

Who's Calling? Demographics of Mobile Phone Use in Rwanda

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Abstract

We describe how new sources of data can be used to better understand the demographic structure of the population of Rwandan mobile phone users. After combining anonymous call data records with follow-up phone interviews, we detect significant differences in phone usage among different social and economic subgroups of the population. However, initial experiments suggest that predicting demographics from call usage, and vice-versa, is quite difficult.

Introduction

Despite the increasing ubiquity of mobile phones in the developing world, remarkably little is known about the structure and demographics of the mobile phone market. While a few qualitative studies have detailed social norms of phone use in specific communities (Donner 2007; Burrell 2009), and a handful of quantitative researchers have begun to analyze the dynamics of mobile phone networks in general (Onnela 2007; Eagle, Pentland, and Lazer 2009), data constraints have limited meaningful combination of the two.

Here we describe how electronic call data records (CDR) can be coupled with structured phone interviews to better understand the nature of mobile phone use in Rwanda. After introducing the data, we begin to investigate its structure through two parallel questions: First, what kinds of CDR features separate demographic categories? Second, can demographic features predict individual calling patterns?

Call Data Records: We obtained transaction logs of all mobile phone activity that occurred in Rwanda between 2005 and 2009 from the largest mobile phone operator in the country. The logs include the date, time, and geographic location (via cell-phone tower) for each of 1.5 million phone numbers, which we have used to produce aggregate statistics like daily call volume and number of unique contacts. The CDR is completely anonymous.

Demographic Survey: We organized a phone survey in Rwanda, which involved calling a geographically stratified random sample of those phone numbers appearing in the CDR. Each of 901 individuals participated in a structured interview that included roughly 100 questions about demographic background (e.g. gender, age, education) and socioeconomic status (e.g. occupation, asset/land ownership).

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Demographics of Phone Ownership and Use

Based on the data collected in the phone survey, we can infer the basic demographic structure of the Rwandan mobile phone population. For instance, matching the observations of qualitative researchers in similar contexts (Burrell 2009), we find that roughly 30% of phones are shared between multiple people, but that the majority of phones are owned by men (67%). The average mobile phone user is considerably older and better educated than the average Rwandan citizen, as reported in the 2005 national census. But whereas in the general Rwandan populace males tend to be much better educated (76.3% of males are literate, but only 64.7% of females), among mobile phone users it is the women who achieve higher levels of education: the median woman completes secondary school, while the median man does not ($t = 4.79$). Table 1 shows a few statistics on asset ownership, with associated sampling error.

| Category | Yes | Error |
|----------------------|-----|-------|
| Have electricity | 50% | 1.6% |
| Have a refrigerator | 17% | 1.3% |
| Have indoor plumbing | 30% | 1.5% |
| Own livestock | 63% | 1.6% |
| Own a bicycle | 39% | 1.6% |
| Own a car | 19% | 1.3% |
| Have a bank account | 75% | 1.4% |

Table 1: Sample socioeconomic indicators for the mobile phone population.

After extracting the corresponding CDR for the users in our survey, we can begin to investigate how phone usage corresponds with observed demographic differences. Table 2 shows some differences in usage between men and women. The data do not show a significant difference in talk time between men and women: the daily average is just over two minutes. However, the number of *net* calls (number outgoing minus number incoming) is significantly different: men make more outgoing calls and women receive more incoming calls (see Figure 1).

Prediction and Classification

Based on observed differences in the way men and women use mobile phones, and supported by quantitative differ-

| Calling behavior | Men | Women | p-value |
|------------------------------|------|-------|---------|
| Total call duration | 2.21 | 2.41 | 0.3491 |
| Net call duration (out - in) | 0.14 | -0.19 | 0.0004 |
| Int'l call duration | 0.08 | 0.13 | 0.0586 |
| Number of calls | 4.83 | 4.66 | 0.5768 |
| Net number of calls | 0.23 | -0.18 | 0.0045 |
| Number of unique contacts | 2.94 | 2.76 | 0.2979 |

Table 2: Differences in phone usage by gender. Daily averages reported; durations are in minutes.

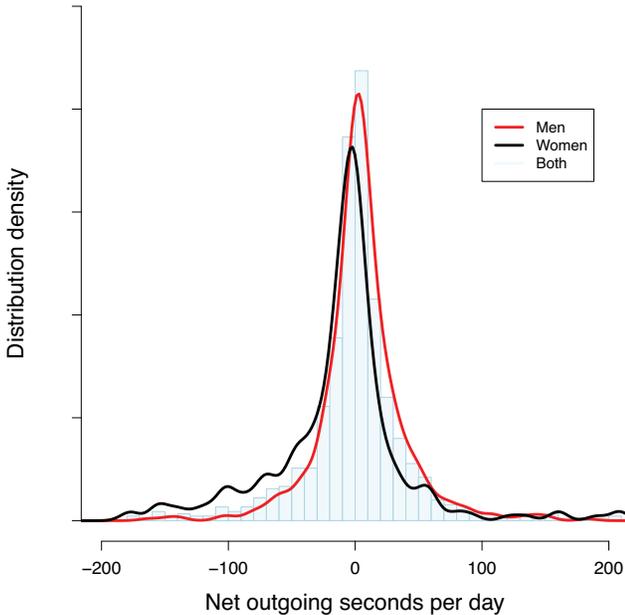


Figure 1: Net outgoing call time per day, by gender.

ences reported in Table 2, we thought it might be possible to infer gender (and other demographic attributes) based on CDR data alone. We trained a logistic regression model from 80% of the data and tested on the remaining 20%. Each experiment was repeated 1000 times with randomized train/test splits.

The best model, which included five of the most important CDR features, gave 74% accuracy, a small improvement over the baseline (guessing the majority class gives 71%). Further attempts at classification by creating features to describe individual calls and sequences of two or three calls were not any more successful. Similar results were obtained using a Naive Bayes classifier and a Support Vector Machine (SVM) classifier.

Why such marginal results? It seems likely, in hindsight, that gender effects are dominated by more overt economic factors. The average call is only 27 seconds, and the average daily talk time is just over two minutes, reflecting the pressure of pay-per-minute phone plans that cost roughly \$0.25 (U.S.) per minute. More generally, CDR features account for only a tiny fraction of the variance in each demographic group, which makes classification difficult.

We also tried to predict individual daily call time from the survey data, using the same bootstrapping setup described above. Table 3 shows the predictive power of various features in a linear regression model. We had a bit more success here, perhaps because we could leverage the features that indicate economic status: having electricity and a refrigerator both suggest some wealth, for example. Users based near Kigali (the capital) tended to talk more, as did those with some means of transportation. Still, the model’s error rate is very high. There is tremendous variance in average talk time, only a small fraction of which can be explained by demographic features.

| Features | Error (RMSE) | Gain (%) |
|--------------------|--------------|----------|
| Mean (baseline) | 33.0 | NA |
| Geographic Regions | 32.3 | +2.5% |
| Education Levels | 32.8 | +1.0% |
| Age + Gender | 33.0 | +0.1% |
| Working Days | 33.0 | 0.0% |
| Transportation | 32.2 | +2.5% |
| Radio + TV | 32.0 | +3.0% |
| Electricity | 31.7 | +4.3% |
| Refrigerator | 31.9 | +4.0% |
| Bank Account | 33.0 | 0.0% |
| Best combination | 30.9 | +6.6% |

Table 3: Using a linear model to predict each user’s daily talk time. The mean is 2.1 minutes; Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE) in minutes is shown along with relative improvement over the “guess the mean” baseline.

Conclusion

This work presents a preliminary analysis of two new sources of data on mobile phone use in Rwanda. We find striking differences in phone use for different groups of people. However, predicting phone usage from socio-demographic data, and vice versa, proves quite difficult. In the future, we hope that decoding mobile phone network data will further illuminate underlying social and economic interactions.

References

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