# Modeling of Passenger Demand using Mixture of Poisson Components

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Abstract: The paper deals with the problem of modeling the passenger demand in the tram transportation network. The passenger demand on the individual tram stops is naturally influenced by the number of boarding and disembarking passengers, whose measuring is expensive and therefore they should be modeled and predicted. A mixture of Poisson components with the dynamic pointer estimated by recursive Bayesian estimation algorithms is used to describe the mentioned variables, while their prediction is solved with the help of the Poisson regression. The main contributions of the presented approach are: (i) the model of the number of boarding and disembarking passengers; (ii) the real-time data incorporation into the model; (iii) the recursive estimation algorithm with the normal approximation of the proximity function. The results of experiments with real data and the comparison with theoretical counterparts are demonstrated.

### **1 INTRODUCTION**

The paper deals with the problem of modeling the passenger demand in the tram network, which is an important task in the public transportation. In order to provide a high-quality and attractive public transport service, it is necessary to minimize the number of overcrowded vehicles. Moreover, in order to provide economically effective service and to reduce human resources needed, it is also necessary to minimize the number of insufficiently occupied vehicles.

In this area, many papers deal with the passenger demand models in metro systems (Sun et al., 2015; Roos et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2015(a)). They use data from turnstiles both at the entrance and the exit at stations, which could be paired for passengers using smart cards. In this case, continuous measurements of the passenger flow are available. However, for example, in central Europe, most metro networks are so called "open networks" without turnstiles and therefore without continuous measuring of the passenger demand, which means it should be modeled and predicted. Aside from metro systems, methods of the demand modeling have been also investigated for bus networks (Samaras, 2015; Bai et al., 2017; Lijuan and Chen, 2017; Ma et al., 2014), where continuous measuring of the passenger demand is an expensive task as well as in tram networks. For tram transportation,

the thesis (Pušman, 2013) proposed a method of proportional transit division (PTD) using deterministic models for the passenger demand calculation.

Generally, the approaches in the discussed field are based on: (i) regression models, (ii) artificial neural networks or (iii) hybrid models combining them. For example, (Milenkovič et al., 2016) proposed seasonal autoregressive integrated moving average model to be used on Serbian railways. (Zhou et al., 2013) introduced three different models of the passenger demand in bus networks. The first one was a time varying Poisson model. Secondly, a weighted time varying Poisson model was proposed to cope with irregularities in passenger demand. Finally, an autoregressive integrated moving average model was also proposed in this paper. All three models were applied for data from buses in Yantai, China with the final model achieving the most accurate results.

In the area of artificial neural networks, the following papers were found. (Chen and Wei, 2011) used back-propagation neural networks for the passenger demand description in the Taipei metro system. (Tsai et al., 2009) dealt with two neural network models in the Taiwan railway network. The first one was the multiple temporal units neural network and the second was parallel ensemble neural network. The latter provided more accurate results. (Bai et al., 2017) introduced deep belief networks for the passen-

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ger flow prediction on a bus line.

A series of studies combine more models to adapt them to their specific tasks. (Lijuan and Chen, 2017) combined stacked auto-encoder (SAE) and deep neural network (DNN) into SAE-DNN model for the passenger demand prediction in the Xiamen bus system. (Sun et al., 2015) proposed a combination of wavelet transformation and support vector machine models in the Beijing subway system. (Jiang et al., 2014) focused on the empirical mode decomposition (EEMD) and grey support vector machine (GSVM) hybrid model of the passenger demand in the highspeed railway network in China.

Besides methods mentioned above, other approaches have also been used, e.g., Bayesian networks (Roos et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2015(a)), stochastic hybrid automat and Petri nets (Haar and Theissing, 2016) and others.

Despite the significant number of studies, current methods possess a series of disadvantages, such as, e.g., narrow specification, fluctuations in predictions, etc. Analyzing the above state of the art, it can be stated that the problem of demand modeling still calls for novel reliable solutions.

The presented approach is based on the definition of the passenger demand at a tram stop as the number of passengers currently using a tram vehicle at a time moment. Since the vehicle occupancy can change only at stops, it is determined by adding the number of boarding passengers and subtracting the number of disembarking passengers at each stop, i.e.,

demand = current demand - disembarking + boarding.

However, measuring the number of boarding and disembarking passengers in the tram network is still a complicated task, and such measurements are not available without specific surveys. Thus, these variables should be modeled and predicted as well. They will create the basis for the prediction of the demand.

This paper proposes a novel approach to the modeling of the passenger demand in the tram transportation network using a mixture of Poisson components with the dynamic pointer estimated using recursive Bayesian algorithms primarily based on (Kárný et al., 1998; Peterka, 1981; Kárný et al., 2006; Nagy and Suzdaleva, 2017). The approach is represented in two parts, where the first one deals with the available data set used for the recursive estimation of the model, and the second one uses the estimated model for the prediction. The approach is demonstrated for the number of boarding passengers.

The layout of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the models used and specifies the problem. Section 3 proposes a recursive algorithm of the Bayesian estimation, which represents the first part of the proposed approach. Section 4 is devoted to the prediction part of the presented solution. Results of experiments with real data and the discussion are demonstrated in Section 5. Conclusions can be found in Section 6.

### 2 MODELS

Let's observe a system, which represents a tram line, consisting of  $n_s$  stops. The individual tram trips depart from each stop at non regularly discretized time periods. In this work, the time of trip departures will be used as discrete instants of time corresponding to realizations of random variables and will be denoted by the index *t*. At each stop  $s \in \{1, 2, ..., n_s\}$ , the system generates the number of passengers boarding the tram trip *t*, which is denoted by  $y_{s;t}^b$  and similarly, the number of disembarking passengers  $y_{s;t}^d$ .

Having, e.g., three following stops  $s_1$ ,  $s_2$  and  $s_3$ , the passenger demand denoted by  $D_{23;t}$  between stops  $s_2$  and  $s_3$  for a trip t is defined as:

$$D_{23;t} = D_{12;t} - y_{2;t}^d + y_{2;t}^b.$$
(1)

Let's assume that for each stop *s* the variables  $y_{s;t}^d$  and  $y_{s;t}^b$  can be measured for trips  $t = \{1, 2, ..., T\}$  and are no longer available for t > T.

In order to be able to use equation (1) recursively for a line consisting of  $n_s$  stops, it is necessary to describe firstly the number of boarding (similarly disembarking) passengers at a single stop. Here, for the sake of simplicity the approach will be shown for the number of boarding passengers  $y_{s,t}^b$ . In the case of disembarking passengers, the approach will be the same. Thus, for the better transparency of the approach, the superscripts *b* and *d* will be omitted.

The available data set of the variables  $y_{s;t}$  can be used as the prior knowledge for the preliminary analysis for a choice of the model probability density function (pdf). Based on the visual analysis of histograms of the number of boarding passengers at stops in the considered tram lines, the Poisson distribution as the discrete distribution with high finite number of possible values suitable for non-negative data was chosen for the description of the data. The example of the histogram at a selected stop is shown in Figure 1.

In addition, the figure shows that the variables are of the multimodal nature. This can be explained by the behavior of passengers changing probably according to a day period, e.g., morning peak time, lunchtime, afternoon peak time, etc. It means that for the description of the number of boarding passengers, a mixture of Poisson pdfs can be a suitable tool.



Figure 1: Histogram of the number of boarding passengers.

Generally, the mixture model consists of  $n_c$  components and the pointer model (Kárný et al., 2006; Kárný et al., 1998), where the components describe modes of the observed system behavior and the pointer variable indicates a component, which is active at time *t*. The active component should be understood as that generating data at the moment.

Within the considered context, each Poisson component has the form of the following pdf

$$f(y_{s,t}|\boldsymbol{\lambda}_s, c_t = i) = \exp\left\{-(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_s)_i\right\} \frac{(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_s)_i^{y_{s,t}}}{y_{s,t}!}, \quad (2)$$

where  $\lambda_s$  are the parameters for each stop *s*, and  $\lambda_s = (\lambda_s)_i$  for  $c_t = i$ , the denotation  $c_t$  stands for the pointer variable, described by the categorical distribution, and  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n_c\}$ . The denotation  $c_t = i$  means that at the time instant *t*, the pointer  $c_t$  indicates the *i*-th component, which is active.

In this paper, switching the active components is described by the dynamic pointer model (Nagy et al., 2011) based on (Kárný et al., 1998; Kárný et al., 2006) in the form of the following probability function (also denoted by pdf)

$$f(c_t = i | c_{t-1} = j, \alpha), \, i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n_c\}, \qquad (3)$$

which is represented by the transition table

|                 | $c_t = 1$        | $c_t = 2$      | ••• | $c_t = n_c$        |
|-----------------|------------------|----------------|-----|--------------------|
| $c_{t-1} = 1$   | $\alpha_{1 1}$   | $\alpha_{2 1}$ | ••• | $\alpha_{n_c 1}$   |
|                 |                  |                | ••• | •••                |
| $c_{t-1} = n_c$ | $\alpha_{1 n_c}$ |                | ••• | $\alpha_{n_c n_c}$ |

where the unknown parameter  $\alpha$  is the  $(n_c \times n_c)$ dimensional matrix, and its entries  $\alpha_{i|j}$  are nonnegative probabilities of the pointer  $c_t = i$  (expressing that the *i*-th component is active at time *t*) under condition that the previous pointer  $c_{t-1} = j$ . The pointer is supposed to be common for all the stops, which is explained by connecting the stops into lines. From this point of view, if a component is active at a stop (e.g., the morning peak hour happens), it is active as well at the neighboring stop, etc. For this reason, the subscript *s* is omitted for the denotations  $c_t$  and  $\alpha$ .

#### 2.1 Problem Specification

Applying the mixture model (2)–(3), the task of modeling the number of boarding passengers  $y_{s;t}$  (contextually identical in the case of disembarking), which should be used for the passenger demand prediction (1) for the time t > T, is specified as follows:

1) estimate the component parameters  $(\lambda_s)_i$ , which means that the parameter is changing for each stop within a component,

2) estimate the pointer parameter  $\alpha$ 

3) and estimate the pointer value  $c_t$  to be used in the subsequent prediction of the data.

## **3 MIXTURE ESTIMATION**

To derive the estimation algorithm for (2)–(3), it is advantageous to recall the estimation of the individual Poisson pdf (i.e., omitting the subscript *i* for the sake of simplicity). The maximum likelihood estimation of the Poisson distribution, e.g., (Yang and Berdine, 2015) gives the estimate of  $\lambda_s$  as the mean value of  $y_{s,t}$  for each stop *s*, i.e., the likelihood function has the following form:

$$L_s(\lambda) = (\exp\{-\lambda_s\})^{\kappa_{s;T}} \frac{\lambda_s^{S_{s;T}}}{\prod_{t=1}^T y_{s;t}!},$$
 (4)

where the statistics are

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$$S_{s;t} = S_{s;t-1} + y_{s;t},$$
 (5)

$$\kappa_{s:t} = \kappa_{s:t-1} + 1 \tag{6}$$

for each stop *s* and for  $t = \{1, 2, ..., T\}$ . Using the derivation of the likelihood function, the point estimate of  $\lambda_s$  of the individual stop *s* is given by

$$\hat{\lambda}_s = \frac{S_{s;T}}{\kappa_{s;T}}.$$
(7)

According to the above relations and recursive Bayesian estimation theory primarily based on (Kárný et al., 1998; Peterka, 1981; Kárný et al., 2006; Nagy and Suzdaleva, 2017), the mixture estimation algorithm can be derived as follows. Using the joint pdf for all unknown variables as well as the chain rule and the Bayes rule (Peterka, 1981), it is obtained

$$\underbrace{f(\lambda_s, c_t = i, c_{t-1} = j, \alpha | y_s(t))}_{joint \ posterior \ pdf} \times \underbrace{f(y_{s;t}, \lambda_s, c_t = i, c_{t-1} = j, \alpha | y_s(t-1))}_{via \ chain \ rule \ and \ Bayes \ rule}$$

$$=\underbrace{f(y_{s,t}|\lambda_s, c_t=i)}_{(2)}\underbrace{f(\lambda_s|y_s(t-1))}_{\text{prior pdf of }\lambda}\underbrace{f(c_t=i|\alpha, c_{t-1}=j)}_{(3)}$$

$$\times \underbrace{f(\alpha|y_s(t-1))}_{prior \ pdf \ of \ \alpha} \underbrace{f(c_{t-1}=j|y_s(t-1))}_{prior \ pointer \ pdf}, \tag{8}$$

where the denotation  $y_s(t)$  means the collection of data  $\{y_{s;0}, y_{s;1}, \dots, y_{s;t}\}$  and  $y_{s;0}$  corresponds to the prior knowledge. The parameters  $\lambda_s$  and  $\alpha$  are assumed to be mutually independent, as well as  $y_{s;t}$  and  $\alpha$ , and  $c_t$  and  $\lambda_s$ . Generally, the relation (8) should be marginalized over  $\lambda_s$ ,  $\alpha$  and  $c_t$ . However, the parameter of the Poisson component (2) cannot be estimated recursively (Yang and Berdine, 2015), which means its likelihood function should be placed instead of the component pdf. This is a complicated task from the computational and derivation reasons. That's why the proximity function (Nagy and Suzdaleva, 2017) giving the closeness of the measured data element to the *i*-th component is proposed to be used here as the normal approximation of the Poisson pdf, optimal in the sense of the Kullback-Leibler divergence, see, e.g., (Kárný et al., 2006). In this case, the expectation of the approximated Poisson pdf is substituted in the normal pdf instead of the original one, see for details (Nagy et al., 2016). The estimation of the parameter  $\alpha$  is solved using the prior Dirichlet pdf according to (Kárný et al., 2006).

Summarizing the derivations, the following steps of the algorithm should be performed.

#### 3.1 Algorithm

Initialization Part (for t = 1)

- Set the number of stops  $n_s$  and of components  $n_c$ .
- $\forall i \in \{1, 2, ..., n_c\}$  and  $\forall s \in \{1, 2, ..., n_s\}$ :
  - 1. Set the initial statistics of the components  $(S_{s;t-1})_i$  and  $(\kappa_{s;t-1})_i$  and of the pointer  $v_{t-1}$ .
  - 2. Compute the initial point estimates of the parameter  $(\lambda_s)_i$  according to (7).
- Compute the point estimates of the parameter α (Kárný et al., 2006).
- Set the initial weighting vector  $w_{t-1}$ .

Online Part (for t = 2, ..., T)

• 
$$\forall s \in \{1, 2..., n_s\}$$
:

- 1. Load the data item  $y_{s;t}$ .
- 2.  $\forall i \in \{1, 2, ..., n_c\}$  obtain the proximities denoted by  $m_i$  by the substitution of the previous point estimate of  $(\lambda_s)_i$  as the mean and the variance along with the current data item  $y_{s;t}$  into the normal approximating pdf.

3. Construct the weight matrix  $W_t$ , which contains the pdfs  $W_{j,i;t}$  (joint for  $c_t$  and  $c_{t-1}$ ) using the previous point estimate of the parameter  $\alpha$  and the obtained proximities, i.e.,

$$W_t \propto \left( w_{t-1} m' \right) \cdot * \hat{\alpha}_{t-1} \tag{9}$$

and normalize it (Nagy and Suzdaleva, 2017).

4. Obtain the weighting vector  $w_t$  with the updated entries  $w_{i;t}$ 

$$f(c_t = i | d(t)) = w_{i;t} \propto \sum_{j=1}^{n_c} W_{j,i;t},$$
 (10)

which gives probabilities of the component activity at time *t* (Nagy and Suzdaleva, 2017).

5. Update the statistics of all of the components:

$$(S_{s;t})_i = (S_{s;t-1})_i + w_{i;t}y_{s;t},$$
(11)  

$$(\kappa_{s;t})_i = (\kappa_{s;t-1})_i + w_{i;t}.$$
(12)

6. Update the pointer statistic (Nagy et al., 2011):

$$\mathbf{v}_{i|j;t} = \mathbf{v}_{i|j;t-1} + W_{j,i;t}, \quad i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n_c\}.$$
(13)

- 7. Recompute the point estimates of  $(\lambda_s)_i$  and  $\alpha$ .
- 8. Declare the active component according to the maximum entry in the weighting vector  $w_t$ , which gives the point estimate of the pointer.
- 9. Use the point estimates of  $(\lambda_s)_i$  and  $\alpha$  along with  $w_t$  for the first step of the online estimation.

More details can be found in (Kárný et al., 2006; Nagy and Suzdaleva, 2017).

This part of the model of the number of boarding passengers serves for learning the model for the case, when measurements of  $y_{s,t}$  for  $t \le T$  are available, which can be e.g., especially undertaken by the transportation organization after applying some modifications in the tram network.

## **4 PREDICTION**

The results of the above algorithm are the point estimates of the parameters  $(\lambda_s)_i$  for each stop and each component. After the time t > T, the boarding number  $y_{s,t}$  is no longer measured and thus should be predicted. Here, the second part of the stop description is introduced in the following way, which serves for the prediction of the boarding number  $y_{s,t}$  using the obtained estimates.

Naturally, apart from the boarding number  $y_{s;t}$  (as well as disembarking), each stop can be described by its surroundings, for example, location (e.g., GNSS

coordinates), demographics around the stop (inhabitants, job opportunities etc.), area characteristics (buildings or important places nearby, etc.), transfer options, number of available trips from the stop, etc., which are measurable online. The surroundings substantially influence the behavior of passengers at each stop.

Let surroundings of each stop s be denoted by  $x_{s:t}$ and comprise the vector  $[x_{s;t;1}, x_{s;t;2}, ..., x_{s;t;n_x}]$ , where  $t = \{1, 2, ...\}$  and  $n_x$  is the number of measured surroundings for each stop. In this paper, the following entries of the vector  $x_{s;t}$  are available as the surroundings of the stop s:  $x_{s;t;1}$  – scheduled departure time of the trip t from the stop s;  $x_{s;t;2}$  – delay of the trip t at the stop s;  $x_{s;t;3}$  – number of trips on other lines which arrived earlier although they were supposed to arrive later;  $x_{s;t;4}$  – number of available trips per hour on all lines at the stop;  $x_{s;t;5}$  – scheduled time difference between the trip and the previous trip;  $x_{s;t:6}$  – real time difference between the trip and the previous trip;  $x_{s:t:7}$  – transfer for a metro line availability;  $x_{s:t:8}$ - transfer for a bus line availability;  $x_{s;t;9}$  - number of inhabitants living up to 500 m from the stop. Other variables can be also used.

Let's assume that the surroundings  $x_{s;t}$  can influence the  $y_{s;t}$  in the following way:

$$y_{s;t} = b' x_{s;t} + e_{s;t},$$
 (14)

where *b* are regression coefficients and  $e_{s,t}$  is a noise. However, with the Poisson noise distribution, the Poisson regression should be considered instead, i.e.,

$$\ln(y_{s;t}) = b' x_{s;t} + e_{s;t}.$$
 (15)

As the variables  $y_{s;t}$  are no longer measured, the estimate of the parameter  $(\lambda_s)_i$  can serve instead of it (i.e., as the estimate of  $y_{s;t}$ ), which means that the regression (15) takes the following form:

$$\ln((\hat{\lambda}_s)_i) = b' x_{s;t},\tag{16}$$

where  $(\hat{\lambda}_s)_i$  denotes the point estimate from the active component for each stop, i.e., for  $i = c_t$  for the trip *t*. Having the point estimates  $(\hat{\lambda}_s)_i$  and surroundings  $x_{s;t}$ for stops  $s = \{1, 2, ..., n_s\}$  for individual trips, the regression coefficients of (16) can be estimated straightforward with the help of the least square method.

For the prediction of the number of boarding passengers  $y_{s,t}$ , the regression for each stop *s* and chosen trips *t* is used in the form

$$\hat{y}_{s;t} = \exp\{x_{s;t}\hat{b}\}.$$
 (17)

which then comprises a line of  $n_s$  stops.

Here, the approach has been presented for the number of boarding passengers only. For the number of disembarking passengers, the idea is quite identical. After predicting both the variables, the prediction of the passenger demand via relation (1) should be solved for corresponding stops.

#### **5 EXPERIMENTS**

This section provides the results of the experimental validation of the approach using real data. The validation was performed according to the following criteria:

1) The predicted values are compared with real values of the number of boarding passengers.

2) The evolution of component weights, which express the activity of components, is observed during the online estimation. The rare activity of components or its absence indicates the incorrect number of components, which is probably too high.

3) The evolution of the point estimates of component parameters is monitored during the estimation. Finding the stabilized values of the point estimates means the successful estimation.

A series of experiments has been conducted. Here, typical results are presented.

#### 5.1 Data Collection

For the experiments, the line consisting of four tram stops was modeled. The real measurements at the stops were used. The data set was collected manually, because no automatic passenger data collection system exists on trams. A part of data was measured in all tram trips between 6:00 and 23:00 during 3 week-days (Tuesday to Thursday) with each trip being measured exactly once. In addition, the measuring was taken also at stops during weekdays to cover all possible modes of the passenger behavior: (i) morning rush hour between 7:00 and 8:00, (ii) noon between 11:30 and 12:30 and (iii) afternoon rush hour between 16:00 and 17:00. At each stop from the data set, the data was collected three times for both rush hour times and once for the time at noon.

Algorithm 3.1 along with the prediction (17) were applied to the number of boarding passengers  $y_{s;t}$  and the stop surroundings  $x_{s;t}$  from this data set. The number of components  $n_c$  has been set equal to 3 based on the analysis of the evolution of weights. The overall number of trips used for the estimation was 288 for each of the four stops.

#### 5.2 Results

For the comparison, the PTD method (Pušman, 2013) was chosen. Figure 2 compares the predicted, PTD and real values of the passenger boarding for the tested line consisting of four stops. Each plot represents one of the selected trips of the line during the day. Both the predicted and the PTD values are in

the good correspondence with the real ones. The prediction error between the proposed prediction and the real values is 0.0474633, while between the PTD and real values it is a bit higher – 0.0499839. It indicates a slight improvement of the existing method. However, the model still could be improved by choosing the more informative data, since in the bottom plot, the predicted values of both methods lie below the real ones. The differences can be explained by using the expectation of the Poisson distribution.

Various surroundings were used for the prediction. Among them, the variable  $x_{s;t;6}$  was proven to be the most significantly affecting the prediction quality.

The weight evolution for the three components and all trips can be found in Figure 3. All of the components are regularly active, which confirms that the model is well established and the number of components is set correctly. As it is shown in the figure, in most cases the decision about the activity of the components is unambiguous.

Figure 4 demonstrates the evolution of the component parameter estimates  $(\lambda_s)_1$ ,  $(\lambda_s)_2$  and  $(\lambda_s)_3$  over all of the trips. All the parameters are looking for their stabilized values in the beginning of the estimation and then remain in the final position.

#### 5.3 Discussion

The main aim of the experiments was to validate a model of the number of boarding passengers (contextually identical to the disembarking case), which is then assumed to be involved in the model of the passenger demand.

As it was demonstrated in Section 5, the aim was successfully accomplished. A mixture of three regularly active components was currently identified as the most suitable solution. The components are assumed to correspond to the morning and afternoon rush hours along with the lunch-time calm traffic. Currently, the algorithm was tested on the data from weekdays. However, applying the data from weekends as well can bring another components describing the behavior of passengers at weekends. Another possibility can be a hierarchical mixture taking into account a day period in dependence of weekdays or weekends. Some uncontrollable factors, such as e.g., the seasonality, can be also included into the mixture as the pointer variable, i.e., in this case seasonal components should be considered, or seasonable effects can be covered by the uncertainty.

The main contributions of the presented approach are as follows: (i) the two-part model of the number of boarding and disembarking passengers is proposed to be used for the passenger demand modeling; (ii) the model can be applied to a small amount of data available; (iii) the real-time measurements at stops can be incorporated online into the model; (iv) the recursive mixture estimation algorithm with the non-trivial approximation of the proximity function is proposed for the case of Poisson components.

The potential application of the presented solution can be expected in the field of the transportation network planning and service management. The prediction is solved using the model, which has been estimated with the help of a small available data set. It means that the data necessary for the prediction after applying some modifications in the tram lines and stops could be shortly measured from time to time as required by the transportation organization and then used for further prediction with the stop surroundings available online.

The limitation of the approach is the necessity to get the new data sets reflecting boarding and disembarking of passengers after each line/stop modifications in the tram network. Otherwise, the changes will not be covered by the subsequent prediction.

# 6 CONCLUSIONS

The paper describes a data-based approach to the passenger demand modeling for the tram transportation. The model has been divided into a model of boarding passengers and contextually identical model of disembarking passengers, which serve for recursive calculating the passenger demand at stops. The solution was represented in two phases, including the model estimation part and the prediction part, where the first of them is solved recursively and the second one is the regression estimated using the least square method.

The mixture of Poisson components with the dynamic pointer model estimated with the help of the recursive Bayesian algorithm with the non-trivial approximation of the proximity function was proposed. A series of validation experiments with real data sets was conducted for testing the proposed approach. The prediction of passenger boarding has provided adequate results for most tram trips, however, an improvement in prediction still could be achieved.

The open problems, which still remain in the considered context include the following:

- the optimization of the number of vehicles and frequency of trips with the consideration to peak and low seasons on a daily basis;
- an economic analysis of the proposed model compared to current situation;
- the extensive testing on larger data sets.



Figure 2: The comparison of predictions, PTD and real values of boarding passengers at four stops and selected trips.



same tracks, there are other variables which affect the passenger demand on a specific trip (e.g., line routing). Therefore, incorporating traffic variables measured in real time can be vital in improving the accuracy of the passenger demand model.

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Figure 3: The weight evolution for all trips during the day.

Most current models consider ideal traffic conditions (no delays), e.g. (Roos et al., 2016) or do not include information about lines at all, e.g. (Lijuan and Chen, 2017), etc. However, in tram networks, traffic conditions significantly affect passenger demand for a specific trip. For example, if a tram is delayed, more passengers use it, because apart from its base passengers it carries passengers who were supposed to board the next tram. On the other hand, when arriving shortly after the previous tram, less passengers use

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