

# PocketParker: Pocketsourcing Parking Lot Availability

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## ABSTRACT

Searching for parking spots generates frustration and pollution. To address these parking problems, we present *PocketParker*, a crowdsourcing system using smartphones to predict parking lot availability. PocketParker is an example of a subset of crowdsourcing we call *pocketsourcing*. Pocketsourcing applications require no explicit user input or additional infrastructure, running effectively without the phone leaving the user's pocket. PocketParker detects arrivals and departures by leveraging existing activity recognition algorithms. Detected events are used to maintain per-lot availability models and respond to queries. By estimating the number of drivers not using PocketParker, a small fraction of drivers can generate accurate predictions. Our evaluation shows that PocketParker quickly and correctly detects parking events and is robust to the presence of hidden drivers. Camera monitoring of several parking lots as 105 PocketParker users generated 10,827 events over 45 days shows that PocketParker was able to correctly predict lot availability 94% of the time.

## Author Keywords

Smartphone sensing; Crowdsourcing; Parking.

## ACM Classification Keywords

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## INTRODUCTION

Parking lots present a difficult search problem. Lacking enough visibility to determine where spots are available, drivers may search fruitlessly through lot after lot, wasting time and energy while generating harmful vehicle emissions. And while some high-demand lots in urban areas and at airports have been instrumented to monitor availability, the high cost of the equipment required has prevented this approach from being widely-deployed at many lots where drivers find themselves searching for spots, including at university campuses and suburban shopping malls. Our own campus featuring 40 lots with over 80 entrances would cost at least \$28,000 to monitor

even with the least expensive research prototype [14] and an order-of-magnitude more with available commercial solutions [1]. Instead of relying on additional infrastructure, we believe a free solution is already in our pockets.

*PocketParker* is a system that predicts parking lot availability using smartphones. Unlike previous approaches, our approach requires no additional infrastructure, no vehicle modifications, and no user interaction, only the installation of a smartphone app. PocketParker runs unattended in the background and uses activity transitions to detect parking lot arrivals and departures. These are forwarded to a central server that incorporates them into per-lot availability models. This allows PocketParker to order lots accurately by the probability that they contain an available spot. We consider PocketParker an example of a subset of crowdsourcing that does not require any user input which we call *pocketsourcing*.

Predicting parking availability requires accurately detecting parking events as well as determining the effect of *hidden drivers*—drivers not using PocketParker—on lot availability. We address the first challenge with a simple, effective, and energy-efficient event detector which uses accelerometer data to detect vehicle arrivals and departures. The second goal we achieve with an availability estimator that maintains a probability model for each lot by incorporating events generated by PocketParker clients. Parking events are used both to model arrival and departure rates and to estimate the number of hidden drivers. One key insight is that even without monitoring all drivers there are moments when PocketParker is certain that a parking spot is available in a particular lot and can use this information to assist users.

Our paper makes the following contributions. After motivating our approach through an examination of related work, we present the design of PocketParker in detail, describing in separate sections how PocketParker detects parking events and maintains per-lot availability models. We then perform a thorough evaluation of each component of PocketParker and the performance of the system as a whole. We test our parking event detector in a controlled environment with eight volunteers participating in ten parking scenarios. We test our parking availability estimator with a simulator providing the ability to experiment with a variety of parking lot configurations and arrival and departure rates.

Finally, we test the end-to-end effectiveness of PocketParker through a field trial involving 105 smartphones users that generated 10,827 parking events over 45 days.

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To obtain ground truth, we deployed four cameras to monitor two parking lots over two weeks and hand-coded four days' worth of images to measure their true availability. Our results demonstrate that PocketParker can accurately and efficiently detect parking events and use them to make accurate availability predictions. During the field trial it was able to correctly predict lot availability 94% of the time.

## MOTIVATION AND RELATED WORK

While infrastructure solutions for monitoring lot availability exist, they are extremely expensive. The SF-Park system spent \$18 million to instrument 7000 street spots, or roughly \$2500 per spot [3]. Surface lots are cheaper to monitor since equipment can be deployed only at ingress-egress points, but the technology required to do so remains expensive. The vehicle detector and transponder required at each entrance costs \$9700 [1] and programmable sign to communicate lot availability to drivers running \$49,000 [7], not including the continuing cost of telemetry. Our campus with 40 lots and over 80 lot entrances would cost \$776,000 for entrance monitors alone, and over \$2 million dollars with lot availability signs. Even using a \$350-per-entrance research prototype based on wireless sensor network nodes would cost \$28,000, again not including the cost of communication. The prohibitive cost of these solutions has prevented their widespread deployment, with the result that many parking lots are still not monitored.

As smartphones have become ubiquitous, multiple apps and research projects have attempted to harness their capabilities to aid the parking process. But while app marketplaces such as the Google Play Store teem with parking-related apps, these apps either do not provide real-time parking lot availability or simply display publicly-available information. Several research projects have attempted to address these limitations but suffer from limitations that prevent them from scaling, requiring additional infrastructure [10], on-vehicle equipment [11] vehicle-to-vehicle networking [8, 11], or onerous manual user input [5]. To the best of our knowledge, PocketParker is the first app that can monitor parking lot availability without interacting with users.

Most close to our work is Parksense [13], a system that leverages the ubiquity of Wifi beacons to monitor on-street parking availability. Our study, borne out of suburban campus locale, must cope with alternative sensing mechanisms in the wake of no proximate Wifi signals. We have also tuned our tracking and reporting methodology to address the different challenges produced by lot, rather than street, parking. ParkNet [11] is another system that estimates street parking availability by using vehicles equipped an ultrasonic range finder to detect empty street parking spots. Unlike ParkNet, PocketParker does not require new vehicle capabilities.

PocketParker's parking detector builds on existing approaches to accurate and energy-efficient activity recognition [6, 9, 15, 17, 16]. While our current detector is

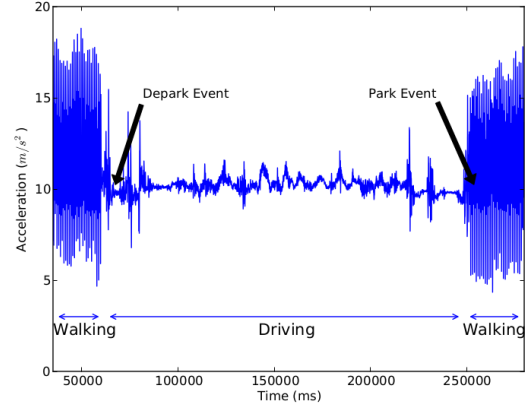


Figure 1: **Detection algorithm.** The graph shows the accelerometer data collected during our controlled experiment and shows a period of walking, followed by driving, followed by a return to walking. Transitions between these states in areas known to be parking lots suggest vehicle arrivals and departures.

both simple and parking-focused, continued progress in reducing the energy overhead and increasing the accuracy of smartphone activity recognition algorithms will improve PocketParker's performance.

## EVENT DETECTOR

The inputs to PocketParker's availability estimation algorithm are arrival and departure events generated by an activity detector running unattended on users' smartphones. While considerable previous research has explored activity detection using mobile sensing [6, 9, 15, 17, 16], we designed a custom parking event detector tailored to the goals of PocketParker.

PocketParker assumes that transitions between walking and driving that occur inside known parking lots constitute either arrival (driving to walking) or departure (walking to driving) events. We thus must be able to discern between walking and driving states of the user, and to do so fast enough to fix the the location of the parking lot in which the event took place. Detecting these states could be achieved using continuously-sampled GPS data would consume too much energy for an effective pocket-sourcing solution. Rather, we rely on duty-cycled accelerometer data to classify the user behavior into one of three states: walking, driving, or idle.

Figure 1 depicts two changes in user state, from walking to driving and back again. The initial inference yielded by the accelerometer is subsequently refined with GPS and Wifi sense data to yield the desired goal: detection of arrival and departure events. The smartphone reports these events and their locations to the PocketParker server. Before recording the event, the server verifies its location against a list of known parking lot locations to eliminate events that are either obviously incorrect (a user parking in a field) or unwanted (a user parking but in a loading area rather than in a lot).



Figure 2: **Example parking lot setup.** Two lots and three destinations are shown.

After we deployed our PocketParker prototype, Google incorporated activity recognition algorithms into its Google Play Services library. We have incorporated them into PocketParker and, while we have not performed a detailed evaluation, we have not found the change to affect PocketParker’s event detection accuracy.

### AVAILABILITY ESTIMATION

In order for parking events to be useful, they must be incorporated into a model that allows us to predict where parking is available. Because PocketParker focuses on monitoring surface lots, not on-street parking, we structure our prediction engine to return the probability that a given parking lot has space available. This information is used by drivers to determine what lots to search and in what order. PocketParker’s estimator uses the events produced by our parking event detector both to estimate the rates at which drivers are searching and departing from the lot and to adjust the availability probability directly. In this section, we present both the design of the PocketParker client parking lot availability estimator and portions of the backend server for our system.

#### Overview

Figure 2 shows an example setup with two parking lots and two destinations that are used throughout this section. For each lot PocketParker maintains a time-varying probability that the lot has  $n$  free spots  $P(t, n)$ . While we are mainly interested in the probability that the lot has a space available  $P_{free} = \sum_{n>0} P(t, n)$ , we maintain separate probabilities for each number of free spots so that we can manipulate individual probabilities in response to events and queries as described below. We bound the count probability distribution to lie between 0 and the capacity of the parking lot.

PocketParker’s estimator receives two types of events: arrivals and departures. However, for each arrival in a given lot, a number of additional lots may have been searched unsuccessfully, information critical to the accuracy of our availability model. In the next two sections we describe how PocketParker determines relationships between parking lots and combines that information with arrivals to estimate implicit search behavior.

Between events we want to maintain our availability model by estimating the rate at which departures and searches are taking place. PocketParker must use the

events it can detect to estimate the rate at which events are taking place in the lot, which includes the effect of drivers not using PocketParker, which we call *hidden drivers*. Accomplishing this requires that we estimate the ratio between monitored and hidden drivers. With an estimate of the hidden driver ratio, we can scale the search and departure rates accordingly. Finally, we integrate all of this information to update our availability estimate as arrival and departure events are received.

### Estimating Lot Capacity

PocketParker requires an estimate of lot capacity  $C$  in several places. First, we use this estimate to bound  $P(t)$  such that  $P(t, n > C) = 0 \forall t$ . Second, we use the capacity to determine the number of hidden drivers. To calculate a lot capacity, we use the location of the parking lot obtained from the OpenStreetMap database [4]. We derive the lot size from its location and then divide the total size by that of a typical standard parking spot lot design [2]. For the three lots monitored by our deployment, capacity estimates were all within 6% of manually-counted ground truth. Errors in the capacity can result if the size of parking spots in the lot differ from our estimate, or if the parking lot is not efficiently packed with spots. Given the incentive of lot designers to maximize capacity, we consider the second case unlikely.

### Lot Relationships

While PocketParker’s parking event detector identifies only arrivals and departures, identifying unsuccessful searches is crucial in order to determine the reason for a drop in arrival rates. If we observe the arrival rate fall at a given lot, it may be because the lot is full, or it may be simply because fewer drivers are arriving and the lot still has many spaces available. Observing unsuccessful searches in the first case allows PocketParker to infer that the lot is full and suggest drivers park elsewhere. In order to estimate search behavior, we need to understand the relationships between parking lots. This requires two additional pieces of data about each lot: what destinations it serves and how desirable it is.

#### Lot destinations

The lot destination represents the place or places where the user is ultimately going after parking. In Figure 2, lot 1 may be associated with destinations A, B and C; while lot 2 is only linked to B. While mapping software can be used to assign lots to the nearest labeled building, this approach fails when lots serve multiple destinations. To handle this case, PocketParker uses Wifi localization of the first access point seen by the smartphone after the user parks to determine what indoor location the user entered after parking. The probability distribution that emerges from a history of these events can be used to predict where a user is going at the moment that a parking event is detected. In the future, data from navigation tools may be able to link destinations automatically with lots by noting where users park after requesting directions to a particular location.

### Desirability index

The desirability index reflects a lot’s relative preference to drivers. We infer a lot’s desirability from the destinations associated with each lot and the lot’s distance to each, assuming that PocketParker users prefer the closest available lot to their final destination. In Figure 2, if lot 2 is associated with destination A it will be ranked less desirable than lot 1 because it is further from the destination. Integration with navigation tools can also help refine the desirability index by observing what lots are searched by users on their way to a particular destination. Currently PocketParker saves energy by enabling GPS only after detecting parking events and so does not have a trace of the users locations before parking that could be used to identify more desirable lots.

### Implicit Searches

With an understanding of lot relationships we can use observed arrivals to model implicit—or unobserved—searches. When a user parks in a given lot, we use the desirability index of the lot to add unsuccessful searches in more desirable lots associated with the same destination. There are two challenges to this approach. First, as described above, lots may be associated with multiple destinations. Second, the user may not have actually performed the search. After discussing both of these issues below, we continue by describing how PocketParker incorporates the information from implicit searches in a way sensitive to these uncertainties.

### Determining the destination

If a lot is associated with multiple destinations, we cannot immediately determine the user’s destination. This is not a problem as long as all potential destinations are on the same side of the lots. For example, in Figure 2, if lots 1 and 2 are both associated with destinations A and C, but not with B, then an arrival with an unknown destination into lot 2 can always be used to generate an implicit search in lot 1, since the destination does not alter the desirability ranking for the two lots.

However, having two or more destinations that are located on different sides of lots produces an ambiguity. If both lots 1 and 2 are associated with all destinations, then an arrival in lot 2 cannot be resolved directly. If the user’s destination was A, it may mean that lot 1 was searched and is full. If the destination was B, the parking event may not indicate anything about lot 1. To resolve this ambiguity, PocketParker uses information about the users final destination gathered as described above.

### Speculative searches

If we do not directly observe a user searching a lot before we detect an arrival, we cannot be certain that they performed the search. If the unsearched but preferable lot was available, they may not have searched it because they preferred to choose the first available spot, enjoyed the exercise of walking farther to their destination. However, these are not the type of users we believe would benefit from or use PocketParker, since finding a non-optimal parking spot is fairly simple in most cases.

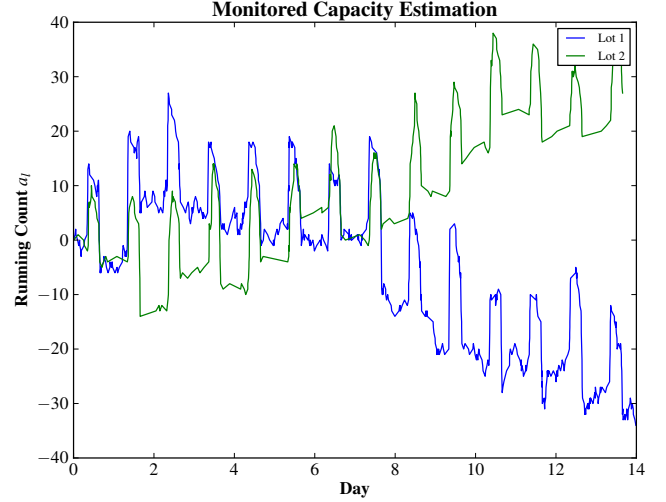


Figure 3: **Example of capacity estimation.** Running counts for two lots are shown.

A more interesting case is where a user has not performed a search in a desirable lot because it *looks* full. Users that park regularly at the same destination may maintain temporal models for the availability of spots in certain lots (“I can never park there after 9AM”) causing them to discard those lots without searching them if they believe the probability of finding a spot in the desirable lot is low. While this behavior can cause users to miss available spots, these speculative searches are useful inputs since they reflect lots users think are full.

A final corner case that PocketParker does not handle is if all lots for a destination are full and many undetected unsuccessful searches are taking place. On one hand, if all lots are full then spot availability is entirely determined by departures and so search data is useless. On the other hand, we would like to identify this situation for users that would prefer to avoid destinations where it is impossible to park. Later we point out how integrating PocketParker into existing navigation applications could address this problem by making searches explicit.

### Hidden Driver Estimation

Monitored PocketParker users compete for parking spaces with unmonitored users, which we call *hidden drivers*. While we assume that PocketParker users are generally representative of the entire driving population, we do not assume that all or even a large fraction of drivers will download and install PocketParker. We want our system still to provide accurate predictions with the limited information caused by hidden drivers. To accomplish this, PocketParker needs to estimate the percentage of drivers that are monitored, which we call the *monitored fraction*  $f_m$ . A low monitored fraction indicates that few users are using PocketParker, and vice versa. Put another way, the amount of uncertainty PocketParker faces when predicting availability is inversely proportional to the monitored fraction.

### Importance of monitored fraction estimation

Two examples will illustrate why we need this information and how it is used. First, when a monitored driver leaves a parking lot, the monitored fraction determines how long PocketParker will predict that a spot in that lot is available. As the monitored fraction increases, the probability of PocketParker seeing the arrival into the lot that occupies that spot increases, and we can increase the amount of time that we estimate a spot is available. On the other hand, as the monitored fraction decreases we see fewer arrivals and are faced with more uncertainty. Hence, PocketParker reduces the amount of time it predicts the spot is available. Second, PocketParker uses the arrival and departure rates of monitored drivers to estimate changes to parking lot availability over time. Here we must scale the observed number of events to the actual number of events, which requires an estimate of the monitored fraction.

PocketParker estimates the monitored fraction by first determining the monitored capacity—the capacity of the lot measured by monitored drivers—and then using our estimate of the lot capacity. Specifically, given a lot with capacity  $C$ , the monitored fraction can be estimated as  $f_m = \frac{C_m}{C}$ . Our task then becomes estimating the monitored capacity  $C_m$ . To estimate the monitored capacity we maintain a running count  $a$  for each lot, decremented when drivers arrive and incremented when they leave. We can consider  $a$  as an estimate of the number of spots available in the lot scaled by  $f_m$ , although we do not bound  $a$  as  $0 \leq a \leq C$ .

Figure 3 shows an example of the running count for two related lots over seven days using data generated by our lot simulator described in more detail in the evaluation. Both lots have capacity 200 and the actual monitored fraction is 0.1. As the data shows, the running count experiences long-period (greater than one day) fluctuations due to events missed by our event detector and the randomness associated with the small percentage of drivers being monitored. However, the data also contains short-period (less than one day) fluctuations caused by the dynamics of the lot being monitored, and these fluctuations are roughly the size of the monitored capacity  $C_m$ , which in this case is 20 spots.

This observation motivates the design of our monitored capacity estimator. First, we bin the data into 24 hour intervals. Next, we identify the largest availability swing over each window. Finally, we average multiple swings together for a period of days to determine the final estimate. This simple approach works well on lots that fill on a regular basis. For the example in Figure 3, our estimator estimates the monitored capacity of lots 1 and 2 as 21.01 and 21.08, respectively, within 10% of the true value in both cases. We perform a further analysis of our capacity estimator using multiple lot simulations in the evaluation.

For lots that do not fill regularly, we may need to produce a weighted sum where larger swings are weighted

more heavily given our assumption that they more accurately measure the true monitored lot capacity. Another approach is to use the  $f_m$  estimated at desirable lots for a given destination, which are more likely to fill completely and often, to estimate the  $f_m$  for lesser desirable lots. Here we are making the reasonable assumption that lots connected to the same destination share similar fractions of PocketParker users. Finally, PocketParker’s monitored fraction estimator runs periodically to incorporate changes in the monitored fraction caused by increasing use of PocketParker.

### Rate Estimation

When PocketParker receives arrival and departure event information, it knows something concrete about the state of the lot. However, to predict availability at other times we need to adjust our estimation based on recently-observed events, which we call rate estimation. To estimate the rate of events in the entire population including hidden drivers, PocketParker must scale its rate of parking events by monitored drivers appropriately. Next, we use these scaled estimates to adjust the probability that a lot has a certain number of spots and spots available.

During a time interval  $t_0$  to  $t_1$ , PocketParker will observe some number of searches  $s_{obs}(t_0, t_1)$  or departures  $d_{obs}(t_0, t_1)$  in any given lot<sup>1</sup>. Note that the search count includes both arrivals—successful searches—and implicit unsuccessful searches derived from arrivals at related lots as explained above. However, depending on the monitored fraction  $f_m$  the true count  $s_{true}(t_0, t_1)$  is likely to be much larger. Rather than simply scaling the count by  $\frac{1}{f_m}$ , we want to determine the probability distribution over all possible true counts given the rate we observed and the estimated monitored fraction. One reason we do not simply scale by  $\frac{1}{f_m}$  is that our uncertainty about the true count should be affected by  $f_m$ . If all drivers use PocketParker, we know the true count exactly; if few do, we should be uncertain.

To compute the probability distribution we treat  $s_{obs}$  as the output of a binomial distribution with probability  $f_m$  and vary the number of trials. The binomial distribution reflects the fact that drivers are either monitored by PocketParker or not with estimated probability  $f_m$ . Specifically:

$$P(s_{true}|s_{obs}) = C \cdot \binom{s_{obs}}{s_{true}} f_m^{s_{obs}} \cdot (1 - f_m)^{(s_{true} - s_{obs})}$$

where  $C$  is a renormalization constant equal to  $\sum_{s_{true}} P$ .

### Updating the count probabilities

Given the probability that a lot has  $n$  free spots at time  $t_0$ ,  $P(t_0, n)$ , we want to estimate the probabilities  $P(t_1, n)$  at a later time  $t_1$ . PocketParker uses recently-observed arrivals, implicit searches and departures to estimate the search  $s_{est}$  and departure  $d_{est}$  rates the lot

<sup>1</sup>Without loss of generality our examples of scaling and estimating rates use notation for the search rate.

experienced between  $t_0$  and  $t_1$ . Currently, we use arrival and departures over a fixed-size window  $I$  before  $t_0$ ,  $s_{obs}(t_0 - I, t_0)$  scaled to the length of  $t_0$  to  $t_1$ :

$$s_{est}(t_0, t_1) = s_{obs}(t_0 - I, t_0) \cdot \frac{(t_1 - t_0)}{I}$$

The value of  $s_{est}(t_0, t_1)$  is then scaled as described above to determine the distribution of  $s_{true}$ . Given the predictable traffic flows of our campus environment over the course of a term, PocketParker assumes the rates experienced over the last  $I$  time interval will continue. It may be possible to perform better rate estimation by using historical information, but this is left as future work.

The distribution of search rates  $s_{true}(t_0, t_1)$  represents the probabilities that the number of available spots in the lot will decline, whereas the departure rate  $d_{true}(t_0, t_1)$  represents the probability the number of spots will increase due to departures. The convolution of  $-1 \cdot s_{true}$  and  $d_{true}$ ,  $\Delta(t_0, t_1)$ , represents the change in the number of spots produced by the specific combination of arrival and departure rates. A further convolution of  $\Delta(t_0, t_1)$  with  $P(t_0, n)$  produces  $P(t_1, n)$ , the probability at  $t_1$ :

$$P(t_1, n) = P(t_0, n) * (-1 \cdot s_{true}(t_0, t_1) * d_{true}(t_0, t_1))$$

where  $*$  represents the discrete convolution.

Note that the convolution of  $P$  with  $\Delta$  can cause non-zero probabilities in  $P$  that violate our boundary conditions, namely that  $P(n < 0) = 0$  and  $P(n > C) = 0$  where  $C$  is the estimated capacity of the lot. To correct this, we simply set  $P(n = 0) = \sum_{n < 0} P(n)$  and  $P(n = C) = \sum_{n > C} P(n)$ , assigning all the probability that the lot has less than zero free spots to the zero state and all probability that it has more than the capacity of the lot of free spots to the empty state.

#### Rateless spreading

If the departure rate exceeds the arrival rate, the probability mass of  $\Delta$  will lie primarily to the positive side and it will shift  $P$  in the positive direction, producing higher probabilities that spots are available in the lot and lowering the probability that the lot is full. The opposite is true when the search rate exceeds the arrival rate.

An important case is intervals during which PocketParker has observed neither arrivals nor departures in a given lot. In this case,  $\Delta$  will be centered around 0 but have a spread determined by the monitored fraction. Its effect on  $P$  will be to redistribute the probability mass more evenly across the entire interval from 0 to  $C$ . Taken over many intervals, the probability of the lot having any number of spots available will equalize, which is what we would expect: after a long period without any information, all states become equally likely and we cannot make an accurate prediction of the state of the lot. Note also that the speed at which the probabilities are redistributed through rateless spreading is determined again by the monitored fraction. The fewer drivers we monitor, the more quickly we lose all memory of the state of the lot.

#### Online Updates

Finally, we conclude by describing how PocketParker uses arrival to adjust its availability model instantaneously at runtime. Each arrival and departure received at time  $t$  represent strong positive information—moments when PocketParker knows either that a spot just existed (arrival) or now exists (departure). PocketParker uses these events to adjust the probability distribution and incorporate this new information.

Arrivals provide two somewhat conflicting pieces of information. First, PocketParker knows that at the time of the arrival there was a spot free, so in this way arrivals indicate that the lot is not full. However, PocketParker also knows that immediately after an arrival the lot has one fewer available spots. So we incorporate arrivals in two steps. First, we set  $P(t, 0) = 0$  indicating the availability of a spot and renormalize the distribution. Second, we shift the entire distribution downward by one spot,  $P(t, n) = P(t, n - 1)$ , reflecting the loss of a parking space due to the arrival.

Departures produce a straightforward change to the probability distribution. When a user departs, we know at that moment that there is a free spot in the lot, so we can set  $P(t, 0) = 0$  and renormalize the distribution. Note that, since the probability that the lot is free is  $P_{free} = \sum_{n > 0} P(t, n)$ , at the exact time of each departure the probability that a spot is free is equal to 1.

Unsuccessful implicit searches, in contrast, represent weaker negative information, both because they were not observed by PocketParker and so may not have actually taken place, or because they may not have been thorough. What we want is to increase the probability that the lot is full while reflecting our current estimate of the lot. We do this by shifting the availability distribution towards full by some amount  $s$ , which we refer to as the *search shift parameter*. So, after an implicit unsuccessful search, we set  $P(t, n) = P(t, n - s)$ , with  $P(t, 0) = \sum_0^s P(t, n)$ . The search shift parameter determines how aggressively PocketParker will use information provided by implicit searches.

#### Weighted arrivals and departures

Shifting the distribution one space on arrivals and departures is the most conservative approach representing what we definitely know: that one spot is available. However, if we assume that our monitored drivers are representative of some larger number of hidden drivers, we may set  $P_l(t, n < X) = 0$  for some  $X$  larger than 1 and scaling with  $\frac{1}{f_m}$ . For our experiments we choose the conservative approach and set  $X = 1$ . As future work we consider how users may customize the behavior of PocketParker to be more or less aggressive in locating parking spots, trading off time for a better spot.



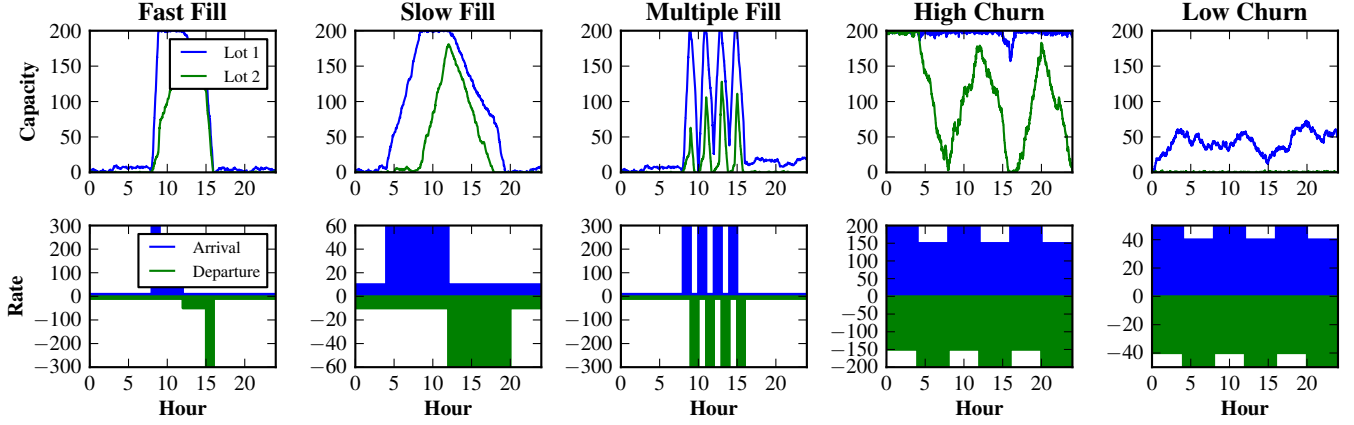


Figure 4: **Description of each type of lot simulated.** Five different lots with different behaviors were used.

| Carry Location  | Count | Car Location  | Count |
|-----------------|-------|---------------|-------|
| In hand         | 18    | Cup holder    | 16    |
| Side bag        | 10    | Car seat      | 9     |
| Back pack       | 10    | Side bag      | 10    |
| In hand talking | 7     | Back pack     | 9     |
| Front pocket    | 14    | Front pocket  | 14    |
| Jacket pocket   | 14    | Jacket pocket | 14    |
| Back pocket     | 7     | Back pocket   | 14    |

Table 1: **Carry and car location for detector experiment.** Eight participants generated 80 runs, carrying and placing the phone in their car in many ways.

## EVALUATION

We evaluated PocketParker in three ways. First, we conducted a controlled experiment to determine the best parameter settings for our event detector. Second, we implemented a parking lot simulator to experiment with various kinds of lots under differing monitored fractions. Finally, we deployed PocketParker on our campus. We monitored two lots with camera monitoring to ground truth our predictions. Our evaluations confirm that PocketParker is efficient and accurate.

### Detector Experiment

To determine the right parameter settings for our transition detector, we conducted a controlled experiment. During this experiment, accelerometer and GPS data was collected and stored continuously on each device, and participants were asked to manually label each transition into and out of the car. Afterwards, data was processed by a Python simulator implementing the identical algorithm used by the PocketParker, allowing us measure accuracy and energy consumption as a function of the detector duty cycle.

Eight volunteers participated, including seven men and one woman. Seven were right-handed and one was left-handed. Each was asked to conduct the same experiment ten times: (1) carrying the instrumented phone, walk to their car; (2) label departure; (3) drive around campus briefly; (4) park and label arrival; (5) return inside. Since the way the phone is carried while walking

and placed in the car while driving affects the accelerometer readings, care was taken to generate a good mix of carry and car location styles. Table 1 shows the breakdown. The experiment permitted us to obtain sensing data from a cross section of individuals possessing different body morphologies, habits of driving cars, and ways of handling mobile devices.

Figure 5 displays the tradeoff between energy usage and detection accuracy as a function of the PocketParker duty cycle. Here we combine an active period of 5s with a inactive period of variable length, between 5 and 55s, for an overall duty cycle between 0.5 and 0.06. Our simulator uses energy numbers from the Android Fuel Gauge application to estimate average power consumption. This graph measures the accuracy of detected events in terms of distance from the actual location of the event labeled by the participant.

As expected, longer duty cycles consume less energy but produce longer detection latencies which translate into higher distances from the event location. Note also that departures have higher location error than arrivals because departing users are driving and therefore traveling more rapidly. Overall power usage by PocketParker is low, under 10 mW at all duty cycles. Because PocketParker’s ability to map parking events into lots is affected by the detection distance accuracy, we chose a low total period of 15 s for a 0.25 duty cycle. This allows PocketParker to determine location to within 25 m for arrivals and 80 m for departures. Power consumption at this duty cycle is 8 mW, representing 4.2% of the capacity of a 1500 mAh battery over 24 hours.

Using the same data we also examine the false positive and negative rates for arrivals and departures. This is important since, without explicit user input, it would be impossible to determine this information while PocketParker is in use. Figure 6 shows PocketParker can detect 80% of arrival and departure events correctly at the 0.25 duty cycle we use. False positive rates are already quite low, and this is before we apply our GPS availability

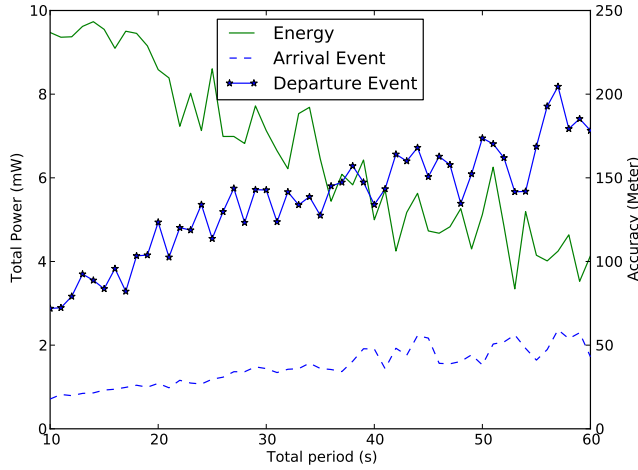


Figure 5: **Power usage vs. detector accuracy.** Energy usage by PocketParker is low at all duty cycles, so we chose a high duty cycle to improve accuracy.

filter and lot location filters. False positives decline as the duty cycle decreases because PocketParker has fewer opportunities to detect user activity.

### Simulation Results

To experiment with PocketParker in a more controlled setting, we implemented a parking lot simulator in Python. Our simulator allows us to simulate any number of parking lots associated with any number of points of interest with varying desirability levels. For simplicity during our evaluation, we simulate two lots 1 and 2 with lot 1 filling before lot 2, although lot choice by simulated drivers is randomly weighted. Particularly for evaluating our monitored fraction estimation, we use five types of lots that fill and empty differently:

- **Fast Fill** and **Slow Fill** fill once per day quickly or slowly, like a lot associated with a place of work.
- **Multiple Fill** represents a lot that rapidly fills and empties repeatedly during each day, like a campus lot or movie theater.
- **High Churn** starts with lot 1 full and experiences continuously high arrival and departures rates, like an airport parking lot.
- **Low Churn** represents underutilized lots that never completely fill, with lot 2 almost completely unused.

Figure 4 shows the arrival and departure rates for each of the types of lot as well as the resulting per-lot capacity.

### Monitored fraction estimation

Earlier we described our approach to estimated the monitored fraction, a parameter important to the operation of the PocketParker availability estimator. Figure 7 shows the results of 10 random simulations for each lot type. In each case, the monitored fraction estimator uses

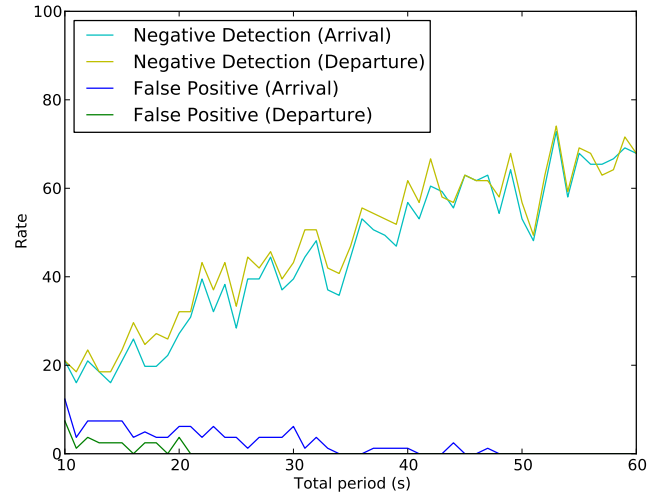


Figure 6: **False positive and negative rates as a function of detector duty cycle.**

a weeks worth of data and proceeds as described previously. The error in the monitored fraction estimate is shown as a function of the actual monitored fraction for the simulation used.

For the five types of lots, we would expect PocketParker to do better monitored fraction estimation when lots fill regularly—Fast Fill, Slow Fill, and Multiple Fill—and poorly when they do fill erratically or not at all—High and Low Churn. The results in Figure 7 generally follow this pattern. Errors for High Churn are quite high, and Low Churn errors persist even at high monitored driver fractions. This is natural, as the Low Churn lot never fills. By contrast, the accuracy rate for the Fast, Slow and Multiple Fill models improve with an increasing fraction of monitored drivers.

### Probability and availability

We now consider how PocketParker adjusts lot availability probabilities. It uses these probabilities to rank available lots in response to queries. Figure 8 shows a 24 hour simulation of a Fast Fill parking lot with a monitored fraction of 0.1 and a 10% error in the estimation of the monitored fraction. The ground truth capacity of the lot as simulated is plotted next to the PocketParker probability that the lot has an available spot. At the beginning, both lots are marked as free. After lot 1 fills and lot 2 begins to fill, which generates implicit searches in lot 1, the availability probability of lot 1 drops. It spikes upward repeatedly due to departures from lot 1—which reset the short-term probability of an available spot back to 1—but does not equal the probability for lot 2 again until the point when the departure rate for lot 1 climbs.

### Prediction accuracy

PocketParker exists to help drivers park efficiently. To examine its prediction accuracy, we have PocketParker rank two model lots in order of preference at regular timesteps and then compare these results with the



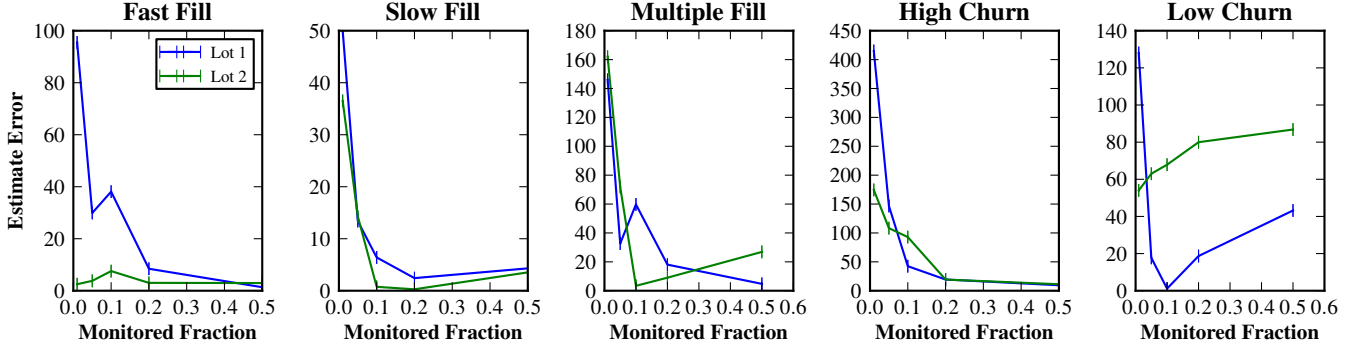


Figure 7: **Errors in monitored fraction estimation.** Currently PocketParker is better at estimating the monitored fraction when lots fill and empty regularly.

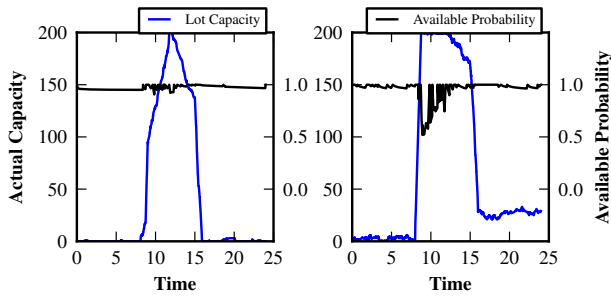


Figure 8: **Availability probabilities tracking lot capacity.** Dips in the availability probability correspond to times when PocketParker believes the lot is full. Discontinuities are caused by departures, which set the instantaneous probability that the lot is available to 1.0.

ground truth from a simulator. Finally, we categorize the results as a correct prediction, a missed opportunity—a case where a more desirable lot was available than the one that PocketParker recommended—or a waste of time—where PocketParker sent the user to a full lot. Table 2 shows data results from simulations run using varying monitored fractions  $f_m$  of drivers.

Also, Figure 9 shows that several trends can be observed in the results. First, overall PocketParker does well on most lot types. The High Churn lot presents the greatest difficulty, which we would expect since its large number of incoming and outgoing drivers make prediction difficult. We are also concerned that the High Churn errors are largely waste of time errors, indicating that PocketParker is frequently sending drivers to the wrong lot. This is likely because it is predicting that spots are available longer than they actually are. Clearly more work is needed to determine the right approach for High Churn lots, and this type of lot may be a better fit for infrastructure-based solutions.

Excluding the High Churn lot, the lot with the lowest correct percentage with a  $f_m > 0.1$  is 80% for the Slow Fill lot. Accuracy above this  $f_m$  is consistently good for

| Type   | Day | $f_m$ | Correct | Missed | Waste  |
|--------|-----|-------|---------|--------|--------|
| Campus | 1   | 0.07  | 56.1 %  | 43.9 % | 0.0 %  |
|        | 2   | 0.13  | 80.9 %  | 1.9 %  | 17.2 % |
|        | 3   | 0.17  | 72.4 %  | 11.0 % | 16.6 % |
|        | 4   | 0.20  | 94.2 %  | 5.8 %  | 0.0 %  |

Table 2: **Accuracy of PocketParker predictions for various fraction of monitored drivers for 4 days.**

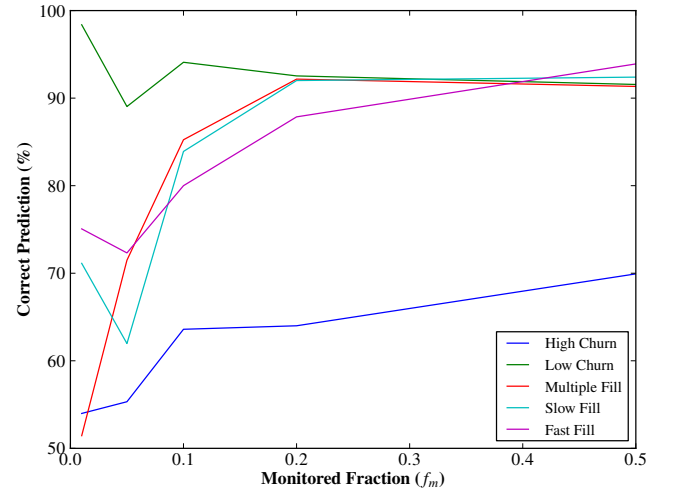


Figure 9: **Accuracy predictions for various kind of lots and parameters.**

all lots save the High Churn model. The Low Churn lot does have a small number of errors but this is because both lots are usually empty. An unavoidable lower bound to accuracy is imposed by the frequency of parking PocketParker has the most information about lot availability during periods of parking events. Once such information stops, prediction uncertainty grows. Thus, to the degree that PocketParker queries follow a pattern of arrivals and departures, it will do well.

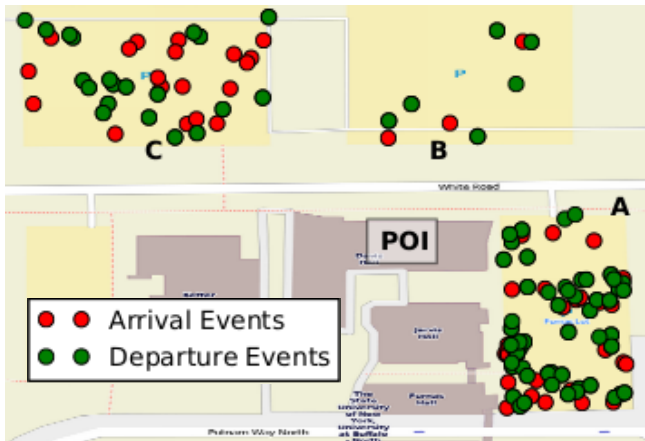


Figure 10: Map showing 217 parking events detected by PocketParker during our forty-five-day deployment in three key lots. Lot A is considered the most desirable, and Lots A and B were monitored by cameras to establish ground truth.

### Deployment

Finally, to establish the accuracy of PocketParker we deployed our PocketParker application on PHONELAB [12] after obtaining IRB approval. The only infrastructure required was the PocketParker server for receiving events and generating availability estimates. The userbase involved 105 total participants from PHONELAB. Over 45 days of monitoring, the PocketParker app run by these users generated 10,827 events—5916 arrivals and 4911 departures—for an average of 241 per day. Our main and medical campuses produced 3645 and 846 total events respectively, with non-campus locales contributing to the remaining 6336 events.

Figure 10 shows all of the events that occurred in three key lots that we monitored during our experiment. Our computer science building is labeled as the point of interest (POI). The three labeled lots were assigned our building as a destination and desirability indices based on their proximity. To determine ground truth availability, we positioned four cameras at locations within the building to monitor lots A and B in Figure 10. Despite the fact that many parking events took place in lot C, we were unable to locate a suitable vantage point to gather camera data for that lot. Nexus S 4G smartphones equipped with fish-eye lenses took 34,138 time lapse images each minute for four days.

Using these images, we produced lot capacity charts containing the proportion of free spots in a given lot at a given time. Specifically, we hand coded the images for the two lots at ten minute intervals. We were particularly interested in the transition between empty and full states, so we were careful to ensure that a lot was never marked full even if there was a single available spot.

We fed these capacity charts, along with parking events in camera-monitored lots A and B, into the PocketParker

estimation engine to produce accuracy results for a four day period. Table 2 shows results for our campus deployment. Overall the accuracy of PocketParker is excellent, achieving 94.2% accuracy at a monitored driver fraction of 0.2, which we believe is an accurate estimate of the percentage of PocketParker users using these lots.

### LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE WORK

The pocketsourcing approach taken by PocketParker makes it easy to integrate into existing mapping applications, which would provide access to the estimated half-billion smartphone users that have installed Google Maps. The increase in the monitored fraction would significantly improve PocketParker’s accuracy and usability. This would enable PocketParker to display the location of the events more precisely.

PocketParker presently bases its parking predictions on a fifteen-minute limited rolling window of recent parking events. We do not presently tap the benefit of daily and weekly patterns that would otherwise enhance predictive accuracy, but hope to do so in the future. Maintaining a historical data collected from our own application would increase the sample size and hence statistical accuracy of our parking predictions. This is another area where integration with a mapping application would help, providing PocketParker with access to much more data.

Presently, PocketParker is designed for a single user per vehicle. Proximity detection of users would allow the system to detect the case of multiple users in a vehicle and thus to reduce spurious arrival and departure events.

Finally, we believe that once users begin interacting with PocketParker we will see different parking preferences emerge. Some user will want PocketParker to help them aggressively hunt for spots, and be willing to wait for drivers to leave. Others may be more interested in simply finding a spot quickly even if it is farther away. PocketParker has several parameters that can control its predictions, and we will need to determine how to expose these options to users.

### CONCLUSION

We have presented PocketParker, a pocketsourcing solution for predicting parking lot availability. PocketParker requires no explicit user input and can provide parking lot predictions without being removed from a user’s pocket. PocketParker’s accuracy derives from combining a simple and energy-efficient parking event detector with a sophisticated parking lot availability model that incorporates the effect of hidden drivers that compete with PocketParker users for parking spots. Our evaluation has demonstrated that PocketParker can provide accurate predictions across a variety of parking lot types and patterns, and that a fielded deployment of PocketParker performed extremely well. We look forward to integrating PocketParker into existing mapping applications and bringing it to pockets everywhere.

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