

Pedestrian Dead Reckoning (PDR) Algorithm for Indoor Localization

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ABSTRACT

Indoor localization has recently proven to be essential mainly because Global Positioning System (GPS) cannot provide accurate location information in the indoor environment. Also, the potential wide range of services it can provide by leveraging Internet of Things (IoT) increased the interest in it. Pedestrian Dead Reckoning (PDR) is an indoor localization method that relies on smartphone carrying sensors such as (accelerometer, gyroscope, and magnetometer). However, the inertial sensors suffer from bias and other random errors. These errors are due to misalignment of the axes in the manufacturing of the sensor or during assembly of the IMU, and due to self-heating effects.

In this report, we present a stride length estimation method, a step detection algorithm, and a sensor calibration fusion method to reduce and compensate the effects of these errors. The presented method combining outputs acquired by low-cost inertial measurement units and electronic magnetic compasses to provide the optimal three-dimensional (3D) navigation system.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

In recent years, low-cost inertial measurement units (IMUs) and magnetometer sensors are produced massively and available at a low cost. Also, because of its small size, it is widely used in mobile devices. Using mobile devices in determining the pedestrian location in an indoor environment has been a fundamental requirement in many public service applications such as navigation. It uses low-cost microelectromechanical systems (MEMS) sensors, but the raw data acquired by the sensors cannot be used directly in mathematical formulas [1].

In the presented method we implement a calibration method to calibrate the smartphone electronic compass for hard-iron and soft-iron effects. Also, implement a method to remove constant bias in the gyroscope. Using an accurate method to detect steps and calculate stride length which considered an essential part of the pedestrian dead reckoning (PDR).

Besides, using a Kalman filter in correcting the heading angle and decrease the error in step detection part by filtering the linear acceleration.

A floor detecting algorithm is used based on the barometer sensor. It detects the changes in the floor by detecting if a person going up or down.

Details on the algorithms and calibration process is discussed in the following sections.

Chapter 2 Methods

The app was developed using the Android software development kit on the Android Studio Integrated development environment and tested on the Samsung A30 smartphone.

The process of building a full-function navigation app was split into 3 parts. In the first part, a step detection algorithm was implemented and tested. In the second part, an automated stride length estimation algorithm was tested and implemented. During the first two-parts, a standalone app was developed to be later incorporated into the main app. In the third part, an orientation estimation algorithm was developed, using multiple filtering stages including 2-steps Kalman filtering.

2.1 Step Detection And Stride Length Estimation Algorithm

The step detection algorithm used in this app is based on the paper [2]. To detect steps the first requirement is the smartphone linear acceleration in the world reference system. After collection the raw data from the hardware *ACC* its need to be referred to the world reference system by multiplying the raw acceleration with the rotation matrix R . To estimate the R we need to find the quaternion as follows:

$$q'_0 = 1 - \theta_x^2 - \theta_y^2 - \theta_z^2$$

$$q_0 = \begin{cases} \sqrt{q'_0} & \text{if } q'_0 > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$q_1 = \theta_x$$

$$q_2 = \theta_y$$

$$q_3 = \theta_z$$

Where q is the orientation expressed in quaternion form and $\theta_x \theta_y \theta_z$ are the revolution around the axis $\langle x, y, z \rangle$.

Then the rotation matrix can be found as follows:

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - 2(q_2^2 + q_3^2) & 2(q_1q_2 - q_0q_3) & 2(q_1q_3 + q_0q_2) \\ 2(q_1q_2 + q_0q_3) & 1 - 2(q_1 + q_3) & 2(q_2q_3 - q_0q_1) \\ 2(q_1q_3 - q_0q_2) & 2(q_2q_3 + q_0q_1) & 1 - 2(q_1^2 + q_2^2) \end{bmatrix}$$

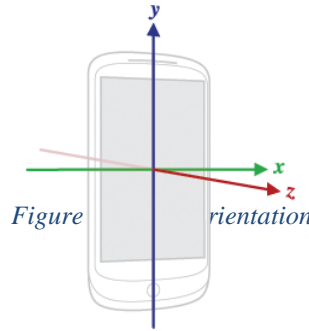
After finding R the linear acceleration ($ACCL$) can be found using the following equation:

$$ACCL = ACC \cdot R$$

Then to obtain the world reference, the linear acceleration $ACCL$ subtracted from the gravity:

$$ACCL = ACCL - [0 \ 0 \ g]$$

The step detection algorithm relies on the principle that when we are close to heel-strike or toe-off the vertical acceleration which as seen in Figure 1 the acceleration in the Z direction is the principal component. Therefore, when a step is detected the vertical component of the acceleration should be close enough to the acceleration magnitude ALN .



The linear acceleration magnitude ALN can be found as follows:

$$ALN = \sqrt{ACCL_x^2 + ACCL_y^2 + ACCL_z^2}$$

The step detection algorithm is seen in Figure 2, it relies on three main states: no steps, initial phase, and terminal phase. No steps phase mean that the app doesn't record any movement and the object is static or the previous step was ended and object still in idle state. In the initial phase, in this phase, the app detects a step and the object is performing a heel-strike, the vertical acceleration is maximum at this stage. The Terminal stage lasts until the end of the step detection process where the vertical acceleration will be more than the magnitude threshold thm .

The algorithm depends on three indicators which are: the *thm* is the magnitude threshold, *thd* is the “vertical-to-magnitude-similarity” threshold, namely the distance between the acceleration magnitude and the vertical acceleration which enables the step detection, *mind* is the minimum distance, in terms of the number of samples, between a step and next one; and the maximum vertical acceleration epoch number during last step *EMAX*. If a step has not been detected yet, *EMAX* is initialized to 0. The chosen values for the considered thresholds are: *thm* = 1.5 m/s², *thd* = 0.5 m/s², and *mind* = 50 samples, respectively.

The stride length estimation depends on the maximum vertical acceleration *AMAX* that recorded in the initial phase. Also, it depends on the minimum vertical acceleration *AMIN* which recorded in the terminal phase.

The Weinberg algorithm is applied to calculate the stride length. The equation is shown below:

$$SL = C * \sqrt[4]{AMAX - AMIN}$$

Where *SL* is the stride length in meter, *C* is a constant which rely on the smartphone positioning and the subject height. The details on the constant *C* can be found in Subsection II-E in the paper [2].

The below flowchart describes the full process of the step detection and stride length estimation process.

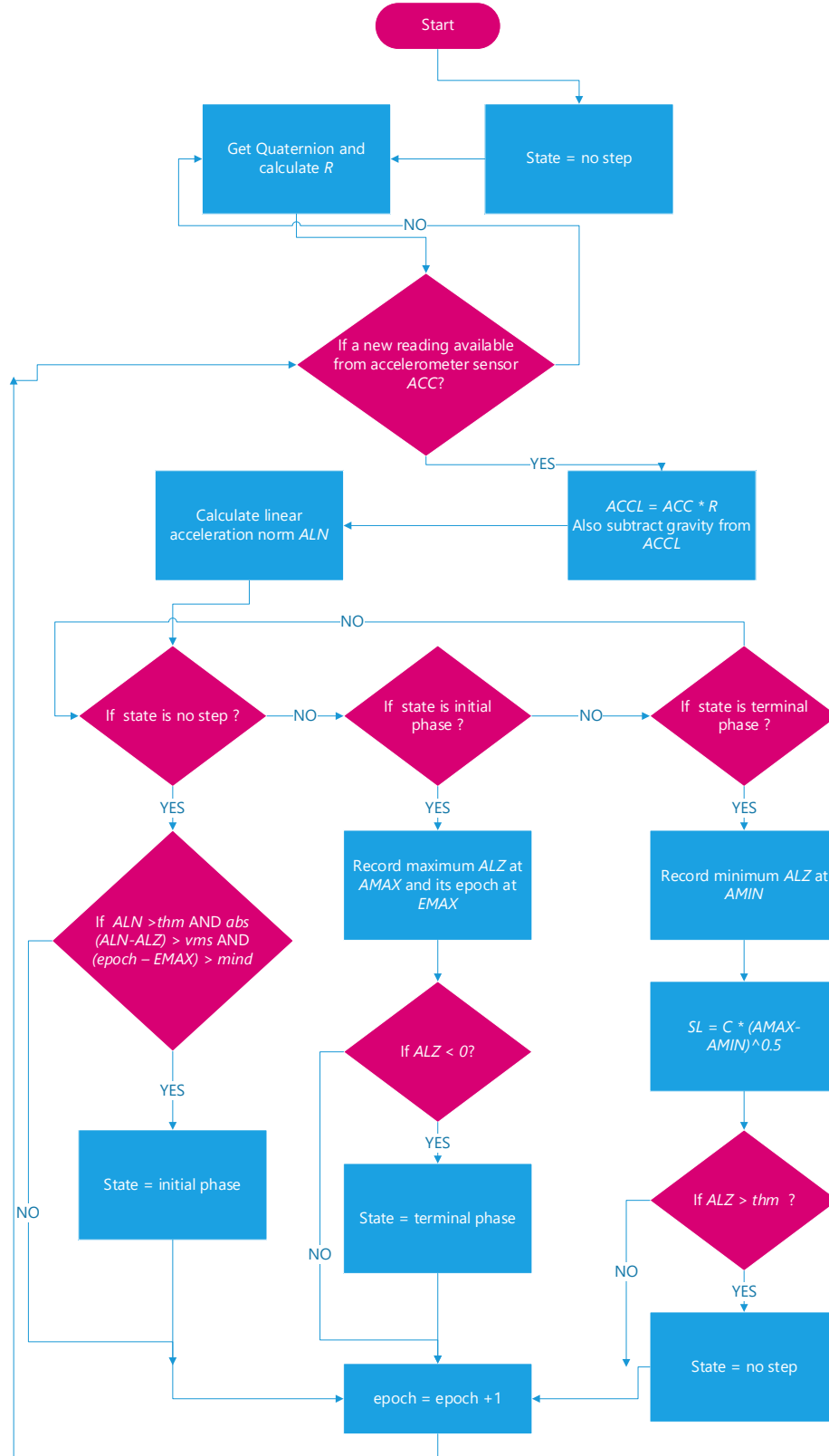


Figure 2: Step Detection Algorithm

2.2 Calibration of Sensors

2.2.1 Gyroscope Calibration

The calibration process for the gyroscope starts by putting the mobile phone on a flat surface for a short period (until the App record enough readings). After recording enough data (in our trail we use 600 readings) the moving average for the gyroscope data is calculated to observe the bias matrix which will be subtracted from any future readings of gyroscope. By using this approach, the constant bias of gyroscope will be decreased or eliminated.

2.2.2 Magnetometer Calibration

The accuracy of a magnetometer is highly dependent on the calculation and subtraction in the software of stray magnetic fields. By convention, these fields are divided into those that are fixed (termed Hard-Iron effects) and those that are induced by the geomagnetic field (termed Soft-Iron effects [3]).

A hard-iron offset is resulting from permanently magnetized ferromagnetic components in the smartphone. Since the magnetometer and smartphone rotate together, the hard-iron offset is a simple vector V_{sp} , which adds to the magnetometer reading. Also, the factory calibration will appear as a fixed additive vector V_{sensor} , both vectors are combined as a single hard-iron vector:

$$V = V_{sp} + V_{sensor}$$

Magnetic field B_p measured by a smartphone magnetometer in the absence of hard- and soft-iron effects after rotations in yaw ψ , pitch θ and roll ϕ by the rotation matrices $R_z(\psi)$, $R_y(\theta)$, and $R_x(\phi)$ as:

$$B_p = R_x(\phi)R_y(\theta)R_z(\psi)B_r = R_x(\phi)R_y(\theta)R_z(\psi)B \begin{bmatrix} \cos \delta \\ 0 \\ \sin \delta \end{bmatrix}$$

B_r is the local geomagnetic field vector with magnitude B and magnetic inclination δ at the smartphone location.

The Magnetic field including hard-iron vector is shown in the equation below:

$$Bp = Rx(\varphi)Ry(\theta)Rz(\psi)B \begin{bmatrix} \cos \delta \\ 0 \\ \sin \delta \end{bmatrix} + V$$

Soft-iron effect as the interfering magnetic field induced by the geomagnetic field onto normally unmagnetized ferromagnetic components in the smartphone.

The magnetic field measured Bp including soft-iron and hard iron:

$$Bp = WRx(\varphi)Ry(\theta)Rz(\psi)B \begin{bmatrix} \cos \delta \\ 0 \\ \sin \delta \end{bmatrix} + V$$

The solution implemented in the app is the four-parameters calibration presented in reference [4]. The objective is to calculate the hard iron error $V = [Vx, Vy, Vz]$ and the magnetic field strength B .

The user requested to do arbitrary movement for the smartphone to determine the locus of the magnetometer. The same locus of magnetometer measurements represents the primary information available to the calibration algorithms to determine the hard- and soft-iron calibration.

2.3 The 3D Orientation Algorithm

When the app is started, it determines the user's initial orientation relative to Earth by analyzing the magnetic field and gravity data via a Direction Cosine Matrix (DCM) [4]. This initial orientation serves as the origin to which future changes in location are added. The step detector begins counting steps based on the step detection algorithm (see section 2.1). When a step is detected, distance traveled is calculated by applying the stride length the calculated in the stride length estimation algorithm (see section 2.1) to the step taken. The gyroscope continuously monitors angular rotations via another DCM [5], to track changes in heading. Together, the change in heading and distance traveled define a position vector which is applied to the last recorded location to calculate the current location. The current position is plotted to an on-screen graph and stored in various data files for later use.

The calculated biases are subtracted from gyroscope and magnetometer to have a bias-free data. To increase the accuracy and mitigate the dynamic error we implement a two-step Kalman filter algorithm. Details in the next section.

2.4 Kalman Filter

Kalman filtering, also known as linear quadratic estimation (LQE), is an algorithm that uses a series of measurements observed over time, containing noise (random variations) and other inaccuracies, and produces estimates of unknown variables that tend to be more precise than those based on a single measurement alone. More formally, the Kalman filter operates recursively on streams of noisy input data to produce a statistically optimal estimate of the underlying system state. Kalman filters require two sets of estimations, which we have from the gyroscope and acceleration/magnetic sensor.

The idea of two-step Kalman filtering is from the paper [6]. The equation used in the app is derived from both papers [7], and [8].

There are many formulations of the Kalman filter. Because of the limited computational power of the smartphones, a linear mathematical model was created. The operation of the Kalman filter requires the design of 2 mathematical models, these are the process model, or state equation, and the measurement model or observation model.

The state equation is:

$$x_k = A \cdot x_{k-1} + B \cdot u_k + w_k$$

where x is the state matrix (vector of unknowns), A is a transition matrix, B is the control matrix, u is a known exogenous control input (in our case the output of the gyroscopes), w is a vector of the entire process noise, and $k, k-1$ are the time consecutive points (epochs).

The observation matrix is:

$$y_k = H_k \cdot x_k + z_k$$

where y is the vector of observations (in our case the accelerometer output), H is the observation matrix, x is the vector of unknowns, z is the vector of measurement noise, and k is the time point (epoch).

The Kalman filter equation is fully documented in [8]. For that, we will only define the state equation and the observation equation (see above equation).

2.5 Floor Detection Algorithm

The idea of using floor detection rather than estimation of the absolute height, to have more accurate results. In addition, different phone manufacturers use different sensors so it will be hard to know the reference for each of those devices. The method used in this work is derived from the paper [9]. For floor detection algorithm we will use barometer sensor only, which measures the pressure in hPa (millibar). The algorithm detects whether a person is going up or down by expecting a gradual change in the pressure for a few seconds.

Figure 3 shows the flowchart for the algorithm. The counting variables are num1 and num2 in the process of going upstairs or downstairs, when the current air pressure difference between the last two moments is less than the air pressure threshold of the upper and lower building activities, count once, otherwise clear and re-count. t is time variable, θ is a threshold which distinguishes the state of walking on the stairs from the stationary state, P_t is the pressure value at time t , only in a short period of time, the difference between the pressure values of the last two moments exceeds a certain threshold for several consecutive times; then, we determine that the behavior of going up and down has happened, N_0 and N_1 are the number of times that can avoid “ping-pong effect”. P_{start} is the air pressure at the beginning of going-upstairs or going-downstairs, and P_{end} means the pressure at the end of going-upstairs or going-downstairs.

The equation to find the floor number is :

$$F = F_0 + \text{round}\left(\frac{1}{h_0} 18410.183(1 + \partial t) \log\left(\frac{P_{start}}{P_{end}}\right), 0\right)$$

where F and F_0 are the current floor number and the initial floor number of the pedestrian, respectively, h_0 is the height of each layer of the building and $\partial = \frac{1}{273.15} (^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1})$.

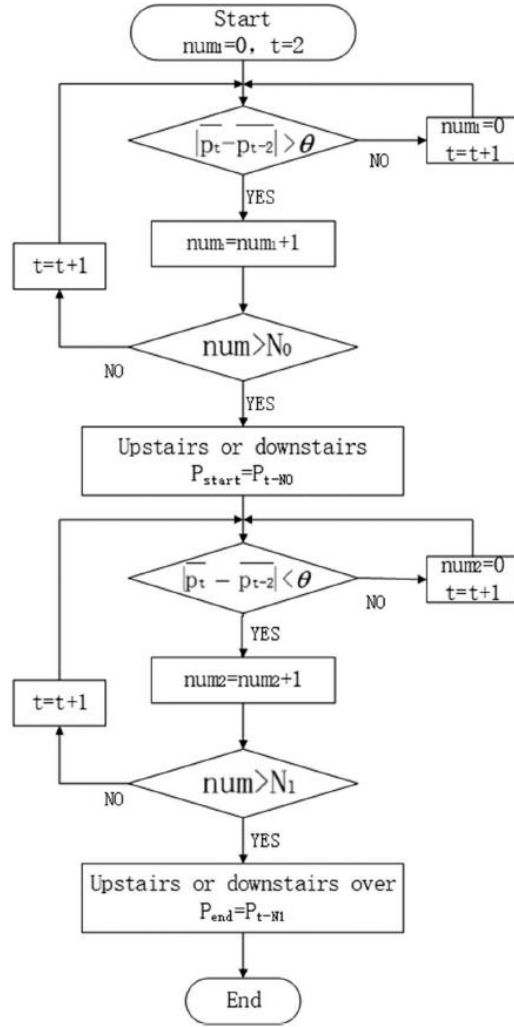


Figure 3: Floor Detection Algorithm

Chapter 3 Results

The test was done using android environment on Samsung Galaxy A30 smartphone. we only assume that the smartphone is placed in the upper part of the body (i.e., in the user's hand in texting/navigation mode).

Figure 4 shows the body acceleration with applying Kalman filter and low pass filter versus the body acceleration without filtering. As seen most of the noise have been removed.

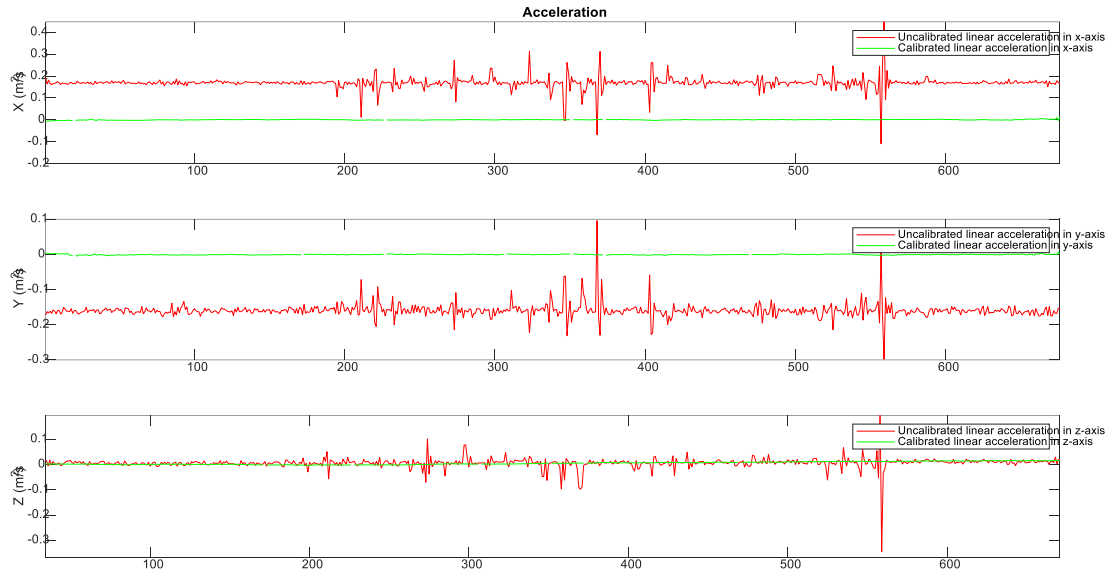


Figure 4: Linear acceleration with kalman filter vs without filters

Figure 5 shows the heading angle calculated from gyroscope along with heading angle calculated with fusion both gyroscope and magnetometer using Kalman filter. The test was done by walking straight on certain direction and then rotate 180 degree then walk again four different times. As seen by using fusion Kalman filter we made the angle constant when walking in a straight path. As well as, remove the drift caused by the gyroscope.

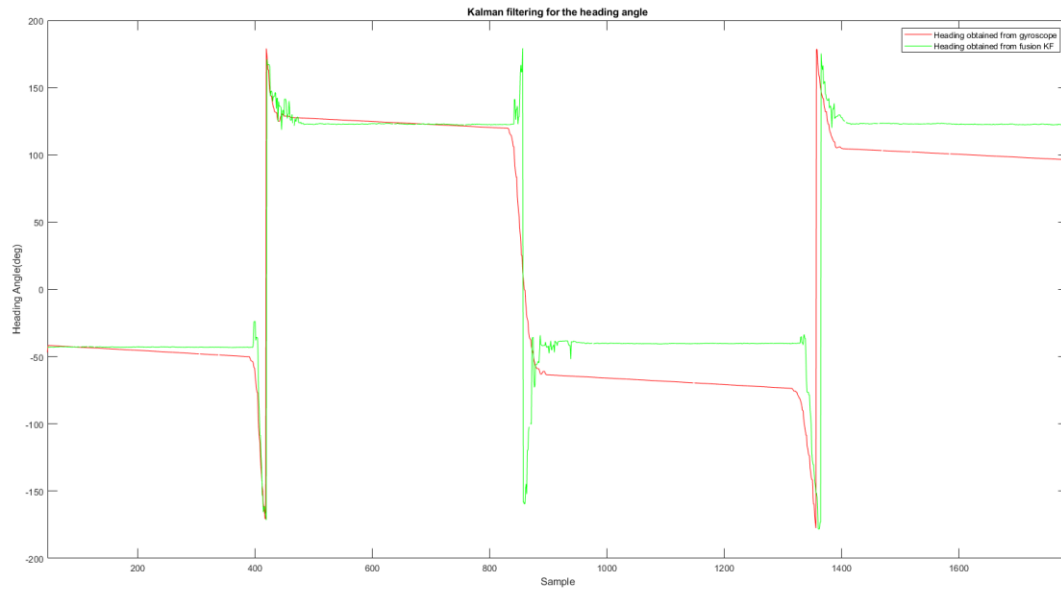


Figure 5 Heading with KF and without KF

Another test to exam the overall system performance was done by walking to a certain destination and back from it. The total distance walked was 235.8 meter, and the error is less than 1%, only 2.28 meter. The results are shown in Figure 6.

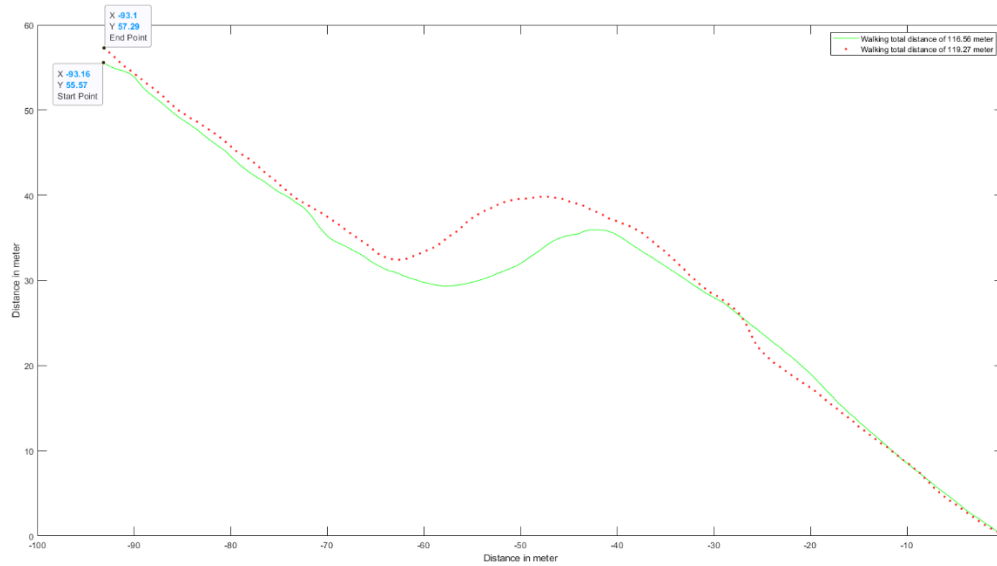


Figure 6 : Walking for a 235.8 meter

The below table show the reduction of each type of noise. These value calculated using Allan variance [10]. As seen in the table most of the errors was decreased.

Model	Before filtering	After filtering	Decrease percentage (%)
Angle random walk	0.0927	0.0040	95.68
Rate random walk	0.1024	0.00093525	99.086
Bias instability	0.0376	0.0197	47.606
Quantization noise	0.0173	0.00067451	96.1
Rate ramp	3.2175	0.0012	99.9

In the Floor detection part, we did a test by going up from floor zero to the 4th floor, then go down from the 4th floor to the zero floor. The results are shown in Figure 7.

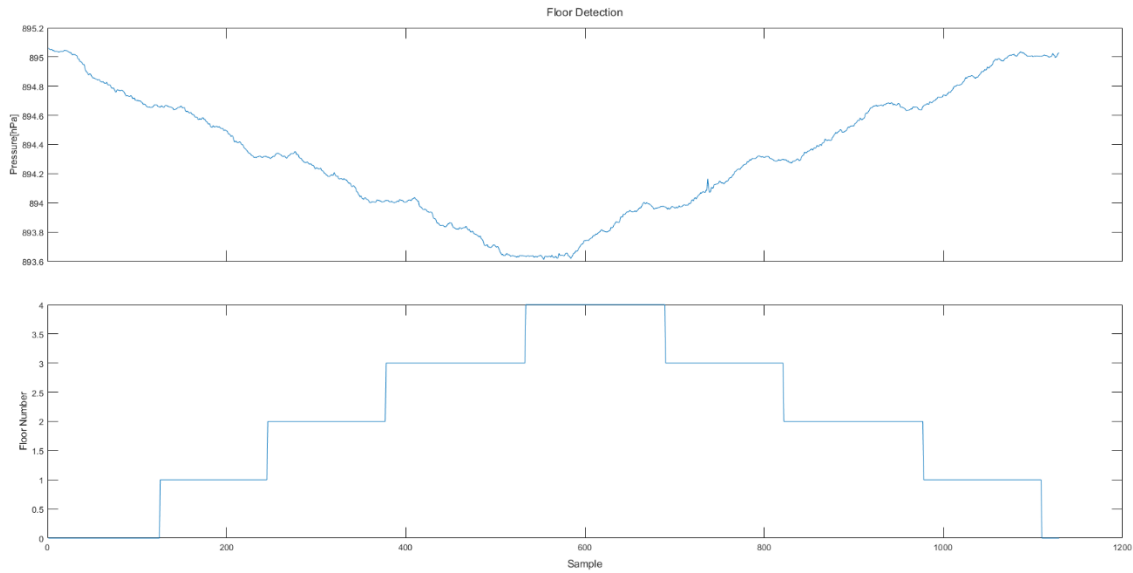


Figure 7: Going from 0 to the 4th floor and then down from the 4th to zero floor

Chapter 4 Conclusions

In this project we implement a full solution for indoor navigation using pedestrian dead reckoning (PDR). The algorithm used was tested in android environment by building an android application. As seen from the result the algorithm shows a promising result with error less than 1% for walking distance up to 235.8 meter. More enhancement on the algorithm is needed for a very long distances usage, by calibrating the sensors every certain time using QR code scanning or wi-fi signal and GPS signal if it is available (outdoor).

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