

1 **Mode Choice Modelling with Machine Learning:**  
2 **A Sequential Tour-based Approach for Addressing Imbalanced Datasets**

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 The continuous progress of machine learning has introduced numerous powerful classifiers that are  
3 examined as prominent alternatives to predict travellers' mode choices. However, most classifiers fail to  
4 capture the lower market share that characterizes the minority modes of transport. Although imbalanced  
5 choice datasets are common, this has been more apparent with the emergence of new modes and mobility  
6 services, which further fragment the mode choice composition. The problem is often magnified by biased  
7 sampling and measurement errors during the data collection process. The challenge of imbalanced  
8 classification in machine learning is subject of continuous multidisciplinary research, however its  
9 extensions in mode choice modelling, remain relatively unexplored. This paper provides empirical evidence  
10 of the effect that dataset imbalance might have on prediction measures and proposes a sequential tour-based  
11 framework for addressing skewed travel diary data. The framework is applied on a dataset from the city of  
12 Thessaloniki, Greece with a total of 5646 trips, using extreme gradient boosting (XGBoost). A set of  
13 performance metrics are used for the evaluation of the developed model and the output predictions are  
14 interpreted with partial dependence plots and state-of-the-art SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations) based  
15 on cooperative game theory. The results indicate that incorporating sequential effects can significantly  
16 improve the model's overall performance, especially with regards to recognition rates for the minority  
17 mode, without inducing bias within the trained classifier.

18  
19 Key words: Mode Choice, Machine Learning, Classification, Imbalanced, Decision Trees, XGBoost, SHAP

## 1 INTRODUCTION

2 Over the past decade, the flexible structure that characterizes advanced machine learning  
3 algorithms and their ability to process complex datasets, have motivated continuous research regarding their  
4 utilization in large-scale transport applications (1). However, a recurring point of debate is the trade-off  
5 between their high predictive accuracy and lack of explainability or internal logic interpretation. This  
6 challenge is relevant to travel behavior modelling, as accurate demand forecasts only partially cover the  
7 question of interest. Understanding the causation motivating people’s daily travel choices is critical to  
8 optimally design transport infrastructure (e.g. bus stops, bike lanes) and target social norms influencing  
9 behavioral trends. Furthermore, the design of deep ‘black box’ models entails the risk of misguided decision  
10 making, based on spurious correlations and artifacts in the training dataset (2).

11 Within the context of mode choice modelling, this risk is magnified due to the imbalanced nature  
12 of transport data and information sources. The emerging mobility services have introduced new alternatives  
13 to be considered in everyday travel decisions, resulting in an increasingly fragmented market. As a result,  
14 it is a common paradigm in revealed preference data collection efforts, for some modes to receive much  
15 less observations than others or even be underrepresented. The presence of ‘dominating’ classes (such as  
16 car or public transport) versus the low market shares of minority modes (such as cycling or ridesharing)  
17 create an imbalance within the datasets used for evaluation. The inherent imbalance of the problem is often  
18 magnified by biased sampling and measurement errors during the data collection process. This creates a  
19 challenge for traditional machine learning algorithms that tend to provide biased predictions favouring the  
20 majority classes, as their design and evaluation is based on accuracy and its complement error rate (3).

21 This paper aims to address these limitations by proposing a sequential tour-based approach for  
22 mode choice modelling with skewed travel diary data, to increase recognition rates for the minority mode  
23 and overall predictive accuracy. The extreme gradient boosting algorithm (XGBoost) is selected for the  
24 evaluation of the modelling concept. The proposed framework is applied on a revealed preference (RP)  
25 study from the city of Thessaloniki, Greece. Model performance is assessed with a set of prediction metrics,  
26 while sophisticated explanation methods are investigated to account for the opaque nature of the ensemble  
27 model. More specifically, this paper aims to contribute to existing literature on machine learning for mode  
28 choice in the following ways,

- 29 1. We provide empirical evidence on the effect that imbalanced datasets might have on prediction  
30 measures of classical machine learning approaches (e.g. decision trees) for mode choice.
- 31 2. We propose a sequential tour-based approach for increasing predictive accuracy and alleviating  
32 class imbalance in travel diary data without inducing bias in the classifier structure.
- 33 3. We apply and evaluate the proposed framework using extreme gradient boosting (XGBoost) on a  
34 case study from the city of Thessaloniki, Greece.
- 35 4. We interpret the ‘black box’ model predictions with partial dependence plots and state-of-the-art  
36 SHAP (Shapley Additive exPlanations) based on cooperative game theory.

37 We proceed as follows; Section 2 provides the background on imbalanced classification techniques and  
38 their applications within transportation modelling. Section 3 presents the dataset and provides summary  
39 statistics. Section 4 provides the design of the sequential tour-based modelling framework. Section 5  
40 presents the results and the interpretation of the model output. Finally, we provide conclusions and future  
41 work in Section 6.

## 42 BACKGROUND

43 The imbalanced classification problem is prevalent in numerous tasks such as rare disease diagnosis  
44 (4), fraudulent transactions (5), text recognition (6), and many others across multidisciplinary fields of  
45 study. This ongoing field of research is relevant to transportation and particularly mode choice modelling,  
46 to evaluate the introduction of emerging mobility services which are currently underrepresented in everyday  
47 commuting. However, imbalanced classification with machine learning in transportation modelling is still  
48 relatively unexplored. Many solutions have been proposed to address imbalanced datasets in the predictive  
49 modelling problem of classification (assigning labels to a number of observations), with the four most  
50

1 prominent to be i) Enhanced data collection; ii) Data resampling; iii) Cost-sensitive Learning; and iv)  
2 Boosting.

3 In enhanced data collection, a larger dataset provides a balanced overview on the class frequency  
4 and is useful for the application of resampling techniques (7). Addressing class imbalance at the data  
5 collection level is one of the solutions commonly found in previous transportation literature. The predictive  
6 ability of the disaggregate mode choice models by Wilson et al. was reduced due to the low representation  
7 of the bus and rail modes within the dataset (8). To address this effect, they suggested the conducting of  
8 on-board surveys to enrich the estimation sample with observations on the less used modes; similarly,  
9 Nitsche et al. (9) enhanced underrepresented transport modes with further data collected to improve the  
10 accuracy of their models.

11 The most applied solution to an imbalanced classification problem is to modify the composition of  
12 the training dataset (data resampling). It is an attempt to balance the class frequencies at the dataset level.  
13 There are two standard sampling methods that can be used: a) oversampling, replicating minority class  
14 examples and b) undersampling, discarding majority class examples. For the latter, although training time  
15 is decreased, the main drawback is the loss of information that comes with deleting examples from the  
16 training data (10). On the other hand, when oversampling, no information is lost as the resampled training  
17 set contains all instances from the original dataset. Oversampling can be performed either by including  
18 duplicate or adding new minority class examples. The main drawback when duplicating examples, is the  
19 higher risk of overfitting (11). Typically, sampling is only performed on the training dataset and not on the  
20 holdout set, to evaluate the resulting model on representative data of the target problem domain. Past  
21 research in this area includes random oversampling or under sampling, synthetic sampling with data  
22 generation, cluster-based sampling methods etc. (12). The SMOTE oversampling algorithm was applied by  
23 Chang et al. for vehicle classification on an imbalanced dataset from a single magnetic sensor (13).

24 In cost-sensitive learning, a learner is modified at the algorithmic level to incorporate varying  
25 penalty for each of the classes under consideration (14). This solution addresses the assumption made by  
26 most machine learning classifiers, that the misclassification costs are equal among classes. In most real-  
27 world applications however, this assumption is not valid (15). The cost of classifying an example incorrectly  
28 is typically greater than the cost of labelling it correctly. For instance, it is rational to reject a suspicious  
29 credit transaction, even if it is highly likely to be legitimate (16). Thus, the implementation of cost-sensitive  
30 learning shifts the problem scope from accuracy optimization to the minimization of the total  
31 misclassification cost (12). In previous transportation research, Tang et al. proposed a method for mode-  
32 switching decision tree induction that incorporates loss matrix selection, aiming to mitigate the classifier's  
33 difficulty in identifying the minority class (17).

34 Finally, the concept of boosting is based on the observation that identifying many underlying rules  
35 is more feasible than a single accurate prediction rule (18). In each iteration, a 'weak' learner (e.g. decision  
36 tree) runs over a different distribution (or weighting) of the training examples. The contribution of all  
37 sequentially built weak classifiers represents the model's predictions. As the underrepresented class  
38 instances are more likely to be misclassified, this is addressed in subsequent iterations towards the  
39 minimization of past errors, making this technique appropriate for alleviating class imbalance. In practical  
40 applications, the ensemble learning approach of tree boosting was applied by Chen et al. in a study on  
41 ridesplitting behavior for on-demand ride services (19).

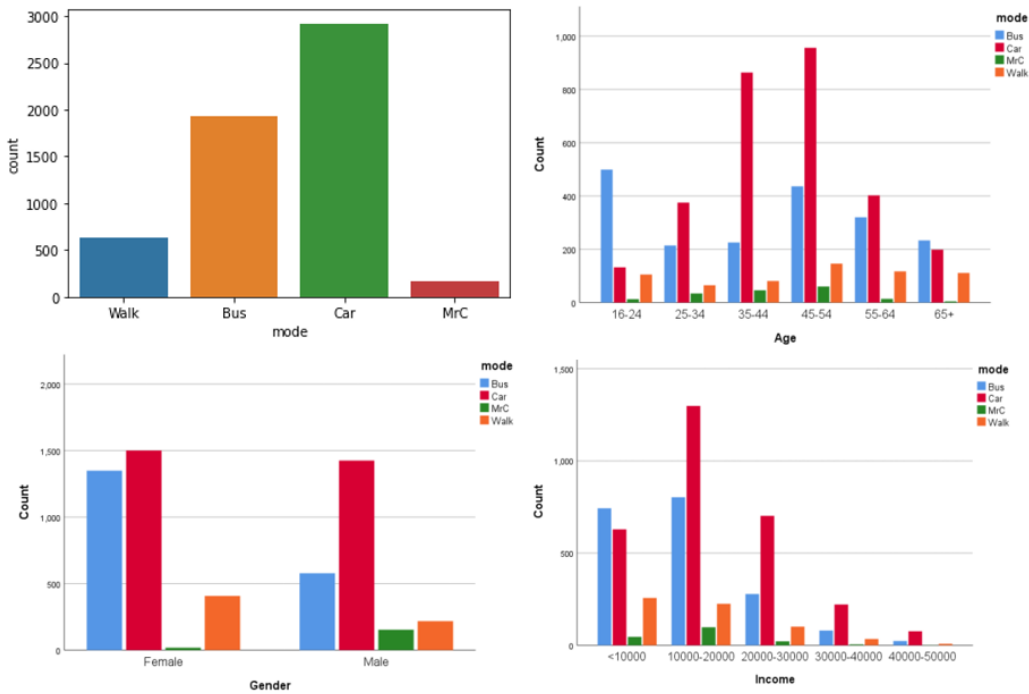
42 XGBoost is a state-of-the-art, scalable, open-source machine learning system based on the concept of tree  
43 boosting. Each decision tree 'learns' from the previous within the sequence, building towards an overall  
44 strong learner (20). It has received wide acknowledgement for a series of winning performances in Kaggle  
45 competitions for machine learning applications (21). One of its main advantages is the parallelizable nature  
46 of the core algorithm, granting both speed and scalability for training on large datasets. Within  
47 transportation, XGBoost is gradually rising in research interest and was selected for the scope of this paper.  
48 Wang and Ross concluded on a higher predictive accuracy of the XGBoost model compared to the  
49 Multinomial Logit Model (MNL) for mode choice, even though both models underperformed in unbalanced  
50 datasets (22). Parsa et al. also applied the XGBoost algorithm to detect the occurrence of highway accidents  
51 using real time data (23).

1 **DATA ANALYSIS**

2 The primary data source for our models is a survey from Thessaloniki (Greece) conducted in 2014,  
 3 based on individual travel diaries. The participants were asked to state their modes of transport and  
 4 activities. The resulting dataset, after data cleaning and removal of missing values, consists of 2,610  
 5 individuals and a total of 5,646 trips. The trips were enriched with variables from Google Maps on distance  
 6 and historical travel times for each alternative mode. The resulting dataset consists of 28 variables including  
 7 both individual, household characteristics and trip-related attributes (Table 1).

8 Descriptive statistics graphs are provided in Figure 1. The mode choice set includes: 1.Car, 2.Bus,  
 9 3.MrC (motorcycle) and 4.Walk. As illustrated, there are significantly dominating modes and motorcycle  
 10 (MrC) is present in only a few of the population classes. Hence, it is apparent that travelling using  
 11 motorcycle is an underrepresented mode, accounting for only 171 trips in the whole dataset. This minority  
 12 mode is not efficiently captured using basic machine learning techniques. For the experiments, the dataset  
 13 was split into a training set (80% of the total instances) and a testing set (20% remaining instances) to  
 14 evaluate the performance of the machine learning algorithms. A representative distribution of all classes  
 15 was accounted for in the stratification. The models were implemented in Python 3.6 with the Scikit-learn  
 16 machine learning module for medium-scale supervised and unsupervised problems (24).

17 A key consideration in the selection of the XGBoost algorithm was the observed multicollinearity  
 18 between variables. In fact, the historical travel times and distance variables from the Google APIs (Table  
 19 1) are naturally correlated. Therefore, the selected algorithm needs to account for such relationships  
 20 between variables, to obtain valid predictions on feature importance. Decision trees address multi-  
 21 collinearity to a great extent, as each split is determined on only one of the correlated features. In addition,  
 22 within tree ensemble methods such as XGBoost, once a dominant feature has been learnt, the algorithm  
 23 will minimize the complement error rate for future iterations, thus assigning a higher importance to only  
 24 one of the correlated features. This is an important advantage of ensemble algorithms and particularly those  
 25 that utilize decision trees.  
 26



27 **Figure 1 Descriptive Statistics for Thessaloniki Dataset**

1 **TABLE 1 Independent variables for Thessaloniki dataset**

<b>Name</b>	<b>Type</b>	<b>Description</b>
<b>Individual</b>		
Gender	Boolean	Declared gender
Age	Categorical - 6 classes	Declared age
Income	Categorical - 5 classes	Declared income
Occupation	Categorical - 6 classes	Current occupation
Education	Categorical - 7 classes	Level of education
Driver's License	Boolean	Ownership of driver license
<b>Household</b>		
Household Size	Numerical – discrete	Total household size
Household over 16	Numerical	Members over the age of 16
Car Availability	Boolean	Availability of car for use
<b>Trip/Activity</b>		
Start Time	Numerical - continuous	Declared trip start time
Duration	Numerical	Declared trip duration
Trip Day	Categorical - 7 classes	Day of the week
Start Activity	Categorical - 16 classes	Activity at origin location
End Activity	Categorical - 16 classes	Activity at destination location
Origin Location	Categorical - 11 classes	Municipality of trip origin
Destination Location	Categorical - 11 classes	Municipality of destination
<b>Google APIs</b>		
Car Travel Time	Numerical - continuous	Historical travel time by car (seconds)
Car Distance	Numerical	Shortest travel distance by car (meters)
Bus Travel Time	Numerical	Historical travel time by bus
Bus Distance	Numerical	Shortest travel distance by bus
Bus Access Walk Time	Numerical	Access from origin walk time
Bus Access Walk Distance	Numerical	Access from origin walk distance
Bus Egress Walk Time	Numerical	Egress to destination walk time
Bus Egress Walk Distance	Numerical	Egress to destination distance
MrC Travel Time	Numerical	Historical travel time by MrC
MrC Distance	Numerical	Shortest travel distance by MrC
Walk Travel Time	Numerical	Historical travel time walking
Walk Distance	Numerical	Shortest travel distance walking

2

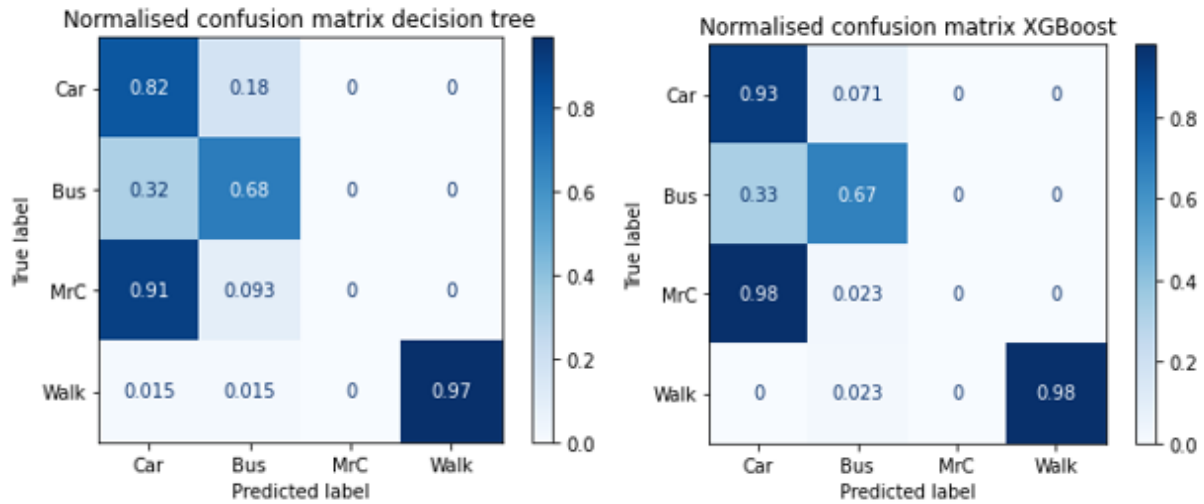
3 **MODEL DEVELOPMENT**

4

5 **Base case: Trip-based approach**

6 For the base case, we applied a single decision tree, a common algorithmic approach that identifies  
7 rules to split a dataset based on different conditions. Decision Tree algorithms have been extensively  
8 investigated in literature (25), characterized from their explainable structure. In the base-case scenario the  
9 individual's sociodemographics, household and trip-specific variables are included, in combination with  
10 the historical distance and travel time values extracted from the Google APIs. Therefore, this is a solely  
11 trip-based approach, as the model is processing each travel diary instance separately, without assuming any  
12 dependence or correlation with previous trips. As expected, we received 'naive' results due to the strong  
13 imbalance within the dataset. The MrC instances were not captured by the classifier, providing biased  
14 predictions in favor of Car as the majority class. The initial training of the Extreme Gradient Boosting  
15 algorithm (XGBoost) improved the performance for two main modes (Car, Walk) but was also not able to  
16 capture the minority mode MrC. Figure 2 presents the confusion matrix for the base-case decision tree and  
17 XGBoost classifier on the validation dataset.

1           A classical approach to address the classification problem at this stage would be cost-sensitive  
 2 learning. Nonetheless, this method entails certain limitations and was thus not considered for the scope of  
 3 this study. Firstly, there is no insight available on the cost matrix during classifier training. This is important  
 4 as the successful application of cost-sensitive learning relies on the accurate estimation of the supplied cost  
 5 matrix (26). A common, though heuristic, choice of assigning misclassification cost could be based on the  
 6 inverse class distribution. In addition, the scope of the model under development is not an increase of the  
 7 Area Under Curve (AUC) for a specific minority class of interest (MrC), but rather the design of a model  
 8 that will accurately predict the probabilities for all modes, regardless of their occurrence. Therefore,  
 9 applying cost-sensitive classification would bias the predictions of the classifier, increasing recall rates for  
 10 the minority class at the cost of predictive accuracy for the majority modes. As a result, a more sophisticated  
 11 approach is required to efficiently capture the mode choice decisions without inducing classification bias  
 12 in the model output towards the minority mode.



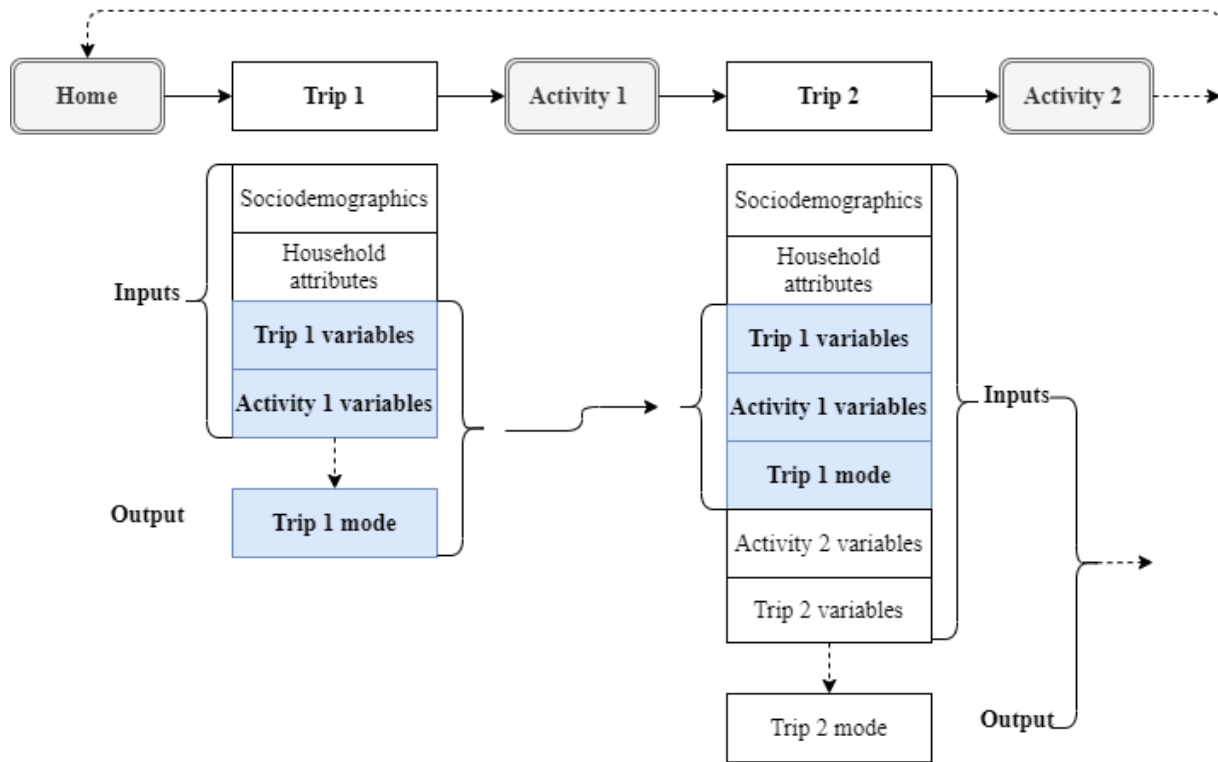
13  
 14 **Figure 2 Normalized confusion matrix for base-case models on imbalanced dataset**

15 **Extension: Sequential Tour-based Approach**

16           Travel diaries offer a variety of useful information for designing comprehensive travel behavior  
 17 models. The value of this information has led to recent research on alternative ways to collect travel diaries  
 18 (smartphones, tracking location devices etc.), as response rates for the classical data collection methods  
 19 have decreased significantly (27). In previous data driven approaches, Chang (28) used travel diary data to  
 20 evaluate a fusion model using machine learning methods for mode choice. A main advantage of the travel  
 21 diary structure is the ability to depict the time dependent ordering of the trips undertaken by the participants  
 22 within a tracked day. In this study, we utilize this feature to design a sequential tour-based approach for  
 23 addressing imbalanced mode classification.

24           The feature engineering technique proposed enables us to capture various nonlinear interactions  
 25 and daily choice dependencies within the input dataset. For instance, in case the first trip of the day is  
 26 undertaken by car, there is a high probability for subsequent trips to be affected by this initial choice. In the  
 27 final trip of the day, the car is most likely to be returned home from the same individual. Furthermore, if an  
 28 individual has selected a specific mode for a cyclical route (e.g. Bus), this might reveal a strong preference  
 29 of Bus for the return trip to the original destination. Such a preference could be affected by various factors  
 30 such as access and egress walking times, service frequency etc. To account for the majority of these tour-  
 31 based effects and dynamic dependencies, we can restructure the travel diary in a way so that a subset or all  
 32 variables from previous trips on a given day, are transferred in the remaining trips of the individual's  
 33 schedule. Ultimately, our goal is to improve predicting performance on the 'naïve' base case scenario and  
 34 efficiently capture the underrepresented mode, without including resampling or cost-sensitive bias in the

1 model, as it will be ‘informed’ on MrC ownership and usage by specific individuals from their previous  
 2 daily choices. Rashidi et al. (29) applied a similar sequential concept using the random forest method, to  
 3 capture the serial correlation between trips towards a disaggregate travel demand modelling structure. A  
 4 limitation of our proposed feature engineering technique on the training dataset is the increase of  
 5 dimensionality for our problem. After a series of evaluation attempts, we decided upon the sequential  
 6 inclusion of the last two trips for every individual. Therefore, this modification can be viewed as a dynamic  
 7 3-step memory horizon addition to the model. The modelling framework accounting for tour-based effects  
 8 is depicted in Figure 3.  
 9



10  
 11

12 **Figure 3 Sequential modelling framework for tour-based effects**

14 The first step towards the evaluation of the sequential, tour-based approach was to apply it on an  
 15 explainable machine learning algorithm, a single 3-level decision tree. The structure of the tree is depicted  
 16 in Figure 4. The average shortest distance is a key factor in the tree structure, with a threshold of <800m  
 17 for the classification of walking instances. In the second level, the tour-based effects become apparent, as  
 18 the split criterion is based on the previous mode choice, further classifying the longer trip modes (Car, Bus,  
 19 MrC). Finally, the ownership of a driver’s license is the main factor determining the choice of Car over Bus  
 20 usage. It is important to note that this modification allowed for the minority MrC to be captured to a basic  
 21 extent. More information on the decision tree performance can be found in the Results section.

22 As the decision tree identified basic trip dependencies and minority mode instances at a satisfactory  
 23 level, the next step is to apply this framework using the advanced extreme gradient boosting algorithm  
 24 (XGBoost). Compared to single decision trees, the ensemble model is expected to offer higher predictive  
 25 accuracy and overall performance. The advantage of using trees, however, is that their structure easily  
 26 explains how each specific prediction is made (Figure 4). As the gradient boosting machine (GBM) fits  
 27 numerous shallow trees in a stage-wise fashion, we are optimizing the residuals, thus lacking the intuitive



1 interpretability provided by a single tree. The performance of the developed models is discussed in the  
 2 following section.

3

4 **RESULTS**

5 With regards to comparing the results, it should be noted that especially in imbalanced classification  
 6 modelling, accuracy is not a proper evaluation measure, often referred to as the ‘accuracy paradox’, as it  
 7 may lead to erroneous conclusions (30). Therefore, we selected the following performance measures that  
 8 give more insight into the performance of the model, based on the confusion matrix,

9 i) Recall or sensitivity, the ability of a classification model to identify all the relevant data points within  
 10 the dataset,

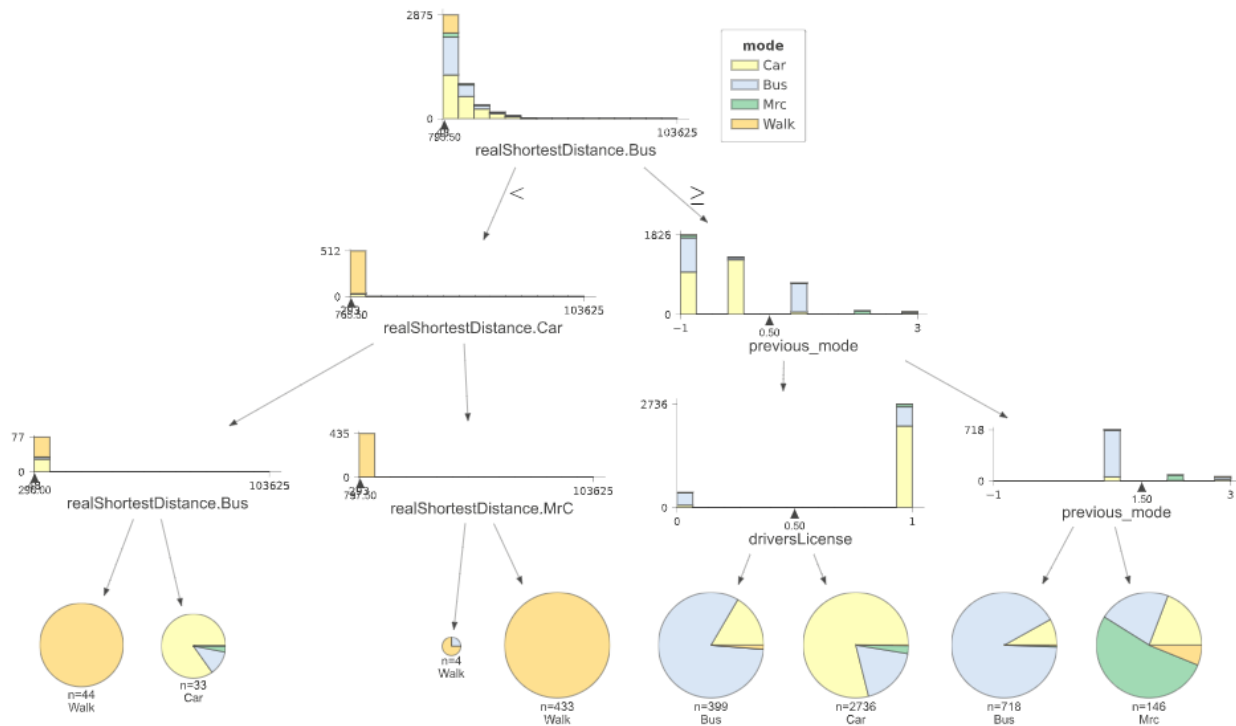
11 ii) Precision, the ability of a classification model to identify only the relevant cases,

12 iii) F-measure, the weighted harmonic mean of the test's precision and recall, ranging between 0 and 1;

13 iv) Balanced accuracy, the average of sensitivity and specificity as computed for each class and averaged  
 14 over the total number of classes (31),

15 v) Cohen's Kappa, a measure of interrater reliability (or interobserver agreement). Values <0 indicate no  
 16 agreement, 0.01-0.20 none to slight, 0.21-0.40 fair, 0.41-0.60 moderate, 0.61-0.80 substantial, and  
 17 0.81-1.00 an almost perfect agreement (32).

18



19

20

**Figure 4 Shallow Decision Tree with dynamic trip dependency**

21 The performance of the tour-based Decision Tree model on the validation set of 1,129 trips is  
 22 summarized in Table 2. Compared to the base case scenario, there is a significant increase in performance,  
 23 which is a good reference point considering the structure’s explainability. On the downside, the Decision  
 24 Tree overestimates Car over Bus usage, which has a significant effect on the Precision and Recall rates of  
 25 the two classes respectively. Nonetheless, the Recall rate of 70% for the minority mode is promising,  
 26 considering that the decision tree was not able to capture any instance of this class in the base case scenario.  
 27 Table 3 depicts the performance of the tour-based XGBoost model on the validation set. By incorporating  
 28 past factors sequentially into the dataset, the model was able to capture nonlinear dependencies and  
 29 relationships between the various features, thus greatly increasing prediction measures. All the majority

1 class (Car, Bus, Walk) metrics performed at over 90%, with an overall Balanced Accuracy=0.924.  
 2 Regarding the minority mode rates, Recall=0.70 and Precision=0.895, it is apparent that the class imbalance  
 3 was alleviated to a significant level. The accurate identification of the minority mode did not affect the  
 4 overall performance of the model on the majority modes, in contrast to the Decision Tree application.  
 5 Moreover, the XGBoost matrix Cohen’s Kappa=0.872 corresponds to an almost perfect agreement, in  
 6 contrast to Kappa=0.711 for the decision tree, indicating substantial interobserver agreement. Therefore, it  
 7 is apparent that including tour-based effects and dynamic factors significantly increased the recognition  
 8 rate for the minority (MrC) and improved the overall predictive performance of the Gradient Boosting  
 9 Machine (GBM).

10

11

**TABLE 2 Performance of tour-based Decision Tree model on validation set**

Confusion Matrix	Predicted				
	Car	Bus	MrC	Walk	Total
Car	548	25	8	1	582
Bus	133	253	11	1	398
MrC	6	1	17	0	24
Walk	2	1	2	120	125
Total	689	280	38	122	1129
Performance Metrics	Recall	Precision	Specificity	F-Measure	Balanced Accuracy
Car	0.942	0.795	0.742	0.862	0.842
Bus	0.636	0.904	0.963	0.746	0.799
MrC	0.708	0.447	0.981	0.548	0.845
Walk	0.960	0.984	0.998	0.972	0.979
Average	0.811	0.782	0.921	0.782	0.866

12

13

**TABLE 3 Performance of tour-based XGBoost model on validation set**

Confusion Matrix	Predicted				
	Car	Bus	MrC	Walk	Total
Car	543	36	1	2	582
Bus	37	360	0	1	398
MrC	5	2	17	0	24
Walk	0	1	1	123	125
Total	585	399	19	126	1129
Performance Metrics	Recall	Precision	Specificity	F-Measure	Balanced Accuracy
Car	0.933	0.928	0.923	0.931	0.928
Bus	0.905	0.9902	0.947	0.903	0.926
MrC	0.708	0.895	0.998	0.791	0.853
Walk	0.984	0.976	0.997	0.980	0.991
Average	0.882	0.925	0.966	0.901	0.924

14

1 **Model Interpretation**

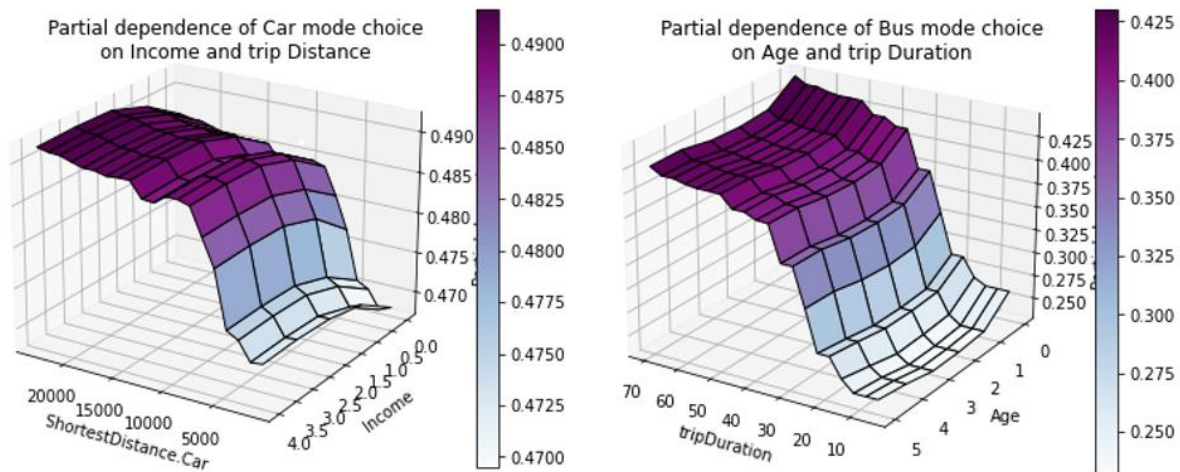
2 The balance between interpretability and predictive accuracy in machine learning is subject to continuous  
 3 research. Guidotti et al. (33) produced an extensive survey of methods for explaining black box models and  
 4 classifying the different state-of-the-art approaches. For the scope of this study, we selected partial  
 5 dependence plots and SHAP values to explain the output predictions of the XGBoost model.  
 6

7 *Partial Dependence Plots*

8 Partial dependence plots (PDPs) are used to illustrate the functional relationship between a small number  
 9 of input variables and predictions. In one-way PDPs, the y-axis depicts the marginal effect of one feature  
 10 on the outcome of the machine learning model. By visualizing mode choice dependency on the input  
 11 variables of interest, we can extract useful information on the motivating factors that influence the choice  
 12 behavior.

13 Figure 5 depicts the two-way partial dependence of car usage on joint values of income and trip  
 14 distance. As expected, higher values of trip distance increase the probability of car usage, with the greater  
 15 increase observed in the region of 0-10km. This can be interpreted as a threshold value that individuals with  
 16 car availability consider using alternative modes because of the shortest trip distance. In addition, the  
 17 increase of income positively correlates with car usage as the main mode, reaching a point of diminishing  
 18 returns for values >30,000 euros. This was expected considering the annual costs of maintaining a car are  
 19 generally higher than the explored alternative modes (e.g. Bus, MrC). Furthermore, the partial dependence  
 20 of Bus mode choice on the age distribution indicates that a lower age is linked to higher probabilities of  
 21 Bus usage- for the age group of 16-24 years in particular- as it is characterized mostly by students that, in  
 22 majority, do not own a driver’s license or have access to a Car. Although this insight is important in  
 23 explaining the output of our GBM, it needs to be clarified that the causal interpretation provided by partial  
 24 dependence plots are relevant only with regards to the validity of our developed model, and not necessarily  
 25 to the actual real-world decision making (33).

26 Partial dependence plots are a useful tool in model interpretation, but they entail an important  
 27 limitation, in the form of the independence assumption. It is a rare occurrence that the features of interest  
 28 are not correlated with any other feature of the model. For instance, computing the Bus PDP (Figure 5) for  
 29 a specific age range (e.g. 16-24 years), we need to average over the marginal distribution of income, which  
 30 also includes higher values (>50,000 euros). This observation can be considered unrealistic for such a young  
 31 age. Furthermore, PDPs may not account for hidden heterogeneous interactions, as they are based on  
 32 average marginal effects across all individuals (33). Therefore, while we can gain some useful insight on  
 33 the model output, it is important to explore more ways of interpretation for the model under development.  
 34



35 **Figure 5 Two-way partial dependence plots for Car and Bus modes**  
 36

1 *SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations)*

2 SHAP is a state-of-the-art machine learning interpretation approach, based on the work of L. Shapley in  
 3 cooperative game theory (34). The Shapley values attribute the total payoff from a cooperative game to the  
 4 corresponding players. In 2017, Lundberg and Lee developed a package in Python that enables the  
 5 estimation of SHAP for various techniques including XGBoost (35). SHAP values are increasingly utilized  
 6 by researchers within transportation for model interpretation. Mihaita et al. (36) employed SHAP to analyse  
 7 the impact of different features on accident duration for traffic safety. Parsa et al. also used SHAP values  
 8 to explain a GBM for the detection of highway traffic accidents (23). The background of the Shapley values  
 9 framework is presented below (34).

10  
 11 Formally, a cooperative game is played by a set of players  $N = \{1, \dots, N\}$  termed the grand coalition. The  
 12 game is characterized by a set function  $u : 2^M \rightarrow R$  such that  $u(S)$  is the payoff for any coalition of players  
 13  $S \subseteq N$ . Shapley values are built by examining the marginal contribution of a player to the existing coalition  
 14  $S$ . The Shapley value method satisfies a set of desirable axioms,

- 15  
 16 *i) Additivity Axiom:* For any two  $u_1$  and  $u_2$ ,  $\psi_i(N, u_1 + u_2) = \psi_i(N, u_1) + \psi_i(N, u_2)$  for each  $i$ , where the  
 17 game  $(N, u_1 + u_2)$  is defined by  $(u_1 + u_2)(S) = u_1(S) + u_2(S)$  for every coalition  $S$ .  
 18 *ii) Symmetry Axiom:* For any  $u$ , if  $i$  and  $j$  are interchangeable then  $\psi_i(N, u) = \psi_j(N, u)$ .  
 19 *iii) Dummy Axiom* For any  $u$ , if  $i$  is a dummy player then  $\psi_i(N, u) = 0$ .

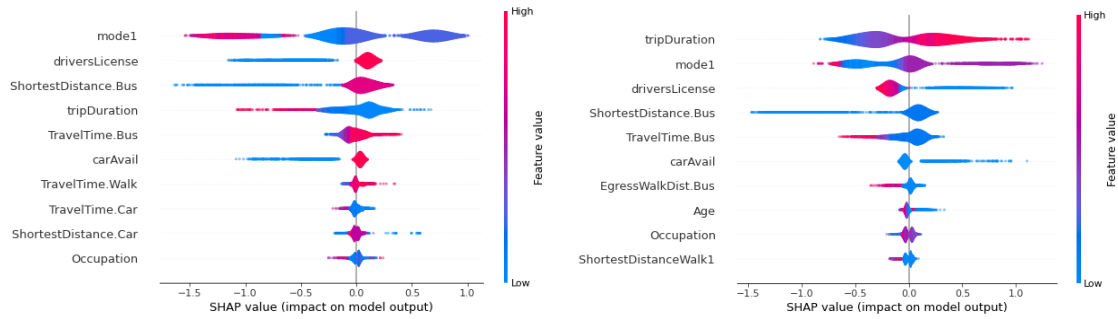
20  
 21 *Theorem:* Given a coalition game  $(N, u)$ , there is a unique payoff division  $x(u) = \varphi(N, u)$  that divides the  
 22 full payoff of the grand coalition and that satisfies the Additivity, Symmetry and Dummy axioms, the  
 23 Shapley value,

24 
$$\varphi_j(N, u) = \frac{1}{N!} \sum_{S \subseteq \{x_1, \dots, x_m\} \setminus x_j} |S|!(|N| - |S| - 1)! [u(S \cup \{x_j\}) - u(S)]$$

25  
 26 Applying this framework for machine learning model interpretation, the Shapley value of a feature is its  
 27 contribution to the payout, weighted and summed over all possible feature value combinations. As a result,  
 28 in order to calculate the exact Shapley value, all possible sets of feature values have to be evaluated with  
 29 and without the  $j$ -th feature (33). Calculating the exact SHAP values for more than a few features is NP-  
 30 hard. A computational effective approximation can be achieved with Monte-Carlo sampling, averaging the  
 31 quantity within the expectation of a random sample. The above methodology was applied for the XGBoost  
 32 model using the SHAP Python package (37).

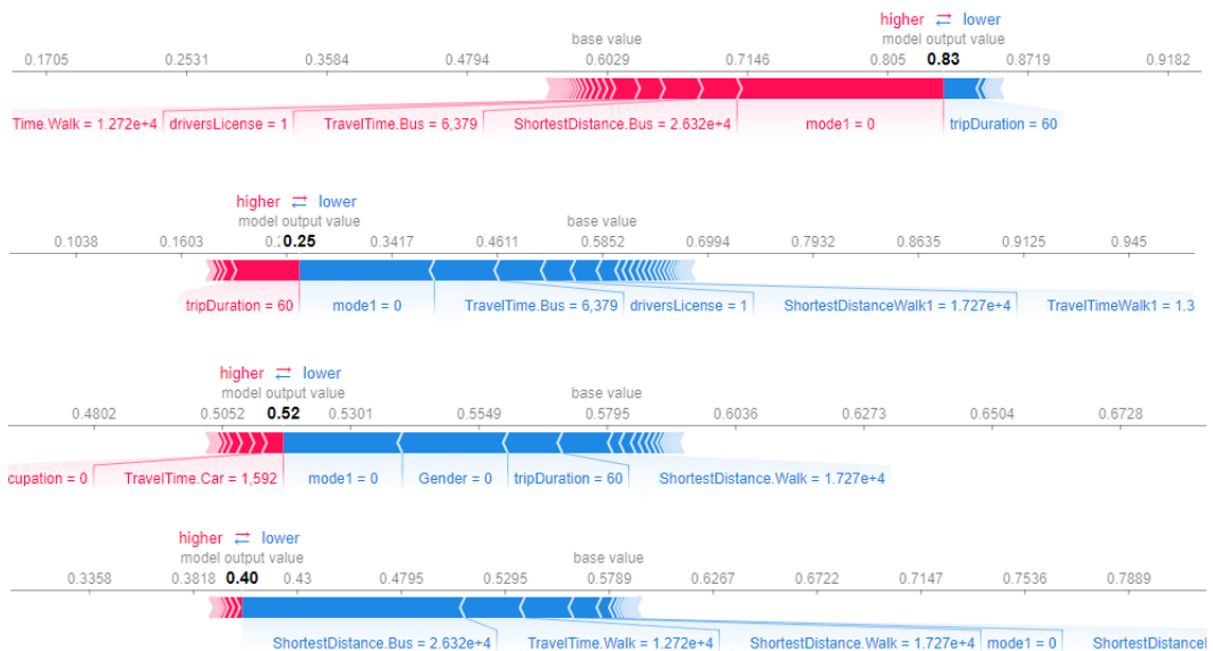
33 Figure 6 illustrates the mean SHAP values of the features in order of significance, for the Car and  
 34 Bus classes, respectively. It is apparent that the variable *mode1* -encoding the mode of the previous trip- is  
 35 a significant factor in the predictions, justifying the improvement in the performance of the model with the  
 36 inclusion of dynamic factors. With regards to the SHAP values calculated for Bus, the historical distance  
 37 and travel time variables have a strong influence on its selection probability. Owning a driver's license has  
 38 a negative effect, while higher values of egress walking distance appear to demotivate travelers in selecting  
 39 Bus for their trips. Finally, age also seems to influence the Bus class prediction, with younger groups opting  
 40 for it in a more usual basis than the aging part of the population. Therefore, feature importance indicates  
 41 that accounting for tour effects and ordering dependencies is critical in the performance of the GBM as they  
 42 play a key role in everyday activity planning. People tend to plan ahead and optimize their joint within-day  
 43 schedule rather than individual trips.

44 For the explanation of individualized predictions, we proceed to randomly select a female from the  
 45 validation set, travelling from work to home, and depict the feature contributions for each classification  
 46 class in relation to the base value (Figure 7).



**Figure 6 Mean SHAP values of significant features for Car (left) and Bus (right)**

1 The GBM correctly classifies this individual as a commuting car driver with high confidence. The main  
 2 positive factors include the past mode from the previous trip, in addition to the historical values on distance  
 3 and trip duration. The choice of MrC was the second most probable for the given individual, with past mode  
 4 choice and female gender contributing negatively to its probability. A possible explanation for this  
 5 distinction might be the higher number of men that opt towards MrC ownership compared to women.  
 6 Travelling on foot was disregarded by the classifier, mostly due to the higher values of travel time and  
 7 distance, granting the specific trip impractical for travelling on foot.  
 8  
 9  
 10



**Figure 7 SHAP feature contribution on individual predictions for Car, Bus, MrC, Walk**

13 Finally, the individualized predictions are explored further by generating synthetic data for a feature of  
 14 interest, to identify the functional relationships and threshold values that would lead to a shift of  
 15 contribution and potentially change of behavior for this specific person (Figure 8). It is apparent that the  
 16 current trip value duration of 60 min is over this person’s marginal value of positive contribution for the  
 17 Bus mode, while the threshold of positive/negative contribution is predicted at 25min duration trips.

18 Advanced interpretation methods (e.g. SHAP) for complex ‘black box’ models can be of great  
 19 value for transportation planning and policy applications. Judging from personalized and -to an extent-  
 20 explainable model predictions, we can gain insight on urban infrastructure design, requirements (e.g.  
 21 parking spots, EV charging stations) and travelers’ needs.  
 22

1  
2



3  
4  
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**Figure 8 SHAP value contribution of trip duration on Bus mode for individual**

6 **CONCLUSION**

7 Creating effective classification models from imbalanced datasets is a challenge within many scientific  
8 domains. Typical machine learning algorithms tend to favor the ‘dominating’ classes and are thus inefficient  
9 in providing predictions for the minority class, which is often of great interest. This ongoing field of  
10 research is relevant to mode choice modelling, to evaluate the introduction of emerging mobility services  
11 which are currently underrepresented in everyday commuting. In this paper, we propose a tour-based  
12 modelling framework using extreme gradient boosting and apply it on imbalanced travel diary data from  
13 the city of the Thessaloniki. The results indicate that the XGBoost algorithm performed significantly better  
14 with the inclusion of tour-related effects and dynamicity factors within the training dataset, especially with  
15 regards to the identification of the minority mode. The output predictions were interpreted with partial  
16 dependence plots and the game theoretic SHAP approach, providing useful insight on feature importance  
17 and variable relationships. Future work includes working towards the implementation of these and other  
18 promising methods of machine learning modelling and interpretation for large-scale transport applications.

19  
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24  
25 **STATEMENT OF CONTRIBUTIONS**

26 The authors confirm contribution to the paper as follows: Study conception and design; all authors;  
27 Introduction: all authors; Background: Dimitrios Pappelis; Data Analysis: all authors; Model Development:  
28 Dimitrios Pappelis, Emmanouil Chaniotakis, Results and Model Interpretation: all authors; Conclusion:  
29 Dimitrios Pappelis; All authors reviewed the results and approved the final version of the manuscript.

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