# Studying Segregation In Estonia Using Call Data Records - Supplementary File

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## 1 Related Work

The Table 1 shows various non-spatial and spatial indices. The 'Checkerboard problem' is an example that is typically used to investigate the properties of various segregation measures [29, 30, 7, 14] is shown in Figure 1. In most people's perceptions, the four arrangements reflect varying levels of segregation. However, the values of D are the same, i.e., it does not differ between different spatial arrangements. In fact, the value of D will still be 1 as long as one population group is inhabited exclusively in each spatial unit [25, 20, 27].

	Non-Spatial Indices		Spatial Indices		
S.No.	Index	Citation	S.No.	Index	Citation
1	Dissimilarity index	[8]	11	Spatial proximity (SP) index	[25]
2	Gini index	[8]	12	Multi-group SP	[13]
3	Centralisation index	[9]	13	Dissimilarity index incorporat-	[20]
				ing spatial adjacency	
4	Coleman's Homophily index	[6]	14	Dssimilarity index incorporating	[27]
				common boundary lengths	
5	Freeman's index	[11]	15	Dssimilarity index incorporating	[27, 23]
				common boundary lengths and	
				perimeter/area ratio	
6	Multi-group dissimilarity index	[19, 24]	16	Spatial version of multigroup dis-	[28, 15]
				similarity index	
7	Exposure index	[17]	17	General index of spatial segrega-	[26]
				tion	
8	Neighbourhood sorting index	[16]	18	Generalised spatial dissimilarity	[10]
	(NSI)			(GSD) index	
9	Typology for classifying ethnic	[22, 21]	19	Spatial dissimilarity index	[23]
	residential areas				
10	Location Quotient (LQ)	[4]	20	Spatial information theory index	[23]

Table 1: Non-spatial and spatial segregation indices.

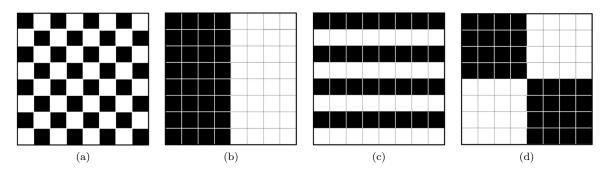


Figure 1: The Checkerboard Problem.

# 2 Descriptive Analysis

## 2.1 Gender Segregation

We begin our analysis by analyzing the percentage of calls that remain within the same gender against the opposite gender (see Figure 2). We observe that 56.77% male calls to male and 56.28% female calls remain within females indicating that the same gender calls happen more. Next, we perform the t-test, and the majority percentage of within-gender calls and the t-test's p-value of 2.2e-16 suggests that the users prefer to call within the same gender.

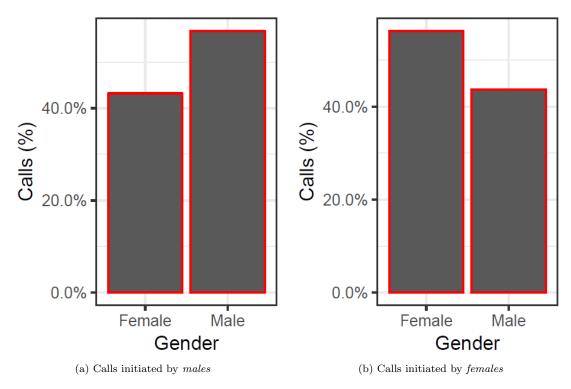


Figure 2: Calls initiated by males and females. blueHere, x-axis represents gender of the called person and y-axis represents the percentage of calls. Figure (a) shows the calls initiated by *males* to *females* and *males*. Similarly, figure (b) shows the calls initiated by *females*.

### 2.2 Age-Group Segregation

Figure 3 shows the FSI values for different age-groups in various Estonian counties. The red solid horizontal line shows the average FSI index based on age-group segregation. The FSI index for various age-group is also shown using different color bars. We can observe that FSI index for all age-groups is less than the average FSI index in Voru, Polva, Saare and Rapla. We can also observe that in Jogeva, Laane and Laane-Viru, the segregation index for age-group (24-54) is approximately near to the average segregation. The interesting observation to be noted here is that the age-group (24-54) is mostly segregated in county Parnu. Another interesting observation can be that in Hiiu county (highlighted using a blue rectangle in Figure 3), only elderly (i.e., (64,100)) individuals are more segregated than the mean FSI value. Therefore, we further analyzed this age-group for Hiiu county using social network analysis.

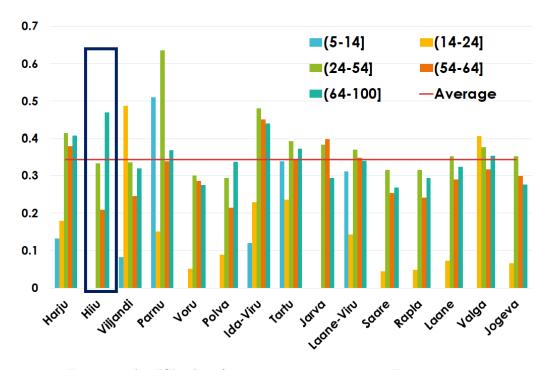


Figure 3: The FSI values for age-groups segregation in Estonia counties.

We create a directed network for Hiiu county that represents the call connections among users where an edge  $(u \to v)$  is formed if a user u has called user v. Fig 4a shows the CDR network, where each node is color-coded based on the gender. The red nodes represent male users, and green nodes represent female users. Links between users are also color-coded. Links which originate from males are colored red (i.e., calls from male to male; and male to a female), and similarly links that originate from females are colored green (i.e., calls from female to female; and female to male). The node labels indicate the age group to which the user belongs.

Furthermore, we employ the well-known degree centrality algorithm [12] to identify the centrality of nodes in the network. Degree centrality is the most basic metric for determining node influence. A node's impact grows as its connections increase. The normalized degree centrality is used to

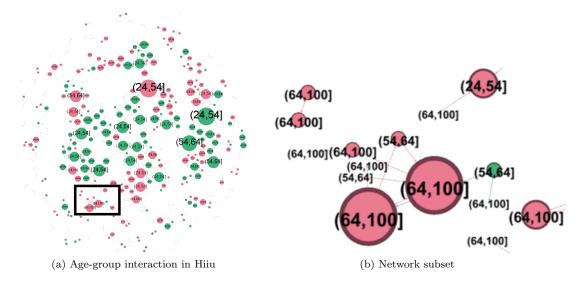


Figure 4: Users network in Hiiu using CDR data. The original network of users in Hiiu county of Estonia. In Figure (a), users are color-coded based on *gender*. Color coding is as follows: red node are male users and green nodes are female users. The nodes with higher degree value are shown in relatively bigger size than others. Node labels are their age-group. Figure (b) shows a specific portion of the network (highlighted using rectangle in Figure (a)).

compare the influences of nodes in the network and is defined as follows:

$$DC(i) = \frac{d_i}{n-1} \tag{1}$$

where, n = |V| is the number of nodes in our network and n - 1 is the largest possible degree. An individual with a higher degree centrality could reflect its greater social influence to propagate a piece of information in the network. In Fig 4a, the size of the node reflects the degree centrality of the node.

In Figure 4b, we shown a subset of the network highlighted using rectangle in Figure 4a. Although highlighting a network subset can be called biased such that we may be hiding the other subsets where similar relationships may be missing, nevertheless it can provide some significant information about segregation of elderly (i.e., (64,100)) individuals in the actual network. We can observe that elderly individuals prefer to connect other elderly individuals. We also observe that there are many elderly pairs which are only connected to each other.

### 2.3 Segregation in Estonian Counties

#### 2.3.1 Segregation in Estonian counties without Narva city

We measured the FSI values for each county after removing the Narva city of Ida-Viru county. The reason for removing this particular city is the fact that majority of its population has Russian-speaking individuals. In particular, 95.7% of the population of Narva city are native Russian-speakers, and 87.7% are ethnic Russians [2]. We calculated FSI index after removing Narva city and find that the segregation of Ida-Viru county decreased from 0.856 to 0.843 as shown in Figure 5 using green color rectangle. Hence, we can conclude that Russian-speaking population in Narva city of Ida-Viru county is more segregated than Estonian-speaking population. We can further infer that location segregation and language segregation are correlated with each other.

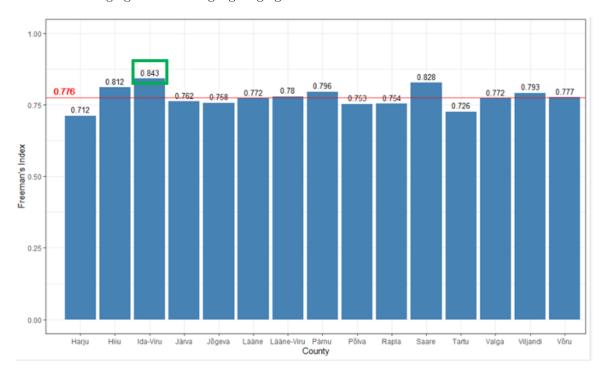


Figure 5: The FSI values for location segregation in Estonia after removing Narva city of Ida-Viru county.

#### 2.3.2 Segregation in Estonian counties without Pärnu city

In this section, we measured the FSI values for each county after removing the  $P\ddot{a}rnu$  city of  $P\ddot{a}rnu$  county. The reason for removing this particular city is the fact that majority of its population has Estonian-speaking individuals (83%) [2]. On the other hand, the Russian-speaking, Ukrainian-speaking and other language speaking individuals are 12.8%, 1.7% and 2.5% respectively [2]. We calculated FSI index after removing  $P\ddot{a}rnu$  city and find that the segregation of  $P\ddot{a}rnu$  and Haju county increased from 0.712 and 0.796 to 0.718 and 0.805 respectively as shown in Figure 6 using red color rectangles. Hence, we can conclude that Estonian-speaking population in  $P\ddot{a}rnu$  city of  $P\ddot{a}rnu$  county is less segregated than other language speaking population. In other words, we see the similar behavior as earlier that Russian-speaking population in  $P\ddot{a}rnu$  county is more segregated. Therefore, we can infer with reasonable confidence that location segregation and language segregation are correlated with each other.

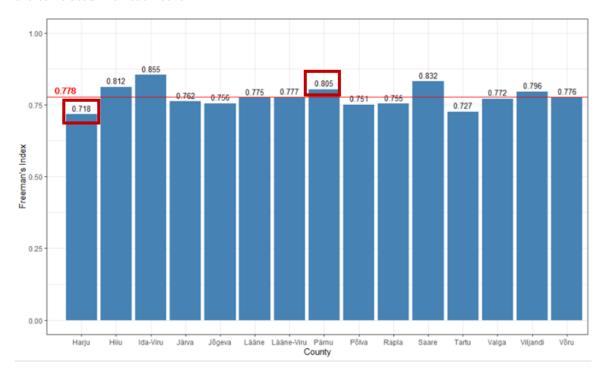


Figure 6: The FSI values for location segregation in Estonia after removing  $P\ddot{a}rnu$  city of  $P\ddot{a}rnu$  county.

#### 2.3.3 Segregation in Estonian counties without Tartu city

Here, we measured the *FSI* values for each county after removing the *Tartu* city of *Tartu* county. The reason for removing this particular city is the fact that it is the second largest city of Estonia, after Estonia's political and financial capital Tallinn. *Tartu* is often considered the intellectual centre of the country [1, 3, 5], especially since it is home to the nation's oldest and most renowned university, the University of Tartu. *Tartu* city itself is also the oldest city of Estonia [18].

The majority population of Tartu city speaks Estonian (80%) [2]. On the other hand, the Russian-speaking and other language speaking individuals are 14% and 6% respectively [2]. We calculated FSI index after removing Tartu city and find that it affects many counties. The FSI value for six counties (Harju,  $J\~ogeva$ ,  $P\~olva$ , Tartu, Valga and  $V\~oru$ ) have increased as shown in Figure 7 using red color rectangles. On the other hand, the FSI value for four counties (Hiiu,  $J\~ogeva$ , Rapla and Saare) have decreased as shown in Figure 7 using green color rectangles. Hence, we can conclude that individuals in Tartu city of Tartu county have greater impact on other counties either by increasing or decreasing their FSI values. Interestingly, we also observe that removing Tartu city has no impact on Ida-Viru and  $P\~arnu$  counties which shows that their segregation is independent of Tartu city. This is also true for other counties which are not affected by removal of Tartu city. Therefore, we can conclude that Tartu city is well connected with other counties of Estonia.

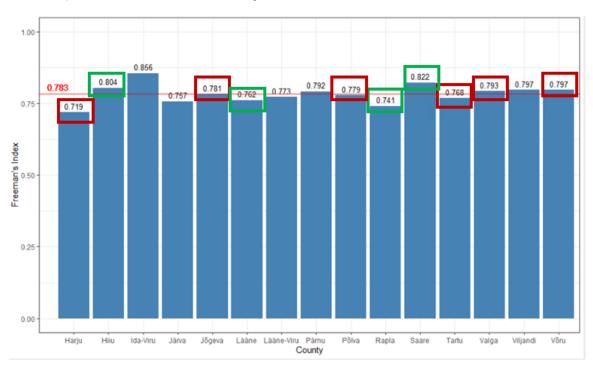


Figure 7: The FSI values for location segregation in Estonia after removing Tartu city of Tartu county.

#### 2.3.4 Segregation in Estonian counties without Tallinn city

Next, we measure the FSI values for each county after removing the Tallinn city of Harju county. The reason for removing this particular city is that it is the capital and the most populous city of Estonia. Tallinn is also the main financial, industrial and cultural centre of Estonia [1]. Tallinn city also have approximately equal number of Estonian-speaking (50.1%) and Russian-speaking (46.7%) individuals [2].

We calculated FSI index after removing Tallinn city and find that it affects all counties. The FSI value for eight counties (Harju, Hiiu, Ida-Viru,  $L\ddot{a}\ddot{a}ne$ ,  $L\ddot{a}\ddot{a}ne$ -Viru,  $P\ddot{a}rnu$ , Rapla and Saare) have increased as shown in Figure 8 using red color rectangles. Hence, we can conclude that these eight counties are very well-connected to the Tallinn city individuals. On the other hand, the FSI value for seven counties ( $J\ddot{a}rva$ ,  $J\ddot{o}geva$ ,  $P\ddot{o}lva$ , Tartu, Valga, Viljandi and  $V\ddot{o}ru$ ) have decreased as shown in Figure 8 using green color rectangles. This indicate that these counties are well-connected with other cities and counties other than Tallinn city.

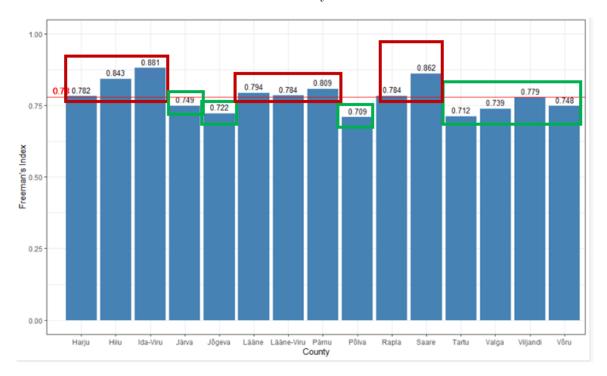


Figure 8: The FSI values for location segregation in Estonia after removing Tallinn city of Harju county.

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