

Let's Talk about k -NN for Indoor Positioning: Myths and Facts in RF-based Fingerprinting

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Abstract—Microsoft proposed RADAR in 2000, the first indoor positioning system based on Wi-Fi fingerprinting. Since then, the indoor research community has worked not only to improve the base estimator but also on finding an optimal RSS data representation. The long-term objective is to find a positioning system that minimises the mean positioning error. Despite the relevant advances in the last 23 years, a disruptive solution has not been reached yet. The evaluation with non-open datasets and comparisons with non-optimized baselines make the analysis of the current status of fingerprinting for indoor positioning difficult. In addition, the lack of implementation details or data used for evaluation in several works make results reproducibility impossible. This paper focuses on providing a comprehensive analysis of fingerprinting with k -NN and settling the basement for replicability and reproducibility in further works, targeting to bring relevant information about k -NN when it is used as a baseline comparison of advanced fingerprint-based methods.

Index Terms—Wi-Fi Fingerprinting, Received Signal Strength, k -Nearest Neighbor, Reproducibility, Replicability

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the first introduction of Wi-Fi fingerprinting positioning systems, the pattern matching algorithm k -Nearest Neighbor (k -NN) has been one of the most used techniques to provide a position estimate [1], [2]. k -NN is a non-parametric supervised learning method introduced in 1951 [3], which is used in numerous applications other than indoor positioning. k -NN may be implemented as a data classifier or regressor, where the output is a class membership or the average of the values of k nearest neighbours, respectively.

In positioning applications such as fingerprinting, k -NN regression provides a position estimate by selecting the k closest samples to the operational sample from within the training dataset and then averaging the position coordinates of the closest samples to obtain a position estimate. On the other hand, k -NN classification fits better for symbolic positioning applications based on reference locations, rooms or floors. To find the closest samples, generic distance functions (e.g., *City Block*) are used to compute the distance in the signal space between the operational sample and all training samples.

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Although several efforts have been made to improve the standard k -NN algorithm in terms of accuracy [4]–[6] and efficiency [7], [8], new improved versions of k -NN –including the weighted k -NN variant– have emerged with no disruptive alterations with respect to the original algorithm.

Recent applications of k -NN include but are not limited to, Wi-Fi/Magnetic matching, floor detection or smartphone carrying mode [9]. Furthermore, researchers use the k -NN algorithm as a core positioning system while evaluating other features of the positioning pipeline, such as data augmentation to enrich the radio map [10], [11] or to reconstruct areas with missing reference points [12]. Finally, it is the de-facto baseline for fingerprint-based positioning [13]–[17].

Achieving the best possible performance with k -NN requires optimizing its hyperparameters, i.e. the k , the distance function [18], [19] and the weighting strategy for centroid computation. Procedures involving data manipulation may also improve positioning accuracy. We consider that external hyperparameters, such as data representation [18], should also be considered when optimizing the k -NN hyperparameters as significant improvements can be obtained. However, k -NN is still used with *default* hyperparameters when it is the baseline for comparison with other proposed methods. Unoptimized baselines may not represent k -NN real performance.

In addition, some work about advanced fingerprinting lack details to reproduce/replicate it. For instance, how to deal with non-detected values, the threshold to consider a signal weak or other relevant hyperparameters. It is not easy to reproduce the results and replicate the method if core information is missing.

This paper aims to enhance the reproducibility and replicability of methods in fingerprint-based indoor positioning. The contributions of this paper include:

- Identification of the relevant steps and core hyperparameters in the k -NN execution pipeline required to reproduce an algorithm based on k -NN;
- Analysis of the main k -NN hyperparameters using 69 datasets and statistical tests to assess significance;
- Comparison with state-of-the-art improvements of k -NN.

We provide access to code and datasets that can be used by the research community to improve the comparative benchmarking of new methods. Other researchers are encouraged to add their own datasets and code [20].

II. RELATED WORK

This section describes RADAR, the first Wi-Fi fingerprinting system –which was based on k -NN– and subsequent enhanced versions found in the literature.

Bahl and Padmanabhan [1] introduced RADAR in 2000. In their analysis, they included a radio map with at least 20 samples, considering 70 positions and 4 orthogonal orientations. The proposed empirical evaluation was conservative as they picked one of the locations and orientations tuples randomly, and then applied the k -NN method using all samples from the remaining 69 points and 4 orientations. The evaluation was done in the corridors of an area of 22.5 m by 43.5 m and considered the Euclidean distance to compute the dissimilarities between fingerprints. The results reported a median error of 2.94 m for $k = 1$ and 2.75 m for $k = 5$, with degraded performance for larger k .

Cha [21] performed a generic comprehensive analysis of distance (dissimilarity) and similarity functions because of their relevance for many pattern recognition problems. They were reviewed and categorized according to both syntactic and semantic relationships. This work served as inspiration for similar analysis focusing on Received Signal Strength (RSS) fingerprinting [18], [22] using a public dataset each.

Shin *et al.* [23] introduced a two-stage procedure to dynamically set the value of k for every operational fingerprint. First, the Euclidean distance to all reference samples is computed, and only the samples with a distance below a threshold are selected. Then, an additional rule based on differences is applied to further filter the selected candidates. Then, the workflow of weighted k -Nearest Neighbor (wk -NN) is conducted using the inverse of the distance to weigh the locations when computing the centroids. The evaluation was performed in a test space of 48 m to 22 m. Unfortunately, no clue about the threshold is provided.

Liang *et al.* [4] proposed a novel RSS-fingerprint distance that mimics the physical geometric distances and weights the base stations (bs) according to their strength. The execution pipeline afterwards follows the traditional wk -NN where the weights for computing the centroids correspond to the squared inverse of the new physical distance. The empirical evaluation was carried out outdoors over one single GSM network in an urban area, an ideal test-bed to compare the performance of traditional k -NN and improved k -NN algorithm.

Zou *et al.* [24] applied the wk -NN with a novel weighting scheme, where the computation was leveraged to the Signal Tendency Index (STI) instead of the raw Received Signal Strength (RSS). The distance among fingerprints was calculated with the Euclidean distance over STI features and the weights for centroid computation corresponded to the inverse of the distance of the selected neighbours. The empirical experiments were conducted in a 35.6 m to 16.6 m laboratory for 6 months. The results showed that leveraging on STI features compensated device heterogeneity and reduced the overall positioning error with respect to raw RSS, but extended analysis on other distance functions was omitted.

Recently, Liu *et al.* [25] proposed a rule to dynamically set the k value up to a maximum reestablished value using two threshold values and the cosine similarity values of the nearest neighbours ranked in the range of $[1 \dots k_{max}]$. Although the proposed method improves the traditional wk -NN, it introduced two new hyperparameters to optimize.

In the last 23 years, none of the several k -NN enhancements emerged as a clear winner. The evaluation setups among works differ, baselines do not share the same configuration, or some key elements are underexplored (e.g., distance function among fingerprints). Some of the k -NN enhanced versions introduce strict restrictions, e.g., asking for reference locations in regular grids or having multiple fingerprints per position, while others introduce new hyperparameters to optimize. Furthermore, the empirical evaluation is limited to a few scenarios, limiting the generalization of results. In this work, we perform a comprehensive analysis of k -NN and variants.

III. THE PIPELINE FOR POSITIONING WITH k -NN

This section describes the pipeline for fingerprinting-based positioning in a reproducible way. The provided description is technology and measurement-agnostic.

A. Off-line phase: Data collection

Data collection is a time-consuming task as the radio map or reference set (denoted by \mathcal{T} in this paper) is built with real measured data. Ideally, the operational area should correspond to a medium/large size scenario with a realistic deployment of anchors and a good distribution of reference locations.

The collection itself is straightforward, one or several fingerprints are collected at every reference location with a single or multiple devices. Reference locations should be equally distributed following a regular grid if possible. Data collection and/or selection of locations can be delegated to users by means of crowdsourcing. Depending on the radio map, cross-validation with some restrictions can be applied to generate independent training (\mathcal{T}) and validation sets (\mathcal{V}), enabling an objective procedure to select hyperparameters.

Nevertheless, a secondary radio map is needed, acting as the evaluation or test set (\mathcal{E} in this paper). Although collecting all data in a single procedure is also viable, it is not recommended. Very similar fingerprints may end up in the training and testing sets, thus leading to over-optimistic results. For fair evaluation, training, validation and test sets should all be independent.

Depending on the device, raw data can be gathered as individual readings or as a vector with one reading per detected emitter. In the former case, samples should be aggregated within an appropriate time window to generate fingerprint vectors. In the vectors, non-detected values must be identified.

Hardware and software limitations must be cross-checked and documented. For instance, the process to sense a single Wi-Fi RSS fingerprint should take around 1.5 s to 6 s, depending on the number of scanned radio channels. However, *Android* buffers the RSS values and allows collecting multiple fingerprints per second, which results in having exactly the same RSS values (and fingerprints) in a short time window.

We do recommend sharing the data and providing it in its rawest form, with the anchor ID, the transmission frequency, the received intensity values and the timestamp. In the case of receiving individual readings, we also recommend providing data in vector format and the procedure to generate them.

The steps described above serve for static data collection. In the case of collecting data while moving, high-accurate real-time ground truth is needed to label reference positions, similar to what was introduced by Daniş *et al.* [26], where the authors track the position of a device with cameras and a Bluetooth Low Energy (BLE) beacon in an area with markers. They process the video streams to obtain precise pose estimations and reduce the positional error to less than 5 cm. They annotate BLE data with the position to create a radio signal dataset for evaluating a radio signal-based localization system.

B. Data processing at offline and online phases

An important, but commonly uncredited, step in fingerprinting is data pre-processing. It includes how to represent the non-detected values with a numeric value, as generic distance functions cannot handle missing data. In RSS-based fingerprinting, missing data are often replaced with -200 dBm, -150 dBm, -110 dBm or the minimum value in the dataset minus 1. Nevertheless, the proper values depend on the kind of measurement and positioning technology.

Another relevant pre-processing procedure to consider is filtering weak signals. i.e., assigning the non-detected value to, for instance, those signals weaker than a threshold or keeping only the n strongest signals in the fingerprint. If this optional step is applied, the full procedure should be documented.

Choosing the proper RSS data representation is a relevant procedure. Some machine learning models only work when input data are scaled to $[0, \dots, 1]$ range. In k -NN, some distance functions do not work as expected if the input data are negative (e.g. Sorensen or Cosine [18], [21], [22]) and RSSs should be shifted to positive. Finally, the measurements in RSS-based fingerprinting are not linear, and some alternatives tried to mimic the Log Distance Path Loss model [4], [18].

Finally, the way different fingerprints collected at the same location are aggregated is also included in this pre-processing step. Some authors use all raw samples, as in RADAR, while others average fingerprints collected in the same location.

We do recommend sensible pre-processing in both, offline & online phases, such as choosing a proper data representation [18]. However, we do not recommend averaging fingerprints at the online phase as it requires being in the same location for a long period, which is not compatible with indoor navigation.

C. On-line phase: Data processing

The high-level description of k -NN-based positioning is provided in Algorithm 1, requiring 3 hyperparameters: 1) the function *dist* to compute distances among fingerprints [21], 2) the value of k , and 3) the strategy to compute centroids. We assume infinite distance if j -th training $s_j^\mathcal{T}$ and i -th evaluation $s_i^\mathcal{E}$ fingerprints (ln.4) do not share any common emitter.

Algorithm 1 Pseudocode of k -NN for positioning

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1: input  $\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{E}, k, dist, centroid$ 
2: for  $i = 1$  to  $|\mathcal{E}|$  do
3:   for  $j = 1$  to  $|\mathcal{T}|$  do
4:     ① Compute RSS distances  $d_j = dist(s_i^\mathcal{E}, s_j^\mathcal{T})$ 
5:   end for
6:   Sort distances in RSS space
7:   ② Select  $k'$  nearest training samples (lowest  $d$ ):  $ns_i$ 
8:   ③ Compute centroid:  $pos_i = centroid(pos^\mathcal{T}, ns_i)$ 
9: end for
10: Return: Estimated positions

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Once distances are computed (ln.5), the nearest neighbours (ns_i) correspond to the samples with the lowest distance values d_j . If multiple neighbors share the k -th distance after sorting, we choose them all. We thus consider k' nearest neighbours (ln.7). Some authors use a similarity function in ln.4 (sim_j) instead of a distance one. In those cases, the nearest neighbours are those with higher similarities instead of lower distances.

The strategies for calculating the position pos_i (ln.8, eq.1) are: *unweighted centroid* and *weighted centroid* based either on inverse distance or on squared inverse distance. All weights are scaled so that their sum equals 1.

$$pos_i = centroid(pos^\mathcal{T}, ns_i) = \sum_{l=1}^{k'} \left(\frac{w_l \cdot pos_{ns_i(l)}^\mathcal{T}}{\sum_{m=1}^k w_m} \right) \quad (1)$$

where: $w_l = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{unweighted centroid} \\ (d_l)^{-1} & \text{weighted centroid inverse distance} \\ (d_l)^{-2} & \text{weighted centroid sq. inverse dist.} \end{cases}$

when computing w_l , if a similarity function (sim_j) is used in ln.4, distances d_j must be replaced with $(1 - sim_j)$ if $[0 \dots 1]$ -scaled or $(sim_j)^{-1}$. Handling *div by zero* must be documented, we added small value $\epsilon = 10^{-8}$ to any distance.

IV. EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

A. Experimental setup

To compare k -NN and improved variants we applied them over **51 Wi-Fi datasets**: DSI n [27], LIB n [28], MAN n [29], MINT1 [30], SAH1 & TIE1 [31], TUT n [32]–[37], UJI n [38], UTS [39], OFIN [40], GPR n [41], SOD n [14], KIOS n [42], EEIL n [43]; **9 BLE datasets**: OFIN b [40], UEXB n [44], UJIB n [45]; and **9 hybrid datasets**: HDB n [46]. The implemented methods and dataset descriptions are provided in [20] for research reproducibility and replicability [47].

We report the mean 3D positioning error ϵ_{3D} for each dataset. As aggregated metrics, we provide the average error considering all the 112239 individual evaluation samples (All) from the 69 datasets, and the average error considering the 69 mean values provided per dataset (DB). For aggregated results, we also report the normalized values (All n. and DB n.) with respect to baseline \mathcal{C}_1 (see Section IV-B). T-student, Anova1 and Wilcoxon test (*tt*, *a1* and *w* in Table I) are used to check whether differences among results are significant ✓ or not ✗.

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