Indoor Localization System Using WiFi RSSI

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Abstract— Indoor localization is of great importance for a range of pervasive applications, attracting many research efforts in the past decades. In this study, we investigate novel sensors integrated in modern mobile phones and leverage user motions to construct the radio map of a floor plan, which is previously obtained only by site survey. On this basis, we design LiFS, an indoor localization system based on off-the-shelf WiFi infrastructure and mobile phones fingerprint-based indoor localization system designed and built to run on mobile phones. Experiments carried out in a single- and a multi-story building revealed that the proposed method could successfully build a precise localization model without any location reference or explicit efforts to collect labeled samples. By exploiting user motions from mobile phones, we successfully remove the site survey process of traditional approaches, while at the same time, competitive localization accuracy.

Index terms—location estimation, WiFi fingerprint, RSSI

1. INTRODUCTION
wireless devices and WLANs (based on the IEEE 802.11 standard) is accelerating the demand for practical location-based applications in indoor environments. In such applications, the identification of a user’s location in an indoor area is critical because the Global Positioning System (GPS) is usually unavailable due to signal blocking. Instead, WLAN infrastructure allows a wireless device to be localized by referring to the Received Signal Strength Indicator (RSSI) in an indoor environment.

RSSI-based techniques, fingerprinting is known to be the most accurate and popular approach to indoor localization [1]. The RSSI fingerprinting-based techniques, however, require an initial training or calibration phase in which RSSI measurements are collected at known locations. Then, in the localization phase, the location of a device is estimated by matching an online RSSI measurement with the training data. The cost of manual calibration thus hinders the widespread adoption of fingerprinting-based indoor localization. In endeavors to reduce the calibration efforts, several studies have been carried out on crowdsourcing approaches in which general users can participate in the data collection activity. Implicit crowdsourcing, besides explicit contribution approaches [4], [5], [6], has been studied to make use of RSSI measurements contributed during the normal operation of wireless devices [7], [8]. This type of data can be viewed as unlabeled samples since the true positions from which the measurements are obtained are unknown. Therefore, the issue that must be addressed is the assignment of correct location labels to the unlabeled samples for the calibration of localization models.

Another research stream is focused on semi-supervised learning techniques that utilize both labeled and unlabeled samples [13], [14], [15], [16], [17], [18], [19]. These studies employ optimization techniques to estimate location labels of unlabeled samples based on RSSI values. In this paper, we propose an unsupervised learning method, named Unsupervised Calibration based on a Memetic Algorithm (UCMA), to build a precise indoor localization model using only unlabeled fingerprints.

The global search and local optimization algorithms are integrated into a Memetic Algorithm (MA) [20], which is an evolutionary approach that provides an efficient way to address optimization
prob-lems through the interaction between global and local optimizations. Two main problems should be addressed to avoid the need for location-labeled data and to perform the unsupervised learning of a localization model. The first is the mapping of a learned model onto an indoor space. In the previous learning-based methods, this has been solved by using location-labeled samples as reference points for the mapping. UCMA solves this problem by incorporating the structural information of an indoor area and human mobility constrained by the structure. Once the indoor map of a building and unlabeled user traces are given, UCMA arranges the traces to fit into the inner structure shown in the map, like fitting pieces into a puzzle. Similar approaches have been used before in a few studies [8], [10], [13]. However, the suggested approaches still depend on some amount of labeled samples [13] or data from inertial sensors [8], [10] because of the second problem.

This problem is related to the size and the complexity of a solution space to be dealt with. In general, the solution space of a location assignment problem is huge and complex since it comprises all possible assignments of location labels to given samples. Suppose that 1,000 unlabeled samples are collected from a building composed of 100 locations. There are then $100^{1,000}$ possible solutions to the assignment problem. With such a huge solution space, optimization algorithms usually fail to find the global optimal solution or do not terminate. To address this problem, an effective configuration of the global search and local optimization algorithms was deliberately devised in the proposed hybrid scheme. Under the configuration, only the solutions that do not violate the nature of signal propagation are discovered and evaluated during the interaction between the global and local optimizations. In this way, the solution space is effectively restricted to a much smaller space, and thus a localization model can be constructed via unsupervised learning.

To validate UCMA, we deployed a prototype system and conducted extensive experiments in a medium- and a large-scale building. The experimental results revealed that UCMA could build a precise localization model using unlabeled user traces. In the medium-scale building, a localization test of UCMA yielded average errors of 2.7-3.7 m under various conditions, a level comparable to the error of 1.6-2.8 m achieved with the ground-truth model. In the large-scale building where the ground-truth model yielded average errors of 2.0-3.7 m, UCMA yielded average errors of 3.1-4.6 m. These results indicate that a localization service can be provided by implicit crowdsourcing, where training data are gathered during the normal operation of wireless devices. In this way, the cost of building an indoor localization system can be dramatically reduced.

2. RELATED WORK
2.1 WIFI RSSI Based Indoor Localization

2.1.1 Trilateration-Based Approach:

This approach estimates the location of a wireless device based on a mathematical principle called “trilateration”. It assumes that APs’ installed locations are known, and estimates the location of a device based on the distances between the device and the APs. Their distances can be calculated using the correlation between signal strength and distance given a propagation model [21]. At least $n \geq 1$ APs are needed to calculate a location in $n$ dimensions, e.g., three APs are required in 2D space, and four, in 3D.

Trilateration-based techniques are simple and require a little calibration effort. However, trilateration-based techniques are known to show comparably low accuracy [22]. Moreover, most of the APs’ locations are not known in reality because many different vendors and providers are usually involved in the installation of APs for public areas such as large-scale indoor shopping malls.

2.1.2 Fingerprint based approach:

RSSI fingerprint matching has been used as the basic scheme of many indoor localization systems these days. Here, indoor area of a building is usually represented as the set of discrete locations, and machine-learning techniques are often used to build a localization model from training data. In the localization phase, the methods estimate the most likely location by matching the online RSSI
measurement with fingerprints in the trained model. RADAR, one of the pioneering finger-printing-based systems, estimates the location of a device based on k-Nearest Neighbor (kNN) averaging [2]. We present experimental results that demonstrate the ability of RADAR to estimate user location with a high degree of accuracy.

The training data set is usually collected through a labor-intensive manual calibration. Furthermore, this manual calibration must be repeated if the training data are outdated due to changes in the WLAN environment such as addition, removal, and relocation of APs.

3.EXISTING SYSTEM

- Most of these techniques utilize the RF signals.
- Most radio-based solutions require a process of site survey, in which radio signatures of an interested area are annotated with their real recorded locations. Site survey involves intensive costs on manpower and time, limiting the applicable buildings of wireless localization worldwide.
- Google released Google Map 6.0 that provides indoor localization and navigation available only at some selected airports and shopping malls in the US and Japan.
- The enlargement of applicable areas is strangled by pretty limited fingerprint data of building interiors.

Unsupervised learning techniques have not been fully applied to the calibration of localization models. Two main problems should be addressed to avoid the need for location-labeled data and to perform the unsupervised learning of a localization model. The first is the mapping of a learned model onto an indoor space. In the previous learning-based methods, this has been solved by using location-labeled samples as reference points for the mapping. UCMA solves this problem by incorporating the structural information of an indoor area and human mobility constrained by the structure.

Once the indoor map of a building and unlabeled user traces are given, UCMA arranges the traces to fit into the inner structure shown in the map, like fitting pieces into a puzzle. Similar approaches have been used before in a few studies [8], [10], [13]. However, the suggested approaches still depend on some amount of labeled samples [13] or data from inertial sensors [8], [10] because of the second problem.

4.PROPOSED SYSTEM

The localization approaches utilize Received Signal Strength (RSS) as a metric for location determinations. RSS fingerprints can be easily obtained from most off-the-shelf wireless network equipments, such as WiFi- or ZigBee-compatible devices. In these methods, localization is divided into two phases.

1) Training:
- In the first stage, traditional methods involve a site survey process (a.k.a. calibration), in which engineers record the RSS fingerprints (e.g., WiFi signal strengths from multiple Access Points, APs) at every location of an interested area and accordingly build a fingerprint database (a.k.a. radio map) in which fingerprints are related with the locations where they are recorded.

2) Operating Stage:
- The operating stage, when a user sends a location query with his current RSS fingerprint, localization algorithms retrieve the fingerprint database and return the matched fingerprints as well as the corresponding locations.
- To find the best matches, many searching algorithms can be used. In this design, we adopt a simple one, the nearest neighbor algorithm.
• In fingerprint database, fingerprints are associated with their collecting locations (i.e., fingerprints are labeled with locations)

5. EXPERIMENTATION

6. ALGORITHM

• K-MEANS ALGORITHM
• Put the first K feature vectors as initial centers
• Assign each sample vector to the cluster with minimum distance assignment principle.
• Compute new average as new center for each cluster

If any center has changed, then go to step 2, else terminate.

The advantages of the method are its simplicity, efficiency, and self-organization. It is used as initial process in many other algorithms.

Find the Viterbi path $p^*_l$ for each user trace $u_i \in U$ conditioning on $X^l$. Reassign the optimal location-state for each observation in $U$ if it differs from that in $P^l$. Otherwise, if $P^l = P^l$, stop the iteration. (Henceforth, we denote with $M_i^l$ a set of observations that are assigned with state $l$ at time $t$)

Update the model parameter $\lambda^{l+1} = <\pi^{l+1}, A^{l+1}, B^{l+1}>$ for the next iteration.

3.1 Calculate the initial probabilities and the transition probabilities:
For each $l \in L$,

$$\pi_t^{l+1} = \frac{\{o_t^l \in M_t^l | u \in U\}}{|U|}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (11)

For $i, j \in L$,

$$a_{ij}^{l+1} = \frac{\{<o_t^i, o_t^{j+1}> | o_t^i \in M_t^l, o_t^{j+1} \in M_t^{j+1}, u \in U\}}{|M_t^l|}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (12)

The time complexity of $T_{update}$, especially for (4) in the emission probability calculation, where $k$ is the number of APs found in the environment. Hundreds of APs could be found in a large building, which increases $T_{update}$. In order to reduce the time complexity, we modified the algorithm to compute the emission probability based on medoids instead of the mean observations. The medoid of a location $l$ is one of the observations in $M_t^l$ that is closest to the mean observation $m_l$. For this purpose, $m_t^l$ in Step 3.2 is replaced by a medoid after the calculation of (13) as follows:

Designing a genetic representation adapted to a specific problem is essential for MAs and GAs. A better genetic representation can improve the performance of evolution. With a genetic representation, a solution is encoded in a genotype (i.e., a chromosome of an individual), and inversely the genotype also can be decoded to a solution (i.e., phenotype). To address the local-optima problem of the SK, a candidate phenotype considered in UCMA is the set of mean observations $m^{l_1}; m^{l_2}; \ldots; m^{l_n}$, where each element is a vector of mean RSSI values.
for k APs detected in a target indoor environment. A genotype may have the same format as that of the phenotype with a limited range of RSSI values. In this case, however, the genotype space is extremely large.

3.2 Calculate the mean observation set $\mu_{i+1}^t$:
For each $l \in L_i$,

$$\mu_{i+1}^t = \frac{1}{|M_i^t|} \sum_{o \in M_i^t} o. \quad (13)$$

3.3 For each location, calculate an emission probabilities of every observations in $U$. This is done by (4), (5), (6), and (7) defined in Section 4.1, based on the mean observations $\mu_{i+1}^t$ given by (13).

Repeat the iteration from Step 1.

7. EVOLUTIONARY PROCESS

The GA operations comprise selection, crossover, and mutation functions. UCMA adopted a general strategy for each of these three operations: roulette wheel selection, uniform crossover, and random mutation respectively. The evolutionary process of an MA starts with an initial population of chromosomes. UCMA generates the initial population randomly and iterates as follows:

1. Compute the phenotype $m_0$ for each genotype by calculating attenuated RSSIs for each AP and at each location-state using (15).
2. Enhance each phenotype $m_0$ into $m_0 m_0^*$ using $SK(m_0, U)$.}

3. Update each genotype based on the enhanced phenotype $m_0 m_0^*$ using (16) and (17).
4. Build a new population by means of the GA operations.
5. Stop if a termination criterion is satisfied, or repeat the iteration from step 1. In the process of a local optimization, intermediate and final changes of a phenotype are evaluated, and the final evaluation score is transferred to the updated genotype.

EXPERIMENTATION & RESULT ANALYSIS

Fig 1: User mode

Fig 2: WIFI Search Room
8. CONCLUSION

In this project is presented UCMA, an unsupervised calibration method that can build an indoor localization system using unlabeled RSSI measurements. Simple modeling and optimization techniques were employed in unsupervised learning on the unlabeled measurements. The evaluation on the two office buildings confirmed that, under various conditions, the proposed method can build a precise localization model without any location reference. An indoor map and online RSSI measurements are two essential requirements in the service phase of fingerprinting-based localization systems. UCMA uses only the two inputs for the calibration, whereas conventional approaches require extra inputs or extensive efforts. This indicates that a localization system can be implemented by UCMA without additional cost except computational cost on the serverside. In that sense, the technique has the potential to make significant progress in indoor localization, especially in realizing a global indoor positioning system.

REFERENCE