

# Prediction of urban human mobility using large-scale taxi traces and its applications

P.Sandeep Reddy, CH Venkata Navi, N Mahesh Babu

Associate Professor, Assistant Professor<sup>2,3</sup>

Dept. of CSE,

mail-id:sandeepreddycse@anurag.ac.in, chejarla.venkatanavi5@gmail.com, mahesh.nallagatla@gmail.com

Anurag Engineering College, Anantagiri(V&M), Suryapet(Dt), Telangana-508206

**Abstract ;** This paper investigates human mobility patterns in an urban taxi transportation system. This work focuses on predicting human mobility from discovering patterns of in the number of passenger pick-ups quantity (PUQ) from urban hotspots. This paper proposes an improved ARIMA based prediction method to forecast the spatial-temporal variation of passengers in a hotspot. Evaluation with a large-scale real-world data set of 4 000 taxis' GPS traces over one year shows a prediction error of only 5.8%. We also explore the application of the prediction approach to help drivers find their next passengers. The simulation results using historical real-world data demonstrate that, with our guidance, drivers can reduce the time taken and distance travelled, to find their next passenger, by 37.1% and 6.4%, respectively.

**Keywords;** urban traffic, GPS traces, hotspots, human mobility prediction, auto-regressive integrated moving average (ARIMA) and wireless networking technologies, a growing number of computing devices and sensors are embedded in our daily environments, and becoming ubiquitous. As a result, much information regarding human mobility, such as location, motion, and behaviors of vehicles, is becoming easily accessible. From these digital footprints, it is feasible for researchers to extract social and community intelligence [1], ranging from urban environment dynamics [2,3] to social events [4,5]. The use of taxis conveys much information about human urban mobility. Their movement traces can be easily obtained from equipped GPS devices. For example, many taxi companies in China are required to install a GPS device in each of their own taxis for administrative purposes. This provides an infrastructure to record the current and historical taxi traces data for predicting urban human mobility.

This paper investigates human mobility patterns in an urban taxi transportation system. We focus on discovering patterns of pick-up quantity (PUQ) for those urban hotspots with

a relatively large number of passengers getting in or out of

## Introduction

Smart city, an emerging worldwide technology, aims to promote sustainable economic development and high quality of life through intelligent management of resources, where understanding human mobility is one of the most important aspects. With the rapid development of embedded systems,

taxis. We propose an adaptive watershed algorithm to cluster hotspots. This algorithm can naturally determine the edges of hotspots according to the variation of PUQ within an urban area. Prediction of urban human mobility can not only help people to experience a comfortable travel, but also help the government to improve the planning of the transportation system in a city. We develop an improved auto-regressive in-

to forecast how many passengers will be in a certain hotspot in the next time interval. We also explore the application of

the prediction approach to helping drivers to find their next passengers.

Section 2 outlines related work. Section 3 describes the data set used in this paper, and introduces our data set preprocessing and hotspot extraction methods. Section 4 presents and evaluates the improved ARIMA based method for predicting human mobility in a hotspot. An application which aims to help taxi drivers find next passengers is proposed and evaluated in Section 5. Finally we conclude the paper in Section 6.

al. [16] discovered anomalous driving patterns from taxi GPS traces, targeting applications such as automatic detection of taxi fraud or road network changes in modern cities.

There also exists work that aims to provide guidance to passengers or taxi drivers to make their life or work more convenient. Phithakkitnukoon et al. [17] focused on predicting the distribution of vacant taxis in the city with a naive Bayesian classifier, which considers several factors, such as weather, day of the week, and time of day, to improve performance. The prediction is performed on a large region par-

tition (1 km × 1 km). Chang et al. [18] predicted taxi de-

**Related work**

Since a large amount of human position data has become accessible, the patterns of human movement have been investigated in recent years. Several approaches used mobile phone traces [6] to analyze human mobility pattern. With the fingerprint of cell-phone, Girardin et al. [7] focused on the pattern of tourists present in a public place. González et al. [8] uncovered the spatial-temporal regularity of human mobility. McNamara et al. [9] analyzed historical collocation information of people in a day and made media sharing more efficient with this information. Most of this work focuses on mining the internal structure of human movement.

Some work explores large scale public transportation data sets for analyzing the urban traffic environment. Froehlich et al. [10] investigated the dynamics of the city of Barcelona from a shared bicycling system. They analyzed the relationship between the behavior patterns and the location of bicycle stations, where four prediction models were used to forecast the number of available bicycles in stations. Based on the same bicycling system, Kaltenbrunner et al. [11] detected temporal and geographic mobility patterns within Barcelona and used an ARMA model to predict the number of bicycles in a station to help improve the spatial deployment of stations. Similar to mobile phone IDs, taxi GPS trajectories convey much useful information. Ziebart et al. [12] built valuable navigation services by reasoning on driver behavior. Yuan et al. [13] provided navigation services by extracting the experience of taxi drivers from historical taxi GPS footprints. Liu et al. [14] revealed the strategy of taxi drivers by comparing the performance of top drivers and normal drivers. Zheng et al. [15] detected flawed urban planning using the GPS trajectories of taxicabs traveling in urban areas. These GPS trajectories can evaluate the effectiveness of urban planning, such as a newly built roads and subway lines in a city, and remind city planners of a problem that had not been previously recognized when they conceive future plans. Zhang et

al. [16] proposed a taxi driver recommendation system in urban environments. First, they filter the historical data set using current contexts, such as location, time, and weather. Then the filtered data are clustered and mapped to road names semantically. However the authors of [18] do not consider the distribution of vacant taxis around the clusters they provide, which influence the real demand. Ge et al. [19] presented a method to recommend a sequence of pick up points or potential parking positions to taxi drivers. By tracking this sequence, taxi drivers pay the least expected cost to find their next passenger. Yuan et al. [20] presented a recommender system, for taxi drivers and passengers wishing to hail a taxi, using the knowledge of passenger mobility patterns and taxi driver pick-up behaviors learned from the GPS trajectories of taxicabs. For a taxi driver, they recommend a parking place using a probability model which maximizes the profit of taxi drivers who takes the recommendation.

For the prediction problem, the work in [10,11,17] is similar to ours. We predict the pick-up/set-down rate of passengers at a hotspot, while [10] and [11] predict the number of bicycles in bicycle stations, and [17] predicts the number of vacant taxis. According to the methods used in [18–20], the immediate historical data cannot be exploited to make a recommendation; however, our recommendation is mainly based on the most immediate historical data. In this way, our method can make a more timely reaction to abnormal changes in taxi and human mobility patterns.

**Data set preprocessing and hotspot extraction**

The taxi GPS trace data set used in this paper is provided by the Hangzhou City Traffic Bureau. Hangzhou, is located in the Southeast of China, and is the capital of Zhejiang Province. It is one of the most famous tourist cities in China. According to the annual report of the Hangzhou government, there were more than 53.24 million tourists visiting Hangzhou from all over the world in 2009. The taxi GPS traces were generated over a period of 385 days (from April 1, 2009 to April 20, 2010) [21]. During this period, the number of taxis with GPS devices installed increased from 4 597 to 7 475, while the total number of taxis in the city remained almost unchanged. The status of GPS enabled taxis is sampled using a sliding window.

Incorrect records would result in a non-smooth trajectory with abnormal movement. Given a trajectory, Function  $f(record_i, record_j)$  is defined as

with a fixed time interval of approximately 60 s. In addition,

$$-1, \text{Velocity}_{i,j} > \text{Threshold}, i \neq j;$$

$$1, \text{Velocity}_{i,j} \leq \text{Threshold}, i \neq j;$$

set contains approximately three billion records. Each record

**Data set preprocessing**

Due to the multipath effect of GPS signal and device faults, the GPS position may sometimes be incorrect. In addition, the METER STATE may also be incorrect due to invalid operations made by a driver. For example, when a taxi driver goes off work, they may keep the taximeter turned on although there is no passenger in the taxi. To clarify the real vacant and occupied trajectories (trajectories with and without passenger, respectively), a data preprocessing step is performed as follows:

**Step 1** Extract the raw taxi trajectories from GPS records.

A shift of METER STATE is taken as a pick-up/set-down event, i.e., a METER STATE change from 0 to 1 suggests a pick-up event, and a shift from 1 to 0 of METER STATE indicates a set-down event. An occupied trajectory is defined as a series of records beginning with a pick-up event and ending with a set-down event, otherwise a vacant trajectory is defined as a series of records from a set-down event to a pick-up event, illustrated in Eq. (1).

where  $Velocity_{i,j} = L_1(Pos_i, Pos_j) / (Time_i - Time_j)$ , and  $L_1(Pos_i, Pos_j)$  is the city block distance. *Threshold* is set to 120 km/h according to urban traffic regulation. Records with velocity greater than the threshold indicate that there is an abnormal movement, therefore they should be removed. We define  $W$  as the abnormal velocity indicator for the  $i$ th record, which is defined as the sum of the neighboring  $f(record_i, record_j)$

$$w_i = \sum_{j=-r}^{j=r} f(record_i, record_j), \quad (3)$$

where  $r$  is the width of the sliding window. If  $w_i < 0$ ,  $record_i$  is abnormal and should be removed. We heuristically set  $r$  to 3.

**Step 3** Filtering taxis with high flipping.

A limited number of taxis may produce a dramatically large number of trajectories in a single day, which indicates that the taximeter flips at an abnormally high frequency. These indicate abnormal taxi operation, likely a fault with the meter. These abnormal traces are removed.

**Step 4** Filtering invalid occupied trajectories.

We filter the occupied trajectories whose duration and average speed is out of a normal range. We analyzed the distribution of the duration and average speed of occupied trajectories. We found that a majority of all valid trajectories fall between 100–5 000s, so we use these as the limits for valid trajectories. Using similar analysis the average speed range is set to be 1.5 m/s to 40 m/s. All the occupied trajectories that do not satisfy these conditions will be considered to be invalid.

Hotspot extraction

Hotspots are urban areas in which pick-up/set-down events occur more frequently. The activities in hotspots can characterize the spatial mobility pattern of the whole city. Our

**Step 2** Filtering incorrect records from a trajectory with a hotspot extraction procedure is as follows:

- 1) 4 000 taxis are randomly sampled for analysis to avoid the influence of variation in the quantity of taxis.
- 2) Pick-up/set-down events are extracted from historical taxi trajectories.
- 3) The map of Hangzhou is divided into blocks of 10 m × 10 m, pick-up and set-down events are tallied in PUQ and SDQ, respectively. The PUQ and SDQ for each block in a specified period are counted and blocks with a PUQ or SDQ greater than a threshold are labeled valid blocks. Adjacent valid blocks are then merged into rough hotspots.
- 4) An adaptive watershed algorithm, described in the next subsection, is employed to split rough hotspots into smaller hotspots. Some regions in an urban area have a relatively high value of PUQ/SDQ. If we set a single threshold for valid blocks, we will probably get very large rough hotspots in these regions. Taking rough hotspots directly as hotspots is not reasonable, because the value of PUQ/SDQ could vary greatly within the rough hotspots, which means they could contain separate hotspots.

Figure 1 shows some hotspots extracted from the area around the West Lake. The gray regions indicate the extracted hotspots. Adjacent hotspots are plotted in different grayscale.



**Fig. 1** Illustration of hotspots extracted from around the West Lake (hotspots are marked in gray). Adjacent hotspots are plotted in different grayscales

### 3.2.1 Adaptive watershed algorithm for hotspot splitting

The watershed algorithm is a traditional image processing technique to segment an image [22]. In image segmentation, a gray-level image is regarded as a topography, the gray level of a pixel indicates its altitude; when flooding this suppositional topography from the bottom, the edge of this image can be sketched by building a barrier to avoid the connection of adjacent basins, since the edges of a gray-level image have the local maximum gray level.

To obtain hotspots from rough hotspots, a rough hotspot with PUQ/SDQ density can be regarded as a topography. Splitting of the rough hotspot is to determine the edges of this suppositional topography. Different from the edges of a gray-level image, the edges in rough hotspots are a set of blocks whose PUQ/SDQ is locally minimal. To avoid over-splitting, we set a minimal radius for a rough hotspot; any rough hotspot whose radius is smaller than the threshold will not be split.

**Algorithm 1:** Adaptive watershed-based hotspot splitting algorithm

**input:**  $B$  is the set of blocks in rough hotspot  $C$

```

1.   $Hotspots \leftarrow \Phi$ ;
2.   $Blocks \leftarrow sort(B.PUQ, descend)$ ;
3.   $Unlabeled \leftarrow B$ ;
4.   $Labeled \leftarrow \Phi$ ;
5.  while  $is\_connected(Unlabeled)$  /*test if blocks in Unlabeled are 8-connected*/
6.       $b \leftarrow min(Unlabeled.PUQ)$ ;
7.       $Labeled.join(b)$ ;
8.       $Unlabeled.remove(b)$ ;
9.   $S \leftarrow subsets(Unlabeled)$ ; /*find out subsets of blocks in which blocks are 8-connected*/
10.  $n \leftarrow Blocks.size$ ;
11. if  $!is\_empty(Labeled)$ 
12.   for  $i = 1$  to  $n$  do
13.     if  $!is\_labeled(Blocks(i))$ 
14.        $neighbors \leftarrow get\_neighbors(Blocks(i) \text{ for all } nei \in neighbors$ 
15.         if  $is\_labeled(nei)$ 
16.            $subset\_index \leftarrow get\_subset\_index$ 
17.              $(subset\_index).join(nei)$ ;
18.            $Labeled.remove(nei)$ ;
19.            $Unlabeled.join(nei)$ ;
20.   for all  $s \in S$ 
21.     if  $s.radius > minimal$ 
22.        $Blocks \leftarrow s$ ;
23.     goto 2;
24.   else

```

- 25.            Hotspots. join(s);
- 26. **Return** Hotspots;

Given a rough hotspot, this hotspot contains a set of connected blocks; Algorithm 1 illustrates the adaptive watershed-based hotspot splitting algorithm.

**Prediction of human mobility for a hotspot**

To measure the temporal spatial human mobility in Hangzhou, a day of 24 hours is uniformly divided into  $D$  timesegments (TS) with a  $D$ -hour length, where  $D$  is called the time segment length. For example, when  $D$  is 3 h, a day is divided into eight time segments; when  $D$  is 20 min, one day is divided into 72 time segments.

In this section, four algorithms are evaluated to predict the PUQ value of hotspots. We use a naive method, Bayesian networks, auto-regressive integrated moving average (ARIMA)[23], and an improved ARIMA. ARIMA is a classical approach for time series analysis, and the improved ARIMA is an improvement over ARIMA by considering the repeated pattern of PUQ in hotspots.

Prediction methods

Naive method

Figure 2 depicts the mean and variance of PUQ and SDQ of two hotspots throughout a day. The relatively low variance indicates that the PUQ of a hotspot has a repetitive pattern with the period of one day. Given a time series of PUQ  $\{PUQ_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, N\}$ , a straightforward way to predict PUQ at a future time segment is to use the PUQ one day before that time segment.

$$P\hat{U}Q_{N+1} = PUQ_{N+1-(24/D)}. \tag{4}$$

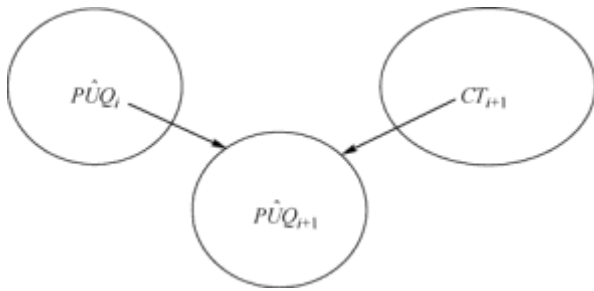
Here,  $D$  is time segment length in hour. For example, suppose that the time segment length is set to 1 h, using the naive method the predicted value of PUQ at the time segment  $n$  is equal to the value of PUQ in the time segment  $n - 24$ , i.e., at that time yesterday.

Bayesian networks

Bayesian networks are widely used to represent the relationships between random variables. They can be used for predictions in time series analysis [10]. Given a time series of PUQ  $\{P\hat{U}Q_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, N\}$ ,  $PUQ_{i+1}$  can be forecasted by the single layer Bayesian networks model in Fig. 3, in which  $CT_{i+1} = (i + 1) \bmod (24/D)$  is the index of time segment  $i+1$  in a day.

Original ARIMA based prediction

ARIMA is widely used in time series analysis [23]. It is an integrated generalization of the auto-



**Fig. 3** Bayesian networks for prediction of PUQ

the prediction of  $P\hat{U}Q_N$ . The ARIMA algorithm [23] described as below:

$$\varphi(B)\nabla^d P\hat{U}Q_i = \theta(B)\alpha_i, \quad (5)$$

where  $B$  is the lag operator,  $\varphi(B)$  is the auto-regressive process,  $\nabla^d$  is the differencing operator,  $\theta(B)$  is moving average

where  $P\hat{U}Q_{d,t+1}$  is the predicted value of  $PUQ_{d,t+1}$ ,  $\hat{q}_{d,t+1}$  is the predicted value of  $q_{d,t+1}$ , and  $CDF_t^{-1}(x)$  is the inverse function of  $CDF_t(x)$ .

The number of pick-ups in a hotspot  $H$  is influenced by many factors, such as the social function of the area surrounding  $H$ , time of day, weather conditions, weekday or holiday, and special events. We can roughly group these factors into two categories: major factors and secondary factors. Major factors are the social functions around  $H$  and the time of day, secondary factors are all the other factors, some of which can-not be observed.

$$PUQ_{d,t} = f_m(L, t) + f_s(V), \quad (10)$$

where  $L$  is the social functions around  $H$ ,  $t$  is the time of day, and  $V$  is the vector of secondary factors.  $f_m(L, t)$  is a periodic process, and  $\alpha_i$  is a random walk process [23]. Eq. (5) de-

scribes the relation between future and historical values of  $P\hat{U}Q_i$ . According to Eq. (5), the predicted value  $P\hat{U}Q_N$  can be obtained from historical values of  $PUQ_N$ .

Our improved ARIMA based method

Considering the periodicity of the number of pick-up events at a hotspot,  $PUQ_i$  is denoted as

$$PUQ_{d,b} \quad d = 1, 2, \dots, n; \quad t = 1, 2, \dots, m, \quad (6)$$

$$i = (d - 1) \times n + t, \quad (7)$$

where  $d$  is the index of the day,  $t$  is the index of time segment in a day. The problem is to forecast the value of  $PUQ_{n,t+1}$ . The prediction of ARIMA is based on the value of PUQ in the nearest past few time segments. Notice the periodicity of PUQ/SDQ illustrated in Section 4, we improve ARIMA by considering not only the nearest historical data but also the periodicity of PUQ/SDQ. The improved ARIMA method is described as follows:

- For each time segment  $t$ , the cumulative distribution function (CDF) is extracted by non-parametric estimation from the past  $n - 1$  days. And the value of the CDF at  $PUQ_{d,t}$  is calculated.

$$q_{d,t} = CDF_t(PUQ_{d,t}) = P(X_t < PUQ_{d,t}), \quad (8)$$

where  $CDF_t(x)$  is the CDF of PUQ in time segment  $t$  over the past  $n - 1$  days.

- Forecast the value of  $q_{n,t+1}$  with the original ARIMA.
- Obtain the predicted value of  $PUQ_{n,t+1}$  from  $q_{n,t+1}$  with  $CDF_t^{-1}(x)$

$$P\hat{U}Q_{d,t+1} = CDF_t^{-1}(\hat{q}_{d,t+1}), \tag{9}$$

function, and the time period is 24 hours. In Step 1,

$$q_{d,t} = CDF_t(PUQ_{d,t}) = P(X_t < PUQ_{d,t})$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= P(X_t < f_m(L, t) + f_s(\mathbf{V})) \\ &= P(X_t - f_m(L, t) < f_s(\mathbf{V})) \\ &= P(X_t^J < f_s(\mathbf{V})), \end{aligned} \tag{11}$$

where  $X_t^J = X_t - f_m(L, t)$ ,  $X_t$  is the random number of pick-ups in time segment  $t$  of a day. Due to the periodicity of  $f_m(L, t)$ , with regard to a specific time segment  $t$ ,  $f_m(L, t)$  is a constant, so  $X_t^J$  is a random variable of  $f_s(\mathbf{V})$ , which means  $q_{d,t}$  is a function of  $\mathbf{V}$  and can be denoted as

$$q_{d,t} = \varphi(\mathbf{V}). \tag{12}$$

Equation (12) illustrates that  $q_{d,t}$  measures the effect of  $\mathbf{V}$  separate from the influence of time segment and social functions of  $H$ .

Evaluation

Evaluation methodology

We selected 100 extracted hotspots with high PUQ for prediction evaluation. Two error measurements are employed to evaluate the prediction accuracy.

(1) Symmetric mean absolute percentage error (*sMAPE*) [24], which is defined as

$$sMAPE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{PUQ_i - P\hat{U}Q_i}{PUQ_i + P\hat{U}Q_i}$$

We set the training set size of the Bayesian network to be 350 days, the training length of the ARIMA and our improved ARIMA methods to be 4, 7, and 14 days, the time segment length to be 1, 2, 3, 6, 12, and 24 hours.

Performance comparison

Figure 4 compares the performance of the four methods using two error measures, *sMAPE* and *NMAE*. Our improved ARIMA achieves the best performance of the four methods both in *sMAPE* and *NMAE*. The prediction of ARIMA is based on the PUQ value of recent historical data, while the improved ARIMA based prediction method considers not only the recent historical data but also the PUQ periodicity. Due to the obvious periodicity of PUQ, the naive method also achieves good performance especially when the time segment is long. A shorter time segment usually leads to a more random value of PUQ. As a result, when the length of time segment increases, PUQ suggests a more regular periodicity, which gives the naive method a good performance. The poor performance of Bayesian networks partially results from its simple structure. However, if we consider more factors in

An application: helping taxi drivers find next passengers

It is important for taxi drivers to find their next passenger as soon as possible, since they can make more money in less time using less fuel. Skilled taxi drivers know roughly where and when there will likely be passengers nearby, since they are familiar with the mobility pattern of passengers in an

urban area. However, inexperienced drivers do not have such knowledge. Our prediction approach can be exploited to help taxi drivers to find their next passengers more effectively by predicting the PUQ of those hotspots near the current taxi position. In our application, we use a waiting strategy: driving to the suggested hotspot and waiting there to pick-up passengers. Skilled drivers can also benefit from our approach, because the mobility pattern is dynamic and varies over time.

**Problem definition**

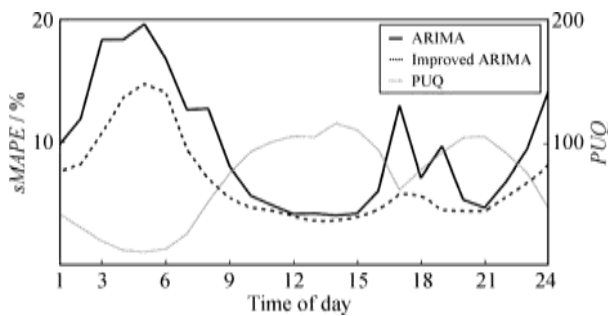
Assume that  $\{h_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, m\}$  is a set of hotspots,  $\{p_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, m\}$  is the position of  $h_i$ ,  $\{P\hat{U}Q_{t,i}, i = 1, 2, \dots, m\}$  is the predicted value of PUQ in  $h_i$  in time segment  $t$ . Given a

speed from the block containing  $P$  to the block containing  $h_i$ ; if there are no historical trajectories from one block to another, the speed is replaced with the average speed between the nearest blocks.

- Compute waiting time

There are two main factors influencing the expected waiting time; they are the PUQ and the length of the waiting queue of vacant taxis in the hotspot. Since we assume that taxis join a FIFO queue at a new hotspot, the customer will take the first taxi in the queue. According to the assumptions both taxis and passengers arrive subject to a negative exponential distribution.

Given a hotspot  $h_i$  and time segment  $t$ , suppose that context  $(t_0, P)$ , where the current time  $t_0$  is in time segment  $t$ , and  $P$  is a position, which means that a taxi to the result of guiding taxis with the predicted result of ARIMA, the result with improved ARIMA achieves clear improvement in the small hours. The main reason is that improved ARIMA outperforms original ARIMA in small hours in predicting PUQ in hotspots (see Fig. 7).



**Fig. 7** Variation of *sMAPE* prediction error over a day

**Conclusions**

This paper addresses the prediction and application of human mobility using large-scale taxi GPS traces. An adaptive watershed-based hotspot extraction algorithm is proposed to cluster the pick-up/set-down events of taxi passengers. Four prediction methods, naive method, Bayesian networks, ARIMA, and our improved ARIMA, are used to predict the pick-up quantity of taxi passengers for hotspots. The improved ARIMA combines ARIMA with a prior distribution of pick-up values, and achieves better prediction accuracy than the other three methods.

Based on the prediction method, an application of helping taxi drivers find the next passenger is presented and evaluated. The evaluation using historical taxi GPS traces suggests that the time cost for finding passengers can be decreased by 37.1% and the length of vacant driving distance decreased by 6.4%. Actually, the prediction of hotspot passengers is not only helpful for drivers, but also for traffic police, passengers, and even urban planning. Our future work plans to consider the possibility of picking up passengers on the way to the suggested hotspot.

**References**

Ratti C, Pulselli R M, Williams S, Frenchman D. Mobile Landscapes: using location data from cell phones for urban analysis. *Environment and Planning B: Planning and Design*, 2006, 33(5): 727–748

Zhu H, Zhu Y, Li M, Ni L. SEER: metropolitan-scale traffic perception based on lossy sensory data. In: *Proceedings of the 28th Conference on Computer Communications*. 2009, 217–225

Calabrese F, Pereira F C, Lorenzo G D, Liu L, Ratti C. The geography of taste: analyzing cell-phone mobility and social. In: *Proceedings of the 8th International Conference on Pervasive Computing*. 2010, 22–37

Girardin F, Blat J, Calabrese F, Fiore F, Ratti C. Digital Footprinting: uncovering tourists with user-generated content. *IEEE Pervasive Computing*, 2008, 7(4): 36–43



- Ahas R, Aasa A, Silm S, Tiru M. Mobile positioning data in tourism studies and monitoring: case study in Tartu, Estonia. In: Proceedings of International Conference on Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism. 2007, 119–128
- Girardin F, Vaccari A, Gerber A, Biderman A, Ratti C. Quantifying urban attractiveness from the distribution and density of digital foot-prints. *International Journal of Spatial Data Infrastructures Research*, 2009, 4: 175–200
- González M, Hidalgo C, Barabasi A. Understanding individual human mobility patterns. *Nature*, 2008, 453: 779–782
- McNamara L, Mascolo C, Capra L. Media sharing based on location prediction in urban transport. In: Proceedings of the 14th ACM Annual International Conference on Mobile Computing and Networking. 2008, 58–69
- Froehlich J, Neumann J, Oliver N. Sensing and predicting the pulse of the city through shared bicycling. In: Proceedings of the 21st International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence. 2009, 1420–1426
- Kaltenbrunner A, Meza R, Grivolla J, Codina J, Banchs R. Urban cycles and mobility patterns: exploring and predicting trends in a bicycle-based public transport system. *Pervasive and Mobile Computing*, 2010, 6(4): 455–466
- Ziebart B, Maas A, Dey A, Bagnell J. Navigate like a cabbie: probabilistic reasoning from observed context-aware behavior. In: Proceedings of the 10th ACM International Conference on Ubiquitous Computing. 2008, 322–331
- Yuan J, Zheng Y, Zhang C, Xie W, Xie X, Sun G, Huang Y. T-Drive: driving directions based on taxi trajectories. In: Proceedings of the 18th ACM International Conference on Advances in Geographic Information Systems. 2010, 99–108
- Liu L, Andris C, Ratti C. Uncovering cabdrivers' behavior patterns from their digital traces. *Computers, Environment and Urban Systems*, 2010, 34(6): 541–548
- Zheng Y, Liu Y, Yuan J, Xie X. Urban computing with taxicabs. In: Proceedings of the 13th ACM International Conference on Ubiquitous Computing. 2011, 89–98
- Zhang D, Li N, Zhou Z, Chen C, Sun L, Li S. iBAT: detecting anomalous taxi trajectories from GPS traces. In: Proceedings of the 13th ACM International Conference on Ubiquitous Computing. 2011, 99–108
- Phithakkitnukoon S, Veloso M, Bento C, Biderman A, Ratti C. Taxi-Aware Map: identifying and predicting vacant taxis in the city. In: Proceedings of the 1st International Joint Conference on Ambient Intelligence. 2010, 86–95
18. Chang H W, Tai Y C, Hsu Y J. Context-aware taxi demand hotspots
1. Zhang D, Guo B, Yu Z. The emergence of social and community intelligence. *Computer*, 2011, 44(7): 21–28
- prediction. *International Journal of Business Intelligence and Data Mining*, 2010, 5(1): 3–18
- Ge Y, Xiong H, Tuzhilin A, Xiao K, Gruteser M. An energy-efficient mobile recommender system. In: Proceedings of the 16th ACM International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining. 2010, 899–908
- Yuan J, Zheng Y, Zhang L, Xie X, Sun G. Where to find my next passenger? In: Proceedings of the 13th ACM International Conference on Ubiquitous Computing. 2011, 109–118
- Qi G, Li X, Li S, Pan G, Zhang D. Measuring social functions of city regions from large-scale taxi behaviors. In: Proceedings of the 9th IEEE International Conference on Pervasive Computing and Communications, WiP. 2011, 384–388
- Beucher S, Lantuejoul C. Use of watersheds in contour detection. In: Proceedings of the International Workshop on Image Processing: Real-time Edge and Motion Detection/Estimation. 1979
- Box G, Jenkins G, Reinsel G. *Time Series Analysis: Forecasting and Control*. 4th ed. Hoboken: John Wiley & Sons, 2008
- Makridakis S, Hibon M. The M3-Competition: results, conclusions and implications. *International Journal of Forecasting*, 2000, 16(4): 451–476
- Cooper R. *Introduction to Queueing Theory*. New York: Macmillan, 1972