Data Density Considerations for Crowd Sourced Population Estimations from Social Media

Samuel Lee Toepke

Private Engineering Firm, Washington DC, U.S.A.

Keywords: Population Estimation, Social Media, Enterprise Architecture, Volunteered Geographic Data, Twitter, Amazon Web Services, Normalization.

Abstract: When using social media data for population estimations, data density is of primary concern. A high density of quality, crowd-sourced data in a specified geographic area leads to a more precise estimation. Nonetheless, data acquisition/storage has to be balanced against the provisioned cost/size constraints of the technical implementation and the ability to receive data in that area. This investigation compares hourly population estimations based on Tweet quantity, for several major west coast cities in the United States of America. An estimation baseline is established, and data is artificially removed from the estimation to explore the importance of data density. Experimental data is obtained and stored using an enterprise cloud solution, density observations/results are discussed, and follow-on work is described.

1 INTRODUCTION

Population estimation of an urban area is of critical importance for resource planning, emergency response, land-use allocation, environmental protection, etc. Governing bodies have continued to rely on a combination of traditional practices to generate population data; namely through the use of census information, time-use surveys, land-use maps and geospatial data. These methods are time consuming, of low spatiotemporal precision, and costly to implement; though novel fusion of the aforementioned methods has been shown to increase utility (Freire et al., 2015).

In recent years, research involving the estimation of population density of an urban space, using social media services, has been rapidly gaining interest. A user of a social media service can generate geospatially enabled "posts" while tagging an image, string of text, or other piece of information. Disaggregation of this data based on its latitude, longitude and temporal components generates insight into the population patterns of a given geographic space (Sagl et al., 2012). Population estimation is best visualized as a function of time and space; common representations include a dasymetric map (Mennis and Hultgren, 2006) and/or an occupancy curve (Stewart et al., 2015).

Massive growth of connected technologies has created new opportunities for using volunteered social media data to supplement traditional population estimation methods. These technologies include:

- Social media services. Twitter, Facebook, Foursquare, Panaramio, etc. allow users to generate geospatially enabled data, and make that data publicly available (Goodchild et al., 2016).
- Pervasive computing devices. Modern smartphones and tablets are readily accessible, with a low financial barrier to entry. The majority are outfitted with a GPS sensor, touch-screen, battery, Internet connection, and a full sensor suite.
- Highly available Internet. A constant, inexpensive connection through cellular or Wi-Fi allows distribution of generated data to a wide audience.

Using an application programming interface (API) published by the social media service, it is feasible to use an enterprise software solution to regularly query these services, and receive/process crowd-sourced data (Aubrecht et al., 2011). Denser data often leads to a more complete population estimation; but constraints may limit the amount of data that can be attained/stored/processed for a given area.

This investigation focuses on running data-loss experiments on Twitter data obtained from the downtown areas of cities in the United States of America (USA). Data acquisition/processing is discussed, and the implications of data-loss are explored in several charts.
2 BACKGROUND

The field of earth observation consists of using electronic resources to explore the planet. Aforementioned growth of use/accessibility of smart devices and social media services has enabled the ‘citizens as sensors’ (Goodchild, 2007) paradigm, allowing contributors to provide a wealth of crowd-sourced information to those who are interested (Coleman et al., 2009). This information can range from annotating satellite data using the OpenStreetMap project (Haklay and Weber, 2008), to contributing to a wiki page, to reporting on unique geographic locations using text or imagery. Not only does the contributed information provide value, processing of the geospatial metadata can provide insight into the human population patterns and individual activities throughout the day (Aubrecht et al., 2016).

The use of volunteered data is not without challenges. It is imperative to not treat the data as absolute; incorrect submissions can exist for any number of reasons, and objective comparison to truth is often difficult to affect (Haklay, 2010). This specific use case can have accuracy degraded by the use of illicit accounts to boost perceived population in certain locations and/or venues. Nonetheless, the data is still useful for this estimation, with follow-on work including comparison against an objective measure.

One of the benefits of crowd-sourced data is also one of its biggest drawbacks, the massive amount of data being produced, consumed, processed, and stored (Miller, 2010) (Boyd and Crawford, 2012). Effective knowledge extraction requires planning, provisioning, maintenance and retiring of computational, algorithmic and human resources. Policies on how to best manage this data directly affect the end result of processing, for each project. Constraints include cost, time, skillset of investigators, access to enterprise/human resources, etc. With the intention of exploring how algorithmic output can change based on data density, this investigation shows the implications of artificial data loss on Twitter data being used for population estimation.

Previously, only one city was the focus of investigation; recent code refactoring allows the rapid addition of new cities to query. Five major cities in the western U.S. were chosen for the following reasons:

- Each city has a densely populated downtown area.
- The west coast is directly at risk for coastal and seismic natural disasters. With a possible “Cascadia Rising” (FEMA, 2016) level event in the future, population estimation for emergency first responders will be critical for cities like Portland and Seattle (Heaton and Hartzell, 1987).

- A high level of tech-adoption, and voluntary use of social media services by the city’s residents is beneficial to the investigation.

The cities are as follows:

- San Diego, California (CA); a coastal town in southern California with a large military presence, and many institutions of higher learning.
- San Francisco, CA; a metropolitan port city surrounded by water on three sides.
- San Jose, CA; the southern end of Silicon Valley.
- Portland, Oregon (OR); a counter-cultural and environmentally conscious city.
- Seattle, Washington (WA); home to many technology firms including Amazon and Microsoft.

The Tweets are retrieved/stored for the above cities, and processed as described in the following section.

3 ARCHITECTURE

Geospatially enabled; crowd-sourced Twitter data is gathered using a modern enterprise implementation based on elastic cloud and web services. This solution is the next generation of the previous Twitter retrieving software (Toepke and Starsman, 2015). While the previous code was a proof of concept, this implementation is modularly designed for rapid expansion to new cities of interest. This task is completed by adding another configuration file with the specifications for the city, mainly the latitude/longitude coordinates for each Twitter query.

Amazon Web Services (AWS) (Services, 2015) is a suite of inexpensive cloud services that are available to the general public. AWS’s cloud offerings have gained massive growth in the past few years, and have made a powerful platform available with a low barrier to entry (Leong et al., 2015).

The AWS technologies used are as follows:

- Lambda, runs as a scheduled task twice an hour that executes the source code, using a serverless, code-in-the-cloud paradigm.
- DynamoDB, is leveraged as a fully managed, NoSQL object store for the Twitter data.
- Elastic MapReduce (EMR), Data Pipeline, and S3 export the Twitter data to a text file for local processing.
- Identity and Access Management, CloudWatch and CodeCommit are used administratively.
The source code is written using Java Platform, Enterprise Edition (Oracle, 2016); and performs all web service, security, data storage and AWS integration tasks. The inherent scalability/elasticity in Lambda/DynamoDB allows the implementation to grow organically as new cities are added, and with no further infrastructure configuration from the developer. Architecture blueprint can be seen in Figure 1.

Figure 1: AWS Twitter Query/Storage Architecture.

To create the functionality of true geospatial queries, the Java Topology Suite (JTS) (Suite, 2016) is leveraged during Tweet processing. JTS is a lightweight library that enables spatial analysis methods, and is utilized heavily by open source Java geographic information system projects, e.g. GeoServer, GeoTools and uDig. In this case, the point-in-polygon (Haines, 1994) algorithm is used, which allows geographic searching without a full geospatial solution like PostgreSQL/PostGIS (PostGIS, 2016). While the current Tweet collection code utilizes a quadrangle with horizontal/vertical edges, JTS allows querying of areas with arbitrary orientation and number of edge vertices, which is critical when analyzing individual structures.

Existing functionality that is not currently utilized includes the creation of a geohash (Moussalli et al., 2015) which is generated when each Tweet is placed in the data store. The geohash string is a lightweight description that allows efficient searching for geographic neighbors. A geohash of twelve characters is used, which maps to a cell space of 3.7cm*1.9cm (Elastic, 2016), and is more than adequate precision for this work. The geospatial resolution of each Tweet is dependent on the device submitting the data, and the combination of technologies leveraged e.g. global positioning, Wi-Fi, cellular triangulation, etc. While none of the aforementioned technologies have centimeter-level accuracy, the extra length of the geohash does not add undue complexity; and future-proofs the algorithm against increases in resolution.

Twitter and Instagram were both considered as sources of crowd-sourced data for reasons previously elucidated (Toepke and Starsman, 2015). As of mid-2016, the Instagram API is constructed such that downloading freely available data for the purpose of research is no longer supported. The API allows an application to be in a ‘sandboxed’ or ‘production’ mode. If in sandboxed mode, the developer gets full access to the Instagram API, but only posts from previously configured test users will appear in the query results. This policy is effective from a development perspective, but the lack of crowd-sourced data is a non-starter for research of this nature.

When attempting to move the application to production, the developer is required to select the current state of the application. Only two states applied in this case:

- “My app is still in development and/or is a test app.”
- “Other.”

The selections caused the following responses from the Instagram API:

- “We do not approve development or test apps. Please only submit your app when it’s ready for production.”
- “We do not accept submissions for integrations that do not fall into one of the approved use cases. You can find more information about valid use cases in the Permission Review documentation.”

Thus, Instagram is no longer a viable option for freely-available crowd-sourced research data in 2016. There is a company (Gnip, 2016) which sells historical and/or full-stream access to social media data, but the cost is out of scope for this work.

Once adequate data has been captured, the data is exported from DynamoDB using an EMR job, and saved into a text file for local processing. Using Java, queries/experiments were run on the data to show the implications of a loss of data density. The experiments start with using 100% of the gleaned Tweets, then proceed to remove 10% for each further run, until the density is down to 0% of the original post quantity. Charts are generated using an open source tool named GNU Octave (Octave, 2016), and are discussed in the results/observations section.

4 RESULTS/OBSERVATIONS

The data consists of geospatially enabled posts from the Twitter API occurring from 2016-06-07 23:01:35 (GMT) to 2016-11-04 23:57:03 (GMT). Publicly available web service APIs were used to download the data in a JavaScript Object Notation format.

Upon processing the Twitter data from the collection time period, immediate observations can be
made. The raw Tweet count for the different cities varies, with the most (Seattle, WA), having more than twice as many Tweets as the least (San Jose, CA), which can be seen in Table 1, and visualized in Figure 2. A reason for the disparity is unknown, and could range from differing population density, to more/less user activity on social media services. During collection, the same geospatial distance is kept between the latitude/longitude boundary points for the different cities, with the collection area being placed over downtown as precisely as possible. The average query area for each city is approximately $3.2633612 \text{ km}^2$. A map visualizing the boundary, and overlapping queries for the city of San Jose, CA can be seen in Figure 3.

Table 1: Total Tweet Count Per City.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Tweet Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>San Jose, CA</td>
<td>49,557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>San Francisco, CA</td>
<td>62,555</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portland, OR</td>
<td>85,745</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>San Diego, CA</td>
<td>115,574</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seattle, WA</td>
<td>133,955</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2: Total Tweet Count Per City.

Figure 3: Twitter Query Locations and Boundary for San Jose, CA.

On average, all cities show a dip towards the middle of the week, with Tweet count growing stronger at the end of the week, which can be seen in Figure 4. Of note, Tweet collection from downtown San Jose, CA for the investigation (Toepke and Starsman, 2015), shows a parabolic curve from Sunday to Saturday with a mid-week peak. The difference in the curvature for the two datasets can be the result of different social media use-patterns that have developed over the past two years, and/or the result of a non-consistent collection time period.

To begin investigation of Tweet removal, Friday was chosen as an experimentation day. The average tweet count for Friday is not the lowest, nor the highest, but in the median. An average Tweet count per hour can be seen in Figure 5. All cities show a strong upward trend between 0600 and 0800, and a strong downward trend between 1700 and 1800. The trends correlate precisely with the beginning/end of the workday. As expected, the lowest hours for Tweet generation are from 0000 to 0500, correlating to when users are sleeping.

Normalizing each of the data sets is useful to view the Twitter patterns independent of total quantity of Tweets. Using a basic normalization algorithm (Abdi and Williams, 2010), such that the length of each data vector is equal to 1, the resulting graph for normalized average Tweet count per hour for a Friday can be seen in Figure 6. It is of note that San Francisco, CA gets a slower start to the day, but tends to generate more Tweets, for longer, after the end of the workday. This is perhaps indicative of a strong ‘after-work’ social culture; a similar pattern is also seen for San Diego, CA.

Under the assumption that the full data is of 100% quantity, Java code is used to randomly remove data in increasing steps of 10%. These tests are performed arbitrarily on Portland, OR, with the city being in the median of the cities for Tweet quantity. Once normalized, the resulting plots are shown in Figure 7. As each plot has an increasing amount of data removed, it can be seen deviating more from the full data line. 100% removal is not displayed, as there is no data visible. Though coarse, even with 90% of the data removed, the generated plot offers useful insights into the population density throughout the day.

Root mean square error (RMSE) (Chai and Draxler, 2014), is then used to better visualize the effects of decreasing data quantities. RMSE Equation:

$$\text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})^2}$$

Each resulting data vector is compared against the full 100% data quantity vector, and the results can be seen in Figure 8. A full averaging of all the days of the week can be seen in Figure 9. Of note:
• For each city, a pareto optimal point (Hochman and Rodgers, 1969) exists between 50% and 90% loss.
• A reasonable population estimation can still be gleaned with even up to 50% of the data being artificially removed.
• It can be seen that overall data quantity has an impact on the RMSE, with the population estimation
of cities with the most overall Tweets being not as adversely affected by loss of data. Seattle, WA shows the lowest RMSE with San Jose, CA showing the highest RMSE. This is seen visibly in Figure 9, which makes an average from all days of the week.

This work processes estimations of a population, based on voluntary social media data at a city-size resolution. Performing the same density reduction tests using accurately obtained population data, e.g. from a corporate campus that uses active access controls for each person, would enhance insight.

5 FOLLOW-ON WORK

This investigation shows the ramifications of data density for a population estimation using crowd-sourced, geospatially enabled social media data. There are many avenues for further work.

- It has been shown that due to the small amount of Tweets that are actually geotagged, when using the public API an almost complete set of Tweets is available (Morstatter et al., 2013). Obtaining full-stream Twitter data for the geospatial areas in question, and comparing/contrasting with the publicly available data would strengthen previously obtained results.
• Perform experimentation on tighter geographical boundaries. E.g., would these results still hold for a single residential apartment building, a university dormitory or a busy restaurant? What would the impact of reduced data density be on structure occupancy curves (Toepke, 2016) for a building throughout days of the week?

• Integration of other social media sources such as Twitter, Facebook, Foursquare, Panaramio, etc.

• Attempt to normalize data acquisition amongst downtown areas. The investigation areas are picked with care, but not with deep knowledge of each urban area. One stadium in one city, or several large office buildings, can skew the total Tweets for an area.

• Experimentation in secondary and/or smaller cities. Each city investigated has a large population of technology adopters; which makes using social media for population estimation possible. Performing this work on cities that don’t generate as much data would provide useful for showing limitations of this work.

• The Twitter data collection code is still in-flight. Comparing/contrasting estimation results with data removal from different time periods can glean useful results. E.g. data collected during a holiday period may be vastly different from data collected during an off-holiday season.

6 CONCLUSIONS

This work has described a new technical implementation for acquisition of crowd-sourced, geospatially enabled Twitter data using AWS. Data is continuously retrieved from five major west coast cities in the USA, and the results of several data-removal experiments are shown to elucidate the importance of data quantity. RMSE error is calculated and displayed for each city, averaged over an entire week; and estimation precision is discussed. It is shown that even with a large artificial loss of data, useful insights into population dynamics can be seen; with error mitigated by overall Tweet quantity.

REFERENCES


pages 57–60. Department of Civil Engineering of the University of Coimbra and e-GEO, Research Center in Geography and Regional Planning of the Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities of the Nova University of Lisbon.


