

Behavioural Patterns Analysis of Low Entropy People Using Proximity Data*

Muhammad Awais Azam,[†] Jonathan Loo, Sardar Kashif Ashraf Khan
School of Engineering and Information Sciences
Middlesex University, London, UK
{m.azam, j.loo, s.khan}@mdx.ac.uk

Usman Naeem
School of Architecture, Computing and Engineering
University of East London, UK
u.naeem@uel.ac.uk

Muhammad Adeel
School of Electronics Engineering and Computer Sciences
Queen Mary University of London, UK
muhammad.adeel@qmul.ac.uk

Waleed Ejaz
Department of Information and Communication Engineering
Sejong University, Seoul, Republic of Korea
waleed.ejaz@yahoo.com

Abstract

Over the years, wireless enabled mobile devices have become an important part of our daily activities that can provide rich contextual information about the location and environment of an individual (for example who is in your proximity? and where are you?). Advancement in technology has opened several horizons to analyse and model this contextual information for human behaviour understanding. Objective of this research work is to utilise this information from wireless proximity data to find repeated patterns in daily life activities and individual behaviours. These repeated patterns can give information about the unusual activities and behaviour of an individual. To validate and further investigate this concept, we used Bluetooth proximity data in this paper. Repeated activity patterns and behaviour of low entropy mobile people are detected by using two different techniques, N-gram and correlative matrix techniques. Primary purpose was to find out whether contextual information obtained from Bluetooth proximity data is useful for activities and behaviour detection of individuals. Results have shown that these repeated patterns not only show short term daily routines but can also show the long term routines such as, monthly or yearly patterns in an individual's daily life that can further help to analyse more complex and abnormal routines of human behaviour.

Keywords: Human Behaviour, Contextual Information, Low Entropy Behaviour, Repeated Activity Patterns.

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[†]Corresponding author: 56, Loxford Avenue, East Ham, London, UK, Tel: +44-0044-7511039345

1 Introduction

Modelling human behaviour such as individual routines from contextual information of daily life activity patterns is an emerging realm in Ubiquitous Computing. Computers are becoming more pervasive and are embedded in everyday objects, such as cameras, music players, cars, clothing etc. There can be different sensing devices e.g., Radio Frequency Identification (RFID), motion sensors, GPS enabled tracking devices [2], and other context aware devices that can be used for real time proximity detection and daily life data gathering purposes. In particular, devices such as mobile phones provide a rich platform for various forms of data gathering by using its integrated sensors such as Bluetooth ID, digital camera, microphones and GPS transceivers. These sensors can give an individual's location, movement and proximity information for the whole period of cell phone usage. Specifically, Bluetooth radios are frequently incorporated into mobile devices [3].

This new generation of "smart devices" has created new ways to utilise the capability of computers and enhanced the area of Ubiquitous Computing by providing rich and detailed information about the context of the user. Context-aware computing, which is part of Ubiquitous Computing, uses sensors either in the environment or carried / worn by the users to extract and interpret the user's context, for example what resources are available, who is in close user's proximity. This contextual information can help to recognise different tasks and activities perform by the user.

Detection and prediction of human behaviour from daily life activities is a challenging task. People can have both regular and varying daily life routines. Focus of this research work is on the detection of behaviour of the people who live low entropy lives that means they follow somewhat regular routines and exhibit less change in their behaviours as discussed in [4]. According to [4], if the user in his daily life, repeat the activities and routines with less change, it will be known as 'low entropy' behaviour. While a more change in daily routine patterns is considered as 'high entropy' behaviour. For example, a working person who follows the routine of going to the office and coming back home every day using the same means of the transport, or an elderly person with regular routines [5] (e.g., an early stage of dementia patient) can be the examples of people with more regular routines and hence less change in the behaviour.

The basic objective of the research work is to utilise the contextual information from wireless proximity data (e.g. Bluetooth proximity data) to find repeated patterns in daily life activities and individual behaviours. These repeated patterns can give information about the actual activities performed by the users. The motivation behind the idea is to utilise the abundant nature of Bluetooth and other wireless devices around us to help and aid in the detection of unusual routines and activities of low entropy mobile people such as, elderly people and early stages of dementia patients.

Two well-known techniques have been used in this research work to achieve the objective of finding repeated patterns in wireless proximity data. First is 'N-gram' [6] which is a probabilistic model to find next term in the sequence and second is 'correlative matrix' technique [7] which is a data structure proposed to find the repeated patterns in musical databases. Both techniques are explained in detail in section 3.1 and 3.2. The purpose here is not to compare the effectiveness of both techniques but to prove the concept that repeated patterns in daily life activities of low entropy users from wireless proximity data can be obtained and these repeated patterns can be used for activity and behaviour recognition.

To find the repeated patterns of activities by using above mentioned techniques, a dataset of contextual information is required. For this purpose, a dataset that is collected at Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) through Reality Mining project [4] is used in this research work. It is a very large daily human behaviour dataset collected via mobile phones during the year 2004-2005. The primary purpose was to provide an insight into the dynamics of both individual and group social behaviour using machine learning techniques. The dataset describes human behaviour in terms of mobile phone interactions. Both techniques mentioned above i.e. N-gram and correlative matrix are applied on this data set to obtain the repeated patterns in the wireless proximity data. Both techniques extract the total number

of different length repeated patterns for different users. Longest repeated patterns out of these extracted patterns are further analysed by adding different levels of permutations in them to see how many more patterns can be obtained. Further analyses in terms of how much percentage of every single day in one month of wireless proximity data is comprised of repeated patterns is also done.

Rest of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 discusses about the state of the art and the related work that other researchers have done so far. Section 3 discusses the ‘N-gram’ and ‘correlative matrix’ techniques in detail that are used in this paper to obtain the repeated activities patterns from the proximity data. Section 4 discusses the experimental results and Section 5 gives the summary and the future directions of the research work.

2 State of the Art

Recent advancements in information technology have created new and more challenging opportunities to gather information about the activities and behaviour of individuals. Importance of contextual information in daily life routines has gained the confidence nowadays. Many researchers have worked on individual behaviours and some techniques have also been presented to analyse the accumulative behaviour of multiple individuals instead of one single individual.

Naeem et al. work on activity recognition of dementia patients inside the home [8]; they describe an approach for modelling and detecting activities of daily life based on a hierarchy of plans that contain a range of precedence relationships, representations of concurrency and other temporal relationships. Identification of activities of daily life is achieved by episode recovery models supported by using relationships expressed in the plans. In [9] the same researchers define a two tier approach that is used to detect the activities of daily life. The higher tier uses hidden markov modelling (HMM) to model the common goals and sub-goals associated with daily life activities while the lower tier is used to recognize the tasks from different sensor events. In [10], the author proposed a framework based on identification of close proximity social behaviours. This work also focused on the movements inside a building. Similarly other multiple individual behaviour detection schemes such as group actions in meetings [11] and audio visual perception of a lecture in smart environment [12] are presented.

In [13], the author has presented a framework for the detection of unusual human behaviour in an intelligent house. The author used motion sensors to detect the activities and unusual human behaviour patterns based on Markov Chain. Vector quantization is employed to reduce the sensor states and the transition between states is represented by probabilistic model. The above mentioned technique detects the unusual human behaviour either by computing the distance between the state transition probabilities or by the likelihood of human action. The distance between the state transition probabilities was calculated by using either Kullback-Leiber distance or Euclidian distance. Limitation of their work is that they only consider the indoor activities that can only happen inside the home. To analyse human behaviours and activities, some authors have also used devices other than motion sensors such as, accelerometers, digital cameras and microphones.

Most of the researchers as discussed above have focussed on routines and activity detection in indoor environments and have used short range sensors that can work only in very close vicinity and have several limitations such as short range of detection, less battery power and storage, or may not be very common that every person can use it without extra hardware. This type of sensors cannot be used for outdoor environment.

Mobile phones nowadays are an important part of modern day communication [14]; far from the primary usage of sending and receiving phone calls and text messaging, today’s mobiles devices are capable of a range of activities from checking your email, surfing the web, playing games, etc. Different wireless connectivity options are available in many phones, one of the functions provided by most mobile

devices is Bluetooth. Bluetooth provides short range communications and was originally intended for use in personal area networks (PANs). Although the range of Bluetooth is relatively short, the extremely high market penetration among mobile users and the fact that it provides no cost communications between physically clustered mobile users means Bluetooth provides an excellent medium for collecting information about user behaviour. Many researchers have also explored the concept of mobile phone as a sensing device and used it to get the proximity data and user's location from cell tower ID information.

There have been several recent projects that utilise Bluetooth functionality to collect data that describes the interactions of everyday life - "reality data". Eagle and Pentland [4] use a passive running Bluetooth application to collect information about the daily interactions of 100 subjects within a university campus. They do this by recording the Bluetooth ID (BTID) of every device encountered by each user. Hermersdorf et al [15] also use Bluetooth to collect proximity data. Unlike Eagle and Pentland, they collect their data for 14 users in an office environment and demonstrated how behavioural patterns can be found in Bluetooth proximity data. They used Independent Component Analysis (ICA) to estimate the problem. Their second model demonstrated that rich Bluetooth environments can be used for positioning without any base station. Pietilainen et. al. [16] studied users with Bluetooth enabled devices in different meeting areas and designed a social interaction communication software package, MobiClique; that run on mobile phone and successfully builds a local social network. They developed three applications: epidemic news groups, adhoc social connections and asynchronous messaging.

The reality data collected in such experiments have inspired many different ways to analyse the behaviours and social interactions that can help in detecting some unusual routines and activities of low entropy mobile people. Social proximity sensing [17, 18], social behavioural modelling and routine classification and movement prediction [4, 15] are studied by the researchers. In [19] and [20], researchers have presented a framework for daily life activity recognition based on the user's location and group affiliation. They used Author Topic Model (ATM) and hierarchical Bayesian topic models like Latent Dirichlet Analysis (LDA) for routine classification. The routines they classified are whether it is a weekday or a weekend depending upon the location of the user or the proximity information and whether the experimental subject is an engineering student or a business student. The proximity data is only classified depending upon the number of proximate devices and it does not give any information about the location of the user.

It is a challenging task to find the actual routines and activities from the Bluetooth proximity data only. This is possible once it can be proved that Bluetooth proximity data can provide us enough information about the repeated activities and daily life routines. This work is an extension of the work presented in [1], in which only one user's data was analysed. In this paper, four different low entropy user's data has been analysed and their results are presented in detail. It is also discussed that the techniques that are adopted in this paper can also be applied on a large dataset for the same purpose. Future work that will be based on this analysis will focus on the recognition of actual daily life activities performed by the users and to find out any unusual routines that may lead to any accidents. The techniques that are adopted to find the patterns in the Bluetooth proximity data are explained in the next section.

The dataset that is used in this research work was collected by MIT researchers during 'Reality Mining' project [4] to get an insight into group and individual daily human behaviours. They used Nokia 6600 mobile phones to record the data of one hundred users over the duration of nine months. Seventy-five students belong to MIT media laboratory and twenty-five belong to the MIT Sloan business school. Different types of information were collected including phone status i.e. whether it is in use or charging or off, ID's of Bluetooth proximate devices, usage of mobile applications, GSM cell tower ID, call and SMS logs.

Only Bluetooth proximity data was required for our research work out of all other information available in the dataset. For Bluetooth proximity data, each mobile phone scanned the environment after every five minutes and made the log of all proximate Bluetooth devices (such as phones and laptops) that are

in the range of 5-10m. These detected Bluetooth devices respond to the scanning with their user defined name (e.g. John's e71), the device type (Nokia Cell Phone), and a unique twelve digit MAC address (e.g. 0021d683e904). The MAC address of each device is fixed and can be used to identify one user's phone from another (e.g., 20 means, user number 20 out of 100 participating users), irrespective of the type and name of the device. The dataset also provides the information of the time at which any device was detected and the total time for which that device remain detected by one user. So, if a single user is taken as an example, all proximate Bluetooth devices are shown as a list of detected devices at specific timestamps by that single user and the same case applies to all other users.

3 Methodology

As mentioned earlier, the objective of this research work is to prove the concept that repeated patterns of daily life activities of low entropy people can be obtained from wireless proximity data. To achieve this objective N-gram and correlative matrix approaches are applied on the reality mining dataset [4]. Both techniques are described in detail in section 3.1 and section 3.2.

Four different low entropy users are selected for analysis in this research work. Low entropy as mentioned in [4] means they follow somewhat regular routines. Entropy of their routine activities is calculated by using Shannon's Entropy equation given below.

$$H(x) = - \sum_{i=1}^n p(i) \log_2 p(i) \quad (1)$$

One month of Bluetooth proximity data of all the four users is taken and both N-gram and correlative matrix approaches are applied on this data. These techniques are used to find out total number of different lengths repeated patterns in the data and then the longest and most frequently detected patterns are selected for further analysis. The reason behind the selection of the longest and most frequently repeated patterns for further analysis is that these patterns most likely point towards the most probable activities that user is performing on daily, weekly or monthly basis.

3.1 N-gram Technique

N-gram is a probabilistic model which is normally used to calculate the next word in the sequence from the previous 'N-1' words. Computing the probability of the next word, closely related to computing the probability of a sequence of words. N-gram is used to assign a conditional probability to the next possible word; it can also be used to assign a joint probability to the whole sentence. If a sequence of 'N' words is represented by a sequence (w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n) or w_1^n . The intuition of the N-gram model is that instead of computing the probability of a word given its entire history, it approximates the history by using only last few words.

The bi-gram model, for example, approximates the probability of a word given all the previous words $\mathbf{P}(w_n | w_1^{n-1})$ by the conditional probability of the preceding word $\mathbf{P}(w_n | w_{n-1})$. This means when we use a bi-gram model to predict the conditional probability of the next word, the following approximation is made $\mathbf{P}(w_n | w_1^{n-1}) \approx \mathbf{P}(w_n | w_{n-N+1}^{n-1})$. In other words, N-gram is a fragment of length 'n' of a word of length 'L'. When L = 1, it is called uni-gram, L = 2 is bi-gram, L = 3 is tri-gram and size 4 or more is usually called N-gram. For example 'BEHAVIOUR' is a word of length L = 9 and it has the following bigrams (n = 2) and trigrams (n = 3), bigrams = {BE, EH, HA, AV, VI, IO, OU, UR}; trigram = {BEH, EHA, HAV, AVI, VIO, IOU, OUR}.

All further N-grams can be calculated for $0 < N \leq L$. If 'T' is the total number of N-grams then we can calculate 'T' from $T = L - n + 1$, while it is assumed that a window of size 'n' is shifting one

character at a time. It means if $L = 9$ and $N = 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8$ then $T = 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2$. While detecting total number of repeated patterns, all those patterns that are complete subsets of longer patterns are not considered. Researchers have explored many areas of N-gram applications including natural language processing, detecting repeated patterns in musical compositions [20], approximately duplicate database record [21] and in large scale clustering of DNA texts [22]. Classification and similarity measure between textual documents is a common example of N-gram usage.

3.2 Correlative Matrix Technique

The idea of correlative matrix approach was presented by Jia-Lien Hsu in The idea of correlative matrix approach was presented by Jia-Lien Hsu in [7]. The approach is explained here by applying on a sample stream of data (proximate Bluetooth devices) detected by one of the target users. User detected these devices during one hour time slot and in this sequence: “S = 94, 51, 51, 94, 94, 51, 51, 94, 13, 94, 237, 831”. These numbers show the Bluetooth ID of proximate devices in close vicinity. Figure 1 shows the repeated patterns in this sequence. Proper sub-patterns of these repeated patterns are not included unless they appear elsewhere in the detected sequence. For example, the pattern “94, 51, 51, 94” repeated twice whereas the pattern “94, 51, 51” is a sub-pattern of “94, 51, 51, 94” and it is also repeated twice in the sequence. As “94, 51, 51” pattern appears only with the pattern “94, 51, 51, 94”, and nowhere else, it is not considered as a separate pattern and is not included in the list. However if we consider only “94 16”, it appears five times that means it also appear other than the pattern “ 94, 51, 51, 94”. This is why; “16 94” is included in the repeating patterns list.

| Repeating Patterns | Pattern Length | Frequency of Repetition |
|--------------------|----------------|-------------------------|
| 94, 51, 51, 94 | 4 | 2 |
| 94 | 1 | 5 |
| 51 | 1 | 4 |

Figure 1: Patterns and Their Repeating Frequencies from Example Sequence

The approach used in the correlative matrix is that, if the i -th detected device and the j -th detected device in the sequence are same, the i -th row and the j -th column of the correlative matrix will be set to ‘1’. Furthermore, if the i -th detected device and the j -th detected device are same and $(i+1)$ -th detected device and the $(j+1)$ -th detected device are also same in the sequence, that shows a repeating pattern of length ‘2’, the value of $(i+1)$ -th row and the $(j+1)$ -th column of the correlative matrix will be set to ‘2’. This value in the correlative matrix shows the length of the repeated patterns found and the total repeating frequency of a pattern can also be calculated by computing all non-zero values in the correlative matrix. Below is the explanation of constructing the correlative matrix for the above mentioned example sequence of detected proximate Bluetooth devices.

First of all, as the sequence ‘S’ has twelve detected devices in it, a 12 x 12 upper-triangular matrix will be initialised, represented by UT , shown below in Figure 2. $UT_{i,j}$ will be used to represent the i -th row and the j -th column of the correlative matrix UT .

The whole matrix will be filled row by row. Let’s take the first row. The device “94” is the first element of the sequence ‘S’ and it will be compared with all other devices in the ‘S’ one by one. If any element of the sequence (represented by S_j) becomes equal to the “94”, i.e, $S_j = “94”$, it means “94” repeats again at j -th column of the first row, so $UT_{1,j}$ will be set to ‘1’. For example in this case, “94” appears at S_4 , S_5 , S_8 , and S_{10} . So, $UT_{1,4}$, $UT_{1,5}$, $UT_{1,8}$ and $UT_{1,10}$ will be set to ‘1’, as shown in

| | | Columns | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------|-----|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|--------|--------|
| | | j = 1 | j = 2 | j = 3 | j = 4 | j = 5 | j = 6 | j = 7 | j = 8 | j = 9 | j = 10 | j = 11 | j = 12 |
| Rows | | 94 | 51 | 51 | 94 | 94 | 51 | 51 | 94 | 13 | 94 | 237 | 831 |
| i = 1 | 94 | -- | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 51 | | -- | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 51 | | | -- | | | | | | | | | |
| | 94 | | | | -- | | | | | | | | |
| | 94 | | | | | -- | | | | | | | |
| | 51 | | | | | | -- | | | | | | |
| | 51 | | | | | | | -- | | | | | |
| | 94 | | | | | | | | -- | | | | |
| | 13 | | | | | | | | | -- | | | |
| | 94 | | | | | | | | | | -- | | |
| | 237 | | | | | | | | | | | -- | |
| i = 12 | 831 | | | | | | | | | | | | -- |

Figure 2: Correlative Matrix for the Example Sequence

Figure 3.

Now, the second row will be filled with respect to the device “51”. It is repeated at S_3 , S_6 , and S_7 . $UT_{2,3}$ and $UT_{2,7}$ will be set to ‘1’ as in the row-1, but for $UT_{2,6}$, the element at location $UT_{1,5}$ is already set to ‘1’, which means the sub-pattern “94, 51” appears again, so $UT_{2,6}$ will be set to ‘2’ as shown in Figure 3.

Furthermore, for any two elements ‘ S_i ’ and ‘ S_j ’ of the sequence ‘S’ where $i \neq j$ and $i, j > 1$, if $S_i = S_j$, then $UT_{i,j}$ will be set to $UT_{i-1,j-1} + 1$. If $UT_{i,j}$ has a value ‘n’, this represents a pattern of length ‘n’ repeating at the positions ‘ $j - n + 1$ ’ to ‘j’ in sequence ‘S’. Figure 4 below shows the overall result of all the patterns.

The whole correlative matrix is constructed now. In the following step, the repeating patterns and their respective repeating frequencies in the given sequence will be calculated. Hsu in [7] introduced a ‘candidate set’ for this purpose. Every element of this set has (‘repeating pattern’, ‘repetition_count’ and ‘sub-pattern count’). These values give information about the repeating pattern, how many times it is been repeated and if the repeating pattern is only a sub-pattern of any other pattern or not. If “repetition count = sub-pattern count”, then this particular pattern will not be included into the list of repeated patterns.

At the start, the ‘candidate set’ is initialised as an empty set. Then respective repeated patterns and frequencies of repetition for all non-zero elements $UT_{i,j}$ of the UT are calculated and inserted into the candidate set. There are four different scenarios depending upon the value ($(UT_{i,j} = 1)$ or $(UT_{i,j} > 1)$) and ($(UT_{(i+1),(j+1)} = 0)$ or $(UT_{(i+1),(j+1)} \neq 0)$) of every non-zero element $UT_{i,j}$.

Scenario 1: ($UT_{i,j} = 1$ and $UT_{(i+1),(j+1)} = 0$). As an example, take the value of $UT_{1,4}$ which is ‘1’. This means the frequency of repetition of “94” is one. Now if we check the value of $UT_{2,5}$ in Table-4, it is zero. This means, “94” is not a part of any other pattern at this stage. Insert (“94”, 1, 0) into the ‘candidate set’.

| | | Columns $\xrightarrow{j=1 \dots j=12}$ | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------|--------|--|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|-----|-----|
| | | 94 | 51 | 51 | 94 | 94 | 51 | 51 | 94 | 13 | 94 | 237 | 831 |
| Rows \downarrow | i = 1 | 94 | -- | | | 1 | 1 | | | 1 | | 1 | |
| | 51 | | -- | 1 | | | 2 | 1 | | | | | |
| | 51 | | | -- | | | | | | | | | |
| | 94 | | | | -- | | | | | | | | |
| | 94 | | | | | -- | | | | | | | |
| | 51 | | | | | | -- | | | | | | |
| | 51 | | | | | | | -- | | | | | |
| | 94 | | | | | | | | -- | | | | |
| | 13 | | | | | | | | | -- | | | |
| | 94 | | | | | | | | | | -- | | |
| | 237 | | | | | | | | | | | -- | |
| | i = 12 | 831 | | | | | | | | | | | -- |

Figure 3: Filling the First and second Row of the Correlative Matrix

| | | Columns $\xrightarrow{j=1 \dots j=12}$ | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------|--------|--|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|-----|-----|
| | | 94 | 51 | 51 | 94 | 94 | 51 | 51 | 94 | 13 | 94 | 237 | 831 |
| Rows \downarrow | i = 1 | 94 | -- | | | 1 | 1 | | | 1 | | 1 | |
| | 51 | | -- | 1 | | | 2 | 1 | | | | | |
| | 51 | | | -- | | | 1 | 3 | | | | | |
| | 94 | | | | -- | 1 | | | 4 | | 1 | | |
| | 94 | | | | | -- | | | 1 | | 1 | | |
| | 51 | | | | | | -- | 1 | | | | | |
| | 51 | | | | | | | -- | | | | | |
| | 94 | | | | | | | | -- | 1 | | | |
| | 13 | | | | | | | | | -- | | | |
| | 94 | | | | | | | | | | -- | | |
| | 237 | | | | | | | | | | | -- | |
| | i = 12 | 831 | | | | | | | | | | | -- |

Figure 4: After processing all Values in the Correlative Matrix

Scenario 2: ($UT_{ij} = 1$ and $UT_{(i+1),(j+1)} \neq 0$). Consider here the value of $UT_{1,5}$ which is '1'. This means the frequency of repetition of "94" is one. Now if we check the value of $UT_{2,6}$, it is not zero.

This means “94” is a part (sub-pattern) of another pattern. In this case, it is part of “95, 51”. As, “94” is already in the ‘candidate set’, the modified value for ‘candidate set’ will be (“94”, 2, 1) that shows, “94” has repeated twice and it appears as sub-pattern once.

Scenario 3: ($UT_{i,j} > 1$ and $UT_{(i+1),(j+1)} \neq 0$). Consider the value of $UT_{2,6}$, which is ‘2’. This means the sub-pattern “94, 51” and “51” repeats at this point. The value to insert into the ‘candidate set’ should be (“94, 51”, 1, 0) and (“51”, 1, 0). Now we can see that the value of $UT_{3,7}$ is ‘3’, which means the sub-patterns “94, 51” and “51” are sub-patterns of another pattern “94, 51, 51”. Thus, the modified values to insert into the candidate set should be (“94, 51”, 1, 1) and (“51”, 1, 1).

Scenario 4: ($UT_{i,j} > 1$ and $UT_{(i+1),(j+1)} = 0$). Consider the value of $UT_{4,8}$, which is ‘4’. This means that all the four sub-patterns “94, 51, 51, 94”, “51, 51, 94”, “51, 94” and “94” repeats here. Now because $UT_{5,9}$ is ‘0’, it means, this pattern is not a part of any other pattern. So the value to insert into the candidate set should be (“94, 51, 51, 94”, 1, 0), (“51, 51, 94”, 1, 1) and (“51, 94”, 1, 1). Also change (“94”, 5, 1) into (“94”, 6, 2).

After processing the whole matrix, the overall candidate set becomes { (“94”, 10, 1), (“51”, 6, 2), (“94, 51”, 1, 1), (“94, 51, 51”, 1, 1), (“51, 51”, 1, 1), (“94, 51, 51, 94”, 1, 0), (“51, 51, 94”, 1, 1) and (“51, 94”, 1,1)}. Now all those patterns that are proper sub-patterns of other patterns, and are not appeared at any other place will be removed from the ‘candidate set’. In this particular example, (“94, 51”, 1, 1), (“94, 51, 51”, 1, 1), (“51, 51”, 1, 1), (“51, 51, 94”, 1, 1) and (“51, 94”, 1, 1) will be removed from the candidate set because they are all sub-patterns of (“94, 51, 51, 94”, 1, 0).

In the next step, actual repeating frequencies should be calculated for all the repeating patterns. There are ‘10’ non-zero elements related to “94” in the whole matrix. Though, the actual repeating frequency of “94” is ‘5’, calculated by using:

$$repetition_count = \frac{f(f-1)}{2}, \text{ where } f = \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + 8 \times repetition_count}}{2} \quad (2)$$

Likewise, the repeating frequencies of “51” and “94, 51, 51, 94” are $\frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + 8 \times 6}}{2} = 4$ and $\frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + 8 \times 1}}{2} = 2$, respectively. Next section discusses the results of pattern detection in the wireless proximity data of low entropy mobile people using above mentioned techniques.

4 Experimental Results

This section discusses the results and behaviour of four low entropy mobile people selected from the dataset, depending upon the detection of other wireless proximate devices and duration of time that these low entropy people spent with other people.

Figures 5, 6, 7 and 8 show the total number of patterns obtained by using both N-gram and correlative matrix technique on one month of Bluetooth proximity data of target users. In all of these patterns, only super-patterns are included while those patterns that are sub-patterns of any other pattern are not included.. As, this research work focuses on the proof of concept that repeated activity patterns can be obtained from the wireless proximity data and can be used for behaviour recognition of individuals, so the longest and most frequently repeated patterns will be considered for further analysis. These patterns indicate group based activities and routines and will be helpful in analysing the behaviour of the user. The dataset that is used in this research work is obtained from MIT reality mining project, in which students and university employees took part. So this dataset contains activities of both students and office workers. The devices that are detected as different patterns can be in any order. Participating devices should be the same but their order can be different. For example, if we take an example of an office worker. He must detect the same office colleagues every day but their detection pattern can be in any sequence.

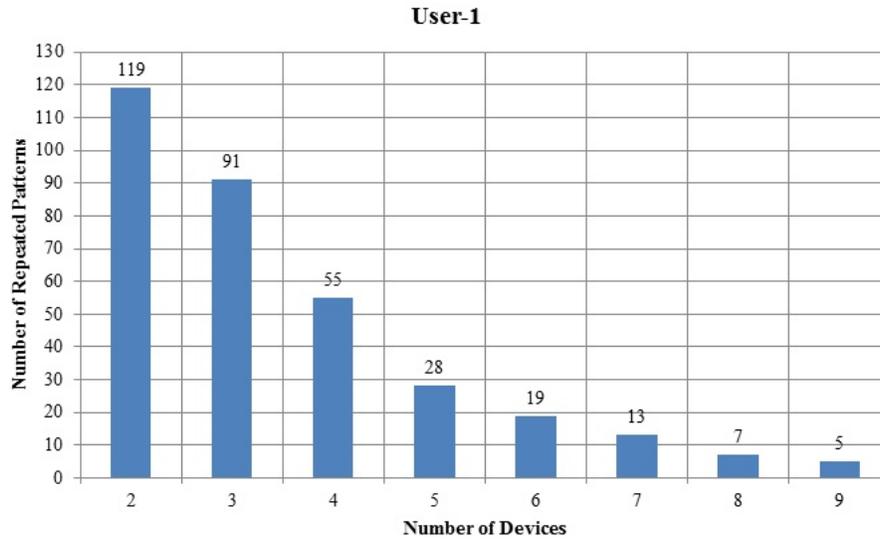


Figure 5: Total Number of Repeated Patterns Detected of User-1

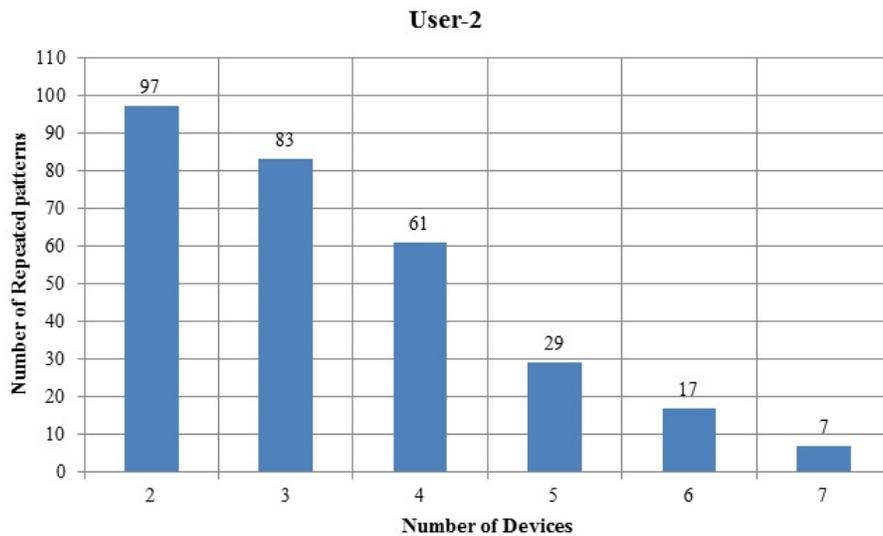


Figure 6: Total Number of Repeated Patterns Detected of User-2

Figure 5 shows that the longest patterns detected for User-1 consists of nine devices and there are five different patterns of nine devices. The most frequent one is that repeated five times for the whole month. For User-2 in Figure 6, there are seven different longest patterns that consist of seven devices and the most frequently repeated pattern, repeats four times. User-3 has six different patterns of eight devices and User-4 has three different patterns of seven devices shown in Figures 7 and 8 respectively. The longest and the most frequently repeated patterns of all of these users are selected for further analysis.

The nature of Bluetooth device interactions is that any device can send an enquiry beacon to search for other proximate devices and in response to that enquiry beacon, any device can be configured to reply. Due to this, devices can be detected in any sequence when they are in proximity with each other. Repeated patterns detection methodologies from Bluetooth proximity data must allow for levels of variations in the detected sequences. For example, an elderly person regularly goes to the social centre and

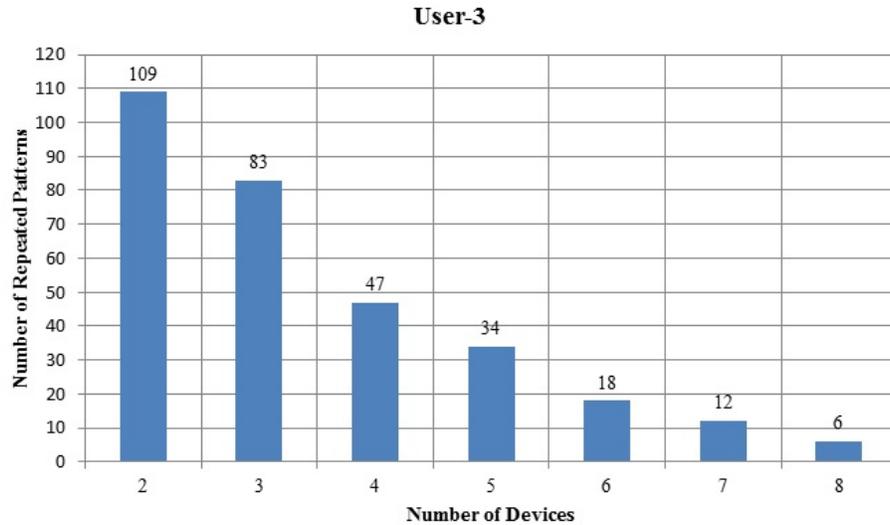


Figure 7: Total Number of Repeated Patterns Detected of User-3

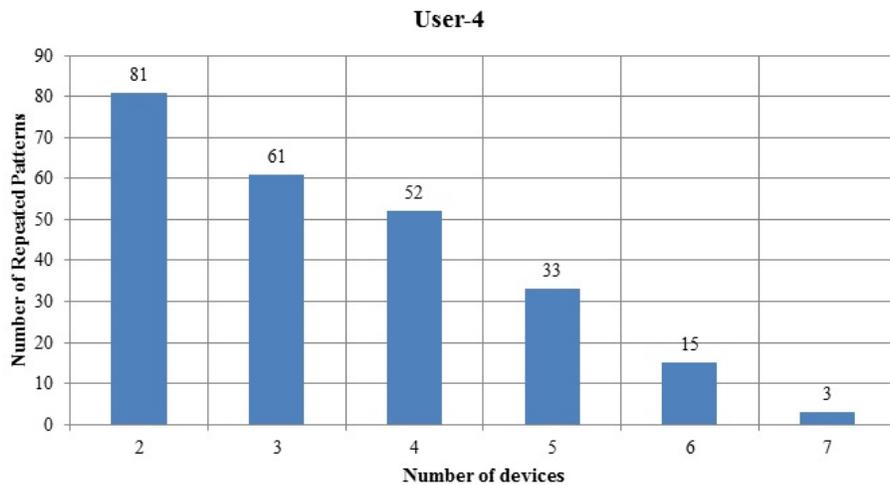


Figure 8: Total Number of Repeated Patterns Detected of User-4

detects other people and social centre reception desk computer. While these interactions have a specific pattern of proximity and time scale, it is not necessary that they follow a strict order of occurrence. The interaction indicates that the elderly person comes in social centre, meets his colleagues and stay there for specific time duration. However, daily patterns of spatial and temporal detections may differ as a result of his physical movement, absenteeism of other colleagues and the presence of new people. Therefore, using different levels of variations allows the detection of behaviour even when some temporary devices, like visitors are also detected. If this variation should be allowed in pattern detection, there can be many more detectable patterns that can represent the same activity.

Figures 9, 10, 11 and 12 show the combinatorial analysis of repeated pattern detections of the most frequent and longest patterns detected with different levels of permutation. Let's consider the example of User-1. 'Level-0' means no device is allowed to change. There sequence can be different but all nine devices should be the same. 'Level-1' of permutation means that eight out of nine devices are, in any order and one device is permitted to be different. Same is the case for all other levels. As expected, by

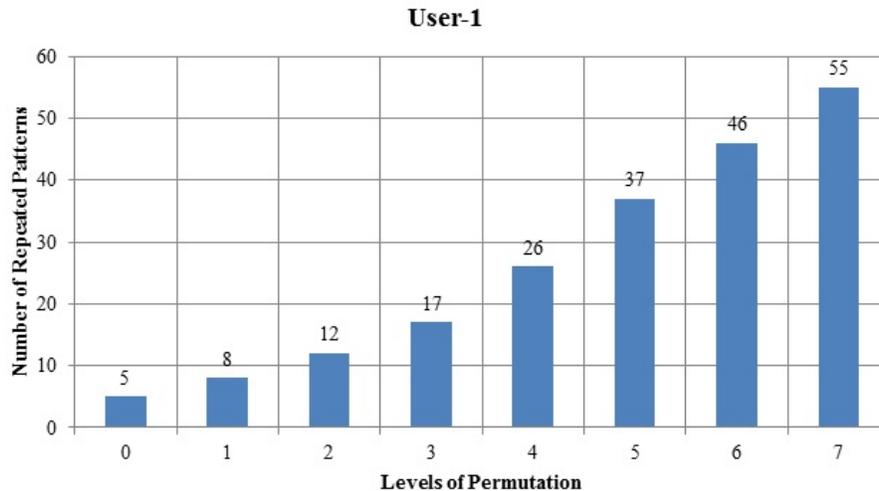


Figure 9: Combinatorial Analysis of Longest and Most Frequently Repeated Patterns of User-1

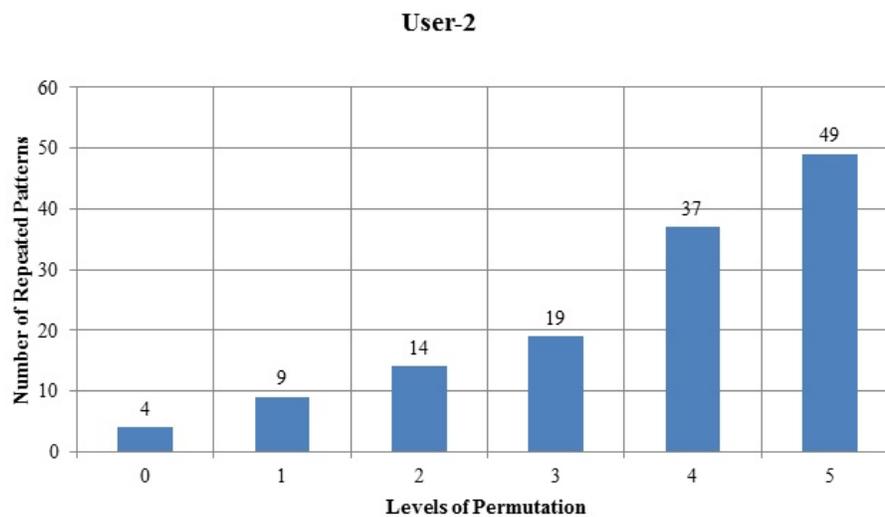


Figure 10: Combinatorial Analysis of Longest and Most Frequently Repeated Patterns of User-2

adding each level of permutation, the number of patterns that repeat throughout the month, increases. This increase in the frequency of repeated patterns is because the window for the fixed repeated pattern has been compressed and the remaining devices are allowed to combine in any order. The maximum level of permutation is seven for User-1, because the length of the pattern under analysis is nine and analysing additional levels of permutation would be unhelpful as it will not indicate any behavioural patterns. Same analysis is done with other users as well and different patterns obtained in this analysis are shown in Figures 9, 10, 11 and 12.

The results discussed so far have shown that some repeated activities have been performed by low entropy individuals during the whole month. Time of repeated activities is very important in order to understand the behaviour of individuals. Objective here is to find at what time of the day users are performing these repeated activity. This will help to analyse the routine of the users. Figures 13, 14, 15 and 16 show the frequency of the repeated patterns, obtained during the combinatorial analysis of the longest and most frequent patterns with different levels of permutation, in specific hours of the day for

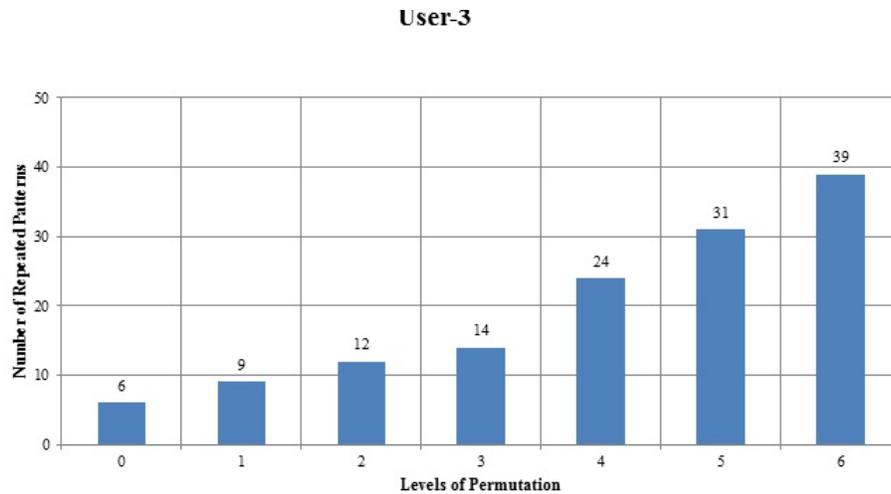


Figure 11: Combinatorial Analysis of Longest and Most Frequently Repeated Patterns of User-3

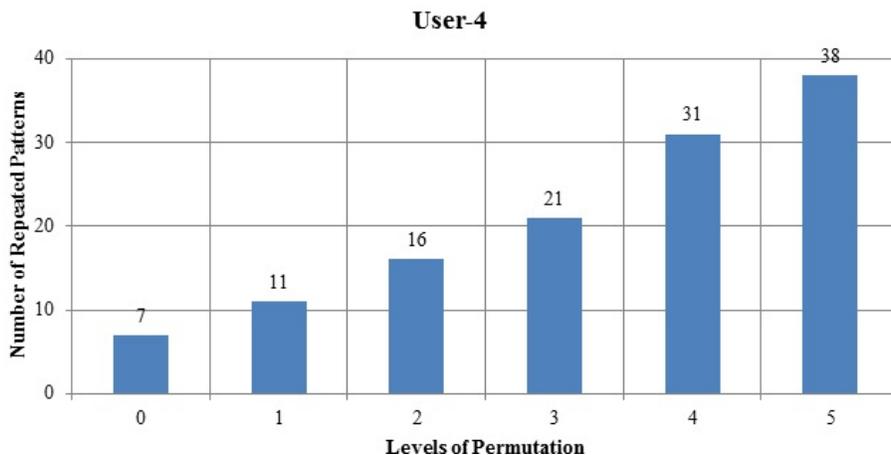


Figure 12: Combinatorial Analysis of Longest and Most Frequently Repeated Patterns of User-4

the whole month.

It shows that the maximum length repeated patterns occur between 9am – 4pm for all the four users. However, as the level of permutation increases, the frequency of repeated patterns increases as well. Most of these repeated patterns occur between 10am – 6pm. These figures also show that between 12pm – 4pm the detection of Bluetooth devices increases and activities reach at their peak. This can be because of the reason that most of the workers and students remain present at the campus during these working hours. These results also show that it is most likely that the same routine activities are performed by the individuals during these hours of the day.

Now as the time of the most repeated activity patterns has been identified, the next aim is to find out what percentage of the time these repeated activities occur in the whole month for every single day. Figures 17, 18, 19 and 20 show the percentage of repetitions, with respect to time, of all sequences of longest and most frequently detected patterns with different permutation levels. For example, all the detected patterns with 'Level-0' permutation of the longest pattern are first selected. Then those days are identified in which these patterns occurred. After that, total time during which these devices remain detected is calculated and then the percentage of that time is computed for these days. After calculating

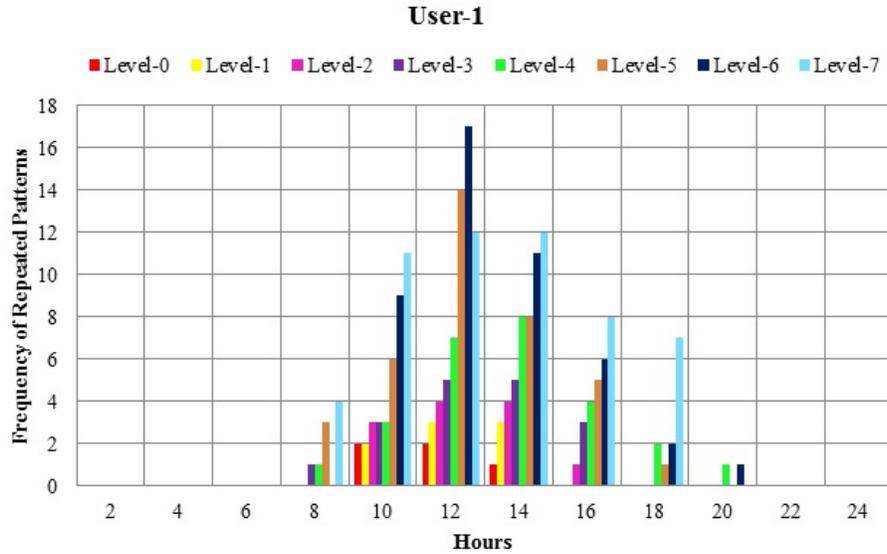


Figure 13: Frequencies of Repeated Patterns in Specific Hours with Different Levels of Permutation of User-1

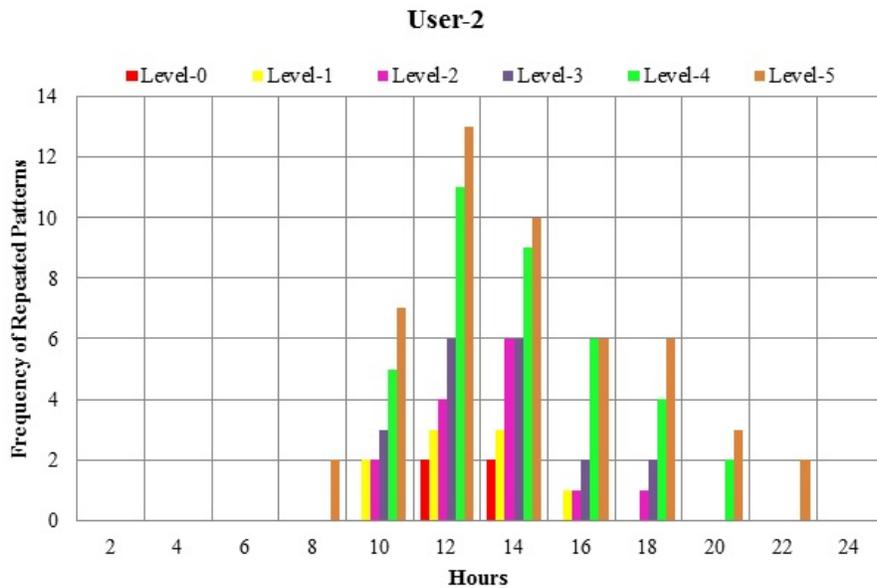


Figure 14: Frequencies of Repeated Patterns in Specific Hours with Different Levels of Permutation of User-2

the percentage of time for patterns of ‘Level-0’ permutation, the patterns with ‘Level-1’ permutation are selected and percentage of time for these patterns is also computed. Same process is used for all other patterns with levels 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 of permutation to calculate the percentage of time that they occupied in different days. As it is a common observation that repeated activities are less likely to be detected during the sleep hours in the night, a reasonable amount of percentage of time occupied in the repeated activities during the day time is detected.

Above analysis was done on the longest and the most frequently detected patterns in one month data of the target users. Same analysis was done on the next longest and most repeated patterns and results

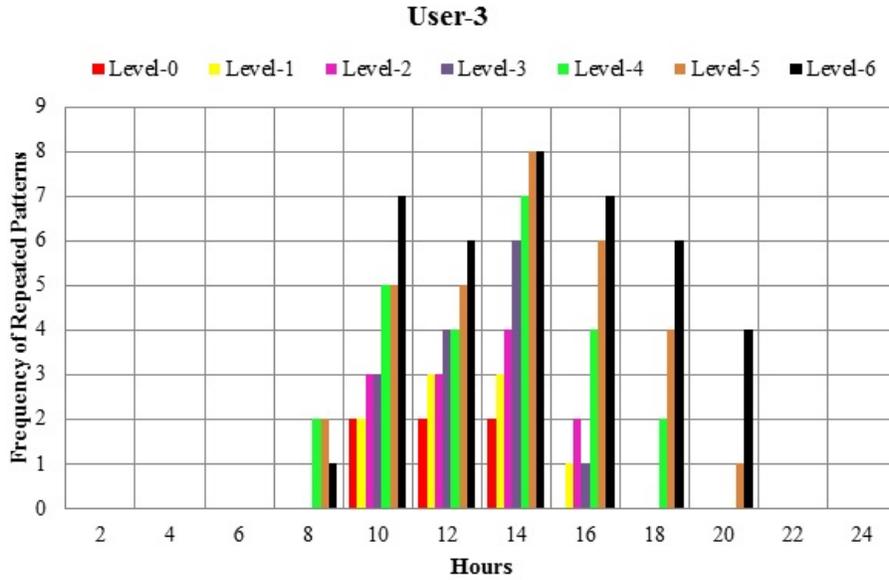


Figure 15: Frequencies of Repeated Patterns in Specific Hours with Different Levels of Permutation of User-3

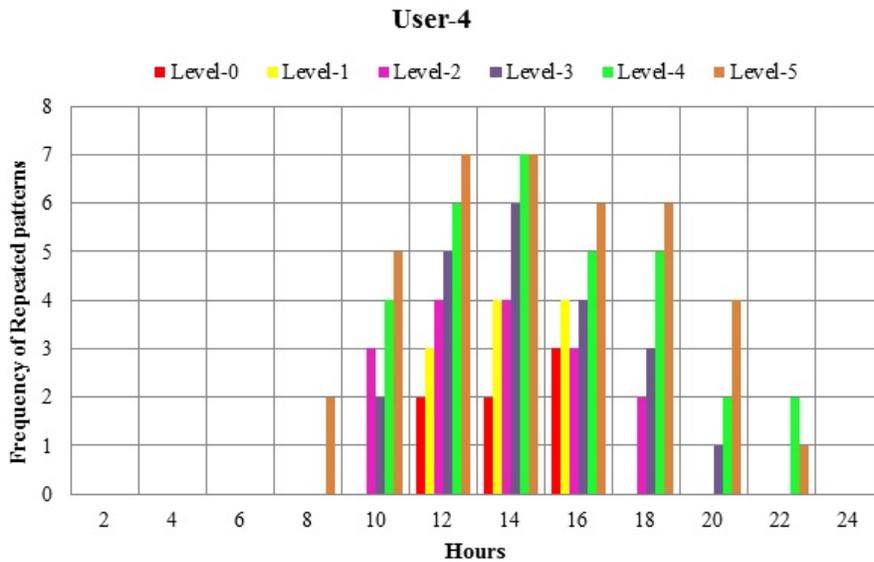


Figure 16: Frequencies of Repeated Patterns in Specific Hours with Different Levels of Permutation of User-4

showed that by adding it with the previous patterns, it increased the percentage of repetitions per day by 21.3 %, 13.7%, 19.3% and 14.1% for the User-1, User-2, User-3 and User-4 respectively for the whole month. It has also shown some different days with more percentage of time occupied in repeated activities. This means it is more likely that the remaining patterns will also increase the percentage of repetitions per day.

As our target users are mobile people and they move from one place to another during the whole day. For example, if it is a student, then he will attend the lectures according to the time table, go to the

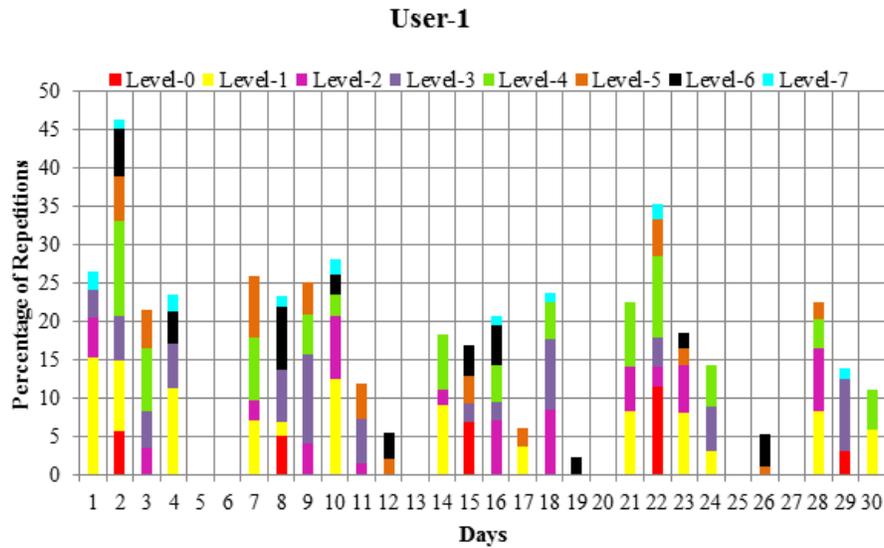


Figure 17: Percentage of Repetitions of Patterns per Day with Different Permutation Levels of User-1

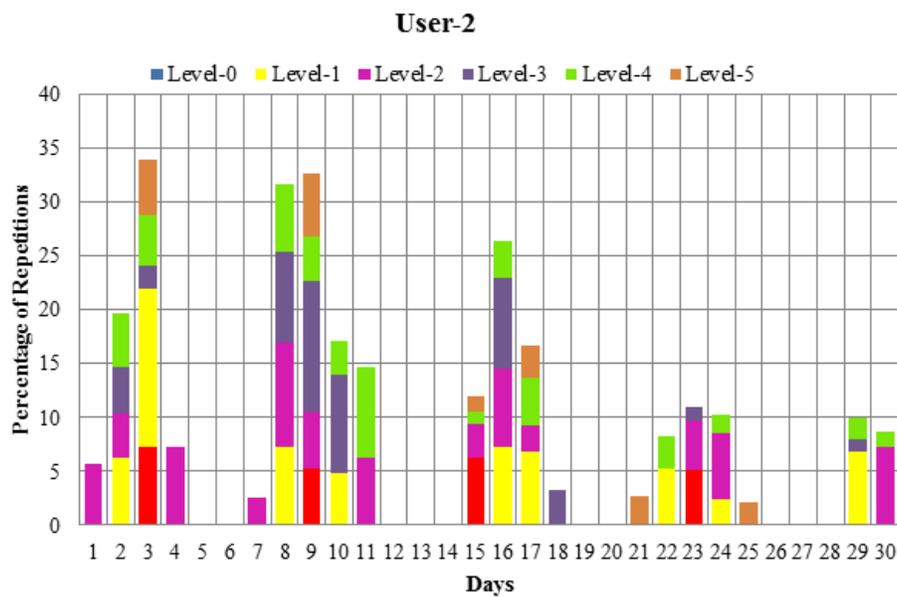


Figure 18: Percentage of Repetitions of Patterns per Day with Different Permutation Levels of User-2

library and cafeteria in break times. During all these activities, the user will detect different proximate devices. Some of his colleagues can be part of more than one activity. This means the user will detect those devices at more than one places and different time stamps. This likely indicates that identification of such devices can help in analysis of the behaviour and recognition of actual activities of low entropy mobile users in later stages.

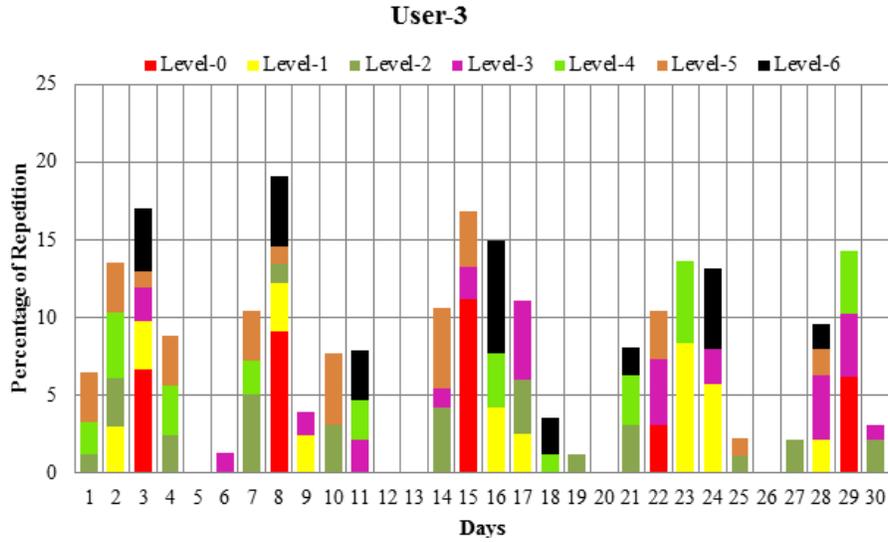


Figure 19: Percentage of Repetitions of Patterns per Day with Different Permutation Levels of User-3

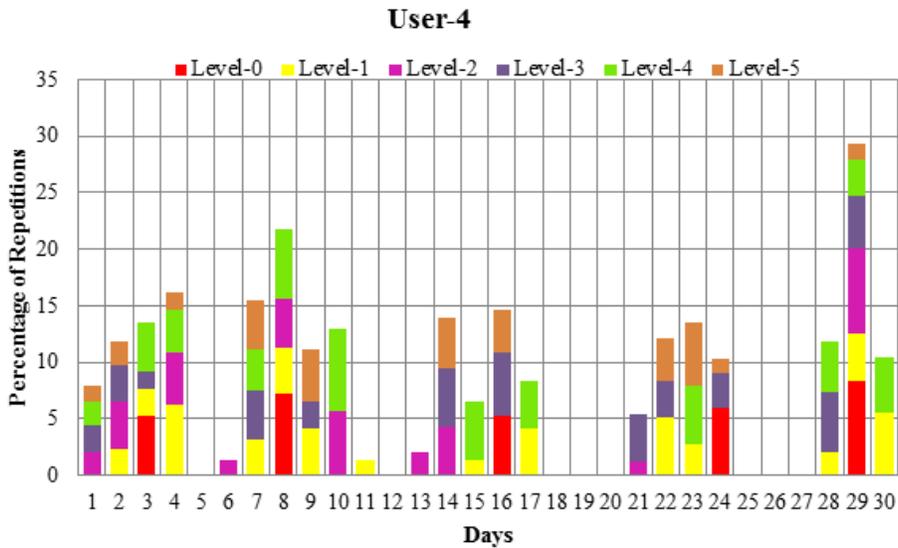


Figure 20: Percentage of Repetitions of Patterns per Day with Different Permutation Levels of User-4

5 Summary and Future Work

In this paper real time Bluetooth proximity data was used to analyse the behavioural patterns of low entropy mobile users. Two different techniques (N-gram and correlative matrix) were used for patterns detection. We effectively discovered the repeated patterns in the proximity data of low entropy users. These patterns show individual behaviour while in proximity with other Bluetooth devices. Repeated patterns indicate some regular activities that users are likely performing on daily and weekly basis and these activities spans a reasonable amount of time during the working day.

This research work indicates that wireless (e.g. Bluetooth) proximity data can be used to infer the behaviour and daily routine patterns of low entropy mobile people though only four low entropy user's

data has been analysed. In the future work, we will apply these techniques to the whole dataset and try to recognise the actual activities performed by the users by classifying the proximity data into different locations that will further aid in recognising the high level activities of the users. We will also consider classifying the location and activity data with respect to time scale as it will help to analyse and predict the behaviour of the users in more detail. An important application of this research work will be to detect and predict the unusual activities and behaviour of low entropy people such as elderly people and early stages of dementia patients.

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Muhammad Awais Azam received his MSc degree in Wireless Networks (with distinction) from the Queen Mary University of London, UK in 2008 and currently he is a final year PhD student at the Middlesex University, London, UK. His research interests include, pervasive and ubiquitous computing, mobile wireless networks, peer to peer networks, cognitive radios, security in mobile P2P networks, sensor networks and social networks. So far he has contributed in 17 publications.



Jonathan Loo received his MSc degree in Electronics (with Distinction) from the University of Hertfordshire, UK in 1998 and his PhD degree in Electronics and Communications from the same university in 2003. Between 2003 and 2010, he was a Lecturer at Brunel University, UK. From June 2010, he has been a Reader (Associate Professor) at the School of Engineering and Information Sciences, Middlesex University, UK. He leads a research team of 8 PhD students in the area of communication and networking. His research interest includes network architecture, communication protocols, network security, embedded systems, video coding and transmission, wireless communications, digital signal processing, and optical networks. He has successfully graduated 13 PhDs as Principle Supervisor and contributed over 150 publications in the aforementioned specialist areas.



Sardar Kashif Ashraf Khan did his bachelors in Electrical Engineering from University of Azad Jammu and Kashmir, Pakistan in 2003. After his graduation, he started his career as a Lecturer at Mirpur University of Science and technology, Pakistan in 2004. In 2008, he received his MSc degree in Wireless Networks (With Distinction) from Queen Mary University of London. He has also been awarded MPhil degree from Queen Mary University of London in 2012. Now he is doing his Phd under the supervision of Dr. Jonathan Loo at Middlesex University. He has extensive industrial

as well as research experience in Telecommunication and Networking. His interests are IP routing & switching, Ad hoc Networks, Sensor Networks, social Networks, Ubiquitous computing and wireless communications. So far, he has contributed in more than 12 publications.



Usman Naeem is a Senior Lecturer at the School of Architecture, Computing and Engineering (ACE) at UEL. Dr. Naeem was awarded his PhD in July 2009 from Queen Mary University of London. His current research interests are within the areas of Pervasive/Ubiquitous Computing. Much of his research is focused on the development of assistive technologies to support independent living for the elderly community. This involves developing techniques for Activity of Daily Life (ADL) recognition, which is made up of data capture (feature detection) with RFID and wearable sensor systems, modeling of ADLs, behaviour and intention analysis. Dr. Naeem's current research interests also include machine learning techniques, intelligent/ ambient environments and smart homes.



Muhammad Adeel is pursuing his PhD in Electronic Engineering from Queen Mary University of London. He acquired his MS in Information Technology degree from NUST, Pakistan in 2005. His research interests include but not limited to digital forensics analysis in mobile and ad hoc networks, wireless sensor network security, human behaviour and activity recognition, ubiquitous computing and opportunistic networking.



Waleed Ejaz received the BS degree in Computer Engineering from University of Engineering and Technology, Taxila, Pakistan in 2006 and the MS degree in Computer Engineering from National University of Sciences and Technology, Islamabad, Pakistan in 2008. He is currently a PhD student at Sejong University, Seoul, Republic of Korea. His current research interests include cognitive radios and next generation wireless networks.