



## A-WEAR PROJECT

### A network for dynamic WEearable Applications with pRivacy constraints

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## Short Report

### “Comparative performance of sub-m positioning technologies in wearables”

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## Abstract

This document provides a comparative performance of sub-m positioning technologies in wearables in order to support the Milestone ML4.1.

## Disclaimer

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## “Comparative performance of sub-m positioning technologies in wearables”

In a vast majority of positioning scenarios, the goal is to achieve seamless positioning with sub-m accuracy. In this deliverable, Viktoriia Shubina (ESR03) and Laura Fluerătoru (ESR08) provide a review and comparison of the accuracy levels for positioning technologies.

Commonly, positioning is widely used on mobile phones, yet with the advancements in the Internet of Things (IoT), miniature sensors as wearable devices acquired the same functionality. Nowadays, these devices can sustain different wireless connectivity ranges: from ultra-short and short to long ranges. Therefore, the literature review in [1] compiles novel challenges with respect to the characteristics of mobile phones and wearables.

### 1.1. Positioning Accuracy Metrics

It is essential to define a proper error for the performance evaluation of the positioning method. There are two main approaches [2] to estimate the localization error of any system:

- *Error Probability* refers to the probability of the measurement error to not exceed a specific value.
- *Cramer-Rao Lower Bound (CRLB)* which is a lower limit for the variance of estimation.

Erroneous data should be considered especially in situations with a massive number of IoT sensors to perform data processing in the IoT environment. This example highlights the need to estimate errors and allow data evaluation and data fusion at the second stage.

Additional error-related metrics such as *Positioning Error Bounds (PEB)*, *Barankin bound*, or *Ziv-Zakai bound* have also been used in some of the literature.

### 1.2. Positioning Privacy Metrics

As stated in [3], with the advancements of wearable technology and built-in sensors, accuracy confronts privacy, and vice versa. To balance efficiently the accuracy and anonymity, such metrics as *entropy* [4], *k-anonymity* [4], *I-diversity* [5] and successors are used to evaluate the level of privacy of the positioning method in considered circumstances. Moreover, these metrics assist in creating and improving privacy-aware approaches used for localization to preserve users' privacy.

### 1.3. Localization techniques

Localization systems typically employ techniques based on one or a combination of the following measurements: *received signal strength (RSS)*, *channel state information (CSI)*, *angle of arrival (AoA)*, *phase of arrival (PoA)*, and *time of flight (ToF)* of the signal (along with its multiple variants).

RSS is relatively easy and cheap to acquire, but it can heavily fluctuate in multipath environments [6]. As a result, the signal strength can vary over time and frequency without being correlated with a particular location. CSI provides a more granular look at the RSS fluctuations. Fingerprinting methods commonly rely on RSS and CSI measurements associated with a particular location.

AoA techniques measure the angle impinged by a signal on an antenna array and, based on information from multiple reference nodes with known locations, the position of a target can be computed [7]. This technique is hindered by multipath and non-line of sight propagation and requires more sophisticated equipment (antenna arrays) and signal processing algorithms. Similarly, measuring the PoA at a *single* antenna can be used to compute the distance traveled by the signal between two devices [8].





Time-based methods use the propagation time of the signal to compute the distance between the tracked object and several reference devices. This class of techniques has tight synchronization constraints, since even small timing errors can lead to large errors in the computed distance. As a result, the equipment and processing are typically more sophisticated in the case of devices which use time-based methods.

## 1.4. Comparison of Positioning Technologies

Out of the existent localization technologies, WiFi, Ultra-Wideband (UWB), Bluetooth and Bluetooth Low Energy (BLE), ultrasound, visible and non-visible light, LoRa, and RFID are usually considered the most important enablers of localization in the IoT [9]. Table 1 presents a comparison between these technologies in terms of the maximum accuracy obtained by systems employing these technologies, their range, current consumption, localization techniques typically used with them, and their advantages and disadvantages.

Table 1: Comparison of Positioning Technologies

Technology	Maximum accuracy*	Range	Current consumption	Localization Techniques Used	Advantages	Disadvantages
<b>Wi-Fi</b>	Decimeter-level [10], [11]	250m outdoor 50 m indoor	Hundreds of mA	Fingerprinting [12], AOA [10], TOF [11]	Widely-available, low-cost, often does not need dedicated infrastructure.	High-accuracy localization methods based on fingerprinting require extensive training and are prone to changes in the environment, relatively low accuracy.
<b>UWB</b>	Up to 10 cm [13], [14], [15]	80 m – 300 m	30 – 150 mA	TOF [13], [14], [15], AOA [16]	High accuracy and precision, moderate cost.	Not widely-available (yet), needs dedicated infrastructure.
<b>Bluetooth</b>	85 cm [17]	100 m	<30 mA	Fingerprinting [18], AOA [17]	Widely-available, low-power.	Relatively low accuracy, fingerprinting localization methods require extensive training.
<b>Bluetooth Low Energy</b>	2.5 m [19], [20]	100 m	<15 mA	Fingerprinting [19], TOF [20]	Widely-available, ultra-low power, protocol stack suitable for IoT.	Low accuracy.
<b>Ultrasound</b>	Centimeter-level [21], [22]	20 m	Low-Moderate	TOF [21], [22]	High accuracy.	Requires LOS, accuracy highly depends on the node placement.
<b>Non-visible light</b>	Sub-millimeter [23]	10 m	N/A	TOF [23]	Very high accuracy.	Requires LOS, sub-millimeter accuracy technologies used in gaming are very expensive.
<b>Visible light</b>	Centimeter-or	1.4 km	N/A	TOF [24], [25]	Can use ambient light sensors	Requires LOS, high-accuracy solution





	decimeter-level [24], [25]				commonly available in smartphones. [25]	requires dedicated hardware. [24]
<b>LoRa</b>	Meter-level [26], [27]	15 – 20 km	7 $\mu$ A - 30 mA	TOF [26], RSSI [27]	Ultra-low power, low-cost, long range, designed for the IoT and sensor networks.	Relatively low accuracy.
<b>RFID</b>	Centimeter- and decimeter-level [28], [29], [30], [31]	Couple of meters	Hundreds of nA – mA	AOA [28], POA [29], RSSI [30], [31]	Can consume ultra-low power, low-cost, high accuracy.	Passive RFIDs that achieve centimeter-level accuracy require expensive infrastructure and cover small areas; active RFIDs support higher ranges but have only decimeter-level accuracy.

\*Note: We refer to obtained, not achievable accuracy.

### 3.1 List of repositories with positioning data

Some examples of open-access datasets with location estimates can be found in Table 2. A particular choice of the right repository depends on the research interest and data format.

Table 2: Open-access repositories with datasets for positioning

Name	Website
<b>Zenodo</b>	<a href="https://zenodo.org">https://zenodo.org</a>
<b>GitHub</b>	<a href="https://github.com">https://github.com</a>
<b>Kaggle</b>	<a href="https://www.kaggle.com">https://www.kaggle.com</a>
<b>CRAWDAD</b>	<a href="https://crawdada.org">https://crawdada.org</a>
<b>European Data portal</b>	<a href="https://www.europeandataportal.eu/en">https://www.europeandataportal.eu/en</a>
<b>Microsoft Research Open Data</b>	<a href="https://msropendata.com">https://msropendata.com</a>
<b>EUDAT B2SHARE (B2DROP)</b>	<a href="https://b2share.eudat.eu">https://b2share.eudat.eu</a>
<b>Harvard Dataverse</b>	<a href="https://dataverse.harvard.edu">https://dataverse.harvard.edu</a>





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