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# Evaluating FMS

## A preliminary comparison with a traditional travel survey

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### Abstract

This paper presents compares two different travel survey instruments that were administered to the same set of users, in the context of the 2012 travel survey data collection effort in Singapore. The Household Interview Travel Survey (HITS) of 2012 follows the traditional static *paper based* approach while the Future Mobility Survey (FMS) is a smartphone based travel survey being developed in Singapore and MIT. The paper describes the FMS technology as well as the survey implementation and its relationship with HITS. Moreover, we discuss the data collected and compare the survey results of 244 participants who completed both the HITS and FMS surveys. Overall, participants collected 739 days of data. Using the data, we discuss both the successes and challenges experienced with the two approaches.

**Keywords** *travel survey, smartphone, data analysis, comparison.*

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# 1 Introduction

2 The rise in the availability and use of location-enabled devices, particularly smartphones, has greatly ex-  
3 panded the means of collecting various forms of transportation data. While traditional self-reported travel  
4 surveys typically suffer from problems such as limited sample size, the under-reporting of total completed  
5 trips, an imprecision of trip start and end times (4), location-enabled smartphone based surveys present the  
6 opportunity to collect more detailed and precise data needed for emerging agent and activity-based behav-  
7 ioral models. Developments in this field (1, 3) suggest that location-enabled technologies can reduce the  
8 number of erroneous ‘no travel’ days and missed trips; improve accuracy of reported trip times, locations  
9 and paths; and reduce respondent burden.

10 The usage of mobile technologies for automatic surveying is not new. Traditionally, GPS-based logging  
11 surveys have been widely implemented worldwide and largely successful as a supplement to household  
12 travel surveys (2, 8). However, pure GPS logging suffers from some limitations. Financially, the agencies  
13 conducting travel surveys are required to purchase and distribute the GPS collection devices, which can be a  
14 significant investment. Also, the participants may forget to carry the GPS loggers with them for the duration  
15 of the travel survey, and they will face a recollection problem when completing their travel diary. In contrast,  
16 smartphones provide some clear benefits. For instance, users are accustomed to carrying their phones with  
17 them constantly and as such, there is a decreased likelihood of missing trips. They are almost always charged,  
18 and smartphones contain a combination of sensors not limited to positioning data. The sensors are capable  
19 of providing spatial, temporal and proximity data, which can be used to infer activity and mode information.  
20 These attributes make smartphones ideal ‘life-loggers’.

21 In this paper, we present preliminary results of data collected between the Future Mobility Survey (FMS)  
22 and the Household Interview Travel Survey (HITS) of 2012, where FMS is a smartphone based approach  
23 and HITS a more traditional paper based survey. Our comparison set of 387 participants used both survey  
24 methods, first they filled the HITS questionnaire, then ran FMS on their phones for at least 14 days. The FMS  
25 is currently being field tested as a collaborative project between the Singapore-MIT Alliance for Research  
26 and Technology (SMART) and the Land Transport Authority of Singapore (LTA).

27 This paper is organized as follows: HITS and FMS (covers overview of both surveys, socio-demographic  
28 statistics of the sample, and data preparation for the sample), evaluation (presents a discussion comparing the  
29 HITS and FMS for distinct statistics related to activity and mobility), challenges (discusses main difficulties  
30 for FMS), and conclusions.

## 31 2 HITS and FMS

32 HITS and FMS present two alternative approaches in the collection of survey data. In this section we briefly  
33 outline the approaches, particularly enhancing their differences, and we discuss the socio-demographics of  
34 the comparison sample.

### 35 2.1 Overview

36 HITS is a paper based survey conducted within Singapore every four years. It is currently on the final stages  
37 for the 2012 effort. It is conducted by the Land Transport Authority of Singapore (LTA). The survey collects  
38 activity and mobility data for a typical weekday (Monday to Friday) for an individual. It also collects the  
39 socio-demographic characteristics of the households, and the individuals. The data is collected through face  
40 to face interviews. A local subcontractor is responsible for the recruitment and interviewing of participants.

41 The format of the survey follows the standard trip diary-based approach. Travel was defined as a one-  
42 way journey completed for a purpose. Walking or bicycle trips which connect other methods of travel are

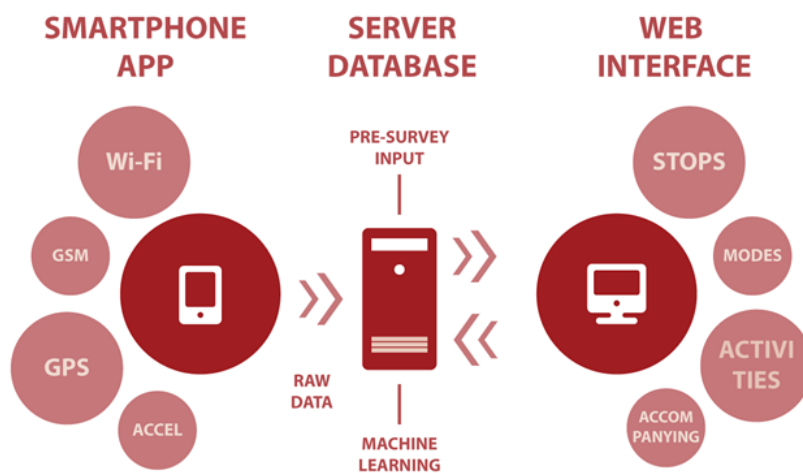


Figure 1: The FMS architecture.

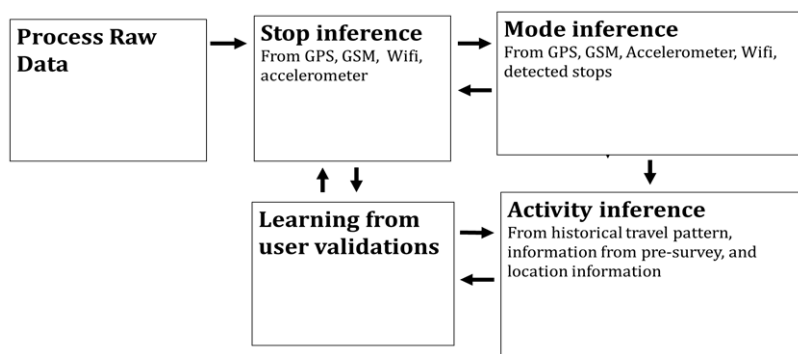


Figure 2: FMS flowchart.

1 also recorded for outbound and return trips. The survey includes only walks longer than 100 meters taken as  
 2 part of a trip (e.g. walking to a bus stop), and walking trips before or after a trip with at least one motorized  
 3 mode (e.g. walking to work, and leaving work using a taxi). Walking trips from home to work or school  
 4 are recorded for workers and students. Furthermore, the sample size of this survey is targeted for roughly  
 5 10,500 households. This is about 1% compared to the total household number Singapore, which is roughly  
 6 1 million.

7 The HITS 2012 follows a similar format, methodology, and objective to other metropolitan-wide travel  
 8 surveys found in the Metropolitan Travel Survey Archive (<http://www.surveymarchive.org>).

9 The FMS survey (6) is comprised of a smartphone application, available both for Android and iOS, a  
 10 web-interface (front-end) and an analytics back-end (Figure 1). The long-term aim of the FMS smartphone  
 11 application is that it silently collect data without user intervention. Participants would therefore not be  
 12 influenced in any way by the smartphone application during their normal day. Spatial and temporal data is  
 13 initially collected by a participant's smartphone. The data collected by the smartphone is mapped, filtered  
 14 and analyzed by the back-end. This data is then analyzed (Figure 2) and presented to the user via a web-  
 15 interface (Figure 3). The user is required to validate data collected via the web-interface. Validation entails  
 16 that a participant check that their activity and mobility patterns accurately represent their actual activity

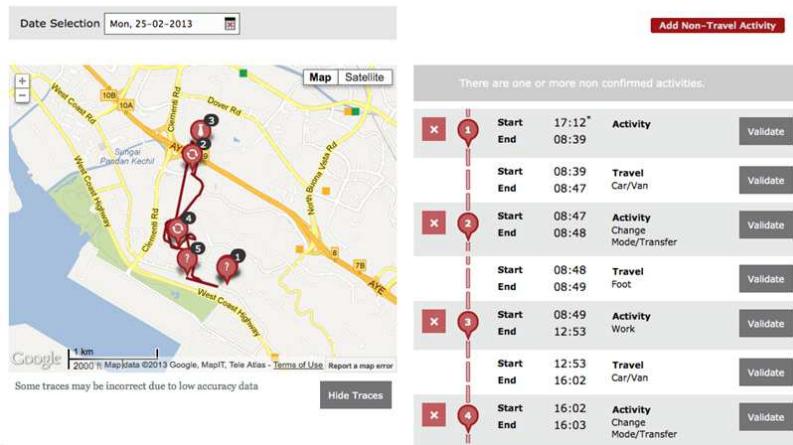


Figure 3: The FMS web-interface.

1 patterns for a specific day. Thus far, participants have been required to provide at least 14 days of collected  
 2 data, of which at least 5 has to be validated in order to receive a monetary incentive. As the process of  
 3 validation is fully dependent on user's choice, there is a need to provide clear *prompted-recall* visual and  
 4 textual cues to remind him/her of the details of those past activities and travel. To reduce the burden placed  
 5 on participants, analytics algorithms have been employed.

6 Figure 2 illustrates the progression of data between successive analytics components. Back-end compo-  
 7 nents transform logged raw data into understandable information for review by the survey participant and  
 8 end-users. Algorithms are particularly focused on inferring stops, modes and activities. The algorithms used  
 9 in each step vary. The 'process raw data' step consists of a series of scripts for cleaning, composing and  
 10 temporally aligning the incoming data for use in the subsequent analysis steps. The 'stop inference' applies  
 11 a rule-based algorithm in two phases: first, it matches spatial/temporal windows (7) to the data to obtain  
 12 candidate stops; subsequently, it uses wifi and GSM data to merge stops, particularly using accelerome-  
 13 ter information to detect 'still' periods (where, although the GSM is 'jumping', the user should stay in the  
 14 same place). It also uses past validation information to match users recurrent locations (e.g., home, work)  
 15 with GSM signatures and adds/removes stops based on mode detection results (for example, there must be  
 16 a stop for change mode/transfer between any two different modes). The 'mode inference' step applies a  
 17 machine-learning algorithm, support-vector machine or SVM (5), to accelerometer and GPS data to identify  
 18 the mode out of the set of car, bus, subway, walk, bicycle or motorbike. Finally, the 'activity inference'  
 19 matches the historical data, namely the previous validations, to current stops to identify recurrent locations.  
 20 Current development of this module also considers contextual information such as the Points of Interest or  
 21 the mode interchange areas. The goal of the 'learning from user validations' step, under development, is to  
 22 systematically update these algorithms in time, i.e. perform online learning.

## 23 2.2 Data

### 24 2.2.1 Data description

25 At the moment of the writing of this paper, 387 individuals participated in both HITS and FMS surveys.  
 26 Data collection is still ongoing. A sample of 244 participants provided both weekday (Monday to Friday)  
 27 and home-to-home travel data. These data comprise 739 days of 24 hour data i.e. 24 hours of travel and  
 28 activity data. 143 participants were excluded as they either did not travel or they had collected insufficient

- 1 data for comparison. As the number of days provided by FMS was larger than that provided by HITS, the  
 2 HITS data of a participant was weighted by the number of days corresponding to the participant in FMS.  
 3 Also, it should be noted that the days of collected data for both surveys are not the same.

Table 1: Socio-demographic statistics

		Sample	Singapore <sup>a</sup>
Gender	Male	129 53%	49%
	Female	115 47%	51%
Age	0 - 15 years	0 0%	17%
	15 - 19 years	11 5%	7%
	20 - 29 years	61 25%	14%
	30 - 39 years	69 28%	16%
	40 - 49 years	69 28%	17%
	50 - 59 years	28 11%	15%
	60+ years	6 2%	14%
Personal Monthly Income	No income	61 25%	-
	\$1 - \$1999	18 7%	-
	\$2000 - \$2999	30 12%	-
	\$3000 - \$3999	20 8%	-
	\$4000 - \$4999	15 6%	-
	\$5000 - \$5999	15 6%	-
	\$6000 - \$7999	11 5%	-
	\$8000+	8 3%	-
	Refused	66 27%	-
Household Size	1	6 2%	12%
	2	23 9%	19%
	3	44 18%	20%
	4+	171 70%	49%
Employment Type	Full-time	156 64%	-
	Part-time	11 5%	-
	Self-employed	12 5%	-
	Full-time Student	31 13%	-
	Others	34 14%	-
Fixed workplace	Yes	164 67%	-
	Yes from home	9 4%	-
	No	6 2%	-
	No response	65 27%	-

<sup>a</sup> Statistics gathered from Statistics Singapore (www.singstat.gov.sg) on 1 August 2013.

- 4 Table 1 presents the socio-demographic characteristics of the comparison sample. Most participants are  
 5 between the ages of 20 and 50 years. Another characteristic is that most household sizes are 4+. Lastly,  
 6 most participants are full-time workers with fixed workplaces. The sample is similar to the population of  
 7 Singapore in terms of gender distribution, and it is dissimilar in terms of household size distribution (sample  
 8 has a higher proportion of participants from household size 4+). In addition, the sample has a low proportion  
 9 of participants of 60 years or more.

## 1 2.2.2 Data preparation

2 While smartphones are capable of collecting increasingly accurate data - it is still possible that some geolocation points may be erroneous due to sensory errors and/or a limited sample of points. For example, GPS  
3 location accuracy is reduced when participants travel indoors. Another common problem occurs where participants' smartphones run out of battery power or devices are turned off. Such scenarios have the possibility  
4 of producing gaps in data (presenting non-continuous data). A *data flagging* process was applied to data  
5 validated by participants prior to data analysis. The process involved the application of logical checks and  
6 heuristics to identify unsatisfactory records and participants which did not meet the minimum requirements  
7 necessary for inclusion in analysis. These logical checks included:  
8

- 9 • **temporal checks:** determine if the start and end times of activities are consistent and whether data is  
10 continuous between activities;  
11
- 12 • **spatial checks:** determine the location of activities and their relative distance as compared with points  
13 of interest such as bus and train stations;
- 14 • **speeding checks:** flag activity sequences where a participant's mode of transport does not accurately  
15 reflect their resultant mobility. For example, a participant reached a destination faster than physically  
16 possible, given the reported mode of transport.

17 If data was deemed to fail a logical check, then the particular record was flagged. If a single flag was  
18 found in any participants' data pertaining to a day, then that day was excluded from the analysis.

## 19 3 Evaluation

20 This section presents a descriptive statistical analysis focusing on (i) activity and (ii) mobility related statistics of the participants. For the analysis, the authors present the following activity related statistics: time-scale distributions of activities for the HITS (only weekdays) and FMS (weekdays and weekends); and cumulative probability for the hours spent at work. For the mobility related statistics, the authors include: the cumulative probability for the total hours spent traveling; and the distribution of the number of trips per day.

26 Figure 4 presents the time-scale distribution of activities for HITS aggregated for week days. Most participants begin their day at home. Most participants transition to work between 06H00 and 07H00. The transition is reversed between 17H00 and 22H00. We observe out of home activities between 06H00 and 22H00. The home and work time scale distributions are asymmetric. Other activities are not as clearly defined.

31 In contrast, Figure 5 presents the time-scale distribution of activities for FMS aggregated for week days. We observe a similar set of activity patterns, however we observe a more refined transition from home to work. Other activity patterns are more clearly defined than in HITS. In addition, relationships between activity patterns are notable. For example, the relationship between work and meal-eating can be observed between the hours of 12H00 and 14H00. In these hours work decreases, while Meal Eating Break increases. Moreover the peaks of Meal Eating Break are more resolute in FMS rather than HITS. Another difference is the Education activity - HITS Education is reportedly higher than that of FMS. We observe that out of home activities occur between 06H00 and 23H00.

39 Figure 6 presents the cumulative probability of the hours spent at work. This sample excludes non-working days. In the HITS, participants report more work hours than in FMS. The range provided FMS is larger than that provided by HITS. It should be noted that participants may be over-reporting HITS work hours because they may add their meal eating break. This was previously discussed in Figures 4 and 5.

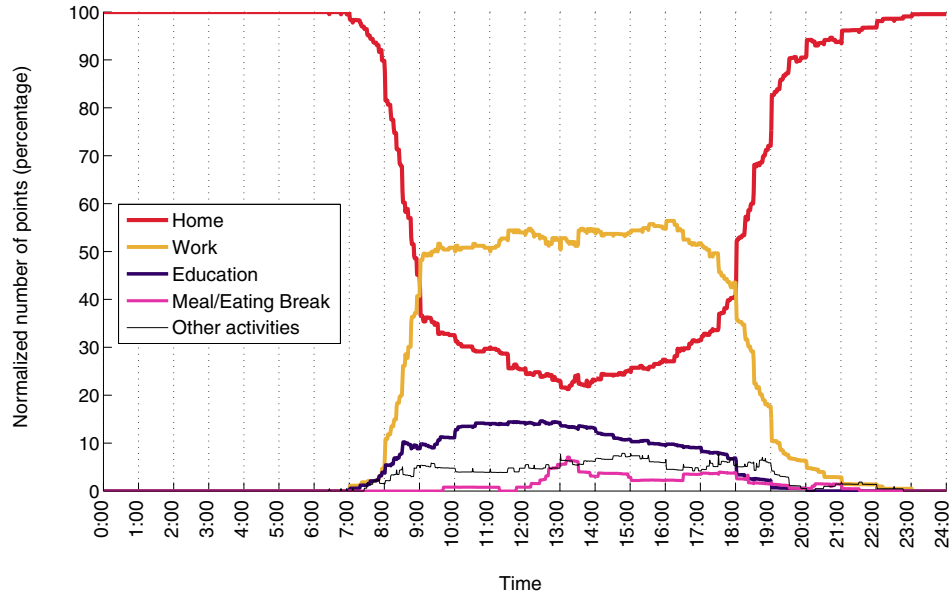


Figure 4: HITS: Week day hours activity distribution (Home, Work, Education, Meal/Eating Break and Other Activities).

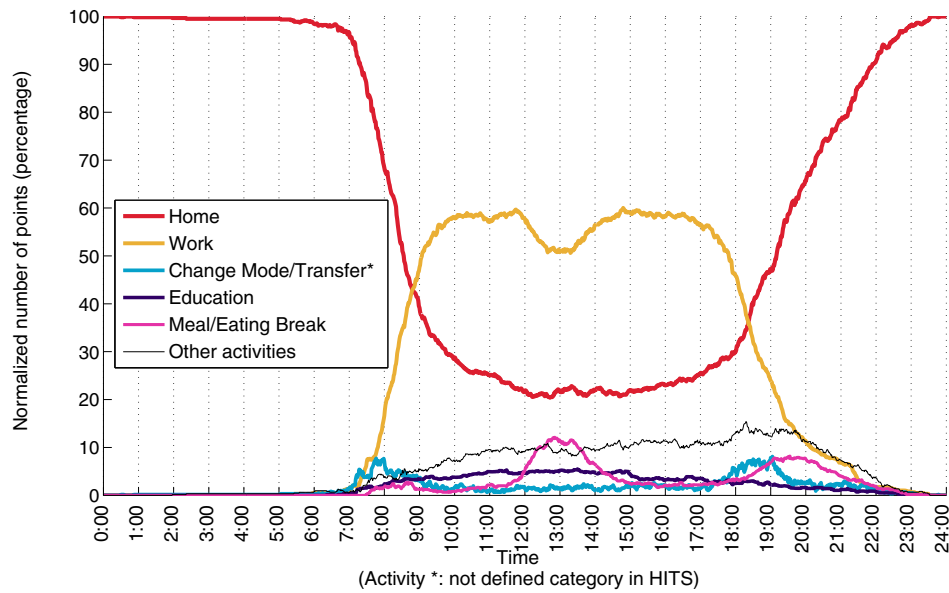


Figure 5: FMS: Week day hours activity distribution (Home, Work, Change Mode/Transfer, Education, Meal/Eating Break and Other Activities).

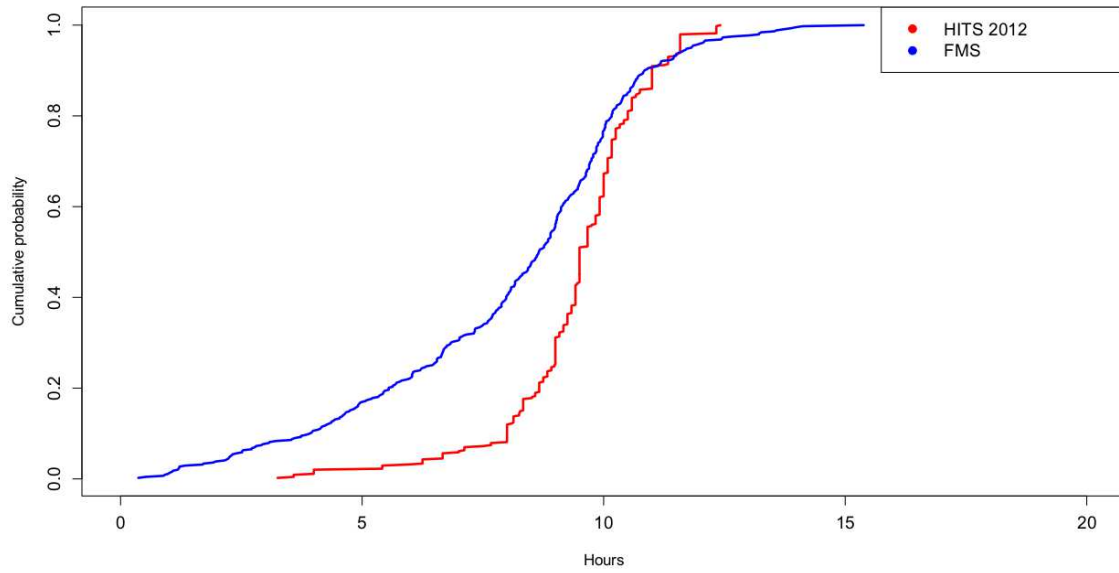


Figure 6: Total hours spent at work per day

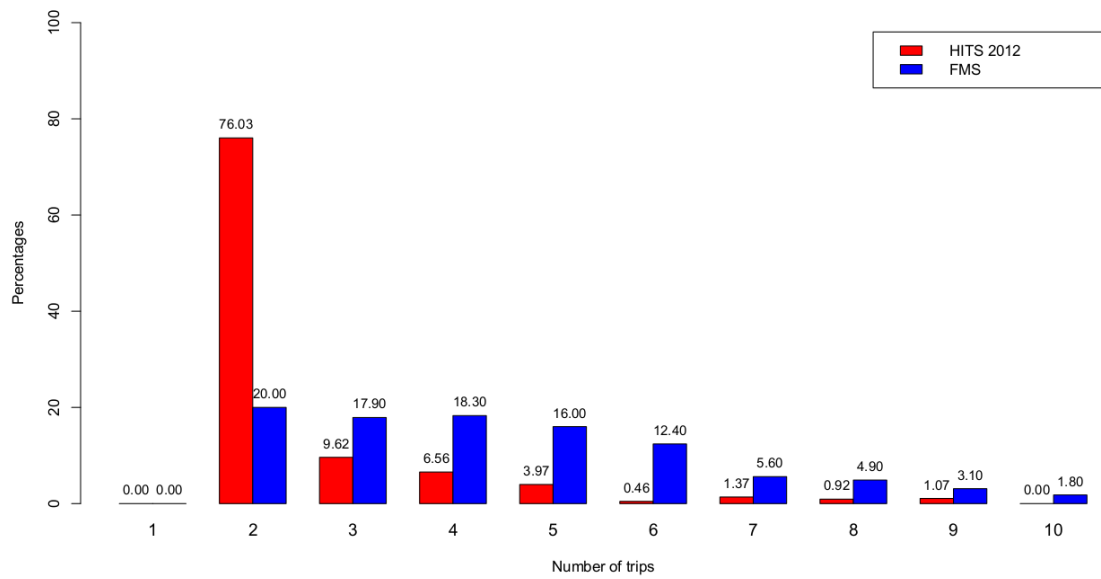


Figure 7: Total number of trips per day.



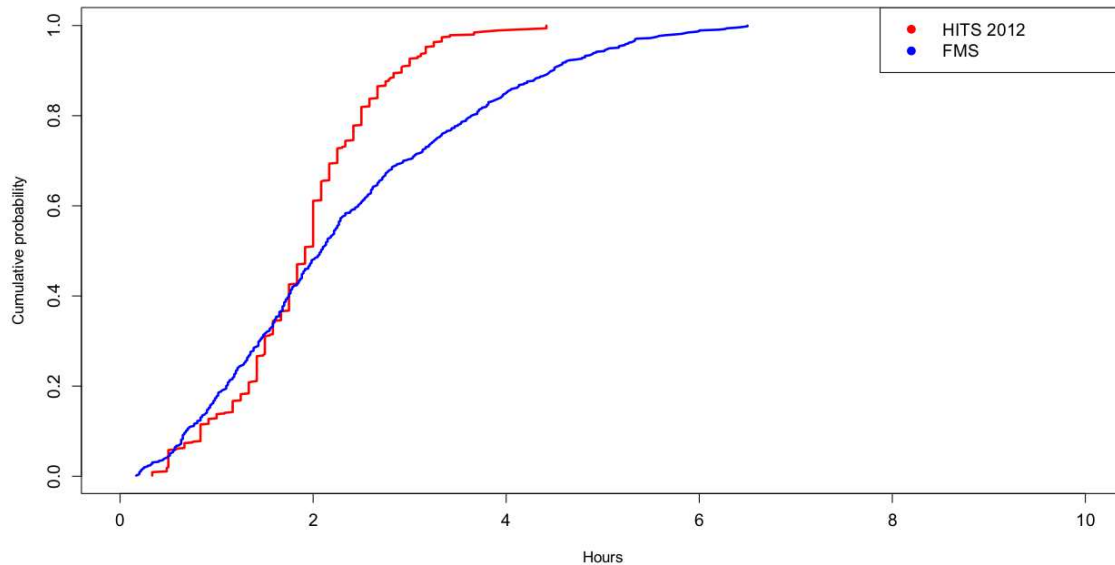


Figure 8: Total hours spent traveling per day

1 Finally, FMS is able to collect all days including weekends. HITS is focused on the collection of typical  
 2 week days. Figure 9 indicates a clear difference of the activity travel patterns of the participants compared  
 3 to Figure 5.

4 Figure 7 presents the distribution per day of the total number of trips for HITS and FMS. FMS collects  
 5 more trips than HITS. It is interesting to note that most participants report 2 trips per day in the HITS (76%).  
 6 In contrast, most FMS participants report the number of trips to be between 2 and 6 trips per day.

7 Figure 8 presents the cumulative probability per day of the total time spent traveling. We define this as the  
 8 sum of the travel times across all modes between activities per day - this includes access times, egress times  
 9 and waiting times. The FMS range is larger than that of HITS. The total time spent traveling is shorter than  
 10 FMS before approximately 1.8 hours and significantly greater after that. The difference may be related to  
 11 the perception of the participants (among other factors), because the travel times are reported by participants  
 12 in the HITS. In FMS the smartphone device records the travel times.

#### 13 4 Challenges

14 A constraint of FMS relates to how it affects the battery life of the user's smartphone. This may require the  
 15 user to recharge the device more often than usual to avoid running out of power in undesired moments. Both  
 16 Android and iPhone applications were designed to minimize such burden but the technological constraints  
 17 are particularly limiting, especially considering the heterogeneity of hardware, phone usage habits, charge  
 18 habits or battery health. Thus, the answer to the common question about FMS battery load has no trivial  
 19 answer. However, we can provide general statistics about battery usage from our dataset.

20 In Figure 10, we show the observed hourly battery decay rate (in percentage). This measure is more  
 21 meaningful than, for example, average daily autonomy, because it is not affected by initial battery level, or  
 22 intermediate charging. In any case, it is still sensitive to phone usage, i.e. we could not measure battery

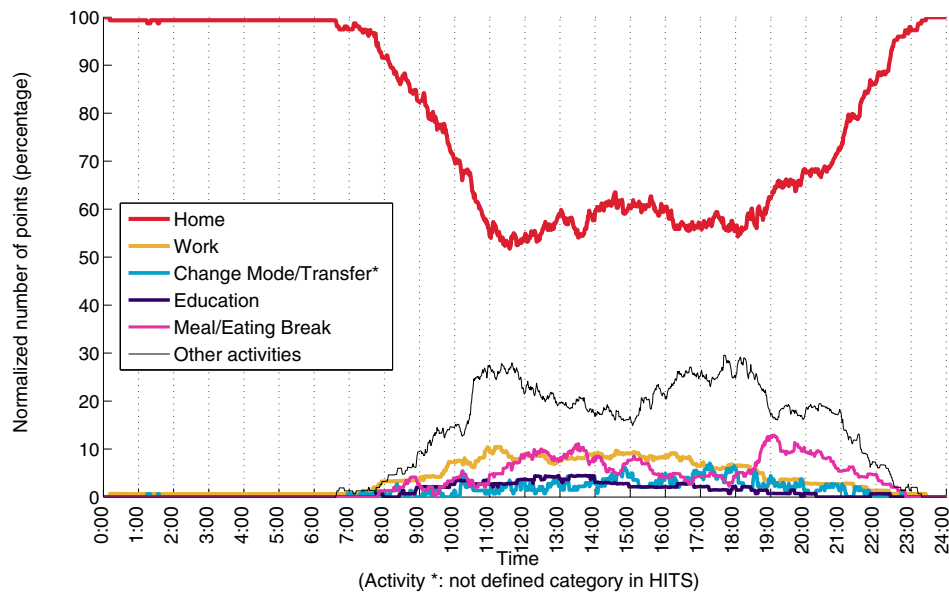


Figure 9: FMS: Weekend hours activity distribution (Home, Work, Change Mode/Transfer, Education, Meal/Eating Break and Other Activities).

1 usage exclusively from FMS. It would demand individualized phone calibration (e.g. measuring battery  
 2 consumption without any FMS data collection for a few minutes). Even with such a calibration we could not  
 3 control for battery usage from other applications during FMS execution.

4 There is noticeable difference between Android and iOS. For Android, we can see a much higher con-  
 5 centration on low hourly consumption, with mode on 5% per hour (equivalent to 20 hours from 100% to  
 6 0%, assuming linear decay) while iPhone will have a much fatter tail at the higher hourly consumptions,  
 7 with mode on 6% per hour. iOS is well known to be more constrained than Android in terms of low-level  
 8 programming API (application interface), and this has been affecting the capability to optimize the soft-  
 9 ware. Fortunately, latest versions of iOS are becoming more flexible so the team is improving the iOS FMS  
 10 application as we write this document.

11 We recall that, besides GPS, FMS also logs GSM, WiFi and Accelerometer information. In fact, it also  
 12 does so to save battery life: it periodically switches off GPS, and collects only these lower precision data, a  
 13 procedure we call *phased sampling*. In this way, the stop detection procedure may be affected but not ruled  
 14 out. Taking the validated stops by the users as the *ground truth*<sup>1</sup>, the true positive rate of the algorithm is  
 15 95.5% and the false negative rate is 4.5%. This is achieved with a relatively small proportion of GPS data  
 16 collection times (see Figure 11).

17 The detailed analysis of battery consumption, sampling strategies, and their implications to data quality  
 18 in FMS, is an extensive topic that demands an article by itself, therefore we defer further discussions to sub-  
 19 sequent publications. For the purpose of this paper, suffice it to say that our applications were generally able  
 20 to achieve reasonable battery consumption, but the heterogeneity of software, hardware and usage profiles  
 21 makes it a serious technological constraint for some users.

22 Another relevant limitation concerns to the almost complete absence of personal interactions related to  
 23 FMS. After the invitation and quick introduction to FMS by the recruiter, the participant is left alone to

<sup>1</sup>We know this is a strong assumption, as the users may be resistant to make corrections.

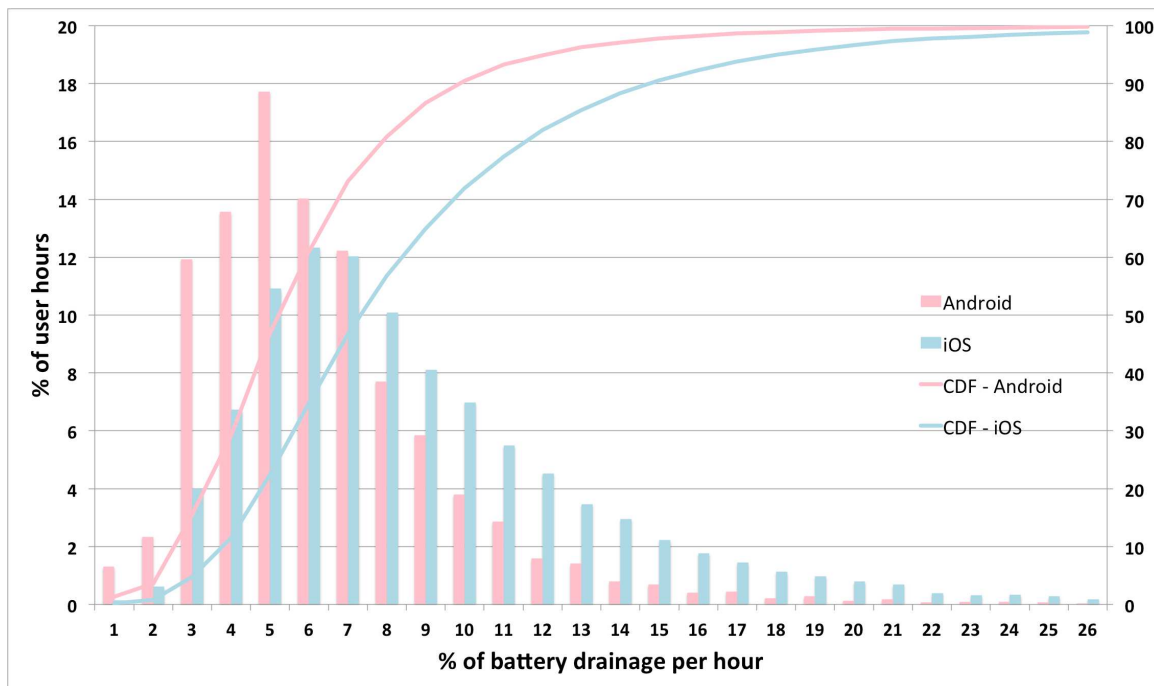


Figure 10: Distribution of battery performance per hour for the dataset, for Android and iOS users.

1 follow the work-flow summarized in Figure 12. This raises two important challenges: understanding the  
 2 technology usage; understanding the task itself. While the former is facilitated by the tech-savviness of the  
 3 user and, in contexts like Singapore, becomes less of a concern with a high smartphone penetration rate, the  
 4 latter is entirely dependent on the user interface, both on the web client as well as on the phone.

5 To help users overcome the initial steep learning curve, we equipped FMS with a remote desktop plat-  
 6 form called firefly® that allows a helpdesk assistant to remotely visualize the participant’s interaction on  
 7 his/her computer. This works on a single session basis and can only happen after user’s explicit request and  
 8 authorization. Despite the process being seamless and intuitive, this resource was not used as much as was  
 9 desired and the team was only able to help about 20 users overall.

10 The web interface (Figure 3) was repeatedly redesigned and user tested throughout several iterations,  
 11 and trailed in two pilot runs. As with the case of battery management, the heterogeneity of the participants’  
 12 population makes it a particularly complex task. Some users prefer to interact with the map while others  
 13 prefer otherwise; icons are generically intuitive, but some users prefer text; font size and available screen  
 14 space also varies among users hardware. Overall, the details required for an activity diary for transporta-  
 15 tion modeling are not immediately understood by the layman. When they exist at all, these challenges are  
 16 overcome in HITS through the interaction between the recruiter and the user.

17 A final limitation to mention relates to recruitment self-selection bias. Table 1 confirms the intuition that  
 18 this type of survey finds difficulties in the even distribution across socio-demographic characteristics. This  
 19 may relate not only to technology access and savviness as well as to attitude towards institutional surveys,  
 20 privacy and trust concerns, relevance of the incentive, time availability to name a few.

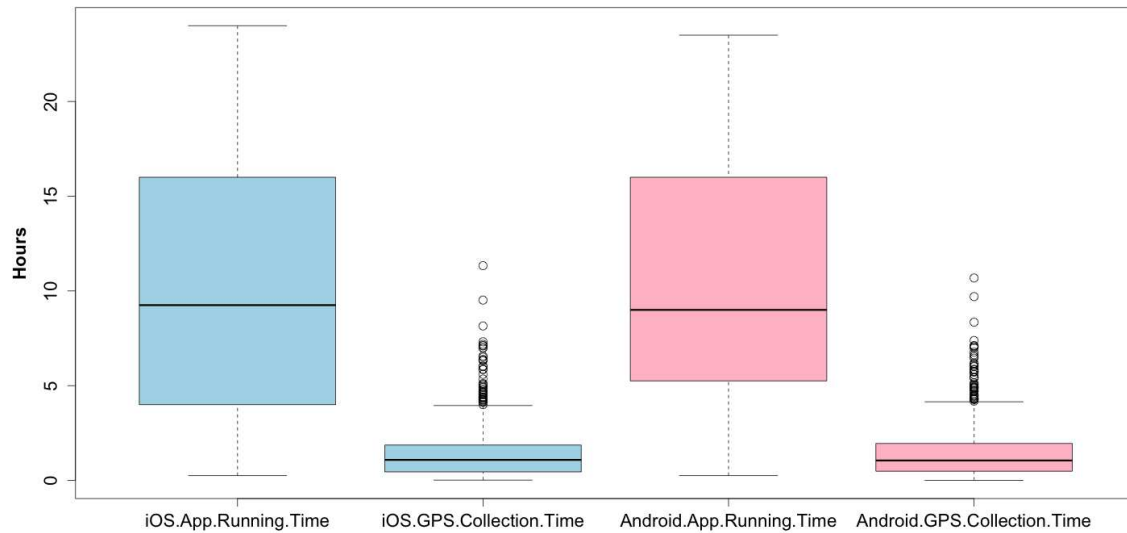


Figure 11: GPS and non-GPS data collection times, for iOS and Android.

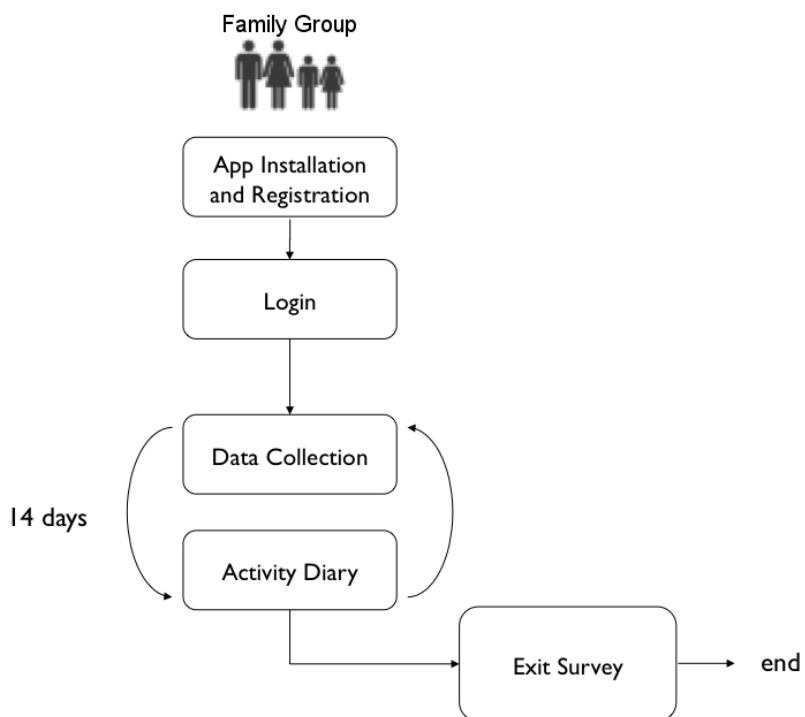


Figure 12: FMS workflow.

## 1 5 Conclusion

2 In this paper we have presented preliminary results for common HITS and FMS survey participants. The  
3 paper evaluated 739 days of data collected by 244 participants. We began by outlining the difference between  
4 the surveys, discussing the socio-demographic statistics of the comparison sample. In the following sections  
5 we compared various distributions related to the activity and mobility of the same participants from HITS  
6 and FMS. The distributions highlight several key differences such as: FMS captures more trips than HITS;  
7 FMS provides travel times as measured from smartphone devices; FMS has more detailed activity patterns  
8 within the day; and others. In addition, we note that both HITS and FMS present a number of trade-offs.  
9 HITS represents a sample for one weekday, but benefits from the addition of a human interviewer. FMS is a  
10 more lengthy process, but the inclusion of a smartphone in the survey improves the accuracy and broadens  
11 the range of data collected. FMS data is more resolute than that provided by HITS. FMS is dependent on the  
12 user validating their travel patterns sufficiently well.

13 Future work follows two directions. Firstly, the authors are implementing an analytical framework for  
14 comparing the HITS and FMS sample presented in this paper through econometric modeling. This frame-  
15 work features include: controlling the temporal effect (i.e. participants provide data for different days for  
16 HITS and FMS); modeling the attrition rate (i.e. participants choose the number of days to validate); panel  
17 periods (multiple days of data for FMS); and others. Secondly, we seek to improve the capabilities and ac-  
18 curacy of validated FMS data as well as further reduce the battery costs associated with FMS data collection  
19 on smartphones. The ubiquity of advanced technologies in the mobile environment reveals great potential  
20 for expanding data collection methods. Taking advantage of such potential, however, will require careful  
21 attention to competing needs.

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26

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