

# Development of origin-destination matrices using mobile phone call data

The MIT Faculty has made this article openly available. *Please share* how this access benefits you. Your story matters.

Citation	Iqbal, Md. Shahadat; Choudhury, Charisma F.; Wang, Pu and González, Marta C. "Development of Origin–destination Matrices Using Mobile Phone Call Data." Transportation Research Part C: Emerging Technologies 40 (March 2014): 63–74. © 2014 Elsevier Ltd
As Published	http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.trc.2014.01.002
Publisher	Elsevier
Version	Author's final manuscript
Citable link	http://hdl.handle.net/1721.1/108682
Terms of Use	Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs License
Detailed Terms	http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/



DSpace@MIT

1	
2	
3	Development of Origin-Destination Matrices Using Mobile Phone Call Data:
4	A Simulation Based Approach
5	
6	Md. Shahadat Iqbal
7	Department of Civil Engineering.
8	Bangladesh University of Engineering and Technology, Dhaka 1000, Bangladesh
9	Shahadat.buet05@gmail.com
10	
11	
12	Charisma F. Choudhury*
13	Institute for Transport Studies
14	University of Leeds, Leeds LS2 9BJ, UK
15	<u>cfc@alum.mit.edu</u>
16	
17	Pu Wang
18	School of Traffic and Transportation Engineering
19	Central South University, Hunan 410000, P.R. China
20	
21	
22	Marta C. Gonza'lez
23	Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering,
24	Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA 02139, USA
25	
26	
27	
28	
29	
30	
31	
32	<b>Word Count</b> Tables and Figures $13 \times 250 = 3250$
33 34	Word Count 3814 Total 7064
34 35	10141 /004
36	
37	
38 20	
39 40	
41	
42	*Corresponding Author

### 43 Abstract

In this research, we propose a methodology to develop OD matrices using mobile phone Call 44 45 Detail Records (CDR), which consist of time stamped tower locations with caller IDs, and limited traffic counts. CDR from 2.87 million users from Dhaka, Bangladesh over a month and 46 traffic counts from 13 key locations of the city over 3 days of the same period are used in this 47 regard. The individual movement patterns within certain time windows are extracted first from 48 CDR to generate tower-to-tower transient OD matrices. These are then associated with 49 corresponding nodes of the traffic network and used as seed-OD matrices in a microscopic traffic 50 simulator. An optimization based approach, which aims to minimize the differences between 51 observed and simulated traffic counts at selected locations, is deployed to determine scaling 52 factors and the actual OD matrix is derived. The applicability of the methodology is supported by 53 a validation study. 54

55

56 Keywords: Mobile phone, Origin-Destination, Video Count, Traffic Microsimulation

### 57 1. Background

Reliable Origin-Destination (OD) matrices are critical inputs for analyzing transportation 58 59 initiatives. Traditional approaches of developing OD matrices rely on roadside and household surveys, and/or traffic counts. The roadside and household surveys for origin destination involve 60 expensive data collection and thereby have limited sample sizes and lower update frequencies. 61 Moreover, they are prone to sampling biases and reporting errors (e.g.1,2,3). Estimation of 62 reliable OD matrices from traffic link count data on the other hand is extremely challenging 63 since very often the data is limited in extent and can lead to multiple plausible non-unique OD 64 matrices (4,5). A number of Bayesian methods (e.g.6,7,8), Generalized Least Squares approaches 65 (e.g.9,10), Maximum Likelihood Approaches (11), and Correlation Methods (e.g.12,13,14) have 66 been used to tackle the indeterminacy problem. These approaches typically use *target* matrices 67 based on prior information for generating the plausible route flows and are very sensitive to this 68 prior information as well as to the chosen methodology (15). More recent approaches for OD 69 estimation include automated registration plate scanners (16) and mobile traffic sensors such as 70 portable GPS devices (e.g. 17, 18, 19). The practical successes of these approaches have however 71 been limited due to high installation costs of the license plate readers and the low penetration 72

rates of GPS devices (especially in developing countries).

74 Mobile phone users on the other hand also leave footprints of their approximate locations whenever they make a call or send an SMS. Over the last decade, mobile phone penetration rates 75 76 have increased manifold both in developed and developing countries: the current penetration rates being 128% and 89% in developed and developing countries respectively (20). 77 Subsequently, mobile phone data has emerged as a very promising source of data for 78 transportation researchers. In recent years, mobile phone data have been used for human travel 79 pattern visualization (e.g. 21,22,23), mobility pattern extraction (e.g. 24,25,26,27,28,29), route 80 choice modeling (e.g. 30,31), traffic model calibration (e.g. 32), traffic flow estimation (33) to 81 name a few. There have been several limited scale researches to explore the feasibility of 82 application of mobile phone data for OD estimation as well. Wang et al. (34) for instance use a 83 correlation based approach to dynamically update a prior OD matrix using time difference of 84 85 phone signal receipt times of base stations and Caceras et al. (35) use a GSM network simulator to simulate the detailed movements of phones that are turned on. But both of these feasibility 86 studies are based on synthetic data in small networks and the practical application is challenging 87 given the need to collect and process detailed location data (which are currently processed by the 88 mobile phone companies for load management purposes but are not stored). The potential 89 estimate OD matrices using mobile phone Call Detail Records (CDR) (which are stored by 90 operators for billing purposes and hence more readily available) have also been explored (e.g. 91 36,37,38). Mellegård et al. (36) have developed an algorithm to assign mobile phone towers 92 extracted from CDR to traffic nodes and Calabrese et al. (37) have proposed a methodology to 93 94 reduce the noise in the CDR data but both studies have focused more on computation issues and the relationship between the mobile phone OD and the traffic OD have not been explored in 95

detail. Wang et al. (*38*) have used an analytical model to scale up the ODs derived from CDR by
using the population, mode choice probabilities and vehicle occupancy and usage ratios and have
validated it using probe vehicle data. The methodology however relies heavily on availability of
traffic and demographic data in high spatial resolution which may not be always available,
particularly in developing countries.

In this research, we propose a methodology to develop OD matrices using mobile phone CDR 101 102 and limited traffic counts. CDR from 2.87 million users from Dhaka, Bangladesh over a month are used to generate the OD patterns on different time periods and traffic counts from 13 key 103 locations of the city over a limited time are used to scale it up to derive the actual ODs using a 104 microscopic traffic simulator. The methodology is particularly useful in situations when there is 105 limited availability of high resolution traffic and demographic data. The ODs are validated by 106 107 comparing the simulated and observed traffic counts of a different location (which has not been used for calibration). 108

109 The rest of the paper is organized as follows. First we describe the data followed by the 110 methodology used for development of the OD matrix. The estimation and validation results are

111 presented next. We conclude with the summary of findings and directions for future research.

# 112 **2. Data**

# 113 2.1 Study Area

The central part of the Dhaka city has been selected as the study area and the major roads in the network has been coded. This consists of 67 nodes and 215 links covering an area of about  $300 \text{km}^2$  with a population of about 10.7million (*39*). The average trip production rate is 2.74 per person per day with significant portions of walking (19.8%) and non-motorized transport trips (38.3%) (*39*). The traffic is subjected to severe congestion in most parts of the day, the average speed being only  $17 \text{km/hr}^1$ .

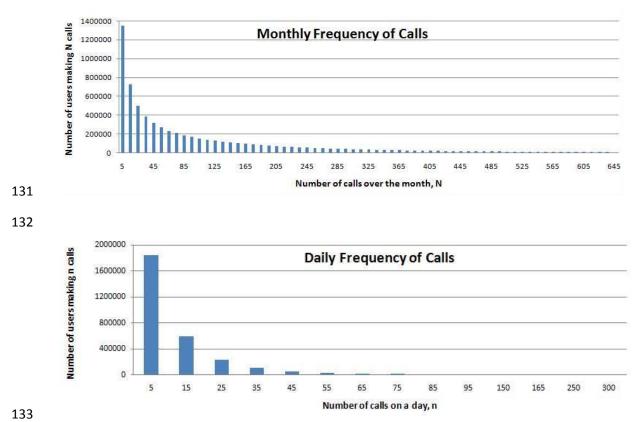
The mobile phone penetration rate is approximated to be more than 90% in Dhaka (66.36%being the national average) and Grameenphone Ltd. has the highest market share with 42.7m mobile phone subscribers nationwide (40).

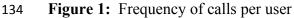
# 123 *2.2 CDR Data*

The CDR data, collected from Grameenphone Ltd, consists of calls from 6.9 million users (which are more than 65% of the population of the study area) over a month. This comprises of 971.33 million anonymized call records in total made in between June 19, 2012 and July 18, 2012. The majority of the users (63%) have made 100 calls or less over the month. The frequencies of users making certain number of calls over the month and on a randomly selected

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Excluding the non-motorized vehicles which are restricted from entering the major roads

day (15<sup>th</sup> July, 2012) are presented in Figure 1. It may be noted that no demographic data related
 to the phone users are available.

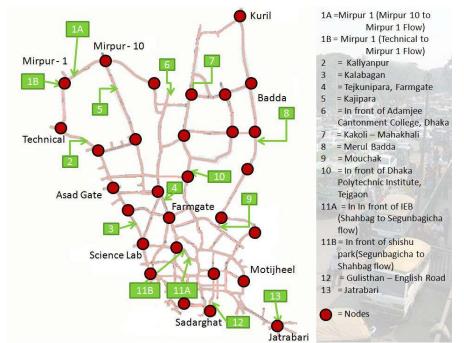




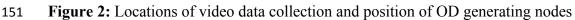
### 135 2.3 Traffic Count Data

Video data, collected from 13 key locations of Dhaka city network over 3 days (12<sup>th</sup>, 15<sup>th</sup> and 136 17<sup>th</sup> July 2012) have been used in this study to extract the traffic counts<sup>2</sup>. The locations (shown 137 in Figure 2) have been selected such that they cover the major roads (links) of Dhaka city with 138 flows from major generators and governed by the availability of foot over bridges for mounting 139 video cameras. Since MITSIMLab is developed for lane-based motorized traffic, care has been 140 taken to avoid roads that have high percentages of non-motorized transport and where lane-141 discipline is not strictly followed. The data has been collected for 8 hrs (8.00 am to 12.00 noon 142 and 3.00 pm to 7.00pm) and analyzed using the software TRAZER (41) to generate classified 143 vehicle counts. Due to inclement weather and poor visibility some portion of the data is non-144 usable though. Moreover, TRAZER (which is the only commercial software that can deal with 145 mixed traffic streams with 'weak' lane discipline) has high misspecification rates in presence of 146 high congestion levels and in those cases, manual counting has been performed instead. 147 148

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> There are no loop detectors or any other automatic traffic counters in Dhaka







# 152 **3. Methodology**

Each entry in the CDR contains unique caller id (anonymized), the date and time of the call, call duration and latitude and longitude of the Base Transceiver Station (BTS). A snapshot of the data is presented in Figure 1. As seen in the figure, if a person traverses within the city boundary and uses his/her phone from different locations that is captured in the CDR. CDR can thus provide an abstraction of his/her physical displacements over time (Figure 3).

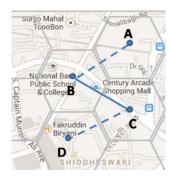
ID	Call Date	Call Time	Duration	Latitude	Longitude	Rallabi-
AH03JAC8AAAbXtAId	20120701	09:34:19	18	23.8153	90.4181	Cantonnent Basundhara
AAH03JABiAAJKnPAa5	20120707	06:15:20	109	23.8139	90.3986	20:00 centa Ar 6:15 9:03
AAH03JABiAAJKnPAa5	20120707	09:03:06	109	23.7042	90.4297	Mirpur Galdhara
AAH03JABiAAJKnPAa5	20120707	10:34:19	16	23.6989	90.4353	Ameliate American Kafral Distance Badda
AAH03JABiAAJKnPAa5	20120707	18:44:53	154	23.6989	90.4353	Mohammadput Astronomic Teggaon Rampure
AAH03JABiAAJKnPAa5	20120707	20:00:08	154	23.8092	90.4089	Bagnia Dhanmondi Shab
AAH03JAC5AAAdAYAE	20120701	09:15:05	62	23.7428	90.4164	New Vision 3. Hazarbag Ramma Motified
AAH03JAC+AAAcVKAC	20120707	08:56:34	242	23.7908	90.3753	Reclamore Lalbagh
AAH03JAC+AAAcVKAC	20120701	18:03:06	36	23.9300	90.2794	25000 RE20 RE20 RE20 Keranigan) 182-444
AAH03JAC5AAAdAYAA	20120701	11:15:55	12	23.7428	90.4164	2 m 2 km 1 km Puologor

158

159 Figure 3: An excerpt from CDR data (entries of the same user are highlighted) and locations of

a random user "AAH03JABiAAJKnPAa5" throughout the day as observed in data

However, in the CDR data, a user's location information is lost when he/she does not use his/her 161 phone. As shown in Figure 4, according to the CDR, a user may be observed to move from zone 162 B to zone C, but his/her initial origin (O) and final destination (D) may actually be located in 163 zone A and zone D. In such cases, a segment of the trip information is unobserved in the CDR. 164 165 However, the mobile phone call records enable us to capture the *transient* origins and destinations which still retain a large portion of the actual ODs. Thus, we use the concept of 166 transient origin destination (t-OD) matrix (as used by Wang et al. (38)), which uses the mobile 167 phone data to efficiently and economically capture the pattern of travel demand. 168





**Figure 4:** Actual vs. Transient OD

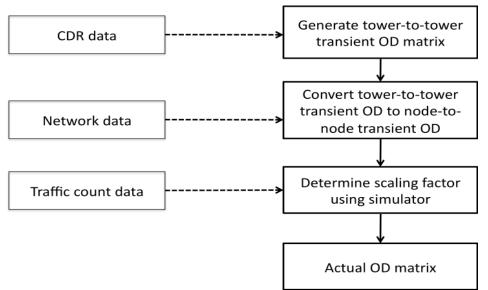
The second source of data used in this research is classified traffic counts extracted from video recordings collected from 13 key locations of Dhaka. These counts represent the *ground truth* but are more expensive to collect<sup>3</sup> and limited in extent (only 3 days). This limited point source data therefore connect he used as a stand along source to reliably conture the OD pattern

data therefore cannot be used as a stand-alone source to reliably capture the OD pattern.

In this research, we therefore plan to combine the two data sources. The OD pattern is generated using the CDR data and scaled up to match the traffic counts. The scaling factors are determined using a microscopic traffic simulator platform MITSIMLab (42) using an optimization based approach which aims to minimize the differences between observed and simulated traffic counts

- at the points where the traffic counts are available.
- 180 The methodology is summarized in Figure 5 and described in the subsequent sections.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> There are no detectors or any other traffic count mechanisms in Dhaka



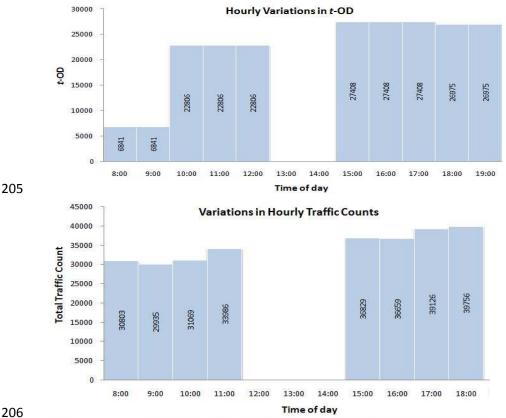
# 181182 Figure 5: Framework for developing OD Matrix

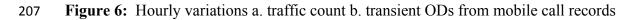
## 183 *3.1 Generation of tower-to-tower transient OD matrix*

The time-stamped BTS tower locations of each user are first extracted from the mobile phone CDR data and used for generating tower-to-tower transient OD matrix. The CDR however only contains sparse and irregular records (*28*), in which user displacements (consecutive nonidentical locations) are usually observed with long travel intervals i.e. the first location may be observed at 8:56 and next location may be observed at 18:03 with no information about intermediate locations (if any) or the time when the trip in between these two locations have been made.

191 Another limitation is the CDR data often records changes in towers in spite of no actual displacement (as the operator balances call traffic among adjacent towers). To better identify 192 timing and origin-destinations of specific trips and reduce the number of *false displacements*, we 193 therefore extract displacements that have occurred within a specific time window. A lower bound 194 in the time window (10 minutes) is imposed to reduce the number of *false displacements* without 195 affecting the number of physical displacements occurring within short intervals. An upper bound 196 in the time window (1 hr) is imposed to ensure that meaningful numbers of trips are retained. 197 Therefore, a person trip is recorded if in the CDR, subsequent entries of the same user indicate a 198 displacement (change in tower) with a time difference of more than 10 minutes but less than 1 199 200 hour.

Further, both call volumes (from CDR data) and traffic volumes (from traffic counts) had significant variations throughout the day. Based on correlation analysis of total mobile call volumes and total traffic counts (Figure 6), four time periods (7:00-9:00, 9:00-12:00, 15:00-17:00 and 17:00-19:00), have been chosen for analysis.



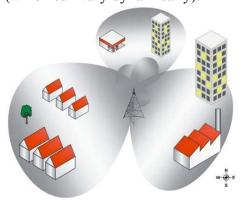


#### 3.2 Conversion of tower-to-tower t-OD to node-to-node t-OD 208

For application of the *t*-ODs in traffic analyses, the origin and destination towers need to be 209 associated with corresponding nodes of the traffic network. The typical tower coverage area can 210

be represented as a combination of three hyperbolas (Figure 7), the size varying depending on 211 tower height, terrain, locations of adjacent towers and number of users active in the proximity 212

(which can vary dynamically). 213



214

Figure 7: Typical coverage area of a tower (http://www.truteq.co.za/tips\_gsm/) 215

- The population density in the chosen study area is very high (more than 8111 inhabitants/sq. km
- 217 (44) and the tower locations are very close to each other (1 km on average). Because of the high
- user density, it can be assumed that the area between two towers is equally split among the two
- towers (Figure 8) that is, each tower t has a coverage area  $(A_t)$  approximately defined by a circle
- of radius 0.5l, where *l* is the tower-to-tower distance.
- 221



Tower 6 and Node 3 need to be added to Figure

224

222

ID	Call Date	Call Time	Origin Tower	Destination Tower
AAH03JA	20120718	15:54	6	1
AAH03JA	20120718	16:13	1	2
AAH03JA	20120718	16:15	2	1
AAH03JA	20120718	18:53	1	6
AAH03JA	20120718	20:49	6	1
AAH03JA	20120718	23:41	1	6

		Origin		Destination		
ID	Call Time	Tower	Candidate Node	Tower	Candidate Node	
AAH03JA	14:54	6	3	1	1	AAH
AAH03JA	16:13	1	1	2	2 Or 1	AAH
AAH03JA	16:15	2	2 Or 1	1	1	AAH
AAH03JA	18:53	1	1	6	3	AAH
AAH03JA	20:49	6	3	1	1	AAH
AAH03JA	23:41	1	1	6	3	AAH

ID	Call Time	Origin Node	Destination Node
AAH03JA	14:54	3	1
AAH03JA	16:13	1	1
AAH03JA	16:15	1	1
AAH03JA	18:53	1	3
AAH03JA	20:49	3	1
AAH03JA	23:41	1	3

 225
 AAH03JA
 20120718
 23:41

 226
 a. Tower-to-tower OD

If a unique traffic node *i* overlaps with  $A_t$ , the calls handled by *t* are associated with node *i* (as in 228 the case of Tower 1in Figure 6). However, if  $A_t$  has two (or more) candidate nodes for 229 association, then the candidate nodes are ranked based on the proportion of  $A_t$  feeding to each 230 node. That is, the node serving greatest portion of  $A_t$  is ranked 1, the node serving second highest 231 232 portion of  $A_t$  is ranked 2, etc. For example, in Figure 6, network connectivity (feeder roads) and topography (presence of a canal with no crossing facility in the vicinity) denote that Node 1 and 233 Node 2 are candidate nodes for association with Tower 2. As the major portion of  $A_t$  is connected 234 to Node 2 and the remaining portion is connected to Node 1, they are ranked 1 and 2 respectively 235 for Tower 2. The data format after this step is presented in Figure 7b. As seen in the figure, this 236 typically consists of call records associated with unique nodes and some calls associated with 237 multiple candidate nodes. The calls are then sorted and ranked based on the frequency of the 238 unique nodes used by each user. The frequency of occurrence of the candidate nodes are 239

b. Intermediate OD with candidate nodes c. Node-to-node OD

**Figure 8:** Example of tower to node allocation

- compared and used as the basis of replacement. For example, frequency analysis of User
  "AAH03JA" indicates a higher frequency of Node 1. Therefore, in cases where there are
  ambiguities between Nodes 2 and 1, Node 1 is used (for this particular user).
- The same process is used for all users and node-to-node *t*-OD matrices for each time period of each day are derived.
- 245
- 246 *3.3 Finding the scaling factor and determining the actual OD matrix*

As discussed, the node-to-node *t*-OD matrix  $(t-OD_{ij})$  provides the trip patterns for developing the actual OD matrix  $(OD_{ij})$ . However, in order to determine the actual OD matrix, the *t*-OD needs to be scaled to match the real traffic flows. A scaling factor  $\beta_{ij}$  is used in this regard:

$$OD_{ij} = \sum_{ij} (t - OD_{ij}) * \beta_{ij}$$

It may be noted that  $\beta_{ij}$  takes into account the market penetration rates (i.e. not every user has a mobile phone or uses the specific service provider), the mobile phone non-usage issue (i.e. mobile phone calls are not made from every location traversed by the user), the vehicle usage issue (i.e. users may not use cars for every trip). The potential error introduced due to *false displacement* (described in Section 2.1) is also accounted for in the scaling factors.

255 The scaling factors are determined using the open-sourced microscopic traffic simulator platform MITSIMLab (42) by applying an optimization based approach. The movements of vehicles in 256 MITSIMLab are dictated by driving behavior models based on decision theories and estimated 257 with detailed trajectory data using econometric approaches. Route choices of drivers are based 258 on a discrete choice based probabilistic model where the utilities of selecting and re-evaluating 259 routes are functions of path attributes, such as path travel times and freeway bias (see 43 for 260 details). The inputs of the simulator include network data, driving behavior parameters and OD 261 matrix. The generated outputs include traffic flow at specified locations in the network. 262

The node-to-node OD matrix derived from the mobile phone data are provided as the initial or seed-OD in this case. The simulated traffic flows are compared with the actual traffic flows extracted from video recordings. The objective function seeks to minimize the difference between the actual and simulated traffic flows in each location by changing the scaling factors. The optimization problem can be represented as follows:

268

269 minimize, 
$$Z = \sum_{k=1}^{K} (V_{actual}^{k} - V_{simulated}^{k})^{2}$$
 (1)  
270 Such that,  $OD_{i,t} = \sum_{i,i=1}^{N} t \cdot OD_{i,t} * \beta_{i,t}$ 

271 Where,

272  $V_{simulated}^{k}$  = Traffic flow of link k of the road network from simulation

273  $OD_{ij,t}$  = Actual OD between nodes *i* and *j* in time period *t* 

274  $t - 0D_{ij,t}$  = Transient OD between nodes *i* and *j* in time period *t* 

275  $\beta_{ij,t}$  = Scaling factor associated with the node pair *i* and *j* and time period *t* 

276 $K$ = Total number of links for which traffic flow data is available
--

- N = Total number of nodes in the network
- 277 278

However, to make the optimization problem more tractable, group-wise scaling factors are used
rather than an individual scaling factor for each OD pair. The grouping is based on the analyses
of the CDR data. This simplifies the problem as follows:

282

283 minimize, 
$$Z = \sum_{k=1}^{K} (V_{actual}^k - V_{simulated}^k)^2$$
 (2)  
284 Such that,  $OD_{iit} = \sum_{m=1}^{M} t \cdot OD_{iit}^m * \beta_t^m$ 

285 Where,

286  $t \cdot OD_{ij,t}^{m}$  = Transient OD between node pair *i* and *j* in time period *t* where the node pair *i*, *j* 287 belong to group *m* 288  $\beta_t^m$  = Scaling factor for group *m* and time period *t* 289 M = Total number of groups of OD-pairs 290

# 291 **4. Results**

The mobile phone network within the study area comprises of 1360 towers which have been assigned to 29 OD generating nodes (812 OD pairs). Out of the one month CDR data, the weekend data have been discarded. For each day, the calls of each user originating from two different towers in each of the time period have been extracted. After application of the transient trip definitions (displacements occurring more than 10mins but less than 1hr apart) and the tower to node conversion rules (elaborated in Section 3.2), the node-to-node *t*-ODs are derived. The total number of node-to-node *t*-ODs are presented in Table 1.

# 299Table 1: Node-to-node t-OD

### 300

Time		t-OD			
Period	Time	Total Over the Month <sup>4</sup>	Weekday Average		
1	7:00-9:00	397355	13681.86		
2	9:00-12:00	1915417	68418.48		
3	15:00-17:00	2255859	82226.05		
4	17:00-19:00	1549109	53950.57		

301

302

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Includes weekends

Analyses of the node-to-node transient flows indicate that the flows between adjacent nodes are substantially higher than those between non-adjacent nodes (Figure 9). This is reasonable since given the low travel speed in Dhaka, a traveler may not be able to move very far in the 50min time window and the *t*-ODs mostly capture segments of a longer trip. However, part of it may also be due to the *false displacement* problem discussed in section 3.1. Therefore, the OD-pairs have been divided into two groups (adjacent and non-adjacent nodes) and the objective function to determine scaling factors has been formulated as follows:

311 minimize, 
$$Z = \sum_{k=1}^{K} (V_{actual}^k - V_{simulated}^k)^2$$
 (3)

Such that, 
$$OD_{ij,t} = \sum_{adj} t \cdot OD_{ij,t}^{adj} * \beta_t^{adj} + \sum_{non-adj} t \cdot OD_{ij,t}^{non-adj} * \beta_t^{non-adj}$$

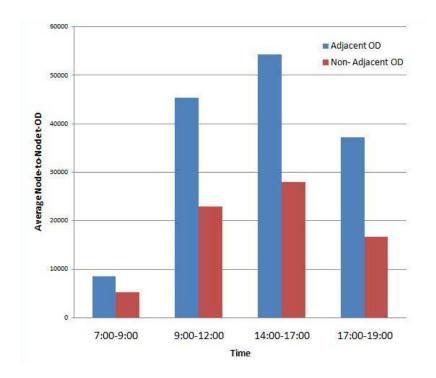
313 Where,

314  $t \cdot OD_{ij}^{adj}$  = Transient OD between node pair *i* and *j* in time period *t* where the node pair *i*,*j* 315 are adjacent nodes

316  $t \cdot OD_{ij}^{non-adj}$  = Transient OD between node pair *i* and *j* in time period *t* where the node pair *i*, *j* 317 are non-adjacent nodes

318  $\beta_t^{adj}, \beta_t^{non-adj}$  = Scaling factors for time period *t* and adjacent and non-adjacent nodes 319 respectively

320



322 Figure 9: Comparison of *t*-ODs between adjacent and non-adjacent nodes

- 323 This yielded eight scaling factors in total that needed to be estimated from the simulation runs of
- 324 MITSIMLab. Running the optimization process in MATLAB (that invokes MITSIMLab) and
- using a BOX algorithm (45), the following values of scaling factors have been derived.

<b>Time Period</b>	OD Type	Scaling Factor
7:00-9:00	Adjacent	6.787
7.00-9.00	Non-adjacent	1.712
9:00-12:00	Adjacent	0.971
9.00-12.00	Non-adjacent	0.345
15:00-17:00	Adjacent	1.647
15.00-17.00	Non-adjacent	3.407
17:00-19:00	Adjacent	9.404
17.00-19.00	Non-adjacent	6.779

**Table 2:** Scaling Factors

328

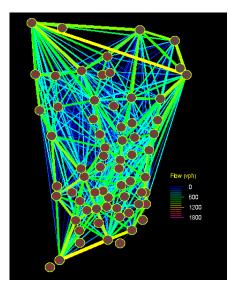
329 It is interesting to note that the scaling factors for adjacent nodes are higher than those of non-

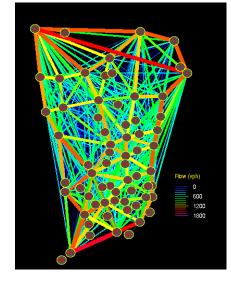
adjacent in all time periods other than 15:00-17:00. This does not however indicate that most of

the actual trips are to the adjacent nodes (since a full trip may consist of several segments each

represented by a separate *t*-OD).

- The graphical representation of the *t*-ODs and actual ODs across the network for one of the time
- periods and the variations for an example node are presented in Figures 10 and 11 respectively.

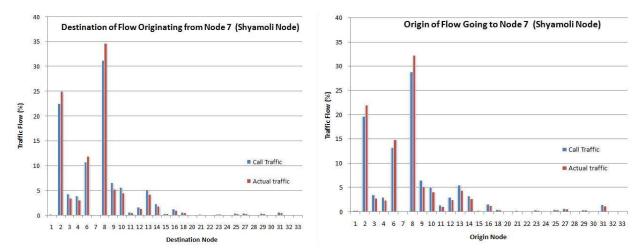




335 a. t-OD



**Figure 10:** *t*-ODs and actual ODs across the network for 7:00-9:00



**Figure 11:** Example of Transient and Actual Traffic Flows To and From a Node (Shyamoli) between 7:00-9:00.

### 340 5. Validation

In addition to the aggregate data used for calibration, traffic counts are collected from four additional locations on a different day. For validation purposes, the scaled up ODs have been applied to simulate the traffic between 9:00-12:00 in MITSIMLab and the simulated traffic counts are compared against the observed counts from these locations. In order to quantify the prediction error, Root Mean Square Error and Root Mean Square Percent Errors have been calculated and are found to be 335.09 and 13.59% respectively.

### 347 **6.** Conclusion

The main outcome of this research is the methodology for development of the OD matrix using mobile phone CDR and limited traffic count data. The strengths of both data sources are utilized in this approach: the trip patterns are extracted from mobile phones and the ground truth traffic scenario are derived from the counts. The methodology is demonstrated using data collected from Dhaka.

353 There are several limitations of the current research though. Firstly, in this research a simplified objective function with grouped scaling factors has been used. This overlooks the heterogeneity 354 in call rates from different locations (e.g., more calls may be generated to and from railway 355 stations compared to and from offices with land telephone lines, etc.). A more detailed 356 357 classification of scaling factor can be used to overcome this bias and may yield better results. Moreover, in this particular context, detailed network data and extensive calibration data were 358 not available which may have increased the simulation errors and affected the validation results. 359 However, initial validation results indicate promising success in real life application by transport 360 planners and managers. 361

Since CDR is already recorded by mobile phone companies for billing purposes, the approach is more economic than the traditional approaches which rely on expensive household surveys and/or extensive traffic counts. It is also convenient for periodic update of the OD matrix and extendable for dynamic OD estimation. This method is particularly effective for generating complex OD matrix where land use pattern is heterogeneous and asymmetry in travelling pattern prevails throughout the day but there is a limitation of traditional data sources.

## 368 Acknowledgment

The data provided for the research has been provided by Grameenphone Ltd., Bangladesh. The

funding for this research was provided by Faculty for the Future Program of Schlumberger

- Foundation and Higher Education Enhancement Project of the University Grants Commission of
- 372 Bangladesh and the World Bank.

### 373

# 374 **References**

- 375
  376
  1. Hajek, J. J. (1977). Optimal sample size of roadside-interview origin-destination surveys (No. RR 208).
- Kuwahara, M., and Sullivan, E. C. (1987). Estimating origin-destination matrices from roadside survey data. *Transportation Research Part B*,21(3), 233-248.
- Groves, R. M. (2006). Nonresponse rates and nonresponse bias in household surveys. Public
   Opinion Quarterly, 70(5), 646-675.
- 4. Lo, H. P., Zhang, N., and Lam, W. H. (1996). Estimation of an origin-destination matrix with
  random link choice proportions: a statistical approach. *Transportation Research Part B*, 30(4),
  309-324.
- 385 5. Van Zuylen, H. J., and Willumsen, L. G. (1980). The most likely trip matrix estimated from traffic counts. *Transportation Research Part B*,14(3), 281-293.
- Maher, M. (1983). Inferences on trip matrices from observations on link volumes: a Bayesian statistical approach. *Transportation Research Part B*, 20 (6), 435–447.
- Tebaldi, C., West, M. (1998). Bayesian inference on network traffic using link count data (with discussion). *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, *93*, 557–576.
- 391 8. Li, B. (2005). Bayesian inference for origin-destination matrices of transport networks using the
   392 EM algorithm. *Technometrics 47 (4)*, 399–408.
- Cascetta, E. (1984). Estimation of trip matrices from traffic counts and survey data: a generalized
   least squares estimator. *Transportation Research Part B*, 18(4–5), 289–299.
- 395 10. Bell, M. (1991). The estimation of origin–destination matrices by constrained generalized least
   396 squares. *Transportation Research Part B, 25 (1)*, 13–22.
- 397 11. Spiess, H. (1987). A maximum likelihood model for estimating origin-destination matrices,
   398 *Transportation Research Part B*,21(5), 395-412.
- Vardi, Y. (1996). Network tomography: estimating source-destination traffic intensities from link
   data. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, *91*, 365–377.
- 401 13. Hazelton, M.L. (2000). Estimation of Origin–Destination matrices from link flows on uncongested networks. *Transportation Research Part B*, *34* (7), 549–566.

403	14.	Hazelton, M.L. (2003). Some comments on origin-destination matrix estimation. <i>Transportation</i>
404		Research Part A, 37 (10), 811–822.
405	15.	Hazelton, M.L., 2001b. Inference for origin-destination matrices: estimation, reconstruction and
406		prediction. Transportation Research Part B, 35 (7), 667-676.
407	16.	Castillo, E., Menéndez, J., Jiménez, P. (2008). Trip matrix and path flow reconstruction and
408		estimation based on plate scanning and link observations. Transportation Research Part B,42
409		(5), 455–481.
410	17.	Parry, K., & Hazelton, M. L. (2012). Estimation of origin-destination matrices from link counts
411		and sporadic routing data. Transportation Research Part B, 46(1), 175-188.
412	18.	Morimura, T., and Kato, S. (2012). Statistical origin-destination generation with multiple sources.
413		21st International Conference on In Pattern Recognition (ICPR), November 11-15, 2012.
414		Tsukuba, Japan.
415	19.	Herrera, J., Work D. B., Herring R., Ban X., Jacobson Q., Bayen A. (2010). Evaluation of traffic
416		data obtained via GPS-enabled mobile phones: The Mobile Century field experiment,
417		Transportation Research Part C: Emerging Technologies, 18(4), 568-583.
418	20.	http://www.itu.int/en/ITU-D/Statistics/Documents/facts/ICTFactsFigures2013.pdf [accessed
419		20July, 2013]
420	21.	Phithakkitnukoon, S., Horanont, T., Di Lorenzo, G., Shibasaki, R., and Ratti, C. (2010). Activity -
421		Aware Map: Identifying human daily activity pattern using mobile phone data, Human Behavior
422		Understanding, 6219(3), 14-25, Springer Berlin / Heidelberg.
423	22.	Phithakkitnukoon, S., and Ratti, C., (2011), Inferring Asymmetry of Inhabitant Flow using Call
424		Detail Records, Journal of Advances in Information Technology, 2 (4), 239-249.
425	23.	Reades, J., Calabrese, F., and Ratti, C. (2009). Eigenplaces: analyzing cities using the space-time
426		structure of the mobile phone network, Environment and Planning B: Planning and Design,
427		<i>36(5)</i> , pp. 824-836.
428	24.	Wang, P., Hunter, T., Bayen, A. M., Schechtner, K., and González, M. C. (2012). Understanding
429		Road Usage Patterns in Urban Areas. Scientific reports, 2.
430	25.	G onzález, M. C., Hidalgo, C. A., and Barabási, A. L.(2008).Understanding individual human
431		mobility patterns, Nature, 453, 779–782.
432	26.	Song, C, Koren, T, Wang, P, and Barabási, A. L. (2010). Modelling the scaling properties of
433		human mobility, <i>Nature Physics</i> , 6, 818–823.
434	27.	Simini, F., Gonza'lez, M. C., Maritan, A., and Baraba'si, A. L.(2012). A universal model for
435		mobility and migration patterns, <i>Nature, 484</i> , 96–100.
436	28.	Candia, J., González, M. C., Wang, P., Schoenharl, T., Madey, G., and Barabási, A. L. (2008).
437		Uncovering individual and collective human dynamics from mobile phone records. <i>Journal of</i>
438		<i>Physics A: Mathematical and Theoretical, 41(22), 224015.</i>
439	29.	Sevtsuk, A., and Ratti, C. (2010). Does Urban Mobility Have a Daily Routine? Learning from
440		Aggregate Data of Mobile Networks, Journal of Urban Technology, 17 (1), 41-60.
441	30.	Schlaich, J., Otterstätter, T., Friedrich, M., 2010, Generating Trajectories from Mobile Phone
442		Data, TRB 89th Annual Meeting Compendium of Papers, Transportation Research Board of the
443		National Academies, Washington, D.C., USA.
444	31	Becker, R.A., Caceres, R., Hanson, K., Loh, J.M., Urbanek, S., Varshavsky, A., Volinsky, C.,
445		Ave, P., Park, F., 2011. Route classification using cellular handoff patterns. In: Proceedings of the
446		13th International Conference on Ubiquitous Computing. ACM, Beijing, China.
		rem menundar conterence en conquitous computing. riem, beijing, ennia.

447	32.	Bolla, R., Davoli, F., and Giordano, A. (2000). Estimating road traffic parameters from mobile
448		communications. In Proceedings 7th World Congress on ITS, Turin, Italy.
449	33.	Demissie, M. G., de Almeida Correia, G. H., and Bento, C. (2013). Intelligent road traffic status
450		detection system through cellular networks handover information: An exploratory study.
451		Transportation Research Part C: Emerging Technologies, 32, 76-88.
452	34.	Wang J., Wang D. Song X. Sun Di. (2011). Dynamic OD Expansion Method Based on Mobile
453		Phone Location, Fourth International Conference on Intelligent Computation Technology and
454		Automation, Shenzhen, China.
455	35.	Caceres, N., Wideberg, J. P., and Benitez, F. G. (2007). Deriving origin destination data from a
456		mobile phone network. Intelligent Transport Systems, IET, 1(1), 15-26.
457	36.	Mellegard, E., Moritz, S., and Zahoor, M. (2011, December). Origin/Destination-estimation using
458		cellular network data. In Data Mining Workshops (ICDMW), 2011 IEEE 11th International
459		Conference on (pp. 891-896). IEEE.
460	37.	Calabrese F., Lorenzo G. D., Liu L. and Ratti C. (2011). Estimating Origin-Destination Flows
461		using Mobile phone Location Data. IEEE Pervasive Computing, vol. XX, no. XX, 200XX, pp.
462		36–43.
463	38.	Wang, P., Hunter, T., Bayen, A. M., Schechtner, K., and González, M. C. (2012). Understanding
464		Road Usage Patterns in Urban Areas. Scientific reports, 2.
465	39.	DHUTS. (2010). Dhaka Urban Transport Network Development Study, Draft Final Report.
466		Prepared by Katahira and Engineers International, Oriental Consultants Co. Ltd., and Mitsubishi
467		Research Institute, Inc.
468	40.	Grameenphone Ltd. Bangladesh. http://grameenphone.com, accessed on 15.12.2012
469	41.	Kritikal Solutions Ltd., India. http://www.kritikalsolutions.com/products/traffic-analyzer.html,
470		accessed on 15.12.2012
471	42.	Yang Q. and Koutsopoulos, H. N., (1996). A microscopic traffic simulator for evaluation of
472		dynamic traffic management systems, Transportation Research C, 4(3),113-129
473	43.	Ben-Akiva M., Koutsopoulos H. N., Toledo T., Yang Q., Choudhury C. F., Antoniou C., and
474		Balakrishna R. (2010). Traffic simulation with MITSIMLab, in Fundamentals of Traffic
475		Simulation, 1st ed., ser. International Series in Operations Research and Management Science, J.
476		Barceló, Ed. Springer, 233-268.
477	44.	Population and Housing Census: Preliminary Results (2011), Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics,
478		Statistics Division, Ministry of Planning, Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh
479	45.	Box M. J. (1965), A new method of constrained optimization and a comparison with other
480		methods, Computer Journal, 8(1),42-52.