MOBILE COMPUTING (CS23400/1) LAB 1 - REPORT

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1 TASK

The goal of this lab is to collect and leverage IMU data from a small robotic car to classify a set of activities. Using the IMU data we can implement machine learning models to classify IMU traces into four distinct activities (walking, jumping, standing, driving). Furthermore, the classification model used should be robust to challenges with low quality IMU's and mobile computation limits.

2 CHALLENGES

One of the primary challenges faced was extracting consistent and relevant data from the IMU traces. Due to imperfect measurements from the IMU, the raw data contains a lot of noisy readings that complicate the problem of classifying activities. Furthermore, it is very computationally intensive to train Recurrent Neural Networks with such large trace files; additional pre-processing of data is necessary to help train the model. An additional concern was that there may not be enough data and/or features to effectively train a Recurrent Neural Network.

3 PROPOSED APPROACH

This task belongs to the family of classification tasks, extensively studied in applied machine learning. In particular, it belongs to the subfamily of **sequence labeling** tasks, in which a stream of feature vectors of length T is assigned a single label picked among a set of valid labels.

Different approaches have been proposed for both temporal and non-temporal sequences. The state-of-the-art architecture for classifying temporal sequences is called Recurrent Neural Network (RNN). Unlike classic feedforward neural networks, RNNs can use their internal memory to process arbitrary sequences of inputs. Their internal memory also allows them to remember features vectors received at previous time instants which make them very effective in classifying temporal sequences.

One of the main problems with RNNs is the so-called vanishing gradient problem. In particular, during the training phase, the gradient that is back-propagated from the last RNN (right-most RNN in Fig. 1) towards the first RNN (left-most RNN in Fig. 1) becomes really small (vanishes) before reaching the head of the chain. This problem prevents the first part of the network from learning. The longer is the chain, the more the network suffer the vanishing gradient). Since in our case we work with long sequences of data, we used the LSTM-RNN (Long Short-Term Memory RNN) Sundermeyer et al. (2012) which is specifically designed to cope with vanishing gradients.

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In order to quickly and effectively train the RNN it is necessary to first do some data processing to reduce noise, decrease trace sizes, and add additional features (see 3.1 for details).

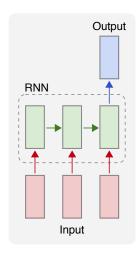


Figure 1: RNN Architecture known as Many-to-One

3.1 Data Post-Processing

Since we feed the temporal sequence of readings from the accelerometer to the chain of RNNs, we need as many RNNs as the number of readings in a single input. Our inputs are traces of 10 seconds each, with the IMU producing data at $\sim 128Hz$. Using the whole trace would require a chain of 1280 RNNs which is computationally prohibitive.

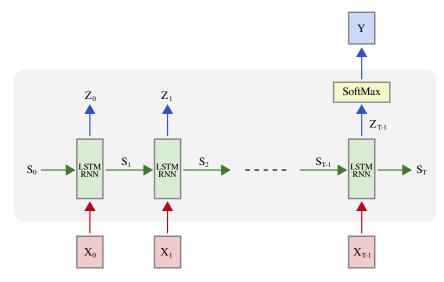


Figure 2: RNN Architecture used in this lab project

Observation 1: In our case, the fingerprints of all the activities that we are trying to classify present a periodic behavior. This means that we don't need to focus on the entire trace but we can look at part of it.

Observation 2: It is possible to down-sample our readings from 128Hz to a lower rate as long as we don't lose the profile of the signals.

We empirically found that it is possible to classify one trace just by looking at 1 seconds of readings down-sampled by a factor of 8. Thus, our chain of RNNs contains only 16 cells. We partition each trace from the training set into 10 smaller samples of 1 second each, and we treat them as independent samples.

Another observation is that, while collecting data, people tend to waste time following the start of logging and sometimes before the end of the log (e.g., time spent to switch window and start driving the car, somebody stopped jumping too early). Using these bad samples to train the model is not just useless (because they are not informative) but can also confuse the neural network (i.e., by teaching it that zero acceleration means driving). For this reason, we ignore the first and last 2 seconds in each trace.

We augment the feature vector by computing the first and second derivative (respectively, the Jerk, and the Jounce) of the acceleration along the three axis. This idea is driven by the observation that the rate at which the acceleration changes over time is more informative than the acceleration itself in activity recognition. We empirically found out that passing the time instant as an extra feature along with the accelerometer data improves the performances of the model.

3.2 RECURRENT NEURAL NETWORK

Figure 2 shows the architecture of the model that we used, where $T \in [0,15]$ (i.e., 1 second per sample at 16Hz), S_t is called hidden state of the RNN at time t and it represents the information passed by the RNN at time t-1 to the RNN at time t (with S_0 set to 0 and S_T discarded), Z_t is called output of the RNN at time t, X_t is the vector of features at time t and contains 10 features, $Y \in [0,1,2,3]$ the output label indicating the activity that generated X. The SoftMax block converts unnormalized logits returned by the last RNN into a probability distribution over classes.

We train our model using the Adam optimizer Kingma and Ba (2014). The learning process is driven by the minimization of the cross-entropy loss function Rubinstein (1999).

4 RESULTS

We trained our model on 900 samples of 16 IMU readings each. We removed 144 samples from the training data and used it for testing our model and decide when to stop training. After only 4 epochs of training, our training accuracy hits 100% as well as our post-epoch testing accuracy. The

inclusion of the first derivative of acceleration with respect to time raised the accuracy of our model by almost 25%, as it allows the RNN to access the change rate of the acceleration readings. Figure 3 shows the per-trace training accuracy over the 50 epochs, which shows the rate of cross-validation correctness for each epoch.

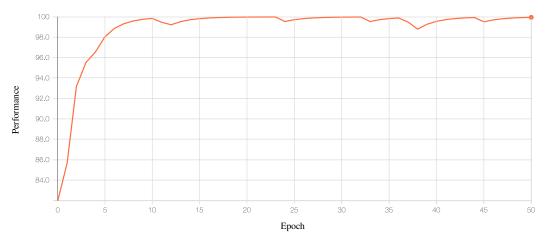


Figure 3: Accuracy per-trace per-epoch

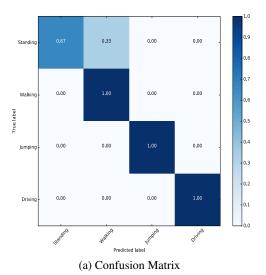
On the held-out test set (which is data that was not included in any of the training epochs), our model scores a per-trace accuracy of 92%. The accuracy reduction is due to the model having difficulty distinguishing between standing and walking. We anticipate with more time and traces, this confusion will decrease as the model learns the subtle distinctions between the two activities. Figure 4a shows the confusion matrix for the final epoch on the held-out test set. Figure 4b reports the predictions of our model on the provided test set.

5 CONCLUSION

Overall, our algorithm is very promising. It only relies on the reading of a sensor that is very popular in mobile devices. After training, it requires very low CPU and battery usage for activity classification, and can be easily run in the background on many devices. Additionally, we implemented our model using *TensorFlow*, an open source software library for numerical computation using data flow graphs, which is already available for the most common mobile devices. Thus, our method can be deployed easily and seamlessly to mobile devices, whether on a vehicle or on a smartphone. Expansion of this model to include more realistic activity classes, such as turning, would allow one to achieve accurate activity detection for many uses concerning safety and usability.

REFERENCES

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Trace file	Predicted activity
$team8_1.txt$	Standing
$team8_2.txt$	Driving
$team8_3.txt$	Walking
$team 8_4.txt$	Jumping

(b) Predicted activities for the given test set