

# A Data-Driven Methodology for Pre-Flight Trajectory Prediction

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**Abstract:** This paper presents a data-driven methodology, named P4T, for the trajectory prediction from long to short term before scheduled time of flight, developed within the framework of the PIU4TP project. The methodology is aimed to support the Network Manager in the air traffic flow and capacity management, allowing the optimization of flight distribution among sectors and flight routes, the anticipation of air traffic flow requests and the identification in advance of potential conflicts. The proposed approach applies machine learning and data mining techniques to perform data analysis and to correctly identify, from historical data, the aircraft expected behaviour, in terms of flight path selection. The main peculiarity of this approach is the exploitation of the uncertainties on current forecasts of some relevant mission and aircraft parameters to compute trajectory prediction outcomes enriched with associated probabilistic information. The preliminary validation of the methodology using simulated data highlighted very promising results.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Trajectory Prediction (TP) is one of the most relevant capability and need of the current and, above all, the future management of air traffic, in its expected implementation of the Trajectory Based Operations paradigm. Indeed, it supports the activities concerning demand-capacity balance, identification of hotspots and preventive mitigation of potential conflicts. Therefore, the TP process is used by several actors involved in the traffic planning and management, starting even long time before the actual flight execution. A lot of efforts have been done to develop TP algorithms that can meet the stringent safety requirements typical of the aviation sector. The traditional approach uses a model-based deterministic forecast of the trajectories without any quantification of the uncertainty affecting the prediction (Engage, 2019). However, the TP process is uncertain by its nature, indeed it predicts actual trajectories by using models, which are approximation of the reality affected by a given accuracy, and uncertain input data, such as weather forecast, Air Traffic Control (ATC) practices, and aircraft actual performance.

This paper presents the TP approach developed in the PIU4TP project (Zazzaro et al., 2020), financed by SESAR within the Engage KTN framework, and applicable to the strategic and pre-tactical phases of the Air Traffic Management (ATM). It is a data-driven methodology that builds the predictive model of flight trajectories by using Data Mining (DM) and Machine Learning (ML) techniques. The innovation of the approach consists in the computation of 4-dimensional (4D) TP enriched with its relevant probabilistic information, which is obtained by exploiting the uncertainty inherently connected to the data used as inputs by the TP process. The prediction of the 3D spatial trajectory consists, for the scope of this work, in the identification of the most suitable flight plan among several possible, whereas the prediction of the fourth dimension of the flight plan, that is the computation of the time of arrival in each waypoint (WP), is performed by solving a regression problem. Actually, there is a large number of parameters that can affect the optimal flight plan selection. Few, among the most relevant ones, have been considered in the development of the proposed methodology. In fact, the aim is to demonstrate a proof of concept and to investigate how the

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information about significant parameters can be exploited in an integrated manner to perform in advance a reliable prediction of the flown trajectory. Although the method was designed in this simplified scenario, all the steps that define the proposed approach can be applied to any set of uncertain inputs. Indeed, the methodology takes the form of a lifecycle model for the analysis and modelling of flight paths in the context of TP and allows to add new input variables and external parameters by iterating through the phases of the lifecycle. The defined methodology was preliminarily validated using simulated data and the obtained results seem very promising. The use of simulated data is due to the lack of comprehensive open access datasets of real aircraft trajectories and information concerning the parameters that influence these trajectories. Moreover, the simulated data allow to test the methodology in a controlled environment, that is, the value of the parameters of interest and the rules and the assumptions that lead to perform the flight along a specific flight plan are perfectly known; thus, the capabilities and limitations of the proposed approach can be fully assessed.

This paper is structured as follows: Section 2 summarizes previous works on the TP topic. Section 3 and Section 4 present the operational scenario defined for the methodology design and validation and the developed methodology, respectively. Section 5 discusses the preliminary methodology evaluation results. Conclusions are in Section 6.

## 2 RELATED WORK

The evolution towards trajectory-based ATM has led in recent years to a great deal of interest in the development of methodologies for predicting aircraft trajectories. The position of an aircraft in its trajectory can be estimated using physical models of the dynamics of the aircraft subject to the different forces acting on it (gravity, drag, etc.). These model-based methods require the solution of differential equations with the precise estimation of a number of parameters characterizing the response of the aircraft. Aircraft databases provide theoretical model specifications and related specific datasets to simulate the behaviour of any aircraft and is often used for aircraft TP (Nuic et al., 2010). Point mass models are widely used to simulate aircraft motion (Schuster, 2015), (Fukuda et al., 2010). By combining the calculation model, intent of the aircraft and environmental conditions the accuracy of the predicted trajectory can be improved (Alligier et al., 2013), (Zhang et al., 2018). Most of the relevant parameters in model-based TP methods

are difficult to measure with a satisfying level of accuracy, in particular the weather data and the aircraft mass change during flight. Instability in the predicted position of the aircraft may arise, limiting the applicability of these techniques to short-term or to portions of the overall flight.

ML methods are gaining more and more attention given the resurgence of interest in the field of AI with the successful application of neural nets in the field of computer vision, natural language processing, automatic translation and others. As an alternative to model-based solutions a data-driven approach represents a viable solution to the problem of TP (Wang et al., 2017), (Fernandez et al., 2017). It uses a collection of past flown trajectories to statistically predict the behaviour of future flights by exploiting all the information implicitly included in the historical data. A stepwise regression method may be used in TP integrating meteorological data to predict the arrival time (de Leege et al., 2013). A direct linear regression model using a dataset of radar trajectories for short to mid-term aircraft TP has been developed and tested on a large database of flights over Europe (Tastambekov et al., 2014). Deep Neural Nets also have been exploited to address the problem of TP. Casting this problem as a flight sequence estimation, a recurrent Neural Net can be trained to predict aircraft position in discrete time steps (Wu et al., 2017), (Park et al., 2018). A comparative study showed that deep learning algorithms have impressive performance when compared with other traditional approach (Guan et al., 2016). With the improving quality and growing volume of the data collected in ATC systems, data-driven methods have become mainstream in current aircraft TP research and may allow overcoming the limitations of model-based approach. The problem of TP when uncertainties in the input variables are considered has emerged in the recent years, and research activities are on-going on the topic. It is one of the main objectives of this paper. In previous work this problem has been faced by using model-based approach, coupled with probabilistic or uncertainty propagation methodologies (Rodriguez-Sanz et al., 2019), (Rivas et al., 2017), and data-driven approach (Ma and Tian, 2020), (Zeh et al., 2020), (Zhang et al., 2020).

## 3 OPERATIONAL SCENARIO

The design and validation of the TP methodology require the definition of an operational scenario and the collection of all the relevant data (historical data,

in terms of flown trajectories and related forecasts). The scenario definition includes the selection of the considered airspace, routes and aircraft, the identification of the parameters that affect the flight plan, and the definition of the time frame in which the TP shall be carried out. All the data that characterize the scenario are generated in simulation, providing a wide and complete database. The simulated data are computed using some assumptions that however do not affect the generality of the developed methodology. The following subsections detail both the considered scenario and the process for simulated data generation.

### 3.1 Scenario Definition

Two routes within the European airspace were selected: London Heathrow Airport (ICAO code: EGLL) to Athens Eleftherios Venizelos Airport (ICAO code: LGAV) and London Gatwick Airport (ICAO code: EGKK) to Malta International Airport (ICAO code: LMML). Both routes are executed by several airlines, fly through different national airspaces and go across different airspace sectors. It is assumed that each route can be performed using one out of twelve possible flight plans (three different lateral flight plans which can be performed at four different cruise flight levels), defined by departure and destination airports and a list of waypoints (WPs).

A generic short/medium range aircraft has been chosen to perform the flights, with take-off weight varying in the range 50-80 tons. Actually, there is a large number and types of parameters that can affect flight plan selection and request for a flight plan change both during pre-flight planning and flight execution. The defined scenario considers two of these parameters, that are relevant in the strategic and pre-tactical phases, namely actual aircraft take-off weight (TOW) and weather conditions. In fact, the actual TOW affects the climbing performance of the aircraft (Zeh et al., 2020), (Uzun and Koyuncu, 2017), and the selection of the optimal flight level, as described in (AIRBUS, 1998). The effects of weather conditions on the performed flight plan are widely known and reported in several works in the literature (Rivas, Franco and Valenzuela, 2017), (de Leege, van Paassen and Mulder, 2013), (Sankararaman and Daigle, 2017). For the sake of simplification, other effects such as the pilot intent, FMS performance, ATC tactical intervention, are not considered in the generation of simulated data.

The methodology shall be applicable in strategic and pre-tactical phases, therefore a time window of 15 days before the scheduled date of flight (denoted

as Tf) is considered. In details, TP is performed at three relevant dates: 15 days, 5 days and 1 day before Tf, denoted with Tf-15, Tf-5 and Tf-1, respectively. Simulated data concerning meteorological conditions and estimated TOW, including related uncertainties, are computed in these dates and in the day of flight.

### 3.2 Simulated Data Generation

The information about a huge number of flights shall be available to design and validate a data-driven TP methodology. For each flight the following data are required:

- the set of possible flight plans that can be flown along the selected route;
- the weather forecasts (and their probabilistic characterization) along the flight route, in each date of the TP computation and the actual weather conditions on the day of the flight;
- the TOW estimations (and their probabilistic characterization) in each date of the TP computation and the actual TOW during the flight;
- the actual flown trajectory the day of flight.

The set of possible flight plans for each route was selected through the analysis of the data available on the website <https://www.flightradar24.com> and defined by a list of WPs downloaded from the website [www.flightplandatabase.com](http://www.flightplandatabase.com).

The ERA5 database of the European Centre of Medium-range Weather Forecast-ECMWF (ERA5, 2021) was used to get 3D (longitude, latitude, pressure altitude) weather data. Several datasets, including wind intensity and direction and atmospheric temperature, were used; they refer to all the days of October and November from 1979 to 2013 at 2pm. Weather data are evaluated in each WP of all the possible flight plans for the selected route, through an interpolation of the grid provided by ERA5. The ERA5 also provides the uncertainties for the weather forecasts (Haiden et al., 2019) that apply back till to 15 days before the date, and this is also a leading reason for selecting 15 days as the time range of our scenario. In the defined scenario, along with the forecast at Tf-15, Tf-5 and Tf-1 dates, an uncertainty is associated to each variable that characterizes the weather conditions, as provided in (Haiden et al., 2019). It is assumed that the forecast of the atmospheric parameters are stochastic variables with a Uniform distribution. Once the atmospheric parameters are available, the No-Fly Zones can be computed as the airspace region where wind intensity exceeds a pre-defined threshold.

The TOW forecast and actual values vary among two precise limits, the Operating Empty Weight (OEW) and the Maximum Take-Off Weight (MTOW). These values for most of the aircraft are available in the literature (AIRBUS, 1998). The TOW forecast at each prediction date is obtained through a random draw, assuming a Uniform stochastic distribution within the allowable range. The uncertainty on the estimated value depends on how much in advance with respect to the scheduled flight date the estimation is computed (it decreases while approaching the flight date) and it is defined as a percentage of the whole range of variation.

Computed weather conditions and take-off weight on the day of flight are inputs for the selection of the flown flight plan among the possible options. Specifically, as detailed before, the presence of the No-Fly Zones is determined by the weather, whereas the TOW defines, for a given aircraft and cost index selected by the operator, the climbing performance, the optimal cruise altitude and the optimal Mach number, denoted as ECON Mach (AIRBUS, 1998). It is worthy to remark that the weather conditions could also contribute to determine the optimal flight level, because the relation between TOW and optimal cruise altitude (flight level), for a fixed cost index, varies with the atmospheric temperature. Based on these considerations, the following rules apply to select the most suitable flight plan (among the available ones for the considered route):

- the selected lateral flight plan shall avoid the NFZs;
- the selected flight level shall be the optimal one with respect to the take-off weight.

The definition of the 4D flight plan requires the computation of the time of arrival in each WP. It is performed through kinematic equations, assuming that the flight is executed flying at ECON Mach. In computing the time to reach the WPs in the first legs of a flight plan, the climb performance of the aircraft is also considered by adding to the estimated time an additional delay. This climb performance is available in the open literature for some aircraft models (AIRBUS, 1998).

Using the data generation process above described, 2052 simulated flights were computed for the route from London to Athens, and 2023 simulated flights for the route from London to Malta. Globally, there are 20 variables comprised in the simulated data related to aircraft state, weather condition, take-off weight and the relative uncertainties. For each simulated flight these variables are provided at each prediction date (predicted values of the variables and

related uncertainties) and at the date of flight (actual flown values of the variables). Table I shows the list of the variables.

Table 1: List of simulated variables.

Variable	Description	Units
<b>WP ID</b>	Waypoint (WP) Identifier	-
<b>Lon</b>	WP longitude	deg
<b>Lat</b>	WP latitude	deg
<b>T</b>	Temperature	K
<b>VnW</b>	North component of wind speed on WP	m/s
<b>VeW</b>	East component of wind speed on WP	m/s
<b>VdW</b>	East component of wind speed on WP	m/s
<b>W</b>	Take-off weight	kg
<b>FL</b>	Flight level	100s ft
<b>PrFL</b>	Probability associated to the flight level	-
<b>M</b>	Mach number	-
<b>PrM</b>	Probability associated to the Mach number	-
<b>Vg</b>	Speed with respect to the ground	m/s
<b>ETime</b>	Time needed to cover the distance between two consecutive WPs (ETA)	s

## 4 METHODOLOGY DEVELOPMENT

The development of the methodology, named P4T, was carried out in three phases: domain and data understanding, data preparation, and training of the models.

### 4.1 Domain and Data Understanding

The domain understanding included the fixing of the objectives of the data analysis goals and the assessment of the situation. In particular, it concerned the mapping from domain issues to data analysis problems. As a result, the domain objective in the P4T methodology, consisting in the prediction of the flight path, has been translated into a data analysis objective, which consists of a multiclass classification with respect to the flight plan prediction (both lateral and vertical), and of a regression, regarding the estimation of the time of arrival on the WPs of the flight plan.

For the lateral and vertical flight plan, the problem to address can be stated as: predict which flight plan, among  $N$  possible ones, will be selected for the



execution of the flight. The input variables considered are: forecast and related uncertainties of weather conditions (temperature and wind speed components) at each WP of the flight plan and of take-off weight. The prediction of the time of arrival on the WPs (ETA) is a classical regression problem having as input variables the sequence of the WPs, the forecast of temperature and horizontal wind direction (east and north components) at each WP, and of take-off weight. The examination of the simulated data has showed that there is a one-to-one correspondence between the flight level and the optimal cruising Mach number of the aircraft, so that, once established the value of the flight level, the Mach is uniquely defined. This is perfectly reasonable in a first approximation, taking apart the possible variation due to the necessity to compensate for the effects of the wind speed along the route. So, temperature and take-off weight contain all the information to predict the cruising airspeed. For this reason, in the regression model for the estimation of ETA, these variables are considered as input to the model and not the estimated cruising speed or flight level.

## 4.2 Data Preparation

Different strategies were used to construct the datasets needed in the modelling phase for lateral flight plan and flight level classifications and for the estimation of the time of arrival.

Regarding the prediction of the lateral flight plan, separate datasets were built for each of the selected route and for each time frame before the estimated off block time (EOBT). Since it is assumed that the definition of the lateral flight plan and the choice of the cruise flight level may be taken as independent, different datasets for the prediction of these two target variables were built. Once fixed the route and the time frame, the simulated dataset provides for each flight, the alternative flight plans along with the related forecasted weather conditions, as well as the estimated take-off weight. The datasets for the prediction of the lateral flight plan contain vectors with the following structure:

$$(T^{(1)}, V_N^{(1)}, V_E^{(1)}, V_D^{(1)}, \dots, T^{(L)}, V_N^{(L)}, V_E^{(L)}, V_D^{(L)}) \quad (1)$$

where  $L$  is the number of WPs in the flight plan. The components of these vectors are only the weather variables, i.e. the temperature  $T$  and the three components of the wind speed along the three directions north  $V_N$ , east  $V_E$ , and down  $V_D$ .

In order to consider the uncertainties, the value of the weather variables used to construct the input vectors for modelling is drawn from a gaussian

distribution centred on the simulated value and with standard deviation  $\sigma = \Delta/3$ , where  $\Delta$  is the associated uncertainty. The choice of  $\sigma$  is made to have a gaussian ample enough to take all the interval of uncertainty of the weather variable, i.e.  $6\sigma = 2\Delta$ . This sampling is repeated for a fixed number of times. Then, for the components of the vector (1), we have:

$$T^{(i)} \sim \mathcal{N}(T_0^{(i)}, \Delta T^{(i)}/3) \quad (2)$$

$$V_j^{(i)} \sim \mathcal{N}(V_{0j}^{(i)}, \Delta V_j^{(i)}/3) \quad (3)$$

where  $i = 1, \dots, L$ ,  $j = N, E, D$ , and  $T_0^{(i)}$  and  $V_{0j}^{(i)}$  are the values of  $T$  and  $V_j$  at WP  $i$ -th as provided by the available input data. The target variable for the training of the models is the label corresponding to the lateral flight plan used for the execution of the flight.

The procedure used to construct the dataset for the prediction of the flight level is similar. The flight level is a characteristic of the flight, not of the single flight plan, and it is assumed that the choice of the flight level depends mainly on the take-off weight and on the mean temperature in the zone of flight.

The dataset for the training of the models for the prediction of the flight level is made up of vectors with the following simple structure:

$$(T_m, W) \quad (4)$$

where  $T_m$  is calculated by taking all the WPs of all the possible lateral flight plans, and  $W$  is a value repeatedly drawn from a gaussian distribution centred on the value of the take-off weight, denoted as  $W_0$ , as provided by the input data and having  $1/3$  of the uncertainty  $\Delta W$  as standard deviation. Then, for the target variable, to each possible flight level is given as label an integer from 1 to the number of possible flight levels. The target variable for the training of the model is the label corresponding to the flight level used for the execution of the flight.

The dataset for the regression problem of estimating the time of arrival on the WPs of the lateral flight plan was built starting from the data of the simulated flights, i.e. those referring to the day of flight (see Table 1). These variables refer to the flight plan used during the execution of the flight and carry no uncertainties. Therefore, a data-driven model of the aircraft dynamics was built by exploiting one dataset for each of the two routes considered. Each dataset contains rows with the following structure:

$$(d, b, T, V_N, V_E, W) \quad (5)$$

where  $d$  is the distance between two consecutive WPs of the same flight calculated along a loxodrome,  $b$  is the track angle between the two WPs,  $T$ ,  $V_N$  and

$V_E$  are evaluated at the starting WP. The dependency on other estimated parameters, such as the flight level or the Mach number, is not introduced into the regression model since the temperature and the take-off weight should contain enough information to let the model gain a knowledge about the cruise speed of the aircraft. The analysis focused on the cruising phase of the flight, leaving out the climbing from the departure airport to the cruising flight level and the descending phase to the arrival airport.

The modelling datasets obtained with these procedures are split into training and test sets. The training sets are used for the construction and optimization of the predictive models, while the test sets are kept apart for the final evaluation of the performance of the models.

### 4.3 Modeling

In order to select the best model for the problem at hand, part of the available training dataset is used as a validation dataset useful for tuning the model's hyperparameters.

In the development of the methodology both holdout and a k-fold cross-validation (with  $k=10$ ) have been used, obtaining very similar results, so in the following only the results for the cross validation are reported, separately for the prediction of the flight plan and the prediction of the ETAs.

The three timeframes in which TP is carried out have been dealt with the same procedure and there were not special difficulties and limitations encountered during the training of the models.

An information-gain based filter has been used to reduce the number of input variables to the most significant ones. Several different models were tested in the development of the methodology varying their specific hyperparameters: inductive decision trees with variable depth, random forests with variable number of decision trees, Bayesian Networks with different number of parent nodes and Neural Networks with variable number of units in the hidden layer. We found that the models showing the best performance in classification were inductive decision trees and random forests (Tan et al., 2019). Decision trees were used for both the route and for almost all the timeframes for the prediction of both the horizontal flight plan and the flight level with three exceptions, all regarding the prediction of the lateral flight plan: a random forest with 20 decision trees was used for the London-Malta route at Tf-5 and two random forests with 250 decision trees were used for both the routes one day before EOBT. In Table 2 and 3 are reported the results obtained for the accuracy in

the prediction of the lateral flight plan. The training datasets are substantially balanced, especially the one for the London-Malta route, while the one for the London-Athens route presents a slight imbalance in favour of the first lateral flight plan, as highlighted in Table 4. As can be seen from the tables, the ability of the models to make correct predictions for the long term, 15 days before take-off, is better than that of a classifier that assigns labels randomly. In this time frame, for the London-Athens route, the model tends to prefer the first plane of lateral flight, this could be a further sign of imbalance in the dataset. The results improve, however, rapidly as the temporal distance from EOBT decreases, a sign that the models have been able to effectively learn the information useful for the classification.

Table 2: Results for horizontal flight plan prediction.

Route	Accuracy		
	<i>Tf-15</i>	<i>Tf-5</i>	<i>Tf-1</i>
London – Athens	38.5%	53.4%	99.9%
London – Malta	35.8%	81.2%	99.9%

Table 3: Results for flight level prediction.

Route	Accuracy		
	<i>Tf-15</i>	<i>Tf-5</i>	<i>Tf-1</i>
London – Athens	46.7%	69.9%	88.7%
London – Malta	44.2%	72.3%	90.3%

Table 4: Composition of the training dataset for horizontal flight plan prediction.

Flight plan	London – Athens	London – Malta
1	36.6%	32.2%
2	30.1%	33.0%
3	33.3%	34.8%

Table 5: Composition of the training dataset for flight level prediction.

Flight level	London – Athens	London – Malta
330	23.5%	25.0%
350	31.7%	29.6%
370	27.1%	27.7%
390	17.7%	17.7%

For the flight level, the training datasets show a more marked imbalance (see Table 5), once again lower in the case of the London-Malta route. The models perform better than the random classifier starting from 15 days before EOBT and the rate of correct classification increases steadily approaching the day of the flight.

Using one-hot encoding the components of the output vectors are all positive numbers that sum to 1 and thus may be interpreted as a probability

distribution over the possible lateral flight plans (flight levels) given the vector of inputs. The output of the model is the lateral flight plan or flight level to which corresponds the highest probability. Since the choice of the lateral flight plans and of the flight level are considered as independent, the product of these probabilities gives the overall probability for the selection of a flight plan (lateral + vertical), that can be represented as a heat-map (Figure 1) or a bar plot graph (Figure 2).

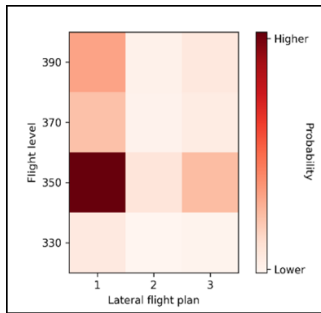


Figure 1: Heat-map representation of the joint probability.

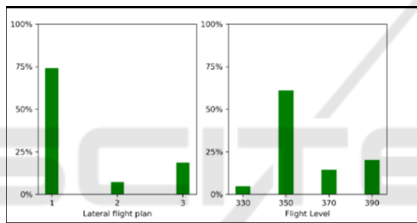


Figure 2: Bar plot representation of the joint probability.

As said above, the dataset used for the prediction of the time of arrival was built starting from the data relative to the executed flight and carry no uncertainties. The datasets were almost balanced in terms of the flight plan used for the flights, for both the two selected routes (Table 6).

Table 6: Composition of the training dataset for prediction of the time of arrival.

Flight plan	London – Athens	London – Malta
1	36.2%	32.0%
2	30.1%	33.0%
3	33.7%	35.0%

Table 7: Training results for prediction of the time of arrival.

Route	MSE (s <sup>2</sup> )	MAE (s)
London – Athens	10.5	1.8
London – Malta	4.8	1.4

Also, four different regression algorithms were tested, optimizing their respective hyperparameters against a validation dataset: decision trees with

variable depths, random forests with different number of decision trees, AdaBoost regressors based on decision trees by varying the depth of the trees and the number of estimators, artificial Neural Networks with variable number of hidden layer units. The models giving the best performance for both the London-Athens route and the London-Malta route were two random forest regressor models with 150 estimators, the MSE (Mean Squared Error) and MAE (Mean Absolute Error) are reported in Table 7.

## 5 METHODOLOGY EVALUATION

The evaluation of the performance of a model is of paramount importance to assess the real capability of the model to be used in a production environment. To this end part of the available data is to be kept apart in a test dataset not used in any step of the training/validation process.

Table 8: Test results for the route London-Athens.

Time before EOBT	Horizontal flight plan	Flight level	Flight plan (horizontal + vertical)
Tf-15	31%	48%	12%
Tf-5	63%	67%	42%
Tf-1	78%	88%	68%

Table 9: Test results for the route London-Malta.

Time before EOBT	Horizontal flight plan	Flight level	Flight plan (horizontal + vertical)
Tf-15	34%	48%	13%
Tf-5	76%	66%	50%
Tf-1	83%	89%	74%

The test dataset for the evaluation of the models trained in the P4T methodology comprise 100 randomly chosen flights for each of the selected routes, with data referring to 15 days, 5 days and 1 day before the EOBT and to the day of execution of the flight. It is worth pointing out a major difference between the training/validation dataset and the test dataset. As described in the previous paragraph, the training dataset is built by sampling the input variables from certain distributions defined by their respective uncertainty, so from each simulated flight in the training set we get M different records corresponding to the same target flight plan. The dataset obtained by this procedure is then split randomly into a training and a validation dataset, these two sets are disjoint but it may be possible that

records referring to the same flight may be present in both sets. The test dataset, instead, is made up by all the records of all the flights taken apart for the evaluation of the models. Since the choice of the lateral flight plan and of the flight level are considered as independent, the prediction of the flight plan is a two steps process that can be performed in parallel. The  $M$  vectors obtained through the sampling procedure are used as input to the model for the prediction of the lateral flight plan to obtain  $M$  different predictions, the final output of the model is the one recurring most often (majority voting). For the prediction of the flight level there is a unique vector as input to the model and the output is the most probable flight level (one-hot encoding).

The performance of the predictive models on the test dataset are presented in Table 8 for the route from London to Athens and in Table 9 for the route from London to Malta. It is worthy to note that a classifier that chooses the lateral flight plan and the flight level completely randomly should have an accuracy of about 8.33%, so even in the long-term case Tf-15 the accuracy in predicting the flight plan (horizontal and vertical) is still significantly better than a random classifier. These results confirm the overall good performance of the models, in particular the accuracy of the prediction increases remarkably as the time of the departure closes in and the forecast values of the input variables get closer to the values experienced during the execution of the flight and the corresponding uncertainties get smaller.

A sequence of WPs is needed as input to test the performance of the regression model for estimating the arrival times. These WPs are provided by the model for the lateral flight plan prediction. The same flights used to test the models for the prediction of the flight plans were considered. To assess the performance of the regression model, the predicted and actual flight times were compared. But, since the predicted flight plan may differ from the actual flight plan, instead of comparing the arrival times on the individual WPs, the overall duration of the cruise phase was compared.

In Figure 3 there are the histograms of the absolute values of the difference between the actual and the predicted duration of the cruise flight for the route from London to Malta for all the considered time frames before the EOBT. For this route, the cruise flight extends for 21 WPs with a duration that ranges from about 1.5 to about 2.5 hours. It is evident that the performance of the model gets better approaching the day of the flight. A similar pattern is obtained for the route London-Athens: approaching the EOBT the number of flights with a prediction error in the range 0-5 minutes increases steadily, with

a corresponding reduction in the number of flights with high prediction errors. It is expected that the error in time prediction is related to the error in the prediction of the horizontal flight plan. In fact, to give an idea of the improving performance of the regression model when the horizontal flight plan is correctly predicted, Figure 4 shows the absolute value of the error limited only to the flights with a correct prediction of the lateral flight plan for the route London-Malta; similar results were obtained for the other route. For both the routes, the error doesn't exceed 360 seconds (6 minutes), and the number of flights with a value of the error below 120 s increases remarkably approaching the day of the flight.

Another view of the results is presented in Figure 5, which includes three scatter plots for the London-Malta route, one for each considered time frame, going from left to right, Tf-15, Tf-5 and Tf-1. The plots report the actual duration of the cruise phase of the flight on the x-axis and the predicted duration on the y-axis. Each point represents a flight with a color that depends on the correctness of the prediction of the 3D flight plan: violet both horizontal and vertical flight plan are correctly predicted, blue only the vertical flight plan prediction is correct, light blue only the horizontal flight plan prediction is correct, yellow both are incorrectly predicted. The nearer the point to the bisector, line in red, the lesser is the error in the prediction of the duration of the cruise flight. The figure confirms that if both lateral flight plan and flight level or if only lateral flight plan are correctly predicted then the error on the predicted duration is very low. Very similar results were obtained for the route from London to Athens.

## 6 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORKS

This paper presented a data driven methodology for trajectory prediction on long, medium and short terms, developed within the framework of the PIU4TP project. Its main peculiarity is the capability to manage the uncertainties that by nature affect the input data to the trajectory prediction process.

The proposed approach was developed and tested using a simplified use case, based on simulated data. Specifically, only two factors that influence the selection of the optimal flight plan were considered, that is, weather conditions and take-off weight. Indeed, the objective is to demonstrate a proof of concept and to provide evidences of the proposed methodology applicability and potential benefits arising from its use.



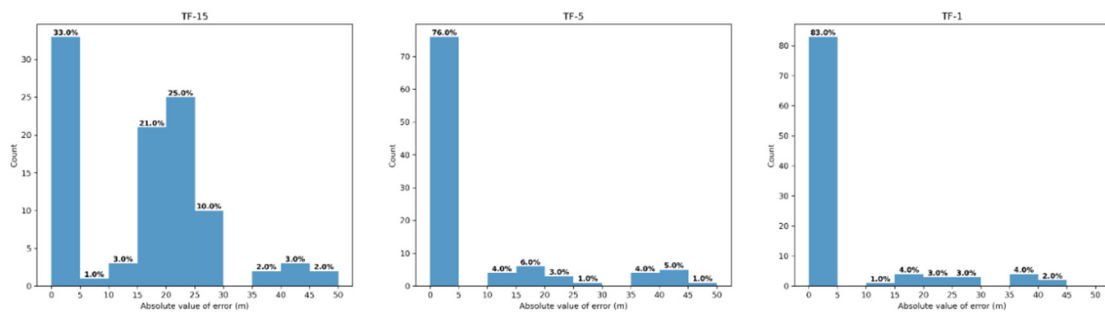


Figure 3: London-Malta route, histograms of the absolute difference between actual and predicted duration, in minutes (m), of the cruise flight.

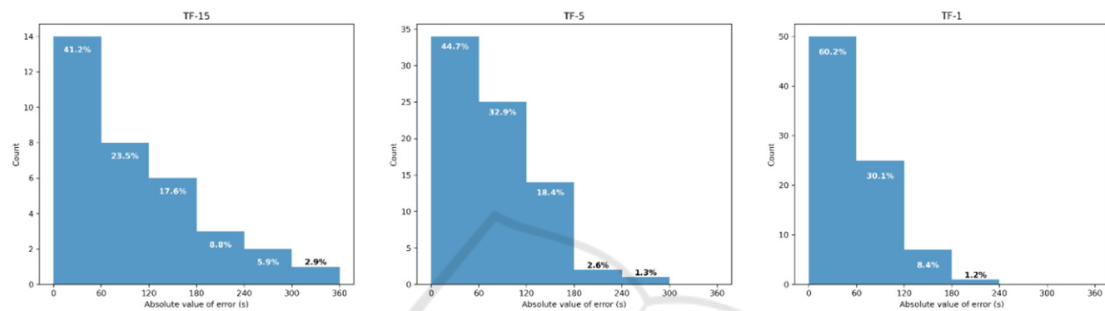


Figure 4: London-Malta route, histograms of the absolute difference between actual and predicted duration, in seconds (s), of the cruise flight limited only to the flights with a correct prediction of the flight plan.

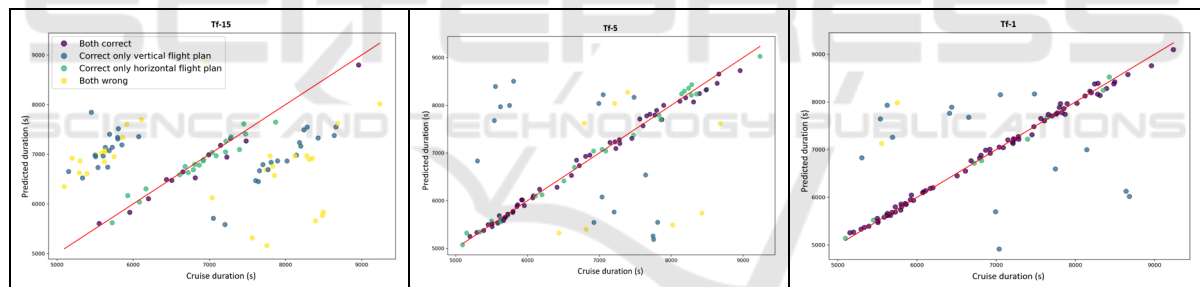


Figure 5: London-Malta scatter-plots of the actual vs. the predicted duration of the cruise flight.

The simulated data were produced within the framework of the PIU4TP project by defining suitable simulation models and exploiting the data found in the open access databases. Preliminary assessment of the methodology highlighted that it is able to catch the information that are available in the input data, including the related uncertainties, and to exploit them to reliably predict in advance the flown trajectory. The methodology’s output includes a complete spatial prediction of the flight plan (horizontal and vertical) enriched with an estimation of the time of flight (limited to the cruise phase of the flight). The probability of the prediction is provided, too. The accuracy of the prediction depends on the time in advance with which it is computed and increases sharply as the time approaches the day of

the flight, reaching values around 70% one day before the EOBT. This behaviour is due to the weather forecasts improve and the uncertainties on the input data reduce as the EOBT approaches. When the three-dimensional spatial flight plan is correctly predicted, the estimation of the duration of the cruise phase of the flight is very accurate, too, with a worst-case error less than 6 minutes also on long term prediction.

Finally, the achieved percentage of correct predictions for the horizontal flight plan at Tf-1 (from 78% to 83%) is in line with the ones presented in (Cordero et al., 2018), where the success rate of the predictions performed 8 hours before EOBT varies between 82% and 90%. It shall be considered that in the two works the predictions are performed at different time frames (24 hours versus 8 hours before

flight schedule) and that different scenarios are considered.

In order to further mature the concept, future research shall focus on more complex use cases, which consider a wider set of input parameters, and analyze actual flight data.

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