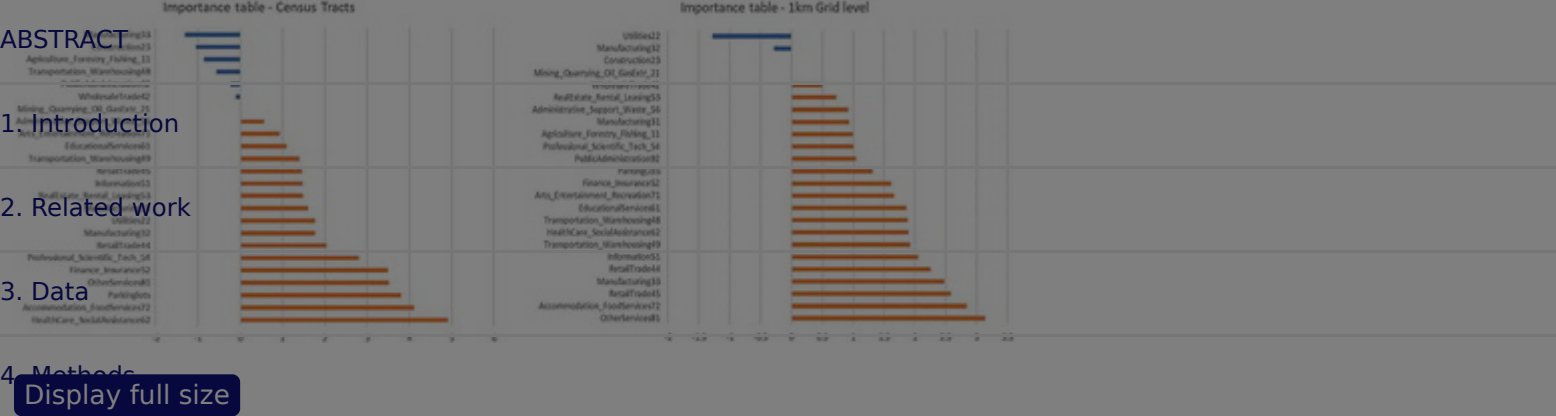
Figure 6. The correlation analysis at the census tract level and the 1 km grid level.



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Figure 7. The result of selected variables vs. R-squared at the census tracts level and at the 1 km grid level.



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5.1. Relationship between parking violation and POIs and visit patterns

For POI-based and mobility-based analyses, the POIs mentioned in [Section 3](#) are aggregated to the census tracts level and the 1 km grid level, respectively, to conduct analysis. After the aggregation, for each analysis unit (a census tract or a grid cell) there is a sum of parking tickets and 24 categories of POIs in each unit.

The multi-linear regression is conducted first to obtain an overall relationship between the parking violation and its surrounding environments. Then, the correlation analysis and the importance ranking using the random forest regression method are also implemented to identify critical factors for the parking violation.

5.1.1. Census tracts level

In the census tracts level, when using all 24 categories of POIs to fit the number of parking tickets in the linear regression, an adjust R2 around 0.59 is obtained. To select the most important variables, an exhaustive search for the best subsets of variables for predicting



increase of parking violation, which may not be intuitive. This might indicate that the current parking lots are still not enough for the parking needs of citizens in New York.

1. Introduction

5.1.2. 1 km grid level

2. Related work

3. Data At the 1 km grid level, the result of multiple linear regression using all 24 variables is

4. Methods around 0.87, which indicates a good estimation. Figure 5 shows the best subsets of variables for prediction. The frequently selected variables are a little different from the

5. Results result of the census tracts level, which are Retail Trade, Educational Services,

6. Prototype Accommodation and Food Services, and Parking Lots. However, by examining the

7. Conclusion multicollinearity of different combinations of variables, there always exists high

colinearity with the Variance Inflation Factor of over four among variables.

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in this case, the results from correlation analysis (Figure 6) and the importance ranking

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from random forest regression (Figure 7) may be more reliable. The results of the

Additional information correlation analysis at the 1km grid level are very similar to that of the census tracts

level (except for the ParkingLots) where Accommodation and Food Services, Retail

Footnotes Trade and Other Services are the top three most correlated variables to parking ticket

References numbers. These three factors are also the top three important factors in the importance

ranking.

In general, most categories of the POIs will lead to an increase in parking violation, especially when there are accommodation, food, and retail stores. Also, the existence of parking lots cannot prevent the parking violation, which shows that the need for parking lots is still not satisfied at the current stage.

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level, which has a small gap. The results also show that the random forest model works the best with the minimum RMSE and outperforms other competitors by a large margin across all the spatial scales. Note that for the support-vector regression (SVR), we tried different kernel types (e.g. linear, second-degree polynomial, Gaussian RBF) and reported the best model result. The decision tree model built with recursive greedy algorithms ended up with a very complex structure with 36,797 and 13,459 leaf nodes at the census tract level and at the grid level, respectively. XGBoost and DNN are just as good as or better than simple MLR by a small margin at different spatial scales.

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Table 3. Prediction of parking violation ticket counts using all features with different machine learning models.

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In addition, as expected, these machine learning models using all available features (Table 3) achieve a better performance compared with the same model but fed with only the local features. This is confirmed by the RMSE of the models, which is reduced by over 25% for the random forest model and 31% for the decision tree model. Our hypothesis that machine learning models can better capture the underlying mobility patterns and predict parking violation ticket counts using all available features is supported. In the future, we can then make use of these models to predict extreme mobility patterns.

Figure 8. The learning curves for predicting the number of parking violation tickets with cross-validation at different spatial scales.

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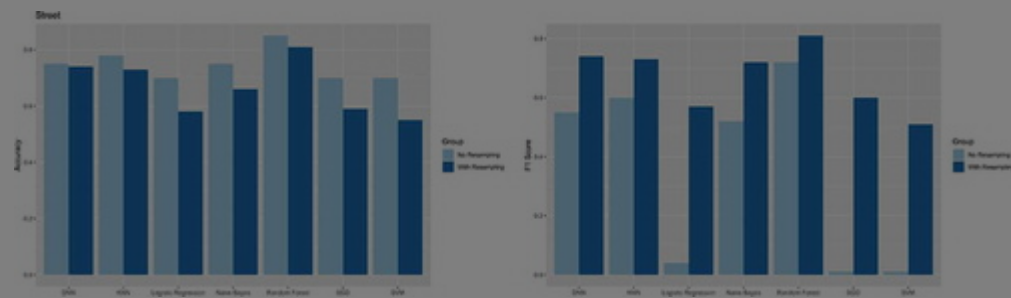
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Figure 9. The accuracy and F1-score of different prediction models comparison using imbalanced and balanced samples with resampling process at the street scale.

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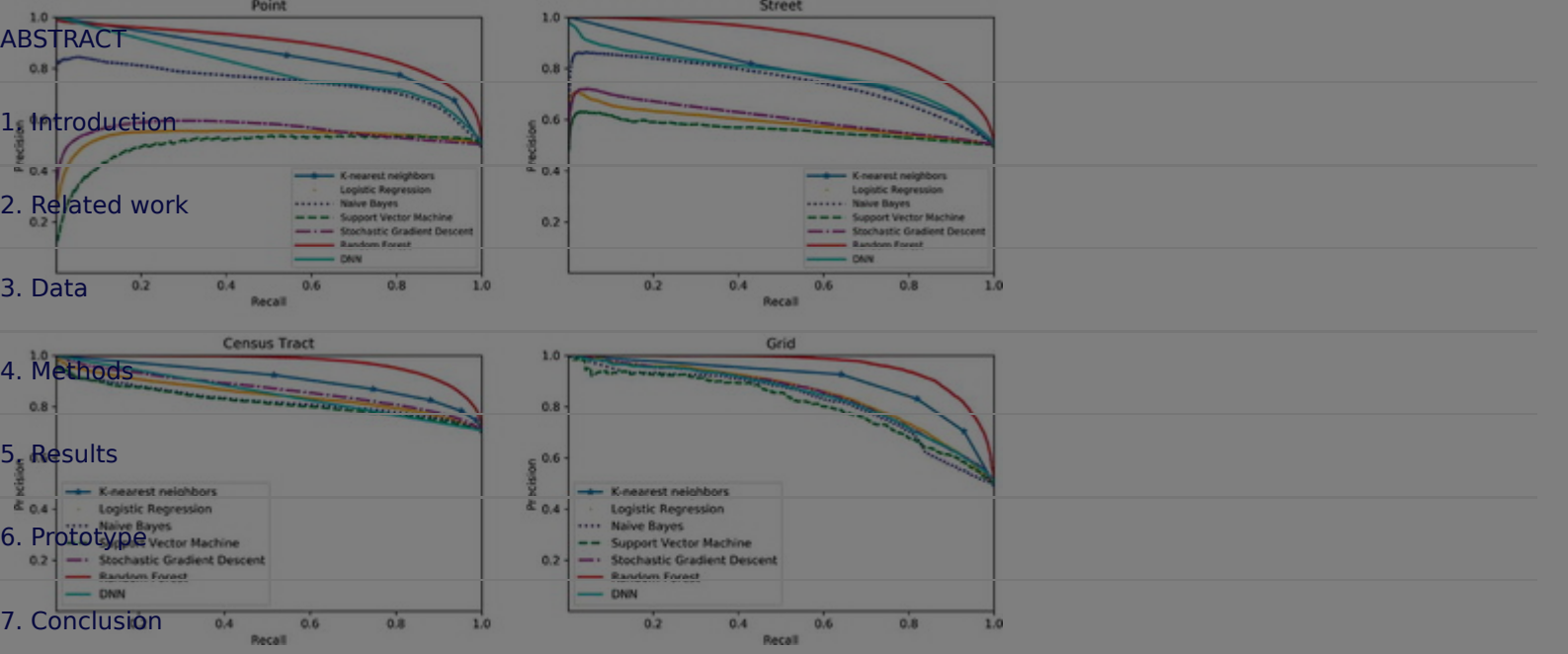
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5.3. Results for prediction of parking legality

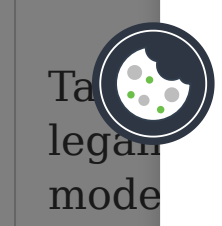
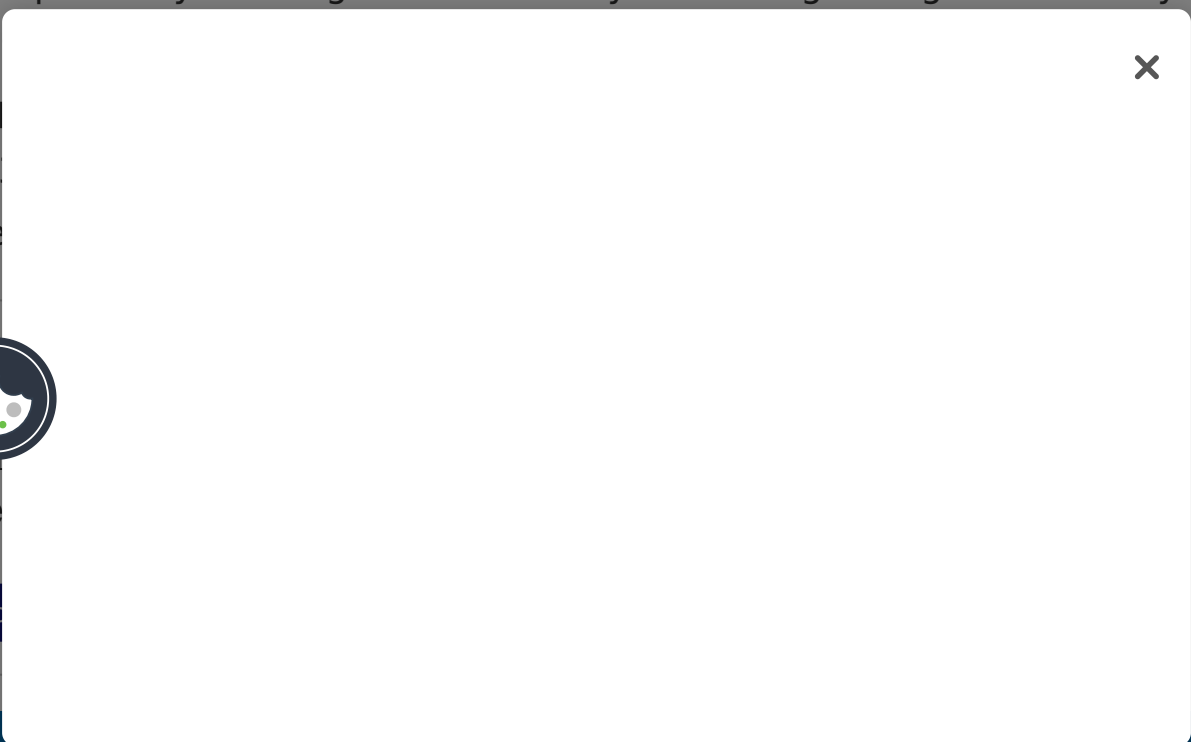
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Regarding the classification results, as shown in Table 4, random forest outperforms all other models and achieved both high accuracy scores (0.82, 0.85, 0.86, and 0.88) and

high F1-scores (0.82, 0.72, 0.90, and 0.88) across all four spatial scales. The KNN and the DNN also perform well and fall behind the random forest by a small margin. Note

that we chose $k = 3$ as the number of nearest neighbours in feature space with regard to the temporal autocorrelation patterns of parking legality over time and its impact on model performance). The autocorrelation coefficient for parking legality with a temporal lag of 3 hours is 0.28, 0.40, 0.38, and 0.55 at the point, street, census tract, and grid levels, respectively. Although the Naive Bayes model gets a good accuracy and F1

scores a (0.82, 0.72), it doesn't perform well at the census tract level (0.85, 0.72). We discuss

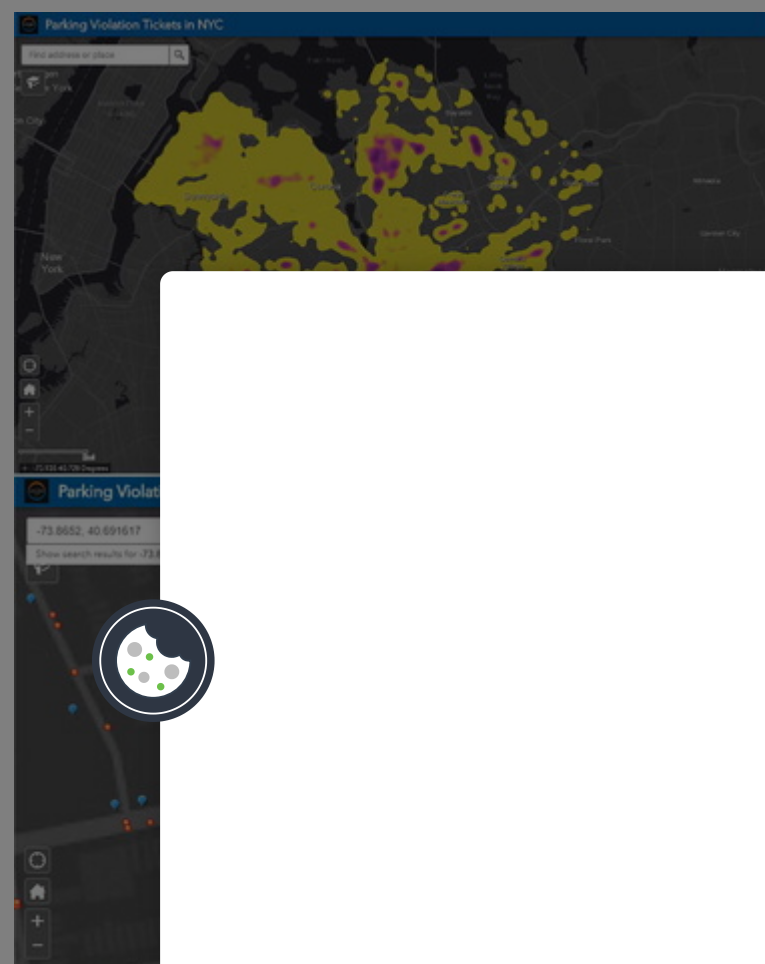


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Another important issue requiring attention is the presence of imbalanced training data in practice. In our case, there is a class imbalance between the positive class and the negative class for parking legality. The imbalanced training data can cause the accuracy paradox such that we get excellent accuracy but the accuracy is only reflecting the dominating class distribution. Taking the no-resampling street-level data as an example, as shown in [Figure 9](#), all the models got a high overall accuracy (over 0.7) but relatively low F1-scores, and some of the models (e.g. logistic regression, SVM and SGD) even got close to 0. That is mainly because of the imbalanced training samples between positive (29.7%) and negative (70.3%) classes. Therefore, we resampled the training data with a more balanced distribution for both positives (50%) and negatives (50%). The F1-score increased significantly since we get a better precision and recall performance. Alternatively, one may want to check the detailed precision-recall curves with different recall rates as shown in [Figure 10](#) to compare the model performance especially for highly skewed datasets (Davis and Goadrich [2006](#)). It shows that the random forest outperforms all other models with the highest precision value across different recall rates in parking legality prediction at four spatial scales.

[Figure 11](#). The Web interface of the multi-scale parking legality analysis platform based on Esri Web AppBuilder.



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With regard to the multi-level spatial variation of parking space availability and parking legality, we also worked to design and develop a parking legality Web GIS application by integrating the NYC parking violation open data with statistical analysis at different

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7. Conclusion

In this study, we propose a data-driven framework for understanding and predicting the spatiotemporal legality of on-street parking by training a set of machine learning models using the NYC parking violation ticket open data. The models are tested at four types of spatial analysis units (i.e. point, street, census tract, and grid) and the results confirmed the impact of spatial scale in machine learning predictive models. The more

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can enhance their parking decision-making. Our research may offer insights into

2. Related work

parking management policy such as parking regulation rules, pricing, and time

3. Data limitation to balance the parking demand and supply at different spatial scales using

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open data.

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The authors would like to thank NYC Open Data support and Safegraph Inc. for

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No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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Notes



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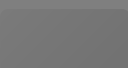
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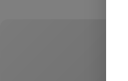
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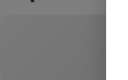
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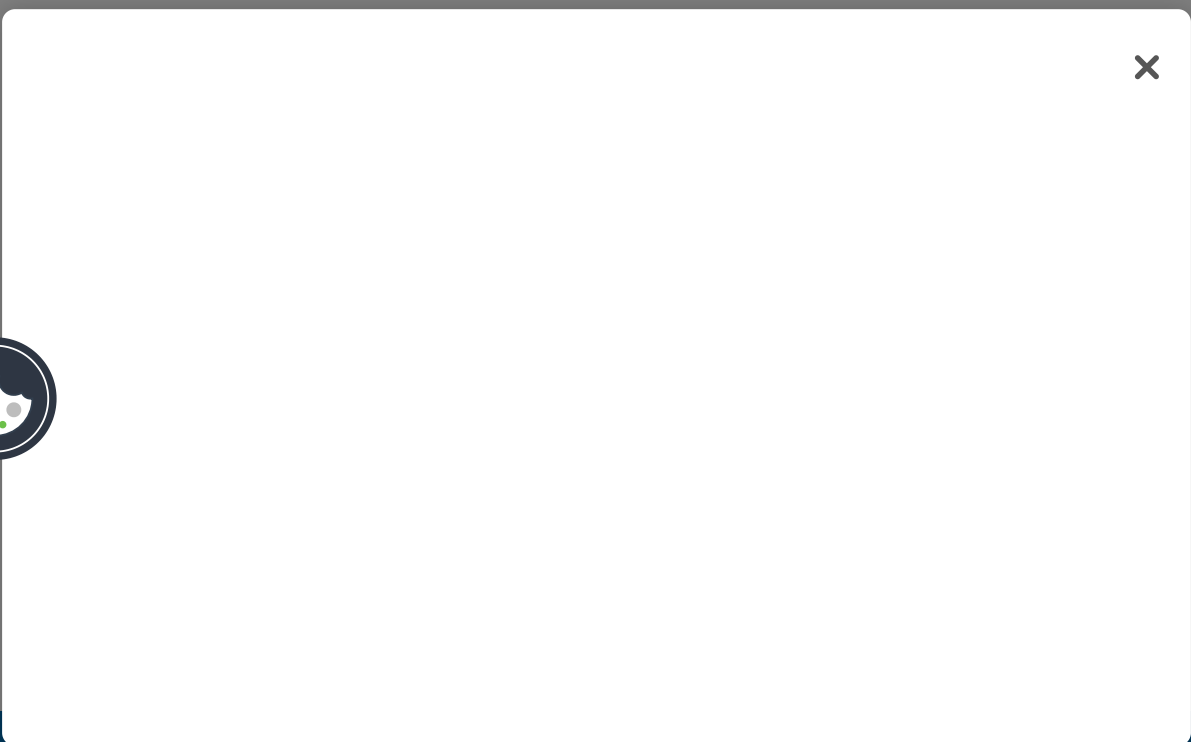
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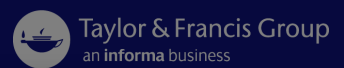
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