

EVALUATION OF AN INDOOR NAVIGATION APPROACH BASED ON APPROXIMATE POSITIONS

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Abstract: Until now navigation aids have primarily focused on outdoor scenarios, whether driving on highways or, more recently, walking through cities. These systems use the Global Positioning System (GPS) for position information. Indoor navigation however cannot rely on GPS data, as the signals do not penetrate building structure. Thus other techniques are required to provide position information indoors. In this article the approach to an indoor navigation system based on the position information provided by the Device Whispering technique is presented. The position information acquired by Device Whispering is less precise than information acquired by the Fingerprinting technique but more robust. To compensate the deficit of precision the position information is combined with a movement model. This movement model is automatically generated from the maps which are already required for navigation.

1 INTRODUCTION

Tools for navigational assistance have become an essential element in today's traveling society. Interactive software, available for mobile phones, is capable of guiding users who are driving cars, riding bicycles or walking. Until now such tools have focused on outdoor environments and are hence based on the precise data of the Global Positioning System (GPS) to determine the current position of the device, and thus the user. But indoor navigation bears several challenges.

First, GPS positioning information cannot be used for indoor scenarios since GPS radio signals do not propagate into buildings.

Second, within buildings navigation does not rely on streets or footpaths but on traversable areas and certain connections between such, e.g. corridors, rooms, staircases and elevators. Thus such areas and also the altitude of the user, i.e. the floor he is currently standing on, and possible connections to other floors have to be considered.

Third, the description of a path needs to be intuitively understandable for humans instead of precise distance instructions as they are used in cars or other devices with odometers.

The first issue, a positioning technique for indoor scenarios, was addressed among others in (Wallbaum and Spaniol, 2006). The third issue on intuitive navigational instructions is considered for outdoor envi-

ronments in (Dale et al., 2003). Section 2 gives a more detailed overview. Based on this current state of the art a prototype indoor navigation system was developed and implemented as a software client for a mobile device with WLAN interface (Chowaw-Liebman et al., 2009), (Chowaw-Liebman, 2009), which is described in Section 3. Central data structure of the system is the Map, described in Section 4, which also specifies how the Map is generated from user input. Section 5 summarizes the text generation method used by the prototype to generate natural language instructions for routes. Finally, Section 6 concludes this paper and shows some directions for future work.

2 STATE OF THE ART

This section briefly reviews previous work on indoor positioning and natural language generation as basis for our indoor navigation approach.

2.1 Fingerprinting

Fingerprinting (Ohlbach et al., 2006) is an indoor positioning method based on wireless networks. The main goal of the Fingerprinting project is to provide precise position information. The approach is basically a pattern matching of the received signal strengths (RSS) for all APs at a position. The RSS at

the user's current position are matched to a database of RSS measurements at known locations, the fingerprints. When combined with user tracking and a "no teleporting" policy, the achieved precision is reported to be approximately 1 meter.

2.2 Device Whispering

The Device Whispering technique is also an indoor positioning approach based on wireless network infrastructures. The main idea is to reduce the number of access points (APs) considered for position estimation to those that are closest in range. This is achieved by controlling the transmitting power of the WLAN interface: The device is set to minimum power before performing an active network scan. The closest AP is defined as the one answering to the request with the lowest transmission power used, which is the minimum information possible.

APs can be tagged with geographical position information, and if multiple APs are available these tags can be used to approximate the current position of the user more precisely than just assigning the closest AP. Various caveats are discussed in (Krempels et al., 2009).

The method's lack of precision makes it necessary to use a novel navigation approach, as current solutions assume precise information. This paper describes an approach specifically designed for use with the Device Whispering technique.

2.3 CORAL

The CORAL system (Dale et al., 2003) is a natural language instruction generator designed to enhance existing outdoor navigation tools, accepting route description in standard formats. In addition, CORAL is dependent on a geographic information system (GIS) for additional data about the geography traversed by the route. The GIS is required to provide landmarks (like traffic lights, churches and other easily visible objects) with which the text description is augmented.

3 PROTOTYPE NAVIGATION SYSTEM

Any navigation system must convey the route to the user, typically using a combination of graphical map (with highlighted path) and textual instructions.

A convenient way to provide route information to users are natural language instructions (NLI), which offer rich and flexible means of describing paths.

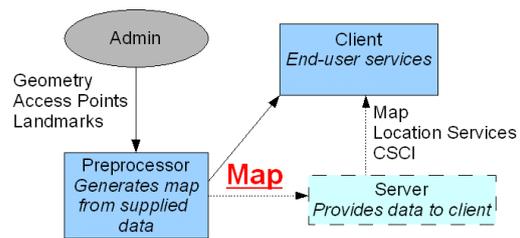


Figure 1: Components of the navigation system.

NLI, when created by people, are heavily based on landmarks. Landmarks are distinctive features of the local geography, e.g. churches, malls, fountains and traffic lights outdoors, and specific shops, fountains and staircases indoors. To that effect landmarks are also used by the CORAL system in its description of (outdoor) routes. One important distinction of indoor scenarios are different floors in a building, which add a third dimension to the geography of a location. Landmarks can also represent connections between floors, e.g. stairs and elevators, which cannot be displayed at all in a purely two dimensional map. This is the approach taken by the Map data structure of our system.

This prototype system is shown conceptually in Figure 1, it is centered around the "Map" data structure, which makes all navigation information available to the client software. The dashed parts, representing the use of a local server are not implemented by the prototype implementation. In a commercial system this server would be responsible for providing information to visitors of the location, most important the Map, as well as location specific services and context sensitive information and commands (CSCI). See (Schilit et al., 1994) for further information on these features.

In our decentralized approach every location is responsible for providing the information locally, for instance by using the local WLAN infrastructure which can be assumed to be available since it is used by the whispering technique for localization. Thus, it is not required to establish a network link to the user's mobile provider to equip the mobile devices with up-to-date Maps. The prototype implementation however provides the Map through a data file saved on the mobile device.

The Map is generated by a preprocessor, which provides a GUI to create and maintain the Map data structure. The "Admin" in Figure 1 is the person responsible for maintaining a location's Map, by providing the data which is needed by the preprocessor. In the Map data structure locations are geometrically described by polygons, inside which the APs and landmarks are positioned. Section 4 describes how this input data is converted to a location represen-

tation based on hierarchical graphs. This conversion allows for an efficient use of the location data which is of particular importance for mobile clients. The Map is made available to the client software which is responsible for all interactions of the system with the actual end users.

The client software is supposed to run on mobile devices, which do not have the computational power and memory available to notebooks or desktop computers. Therefore, a preprocessor was developed to perform the computationally intensive tasks beforehand. The client is left with the tasks of computing routes in the provided Map, communicating these routes to the user both graphically and verbally perform positioning.

4 MAP

The Map data structure is the central element of the system which encodes all known information about a location. The two main goals of the data structure are adaptation to the imprecise position returned by the Device Whispering technique and support of the generation of NLI.

Both landmarks and geometry, can be assigned descriptive "features", which provide nouns to describe elements of the location. The prototype implementation uses a small ontology including words like "corridor", "room", "elevator" and so on for objects and specific parts of locations typically encountered within (public) buildings. These features are used during text generation to assign nouns, verbs and articles, so that these landmarks and polygons can describe a route in natural language.

4.1 Data Structure

The Map is basically represented by a hierarchical graph, where nodes can contain a sub-graph. Our Map uses a hierarchy of four levels summarized in Table 1. For indoor navigation, "Building" is an intuitive title for the root node, which contains floors. The child nodes of the floors represent the traversable geography of the location in a two dimensional way. The geometry is represented by "sectors" which also take into account the local distribution of access

Table 1: Levels of the Map's hierarchical graph.

0	Building
1	Floors
2	Sectorization (Rooms, Corridors)
3	Micro Paths (Skeletons)

points. The sectorization process will be described below.

Finally, the lowest level of the hierarchy contains skeletons of the sectors (which are polygons), used mostly to describe traversal of concave sectors which occur at corners and intersections. These skeletons form the basic elements of the paths for which text instructions are generated.

Two nodes in different sub-graphs can be connected if their parent nodes are connected. This relationship is also invariant in the other direction, i.e. if two nodes are connected, at least one connection between the sub-graphs exist. This ensures that a path on one level of the hierarchy also implies a path through the sub-graphs of the path's nodes.

This is an important property when the paths are to be computed by refining paths along the lower levels of the hierarchy. This incremental approach to route finding can reduce the time required to compute routes, as large parts of the graph need not be considered in each step. For example, if a route on hierarchy level 1 goes from floor 1 to floor 5 using an elevator, there is no need to consider any other floors during route finding on level 2. The nice properties of this approach come at the cost of complex book-keeping, which can be avoided by computing the complete route on the skeleton level directly.

In any case, start and goal nodes on the skeleton level have to be found (from there the hierarchy can be traversed to the coarser levels). The starting node is chosen to be the skeleton node closest to the users position. To determine the goal node, the skeleton edge closest to the goal landmark is considered: from the two nodes terminating the edge, the one farther away from the user's position is used to ensure the edge under consideration is part of the route.

The prototype implementation selects the node with the greater Euclidean distance to the current position, ignoring the geography. This worked well for the test Map, which represented Terminal 1 of the Cologne/Bonn Airport. Another option is to just take any of the two nodes, and add the edge to the route if the wrong node was selected. The latter approach may be more stable for some geometries.

The Device Whispering technique defines a mapping from points in space to the closest AP. This problem¹ has been studied in various fields under various names. In computational geometry this kind of mapping is known as Voronoi diagrams, where it plays an important role in various applications (Aurenhammer, 1991; Aurenhammer and Klein, 2000). Consequently, efficient algorithms to compute Voronoi diagrams have been devised, the best known being Fortune's

¹Also known as the post-office problem.

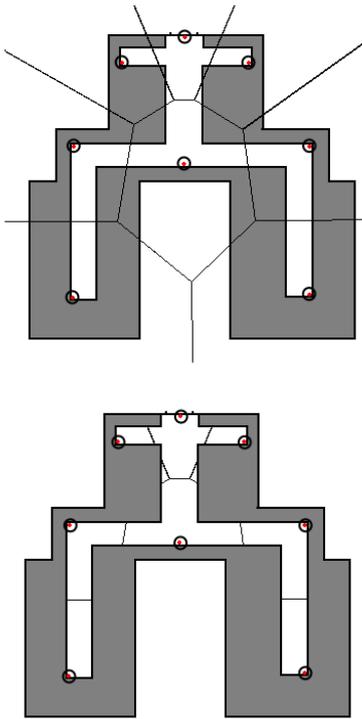


Figure 2: A simple location, access points are the circled dots. The upper image shows the Voronoi regions generated from the access points. In the bottom picture, the regions have been clipped to the corridors. Artifact regions generated during clipping can be seen top center below the cross corridor.

algorithm described in (Fortune, 1986). The voronoi diagram assigns a polygon (called the Voronoi region) to every AP such that the mapping describes at the paragraphs beginning can be solved by point-in-polygon queries.

These voronoi regions, computed from the APs positions, are clipped to the polygons used to describe the location. The sectorization process is illustrated in Figure 2. The polygons resulting from the clipping stage are also called “sectors” and are assigned to nodes on level two of the Map. Nodes are connected if their associated sectors share an edge.

Several algorithms to clip simple polygons exist, all are based on finding intersections between the polygons and then traversing the resulting contours, jumping between the two polygons in such a fashion that the resulting shape is the desired combination of the two polygons. One such algorithm is described in (Weiler and Atherton, 1977).

The second goal, the generation of NLI for a route, needs to address two requirements:

1. While traversing the route, a user passes by several landmarks, namely those contained in the sectors which are part of the route. The land-

mark’s order of traversal depends on the direction in which the user is walking within the sector.

2. Sectors can have complex shapes which are difficult to describe with words. Specifically corners and intersections are difficult to extract from a polygon alone, and difficult operations are to be avoided on mobile devices. The Map should therefore be able to describe a concave polygon’s shape.

Both issues are addressed in the Map data structure by the inclusion of polygon skeletons on the lowest level of the hierarchy.

4.2 Map Generation

The generation of the Map proceeds by issuing a node and sub-graph for every “floor” level, which are connected if landmarks inside the floor are flagged as connected. This is done by the administrator when creating a Map with the preprocessor. The floors’ immediate child nodes are associated with the polygons generated during sectorization. Two sector level nodes are connected by an edge if their associated polygons share an edge. The sectors polygons are created by clipping the polygons describing the locations geometry to the voronoi regions computed for the access points.

The nodes on the sector level are also associated with those landmarks and APs which are located inside the associated polygon. In the case of APs this is at most one AP, the one contained inside the sector (a polygon), which is unique due to construction. But sectors which do not contain any APs can also occur as can be seen in Figure 2.

Such “artifact” sectors are treated in the next step of the algorithm by simply associating them with the access points from those connected sectors which do contain an AP, based on the fact that whispering should classify all those APs among the closest ones. This assignment strategy is used instead of using all neighbors, which includes neighbors which were assigned APs in this step, and avoids sets of APs dependent on the order in which they are created.

The nodes on the lowest level, representing the skeleton, are associated with single points, the position of the associated skeleton node. The skeleton nodes are connected naturally through the skeleton edges. In addition, the connections between the underlying nodes need to be passed to the higher level. This is done by comparing all child nodes of one sector with all child nodes of a neighboring sector. For every edge shared by the associated polygons, the closest pair of these skeleton nodes is chosen, on one condition: the line segment connecting the two nodes

must intersect the polygon edge under consideration. This ensures that the skeleton edge stays within the traversable area.

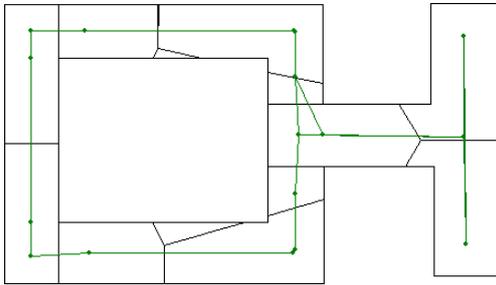


Figure 3: Example sectorization and skeleton of a simple Map generated by the preprocessor. The skeleton includes edges across polygons.

Note the triangle configuration of edges close to the center of Figure 3, where a polygon without a skeleton node had to be skipped. This is an ugly case occurring when generating the skeletons from the geometry. It can be avoided by generating skeletons for the sectors instead of the geometry.

Finally, landmark-based connections are created connecting the floors on level one of the hierarchy. The plurals in the previous sentence are intentional: multiple sectors in a floor can have connections to multiple sectors in another floor, represented by distinct landmarks. In fact, even a single sector can contain both a staircase and an elevator. To this end, edges on level one of the hierarchy (between distinct floors) are assigned sets of landmarks.

When assigning sets of landmarks to the edges, the edges are assumed to be directed (as available in paths) to distinguish between the landmarks of the two floors. This is done in order to accommodate the descriptions of routes which use these landmarks, navigating to the landmark on the floor where the user currently is, and continuing at the landmark on the other floor where the path resumes.

The resulting generation of the Maps, leaving out some details discussed above, follows these steps:

1. For each zone:
 - (a) Compute sectorization according to Figure 2:
 - i. Generate Voronoi diagram of APs.
 - ii. Clip Voronoi regions to geometry. Resulting sectors inherit their features from the geometry they are generated from.
 - (b) Find (and remember) shared polygon edges, connect the sectors.
 - (c) Associate every AP with the containing sector.
 - (d) Associate those sectors who were not assigned an AP with those APs of all direct neighbors

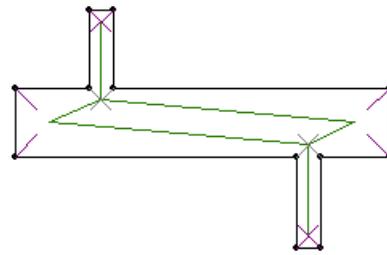


Figure 4: Simple polygon with bisectors and resulting skeleton.

which were assigned an AP in the previous step.

- (e) Compute skeleton for every geometry polygon, place resulting points in containing sector and connect.
 - (f) Connect points from different geometry polygons if a shared polygon edge exists (remembered in step 1(b)). Two candidate points are legal if the line connecting the pair intersects the polygon edge. See Figure 3.
 - (g) Place landmarks in the containing sectors. Landmarks connecting zones are remembered for connection after all zones have been generated.
2. For the landmarks remembered in step 1(g), create the according edges between floors, and associate all landmarks connecting those floors with the created edge.

It remains to describe the algorithm which computes the polygon skeletons. This is a novel algorithm which was developed during the course of this work, and is originally described in (Chowaw-Liebman, 2009). The algorithm's underlying idea is based on the observation that the medial axis of the polygon contains the lines bisecting the convex corners of the polygon, and that a node exists where two of these lines meet.

The approximation of the medial axis computed by this skeletonization algorithm computes bisectors for all vertices of the polygon. These bisectors are then clipped to the polygon, and intersections between these bisectors are computed to create the nodes of the skeleton. Every bisector is assigned the closest point of intersection it caused (bisectors can intersect multiple others).

These nodes are connected by traversing the polygon contour: the bisectors associate nodes of the contour with one skeleton node (the closest one kept in above paragraph), which are simply connected in order of traversal along the contour. Figure 4 shows a polygon, the bisectors of its contour nodes and the resulting skeleton.

The skeleton algorithm follows these steps:

1. Create a “contour list” of segments bisecting the inward angles of all vertices, originating at a node of the polygon contour and ending at the earliest intersection with a polygon edge (length and polygon edges intersected are recorded). This restricts the segments to lie completely inside the polygon, according to the Jordan Curve Theorem. This prevents intersections outside the polygon and ensures the creation of points guaranteed to lie inside the polygon. All bisectors are initially marked as “intersects polygon”.
2. Find the earliest intersection between all bisecting segments (again record length and other edge intersected). The intersection kept has the lowest length for *both* segments crossing. All such edges are marked as “intersects segment”, yielding pairs of intersecting segments.
3. All segments still marked as “intersects polygon” are assigned an opposing node by splitting the polygon edge at the point where the segment intersects, inserting a “bisector” pointing opposite to the original vertex. This “balancing” is required to assert the correctness of the next step. Some care must be taken during insertion to keep the contour in a consistent ordering, e.g. counter-clockwise.
4. The “contour list” is walked through. Every segment creates a skeleton vertex, which is connected to the previously generated vertex (which is initialized to the last segments vertex). For segments intersecting another segment, the vertex created is at the intersection point determined in step 2. For polygon intersection segments, the vertex is created in the middle of the segment, and by extension equidistant to the closest polygon edges. Because the segments lie completely inside the polygon the node is also inside.

5 TEXT GENERATION

Generation of natural language instructions is based on the skeleton level of the hierarchy. The order of nodes in the path defines a direction for the edges, and with the nodes’ positions each edge defines a line segment. Landmarks are now conveniently passed by in the order of the closest point on the line segment. Using parametric lines of the form $\vec{y} = \vec{p} + x \cdot \vec{d}$ with origin \vec{p} and direction \vec{d} , the closest points on the line can be expressed as a scalar value.

The line segments are constructed such that \vec{p} is the point of the originating node and $\vec{p} + 1 \cdot \vec{d}$ is the

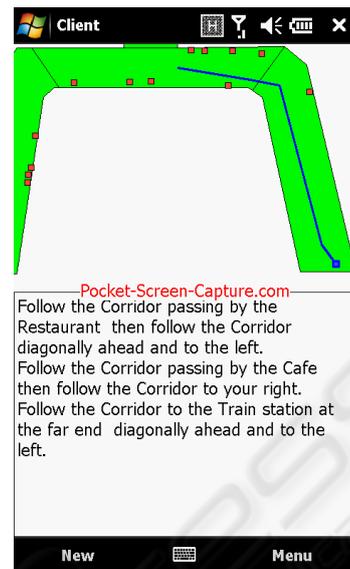


Figure 5: Screen shots of the client in action.

point of the terminating node. That is, the line segments is defined for values of the parameter x inside the interval $[0, 1]$. If the closest point on the line is outside this interval it is not on the line segment, and the landmark can be discarded. Sorting the remaining landmarks based on the parameter for the closest point arranges them in order of traversal.

These edges with landmarks in order of traversal form the basic element for text generation: instructions consider one edge after the other, with some connectives (e.g. “and” or “then”) and landmarks for orientation, while the skeleton takes care of corners and intersections definition. Text generation is based on three functions:

traverseBy instructs the user to follow the complete skeleton edge, which is described as passing by the *last* landmark along the edge. This landmark is used to reassure the user about being on the right track, so it is left out if the last landmark is too close to the beginning of the edge.

traverseTo describes movement to a landmark somewhere along the edge. This is used for the last edge of the path, along which the target landmark is located, a distance which is communicated to the user in approximate terms, see below. The side on which the landmark should be is also used in the description.

rotateToward turn to face along the next edge. This function is responsible for describing the action needed at an intersection or corridor.

Directions and distances are discretized into a few approximate phrases like “to your left”, “ahead” or

”close by”, ”in the middle” and ”at the far end” to give a few representative examples. These discretizations provide relative information which is expected to be of more use to people than precise distances. The difference is that ”in 68 meters” can mean the same as ”halfway down the corridor”, the latter being of better utility as long as users are not equipped with odometers.

The prototype text generator simply uses `traverseBy` followed by `rotateToward` for every skeleton edge of the path, except for the last which is handled by `traverseTo`. These functions are implemented based on the ”fill the blanks” approach, generating sentences of a fixed structure with the appropriate landmark, geometry type (e.g. corridor or room) and direction placed in their positions. Figure 5 shows a screen shot of the client software, showing a route and the generated NLI.

6 CONCLUSIONS

A novel indoor navigation system adapted to the device whispering technique was presented. The central element of the system is the Map data structure, which was presented and its applicability to natural language instruction generation was shown, see Figure 5. Tests of the prototype system uncovered that common WLAN interface cards (i.e. hardware devices) do not modulate transmission power when instructed to do so: all access points which are detected already respond to the lowest power request. Pending further inquiry, we are currently assuming that transmission power modulation is not implemented, possibly to reduce the chip’s area.

The implemented text generation system produces NLI which are quite satisfactory, especially concerning its minimalistic simplicity. In both cases, output and generation complexity, the system compares favourably with CORAL: the generated text is not quite as eloquent, but is generated with much less effort. This indicates that our approach of skeletons annotated with landmarks provides adequate information for the NLI generator.

The very simple approach to text generation leaves open many possibilities for extension, e.g. adding more rules to improve both the natural language as well as for selecting landmarks to use in the text.

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