

Characteristic Time in Highly Motivated Movements of Children and Adults Through Bottlenecks

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1 Characteristic time in highly motivated movements of children
2 and adults through bottlenecks

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Highlights

- We analyze the bottleneck flow of preschool children in a laboratory experiment.
 - Motion activation time and relaxation time are analyzed to measure the motion activation ability and acceleration ability of preschool children and adults.
 - Arch-like density distributions are observed both for highly motivated children and adults.

Abstract:

Current codes for fire protection of buildings are mainly based on the movement of adults and neglect the movement characteristic of pre-school children. Having a profound comprehension of the difference between children and adults passing bottlenecks is of great help to improve the safety levels of preschool children. This paper presents an experimental study on the bottleneck flow of pre-school children in a room. The movement characteristics of children's and adults' bottleneck flow are investigated with two macroscopic properties: density and speed profiles as well as microscopic characteristic time: motion activation time, relaxation time, exit travel time and headway time. Arch-like density distributions are observed both for highly motivated children and adults, while the distance between the peak density region and the exit location is shorter for children and longer for adults. Children's movement is less flexible manifested as longer motion activation time and longer relaxation time compared to that of adults. The findings from this study could enhance the understanding of crowd dynamics among the children population and provide supports for the scientific building design for children's facilities.

Keywords: traffic and crowd dynamics; bottleneck flow; pre-school children evacuation; characteristic time

1. Introduction

Children are a common sight in kindergartens and public places like museums, shopping malls and amusement parks. A sad but recurring reminder of the importance of children's movement studies is severe accidents such as the 2018 Kemerovo fire in Russia ¹, the 2001 Nanchang Nursery Fire in China ², and the 1999 Sealand Youth Training Center Fire in South Korea ³. With the expanded coverage of preschool education ⁴ and children's play places, children are not always under one-on-one supervision. They have to move in groups under the command of tutors or safety staff in emergencies. However, current codes for fire protection design of the building are mainly based on the movement characteristics of adults and there are few considerations on that of pre-school children. To design comfortable and safe infrastructures for children, it is urgent to have a better understanding and quantification on children's

1 evacuation characteristics.

2 Bottleneck as a common geometry in many pedestrian infrastructures often restricts the
3 pedestrian flow ⁴⁻¹⁰ and the arch-like distribution of pedestrians around an exit are
4 observed both in adults and children groups when they are in a rush ^{4,8,10}. It is reported
5 that the peak density region locates in the front of the bottleneck and the distance to the
6 entrance is related to the type of pedestrians (running pre-school children: 0.3 m,
7 walking adults: 1.0 m) ^{4,11}. However, we have few understandings on the density
8 distribution difference of children and adults in highly motivated running conditions.
9 Besides, crowd velocity is a key factor influencing the pedestrian flow. Walking speeds
10 of pre-school children are smaller than that of pupils¹² and adults ¹³, while preschool
11 children tend to run ¹² and they move faster than adults at the same density ¹⁴ in
12 evacuation drills. Focusing on the movement of adults, the higher the speed is, the more
13 likely the movement direction pointing to the exit is based on the previous empirical
14 study ⁸. Considering previous velocity characteristics, both pedestrian type (adults or
15 children) and movement motivation (walking or running) show an impact on the
16 velocity of pedestrians. This inspires us to further quantify the difference of the velocity
17 (both the value and the direction) between highly-motivated preschool children and
18 adults passing bottlenecks.

19 In addition to the above macro factors influencing pedestrian's movement,
20 characteristic time as the factor depicting the microscopic motion characteristics of
21 pedestrians are more susceptible to neglect. Relaxation time is defined to represent the
22 capability of an individual to adjust the velocity ¹⁰ and empirical studies quantify it
23 around 0.6 s ^{15,16} in walking conditions. With the increasing angular difference in
24 turning movement, relaxation time shows a growth trend ¹⁵. However, as previous
25 researches about relaxation time focus on the walking conditions, we redefine the
26 relaxation time to quantify the speed adjustment ability for highly motivated pedestrians
27 during the running condition and compare the difference between that of children and
28 adults.

29 Besides the whole movement process, the start-up stage of movements is investigated
30 to study the reaction ability of pedestrians. The pre-evacuation time is the time interval
31 from the given alarm to the first deliberate evacuation movement. Previous studies point
32 out that preschool children spend longer pre-evacuation time compared to that of adults
33 ^{17,18}. This phenomenon inspires us to define a new characteristic time - motion
34 activation time to quantify the capacity of pedestrians to start moving when they have
35 enough space to move.

36 Moreover, as people tend to gather around the exit and form high-density regions in
37 previous bottleneck experiments ^{4,8,11,19}, to quantify the magnitude of clogging events,
38 time headway, the time interval of two consecutive pedestrians passing through exits,
39 are investigated. Previous studies propose that higher competition leads to longer time
40 headway both for children and for adults ^{4,20}. However, there exists a great difference
41 in movement motivation of previous researches ^{4,20}, which doubts us the difference of
42 headway time between children and adults both in similar high motivation. Considering
43 this, we aim to study the distribution of headway time of highly motivated children and
44 adults.

1 To date, there is still a lack of highly motivated children's movement characteristics
2 based on a controlled experiment. Besides, current researches mainly focus on the
3 macroscopic properties (like density, speed, and flow), the microscopic properties of
4 children are less examined. Moreover, a quantitative comparison of movement
5 characteristics between highly-motivated children and adults passing bottlenecks is still
6 absent. Therefore, to narrow this research gap, it is important to glean insights from the
7 bottleneck flow characteristics of children and get the difference between that of adults.

8

9 In this study, a laboratory-controlled bottleneck experiment in a kindergarten is carried
10 out to understand the movement and behavioral characteristics of children. Density and
11 velocity describe the children's movements and micro-motion characteristics are
12 evaluated from the beginning to the end of the movement. Meanwhile, the comparison
13 study reveals the differences between that of children and adults. The main contribution
14 and novelty of our work is a direct comparison of children's and adults' characteristic
15 time discussed above during the movement process applying the empirical method.

16

17 The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In section 2, a detailed introduction of the
18 experiment and the measurement methods applied in this study are presented. Section
19 3 presents the experimental profiles of density and speed compared between children
20 and adults. Section 4 shows the characteristic time during the whole experimental
21 process compared between children and adults. The concluding remarks are made in
22 section 5.

23

24 2. Method

25 2.1 Experimental setup

26 The experiment was performed in March 2019 in a kindergarten in Hunan province in
27 China. A total of 40 pre-school children participated in the experiment and they were
28 asked to pass through an artificial room, illustrated in Fig. 1. The boundary of the
29 artificial room was built with plastic security fences (height: 0.75 m) and wooden
30 boards (size: 1.20 m x 1.00 m x 0.05 m). To avoid bruising or worse during the
31 experiment, foam materials were applied to cover the edges of the boards. Two staff
32 and several tires played the supporting roles to improve the stability of the boards,
33 avoiding being knocked over by the children. The participated children were asked to
34 leave the room quickly after hearing the command as if in a fire. As fire evacuation
35 drills are conducted in the kindergarten every year, children understood the situation
36 and the command. The participants are around 3-5 years old and the mean height and
37 weight are listed in Table. 1. Children were asked to stand in the waiting area located
38 4.00 m away from the exit and the initial density in the waiting area is 6.45 ped/m². The
39 colored hats wore by each child helped extract the trajectories after the experiment.
40 Three tutors of the kindergarten helped maintain the experimental order and organize
41 the children. They also gave instructions to the children to start each run during the
42 experiment. Children were highly motivated and tried to pass the exit quickly during
43 the whole experiment. A total of 12 sets of valid data are obtained.

44 One Sony FDR-AX100 camera (resolution: 1920 x 1080 pixels, frame rate: 25 fps)

located on the third floor recorded the whole procedure of the experiment. The trajectories were extracted semi-automatically from video recordings after calibrating the intrinsics and extrinsics of the camera by PeTrack²¹ software. All subsequent analyses are conducted based on the trajectories combining the recorded videos. No ethical concerns were mentioned in this study. Only anonymous data were used for the studies and the methodological design, data storage process, and the access authorization for data was approved by the ethics committee of the University of Science and Technology of China. We obtained the informed consent from all participants' legal guardians. All methods were performed in accordance with the relevant guidelines and regulations.

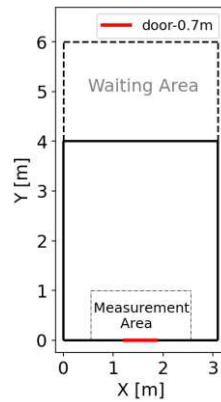


Fig. 1 The sketch of the experiment. The exit width is fixed as 0.7 m. The measurement area (2 m x 1 m) is selected to measure the time evolution of density and speed in section 3.1. To measure the movement characteristics of pedestrians, the coordinate system takes the lower-left corner as the origin point, the direction parallel to the exit as the X-axis, and the direction perpendicular to the exit as the Y-axis.

Table. 1 Basic information of participated children in this study.

	Number	Height/m	Weight/kg
Male	23	1.13±0.08	20.07±5.14
Female	17	1.08±0.08	17.74±2.75
Overall	40	1.11±0.08	19.11±4.43

2.2 Data processing method
2.2.1 Smoothed trajectories.
Due to the technical limitations, we tracked the locations of the heads of pre-school children to obtain the trajectories of participants. The heads of pedestrians were swaying when their body weight shifted from one leg to the other during movement. To eliminate the oscillations caused by the swaying heads, the trajectories are smoothed by averaging the pedestrians' space coordinate values based on Equation (1).

$$x_i = \sum_{t_0=i-12}^{t_1=i+12} x_t / 25, \quad y_i = \sum_{t_0=i-12}^{t_1=i+12} y_t / 25 \quad (1)$$

Note that (x_i, y_i) represents the original coordinates of the child at the time i frame. $i+12$ represents 12 frame after i frame. (x_i, y_i) is the mean value of 25 frame (1 s) original coordinate. To eliminate the interference of swaying on instantaneous angular velocity, we smoothed the trajectories by averaging the participants' space coordinate values

1 within 1 s.

2

3 2.2.2 Local density and local speed

4 The local density and local speed are calculated based on the Gaussian method proposed
5 in ⁹. Here we only introduce the method briefly.

6 The local density ρ at the place $\vec{r} = (x, y)$ at time t is measured as

7

$$\rho(\vec{r}, t) = \sum_j f(\vec{r}_j(t) - \vec{r}), f(\vec{r}_j(t) - \vec{r}) = \frac{1}{\pi R^2} \exp[-|\vec{r}_j(t) - \vec{r}|^2/R^2].$$

8 The local speed v at the place $\vec{r} = (x, y)$ at time t is measured as

9

$$\vec{v}(\vec{r}, t) = \frac{\sum_j \vec{v}_j f(\vec{r}_j(t) - \vec{r})}{\sum_j f(\vec{r}_j(t) - \vec{r})}.$$

10 R is a measurement parameter. The greater R is, the greater the effective measurement
11 radius is.

12

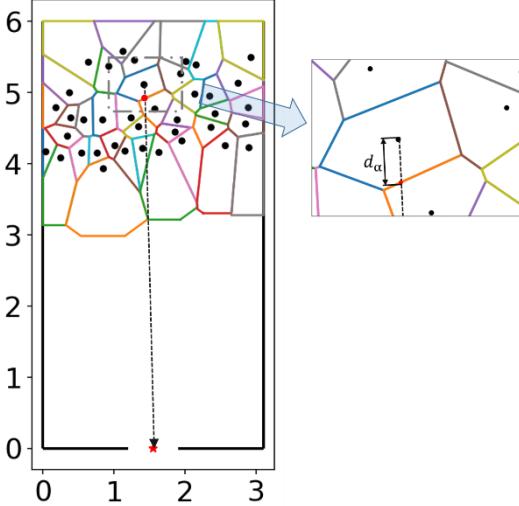
13 2.2.3 Motion activation time

14 We define the motion activation time t_{MA} to measure the time taken from having enough
15 space to start moving. The motion activation time t_{MA} is defined as the Equation (2).

$$\begin{aligned} d_m(t) &= \sqrt{(x_t - x_0)^2 + (y_t - y_0)^2} \\ \exists t, s.t. d_m(t) > d_{mth} &\Rightarrow t_{ma} = t \\ \delta d_\alpha(t) &= d_a(t) - d_{a_0} \\ \exists t, s.t. \delta d_\alpha(t) > d_{ath} &\Rightarrow t_a = t \\ t_{MA} &= t_m - t_a \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

16 t_{MA} represents the motion activation time defined in this study. t_m represents the time when the
17 Euclidean distance d_m between the current position (x_t, y_t) to the initial position (x_0, y_0) exceeds a
18 value d_{mth} . d_{a_0} represents the initial spatial distance. t_{ath} represents the time when the spatial
19 distance d_α increases by a certain value d_{ath} . Here, based on the step length of adults ²², d_{mth} is
20 set as 0.2 m and d_{ath} is set as 0.1 m for students. Combined the relation between the shoulder
21 width of pre-school children and that of students (see Appendix A for the data of shoulder width),
22 d_{mth} is set as 0.13 m for pre-school children and d_{ath} is set as 0.065 m for pre-school children in
23 this study.

24 The spatial distance is measured based on the Voronoi Diagram based method ²³.
25 JPSReport platform (<http://www.jupedsim.org/jpsreport/>) is applied to obtain the
26 Voronoi Diagram coordinate of each pedestrian per frame. The available distance d_{ath}
27 is calculated based on the obtained data. See Fig. 2 for the detailed description.



1

2 Fig. 2 Definition of motion activation time calculation method. Black points represent the positions
 3 of each pedestrian in the first frame. Voronoi diagrams represent the space each pedestrian takes up
 4 at this time. The red star represents the middle point of the exit and we assume that each pedestrian
 5 moves towards the target at the beginning of the experiment. The red point represents the
 6 intersection between the moving target and the boundary of the pedestrian's occupied space. The
 7 distance d_α between the pedestrian position and the intersection represents the personal available
 8 distance. d_m represents the movement distance calculated by the coordinate of the pedestrian.
 9 When $d_m > d_{mth}$, the time is set as the moving time t_m . When $d_\alpha > d_{\alpha_threshold}$, the time is set
 10 as the available movement time t_a . Motion activation time is obtained by $t_{MA} = t_m - t_a$ (See
 11 Equation 2).

12

13 2.2.4 Relaxation time

14 To measure the acceleration ability of pedestrians, relaxation time t_{re} is defined as
 15 Equation (3).

16 For each pedestrian,

$$\delta v(t) = v_{t+1} - v_t$$

$$\exists t_1, t_2, s.t. \sum_{t=t_1}^{t_2} \delta v(t) \geq 0.1 \Rightarrow t_{re} = t_2 - t_1 \quad (3)$$

17 t_{re} represents the relaxation time defined in this work. $\delta v(t)$ represents the speed difference by
 18 subtracting the speed of consecutive two frames. v_{t+1} for the speed at $(t+1)$ frame and v_t for the
 19 speed at the time t frame. By adding up $\delta v(t)$ for $(t_2 - t_1)$ frames, if the cumulative sum exceeds a
 20 threshold, the time required is counted as relaxation time. In this study, the threshold is set as 0.1
 21 m/s. Only the first time the speed increment exceeds the threshold is counted as the relaxation time.
 22 In this definition, the acceleration time should be continuous. If the deceleration behavior appears
 23 and interrupts the acceleration process, the corresponding data point is omitted. For example, while
 24 the cumulative sum is smaller than the threshold, if the $\delta v(t)$ is smaller than 0, the accumulation
 25 is interrupted.

26

27 2.2.4 Travel time

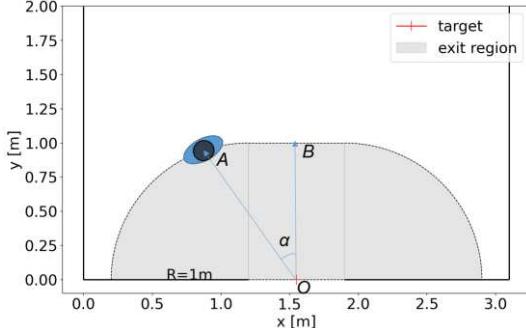


Fig. 3 Definition of exit region and incident angle in pre-school children's experiment. The exit region is consisted of a rectangle and two 1/4 circles (grey regions). The angle α between the vector \overrightarrow{OA} and vector \overrightarrow{OB} represents the incident angle of pedestrians. The angle between \overrightarrow{OA} and \overrightarrow{OB} is defined as incident angle. Point A represents the entering exit region position of the pedestrian.

The exit region is defined to measure the movement characteristics near the exit. Fig. 3 shows the definition of the exit region. To make the distance between the pedestrian's entering position to the exit location similar, the radius of the exit region is R , so the exit region consists of two 1/4 circles with a radius of R and a rectangle ($R \times b$). The R in pre-school children's experiment is set as 1 m and the R of adults' experiment is 1.5 m based on the ratio of mean shoulder breadth (see Appendix A for the data of shoulder width).

To investigate the traffic efficiency, travel time tt_{exit} inside the exit region is defined as the time range from the first time a pedestrian entering the exit region to the time when the pedestrian passes the exit. Incident angle α is defined to quantify the impact of the initial position in the process of passing the exit region. The Voronoi density inside the exit region when a pedestrian enters the exit region is considered to measure its influence on the passage efficiency.

3. Experimental profiles

In this section, macroscopic parameters of movement characteristics are compared between pre-school children and adults. The temporal and spatial evolution of density and velocity are considered. The 1.05 m width bottleneck experiment of students is chosen to compare with that of pre-school children's experiment. See Appendix A for the selection reason.

3.1 Time profiles of density and speed

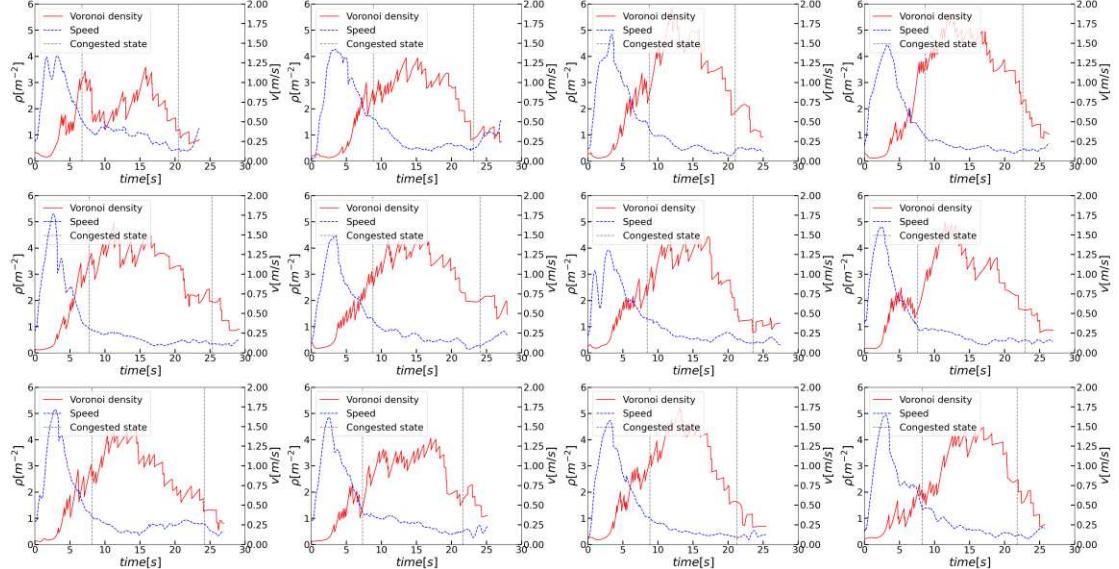


Fig. 4 Time profiles of density and speed in the measurement area. Top row: r1, r2, r3, r4; middle row: r5, r6, r7, r8; bottom row: r9, r10, r11, r12. Red solid lines represent the time profiles of density and blue dashed lines represent the time profiles of speed. The range between grey dashed lines represent the selected congested state.

JPSReport (<http://www.jupedsim.org/jpsreport/>) is applied to obtain the time evolution of Voronoi density and speed in the measurement area (see Fig. 1 for the definition) as shown in Fig. 4. The speed in the measurement area reaches up to 1.50 m/s when the first few children pass the exit. When most of the children reach and gather around the exit, the speeds decrease sharply and fluctuate around 0.25 m/s. Meanwhile, the density increases to 4 ped/m² and remains at a high level for about 10 s. With time, the children gathering around the exit dissipate, resulting in the decreasing density.

To avoid the influence of the transient state on the dynamics of pedestrian experiments, it is necessary to select the congested state of the pedestrian flow. Besides, to avoid the non-reproducible characteristic of the manual selection process, the method defined in ²⁴ is applied to detect the congested state in the bottleneck experiment automatically. The results of the congested state are shown in Table. 2. See Appendix B for the range of density and speed in the congested state.

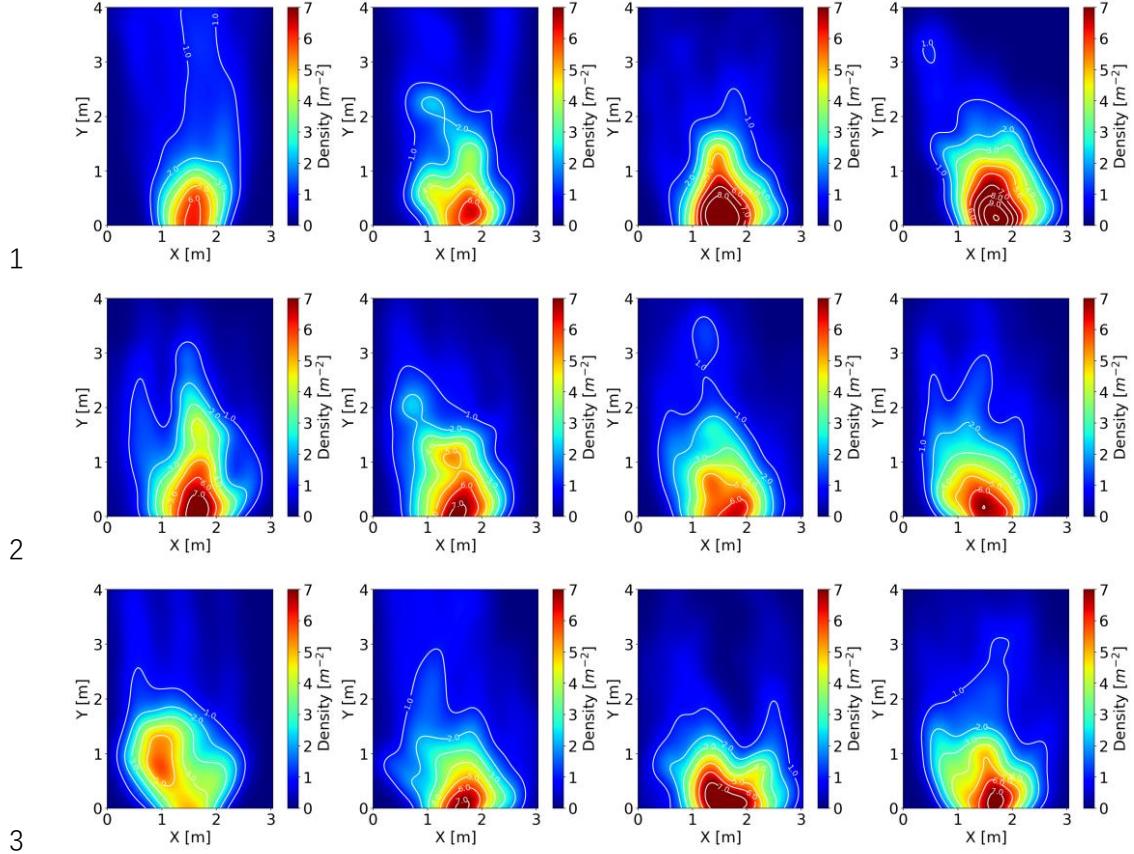
Table. 2 Time range of congested state in each run.

Run	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Start/frame	167	221	218	216	193	219	211	189	203	182	221	206
End/frame	511	579	525	564	631	601	589	573	604	514	531	544

FPS = 25 frame/s. Note that the congested state is applied in sections 3.2 and 3.3.

3.2 Density profiles

Density is chosen to measure the degree of a crowd gathering in the experiment during the congested state. The local density calculation method is introduced briefly in section 2.2.2.



4 Fig. 5 Density profiles during the congested stage in this study. Top row: r1, r2, r3, r4; middle row:
5 r5, r6, r7, r8; bottom row: r9, r10, r11, r12. Color for the density value and white lines for density
6 contours. Noted that in r9, the high-density region locates far from the exit, which is different from
7 other experimental runs. Based on the experimental videos, the phenomenon is due to several
8 children start playing in the region and fail to pass the exit quickly in this experimental run.

9 Applying the method mentioned above, the density profiles during the congested state
10 are plotted in Fig. 5. It is observed that the distributions of density are inhomogeneous
11 over space and we observe the gradual change from high density to low density. Similar
12 to the previous study of children passing through the bottleneck⁴, the congested areas
13 in front of the exit display an arch-like distribution, and the shape of the peak density
14 region is similar to ellipses, whereas the peak density reaches about 7 ped/m² in this
15 study which is a bit smaller than the value 8 ped/m² in the previous study⁴. Moreover,
16 the peak density locates in the middle of the exit, which is closer to the bottleneck
17 entrance compared to the previous study⁴. Focusing on the high motivated adults in the
18 1.05 m width bottleneck experiment in⁸, the density in the front of the exit region is
19 arch-like distribution and the peak density reaches 6 ped/m² and locates 0.5 m away
20 from the exit entrance. However, compared to the low motivated adults^{4,11}, both in 1.0
21 m width and 1.1 m width bottleneck experiment (bottleneck length is 4.0 m), the
22 distribution of density is teardrop-shaped like and the peak density locates 1.0 m away
23 in front of the bottleneck entrance.

24 Ultimately, the density distribution around the exit is arch-like for high motivated
25 pedestrian despite the children or adults and teardrop-like for low motivated adults. The
26 peak density appears in the middle and the front of the exit for the bottleneck without

length and with length, respectively. Besides, we suspect that increasing bottleneck length has an effect of keeping the peak density region away from the bottleneck entrance. The further empirical study is needed to verify the assumption.

3.3 Velocity profiles

We further study the distribution of speed in the congested state (the congested state). The speed profiles are calculated based on the method mentioned in section 2.2.2 and shown in Fig. 6 and Fig. 7. The velocity direction is calculated as Equation (4).

$$e_{x_t} = \frac{(x_{t+12} - x_{t-12})/25.0}{N}, e_{y_t} = \frac{(y_{t+12} - y_{t-12})/25.0}{N}, N = \sqrt{v_{x_t}^2 + v_{y_t}^2} \quad (4)$$

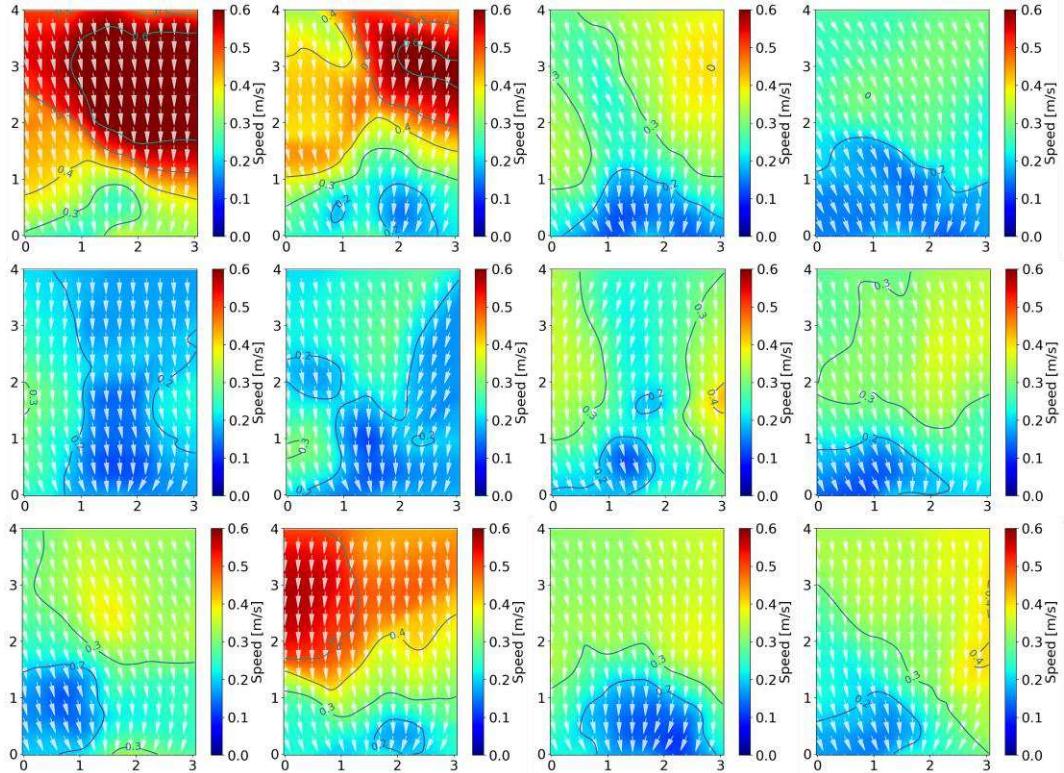


Fig. 6. Velocity profiles during the congested stage in this study. Top row: r1, r2, r3, r4; middle row: r5, r6, r7, r8; bottom row: r9, r10, r11, r12. The color represents the value of the velocity and the white arrows represent the direction of the velocity. The dark blue lines represent the speed contours.

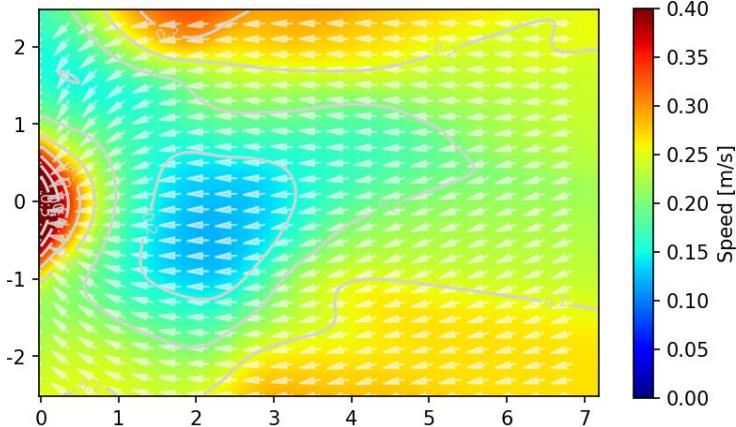
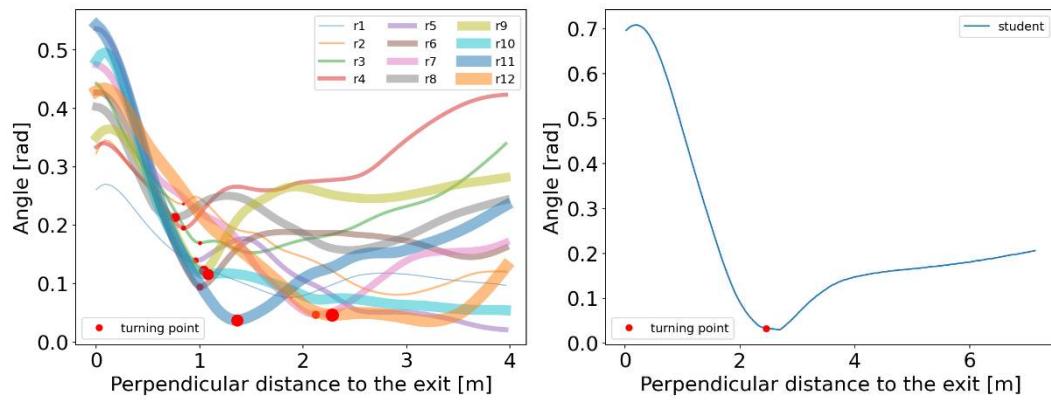


Fig. 7. Velocity profiles during the congested state for highly motivated students' bottleneck

1 experiment ($b=1.05$ m)⁸. Color for the speed value, white arrows for the speed directions, and grey
 2 lines for speed contours. Note that the bottleneck length (1.9 m) is omitted to better compare with
 3 the velocity map of children's experiments, as we focus on the velocity inside the artificial room.
 4 In the children's experiments, the speed in the front of the exit is smaller than that in
 5 other regions and the speed is around 0.1 m/s due to the congestion around the exit.
 6 Similarly, in students' velocity profiles, the value of the lowest speed region is also
 7 around 0.1 m/s. However, the location of the lowest speed region is near the exit in the
 8 children's experiment while the speed region locates around 2 m away from the
 9 bottleneck entrance in the students' experiment. Unlike children, the students accelerate
 10 when they reach near the bottleneck entrance (about 0.5 m in front of the exit), forming
 11 an arch-like higher speed distribution. The phenomenon is influenced by the peak
 12 density region locating in the front of the bottleneck entrance described in section 3.2.
 13



14 Fig. 8 Relation between the movement direction and the distance perpendicular to the exit in
 15 children's (Left) and students' (Right) experiment. The colored lines represent the evolution of
 16 movement direction with the perpendicular distance. The red circles represent that pedestrians
 17 change their movement directions from the relatively smooth variation state to the rapid state. In the
 18 Left figure, to distinguish the experimental run, the linewidth and the size of the circles are adjusted.
 19
 20

$$\text{angle} = \arctan(v_j/v_i) \quad (5)$$

21 v_i and v_j represent the component of the velocity in the direction perpendicular and
 22 parallel to the exit, respectively.

23 To quantify the movement direction of pedestrians, the angle of movement direction is
 24 defined as Equation (5). Fig. 8 shows that the moving direction keeps a relatively
 25 smaller value at the beginning of the experiment and increases to higher values when
 26 the perpendicular distance to the exit is smaller than a threshold value. For children, the
 27 median and mean value of the threshold are 1.02 m and 1.26 m, combined with all
 28 experimental runs. However, for students, they change their directions towards the exit
 29 at 2.46 m distance perpendicular to the exit, which is earlier than that of children.
 30 Interestingly, combined with the threshold value and the density profiles in Fig. 5, we
 31 observe that the threshold value obtained in this section corresponds to the 5 ped/m²
 32 region both for children and for adults. The phenomenon indicates that pedestrians
 33 (both children and adults) choose to decrease the perpendicular distance to the exit at
 34 first and start to move directly to the exit when they reach the high-density region (about

1 5 ped/m²).

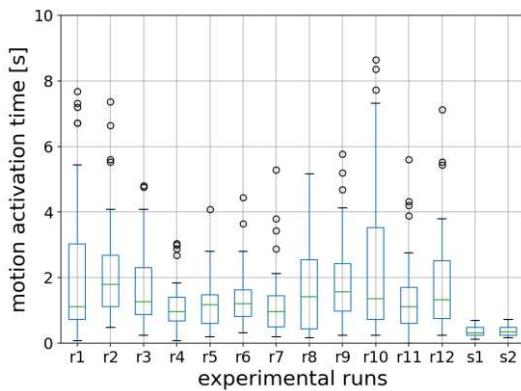
2

3 4. Characteristic time

4 4.1 Motion activation time

5 To measure the motion activation ability of pedestrians, the time taken from having
6 enough space to start moving is defined as motion activation time t_{MA} and computed for
7 each pedestrian in each experimental run applying the method presented in section 2.2.3

8 4.1.1 Distribution



9

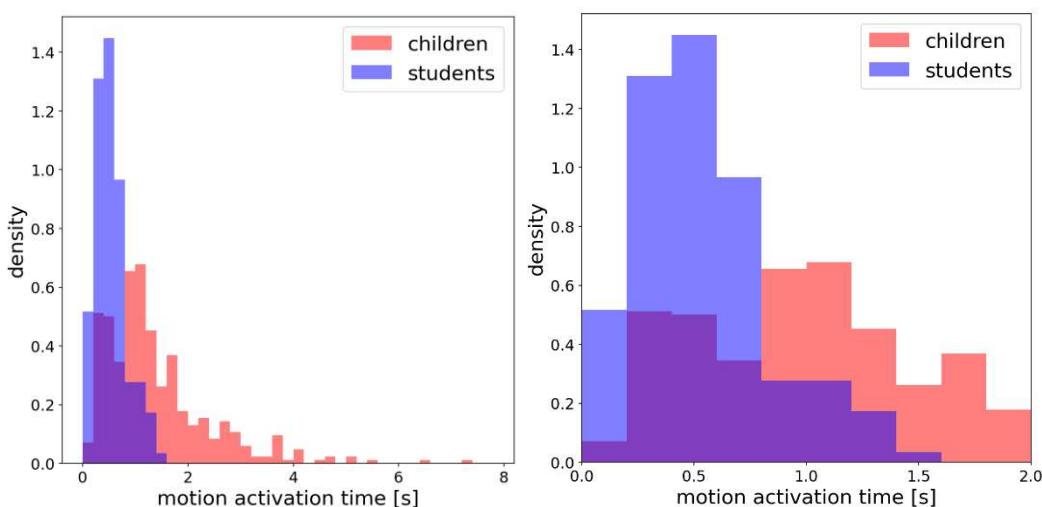
10 Fig. 9 The distribution of motion activation time of children and university students in different
11 experimental runs. r for the experimental run of children's experiment and s for that of students'.
12 The circles represent the outliers.

13

14 Fig. 9 shows the overall distribution of motion activation time of children and students
15 in each experimental run. Scheffe's test is applied to analyze the difference between
16 multiple groups of motion activation time. The results show that there is no significant
17 difference between different runs, which indicates that the repetitions of the experiment
18 show no significant improvement in reducing the motion activation time of children in
19 this study, which is contrary to presupposition. Besides, we observe that children spend
20 more time (around 1 s) to move compared to of adults (around 0.3 s).

21

22

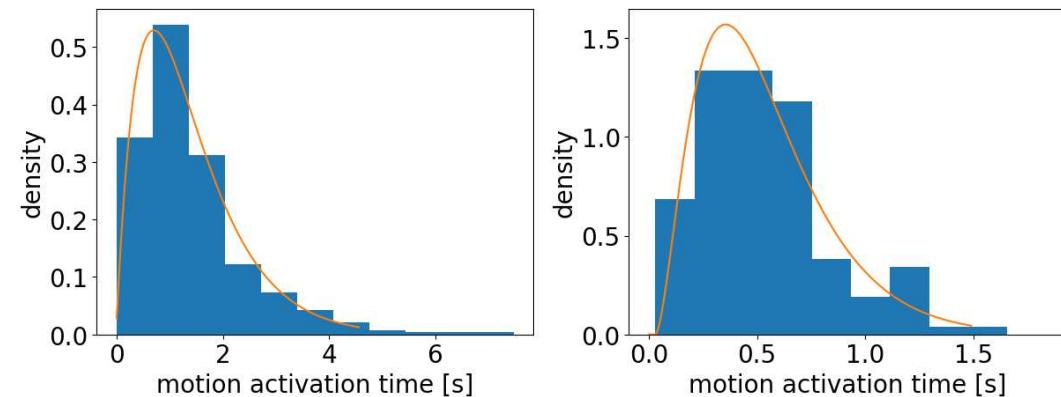


23

1 Fig. 10 Left: Probability density histogram of motion activation time of children (blue) and adults
 2 (red) overall. Right: Detailed histogram of motion activation time in the range of 0 – 2 s. The bin
 3 size is set as 0.2 s.

4
 5 To obtain the distribution pattern of the motion activation time, the outliers are removed
 6 to exclude the effects. Fig. 10 shows the probability density histogram of children and
 7 students. The skewness for children and students is 1.81 and 0.91, respectively. The
 8 motion activation time is right-skewed both for children and for students. The kurtosis
 9 of children and students is 4.91 and 0.52, respectively. The data sets of children with
 10 higher kurtosis imply that it tends to have heavy tails or outliers, compared to that of
 11 students. This indicates that children are more likely to have longer motion activation
 12 time, compared to that of students. With the similar experimental setup and the same
 13 vocal signal, we infer that the longer motion activation time of children is mainly due
 14 to the easily distracted preschool children compared that of students. The further
 15 empirical study is needed to verify the assumption.

16 As most data distribute between 0 – 2 s, Fig. 10 right is plotted to detailed analyze the
 17 difference between the motion activation time of children and adults. The motion
 18 activation time of students concentrated around 0.2 – 0.4 s, while the children’s data
 19 distribute much scattered in the range of 0.2 – 1.2 s. The motion activation time of
 20 students is rather concentrated compared to that of children. The individual difference
 21 of motion activation time between students is smaller than that of children.



24
 25 Fig. 11 Probability density function (PDF) of the motion activation time for children (left) and
 26 students (right). Erlang distribution fits the data well.

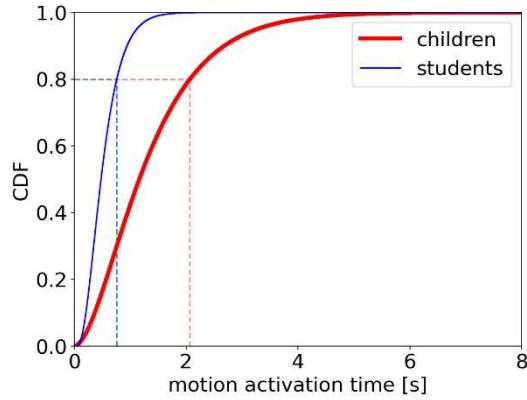
27 Based on the above analysis, Erlang distribution is applied to fit the data. The
 28 probability distribution function of Erlang distribution is

$$29 \quad f(x; k; \mu) = \frac{x^{k-1} e^{-\frac{x}{\mu}}}{\mu^k (k-1)!} \quad \text{for } x, \mu \geq 0.$$

30 The fitting results are shown in Table 3. Erlang distribution fits well both for children’s
 31 data and for students’ data (see Fig. 11). Based on the fitting results, the probability
 32 density of motion activation time is single-peak distributed both for children and for
 33 adults. The values of peak density are 0.53 and 1.57 and the corresponding motion
 34 activation time is 0.70 s and 0.36 s for children and students, respectively.

1 Table. 3 Fitting results of the distribution of motion activation time of children and students.

	k	μ	$Adj.R^2$
Children	2.057	0.679	0.961
Students	2.797	0.181	0.921

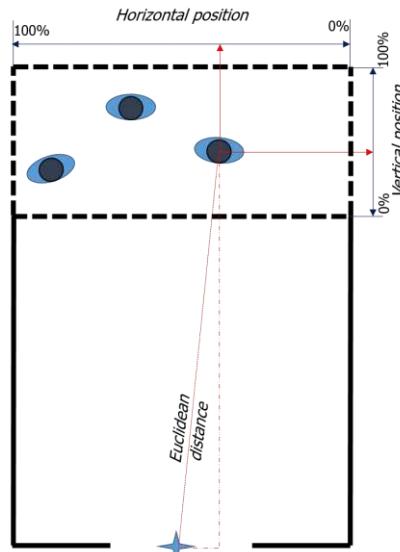


2 Fig. 12 Cumulative distribution function of motion activation time of children (red thick line) and
3 students (blue fine line).

4 Cumulative distribution function (CDF) is investigated to better obtain the distribution
5 of motion activation time (Fig. 12). The escalating trend of students is more rapidly
6 compared to that of children. 80% of children and students have a motion activation
7 time lower than 2.07 s and 0.76 s, respectively. The above analyses indicate that the
8 motion activation time of children is obviously higher than that of students and the
9 distribution of motion activation time is scattered of children and concentrated of
10 students.

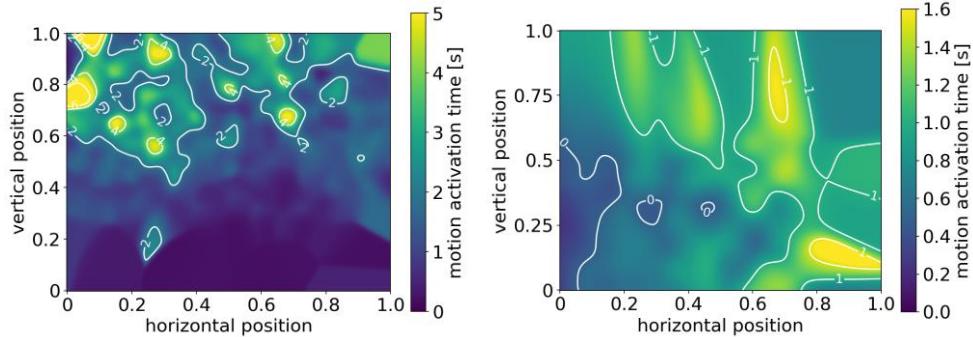
12 4.1.2 Influence of initial position

13 Besides the distribution, the influencing factors on the motion activation time are
14 further investigated. Initial positions of pedestrians in the crowd are considered and the
15 position is divided into horizontal and vertical position to quantify their influence on
16 the motion activation time. The horizontal and vertical position is calculated based on
17 the definition shown in Fig. 13.

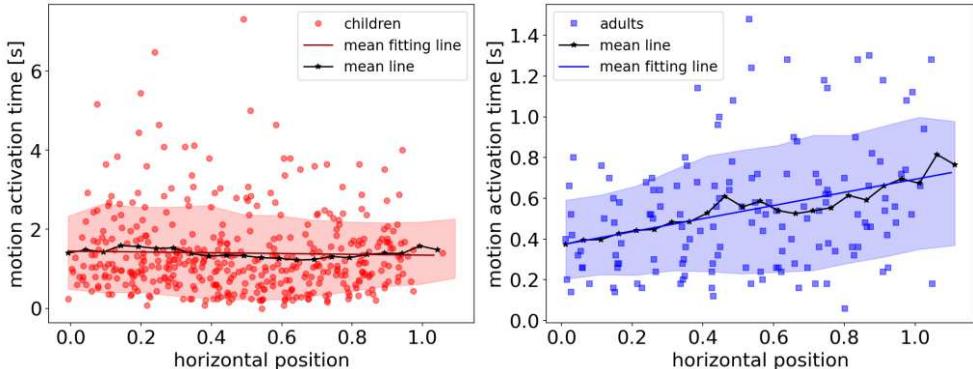


1 Fig. 13 Definition of vertical and horizontal position. The blue star represents the middle point of
 2 the exit. Pedestrian stand in the waiting area (dashed area) initially, waiting for the vocal signal to
 3 start the experiment. The values of the intersections of solid red lines and light blue axes are the
 4 vertical and horizontal positions of the pedestrian.

5



6



7

8 Fig. 14 The influence of horizontal and vertical position on the motion activation time of pre-school
 9 children (red points) and adults (blue squares). Top row: spatial distribution in children's (left) and
 10 adults' (right) experiment. Middle row: for the horizontal position. Bottom row: for vertical position.
 11 Left column: for pre-school children. Right column: for adults. The black stars are the mean values
 12 of horizontal/vertical position for each bin and the colored bands give the standard error. The mean
 13 data (black stars) are obtained as the result of a vertical binning procedure²⁵ over a large number of
 14 measurements. The bin size is set as 0.05. The black lines highlight the mean data trend and the
 15 red/blue lines show the linear fitting results. Note that some points are located beyond 100%, which
 16 is due to that some pedestrians stand outside the waiting area.

17 Based on Fig. 14 top rows, we observe that the motion activation time shows an

1 increasing trend with the increasing vertical position while no obvious trend with the
 2 increasing horizontal position. To test the hypothesis, mean data of vertical binning
 3 procedure²⁵ are calculated and linear regression fitting is applied on the mean data. The
 4 fitting results are shown in Table. 4 and Fig. 14 middle and bottom row. The fitting
 5 results show that there is a linear relation between motion activation time and vertical
 6 position. However, there is no obvious relation between motion activation time and
 7 horizontal position based on the linear regression method.

8 To verify this, the Pearson correlation method is applied to test the relation between
 9 motion activation time and horizontal/vertical position, and the results are shown in
 10 Table. 5. Between motion activation time and horizontal position, there is no correlation
 11 for that of children and weak correlation for that of students. However, between motion
 12 activation time and vertical distance, there is a moderate correlation for that of children
 13 and a strong correlation for that of students. Except for the correlation between the
 14 horizontal position and motion activation time of children, other correlation results are
 15 all significant (see Sig. in Table. 5). The correlation results verify the fitting result in
 16 Fig. 14. Vertical distance influences the motion activation time both for children and
 17 for adults, while horizontal distance shows no obvious impact.

18 Based on the above discussion, we obtain that the vertical position shows a significant
 19 impact on the motion activation time both for children and for students. Focusing on
 20 the fitting slope and Fig. 14, children's motion activation time is more sensitive to the
 21 vertical position compared to that of students. Children who stand in the front of the
 22 crowds react much quickly compared to the children in the back, while the phenomenon
 23 is less obvious for students.

24

25 Table. 4 Linear regression fitting results of the relation between horizontal/vertical position to the
 26 motion activation time of children and students.

Linear regression		Scatter			Mean		
		<i>k</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>k</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Horizontal distance	Children	-0.21	1.48	0.00	-0.21	1.49	0.31
	Students	0.30	0.38	0.08	0.31	0.38	0.83
Vertical distance	Children	1.90	0.30	0.15	1.77	0.31	0.91
	Students	0.89	0.11	0.70	0.94	0.10	0.94

27

28 Table. 5 Correlation results between motion activation time and horizontal/vertical position of
 29 children and students.

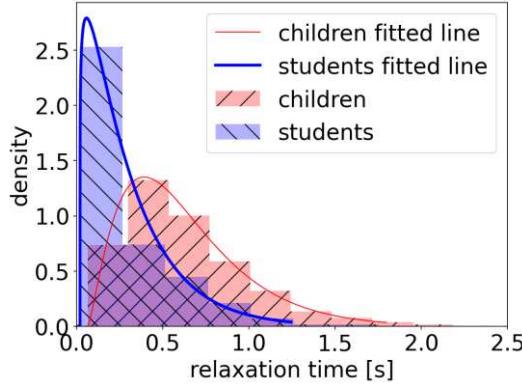
		Children		Students	
		Horizontal position	Vertical position	Horizontal position	Vertical position
Motion activation Time	correlation coefficient	-0.054	0.390	0.292	0.839
	Sig.(two-tailed)	0.27	1.11E-16*	0.00036*	1.35E-39*

30 *: at 0.01 level (two-tailed), the result is significant.

1
2 4.2 Relaxation time

3 Relaxation time is investigated to measure the speed adjustment capability of children
4 and students during the whole experiment. The relaxation time is defined as the time
5 taken to increase speed by 0.1 m/s. See section 2.2.4 for a detailed definition. The
6 distribution and impact factors are considered in this section.

7 4.2.1 Distribution



8
9 Fig. 15 Probability density function (PDF) of the relaxation time for children (red) and students
10 (blue). An Erlang distribution fits the data well.

11
12 Table. 6 Fitting results of the distribution of relaxation time of children and students.

	k	μ	$Adj.R^2$
Children	2.39	0.24	0.998
Students	1.15	0.25	0.974

13
14 Applying the method described in section 2.2.4, we obtain the probability density
15 distribution of the relaxation time of children and students (Fig. 15). The relaxation time
16 of students is smaller than that of children, indicating that students spend less time to
17 accelerate compared to that of children. As the experimental setup is similar, we deduce
18 that the difference in the relaxation time between children and students is mainly due
19 to the immature physical properties of children.

20
21 The skewness for children and students is 1.15 and 1.89, respectively. The relaxation
22 time is right-skewed both for children and for students. The kurtosis of children and
23 students is 1.54 and 4.60, respectively. The data sets of students with higher kurtosis
24 imply that it tends to have heavy tails or outliers. The distributions of children adults
25 are not a normal distribution. Erlang distribution is applied to fit the data. The fitting
26 results are listed in Table. 6. Erlang distribution fits the data well and the probability
27 density is single-peak distributed, both for children and students. The values of peak
28 density are 1.35 and 2.79 and the corresponding relaxation time is 0.39 s and 0.06 s for
29 children and students, respectively. This indicates that a large proportion of students
30 could adjust their speed by 0.1 m/s in 0.06 s, while a large percentage of children have
31 to spend 0.39 s to improve the same speed. We should notice that the speed range is 0-
2 m/s for children and 0-4 m/s for adults.

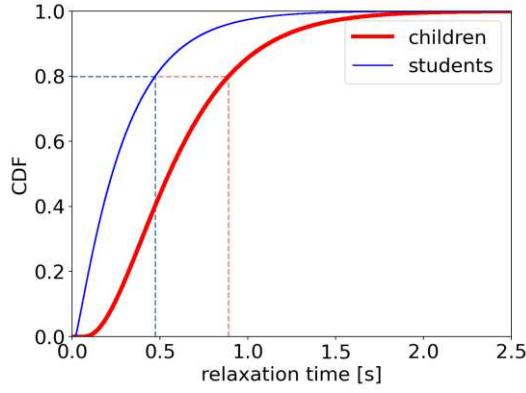


Fig. 16 Cumulative distribution function of relaxation time of children (red thick line) and students (blue fine line).

Besides the PDF of the relaxation time, cumulative distribution function (CDF) is investigated to better obtain the distribution of relaxation time as shown in Fig. 16. The escalating trend of students is more rapidly compared to that of children. 80% of students could adjust their speed by improving 0.1 m/s in 0.47 s, while 80% of children have to spend 0.89 s to improve the same speed. The above analyses indicate that the students adjust their speeds more quickly compared to that of children.

4.2.2 Impact of initial speed on the relaxation time

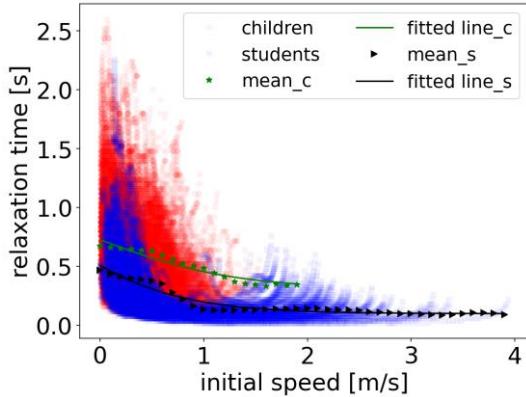


Fig. 17 The influence of initial speed on the relaxation time of children (red circles) and students (blue circles). The green stars and black triangles represent the mean data of children and students by applying vertical binning procedure²⁵, respectively. The bin size is set as 0.1 m/s. The green and black lines highlight the fitting results of children and students, respectively.

Table. 7 Fitting results of the relation between relaxation time and initial speed of children and students.

	a	b	c	D	Adj.R ²
children	0.86	1.52	-0.04	0.31	0.92
students	1.54	1.65	-0.62	0.10	0.93

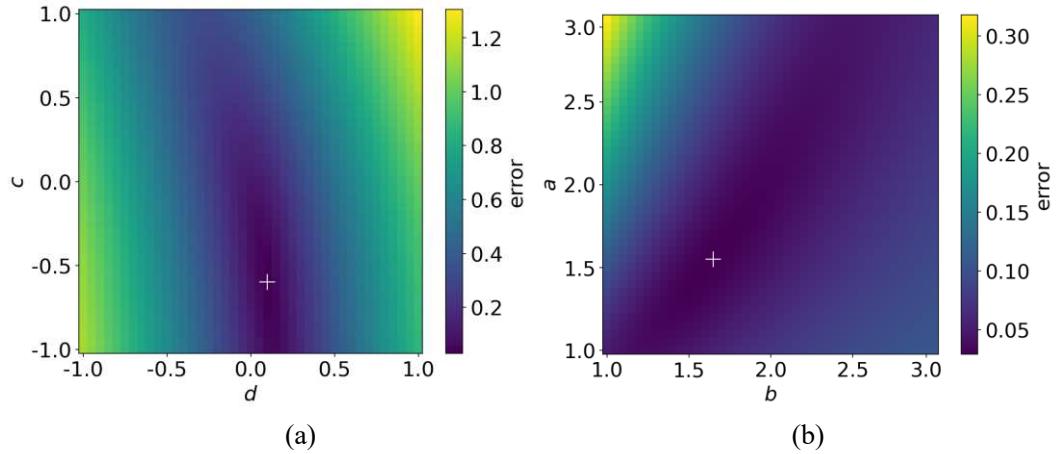


Fig. 18 Effect of the model parameters a , b , c , d on the error between model results and the experimental results. In (a), c and d are fixed as -0.62 and 0.10. In (b), a and b are fixed as 1.54 and 1.65. The white cross represents the position of minimum error.

To further measure the acceleration ability of pedestrians during the whole movement, we explore the influence of initial speed on the relaxation time (see Fig. 17). With the increasing initial speed, the relaxation time shows a decreasing trend, representing that pedestrians require shorter time to accelerate compared to that for lower initial speed. Besides, children spend more time accelerating than that of students.

To measure the trend quantitatively and to compare between children and students, mean data is obtained by applying vertical binning procedure²⁵. We observe that students adjust the speed more quickly than that of children. Focusing on the data of students, with the increasing speed, the relaxation time first declines and then stabilizes around a value when the initial speed exceeds a threshold value. To quantify this, sigmoid function (Equation (6)) is employed to fit the trend and the fitting results are listed in Table. 7. The fitting results are obtained by applying the cross-entropy method (CE method)²⁶. Besides, an exhaust algorithm is applied to test whether the fitting results of the model parameters are local optimums (see Fig. 18). The data of students' experiments are tested and the results show that it is feasible to calculate the parameters of the model using the CE method.

Focusing on the fitting result in Fig. 17, when the initial speed of students exceeds 1.03 m/s, the corresponding relaxation time oscillates around 0.11 s. We assume that there is a similar trend in children's data. Based on the fitted sigmoid function, we assume that when the initial speed exceeds 2.36 m/s for children, the relaxation time oscillates around 0.33 s. Further research needs to be performed to verify the assumption.

$$y = \frac{a}{1+e^{b(x-c)}} + d \quad (6)$$

4.3 Headway time

To measure the dynamics of pedestrian flow when passing through the exit, headway time is analyzed in this section. The headway time is defined as the time elapsed between two consecutive pedestrians passing through the exit.

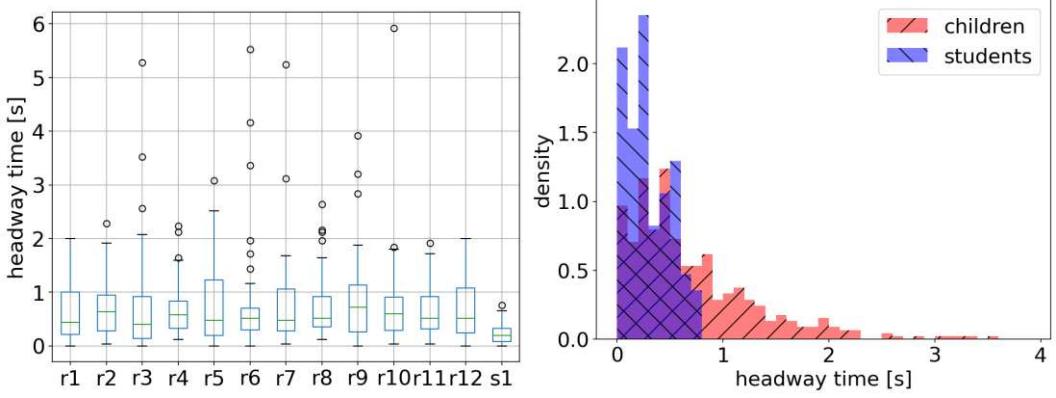


Fig. 19 Distribution of headway time of children and students. Left: boxplot of data in each experimental run, r for children's and s for students' experiment. Right: probability density histogram, red for children, and blue for students.

Based on the boxplot of headway time, we observe that the headway time of children is higher than that of students and the headway time shows no significant change with the experiment repetition. The mean headway time of children and students is 0.75 s and 0.29 s; the median value is 0.52 s and 0.26 s for that of children and students, respectively. The difference between children's and students' headway time is significant (one-sample t test: sig = 1.05E-7). The shorter headway time of students indicates that the flow of students is much smoother than that of children. Although both children and students were asked to leave the artificial room as if in a fire emergency, the competition of children was more fiercely than that of students based on the recorded videos. The fierce competition shows a negative impact on the traffic efficiency of the exit, resulting in a longer headway time of children.

To study the distribution of headway time, the skewness for children and adults is 2.89 and 0.48, respectively. The relaxation time is right-skewed both for children and for students, while students' data is less skewed. The kurtosis of children and students is 12.40 and -0.86, respectively. The data sets of children's headway time with higher kurtosis implies that it tends to have heavy tails or outliers, indicating that longer headway time prefers to appear in children's experiments. The negative value of the kurtosis of students implies that the distribution is similar to the uniform distribution. Unlike children's data, the headway time of students is more regular, distributing more uniform between 0 s and 0.76 s in this study.

4.4 Travel time inside the exit

Travel time inside the exit tt_{exit} is considered to measure the traffic efficiency near the exit. To investigate whether the position when entering the exit region shows an impact on the travel time, the incident angle is defined and considered. Initial Voronoi density in the exit region is considered to measure the degree of crowdedness on traffic efficiency. Detailed definition of tt_{exit} , incident angle α , and initial Voronoi density can be seen in section 2.2.4.

Based on the results of SPSS²⁷ (see Table. 8), there is no relation between the incident angle and tt_{exit} . Different from our assumption, the entering position shows no obvious

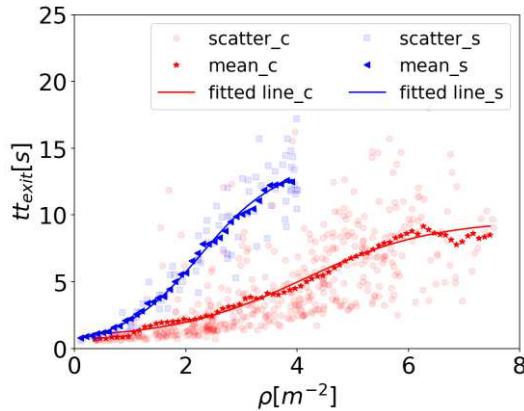
1 impact on tt_{exit} both for children and for students in this study. We suspect that as
 2 pedestrians gather around the exit and form arch-like distribution, pedestrians who enter
 3 the exit region face a similar congested condition despite the entering position, resulting
 4 in a similar tt_{exit} .

5 Based on the Pearson correlation results, initial Voronoi density in the exit region shows
 6 a strong impact on the travel time both for children and for students. To further quantify
 7 the influence and obtain the difference between children and adults, the relation
 8 between initial Voronoi density and tt_{exit} is analyzed in Fig. 20.

9
 10 Table. 8 Correlation results between travel time and incident angle/initial Voronoi density in the
 11 exit region of children's and students' experiments.

	Children		Students	
Pearson correlation	Incident angle	Initial Voronoi density	Incident angle	Initial Voronoi density
tt_{exit} correlation coefficient	0.124	0.678	0.105	0.928
Sig.(two-tailed)	0.007*	8.26E-65*	0.152	6.84E-38*

12 *: at 0.01 level (two-tailed), the result is significant.



13
 14 Fig. 20 Relation between travel time inside the exit region tt_{exit} and initial Voronoi density in the exit
 15 region for children (red points) and students (blue squares). Red stars and blue triangles for the mean
 16 data of children and of students, respectively. Red and blue lines highlight the fitting results of the
 17 trend.

18
 19 Table. 9 Fitting results of the relation between relaxation time and initial speed of children and
 20 students.

	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>D</i>	Adj.R ²
children	8.92	-0.86	4.11	0.72	0.982
students	13.70	-1.42	2.27	0.17	0.996

21
 22 tt_{exit} increases with the increasing initial Voronoi density in the exit region as we
 23 expected. The sigmoid function is applied to fit the data and the results show that it fits

1 well. The function is $y = \frac{a}{1+e^{b(x-c)}} + d$ (same as Equation 5). The fitting results are
2 listed in Table. 9. Based on the fitting results, we assume that there exists a density
3 threshold that when the density exceeds the value, the travel time is stable around a
4 constant value. The threshold value of density and tt_{exit} for children is 11.8 ped/m² and
5 9.63 s, and for adults is 7.60 ped/m² and 13.86 s, respectively. To verify the assumption,
6 a further experimental study is needed in the future.

7

8 5. Summary

9 In this study, we investigate the movement characteristics of children passing through
10 an exit and compare with that of students. Density profiles, velocity profiles,
11 characteristic time are analyzed to obtain the movement characteristics and differences
12 of children and students. By introducing the motion activation time, we measure the
13 movement characteristics of pedestrians at the beginning of the movement process.
14 Relaxation time helps quantify the speed adjustment ability of children and students.
15 Density profiles and velocity profiles reveal the macro feature of pedestrians of high
16 motivated children and students around the bottleneck during the congested state, point
17 out that the distributions of density are inhomogeneous both for children and for adults
18 and the density are arch-like distribution. Besides, motion activation time, relaxation
19 time highlight that students adjust the movement more quickly and much smoother than
20 that of children in the whole process of the movement. The difference in the headway
21 time shows that children compete more fiercely than students around the bottleneck.
22 The findings in this study further demonstrate that high motivated pedestrians prefer to
23 gather around the exit and the density is arch-like distribution. The definition of motion
24 activation time in this study helps quantify the movement characteristics in the
25 initialization phase of pedestrians and measure the difference between children and
26 students. The results can provide empirical data to help validate and verify the model,
27 like the probability density function of motion activation time and relaxation time.
28 Further researches should take advantage of the information gained from this study to
29 develop algorithms for simulating the movement of pedestrians by combining their
30 physical characteristics and mobility. Further data must be collected on the motion
31 activation time and relaxation time. These are key elements in determining the motion
32 ability of pedestrians and further obtain the evacuation time of pedestrians. These
33 findings, and the suggested work, will have an important impact on enhancing the
34 understanding of the difference between children and adults, future code/regulatory
35 changes, engineering guidance.

36

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15

16 7. Figure legends

17 Fig. 1 The sketch of the experiment. The exit width is fixed as 0.7 m. The measurement
18 area (2 m x 1 m) is selected to measure the time evolution of density and speed in
19 section 3.1. To measure the movement characteristics of pedestrians, the coordinate
20 system takes the lower-left corner as the origin point, the direction parallel to the exit
21 as the X-axis, and the direction perpendicular to the exit as the Y-axis.

22
23 Fig. 2 Definition of motion activation time calculation method. Black points represent
24 the positions of each pedestrian in the first frame. Voronoi diagrams represent the space
25 each pedestrian takes up at this time. The red star represents the middle point of the exit
26 and we assume that each pedestrian moves towards the target at the beginning of the
27 experiment. The red point represents the intersection between the moving target and the
28 boundary of the pedestrian's occupied space. The distance d_a between the pedestrian
29 position and the intersection represents the personal available distance. d_m represents
30 the movement distance calculated by the coordinate of the pedestrian. When $d_m >$
31 d_{mth} , the time is set as the moving time t_m . When $d_a > d_{a_threshold}$, the time is set as
32 the available movement time t_a . Motion activation time is obtained by $t_{MA} = t_m - t_a$
33 (See Equation 2).

34
35 Fig. 3 Definition of exit region and incident angle in pre-school children's experiment.
36 The exit region is consisted of a rectangle and two 1/4 circles (grey regions). The angle
37 α between the vector \overrightarrow{OA} and vector \overrightarrow{OB} represents the incident angle of pedestrians.

38 The angle between \overrightarrow{OA} and \overrightarrow{OB} is defined as incident angle. Point A represents the
39 entering exit region position of the pedestrian.

40
41 Fig. 4 Time profiles of density and speed in the measurement area. Top row: r1, r2, r3,
42 r4; middle row: r5, r6, r7, r8; bottom row: r9, r10, r11, r12. Red solid lines represent the

1 time profiles of density and blue dashed lines represent the time profiles of speed. The
2 range between grey dashed lines represent the selected congested state.

3
4 Fig. 5 Density profiles during the congested stage in this study. Top row: r1, r2, r3, r4;
5 middle row: r5, r6, r7, r8; bottom row: r9, r10, r11, r12. Color for the density value and
6 white lines for density contours. Noted that in r9, the high-density region locates far
7 from the exit, which is different from other experimental runs. Based on the
8 experimental videos, the phenomenon is due to several children start playing in the
9 region and fail to pass the exit quickly in this experimental run.

10
11 Fig. 6. Velocity profiles during the congested stage in this study. Top row: r1, r2, r3, r4;
12 middle row: r5, r6, r7, r8; bottom row: r9, r10, r11, r12. The color represents the value
13 of the velocity and the white arrows represent the direction of the velocity. The dark
14 blue lines represent the speed contours.

15
16 Fig. 7. Velocity profiles during the congested state for highly motivated students'
17 bottleneck experiment ($b=1.05$ m)⁸. Color for the speed value, white arrows for the
18 speed directions, and grey lines for speed contours. Note that the bottleneck length (1.9
19 m) is omitted to better compare with the velocity map of children's experiments, as we
20 focus on the velocity inside the artificial room.

21
22 Fig. 8 Relation between the movement direction and the distance perpendicular to the
23 exit in children's (Left) and students' (Right) experiment. The colored lines represent
24 the evolution of movement direction with the perpendicular distance. The red circles
25 represent that pedestrians change their movement directions from the relatively smooth
26 variation state to the rapid state. In the Left figure, to distinguish the experimental run,
27 the linewidth and the size of the circles are adjusted.

28
29 Fig. 9 The distribution of motion activation time of children and university students in
30 different experimental runs. r for the experimental run of children's experiment and s
31 for that of students'. The circles represent the outliers.

32
33 Fig. 10 Left: Probability density histogram of motion activation time of children (blue)
34 and adults (red) overall. Right: Detailed histogram of motion activation time in the
35 range of 0 – 2 s. The bin size is set as 0.2 s.

36
37 Fig. 11 Probability density function (PDF) of the motion activation time for children
38 (left) and students (right). Erlang distribution fits the data well.

39
40 Fig. 12 Cumulative distribution function of motion activation time of children (red thick
41 line) and students (blue fine line).

42
43 Fig. 13 Definition of vertical and horizontal position. The blue star represents the
44 middle point of the exit. Pedestrian stand in the waiting area (dashed area) initially,

1 waiting for the vocal signal to start the experiment. The values of the intersections of
2 solid red lines and light blue axes are the vertical and horizontal positions of the
3 pedestrian.

4
5 Fig. 14 The influence of horizontal and vertical position on the motion activation time
6 of pre-school children (red points) and adults (blue squares). Top row: spatial
7 distribution in children's (left) and adults' (right) experiment. Middle row: for the
8 horizontal position. Bottom row: for vertical position. Left column: for pre-school
9 children. Right column: for adults. The black stars are the mean values of
10 horizontal/vertical position for each bin and the colored bands give the standard error.
11 The mean data (black stars) are obtained as the result of a vertical binning procedure²⁵
12 over a large number of measurements. The bin size is set as 0.05. The black lines
13 highlight the mean data trend and the red/blue lines show the linear fitting results. Note
14 that some points are located beyond 100%, which is due to that some pedestrians stand
15 outside the waiting area.

16
17 Fig. 15 Probability density function (PDF) of the relaxation time for children (red) and
18 students (blue). An Erlang distribution fits the data well.

19
20 Fig. 16 Cumulative distribution function of relaxation time of children (red thick line)
21 and students (blue fine line).

22
23 Fig. 17 The influence of initial speed on the relaxation time of children (red circles) and
24 students (blue circles). The green stars and black triangles represent the mean data of
25 children and students by applying vertical binning procedure²⁵, respectively. The bin
26 size is set as 0.1 m/s. The green and black lines highlight the fitting results of children
27 and students, respectively.

28
29 Fig. 18 Effect of the model parameters a , b , c , d on the error between model results and
30 the experimental results. In (a), c and d are fixed as -0.62 and 0.10. In (b), a and b are
31 fixed as 1.54 and 1.65. The white cross represents the position of minimum error.

32
33 Fig. 19 Distribution of headway time of children and students. Left: boxplot of data in
34 each experimental run, r for children's and s for students' experiment. Right: probability
35 density histogram, red for children, and blue for students.

36
37 Fig. 20 Relation between travel time inside the exit region t_{exit} and initial Voronoi
38 density in the exit region for children (red points) and students (blue squares). Red stars
39 and blue triangles for the mean data of children and of students, respectively. Red and
40 blue lines highlight the fitting results of the trend.

41
42
43 8. Acknowledgements

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10

11 9. Authors' contributions

12 Hongliu Li and Libing Yang carried out the experiment. Hongliu Li and Long Xia
13 analyzed the empirical data. Hongliu Li wrote the manuscript with support from Jun
14 Zhang, Long Xia, Weiguo Song and Kwok Kit Richard Yuen. Jun Zhang supervised the
15 project. All authors provided critical feedback and helped shaped the research, analysis
16 and manuscript.

17

18 10. Competing interests

19 The authors declare no competing interests.

20

Figures

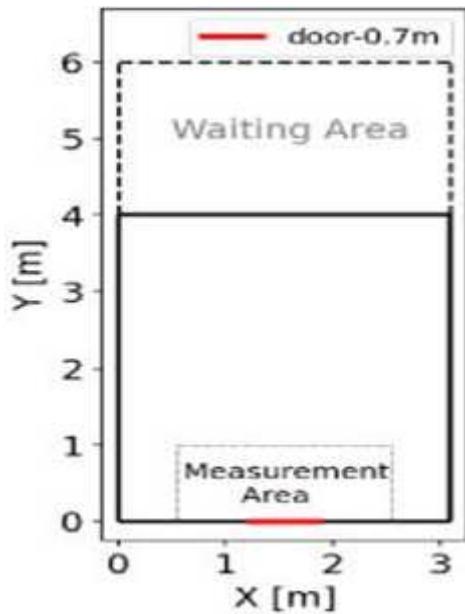


Figure 1

The sketch of the experiment. The exit width is fixed as 0.7 m. The measurement area ($2 \text{ m} \times 12.1 \text{ m}$) is selected to measure the time evolution of density and speed in section 3.1. To measure the movement characteristics of pedestrians, the coordinate system takes the lower-left corner as the origin point, the direction parallel to the exit as the X-axis, and the direction perpendicular to the exit as the Y-axis.

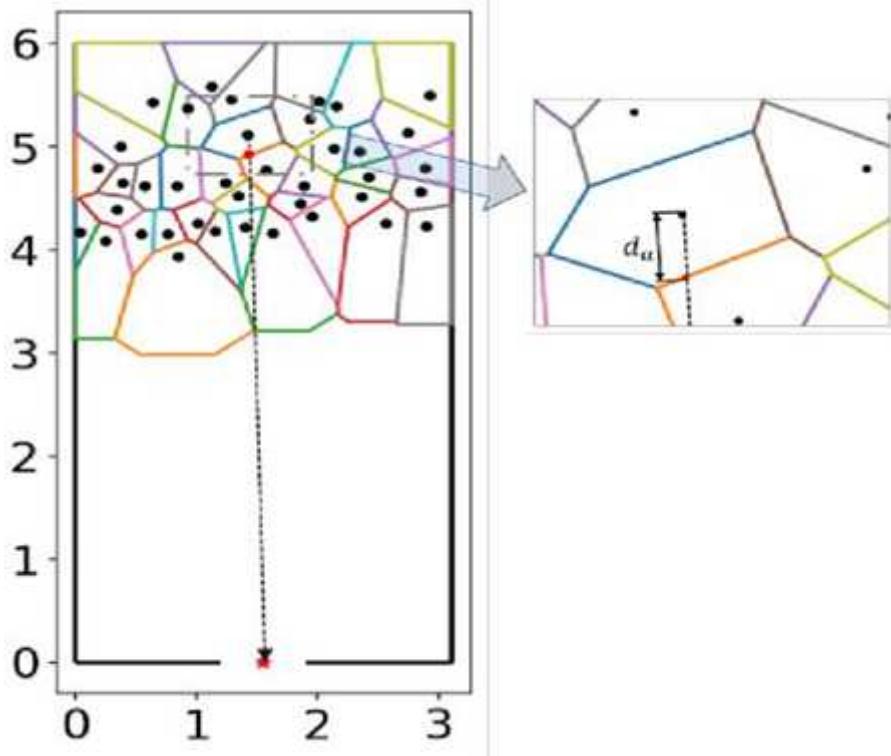


Figure 2

Definition of motion activation time calculation method.

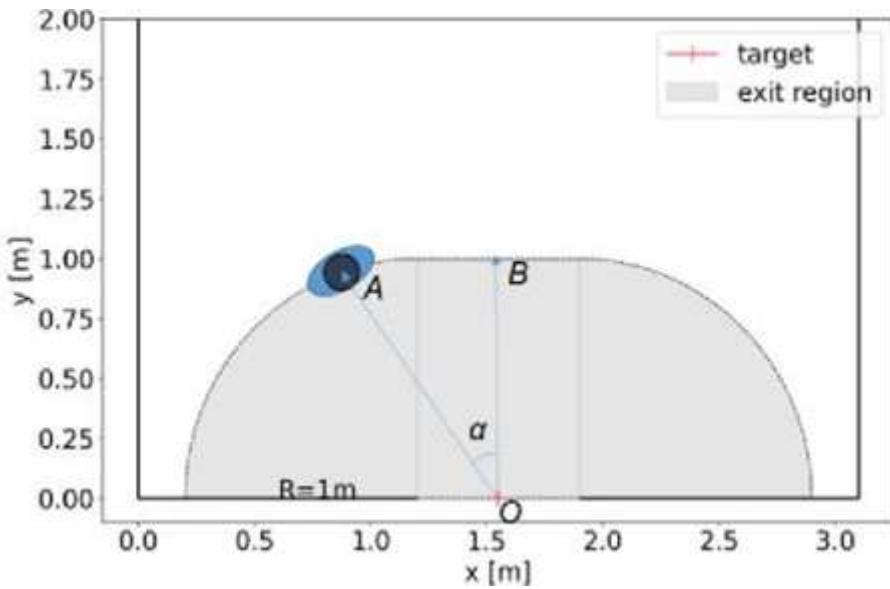


Figure 3

Definition of exit region and incident angle in pre-school children's experiment.

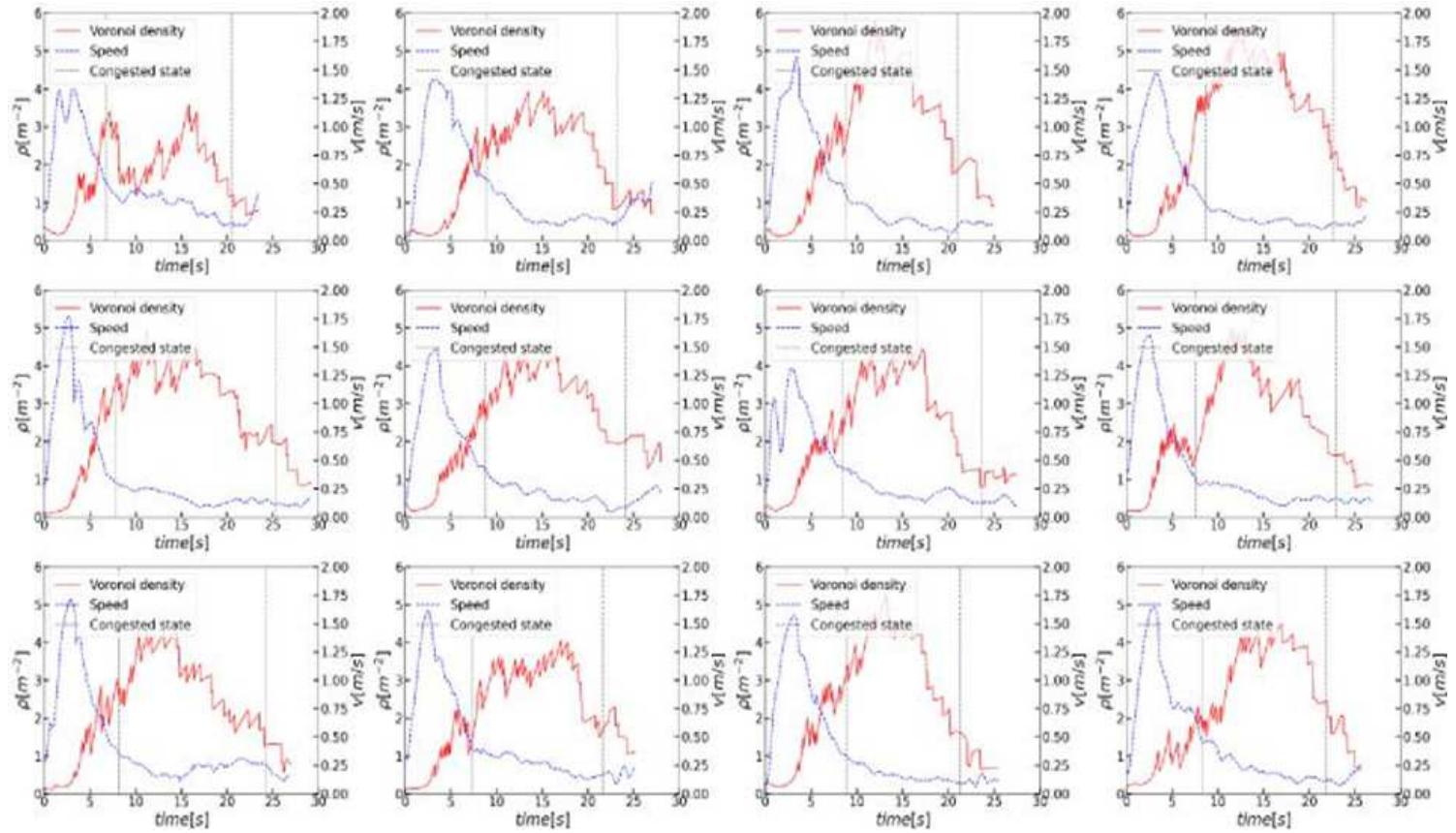


Figure 4

Time profiles of density and speed in the measurement area. Top row: r1, r2, r3, r4; middle row: r5, r6, r7, r8; bottom row: r9, r10, r11, r12. Red solid lines represent the time profiles of density and blue dashed lines

represent the time profiles of speed. The range between grey dashed lines represent the selected congested state.

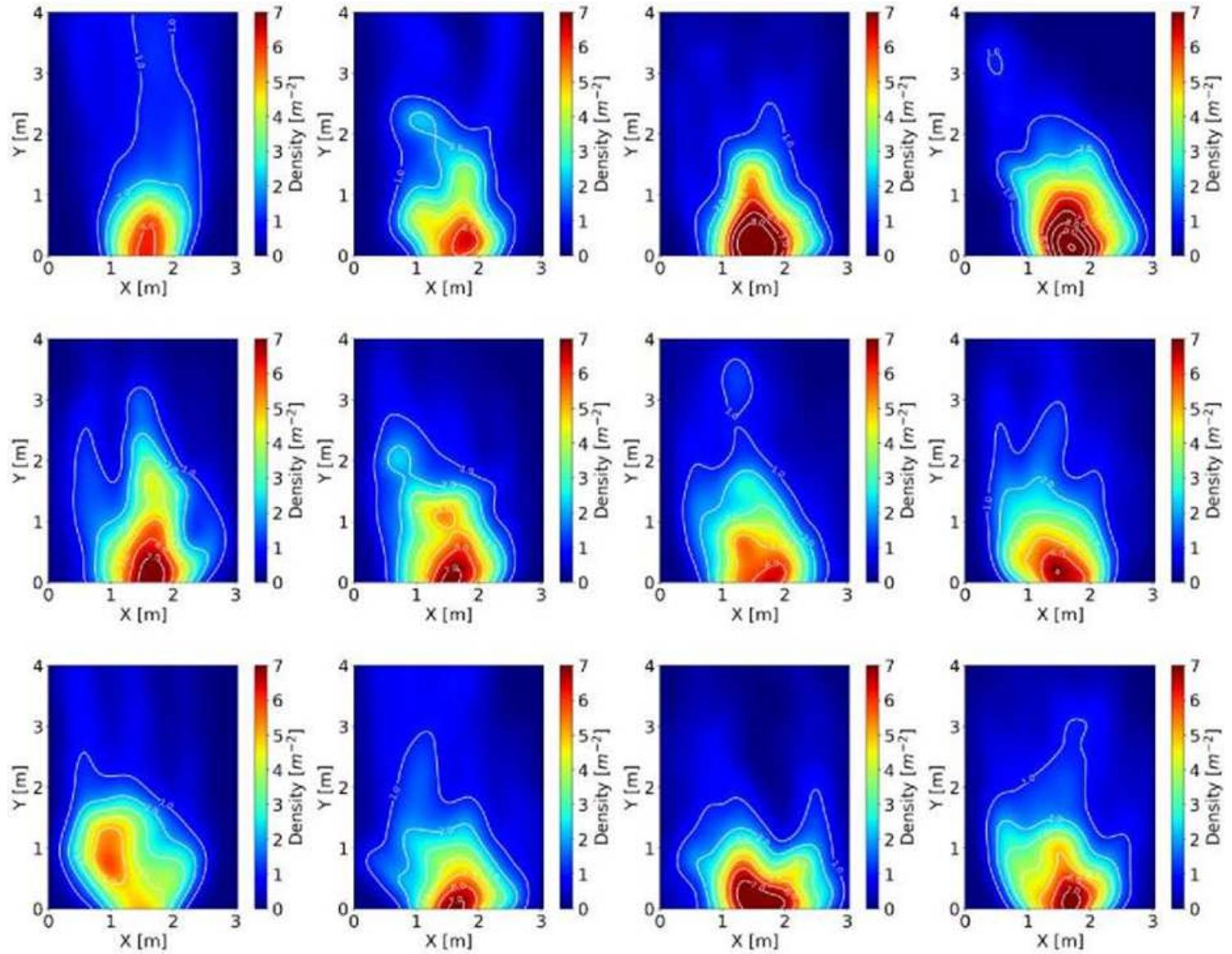


Figure 5

Density profiles during the congested stage in this study.

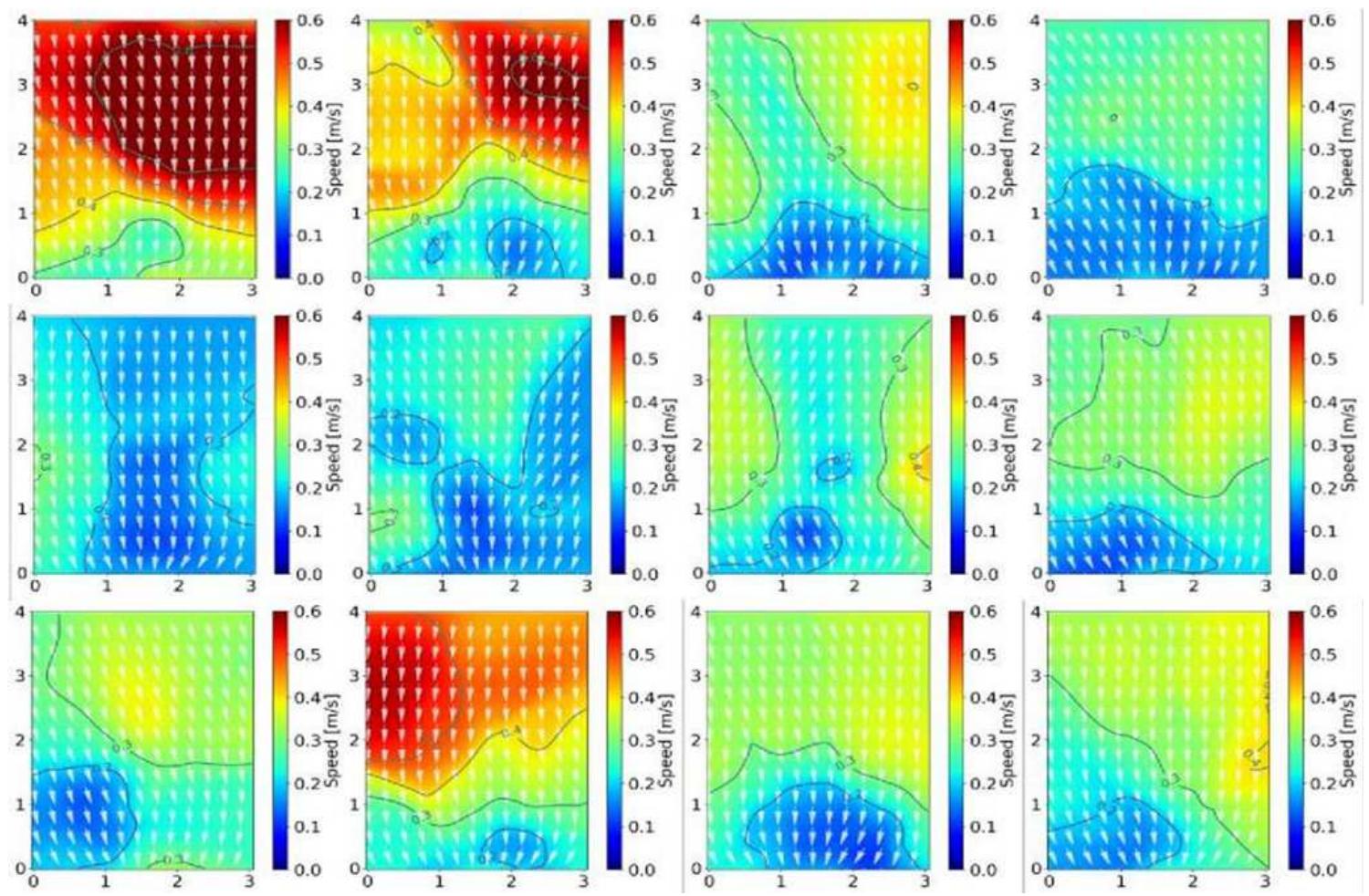


Figure 6

Velocity profiles during the congested stage in this study.

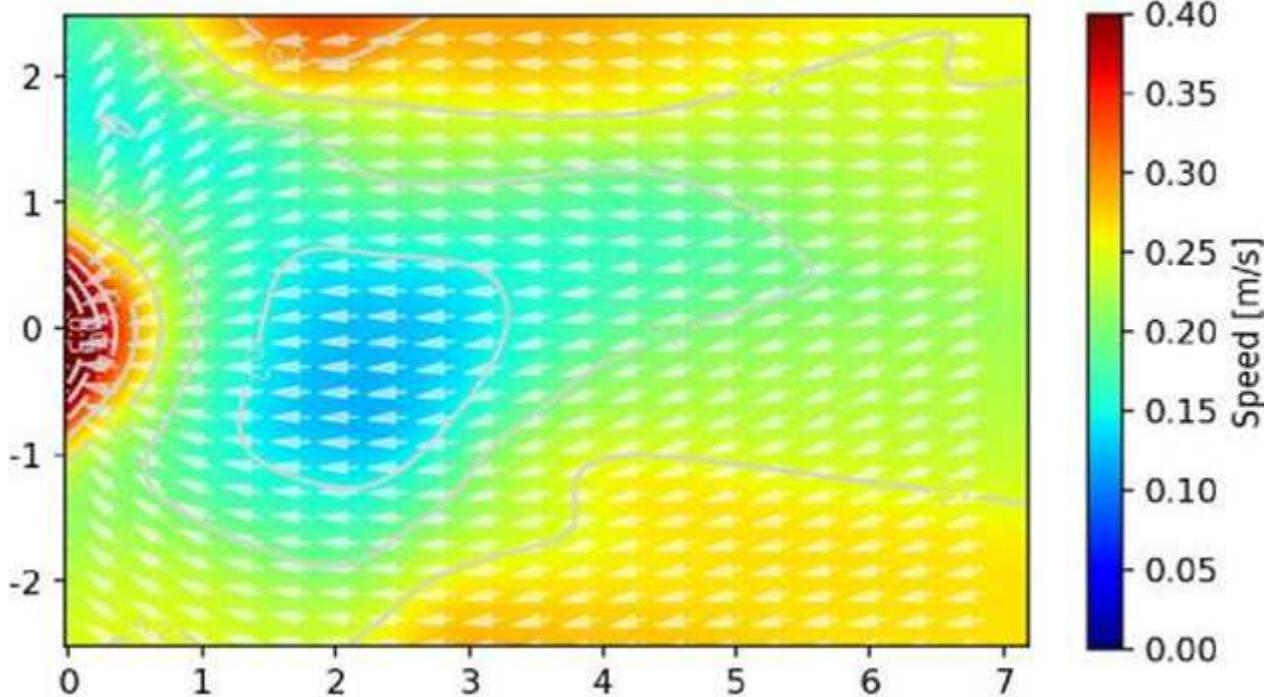


Figure 7

Velocity profiles during the congested state for highly motivated students' bottleneck experiment ($b=1.05$ m)8.

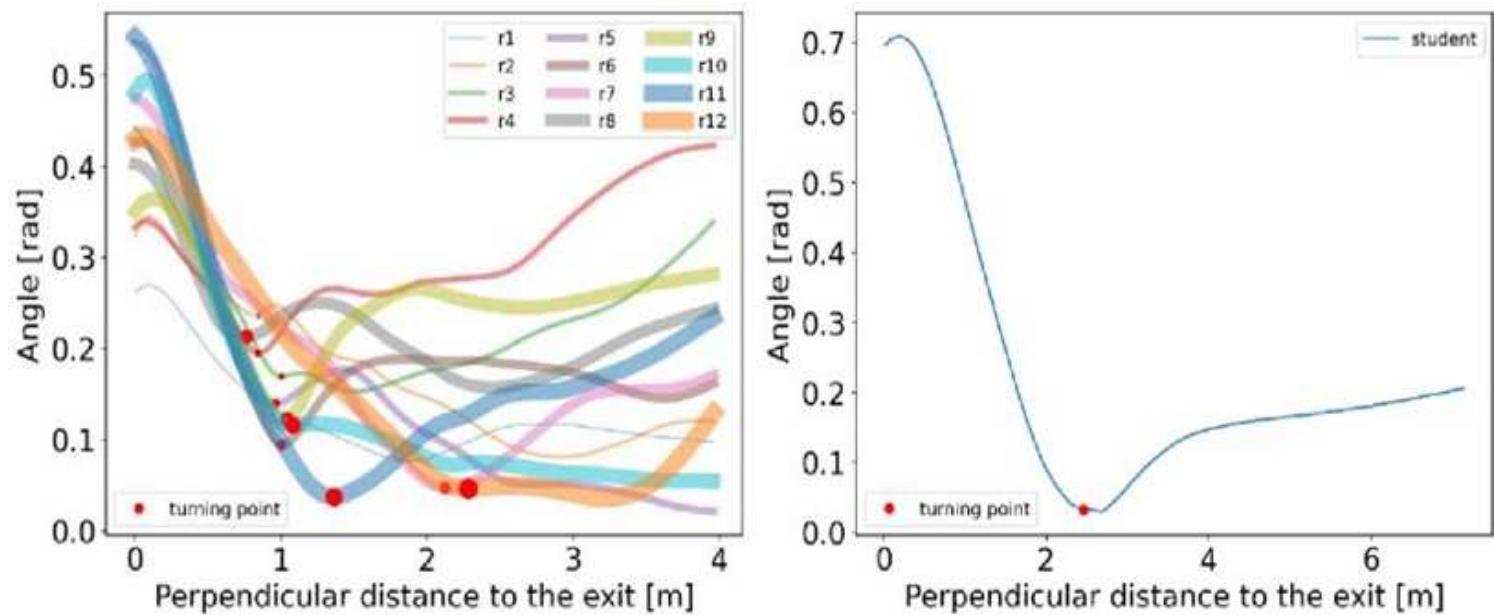


Figure 8

Relation between the movement direction and the distance perpendicular to the exit in children's (Left) and students' (Right) experiment.

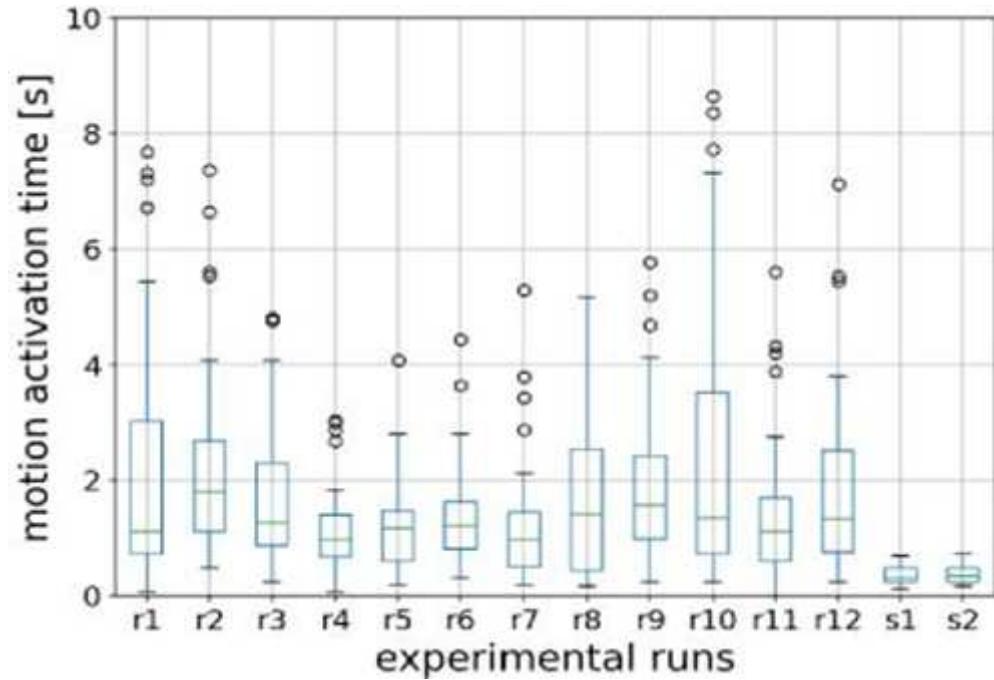


Figure 9

The distribution of motion activation time of children and university students in different experimental runs. r for the experimental run of children's experiment and s for that of students'. The circles represent

the outliers.

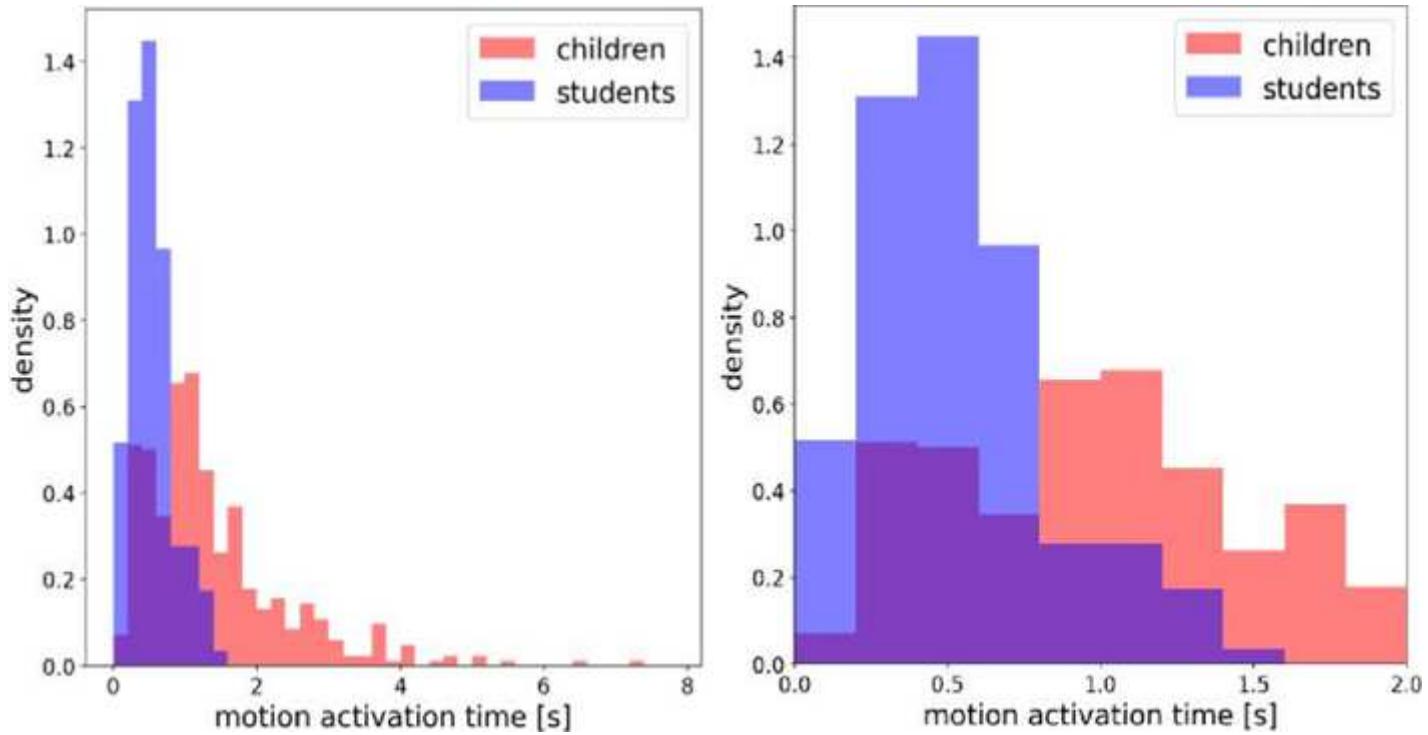


Figure 10

Left: Probability density histogram of motion activation time of children (blue) and adults (red) overall.
Right: Detailed histogram of motion activation time in the range of 0 – 2 s. The bin size is set as 0.2 s.

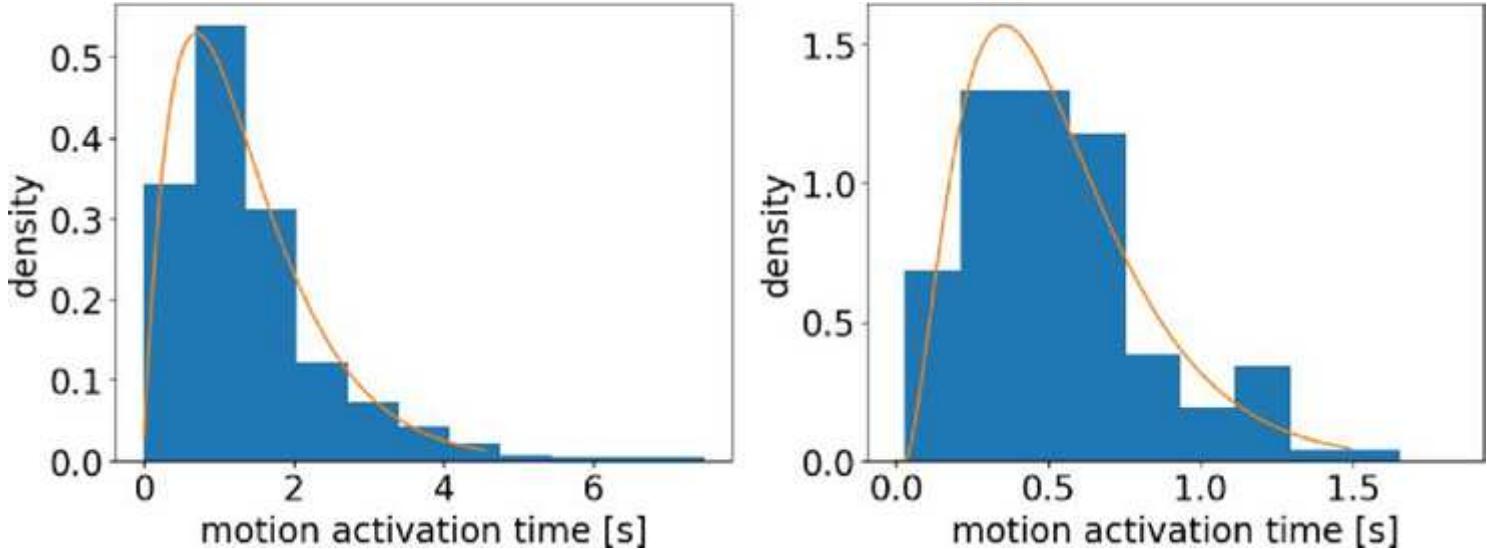


Figure 11

Probability density function (PDF) of the motion activation time for children (left) and students (right). Erlang distribution fits the data well.

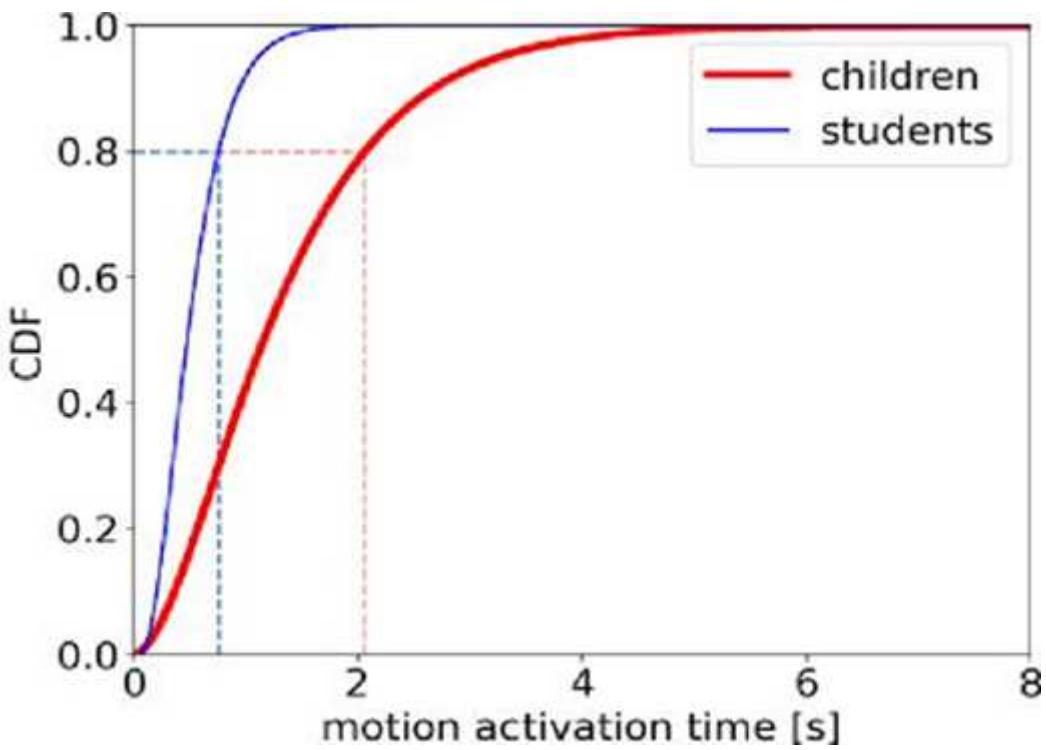


Figure 12

Cumulative distribution function of motion activation time of children (red thick line) and students (blue fine line).

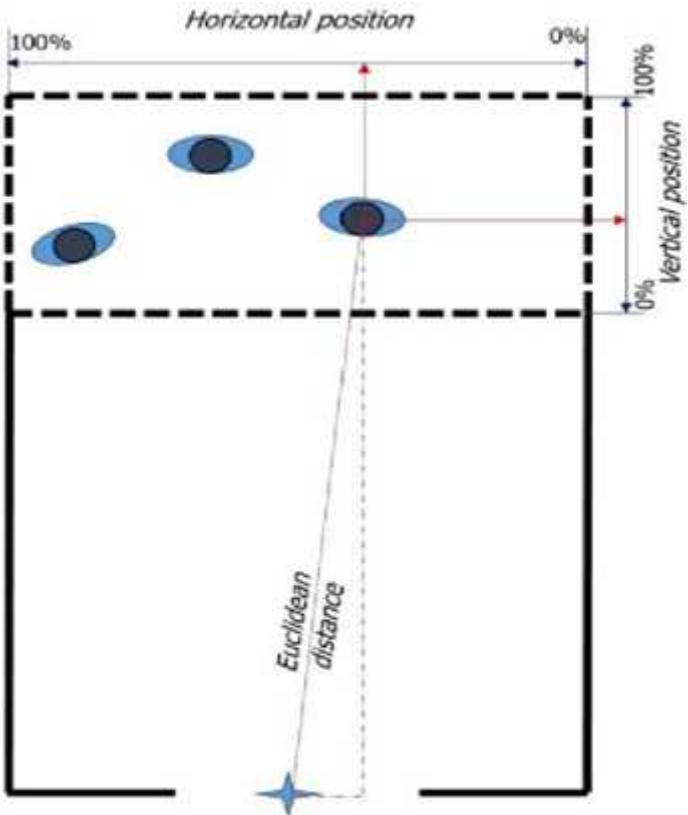


Figure 13

Definition of vertical and horizontal position. The blue star represents the middle point of the exit. Pedestrian stand in the waiting area (dashed area) initially, waiting for the vocal signal to start the experiment. The values of the intersections of solid red lines and light blue axes are the vertical and horizontal positions of the pedestrian.

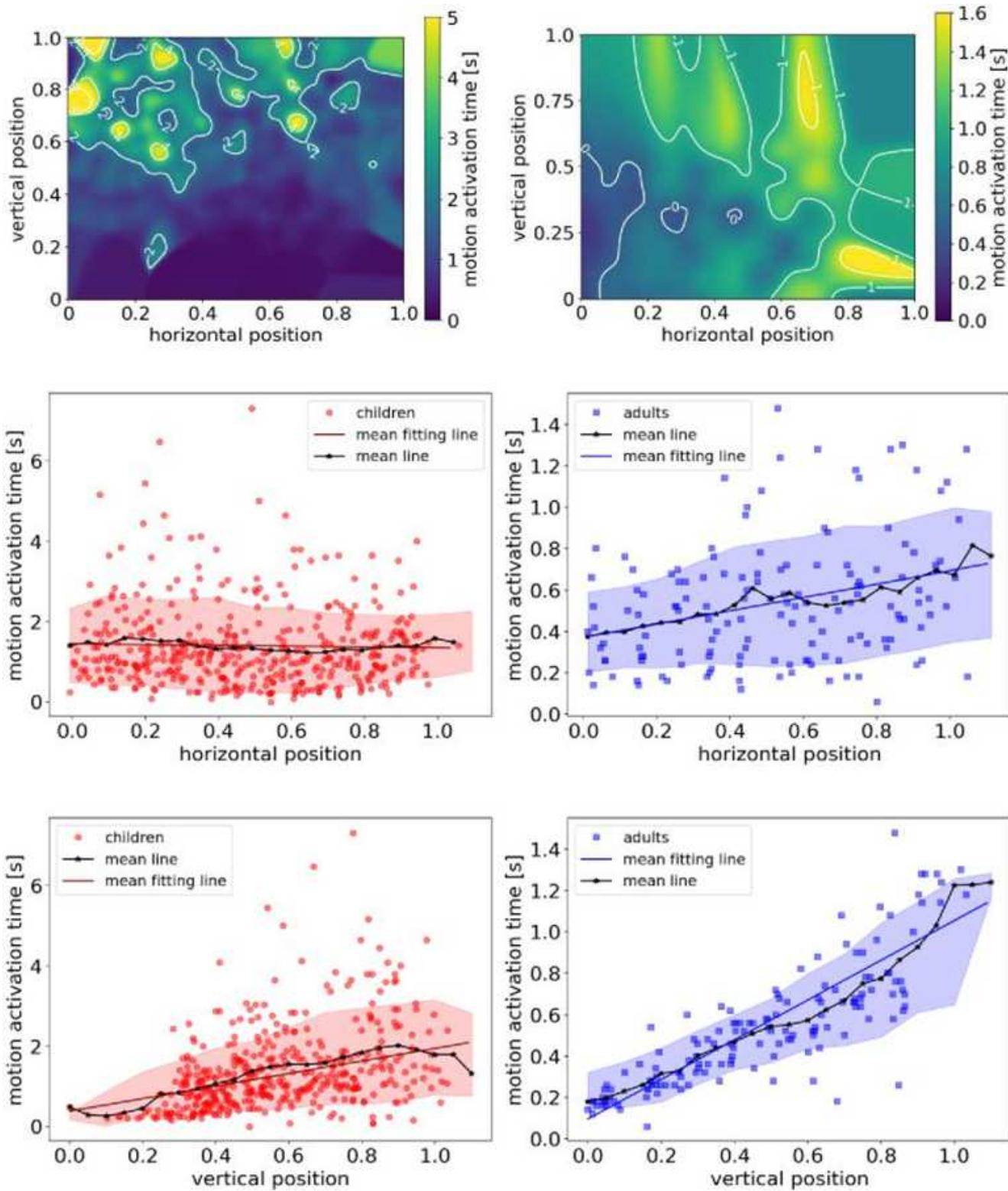


Figure 14

The influence of horizontal and vertical position on the motion activation time of pre-school children (red points) and adults (blue squares).

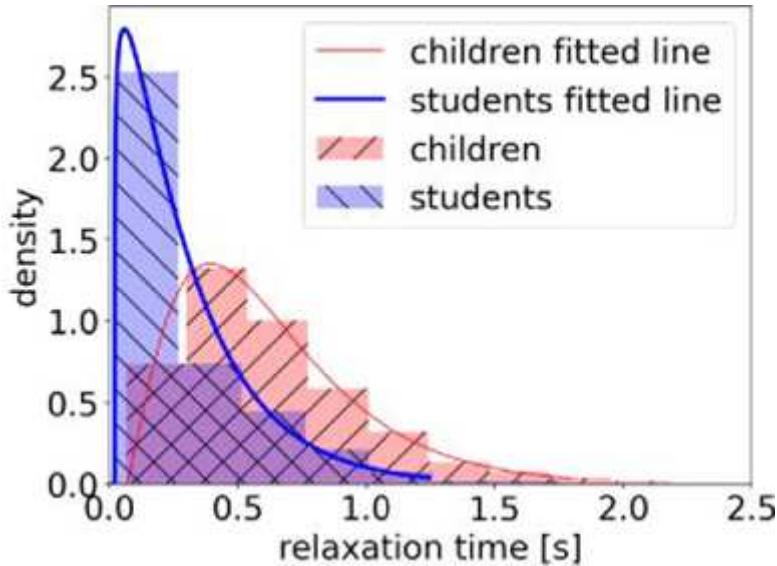


Figure 15

Probability density function (PDF) of the relaxation time for children (red) and students (blue). An Erlang distribution fits the data well.

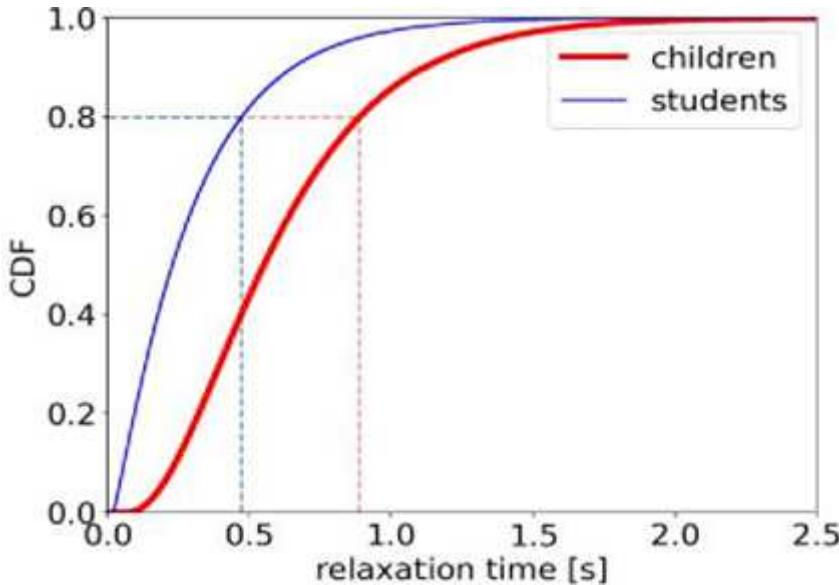


Figure 16

Cumulative distribution function of relaxation time of children (red thick line) and students (blue fine line).

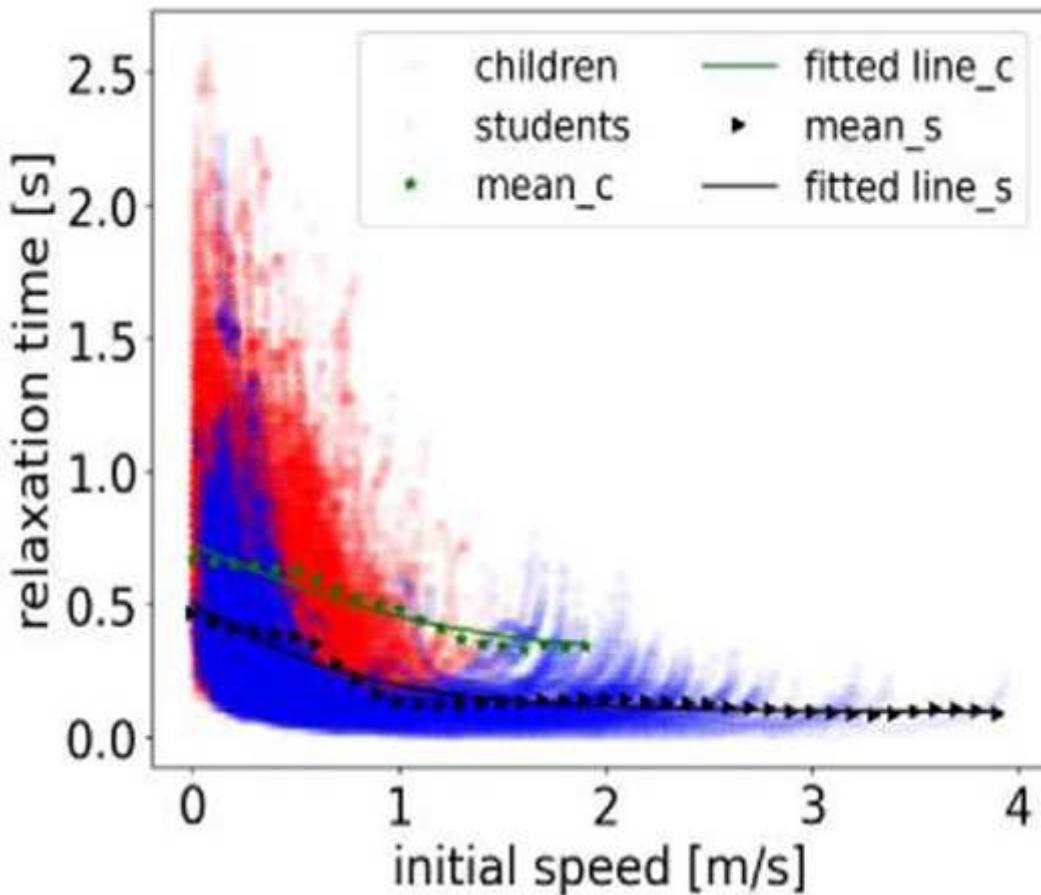


Figure 17

The influence of initial speed on the relaxation time of children (red circles) and students (blue circles). The green stars and black triangles represent the mean data of children and students by applying vertical binning procedure 25, respectively. The bin size is set as 0.1 m/s. The green and black lines highlight the fitting results of children and students, respectively.

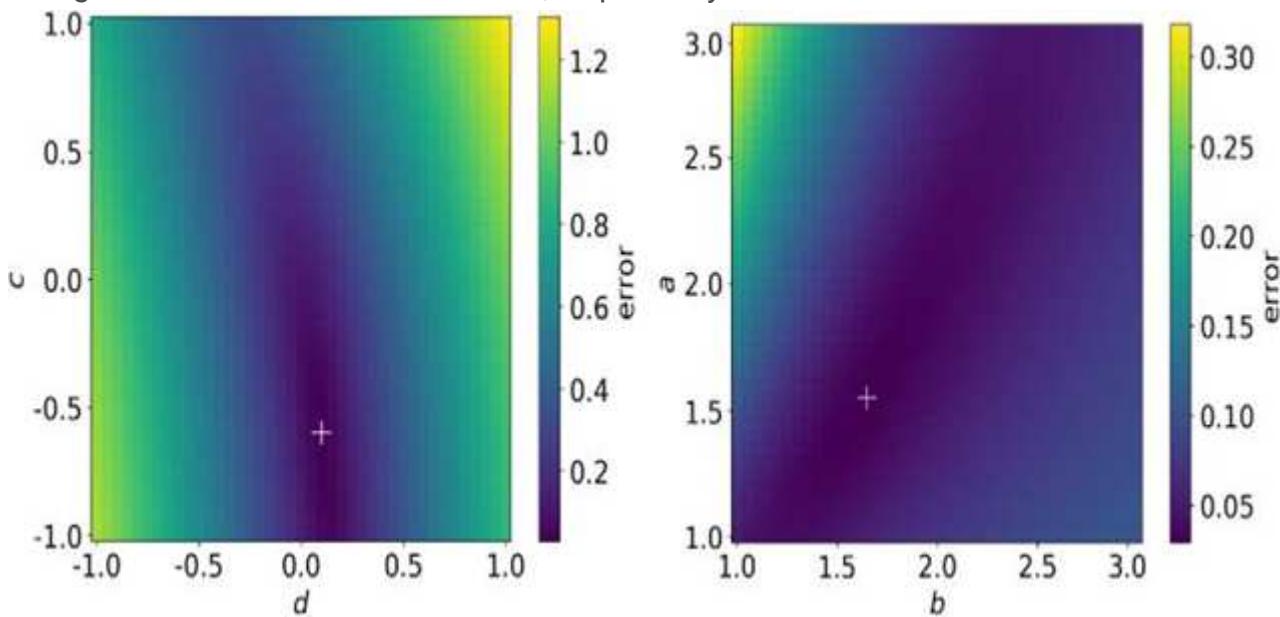


Figure 18

Effect of the model parameters a, b, c, d on the error between model results and the experimental results. In (a), c and d are fixed as -0.62 and 0.10. In (b), a and b are fixed as 1.54 and 1.65. The white cross represents the position of minimum error.

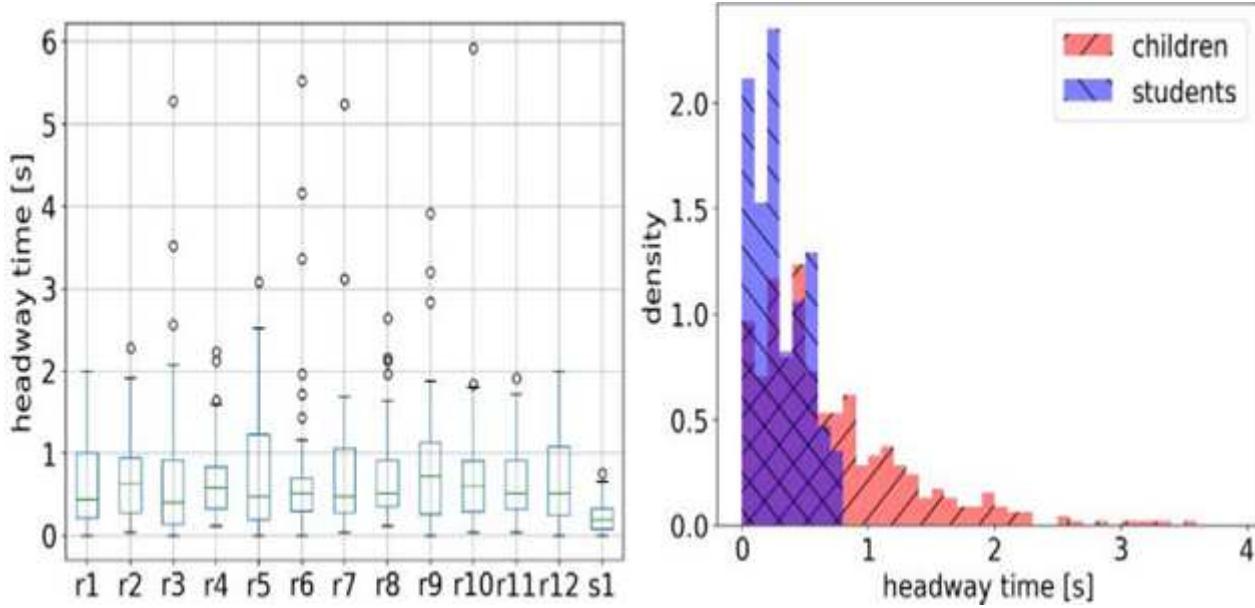


Figure 19

Distribution of headway time of children and students. Left: boxplot of data in each experimental run, r for children's and s for students' experiment. Right: probability density histogram, red for children, and blue for students.

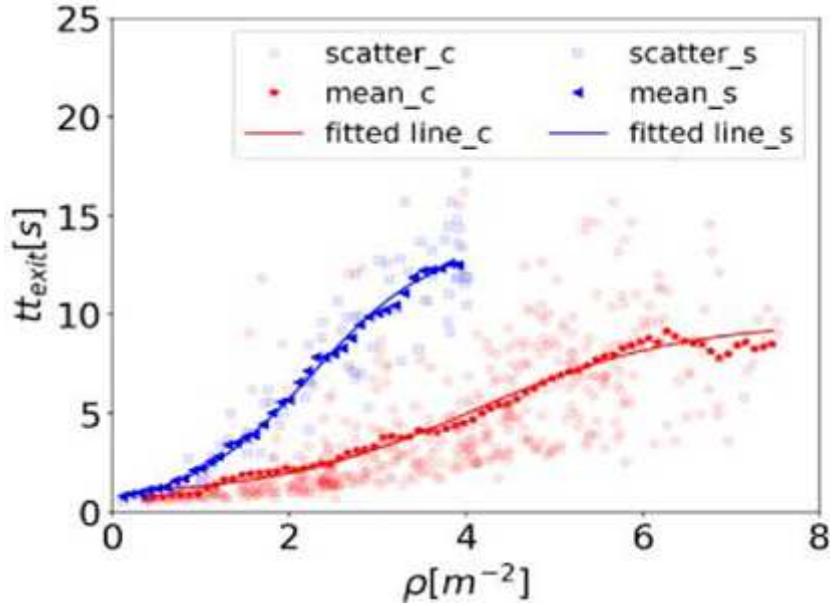


Figure 20

Relation between travel time inside the exit region tt_{exit} and initial Voronoi density in the exit region for children (red points) and students (blue squares). Red stars and blue triangles for the mean data of children and of students, respectively. Red and blue lines highlight the fitting results of the trend.

Supplementary Files

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- [Appendixscientificreports.pdf](#)