

1 Commuting Flow Prediction using 2 OpenStreetMap Data

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10 Abstract

11 Accurately predicting commuting flows is crucial for sustainable urban
12 planning and preventing disease spread due to human mobility. While
13 recent advancements have produced effective models for predicting
14 these recurrent flows, the existing methods rely on datasets exclusive
15 to a few study areas, limiting the transferability to other locations.
16 This research broadens the applicability of state-of-the-art commuting
17 flow prediction models by employing features from freely accessible
18 and globally available OpenStreetMap data. We show that the pre-
19 diction accuracy of several state-of-the-art models using open data
20 is comparable to location-specific and proprietary data. Our ex-
21 periments indicate that consistent with theoretical and analytical models,
22 building types, distance, and population are the determining char-
23 acteristics for mobility related to commuting. Furthermore, our ex-
24 periments show that predicted flows closely match ground truth flows.
25 It helps establish the practical relevance of flow prediction models
26 for real-world applications such as urban planning and epidemiology.

27 Introduction

28 Understanding how individuals routinely move from one place to another is
29 as challenging as it is significant [1, 2]. Commuting flow prediction estimates

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the number of people moving between regions in a geographic area based on descriptive features, such as population [3], distance to other locations [4], and land use type [5]. Commuting flow prediction is helpful in many applications, such as understanding migration patterns [6, 7], urban planning [8, 9], and epidemiology [10, 11]. Considering that commuting flows vary little from day to day [12, 13], the goal is typically to predict a set of static flows where each flow represents the average number of daily commuters between origin-destination pairs, i.e., home and work locations [14, 15]. Therefore, similar to other approaches [9, 16], we define the term flow prediction as the task of predicting repetitive static flows rather than forecasting flows along a series of points in time using historical data, which is a time series problem.

Analytical flow prediction approaches include spatial interaction models such as the gravity model [17] and its extensions, including the radiation model [18–20], the intervening opportunities model [21, 22], and the competing migrants model [23]. Each model proposes different characteristics to predict accurate flows. For example, the gravity model assumes that the flow between locations is a function of two main characteristics: (i) the population at both locations and (ii) the distance between them. In another example, the intervening opportunities model replaces distance with the number of opportunities at the destination location that satisfy the trip objective [24]. Thus, when predicting commuter flows, the “opportunity” in question might be the number of commercial businesses.

More recently, machine learning models for commuting flow prediction far outperform the traditional mathematical approaches when comparing the predicted flows with ground truth [16, 25–28]. These models leverage machine learning approaches that can more flexibly incorporate different features of the origin-destination and can capture complex and non-linear relationships in the data [29–31]. Many studies use spatiotemporal characteristics to address the flow prediction problem using neural networks [32–35], which can also be combined with ordinary differential equations [36]. A current state-of-the-art model, the Geo-contextual Multitask Embedding Learner (GMEL) [9] learns commuting flows based on origin-destination features and their spatial contexts. GMEL uses 65 features derived from the 2015 NYC Primary Land Use Tax Lot Output (PLUTO)[37] dataset. In another example, the ConvGCN-RF model [38] uses convolutional neural network, graph convolutional network, and a random forest regressor to predict the commuting flow based on origin-destination features related to land use, as well as the residential and working population for homogeneous spatial units in the region of Beijing, China. Spadon et al. [39] derive 22 urban features from datasets provided by the Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics (IBGE) to predict intercity commuting in Brazil.

Despite the ability of such models to accurately predict flows, these high-performing models use a large number of input features derived from location-specific data sets that are not available outside of the study area. It makes the use of the model in other data-poor study regions challenging. In addition,

given the variety of different input features used across models, it is difficult to compare models independent of the used data.

Our goal in this research is to address the limitations that restrict the applicability of current commuting flow prediction models to arbitrary study areas. More precisely, we assess the effectiveness of these models by employing a minimal set of input features obtained from a globally accessible dataset called OpenStreetMap (OSM) [40]. Moreover, since numerous models are assessed using high-level metrics, such as Root Mean Square Error (RMSE), Coefficient of Determination (R^2), and Common Part of Commuters (CPC), which provide limited insight into the model's ability to replicate authentic patterns intrinsic to commuting flows, we investigate the degree to which these models prove valuable in predicting significant mobility flows at different scales. The extensive analysis of flows explains some of the underlying phenomena driving commuting mobility. Motivated by features used in previous theoretical work, including the gravity model and intervening opportunities model, we consider three characteristics to address the flow prediction problem: building types, distance, and population. Specifically, we extract nine input features from open data based on these characteristics that potentially drive commuters' mobility, as follows:

- The number (count), density, and area of residential and non-residential buildings, respectively (six features),
- Region population and population density (two features), and
- Distance between census tracts (one feature)

The feature generation leverages existing work on using a machine learning approach to classify OSM building types [41] beyond the information available in OSM. Additionally, we use Open Source Routing Machine (OSRM), an OSM-based routing API [42], to generate trip duration between all pairs of regions used to represent distance. Using these features, we first provide a fair comparison of different models for predicting commuter flows. Our first case study focuses on New York City (NYC), USA, at the census tract granularity, where we compare two state-of-the-art models, including GMEL [9] and Deep Gravity [27], and eXtreme Gradient Boosting (XGBoost) and random forests (RF) as out-of-the-box models commonly used for commuting prediction [25, 26, 39]. The 2015 Longitudinal Employer-Household Dynamics (LEHD) Origin-Destination Employment Statistics (LODES) data [43] is used to evaluate the effectiveness of our approach. We compare model performance using OSM-derived features with region-specific features unavailable outside the study area. Finally, we demonstrate the inherent flexibility of using OSM-derived features by predicting commuting flows for Fairfax County, USA. Results from both case studies validate the intuitive understanding that the destination flows, commuters going to workplaces, are concentrated in a few places.

Table 1: Notations used in the study

Notation	Meaning
$A = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$	The study region
a_i	A subregion of the study region
n	The number of subregions
T_{ij}	The ground truth commuter flow from Region a_i to Region a_j
\widehat{T}_{ij}	The estimated commuter flow from Region a_i to Region a_j
d_{ij}	Spatial distance between two subregions
$O_i = \sum_j T_{ij}$	The total outflow of region a_i (to any other region)
$I_i = \sum_j T_{ji}$	The total inflow of region a_i (to any other region)
$\widehat{O}_i = \sum_j \widehat{T}_{ij}$	The estimated outflow of region a_i (to any other region)
$\widehat{I}_i = \sum_j \widehat{T}_{ji}$	The estimated inflow of region a_i (to any other region)

Results

Results show that we can get accurate flow predictions between census tracts using features derived from open data, and population, building type, and distance are the significant characteristics driving commuting mobility. The evidence from experiments at multiple scales suggests our approach produces meaningful mobility patterns while providing notable insights into the commuting flows. Before presenting our findings, we briefly define the commuting flow prediction problem.

Problem Definition

The commuting flow prediction problem can be defined as follows. Table 1 summarizes the used notations.

Definition 1 (Commuting Flow Prediction). Let A denote a study region partitioned into n smaller regions (a_1, \dots, a_n), such as census tracts in the United States. For each region a_i , let f_i denote a corresponding set of features, and for each pair of regions a_i, a_j , let d_{ij} denote a distance measure between regions. Given these features and distance, the task is to predict the commuting flow T_{ij} for each pair of regions $a_i, a_j \in A$.

Benchmark Results

Using OSM data and the same set of derived features for New York City (NYC), Table 2 provides the commuting flow prediction accuracy for state-of-the-art models GMEL [9] and Deep Gravity [27], and out-of-the-box models XGBoost [44] and RF [45]. To evaluate model performance, we use the RMSE [46], the Coefficient of Determination R^2 [47], and the Common Part of Commuters metric [48].

The RMSE is defined as follows:

$$RMSE(A) = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{a_{ij}} (\hat{T}_{ij} - T_{ij})^2}{n}}$$

where A is the NYC study region, \hat{T}_{ij} is the predicted commuting flow (c.f. Definition 1), T_{ij} is the ground truth flow obtained for NYC using LODES data, and n is the number of census tracts of NYC.

RMSE values are notoriously difficult to interpret. For example, it is not clear to what degree a prediction with an RMSE of 2.279 is accurate. As such, we also provide the Coefficient of Determination R^2 and Common Part of Commuters (CPC) to provide an additional evaluation of model accuracy. Although the R^2 is well known and measures the fraction of variance explained by the model, the Common Part of Commuters (CPC) is less known. Thus, we define CPC, as follows:

$$CPC(A) = \frac{2 \sum_{a_{ij}} \min(\hat{T}_{ij}, T_{ij})}{\sum_{a_{ij}} \hat{T}_{ij} + \sum_{a_{ij}} T_{ij}}$$

CPC is 0 when predicted and ground truth flows do not overlap and 1 when both are identical [49].

Based on the results presented in Table 2, GMEL has the lowest RMSE and highest CPC and R^2 in comparison to XGBoost, Deep Gravity, and RF. Note that the two state-of-the-art models, GMEL and Deep Gravity, are originally implemented to predict commuting flow using a different set of input features, making them difficult to compare. Therefore, in order to evaluate the performance of the models independent of the data, the models are implemented using the same set of input features derived from OSM. The experiment shows that GMEL is the best-performing model compared to other models using the same features.

Table 2: Evaluation of different flow prediction models using OSM data

Model	RMSE	CPC	R^2
GMEL	2.279	0.495	0.535
XGBoost	3.125	0.261	0.111
Deep Gravity	3.144	0.325	0.078
RF	3.228	0.218	0.051

Comparative Analysis

Given our results showing that GMEL is the best-performing model, we next compare the performance of the originally proposed GMEL model, which leverages the PLUTO dataset [37] available only for New York City, with the performance of GMEL using globally available OSM data. To distinguish

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167 between the two, we call the original model GMEL-PLUTO and our approach
 168 GMEL-OSM throughout the rest of the paper. In other words, GMEL-PLUTO
 169 uses region-specific PLUTO data for flow prediction, while GMEL-OSM uses
 170 features derived from OSM data.

Table 3: Comparison of OSM and PLUTO data using GMEL model for NYC

Features	RMSE	CPC	R^2
GMEL-OSM	2.279	0.495	0.535
GMEL-PLUTO	2.084	0.536	0.611

171 Table 3 shows that a comparable level of prediction accuracy can be
 172 achieved overall when using features derived from globally accessible and freely
 173 available OSM data. The R^2 value indicates that the three characteristics
 174 account for an 53.5% variation in commuting flows. Additionally, GMEL-OSM
 175 utilizes a smaller set of features to achieve accuracy close to GMEL-PLUTO
 176 with 65 features.

177 To better understand the ability of the models to capture meaningful mobility
 178 patterns beyond aggregate metrics, we also evaluate the predicted sum of
 179 outgoing commuters from an origin location a_i denoted as $\hat{O}_i = \sum_j \hat{T}_{ij}$, which
 180 we call *outflows*, and the predicted sum of incoming commuters to a destination
 181 location a_i denoted as $\hat{I}_i = \sum_j \hat{T}_{ji}$, which we call *inflows*. The \hat{O}_i and
 182 \hat{I}_i for each region a_i stemming from the GMEL-OSM and GMEL-PLUTO
 183 predictions are then compared to the ground truth values $O_i = \sum_j T_{ij}$ and
 184 $I_i = \sum_j T_{ji}$ derived from LODES data for NYC.

185 Figure 1 shows the distribution of relative prediction errors for the out-
 186 flows $\frac{O_i - \hat{O}_i}{\hat{O}_i}$ and the inflows $\frac{I_i - \hat{I}_i}{\hat{I}_i}$ for GMEL-OSM (Figures 1a and 1c) and for
 187 GMEL-PLUTO (Figure 1b and 1d). We observe that GMEL-OSM is comparable
 188 with GMEL-PLUTO to predict outflows, but performs somewhat weaker
 189 for inflows. It is likely due to the nature of commuting flows, with inflows being
 190 limited to a small group of destination census tracts (cf. discussion in the Data
 191 Section). Even so, the results show the practicality of predicted flows compared
 192 to ground truth data. Out of those census tracts where flow is over-predicted
 193 by more than 100%, many have a commuting flow count of 10 individuals or
 194 fewer. It indicates that our approach is capable of predicting real-world com-
 195 muting mobility at the tract level, where the flow count is generally more than
 196 10.

197 To assess the accuracy of the predicted inflows and outflows for census
 198 tracts, Figure 2 shows scatter plots comparing the ground truth flows against
 199 the predicted flows using GMEL-OSM (Figures 2a and 2c) and GMEL-PLUTO
 200 (Figures 2b and 2d). Both models tend to overestimate inflows that are smaller
 201 in the real world and underestimate large inflows, as indicated by the points
 202 that fall above and below the identity line. Likewise, both models also tend
 203 to overestimate smaller outflows. Again, while both models produce similar

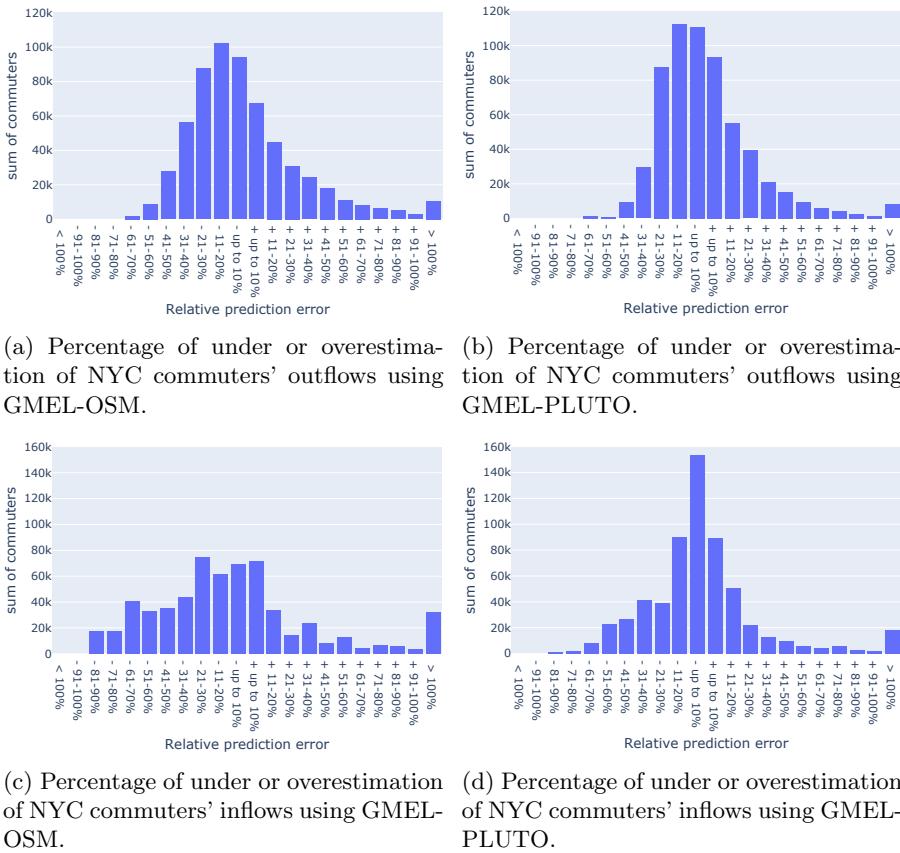


Fig. 1: Comparison of GMEL-OSM and GMEL-PLUTO commuters under or overestimation in NYC flows.

results for outflows, GMEL-PLUTO (65 custom feature model) seems to perform better when predicting the inflows, essentially confirming the results of Figure 1 at a more granular level.

We note that the maximum number of commuters going to a census tract is much higher than coming from a home location, which is consistent in both prediction models and the ground truth. It indicates that the inflows are much denser to specific census tracts or workplaces. We investigate and explain this phenomenon in our Data Section.

We can also map the differences between predicted and ground truth outflows as presented in Figure 3 and inflows presented in Figure 4. Positive relative prediction errors indicate over-prediction and are depicted in shades of blue colors. In contrast, negative percentages indicate under-prediction and are shown in shades of red. Green shows a prediction largely matching the ground truth flows. Note that the large tracts in the south of the study area are mostly

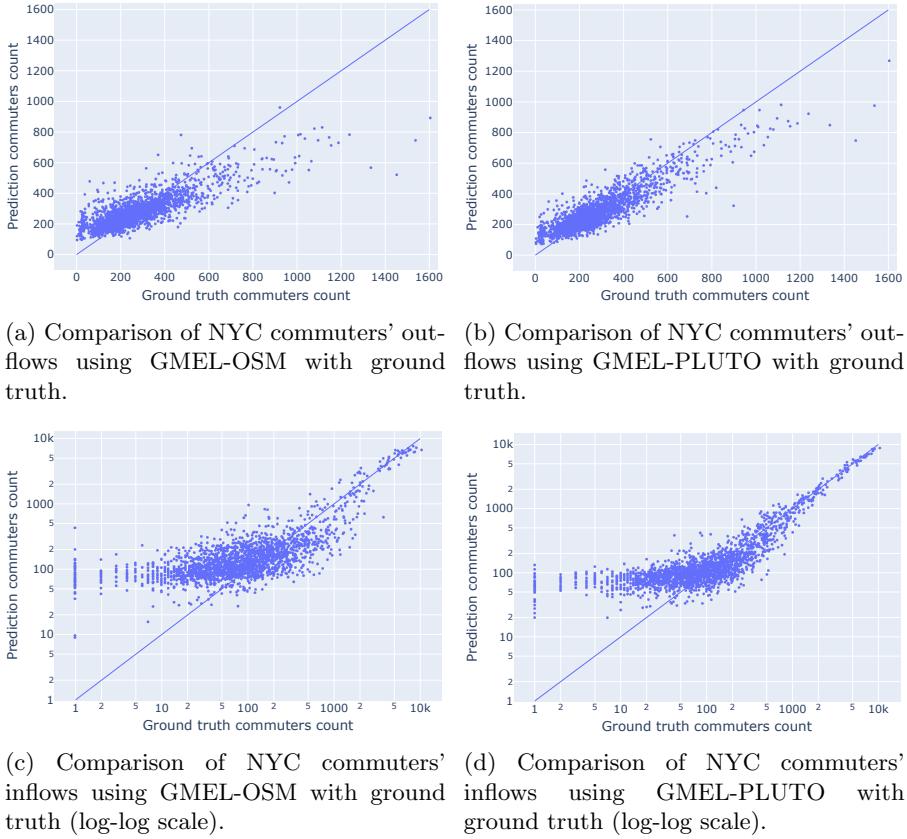
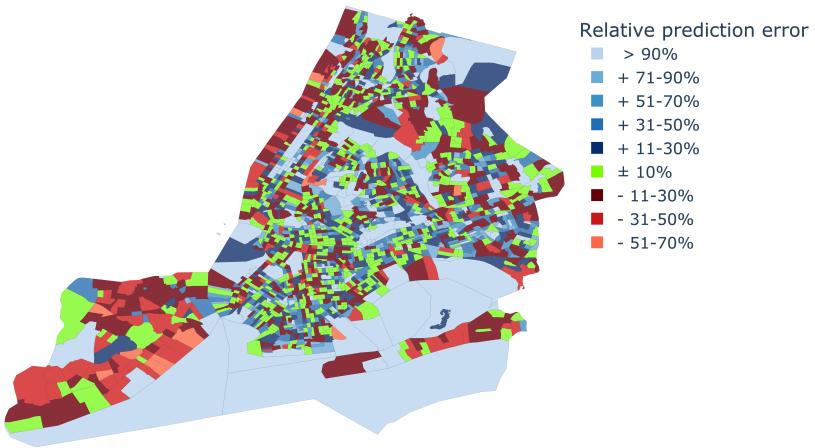


Fig. 2: Comparison of GMEL-OSM and GMEL-PLUTO commuters with ground truth in NYC flows.

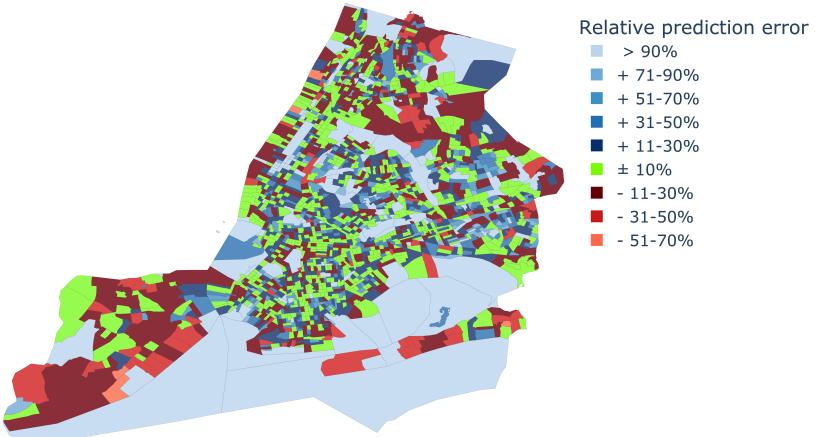
218 comprised of water, thus having small in and outflows. As a result, minor flow
 219 prediction errors for these census tracts provide high relative percentage errors
 220 and as such are shown as large light blue areas.

221 Upon comparing Figures 3 and 4, we can see that GMEL-OSM and GMEL-
 222 PLUTO flow predictions are very similar in terms of the relative prediction
 223 error. Both approaches have less success in predicting destination flows. It is
 224 once again likely due to the large number of features used in GMEL-PLUTO
 225 that are likely better at capturing the inflows to destination census tracts. We
 226 discuss steps that we may take to address this in future work in the Discussion
 227 Section.

228 To better understand the utility of predicted commuter flows, we also
 229 performed experiments focusing on a single origin (destination) tract to under-
 230 stand how well models can capture the distribution of destination (origin)
 231 tracts to (from) this tract. For this purpose, we select the census tract hav-
 232 ing the median outflow (Geoid: 36047037300, denoted as the *Origin Median*)



(a) Relative errors of NYC outflows using GMEL-OSM.

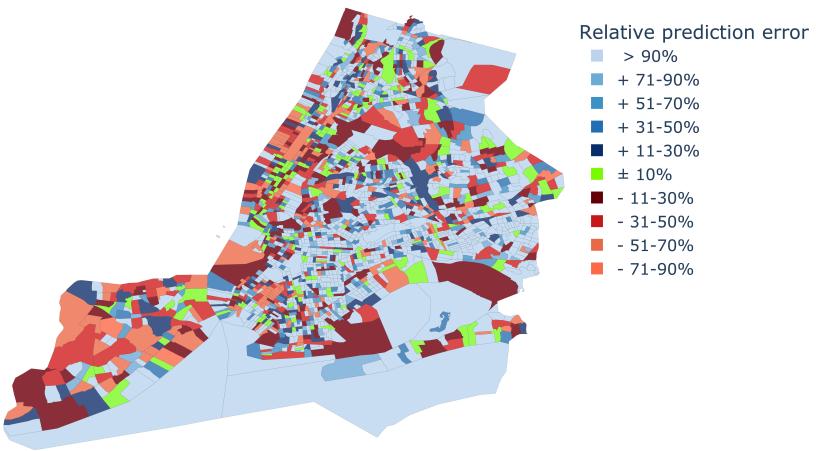


(b) Relative errors of NYC outflows using GMEL-PLUTO.

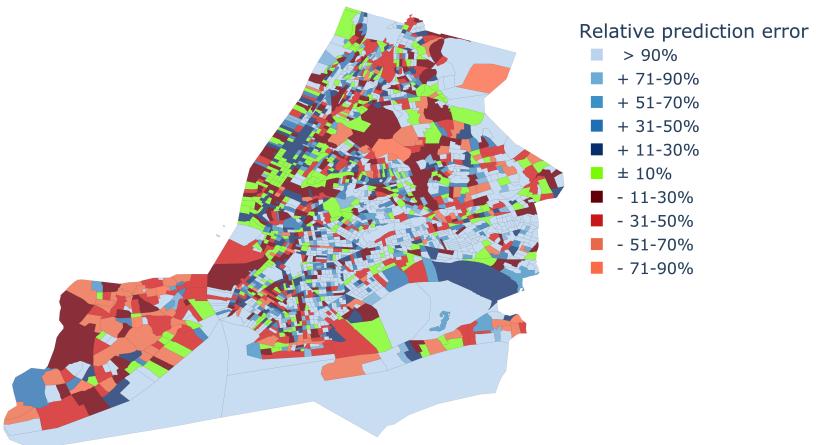
Fig. 3: Comparison of GMEL-OSM and GMEL-PLUTO in NYC outflows. Plotly version 5.13.0 was used to generate the maps.

and the census tract having the median inflow (GeoID 36005024800, denoted as the *Destination Median*). We use these two census tracts to evaluate (i) the distribution of outflows from the Origin Median to understand how well the models can understand where people commute to (from one specific census tract) and (ii) the distribution of inflows from the Destination Median to understand how well our models can capture the distribution of where people commute from (to one specific census tract).

Table 4 shows the results of these experiments. Out of all 448 census tracts in the NYC study region included in the test set, 354 tracts have a zero commuting flow from the Origin Median. The remaining 94 census tracts having



(a) Relative errors of NYC inflows using GMEL-OSM.



(b) Relative errors of NYC inflows using GMEL-PLUTO.

Fig. 4: Comparison of GMEL-OSM and GMEL-PLUTO in NYC inflows. Plotly version 5.13.0 was used to generate the maps.

non-zero commuting flows capture a total of 244 commuters. Using GMEL-OSM, we have 332 predicted zero commuting flows and 116 predicted non-zero commuting flow. Out of the predicted 116 predicted non-zero flows, 48 match with the 94 ground truth non-zero flows. Out of the 332 predicted zero flows, 286 match with the 354 ground truth flows. It yields an overall 74.5% accuracy in predicting whether any census tract has a non-zero flow from the Origin Median. Note that we round predictions to the nearest integer for this experiment, such as that a predicted zero flow is equivalent to a predicted flow of less than 0.5 individuals. We observe that for GMEL-PLUTO, the accuracy

Table 4: Single origin and destination census tract predictions

Census Tract	Approach	Zero Flows Count (Matching)	Non-Nero Flows Count (Matching)	Sum of Commuters
Origin Median	Ground Truth	354 (354)	94 (94)	244
	GMEL-OSM	332 (286)	116 (48)	212
	GMEL-PLUTO	345 (304)	103 (53)	201
Destination Median	Ground Truth	411 (411)	46 (46)	81
	GMEL-OSM	418 (393)	39 (21)	43
	GMEL-PLUTO	427 (398)	30 (17)	32

is higher at 79.6%, indicating that the model can better predict destination flows by leveraging PLUTO data.

Similarly, by considering only the Destination Median as a single destination, GMEL-OSM and GMEL-PLUTO matched 90.5% and 90.8%, respectively, out of 457 origin tracts in the test set. We observe that the destination median has a relatively small number of only 81 incoming commuters in the ground truth. It is explained by the long-tail distribution of inflows, which we further investigate and explain in the Data Section.

Overall, we observe that while GMEL-OSM and GMEL-PLUTO provide very accurate flow predictions when aggregated to census tracts, the prediction of individual origin-destination flows remains challenging. The reason is that the vast majority of origin-destination flows are zero and among the non-zero flows, most flows are less than five individuals. Despite these small numbers, which correspond to rare events of individual origin-destination commutes, both GMEL-OSM and GMEL-PLUTO give good results.

Based on the results presented so far, we can conclude that there are marginal gains in performance by using a large number of region-specific features using GMEL-PLUTO, and we can achieve similar results with a small set of features derived from open data that is globally available. To examine whether GMEL-OSM is usable in other regions, we trained and tested the model for Fairfax County in Virginia and compared the predicted flows with the LODES data as ground truth. Note that we cannot compare GMEL-OSM with GMEL-PLUTO because the latter approach uses NYC-specific data, which is publicly unavailable for Fairfax.

Histograms in Figure 5 show the relative percentage errors of outflows and inflows at the tract level compared to the ground truth. Figure 6 demonstrates the trend of flow prediction for outflows and inflows, respectively. We observe that the model performance in Fairfax, VA is comparable, if not better than the NYC case study using GMEL-PLUTO. Based on the histograms, it appears that the commuting inflows for Fairfax are easier to predict and less extreme than in NYC.

Additionally, we trained GMEL-OSM using NYC data and tested the pre-trained model to predict the commuting flows for Fairfax to determine whether the model is useful in locations where training commuting flow data (obtained for the U.S. from LODES data) is not available. Table 5 shows that the model



- (a) Percentage of under or overestimation of Fairfax commuters' outflows using GMEL-OSM.
- (b) Percentage of under or overestimation of Fairfax commuters' inflows using GMEL-OSM.

Fig. 5: Commuters under or overestimation using GMEL-OSM for Fairfax.

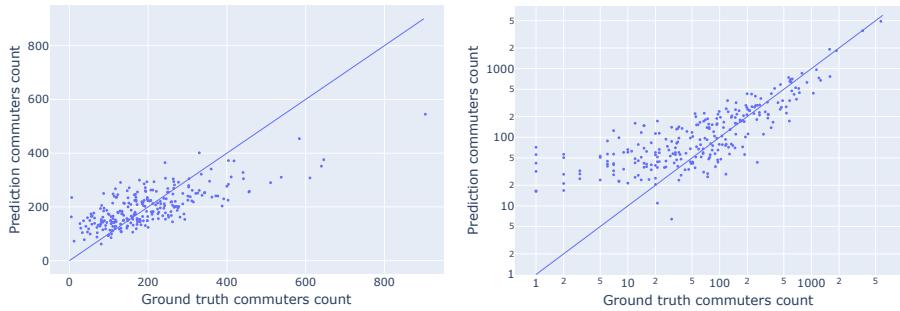
trained in NYC and transferred to Fairfax provides acceptable results by explaining 62.1% of the variation in the commuting flows of Fairfax, compared to 70.2% using the model that was trained using Fairfax LODES data.

Table 5: Comparison of GMEL-OSM in Fairfax using transfer learning

Training data	RMSE	CPC	R ²
Fairfax	6.476	0.643	0.702
NYC	7.427	0.572	0.621

Discussion

Results for the two study areas show that commuting flows can be accurately predicted using features derived from OSM data, which is globally available and freely accessible. Comparative results reveal that GMEL-OSM achieves accuracy close to region-specific GMEL-PLUTO, which outperforms other state-of-the-art models but cannot be used outside NYC due to a lack of input data for other regions. The learning framework of GMEL-OSM relies on geographic contextual information [50] for predicting commuting flows between origin-destination pairs of subregions. Our findings suggest that the OSM data captures the contextual information very well for the origin and destination locations, providing a rich and effective source of input features for GMEL-OSM. Besides aggregated results, the in-depth analysis demonstrates the usefulness of the predicted flows for urban planning [51], disease transmission [52, 53], and other applications [54, 55]. We find that inflows are concentrated in a few destinations while outflows are more evenly distributed, validating the intuition that people commute to a few workplaces and reside in dispersed locations. Our analysis shows that GMEL-OSM effectively captures



(a) Comparison of Fairfax commuters' outflows using GMEL-OSM with ground truth.
 (b) Comparison of Fairfax commuters' inflows using GMEL-OSM with ground truth (log-log scale).

Fig. 6: Comparison of GMEL-OSM commuters prediction with ground truth for Fairfax flows.

307 this divergent phenomenon, matching the trend of outflows and inflows in the
 308 ground truth. Additionally, we also illustrate that the number of residential
 309 and non-residential buildings in census tracts plays a crucial role in predicting
 310 commuters' mobility. Our results indicate that building types, distance, and
 311 population are the essential characteristics driving commuting mobility.

312 While the population can be estimated at a fine-grained scale using OSM
 313 data [56, 57], for simplicity, we utilized the U.S. Census data as a proxy for
 314 this. In future work, we plan to extend our proposed approach for generating
 315 population features, alleviating the need for census data. To investigate
 316 the explainability of the input features, we might explore a unified mechanism
 317 for interpreting predictions such as SHapley Additive exPlanations (SHAP)
 318 [58]. It would help us understand which features are useful for better commut-
 319 ing flow predictions, potentially leading to more suitable feature selection for
 320 improving the performance of our approach. Where we found relatively weaker
 321 prediction accuracy for the destination flows, there is an opportunity to exam-
 322 ine what features might improve this aspect of the predictions. Prior work
 323 shows the effectiveness of points of interest (PoIs) [59] and land use [60, 61]
 324 for predicting flows. Therefore, we would explore types of PoIs and land use
 325 as other characteristics driving mobility. Finally, our transfer learning results
 326 for Fairfax County show promise for future work in which we would plan to
 327 apply our approach to regions where LODES or equivalent commuting data is
 328 not publicly unavailable, potentially outside the U.S.

329 Methods

330 Models

331 We aim to predict commuting flows from three characteristics operationalized
 332 using globally available and openly accessible data. Therefore, we examine

333 four models including GMEL, Deep Gravity, XGBoost, and random forest
 334 (RF), comparing their performance using the same set of features derived
 335 from OSM. GMEL employs graph representation learning by using the graph
 336 attention network (GAT) framework for capturing the geographic contextual
 337 information from the nearby regions for commuting flow predictions. Given the
 338 potentially unique characteristics of the regions, it uses two GATs separately
 339 for origin and destination locations. As described in the proposed model [9],
 340 we used one hidden layer and an embedding size of 128 as hyperparameters for
 341 GMEL-OSM. Deep Gravity utilizes deep neural networks to generate mobility
 342 flows using features retrieved from OSM and census data [27]. The main fea-
 343 tures include land use, points of interest, road networks, and the population
 344 of the study region. XGBoost is a regression tree gradient boosting model,
 345 a highly scalable learning system capable of efficiently handling sparse data
 346 and supporting multicore parallel computing for quick model exploration [44].
 347 XGBoost has been shown to outperform traditional mathematical gravity and
 348 radiation models for commuting flow prediction using U.S. Census data [25].
 349 Random forests are the ensemble of individual tree predictions averaged for
 350 regression problems and the prediction with maximum votes selected for clas-
 351 sification problems [45]. Compared to the gravity model and artificial neural
 352 networks, the accuracy for the random forest is higher for predicting commut-
 353 ing flows in NYC in previous work [26]. As described in Results Section, we
 354 evaluate the comparative performance of these models for our approach using
 355 the parameters and configurations prescribed in the proposed studies.

356 Data

357 We use real-world commuting flows obtained from the Longitudinal
 358 Employer-Household Dynamics (LEHD) Origin-Destination Employment
 359 Statistics (LODES) 2015 dataset [43, 62] as ground truth for training and test-
 360 ing the models. LODES data captures the raw number of commuters between
 361 two regions at the census block level, and we aggregated it at the census tract
 362 level.

363 Across the 2,168 NYC census tracts, there are $2168^2 = 4,700,224$ pair-
 364 wise flows, of which 905,837 are non-zero with a total of 3,031,641 commuters.
 365 Similarly, across the 263 Fairfax County census tracts, there are a possible
 366 69,169 flows out of which 34,366 are non-zero flows, capturing 259,792 com-
 367 muters. Unlike prior work [9, 12, 26], we include flows that are zero in the
 368 ground truth LODES data. While LODES data does not explicitly include
 369 zero flows in their data, the omitted flows between a pair of census tracts are
 370 implicitly assumed to be zero values, which are missing from the evaluation
 371 of prior work [9, 12, 26]. However, omitting such flows creates biased models
 372 that learn that any pair of origin-destination census tracts must always have
 373 at least a flow count of one commuter. Our experiments include all pairs of
 374 census tracts, including zero flows, eliminating the bias. In other words, we
 375 add zero flows to training and test sets of all evaluated models to allow a fair
 376 evaluation. We note that due to this difference, the quantitative results we

377 report in the aggregated metrics in the Results Section (such as Table 2) are
 378 generally lower than reported in prior work, as our results include cases of
 379 flows where models predict a non-zero flow instead of a zero flow count in the
 380 ground truth. For training and testing, we split the flows into a 60% training
 381 set, a 20% validation set, and a 20% test set.

382 Table 6 presents the descriptive statistics for the NYC and Fairfax County
 383 LODES outflows O_i and inflows I_i aggregated at the tract level. We notice
 384 a much higher standard deviation of the inflow of commuters in both study
 385 regions. The maximum count of commuters for the inflows also highlights the
 386 significant difference in variance. Furthermore, the 3rd quantile values in both
 387 cases show the skewness in the distribution of commuters. These results demon-
 388 strate the concentrated nature of inflows in comparison to outflows, where the
 389 majority of commuters move to a small set of destination census tracts. There-
 390 fore, as our results suggest, it is much harder to predict the commuters' count
 391 for inflows.

Table 6: Descriptive statistics of ground truth data Data

Study Area	Flow Type	Mean	Standard Deviation	Min	25%	Median	75%	Max
NYC	Outflows	280	176	4	168	244	350	1604
	Inflows	280	817	1	34	81	190	10243
Fairfax	Outflows	197	120	5	111	173	255	904
	Inflows	197	482	1	21	67	180	5702

392 OSM is an open-source collaborative project that provides free access to
 393 geographic data collected by volunteers at the global level [40]. The OSM
 394 data is structured as a set of elements such as nodes, ways, and relations that
 395 represent points of interest, polylines or polygons, and more complex shapes
 396 consisting of relationships between simple elements. Tags of key and value pairs
 397 can describe all the elements. For instance, a polygon can be tagged with the
 398 key as building and value as a residential, describing a residential building.
 399 This way, OSM data provides extensive coverage of points, buildings, roads,
 400 parking lots, and many other types of geographic information via editable
 401 maps. The OSM data we used for this work consists of 1,090,752 NYC and
 402 204,671 Fairfax building footprints.

403 Features

404 The features used in the models for predicting the flows are derived from OSM
 405 and the 2010 U.S. Census data [63]. Previous work shows that building types
 406 are missing from a vast majority of OSM data, and the spatial and non-spatial
 407 features of the data can be used to categorize buildings into residential or
 408 non-residential types [41]. We use this classification method to label the OSM
 409 buildings data and derive six input features for our study. In the first step of
 410 data preparation, we classify buildings for NYC and Fairfax. And in the second

411 step, we calculate the count, area, and density of two building types for each
 412 census tract, resulting in six features.

413 We use population and the population density for each tract as two more
 414 input features. Although population estimates can be derived from OSM fea-
 415 tures in the same way [56, 57], we use census data as a proxy for this approach.
 416 Finally, we obtain the trip duration between the centroids of census tracts
 417 using Open Source Routing Machine (OSRM) [42] and use it as the edge fea-
 418 ture for the geo-adjacency network of GMEL-OSM. OSRM also relies on the
 419 maps from the OSM road network for calculating the shortest paths between
 420 O-D pairs.

421 Data availability

422 Data are available from OSF at <https://osf.io/sxzar/>

423 Code availability

424 The code is available in a GitHub repository at [https://github.com/heykuldip/
 425 commuting_flows_prediction](https://github.com/heykuldip/commuting_flows_prediction)

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623 Author contributions statement

624 K.S.A, T.A, A.Z, and D.P. designed the study. K.S.A, T.A, A.Z, and D.P.
625 performed the analyses. K.S.A, T.A, A.Z, and D.P. conceived the experi-
626 ments, K.S.A conducted the experiments. K.S.A, T.A, A.Z, and D.P. wrote
627 and reviewed the manuscript.

628 Competing interests

629 The authors declare no competing interests.

630 Additional information

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