Variability of Human Activities

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Abstract—

Index Terms—Activity Recognition; On-Body Inertial Sensors

1 Introduction

HUMAN Activity Recognition (HAR) using body-worn sensors has increased during the last 20 years. This is due to three factors: (i) technology advances in sensors, (ii) longer battery lifetimes and (iii) different application-oriented scenarios. In contrast to speech recognition and computer vision frameworks, HAR offers different challenges based on the complexity and diversity of human activities (e.g. ambulation, transportation, phone usage, daily activities, exercise, military, upper body), the selection of different sensors to use (e.g. inertial, light, temperature or audio sensors) [1] and different bodily locations of sensors (e.g. chest, wrist, lower back, hip, thigh, foot) [2], [3].

According to Bulling *et al.* [4] the common challenges in HAR using body-worn sensors are: intraclass variability, interclass similarity, and the NULL class problem. For this PhD, identifying the variability of human activities is more challenging than identifying the action itself. Intraclass variability, therefore, occurs when an activity is performed differently either by a single person or several people. For instance, variability is presented in either dance features (e.g. fluency of motion, coordination, steadiness of the rhythm, adding erratic or additional movements [5], [6]) or biological features of dancers (e.g. gender, age, home country [5], [7]).

Hammerla *et al.* [8] have examined the effects of variability using artificial signals so as to create motion structures (strategy of the motion activity) and motion noise (the precision of the motion) of human activities. To quantify the variability of motion activities, Hammerla *et al.* [8] proposed the use of PCA to compute the area behind the cumulative energy curve which is used as a metric for motor skill assessment. The variability in human activities has therefore a relation with qualitative assessment of motion structures and motion noise of human activities. Velloso *et al.* [9], for example, assessed automatically the quality of weight-lifting activity. Similarly, Velloso *et al.* [10] quantify how *good* the repetition of weight-lifting activity is in terms of angles of each bone in relation to references planes.

Recently, concepts from non-linear analysis tools such as fractal dimensionality, the Lyapunov exponent or time-delay embedding has been applied to understand human activities. For instance, Yamamoto *et al.* [11], [12] used the fractal dimensionality of the attractors to model repeated forehand and backhand tennis strokes. Gouwanda *et al.* [13] showed that the variability in walking speed has a linear relationship with the Lyapunov exponent. This exponent is therefore suitable for analysing the temporal variation in gait stability. Time-delay embedding has been used as a feature for gait recognition [14] as well as the recognition of walking, lingering, running, up stairs and downstairs activities [15]. Additionally, Caballero *et al.* [16] reviewed another non-linear analysis tools (e.g. local dynamic stability, recurrent quantification analysis, entropy measurements, detrended fluctuation analysis) to measure the human movement variability. However, the questions to ask, as pointed out by Caballero *et al.* [16], are“...do this tools actually measure variability? and, what kind of variability?”.

Given the case of study of the variability in dance activities, it is hypothesised that there are three possible reasons for this: (i) inherent noise in sensors, (ii) inherent properties of the activity itself and (iii) discrepancies of biological features of people. For this PhD, the following research questions will be addressed:

1) How can the time-delay embedding and PCA methods quantify the possible reasons of the variability of dance activities ?
2) Having known the limitations of the time-delay embedding and PCA methods, which other non-linear analysis tools would be suitable to explore the variability in dance activities and use them as a features for machine learning algorithms?

2 Recognising Dexterity in Dance

As Miura et al. [17] point out ”. . . how the human motor system produces dance movements is still poorly understood.“ A key issue concerns the manner in which experienced dancers solve the ’degrees of freedom’ problem in the face of changing contextual demands. Miura et al. [18] measured muscle activation using electromyography (EMG) collected from muscles in the lower limb, for a task requiring participants to bounce up and down in time to a metronome beat. They demonstrated that experienced dancers show much better precision in synchronizing movements to beat than non-dancers, i.e., dancers maintained much lower standard deviation in temporal deviation against the beat than non-dancers. This result is consistent with work which shows that, compared with inexperienced- or non-dancers, trained ballet dancers exhibit superior postural stability [19], and show superior ability in position matching of upper limbs [20].

Capturing dance activity through sensors has tended to rely on motion capture [21] or sensors mounted on the person [22] or in their shoes [23] or from their smartphones [24]. Much of this work has been concerned with using the dancers motion to work with multimedia presentations that augment and complement the dance [25], [26] or as interfacing to a game [27] or commercial games, such as Dance Dance Revolution. While the range of sensing technology used in these papers is diverse and the result of the activity recognition is varied, it is fair to say that few of the papers have considered variability or dexterity in how a dance is performed. In their work, Aristidou et al. [6] have considered the manner in which dance steps conform to a set of defined templates that describe steps in terms of three-dimensional rotation (described using quaternions). The implication is that a goodness-of-fit can be ascertained to determine how well a dancer performs a step, and how any deviation from good can be modified through practice.

For this paper, we are interested in the question of how time-delay embedding techniques can provide insight into the variability and dexterity of dancers. To this end, we consider the performance of a set of steps from Salsa dance and compare untrained, inexperienced or non-dancers in one cohort with experienced dancers in another. Before explaining how the data is collected, the next section outlines the approach to time-series time-delay embedding and the resulting phase space representation used in this report. It should be noted that dynamical systems research offers a range of techniques for the study of human activity (see [28] for an overview of alternative techniques).

3 Time-delay Embedding

The aim of time-delay embedding, also known as Takens's Theorem, is to reconstruct a $k-$dimensional manifold M of an unknown dynamical system $s(t)$ from a time series $x(t)$. Time-delay embedding assumes that the time series is a sequence $x(t) = h[s(t)]$, where $h : M \to \mathbb{R}$ is a measurement function in the unknown dynamical system, being $x(t)$ measurable.

Thus, the time delay reconstruction is defined as: $\overline{x}(t) = (x(t), x(t-\tau), ..., x(t-(m-1)\tau))$ where m is the embedding dimension and τ is the embedding time-delay. $\overline{x}(t)$ defines a map $\Phi : M \to \mathbb{R}^m$ such that $\overline{x}(t) = \Phi(s)$. Similarly, $y(t) = \Psi[\overline{x}(t)]$ is a n-dimensional vector where $\Psi : \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is a further transformation (e.g., PCA [29], Nonlinear PCA [30], Locally Linear Embedding [31]). Figure 1 illustrate the time delay reconstruction process. For details, see the work of Uzal *et al.* [32].

3.1 Embedding Parameters m and τ

Given any time series $x(t)$, the time delay reconstruction system, $\overline{x}(t)$, is easy to implement. For this work, Cao's method [33], a modification of the False Nearest Neighbours (FNN) algorithm, and mutual information algorithm by Fraser *et al.* [34] have been used to calculate minimum embedding parameters (m_{min}, τ_{min}).

3.1.1 Minimum Embedding Dimension m_{min}

Cao's method [33] for computing the minimal embedding dimension is based on the mean values $E1(d)$ and $E2(d)$ in which d is the range of evaluation of the embedding dimension.

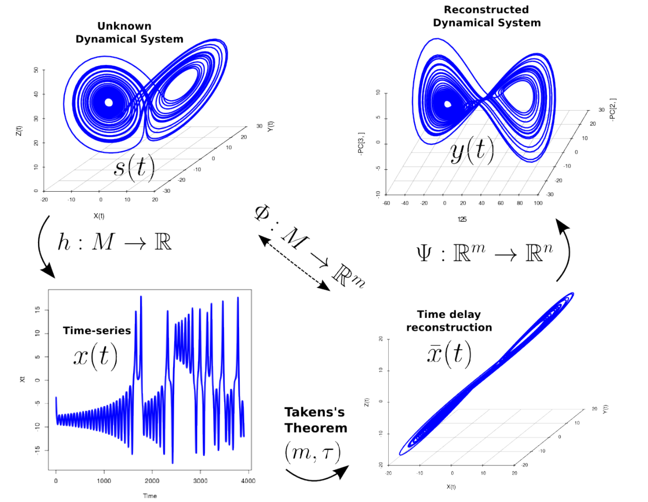

Fig. 1. The reconstruction problem. The figure is based on the work of Uzal *et al.* [32].

$E1(d)$ is used to obtain the minimal dimension m_{min} and stops changing when the time series comes from an attractor (Figure 2 B). We computed $E1(d)$ values for $1 \leq \tau \leq 10$ to exemplify the dependency of τ given periodic, chaotic and random time series (Figures 2 (A,B,C)).

The second of these values, $E2(d)$, is used to distinguish deterministic signals from random signals in which case the $E2(d)$ values will be approximately equal to 1 for any d (Figure 2 F). Similarly, we computed $E2(d)$ values for periodic, chaotic and random time series, to exemplify the dependency of $1 \leq \tau \leq 10$ (Figures 2 (D,E,F)).

Cao's method is a modified version of the FNN method, and $E1(d)$ and $E2(d)$ values are only dependant on m and τ [33].

3.1.2 Minimum Time-delay Embedding τ_{min}

The method of choosing the minimum Time-delay embedding τ_{min} was proposed by Fraser *et al.* [34] in which the first minimum of the mutual information graph is chosen to estimate the minimal time-delay embedding. For instance, Figure 3 illustrates the mutual information from periodic, chaotic and random time series. The local mimimum for the Chaotic series in Figure 3 is $\tau_{min} = 18$. On the other hand, for the periodic and random time series the mutual information plots have no local mimimum and values are monotonically decreasing which means that $\tau_{min} = 1$ (Figure 3) [34].

3.1.3 Embedding Parameters Setbacks

Although the time-delay embedding method using inertial sensors has been used extensively in gait recognition [14], gait stability [13] and walking, running and cycling activities [15], some problems with the minimal embedding parameter estimation (m_{min} and τ_{min}) still remain to be solved.

Sama *et al.* [14] and Gouwanda *et al.* [13] estimated the minimal embedded dimension (m_{min}) with the False Nearest Neighbours (FNN) method. However, Cao [33] pointed out that the FNN algorithm introduces new parameters

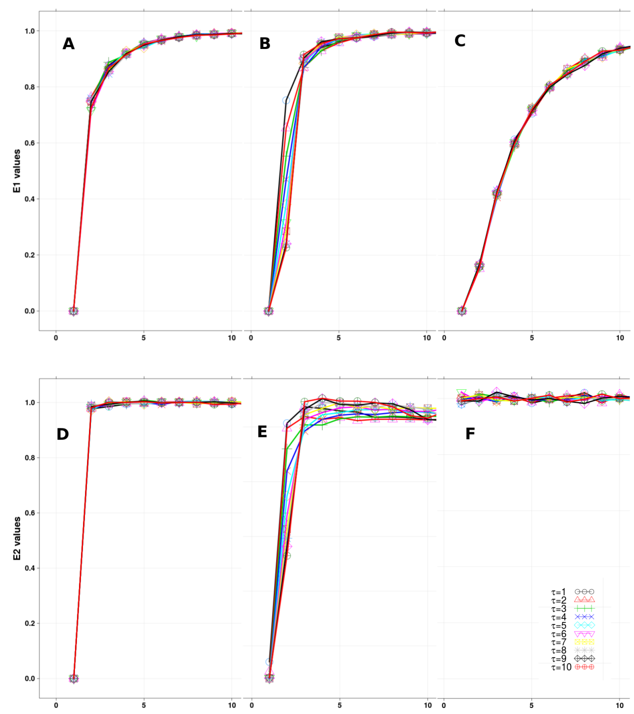

Fig. 2. The values of $E1(d)$ and $E2(d)$ with diferent time delay embedding parameters from periodic (A,D), chaotic (B,E) and random (C,F) time series.

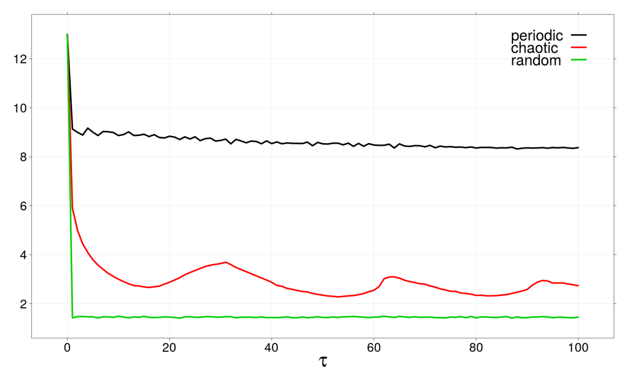

Fig. 3. Mutual information plots from periodic, chaotic and random time series.

(R_{tol} and A_{tol}) that lead to different results and cannot differentiate random series from deterministic series. Frank *et al.* [15] proposed a grid search method to find the minimal embedded parameters, but there are no details about their approach.

In the case of the minimal time delay embedding value, τ_{min}, Fojt *et al.* [35] mentioned a method in which the chosen τ is made in function of filling optimally the reconstructed state space; however, Fojt *et al.* [35] mentioned that "it is a rough estimation based on a graphical procedure." Although, Sama *et al.* [14] computed τ_{min} using the method proposed by Fraser *et al.* [34], they pointed that the chosen τ_{min} largely depend on the application.

4 RESULTS

4.1 HAMMERLA METHOD

4.2 TAKEN's-PCA METHOD

5 PUBLICATION PLAN

6 FUTURE WORK

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