

The following publication Yang, D., Wu, L., & Wang, S. (2021). Can we trust the AIS destination port information for bulk ships?– Implications for shipping policy and practice. *Transportation Research Part E: Logistics and Transportation Review*, 149, 102308 is available at <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tre.2021.102308>

1 Can We Trust the AIS Destination Port Information for Bulk Ships?– 2 Implications for Shipping Policy and Practice

3 4 5 6 7 **Abstract:**

8 The Automatic Identification System (AIS) is a shipping database that includes the physical
9 characteristics and real-time dynamics of ships. It has attracted great attention from academia
10 recently and has been broadly applied in solving various problems in different fields. The
11 voyage destination report is a piece of information recorded in AIS that indicates the heading
12 port in a ship's voyage. This information is widely referred to by port operators for traffic
13 estimation, and by shipping traders for supply forecasting, etc. However, we find that a
14 considerable proportion (nearly 40%) of this information has been erroneously entered, both
15 intentionally and unintentionally.

16 In this paper, we aim to propose targeted policies to correct the inaccurate reports based on
17 assessing the probability of observing wrong destination port reports of ships in AIS. To this
18 end, we first of all conduct extensive interviews with relevant shipping stakeholders to
19 understand the reasons behind the wrong destination reports. Second, based on the interviews
20 and relevant literature we propose the influence factors. Third, we generate a data sample set
21 based on the voyages performed by Capesize and Panamax bulk ships around the globe in a
22 year. To generate this sample set, we leverage data mining techniques to extract the information
23 from an AIS database and other databases. Finally, a discrete choice model is built to achieve
24 the proposed objective.

25 The results demonstrate that our model has an 84.1% accuracy rate in ascertaining the
26 correctness of destination reports observed in AIS. We also find that, for a voyage, the speed
27 of the ship, the historical accuracy rate of destination reports made by the ship, and the distance
28 between the recognized origin and the reported destination of the voyage, have the most
29 significant impacts on the accuracy of the destination report. Based on the findings, we provide
30 managerial and policy suggestions to ship operators, port authorities, and regulators.

31
32 **Keywords:** Shipping management; Discrete choice model; AIS data; Data mining
33
34
35
36
37

38 1. Introduction

39 Maritime transportation plays a crucial role in international trade. There are more than 50,000
40 merchant ships trading internationally on the sea. As required by the International Maritime
41 Organization (IMO), all these ships need to be equipped with an AIS transmitter (IALA, 2004).
42 AIS records the static, dynamic, and voyage-related ship information, including ship identity,
43 timestamp, real-time location, speed, rate of turn, navigation direction, navigation status,
44 destination, estimated time of arrival (ETA), and draught. The initial objective of introducing
45 AIS was to prevent ship collisions and enhance navigation safety. Since 2014, the quality and
46 accessibility of AIS data have been significantly improved, mainly due to the usage of satellites
47 that can transmit real-time AIS data globally. Consequently, its application has been greatly
48 expanded from maritime safety to other fields such as trade and environmental research. Yang
49 et al. (2019) conducted a comprehensive review of the studies regarding AIS applications. They
50 ascertained the quick expansion of AIS applications and identified seven areas into which the
51 AIS studies fall, these being AIS data mining, navigation safety, ship behaviour analyses,
52 environmental analyses, trade analyses, Arctic shipping, and ship and port performance
53 analyses. Among these reviewed studies, many different features in AIS data have been
54 leveraged. For example, ship size, speed, and navigation direction are used in shipping safety
55 analyses, and ship position, speed, and timestamp are used for trade forecasts.

56 When commencing a shipping voyage, every ship is required to enter its destination port and
57 ETA in the AIS. However, this information hasn't been at all well referred to by the relevant
58 stakeholders. This is because the information is manually inputted by the crew members, and
59 we have found that a considerable proportion of this information is mistakenly entered, either
60 intentionally or unintentionally. In fact, by comparing ships' filled destinations before their
61 next voyages in AIS with the actual destinations observed from the ship trajectories after the
62 completion of these voyages, nearly 40% of the destination reports entered into the AIS by
63 Capesize and Panamax ships were found to be wrong.

64 In shipping studies, forecasting the destinations of ships is a very important and valuable task,
65 one that can benefit various stakeholders by improving their operations and management. For
66 example, Zhang et al. (2020) stated that accurate information regarding ships' destinations
67 could help port operators make timely and efficient decisions. They proposed a method to
68 predict destinations of voyages using ship trajectories. The improvement of destination report
69 quality in AIS can be a simple and more efficient solution of destination report forecasting.
70 Bulk carriers can also improve their operating efficiency by improving their repositioning
71 strategy with accurate destination information of ships (Yang et al., 2019). They can
72 particularly send ships in ballast to destination ports with relatively more cargoes and fewer
73 competitive ships. Knowing ships' accurate destinations can also increase the bulk shipping
74 market's transparency, thus raising the efficiency throughout the whole bulk shipping industry.
75 The wrong destination reports have hindered the expansion of AIS data applications in these
76 areas. Therefore, studies that can help assess the reliability of destination reports in AIS would
77 be of great value for shipping practitioners.

78 In view of the hurdles caused by wrong destination reports in AIS, some authorities have begun
79 formulating policies to regulate destination reports in the AIS reports made by ships.¹ For

¹ <https://www.maritime-executive.com/article/panama-threatens-sanctions-for-ships-disabling-positioning-signals>.

80 regulators, knowing the underlying factors behind wrong destination reports is valuable. In
81 particular, based on these reasons and associated influence factors, they can set up more
82 effective policies for avoiding wrong destination reports, and devise more efficient methods of
83 detecting violations of relevant regulations.

84 This study aims to propose a targeted policy to correct the inaccurate reports based on assessing
85 the probability of observing wrong destination port reports of ships in AIS. In this study, we
86 focus on Capesize and Panamax ships in the bulk shipping market, which are two major types
87 of bulk ships having a deadweight ton (dwt) ranging from 60,000 to 210,000. There are three
88 features of Capesize and Panamax ships that drive our investigation on the behaviours of these
89 ships. First, unlike container ships that provide scheduled services like buses do, bulk ships are
90 more like taxis, whose destinations are random, and thus their behaviours merit greater interest
91 for investigation. Second, Capesize and Panamax ships are two relatively large bulk ship types,
92 with more regular trading routes, so it is easier for us to validate the underlying reasons for
93 wrong destination port reports. Third, the dry bulk shipping market is a relatively transparent
94 perfect competition market compared with other segments of the shipping market (Peng et al.,
95 2016). Therefore, for a bulk ship operator, knowing other ships' movements generates
96 competitive advantages (Prochazka et al., 2019a).

97 The contribution of this paper is threefold. First, this is one of the preliminary studies
98 investigating manually input data quality in AIS, and it proposes new factors to help understand
99 the accuracy of destination reports in AIS. These concepts and factors can be referred to by
100 subsequent studies. Second, cross-disciplinary methods are adopted in this study. In particular,
101 we propose various ways of analysing data in AIS and we also develop a discrete choice model
102 to explain the inaccuracies of destination reports in AIS. The methods of data processing can
103 also shed light on other AIS-related studies. Third, this paper also provides important practical
104 insights. It can help various shipping stakeholders improve their operation and management in
105 daily work.

106 This paper is divided into eight sections. The second section presents the literature review. We
107 then explain the influence factors and propose the research hypotheses in Section 3. The model
108 and data processing method are introduced in Sections 4 and 5, respectively. In Section 6, we
109 illustrate the results. In Sections 7 and 8, we discuss the implications to practice and draw
110 conclusions, respectively.

111

112 **2. Literature review**

113 This study is motivated by practical problems faced by bulk shipping operators, and we employ
114 multiple methods to solve the proposed problem. It doesn't fit exactly into any existing study
115 strands, but there are however some areas that it is relevant to.

116 The first related area is the detection of anomalies in AIS data. Before 2014, the quality of AIS
117 data is poor which limited the studies in this field. Many papers have discussed the quality of
118 AIS data in the early stage. Harati-Mokhtari et al. (2007) first discussed the reliability of AIS
119 data. They indicated that the destination identification in AIS could improve navigation safety
120 and suggested that ships maintain it accurately. In their study, they identified the
121 inconsistencies of data, e.g., vague or incorrect AIS entries for destinations. Baldauf et al. (2011)
122 found that the settings for AIS-data-based collision alarms, which are entered manually, are

123 often found empirically wrong. Felski and Jaskolski (2013) discussed the completeness and
124 integrity of AIS data in collision avoidance with data from 2006 to 2007, and 2010 to 2012.
125 The findings suggest a high level of dynamic data integrity of AIS. With additional satellites
126 launched in 2014, the AIS data quality is significantly improved. However, there is still debate
127 on the correctness of static data in AIS as they are manually input. Lensu and Goerlandt (2019)
128 stated that the AIS stream is vulnerable and may contain considerably erroneous data.
129 Therefore, it should be crossly checked against other information apart from just the checksum.
130 Tu et al. (2018) indicated that there are many data anomalies in AIS, thus various anomaly
131 detection algorithms have been proposed to identify ship trajectories with anomalous
132 characteristics. In the considered problem, we detect errors in destination reports in AIS data.
133 However, this is essentially different from other anomaly detection problems in the literature.
134 For instance, anomalies in AIS data, such as a ship found in a restricted and unexpected region,
135 ship speed going significantly above or below the regular speed, or the unexpected visiting
136 time of a ship, are mainly caused by system problems/errors (Tu et al., 2018). In contrast,
137 wrong destination reports are manually entered by the crew members on a ship, and therefore
138 result from human errors. The algorithms for anomaly detection, including the normalcy box
139 method (Rhodes et al., 2009), the fuzzy ARTMAP (Bomberger et al., 2006), and the Holst
140 Model (Laxhammar, 2008) are hardly applicable for our problem. Conversely, we need to
141 understand the ship operator's decision-making process so as to recognize the factors which
142 may lead to the decision to wrongly enter the destination ports. We find there is no prior
143 research focusing on this kind of anomaly detection problem.

144 The second related area is the decision analyses of carriers/ship owners, namely, understanding
145 factors that affect the shipping market dynamics and behaviours of carriers. In these studies,
146 causality analysis has been broadly applied. One such case is the ship positioning problem, for
147 example, where carriers need to decide the heading destinations of their ships in order to
148 maximize the potentials of obtaining a cargo contract in the spot market. Bai and Lam (2019)
149 modelled the energy shipping destination choice behaviours and identified their associations
150 with various market factors from the charterers' perspective. They found that freight rate,
151 propane price spread, bunker costs, and the number of ships in the destination areas affect the
152 choice of charterers. Regli and Nomikos (2019) found that geographical routes and ship speed
153 can be used to explain freight rate evolution. The other frequently used factors in determining
154 market dynamics and the behaviours of carriers include the laycan period (Prochazka et al.,
155 2019b), ship size, lead time and charter length (Köhn and Thanopoulou, 2011), fuel
156 consumption (Abadie et al., 2017), perception of market psychology (Papapostolou et al., 2017),
157 buyer and seller heterogeneity and their relationship (Adland et al., 2016), and energy
158 efficiency design (Adland et al., 2017). Different from these studies, this paper aims to analyse
159 the factors that lead to the mismatch between entered destination ports and actual destination
160 ports in AIS. This is a new problem and we need to propose appropriate factors that can not
161 only reflect the decision-making process of carriers in filling in the destination reports, but that
162 are also available to access or derive.

163 The third related area is AIS application. The AIS is broadly believed to have kickstarted the
164 era of digitization in the maritime industry. An expansion of AIS can be evidenced by rapid
165 growth in publications and increasingly diverse topics covering its applications (Yang et al.,
166 2019). Fournier et al. (2018) reviewed the publications related to the uses and applications of
167 the AIS during 2004-2016. They summarize that over the years, AIS has become a widely used

168 tool for developing applications such as marine environment, safety and security, and many
169 more. Collision avoidance is the most fundamental application of AIS data. Wu et al. (2019)
170 developed a fuzzy logic based approach for ship-bridge collision alert by utilizing AIS data.
171 Recent studies in this area include Bakdi et al. (2020), Gao and Shi (2020), and Greig et al.
172 (2020).

173 Another important application area of AIS data is trajectory analysis. Trajectory analysis
174 includes trajectory extraction and trajectory prediction. Trajectory extraction indicates the
175 construction of a ship's trajectory based on the reported spatiotemporal sequence data (Yang
176 et al., 2019). Trajectory extraction has attracted increasing attention over recent years. Wang
177 et al. (2017) proposed a methodology to leverage AIS data in order to discover spatiotemporal
178 co-occurrence patterns of ships, which distinguish ship behaviours simultaneously in terms of
179 space, time, and other dimensions. Zhang et al. (2017) developed a tangible analytical approach
180 to analyse ship traffic demand and the spatial-temporal dynamics of ship traffic in port waters
181 using AIS data. Li et al. (2018) proposed a novel approach that combines trajectory mapping
182 and clustering for extracting trajectories from AIS data. The approach was shown to have
183 higher accuracy than other commonly used methods. Alizadeh et al. (2021) proposed a method
184 to predict a ship's trajectory in 10 to 40 mins based on its historical AIS data. Using ship
185 trajectories derived from AIS data, Wu et al. (2020) proposed a method to identify ports visited
186 by ships based on uncertain reasoning. This study belongs to ship trajectory analysis. We aim
187 to compare the entered destinations with the actual destinations for voyages recorded in AIS.
188 Whereas the entered destinations can be directly extracted from AIS, the actual destinations
189 need to be derived from the historical trajectories of ships in AIS.

190 In addition to navigational safety and trajectory analyses, the applications of AIS data have
191 been extended to many other areas. Lensu and Goerlandt (2019) presented an accumulating
192 multi-purpose database for the northern Baltic Sea that combines AIS data with marine
193 environmental data and emphasized the importance and necessity regarding the integration of
194 AIS data with other databases. Jia et al. (2017) provided an automatic algorithm for deriving
195 the micro information of ships, such as ship type and cargo volume, between any two
196 recognized transportation nodes. They categorized relevant research in this regard into four
197 categories: i. looking at trajectories (e.g. Willems et al., 2010); ii. looking inside trajectories
198 (e.g. Zhang et al., 2017); iii. bird's-eye view of movement (e.g. Wood and Dykes, 2008; Jia et
199 al., 2017); and iv. investigating the movement. Our study falls into category iv as indicated by
200 Jia et al. (2017). In this study, we need to examine the various characteristics of ship movement
201 and build their relationships with the occurrence probabilities of the wrong destination reports.

202

203 **3. Influence factors and hypotheses**

204 This is a pioneering study, as there exists no previous study discussing the influence factors on
205 the correctness of destination reports in AIS. Therefore, we need assistances from industry
206 practitioners. We conducted an open-ended interview to understand the reasons behind wrong
207 destination reports. Unlike the structured questions, the open-ended interview with open/simple
208 questions and close interactions with interviewers gives interviewees more freedom to
209 comment on specific phenomena. In our interview, the five experts cover the most relevant
210 industry professionals, including two captains, a ship operator, a senior manager, and a

211 consultant, from major local bulk carriers and brokers. The interviewees were requested to
 212 provide us with information regarding two open questions:

- 213 1. The reasons and factors leading up to entering wrong destination reports into AIS;
- 214 2. Any comments or suggestions on the correction of wrong reports.

215 In December 2019, we presented the preliminary results of this research at a workshop on AIS
 216 applications in Tokyo, where we also received many helpful comments from shipping
 217 practitioners. Table 1 shows the details of our interviewees.

218 **Table 1. Information of interviewees**

Interviewee Code	Position	Working experience	Job description	Affiliation
A	Captain	15 years	Responsible for ship operation, safety, and crew management	China Merchants Energy Shipping
B	Captain	20 years	Responsible for ship operation, safety, and crew management	Ocean Longevity Shipping & Management
C	Ship operator	10 years	Monitor ship's daily movement	COSCO Shipping Bulk
D	Senior Manager	20 years	Oversee the fleet operation & movement	An anonymous Hong Kong based bulk shipping carrier
E	Consultant	10 years	Transmit information between owner and charterer	An anonymous international shipping broker

219 The information provided by the experts is consistent. The reasons for giving wrong destination
 220 information are complicated. Basically, we can summarize them into five reasons within the
 221 two categories of unintentional mistakes and intentional mistakes. Table 2 illustrates the
 222 reasons we collected from the interviewees.

223 **Table 2. Reasons for giving wrong destination information**

No.	Reason description	Category
1	Human errors: lack of training, negligence, fatigue, etc.	Unintentional mistakes
2	No specific destination when the voyage starts	
3	Security: to avoid pirate attacks, stowaway onboard	Intentional Mistakes
4	Commercial consideration: hide the destination	
5	Others: smuggle, etc.	

224 Among all, human errors serve as the most common reason mentioned by the interviewees. As
 225 destination information needs to be input manually into AIS, lack of training, negligence, and
 226 fatigue can all lead to mistakes being made by the ship's crew, especially junior seafarers. The
 227 second most common reason is speculative behaviour. For some voyages of bulk ships, the
 228 captains don't know the ships' destinations when the voyage starts. It is because the shipowner
 229 may not have a clear idea of where to place an empty ship. Also, in some cases, the shippers
 230 may purchase the cargo for speculation, such that they will look for contracts during a voyage
 231 from the loaded port to a demand region with many potential purchasers. Under this
 232 circumstance, they normally don't enter a destination, or they randomly fill one in the AIS, and

233 then change it when the destination port is confirmed. Therefore, for a considerable part of the
234 voyage, the destination report is wrong.

235 Reasons No. 3 to 5 belong to intentional mistakes. Sometimes, captains will not enter the
236 destination, or will simply fill in a wrong one when the ship is in a certain sea area where the
237 risk of pirate attacks exists, or if the ship is departing from a port where stowaways often board.
238 We have also learned from two interviewees that some carriers prefer to hide the destinations
239 of ships during the voyages, because they don't want their competitors to know where they will
240 place the unloaded ships. Besides this, there are also other reasons, for example where
241 smugglers or certain illegal ships will not input the right destinations into the system.

242 Based on relevant academic research literature, and our discussions with the interviewees, we
243 summarize the factors explaining why ships choose to provide wrong destination reports in
244 AIS data, and then make hypotheses regarding their impacts on the correctness of destination
245 reports as follows:

246 **Ship behaviour pattern:** A ship's behaviour pattern indicates whether the historic trajectories
247 of the ship display any regularities, that is, whether the ship sails along certain shipping routes
248 regularly. Regli and Nomikos (2019) found that the geographical trading patterns of VLCCs
249 (very large crude carriers) can be used to explain the market dynamics of bulk shipping. In this
250 study, we believe that human errors (Reason No.1 in Table 2) in filling in destination reports
251 can be avoided to some extent if a ship regularly visits certain ports, as the seafarers are familiar
252 with the operation. In addition, the speculative behaviours (Reason No. 2) can also be less, as
253 the ship rarely visits new ports. Therefore, we propose the first hypothesis (H1) as follows:

254 *H1: Ships with relatively regular travel patterns are assumed to have less intention of making*
255 *wrong destination reports.*

256 **Operator size:** Large shipping companies (operators) generally have a relatively complete
257 management mechanism and standardized operation procedures for operating ships, thus there
258 is less possibility of lack of training (Reason No. 1), intentional fraud (Reason No. 4), and
259 illegal activities (Reason No. 5). Therefore, we have the following hypothesis:

260 *H2: Ships under large ship operators have less intention of making wrong destination reports.*

261 **Ship size:** Ship size is broadly applied to study shipping investment and energy choices
262 (Lindstad et al., 2015) as well as charter rate changes (Köhn and Thanopoulou, 2011). Because
263 the high operating costs of large ships cause ship operators to be more prudent in their operation
264 of large ships (Reason No. 2), in this study, we make the following hypothesis:

265 *H3: Larger ships have less intention of making wrong destination reports.*

266 **Ship flag:** The ship's flag denotes the country where the ship registers. Different countries
267 have different regulations on the ships that register under them. In particular, flag of
268 convenience (FOC) states have relatively lower requirements for registered ships. Alderton and
269 Winchester (2002) found that ships under FOC states are more likely to have inferior records
270 compared to ships under non-FOC states (Reasons No. 1 and 5). This leads to our fourth
271 hypothesis:

272 *H4: FOC ships will have more mistakes in their destination reports.*

273 **Historical accuracy rate of destination reports:** Due to human habits, ships that have often
274 previously reported wrong destinations are more likely to continue the same behaviour pattern
275 (Reasons No. 1 to 5). Therefore, we have the following hypothesis:

276 *H5: A ship with a higher rate of providing wrong reports in its previous voyages tends to have*
277 *a higher probability of generating a wrong report again.*

278 **Operating time (utilization of ship):** A ship that records a long operating time within a certain
279 period (high utilization) implies that the ship is in good condition and that the ship's crew is
280 more familiar with the operation of ships and also with the related regulations (Reason No.1).
281 Therefore, we propose a hypothesis as follows:

282 *H6: A lower probability of giving wrong destination reports is assumed to be a natural by-*
283 *product of a ship's longer operating time (higher utilization).*

284 **Voyage distance:** Long-distance voyages lead to more uncertainties (Regli and Nomikos, 2019)
285 (Reason No.2). In addition, regulatory authorities can hardly monitor ships in the deep sea, the
286 cost of making mistake is low (Reason No. 1), so the seventh hypothesis is as follows.

287 *H7: Long voyages are associated with an increase in wrong destination reports.*

288 **Ship speed:** Ship speed can indicate both market dynamics and carriers' behaviours. Regli and
289 Nomikos (2019) empirically proved that the speed of ships sailing in ballast partly explains
290 part of the freight rate evolution. In the tramp market, where ships often do not know the
291 destination yet when leaving port, it is likely that ships will sail slower to save fuel until they
292 know the destination port. In our study, if a ship travels fast in a voyage, then it tends to have
293 an urgent time constraint and a clear trip destination (Reasons No. 2 and 4). Under this
294 circumstance, the ship is less likely to provide wrong destination reports. Hence, we propose
295 hypothesis H8:

296 *H8: A higher ship speed in a voyage is associated with a lower probability of making wrong*
297 *destination reports.*

298 **Loading status:** This factor is related to the commercial consideration of ship operators. A
299 loaded ship is more likely to have a predetermined destination before starting the voyage. In
300 comparison, when a bulk ship leaves an unload port, in many cases the shipowner may not
301 have a clear idea of where to place this ship. A ship's destination is sometimes determined after
302 sailing on a common voyage to various possible destination ports, during which more
303 information is collected. For example, right after a Panamax iron ore carrier unloads in Qingdao,
304 China, it has to be repositioned to Australia or Brazil for re-loading. Because the voyages from
305 Qingdao to Australia or Brazil share a common trip from Qingdao to the northwest corner of
306 Luzon Island, Philippines, the shipowner can decide on the final destination after the ship
307 completes this common trip (Reason No.2). Considering this, we propose the last hypothesis
308 as follows:

309 *H9: Ships in ballast tend to have more wrong destination reports in their voyage records.*

310 In this paper, we have proposed nine factors related to voyage status and ship conditions that
311 may affect the behaviour of ships when entering the destination ports into the AIS. To the best
312 of our knowledge, some of them have not previously been considered in the literature. Such

313 factors include operator size, the historical accuracy rate of destination reports, and operating
 314 time.

315

316 **4. Model formulation**

317 A multinomial logit model is constructed to control all these factors (explanatory variables) in
 318 order to explain the occurrence probability of a wrong destination entered in the AIS report.
 319 The underlying assumption is that a carrier will choose the option resulting in the highest utility.
 320 Multi-criteria decision-making methods (MCDMs) and discrete choice models (DCMs)
 321 (including multinomial logit models) are two widely applied tools to evaluate transport
 322 solutions from multiple objectives, while they are used in different situations (Le Pira et al.,
 323 2017). MCDMs provide a comparative assessment of alternatives evaluating their contribution
 324 to different evaluation criteria and stakeholders, which is more adopted in the procedure of
 325 consultation/participation. DCMs are more used in the procedure of stakeholder analysis.
 326 DCMs aim at analysing the behaviour of a decision-maker when choosing among different
 327 (discrete) alternatives, assuming that she maximizes her utility (Le Pira et al., 2017). The DCM
 328 is more suitable for our proposed research question, as we aim to understand the destination
 329 choice behaviour of carriers. In addition, the massive AIS data provides us a perfect chance to
 330 perform a revealed preferences analysis.

331 Suppose a ship is about to start a voyage which is denoted by i . The ship would obtain a certain
 332 level of utility, denoted by U_{ji} , through choosing option j , where $j = 1$ denotes the option that
 333 the ship reports a true destination, and $j = 0$ denotes the option that the ship reports a false
 334 destination. U_{ji} is defined as a function as follows:

$$335 \quad U_{ji} = V_{ji} + \zeta_{ji}, j \in \{0, 1\} \quad (1)$$

336 where the V_{ji} is the deterministic utility and ζ_{ji} is an error term following the Type 1 Extreme
 337 Value Distribution.

338 The probability that the ship will choose option j in voyage i , denoted by P_{ji} , takes the
 339 following form:

$$340 \quad P_{ji} = \frac{\exp(V_{ji})}{\exp(V_{0i}) + \exp(V_{1i})} \quad (2)$$

341 With the influence factors we discussed before, the model for analysing the correctness of the
 342 destination report in a given voyage made by a given ship can be presented as:

$$343 \quad \ln\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Apro + \beta_2 Bpro + \beta_3 os + \beta_3 dwt + \beta_4 flag + \beta_5 freport +
 344 \quad \beta_6 lreport + \beta_7 wtpro + \beta_8 dist + \beta_9 speed + \beta_{10} load \quad (4)$$

345 where p denotes the probability of reporting a correct destination in AIS, β is a vector of
 346 parameters. $Apro$, $Bpro$, os , dwt , $flag$, $freport$, $lreport$, $wtpro$, $dist$, $speed$, and $load$ are
 347 explanatory variables that may affect the ship's choice as to the correctness of the destination
 348 report. We explain each variable in detail as follows.

349 $Apro$ and $Bpro$ denote the ratios (between 0 and 1) of voyages of the ship to/from Australia and
 350 Brazil over all of its voyages in a certain period. These two variables represent the behaviour

351 patterns of ships. Our analyses focus on the behaviours of Capesize and Panamax ships, and a
352 large proportion of such ships are used for iron ore transportation (UNCTAD, 2019). Australia
353 and Brazil are the two major exporters of iron ore, having enjoyed an approximately 80%
354 market share of global iron ore exports. A considerable number of Capesize and Panamax ships
355 regularly visit ports in these two countries. Hence, we use *Apro* and *Bpro* to measure the
356 regularity of voyages conducted by the ship.

357 *os* indicates whether the ship belongs to a large ship operator. In this study, if the voyage is
358 conducted by a ship operated by one of the top 50 ship operators (in terms of the size of
359 controlled fleets) we code it as *os*=1, otherwise, it will equal 0.

360 *dwt* represents the size of the ship. In this study, we use the deadweight tonnage of the ship to
361 represent its size.

362 *flag* denotes whether the ship is a Flag of Convenience (FOC). If it is, we code *flag* as 1.
363 Otherwise, it is 0.

364 *freport* and *lreport* represent the historical accuracies of a ship's destination port reports. For a
365 voyage, *freport* corresponds to the historical accuracy rate (between 0 and 1) of the first
366 destination report made by the ship for its former voyages and *lreport* denotes that of the
367 historical accuracy rate (between 0 and 1) of the last destination reports of the ship in its former
368 voyages, respectively.

369 *wtpro* is set as the ratio (between 0 and 1) of the total sailing time of the ship to the entire period
370 under consideration. This reflects the utilization level of the ship.

371 *dist*. In this study, we don't use the actual navigation distance of a voyage to represent the *dist*,
372 because the actual voyage distance can only be obtained after the voyage is completed, and
373 thus the model can't be used for forecasting if the actual distance is used. Instead, we will
374 represent the *dist* as being the navigation distance between the recognized origin and the
375 reported destination of the voyage. This distance may deviate from the actual distance of the
376 voyage, but it can reveal the intention of the ship operator.

377 *speed* denotes the average speed of the ship during a given voyage. We calculate it by dividing
378 the distance of the voyage by the total time spent.

379 *load* is a binary variable, which equals 1 if the associated ship is fully-loaded (laden) and 0 if
380 it is unloaded (in ballast) (a bulk ship is basically either fully-loaded or in ballast in practice).

381

382 **5. Data processing**

383 To validate our assumptions, we conducted an empirical analysis based on a set of records
384 generated by leveraging the information from several databases, including an AIS database,
385 ship fleet databases (from *Lloyd's list*² and *Clarksons*³), a database of ports (which was
386 generated based on *Google Maps*⁴), and a port distance database (which was generated using
387 *Netpas Distance*⁵). The data in the AIS database was collected from satellite-based AIS

² <https://lloydlist.maritimeintelligence.informa.com/>

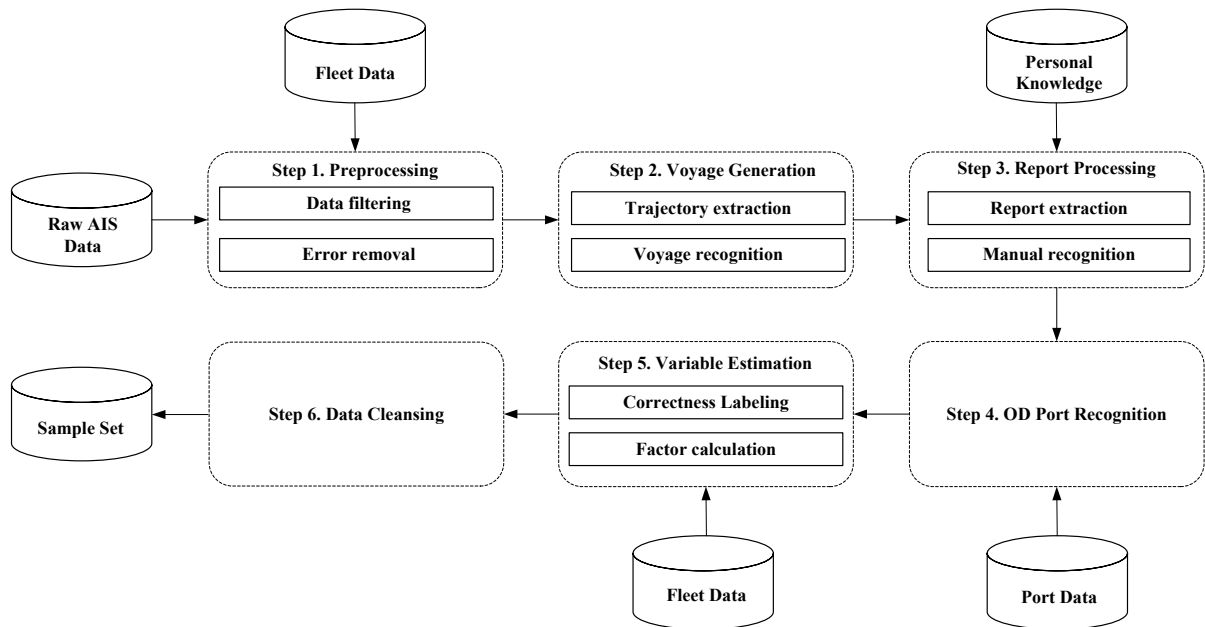
³ <https://sin.clarksons.net/>

⁴ <https://www.google.com/maps/>

⁵ <https://www.netpas.net/>

388 receivers. The database has a global coverage of AIS messages transmitted by ships. Our port
 389 database includes all ports visited in the voyages that were derived from the AIS data (see
 390 Section 5.2). A list of all ports in the database can be found from the link in this footnote⁶.

391 The data mining process is illustrated in Figure 1. This process starts with the raw AIS data,
 392 and in the end we will obtain a sample set for applying to the proposed model. The data mining
 393 process includes six steps. In what follows, we explain the details of each processing step.



394

395

Figure 1. Data processing procedures

396 5.1. Preprocessing

397 In order to understand the behaviours of ships, we collected a large volume of raw AIS data
 398 (around 1T) retrieved from satellite-based AIS receivers. The data recorded the movements of
 399 all AIS-equipped ships in the period from 01/01/2017 to 31/12/2017. In the first step, we filter
 400 out AIS messages that are irrelevant to Capesize and Panamax ships as well as messages with
 401 incomplete information. This is achieved mainly by comparing the IMO numbers of all
 402 Capesize and Panamax ships extracted from the fleet databases with the IMO numbers in AIS
 403 data. AIS messages are classified as dynamic and static AIS messages. For dynamic AIS
 404 messages, we removed the ones that do not contain timestamps, MMSI numbers, speeds, or
 405 ship positions. For static AIS messages, we removed the ones that do not contain timestamps,
 406 MMSI numbers, destination reports, or draughts.

407 5.2. Voyage generation

408 In the second step, we derive voyages based on the data obtained in the first step. We first
 409 extract the trajectory of each ship. In our application, a ship’s trajectory reports the position (in
 410 longitude and latitude), speed, and draught of the ship at each reporting time point. Here a
 411 reporting time point corresponds to the time when the AIS sends out a message. Note that the

⁶ https://drive.google.com/file/d/1g_mKtTLPGxxFwJmvQf7VUYrocgXs8wVL/view?usp=sharing

412 average time interval between two AIS messages from the same ship in our database is 1,050
413 seconds. Then, based on the extracted trajectory of a ship, we construct its voyages by using
414 the following rules:

- 415 • All ships are assumed to be sailing in voyages at the beginning of their trajectories.
- 416 • A ship starts mooring if the speed of an originally sailing ship is less than one knot
417 in three consecutive messages sent by the ship; we record this time as the mooring
418 start time.
- 419 • A ship ends its mooring if the speed of an originally mooring ship exceeds one
420 knot in five consecutive messages sent by the ship; we record this time as the
421 mooring end time.
- 422 • A mooring position is recorded for a ship if its speed is lower than 0.5 knots in all
423 messages sent by the ship during any consecutive five hours between a mooring
424 start and the corresponding mooring end time.
- 425 • The trajectory of a ship between any two consecutive mooring positions is
426 recognized as a voyage; we refer to the first mooring position as the origin
427 mooring position and the second one as the destination mooring position for this
428 voyage.
- 429 • Voyages with abnormal characteristics identified are removed from the database.
430 In particular, for each recognized voyage, we record its total sailing time as the
431 difference between the time point when the ship ends mooring at the origin
432 position and the time point when the ship starts mooring at the destination mooring
433 position. We estimate the distance of a voyage by using the navigation distance
434 between the two mooring positions. The average speed of this voyage is estimated
435 by dividing the sailing distance by the sailing time. Then, voyages with sailing
436 distances less than 1,600 nm or with average speeds less than 5 knots or higher
437 than 18 knots are excluded from the database.

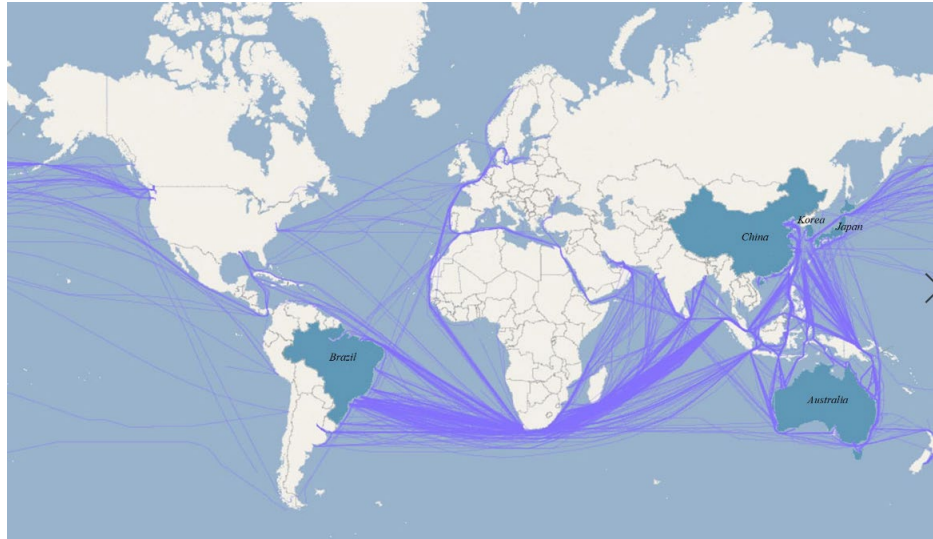
438 In this step, we have identified 26,131 valid voyages made by 3,291 different ships, and 4,244
439 invalid voyages were deleted due to the last rule.

440 Notably, we chose 1 knot as the threshold value for determining a ship's mooring behaviour
441 because when sailing in the open sea, a ship's speed rarely goes lower than 1 knot. We do not
442 use 0 knot as the threshold value because the speed reported in the AIS of a moored ship may
443 still be larger than 0 because of the ship's movement caused by currents, but the recorded speed
444 in the AIS of a moored ship rarely goes higher than 0.5 knots. As a matter of fact, one can also
445 use other threshold values for detecting the mooring start time as long as they are significantly
446 lower than the normal sailing speeds of ships. The 1 knot threshold is also used in other studies,
447 for example, Jia et al. (2020).

448 In addition, we have learned that a ship may stop temporarily during its voyage. Our voyage
449 construction procedure can identify and filter out short temporary stops that are no longer than
450 five hours. By doing so, we can eliminate the impacts of most unexpected stops during their
451 voyages. In the meantime, we admit that our method cannot identify long (longer than five
452 hours) intermediate stops of ships during their voyages. One possible reason for long

453 intermediate stops is to avoid sailing in the sea under extremely adverse weather. However,
454 such temporary stops are very costly as they generate delays in cargo dispatch and damage the
455 productivity of ships. Therefore, long temporary stops during a ship’s voyage between two
456 ports are very rare. Considering the large sample size (with 7,564 valid samples for training
457 the model) and the very low frequencies of long intermediate stops, we believe that our analyses
458 and the results should still be valid.

459 The following Figure 2 illustrates a density map for the 26,131 voyages. It can be observed that
460 most of the voyages are between Australia, Brazil, and China.



461

462

Figure 2. Density map for the ship trajectories

463 **5.3. Report processing**

464 A ship is required to report its destination port before starting a voyage. Ideally, the correctness
465 of the destination report can be obtained by comparing this report with the destination port we
466 derived for the voyage in the previous step. However, the reports extracted from AIS cannot
467 be directly compared with the true destination ports. This is because there are no uniform
468 standards for the destination reports made by ships. Some destination reports may refer to a
469 country or a region but not a particular port. Some reports are actually meaningless. In addition,
470 although most of the reports indeed indicate a specific port, there may be multiple entries that
471 refer to the same port. For example, entries like “HK”, “Hong Kong”, “Port of HK”, and “Port
472 of Hong Kong” have all been found in destination reports in AIS, and they all refer to the Port
473 of Hong Kong. Moreover, many reports contain typos. For example, we have found
474 “HONGKONG”, “HONGKONG CN”, “HON KONG”, “HONG K0NG” (the second “O” is
475 “zero”), “HONG KOND”, “HONG KONK”, etc., in the reports. When facing these inputs, it
476 is easy for a human to recognize that the correct underlying destination is “The Port of Hong
477 Kong”, while it can be difficult to train a computer to do so.

478 In view of the difficulties in processing destination reports, in the third step we manually
479 examine each destination report extracted from AIS messages sent by ships in the voyages
480 recognized in step 2. Note that a ship may change its destination reports multiple times during
481 a voyage. In total, we have collected 13,638 different entries from the destination reports in
482 AIS data. These entries are classified into three groups: meaningless reports (e.g., “0”,

483 “anchorage”, “pilotage”), unspecific reports (e.g., “China”, “Australia”), and port reports
484 (where a specific port can be recognized). Among the 13,638 entries, there are 904 meaningless
485 reports, 334 unspecific reports, and 12,390 port reports, respectively. For ease of comparison,
486 we standardize the 12,390 port reports. Specifically, all reports such as “HK”, “Hong Kong”,
487 “Port of HK”, “Port of Hong Kong”, “HONGKONG”, and “HON KONG” are standardized as
488 “The Port of Hong Kong”. Notably, 1,234 different ports were recognized from the 12,390
489 reports after standardization.

490 **5.4. OD port recognition**

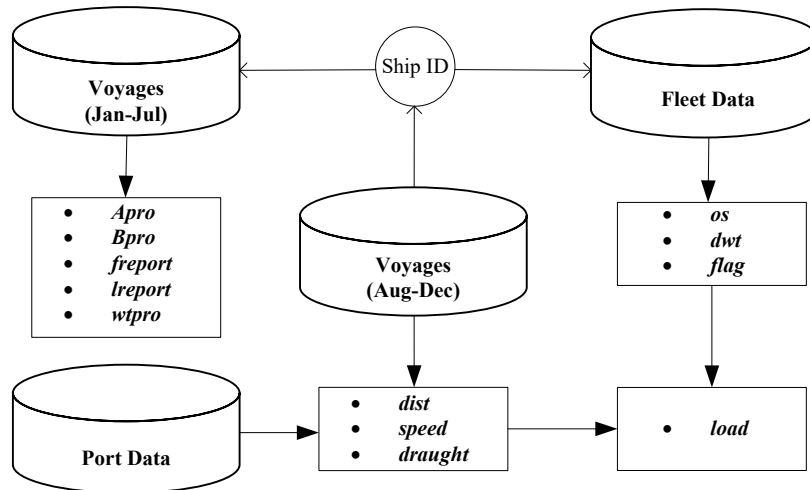
491 In the fourth step, we identify the actual origin and destination ports of each voyage. The
492 identification is completed in three steps. In the first step, we construct a port database that
493 contains the location information for all ports identified in the “report processing” step. This is
494 achieved by manually searching in Google Maps. Then, in the second step, we first obtain the
495 coordinates of the origin and destination mooring positions of each voyage and then recognize
496 the origin and destination ports of the voyage by matching the location information from AIS
497 with the location information in the port database. The origin or destination positions of some
498 voyages cannot match any port in the port database. Therefore, in the third step, for such
499 voyages, we search in Google Maps using the coordinates of their origin or destination mooring
500 positions to identify the ports corresponding to these coordinates.

501 **5.5. Variable estimation**

502 In the fifth step, we derive the values of the independent and dependent variables (used in the
503 multinomial logit model) associated with each voyage generated in the previous steps.

504 We start by labelling the correctness of each destination report made by a ship in a voyage.
505 This is achieved by comparing the (standardized) destination reports made by the ship in the
506 voyage (obtained in step 3) with its actual destination port (recognized in step 4).

507 Some variables describe the historical performances of a ship (e.g., *Apro*, *Bpro*, *freport*, *lreport*,
508 and *wtpro*). To derive such variables, we divide the voyages into two parts: voyages that started
509 before or on July 31, 2017, and voyages that started after or on August 1, 2017. Among the
510 26,131 voyages, 15,115 voyages and 11,016 voyages fall into the first and second parts,
511 respectively. Voyages in the first part are used for evaluating the historical performances of
512 ships. We derive the values of independent variables in different ways, as shown in Figure 3.



513

514

Figure 3. Variable estimation

515 To begin with, some variables are solely voyage-dependent and, given a voyage, they can be
 516 derived directly, based on the voyage information. These variables are *speed* and *draught*. In
 517 particular, *speed* is set equal to the average speed of the ship during the voyage. We also derive
 518 the *draught* of the ship sailing in this voyage from AIS. This variable will be further used to
 519 derive the *load* (loading status of the ship), as explained below.

520 In addition to *speed* and *draught*, we estimate the distance of the voyage (*dist*) by using the
 521 navigation distance between the recognized origin port and the first destination port reported
 522 in this voyage. Here the navigation distance between two ports is obtained from a port distance
 523 database. To generate the port distance database, we first derived 3,591 different OD pairs from
 524 the samples, and then obtained the distance of each OD pair by searching it from a software
 525 called “*Netpas Distance*”, which is widely used by ship operators to calculate navigation
 526 distances.

527 Then, given a voyage, we derive *os* (operator size), *dwt* (deadweight ton), and *flag* (flag of the
 528 ship) from the fleet databases. The information from the fleet databases is matched with the
 529 voyage using the ship ID (i.e., IMO no. and MMSI no.: Maritime Mobile Service Identity
 530 Number) contained in AIS messages. In addition, one can determine the *load* (loading status
 531 of a ship) by comparing the draught of the ship in the voyage and the draught when it is in
 532 ballast (which can be estimated from the deadweight tonnage).

533 By utilizing the destination ports of voyages (which is recognized in step 4), we derive *Apro*
 534 (resp., *Bpro*) and *freport* (resp., *lreport*) for a ship from its voyages between January and July
 535 2017. We calculate the value of *wtpro* as the ratio of the total voyage sailing time of the ship
 536 over the entire period from January to July 2017.

537 The dependent variable of a voyage is the correctness of the destination report in this voyage.
 538 The destination reports in AIS data may change more than once during a voyage. It is not
 539 difficult to understand that the accuracy rate of the destination report grows as the ship sails
 540 closer to the destination port and becomes more certain of its final destination. Furthermore,
 541 the destination port will monitor the correctness of a ship’s destination report when it sails into
 542 its control area. We believe that it is more interesting and meaningful to investigate the

543 correctness of the first report. Therefore, we choose the correctness of the **first destination**
544 **report** to be the dependent variable in our study.

545 **5.6. Data cleansing**

546 We can now generate a set of records corresponding to each voyage made by a Capesize or
547 Panamax ship during the period from August 1 to December 31, 2017. Finally, we need to
548 exclude any abnormal records with incomplete or unrealistic information.

549 It is found that among the 11,016 voyages, some voyages were made by ships that did not sail
550 in any voyage during the first seven months of 2017 or for which we do not have the
551 information of its operators. As a result, we cannot obtain the operator sizes or the variables
552 representing historical performances of these ships for these voyages, so the records associated
553 with such voyages are deleted. Second, we also delete from our sample set the records of
554 voyages that contain meaningless or unspecific reports in their first destination reports. A total
555 of 1,560 voyages were deleted in this step. Finally, we obtain a sample set of 9,456 valid
556 records from 2,683 ships.

557

558 **6. Results**

559 The 9,456 records generated from the data are further divided into two subsets, one subset with
560 80% of them (7,564 voyages) is used for estimating parameters of the model, and the other
561 subset with 20% of them (1,892 voyages) is used for validating the model. We term the first
562 set as the “training set” and the second set as the “validation set”, respectively. In this section,
563 we first report in Section 6.1 the descriptive statistics and the correlation matrix of the variables
564 in the sample set. Then, we report the results of the proposed model in Section 6.2. Finally, the
565 performances of the model are presented in Section 6.3.

566 **6.1. Variables and their correlation test**

567 In this study, we have proposed a total of eleven explanatory (independent) variables, some of
568 which have never been considered in previous literature. The descriptive statistics for all
569 independent variables of records in the training set are summarized in Table 3.

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

578

579

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of independent variables

Variable	Definition	Mean	Standard Deviation	Sample size
<i>Apro</i>	Ratio (between 0 and 1) of voyages of a ship to/from Australia in all of its voyages from January to July 2017.	0.389	0.376	7564
<i>Bpro</i>	Ratio (between 0 and 1) of voyages of a ship to/from Brazil in all of its voyages from January to July 2017.	0.189	0.263	7564
<i>os</i>	Whether a ship is owned by a top 50 company in terms of the number of ships operated; 1 for yes and 0 for no.	0.534 ¹	0.499	7564
<i>dwt</i>	Deadweight tonnage of a ship (in tons).	138258	55043	7564
<i>flag</i>	Whether the flag of a ship is FOC; 1 denotes yes and 0 denotes no.	0.637 ²	0.481	7564
<i>freport</i>	Historical accuracy rate (between 0 and 1) of the first destination reports in the AIS report of a ship in its voyages from January to July 2017.	0.472	0.252	7564
<i>lreport</i>	Historical accuracy rate (between 0 and 1) of the last destination reports in the AIS report of a ship in its voyages from January to July 2017.	0.899	0.175	7564
<i>wtpro</i>	Ratio (between 0 and 1) of the sailing time of a ship over the period from January to July 2017.	0.533	0.010	7564
<i>dist</i>	Navigation distance between the recognized origin and the reported destination of the voyage	3336	1942	7564
<i>speed</i>	Average speed of the ship in a voyage (in knots).	11.3	1.022	7564
<i>load</i>	Whether the ship sailing in a voyage is loaded/unloaded; 1 denotes that the ship is loaded and 0 denotes it is empty.	0.503 ³	0.500	7564

Note¹: The data indicates that 53.4% of ships were owned by the top 50 companies.

Note²: The data indicates that 63.7% of ships were under FOCs.

Note³: The data indicates that 50.3% of voyages were made by loaded ships.

581 We have also performed the Pearson correlation among these variables with EViews10.0, as
 582 shown in Table 4. In general, all the correlation values are within the range [-0.5, 0.5].
 583 Therefore, multicollinearity would not significantly affect the regression results.

584

Table 4. Correlations of variables

Correlation	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
(1) <i>Apro</i>	1										
(2) <i>Bpro</i>	-0.480	1									
(3) <i>os</i>	0.069	-0.011	1								
(4) <i>dwt</i>	0.176	0.102	0.227	1							
(5) <i>flag</i>	-0.115	0.055	-0.042	-0.104	1						
(6) <i>freport</i>	0.279	-0.135	0.104	0.265	-0.012	1					
(7) <i>lreport</i>	0.108	-0.041	0.064	0.008	0.068	0.344	1				
(8) <i>wtpro</i>	0.034	0.031	0.023	-0.007	-0.019	-0.076	-0.027	1			
(9) <i>dist</i>	-0.098	0.167	0.008	0.136	0.009	0.026	0.050	0.032	1		
(10) <i>speed</i>	0.034	0.010	0.013	0.115	-0.005	0.059	-0.010	0.027	0.288	1	
(11) <i>load</i>	-0.103	0.058	-0.046	-0.077	0.026	-0.070	-0.003	-0.002	0.102	-0.261	1

585 Finally, as for the dependent variable, among the 7,564 records in the training set, 4,750 are
 586 associated with correct destination reports, and 2,814 are associated with incorrect reports.

587 **6.2. Results of the model**

588 We trained the model using the training set, where all variables are normalized into [0, 1] for
 589 the purpose of scaling. We performed the logit regression in EViews10.0 and the results are
 590 presented in Table 5. Note that the effect size of each independent variable is measured as a
 591 factor change in the odds ratio of the dependent variable for a standard error increase in the
 592 independent variable. This indicates the sensitivity of dependent variables to the changes in
 593 independent variables.

594 **Table 5. Regression results**

Variable	β	Standard error	Prob.	Effect size
<i>Apro</i>	0.347***	0.095	0.000	1.033
<i>Bpro</i>	-0.587***	0.134	0.000	1.082
<i>os</i>	0.160***	0.061	0.001	1.009
<i>dwt</i>	-0.577***	0.192	0.002	1.117
<i>flag</i>	0.004	0.062	0.950	1.000
<i>freport</i>	0.406***	0.135	0.002	1.056
<i>lreport</i>	0.920***	0.182	0.000	1.182
<i>wpro</i>	1.020***	0.300	0.001	1.357
<i>dist</i>	6.390***	0.204	0.000	3.692
<i>speed</i>	4.130***	0.206	0.000	2.338
<i>load</i>	0.383***	0.060	0.000	1.023
<i>constant</i>	-4.052***	0.248	0.000	2.737

Note: ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively.

595 We can see from the table that 10 out of the 11 coefficients are significant at the 1% significance
 596 level. The only insignificant variable is *flag*, which indicates a ship’s registration nationality.
 597 At first glance, it seems strange that ships registered under an FOC have the same probability
 598 of entering a wrong report as non-FOC ships. However, we have discussed this with industry
 599 practitioners and understand that, unlike the container shipping industry, both shippers and ship
 600 charterers are not concerned about the flag of Capesize and Panamax ships, as they do not have
 601 to frequently visit ports that only accommodate non-FOC ships.

602 As for the behaviour patterns of ships, we found that *Apro* (the regularity of a ship’s visits to
 603 Australia ports) is positively related to the correctness of destination reports, whereas *Bpro* (the
 604 regularity of a ship’s visits to Brazil ports) has a negative impact on the correctness of
 605 destination reports. This is somewhat inconsistent with H1 but can be explained by two facts.
 606 First, along the shipping route from Northeast Asia (where most iron ore is consumed) to
 607 Australia, Australia is the only destination for Capesize and Panamax ships. In contrast, along
 608 the shipping route to Brazil, other countries such as South Africa and India are also important
 609 iron ore exporters. For a ship in the spot market, in most cases she will not fix the destination
 610 when she sails toward Brazil, as she can call at any other exporting ports along the route when
 611 there is demand. Second, we understand from our interviewees that the giant iron ore shippers
 612 in Australia, e.g., BHP and FMG, request that ships fix their destinations in the AIS 10 days
 613 before they reach the port, and the trip to Australia is as short as 10 to 20 days, whereas Brazil
 614 iron ore shippers have no similar requirement.

615 The significant positive impact of operator size (*os*) suggests that ships of larger operators have
616 higher probabilities of entering correct destination reports for the voyages. This confirms our
617 hypothesis H2.

618 The result of ship size (*dwt*) is also counter-intuitive, as it suggests that larger ships are more
619 likely to report wrong destinations, which contradicts our hypothesis H3. From the discussions
620 with our interviewees, we understand that this is because large ships are more often used for
621 long trips. Therefore, they have more opportunities to change the destination in the middle of
622 the trip. Besides this, small ships can accommodate more types of cargoes and thus have fewer
623 unloaded long trips. Loaded ships are more likely to have clear destinations.

624 The historical performance in destination reports of ships also plays a critical role in
625 determining the correctness of destination reports. *freport* and *lreport* both have positive effects
626 on the correctness of destination reports. These results confirm that a ship that has made wrong
627 reports before has a higher probability of entering a fake destination in the AIS again
628 (hypothesis H5). In particular, the historical correctness rates of the final destination report
629 have a higher positive effect on the probability of giving correct reports than those of the first
630 destination report. This can be explained by the fact that the last report is subject to monitoring
631 by the port state control, and thus the ship operator's motive is more likely to be deliberate if
632 entering a wrong destination in the last report. Therefore, if the last report of a ship is frequently
633 wrong, then the ship must have very little concern about making wrong reports.

634 The ship utilization (*wtpro*) has a significant positive effect on the correctness of destination
635 reports. This suggests that a higher utilization rate (longer sailing time) of a ship leads to a
636 higher probability of correct destination reports, which confirms our hypothesis H6.

637 Surprisingly, the distance from the departure port to the entered destination of a ship has the
638 highest positive effect at a 1% significance level. It is estimated that the odds ratio increases
639 by a factor of 3.692 for every additional standard deviation of voyage distance. This suggests
640 that when a ship enters a distant destination, normally she is sure where she will sail.
641 Conversely, when she is not sure, she will enter a temporary closer destination along a certain
642 shipping route, e.g., Singapore when a ship travels from Asia to America.

643 Among all the variables, *speed* has the second largest significant impact on the choice of filling
644 wrong destination reports, with an effect size of 2.338. This shows that a ship with a lower
645 speed has a higher probability of inputting a wrong destination into the AIS system. This
646 confirms our hypothesis H8.

647 Finally, we can observe from the table that *load* has a significant positive effect at a 1%
648 significance level. This suggests that loaded ships have a higher probability of filling correct
649 reports, which is in line with our hypothesis H9. This also indicates that when the ship operator
650 places their unloaded ship at an export port, wrong reports are more likely to appear.

651 **6.2. Performances of the model**

652 To evaluate the performance of our model, we first measure the McFadden ρ^2 , which measures
653 the overall model fit:

$$654 \quad \rho^2 = 1 - \frac{LL(\beta)}{LL(0)} \quad (3)$$

655 where $LL(\beta)$ is the log-likelihood at convergence with parameter vector, and $LL(0)$ is the initial
 656 log-likelihood with all parameters set to zero. This measure reflects the improvement of the
 657 log-likelihood of the estimated model compared with the intercept-only model. For our model,
 658 the Mcfadden ρ^2 value is 0.29. This indicates a fine model fit.

659 We also calculate the classification accuracy rate (in percentage) of our model, which is
 660 obtained by applying the model on the records in the validation set and comparing the estimated
 661 correctness of destination reports delivered by our model for the records with their actual
 662 correctness. The result is presented in Table 6. We can observe from this table that the overall
 663 accuracy rate of our model in prediction reaches 84.1%. In particular, it successfully detects
 664 531 wrong reports out of 732 wrong reports (the detection rate of wrong reports is 72.5%). The
 665 model can also accurately recognize the majority of correct reports, and the accuracy rate for
 666 recognizing correct reports is 91.5%.

667

Table 6. Classification results

Observed	Predicted		
	Correct	Total	Correct (%)
RC=0	531	732	72.5
RC=1	1061	1160	91.4
	Overall		84.1

Note: RC represents the correctness of the destination report.

668

669 7. Discussions

670 In this paper, we use a discrete choice model to analyse the behaviours of carriers for making
 671 destination reports in AIS. It should be noticed that under the assumption of the discrete choice
 672 model, the carrier chooses the option of maximal utility when confronted with a discrete set of
 673 options. The unintentional mistakes (e.g., human errors) of carriers as choices are seemingly
 674 contradictory to the utility theory. However, though some carriers know that the wrong
 675 information caused by mistakes and human errors is against the IMO regulation, they still allow
 676 it to happen but do not manage to correct it as it may be costly to do so. This implies that they
 677 can obtain higher utility by making this choice (ignoring the mistakes intentionally).

678 The empirical results suggest that the navigation distance from the departure port to the
 679 proposed destination port in its first report has the most significant positive relation with the
 680 probability of providing a correct report for a voyage in the AIS, such that a longer proposed
 681 voyage indicates a higher probability of giving a wrong report. The average sailing speed is
 682 also a very significant factor affecting the correctness of a destination report in AIS, with an
 683 effect size of 2.338. When a ship sails faster, there is a much lower probability of observing a
 684 wrong destination report in its AIS. Longer operating time (higher utilization) of a ship also
 685 suggests a higher probability of reporting correct destinations. The historical accuracy rates of
 686 a ship's destination reports can also help to determine the correctness of destination reports.
 687 Ships that have records of previously making wrong destination reports are associated with a
 688 higher probability of entering wrong destination reports into the AIS again. We have found that
 689 ships with a larger deadweight tonnage are more prone to fill in incorrect destination reports in
 690 AIS. Although the effect sizes are relatively smaller compared to the above factors, operator
 691 size, historical behaviour patterns, and loading status are also proved to have significant

692 positive relations with higher accuracies of destination reports in AIS. We also found that
693 whether or not the ship has an FOC has no significant impact on the correctness of the
694 destination reports it makes.

695 The findings of this study can provide many important implications for industry practitioners,
696 and can help them to improve their operations and management. First, our model has an 84.1%
697 overall accuracy rate in predicting the correctness of destination reports in AIS. This indicates
698 that the model can well explain the impact of influence factors on the correctness of destination
699 reports. It can also be applied in real applications to estimate the correctness of an observed
700 destination report from AIS. The value of knowing the correctness of a destination report is
701 tremendous. Note that when applying the model to predict the correctness of the destination
702 reported by a ship for its on-going voyage, its average speed in the whole voyage is not
703 available. In this case, one can estimate the variable *speed* by using the ship's average speed in
704 the current voyage.

705 Second, port operators can refer to the information of destination port combined with ETAs to
706 make timely and efficient decisions for maritime traffic management. In addition, knowing the
707 destinations, ETAs, loading statuses, and DWTs of ships, carriers, and ship operators can better
708 predict the number of ships sailing to certain regions so as to avoid an oversupply of ships.

709 Third, this study also enables the IMO (International Maritime Organization), PSC (Port State
710 Control) authorities, and other shipping regulators to detect any misconduct of ships in terms
711 of destination reports. As a matter of fact, some authorities have started formulating policies to
712 sanction ships that deliberately report wrong destination ports.⁷ In particular, when detecting
713 erroneous destination reports, shipping regulators should pay more attention to ships with the
714 following features: (i) ships in ballast, (ii) ships that have made wrong reports before, (iii) ships
715 that have relatively lower utilization rates, (iv) ships entering a destination that is only a short
716 distance from their departure port, and (v) ships that sail in voyages at relatively lower speeds.

717 Fourth, this study has identified the reasons behind the wrong destination reports in the AIS
718 and the relative size of their effects. These findings can help the policymakers to improve the
719 regulations by tailoring rules to prevent fake destination reports caused by some specific
720 reasons. For example, policymakers could impose compulsory training to reduce human errors,
721 provide guidance for ships that have no specific destination during a voyage, and set down
722 punishment for deliberately hiding the destination.

723

724 **8. Conclusions**

725 In this study, we evaluate the impacts of different influence factors on the correctness of the
726 destination reports in AIS by building up a discrete choice model. The variables in the model
727 are obtained from extensive and deep interviews and investigation. AIS-based data mining is
728 adopted to make it possible to quantitatively analyse the influence factors. This study addresses
729 the previously untouched problem of manually input data correction, and adopts multiple
730 approaches to solve the proposed problem, which can be referred to by subsequent research.

⁷<https://www.maritime-executive.com/article/panama-threatens-sanctions-for-ships-disabling-positioning-signals>.

731 In the long term, we believe that this study will reduce the odds of ships inputting wrong
732 destination reports. The value of knowing the destinations of ships is of tremendous help to the
733 bulk shipping industry. First, with more trustable destination reports from the AIS, the port
734 authority/terminal operators can better improve their efficiency in managing the ship traffic
735 and berthing resource allocation for incoming ships. Second, when the destination reports in
736 AIS become more trustable for shipping practitioners, the efficiency of the bulk spot market
737 can be improved through better matching of demand with supply, as the carriers can optimize
738 their repositioning strategies when knowing the destination information of ships in the market.
739 Large bulk ships have high operational costs and they are also the main sources of various
740 pollutants. Therefore, a more efficient bulk shipping market contributes to further easing the
741 burdens on shipping companies, as well as on society as a whole. Third, AIS data has been
742 increasingly applied in solving various problems, not only in shipping but also in international
743 trade and economic studies. The untrusted data of ship destination reports in the AIS can
744 heavily affect the expansion of the applications of the AIS in practice. We firmly believe that
745 studies based on AIS data will be further expanded if the destination reports in the system are
746 more reliable.

747 Although our model has fine estimation accuracy and most of the identified factors are proved
748 to be statistically related to the correctness of destination report in AIS, there exist some
749 deficiencies which can be improved in the future. First, as this study is preliminary work in
750 identifying the factors for wrong destination reports in AIS, there must be some other reasons
751 and factors we missed, for example, the shipping market condition, political reasons, etc. In
752 addition, the measurements of some factors could be reconsidered and improved. Second, some
753 interesting findings are obtained from the empirical results, and we interpreted these findings,
754 e.g., why speed has a positive impact on the correctness of destination reports, based on
755 discussions with our interviewees and our own understanding. We expect that these
756 interpretations can be verified with evidence in the future. Finally, it will be interesting to
757 develop various methods to forecast ships' true destinations in the long term, for which
758 knowing the correctness of the destination report from AIS is helpful.

759

760 **References**

761 Abadie, L.M., Goicoechea, N., Galarraga, I., 2017. Adapting the shipping sector to stricter
762 emissions regulations: Fuel switching or installing a scrubber? *Transportation Research Part D:
763 Transport and Environment* 57, 237–250. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trd.2017.09.017>.

764 Adland, R., Alger, H., Banyte, J., Jia, H., 2017. Does fuel efficiency pay? Empirical evidence
765 from the drybulk timecharter market revisited. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and
766 Practice* 95, 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tra.2016.11.007>.

767 Adland, R., Cariou, P., Wolff, F.-C., 2016. The influence of charterers and owners on bulk
768 shipping freight rates. *Transportation Research Part E: Logistics and Transportation Review*
769 86, 69–82. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tre.2015.11.014>.

770 Alderton, T., Winchester, N., 2002. Flag states and safety: 1997-1999. *Maritime Policy &
771 Management*, 29, 151–162. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03088830110090586>.

772 Alizadeh, D., Alesheikh, A. A., Sharif, M., 2021. Vessel trajectory prediction using historical
773 automatic identification system data. *The Journal of Navigation*, 74(1), 156-174.
774 <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0373463320000442>.

775 Bai, X., Lam, J.S.L., 2019. A copula-GARCH approach for analyzing dynamic conditional
776 dependency structure between liquefied petroleum gas freight rate, product price arbitrage and
777 crude oil price. *Energy Economics*, 78, 412–427. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eneco.2018.10.032>.

778 Baldauf, M., Benedict, K., Fischer, S., Motz, F., Schröder-Hinrichs, J.U., 2011. Collision
779 avoidance systems in air and maritime traffic. *Proceedings of the Institution of Mechanical
780 Engineers, Part O: Journal of Risk and Reliability*, 225(3), 333–343.
781 <https://doi.org/10.1177/1748006X11408973>.

782 Bakdi, A., Glad, I. K., Vanem, E., Engelhardtson, Ø., 2020. AIS-based multiple vessel collision
783 and grounding risk identification based on adaptive safety domain. *Journal of Marine Science
784 and Engineering*, 8(1), 5. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jmse8010005>.

785 Bomberger, N., Rhodes, B., Seibert, M., Waxman, A., 2006. Associative learning of vessel
786 motion patterns for maritime situation awareness, in: 2006 9th International Conference on
787 Information Fusion, IEEE, pp. 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICIF.2006.301661>.

788 Felski, A., Jaskólski, K., 2013. The integrity of information received by means of AIS during
789 anti-collision manoeuvring. *TransNav: International Journal on Marine Navigation and Safety
790 of Sea Transportation*, 7(1), 95–100. <https://doi.org/10.12716/1001.07.01.12>.

791 Fournier, M., Hilliard, R.C., Rezaee, S., Pelot, R., 2018. Past, present, and future of the
792 satellite-based automatic identification system: areas of applications (2004–2016). *WMU
793 Journal of Maritime Affairs*, 17(3), 311–345. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13437-018-0151-6>.

794 Gao, M., Shi, G. Y., 2020. Ship collision avoidance anthropomorphic decision-making for
795 structured learning based on AIS with Seq-CGAN. *Ocean Engineering*, 217, 107922.
796 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oceaneng.2020.107922>.

797 Greig, N. C., Hines, E. M., Cope, S., Liu, X., 2020. Using Satellite AIS to Analyze Vessel
798 Speeds Off the Coast of Washington State, US, as a Risk Analysis for Cetacean-Vessel
799 Collisions. *Frontiers in Marine Science*, 7, 109. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2020.00109>.

800 Harati-Mokhtari, A., Wall, A., Brooks, P., Wang, J., 2007. Automatic Identification System
801 (AIS): data reliability and human error implications. *The Journal of Navigation*, 60(3), 373–
802 389. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0373463307004298>.

803 IALA., 2004. IALA guideline no. 1028 on the Automatic Identification System (AIS) volume
804 1, part I operational issues edition 1.3. [https://www.e-
805 navigation.nl/sites/default/files/universal-automatic-identification-ais-volume-1-part-1-
806 operational-issues-1028.pdf](https://www.e-navigation.nl/sites/default/files/universal-automatic-identification-ais-volume-1-part-1-operational-issues-1028.pdf).

807 Jia, H., Lampe, O.D., Solteszova, V., Strandenes, S.P., 2017. An automatic algorithm for
808 generating seaborne transport pattern maps based on AIS. *Maritime Economic & Logistics*, 19,
809 619–630. <https://doi.org/10.1057/s41278-017-0075-7>.

810 Jia, H., Lam, J.S.L., Tran, N.K., 2020. Spatial variation of travel time uncertainty in container
811 shipping. *Transportation Research Procedia*, 48, 1740–1749.
812 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trpro.2020.08.210>.

813 Köhn, S., Thanopoulou, H., 2011. A gam assessment of quality premia in the dry bulk time-
814 charter market. *Transportation Research Part E: Logistics and Transportation Review*, 47, 709–
815 721. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tre.2011.01.003>.

816 Laxhammar, R., 2008. Anomaly detection for sea surveillance, in: 2008 11th international
817 conference on information fusion, IEEE, pp. 1–8.

818 Le Pira, M., Marcucci, E., Gatta, V., Ignaccolo, M., Inturri, G., Pluchino, A., 2017. Towards a
819 decision-support procedure to foster stakeholder involvement and acceptability of urban freight
820 transport policies. *European Transport Research Review*, 9(4), 1-14.
821 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12544-017-0268-2>.
822

823 Lensu, M., Goerlandt, F., 2019. Big maritime data for the Baltic Sea with a focus on the winter
824 navigation system. *Marine Policy*, 104, 53–65. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpol.2019.02.038>.

825 Li, H., Liu, J., Wu, K., Yang, Z., Liu, R. W., Xiong, N., 2018. Spatio-temporal vessel trajectory
826 clustering based on data mapping and density. *IEEE Access*, 6, 58939-58954.
827 <https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2018.2866364>.

828 Lindstad, H., Sandaas, I., Strømman, A.H., 2015. Assessment of cost as a function of abatement
829 options in maritime emission control areas. *Transportation Research Part D: Transport and
830 Environment*, 38, 41–48. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trd.2015.04.018>.

831 Papapostolou, N.C., Poulialis, P.K., Kyriakou, I., 2017. Herd behavior in the drybulk market:
832 an empirical analysis of the decision to invest in new and retire existing fleet capacity.
833 *Transportation Research Part E: Logistics and Transportation Review*, 104, 36–51.
834 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tre.2017.05.007>.

835 Peng, Z., Shan, W., Guan, F., Yu, B., 2016. Stable vessel-cargo matching in dry bulk shipping
836 market with price game mechanism. *Transportation Research Part E: Logistics and
837 Transportation Review*, 95, 76–94. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tre.2016.08.007>.

838 Prochazka, V., Adland, R., Wallace, S. W., 2019a. The value of foresight in the drybulk freight
839 market. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, 129, 232–245.
840 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tra.2019.07.003>.

841 Prochazka, V., Adland, R., Wolff, F.-C., 2019b. Contracting decisions in the crude oil
842 transportation market: Evidence from fixtures matched with AIS data. *Transportation Research
843 Part A: Policy and Practice*, 130, 37–53. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tra.2019.09.009>.

844 Rhodes, B. J., Garagic, D., Dankert, J. R., Stolzar, L. H., Zandipour, M., Seibert, M.,
845 Bomberger, N. A., 2009. Anomaly Detection & Behavior Prediction: Higher-Level Fusion
846 Based on Computational Neuroscientific Principles, in: *Sensor and Data Fusion*. I-Tech
847 Education and Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.5772/6585>.

848 Regli, F., Nomikos, N.K., 2019. The eye in the sky – Freight rate effects of tanker supply.
849 *Transportation Research Part E: Logistics and Transportation Review*, 125, 402–424.
850 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tre.2019.03.015>.

851 Tu, E., Zhang, G., Rachmawati, L., Rajabally, E., Huang, G.-B., 2018. Exploiting AIS Data for
852 Intelligent Maritime Navigation: A Comprehensive Survey from Data to Methodology. *IEEE*

853 Transactions on Intelligent Transportation Systems, 19, 1559–1582.
854 <https://doi.org/10.1109/TITS.2017.2724551>.

855 UNCTAD, 2019. Review of maritime transportation 2019. Paper presented at the United
856 Nations Conference on Trade and Development (New York and Geneva).
857 http://unctad.org/en/PublicationsLibrary/rmt2019_en.pdf.

858 Wang, J., Zhu, C., Zhou, Y., Zhang, W., 2017. Vessel Spatio-temporal Knowledge Discovery
859 with AIS Trajectories Using Co-clustering. Journal of Navigation, 70, 1383–1400.
860 <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0373463317000406>.

861 Willems, N., van Hage, W. R., de Vries, G., Janssens, J.H.M., Malaisé, V., 2010. An integrated
862 approach for visual analysis of a multisource moving objects knowledge base. International
863 Journal of Geographical Information Science, 24, 1543–1558.
864 <https://doi.org/10.1080/13658816.2010.515029>.

865 Wood, J., Dykes, J., 2008. Spatially Ordered Treemaps. IEEE Transactions on Visualization
866 and Computer Graphics, 14, 1348–1355. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TVCG.2008.165>.

867 Wu, B., Yip, T. L., Yan, X., Soares, C. G., 2019. Fuzzy logic based approach for ship-bridge
868 collision alert system. Ocean Engineering, 187, 106152.
869 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oceaneng.2019.106152>.

870 Wu, L., Xu, Y., Wang, F., 2020. Identifying Port Calls of Ships by Uncertain Reasoning with
871 Trajectory Data. ISPRS International Journal of Geo-Information, 9(12), 756.
872 <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijgi9120756>.

873 Yang, D., Wu, L., Wang, S., Jia, H., Li, K. X., 2019. How big data enriches maritime research
874 – a critical review of Automatic Identification System (AIS) data applications. Transport
875 Reviews, 39, 755–773. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01441647.2019.1649315>.

876 Zhang, C., Bin, J., Wang, W., Peng, X., Wang, R., Haldearn, R., Liu, Z., 2020. AIS data driven
877 general vessel destination prediction: A random forest based approach. Transportation
878 Research Part C: Emerging Technologies, 118, 102729.
879 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trc.2020.102729>.

880 Zhang, L., Meng, Q., Fwa, T. F., 2017. Big AIS data based spatial-temporal analyses of ship
881 traffic in Singapore port waters. Transportation Research Part E: Logistics and Transportation
882 Review, 129, 287–304. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tre.2017.07.011>.