Visual RSSI Fingerprinting for Radio-based Indoor Localization

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Keywords: RSSI, Indoor Localization, BLE Beacon, LSTM, Structure from Motion.

Abstract: The problem of localizing objects exploiting RSSI signals has been tackled using both geometric and machine learning based methods. Solutions machine learning based have the advantage to better cope with noise, but require many radio signal observations associated to the correct position in the target space. This data collection and labeling process is not trivial and it typically requires building a grid of dense observations, which can be resource-intensive. To overcome this issue, we propose a pipeline which uses an autonomous robot to collect RSSI-image pairs and Structure from Motion to associate 2D positions to the RSSI values based on the inferred position of each image. This method, as we shown in the paper, allows to acquire large quantities of data in an inexpensive way. Using the collected data, we experiment with machine learning models based on RNNs and propose an optimized model composed of a set of LSTMs that specialize on the RSSI observations coming from different antennas. The proposed method shows promising results outperforming different baselines, suggesting that the proposed pipeline allowing to collect and automatically label observations is useful in real scenarios. Furthermore, to aid research in this area, we publicly release the collected dataset comprising 57158 RSSI observations paired with RGB images.

1 INTRODUCTION

Being able to infer the position of an object, a person or a robot in an environment is an important task for many applications including tracking goods in a warehouse, helping people to localize themselves (Furnari et al., 2016; Battiato et al., 2009) and navigate an environment, or predicting their intent (Kamali, 2019; Häne et al., 2017; Gupta et al., 2017; Ragusa et al., 2020; Furnari et al., 2018). To tackle this problem, different technologies have been used so far: GPS, radio-wave signals, laser ranging scanners, and cameras (Xiao et al., 2016). Among these approaches, we focus on radio-wave signals, which are convenient thanks to cheap and unobtrusive hardware solutions, which work also in indoor settings (e.g., based on WiFi or Bluetooth).

Localization through radio-wave signals leverages the processing of RSSI values (Received Signal Strength Indication - a measure of the power of a radio signal) observed by a beacon attached to the object to be localized while receiving signals from a set of antennas placed at known locations (Zafari et al., 2019). Since RSSI values can be used to estimate the distance between the observer (the object to be localized) and the signal emitter (an antenna placed at the known location), geometric methods can be used to estimate the target location directly.

However, the feasibility of this method is hindered by the fact that RSSI values tend to have two main limitations: ambiguity, i.e. two different devices at...
the same position can measure different RSSI values (and vice-versa), and instability, i.e., objects present in the environment, other radio signals or external factors (e.g., an electrical station with radio base antennas) can create noise, disturb the radio signal and make the measure less reliable. These limitations can be partially tackled using approaches based on machine learning (Zafari et al., 2019). Such approaches rely on a set of offline RSSI measurements associated to target positions which are used as a set of “examples” indicating the relationship between observed values and target positions. These observations are used to train a machine learning model such as an artificial neural network. The model is then able, at run time, to estimate the position from newly observed RSSI values. The main advantage of this approach is that the trained algorithm can implicitly model sensor noise as well as the positions of the antennas, which hence do not need to be known beforehand. On the downside, collecting RSSI and target position pairs is generally a non-trivial task and often involves performing measurements at known positions sampled through a dense grid over the environment see Figure 1. This manual process is often time-consuming, tedious, and prone to error.

In this work, we propose to leverage an autonomous robot randomly moving in the target environment to densely collect RSSI observations at various locations. Each RSSI value is associated to an image captured from the robot’s point of view. We then use structure from motion (SfM) to create a 3D model of the environment. By relying on a small set of images captured at known positions, we recover the correct scale and orientation of the 3D model. At the end of this process, each image, and hence each RSSI observation, is associated to a position within the environment, which can be used to form \( <\text{RSSI}, \text{target position}> \) pairs suitable for model training. It is worth noting that, differently from previous works relying on RSSI observations manually acquired at known locations, the proposed procedure is automatic and naturally allows to obtain a large quantity of examples. Figure 1 illustrates the proposed data acquisition pipeline, which is described in details in Section 3. To study the suitability of the proposed pipeline to tackle the localization problem, we collect a dataset in an office environment and benchmark different neural network approaches. Results show that a model based on a set of Long-Short Term Memory (LSTM) networks specialized on the values coming from the different antennas obtains best results, which is an approach made possible by the large amount of labeled examples gathered with the proposed pipeline.

The main contributions of this work are as follows: 1) we propose a pipeline to collect and automatically label RSSI observations, exploiting a mobile robot and structure from motion techniques, 2) following the proposed pipeline, we collect and release\(^1\) a dataset suitable to study indoor localization through RSSI values and machine learning, 3) we benchmark different methods based on artificial neural networks on the considered task and propose a method based on LSTMs which achieves promising performance.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 presents the state of the art in the field, Section 3 describes the proposed pipeline and presents the collected dataset, Section 4 presents the proposed method, Section 5 introduces experiments and show the results and finally Section 6 concludes the paper.

2 RELATED WORKS

Our work is related to two research lines: localization using radio signals and collection of datasets suitable for localization. The following sections discuss the relevant research works.

2.1 Localization using Radio Signals and Machine Learning

Previous works have investigated methods to localize a target in an environment using radio signals. In this section, we focus on the approaches based on machine learning. Two early works (Battiti et al., 2002; Brunato and Battiti, 2005) performed indoor localization using a Multi-Layer Perceptron, which achieved results comparable with respect to a K Nearest-Neighbors (KNN) algorithm in the localization of a mobile device. The authors of (Obreja et al., 2018) addressed the localization task leveraging a collection of RSSI measurements obtained by 3 beacons. The method used to retrieve the pose is a KNN approach which reaches an accuracy between 5 and 6 meters in an indoor environment of 98 m\(^2\). 1-KNN, presented in (Kanaris et al., 2017), combines the BLE Beacons technology with a radiomap created with Wi-Fi RSSI information to improve localization. The method obtains an average error of 2.58 meters in an indoor environment of 160 m\(^2\). A feed-forward Multi-Layer Perceptron was used in (Dai et al., 2016). The method is divided into three stages: a transforming stage, a denoising stage and a locating stage. Local-

\(^1\)The dataset is available at the following URL: https://iplab.dmi.unict.it/VisualRSSI
visualization was tackled as a classification task by dividing an environment of 144 $m^2$ using grids of 1 $m^2$, 1.5 $m^2$ and 2 $m^2$. Other works (Chen et al., 2015; Deng et al., 2015; Lipka et al., 2019; Röbetaat et al., 2017; Paul and Wan, 2009) used the Kalman filter to denoise the observed RSSI values. In (Subedi et al., 2016), an algorithm called Weighted Centroid Localization (WCL) was proposed. The algorithm takes as input a mobile average of ten RSSI samples and applies Kalman filter. The importance of each beacon is hence weighed based on its distance from the RSSI point, in order to calculate the coordinates of the device to be located. Due to the temporal nature of the observed radio signals, recurrent units are suitable to tackle the localization task from the RSSI values. The authors of (Hoang et al., 2019) estimated the target trajectory using a large amount of RSSI values collected with mobile devices. The authors of (Xu et al., 2016) used a LSTM to track a moving target through decentralized sorting of RSSI values and using a GPU to increase computation speed. The authors of (Ishihara et al., 2017) propose to use both RSSI signals and image content to improve smartphone localization.

Differently from the aforementioned works, we propose a pipeline to collect a large amount of RSSI values leveraging a mobile robot and structure from motion techniques. We hence propose an approach based on LSTMs which shows how this large amount of labeled data can be effectively used to tackle the localization problem.

2.2 Image-based Localization Datasets

Our research is also related to previous works focusing on the creation of datasets for image-based localization. In (Kendall et al., 2015) the Cambridge landmark dataset was introduced. The dataset includes 5 different outdoor scenes and contains approximately 12,000 images tagged with 6 degrees of freedom (6DOF) camera poses. Rome16k and Dubrovnik6k were proposed in (Li et al., 2009) with 16,179 and 6,844 outdoor images downloaded from Flickr. The pose information in both datasets was obtained using Structure From Motion (Wu, 2013). In some cases, especially for indoor environments, the use of dedicated hardware is preferred over SIM. For example, the “7 scenes” dataset (Shotton et al., 2013), which contains images from 7 indoor environments such as “Office” and “Stairs” includes a total of 43,000 labeled frames, was captured using a handheld Kinect RGBD sensor. An indoor dataset covering an entire floor of a building with a total area of 5,000 $m^2$ is described in (Walch et al., 2017). The dataset was acquired using a mobile system equipped with six cameras and three laser rangefinders and contains 1,095 high resolution images. The authors of (Sun et al., 2017) collected a dataset for indoor localization in a shopping mall covering an area of 5,575 $m^2$ using DSLR cameras for the train set, while the test set consists of 2,000 photos collected with mobile phones by different users. To estimate camera poses, the authors used a 3D-2D fit algorithm based on a 3D model obtained with a high-precision LiDAR scanner.

Similarly to the aforementioned works, we collect a dataset of images and use structure from motion techniques to attach camera poses to the images. However, differently from those, we aim to create a high-quality dataset of RSSI values associated to ground truth positions. Hence, the collected images are used mainly as a means to automatically obtain a ground truth signal in our work.

3 PROPOSED DATA ACQUISITION PIPELINE AND COLLECTED DATASET

The proposed automatic data acquisition and labeling pipeline is depicted in Figure 2. The pipeline goes through the following steps:

1. Visual RSSI Fingerprinting, in which we collect
different RSSI values and associate them to visual observations in the form of RGB images; 

2. Structure From Motion, which is used to associate 3D poses to each image, and hence to each RSSI value; 

3. Projection of the 3D poses to the 2D floor-plan and exportation of the associated RSSI values useful for training machine learning algorithms for localization via radio signals.

The rest of this section details how we implemented this pipeline in an indoor environment in order to generate a dataset suitable to study the localization problem.

RGB images with a resolution of 1280 x 720 and RSSI signals were collected in the environment shown in figure 3. We have installed 5 antennas in order to completely cover the environment. The chosen space has a maximum length of 17.75m and a maximum width of 12.65m. The total area is approximately 160 m². The environment is close to a power plant, which introduces RSSI noise.

In order to have a high resolution map of the environment, we performed a dense sampling of RSSI values using a Sanbot-Elf mobile robot to which we attached a RealSense D435 camera and three Bluetooth Low Energy (BLE) beacons. We use three beacons to have three different frequencies, obtaining a more realistic setting and adding variability to the dataset. The RealSense camera allows to capture and stream video. Furthermore its good autofocus speed enables capturing images without blur which are to be preferred for good SfM results. BLE beacons are a suitable class of devices to transmit RSSI values because of the low energy consumption profile and good working distances. The camera is connected to a Raspberry Pi 4 device attached to a powerbank. The setup of the robot is shown in Figure 4.

Using the autonomous navigation capabilities based on the on-board sensors of the robot, we let it move randomly in all directions to cover all possible positions in the environment. Apart from the three beacons placed on the robot, the environment contains seven additional beacons, which contribute to increase the RSSI noise, and hence to reproduce a realistic setup. At every second, the described platform was used to collect images and receive signals from the five antennas placed in the environment through the three beacons.

We have collected the dataset during seven recording sessions, each one lasting thirty minutes in order to increase the variability of external and internal factors, such as RSSI noise by changing the time of acquisition. Following this procedure, we gathered 64,478 images, each associated to the related RSSI payloads.

To assign a set of coordinates to each image and hence to the corresponding RSSI data, we built a 3D model using COLMAP (Schöner and Frahm, 2016), a widely used Structure From Motion tool. To recover the metrical scale of the environment, we aligned the reconstructed model through the Manhattan world alignment procedure included in COLMAP using a small set of images captured at known positions. For each image, collected using the RealSense camera, registered to the model, we exported 3D spatial labels and projected them to the 2D plan corresponding to the floor, thus obtaining two degrees of freedom (2DoF) camera poses.

All the statistics of the created dataset are shown in Table 1. The dataset was split into train, testing and validation sets using 70%, 20% and 10% of the data respectively, as shown in Table 1. Specifically, sessions 1-4 have been used for training, session 5 for validation and sessions 6-7 for testing.

Table 1: Dataset statistics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>#</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total images/payloads</td>
<td>64478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total images used for SfM</td>
<td>58872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total points to localize</td>
<td>57158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total RSSI values in Train-set</td>
<td>36295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total RSSI values in Validation-set</td>
<td>9665</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total RSSI values in Test-set</td>
<td>18485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total seconds of recordings</td>
<td>12889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total missing values covered with linear interpolation</td>
<td>2622</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2http://en.sanbot.com/product/sanbot-elf/design
4 METHOD

We process RSSI data using a sliding window of one second: at every second we collect the RSSIs information of the five antennas dislocated in the environment. In several cases, RSSI values of a given antenna were missing in the considered temporal window. We filled these missing values using linear interpolation. To mitigate noise and signal instability, we normalized data to have 0 mean and standard deviation equal to 1 using the formula:

$$x_i = \frac{x_i - \mu_i}{\sigma_i}$$ (1)

where $x_i$ is the i-th feature (i.e., the value of the i-th antenna), $\mu_i$ and $\sigma_i$ are the mean and standard deviation values of the features computed on the training set, and $\pi_i$ is the i-th normalized feature.

We hence propose a neural network architecture to exploit the temporal nature of the data and the different contribution of each antenna, which is illustrated in Figure 5. Specifically, we design an architecture composed by 5 LSTMs, one for each antenna, to process in parallel features related to the different antennas. At each training step, every LSTM takes as input a sequence containing the RSSI signals of the last 20 seconds measured with respect to each corresponding antenna. The 128-dimensional hidden vectors of the different LSTMs are then concatenated in a single vector and fed to a Multi Layer Perceptron (MLP) made of 4 fully connected layers to regress the final 2D pose.

To train the model, we used the smoothed L1 loss function (Girshick, 2015), which is closely related to Huber-Loss. We choose this loss because it is less sensitive to outliers compared to Mean Squared Error in a regression task. We used a learning rate of $10^{-4}$, which is halved every 100 epochs. We used the Adam optimizer (Kingma and Ba, 2014) to train the model because it can handle sparse gradients on noisy problems. All experiments have been performed using the PyTorch framework.

Table 2: Comparison of our method against baselines.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>FC</th>
<th>Temporal Window</th>
<th>Mean error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KNN</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>1.99 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLP</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3s</td>
<td>1.80 ± 1.25 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RNN</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20s</td>
<td>1.32 ± 0.91 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GRU</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15s</td>
<td>1.35 ± 0.94 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSTM</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15s</td>
<td>1.31 ± 0.93 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSTM</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20s</td>
<td>1.28 ± 0.95 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSTM</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20s</td>
<td>1.64 ± 1.07 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BiGRU</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20s</td>
<td>1.29 ± 0.88 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BiLSTM</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20s</td>
<td>1.25 ± 0.90 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OURs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20s</td>
<td>2.18 ± 1.43 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OURs</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20s</td>
<td>1.44 ± 0.99 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OURs</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20s</td>
<td>2.22 ± 0.95 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OURs</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20s</td>
<td>1.17 ± 0.90 m</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Average error of the proposed method for varying training set size.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Portion of training set</th>
<th>Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25%</td>
<td>2.01 ± 1.34 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50%</td>
<td>1.46 ± 1.03 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75%</td>
<td>1.30 ± 0.92 m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>1.17 ± 0.90 m</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5https://pytorch.org/
5 EXPERIMENTS

We compare our method against different baselines based on KNN, MLP and general RNN approaches which are summarized in the following.

- **KNN**: location is determined form the input vector of 5 RSSI values by looking at a database of offline observations paired with ground truth locations. We found that $K = 10$ gave the best results, hence we use this value in our experiments;

- **MLP**: RSSI values sampled in the last 3 seconds are concatenated in a 15-dimensional vector. Location is directly regressed from the input vector using a Multi-Layer Perceptron with three hidden layer of dimensionality 32, 64, 128;

- **RNN**: Due to the sequential nature of the input data, we investigate the use of Recurrent Neural Networks (RNN) (Rumelhart et al., 1985; Jordan, 1997). In this case, the input is a sequence of 20 vectors of 5 RSSI values, sampled in the 20 seconds preceding the observation. The hidden size of the RNN cell is 128. The output of the RNN is hence passed through 2 fully connected layers of dimensionality 64;

- **GRU**: We also assess the performance of a Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU) as a recurrent neural network. In this case, we use a hidden size of 128 consider a sequence of 15 5-dimensional vectors and experiment with 1, 2 and 3 fully connected layers with hidden size of sizes ranging from 32 to 128;

- **LSTM**: Similar to the GRU experiment, but Long-Short Term Memory (LSTM) (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997) cells are used instead. An input sequence of 20 seconds is consider and similar hidden size dimensions apply;

- **BiGRU, BiLSTM**: Same as before, but with bidirectional recurrent units used instead;

Table 2 reports the results of our experiments. For each method we report the mean error with the related standard deviation in meters.

The simple KNN baseline reaches an average error of 1.99 meters. This large error is probably due to the inability of the algorithm to model the temporal nature of observations. The MLP baseline achieves a slightly better result than KNN, with an average error of 1.80 meters. Note that while the MLP can model more complex input-output relationships than KNN, it can not truly leverage the temporality of observations. The models based on recurrent neural networks obtain better results compared to KNN and MLP. We believe that such increase in performance depends directly from the ability to model the sequential nature of the observations. A general trend (which can be seen in results Table 2) is that models with increased capacity (more FC layers) tend to perform better (e.g., the GRU with 3 FC layers obtains an average error of $1.28 \pm 0.95$ meters vs the GRU with 1 FC layer which obtains an average error of $1.35 \pm 0.94$ meters). LSTMs, being more flexible, perform better than GRUs and vanilla RNNs. Indeed, the best results are obtained using a LSTM with a temporal window of 20 seconds as input, reaching an error of $1.25 \pm 0.90$ meters. Using bidirectional LSTMs and GRUs does not bring significant improvements to performance. Our method was developed starting from this result, with a set of five LSTM to exploit the contributions of each antenna. The best overall result is achieved by our method with an average error of $1.17 \pm 0.90$ meters obtained with four fully connected layers, and 20 seconds temporal window as input. As shown in the REC curve reported in Figure 6, the proposed method achieves an error under 1m of 54.55% of times, and under 1.5m in 73.9% of the cases.

The importance of having a large quantity of data, which is one of the contributions of our pipeline, is highlighted in Table 3, which shows performance of the best model when different portions of our dataset are used for training. As can be observed, using 100% of the data is fundamental to achieve a more accurate localization.

6 CONCLUSION

In this work we have considered the problem of indoor localization of BLE beacons using RSSI-Data. We propose to overcome the expensive procedure of manual fingerprinting to collect data using an autonomous robot and structure from motion to create a 3D model of the environment for gathering the 2DoF poses. Following this procedure, we collected over 64000 images from almost 4 hours of video. To test the goodness of the data, we performed several experiments using various machine learning approaches and we presented a method which exploits both the temporal nature of the data as the quantitative nature of the features. We believe that the pipeline described and the released dataset can help the research in this topic.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This research is supported by the project MEGABIT - PIAno di inCentivi per la Ricerca di Ateneo 2020/2022 (PIACERI) – linea di intervento 2, DMI - University of Catania.

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