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20 **INTRODUCTION**

21 The construction site is typically dirty, disordered, and cluttered with different kinds of  
22 resources. Also, it is characterized by a constantly changing environment with the  
23 movement and interactions between workers and equipment. In such a chaotic and  
24 dynamic place, an incredibly high number of construction activities take place, which  
25 easily lead to construction accidents and work-related injuries and deaths. For example,  
26 in Canada, around 27,000 accepted time-loss injuries and 200 fatalities were reported in  
27 the construction sector every year from 2010 to 2012, according to the Association of  
28 Workers' Compensation Boards of Canada [1, 2]. Similarly, the U.S. Bureau of Labor  
29 Statistics noted that 183,000 construction workers were injured, and 775 workers died on  
30 the job with a fatal work injury rate of 9.5 deaths per 100,000 fulltime equivalent workers  
31 [3]. The large number of injuries and deaths makes the construction sector one of the  
32 most dangerous job sectors over the world.

33 Many of construction accidents are struck-by accidents, i.e. the workers being struck  
34 by mobile equipment on the construction sites [4]. The stuck-by accidents could occur,  
35 even when the workers wear high visibility clothing on the sites as required by existing  
36 safety codes and standards. In 2012, 156 fatalities due to the struck-by accidents were  
37 reported by the U.S. private construction industry [5]. In British Columbia, there were a  
38 total of 6,622 claims related to the struck-by accidents from 2006 to 2008, which  
39 represented 22% of claim volumes and 14% of claim costs resulting from construction  
40 accidents [6]. The situation becomes even worse in road construction projects, where  
41 workers might be struck by mobile equipment for construction and maintenance as well  
42 as by cars, vans, and motorcycles. 442 fatal injuries (53 percent) on road construction

43 sites during the 2003 - 2010 periods were due to the workers being struck by vehicles or  
44 mobile equipment [3].

45 In order to address this site safety issue, several research studies have been proposed.  
46 They focused on the use of remote locating and tracking techniques to perform simple  
47 equipment-worker close proximity alerts. These techniques include but are not limited to  
48 Radio Frequency Identification (RFID), Ultra Wideband (UWB), Global Positioning  
49 Systems (GPS) [7]. They require remote sensors to be physically installed on the  
50 equipment and workers, so that the signals sent from the sensors could be read and  
51 interpreted. This way, the positions of the equipment and workers on the site could be  
52 located and tracked.

53 Compared with existing research studies, this paper relies on computer vision  
54 techniques to estimate the positions of construction workers and equipment. Moreover,  
55 the movements of the workers and equipment are predicted to get their possible positions  
56 in a short period of time. This way, the potential collisions between the workers and  
57 equipment could be avoided in a proactive way. In the paper, both position estimation  
58 and prediction parts have been integrated into one framework. Under the framework, the  
59 current positions of the equipment and workers are first estimated with the live videos  
60 collected by two or more cameras on the construction site. These positions are then input  
61 to a Kalman filter. In general, the Kalman filter is an optimal estimator that is able to  
62 infer parameters of interest from indirect, inaccurate and uncertain observations [8]. Here,  
63 the filter is specially designed to model motions (i.e. positions, velocities, and  
64 accelerations) of equipment and workers based on a series of position measurements,  
65 including noise and other inaccuracies, observed over time. The designed filter adjusts its

66 prediction parameters with the positions newly input as well as the history of the  
67 positions estimated previously. This way, the predictions for the positions of the  
68 equipment and workers on the site could be made.

69 The framework in this paper does not require the installation of any remote sensors on  
70 the equipment and workers. This makes the method affordable at most construction sites,  
71 especially the large-scale ones, where hundreds of construction workers and equipment  
72 could be involved. Also, the method could be used in the case when the installation of  
73 physical sensors is not applicable. For example, in a highway construction project, the  
74 workers on the site might be struck by traffic vehicles, such as cars, vans, and  
75 motorcycles. However, it is difficult to install the physical sensors on the traffic vehicles  
76 and track their positions for the purpose of issuing the close proximity safety warnings to  
77 the workers.

78 The effectiveness of the proposed framework has been tested on real site videos  
79 collected by two cameras. The results showed that the average estimation errors were  
80 0.26 meters and 0.28 meters for the movement of the worker and vehicle, while the  
81 corresponding prediction errors were 0.38 meters and 0.18 meters. The longer the  
82 predictions were made, the more accuracy the predictions could reach. The low  
83 estimation and prediction errors during the tests indicated that the proposed method in  
84 this paper could approximately estimate and predict the movement of the equipment and  
85 workers in advance. The predictions could be used to reduce the chance of struck-by  
86 accidents and therefore has the potential to enhance construction site safety. The  
87 enhancement of on-site construction safety will bring several benefits. For example, it  
88 could improve the workers' morale and job satisfactions, and increase their productivity.

89 Also, it could reduce project costs directly and indirectly, especially considering that the  
90 average cost per case of death or injury could reach tens of thousands of dollars in the  
91 construction industry. The prevention of one death or injury per day might lead to the  
92 cost savings of millions of dollars per year.

### 93 **REMOTE LOCATING AND TRACKING FOR SITE SAFETY ENHANCEMENT**

94 Construction researchers and safety professionals believe that existing site safety  
95 regulations are not sufficient, considering the unsatisfactory safety records in the  
96 construction industry. Therefore, it is necessary to add an extra level of safety measures  
97 to protect construction workers [9]. One of the proactive safety measures is to provide  
98 equipment-workers close proximity warnings. It means that a safety warning will be  
99 issued to an equipment operator for his/her attention, when on-foot workers are near-by  
100 [4, 10]. The close proximity warnings were expected to reduce the accidents that  
101 happened in the blind areas of equipment, as investigated by Ruff [7]. Another proactive  
102 safety measure is to create virtual fences. Typically, the virtual fences are created around  
103 known dangerous areas on the job site. If workers are approaching the areas, alarms will  
104 be issued to alert them [11 - 13].

105 In order to provide both proactive safety measures, it is necessary to remotely locate  
106 and track on-foot workers and mobile equipment on the construction sites. So far, several  
107 remote sensing techniques have been investigated, including GPS, RFID, UWB, etc. GPS  
108 is an outdoor satellite-based worldwide navigation system, which relies on a constellation  
109 of Earth orbiting satellites to determine the positions of GPS receivers [14]. RFID is an  
110 automatic identification technology. It is mainly used for the identification of objects on  
111 the site, but could also approximately locate them based on the radio waves

112 communication between the RFID tags and readers [15]. UWB is a short pulse radio  
113 frequency waveform, which could provide accurate object location information based on  
114 the time-difference-of-arrival measurements [16, 17].

115 These remote sensing techniques mentioned above all require attaching physical  
116 signal readers and tags on the equipment and workers. For example, in the method of  
117 Marks and Teizer [4], they have an in-cab device for mobile equipment and personal  
118 device for ground workers, which contain antenna, reader, chip, battery, etc. Similarly,  
119 Ruff had the GPS antennas installed on the surface mining equipment in order to locate  
120 the equipment and evaluate its GPS-based proximity warnings [7]. If the workers and  
121 equipment need to be physically tagged, it would lead to a significant amount of  
122 additional costs for the general contractors, although the price of the tags and sensors  
123 keeps decreasing. In addition, tagging construction workers could be opposed by the  
124 unions due to the associated privacy issues and health concerns. Moreover, in a highway  
125 construction project, the workers need to be protected from traffic vehicles, such as cars,  
126 vans, and motorcycles, but it is impossible to tag, locate and track those traffic vehicles  
127 for providing the proximity warnings.

128 Compared with the remote sensing techniques with physical signal sensors, readers,  
129 and tags, the vision techniques could also provide the potentials to remotely locate and  
130 track the workers and equipment on the construction site. One of well-known techniques  
131 to provide three dimensional (3D) position information is referred to as stereo vision,  
132 which reconstructs the 3D position of an object through the camera calibration and  
133 triangulation principles [18]. So far, several research studies based on stereo vision have  
134 been introduced and applied in the construction field, but most of them focused on the

135 reconstruction of static scenes. For example, Son and Kim used a stereo vision system to  
136 acquire and recognize 3D structural components [19]. Rashidi et al. relied on stereo  
137 vision to generate dense depth maps for the transportation infrastructure, such as highway  
138 bridges [20]. Fathi and Brilakis proposed a novel method for creating as-built models of  
139 sheet metal roof panels to facilitate the digital roof fabrication process with the aid of  
140 stereo vision [21].

141 As for enhancing site safety, Steele et al. once mount a stereo camera on the rear of an  
142 off-highway dump truck [22]. The stereo camera helped the truck driver to identify  
143 possible obstacles on the mining site [7]. Han and Lee analyzed workers' unsafe actions  
144 that may cause incidents (e.g. fall from a ladder due to leaning too far to one side or  
145 reaching too far overhead) from the videos captured by stereo cameras [23]. Weerasinghe  
146 and Ruwanpura developed a conceptual model, Automated Multiple Objects Tracking  
147 System, to track construction objects, such as workers and tools, with fixed video  
148 surveillance cameras [24].

149 One main benefit of using vision techniques to locate and track construction workers  
150 and equipment is that the workers and equipment do not have to be physically tagged.  
151 Therefore, several issues related to physically tagging the workers and equipment in the  
152 remote sensing techniques could be addressed. Also, it becomes more and more common  
153 to place the cameras around the site to capture job site activities and record project  
154 construction progress [25]. The cameras could take pictures or videos with a high  
155 resolution and wide field of view. Therefore, the workers equipment, and even non  
156 project-related entities, such as traffic vehicles in highway construction projects, could be  
157 remotely monitored with a limited number of cameras.



158 **OBJECTIVE AND SCOPE**

159 The ultimate goal of this ongoing research work is to investigate the feasibility of  
160 creating a proactive, real-time safety alert system with the live video frames from  
161 construction cameras. In order to achieve this goal, it is necessary to estimate the current  
162 3D positions of the workers and equipment. Also, it is important to predict their future  
163 movements. Consider the recent writers' work on estimating 3D positions of the workers  
164 and equipment [26], which will be briefly described later. The specific focus of this paper  
165 is placed on evaluating whether their future positions could be reasonably predicted based  
166 on their previous estimated positions. If the tests show the prediction results are also  
167 promising, both positions estimation and prediction together will build a solid foundation  
168 for creating a vision-based proactive, real-time safety alert system to provide equipment-  
169 workers close proximity warnings and creating virtual fences on the construction sites.

170 The work presented in this paper does not intend to enhance the visibility of onsite  
171 construction cameras. It is assumed to function when the videos collected by the cameras  
172 are clear with acceptable quality and a limited degree of occlusions. The occlusions could  
173 be one of the major obstacles that affect the performance of vision techniques. However,  
174 this issue could be addressed or at least alleviated by installing the cameras at a certain  
175 level of height and carefully selecting the camera placements on the construction sites.

176 In addition, this research work does not plan to replace the role of onsite inspectors,  
177 such as construction site health and safety management guarantors in Quebec. Those  
178 inspectors are responsible to identify and address potential onsite safety issues, if there  
179 are any. Therefore, this research work is not to replace them but facilitate their onsite

180 work by helping them monitor construction workers and equipment, and predict their  
181 motions with real-time feedbacks.

## 182 **PROPOSED FRAMEWORK**

183 In order to achieve the above-mentioned objective, a novel vision-based framework has  
184 been proposed here. The framework includes two main steps, as illustrated in Figure 1.  
185 Under the framework, two or more construction cameras are placed at a construction site  
186 to monitor job site activities from different angles. The site videos captured by the  
187 cameras are transferred to a workstation for analysis. There, the onsite positions of the  
188 workers and equipment in the videos are estimated using the triangulation principle.  
189 Based on the estimated positions, the future positions of the workers and equipment on  
190 the site are predicted through the Kalman filtering [27]. Moreover, the prediction  
191 parameters in the Kalman filter are frequently updated by comparing its predictions with  
192 the onsite positions estimated later.

193 <Insert Figure 1 here>

## 194 **Positions Estimation from Multi-View Videos**

195 The estimation of the 3D positions from videos mainly follows the procedure proposed  
196 by Park et al. [26], which includes 1) camera calibration, 2) pose estimation, 3) visual  
197 detection and tracking and 4) triangulation (Figure 2). Both camera calibration and pose  
198 estimation are performed offline, while the work of visual detection and tracking and  
199 triangulation are done online. When the cameras are installed on the construction site, it  
200 is necessary to make sure they have partially overlapping views of the site. The cameras  
201 are then calibrated using Bouguet's calibration toolbox [28] to calculate their intrinsic  
202 parameters (focal length, lens distortion, etc.). Also, the external orientation and position

203 of one camera in relation to another are estimated and represented as a rotation matrix (R)  
204 plus a translation vector (t). Moreover, the essential matrix is computed using the  
205 normalized eight-point algorithm [18]. The points required in the algorithm are extracted  
206 and matched with the Scale-Invariant Feature Transform (SIFT) [29] combined with the  
207 Maximum a Posteriori Sample Consensus (MAPSAC) [30] to remove potential feature  
208 outliers.

209 <Insert Figure 2 here>

210 After the camera calibration and pose estimation, the 3D positions of the equipment  
211 and workers on the construction site could be automatically estimated through visual  
212 detection, tracking, and triangulation. First, the construction workers and equipment are  
213 detected based on their respective visual features. The detection results then initialize a  
214 kernel-based 2D tracking algorithm [31], which could track the detected workers and  
215 equipment subsequently in each site video frame. The video-based tracking results  
216 produce 2D centroids in each video frame, which indicate the positions of the workers  
217 and equipment in the videos. The 2D centroids are combined with the camera intrinsic  
218 and extrinsic parameters through the triangulation. This way, the 3D positions of the  
219 workers and equipment on the construction site could be estimated.

## 220 **Positions Prediction through the Kalman Filtering**

221 The measured 3D positions are fed into a Kalman filter to predict the positions of the  
222 workers and equipment at the next moment. In order to prepare the filter, first, the state of  
223 the worker or equipment at time step  $t$  is expressed as a vector (Eq. 1), which includes  
224 the positions  $(x, y, z)$ , velocities  $(\dot{x}, \dot{y}, \dot{z})$ , and accelerations  $(\ddot{x}, \ddot{y}, \ddot{z})$  along the three

225 coordinate axes. Then, the dynamics of the worker's or equipment's motion on the  
 226 construction site is modeled as a time-invariant system (Eq. 2)

$$227 \quad S_t = (x_t, y_t, z_t, \dot{x}_t, \dot{y}_t, \dot{z}_t, \ddot{x}_t, \ddot{y}_t, \ddot{z}_t)^T \quad (1)$$

$$228 \quad \frac{dS_t}{dt} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \times S_t + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \times W_t \quad (2)$$

229 where  $S_t$  is the system state at step  $t$  and  $W_t$  is a white noise process with power spectral  
 230 density. Suppose  $\Delta t$  is the time step size of two consecutive measurements. This way, the  
 231 state transition matrix  $A_t$  could be defined in Eq. 3. Meanwhile, the measurement matrix  
 232 is correspondingly set (Eq. 4), since the only measurement available is the 3D positions  
 233 of the worker or equipment without any information of the velocities and accelerations.

$$234 \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \Delta t & 0 & 0 & 0.5\Delta t^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \Delta t & 0 & 0 & 0.5\Delta t^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \Delta t & 0 & 0 & 0.5\Delta t^2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \Delta t & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \Delta t & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \Delta t \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (3)$$

$$235 \quad H = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (4)$$

236 After the preparation of the filter, the next state of the system is predicted by the filter  
 237 based on the previous measurements and the state transition matrix. Also, the prediction  
 238 results are compared with the real measurements at the next moment. The difference  
 239 between the two is further used to update the filter for the sake of correcting its  
 240 predictions in the future. The prediction and update processes could be described with the  
 241 following equations (Eq. 5 - 10) (Welch and Bishop, 1997).

242 • *Prediction:*

$$243 \quad S_t^- = A \times S_{t-1} \quad (5)$$

$$244 \quad P_t^- = A \times P_{t-1} \times A^T + Q \quad (6)$$

245 • *Update::*

$$246 \quad K_t = P_t^- \times H^T \times (H \times P_t^- \times H^T + R)^{-1} \quad (7)$$

$$247 \quad v_t = y_t - H \times S_t^- \quad (8)$$

$$248 \quad S_t = S_t^- + K_t \times v_t \quad (9)$$

$$249 \quad P_t = P_t^- - K_t \times (H \times P_t^- \times H^T + R) \times K_t^T \quad (10)$$

250 where  $S_t^-$  and  $S_t$  are the predicted and estimated mean of system states before and after  
 251 seeing the real measurements;  $P_t^-$  and  $P_t$  are the predicted and estimated covariance of  
 252 the system states before and after seeing the real measurements;  $Q$  is the process noise  
 253 covariance;  $R$  is the measurement noise covariance;  $v_t$  is the measurement residual on  
 254 time step  $t$ ;  $K_t$  is defined as the filter gain, which indicates how much corrections should  
 255 be made on time step  $t$ .

256 Figure 3 illustrates the overall process for the position prediction and update with the  
257 Kalman filtering. Specifically, Eq. 5 and 6 are predictor equations. They are used to  
258 compute the predicted mean and error covariance of the motion system to obtain the  
259 priori position estimates for the next time step. Eq. 7 – 10 are corrector equations. They  
260 are responsible for obtaining a posteriori position estimate, when the new position  
261 measurement is incorporated. The first step during the update is to compute the Kalman  
262 gain (Eq. 7). Then, the actual measurement of the motion system is made and  
263 incorporated to generate a posteriori estimate for the system (Eq. 8 and 9). The final step  
264 is to estimate a posteriori error covariance (Eq. 10). The process for the prediction and  
265 update is repeated with the previous posterior estimates to predict the new priori  
266 estimates in a recursive nature.

267 <Insert Figure 3 here>

## 268 **EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS**

269 The methods in the proposed framework were tested with the videos recorded by two  
270 high-definition (HD) camcorders, Canon VISXIAHF S100, under the resolution of 1,920  
271 × 1,080 pixels at 30 frames per second. The camcorders were located to collect the video  
272 frames of the construction site, where a facility was to be built for indoor football  
273 practices. The site was managed by Barton Malow Company. In order to get the stereo  
274 videos, the cameras were placed separately at the distance of 8.3 meters apart from each  
275 other. The relative positions between the cameras, worker, and vehicle have been  
276 illustrated in Figure 4.

277 <Insert Figure 4 here>

278 Figure 5 shows the examples of the video frames collected by the two cameras. These  
279 video frames recorded the movement of a worker and a vehicle on the construction site.  
280 Based on the video frames, the 3D positions of the worker and vehicle were estimated.  
281 These positions were compared with the position information collected by a total station  
282 to determine the estimation accuracy. The overall effectiveness of estimating the 3D  
283 positions of the worker and vehicle has been summarized in Table 1. It was found the  
284 average errors of estimating the 3D positions of a worker and vehicle from two video  
285 cameras were 0.26 meters and 0.28 meters with the standard deviations of 0.19 meters  
286 and 0.19 meters respectively. The maximum estimation errors were limited to 1.05  
287 meters for a worker and 0.90 meters for a vehicle. More details about the experiments  
288 and results could be found in the recent work of Park et al. [26].

289 <Insert Figure 5 here>

290 <Insert Table 1 >

291 The positions prediction work took the 3D positions measured from the videos before  
292 as input and produced the predictions at each time step as output. Figure 6 and 7  
293 compared the 3D positions measurements and predictions for the movement of the  
294 construction worker and vehicle in 2D views (X-Z plane). The numerical comparison  
295 results have been summarized in Table 2 and 3. Compared with the measurements, it was  
296 found that the mean error in predicting the movement of the worker was 0.32 meters with  
297 the standard deviation of 2.38 meters, and the mean error in predicting the movement of  
298 the vehicle was 0.18 meters with the standard deviation of 1.08 meters. More specifically,  
299 the mean errors in X-, Y-, and Z- directions were 0.06 meters, 0.08 meters, and 0.28  
300 meters with the standard deviations of 0.03 meters, 0.70 meters, and 2.28 meters, when

301 predicting the worker's movement. The mean errors in X-, Y-, and Z- directions were  
302 0.06 meters, 0.08 meters, and 0.28 meters with the standard deviations of 0.04 meters,  
303 0.02 meters, and 0.16 meters, when predicting the vehicle's movement.

304 <Insert Figure 6 here>

305 <Insert Figure 7 here>

306 <Insert Table 2 here>

307 <Insert Table 3 here>

308 The large prediction errors were typically made at the initial prediction stage. For  
309 example, it was noted in Table 2 that the maximum error from the first 90 predictions  
310 was 55.91 meters, and the maximum prediction errors in Y-, and Z- directions could  
311 reach 16.36 and 53.44 meters, when predicting the worker's movement. Similarly, when  
312 predicting the vehicle's movement, the maximum errors from the first 90 predictions was  
313 32.61 meters, and the maximum prediction errors in Y-, and Z- directions could reach  
314 2.88 and 32.48 meters. This is mainly because the designed Kalman filter did not have  
315 the sufficient "prior knowledge" of the movement of the workers and/or equipment to  
316 make accurate predictions.

317 The "prior knowledge" could be automatically accumulated by the filter. During the  
318 tests, the filter updated its parameters through identifying and correcting its previous  
319 prediction mistakes. This way, the knowledge to make accurate predictions was learned.  
320 Typically, the learning process was done in a fast way. Consider the cameras captured 30  
321 video frames per second (FPS). It means that it was possible to make 30 measurements in  
322 one second. Therefore, the initial 90 predictions could be done to cover the movement of  
323 the worker or vehicle in their initial 3 seconds.



324 When the sufficient "prior knowledge" has been obtained, the predictions made by the  
325 filter reached a reasonable accuracy. As illustrated in Table 2, the maximum prediction  
326 errors in X-, Y- and Z- directions were limited to 0.15 meters, 0.05 meters, and 0.20  
327 meters for predicting the worker's movement, if the first 90 predictions were ignored.  
328 Correspondingly, the maximum error in 3D was reduced to be 0.22 meters. As for  
329 predicting the vehicle's movement, the maximum errors of the movement perditions in X-,  
330 Y- and Z- directions were limited to 0.25 meters, 0.09 meters, and 0.56 meters, and the  
331 maximum error in 3D was 0.56 meters (Table 3).

332 As illustrated in Figure 4, the cameras were set up about 30 ~ 40 meters away from  
333 the worker. When the measurements and predictions are made at 30 frames per second  
334 (fps) by default, the prediction error could reach 0.02 meters after initial 90 predictions.  
335 The prediction error is increased with the reduction of the frequency for the  
336 measurements and predictions. Figure 8 showed that the errors for predicting worker's  
337 movement would increase to 0.44 meters, 0.73 meters, and 1.58 meters, when the  
338 measurements and predictions are made every 0.5, 1, and 1.5 seconds. Similar findings  
339 were also noted when predicting the movement of the vehicle in the tests.

340 <Insert Figure 8 here>

## 341 **CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK**

342 This paper designed Kalman filters to predict the future positions of onsite workers and  
343 mobile equipment. The predictions were made based on the current positions of the  
344 workers and equipment on the sites and also their previous movement records. The  
345 prediction results could indicate the movements of the workers and equipment in a short  
346 period of time from the current moment. This information is useful to create a proactive

347 warning system to prevent immediate potential collisions on the construction site and  
348 therefore enhance construction site safety.

349 The Kalman filters designed in the paper has been tested with real site videos. The test  
350 results showed that the position predictions made by the filters could reflect the real  
351 movement of the worker and equipment. Specifically, the average errors in predicting the  
352 worker's and vehicle's movements could reach 0.38 meters and 0.18 meters. More  
353 accurate predictions could be achieved, when the Kalman filter got sufficient knowledge  
354 from its previous prediction errors. For example, the average prediction errors for the  
355 worker's and vehicle's movements could be reduced to 0.10 meters and 0.11 meters, when  
356 the first 90 predictions within approximately 3 seconds were ignored. The high prediction  
357 accuracy indicated the effectiveness of the Kalman filters designed in this paper. Future  
358 work will focus on creating a pro-active collision warning system based on the work  
359 presented in this paper.

360 Future work will be focused on two aspects. First, more experiments will be  
361 performed to test the tolerance of the predictions made by the work in this paper on  
362 various motion routes. Also, a pro-active collision warning system will be developed at  
363 construction jobsites to check the cost effectiveness of implementing the system in  
364 construction projects. The authors have been working with the local industry to create a  
365 multi-camera environment on a construction site in Montreal. The site will be used as a  
366 test bed to implement the collision warning system. Compared with existing safety  
367 enhancement research studies with the reliance on remote sensing techniques, the system  
368 relies on the videos remotely captured by high-definition cameras. It is not necessary to

369 physically install or put any sensors or tags on the workers and equipment, which is  
370 supposed to make the system more affordable.

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- 465

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Proposed Framework

Figure 2: 3D Positions Estimation from Multi-View Cameras

Figure 3: Framework for Kalman filtering

Figure 4: Setup for Experiments

Figure 5: Example of Video Frames from Left and Right Cameras

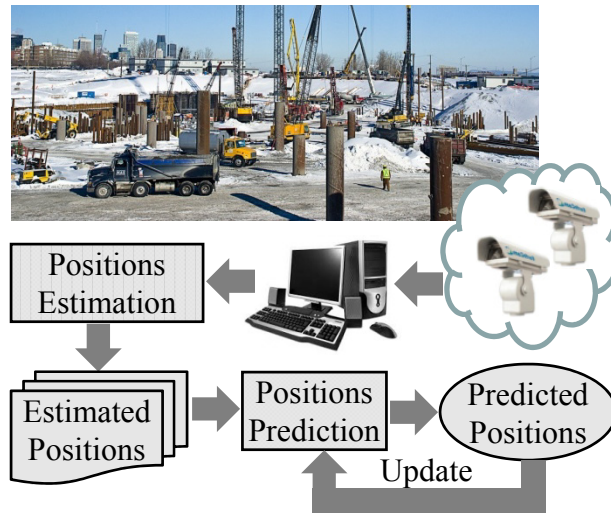
Figure 6: Estimated and Predicted Trajectories for a Worker

Figure 7: Estimated and Predicted Trajectories for a Vehicle

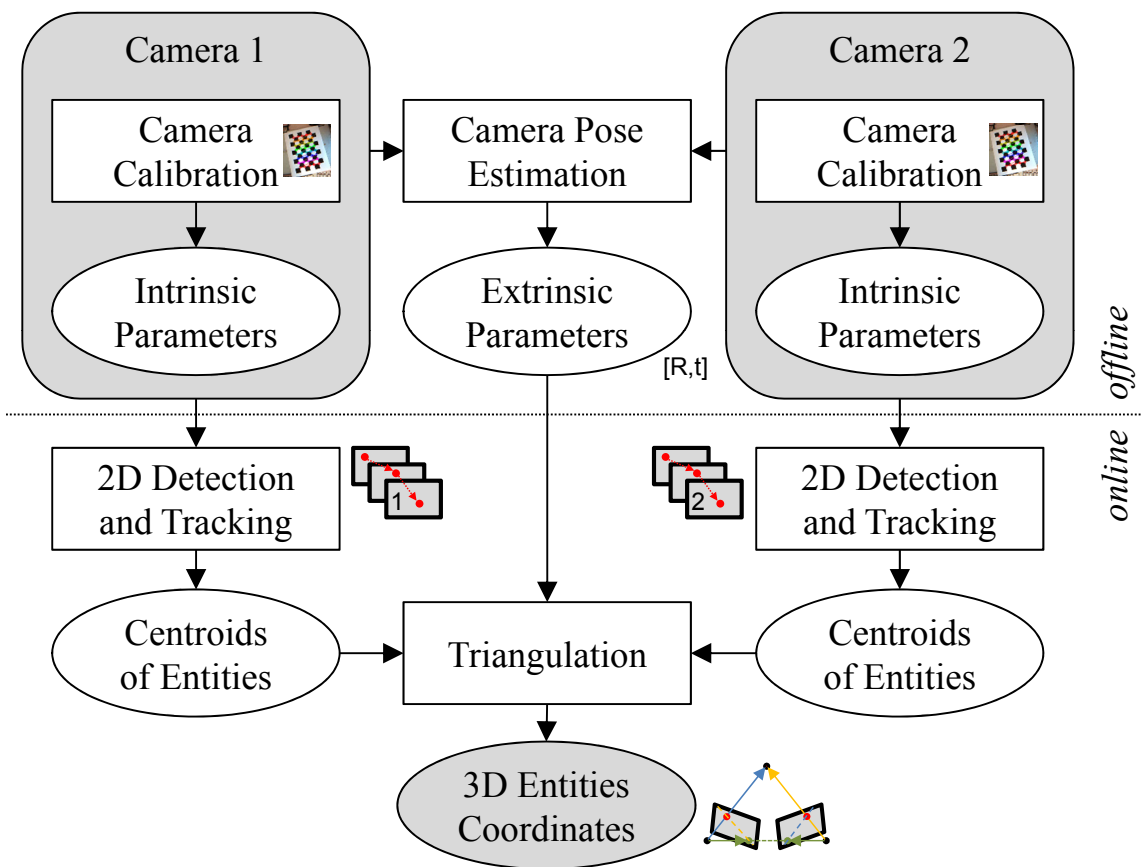
Figure 8. The relationship between the prediction errors and frequency



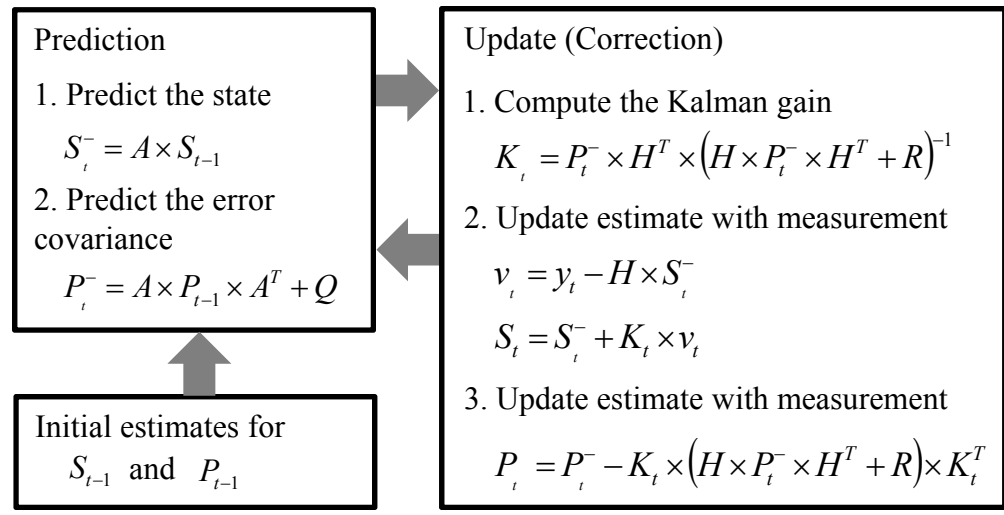
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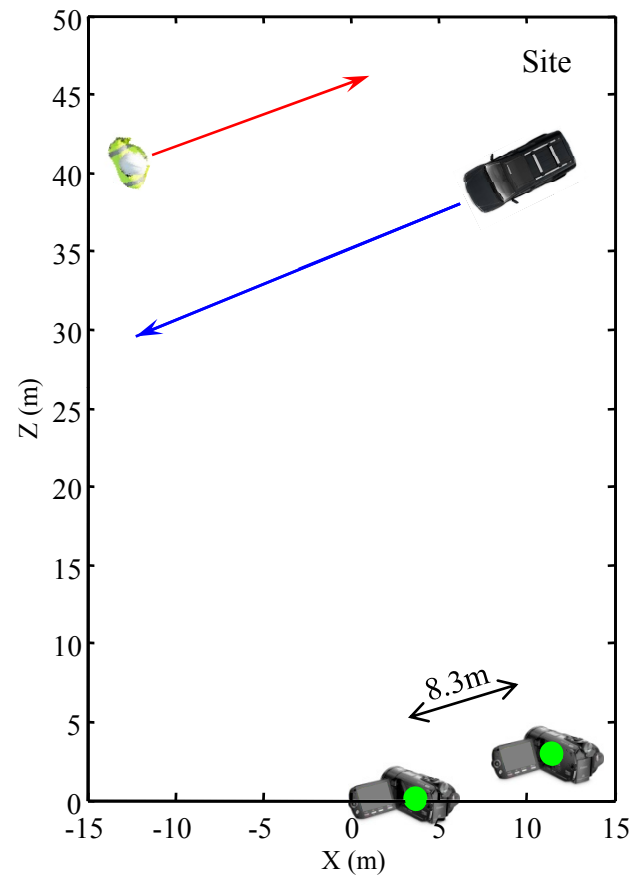
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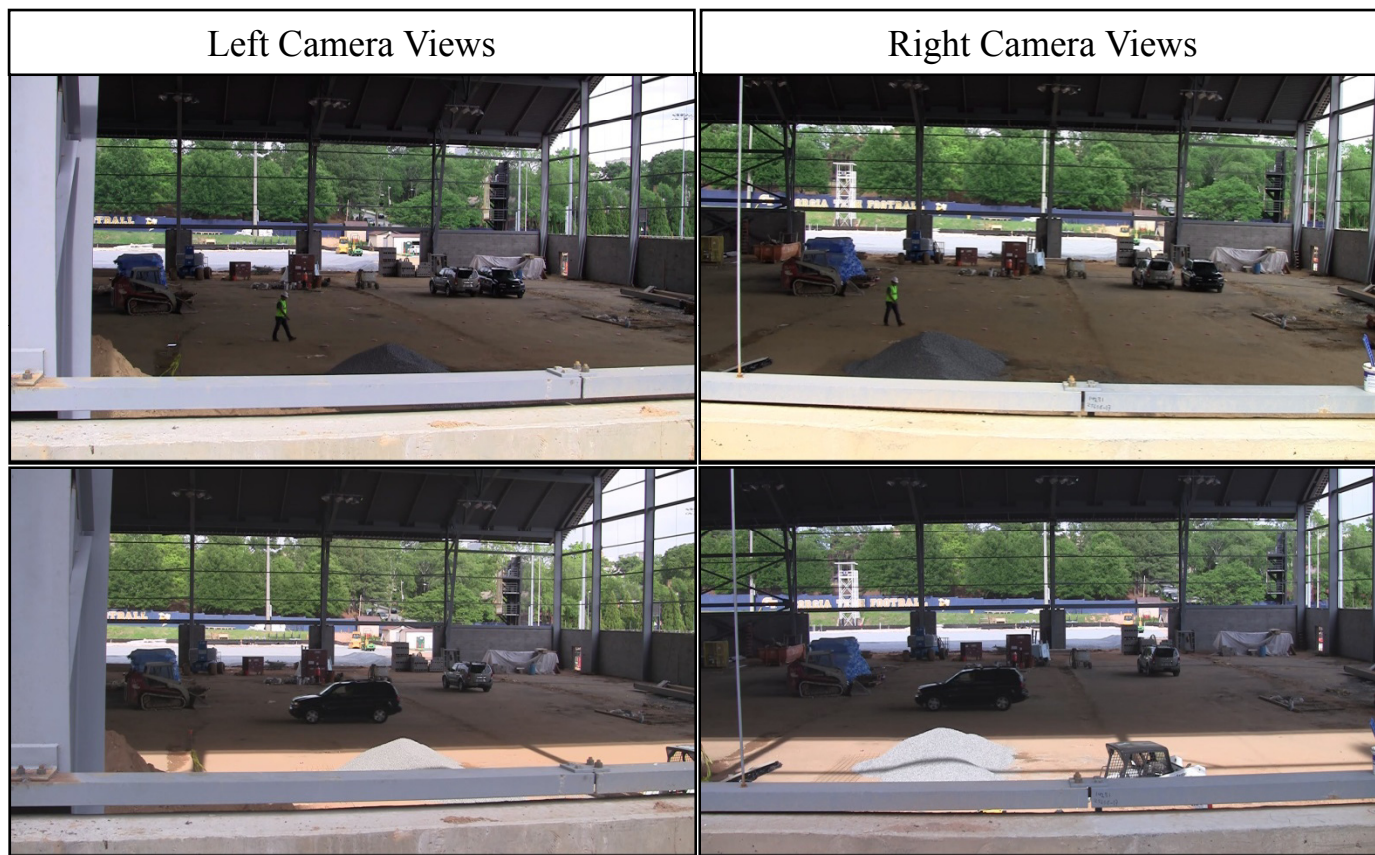


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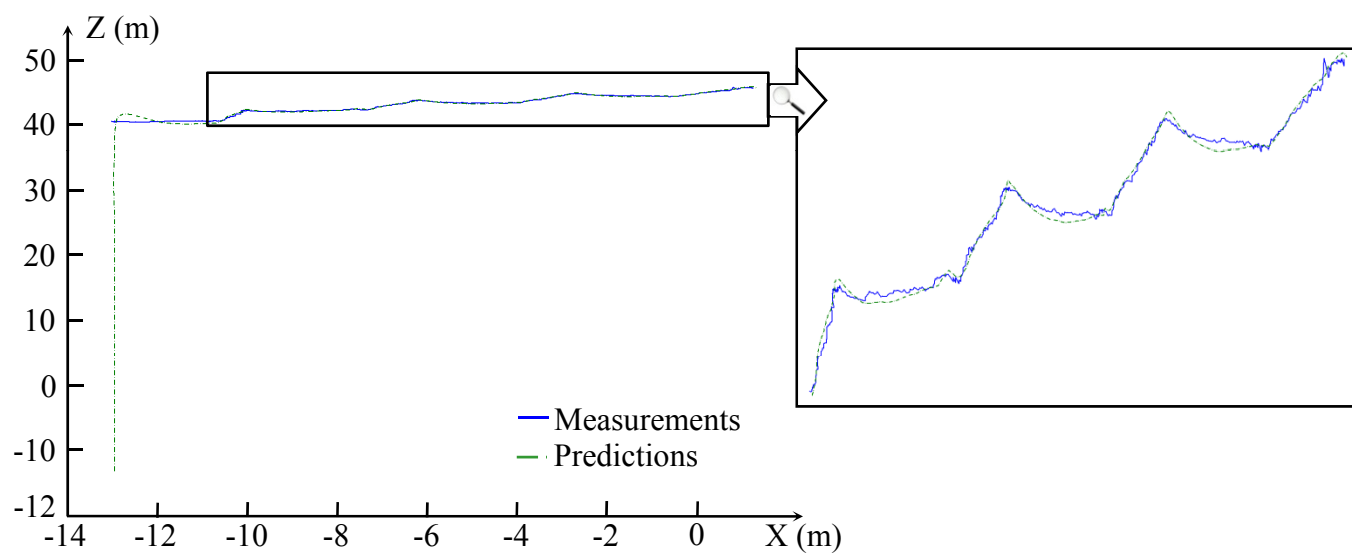


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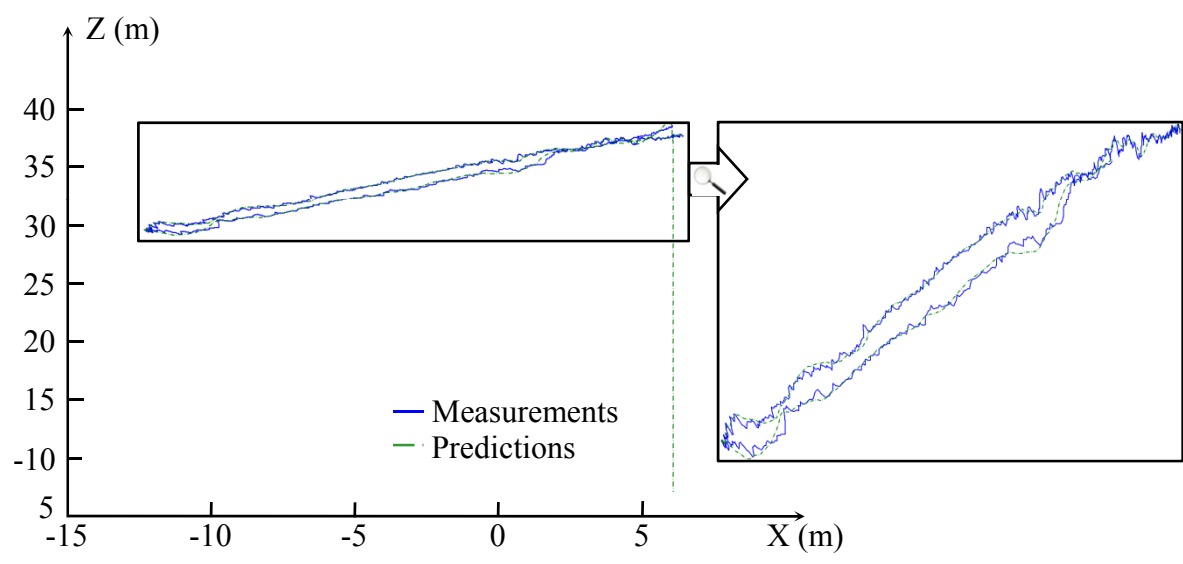




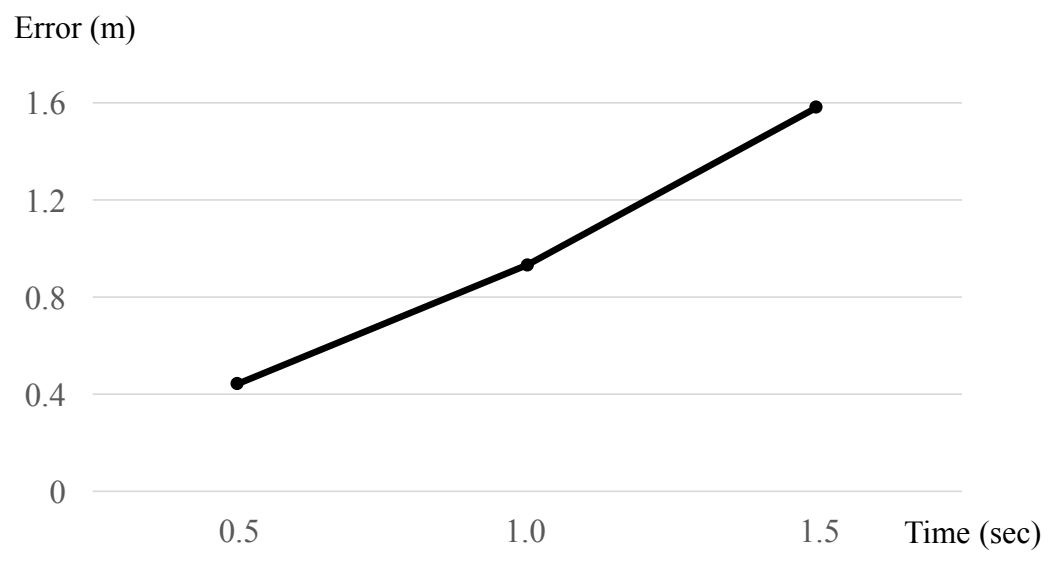
Figure



Figure



Figure





## **LIST OF TABLES**

Table 1: Errors of Estimating 3D Positions using Stereo Vision System

Table 2: Errors in Predicted 3D Positions in Worker Movement

Table 3: Errors in Predicted 3D Positions in Vehicle Movement

Table 1: Errors of Estimating 3D Positions using Stereo Vision System

Object Type	Error (m)		
	Max	Mean	Std.
Worker	1.05	0.26	0.19
Vehicle	0.90	0.28	0.19

Table 2: Errors in Predicted 3D Positions in Worker Movement

Errors (m)	Initial 90 predictions				Remaining predictions				All	
	Max	Min	Mean	Std.	Max	Min	Mean	Std.	Mean	Std.
X-Direction	0.16	0.00	0.06	0.04	0.15	0.00	0.06	0.03	0.06	0.03
Y-Direction	16.36	0.01	0.46	1.80	0.05	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.08	0.70
Z-Direction	53.46	0.01	1.50	5.88	0.20	0.00	0.08	0.05	0.28	2.28
3D Distance	55.91	0.02	1.58	6.14	0.22	0.02	0.10	0.04	0.32	2.38

Table 3: Errors in Predicted 3D Positions in Vehicle Movement

Errors (m)	Initial 90 predictions				Remaining predictions				All	
	Max	Min	Mean	Std.	Max	Min	Mean	Std.	Mean	Std.
X-Direction	0.06	0.00	0.02	0.02	0.25	0.00	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.04
Y-Direction	2.88	0.00	0.08	0.32	0.09	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.10
Z-Direction	32.48	0.00	0.93	3.57	0.56	0.00	0.09	0.08	0.16	1.08
3D Distance	32.61	0.02	0.93	3.58	0.56	0.01	0.11	0.09	0.18	1.08