

A Context-Augmented Deep Learning Approach for Worker Trajectory Prediction on Unstructured and Dynamic Construction Sites

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Abstract

17 Predicting workers' trajectories on unstructured and dynamic construction sites is critical
18 to workplace safety yet remains challenging. Existing prediction methods mainly rely on entity
19 movement information but have not fully exploited the contextual information. This study
20 proposes a context-augmented Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) method, which integrates
21 both individual movement and workplace contextual information (i.e., movements of

22 neighboring entities, working group information, and potential destination information) into an
23 LSTM network with an encoder-decoder architecture, to predict a sequence of target positions
24 from a sequence of observations. The proposed context-augmented method is validated using
25 construction videos and the prediction accuracy achieved is 8.51 pixels in terms of final
26 displacement error (FDE), with an observation time of 3s and prediction time of 5s—5.4%
27 smaller than using the position-based method. Compared to conventional one-step-ahead
28 predictions, the proposed sequence-to-sequence method predicts trajectories over multiple
29 steps to avoid error accumulation and effectively reduces the FDE by 70%. In addition,
30 qualitative analysis is conducted to provide insights to select appropriate prediction methods
31 given different construction scenarios. It was found that the context-aware model leads to better
32 performance comparing to the position-based method when workers are conducting
33 collaborative activities.

34

35 **1. Introduction**

36 The construction industry is one of the most dangerous industries: it employs only 5% of
37 the US workforce [1] but accounts for 21.1% (1008 deaths) of the total worker fatalities in
38 2018 [2]. The struck-by accident is a major cause, leading to 804 worker fatalities (18%) in
39 construction from 2011 to 2015 [3]. It is also a single leading cause for non-fatal injuries,
40 accounting for 34% of cases of injuries from 2011 to 2015 [4]. To prevent struck-by accidents,
41 previous studies [5–7] focused on determining the proximity between workers and equipment
42 using sensing technologies and comparing the proximity to predefined thresholds to detect

43 struck-by hazards. Low detection accuracy and reliability are the main challenges attributed to
44 the difficulty in predicting the future movements of jobsite entities while considering the
45 uncertainties of their movements on the unstructured and dynamic construction sites. For
46 instance, warning systems can raise 59% false alarms due to the uncertainty in proximity
47 analysis [8]. As a result, workers may lose confidence in and ignore the alarms, which hinders
48 the efficacy of struck-by prevention systems. According to Luo et al. [9], the estimated response
49 rate of proximity warning systems for generic hazards is about 0.528. Under such a situation,
50 the accurate prediction of worker trajectory provides additional information and is critical to
51 achieving a proactive and informative struck-by prevention system.

52 Existing studies have created a few methods to predict trajectories of construction
53 resources. Zhu et al. [10] proposed a novel Kalman filter to predict the movements of workers
54 and mobile equipment using positions obtained from multiple video cameras. Dong et al. [11]
55 and Rashid et al. [12] modeled the worker movements as a Markov process to predict their
56 trajectories based on historical records. However, one main challenge in the trajectory
57 prediction of construction entities is the low accuracy over large time horizons because of two
58 interrelated reasons. First, it is insufficient to only consider the previous movements of
59 individual entities when predicting their future trajectories. Since multiple entities co-exist on
60 the construction site, forming various working groups to accomplish different activities [13],
61 their behavior will be influenced by each other and the specific activities they are involved in.
62 To accurately predict worker trajectory, such contextual information must be incorporated.
63 Second, due to the complex and dynamic jobsite context, it is not adequate to capture the

64 worker movement using a pre-defined model with hand-crafted features that may only fit
65 particular scenarios.

66 A few recent studies [14,15] attempted to predict the construction entity trajectory through
67 a data-driven approach given the advances in deep learning techniques. Despite the promise of
68 deep learning, the rich contextual information regarding working groups and involved activities
69 on construction jobsites have not been fully exploited to better predict worker's trajectory under
70 various construction scenarios. Towards that end, this study proposes a long short-term memory
71 (LSTM)-based, context-augmented deep learning model that integrates both individual
72 movement information and contextual information, including movements of neighboring
73 entities, working group information, and potential destination information. In addition, the
74 proposed method adopts a sequence-to-sequence (seq2seq) neural network architecture that
75 allows the elimination of error accumulation in prediction trajectories over multiple time steps.

76 The remainder of the paper is outlined as follows. Section 2 describes related studies and
77 limitations. Section 3 introduces the proposed method for context-aware trajectory prediction.
78 Section 4 describes the experiments used to evaluate the technical approaches and analyzes the
79 results. Section 5 summarizes the study, highlights the contribution, and discusses the future
80 direction.

81 **2. Review of Related Studies**

82 In this section, related studies on proximity-based struck-by prevention and trajectory
83 prediction are reviewed and their limitations are outlined.

84 **2.1. Related Studies on Proximity-based Struck-by Prevention**

85 Struck-by accident is one of the leading causes of construction fatalities and has attracted
86 increasing research interest. Many studies developed prevention mechanisms to provide alerts
87 when workers and equipment are too close to each other, as shown in Table 1. Most of them
88 compare the proximity information detected via various real-time locating systems (RTLS)
89 with a pre-defined threshold or statistical hazard zones and provide early warnings when the
90 distance is less than the threshold [5–7,16]. But these approaches only focus on proximity at a
91 snapshot while overlooking the dynamic nature of workers and equipment. Another group of
92 studies [17–21] integrates proximity with more risk factors (e.g., equipment workspace, blind
93 spot information, velocity) to determine the hazard zone. These approaches consider the
94 dynamic and complexity of construction work. However, current approaches detect struck-by
95 hazards and take actions “just” before potential accidents might happen with limited prediction
96 ability, which has a large chance of interrupting normal operation and making incorrect
97 warnings. Therefore, there is a critical need for accurate prediction of worker trajectory, which
98 paves the way for a proactive and informative struck-by prevention mechanism.

99

100 Table 1 Related studies on proximity-based struck-by prevention

Factors used to detect struck-by-hazards	Hazard zone modeling	Reference
Proximity	Pre-defined threshold	[5–7]
Proximity considering sensor accuracy	Statistical hazard zones	[16]
Proximity and equipment workspace	Line segment intersection algorithm	[17]
Proximity, blind spot information, and velocity	Network-based model	[18]
Proximity and crowdedness	Fuzzy inference method	[19]
Proximity, direction, and velocity	Rule-based model	[20,21]

101 **2.2. Related Studies on Trajectory Prediction**

102 Trajectory prediction is an essential yet challenging task in the computer vision community
 103 and has been increasingly studied in applications such as pedestrian behavior analysis due to
 104 the emergence of autonomous vehicles. There are typically three types of approaches in
 105 trajectory prediction, i.e., Bayesian filtering, probabilistic planning, and data-driven
 106 approaches. Table 2 summarizes related studies on trajectory prediction, including the features
 107 and models used for prediction as well as the application scenarios.

108

109 Table 2 Related studies on trajectory prediction

Category	Input Features	Model	Application Scenario(s)	Reference
Bayesian filtering	Position, velocity, acceleration	Kalman Filter	Movement of construction workers and equipment/ Moving objects	[10,22–24]
	Position, velocity, acceleration considering different motion states (walking and stop)	Switching Linear Dynamical System	Pedestrian behavior	[25]
	Latent segments of trajectories	Hidden Markov Model	Construction worker movement	[12]
	Position and change of moving direction with two states (walking and working)	Markov Model	Construction worker movement	[11]
Probabilistic planning	Positions considering the environment (e.g. obstacles)	Markov Decision Process	Pedestrian behavior	[26,27]
	Position, speed, orientation considering the semantic map and goals	Jump Markov Process	Pedestrian behavior	[28]
	Position, speed, orientation considering goals and social force	Joint Sampling Markov Decision Process	Human motion	[29]
Data-Driven approaches	Position	Three stacked layers of LSTM	Pedestrian behavior	[30]
	Position and occupancy map	Social-LSTM	Human motion in crowded space	[31]
	Position, occupancy map, and	Social-Scene-	Pedestrian/human motion	[32,33]

	scene features	LSTM	in crowded space	
	Position considering the social interaction via social pooling layer	Social Generative Adversarial Network (GAN)	Movement of construction workers and equipment	[15]
	Position, occupancy map and entity type	Encoder-decoder LSTM	Movement of construction workers and equipment	[14]

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111 Bayesian filtering methods [10–12,22–25] explicitly model the movement dynamics as
 112 mathematical models, such as Kalman/Particle Filters and Hidden Markov Models, and are
 113 traditionally applied to predict trajectories. However, these approaches often result in
 114 physically impossible locations (e.g., behind walls, within obstacles). Additionally, Bayesian
 115 filtering methods rely on simplified models and hand-crafted states with parameters estimated
 116 from historical records/observations, which may only fit particular scenarios and simple
 117 movements. Probabilistic planning methods [26–29] treat entities as intelligent agents who
 118 actively plan their motion/path to achieve a goal. The problem is formulated as a path planning
 119 or optimal control task, such as the Markov decision process (MDP). The optimal policy is
 120 determined by maximizing some inherent reward functions. These approaches can incorporate
 121 context information, such as a semantic map and social force, but they still use hand-crafted
 122 features to model states and reward functions that are suitable to particular settings.

123 Recently, with the advances in deep learning techniques, the data-driven approach
 124 [14,15,30–33] has been increasingly used given that it does not require explicitly modeling
 125 movement dynamics and that it can be generalized to various scenarios. The problem is usually
 126 formulated as a time-series regression problem. Traditionally, only past movements of
 127 individual entities are used as inputs to predict future trajectory [30], which is insufficient to

128 capture human behavior under different scenarios, especially when human behavior is
129 influenced by the environment. Recent studies in the computer vision community have
130 recognized the significance of context information and considered various contextual features
131 to predict pedestrian trajectory. For instance, Alahi et al. [31] created a social-LSTM model
132 and proved that the pedestrian trajectory can be better predicted by incorporating the interaction
133 among multiple pedestrians. Xue et al. [32] and Syed and Morris [33] incorporated the
134 occupancy map and scene features in the trajectory prediction.

135 Very few studies have incorporated the contextual information in trajectory prediction in
136 the construction domain. Kim et al. [15] applied a hyper-parameter tuned Social GAN to predict
137 trajectories of construction entities in 5s. Tang et al. [14] developed an LSTM network that
138 integrates entity type (i.e., worker and equipment) and occupancy maps of the construction site
139 to predict entity trajectory in up to 2s. Despite these pilot studies, the trajectory was predicted
140 only in one specific job setting with entities conducting a specific activity. There remains a
141 critical need to exploit the contextual cues that are effective to predict the entity trajectory
142 under general construction jobsite scenarios. To close this gap, this study proposes an LSTM-
143 based, context-augmented model that integrates both individual movement information and
144 contextual information, including movements of neighboring entities, relationship with
145 neighboring entities (i.e., within one group or not in one group), and potential destination, to
146 accurately predict the trajectory of construction workers.

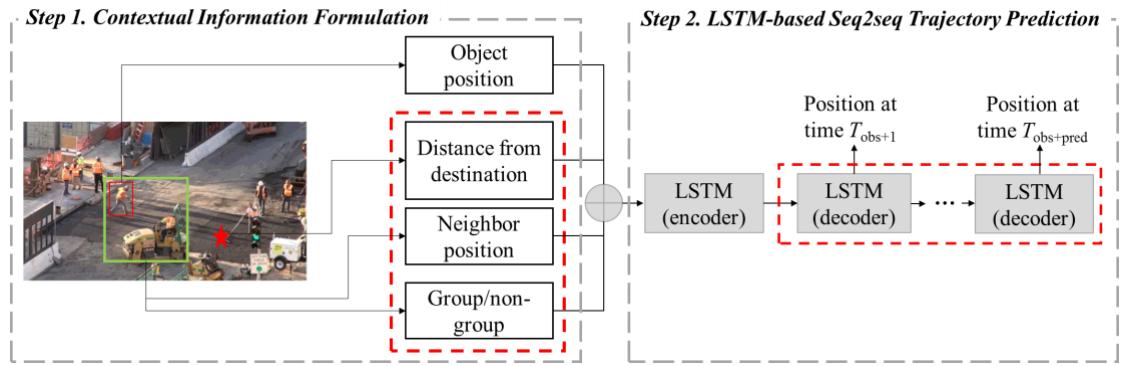
147 **3. Methodology**

148 In this study, a context-aware LSTM-based method has been designed to predict worker

149 trajectories using visual data that contain rich contextual information. Entity movement and
150 contextual information are incorporated in the LSTM-based seq2seq neural network for
151 trajectory prediction. Figure 1 illustrates the overall framework. This method consists of two
152 major steps: Step 1—contextual information formulation and Step 2—LSTM-based seq2seq
153 trajectory prediction.

154 In the first step, contextual information regarding the interaction between the entity and
155 its nearest neighbor, and the potential destination is considered. Specifically, the contextual
156 information is represented by three features, the neighbor position, the relationship with the
157 neighbor (i.e., group/not a group), and the distance from potential destination. In our previous
158 studies [13,34], it was found that the interactions among construction entities can be modeled
159 using positional and attentional cues and further used to reason about the construction working
160 group and corresponding group activity. This forms the technical foundations to formulate the
161 contextual features in this study. In the second step, the above features are concatenated and
162 fed into an LSTM encoder that encodes the information regarding both entity movements and
163 jobsite contexts during the observation time. The encoded information is then fed into an LSTM
164 decoder that generates a sequence of estimated positions during the prediction period. In this
165 way, the proposed method takes into account the construction job contextual information and
166 avoids the error accumulation when predicting trajectory over multiple time steps.

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171 **3.1. Problem Formulation**

172 Construction sites are complex and dynamic, where multiple entities coexist and form
 173 different working groups to collaborate on various activities. Figure 2 illustrates a real
 174 construction scenario with potential struck-by hazard, where three workers (in blue dotted
 175 bounding boxes) are guiding the bulldozer (in yellow dashed bounding box) to roll over a path
 176 while two workers (in red solid bounding boxes) are walking across the workplace. Their
 177 moving directions, indicated by the arrows, present a potential conflict with the bulldozer. As
 178 construction workers may be distracted by their allocated tasks and surrounding noises, they
 179 may fail to recognize the approach of other entities. Therefore, given the current positions of
 180 construction entities and the jobsite context, it is important to predict entity future movements
 181 so that the potential collision between entities can be proactively detected and avoided.



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185 Construction videos are used as the data source for trajectory prediction given its
 186 increasing availability on jobsites and its capability of providing rich contextual information.

187 Entity position is captured by the mid-bottom point of its bounding box on the 2D image plane.

188 As a result, at any time step t , the i^{th} entity on the jobsite is represented by its pixel coordinates

189 on the image plane, i.e., (x_t^i, y_t^i) . The inputs are the observation of site dynamics from time

190 step 1 to time step T_{obs} , including trajectories of all entities, i.e., $(x_{1:T_{obs}}^{1:N}, y_{1:T_{obs}}^{1:N})$, and the jobsite

191 contexts, i.e., $\mathbf{f}_{1:T_{obs}}^{\text{context}}$, where N is the total number of entities in the scene, and the subscript

192 represents the trajectory or context during the specific time period. The objective is to predict

193 the future trajectory of target entity i from time step T_{obs+1} to $T_{obs+pred}$, denoted as

194 $(x_{T_{obs+1}:T_{obs+pred}}^i, y_{T_{obs+1}:T_{obs+pred}}^i)$. Inspired by [15], the prediction time is set as 5s assuming it would be

195 enough for entities to take action. The observation time is set as 3s. The ratio of prediction and

196 observation time will also vary in the experiments to further analyze the influence of prediction

197 time.

198 Different from previous studies [14,31] which only observe entity positions and implicitly

199 incorporate the interactions among entities using hidden states learned from deep neural
200 networks, this study explicitly models the contextual information $\mathbf{f}_{1:T_{obs}}^{context}$ (including entity
201 interaction and potential destination) on the jobsite, as detailed in Section 3.2. Note that it is
202 assumed the visual data are first preprocessed to obtain entity positions and contextual features,
203 consistent with most of the related studies [14,15,31,32].

204 **3.2. Contextual Information Formulation**

205 Construction entities (including both workers and equipment) interact with each other,
206 constituting working groups to accomplish assigned tasks. It is expected that the worker's
207 behavior will be influenced by other entities as well as the involved construction activity. The
208 rationale is that construction workers tend to avoid obstacles to prevent potential collisions,
209 while staying close to their co-workers or group members to conduct the activity
210 collaboratively. Meanwhile, the worker's movement is typically within the workspace
211 specified by their involved activity, which indicates their potential destination. The specific
212 contextual features considered in this study include neighbor position, group relationship with
213 the neighbor, and distance to potential destination.

214 **3.2.1. Neighbor position**

215 It is not uncommon that the positions of other entities in the scene are incorporated to
216 reflect their interactions with the target entity when predicting its trajectory. A conventional
217 approach is to construct an occupancy map of the scene or within a certain area of the target
218 entity to represent the existence of other entities [14,31]. The main drawback is that if the grid
219 size is large, resulting in coarse occupancy map, the dynamic changes of entity positions cannot

220 be effectively reflected, especially when entity movement is not substantial across consecutive
221 time steps, such as on construction sites; if the grid size is small, resulting in fine occupancy
222 map, only a few grids will be occupied by entities, which leads to very sparse occupancy map,
223 i.e., most values are zero.

224 In contrast, this study directly uses neighbor position information as one contextual feature.
225 Note that, only the position of the entity's nearest neighbor is considered in order to ensure the
226 same dimensional features in different scenarios. It is reasonable as entities are more likely to
227 be affected by others who are spatially closer to them. Figure 3 illustrates an example of entity
228 locations in the image coordinate system, where the positions of construction entities are
229 represented by the pixel coordinates of the mid-bottom points of their bounding boxes. At any
230 time step t , positions of all entities (from 1 to N) are observed, denoted as $(x_t^k, y_t^k), k \in 1 \dots N$.
231 Then, the distance between any two of the entities is calculated as the Euclidian distance
232 between their pixel coordinates. As a result, the position of the nearest neighbor of Entity i can
233 be easily denoted as $(x_t^j, y_t^j), j = \arg \min \|(x_t^i - x_t^k, y_t^i - y_t^k)\|, k \in 1 \dots N, k \neq i$. The locations of
234 construction entities can be automatically obtained using vision-based object tracking methods
235 created in some existing studies [35,36]. However, in this study, in order to exclude the impact
236 of the possible errors in object tracking, the construction images are manually annotated to
237 draw the bounding boxes and extract the pixel coordinates.



238

239 Figure 3 Pixel coordinates of construction entities (Entity i is the target, j is its nearest
240 neighbor)

241

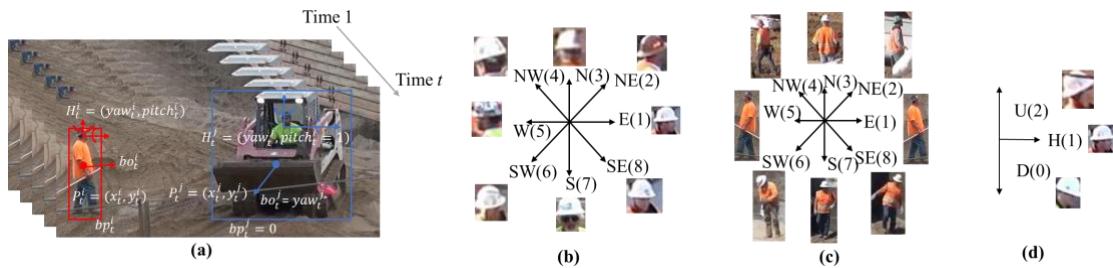
242 **3.2.2. Group relationship with neighbor**

243 In addition to the neighbor position, the relationship between an entity and its neighbor in
244 terms of whether they belong to the same working group also influences entity movement.
245 For instance, workers tend to avoid entities that are not in the same group to prevent potential
246 conflict, while they tend to have similar movement patterns with their co-workers. However,
247 such scenarios are not differentiated, and the group information has been overlooked in current
248 studies. The group relationship between an entity and its nearest neighbor is considered as a
249 second contextual feature. Two entities are considered belonging to one working group if they
250 are interacting with each other during the construction, and the group relationship feature is set
251 as “1”. Otherwise, they are considered not belonging to the same group with feature value being
252 “0”.

253 The working group is identified by integrating positional and attentional cues via an
254 LSTM-based method created in our previous study [13]. The workflow is as follows.

255 1. Spatial and attentional states of construction entities from construction videos are
 256 represented as numerical values, as shown in Figure 4 (a). The spatial state refers to an
 257 entity's real-time position on the image plane, represented by the pixel coordinates of the
 258 central point of the bounding box. The attentional state refers to the direction of an entity's
 259 visual attention, captured by head pose, body orientation, and body pose. Specifically, the
 260 worker's head yaw and body orientation are categorized into eight discrete classes: north
 261 (N) – 1, south (S) – 2, east (E) – 3, west (W) – 4, northeast (NE) – 5, northwest (NW) – 6,
 262 southeast (SE) – 7, and southwest (SW) – 8, as shown in Figure 4(b) and (c). The head
 263 pitch is categorized into three discrete classes: looking up (U) – 2, looking horizontally (H)
 264 – 1, and looking down (D) – 0, as shown in Figure 4(d). Note that the equipment is
 265 simplified as rigid objects, and the main cab is treated as its “head”. Thus, for equipment,
 266 the body orientation is identical to the head yaw and the head pitch always remains
 267 horizontal.

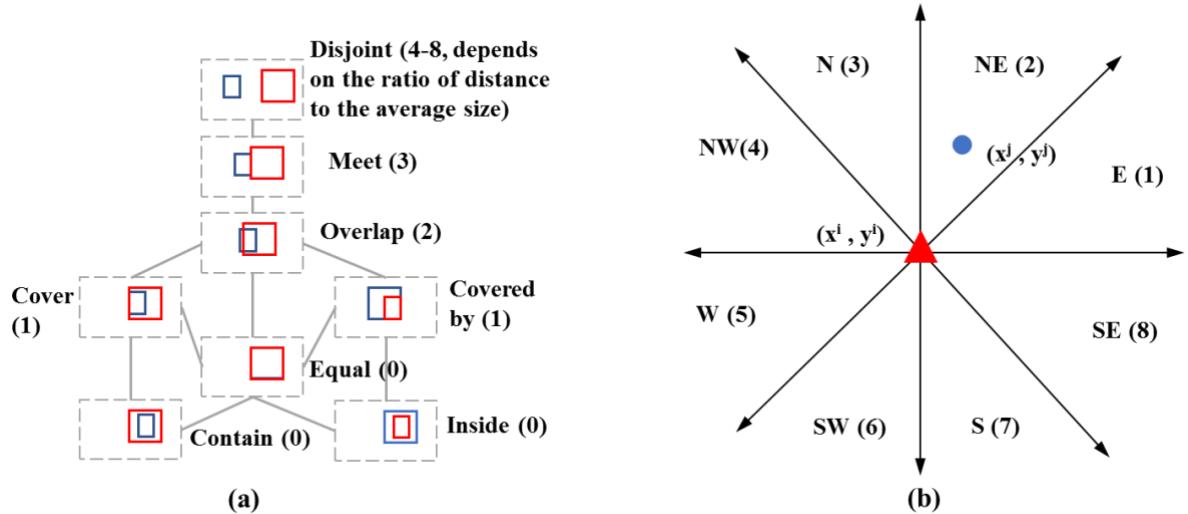
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269
 270 Figure 4 Construction entity state representation: (a) Example of spatial and attentional
 271 state, (b) head yaw, (c) body orientation, (d) head pitch

272
 273 2. Positional and attentional cues are computed from the spatial and attentional states of two
 274 entities to model their interaction, which are critical features for working group

275 identification. Five positional cues are modeled: 1) distance relationship—modeled as the
 276 topological relationship between the bounding boxes of two entities using the 9-
 277 Intersection model [37] (see Figure 5(a)), where numerical value for each relationship is
 278 assigned based on topological distance [38].; 2) directional relationship—modeled as eight
 279 regions to measure the relative direction between two entities based on the project-based
 280 model [39] (see Figure 5(b)); 3) difference in speed—computed as
 281 $\Delta v_t^{i,j} = \text{abs}(v_t^i - v_t^j) / \text{max}(v_t^i, v_t^j)$, where v_t^i is the speed of entity i at time t , computed as
 282 $v_t^i = \sqrt{(x_{t+1}^i - x_t^i)^2 + (y_{t+1}^i - y_t^i)^2}$; 4) difference in moving direction—computed as
 283 $\Delta\theta^{i,j} = \min\{\text{abs}(\theta^i - \theta^j), 8 - \text{abs}(\theta^i - \theta^j)\}$, where θ^i is the moving direction of entity i ,
 284 represented as the numerical values in Figure 5(b), and 5) difference between moving
 285 direction and relative direction—computed similarly to the previous cue but measures the
 286 degree of entity i moving towards entity j .



287
 288 Figure 5 Numerical representation of topological and directional relationships between
 289 two entities: (a) topological relation, (b) directional relation

290

291 In addition, six attentional cues are modeled: 1) difference between head yaw and relative

292 direction—to measure the gaze exchange between two entities, where head yaw is
293 represented based on Figure 4(b) and relative direction is represented using Figure 5(b). 2)
294 difference in head yaw—to measure the joint attention of two entities, 3) difference
295 between head yaw and moving direction, 4) difference between head yaw and body
296 orientation—both 3) and 4) are used to model the change of visual attention of an individual
297 entity, 5) head pitch, and 6) body pose—both 5) and 6) are special cues on construction
298 jobsites to reflect worker’s visual attention, where the head pitch is modeled as Figure 4(d),
299 and body pose is considered as either standing – “1” or bending – “2” for workers.

300 3. The above positional and attentional cues are concatenated into time-series features and fed
301 into an LSTM network followed by a two-node fully connected layer for working group
302 identification. The readers are referred to [13] for the detailed method.

303 **3.2.3. *Distance to potential destination***

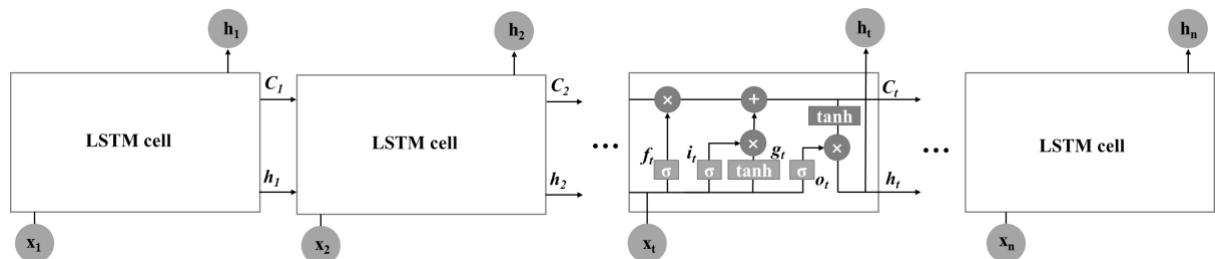
304 On construction sites, worker behavior is goal-based and purposeful, motivated by their
305 involved activities. It is expected that the worker will inherently move towards the potential
306 destination. Thus, the distance between worker’s current position and the potential destination
307 is treated as a third contextual feature, illustrated in the construction image in Figure 1, where
308 the red bounding box represents the target entity, and the “star” sign represents the destination.
309 It is assumed the destination is time-invariant during a short period of time. Given time step t ,
310 the distance from the target to the destination is used as a contextual feature to incorporate the
311 temporal dynamics, denoted as $(\Delta x_t^i, \Delta y_t^i) = (|x_t^i - x^{dest}|, |y_t^i - y^{dest}|)$, where (x_t^i, y_t^i) is the
312 entity location, (x^{dest}, y^{dest}) is the pixel coordinates of the destination. This study simplifies the

313 destination as prior knowledge to examine its influence on worker trajectory prediction. In
314 practice, the potential destination can be inferred from the involved activity and the
315 corresponding workspace, where ongoing activity can be automatically learned from visual
316 data and workspace can be acquired from site layout or building information model.

317 **3.3. LSTM-based Sequence-to-sequence (seq2seq) Trajectory Prediction**

318 LSTM network [40] is a typical recurrent neural network (RNN) and can be used to model
319 temporal dependency among sequential features. It has been successfully applied to many
320 sequential problems such as natural language translation and activity recognition. Figure 6
321 illustrates a typical LSTM network that takes time-series features $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ as input. The
322 LSTM network consists of several cells ordered sequentially, each of which has the same
323 structure with three gates, i.e., input gate, forget gate, and output gate, to control the information
324 flow within the cell. At time step t , the cell state is determined by both the input of the current
325 time step and the output from the previous time step, updated using Equation 1.

326



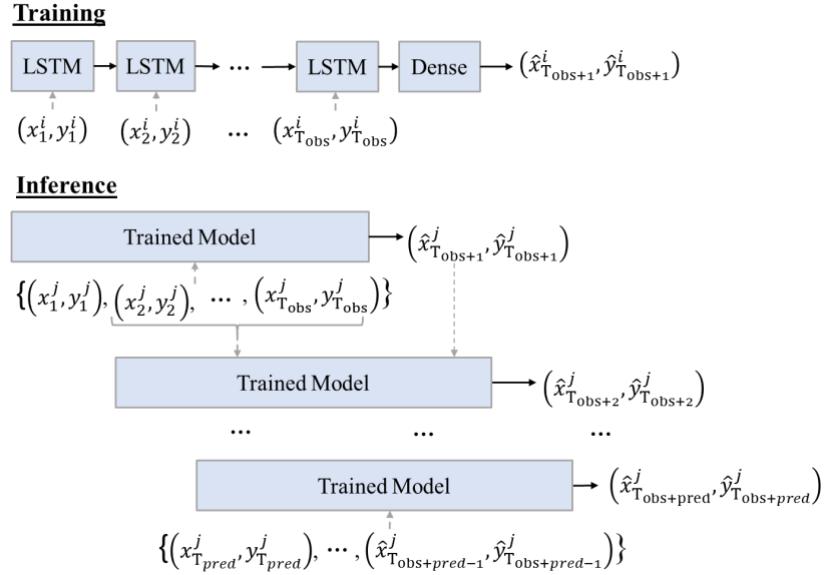
327 328 Figure 6 LSTM network and LSTM cell
329

330

$$\begin{cases} i_t = \delta(W_{xi}x_t + V_{hi}h_{t-1} + b_i) \\ f_t = \delta(W_{xf}x_t + V_{hf}h_{t-1} + b_f) \\ o_t = \delta(W_{xo}x_t + V_{ho}h_{t-1} + b_o) \\ g_t = \tanh(W_{xc}x_t + V_{hc}h_{t-1} + b_c) \\ c_t = f_t \otimes c_{t-1} + i_t \otimes g_t \\ h_t = o_t \otimes \tanh(c_t) \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

331 Where x_t is the input, i_t, f_t, o_t are the input gate, forget gate, and output gate at time t
 332 respectively. h_t is the hidden state with N hidden units ($N=25$ in this study) and is also the
 333 output of this cell, and c_t is the cell state. g_t is the input modulation that adds information
 334 to the cell state. δ is the sigmoid function and \otimes represents element-wise multiplication.
 335 $W_{xi}, W_{xf}, W_{xo}, W_{xc}, V_{hi}, V_{hf}, V_{ho}, V_{hc}, b_i, b_f, b_o, b_c$, are the learnable parameters for each LSTM
 336 cell that control the level of information transferred from previous time steps as well as the
 337 level of information taken from the current time step.

338 Recently, LSTM network has been widely used in data-driven trajectory prediction. As
 339 shown in Figure 7, a conventional approach [30,31] is that 1) in the training process, the model
 340 is fed with time-series inputs and trained to output one-step prediction; and 2) in the inference
 341 process, the observations from time step 1 to T_{obs} are fed into the trained model and the position
 342 in the next time step T_{obs+1} is estimated. Then, the estimated position at time T_{obs+1} is used as
 343 input along with observations from time 2 to T_{obs} , to predict for time T_{obs+2} , which happens
 344 recursively till $T_{obs+pred}$. Under such a case, the model only predicts one step each time and the
 345 predicted result is used as inputs recursively in order to generate a sequence of positions over
 346 multiple time steps. This practice leads to large error accumulation.



347

348 Figure 7 Conventional LSTM-based recursive approach for multi-step prediction

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350 To solve this problem, this study adopts the LSTM encoder-decoder architecture, which

351 allows the generation of a sequence with arbitrary length from a given sequence and was first

352 introduced in machine translation tasks [41]. Figure 8 illustrates the proposed model. In this

353 method, the entity position during observation time and the corresponding contextual features

354 (discussed in Section 3.2) are concatenated into a 7-dimensional feature vector, denoted by

355 $\mathbf{X}_t = [obj_x, obj_y, dis_x, dis_y, neighbor_x, neighbor_y, group]$, where first two dimensions

356 represent object (target) positions in x and y directions; third and fourth dimensions represent

357 the distance from the destination in x and y directions; fifth and sixth dimensions represent

358 neighbor positions; and the last dimension indicates the group information. This feature vector

359 describes the object position and the jobsite context at any given time. The time-series feature

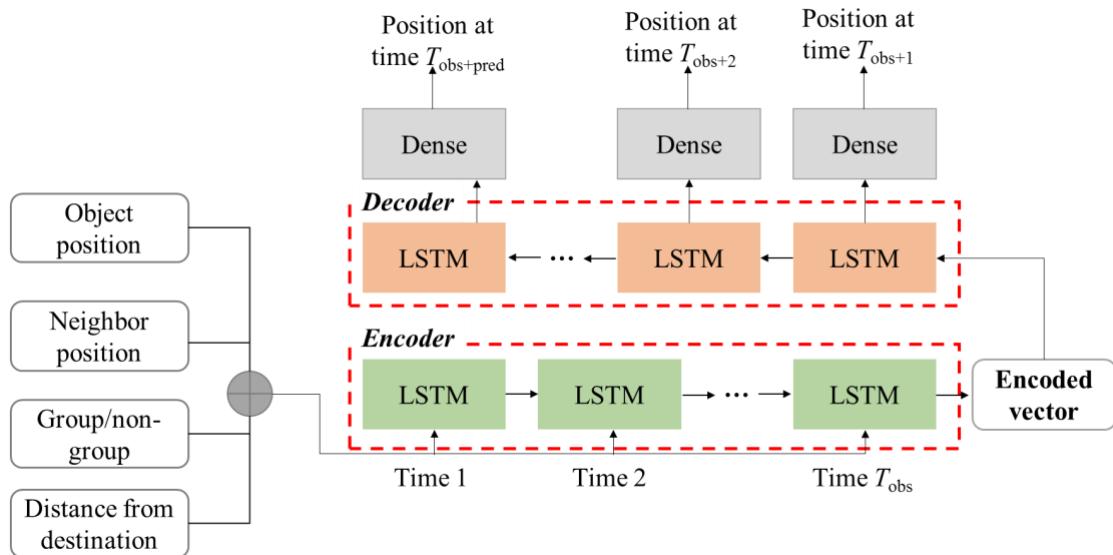
360 is constructed by chaining a series of time-variant feature vectors over a time period, denoted

361 by $\{\mathbf{X}_t, \mathbf{X}_{t+\Delta t}, \mathbf{X}_{t+2\Delta t}, \dots, \mathbf{X}_{t+T}\}$, where t is the starting time, Δt is the temporal resolution and

362 T is the time duration of observation. In this study, features that represent position and distance

363 information are in pixels with the range depending on image size, while the group information
 364 is binary (either 0 or 1). The time-series features are normalized to the range [0, 1] in data
 365 processing to ensure the same scale of the features, and serve as the inputs of LSTM encoder.

366 The encoder outputs an encoded vector (i.e., the hidden state of the final encoder LSTM
 367 cell) that encapsulates the information from the observed movements and jobsite context. The
 368 encoded vector is used to initialize the states in LSTM decoder which allows the integration of
 369 previous information for better prediction of future trajectory. The hidden state of each LSTM
 370 cell in the decoder is considered as the output of the corresponding time step, which is further
 371 fed into a dense layer with two nodes. The dense layer essentially performs a linear regression,
 372 resulting in estimated positions from time T_{obs+1} to $T_{obs+pred}$.



373
 374 Figure 8 Context-aware LSTM-based seq2seq model
 375
 376 Similar to Saleh et al. [30], the network is trained by minimizing one of the most commonly
 377 used loss functions, i.e., mean squared error (MSE) loss function [42], using *Adam* optimizer

378 [43]. The MSE is computed as $MSE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{Y}_i - Y_i)^2$, where N is the size of training data, \hat{Y}_i and Y_i are the predicted and actual i^{th} trajectory.

380 **4. Implementation and Results**

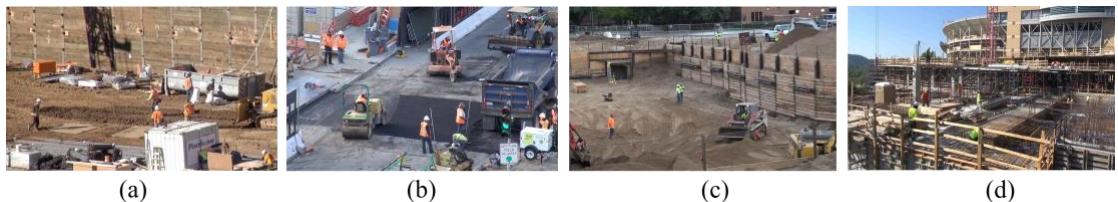
381 **4.1. Implementation**

382 The dataset used to test the proposed method is introduced and the implementation details
383 are described. Two evaluation metrics are also explained to assess the prediction performance.

384 **4.1.1. Data Description**

385 To demonstrate the proposed method, ten construction videos were collected from three
386 projects: a hospital construction project from the publicly-available website – YouTube [44],
387 and two building projects videotaped by the authors, respectively. The videos consist of a total
388 of 84 workers in different construction scenarios, conducting various activities in different
389 working groups. All videos were down-sampled to 2fps, similar to other studies [31,32] on
390 pedestrian trajectory prediction using surveillance video. Figure 9 illustrates some images from
391 the dataset.

392



393
394 Figure 9 Sample images: (a)-(b) from hospital project, (c) from building project 1, (d)
395 from building project 2

396

397 **4.1.2. *Data Preparation***

398 Visual data were pre-processed to extract entity positions and contextual features, which
399 are then used as inputs to train and test the proposed method. First, all entities (workers and
400 equipment) are manually annotated using bounding boxes with pixel coordinates of the mid-
401 bottom points representing their positions on the images. Second, the nearest neighbor of each
402 worker is identified by computing the distances between any two entities. It is noted that
403 although neighboring entities may include both workers and equipment, only workers are
404 considered as target entities for trajectory prediction because of the data constraint—most of
405 our dataset involves only workers. However, the proposed method can be easily extended to
406 equipment by training a different model using equipment movement data. As the movement
407 patterns for workers and equipment are expected to be different, it is better to treat them
408 separately [14]. In future study, we will implement the proposed method for equipment
409 trajectory prediction by extending the dataset with more equipment movements.

410 Third, the group information is manually labeled based on a period of observations. Two
411 entities are considered belonging to one working group if they are interacting during the
412 construction, and are labeled as “1”. Otherwise, they are considered working independently,
413 labeled as “0”. As explained in Section 3.2.2, this information can be automatically obtained
414 from positional and attentional cues using the method created in our previous study [13]. Note
415 that it is also possible to use construction planning and schedules to extract group information.
416 However, in reality, workers may not always follow what is planned due to the complexity and
417 uncertainty of construction work and identifying the working group in an automatic approach

418 provides real-time information. In this study, we use manually annotated group information to
419 exclude the possible errors in an automatic approach and focus on evaluating the influence of
420 contextual information. A promising method is to integrate the planned and the actual
421 information to determine the workspace and group work.

422 Finally, the potential destination of workers, simplified as prior knowledge in this study,
423 is determined as their final position in the scene, based on which the dynamic distance from
424 worker to the potential destination is computed in both x and y directions. Because the focus of
425 this study is trajectory prediction by integrating position and contextual information,
426 preprocessed higher-level information (i.e., extracted location and contextual features) is used
427 to exclude the impact from possible errors caused by automatic worker localization and group
428 identification. This practice also aligns with relevant studies on trajectory prediction in both
429 construction and other domains [14,15,31].

430 As a result, a total of 241 trajectories with various lengths were obtained for 84 workers.
431 The length of observation was set as 3s (i.e., 6 frames) and prediction length as 5s (i.e., 10
432 frames), which is consistent with relevant studies ([31,32]) on pedestrian trajectory prediction.
433 Correspondingly, the 241 trajectories were trimmed into tracks using a sliding window with a
434 fixed length of 8s (i.e., 16 frames). To augment the dataset, the sliding window starts from
435 every other frame of the original trajectory, resulting in 3640 tracks (tracks that are less than
436 16 frames were excluded).

437 **4.1.3. *Implementation Details***

438 The proposed method is implemented using Keras library on top of Tensorflow platform,

439 on a desktop with 3.6GHz Intel i9-9900K CPU, 32GB, and NVIDIA GeForce GTX 2080 Ti
440 GPU. The dataset is randomly split into training set (80%), validation set (10%), and testing
441 set (10%). The network is trained with *Adam* optimizer [43], with a learning rate of 0.001,
442 batch size of 20, and dropout of 0.5. In the experiments, different combinations of the above
443 hyperparameters, as well as the number of hidden units, were used and the optimal ones that
444 result in the highest accuracy in validation set were selected. To prevent overfitting, early
445 stopping criterion is used, i.e., if the total loss on validation set does not decrease for 100 epochs,
446 then the model will be terminated and the checkpoint that leads to the smallest loss on the
447 validation set will be saved; otherwise, the model will stop after 1000 epochs. Moreover, the
448 model is trained on the training set, evaluated on the validation set for early stopping and
449 optimal hyperparameter selection, and tested on the testing set to assess the performance of the
450 proposed method.

451 **4.1.4. Evaluation Metrics**

452 Two evaluation metrics – final displacement error (FDE) and average displacement error
453 (ADE) – are selected because they are the most widely used evaluation metrics in trajectory
454 prediction studies in the construction domain [14,15] as well as other applications such as
455 pedestrian analysis [31–33]. FDE is the MSE between the final predicted location and the final

456 actual location of all testing data, computed as $FDE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \|\hat{y}_T^i - y_T^i\|}{N}$, where N is data size,

457 \hat{y}_T^i is the final predicted location for i^{th} data, and y_T^i is the final actual location for i^{th} data. It
458 measures the accuracy in predicting an entity's final location, which is critical in predicting the
459 proximity between two entities and detecting potential collisions. ADE is the MSE over all

460 locations of predicted trajectories and the actual trajectories, computed as

$$461 ADE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{t=0}^{t=T} \|\hat{y}_t^i - y_t^i\|}{N \times T_{pred}}, \text{ where } T_{pred} \text{ is the prediction duration. It measures how close the}$$

462 predicted and actual trajectories are and is critical to ensure the accuracy of the overall

463 predicted trajectory.

464 In this study, the entity position is captured by the mid-bottom point of its bounding box

465 on the 2D image plane. Therefore, the predicted positions and ground truth positions are

466 represented in pixel coordinates, resulting in FDE and ADE in pixels values. The 2D pixel

467 coordinates on the image plane can be projected onto the world plane (i.e., ground plane) via a

468 projective transformation (i.e., homography). To compute the transformation matrix between

469 two planes, at least four pairs of corresponding points are needed in both planes using the Direct

470 Linear Transformation (DLT) algorithm [45]. In this work, because the construction videos are

471 collected from different sources including public website, the actual point locations on the

472 jobsites are not available, and thus the FDE and ADE in pixels are used for evaluation. In our

473 future study, the dataset will be expanded to include videos with known ground control points

474 to predict the trajectory in the world coordinate system.

475 **4.2. Results**

476 The result of the proposed method is compared with that obtained using two other LSTM-

477 based models: (1) a baseline model that recursively predicts trajectory based on object positions;

478 and (2) a seq2seq model that predicts trajectory over multiple time steps simultaneously based

479 on object positions. Table 3 lists the differences in three models.

480

481

Table 3 Three LSTM-based models for comparison

Model	Input features	Rationale for multi-step forecasting
Position (recursive)	Time-series positions	The model can only predict one-step ahead, and achieve multi-step prediction by conducting inference process recursively (see Figure 7)
Position (seq2seq)	Time-series positions	Encoder-decoder architecture to enable multi-step forecasting (see Figure 8)
Position+Context (seq2seq) (proposed in this study)	Time-series positions and contextual features	

482

483 Figure 10 illustrates two example results of trajectory prediction. The proposed method
 484 results in the predicted trajectory being the closest to the ground truth. The position-based
 485 seq2seq model leads to a trajectory with a slightly larger discrepancy compared to the proposed
 486 method. In contrast, the position-based recursive model has the largest discrepancy from the
 487 ground truth trajectory due to the error accumulation.



488 ● Ground truth + Position (recursive) * Position (seq2seq) * Position + context (seq2seq)

489

Figure 10 Example results of trajectory prediction

490

491 4.2.1. Quantitative Prediction Results

492 Table 4 lists the quantitative results from the three models. The recursive approach leads
 493 to much larger errors in both FDE and ADE compared to the seq2seq approaches, which proves
 494 that the seq2seq model is an effective way to avoid error accumulation when predicting

495 trajectory over multiple time steps. More specifically, the position-based seq2seq model results
496 in a 68.2% and 41.9% reduction in FDE and ADE, respectively, and the proposed context-
497 augmented seq2seq model leads to reduction of 70.0% and 41.6%, compared to the recursive
498 model. The context-augmented model results in smaller FDE but a slightly larger ADE
499 compared to the position-based model. This is because by incorporating contextual information,
500 especially the potential destination information, the model is inherently trained to adapt more
501 to the long-term goal, rather than accurate prediction of each step. It is reasonable because the
502 final displacement is more critical in predicting the struck-by hazard in safety management.

503

504 Table 4 Quantitative results from three models

Model	FDE (pixel)	ADE (pixel)
Position (recursive)	28.32	15.41
Position (seq2seq)	9.00	8.95
Position +Context (seq2seq)	8.51	9.00

505

506 **4.2.2. Qualitative Analysis**

507 The results from two seq2seq models, i.e., position-based seq2seq model and context-
508 augmented seq2seq model, are analyzed qualitatively to evaluate the impact of contextual
509 information and identify the scenarios, under which integrating contextual information leads
510 to better performance. Specifically, for each testing data, predicted trajectories obtained using
511 context-aware and position-based methods are plotted against the ground truth trajectories that
512 are manually annotated. Then, the scenarios are categorized based on whether or not context-
513 aware method perform better than position-based method by visually inspecting each plot,
514 examining the overall trend in the plot, and checking back with the corresponding construction

515 videos. Some representative plots are shown in this section to illustrate the main findings.

516 It was found that when workers are walking continuously and not involved in specific

517 collaborating activities, contextual information does not have a significant influence and both

518 models result in relatively accurate prediction, as shown in Figure 11. On the other hand, if the

519 target is collaborating with others or involved in certain activities, incorporating contextual

520 information leads to better prediction (see Figure 12 Context-augmented model leads to better

521 prediction). In Figure 12 Context-augmented model leads to better prediction(a), the target

522 intends to move towards his co-worker, who is working at the left-bottom corner of the image.

523 With contextual information, especially the position and the relationship with the nearest

524 neighbor, the context-aware model accurately predicts the behavior of the target moving

525 towards his neighbor, resulting in a path closer to the actual trajectory. In contrast, the position-

526 based model only considers individual movement patterns and is more likely to end up with a

527 near-linear trajectory, which is farther from the actual trajectory. In Figure 12(b), the target is

528 conducting road paving activity with a roller and other co-workers. Although there remains

529 some discrepancy with the actual trajectory, the context-aware model accurately predicts the

530 trend of worker movement, whereas the position-based model predicts the movement in the

531 opposite direction.

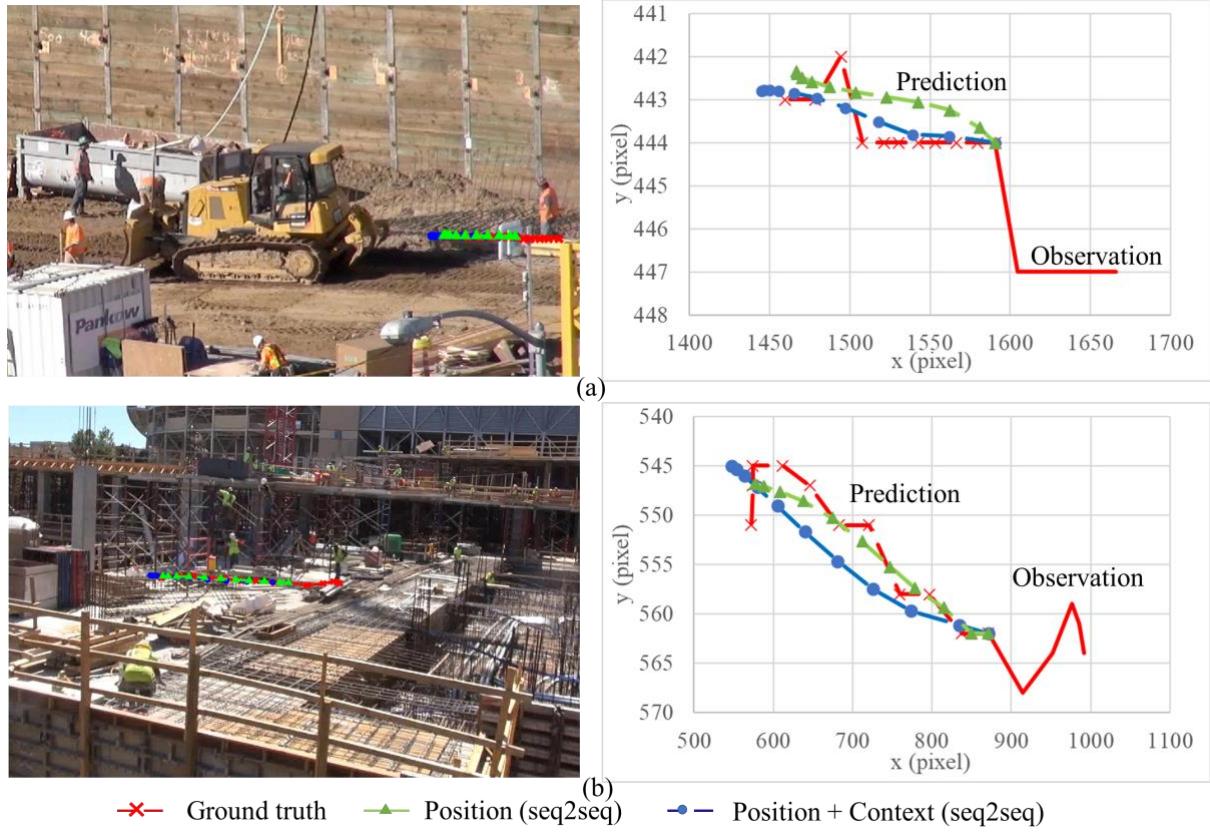


Figure 11 Two seq2seq models lead to similar results under moving scenarios

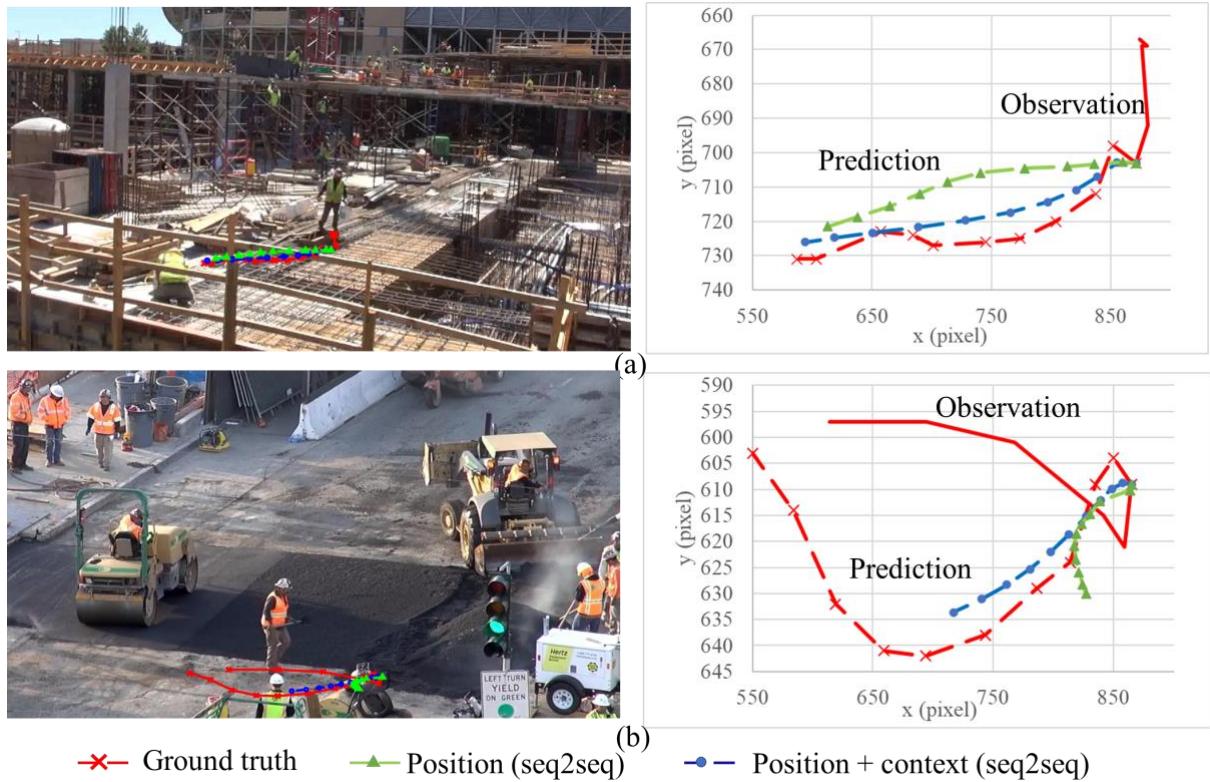
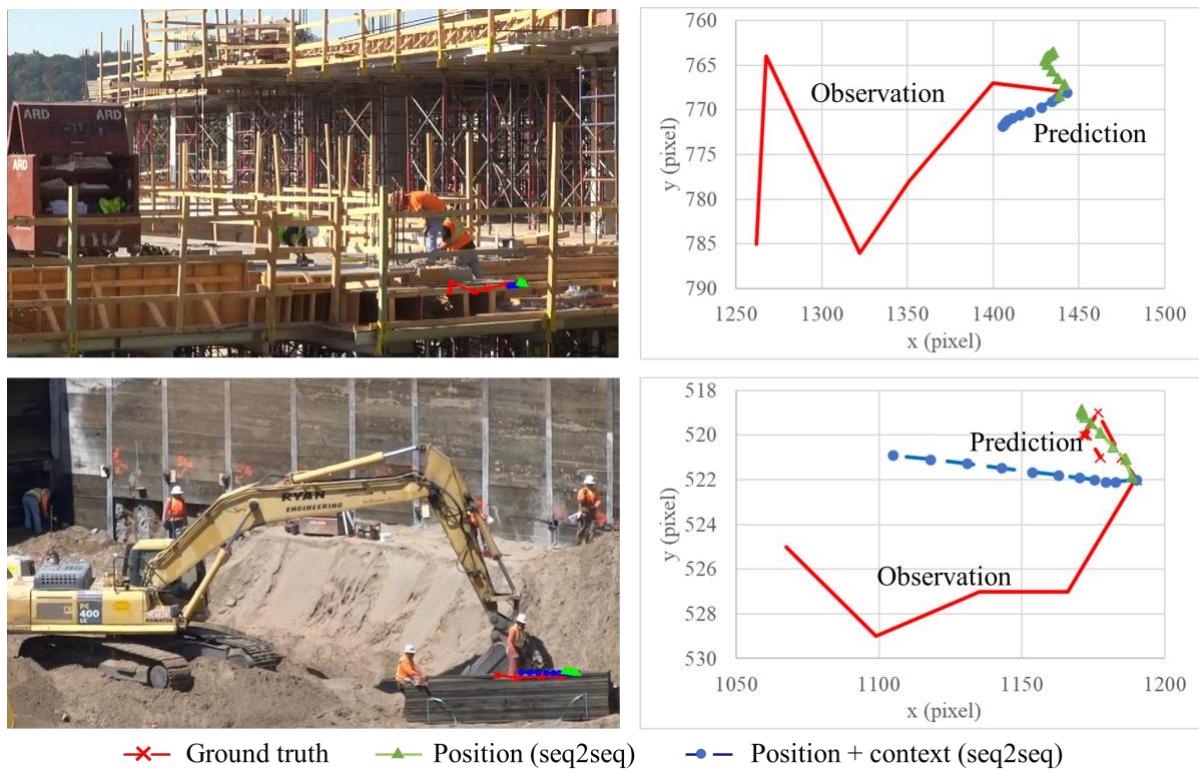


Figure 12 Context-augmented model leads to better prediction

536 In some cases, however, the proposed method may fail. Figure 13(a) illustrates when the
 537 status of target significantly changes during prediction time (e.g., from stationary to moving
 538 and vice versa), the movement cannot be accurately predicted. In addition, it is also very
 539 challenging when workers are conducting activities within a limited workspace without
 540 substantial movement, as shown in Figure 13(b).

541



542
 543 Figure 13 Examples when context-augmented model fails
 544

545 To sum up, when the target is continuously moving but not making interactions with other
 546 entities, the context information is mainly related to target's positions, and thus the proposed
 547 context-augmented seq2seq model results in similar accuracy with the position-based seq2seq
 548 model. When there are interactions between targets and the surrounding entities, e.g., the target
 549 is collaborating with others or involved in certain activities, there is rich contextual information

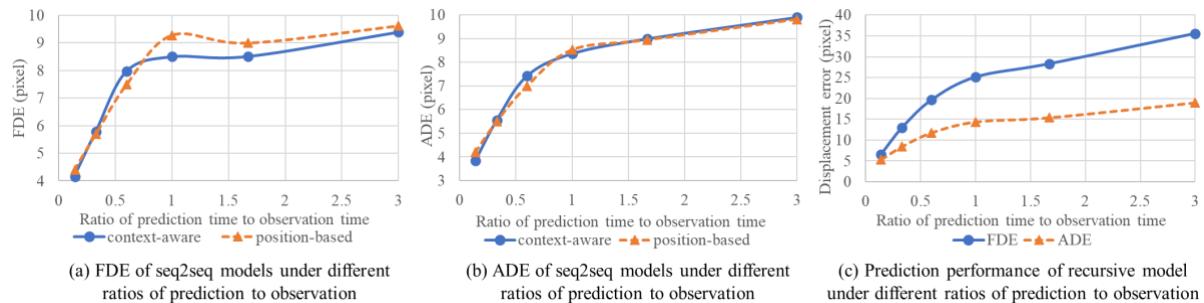
550 about the target's group relationship with the nearest neighbor, the neighbor's position, and the
551 distance to the destination. By incorporating this context information, the model is provided
552 with additional features and thus achieves better prediction compared to the position-based
553 model. On the other hand, a sudden change of target (e.g., from stationary to moving) during
554 the prediction time would lead to the failure of both models. This is because, essentially, the
555 seq2seq model is using a sequence of movements to predict the next sequence, while a sudden
556 change will break the pattern learned in the observed sequence. Additionally, when workers are
557 conducting activities within a limited workspace without substantial movement, it is very
558 challenging for the models to differentiate a sequence of movements from near-stationary status
559 and make accurate predictions.

560 ***4.2.3. Influence of Prediction Time***

561 To evaluate the influence of prediction time on different methods, this study examines the
562 prediction performance with respect to various ratios of prediction to observation length within
563 the 8-s track prepared in the dataset. Specifically, the partition of observation time and
564 prediction time varies as 7s/1s, 6s/2s, 5s/3s, 4s/4s, 3s/5s (used in the previous experiment), and
565 2s/6s. The results are illustrated in Figure 14. It is not surprising that both FDE and ADE
566 increase as the ratio of prediction to observation increases for all three prediction models, which
567 further proves the challenge in long-term trajectory prediction (i.e., when prediction time is no
568 less than observation time).

569 From Figure 14(a), the context-aware model generally results in a smaller FDE compared
570 to the position-based model, especially when the length of prediction is no less than the length

571 of observation—the FDE of the context-aware model is 8.4%, 5.4%, and 2.4% smaller than
 572 that of the position-based model when the ratio of prediction to observation time is 1, 1.67, and
 573 3, respectively. The two models lead to compatible ADE based on Figure 14(b). From Figure
 574 14(c), the discrepancy between FDE and ADE for the position-based recursive model becomes
 575 much larger as the increase of the ratio, compared to those in two seq2seq models (Figure 14(a)
 576 and (b)). It proves the advantage of seq2seq architecture in mitigating the error accumulation
 577 for long-term trajectory prediction. In the comparison of position-based and context-aware
 578 seq2seq models, the FDEs for both models are compatible in short-term prediction (i.e., when
 579 the ratio is less than 1). However, the context-aware method leads to lower FDE in long-term
 580 prediction.



581
 582 Figure 14 Influence of prediction time on different models

583 **5. Conclusions and Discussion**

584 Predicting workers' trajectories on unstructured and dynamic construction sites has great
 585 potential to improve workplace safety. It provides rich information and is critical to pro-
 586 actively prevent struck-by accidents, which has been a major cause of construction fatalities
 587 and a single leading cause for non-fatal injuries. This study proposed an LSTM model
 588 augmented by jobsite contextual information for construction worker trajectory prediction
 589 considering both individual movement information and jobsite contextual information. The

590 contextual information is represented as movements of neighboring entities, working group
591 information, and potential destination information. Experiments were conducted using videos
592 collected from three different construction projects. The results show that the newly created
593 method leads to a smaller final displacement error than the model relying solely on target
594 movements, especially in long-term prediction when the length of prediction is no less than
595 that of observation. The adopted sequence-to-sequence network architecture also significantly
596 improves the performance in both final displacement error and average displacement error by
597 eliminating error accumulation over multiple time steps.

598 In addition, qualitative analysis was conducted to identify scenarios when incorporating
599 contextual information is worthwhile. It was found that when workers are conducting
600 collaborative activities within an area, incorporating contextual information leads to better
601 results. The context-aware prediction model should be selected when the construction scenario
602 involves multiple entities collaborating on group activities. Both context-aware and position-
603 based methods lead to relatively accurate predicted trajectories when workers move
604 continuously and are not involved in collaborating activities. However, in such case, the
605 position-based method is favorable. Although in this study, the training time for two models is
606 almost the same (about 3s per epoch), with more data in the future, the position-based method
607 is expected to be less computational expensive considering the fewer features involved in
608 training the model. Moreover, extracting contextual information involves much more complex
609 computing process and may introduce additional errors. Both models may fail when entity
610 states change significantly. In such case, it is not reliable to directly predict worker's trajectory

611 and more information (e.g., activity type, entity posture) may be needed. As an exploratory
612 study that integrates jobsite context in the prediction of workers' movements, the results and
613 findings are obtained based on the limited construction scenarios. More construction videos in
614 different scenarios need to be incorporated to further validate the proposed methods.

615 This study contributes to the body of knowledge by creating a novel context-augmented
616 deep learning method for construction worker trajectory prediction. The proposed method not
617 only considers spatial interaction between the target and neighboring entities, but also
618 innovatively incorporate the semantic relationship between entities (i.e., whether or not within
619 a working group) and the long-term goal (i.e., the potential destination). The results show that
620 integrating the above contextual information outperforms the position-based prediction,
621 especially for long-term prediction when prediction time is no less than observation time. The
622 proposed context-aware trajectory prediction forms the base for a proactive struck-by
623 prevention mechanism. In addition to the early warning when two entities are expected to get
624 too close, the predicted trajectory also provides information to actively plan a safe path to avoid
625 collisions while ensuring the smooth operation.

626 As construction videos are used as the data source for trajectory prediction, cameras are
627 recommended to be installed on height to mitigate the occlusion, while maintaining adequate
628 resolutions of entities in the image at the same time. In this study, construction videos are in
629 two resolutions—1920 x 1080, and 1280 x 720, with average worker size around 60 x 120 and
630 equipment size around 450 x 350. In practice, when monitoring construction operations on the
631 complex jobsites, several cameras are needed to ensure the desired coverage and the optimal

632 camera placement are determined by considering both camera coverage and total cost [46,47].
633 Moreover, to transfer pixel coordinates into world coordinates (e.g., in meters) on the jobsite,
634 at least four ground control points (with known world coordinates) are needed to establish
635 projective transformation between image plane and ground plane using DLT algorithm.

636 There remain a few limitations that deserve further research efforts. First, due to the
637 availability of construction data, especially the annotated data, the data size used in the
638 experiment is relatively small and thus poses a potential limitation to the representativeness of
639 the proposed method. For possible application and adoption of the proposed approach,
640 scenarios where workers have distinguishable movements and interactions with surrounding
641 entities are recommended for better prediction results. To further justify the model performance,
642 more construction videos will be collected and annotated to expand the existing construction
643 dataset and statistical tests will be conducted. Besides, transfer learning can be adopted to
644 leverage the public dataset in other domains (e.g., crowds datasets [48,49]) to overcome the
645 limitation in the availability of annotated construction datasets. Second, this study used
646 preprocessed worker position and contextual information to train the neural network. In
647 practice, due to the complexity and dynamics in the construction operation, such information
648 may not be acquired with perfect accuracy. In future study, we will work on automating the
649 entire process and further exploit on how possible errors in feature estimation will influence
650 the trajectory prediction performance. Third, only nearest neighbor was considered in the
651 contextual information to reduce the feature dimension when training on small dataset. In
652 future study, occupancy map will be adopted to capture all neighbors within an area to

653 incorporate more comprehensive jobsite context. Forth, the potential destination is simplified
654 as prior knowledge to examine its influence on trajectory prediction. Future study will focus
655 on developing new methods to infer worker destination based on their involved activities and
656 the corresponding workspaces.

657 **Data Availability**

658 Some data, models, or code generated or used during the study are available from the
659 corresponding author upon reasonable request, including construction videos and python codes
660 for data processing and trajectory prediction.

661 **Acknowledgments**

662 This study is partially funded by the U.S. National Science Foundation (NSF) through
663 Grant 1850008. The support from NSF is acknowledged.

664

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