1 COUNT MULTIVARIATE METRICS: ESTIMATE MODE COUNT AND DISTANCE 2 UNCERTAINTY FROM PHONE SENSORS

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1 ABSTRACT

2 To be informative, travel behavior metrics need to have not only measured values, but also the 3 uncertainty of these values. Smartphone-based travel studies can use phone sensors and manual 4 user labeling to collect trip data, but both of these are susceptible to error.

5 This work investigates a method for estimating two metrics– the count of trips taken per 6 transportation mode and the distance travelled per mode– and uses variance as a range of uncer-7 tainty for those estimates, with the goal that the uncertainty range should capture the actual value 8 from the estimated values. Given a set of phone-based mode predictions and a column-normalized 9 confusion matrix probabilities from an existing mode inference model, we use the closed form 10 solutions for mean and variance of a multinomial distribution to determine the estimated values 11 per mode and their corresponding variances.

We tested this method on three different real world datasets which used phone-sensed data 12 to predict trip modes and prompted users label trip modes, and found that our method works when 13 probability distribution of predicted trips in the computation dataset and the evaluation dataset are 14 very similar. If these distributions are too dissimilar, the range of uncertainty fails to capture actual 15 values. Future work could involve using prior mode distributions to adjust these probabilities to be 16 more similar, or applying a similar method to other metrics. This implies that, in the presence of a 17 similar, labeled dataset, automated sensing outputs can be fully characterized, and can be used in 18 complex decision making. 19 20 *Keywords*: Statistics, Uncertainty, Smartphone App, Travel Survey Methods AEP25 21

1 INTRODUCTION

2 Travel behavior data can inform decision making on many levels, from personal lifestyle choices
3 to large-scale infrastructure and transportation planning. In the past, travel behavior has been
4 collected through telephone surveys (1), vehicle GPS surveys (2), and web-based surveys (3).

5 Because of their location tracking capabilities, smartphones can create travel diaries. Travel 6 diaries document travel behavior as a set of trips between locations. Smartphones, however, are 7 unable to directly collect information such as the modes of transportation used on a particular trip. 8 As a result, many travel diary studies rely on participants to label trip modes, which is prone to 9 incorrect or completely missing mode labels. To make up for this, travel modes can be inferred 10 using smartphone-based data, but these inferred modes carry some associated uncertainty.

de Jong et al. (4) describe the risks that come with overlooking uncertainty margins around a prediction. A decision could be predicted to be very successful, but that prediction could have a large amount of uncertainty, making the decision based on it more risky. Both a range of possible outcomes and the probabilities for those outcomes are needed to properly inform transportation infrastructure projects. The range of outcomes should capture the true value.

16 This work proposes a process for estimating mode counts– the number of trips taken in 17 each mode of transportation– and the distance travelled per mode, from a set of phone-sensed 18 predictions, as well as the associated uncertainty of each measure, such that the actual values per 19 mode fall within the range of uncertainty from the expected values. This process uses multinomial 20 distributions to represent the spread of ground truth modes for each sensed mode. The closed form 21 solution for the mean of a multinomial is used to find the expected values, and the closed form 22 solution for the variance is used to find the uncertain range.

We validate that multinomial distributions can indeed be used to characterize trip mode data, and discuss the effectiveness of our process, including the conditions required to get accurate resulting estimates and uncertainties. We then apply our methods to three different real-world datasets. We used open-source travel diary creation algorithms from the OpenPATH platform to generate these datasets, but our method works with any set of algorithms, regardless of classification methods.

- 29 The main contributions of this paper are:
- developing a novel method to estimate the uncertainty of mode and distance counts
 given the output of a travel diary creation algorithm and a confusion matrix representing
 the quality of the algorithm,
- 3333 2. demonstrating that these can be computed efficiently using closed form solutions for34 multinomial distributions, and
- 35 3. evaluating on three different real world datasets.
- 36 The rest of the paper is structured as follows: the next section reviews related work (Sec-

tion 3), and the following section outlines and validates our proposed method(Section 4). Then we

- describe our process for applying our methods to three datasets and discuss the results (Section 5).
- 39 Finally, we present our conclusions and suggest future work (Section 6).

40 RELATED WORK

41 Travel diary platforms

42 There is well-established literature and several implementations for travel diary data collection

- 43 using smartphones.
- 44 However, we are not aware of prior work that has considered all the components required

1 for fully characterizing travel behavior metrics in complex situations: (i) a data collection platform,

2 (ii) automated mode inference, (iii) rigorous evaluation, and (iv) incorporating the results of that3 evaluation into the metrics calculations.

4 There has been substantial work done in automated mode detection of uni-modal trip sec-

- 5 tions using machine learning. For example, researchers have used decision trees (5) (6), Hidden
- 6 Markov Models (7) (8), and neural networks (9) (10) for uni-modal mode detection, but most of

7 them have not been incorporated into full-scale platforms.

8 Data collection platforms such as the open-source Itinerum (11), ohmage (12), the Statis-9 tics Netherlands TABI application (13), automated mode inference and rely on users to provide 10 trip mode information. Proprietary platforms such as FMS (14) and rMove (15) are less well-

11 documented, so we have not been able to find evidence of automated mode inference, or error

12 characteristics of post-processing algorithms in general.

Some open-source platforms that have implemented automated mode detection have evaluated their algorithms rigorously (e.g. MEILI (*16*)) but focused on their accuracy and F-score, and have also focused on data collection without computing downstream metrics.

Finally, projects that have computed metrics from automated mode inferences have not characterised their accuracy (e.g. MatkaHupi (*17*), Peacox (*18*)) or have been rigorously evaluated but do not consider the implications to downstream metrics (e.g. MotionTag (*19*)).

19 Statistics and uncertainty

Work has been done to understand uncertainty and uncertainty propagation in travel demand models (20) which found that uncertainty compounds over the stages of a travel demand model, and that in general, the predictions made by travel demand models are highly uncertain. Lemp et. al (21) found that predictions made by traffic forecasts are also highly uncertain and stresses that uncertainty in transportation-related metrics be considered by transportation planners and policy makers.

Most measures of uncertainty for confusion matrices are based on metrics such as accuracy, precision, recall, and F-score (22), and multi-class evaluation metrics include balanced accuracy, Matthew's correlation coefficient, and Cohen's Kappa, described by Grandini et al. (23). Darling (24) discusses the sources of uncertainty in classifiers and their estimates of the probability that a sample belongs in a certain class.

Braga-Neto (25) describes how to quantify error for classifiers. There, the expected error is the probability of the predicted class and ground truth class being different. This work uses probabilities from column-normalized confusion matrices, meaning that ground truth classes were conditioned on predicted classes.

Caelen (26), Tötsch and Hoffman (27), and Barranco-Chamorro (28) take a Bayesian approach to the confusion matrix, and use Dirichlet or Beta distributions on each cell of a confusion matrix, allowing for uncertainty in the confusion matrix itself. In particular, Caelen demonstrates how multinomial distributions can be used to describe confusion matrices. We take that concept and apply it in this work.

Previous work by Allen and Shankari (29) characterized the uncertainty of smartphonesensed, travel-based metrics. There, the uncertainties from mode and trip length were used to characterize the uncertainty of energy consumption estimates. Research by Kosmacher and Shankari (*30*) also evaluated the accuracy of trip length computations and mode inference.

1 METHODS

2 The goal of this work is to provide expected values for a particular measure, and a range of un-

3 certainty such that the actual values for that measure typically fall within the range of uncertainty4 from the expected value.

5 We start by showing that the problem is an instance of the multinomial distribution and

6 illustrate how the related closed form solutions can be used to compute the values. We then verify

7 that the spread of predicted values for each mode can be treated as a multinomial through compu-

8 tation of the probabilities of certain outcomes. Finally, we determine that using variance, rather

9 than standard deviation, as our uncertain range captures the actual measures more reliably.

10 Using multinomial distributions to estimate mode-specific uncertainty

11 Intuitively, to compute the true count for a mode m given a set of predicted modes and the proba-

12 bility of misprediction, we need to sum the estimated count from: (i) trips with predicted mode m

13 that were predicted correctly, and (ii) the count from trips with predicted mode $\neq m$ that were the

14 result of mispredictions (Figure 1) The mispredictions from trips predicted as m will contribute to

15 the true counts of other modes.

16 Considering a set of trips with a predicted mode *m*, if we conceptually think of "flipping 17 them over" to find the true mode, the result should correspond to the column corresponding to *m* 18 in the confusion matrix ($P_m(true|pred)$). Thus, the problem of determining true counts maps well 19 to the multinomial distribution.

20 Concretely, we meet all the criteria for a multinomial distribution:

- 1. *k* discrete categories these are the set of potential modes,
- 22 2. fixed probability for each category this is the $P_m(true|pred)$ from the confusion matrix 23 column for *m*, and
- 3. independent trials mode inference algorithms typically work at the trip level, so the
 probability of a trip using mode *m* doesn't depend on any other trips.

Once we have computed the set of true counts for each predicted mode, we can sum them mode-wise to obtain the final true counts (Figure 1).

Formally, for a given confusion matrix, say that θ_p is the vector of column-normalized probabilities for predicted mode p. θ_{tp} then is P(actual = t | predicted = p). N_{tp} is the value of the cell where actual mode = t and predicted mode = p, and n_p is the predicted value for mode p. The closed form solution for mean and variance can then be used to say that for each N_{tp} :

$$E[N_{tp}] = n_i \theta_{tp} \tag{1}$$

and

$$Var[N_{tp}] = n_i \theta_{tp} (1 - \theta_{tp})$$
⁽²⁾

Then, the actual value for mode *j* can be estimated by adding $E[N_{tp}]$ for all predicted modes *p*, and the variance is the sum of $Var[N_{tp}]$ for all predicted modes *p*:

$$E[N_t] = \sum_{p=1}^m E[N_{tp}] = \sum_{p=1}^m n_p \theta_{tp} = \sum_{p=1}^m n_p P(actual = t | predicted = p)$$
(3)

$$Var[N_t] = \sum_{i=1}^m Var[N_t p] = \sum_{p=1}^m n_p \theta_{tp} (1 - \theta_{tp})$$

$$\tag{4}$$

 $= n_p P(actual = t | predict = p)(1 - P(actual = t | predict = p))$

32 Given the high quality confusion matrix probabilities shown in Table 2 and the correspond-



FIGURE 1 Worked example, using mode counts, of the method for computing the expected value (top) and variance (bottom) given: (i) predicted mode counts and (ii) P(true|pred) for each mode. For each mode, we use the probabilities to determine the distribution of true counts given predicted counts. Then we add up the true counts from each predicted mode to get the total true count. For variances, we use a similar method in which we sum up the variances from each predicted mode.

- 1 ing predictions shown in Table 3, the expected count per mode and variance per mode is found per
- 2 the steps in Figure 1.
- 3 1. We determine θ_p for each mode
- 4 2. We find $E[N_{tp}]$ and $Var[N_{tp}]$ for all predicted modes p using Equation 1 and Equation 2
- 5 3. We re-group $E[N_{tp}]$ and $Var[N_{tp}]$ by the true mode *t*.
- 6 4. We find $E[N_t]$ and $Var[N_t]$ by summing all $E[N_{tp}]$ for a true mode t.
- 7 5. **Example:** $E[N_{bike}] = 4521.2 + 81.8 + 123.2 = 4726.443.$
- 8 6. **Example:** $Var[N_{bike}] = 440.2 + 78.5 + 118.2 = 636.9$
- 9 Since multinomial distributions work for discrete values, we converted our distance data 10 from meters to the nearest kilometer, so that the inputs are integers usable with multinomial distri-
- 11 butions. Then the same process as outlined in Section 4.1 is used.

12 Verifying multinomial characteristics of data

- To justify using the closed form solutions for the mean and variance of a multinomial distribution,we verify that our data can be represented by multinomial distributions.
- Given that five trips were predicted as bike, three trips were predicted as walk, and two trips were predicted as car, and using an arbitrary count-based, column-normalized confusion matrix, we manually calculated the probability of three cases:
- 18 1. There were no trips with a ground truth mode of bike
- 19 2. There was one trip with a ground truth mode of bike
- 20 3. There were ten trips with a ground truth mode of bike
- Using the same set of probabilities and predictions, we then found the probability of each of the three cases occurring using multinomial distributions. One multinomial distribution was made for each predicted mode, according to the corresponding column of probabilities. Using the probability mass functions of the respective multinomial distributions, we found the probabilities for all possible instances that would fulfill each case requirement. We then added these probabilities up for each case.

The probabilities calculated manually and the probabilities calculated using multinomial distributions matched, indicating that our data could indeed be represented by multinomial distributions.

30 Effects of probability on using standard deviation as an uncertain range

- 31 Say that we have two multinomials, each with a different probability distribution, which we refer
- to as PD_1 and PD_2 . In the example below, probability distributions are a set of three probabilities that describe the likelihood of a trial falling into each of three categories, which we generally refer to as category *A*, category *B*, and category *C*.
- Even if PD_2 is fairly close to PD_1 , the difference between the expected values generated from PD_1 and PD_2 falls outside the range of one standard deviation of the data generated from PD_1 if PD_1 and PD_2 are not extremely similar. Table 1 shows an example of the difference in expected values for category A, Diff(A), and the corresponding SD_1 for category A as the difference between PD_1 and PD_2 increase. In this case, 10000 random variables were sampled from two multinomial distributions characterized by PD_1 and PD_2 , with 1000 trials.
- 41 PD_1 is kept constant, at [0.8, 0.05, 0.15]. PD_2 is varied from PD_1 by a difference of 0.01, 42 0.025, 0.05, 0.075, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, and 0.4. The difference between expected values begins to fall 43 outside of one standard deviation of PD_1 at a difference between probabilities of 0.025. It begins

PD_2	Diff(A)	$SD_1(A)$	$Var_1(A)$
[0.8, 0.05, 0.15]	0.0352	12.790718	163.602475
[0.79, 0.05, 0.16]	9.9293	12.607993	158.961494
[0.775, 0.05, 0.175]	25.1165	12.702414	161.351324
[0.75, 0.05, 0.2]	49.6176	12.593497	158.596171
[0.725, 0.05, 0.225]	75.0212	12.742726	162.377065
[0.7, 0.05, 0.25]	99.7538	12.721244	161.830042
[0.6, 0.05, 0.35]	199.9392	12.590705	158.525852
[0.5, 0.05, 0.45]	300.0050	12.658316	160.232969
[0.4, 0.05, 0.55]	399.6070	12.636061	159.670036

1 to fall outside of the range of one variance at a difference between probabilities of 0.2.

TABLE 1 Difference between expected values of multinomials for the specified and their corresponding standard deviations and variances probabilities

2 This means that if we have two datasets that are extremely similar, or even if we are using 3 two halves of the same dataset, it is unlikely that the actual value is captured within one standard

4 deviation from the expected value. Additionally, if probability distributions vary too greatly, the

5 variance will also fail to capture the actual value.

6 Variance as a more appropriate measure of uncertainty

7 Since one standard deviation fails to capture the difference in expected means even when probabil-

8 ity distributions are extremely similar, in an ideal case the actual measures still fail to be captured

9 within the range of one standard deviation. To demonstrate this, we use a confusion matrix for

10 a high quality classifier (Table 2) and mode count predictions based on the predicted mode dis-

11 tribution from that high quality confusion matrix (Table 3). Evidently, even in the most optimal

12 scenario, it is possible to have expected values that are over 3 standard deviations from the actual

13 values, even though the percent relative errors between the two never exceed 3% (top of Table 4).

	Bike	Walk	Car			Bike	Walk	Car
Bike	0.902632	0.041041	0.041150		Bike	0.800908	0.108108	0.107698
Walk	0.047571	0.910410	0.048334		Walk	0.052092	0.206880	0.748015
Car	0.049798	0.048549	0.910516		Car	0.147001	0.685012	0.144287

TABLE 2 High quality confusion matrix probabilities (left) and lower quality confusion matrix probabilities (right) where rows represent ground truths and columns represent predictions

	Bike	Walk	Car		Bike	Walk	Car
Predicted count	5009	1995	2996	Predicted count	4982	2018	3000

 TABLE 3 Predicted counts used with high quality confusion matrix (left) and with lower quality confusion matrix (right)

		Actual	Expected	SD from	Difference	Relative	Variance
		Value	Value	actual		pct error	
	Bike	4762	4726.443	-1.408	-35.557	-0.746	636.958
ligh ali ⁻ CM	Walk	2243	2199.361	-1.900	-43.639	-1.945	527.476
H nb	Car	2995	3074.196	3.307	79.196	2.644	573.271
er ty	Bike	4733	4531.376	-5.641	-201.623	-4.260	1277.276
owe Ialii CM	Walk	2179	2921.048	21.952	742.049	34.055	1142.581
ou Du	Car	3088	2547.574	-14.288	-540.426	-17.501	1430.530

TABLE 4 Results from using the high quality confusion matrix and predictions (top) and lower quality confusion matrix and predictions (bottom)

In the case where a lower quality confusion matrix is used and the predictions are based on 1 a different distribution than specified by the lower quality confusion matrix, the range of multiple 2 standard deviations is inadequate to capture the actual measure. If we vary the probabilities used 3 to find expected values, the actual values can be over even twenty standard deviations away from 4 the expected values. Using a range of multiple standard deviations also fails to be effective, as it 5 changes case-by-case. For example, after looking at the results using the high quality confusion 6 matrix (top of Table 4), the range might be set at four or five standard deviations. However, looking 7 at the results with the lower quality confusion matrix (bottom of Table 4), it appears that a more 8 appropriate range is somewhere over twenty one standard deviations. Variance as our uncertain 9 range, on the other hand, captures the actual values more reliably, even though the relative percent 10

11 error is much higher than when using the high quality confusion matrix.

12 EVALUATION AND RESULTS

13 Data used

14 Three different datasets are used in this work, referred to as MobilityNet, All_CEO, and Durham.

- 15 1. MobilityNet is a publicly available dataset of artificial trips that were created by 16 traversing predefined travel routes using predetermined modes of travel (*31*). MobilityNet 17 has distance data available that we use to make distance estimates per mode, but not
- 18 enough trips to use for mode counts.
- All_CEO is a dataset of trips that covers 1.5 years of the Colorado Energy Office's
 CanBikeCO programs in six locations across Colorado, which provided e-bikes to low
 income participants (32), and
- 22 3. Durham is a set of trips from a similar program from Durham, North Carolina.

23 Since most current travel diary creation are closed source, we used the open source travel diary

24 creation algorithms from the OpenPATH platform to predict the sensed modes in these datasets.

25 The algorithms were developed before MobilityNet, All_CEO, or Durham datasets were gener-

26 ated using an independent dataset. Note, however, the methods outlined here are independent of

27 the travel diary creation algorithm used.

28 Assumptions

29 To apply our methods to a particular dataset, we:

- process our data so that user-provided ground truth modes map to sensed modes (Table
- 5). Ground truth modes that did not map to sensed modes– such as Scooter share and

- Skateboard-were removed. 2 • assume that mode predictions are independent of each other, which allows us to combine variances per mode by addition.
- 3 4

1

• assume entries of the column-normalized confusion matrix represent P(actual | predicted)

sensed mode	All_CEO and Durham	MobilityNet
bicycling	Bikeshare, Pilot ebike, Regular Bike	BICYCLING, E_BIKE
bus	Bus, Free Shuttle	BUS
car	Gas Car, drove alone, Gas Car, with	CAR
	others, Taxi/Uber/Lyft, E-car, drove	
	alone, E-car, with others	
train	Train	TRAIN, LIGHT_RAIL
walking	Walk	WALKING

TABLE 5 Mode mappings to sensed modes for All_CEO, Durham, and MobilityNet.

5 Metrics and goals

- 6 Now we want to validate whether our method (Section 4.1) provides a range of uncertainty that
- 7 capture actual values for these real-world datasets. We use the variance (Section 4.4) as our bounds.
- This means that for each mode, the actual value should be within one variance of the expected 8
- value. 9

10 Evaluation procedure

11 The ground truth mode for a trip is the primary mode of a trip; that is, the user-provided mode used 12 to travel the farthest during that trip. Before count or distance confusion matrices are constructed

13 for any dataset, we determine the primary mode for each trip and use it as the ground truth mode.

We refer to the dataset used to create confusion matrices for our calculations as the computation 14

- dataset. The dataset that we obtain our mode predictions from is referred to as the evaluation 15 16 dataset.
- 17 We use three different methods- evaluating against MobilityNet, self-validation, and cross validation (Figure 2). When evaluating against MobilityNet, we use MobilityNet's ar-18 tificial trips as our computation dataset and a dataset that uses real trips, such as All_CEO or 19 Durham, as our evaluation dataset. When doing self-validation, we shuffle and split one dataset 20 21 of real trips into two halves, using one as our computation dataset and the other as our evaulation dataset. Finally, when doing cross-validation, we use two different datasets with real trip data, such 22 23 as All_CEO or Durham, with one as the computation dataset and the other as the evaluation dataset. For readability, plots are split between modes with high counts or distances and modes 24

with low counts or distances, and scaled appropriately. This is because some modes were used 25 more frequently than others; for example, there were 40606 ground truth car trips in the All_CEO 26

dataset, but only 169 ground truth train trips. 27

28 Results and Discussion

We started with the MobilityNet distance confusion matrix since it was created from artificial 29

- trips and was not dependent on the travel patterns in any particular region (Figure 3). However, the 30
- 31 actual and expected values differ significantly in each of the All_CEO and Durham datasets. More
- seriously, given our metrics, none of the actual values are captured by the uncertainty ranges. 32



FIGURE 2 The process used for each method.



Mode

FIGURE 3 Results of estimating distances when using a confusion matrix from MobilityNet and predictions from All_CEO (top) and Durham (bottom)

All_CEO and Durham have more similar confusion matrix probabilities for distances, while 1 MobilityNet has a markedly different distribution of probabilities for each sensed mode. For 2 3 example, for the probabilities in the predicted walk column (Figure 4), the largest probabilities for All_CEO and Durham are for ground truth modes bicycling and car. For the predicted walk column 4 of MobilityNet, bicycling and car ground truth modes have the lowest probabilities. Three out 5 of the five MobilityNet predicted walk probabilities also exceed the corresponding All_CEO and 6 Durham probabilities by 0.2 or more. As a result, variance calculated from MobilityNet does not 7 capture actual values (Section 4.3). 8



Confusion matrix probabilities used for distances

FIGURE 4 Confusion matrix probabilities used for distances for All_CEO (left), Durham (middle), and MobilityNet (right)

9 Given that the MobilityNet results did not match our expectations, we experimented with 10 using labeled, real-world data collection instead. These real-world datasets do not have high quality 11 ground truth, and do not account for segmentation error, but they are larger and may provide more 12 realistic error estimates.

We experimented with two options, self-validation through splitting a single dataset into two parts, and cross-validation through using datasets from two different geographic locations (Figure 2). Self-validation gives us a reference for results in an ideal case, since the confusion matrix probabilities used are extremely close to the probabilities that describe the data used for predictions. Cross-validation allows us to see how our method performs in a realistic scenario, where the confusion matrix is from a different program than the predictions.

These results (Figure 5) are much better, since the actual distances per mode all fall within the range of uncertainty from the expected distances. The proportion and size of the uncertain ranges per mode are also fairly consistent across results.



FIGURE 5 Results of estimating distances with confusion matrices from user-labeled trips: All_CEO confusion matrix to All_CEO predictions (top), All_CEO confusion matrix to Durham predictions (middle), Durham confusion matrix to All_CEO predictions (bottom)

1 Counts

2 The MobilityNet dataset did not have enough trips to be usable for estimating counts. Even if 3 there were enough trips, unlike with distance, no high quality granular ground truth for counts 4 exists from MobilityNet because there is no method to generate a count-level confusion matrix 5 that takes segmentation error into account. So, for counts, we only used the real world datasets

6 Durham and All_CEO.

7 The results (Figure 6) largely meet our goals, with the actual counts falling within the 8 uncertainty range from the expected counts in almost all cases. The lone exception is the train 9 case while using the Durham confusion matrix to predict All_CEO trips.

This is because the distribution of probabilities for the ground truth mode train is drastically different between Durham and All_CEO. In the Durham dataset, all 3 ground truth train trips were predicted as bicycling or walking, while in the All_CEO dataset, ground truth train trips were predicted as each of the five sensed modes at least once. This means that the variance for the mode train should be much higher in order to properly represent All_CEO for the ground truth mode train, hence why Durham fails to capture the actual counts within the calculated uncertain range.

Since using Durham as our computation dataset and All_CEO as our evaluation dataset for distances met our goals, it may seem unusual that doing the same for counts did not. However, the distance travelled by bicycling is more than the distance travelled by walking, which means that even though the number of trips for each mode doesn't change, bicycling contributes more to the variance for distance calculations than in the count calculations.

The calculations for distance and variance are outlined below. For berevity, Var(actual = i|predicted = j) is abbreviated as Var(i|j) and P(actual = i|predicted = j) is abbreviated as P(i|j) for some modes *i* and *j*.

For counts, the variance calculation is:

Var(train|bicycling) + Var(train|walking) $= n_{bicycling} \times P(train|bicycling) \times (1 - P(train|bicycling))$ $+ n_{walking} \times P(train|walking) \times (1 - P(train|walking))$ $= 11388.0 \times 0.000840 \times (1 - 0.000840) + 26626.0 \times 0.001120 \times (1 - 0.001120)$ = 9.561706 + 29.782960 = 39.344667

For distances, the variance calculation is:

$$Var(train|bicycling) + Var(train|walking)$$

$$= n_{bicycling} \times P(train|bicycling) \times (1 - P(train|bicycling))$$

$$+ n_{walking} \times P(train|walking) \times (1 - P(train|walking))$$

$$= 59503 \times 0.039710 \times (1 - 0.039710) * 75133 \times 0.011357 \times (1 - 0.011357)$$

$$= 2269.034886 + 843.591857$$

$$= 3112.626742$$

Note how the predicted distance for bicycling is around 80% of the predicted distance for walking, even though the predicted count for bicycling is around 40% of the predicted count for walking, and how P(train|bicycling) for distances is magnitudes larger than P(train|bicycling)for counts. This increase in values leads to a higher variance that captures the actual value for distances.





FIGURE 6 Results of estimating counts when using the All_CEO confusion matrix on predictions from All_CEO (top), while using the All_CEO confusion matrix on predictions from Durham (middle), and the Durham confusion matrix on predictions from All_CEO.



Confusion matrix probabilities used for counts

FIGURE 7 Confusion matrix probabilities used for counts for All_CEO (left) and Durham (right)

1 CONCLUSION

2 The purpose of this work is to provide a measure of uncertainty based on a set of predictions and a

3 confusion matrix from some previous mode inference model, regardless of the actual mode infer-

4 ence model used. Our method uses column-normalized probabilities from a classifier's confusion

5 matrix and multinomial closed form solutions for mean and variance to give an expected value and 6 uncertain range for each sensed mode.

7 We tested our method for measures of both counts and distances with three different datasets, and found that this method works if the confusion matrix probabilities used are similar to prob-8 abilities from the classifier used to find predictions per mode. Disclaimer: Since our model of 9 uncertainty did not capture the true variation, we used the value of the variance calculated from 10 that model to add to our estimated mean and get a wider range of uncertainty. The variance we 11 add to the mean should not be interpreted as the variance to use for calculations derived from this 12 data. This is an area open to improvement; in the future, confusion matrix probabilities could be 13 adjusted using some prior mode distribution to more closely resemble the data that the predictions 14 15 come from. This method could also be extended to apply to metrics other than mode count and distance travelled per mode. 16

When fully implemented, phone-based travel surveys can reduce mode labeling requirements to in turn reduce user burden, and mode usage can be calculated over multiple users and over a span of time. The metrics of count and distance can also give insight into the potential impact of large-scale infrastructure and transportation decisions, and inform individuals on their travel behaviors.

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