

An Offline Outdoor Navigation System with Full Privacy

Prakhar Kaushik¹, Vishal Saraswat² and Francesco Buccafurri³

¹Amity University, Delhi, India

²Indian Statistical Institute, Kolkata, India

³DIIES, University of Reggio Calabria, Reggio Calabria, Italy

Keywords: Privacy, Positioning Systems, Smartphone.

Abstract: GPS navigation systems are a potential threat to user privacy in case of curious providers, espionage and many other aspects. Users tend to place blind trust into GPS applications without realizing the ease at which the GPS can be spoofed or their position compromised via either the hardware or software. Thus, when a high level of privacy assurance is required, the GPS should be completely switched off. This paper presents an efficient method, a smartphone-based alternative solution, for an outdoor offline navigation system, which works in the absence of GPS, wireless, and cellular signals. The proposed approach exploits the various digital and mathematical resources present to use DEM data and sensor data to minimize errors in the calculated position data.

1 INTRODUCTION

The development of Global Positioning Systems (GPS), Mobile triangulation, etc. have led a revolution in outdoor navigation. There are several techniques employed to find the position of the subject with satellite signals. Inertial navigation has been used since some time due to its applications in aviation and military purposes with specific reference to missile navigation. In inertial navigation, measurements provided by the inertial sensors such as gyroscopes and accelerometers. Pedometer systems count steps by monitoring the vertical acceleration using a piezo electric accelerometer. Despite the voluminous research in personal and pedestrian navigation (Kim et al., 2004; Feliz Alonso et al., 2009; Ho et al., 2016), a personalized positioning system which works without any type of wireless, GPS or cellular signal is still not publicly available despite the obvious demand. We encounter such conditions while trekking and hiking through mountains and forests. Another use case is whenever a user (consider for example the intelligence domain) wants to have fully secret navigation and needs to turn-off all the wireless functions of the smartphone. In those cases, even the use of only the GPS receiver could be not a solution because even though GPS is a self-positioning system, its availability in telematics systems enables various privacy abuses both in real-time and retrospect (Iqbal and Lim, 2010; Alzantot and Youssef, 2012). Even a

passive GPS antenna with path logging off is susceptible to spoofing attacks as well as remote GPS data acquisition as long as they are connected to the network. Further, the hardware itself can be manipulated in order to leak position data. With increasing number of mobile applications and software directly or indirectly collecting positioning data from our smartphones, it has become relatively easy for a third party to track our positions.

We introduce a new algorithm which may be capable of resolving the aforementioned problem in terms of an off-line navigation system. There have been efforts to solve a similar problem, but in the context of an indoor environment or a dense human interactive environment (for example, a trade fair). This paper presents a solution for outdoor environment with sparse human activity.

We propose a positioning system which can work with off-line smartphones, provided, the maps of the territory are previously downloaded. Moreover, collected data are only *differential* w.r.t. a given position, so they are inherently less sensitive than GPS data. The positioning is then really performed whenever an initial checkpoint (starting point set in the application) is mapped to a point of a map. We believe that a smartphone which is not transmitting or receiving any kind of wireless signal is certainly comparatively more safe than a GPS in terms of privacy.

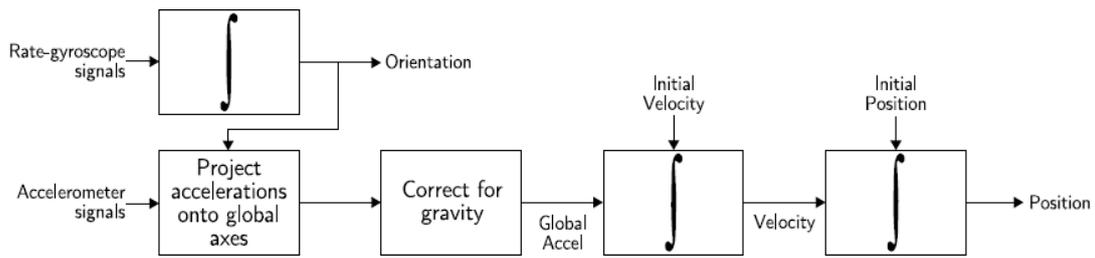


Figure 1: Inertial Navigation System.

2 IMPORTANT DEFINITIONS

2.1 Inertial Navigation

Inertial navigation (Woodman, 2007) (Figure 1) is a self-contained navigation technique in which measurements provided by accelerometers and gyroscopes are used to track the position and orientation of an object relative to a known starting point, orientation and velocity. Inertial measurement units (IMUs) typically contain three orthogonal rate-gyroscopes and three orthogonal accelerometers, measuring angular velocity and linear acceleration respectively.

For tracking the position, we use the accelerometer data $A_f(t) = (a_{x_f}(t), a_{y_f}(t), a_{z_f}(t))^T$ and project it to global frame of reference: $A_g = CA_f$. This data is then integrated to get velocity and displacement.

$$v_g(t) = v_g(0) + \int_0^t a_g(t) - g_g dt$$

$$s_g(t) = s_g(0) + \int_0^t v_g(t) dt.$$

2.2 Directional Trail

The directional trail (Constandache et al., 2010) is defined as a series of last N compass readings and an associated set of displacements between them. The compass readings are collected with a time separation of 1 second. A compass trail is a tuple $C_N = (c_0, c_1, c_2 \dots c_N)$ where c_0 is the compass reading at the user's estimated current location, c_1 is the previous reading, and so on. The accelerometer based displacements between compass readings is the tuple $D = \delta_0, \delta_1, \dots \delta_{-N+1}$ where the user walked a distance of δ_j between two compass measurements, c_{j-1} and c_j .

2.3 Sensor Fusion

Sensor Fusion (Elmenreich, 2002) refers to the combination of two or more data sources, to produce better data, better representation, improve signal to noise

ratio, etc. Gyroscope data may be fused with that of magnetometer to smoothen the noise in the gyroscope data. Similarly, gravity data may be fused with accelerometer data in order to get only acceleration values for each axis. Sensor data may also be fused with an absolute positioning system to provide a better and accurate data.

2.4 Error Sources and Analysis

There are five major error types (Woodman, 2007) while dealing with accelerometer and gyroscope — *white noise, temperature, calibration, bias and bias instability*. For accelerometer, double integration of bias leads to a quadratically increasing positional error while in gyroscope there is steadily increasing angular error.

2.5 Countermeasures

Two popular countermeasures against the above-mentioned errors are:

Sensor Fusion. Raw data from two or more sensors is processed through sensor fusion methodology to obtain relatively more accurate readings.

Modelling and Subtraction of Bias. The system is kept stationary for a period of time and the bias observed is then modelled and subtracted from the final readings.

3 RELATED WORK

(Zhou, 2016) studied pedestrian dead reckoning and its exploitation of the cyclical movements of the human body and provided algorithms to detect the foot fall and estimate the stride length of the subject. A reference to a relationship between z -axis acceleration and step length is also provided. A Simple Moving Average (SMA) preprocessing algorithm is proposed for smoothing the acceleration data.

(Yun et al., 2007) provided a method for tracking

2D and 3D position of human movement using a self-contained inertial/magnetic sensor module and preliminary experimental results for various human motion including straight line walking, circular walking, side stepping, backward walking, running, and climbing stairs. They use a time heuristic and z-axis acceleration data to detect stance phase (two phases during walking: stance phase (60%) and swing phase (40%)). For angular measurements also, the x-axis angular rate is near zero (for foot placed sensor) during the stance phase. For straight line walking, the average measurement error was recorded to be 5.5% which was attributed to the presence of magnetic interference in indoor environments. For outdoor conditions, an average measurement error of 1.3% was observed. The maximum error for outdoor straight line running was recorded to be within 4.75%. Circular walking gave a distance estimation error of 1.8%.

(Constandache et al., 2010) presents a scheme, *CompAcc* (Figure 2), to counter the cons of positioning systems like GPS, War Driving, GSM triangulation, etc. The authors of this paper also had similar motivations and objectives as us and seem to have had similar train of thought, but they do not provide a fully offline system as we do.

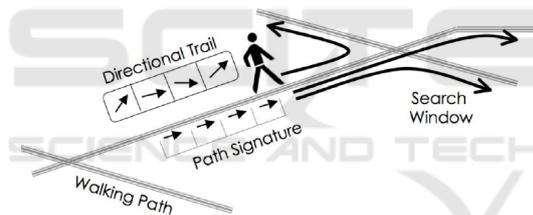


Figure 2: CompAcc.

Basically, a map tile containing the path information of the area is acquired from the server. Using the AGPS initial location, the system creates path signatures with the initial location as its centre. A directional trail for the subject is created using (*distance, orientation*) tuple. As a fall-back mechanism, *CompAcc* allows the search window to cover at most a single intersection at a point of time in the map tile. The errors which aggregate during this period are reset by the detection of directional change by the sensors. In case the error grows too big, an AGPS request is sent for location data reset.

(Link et al., 2013) is similar to our topic, though, in an indoor navigation concept. They employ a two-stage approach: (1) step detection and step heading estimation, and (2) match detected steps onto the expected route from the source to the destination using sequence alignment algorithms.

Basically, a pre-designed floor plan is used to identify probable paths between the source and the

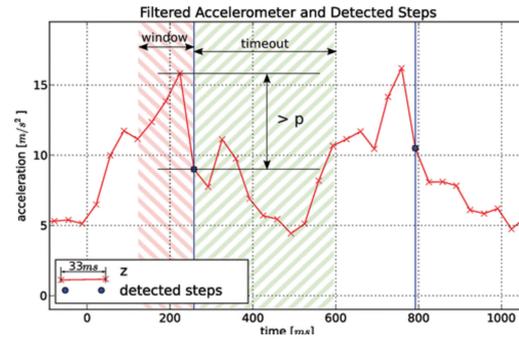


Figure 3: Step Detection.

destination. OpenStreetMap is used as a map material. For step detection (Figure 3), the z-axis accelerometer data is used with a time out window to avoid false step detections. A step is detected if there is a difference of at least $p = 2m/s^2$ on the low pass filtered z-axis of the accelerometer.

4 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

All the sensor and raw data was collected initially on a Samsung Galaxy Note 3 Neo Smartphone (Model no. SM-N900) running Android version 5.0. The specifications are as follows:

- Samsung Exynos 5420,
- Processor clock: 1.90 GHz,
- Number of cores: 8,
- GPU: ARM Mali-T628 MP6 @533 MHz.

The coordinate system, relative to the device, that is used by the Sensor API is shown in the Figure 4.

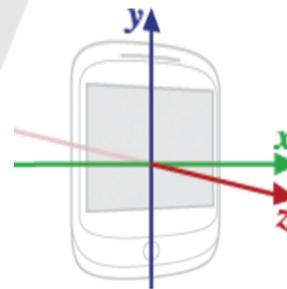


Figure 4: Coordinate system relative to the device.

5 OUR MODEL

Our work is subdivided into the following parts:

5.1 Acquisition of Topographic Data

Taking reference from our initial GPS referenced position (it is not necessary to take an initial GPS position - we can manually mark an initial point using a known physical reference which will take the applicability of the security notion by a notch), a relevant area around the initial point is to be selected and data points containing tuples:

$$Map(latitude, longitude, elevation)$$

are to be created. Taking an initial position from an already compromised connection or system will certainly bring down the security level of the application, but the application will still block any further data leakage.

The elevation data with respect to the coordinate data is extracted employing a *digital elevation model* (DEM) (Figure 5). DEMs store the terrain information as data using a *Raster Data Model* which represent the world as a surface divided into regular grid of cells. Raster models are useful in storing data which varies continuously. There are various DEM data sources available free of cost all with comparative degrees of resolution and accuracy.

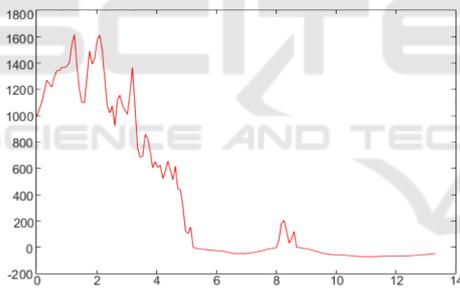


Figure 5: Extracted Elevation profile on MATLAB.

MATLAB itself provides various DEM sources and pre-existing functions to manipulate them (Figure 6). Google Earth/Maps also provides elevation data and there are various online resources which can be used to extract the relevant geo-referenced elevation data. In our work, we used all these methods to collect the relevant elevation and coordinate data.

5.2 Preprocessing of Sensor Data

In order to reduce errors and computation time, the derived sensor data is preprocessed. For acceleration data, the effect of gravity is subtracted and a smoothing filter such as averaging filter and a FFT based smoothing filter is applied to reduce the effects of noise. A bandpass filter with appropriate cut-off frequencies will provide a better result.

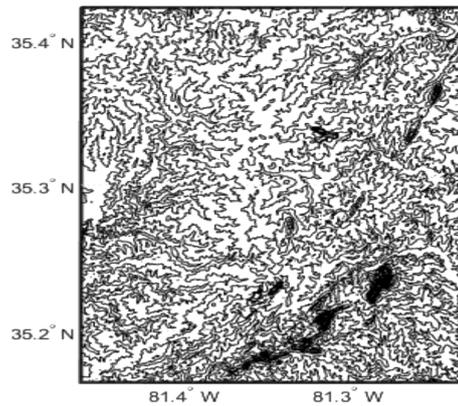


Figure 6: Extracted topographic map from a DEM source in MATLAB.

As noted, most of the drift error in position data is due to the gyroscope readings. The gyroscope data can be fused with that of magneto scope. Also, the smartphone can be kept still on a solid surface after moving it for a while. This will allow us to calculate and thereafter subtract a definite bias from our acceleration and angular velocity data. For barometer, the readings should be appropriately modified with respect to temperature, humidity and gravitational errors.

5.3 Sensor Data Acquisition

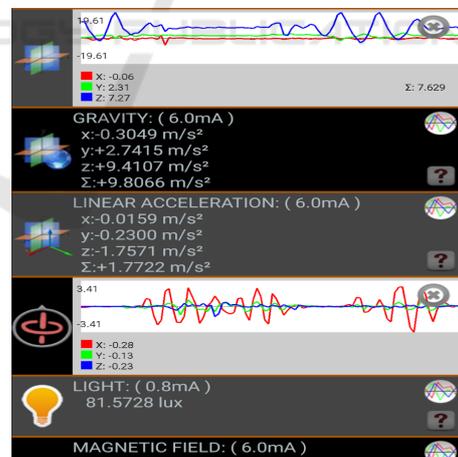


Figure 7: Acquired Smartphone Sensor Data.

The Android sensor framework (Android.Com, 2009) is used to acquire raw sensor data and to monitor for changes in the value of the sensor (Figure 7). A sensor event provides you with four pieces of information: the name of the sensor that triggered the event, the timestamp for the event, the accuracy of the event, and the raw sensor data that triggered the event. Two call back methods exist on SensorEventListener

interface: when the accuracy of sensor changes and when sensor reports a new value.

5.4 Probable Path Patterns

In the case, no direct path trails exist between the start position and the destination, probable path patterns are calculated from the positional elevation data. Imagining the map is divided into N number of cells, with each cell consisting its positional and elevation data, we will apply the 8-adjacency concept in the neighbourhood of the cell.

The basic idea is to find an adjacent cell in the heading of the destination whose elevation is less than a predetermined value k (probably 2 metres). Path finding algorithms, greedy algorithm, etc. can be used for this. In our case, we leaned towards the use of Ant Colony Algorithm for finding the probable paths.

1. S is a set of all data points/cells consisting the locational and altitude data
2. ω is a set of constraints: (1) cell chosen should lie in the present 8-adjacency neighbourhood of the present cell (2) the difference between the elevations is less than k metres (3) the next cell chosen should lie between -95° and 95° .
3. Objective function, $f : \text{Minimize}(N)$, where $N \subset S$ and is the number of cells used for path to destination.

Depending on the value of N , a ranking system is provided to the probable path with the highest ranking given to the path having the lowest value. In the unusual circumstance of the subject not following any of the probable paths, the elevation profile can be used to find paths with similar profile in the map.

5.5 Step and Heading Detection

In order to count the number of steps taken, we need to first calculate the (dynamic) stride length as well detect. Due to the highly erroneous nature of data received otherwise, the relationship between z -axis acceleration data and the stride length is exploited. Kalman filter is used with one of the equations

$$\frac{l}{h} = \sqrt[4]{a_{max} - a_{min}} \quad \text{or}$$

$$\frac{l}{h} = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |a_i|} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{l}{h} = \frac{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |a_i| - a_{min}}{a_{max} - a_{min}}$$

for a better grasp on the dynamic nature of stride length. For heading estimation, the angular displacement data is obtained from the accelerometer, gyroscope and magnetometer readings.

5.6 Step Sequence Detection

After creating of several probable paths, step sequence arrays consisting of the azimuthal angle difference between each step is created. The same is done for the actual subject movement. Taking a k width window from this array, the values are correlated with the values of the probable paths in order to identify the probable path being used by the subject.

5.7 Pattern Correlation

The elevation profile of the path that the subject is taking is created along with the motion. This elevation profile is then correlated (pattern or map correlation) with the precomputed elevation profile. The correlation is done on a frequent basis, taking parts of the elevation profile as well as the whole. Pattern correlations can be computed directly (uncentered) or by computing anomalies from a central mean (centred). This correlation process allows us to reduce the positional ambiguity and bypass the necessity to overcome noise by providing us landmarks for position identification.

5.8 Algorithm

Finally, the overall algorithm (Flow chart in Figure 8) is as follows:

1. The initial point data is collected from GPS and cellular connection, etc. Coordinates and elevation data for the present position is collected.
2. DEM data server is accessed and a DEM tile of adequate map area is downloaded. Tuples of Map data (latitude, longitude, altitude) are created. Additional information such as weather forecast, etc. (for barometer reading correction) is also collected and sampled at this juncture.
3. Acquisition and pre-processing of sensor data to reduce errors in the reading.
4. Calculation of step length using z -axis accelerometer data and Extended Kalman Filter. Step Detection and Heading Detection using the sensor data.
5. Creation of probable path patterns (with ranking) via the Probable Path Algorithm. Data sets of (latitude, longitude, altitude) for each of these patterns are created.
6. Step heading sequence and altitude pattern is also created for each of these paths.
7. Create positional approximates by dead reckoning using step counts, step length and heading information. Cross reference these positions to saved DEM data and create tuples of Calculated Data

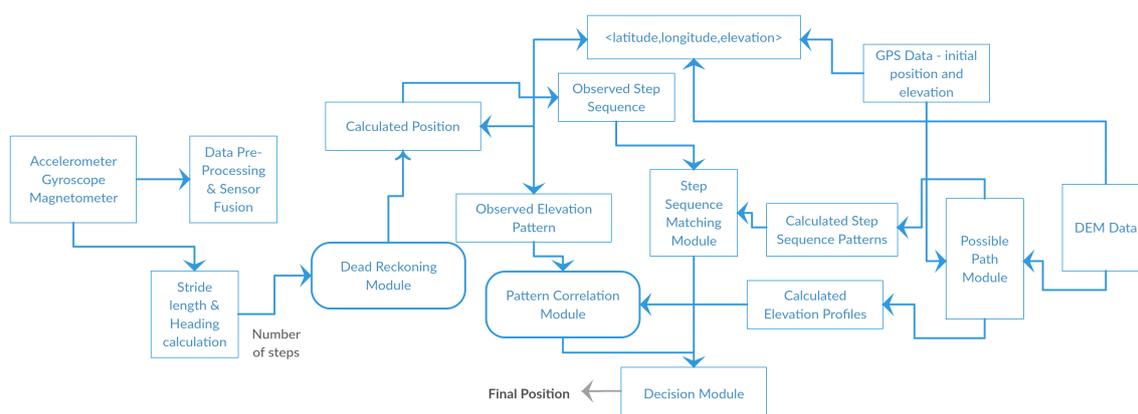


Figure 8: The flow chart of the proposed Personalised Navigation System.

(latitude, longitude, altitude). Create the altitude pattern and step sequence array.

8. A window of adequate length is moved back and forth and is used to correlate the measured step sequence with that of the probable paths (going down the ranking).
9. The measured elevation profile is correlated with that of the expected paths. Given appropriate error allowance δ , the elevation patterns are correlated piecewise as well on an overall basis and the position corrected periodically.
10. In case a centre server is set up helping in sharing the users' data (the users choose to send the data voluntarily). The data can be collected anonymously, without any reference to the identity of the user who had used the path, etc. Probable path patterns and their position and elevation data will be averaged out and the ranking of the particular path will be decided by the number of users using that path. This will greatly increase the overall accuracy of the system.

6 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this short paper, we have presented an offline navigation system and some possible applications. Our proposed algorithm creates a framework in which further study can be done to achieve the creation of a highly accurate offline positioning system. We build our case centering on technologies available at present. The paper argues that despite the obvious failings of current MEMS and positioning technology, we can use better algorithms to counter these failings to achieve our objectives. We identify the basic building blocks and error sources of the existing algorithms, which allows us to create a clear path-

way for further study. Privacy is a strong point of our proposal and many secrecy/privacy-aware applications in the intelligence and military fields can be developed. Moreover, our technique may have implications in a large set of possible domains like adventure sports, civil protection, location-base gaming, speleology, and so on.

REFERENCES

- Alzantot, M. and Youssef, M. (2012). Uptime: Ubiquitous pedestrian tracking using mobile phones. In *WCNC*, pages 3204–3209. IEEE.
- Android.Com (2009). Sensors overview. Android Developers' API Guides. https://developer.android.com/guide/topics/sensors/sensors_overview.html.
- Constandache, I., Choudhury, R. R., and Rhee, I. (2010). Towards mobile phone localization without wardriving. In *Infocom*, pages 1–9. IEEE.
- Elmenreich, W. (2002). An introduction to sensor fusion. *Vienna University of Technology, Austria*.
- Feliz Alonso, R. 'u. l., Zalama Casanova, E., and G mez Garc í a Bermejo, J. (2009). Pedestrian tracking using inertial sensors. *Journal of Physical Agents*, 3:35–42.
- Ho, N.-H., Truong, P. H., and Jeong, G.-M. (2016). Step-detection and adaptive step-length estimation for pedestrian dead-reckoning at various walking speeds using a smartphone. *Sensors*, 16(9):1423.
- Iqbal, M. U. and Lim, S. (2010). Privacy implications of automated gps tracking and profiling. *Technology and Society Magazine*, 29(2):39–46.
- Kim, J. W., Jang, H. J., Hwang, D.-H., and Park, C. (2004). A step, stride and heading determination for the pedestrian navigation system. *Positioning*, 1(08):0.
- Link, J. Á. B., Smith, P., Viol, N., and Wehrle, K. (2013). Accurate map-based indoor navigation on the mobile. *Journal of Location Based Services*, 7(1):23–43.

- Woodman, O. J. (2007). An introduction to inertial navigation. Technical report, University of Cambridge, Computer Laboratory.
- Yun, X., Bachmann, E. R., Moore, H., and Calusdian, J. (2007). Self-contained position tracking of human movement using small inertial/magnetic sensor modules. In *ICRA*, pages 2526–2533. IEEE.
- Zhou, R. (2016). Pedestrian dead reckoning on smartphones with varying walking speed. In *ICC*, pages 1–6. IEEE.

