

Detecting Falls with Wearable Sensors using Machine Learning Techniques

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Abstract—This framework presents a fall detection problem based on wearable sensors. Starting from the definition of falls, the classification methods, and categories of falls, we address the problem by proposing a typology of long-short term memory (LSTM) and mixed convolutional neural network CNN1D + LSTM trained to detect falls based on information (dataset) from the accelerometer, gyroscope, and magnetometer. We train and evaluate our network using the wearable sensor dataset and perform extensive comparisons with different classifiers. The accuracy of the LSTM model is 98.04%, and the mixed convolutional neural network CNN1D + LSTM model is 99.68%. We also compared its performance against other approaches. It competes favorably against other deep neural network architectures that have been proposed and implemented in the past.

Index Terms—LSTM, Neural network, Fall Detection

I. INTRODUCTION

Automatic fall detection (FD) devices have been developed as assertive technology throughout the last two decades. The primary purpose of fall detection systems is to detect critical falls and warn medical professionals or carers as soon as possible. Furthermore, these solutions can help the elderly and carers cope with psychological stress. When an aged person over the age of 60 falls, they are at significant risk of experiencing negative consequences. Various studies have been conducted on automatic fall detection using sensors, video monitoring, wearable devices, and other technologies. To effectively address the fall, identification and analysis must be done in real-time. Making decisions based on data from several sources is more effective than making decisions based on a single source. As a result, multimodal fall detection has been used in studies, which takes advantage of data from several sources to identify falls more accurately.

Fall detection attracts much attention in preventive medicine, wellness management, and supported living, especially for the elderly. As a result, various fall detection systems have been published in the literature or are commercially available. Most primary signal sources rely on accelerometers and gyroscopes linked to a person's body. These systems use discrete sensors that are part of a product built expressly for this purpose or sensors integrated with smartphones. The latter option has the benefit of providing well-tested and widely available communication facilities, such as contacting 911 in an emergency. Nonetheless, automatic fall detection still

has a long way to go, with the most challenging part being determining the type of fall.

Various sensor technologies [1], such as inertial sensors, depth cameras, microphones, pressure sensors, and thermal sensors, have been used in fall detection systems due to improvements in information transmission technologies and body sensors networks. Accelerometers, which capture body motions and are sensitive to posture changes, are the most prevalent sensors for fall detection. Accelerometer-based fall detection systems have several advantages, including compactness, low cost, effectiveness, unobtrusiveness, and high mobility.

To provide long-term fall detection services, wearable sensors must be implanted in the body and function for as long as possible. This need leads to issues in the design and development of systems, including reliability, security, usability, and sustainability. The amount of batteries, for example, has an impact on the size and comfortability of sensors. Furthermore, repeatedly recharging or replacing batteries may reduce the fall detection system's utility and user acceptance. As a result, numerous energy-efficient fall detection systems have been developed for long-term fall detection services that aim at minimizing power consumption and extending battery life as long as feasible to enable long-term fall detection services. This need creates system design and development issues, such as reliability, security, usability, and long-term viability.

Even though numerous fall detectors have been used and some are on the market, none has been labeled as a superior method. According to estimates, nearly half of the elderly who fall do not disclose it to their health care provider. This fact encourages the usage of non-wearable gadgets with remote monitoring capabilities. A computer system that can identify and classify falls automatically and effectively would help monitor the older population and speed up the help process, minimizing the risk of long-term injury and mortality. One of the most typical issues with such systems is a high number of false positives in their recognition method, leading to a surge in surveillance system calls. According to current multidisciplinary research, falls among the elderly are a significant global public health concern. Several wearable motion sensor-based fall detection systems have been developed, but these systems fail to assess the exact nature of human falls

adequately. Fall detection devices are less expensive than a person's daily observation. A form of fall device reported to be in use is a wearable sensor device that consists of a magnetometer, gyroscope, and accelerometer tri-axial device. This device detects a fall with the utmost accuracy and simplicity.

In the aged, falls are majorly responsible for severe injuries and death. According to the World Health Organization [2], over 30% of the elderly, aged 64 and more, fall at least once a year. A previous study showed that nearly half of the elderly population died after laying on the floor for more than an hour within six months of a fall. Also, around 420,000 falls result in death each year. As a result of this statistic, falls are the second most significant cause of unintentional injury mortality.

II. RELATED WORKS

Various papers give an account of the development of fall detection from different aspects. We choose the most highly cited review papers, from 2014 to 2020. There are two approaches to fall detection using wearable sensors—threshold-based systems and machine learning-based systems. While threshold-based systems have been popular because of their low computational overhead, they could be prone to more false positives and false negatives, given that the thresholds themselves may be affected by various factors. As a result, machine learning algorithms for fall detection have been a much-researched area. There has been extensive research into the efficiencies of various machine learning techniques for fall detection.

de Quadros et al [3], compare threshold-based mechanisms and machine learning-based mechanisms for fall detection applied on data generated by accelerometer, gyroscope, and magnetometer. The paper concludes that the machine learning-based mechanism yielded much better results than the threshold-based solutions. Machine learning-based techniques differ from each other in multiple factors—the feature set used, sensors employed, placement of sensors, algorithms applied, the dataset used, performance parameters monitored, and so on. In [4], the dataset used was generated from an accelerometer and gyroscope, placed at the waist level. Feature extraction was performed using the windowing technique, feature selection using the rank-based system, and classification using Naïve-Bayes, LSM, ANN, SVM, and kNN algorithms. kNN, ANN, and SVM had the best performance results compared to LSM and Naïve-Bayes. Results show an accuracy of 87.5%, a sensitivity of 90.70%, and a specificity of 83.78%, for kNN.

Jefiza et al. [5] use a backpropagation neural network (BPNN) for fall detection, with data collected from a three-axis accelerometer and gyroscope, and reported an accuracy of 98.182%, the precision of 98.33%, the sensitivity of 95.161%, and specificity of 99.367%. Hossain et al. [6] also attempt to distinguish falls from ADLs and compares SVM, kNN, and complex tree algorithms applied to data generated by accelerometers. The paper compared the performance of these algorithms concerning the accuracy, precision, and recall, of ADLs and four types of falls (forward, backward, right, and

left). It was observed that the accuracy and precision of SVM were the highest, while complex trees performed better in terms of recall analysis.

One of the observed drawbacks of wearable sensors is that the accuracy of fall classification and detection is impacted by the placement of the sensors. Yu et al. [7] attempt to reduce errors caused by incorrect sensor positions and detail an HMM-based fall detection system for the same. Sensor orientation calibrations are applied on HMM classifiers to resolve issues arising out of misplaced sensor (3-axis accelerometer) locations and misaligned sensor orientations. This paper reports a sensitivity of 99.2% on an experimental dataset and 100% for a real-world fall dataset.

Chelli et al. [8] compares the performance of 4 algorithms—ANN, kNN, quadratic SVM, and ensemble bagged tree—in two steps. First, only acceleration and angular velocity data are used. Then, new features that improve the performance of the classifier are extracted from the power spectral density of the acceleration. The accuracy of the algorithms is observed to have increased after applying feature extraction techniques. The objective of Wang et al. [9] was to test the impact of optimal feature selection on the accuracy of fall detection. The features of accelerations in different parts of the body are collected through wearable devices. The Bayesian framework was applied to select the optimal features from the data generated by the wearable devices, and the weight of each feature was calculated, after which training was done based on the optimal feature set. It was observed that improved classification led to better accuracy, sensitivity, and specificity

Genoud et al. [10] propose a system for soft fall detection using ML in wearable devices. The feature sets used were linear acceleration and gyroscope readings, and the algorithms compared were decision tree, decision tree ensemble, kNN, and multilayer perceptrons (MLP). The experiments showed that the decision tree ensemble outperformed the results obtained by the other algorithms. Kao et al. [11] use an ensemble of spectrum analysis, with GA-SVM, SVM, and C4.5 classifiers. The sensor readings were from 3-axis accelerometers. The best results were given by GA-SVM, with an accuracy of 94.1%, a sensitivity of 94.6%, and a specificity of 93.6%.

Musci et al. [12] describe an RNN model with LSTM blocks on data generated by 3D accelerometers for fall detection. The paper observes that though it is difficult to distinguish high dynamic activities from falls, the approach described achieves a better overall classification. Fakhruddin et al. [13] apply CNN to streaming time series accelerometer data, collected from body sensor networks (BSN), for fall and non-fall situations. Yves M. Galvão, et al. [14], proposed a multimodal approach with a convolution neural network and LSTM, which is trained to detect falls based on RGB images and information from accelerometers, and provide an extensive comparison with state-of-the-art models, a multimodal solution presents an improvement in the accuracy.

III. A DEEP LEARNING MODEL FOR FALL DETECTION

Convolution neural networks (CNNs) are a type of deep neural network which uses convolution operations to learn kernels for collecting features from input data. Different topological models can be used to define such kernels.

- 1D kernels, which are mainly used for temporal processing using a defined window [15], [16];
- 2D kernels, which are mainly used for spatial relation learning. Moreover, 2D kernels are often used to image processing. [17]. Decoding Facial Recognition, Analyzing Documents, Historic and Environmental Collections, Understanding Climate, and Grey Areas are just a few of the challenges that CNNs can help with.

The higher performance of convolutional neural networks with picture, speech or audio signal inputs sets them apart from conventional neural networks. They are divided into three sorts of layers:

- Convolutional layer
- Pooling layer
- Fully-connected (FC) layer

A convolutional network's first component is the convolutional layer. While additional convolutional or pooling layers can be implemented after convolutional layers, the fully-connected layer is the last. The CNN becomes much more complex with each layer, identifying more significant image parts. Earlier layers concentrate on essential elements like colors and borders. As the visual data travels through the CNN layers, it distinguishes more significant elements or forms of the item, subsequently identifying the target object.

1) *Convolutional Layer*: The convolutional layer is the most critical feature of a CNN because most of the computation occurs. It requires input data, a filter, and a feature map, amongst many other things.

Let us pretend the input is a colour image of a 3D matrix of pixels. This means that the input will have three dimensions: height, width, and depth, which correspond to a picture's RGB colour space. A feature detector, also known as a kernel or a filter, will check for the presence of the feature across the image's receptive fields. This method is known as convolution.

A two-dimensional (2-D) weighted array representing a piece of the image is used as the feature detector. The filter size, which can vary, usually is a 3x3 matrix, which influences the size of the receptive field as well. The filter is then applied to a section of the image, and the dot product of the input pixels and the filter is determined. The output array receives this dot product. The filter then shifts by one stride, and the procedure is repeated until the kernel has swept across the entire image. A feature map, activation map, or convoluted feature is the ultimate output from a series of dot products generated by the input and the filter.

Before the neural network training begins, three hyper parameters determine the output volume size that must be established. These are some of them:

- 1) The output depth is affected by the number of filters used.

- 2) The kernel's stride is the number of pixels it traverses across the input matrix.
- 3) When the filters do not fit the input image, zero-padding is commonly utilized.

2) *Pooling Layer*: Down sampling, also known as pooling layers, is a dimensionality reduction technique used to reduce the number of factors in the input. The pooling process spreads a filter across the whole input, similar to the convolutional layer; however, this filter does not have any weights. Instead, the kernel uses a clustering method to populate the output array from the values in the receptive field. Pooling can be divided into two categories:

Max pooling: The filter takes the pixel with the highest value to transmit to the output array as it goes across the input. In comparison to average pooling, this strategy is employed more frequently.

Average pooling: The filter measures the average value inside the receptive field as it passes across the input and transmits it to the output array. While the pooling layer loses much information, it does have a few advantages for CNN. They assist in reducing complexity, increasing efficiency, and reducing the risk of overfitting.

3) *Fully-Connected Layer*: In partially linked layers, the pixel values of the input image are not directly connected to the external layer. Each node in the output layer, on the other hand, directly connects to a node in the preceding layer in the fully-connected layer.

II.A Long-Short Term Memory (LSTM): The long short-term memory (LSTM) architecture is a deep learning architecture that involves a recurrent neural network (RNN) published [18] in 1997 by Sepp Hochreiter and Jürgen Schmidhuber. Unlike regular feed-forward neural networks, LSTM has feedback connections. Therefore, it is well suited to learn from experience to classify, process and predict time series when they are very long time lags of unknown size between important events. A memory cell in LSTM, which is composed of four main elements, an input gate, a neuron with self recurrent connection, a forget gate and an output gate. An input gate can allow incoming signal to alter the state of the memory cell or block it. The reconnect connection ensure barring any outside inference where the state of the memory cell can remain constant from one time step to another. The forget gate can modulate the memory cell's self-recurrent connection, allowing the cell to remember or forget its previous state, as needed. And finally, the output gate can allow the state of the memory cell to have an effect on other neurons or prevent it. In this project work we are employing single layer LSTM as well as multi layer LSTM RNN. The network architecture for the LSTM model we used in this dataset is shown in Figure [1].

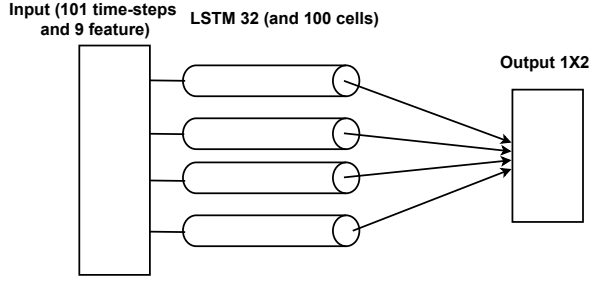


Fig. 1. Architecture used for the Dataset Accelerometer— LSTM.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

A. Dataset

The data set for this project is taken from the reference article [19] and is available publicly in the link ¹. With Erciyes University Ethics Committee approval, ten male (24 ± 3 years old, 67.5 ± 13.5 kg, 172 ± 12 cm) and seven female (21.5 ± 2.5 years old, 58.5 ± 11.5 kg, 169.5 ± 12.5 cm) healthy volunteers participated in the study with informed written consent. A wireless sensor unit was fitted to the subject's waist and right thigh among other body parts. The sensor unit comprises three tri-axial devices: accelerometer, gyroscope, and magnetometer/compass. Raw motion data were recorded along three perpendicular axes (x, y, z) from the unit with a sampling frequency of 25 Hz yielding $Acc_X, Acc_Y, Acc_Z(m/s^2)$, $Gyr_X, Gyr_Y, Gyr_Z(/s)$ and $Mag_X, Mag_Y, Mag_Z(Gauss)$. The data set consists of 57.96% falls and 42.04% of activities of daily life. In addition, there are altogether 1570 records, 910 falls, and 660 daily life activities.

B. Pre-processing

Usually, the studies on fall detection mostly use simple thresholding of the sensory outputs like acceleration and rotational rates because of its simplicity and low processing time. However, in this dataset, additional features of the recorded signals are considered. The total acceleration of the waist accelerometer is given by

$$A_T = \sqrt{A_x^2 + A_y^2 + A_z^2} \quad (1)$$

where A_x, A_y, A_z are the accelerations along the x, y, and z axes respectively. Initially, the time index corresponding to the peak AT value of the waist accelerometer in each record was identified. Then, the two-second intervals ($25Hz \times 2s = 50$ samples) before and after this point was taken, corresponding to a time window of 101 samples ($50 + AT_index + 50$) and ignore the rest of the record. Data from the remaining axes of each sensor unit are also reduced in the same way, considering the time index obtained from the waist sensor as a reference, resulting in six 101×9 arrays of data. Each column of data is represented by an $N \times 1$ vector $s = [s_1, s_2, \dots, s_N]T$, where $N = 101$. Extracted features consist of the minimum,

maximum, and mean values, as well as variance, skewness, kurtosis, the first 11 values of the auto-correlation sequence, and the first five peaks of the discrete Fourier transform (DFT) of the signal with the corresponding frequencies.

The total acceleration of the five falls plotted over a four-second time interval around their peak at time 0 is shown in Figure [2]. The individual fall differs from one another as shown in the figure. Similarly, Figure [3] shows the mean total acceleration of all 910 falls.

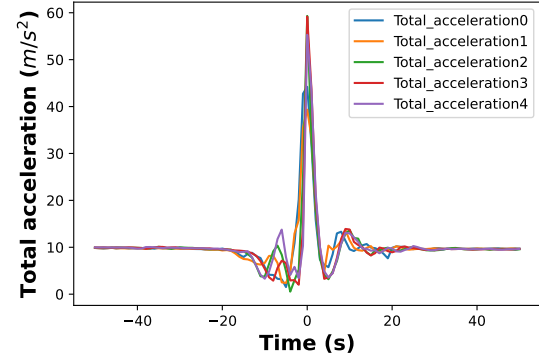


Fig. 2. The total acceleration of five fall plotted over four second time interval around their peak at time 0.

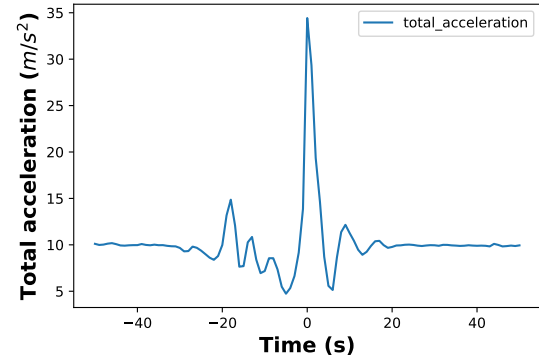


Fig. 3. The accelerations of falls plotted over time interval.

The total five activities of daily life plotted over a four second time interval around their peak at time 0 is shown in Figure [4]. The individual activities of daily life differ from one another as shown in figure. Similarly, Figure [5] shows the mean total acceleration of all 660 activities of daily life.

C. Evaluation protocol

From the raw data 9 measure signals $Acc_X, Acc_Y, Acc_Z, Gyr_X, Gyr_Y, Gyr_Z, Mag_X, Mag_Y, Mag_Z$) of the *FallDataSet* and 17 features, 153 (17×9) feature vector of dimensionality for each test are extracted. The feature extraction is essential for implementation with standard machine learning classifiers. This will be briefly explained in the result section. For deep neural network features, extraction

¹https://drive.google.com/open?id=1gqS1fkTvtuAaKj_0cn9n04ng1qDAoZ2t

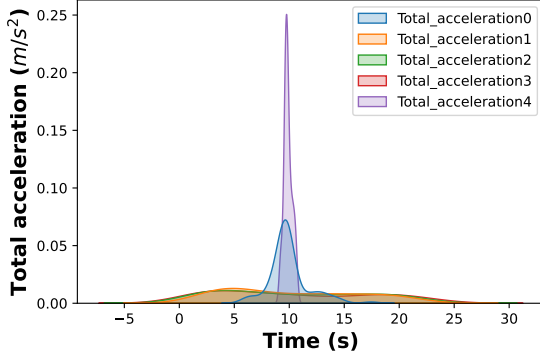


Fig. 4. The total acceleration of five fall plotted over four second time interval around their peak at time 0.

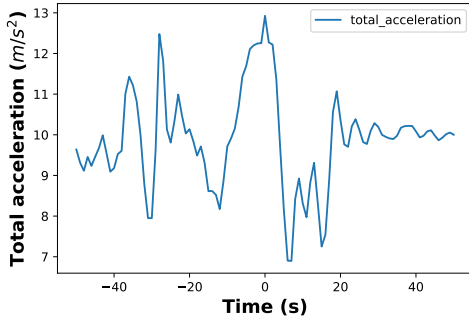


Fig. 5. The accelerations of activities of daily life plotted over time interval.

is not necessary as we are feeding the raw data. we evaluate all the models by training 80% of the data point from the datasets and testing the remaining data points. To optimize our performance, we investigated three different topology architectures for processing the raw sensor data. The proposed network model architectures are based on LSTM shown in Figure [6,7] and LSTM CNN1D as shown in Figure [8]. In the case of using the CNN and LSTM model, we evaluate the processing of the accelerometer, magnetometer, and gyroscope data with a one-dimensional filter CNN1D and the LSTM. CNN is an expert in processing spatial relations, while LSTM is useful for the processing of temporal as well as spatial patterns. Since the data we are analyzing is not a multi-class dataset, we are using the sigmoid activation function in the dense layer and binary cross-entropy loss. We use adam optimizer in all the models. Similarly, we used the ReLu activation function on the input Conv1D layer in Conv1D + LSTM model.

V. RESULTS

A. Standard Machine Learning Classifiers

Typical machine learning algorithms such as support vector machine (SVM), decision tree (DT), random forest (RF), and K- Nearest Neighbours (K-NN), are used to build fall detection models. We extracted the minimum, maximum, mean, median,

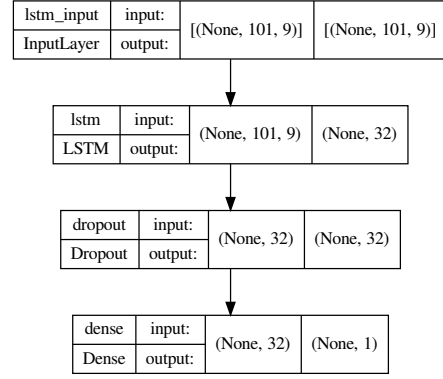


Fig. 6. The network architecture for single-layer LSTM based model.

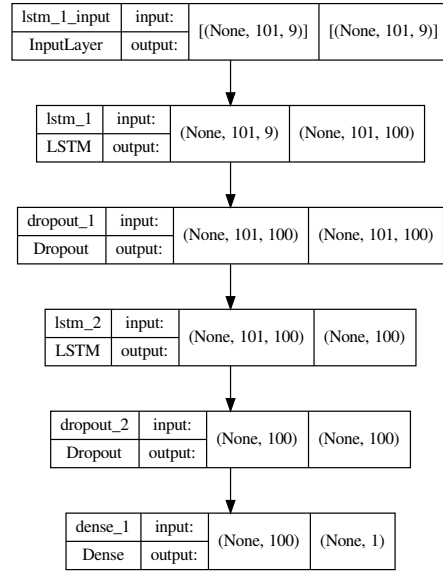


Fig. 7. The network architecture for multi-layer LSTM based model.

skewness, kurtosis, and variance features for the three-axis acceleration, velocity, and angular velocity data, trained by the use of the TensorFlow deep learning framework. We propose a multimodal approach by combining Conv1D and LSTM networks with these features. To test the accuracy of the approach in this study, a comparative test experiment with different standard machine learning classification methods was performed. The resulting accuracy scores on the test dataset are reported in Listing [1] and is shown in Figure [9]. The best performing classifier is the RF, K-NN classifier yielding an accuracy score of 100%.

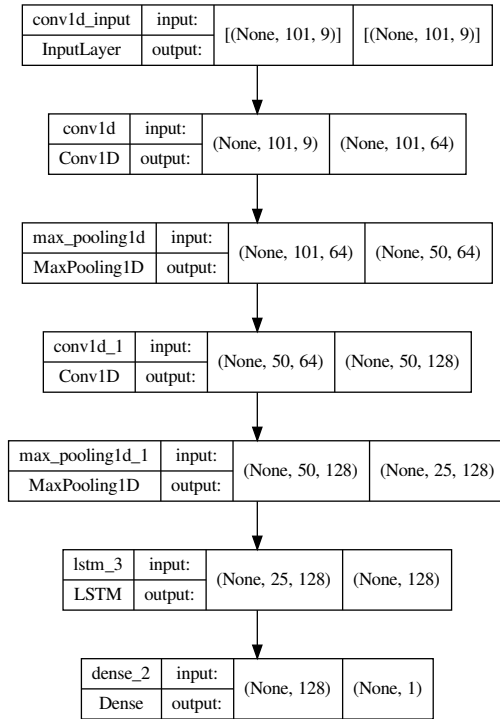


Fig. 8. The network architecture for CNN1D based model.

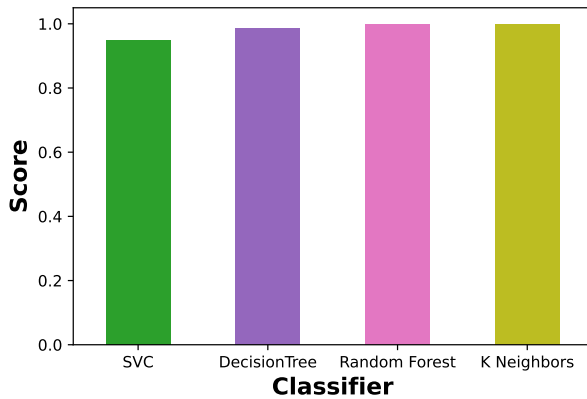


Fig. 9. The machine learning classifiers K-Nearest Neighbors, Decision Tree, Random Forest and Support Vector Machine was fitted to the training dataset (obtained from the FallDataSet by feature extraction) and the resulting accuracy scores.

| Listing 1. The standard machine learning classifiers scores | | |
|---|---------------|----------|
| | Classifier | Score |
| 0 | SVC | 0.949045 |
| 1 | Decision Tree | 0.987261 |
| 2 | Random Forest | 1.000000 |
| 3 | K Neighbors | 1.000000 |

Initially the accuracy of K-NN model is 100%, however, in

an attempt to reduce the number of features from total 153 to 68, the accuracy is still 99.68%. We performed principal component analysis on the training feature dataset to obtain 68 dimensions which explain most of the variance in the training data. Dimensionality reduction of the full feature space from 153 to 68 features reduce in accuracy score by 0.32%, which is not drastic reduction and which we should considered as a successful simplification. The results from all the evaluated model- K-NN, single and multi-layer LSTM and Conv1D + LSTM model are summarized in Table [1]. We see the Conv1D + LSTM model outperform multi-layer LSTM followed by the single layer LSTM in accuracy. Also, the comparison between accuracy, F1-score, precision and recall is shown in figure [10]. The advantages of using deep neural network is that these models operates directly on raw sensor data as it extract features by itself in it's convolutional layer. However, in K-NN, RF, SVM classifiers, the data has to be fed after feature extraction i.e. preprocessing of data is essential.

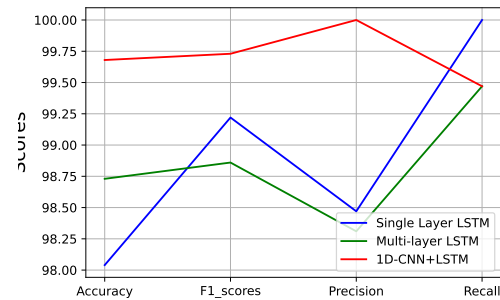


Fig. 10. The machine learning classifiers K-Nearest Neighbors, Decision Tree, Random Forest and Support Vector Machine was fitted to the training dataset (obtained from the FallDataSet by feature extraction) and the resulting accuracy scores.

TABLE I
PERFORMANCE OF THE MODEL USED FOR FALL DETECTION USING WEARABLE SENSORS.

| Machine learning model | Accuracy | f1-scores | Precision | Recall |
|------------------------------------|----------|-----------|-----------|--------|
| K-NN classifier (reduced features) | 99.68% | - | - | - |
| Single layer LSTM | 98.04% | 99.22% | 98.47% | 100% |
| Multi layer LSTM | 98.73% | 98.86% | 98.31% | 99.47% |
| Conv1D + LSTM | 99.68% | 99.73% | 100% | 99.47% |

The final models (K-NN, LSTM and Conv1D +LSTM) have higher accuracy than SVC and DT classifiers. The new approach of using CNN and LSTM together also improved the accuracy.

B. Comparison with other work

Machine learning-based techniques differ from each other in multiple factors—the feature set used, sensors employed, placement of sensors, algorithms applied, dataset used, performance parameters monitored, and so on. We compared our

results with some of the recent work on fall detection [5]–[7], [11]–[14] with the appropriate model used and the results are tabulated on Table II.

TABLE II
COMPARATIVE BETWEEN OUR RESULTS AND THE OTHER STUDIES
PRESENTS IN THE LITERATURE.

| Contributors | Machine learning model | Results |
|-------------------------------|--|---|
| R. Malekian, et.al(2016) [6] | kNN, ANN, and SVM | KNN:Acc=87.5%,Sens=90.70%, Spec.=83.78% |
| Jefiza et al. (2017) [5] | back-propagation neural (network (BPNN)) | Acc= 98.182%,Sens=95.161%, Spec.=99.367% |
| Yu et al.(2018) [7] | Hidden Markov Model-Based Fall Detection | predictive value 0.981 and sensitivity of 0.992 |
| Kao et al. (2017) [11] | GA-SVM, SVM classifiers | Acc= 94.1%,Sens=94.6%, Spec.=93.6% |
| Musci et al. (2018) [12] | RNN model with LSTM blocks | high precision on fall detection |
| Fakhrulddin et al.(2017) [13] | deep CNN | CNN used to identify falls but yet could not improve the robustness of fall detection |
| M. Galvão, et. Al(2021) [14] | multimodal approach with CNN & LSTM | a multimodal solution presents an improvement in the accuracy |

VI. CONCLUSION

This project aims to address the possible solution to detect falls. We tested different machine learning and deep learning models on wearable sensor datasets for reaching the proposed problem (goal). The multi-layer LSTM and the model composed of CNN and LSTM reached the highest accuracy of 100%. These results are very good in comparison to recent research on similar data. To conform the final performance of the models, we need to do some hyper tuning of the parameters and calculate the learning rate. Because of the time limitation, we could not perform this task. This work could be done in the future.

The data was collected for the experimental purpose from healthy volunteers. However, testing this model in real-world applications might be challenging. Therefore, future consequences of the real-world application of these methods should have to address. In addition, elderly people might not feel comfortable with these wearable sensors attached to their body parts. The portable device running on the Linux version should be capable to run the model and the SD card to store the sensor data is necessary. The captured data needs to inform the timestamp to sync information. We encourage future work on the application of the proposed model with real-world scenarios to evaluate it on generalizing to specific person groups such as elderly citizens.

VII. CONTRIBUTION

Equal contribution by all group members on both codes and the report.

VIII. APPENDIX

A. Implemented codes

The above mentioned method is implemented using in Tensorflow 2.8.0, sklearn 1.0.1, keras 2.8.0 and Python version 3.8 and was run in DELL inspiration 15 7000 GPU-NVidia GeForce graphics. The code is made available public in github in the link https://github.com/Shailendra995/ACIT4630_Advanced_MLandDL.git.

B. Train and test (learning) plots

In all three neural networks, the test accuracy are above 99% which is very good results. What it means to us that in $\pm 0.9\%$ of the cases in single layer LSTM, the falls are not well classified from the non fall activities. As seen in the accuracy plots (Figure [11, 12], the the accuracy increases rapidly in the first 40 epochs, indicating that the network is learning fast. Afterwards, both the train and test plots flattens reaching maximum accuracy without any overfitting issues except for the multi-layer LSTM Figure.[11(DOWN)].

Similar conclusion can be drawn from the training and validation loss learning curve. LSTM single layer (Figure [13 UP]) and Conv1D + LSTM (Figure [14]) are goof fit learning curve as the goal of the good fit is the goal of the learning algorithm and that exists between overfit and underfit model. A good fit is identified by a training and validation loss that decreases to a point of stability with a minimal gap between the two final loss values. The loss of the model will almost always be lower on the training dataset than the validation dataset. This means that we should expect some gap between the train and validation loss learning curves. This gap is referred to as the “generalization gap.” We can see a precise generalization gap in Figure [14].

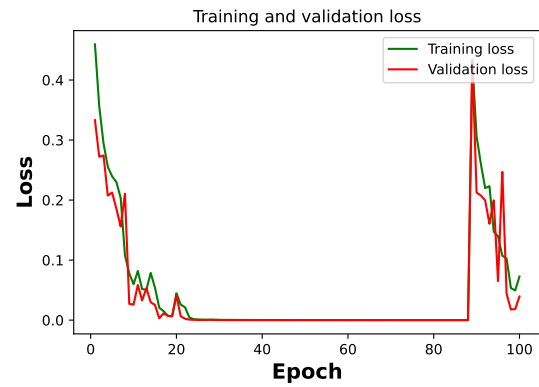
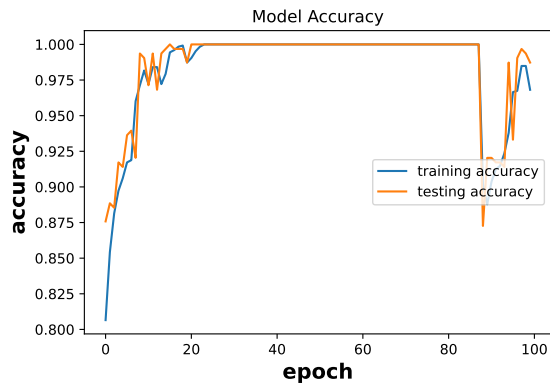
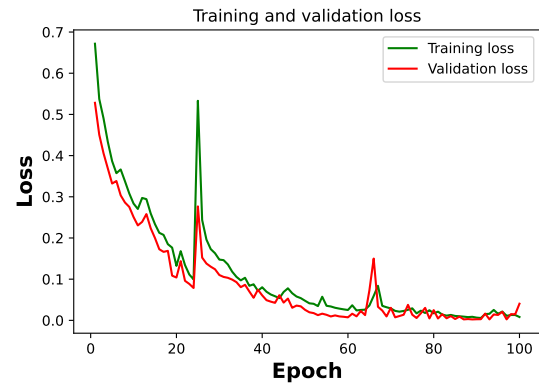
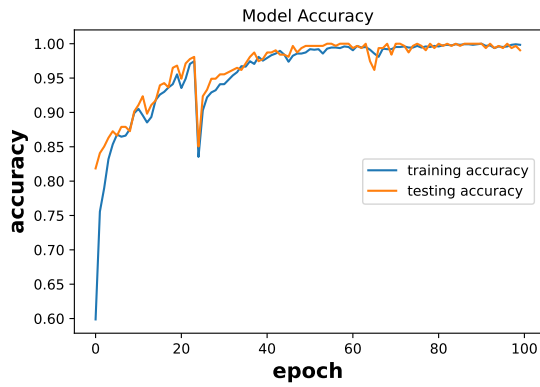


Fig. 11. Training and test accuracy plots for UP: LSTM single layer DOWN: multi-layer LSTM.

Fig. 13. Train and test learning curve for UP: LSTM single layer DOWN: multi-layer LSTM.

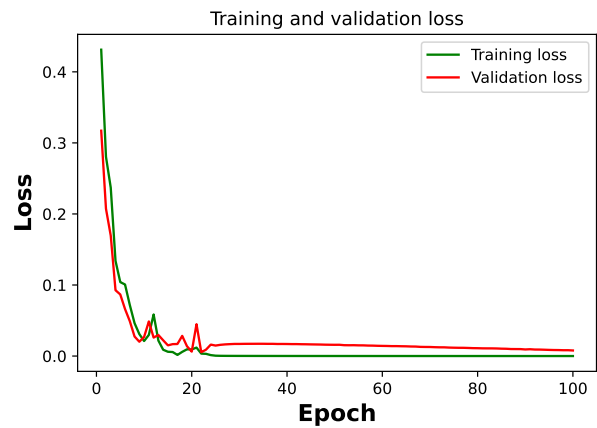
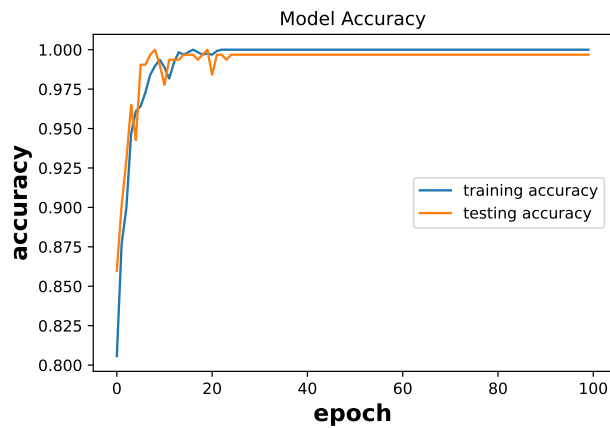


Fig. 12. Train and test accuracy curve for Conv1D + LSTM

Fig. 14. Train and test learning curve for single layer LSTM.

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