Delft University of Technology
Master's Thesis in Embedded Systems

Sensing human activity with dark light

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embedded software

TU Delft Delft University of Technology

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Master's Thesis in Embedded Systems

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1st November 2017

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Title
Sensing human activity with dark light
MSc presentation
1st November 2017

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Abstract

TODO ABSTRACT

Preface

TODO MOTIVATION FOR RESEARCH TOPIC

TODO ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Delft, The Netherlands
1st November 2017

Contents

Chapter 1

Introduction

Nowadays, 19% of the global energy consumption is used for lighting. For this reason, saving energy in lighting is vital. A simple way to save energy is to simply turn the lights off, or reduce the amount of light used when nobody is around. This thesis proposes a new method for luminaires to detect the presence of humans or objects using only the light it emits and a photodiode. This method can then be used to control the light output of a luminaire based on if somebody is detected or not and save energy by turning the light off.

test test

1.1 Problem statement

Is it possible to create a system, that can detect the activity of humans or objects by measuring reflections of visible light while being invisible to the human eye?

- How strong is a reflection obtained from a flash in a realistic scenario and how much does this reflection vary if a human is in the area?
- What are the challenges in obtaining reflections when the light is turned on for a very short time and how can they be tackled?
- What additional signals are received by the system (beside the reflection of the flash) and what algorithm can be used to convert the received signal in a reliable logical signal: Detection or no detection?

1.2 Contributions

1.3 Organization

The organization of the thesis as follows: Chapter 2 provides the necessary background information required to understand the thesis. Chapter 3 shows related work. The 4th chapter explains how dark sensing was developed and chapter 5 shows the building of a realistic dark sense device. The final chapter discusses the performance of the prototype and points out future work.

Chapter 2

Background

This chapter first presents the background knowledge required to understand the thesis. The first sections describes the characteristics of lights in general. The second section explains how a model can be made which describes the reflection of light. The third section explains how a light can be dimmed, and how this affects the total amount of light outputted, the amount of light sensed by electronics and the human experience.

2.1 Characteristics of a lights

Before reading this thesis, a basic understanding of photometry is required. For this reason, this section will first introduce the the units and measures used in this document, followed by the most used method for modelling and calculating these measures.

2.1.1 Units and measures of light

Name	Symbol	unit	Description
Radiant flux	Φ_e	W	Radiant energy per unit time
Luminous flux	Φ_v	lm	Luminous energy per unit time
Luminous intensity	I_v	$lm/sr(= cd)$	Wavelength-weighted power emitted by a light sour
Illuminance	E_v	$lm/m^2(= lx)$	Amount of luminous flux impinging a surface
Luminous energy	Q_v	$lm * s$	Total amount of luminous flux outputted over time
Luminous exposure	H_v	$lx * s$	Total amount of illuminance impinging on a surfac

Table 2.1: summary of measures, units and symbols used in this thesis

2.1.2 Modelling a light

Light sources in optics are typically modelled as a point in spaces, emitting light in a Lambertian radiation pattern [x]. This pattern describes how

Name	Symbol	unit	Description
Light uniformity	U_0	-	E_{min}/E_{mean}
Reflection coefficient	ρ	-	wavelength dependent surface reflection ratio
Albedo	α	-	Impinging intensity / reflected intensity
Exit angle	ϕ	rad	Exit angle with respect to the normal of the reflective surfa
Incidence angle	θ	rad	Incidence angle with respect to the normal of the reflective

Table 2.2: summary of measures, units and symbols used for modeling light

Name	Symbol	unit	Description
Standard deviation	σ	-	Measure of variance over a set of values
Mean	μ or $\overline{X}$	-	average of a set of values
n	n	-	Number of samples in the N section of the algorithm
d	d	-	Number of samples in the D section of the algorithm
m	m	-	Number of samples in the M section of the algorithm
Threshold value	T	-	Value determining the detection threshold
Scale value	ss	-	Value changing n based on the noise in the current signal

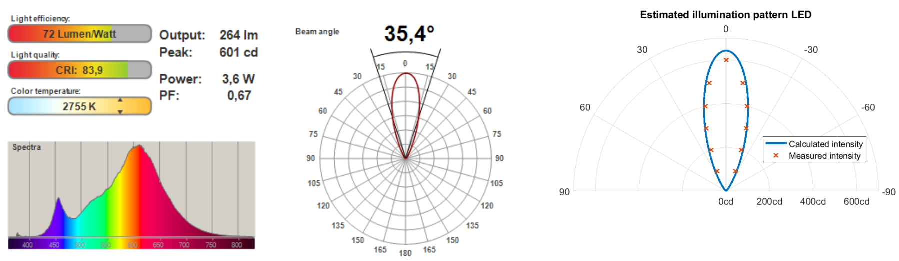
Table 2.3: summary of measures, units and symbols used in the algorithm section

much light leaves a light-source at angle ϕ and can be calculated with:

$$I(\phi) = \Phi_{lum}\frac{m+1}{2\pi}cos^m(\phi) \tag{2.1}$$

where Φ_{lum} is the luminous flux of the light and m is the order of lambertian emission calculated with $m = -1/log_2(cos\varphi_{1/2})$ where $\varphi_{1/2}$ is the angle where light is leaving the luminaire at half power.

With equation 2.1 we can now estimate the illumination pattern of any LED when the luminous flux and half power angle are known. This can be



(a) Specs of an LED (b) Caclculated intensity pattern

Figure 2.1: Figure a shows measured specifications of an LED [5] where Figure b shows the estimated illumination pattern of the same LED.

done for example with the LED in figure 2.1(a). If we choose $\Phi_{lum} = 264lm$ and $\varphi_{1/2} = 17.7°$ then we obtain the pattern shown in figure 2.1(b) which closely matches the measured irradiation pattern.

$$E_{hor} = \frac{I(\phi)\cos(\theta)}{d^2} \rightarrow E_{hor}(x, y, z) = \frac{I(\phi(x, y, z))\cos(\theta(x, y, z))}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \tag{2.2}$$

2.1.3 Modelling a reflection

Now the illumination pattern of a light bulb is known, we are able to calculate how much a light is illuminating a surface with equation 2.2. Some of the light will reflect back in the environment while the rest of the light is absorbed by the material and turned another form of energy (typically heat). The total amount of light reflecting back in the environment can be calculated with the surface reflection coefficient $p(\lambda)$. p has a different value for each wavelength λ as not every material reflects the same colour of light. An example reflection coefficient can be seen in figure X.

$$R_{total} = E_h or * p(\lambda) \tag{2.3}$$

The next step is to determine the directions of the reflection. How much light will be reflected in what directions? There are three ways light can be distributed when reflecting of a surface: Specular, spread and diffuse. A visual representation of each of these reflection patterns is shown in Figure 2.2. Each pattern will be discussed briefly.

The **specular pattern**

The **diffuse pattern** is the

The **spread pattern** is

is, it can be approximated by setting m to infinite from eq x.

Some materials have both emit a lambertian pattern and spread pattern. these can be combined with ratio r_d (amount of diffuse reflection), as seen in equation x. This eqation can now be used to model any reflection R, as long as the

$$I = P_I \rho(\lambda) \left[r_d \frac{1}{\pi} \cos(\phi_2) + (1 - r_d) \frac{m+1}{2\pi} \cos^m(\phi_2' - \phi_2) \right] \tag{2.4}$$

$$P_{PD} = \frac{P_I \cos(\theta)}{d^2} rec\left(\frac{\theta}{FOV}\right) \tag{2.5}$$

$$E_{PD} = E_{hor} * p(\lambda) * R(r_d, \phi_2, \phi_2') * \frac{cos(\theta_2)}{d_2^2} \tag{2.6}$$

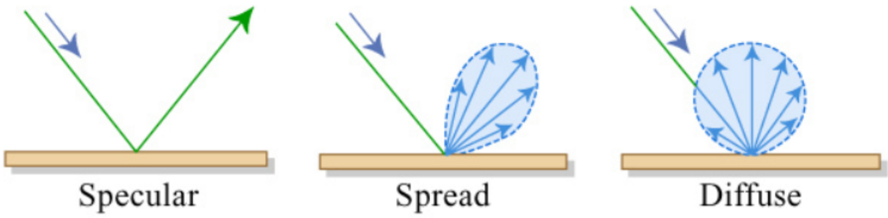


Figure 2.2: The possible ways for light to reflect when it hits a surface [1]

2.2 Dimming and its consequences

Explain what dimming of light is and means

2.2.1 Types of dimming

Explain analog dimming (intensity)

Explain digital dimming (pwm)

2.2.2 Limits of dimming

Explain the limits analog dimming:
- At some point there is not enough current to turn on the lights.
- Reduces range
Explain the limits of pwm dimming
- There is a time required for the LED to turn on
- There is a time required for the let to turn off
- Making the total on time **a bit** too short results in a huge variance in light emitted
- Making the total on time **a lot** too short results in no light

Note that this does not reduce range
LedResponse.png

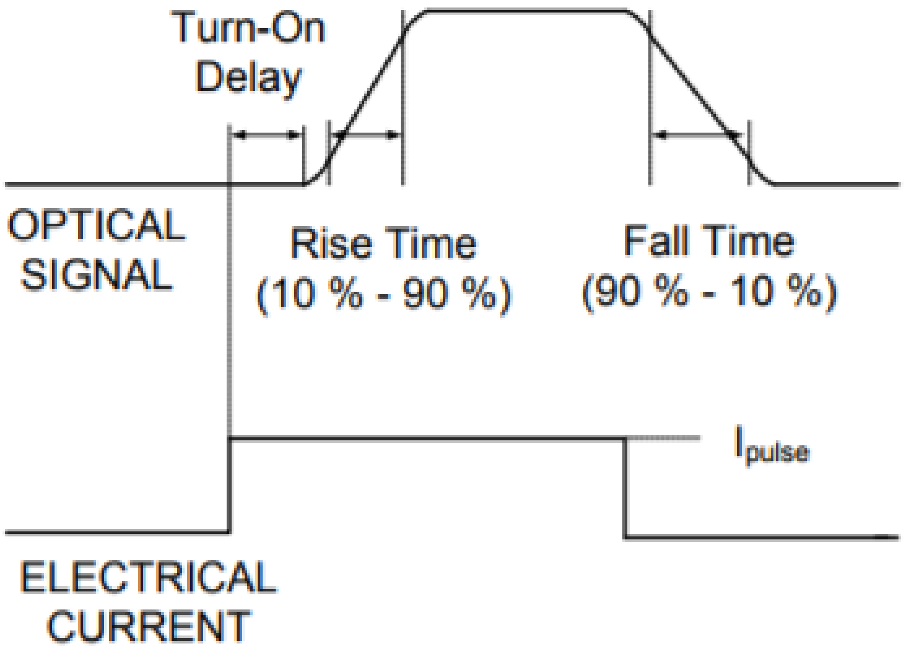


Figure 2.3: Realistic light response.

Chapter 3

Related Work

3.1 Related projects and companies

Passive localization, the act of sensing the presence of humans or objects which do not actively participate in the process, is a common problem and have been tackled in many different ways by companies and research groups. Several of their approaches and methods will be mentioned here.

Smart street light system [6]

[9] [10] [11]

3.2 Visible light communication

Talk about other things people do with short light flashes.

[14] [15] [7] [13]

Chapter 4

Model

A model has been made with two goal of answering two questions:

1. How strong are the reflections of flashes in a realistic environment?
2. How much will these reflections change if an object enters the illuminated area

This section describes how the model explained in section 2.1 was adjusted and implemented to answer the questions posed above

4.1 Model description

The model made is an interpretation of the phong reflection model (see section 2.1). It calculates how much of the light leaving a luminaire, bounces back via the environment to a photodiode placed next to the light source. This section will first discuss the adjustments made to the phong model, followed by an explanation of the calculation process.

4.1.1 Adjustments

The first adjustment is the removal of "time". The methods in the literature took the travelling time of light into account in order to calculate the possible inter-symbol interference. This is not required for this simulation as we are only interested in the steady state situation when the light is fully turned on and the light received by the photodiode is maximized for the current situation.

The second adjustment is the removal of "colour". The original method differentiated between different wavelengths of visible light when reflecting light of off surfaces and was therefore maintaining colour information. This is however not necessary for this model, as we do not care about the colour of the reflecting objects, but only about the total amount of energy reflected by the object. For this reason, the surface reflection coefficient ($p(\lambda)$) was replaced with the albedo of the object instead.

Albedo is a property of an object representing the percentage of energy which is reflected when sun is shining on the object. Even though albedo is based on the full spectrum of sunlight instead of only the wavelengths of visible light, it gives a reasonable approximation of the reflection coefficient in this scenario. This will be shown in section 4.2.

$$\Gamma = \int_{380nm}^{780nm} \Phi_e p(\lambda) d\lambda \rightarrow \Gamma = \Phi_{lum}\alpha \tag{4.1}$$

The final adjustment is the amount of reflections we calculate. In reality a light ray can be reflected an infinite amount of times of several different surfaces before returning back to the sensor. In the model however we only calculated one bounce (from the light to an object and back) for two reasons. The first reason is that the computational process would become much more complicated. The second reason is that the first reflection provides approximately 80% of the signal where all other reflections only adds 20% [7].

$$E_{hor} = \frac{I(\phi)\cos(\varphi)}{d^2} = \frac{I(0)cos^m(\phi)\cos(\varphi)}{d^2} \tag{4.2}$$

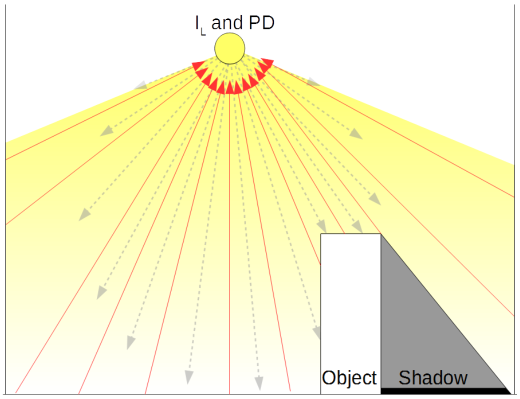
4.1.2 Calculation process

Calculating the amount of light reflecting back to the object is a three step process. The first step is to calculate the shadow casted by the object on the floor and walls. This is required as the surface where the shadow is casted can't reflect light back directly to the photo diode. It's important to note that light casting the shadow is reflected of the object instead and with that, changes the reflection pattern of the room.

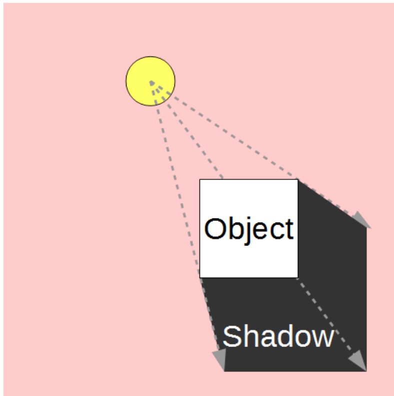
The second step is to calculate how much light reflected from all floors and walls (where no shadow is casted) to the photo diode. The finals step is to calculate how much light is reflected from each side of the object. 4.1.2 shows an overview of an environment with rays leaving the light, casting shadow and the resulting reflections.

4.2 Verification

The calculation method was verified using a scale model featuring a LED[5], a paper box and a light meter[8]. The first step of verifying the model is check if the LED is modelled properly. This was done by hanging the LED at 100cm above the floor and measuring the horizontal illuminance (E_hor) at the floor to see if the measured irradiation pattern of the LED matches the theoretical pattern produced by equation 2.1.



(a) Sideview



(b) Topview

Figure 4.1: Overview of the calculation process. Grey lines represent light rays casted by the light. Black represents the shadow casted by the object on the floor or walls. Red lines or areas show reflections bouncing from the ground, walls or object back to the photo diode.

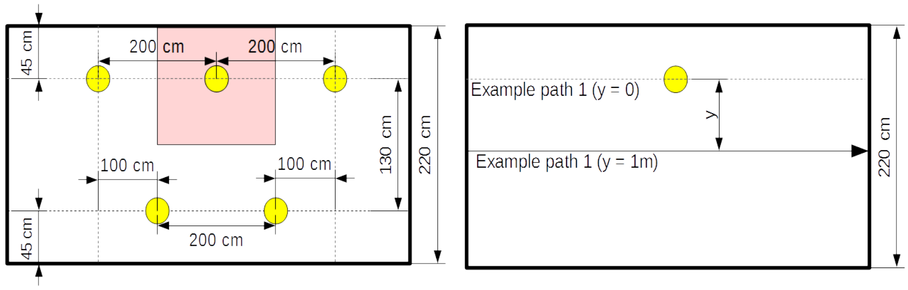
Once the light

4.3 Modelling of the hallway

The hallway modelled is based on a real hallway located at the TU Delft. The hallway is 2.2m wide and 2.8m high. The floors albedo is set at 0.37, as this was calculated during the verification of the model. The albedo of the walls was set to 0.95 which represents the albedo of white plaster[12]. The reflection of these surfaces is assumed to be fully diffuse ($r_d = 1$).

Industry standards state that corridors in education buildings should be illuminated with at least $E_{mean} > 100lx$ and a light uniformity of $U_o > 0.4$[16]. These lighting requirements can be achieved using the same luminaire used during the verification process if hung in the staggered formation shown in figure 4.2(a). Calculations showing that the industry standards are met can be found in Appendix A.

The object passing by the light (representing a human) will be modelled as a cuboid 0.5m long and 0.2m wide with varying heights. Several albedos have been assigned to the cuboid to represent the different kind of clothing humans wear. The object will be moved in a straight line trough the hallway with the light at a set vertical distance y. Some example paths can be seen in figure 4.2(b).



(a) Staggerd hallway LED pattern

(b) Traveling path of the object

Figure 4.2: Figure a shows the position of the luminairs to obtain a realistic illumination pattern. Figure b shows an example travelling path of an object.

4.4 Modelling of the street

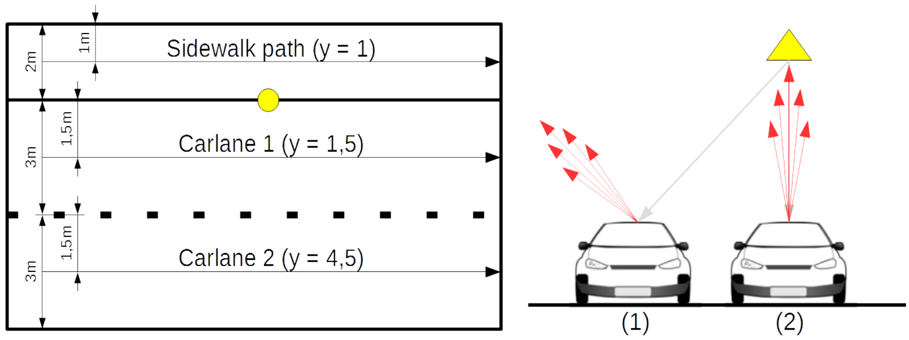
The street model is based on a real street near the TU delft. It has two lanes for a cars (each 3m wide), and sidewalk (2m wide). The albedo of the street will be modeled with different values for old ($\alpha = 0.06$) and new asphalt ($\alpha = 0.14$), as asphalt loses reflectivity if it grows older[12]. The reflections of the street are assumed to be fully diffuse ($r_d = 1$).

Industry standards state that a street with side walk should be illuminated with at least $E_{mean} > 3lx$ and a light uniformity of $U_o > 0.2$ [2].These lighting requirements can be achieved using 700lx luminaires with a halfpower angle of 60° placed every 15 meter in between the road and side walk. This set-up is visualized in figure 4.3(a). Calculations showing that the industry standards are met can be found in Appendix A.

In this model two different objects will be modelled representing humans (walking on the side walk) and cars (driving in the two driving lanes). The humans will be modelled in the same way as in section 4.3. The car will be modelled as a cuboid with the dimensions of an Opel Corsa (4m x 1,7m x 1,5m), a commonly seen small car. The object was modelled with diffuse reflection. This is because no reliable sources describing the specular parameters (r_d and m) of cars could be found.

Lacking the specular deflection for this specific model should not influence the result significantly. This is because no part of the car will be moved directly underneath the light and therefore no light of the spread reflecting will ever reach the light sensor. This is visualized in figure 4.3(b).

TODO: Add albedo



(a) Topview of the street model

(b) Spread reflection on cars

Figure 4.3: A shows an overview of the model. B shows why the spread reflection component plays no part in this model for cars.

4.5 Results

Several measurements have been graphed in Figure X. Raw results can be viewed in appendix B.

4.6 Conclusions

Chapter 5

Flash Analysis

intro, explain goals - consistent flashes, as short as possible - consistent capture of flashes Briefly explain method: - Make a device creating and capturing flashes - Show flash characteristics - Explain how to convert this flash into useful data

5.1 Implementation

A device has been made to generate, receive and analyse flashes.

5.1.1 Flash generator

The flash generator is a device able to control a LED with high precision. It is able to set

5.1.2 Reflection receiver

5.1.3 Analyser

The analyser will receive the compressed samples from the receiver. The goal of the analyser is to detect patterns in the consecutive flashes and determine

5.2 Flash characteristics

show several captured flashes. explain extreme ripple. show real turn on delay time (or in our case, the time we are able to sense the light), rise-time, and turn-off-delay. Define turn on time.

5.2.1 Data generation

Show several filtered captured signals in one figure
point out the part where light becomes constant

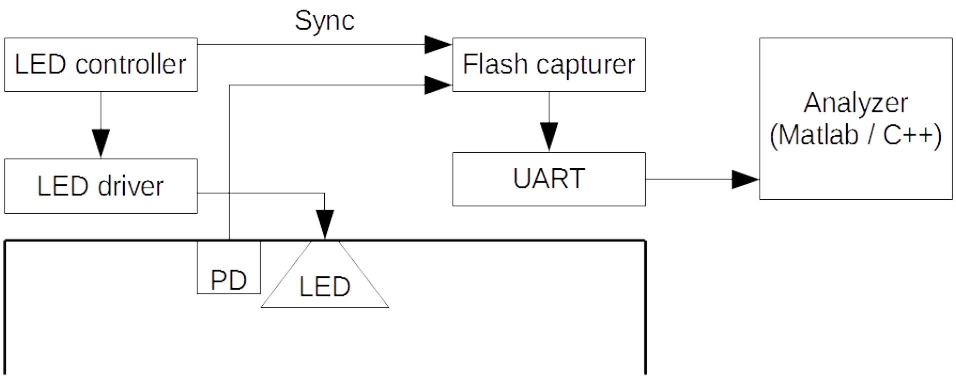
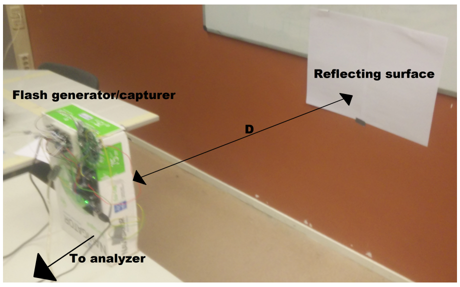
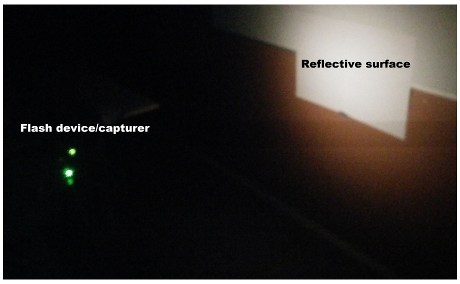


Figure 5.1: System overview of the flash generator/analyser



(a) Test setup in illuminated environment



(b) Test setup in dark environment

Figure 5.2: Test setup used to capture flashes in the darkroom.

pick that t-on time as minimum
Mention that a sample of darkness can be taken @ 80 samples.
That the number (80) can be reduced by picking a FIR filter instead (less ripple)

5.2.2 Results and conclusion

Show the result of several "filtered flashes
Explain sources of the "noise", also show FFT and histogram of the noise
Explain that the noise could be reduced, but that this would cost a lot more processor time. (which is not recommended to run at 125Hz).
Note the noise is approximately Gaussian.

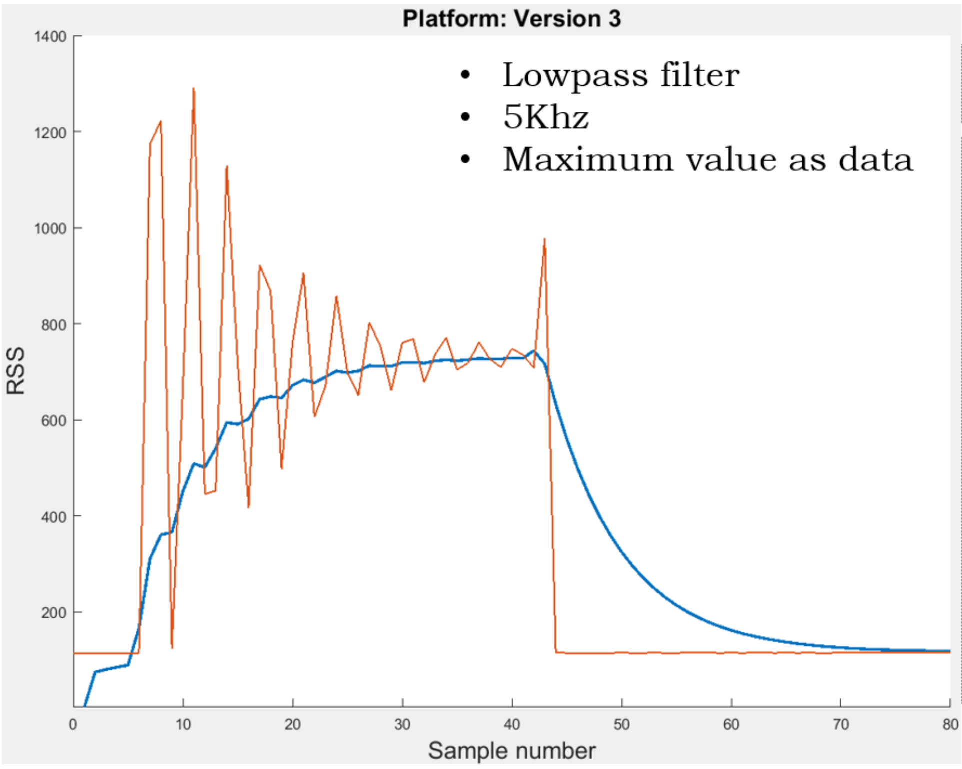


Figure 5.3: The data captured by the system before and after filtering. @=PLACEHOLDER FIGURE!@.

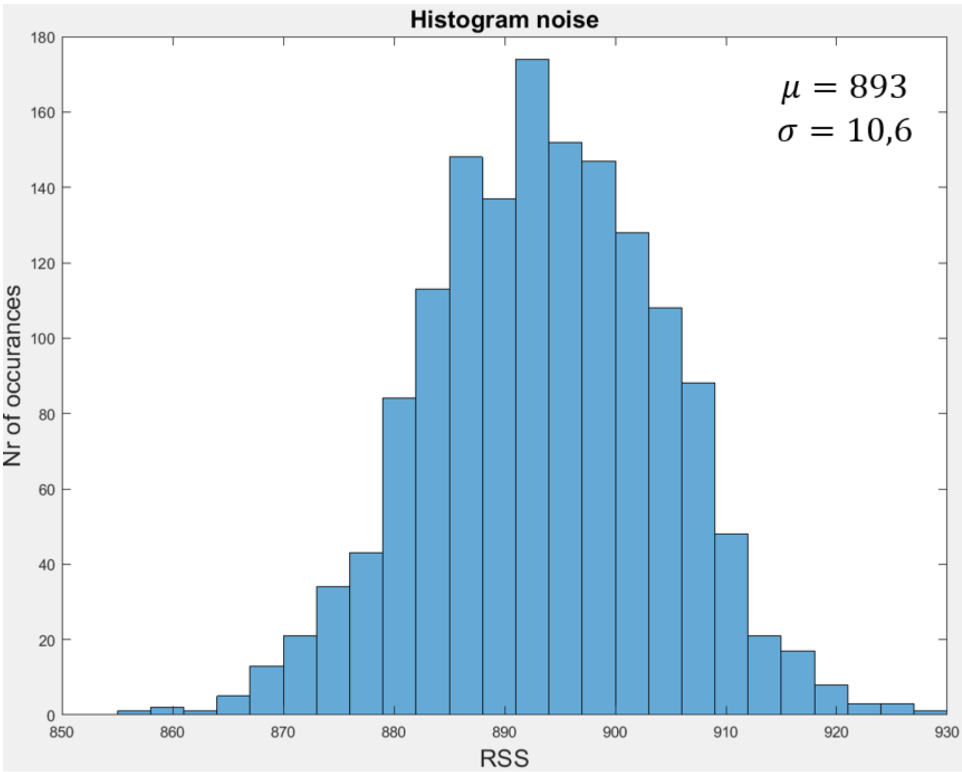


Figure 5.4: Histogram of the noise of the data sampled by the system. The distribution roughly follows a normal curve. @=PLACEHOLDER FIGURE!@.

Chapter 6

Algorithm

This section will describe the path from the signal obtained in section **??** to a proper detection algorithm, able to determine if something has changed in the environment or not. All algorithms will then be tested against a simulated signal.

6.0.1 Simulation of the signal

The first step in creating a proper algorithm, is to identify what signals are affecting the measurement, so a proper simulation set-up can be created. For this reason, equation 6.1 was devised. It shows the composition of the received signal $\boldsymbol{PD}$ after it's down sampled to 125Hz with the method described in section **??**. The equation for PD helps to understand what steps are required to create a reliable algorithm.

$$PD = I_L\alpha + \sum_{i=1}^{n} I_{Edc_n}\beta_n + \sum_{i=1}^{n} I_{Eac_n}\gamma_n + N_{50Hz} + N(\mu, \sigma^2) \tag{6.1}$$

The first part of the equation, "$\boldsymbol{I_L\alpha}$", is the amount of light generated by our luminaire (I_L), multiplied by some factor describing the environment from the point of view of the luminaire (α). This signal typically occurs in two ways. The first is a person or object passing by. This can be approximated by the first or second half of a slow sinus period. The other way this signal can occur is if an object moves into range of the sensor, stops, and then stays still for a long time. This can be modelled as a sine wave, followed by constant, interrupting the wave. The wave is typically a low frequency signal between 0.25Hz and 2Hz (see section **??**). An example of this signal can be seen in figure 6.1.

The second part of the equation, "$\boldsymbol{\sum_{i=1}^{n} I_{Edc_n}\beta_n}$", describes the impact of all constant light sources (I_{Edc_n}), multiplied by the factor describing the environment from their point of view (β). An example of a constant light source is moonlight. The final factor involving light in the equation is $\boldsymbol{\sum_{i=1}^{n} I_{Eac_n}\gamma_n}$. This describes all fluctuating light sources (I_{Eac_n}), multiplied once again by an environment describing factor from it's point of view (γ_n). This signal is typically 100Hz as most "old" lights blink or fluctuate at this frequency. Note that the sampling frequency is not twice as big as the sampled frequency, thus aliasing will occur at 25Hz ($= |F_s * 1 - F_{Analyze}| = 125 - 100 = 25Hz$)[4]. An example of these signals can be seen in figure 6.1.

The last two terms in the equation have nothing to do with light, but represent noise from all other sources. $\boldsymbol{N_{50Hz}}$ represents specifically 50Hz noise. This is powerline-noise picked up by the physical wire of connecting the photo-diode to the amplifier. Normally, line-noise is barely noticeable, but as all the signals are amplified by a 1000 times, it becomes a significant disturbance. The final part of the equation, $\boldsymbol{N(\mu, \sigma^2)}$, is all the noise described in section **??**. An example of these signals can be seen in figure 6.1.

The only part of equation 2.5 that holds information we can use is $I_L\alpha$, or more specifically, the changes of α. For this reason, each of the methods described in this section focus on removing the other parts of the equation, or making changes of α more detectable.

6.0.2 Removing high frequency components

Filtering higher frequencies from a signal is a common challenge in signal processing. The signals we try to isolate ($I_L\alpha$, 0.25 to 2Hz) are far removed from the frequencies we are trying to suppress (I_{Eac} at 100Hz and N_{50Hz} at 50Hz). The most common method of doing this is by using digital filters. As only the lower frequencies are interesting, a low-pass filter seems to be ideal in this case. There is however one problem. $2 * I_{Eac}$ Is above our sampling frequency, and thus aliasing will occur. In this example it will appear as a 25Hz signal. This signal poses no real issue, as its still an order of magnitude away from the frequency of $I_L\alpha$, and it can still be filtered with a steeper filter. This however, is not always the case in the real world. Any light manufacturer can create lights running at any frequency, and thus there is no guarantee that there won't be a light out there in the world, that can mess the algorithm up. In all other cases this filter probably works fine. Figure 6.2 shows how a low-pass filter would remove the signals from the data.

A completely other method of removing these high frequency components is the "PD_{dark}" method. This method uses the fact that the sensor set-up can do more than just sampling when the light (I_L) is turned on. It's also possible to take samples when the light is turned off. The components in such a sample are shown in equation 6.2. If this sample is obtained a short time away from the original PD then the 50Hz and 100Hz values are

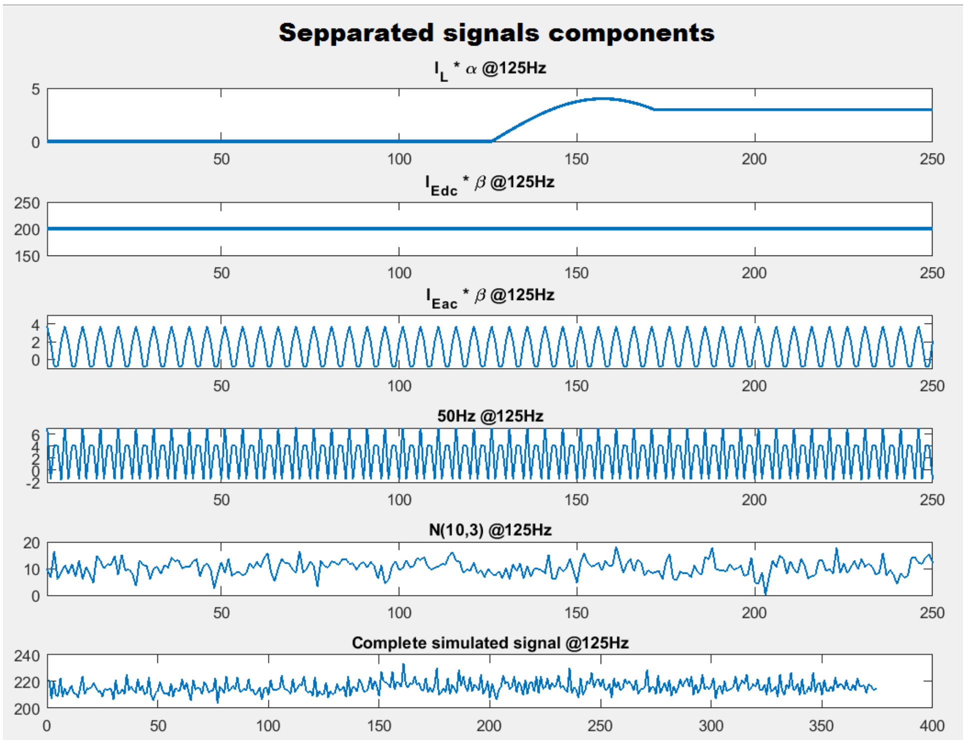


Figure 6.1: An example of what two seconds of all signal components look like when separated. The bottom signal shows all signals combined. Note that all signals where down sampled from the original sample rate of 200Khz (actual sample rate of the photo diode) to 125Hz(output speed of the sample unit).

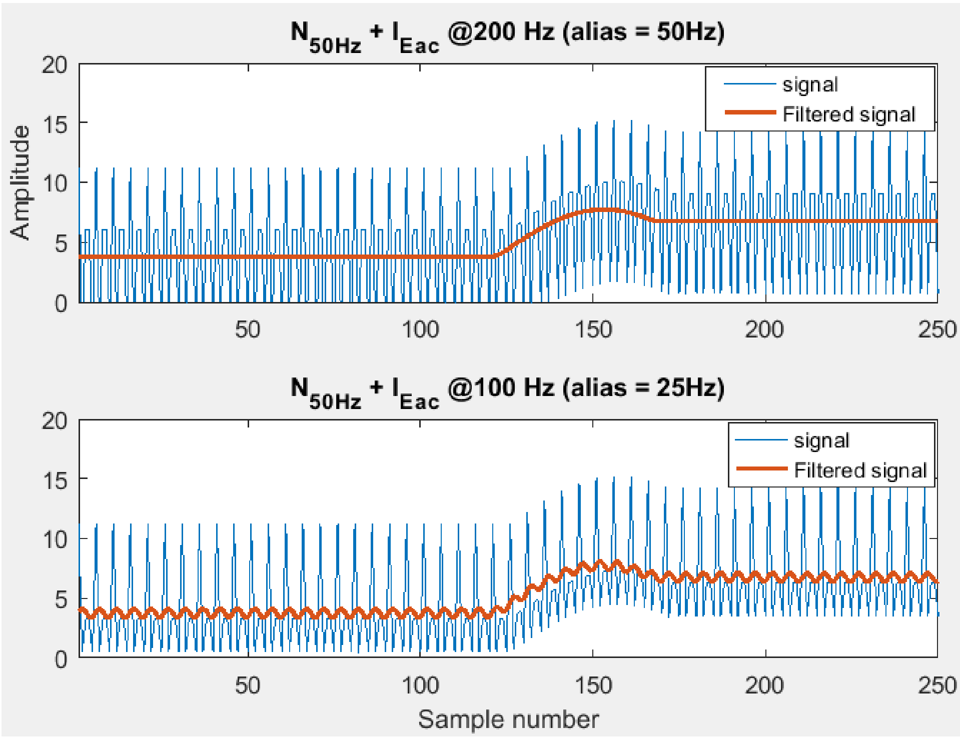


Figure 6.2: A low-pass filter, filtering the I_{Eac} and N_{50Hz} signals.

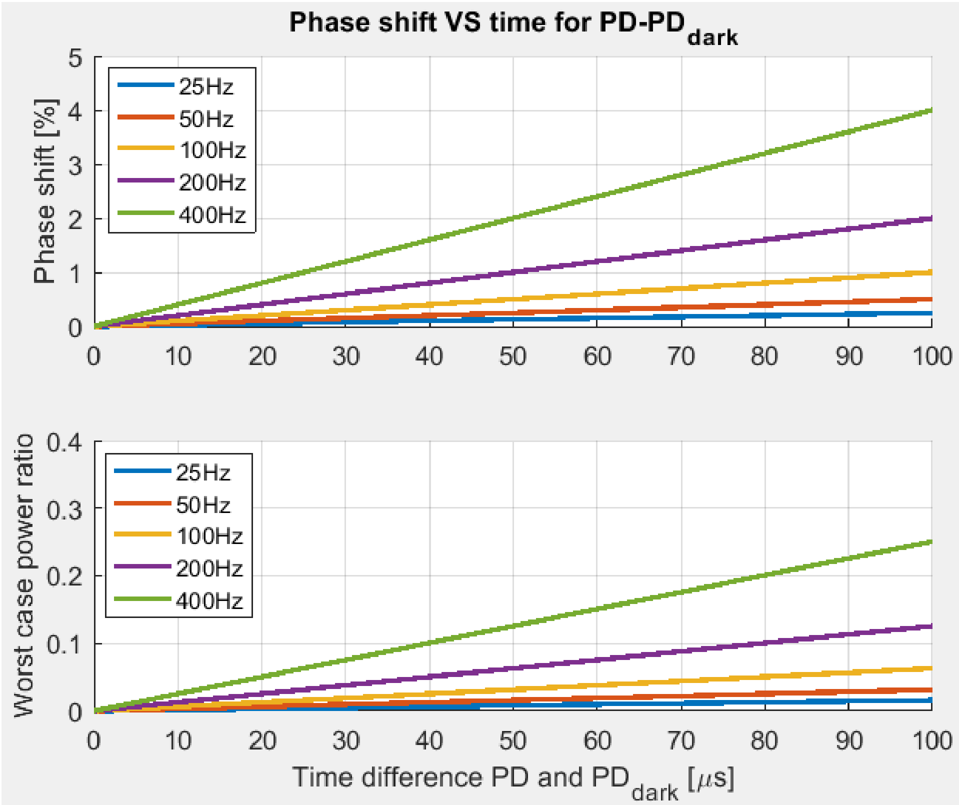


Figure 6.3: The amount of phase shift that will occur.

roughly the same. Therefore subtracting PD_{dark} from PD gives the equation 6.3, resulting in a signal where I_{Eac}, I_{Edc} and N_{50Hz} have practically disappeared.

$$PD_{dark} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} I_{Edc_n}\beta_n + \sum_{i=1}^{n} I_{Eac_n}\gamma_n + N_{50Hz} + N(\mu, \sigma^2) \tag{6.2}$$

$$PD - PD_{dark} = I_L\alpha + N(0, \sigma^2 + \sigma_{dark}^2) \tag{6.3}$$

The signals can't be filtered completely with this method though. This is because of the turn-off time of the LED (see section 2.2), and the filters used to create a usable signal from the turning on and off of the LED (see section **??**). Both introduce a delay to the PD_{dark} sample. Figure 6.3 shows how much several signals get suppressed at various delay values.

Another downside of this method is that adding or subtracting two noisy signals, leads to signal with even more noise. In this case, an increase of approximately $(\sqrt{\sigma^2 + \sigma^2} =)$ $\sqrt{2}\sigma$[**?**], as the σ of PD and PD_{dark} are practically the same.

The huge selling point of this method in comparison to simply filtering, is that no aliasing of I_{Eac} can occur. Another positive point, is that if a LED is specifically selected for it's a short turn off time, then this filter method is able to remove almost all disturbing sinusoid signals.

6.0.3 Detection threshold

The first thing necessary to detect changes in α is a change detector, or with other words, if the signal has changed more than X, then we assume that the changes in the signal are not caused by noise, but by actual changes of α (the environment). from this point it is assumed that I_{Eac} and N_{50Hz} are no longer a significant part of the signal, as they can be practically removed by any of the methods described in section 6.0.2.

A naive solution to this problem would be to sample a set amount of values when there are no objects in sight. Then, take the maximum and minimum of the sampled values and if the signal ever moves out of the range of the found values, activity is detected. Even though this might work consistently in a dark room (lab environment with no lights), it fails to work in a more realistic environment. If we for example introduce a slowly rising I_{Edc} (e.g. moonlight), then the signal will eventually peak above the current maximum value and trigger a false detection.

Another way of tackling this problem would be to allow the minimum and maximum thresholds to move up and down with the mean of the signal. This results in two thresholds moving up and down together with the mean of the signal, and therefore ignores the slow changing I_{Edc}. The downside of this solution is that if the noise level ($N(\mu, \sigma^2)$) where to increases, then the signal would still cross the set threshold and trigger a false detection. The opposite is also true. If the noise level decreases, then the threshold would not scale back automatically and thus making it "deaf" to smaller changes in the signal.

This problem can be solved using the standard deviation of the signal as thresholds instead. A standard deviation scales up and down based on the deviation from the mean, meaning that if a lot of noise is present in the signal, then the detection borders would scale up and vice versa. The detection borders could be set on $\mu \pm T\sigma$, where μ is the mean, σ is the standard deviation and T is a factor determining width of the threshold

Using this method has another benefit. As the noise in our system ($N(\mu, \sigma^2)$) can be approximated with a normal curve (see section **??**), it allows us to control the amount of false positives perceived by the system by adjusting the T parameter. How T influences the chance of a false positive can be seen in table 6.0.3.

T	Chance false positive	Single occurrence @125 Hz	Double occurrence @125Hz
2	4.550026%	0.18s	0.69 days
3	0.269979%	2.96s	198.5 days
4	0.006334%	126.3s	1001 years
5	0.000057%	1178.2s	12199827 years

Table 6.1: Chance of a false positive occurring for several values of T, how often this would happen

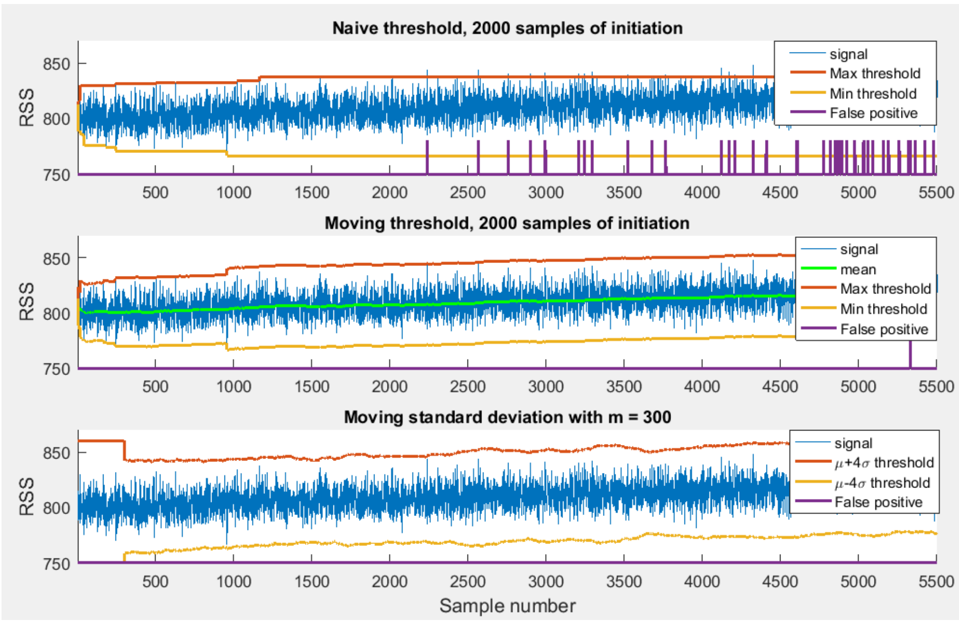


Figure 6.4: An example of how the discussed threshold algorithms respond to a slowly rising noisy signal.

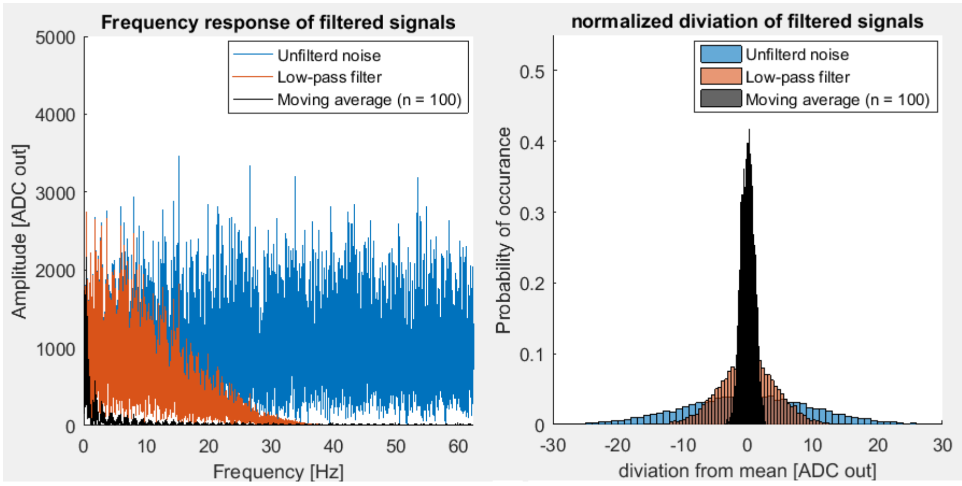


Figure 6.5: Frequency response of the noise, the noise when filtered with a low-pass filter, and then noise when filtered with a moving average.

Algorithm	$I_{Edc_n}\beta_n$	$I_{Eac_n}\gamma_n$	N_{50Hz}	$N(\mu$
Low-pass filter	None	Removed (unless unfortunate alias)	Removed	Redu
$PD - PD_{dark}$	Removed	Removed	Removed	$\sqrt{2}$ i
Moving average	None	Reduced	Reduced	Stati
Scaling moving average	None	Greatly reduced	Greatly reduced	Stati

Table 6.2: Overview of all decent filter algorithms with their effects on each signal.

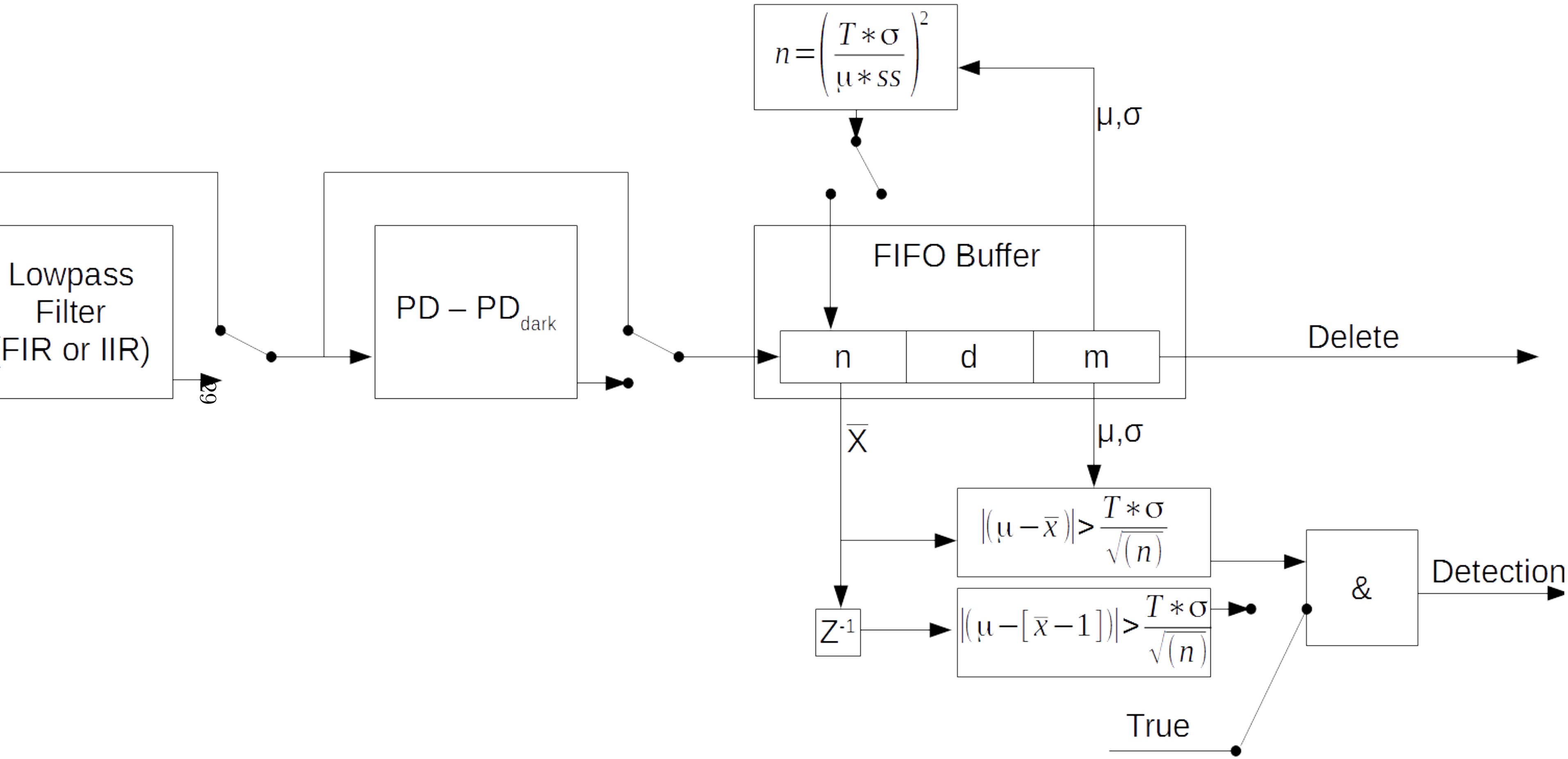
6.0.4 Noise reduction

The final thing that needs to be done, to make the algorithm more
Averager [3]
Scaling averager [3]

$$SNR = 1 = \frac{\mu * ss}{T * \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}} \Rightarrow n = \left(\frac{T * \sigma}{\mu * ss}\right)^2 \tag{6.4}$$

$$T * \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} = \mu * ss \tag{6.5}$$

6.0.5 Algorithm overview


Lowpass
Filter
FIR or IIR)
PD – PD$_{dark}$
$n=\left(\frac{T*\sigma}{\mu*ss}\right)^2$
μ,σ
FIFO Buffer
n
d
m
Delete
$\bar{X}$
μ,σ
$|(\mu-\bar{x})|>\frac{T*\sigma}{\sqrt{(n)}}$
Z^{-1}
$|(\mu-[\bar{x}-1])|>\frac{T*\sigma}{\sqrt{(n)}}$
&
Detection
True

Chapter 7

System evaluation

7.1 Scale model

7.2 Hallway Test

7.2.1 indoor

7.2.2 outdoor

Chapter 8

Conclusions and Future Work

8.1 Conclusions

TODO CONCLUSIONS - It works with crappy hardware -

8.2 Future Work

TODO FUTURE WORK - It works with crappy hardware, try the system on a better platfrom: * shorter wires (less noise) * better LED (lower t-rise -¿) - Implement communication algorithm using lights bouncing from the floor to the next light post, to singal it to turn on

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Appendix A

Code repository

All code referred to in this thesis can be found at `https://github.com/hkleingeld/DarkSensing`. The folder structure shown in fig X should be self explanatory. Readme files where added to each folder to explain what each file contains and is used for.

```
root
├─ PC
│  ├─ Analyzers
│  ├─ DarkSenseAnalyzer
│  ├─ DarkSenseCapture
│  ├─ DarkSenseRunning
│  └─ Shared
├─ Device
│  ├─ Superblink
│  └─ Firmware
├─ Matlab
│  └─ Model
│     ├─ Street
│     ├─ Hallway
│     └─ Verification
└─ Thesis
```

Appendix B

Raw Model results

This appendix contains the raw results of the model.

y	H	min $\alpha = 0.2$	max $\alpha = 0.2$	min $\alpha = 0.3$	max $\alpha = 0.3$	min $\alpha = 0.4$	max $\alpha = 0.4$	min $\alpha = 0.5$	max $\alpha = 0.5$
0m	1.4m	-0.08	0.70	-0.03	1.30	0	1.90	0	2.50
	1.6m	-0.07	1.60	-0.02	2.66	0	3.73	0	4.80
	1.8m	-0.06	3.46	-0.01	5.54	0	7.61	0	9.69
0.2m	1.4m	-0.05	0.65	-0.01	1.17	0	1.70	0	2.23
	1.6m	-0.05	1.34	0	2.22	0	3.11	0	3.99
	1.8m	-0.04	2.64	0	4.24	0	5.83	0	7.43
0.4m	1.4m	-0.07	0.28	-0.02	0.59	0	0.90	0	1.21
	1.6m	-0.07	0.56	-0.02	1.01	0	1.46	0	1.91
	1.8m	-0.07	0.91	-0.02	1.59	0	2.26	0	2.93
0.6m	1.4m	-0.08	0.04	-0.03	0.18	-0.01	0.33	0	0.47
	1.6m	-0.09	0.09	-0.04	0.27	-0.01	0.44	0	0.62
	1.8m	-0.10	0.05	-0.05	0.26	-0.01	0.47	0	0.68

Table B.1: Differences with baseline (no object) for each simulated situation

y	Colour	min $\alpha = 0.06$	max $\alpha = 0.06$	min $\alpha = 0.14$	max $\alpha = 0.14$
1.5m	Silver				
	Black				
	Red				
4.5m	Silver				
	Black				
	Red				

Table B.2: Differences with baseline (no object) for each simulated situation

Object albedo	H	min $\alpha = 0.06$	max $\alpha = 0.06$	min $\alpha = 0.14$	max $\alpha = 0.14$
0.1	1.8m				
	1.6m				
	1.4m				
0.4	1.8m				
	1.6m				
	1.4m				

Table B.3: Differences with baseline (no object) for each simulated situation