NCS 3987

Mike Hazas John Krumm Thomas Strang (Eds.)

Location- and Context-Awareness

Second International Workshop, LoCA 2006 Dublin, Ireland, May 2006 Proceedings



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Second International Workshop, LoCA 2006 Dublin, Ireland, May 10-11, 2006 Proceedings







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Library of Congress Control Number: 2006924878

CR Subject Classification (1998): H.3, H.4, C.2, H.5, K.8

LNCS Sublibrary: SL 3 – Information Systems and Application, incl. Internet/Web and HCI $\,$

ISSN 0302-9743

ISBN-10 3-540-34150-1 Springer Berlin Heidelberg New YorkISBN-13 978-3-540-34150-5 Springer Berlin Heidelberg New York

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Typesetting: Camera-ready by author, data conversion by Scientific Publishing Services, Chennai, India Printed on acid-free paper SPIN: 11752967 06/3142 5 4 3 2 1 0

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Preface

These proceedings contain the papers presented at the 2nd International Workshop on Location- and Context-Awareness in May of 2006. As computing moves increasingly into the everyday world, the importance of location and context knowledge grows. The range of contexts encountered while sitting at a desk working on a computer is very limited compared to the large variety of situations experienced away from the desktop. For computing to be relevant and useful in these situations, the computers must have knowledge of the user's activity, resources, state of mind, and goals, i.e., the user's context, of which location is an important indicator. This workshop was intended to present research aimed at sensing, inferring, and using location and context data in ways that help the user.

Our call for papers resulted in 74 submissions, each of which was assigned to members of our Program Committee. After reviews and email discussion, we selected 18 papers for publication in these proceedings. Most of the accepted papers underwent a shepherding process by a reviewer or a member of the Program Committee to ensure that the reviewers' comments were accounted for in the published version. We feel our selective review process and shepherding phase have resulted in a high-quality set of published papers.

We extend a sincere "thank you" to all the authors who submitted papers, to our hard-working Program Committee, our thoughtful reviewers, and our conscientious shepherds.

May 2006

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Particle Filters for Position Sensing with Asynchronous Ultrasonic Beacons*

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Abstract. In this paper we present a user-centric position sensing system that is based on asynchronous, independent ultrasonic beacons. These stationary transmitter units are small, cheap to manufacture, and have power requirements low enough to run each from a small solar cell and a nearby light source. Each beacon is programmed to emit a short, 40 kHz ultrasonic signal with a unique transmission period. The mobile receiver unit first associates a received signal with a beacon based on the observed periodicity, then measures the Doppler shift in the periodicity that results from movements of the receiver. Using Doppler shifts from a number of different beacons, the receiver is able to estimate both its position and velocity by employing a particle filter. In this paper, we describe our positioning algorithm, the hardware, and proof-of-concept results.

1 Introduction

There are many design decisions involved in building a positioning system. Traditionally, accuracy and system costs are the two most important factors. Other factors include the weight and power consumption of the mobile unit, the refresh rate, whether the system is user-based or infrastructure-based, the positioning coverage, the ease of setup and maintenance, and aesthetic impact.

We present a system which has been designed to optimise aesthetics and component costs. The system is based around small, low power beacons that are fixed within a room. The beacons are also wireless and independent, making it possible to minimise their visual impact. We do not use RF or any other synchronising technology, which helps to minimise power consumption and bring component numbers down. The power consumption of the beacons is sufficiently low to enable them to be powered by a small solar cell, illuminated by a nearby domestic or office light source.

The beacons produce only minimal information: they transmit ultrasonic signals (or 'chirps') with a regular periodicity, usually around 500 ms. The receiver unit consists of an ultrasonic transducer and a medium-power processing device. It approximates its position with an accuracy of, at present, 25 cm by measuring the Doppler shift in the transmission periods. This accuracy may seem low, but we expect it to be adequate for use in coarse-grained location-based applications such as automated museum guides or indoor navigation aids. Also, we believe that the accuracy can be improved by fine tuning the system.

^{*} Funding for this work is received from the U.K. Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council as part of the Equator IRC, GR-N-15986.

M. Hazas, J. Krumm, and T. Strang (Eds.): LoCA 2006, LNCS 3987, pp. 1–13, 2006.

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In the design space, we have made a trade-off between costs and aesthetics on the one hand, and accuracy on the other hand. Our accuracy is better than that obtained with some RF based systems such as those using WiFi [1] but not as accurate as other ultrasound-based positioning systems [2, 3, 4]. Our system is similar to the Cricket [5] in that wireless beacons are used to infer position. However, we believe that our design provides a new contribution by minimising the size and power consumption of the devices in the infrastructure. By setting this as our main design constraint we have been forced to come up with novel methods for inferring position.

In the rest of this paper, we first introduce the problem domain in Section 2, then present our algorithms in Sections 3, 4 and 5. Section 6 details the hardware that we used for the initial results, which are shown in Section 7. We discuss improvements that we believe can be made to our algorithms in Section 8.

2 The Problem

Our positioning system comprises a number of beacons scattered around a room (mostly along the ceiling and walls) and one or more mobile receivers that can position themselves using the signals received.

The beacon units (described in detail in Section 6) have been designed to be simple, low power, and require no wiring. In order to reduce complexity, they only transmit ultrasound. The mobile receivers are untethered, and comprise an ultrasonic microphone, amplifier, and a processing unit to estimate position and velocity.

The principle mode of operation of our system is to estimate the position by measuring the Doppler shift in the periodicity of each of the beacons. We assume that the receiver knows that there are N beacons in a room (around eight), and that the receiver knows the position T_i of each beacon i ($0 \le i < N$). Furthermore, the receiver has knowledge of the transmission periods P_i , which are around 500 ms.

The receiving unit will ideally receive a pulse train as shown in Figure 1. The horizontal axis is time in seconds, the vertical bars denote the arrival of a chirp from a beacon. Because of the different periodicities of, for example, Beacons 6 and 0, their reception times shift relative to each other. A real chirp train that has been recorded using our hardware is shown in Figure 2. Some signals have gone missing altogether (such as the signal from Beacon 6), some signals collide (chirps from Beacons 2 and 3 arrive simultaneously at time 1006), and there are reflections and noise (signified by shorter bars) which muddle the picture.

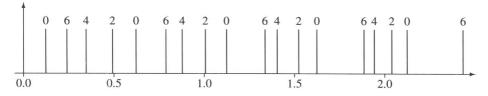


Fig. 1. Ideal chirp trace received from four beacons

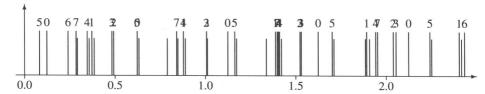


Fig. 2. Actual chirp trace received from eight beacons. Note that the labelling is added for clarification only, no identification is received.

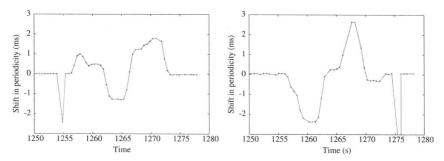


Fig. 3. Deviations from mean periods for two receivers over a period of time. The time (X-axis) is measured in seconds, the deviation (Y-axis) is measured in milliseconds.

When the receiver is static, the reception time of the pulses from each beacon are spaced by their periods P_i . This is a method for determining the correspondence between pulses and beacons; a series of chirps separated by P_i is likely to come from Beacon i. Measurements from a static receiver also enable us to measure transmission periods P_i to a high precision. This may be necessary as clock crystals used in the beacons and the receiver will have slightly different frequencies (up to 500 ppm). This difference may cause drifting of the position when not corrected for.

When the receiver is moving, the transmission periods will appear to vary. As it moves through the tracking area, the receiver's distance to each beacon will change. This will affect the time that it takes for the signals to travel, causing the separation between chirps to vary. The changes in separation observed by the receiver is, essentially, a Doppler shift in the periodicity of each beacon. If the receiver moves towards a beacon, the pulses will be brought closer together; if the receiver moves away, the pulses will be pushed further apart. To illustrate, some measured Doppler shifts are provided in Figure 3. Note that the outlying downward spikes are caused by missing chirps, all other deviations are caused by the receiver's movement.

The amount the pulses shift is proportional to the distance moved over the period:

$$\Delta d = v_s \Delta P_i$$

Here, Δd is the movement of the receiver relative to the beacon and v_s is the speed of sound, $343~{\rm ms}^{-1}$. This distance is equal to the distance travelled in the direction of the beacon over the time period $P_i + \Delta P_i$ [6]:

$$\Delta d = \frac{(\boldsymbol{X_0} - \boldsymbol{T_i})}{|\boldsymbol{X_0} - \boldsymbol{T_i}|} \cdot (\boldsymbol{X_0} - \boldsymbol{X_{P_i + \Delta P_i}})$$

Hence,

$$v_s \Delta P_i = \frac{(X_0 - T_i)}{|X_0 - T_i|} \cdot (X_0 - X_{P_i + \Delta P_i})$$

$$\tag{1}$$

Equation 1 formulates a relationship between two expressions: one containing the speed of sound v_s and the shift in periodicity ΔP_i on the left-hand side; and the other containing the previous position of the mobile receiver X_0 , the location T_i of transmitter i and the current position $X_{P_i+\Delta P_i}$ (the current time is $P_i+\Delta P_i$, where P_i is the periodicity of transmitter i) on the right-hand side. With a sufficient number of readings, it is possible to iteratively estimate the receiver position using this equation. We have found that a particle filter is capable of performing this estimation, even in the presence of noise.

3 Background on Particle Filters

In order to estimate position, we use *particle filters* in two different parts of our algorithm. In this section, we provide a brief background on this type of estimator.

Particle filters [7] are a method to approximate random variables. This is similar to a Kalman filter [8, 9], except that a particle filter can cope with arbitrary error distributions and, in particular, with multi-modal distributions.

A particle filter requires two sets of equations to operate. One set of equations models state progression. This is similar to the state transition of a Kalman filter, except that random noise is added to the state on every iteration. This noise should be distributed according to the variation that is expected in the system over that period of time.

The second set of equations should compute the likelihood of a measured observation, given a particular state of the system. This likelihood function models the error distribution of the measurements.

A particle filter operates by maintaining a number of states in parallel, called *particles*. Each particle is progressed using the state equations, after which the likelihood of each particle is computed. The probability distribution function (PDF) of the state space is modelled by the particles, and can have any shape, as long as there are enough particles to sample this shape.

In order to prevent the filter from deterioating, the filter can be periodically *resam-pled*. Resampling is performed by first translating the set of likelihoods into a cumulative distribution function (CDF). The CDF can be sampled using a uniform random number, duplicating particles in areas of the state space that have a high probability, and removing particles in the areas of the state space that have a low probability.

The final stage of a particle filter is to distill a single state from the particles. In many cases the *mean* state of all particles is useful, especially on single-modal distributions. In multi-modal state spaces one can compute the *mode* of the distribution, which can be problematic as the mode of the state can change dramatically from one iteration to the next.

In comparison with a Kalman filter, a particle filter is advantageous if it is expensive to compute the Jacobian of the measurement equation, if the state space errors are multimodal, or if one intends to use low precision arithmetic.

Particle filters have been used in the estimation of location successfully before. They have been used both for low level filtering of data, and in order to fuse sensor information at a high level (see for example [10, 11]).

4 Associating Chirps with Beacons

The first problem is that of associating each chirp in Figure 2 with a beacon, or classifying it as a reflection or noise. The only information that is available to the receiver is an estimate of the periodicity of each beacon. It is an estimate in that the clock crystals on each beacon are only cut with a limited precision, and their frequency varies with temperature. The typical variation is in the order of 50 ppm, or 25 μ s in a 500 ms period. In addition, movement of the receiver will cause further variation. Assuming a maximum movement of the receiver of 2 ms⁻¹, we expect this to be on the order of $2/v_s = 2/343 = 0.58\%$, or 2.9 ms in a 500 ms period.

Our strategy to solve the measurement association problem is to use a particle filter to model each beacon. The particle filter modelling beacon i estimates the time that this beacon produced its first chirp, a value that we call the Epoch and represent using the variable E (a number between 0 and P_i). Hence, the state of the filter is just a one-dimensional variable that tracks E. The state progression function adds noise to the state with a standard deviation of $50 \ \mu s$.

When a chirp is received at time t, the likelihood function is applied to the particle filter. For a particle j with value E_j , the likelihood of $t-E_j$ is computed using the sawtooth curve in Figure 4. If the chirp corroborates the epoch time of the particle, then the probability will fall on one of the peaks of the sawtooth. If it is off by, say, half a period, then the particle will be unsupported. If the signal is slightly late, then the probably function shows intermediate support (the diagonal of the sawtooth) as the chirp may be a reflection of the original signal. The closer to the peak a measurement is, the more likely that it is a reflection. Particles will converge first on all sequences of signals that are P apart, including systematic reflections. The groups of particles

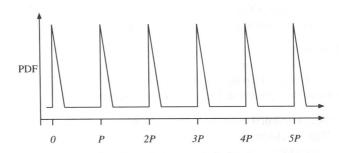


Fig. 4. Likelihood for a particle to associate with a beacon

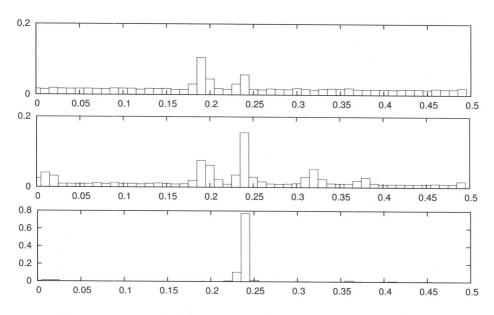


Fig. 5. Distribution of the particle filter after 0.5, 1 and 2 seconds

tracking reflections will climb up the slope and merge with the main group, latching on to the actual chirps from the beacon.

The evolution of the distribution of particles is visualised in Figure 5, which shows the probability distribution functions of the particles for Beacon 0. The graphs are 0.5, 1, and 2 seconds into the run, showing that the particles latch onto Beacon 0 after 2 seconds (equivalent to four chirps).

It is possible for the particle filter to latch onto noise that is roughly separated by P_i . In order to avoid this, we keep refreshing a fraction of the particles if we have not yet observed a consistent signal. Using this method, we usually latch onto all beacons within a 10 second period.

5 Estimating the Position of the Receiver

In order to estimate the position of the receiver we use another particle filter. This position filter maintains the following state for each particle:

X the position of the receiver

 $oldsymbol{V}$ the velocity of the receiver

 R_i the time that the last chirp was received from each beacon i ($0 \le i < N$)

 O_i the position of the receiver at time R_i for each beacon i

The particle filter is updated every time that a chirp is uniquely associated with one of the beacons. That is, chirps that may have come from multiple beacons are ignored, as are chirps that cannot be associated with any beacons. A chirp is associated with a beacon if it falls within a 4 ms window around the expected arrival time of that beacon.