

# 1 Assessing the Accuracy of Pathfinding Algorithms 2 for Scottish Children’s Home-to-School Commutes: 3 A Comparison with GPS Trajectories

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## 8 — Abstract —

9 Walking to and from school has significant implications for children’s physical and mental well-being.  
10 This study aims to investigate the accuracy of routing engines (Google Maps, Mapbox, and OSRM)  
11 in replicating GPS trajectories and explore potential associations with gender and socioeconomic  
12 status. The study analysed GPS data from 227 children aged 10-11 years old in Scotland. The  
13 results indicated that OSRM exhibited the highest accuracy with a mean GPS track overlap of  
14 56%. However, no substantial differences were found between the routing engines. Additionally,  
15 the accuracy of the engines did not vary based on gender or socioeconomic status. These findings  
16 provide reassurance that potential biases do not arise when using these navigation tools, as their  
17 accuracy remains consistent across different demographic groups.

18 **2012 ACM Subject Classification** General and reference → General conference proceedings

19 **Keywords and phrases** Pathfinding algorithms, GPS, Navigation tools, Children, Physical Activity

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21 **Category** Short Paper

22 **Supplementary Material** The data that we used will not be shared with the public due to the  
23 non-disclosure agreement on personal information. However, the complete set of codes is available  
24 on GitHub.

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## 28 **1** Introduction

29 Walking to and from school can greatly impact the overall physical and mental health of  
30 children [1]. Previous research has emphasised the importance of active commuting to school,  
31 as it encourages increased physical activity, benefiting bone and muscular fitness, mental  
32 well-being, and even saving time during drop-offs and pick-ups while raising awareness  
33 of traffic safety [1, 2, 3]. Furthermore, active commuting helps to reduce (non) tailpipe  
34 emissions and air pollution, both of which have far-reaching effects on public health and the  
35 environment [4].

36 Understanding the routes children take to school is vital for their safety [5], fostering a  
37 sense of familiarity [6, 7], and effectively managing time during active travel [8]. Additionally,  
38 route choices hold particular significance for children from lower socioeconomic backgrounds

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39 who may have limited access to transportation options and fewer opportunities to engage  
40 with enriching resources like museums and libraries.

41 To measure these school routes, a combination of GPS (Global Positioning System)  
42 trajectories and GIS (Geographic Information System) estimates have gained popularity.  
43 While GPS trajectories offer high accuracy for individual children, they come with challenges  
44 such as the expensive and labour-intensive process of collecting GPS data [9]. As a result, a  
45 compelling solution emerges in exploring the potential of routing algorithms (engines) to  
46 replicate these GPS trajectories, eliminating the need for extensive data collection efforts.  
47 These algorithms have gained attention for their ability to generate optimised routes based  
48 on factors such as distance, traffic conditions, the presence of CCTV cameras, and road  
49 conditions [10, 11].

50 However, despite their widespread usage, the accuracy of these pathfinding algorithms  
51 in replicating actual GPS trajectories remains a topic of investigation [12, 13, 14, 15, 16].  
52 One reason for this is that many “GPS vs GIS” routing studies often compare only a single  
53 shortest-path tool in GIS, without taking into account the various routing methods available  
54 between two locations [12, 14, 15, 17, 18]. Additionally, these studies often rely on GIS  
55 layers that guide routing algorithms based on road-based polylines, potentially disregarding  
56 smaller alleyways, park trails, or roads that have not yet been updated [14]. As a result,  
57 such approaches can lead to an oversimplified conclusion that GPS is a superior instrument  
58 for correctly measuring commute patterns without considering the broader context. Further,  
59 it is important to understand the potential consequences of demographic and socio-economic  
60 bias in performance-operating algorithms, particularly when replacing GPS data with routing  
61 algorithms. If these algorithms display poor performance for marginalised groups, it could  
62 introduce bias into subsequent actions and distort our understanding of the broader context  
63 [19].

64 The objective of this study is to investigate and compare the accuracy of path-finding  
65 algorithm route selections to GPS trajectories. Specific questions are described below:

- 66 1. Which routing engine is the closest to the GPS data?
- 67 2. Does the accuracy of the routing algorithms, when compared to the GPS trajectories,  
68 vary 68 by the distance to school, gender, and socio-economic characteristics?

## 69 **2 Methodology**

### 70 **2.1 GPS data**

71 The study used information from 227 children in Scotland drawn from the “SPACES (Studying  
72 Physical Activity In Children’s Environments)” study<sup>2</sup>, which collected GPS data for children  
73 aged 10 and 11. The participant’s home and school locations, their activity measures, gender,  
74 and socio-economic data were provided. We used the Scottish Index of Multiple Deprivation  
75 (SIMD)<sup>3</sup> as a proxy for an individual’s socioeconomic status in this study. During the  
76 pre-processing stage of the GPS data, the following inclusion criteria were applied in order  
77 to isolate GPS tracks which represented children walking to school in the morning: 1) only

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<sup>2</sup> Please visit the following link for more information: <https://www.gla.ac.uk/schools/healthwellbeing/research/mrccsocialandpublichealthsciencesunit/programmes/places/movementurbanlandscapes/spaces/>

<sup>3</sup> SIMD is a ranked tool for determining a relative measure of deprivation across 6,976 small areas, with 1 being the most deprived and 6,976 being the least deprived. For more information, visit <https://www.gov.scot/collections/scottish-index-of-multiple-deprivation-2020/>

78 points recorded on weekdays were considered, 2) points recorded between 07:30 and 09:00  
79 were selected, 3) the study focused on the home-to-school trajectory, not vice versa, as some  
80 children go to different places depending on their parents' working conditions, and 4) points  
81 recorded with a speed of less than 5 km/h were included [20], indicating children whose mode  
82 of travel was most likely walking.

83 To process the GPS data, each participant's GPS track was randomly sampled from one  
84 of seven days in which the child was walking to school and had a valid track. The recorded  
85 points were then cleaned and interpolated to form a polyline.

## 86 2.2 Modelling routes from home to school

87 The provided GPS track data was processed by filtering out points with incorrect coordinates  
88 or overlapping locations over time. Next, we interpolated the individual data points to create  
89 a polyline representing the travel path of each child to school. To measure the overlapping  
90 percentage between the modelled polylines, we created a 30-meter buffer around the GPS  
91 track polyline, creating a polygon [12, 14]. These are the steps from 1 to 3 illustrated in  
92 Figure 1.

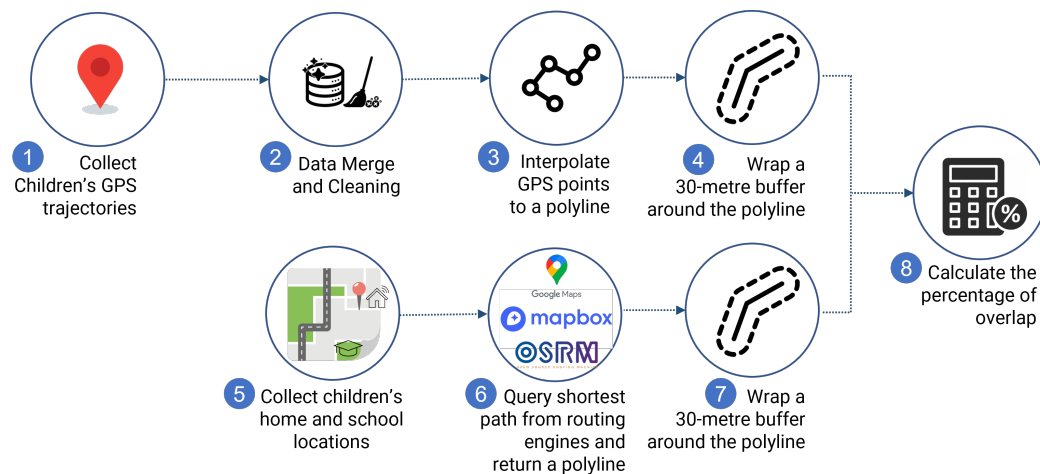
93 For the routing engines, we generated routes for the children's journeys between home and  
94 school using the "walking" mode. This study compared three popular routing models: Google  
95 API, Mapbox API, and Open Source Routing Machine (OSRM). The main objective of these  
96 routing models is to determine the shortest and most efficient path to school [12, 14]. To  
97 ensure consistency in the data cleaning and analysis process, we utilized specific R packages:  
98 `mapsapi` to access Google API's routing engine, `mapboxapi` for Mapbox API, and `osrm` for  
99 OSRM. Once the routes for each child were generated, we applied a 30-meter buffer to the  
100 routes obtained from the three routing engines, creating polygons.

101 Then, we performed a spatial intersection between the GPS polygons and each of the  
102 modelled routes, to determine the extent of polygon overlap, measured as percentage. The  
103 computation of the comparison between navigation routes and GPS tracks utilised the  
104 concept of spatial intersection, as described in previous studies [12, 14, 15, 16]. The resulting  
105 percentage of spatial intersection served as an indicator of the similarity between the two  
106 routes. A complete mismatch between the two routes would result in an error rate of 100%,  
107 indicating no overlap, while a perfect match between the routes would yield a difference of  
108 0%. These are the steps from 5 to 8 illustrated in Figure 1.

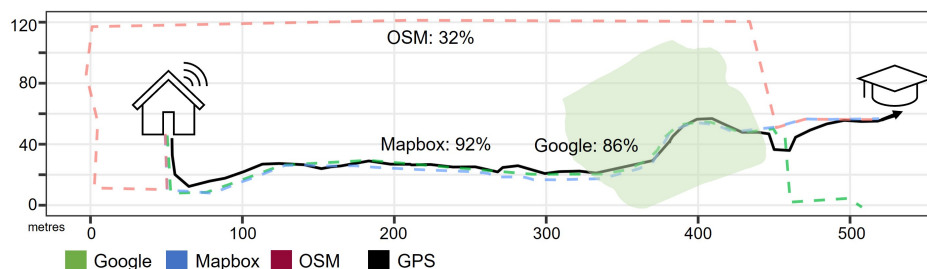
109 It is important to note that different route engines can produce varying results due to  
110 factors such as pathfinding algorithms, road structure prioritisation, and an incomprehensible  
111 road database. As an example, one of the navigation methods identified that the child's  
112 actual path went through a park, whereas the other two methods only provided detour routes  
113 along the streets (refer to Figure 2).

## 114 3 Results

115 A total of 227 participants contributed data on their walking routes to school. The character-  
116 istics of these participants can be found in the provided Table [Go to Link here](#). Among the  
117 participants, there were 99 boys and 128 girls within the age range of 10 to 11. An analysis  
118 of the trip length data indicates that the majority of participants walked a distance of less  
119 than 2 kilometres to reach school.



■ **Figure 1** The extraction of GPS and GIS data and the calculation of overlapping percentages



■ **Figure 2** A comparison example of the accuracy of three routing engines against the GPS trajectory in a school journey

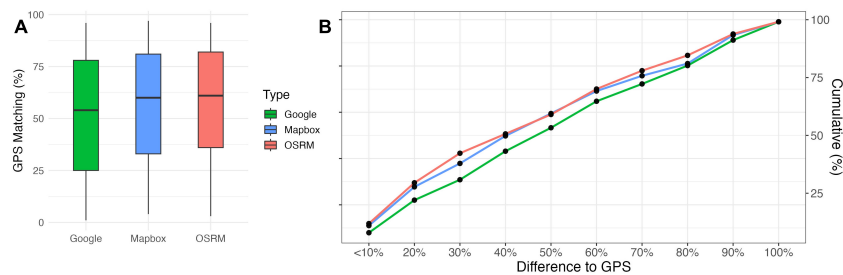
### 120 3.1 Which routing algorithm is the closest to the GPS data?

121 Our findings show that the mean GPS track overlap varied between the three routing models.  
 122 OSRM exhibited the highest value at 56%, followed by Mapbox at 52%, and Google at 47%  
 123 (see Figure 3A). However, we also observed significant variation in the overlapping percentage  
 124 between participants, as indicated by the standard deviation, which can be influenced by the  
 125 distance to school. Furthermore, the differences between the routes provided by the models  
 126 were found to be small.

127 When examining the percentage of children who had the highest accuracy with the GPS  
 128 tracks (<10% error rate from Figure 3B), the results were as follows: OSRM - 12%, Google  
 129 - 11%, and Mapbox - 8%. Considering a 30% error margin, the differences in accuracy  
 130 between routing algorithms were approximately 42% for OSRM, 38% for Mapbox, and 30%  
 131 for Google.

### 132 3.2 Does the accuracy of the routing algorithm, when compared to the 133 GPS trajectories, vary by the distance to school, gender, and 134 socio-economic characteristics

135 Figure 4 illustrates the relationship between the accuracy of modelled routes and GPS tracks  
 136 and the distribution of children's distance to school. This visual representation offers valuable  
 137 insights into whether children residing closer to school tend to exhibit higher accuracy



**Figure 3** A: Comparing the accuracy of the routing engines to GPS tracks and modelled routes. B: Cumulative line plot for each group among the 227 children. The x-axis percentage shows the error rate between GPS tracks and provides a cumulative error rate as the x-axis increases.

138 compared to those living farther away. It also enables us to explore potential correlations  
 139 between distance and factors such as gender (Figure 4A) or socioeconomic status (Figure 4B).

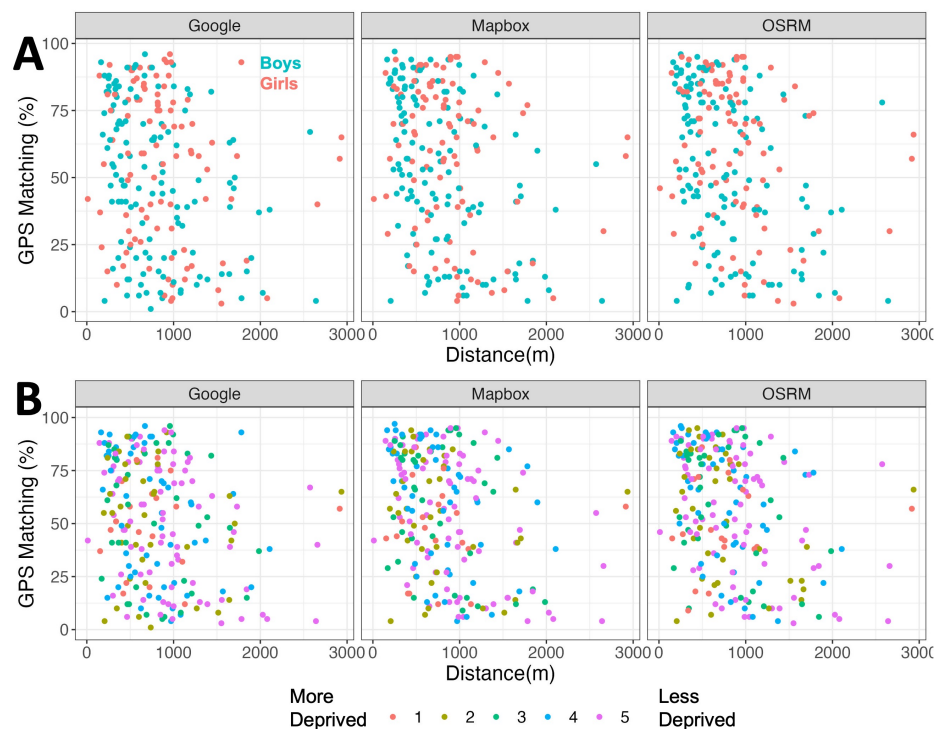
140 Our analysis, based on a sample of 227 children, revealed that among those with distances  
 141 to school under 1km, over 60 of them achieved a remarkable accuracy rate of 75% in relation  
 142 to the GPS tracks. Interestingly, we did not observe any discernible systematic differences  
 143 between genders or across SIMD groups. Despite the fact that the sample size was skewed  
 144 towards wealthier children, these findings provide strong evidence to confidently conclude  
 145 that there are no systematic disparities in GPS accuracy based on gender or socioeconomic  
 146 groups.

## 147 4 Conclusion

148 In our study, we conducted a comprehensive analysis to compare the accuracy of GPS tracks  
 149 between home and school, employing three route estimation engines: Google Maps, Mapbox,  
 150 and OSRM. The results showed that OSRM had the highest accuracy of 56%, which did not  
 151 show a meaningful difference from the other two engines in the overall context. However, it is  
 152 important to note that the accuracy of GPS tracks varied on an individual basis, influenced by  
 153 factors such as the complexity of the built environment and the availability of neighbourhood  
 154 amenities such as parks. Furthermore, our analysis demonstrated that the errors produced  
 155 by these engines had no important association with gender or socioeconomic status, and only  
 156 a weak relationship with the distance to school. These findings are particularly reassuring as  
 157 they suggest that potential biases do not arise when utilising the aforementioned navigation  
 158 tools. The accuracy of these platforms remains consistent regardless of socioeconomic status,  
 159 indicating that the accuracy does not vary based on whether the child is from a disadvantaged  
 160 background or not.

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■ **Figure 4** Both scatter plots illustrate the accuracy between modelled routes and GPS tracks based on the distance to school. The upper plot (A) shows the difference between boys and girls and the bottom plot (B) shows the difference based on the child's socioeconomic status. In summary, there is no discernible pattern regarding the distance to school among different genders or socioeconomic groups.

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