

Moving Ahead with Computational Movement Analysis

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1 **1. Introduction**

2 The growth of computational science has been observed as a multidisciplinary trend in the late
3 20th century and is one which has been well documented within Geography and GIScience as well as
4 many other disciplines. Computational movement analysis (the topic of this special issue) reflects
5 the embeddedness of computational thinking and methods in modern movement data analysis
6 (Laube, 2014).

7 Studying how things move is an inter-disciplinary problem (Demšar et al., 2015) and one that
8 reflects the diversity of domain research interests within GIScience. For example, in this special
9 issue, applications include both human (including pedestrians, fleet vehicles, cyclists) and animal
10 movement (terrestrial wildlife, birds, and livestock). One of the key challenges of current movement
11 analysis research is the breadth of applications and methods being explored to rapidly expanding
12 and often complex datasets across a range of research areas and spanning various spatial and
13 temporal scales.

14 This special issue is a legacy of previous activities (both by the editorial team and many others)
15 to unify the diverse research encompassed by movement analysis under the banner of GIScience and
16 consolidate movement-related research literature. Specifically, this special issue was proposed as
17 part of a pre-conference workshop on movement analysis at the GIScience meeting, Sep. 27-30,
18 2016 in Montreal, Canada. A number of previous special issues within IJGIS complement the suite of
19 papers we present here. Specifically, Andrienko et al. (2010) focusses on visualization of spatial-
20 temporal data where movement data is emphasised, Zook et al. (2015) looks at human mobility and
21 mobile applications, Dodge et al. (2016) explores the breadth of approaches encountered in the
22 analysis of movement data, and Shaw et al. (2016) looks at human dynamics in the big-data era.
23 Here in this issue we focus on the development of computational methods and computational

24 thinking in movement analysis owing to the rapid growth of movement datasets and new
25 computational paradigms.

26 **2. Summaries of the articles featured in this special issue**

27 We present 12 original papers in this special issue on computational movement analysis. Given
28 the rapid change that has occurred in the way we collect movement data (Purves, Laube, Buchin, &
29 Speckmann, 2014), it is not surprising that many of the papers represent new methodological
30 contributions. Over half of the papers in this issue employ large datasets comprising of over one
31 million records, which are also being combined with ancillary data on, for example, urban structure
32 or other environmental covariates. All papers explore computational problems associated with pre-
33 processing, processing, linking, analysing, visualizing, and synthesising large, diverse, and complex
34 movement datasets and how they are influenced by underlying geographic context.

35 Tao et al. (2018) present a new modelling framework for movement defined by flows between
36 spatially positioned checkpoints. Checkpoints are defined as being either transaction or presence-
37 based checkpoints. The modelling framework is easy to comprehend and makes the contribution of
38 defining how transaction and presence-based sensors can be combined into a single analysis.

39 Gao et al. (2018) demonstrate an extension to the popular spatial scan statistic (Kulldorff,
40 1997) for movement flows between regions. The method is appropriate for both aggregate flows
41 (e.g., origin-destinations by region, such as state migrations) and for individual spatially-explicit flows
42 (e.g., taxi origin-destination data). Using the multi-dimensional scan statistic, the authors
43 demonstrate how spatial hotspots can be identified within large flow datasets.

44 Guo et al. (2018) present a new visualization method — Spatial Tabu Optimization for
45 Community Structure (STOCS) — for community detection in origin-destination flows. The broad
46 applicability of the approach is demonstrated through two examples, one employing wildlife tracking

47 data and another studying human movement behaviour from call detail records in Shanghai. Their
48 method can detect spatial regions reflected by the movement patterns in the data. The regions can
49 then be used, for example, to characterize boundary features associated with movement patterns.

50 Kempinska et al. (2018) develop a new method for studying interactional regions, as a way to
51 derive spatial communities from network-based movement data. GPS traces of police patrol vehicles
52 in London, UK are used to demonstrate how the method can be applied in practice. Interactional
53 regions are densely connected areas within the network. They represent fine-scale mappings of
54 movement flows along edges in a spatial network and, in particular, this method is able to detect
55 longer activity movements, for example between key nodes.

56 Wang et al. (2018) present a new spatial optimization algorithm to study meet-up locations in
57 an urban context. Specifically, a network-based algorithm is employed to identify optimal, centrally
58 located meet-up locations between two or more individuals. The method is demonstrated on
59 simulated meet-up scenarios on actual road and POI datasets. The approach has significant potential
60 for adoption in location-based mobile applications.

61 Hwang et al. (2018) demonstrate a new segmentation method for partitioning movement data
62 into stops and moves. The focus of this paper is especially important as the method is demonstrated
63 using high resolution (< 10 seconds interval) GPS tracking data. A fuzzy inference approach is taken,
64 which allows it to be particularly sensitive with data that contains significant time gaps, a common
65 problem encountered in GPS tracking studies.

66 Yang & Gidófalvi (2018) present a data mining approach for visualizing recurrent and
67 sequential patterns in large tracking datasets. They propose what they call a Bidirectional Pruning
68 based Closed Contiguous Sequential Pattern Mining (BP-CCSM) algorithm, which draws on frequent-
69 pattern trees to derive movement pattern sequences within the tracking data. Then a visualization

70 tool called the Spatial Pattern Explorer for Trajectories (SPET) is developed to explore recurrent and
71 sequential patterns within the larger dataset.

72 Loglisci (2018) presents a new approach for studying interactive groups, called 'crews', in
73 movement databases. The definition of crews is more relaxed than previous attempts at finding
74 groups or flocks in large tracking datasets, as crews have relaxed spatial and shape constraints in
75 comparison with other approaches (Benkert, Gudmundsson, Hubner, & Wolle, 2008). Specifically,
76 the crews approach considers both the movement patterns of each individual and pairwise
77 interactions between individuals. An efficient algorithm for processing crews in large datasets is also
78 proposed.

79 Skov-Peterson et al. (2018) study navigational preferences by cyclists in the Netherlands using
80 an edge-based route choice model, which is a local approach to wayfinding (termed locomotion).
81 They find that there is evidence that such localized models of route choice perform better than
82 global-path based analysis, and that local, edge-based route-choice models offer new potential for
83 understanding human navigation and wayfinding. The implications of this research are that cyclists
84 may be making navigational decisions locally in conjunction with global knowledge when travelling
85 and future modelling efforts should account for this.

86 Paul et al. (2018) explore the question how much GPS tracking data is sufficient for
87 delineating human activity spaces. A mobile-phone based tracking application is used to study
88 different cohorts of student participants and to derive spatial measures of activity spaces at
89 incrementally increasing time periods. They find that an approximately 2-week period was sufficient
90 for generating spatially stable activity spaces. The implications of this research are clear for the
91 design of future tracking studies, relating directly to privacy concerns of individual participants.

92 Downs et al. (2018) study differences in methods for mapping spatial ranges in wildlife
93 tracking studies. Specifically, the time-geographic density estimator (TGDE) is compared with two

94 commonly used home range estimators, a classical kernel density estimation and characteristic hull
95 polygons. A simulation study, using an agent-based model, of Muscovy duck movement is used to
96 test each method and provide a cross-comparison. In their analysis kernel density estimation
97 performed worse than both TGDE and characteristic hull polygons and TGDE was found to be
98 comparable to characteristic hull polygons for estimating home range areas, but more accurate at
99 estimating core areas.

100 Liao et al. (2018) present a study of the movement behaviour of free-ranging cattle tracked by
101 GPS collars in southern Ethiopia. Satellite and environmental data are combined with the high-
102 resolution GPS tracking data along with in-situ videography used to ground truth different
103 behaviours. From statistical models, they demonstrate that different behaviours are associated with
104 different movement velocities and environmental covariates. Their findings on how cattle use
105 foraging resources has important implications for rangeland management in the region.

106 **3. Computational Movement Analysis: A Possible Future**

107 As demonstrated by the rich content of this issue – and comparing with previous special issues
108 edited by some of us (Purves et al., 2014; Dodge et al., 2016) – computational movement analysis
109 continues to be a strongly developing research domain. At the workshop leading up to this special
110 issue a panel session was thus devoted to discussing future research trends. In the following, we
111 briefly touch on a selection of points that were mentioned in the panel session and that found the
112 support of the workshop participants, without claim of completeness.

113 *3.1. Lagrangian vs Eulerian movement analysis*

114 One of the key distinctions used in the analysis of movement data is the choice of a Lagrangian
115 or Eulerian world-view (Laube, 2014). Specifically, the Lagrangian view involves tracking individuals
116 directly, while the Eulerian view involves monitoring individuals as they pass by defined spatial

117 locations. In practice, this relates to the type of movement data that is being explored, for example
118 flows between nodes in a network (Eulerian; e.g., cell phone tower call records, check in/out
119 records, or data from camera traps), or individual movement traces (Lagrangian; e.g., via GPS
120 tracking). The distinction between these two fundamentally different world-views (and data models)
121 is nicely demonstrated in this special issue. We have seen rapid growth of studies employing a
122 Lagrangian approach to movement analysis and the associated methods-base in this area are
123 substantially more developed (Laube, 2015). However, in the future we are likely to see much more
124 Eulerian-based data associated with diverse types of technology (e.g., cell phone towers, Bluetooth
125 beacons, WLAN hot spots, gates of public transport systems, camera traps) employed to study
126 movement. The growth of the smart cities movement offers the potential to collect and analyse
127 massive amounts of check-in data (e.g., bike share records, social media check-ins) and other
128 technologies are employing similar approaches in attempt to make cities easier to navigate. Another
129 reason we have seen rapid growth of Eulerian data in academic research is the privacy concerns
130 associated with individual tracking (see AUTHOR, 2018), but Eulerian data poses similar but unique
131 challenges for maintaining individual privacy. The methods for studying Eulerian data presented in
132 this issue (Gao et al., 2018; Guo et al., 2018; Tao et al., 2018) offer new avenues for further analysis
133 in the Eulerian domain.

134 *3.2. Computationally Intensive Movement Analysis*

135 The expansion computational paradigms in both the sciences and social sciences has been
136 enabled both by the availability of powerful personal desktop computers and the rapid development
137 of high powered computing facilities. In the analysis of movement data, we have still only really seen
138 developments that are taking advantage of the former. In the future, we are likely to see new
139 algorithms capable of leveraging high-performance computing (HPC) facilities (e.g., clusters, parallel
140 computing using graphics processing units). This may fraction the research base between those that
141 have to the requisite expertise required to take advantage of available facilities and those that do

142 not. The emergence of HPC practices seems all but inevitable and will continue to revolutionize
143 modern movement analysis. As movement datasets increase in volume and complexity, techniques
144 for processing and simplifying these datasets are necessary (e.g., many of the papers in this special
145 issue employ datasets with millions of records). The data reduction process is especially important
146 for high-resolution tracking data, where much of the data are redundant when studying the salient
147 broad scale behavioural patterns. Massive movement datasets contain a wealth of information, but
148 this can in turn lead to major challenges in visualizing and contextualizing this information. Thus, the
149 attention of the human analyst needs to be allocated efficiently in such large movement datasets in
150 order to reduce the overabundance effect in data visualization - as a wealth of information is known
151 to “consume the attention of its recipients” (Simon, 1971; p40). One of the take-home messages
152 from this special issue is that efficient tools for reducing big movement datasets almost exclusively
153 revolve around the use of geographic space. For example, several papers in this special issue employ
154 spatial metrics (e.g., home ranges or activity spaces) to simplify the analysis of movement data.
155 Future work aimed at synthesising massive movement datasets should follow on this lead and
156 explore more complex spatial methodologies. However, we should not forget about the rich
157 temporal information stored within movement data and look to develop time-centred metrics for
158 movement data.

159 *3.3. Inter-individual Interactions*

160 It is now extremely easy to collect movement data, owing to the rapid technological
161 development of tracking systems (e.g., GPS) and embedded wireless sensors (e.g., Bluetooth). In
162 fact, most of us readily participate in the generation of different forms of movement data on a daily
163 basis. While most considerations of the impacts of increasing data are associated with having more
164 data about individuals within the sample (e.g., higher resolution tracking), we are also witnessing a
165 concurrent rapid growth in the number of individuals being tracked. The ability to simultaneously
166 track many individuals (humans or animals) is providing new opportunities to study inter-individual

167 dynamics within movement datasets. Within this special issue, specific papers (e.g., Loglisci, 2018;
168 Wang et al., 2018) highlight some exciting new avenues for research in the study of inter-individual
169 interactions. This is an area primed for more significant development within computational
170 movement analysis.

171 *3.4. Sensor Fusion and Data Integration*

172 Recent advances in multi-modal sensors have enabled computational science to integrate
173 multiple sources of data (e.g. GPS tracks, accelerometers, fitness tracking sensors) to fill information
174 gaps and decrease uncertainty in analysis of activity patterns and increase our understanding of
175 individual behaviour at fine levels of detail. This provides a promising opportunity to advance
176 computational movement analysis by developing fine-scale and comprehensive movement models
177 for understanding and predicting movement. Sensor fusion and data integration is perhaps most
178 prominent in the domain of wildlife tracking, where we are witnessing a rapid advancement in
179 methodologies combining remotely sensed data, accelerometer, and other on-board sensors with
180 individual tracking devices. Designing analysis frameworks capable of integrating and synthesising
181 these complex and diverse data sources will remain a challenge in future movement analysis.

182 **3. Conclusion**

183 Computational movement analysis is a rapidly expanding area of research within GIScience,
184 but also within complementary domains. It is worth noting that two of the future research areas that
185 we identified during our workshop were also identified in an earlier special issue ('moving towards
186 massive data', 'multi-sensor measurement and analysis' ; Dodge et al., 2016) which shows that these
187 areas remain ongoing challenges within computational movement analysis. Dodge et al. (2016) and
188 Birkin et al (2017) also identified other problem areas that remain ongoing in computational
189 movement analysis, including prediction, multi-scale modelling, and visualization of movement.
190 Owing to continued technological developments the breadth of movement research is still growing

191 rapidly and offering new insights in a range of topic domains and the application of movement
192 research continues to expand to help understand new problems (Demšar et al., 2015). This special
193 issue highlights many of the emerging areas of research within computational movement analysis
194 and should serve as a valuable resource for future work in this area.

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