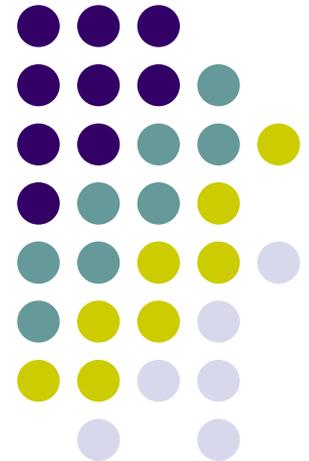
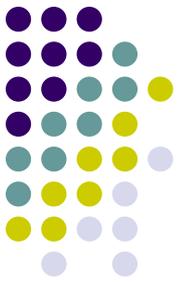


Wireless Sensor Network Localization Techniques

Mohammad Hossein Yaghmaee
Associate Professor
Department of Computer Engineering
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad (FUM)

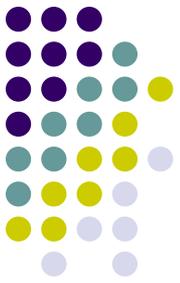




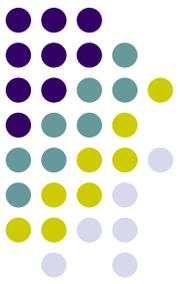
Introduction

- Self-localization capability highly desirable in environmental monitoring applications such as :
 - Bush fire
 - Surveillance
 - Water quality monitoring
 - Precision agriculture
 - Inventory management
 - Intrusion detection
 - Road traffic monitoring
 - Health monitoring
 - Reconnaissance

Why We Need Localization?



- Two types of applications
 - Some need global coordinate system
 - Some need local coordinate system
- Some constraints cause most sensors do not know their locations:
 - Cost and size of sensors
 - Energy consumption
 - Implementation environment
 - Deployment of sensors
- Sensors with unknown location information are called **non-anchor** nodes.
 - Their coordinates will be estimated by the sensor network localization algorithm.



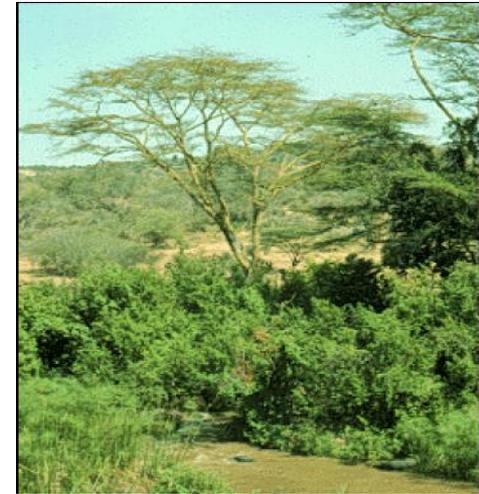
What is Localization?

- Estimation the locations of sensors with initially unknown location information.
- It uses knowledge of the absolute positions of a few sensors and inter-sensor measurements such as:
 - distance and bearing measurements.
- Sensors with known location information are called **anchors**
- Anchors locations can be obtained by using:
 - **Global Positioning System (GPS)**
 - Installing anchors at points with known coordinates

Example: ZebraNet Sensor Network



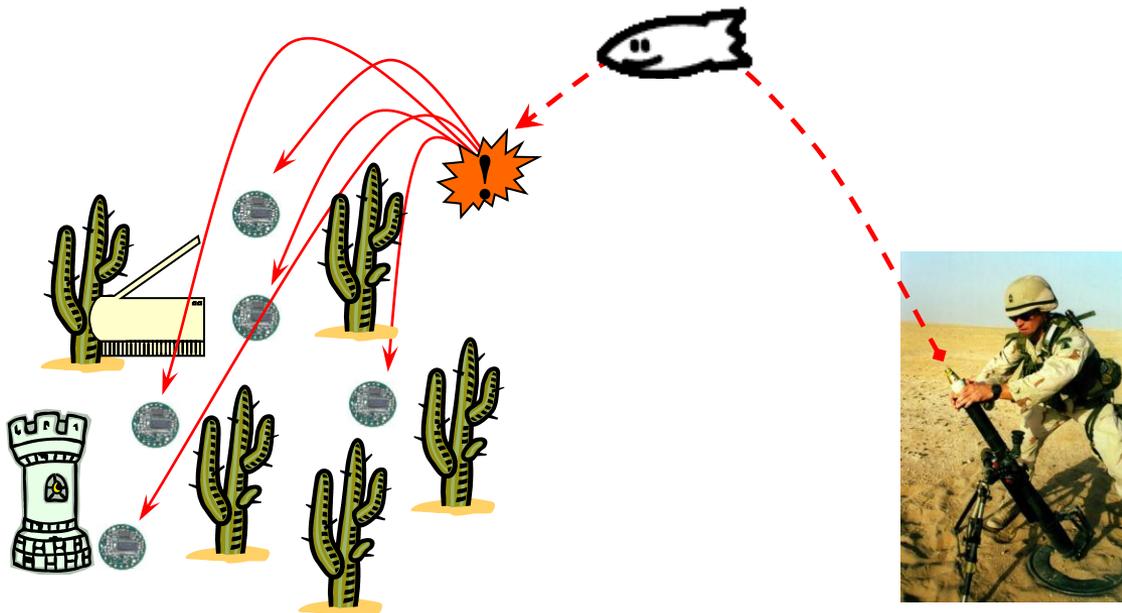
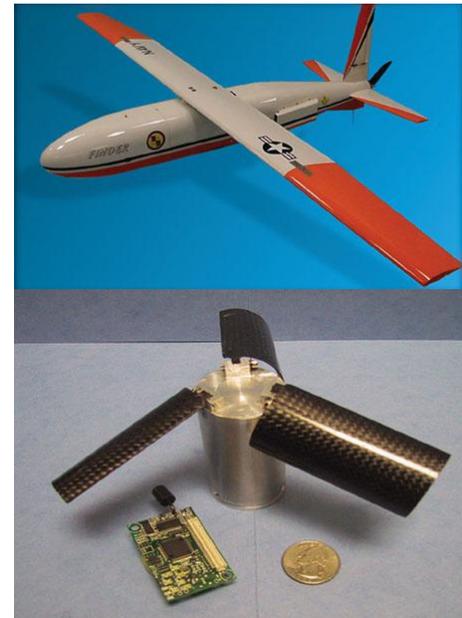
- Biologists want to track animals to study:
 - Interactions between individuals.
 - Interactions between species.
 - Impact of human development.
- Current tracking technology: VHF collar transmitters
- ZebraNet:
 - Mobile sensor net with intermittent base station.
 - Records position using GPS every 3 minutes.
 - Records Sun/shade info.
 - Detailed movement information (speed, movement signature) 3 minutes each hour.
 - Future: head up/head down, body temperature, heart rate, camera.
- Goal, full ecosystem monitoring (zebras, hyenas, lions...).

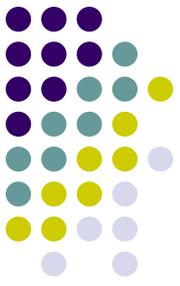




Military Applications

- Intelligence gathering (troop movements, events of interest).
- Detection and localization of chemical, biological, radiological, nuclear, and explosive materials.
- Sniper localization.
- Signal jamming over a specific area.
- Visions for sensor network deployment:
 - Dropped in large numbers from UAV.
 - Mortar-Launched.

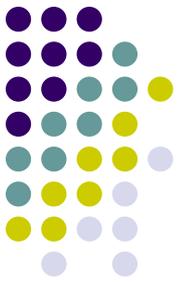




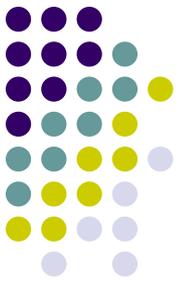
Is Positioning Necessary?

- YES!
- Can be the **mean** or the **goal** of a WSN application
- Is used as building block in:
 - Routing protocols
 - Data dissemination protocols
 - Localization as application of WSN

Example: Geographic Routing

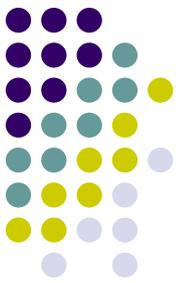


- Allows development of algorithms with better scalability
- Position centric addressing first proposed in 1970's
 - Recent growing interest for it
- Nodes are addressed by their location instead of ID
- No additional job required to support routing
- State of the packet (position) and destination position are sufficient
- Simplest algorithm: Cartesian routing
- Stojmenovic (IEEE Commun.Magazine 2002) presents several strategies for geographical routing



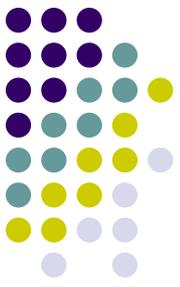
Problem Statement

- Regular assumptions for WSN protocol test scenarios:
 - Large number of nodes
 - Random deployment in a (known shape) given area
 - Known (identical) transmission range for all nodes
 - Static/not very dynamic networks
- **Question:**
 - What are the geographical positions of the nodes?
 - Absolute positioning
 - Relative positioning



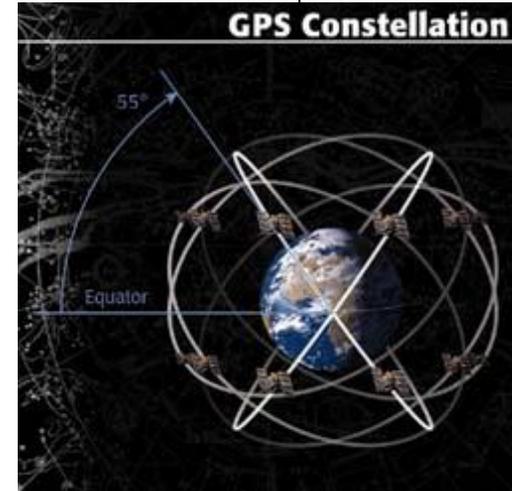
A Possible Solution?

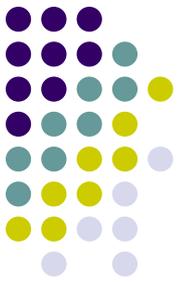
- Usage of Global Positioning System (GPS) devices
- Not a feasible solution for WSN:
 - High cost of the device (value/energy/computation power/space)
 - Unavailability/poor precision of the service in special environments (indoors, underground, etc.)
- Conclusion:
 - Other approaches need to be developed and deployed



Why is Localization a Non-Trivial Problem?

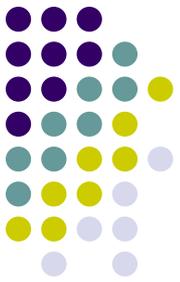
- Manual configuration
 - Unscalable and sometimes impossible.
- Why not use GPS to localize?
 - Hardware requirements vs. small sensors.
 - Obstructions to GPS satellites common.
 - GPS satellites not necessarily overhead.
 - Doesn't work indoors or underground.
 - GPS jammed by sophisticated adversaries.
 - GPS accuracy (10-20 feet) poor for short range sensors.
- Conclusion: other approaches need to be developed and deployed





Classification

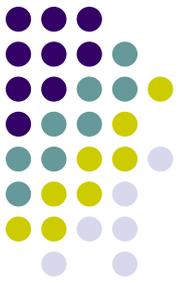
- Different aspects of localization studied in:
 - Vision,
 - Robotics
 - Signal processing
 - Networking,
 - ...
- Solutions can be classified in several manners:
 - One-hop or multi-hop schemes
 - Range free or range based schemes
 - Absolute, relative or local coordinates
 - Centralized, distributed or localized algorithms



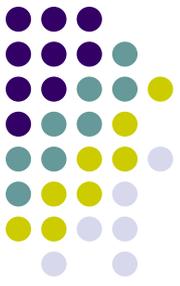
Measurement Techniques

- Most Localization algorithm use measurement techniques.
- 3 Different approaches:
 - Angle-of-Arrival measurements (AOA)
 - Use of the receiver antenna's amplitude response
 - use of the receiver antenna's phase response.
 - Distance related measurements
 - Received Signal Strength (RSS) profiling measurements

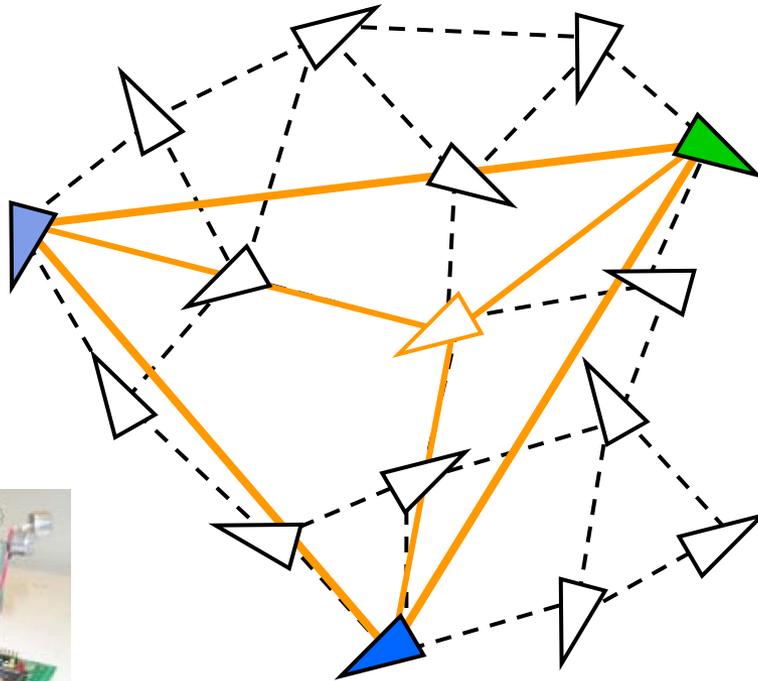
Measurement Techniques



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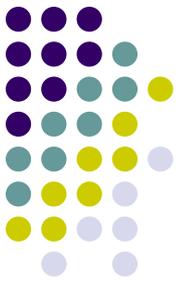
Angle of Arrival (AOA)



"Medusa" mote

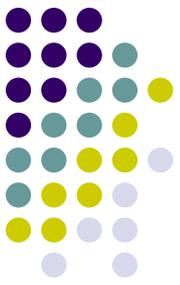
- Idea: Use antenna array to measure direction of neighbors
- Special landmarks have compass + GPS, broadcast location and bearing
- Flood beacons, update bearing along the way
- Once bearing of three landmarks is known, calculate position

AOA Measurements: Receiver Antenna's Amplitude Response

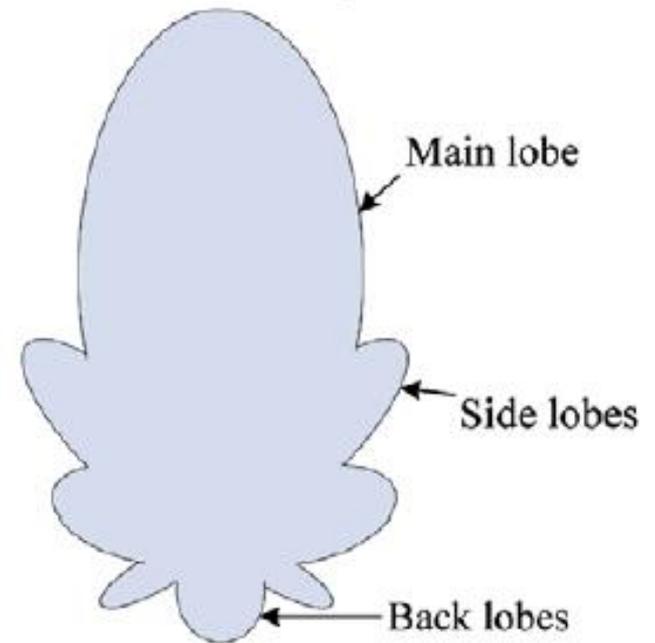


- **Beamforming** is the basis of one category of AOA measurement.
- It uses anisotropy in the reception pattern of an antenna
- The measurement unit can be of small size in comparison with the wavelength of the signals

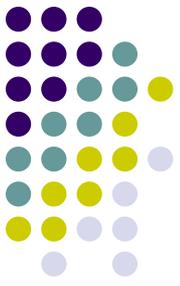
Receiver Antenna's Amplitude Response



- **Characteristics:**
 - The beam of the receiver antenna is rotated electronically or mechanically
 - The direction corresponding to the maximum signal strength is taken as the direction of the transmitter.
- **Problem :**
 - In some cases the transmitted signal has a varying signal strength



Dealing With Varying Signal Strength Problem



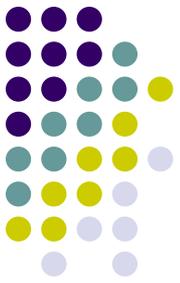
- Method 1:
 - Using a second non-rotating and omni directional antenna at the receiver.
 - By normalizing the signal strength received by two antennas
- Method 2:
 - Using a minimum of two (but typically at least four) stationary antennas with known, anisotropic antenna patterns
 - Overlapping of these patterns and comparing the signal strength received from each antenna at the same time yields the transmitter direction

AOA Measurements: Receiver Antenna's Phase Response

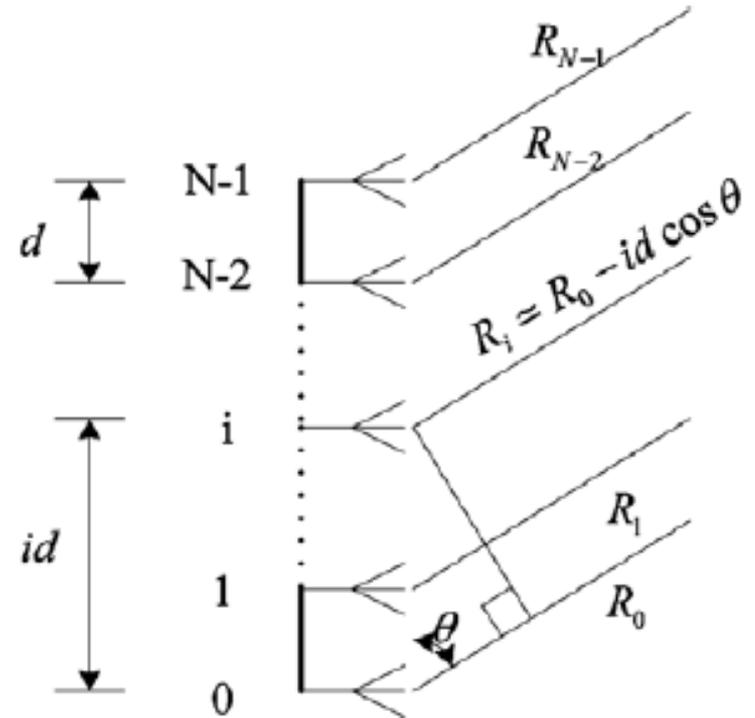


- **Interferometry**
 - Measurements of the phase differences in the arrival of a wave front
- It typically requires a large receiver antenna (relative to the wavelength of the transmitter signal) or an antenna array
- It works quite well for high SNR
- It may fail in the presence of strong co-channel interference and/or multipath signals

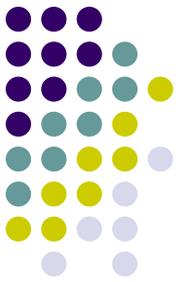
Receiver Antenna's Phase Response



- $R_i = R_0 - id \cos \theta$
 - R_i is the distance between the transmitter and the i th antenna element
 - d is distance between antennas
 - θ is the bearing of the transmitter with respect to the antenna array



The transmitter signals received by adjacent antenna elements have a phase difference of $2\pi \frac{d \cos \theta}{\lambda}$, which allows us to obtain the bearing of the transmitter from the measurement of the phase difference.

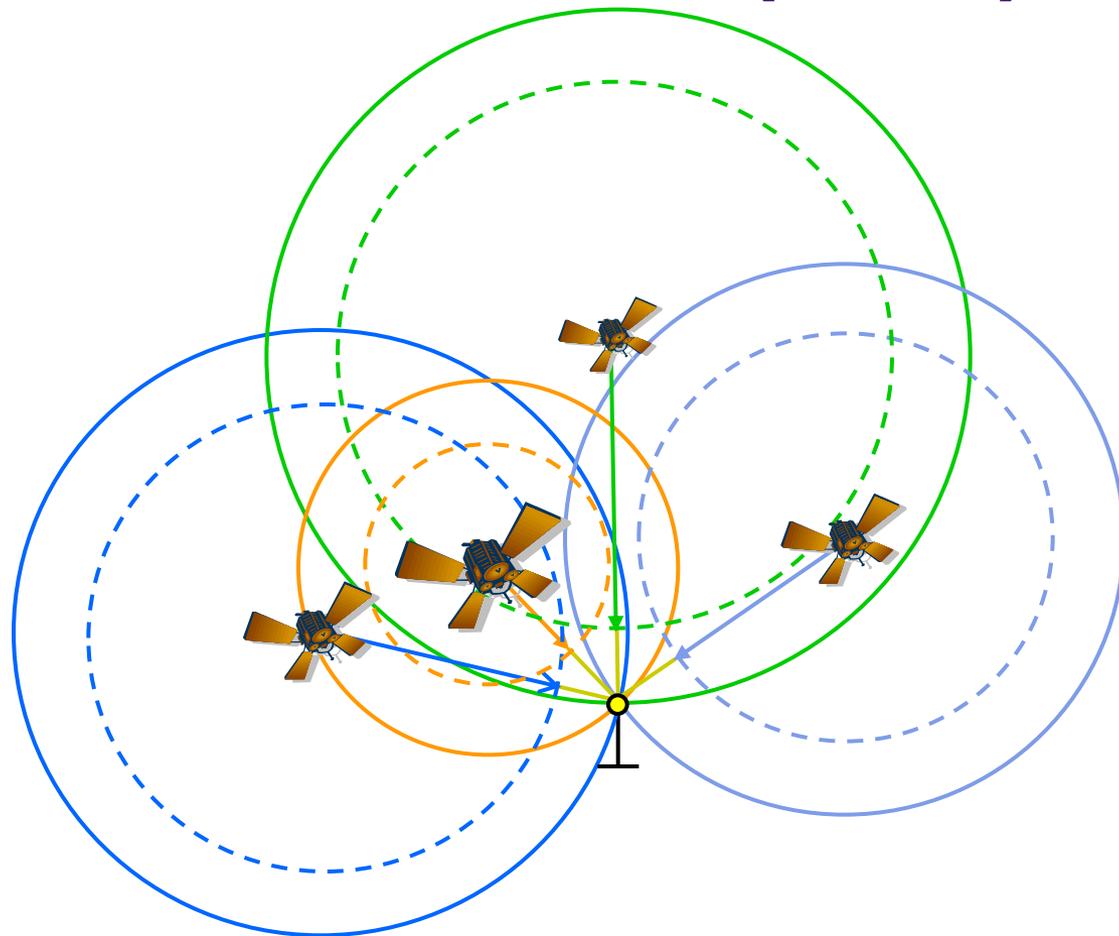


Measurement Techniques

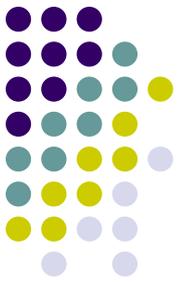
- Angle-of-arrival measurements (AOA)
 - Use of the receiver antenna's amplitude response
 - use of the receiver antenna's phase response.
- **Distance related measurements**
- Received signal strength (RSS) profiling measurements



Time of Arrival (TOA)



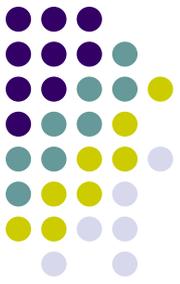
- Example: GPS
- Uses a satellite constellation of at least 24 satellites with atomic clocks
- Satellites broadcast precise time
- Estimate distance to satellite using signal TOA
- Trilateration



Distance Related Measurements

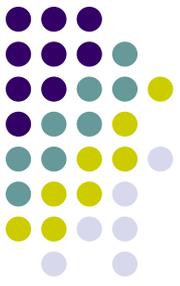
- Distance related measurements include:
 - Propagation time based measurements
 - One-way propagation time measurements
 - Roundtrip propagation time measurements
 - Time-Difference-of-arrival (TDOA) measurements
 - Distance estimation via received signal strength measurements

One-way Propagation Time Measurements



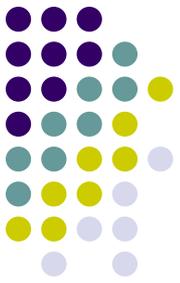
- Measures the difference between sending and receiving time
- Time should be accurately **synchronized**
 - Adds to the **cost** of sensors
 - Needs a highly **accurate** clock
 - Increase the **complexity** of the sensor network
- This disadvantage makes it a **less attractive** option than measuring roundtrip time in WSNs.

Roundtrip Propagation Time Measurements

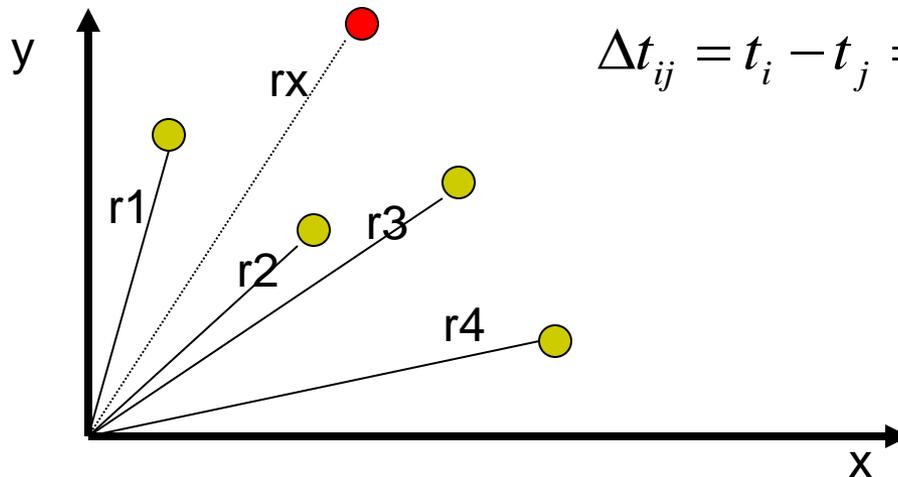


- Measures the difference between the sending time and receiving time of returned signal at the original sensor.
- There is **no synchronization** problem
- The major error source is the delay required for handling the signal in the second sensor
- This internal delay is either known via a priori calibration, or measured and sent to the first sensor to be subtracted.

Time-Difference-of-Arrival (TDOA) Measurements

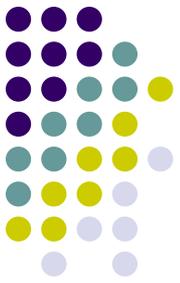


- To estimate the location of the transmitter.
 - Using TDOA measurements of the transmitter's signal at a number of receivers with known location



$$\Delta t_{ij} = t_i - t_j = \frac{1}{c} (\|r_i - r_x\| - \|r_j - r_x\|)$$

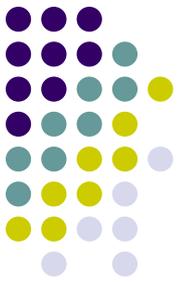
Distance Estimation Via RSS Measurements



- It is based on a standard feature found in most wireless devices, a **Received Signal Strength Indicator (RSSI)**.
- It requires no additional hardware
- In free space the received power is related to the distance through the Friis equation

$$P_r(d) = \frac{P_t G_t G_r \lambda^2}{(4\pi)^2 d^2}$$

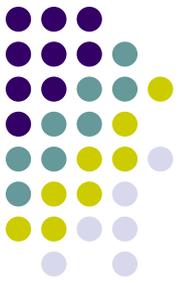
- P_t is the transmitted power,
- G_t is the transmitter antenna gain,
- G_r is the receiver antenna gain
- λ is the wavelength of the transmitter signal in meters.



Problems

- The free-space model however is an **over-idealization**
- The propagation of a signal is affected by:
 - Reflection, diffraction and scattering.
 - These effects are environment dependent:
 - (indoors, outdoors, rain, buildings, etc.)

Non Free-Space Model

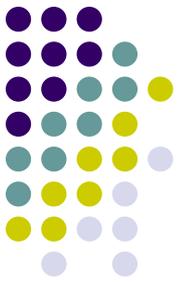


$$P_r(d) = P_0(d_0) - 10n_p \log_{10}\left(\frac{d}{d_0}\right) + X_\sigma$$

a known reference power value at a reference distance d_0 from the transmitter

the path loss exponent that measures the rate at which the RSS decreases with distance

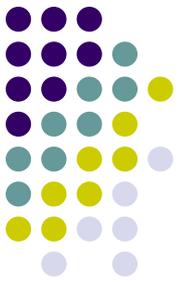
a zero mean Gaussian distributed random variable



Measurement Techniques

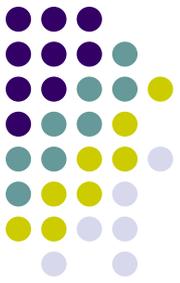
- Angle-of-arrival measurements (AOA)
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 - use of the receiver antenna's phase response.
- Distance related measurements
- Received signal strength (RSS) profiling measurements

Received Signal Strength (RSS) Profiling Measurements



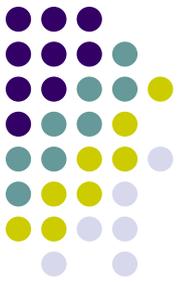
- Construct a form of map of the signal strength behavior in the coverage area.
- The map is obtained:
 - Offline by a priori measurements
 - Online using sniffing devices deployed at known locations.
- They have been mainly used for location estimation in WLANs

Received signal strength (RSS) Profiling Measurements

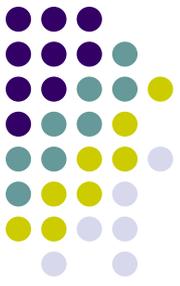


- Different nodes:
 - Anchor nodes
 - Non-anchor nodes,
 - A large number of sample points (e.g., sniffing devices)
- At each sample point, a **vector of signal strengths** is obtained
 - j th entry corresponding to the j th anchor's transmitted signal.
- The collection of all these vectors provides a map of the whole region
- The collection constitutes the RSS model
- It is unique with respect to the anchor locations and the environment
- The model is stored in a **central location**.
- A non-anchor node can estimate its location using the RSS measurements from anchors.

Non Line-of-Sight (NLOS) Error



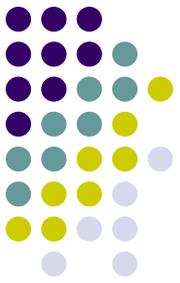
- A common problem in many localization techniques
- NLOS errors between two sensors can arise when:
 - The line-of-sight between them is obstructed , perhaps by a building,
 - The line-of sight measurements are contaminated by reflected and/or diffracted signals.
- NLOS error mitigation techniques:
 - Assume that NLOS corrupted measurements only constitute a small fraction of the total measurements.
 - A typical approach is to assume that the measurement error has a **Gaussian distribution**



Localization Algorithms

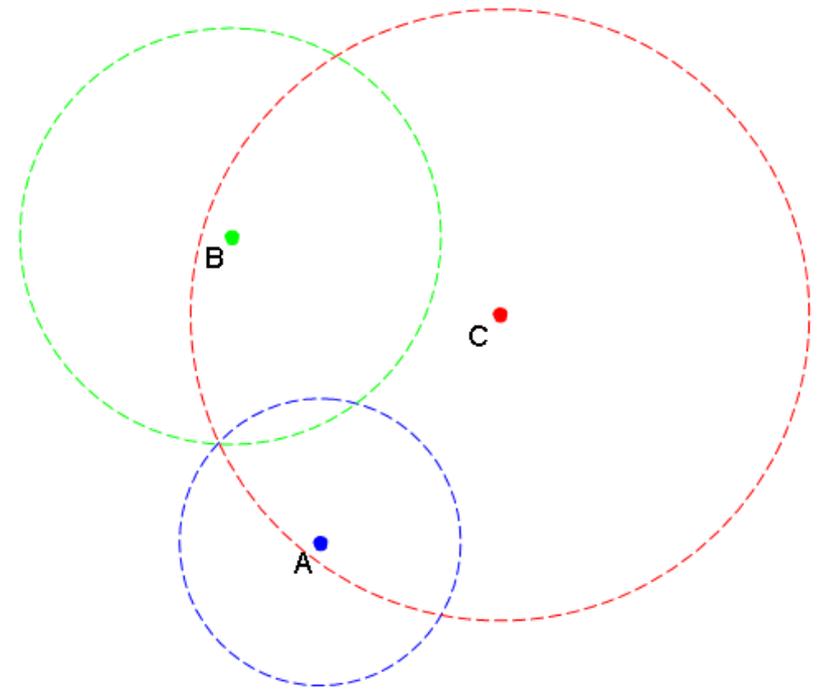
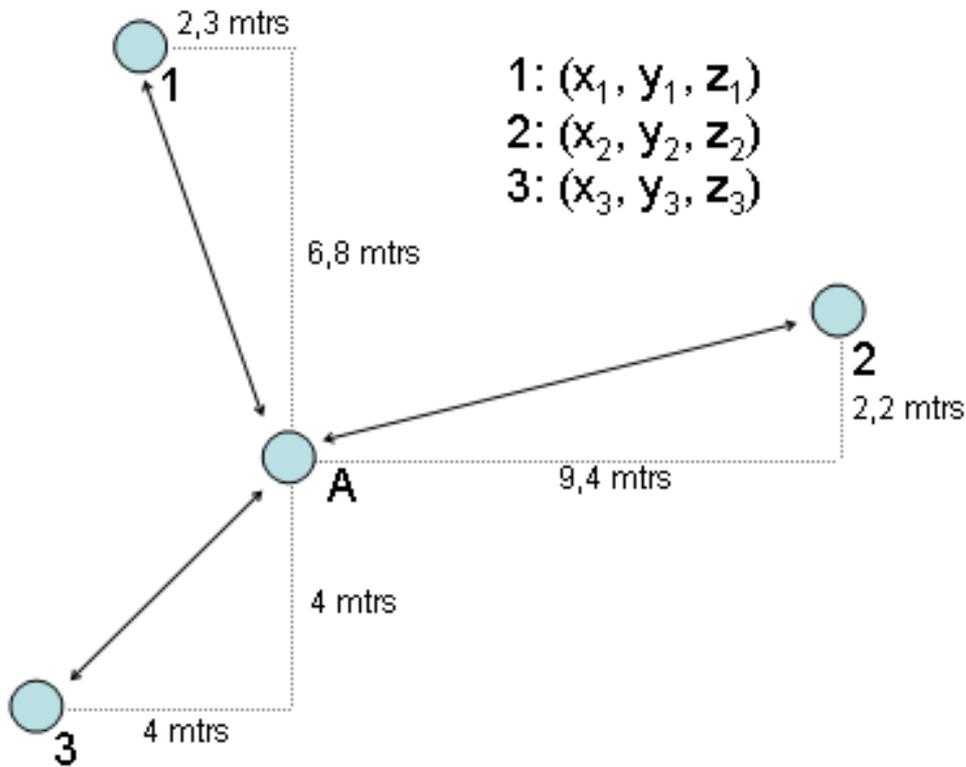
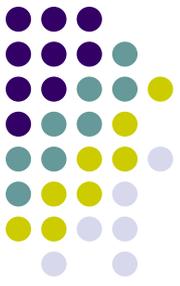
- One-hop localization
 - The non anchor node to be localized is the one-hop neighbor of a sufficient number of anchors
- Connectivity based multi-hop localization algorithms
 - The non-anchor nodes are not necessarily the one-hop neighbors of the anchors.
 - Some time they are called “range free” localization
 - Do not rely on any of the measurement techniques
 - Instead they use the connectivity information to estimate the locations of the non anchor nodes.

One-hop Localization Techniques

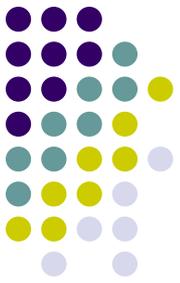


- Given:
 - Three points with known positions
 - Distances to all three of them
- **Lateration:**
 - Position can be determined by intersecting three circles centered in the points with radius the known distances

Lateration as Localization Technique



Trilateration



- Assuming distances to three points with known location are exactly given
- Solve system of equations (Pythagoras!)
 - (x_i, y_i) : coordinates of **anchor point** i , r_i distance to anchor i
 - (x_u, y_u) : unknown coordinates of node

$$(x_i - x_u)^2 + (y_i - y_u)^2 = r_i^2 \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, 3$$

- Subtracting eq. 3 from 1 & 2:

$$(x_1 - x_u)^2 - (x_3 - x_u)^2 + (y_1 - y_u)^2 - (y_3 - y_u)^2 = r_1^2 - r_3^2$$

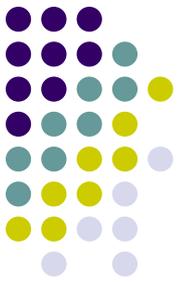
$$(x_2 - x_u)^2 - (x_3 - x_u)^2 + (y_2 - y_u)^2 - (y_3 - y_u)^2 = r_2^2 - r_3^2.$$

- Rearranging terms gives a linear equation in (x_u, y_u) !

$$2(x_3 - x_1)x_u + 2(y_3 - y_1)y_u = (r_1^2 - r_3^2) - (x_1^2 - x_3^2) - (y_1^2 - y_3^2)$$

$$2(x_3 - x_2)x_u + 2(y_3 - y_2)y_u = (r_2^2 - r_3^2) - (x_2^2 - x_3^2) - (y_2^2 - y_3^2)$$

Trilateration as Matrix Equation



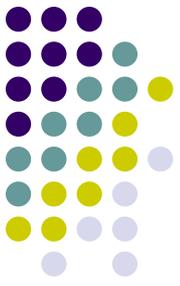
- Rewriting as a matrix equation:

$$2 \begin{bmatrix} x_3 - x_1 & y_3 - y_1 \\ x_3 - x_2 & y_3 - y_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_u \\ y_u \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (r_1^2 - r_3^2) - (x_1^2 - x_3^2) - (y_1^2 - y_3^2) \\ (r_2^2 - r_3^2) - (x_2^2 - x_3^2) - (y_2^2 - y_3^2) \end{bmatrix}$$

- Example: $(x_1, y_1) = (2, 1)$, $(x_2, y_2) = (5, 4)$, $(x_3, y_3) = (8, 2)$,
 $r_1 = 10^{0.5}$, $r_2 = 2$, $r_3 = 3$

$$2 \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 1 \\ 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_u \\ y_u \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 64 \\ 22 \end{bmatrix}$$

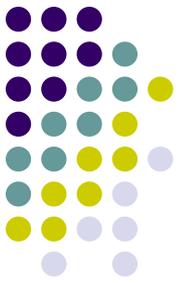
$$! (x_u, y_u) = (5, 2)$$



Lateration

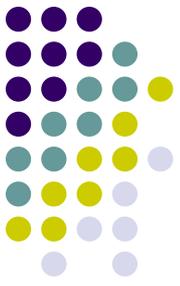
- The concept can be easily applied to multihop networks
- The method as such is not too useful:
 - Imprecise position information
 - Imprecise distance estimates
 - The three circles usually do not intersect in a point (or at all!)
- Several algorithms developed on this simple idea

Connectivity Based Multi-hop Localization Algorithms



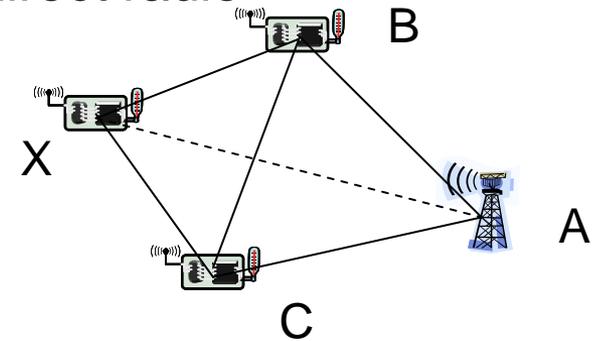
- A sensor being in the transmission range of another sensor defines a proximity constraint between both sensors, which can be exploited for localization.

Multihop Range Estimation



- How to estimate range to a node to which no direct radio communication exists?

- No RSSI, TDoA, ...
- But: Multihop communication is possible



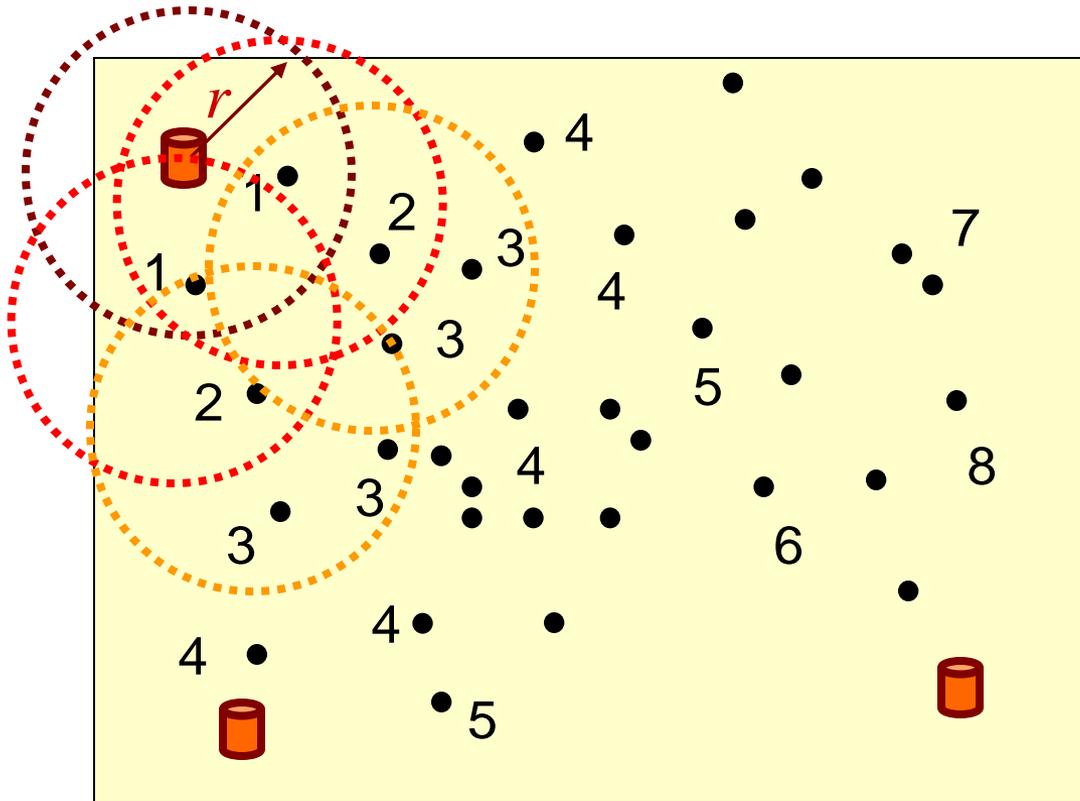
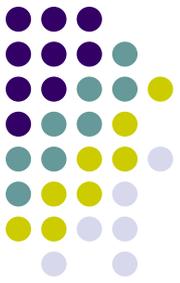
- Idea 1:

- Count number of hops, assume length of one hop is known (**DV-Hop**)
- Start by counting hops between anchors, divide known distance

- Idea 2:

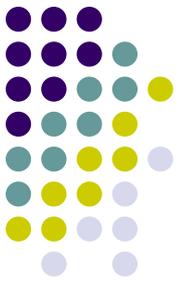
- If range estimates between neighbors exist, use them to improve total length of route estimation in previous method (**DV-Distance**)

Hop-Count Techniques (DV-HOP)



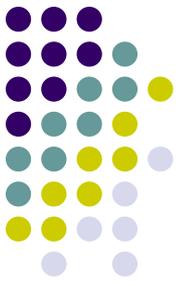
Works well with a few, well-located seeds and regular, static node distribution. Works poorly if nodes move or are unevenly distributed.

Distance-based Multi-hop Localization Algorithms



- Use of inter-sensor distance measurements in a sensor network to locate the entire network.
- Two main classes:
 - **Centralized algorithms**
 - Use a single central processor to collect all data
 - Produce a map of the entire sensor network
 - **Distributed algorithms**
 - Rely on self-localization of each node using
 - the distances the node measures
 - the local information it collects from its neighbors.

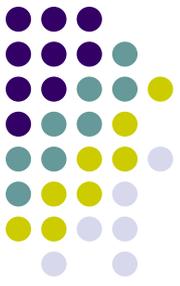
Centralized Algorithms



- In certain networks a centralized information architecture already exists, such as:
 - Road traffic monitoring and control
 - Environmental monitoring
 - Health monitoring
 - Precision agriculture monitoring networks
- The measurement data of all the nodes in the network are collected in a central processor unit.
- In such a network, it is convenient to use a centralized localization scheme.

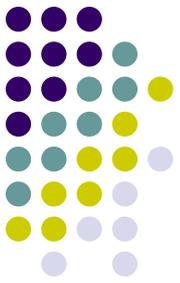
Centralized Algorithms

Characteristics

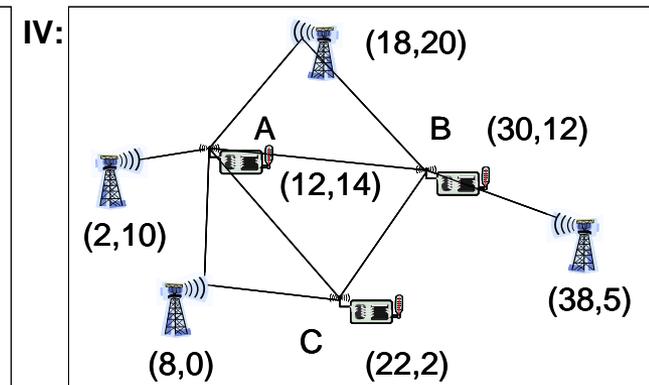
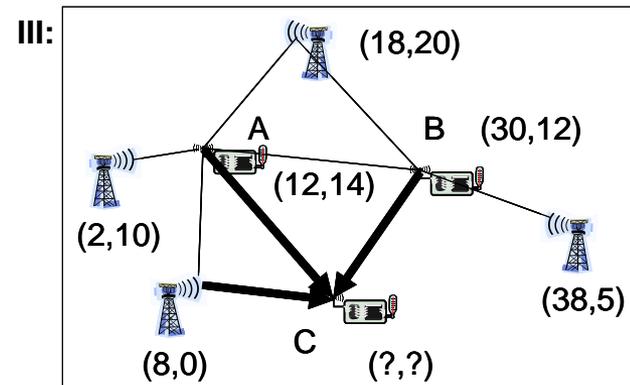
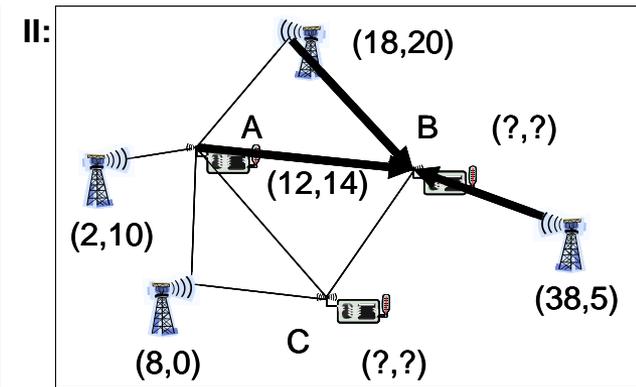
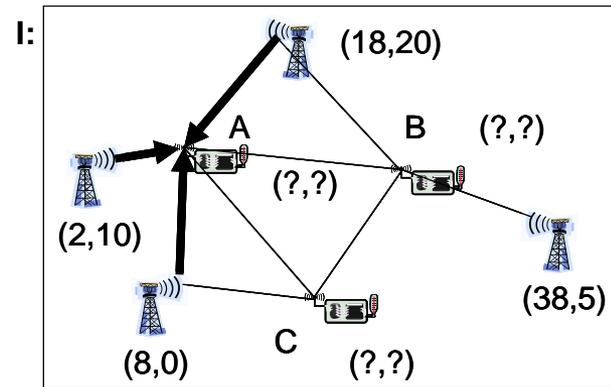


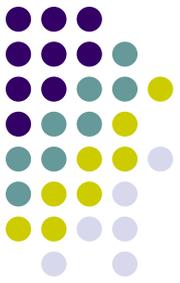
- All the data is collected at a central point and a global map is computed at once
- **Advantages:**
 - High quality solutions (in terms of the average distance error)
 - Global maps available
- **Disadvantages:**
 - Data needs to travel to a central point
 - High computation power required
 - Methods usually do not scale with the network size

Distributed Algorithm (Iterative Multilateration)



- Assume some nodes can hear at least three anchors (to perform triangulation), but not all
- Idea: let more and more nodes compute position estimates, spread position knowledge in the network
 - Problem: **Errors accumulate**

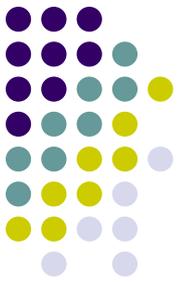




Distributed Algorithms

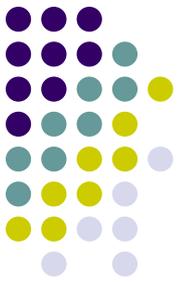
- These methods allow nodes to compute their position by communicating to their neighbors only
- **Advantages:**
 - No need of global knowledge
 - Simple methods, majority of algorithms fit the hardware
 - Lower communication overhead
- **Disadvantages**
 - High number of anchors needed
 - Not all the nodes can compute their position
 - The resulting positions are less precise

Centralized Versus Distributed Algorithms



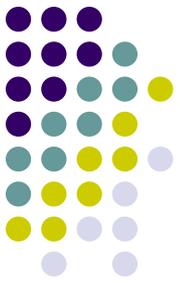
- They can be compared from perspectives of:
 - Location estimation accuracy
 - Implementation and computation issues
 - Energy consumption
- Decentralized localization is strictly harder than centralized
 - Any algorithm for decentralized localization can always be applied to centralized problems, but not the reverse.

Centralized Versus Distributed Algorithms



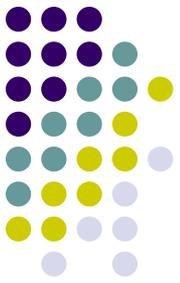
- **Advantages centralized algorithms:**
 - Are likely to provide more accurate location estimates than distributed algorithms.
 - Suffer from the scalability problem
 - Generally are not feasible to be implemented for large scale sensor networks.
- **Disadvantages of centralized algorithms:**
 - Higher computational complexity
 - Lower reliability due to accumulated information inaccuracies/losses caused by multi-hop transmission over a wireless network.

Centralized Versus Distributed Algorithms



- **Distributed algorithms:**
 - More difficult to design
 - Optimal distribution of the computation of a centralized algorithm in a distributed implementation in general is an unsolved research problem.
 - Error propagation is another potential problem in distributed algorithms.
 - Generally require multiple iterations to arrive a stable solution

Energy Consumption



- **Centralized algorithms** require data to be sent over multiple hops to a central processor.
- **Distributed algorithms** require only local information exchange between neighboring nodes
 - Many such local exchanges may be required, depending on the number of iterations needed to arrive at a stable solution.
- If in a given sensor network and distributed algorithm, the average number of hops to the central processor exceeds the necessary number of iterations, then the distributed algorithm will be more energy-efficient than a typical centralized algorithm.