

# Unknown Tag Identification in Large RFID Systems: An Efficient and Complete Solution

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**Abstract**—Radio-Frequency Identification (RFID) technology brings revolutionary changes to many fields like retail industry. One important research issue in large RFID systems is the identification of unknown tags, i.e., tags that just entered the system but have not been interrogated by reader(s) covering them yet. Unknown tag identification plays a critical role in automatic inventory management and misplaced tag discovery, but it is far from thoroughly investigated. Existing solutions either trivially interrogate all the tags in the system and thus are highly time inefficient due to re-identification of already identified tags, or use probabilistic approaches that cannot guarantee complete identification of all the unknown tags. In this paper, we propose a series of protocols that can identify all of the unknown tags with high time efficiency. We develop several novel techniques to quickly deactivate already identified tags and prevent them from replying during the interrogation of unknown tags, which avoids re-identification of these tags and consequently improves time efficiency. To our knowledge, our protocols are the first non-trivial solutions that guarantee complete identification of all the unknown tags. We illustrate the effectiveness of our protocols through both rigorous theoretical analysis and extensive simulations. Simulation results show that our protocols can save up to 70 percent time when compared with the best existing solutions.

**Index Terms**—RFID system; unknown tag identification; time efficiency; slot pairing; multiple reselections

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Radio-Frequency Identification (RFID) technology brings revolutionary changes to many applications, e.g., warehouse management, object tracking, and inventory control. In these applications, active or passive tags are attached to objects (e.g., persons and products) and the information stored in tags (e.g., tag IDs) is interrogated by reader(s) to facilitate efficient management of objects. The process of collecting tag IDs is usually referred to as *tag identification*. Efficient tag identification plays a critical role in stimulating innovative application of RFID in various fields, and has attracted a lot of research attention in recent years [1]–[9].

In this paper, we focus on an important but not thoroughly investigated problem, *unknown tag identification* in large RFID systems. Unknown tags are those tags that just entered the system but have not been interrogated by the reader(s) covering them yet. For instance, in a large warehouse, the frequent loading of new products introduces unknown tags into the system, which should be interrogated in time in order to support automatic and efficient product management. Misplaced tags due to misoperation of stevedores could also be treated as unknown tags by reader(s) currently covering them. Timely interrogation of these unknown tags should be

carried out to avoid considerable economic profit loss caused by misplacement errors [10].

Although many approaches on efficient tag identification have been presented in the past several years [1], [3]–[6], [11]–[14], few of them dedicated to unknown tag identification. Existing work on tag identification mainly focuses on optimizing time/energy efficiency in tag identification [1], [3], [11], or improving throughput by exploiting parallel working of multiple readers [5], [15]–[17], or utilizing mobile reader(s) to facilitate flexible tag reading [13], [14], [18]. However, they all target at interrogating *all the tags* in the system from scratch, which would be highly time inefficient if directly adopted to solve the unknown tag identification problem. The low efficiency of these solutions in identifying unknown tags stems from redundant re-identification of already identified tags (hereinafter referred to as *known tags*), which usually constitute the majority of the tag population in a large RFID system.

The most related work on unknown tag identification is the *continuous scanning* (CU) scheme [19], which is a probabilistic scheme that cannot guarantee complete identification of all the unknown tags. In safety-critical applications like medicine management in hospitals, it is strictly required that all the unknown tags must be identified. The CU scheme cannot meet this requirement. The execution time of CU increases along with the increase of the probability required to interrogate each unknown tag. When the probability is extremely high, the execution time might be comparable to or even longer than the trivial solution that identifies all the tags in the system.

In this paper, we propose a series of protocols that can identify all the unknown tags with high time effi-

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ciency. We find that the key challenge in speeding up unknown tag identification is *how to effectively prohibit the involvement of known tags when interrogating unknown tags*. Our first contribution is to propose a method to recognize known tags and deactivate them to prohibit their further replies. The recognition is realized by comparing expected replies of those known tags with actual received replies in each slot of a frame.

Our second contribution is to develop two novel techniques, *slot pairing* (Section 5) and *multiple reselections* (Section 6) to resolve the known tag collision. These two techniques can greatly enhance the efficiency in deactivating known tags. They can also be applied as common techniques to improve tag identification efficiency in RFID systems. We build a series of time efficient unknown tag identification protocols on top of these techniques.

Our third contribution is to conduct extensive simulations to evaluate the performance of our unknown tag identification protocols with various parameter settings. The results show up to 70 percent reduction in execution time when compared to the best existing solutions. Furthermore, in order to set optimal frame size in our protocols, we develop a zero-cost algorithm to estimate the number of unknown tags that are currently present in the system and evaluate its accuracy.

We organize our paper as follows. In Section 2 we overview related work. In Section 3 we describe system model and give problem statement. In Section 4 we describe the basic unknown tag identification protocol (BUIP) and point out directions to further improve its performance. The two novel techniques, i.e., slot pairing and multiple reselections, and the two enhanced protocols built on them, i.e., SUIP and MUIP, are described in Section 5 and Section 6, respectively. Section 8 discusses fault tolerance issues. Section 9 presents the zero-cost unknown tag cardinality estimation algorithm. The performance of our protocols are evaluated and compared with state-of-the-art solutions through extensive simulations, and the results are reported in Section 10. Finally, Section 11 concludes the paper.

## 2 RELATED WORK

Early works on RFID tag identification focus on collision arbitration for a single reader. They can be classified into two categories [4]: ALOHA-based protocols and tree-based protocols. In [3] and [20], the authors investigated optimization of time efficiency and energy efficiency, respectively, by adjusting frame size in ALOHA-based tag identification protocols. In [21] and [22], the authors proposed adaptive tree traversal methods to improve time efficiency of tree-based protocols. Kang *et al.* [23] and Xie *et al.* [14] reported that tag identification throughput degrades in real deployment. These works all target at identifying all the tags in the system, and thus are not efficient to solve the unknown tag identification problem considered in this paper.

Mobile readers can provide flexible tag identification [13], [14], [18] in infrastructure-less (i.e., with no pre-installed readers) RFID systems. Xie *et al.* [14] reported observations on the relationship between identification throughput and the transmitting power of the readers. Based on the observations, they designed algorithms to optimize energy and time efficiency of the reader in large RFID systems containing more than one hundred tags. Zhu *et al.* [18] discussed how to plan the trajectory of the mobile reader to save energy. These works are also complementary to the protocols proposed in this paper.

The most related work is the CU scheme proposed in [19]. It uses a probabilistic method to identify unknown tags, and thus cannot guarantee *complete identification of all the unknown tags*. CU first predicts which slot should be empty according to the IDs of known tags, assuming no unknown tags exist. In the predicted non-empty slots, the reader sends *ACK* to temporarily prohibit replies from known tags. In the predicted empty slots, the reader sends *NAK* to keep unknown tags active for following identification. It then collects IDs of active unknown tags. Unavoidably, some unknown tags may be prohibited in the predicted non-empty slots and thus cannot be identified. The protocol runs multiple rounds to guarantee that the probability that a required fraction of unknown tags are identified is higher than a threshold. However, CU cannot ensure that all the unknown tags are identified. In contrast, the protocols proposed in this paper adopt deterministic approaches to identifying all the unknown tags in the system. Furthermore, two novel techniques, namely slot pairing and multiple reselections, are developed to reduce the time needed to identify unknown tags. These techniques can be commonly used in RFID systems adopting ALOHA arbitration protocols to improve tag identification efficiency.

## 3 BACKGROUND

### 3.1 System Model and Problem Overview

Consider a large RFID system consisting of a reader  $R$  and a set of tags  $T = \{k_1, \dots, k_n, u_1, \dots, u_m\}$ , where  $k_i (1 \leq i \leq n)$  denotes a known tag that has its ID in the system database, and  $u_j (1 \leq j \leq m)$  denotes an unknown tag. All the known tag IDs are recorded in a backend server. The objective is to *collect all the unknown tag IDs (i.e.,  $\{u_1, \dots, u_m\}$ ) as quickly as possible*. Note that in the current RFID tag identification protocols, the reader has no simple way to differentiate unknown tags from known tags, and thus has to endure the interference from known tags when identifying unknown tags. This work aims to design novel techniques to quickly recognize known tags and prohibit their replying during the identification of unknown tags.

We use the *frame slotted ALOHA* protocol [2] as the underlying MAC layer protocol. The communication between the reader and tags takes the form of *frame*, which is organized as a number of slots synchronized by the reader in which tags transmit information (e.g.,

tag ID) to the reader. The reader starts a frame with a query  $\langle f, r \rangle$ , where  $f$  indicates the number of slots in the frame and  $r$  is a random seed used by tags to determine which slot to transmit. A tag hashes its ID to an integer in  $[0, f-1]$  by  $S = H(ID || r) \bmod f$  and transmits in the  $S$ -th slot, where  $H$  is a uniform hash function. A tag can transmit either its ID or a short response (e.g., a 16-bits random number  $RN16$  in EPC C1G2 standard [2]) to the reader. We denote by  $t_{ID}$  and  $t_l$  the time needed to transmit a tag ID and a short response, respectively.

The protocols proposed in this paper can also be applied to RFID systems containing multiple readers. In such cases, we resort to existing reader scheduling algorithms [5], [15]–[17] to obtain a conflict-free schedule of readers and run our protocols on every reader. Our protocols could also be tailored for mobile reader scenario(s) by treating tags identified at the previous site as known tags at the current site. The reader(s) can access the back-end server via wired or wireless link(s) to retrieve the known tag list before running the protocols and update the list afterwards.

### 3.2 Assumptions

It is possible that known tags might leave the system, and there are some researches on detecting such missing tags [24]–[27]. In this work, we mainly focus on the unknown tag identification problem and assume that no known tags leave the system *during the identification of unknown tags*, which is usually very short, e.g., several minutes. This assumption has been taken in many excellent previous works [28], [29]. To do this, the reader needs to trace which known tags have left the system before executing our protocols, and update the known tag list in the back-end server accordingly. In case that the reader cannot trace which known tags have left, we resort to *missing tag detection* protocols [24]–[26] to find which known tags have left and update the known tag list accordingly. After unknown tags have been identified, we insert their IDs into the database to keep the known tag list updated.

The reader uses *indicator vectors* [28] to send some frame arranging information to tags. An indicator vector is a vector of bits that can be received and interpreted by tags. For example, we can set the bit associated with a slot to “1” to prevent tags selecting this slot from transmitting. This technique has been used in many existing researches to improve protocol efficiency. Here we adopt the method given in [28] to implement indicator vector on top of EPC G1G2 compliant tags. The indicator vector is divided into segments of 96 bits long and each segment is encapsulated into a tag ID. The reader broadcasts segments one after other. Tags need to buffer only one segment in which their corresponding bit resides in. We can also add cyclic-redundancy check (CRC) code to each segment to ensure that the segment could be correctly received. The indicator vector technique based on the method given in [28] has been adopted in many excellent existing researches including [24], [27]–[32].

## 4 BUIP: THE BASIC UNKNOWN TAG IDENTIFICATION PROTOCOL

In this section, we propose the Basic Unknown tag Identification Protocol (BUIP) and analyze its performance.

### 4.1 Protocol Design

BUIP consists of two phases: the *known tag deactivation* phase and the *unknown tag collection* phase. In the first phase, the reader recognizes and deactivates all the known tags to prevent them from interfering with the identification of unknown tags in the second phase. In the second phase, the reader completely identifies unknown tags by collecting their IDs.

The known tag deactivation phase consists of multiple rounds. In each round, the reader collects replies from tags, based on which it recognizes and deactivates known tags (Section 4.2). The reader also recognizes and *labels* unknown tags to prevent them from interfering with the recognition of known tags. To shorten the execution time of each round, the reader broadcasts an indicator vector to prohibit tags in collision slots from replying, because collision slots could not be used to recognize known tags or unknown tags.

The number of active known tags decreases after each round. The reader traces how many known tags have been deactivated. When all the known tags have been deactivated, it enters the second phase to identify all the unknown tags. Otherwise, it starts a new round to deactivate the remaining known tags.

### 4.2 Known Tag Deactivation and Unknown Tag Labeling

In this section we develop a technique to recognize known tags and unknown tags by comparing the actually received replies in a slot with the expected replies.

Being aware of known tags’ ID, the reader knows what tags will transmit in which slot. Consequently, the reader knows the *expected reply number* in each slot (i.e., the number of known tags transmitting in this slot) if there are no unknown tags. However, replies from unknown tags might make the *actual reply number* in a slot different from the expected value. The matching/mismatching between the two numbers provides us opportunities to recognize known tags and unknown tags: If the actual reply number equals the expected reply number, then all the replying tags *must* be known tags; on the other hand, if the actual reply number is larger than the expected value, there *must be* some unknown tags replying.

We implement the known/unknown tag recognition method as follows. In the ALOHA protocol the reader can obtain only coarse-grained status of a slot: empty (the reply number is 0), singleton (the reply number is 1), and collision (the reply number is larger than 1). Because the reader cannot know the exact reply number in a collision slot, it cannot determine whether the actual reply number in a collision slot matches its

expected value or not. Thus, we use only expected empty slots (whose expected reply number is 0) and expected singleton slots (whose expected reply number is 1) to recognize known and unknown tags:

- **Recognize known tags:** If the reader receives only one reply in an expected singleton slot, it recognizes the replying tag as a known tag.
- **Recognize unknown tags:** If the reader receives one or more replies in an expected empty slot, it recognizes the replying tag(s) as unknown tag(s).

After recognizing known tags and unknown tags, the reader deactivates or labels them accordingly. For recognized known tags, the reader deactivates them in both of the two phases in our protocol. In contrast, for recognized unknown tags, the readers make them *temporally inactive* only in the first phase, which we call *unknown tag labelling*. The purpose of labelling is to prevent unknown tags from interfering the recognition of known tags. All the labelled unknown tags will become active again in the second phase to perform identification.

Known tag deactivation and unknown tag labelling are implemented by sending different types of acknowledgements to the tag. The EPC specification [2] provides two different types of acknowledgements:  $ACK_d$  to deactivate a tag and  $ACK_l$  to keep a tag active. Noting that in our protocol we need to differentiate between deactivation of known tags and labelling of unknown tags, we extend  $ACK$  to implement the two different purposes: We use  $ACK_d$  for known tag deactivation and use  $ACK_l$  for unknown tag labelling. We append one bit to  $ACK$  to differentiate  $ACK_d$  and  $ACK_l$ :  $ACK_d = ACK + '0'$  and  $ACK_l = ACK + '1'$ . If a tag receives  $ACK_d$ , it will not respond to the reader during the execution of the whole protocol. If a tag receives  $ACK_l$ , it enters the labeled status and responds to only the ID-collection command issued by the reader in the second phase.

### 4.3 Protocol Description

BUIP consists of two phases: the known tag deactivation phase and the unknown tag collection phase. In the second phase, the reader employs existing protocols like DFSA [33] to collect all unknown tag IDs. We focus on the first phase.

The first phase consists of multiple rounds. In each round, the reader first broadcasts a query  $\langle f, r \rangle$  and an indicator vector  $\mathbf{v}_c$  to tags.  $\mathbf{v}_c$  is an  $f$ -bits long vector in which the  $S$ -th bit indicates whether the  $S$ -th slot would be colliding or not. The reader constructs  $\mathbf{v}_c$  according to the remaining active known tags in the current round. The reader predicts in which slot each known tag will response according to the tag's ID and the query  $\langle f, r \rangle$ . It thus knows the expected status of every slot and sets bits in  $\mathbf{v}_c$  as follows: The  $S$ -th bit is set to '1' if the  $S$ -th slot would be colliding, and '0' otherwise.

After receiving the query, every tag first calculates its transmission slot index as  $h = H(ID||r) \bmod f$ . It then checks the  $h$ -th bit in  $\mathbf{v}_c$ . If the  $h$ -th bit is '0', it transmits

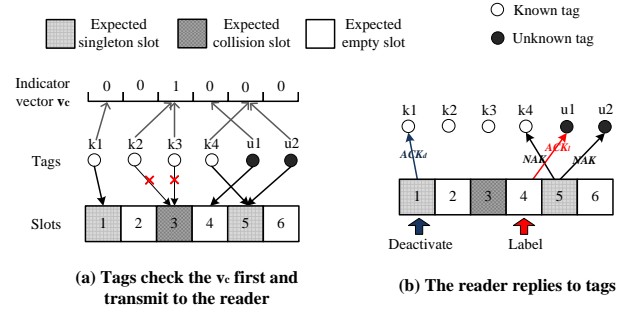


Fig. 1. Illustration of BUIP: (a) Prohibiting replies from tags mapped to expected collision slots; (b) Deactivating known tags and labelling unknown tags.

a short response (e.g.,  $RN16$  in EPC C1G2 standard [2]) to the reader in the selected slot; otherwise, it keeps silent because the selected slot must be colliding.

The reader collects replies from tags, recognizes known/unknown tags and deactivates/labels them. In the  $S$ -th slot, the reader sends different acknowledgements: 1) If the slot is an expected singleton slot and the reader receives only one reply, it recognizes a known tag and sends an  $ACK_d$  to deactivate that tag. 2) If the slot is an expected empty slot and the reader receives some replies, it recognizes unknown tags and sends an  $ACK_l$  to label them. 3) In all other cases, the reader sends a  $NAK$  to keep tags active. At the end of each round, the reader counts the accumulated number of deactivated known tags up to the current round. If all the known tags have been deactivated, the reader enters the second phase and collects unknown tag IDs. Otherwise, it starts a new round to deactivate the remaining known tags.

Fig. 1 illustrates an example of BUIP with four known tags and two unknown tags. The reader first broadcasts  $\mathbf{v}_c$  that indicates the third slot is colliding. The two known tags mapped to the third slot, i.e.,  $k_2$  and  $k_3$ , find  $\mathbf{v}_c[2] = '1'$  and do not reply in this round, turning the third slot to an empty slot. Other tags reply in their chosen slots. The reader recognizes  $k_1$  in the first slot and replies  $ACK_d$  to deactivate it. Meanwhile, the reader recognizes  $u_1$  in the fourth slot and replies  $ACK_l$  to label it. In this example, the reader needs to start a new round to deactivate the rest three known tags.

### 4.4 BUIP Analysis and Discussions

We first derive how to set the frame size to maximize the known tag deactivation efficiency. Consider the  $i$ -th round. Let  $T_i$  and  $D_i$  be the execution time and the number of deactivated known tags in the  $i$ -th round, respectively. We define the *amortized cost* to deactivate a known tag as

$$C_i = \frac{T_i}{D_i}. \quad (1)$$

$C_i$  represents the average time needed to deactivate a known tag in the  $i$ -th round, and thus should be minimized to optimize the known tag deactivation efficiency.

When the frame size is set at  $f_i$ , the execution time is  $T_i = t_{ID} * \frac{f_i}{96} + f_i * t_l$ , where the first part is the time used to broadcast the indicator vector  $\mathbf{v}_c$ , and the second part is the time used to collect replies from tags. Let  $P_d$  be the probability that a tag can be deactivated in an arbitrary slot  $S$ . Then the expected number of deactivated known tags is  $D_i \approx f_i * P_d$ . Thus, the amortized cost to deactivate a known tag when the frame size is  $f_i$  is

$$C_i = \frac{T_i}{D_i} = \frac{f_i * (\frac{t_{ID}}{96} + t_l)}{f_i * P_d} \propto \frac{1}{P_d}. \quad (2)$$

We can see that  $C_i$  is inversely proportional to  $P_d$ . Thus, we can reduce the amortized cost by increasing the probability  $P_d$ . However, as indicated by Remark 1,  $P_d$  cannot be increased arbitrarily by tuning only frame size.

**Remark 1:** In BUIP,  $P_d$  is maximized when  $f_i = m_i + n_i - 1$ , and  $P_d \leq e^{-1} \approx 0.368$ .

*Proof:* A slot  $S$  can be used to deactivate a known tag only when exactly one known tag selects  $S$  and no other tags select it, with probability

$$P_d = \binom{n_i}{1} \frac{1}{f_i} \left(1 - \frac{1}{f_i}\right)^{n_i+m_i-1} \approx \frac{n_i}{f_i} e^{-\frac{n_i+m_i-1}{f_i}}. \quad (3)$$

It is easy to derive that  $P_d$  is maximized when  $f_i = n_i + m_i - 1$ , in which case

$$P_d \approx \frac{n_i}{f_i} e^{-1} \leq \frac{1}{e} \approx 0.368. \quad (4)$$

□

Remark 1 shows that we cannot obtain arbitrary large  $P_d$  by adjusting only frame size in BUIP. To further improve the deactivation efficiency of BUIP, we need to develop new techniques.

## 5 SUIP: SINGLE-PAIRING UNKNOWN TAG IDENTIFICATION PROTOCOL

In this section, we first present a novel technique called *slot pairing* that can greatly increase  $P_d$ , then present the Single-pairing Unknown tag Identification Protocol (SUIP).

### 5.1 Protocol Design

The novelty of SUIP is that it uses a novel technique to turn expected collision slots into expected singleton slots and thus improves known tag deactivation efficiency. Recall that in BUIP only expected singleton slots are used to deactivate known tags, and replies in expected collision slots are prohibited. In SUIP, we pair every expected collision slot with an expected empty slot and let tags mapped to the collision slot make a reselection between the two slots. For example, if two known tags  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  are mapped to an expected collision slot  $S$ , they are given another chance to reselect one slot from  $S$  and its pairing empty slot  $S'$ . After the reselection, it is possible that  $k_1$  selects  $S$  and  $k_2$  selects  $S'$  or vice versa. In this case, both  $S$  and  $S'$  turn into expected singleton slots and can be used to deactivate known tags.

We call this technique *slot pairing*. Note that slot pairing can also resolve collisions when there are more than two tags colliding. For example, if there are  $k$  ( $k \geq 3$ ) known tags selecting the collision slot, then it is possible that only one of them reselects  $S$  ( $S'$ ) and all the other  $k - 1$  tags reselect  $S'$  ( $S$ ), which also generates an expected singleton slot after slot reselection.

### 5.2 Slot Pairing

In slot pairing, every *expected collision slot* is paired with an *expected empty slot*. As there are more expected empty slots than expected collision slots when the frame size is optimally set (i.e.,  $f_i = n_i + m_i - 1$ ), we can assign a pairing empty slot for *every* expected collision slot. Note that the number of expected empty slots ( $f_i * e^{-n_i/f_i}$ ) is always larger than the number of expected collision slots ( $f_i * (1 - \frac{n_i}{f_i} e^{-n_i/f_i} - e^{-n_i/f_i})$ ) when  $n_i/f_i \leq 1$ . Meanwhile, when  $f_i \geq n_i$ , most collisions are two-collisions [34] (i.e., exactly two known tags select this slot), in which case two expected singleton slots could be generated if the two known tags select different slots after reselection.

We pair the  $j$ -th expected collision slot with the  $j$ -th expected empty slot. A tag that originally selects the  $j$ -th expected collision slot may reselect the  $j$ -th expected empty slot in the second chance. The challenge is how to inform a tag of the index of its paired slot in the frame.

In SUIP, we exploit two indicator vectors: the indicator vector  $\mathbf{v}_c$  that is used to indicate the expected collision slots, and the indicator vector  $\mathbf{v}_e$  that is used to indicate the expected empty slots. Both  $\mathbf{v}_c$  and  $\mathbf{v}_e$  have  $f$  bits. Each bit is associated with a slot at the same index location in the frame. However, these two indicator vectors are constructed in different ways:

- In  $\mathbf{v}_c$ : If the  $k$ -th slot is expected to be colliding,  $\mathbf{v}_c[k] = '1'$ ; otherwise,  $\mathbf{v}_c[k] = '0'$ .
- In  $\mathbf{v}_e$ : If the  $k$ -th slot is expected to be empty,  $\mathbf{v}_e[k] = '1'$ ; otherwise,  $\mathbf{v}_e[k] = '0'$ .

A tag  $t$  mapped to an expected collision slot has two kinds of index values:  $I_f(t)$  denotes its slot index in the frame, which indicates how many slots there are before its slot in the frame, and  $I_c(t)$  denotes specifically the collision slot index, which indicates how many expected collision slots there are before its slot in the frame (i.e., the number of '1's before its corresponding bit in  $\mathbf{v}_c$ ). It determines the paired expected empty slot in two steps:

- First,  $t$  examines the collision index  $I_c(t)$  of its slot by counting how many '1's there are before its slot bit in the vector  $\mathbf{v}_c$ .
- Second,  $t$  determines the index of its pairing empty slot in the frame by searching the  $(I_c(t) + 1)$ -th '1' in the vector  $\mathbf{v}_e$ . Let the index of the  $(I_c(t) + 1)$ -th '1' in  $\mathbf{v}_e$  be  $I'_f(t)$ . It then uses the  $I'_f(t)$ -th slot as the paired slot.

### 5.3 Protocol Description

The second phase of SUIP is the same as in BUIP, thus we describe only the first phase.

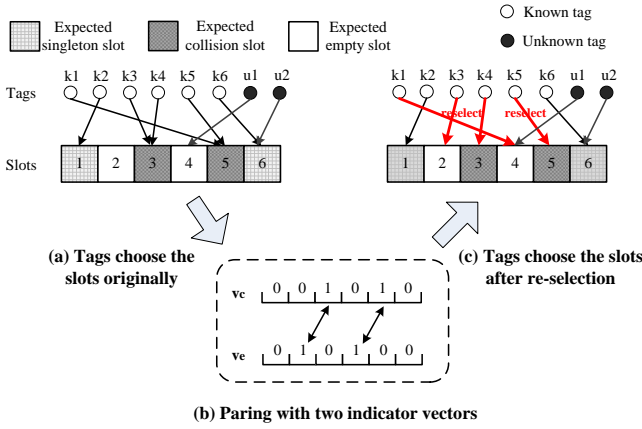


Fig. 2. The process of slot pairing: (a) before slot reselection (same as BUIP); (b) slot pairing and reselection; (c) after slot reselection.

The known tag deactivation phase consists of multiple rounds. At the beginning of each round, the reader computes the slot indexes of expected empty slots, expected singleton slots and expected collision slots in the frame with the known tag IDs, and then constructs two indicator vectors  $v_c$  and  $v_e$ . The reader broadcasts a query  $\langle f, r \rangle$  and two indicator vectors  $v_c$  and  $v_e$ . It also broadcasts another seed  $r'$  for tags to reselect either of the two pairing slots.

Tags use the received information to determine their transmission slots. Upon receiving  $f$  and  $r$ , a tag  $t$  first calculates its slot index  $I_f(t) = H(ID||r) \bmod f$ . It then checks the bit value  $v_c[I_f(t)]$  to determine whether it should perform slot reselection or not. If  $v_c[I_f(t)] = '0'$ , the tag responds in the original chosen slot  $I_f(t)$ . If  $v_c[I_f(t)] = '1'$ , the tag needs to find its paired slot and perform reselection. Tag  $t$  determines its paired slot as previously described and randomly chooses either slot as its final transmitting slot. The reselection result is controlled by  $r'$ : If  $H(ID||r') \bmod 2 = 0$ , the tag replies in its original slot; otherwise it replies in the paired slot.

When receiving the responses from tags, the reader deactivates the known tags in expected singleton slots and labels unknown tags in expected empty slots, the same as in BUIP. Note that with  $r'$  and IDs of known tags, the reader exactly knows all reselection results of known tags. Thus the reader knows the new expected singleton slots transformed from the expected collision slots and expected empty slots after reselection.

Fig. 2 illustrates an example of SUIP. We can see that before slot pairing and reselection (Fig. 2(a), actually as same as BUIP), only one known tag ( $k_2$ ) can be deactivated. In contrast, after slot pairing and reselection, four known tags ( $k_2$ ,  $k_3$ ,  $k_4$ , and  $k_5$ ) can be recognized and deactivated. Fig. 2 also illustrates the negative effects of slot pairing on unknown tag recognition. In Fig. 2(a) the unknown tag  $u_1$  can be recognized. However, after slot pairing and reselection, there are no expected empty slots and thus no unknown tags can be recognized. As

the execution time of our protocols is mainly affected by the efficiency in deactivating known tags, SUIP achieves much better overall performance than BUIP.

## 6 MUIP: MULTI-PAIRING UNKNOWN TAG IDENTIFICATION PROTOCOL

In this section, we propose a Multi-pairing Unknown tag Identification Protocol (MUIP) that resolves collision slots with a higher probability and further improves the efficiency in deactivating known tags.

### 6.1 Protocol Overview

MUIP is similar to SUIP except that it makes two changes to further resolve the collisions between tags.

First, MUIP provides multiple chances to separate collided known tags between pairing slots, which could resolve the expected collision slots with a higher probability. Reselecting with one seed  $r_i$  as in SUIP, colliding tags could be separated with a probability of only about 50%. We observe that a collision slot that cannot be resolved with  $r_i$  may be resolved with another seed  $r_j$ . If the reader sends *multiple seeds* and let tags use the most suitable one, more collision slots could be resolved.

Second, in MUIP, unknown tags label themselves without sending responses to the reader, which avoids collisions between unknown tags and known tags in expected empty slots after slot reselection. An expected empty slot may be actually *non-empty* if some unknown tags hash to it. When a known tag reselects such a non-empty slot, it would collide with the unknown tags and cannot be deactivated successfully. For example, as shown in Fig. 2, although  $k_1$  reselects the expected empty slot 4 which resolves the collision in slot 5, it collides with  $u_1$  and still cannot be deactivated. If we can guarantee that the paired slots are actually empty, the reader would deactivate more known tags.

### 6.2 Slot Reselection Using Multiple Seeds

The reader will send  $h$  seeds  $\{r_1, r_2, \dots, r_h\}$  to provide multiple reselection chances for known tags that hash to expected collision slots. Then the collided tags have  $h$  possible reselection results by hashing with the  $h$  seeds. If one of these results separates the collided known tags (i.e., at least one expected singleton slots will be generated with a seed  $r_i$ ), the expected collision slot could be resolved successfully. Remember that, when reselecting with a seed  $r_i$ , the tag calculates  $H(ID||r_i) \bmod 2$ . It replies in its original slot if the value equals 0, and replies in the paired slot otherwise. The process that a tag finds its paired slot is the same as in SUIP.

The reader examines the hash results of the known tags with the  $h$  seeds, and determines which one should be used for each expected collision slot. The problem is how to inform different known tags that which seed is the suitable one.



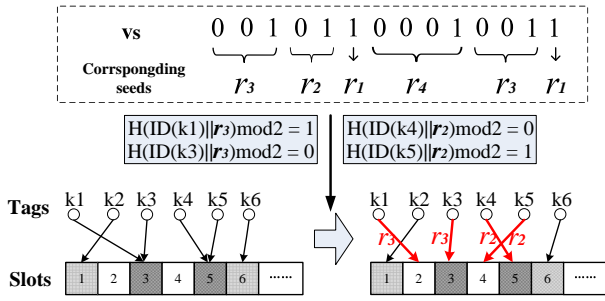


Fig. 3. The process of multiple reselections: Tags mapped to different expected collision slots use different seeds in slot reselection.

We exploit a *seed-selection vector*  $\mathbf{v}_s$  to indicate the suitable seed assigned for each expected collision slot.  $\mathbf{v}_s$  consists of  $n_c$  elements, where  $n_c$  is the number of expected collision slots (i.e., one element for each expected collision slot). The  $i$ -th element of  $\mathbf{v}_s$  is constructed as follows:

- If seed  $r_{l+1}$  ( $0 \leq l \leq h$ ) should be used to conduct reselection by tags mapping to the  $i$ -th collision slot, we set  $\mathbf{v}_s[i]$  as  $\underbrace{0 \dots 0}_{l} 1$ .

To obtain the assigned seed, a tag  $t$  has to find the  $I_c(t)$ -th element in  $\mathbf{v}_s$ . When  $t$  finds that it chooses an expected collision slot according to  $\mathbf{v}_c$ , it first obtains the collision index  $I_c(t)$  of its chosen slot. Then it locates the  $I_c(t)$ -th '1' in the vector  $\mathbf{v}_s$ , and counts the number of '0's of  $I_c(t)$ -th element in  $\mathbf{v}_s$  (i.e., the number of '0's between the  $(I_c(t) - 1)$ -th '1' and the  $I_c(t)$ -th '1'). If there are  $l$  '0's, then the tag uses the seed  $r_{l+1}$ . If all the  $h$  seeds cannot resolve the expected collision slot, the corresponding element in  $\mathbf{v}_s$  will be set as "1", which indicates that seed  $r_1$  should be used.

Fig. 3 illustrates an example of the construction of the indicator vector  $\mathbf{v}_s$ . We can see that in  $\mathbf{v}_s$ , each element indicates a seed. The example shows the reselection of the known tags in the first two expected collision slots. Two tags,  $k_1$  and  $k_3$ , know that they choose the first expected collision slot after receiving  $\mathbf{v}_c$  and  $\mathbf{v}_e$ . These two tags find their assigned seed  $r_3$  indicated by the first element in  $\mathbf{v}_s$ . Thus  $k_1$  and  $k_3$  reselect either of the two pairing slots with the hash function  $H(ID||r_3) \bmod 2$ . As the result,  $k_1$  chooses the second slot and  $k_3$  chooses the third slot, which resolves the first expected collision slot successfully. The reselection process of  $k_4$  and  $k_5$  in the second expected collision slot is similar.

### 6.3 Automatical Unknown Tag Labeling

Except for reselecting with a suitable seed, to successfully deactivate the known tag in the paired expected empty slot, the other condition is that the slot must be actually empty (i.e., no known tag chooses the slot). Otherwise, the reselecting known tag will collide with unknown tags. As shown in Fig. 2, the reselecting known tag  $k_1$  still collides with the unknown tag  $u_1$ . However, in

SUIP, the reader needs the responses of unknown tags in expected empty slots to label them, which consequently reduces the efficiency of known tag deactivation.

In MUIP, unknown tags label themselves if they choose expected empty slots. Obviously, if a tag chooses an expected empty slot, it must be an unknown tag. In this case, the tag could label itself without receiving the NAK from the reader. A tag could test whether it chooses an expected empty slot by checking corresponding bit in the indicator vector  $\mathbf{v}_e$  at the location of its slot index. If the bit value is '1', it labels itself without responding to the reader. Otherwise, it determines its slot and responds to the reader in the chosen slot.

### 6.4 MUIP Description

The known tag deactivation phase of MUIP consists of multiple rounds. At the beginning of each round, the reader broadcasts a query  $\langle f, r \rangle$  and three indicator vectors  $\mathbf{v}_c$ ,  $\mathbf{v}_e$  and  $\mathbf{v}_s$ . It also broadcasts  $h$  reselection seeds  $\{r_1, r_2, \dots, r_h\}$  for tags to reselect either of the two pairing slots. Upon receiving these parameters, tags determine their transmission slots. Assume that tag  $t$  originally selects slot  $k$ . It checks the expected status of its chosen slot in both  $\mathbf{v}_c$  and  $\mathbf{v}_e$ :

- If  $\mathbf{v}_c[k] = '0'$  and  $\mathbf{v}_e[k] = '0'$ , which indicates that it chooses an expected singleton slot, the tag responds to the reader in the chosen slot  $k$ .
- If  $\mathbf{v}_c[k] = '0'$  and  $\mathbf{v}_e[k] = '1'$ , which indicates that it chooses an expected empty slot, the tag labels itself and keeps silence until receiving the ID-collection command.
- If  $\mathbf{v}_c[k] = '1'$ , which indicates that it chooses an expected collision slot, the tag needs to reselect its transmission slot. It first examines its paired slot in  $\mathbf{v}_e$  and then reselects its slot with the assigned seed indicated in  $\mathbf{v}_s$ . The tag responds to the reader in the reselected slot.

When receiving responses from tags, the reader deactivates known tags in expected singleton slots and labels unknown tags in expected empty slots as done in SUIP.

## 7 ANALYSES OF SUIP AND MUIP

In this section, we analyze the performance of SUIP and MUIP. As shown in Section 4.4, the average time to deactivate a known tag is inversely proportional to  $P_d$ , thus we mainly focus on analyzing  $P_d$  in SUIP and MUIP.

### 7.1 Analysis of SUIP

Without loss of generality, we consider an arbitrary slot in the  $i$ -th round. Denote by  $P_E$ ,  $P_S$ ,  $P_C$  the probability that this slot is an expected empty slot, an expected singleton slot, and an expected collision slot, all before slot pairing and reselection, respectively. Denote by  $P\{D|S\}$  the probability that a known tag is deactivated in an expected singleton slot. Similarly, denote by  $P\{D|C\}$  and

$P\{D|E\}$  the probability that a known tag is deactivated in an expected collision and in an expected empty slot after slot reselection, respectively. Then we have

$$P_d = P_S * P\{D|S\} + P_C * P\{D|C\} + P_E * P\{D|E\}. \quad (5)$$

It is easy to calculate  $P_E$ ,  $P_S$  and  $P_C$  as

$$P_E = e^{-n_i/f_i}, P_S = \frac{n_i}{f_i} e^{-n_i/f_i}, P_C = 1 - P_E - P_S,$$

where  $f = m_i + n_i - 1$ . In the following, we discuss how to calculate  $P\{D|S\}$ ,  $P\{D|C\}$  and  $P\{D|E\}$ .

**Calculation of  $P\{D|S\}$ :** As same as in BUIP, the probability that a known tag can be deactivated in an expected singleton slot equals the probability that no unknown tag selects this slot, i.e.,

$$P\{D|S\} = (1 - \frac{1}{f_i})^{m_i} \approx e^{-m_i/f_i}. \quad (6)$$

**Calculation of  $P\{D|C\}$ :** For an expected collision slot, we denote by  $P_C(k_1, k_2)$  the conditional probability that exactly  $k_1$  known tags and  $k_2$  unknown tags select it. Because all the  $n_i$  known tags select replying slot independently,  $k_1$  follows a binomial distribution  $B(n_i, 1/f_i)$  that can be approximated with a *Poisson distribution* with parameter  $\lambda_n = n_i/f_i$ . Similarly,  $k_2$  also follows a Poisson distribution with parameter  $\lambda_m = m_i/f_i$ . Noting  $\lambda_n + \lambda_m \approx 1$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} P_C(k_1, k_2) &= \frac{1}{P_C} * e^{-\lambda_n} * \frac{\lambda_n^{k_1}}{k_1!} * e^{-\lambda_m} * \frac{\lambda_m^{k_2}}{k_2!} \\ &\approx \frac{e^{-1} \lambda_n^{k_1} \lambda_m^{k_2}}{P_C k_1! k_2!}. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

Let  $P\{D|k_1, k_2\}$  be the probability that a known tag is deactivated in this collision slot after reselection. Then  $P\{D|k_1, k_2\}$  equals the probability that exactly one of the  $k_1$  known tags selects this slot, and the other  $k_1 - 1$  known tag(s) and  $k_2$  unknown tags all select the paired slot after reselection, which is

$$P\{D|k_1, k_2\} = k_1 * \frac{1}{2} * (1 - \frac{1}{2})^{k_1+k_2-1} = k_1 * (\frac{1}{2})^{k_1+k_2}. \quad (8)$$

Combining equation 7 and equation 8, we have (the detailed derivation is given in Appendix)

$$\begin{aligned} P\{D|C\} &= \sum_{k_1=2}^{n_i} \sum_{k_2=0}^{m_i} P_C(k_1, k_2) * P\{D|k_1, k_2\} \\ &\approx \frac{e^{-1/2} \lambda_n}{2 * P_C} (1 - e^{-\lambda_n/2}). \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

**Calculation of  $P\{D|E\}$ :** An expected empty slot needs to satisfy three conditions to be able to deactivate a known tag: (1) it is a paired slot of some collision slot; (2) no unknown tag selects it; and (3) after reselection, only one known tag reselects it. As there are  $f_i * P_E$  expected empty slots and only  $f_i * P_C$  expected collision slots, the probability for an expected empty slot to satisfy the first condition is  $(f_i * P_C)/(f_i * P_E) = P_C/P_E$ . The probability to satisfy the second condition is approximately  $e^{-m_i/f_i}$ .

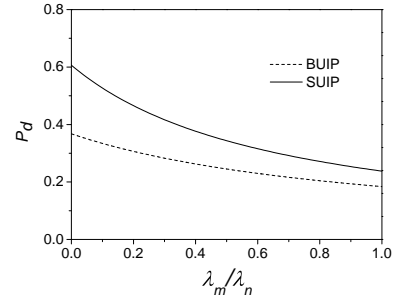


Fig. 4.  $P_d$  in SUIP vs.  $P_d$  in BUIP when  $\lambda_m/\lambda_n$  varies.

The probability to satisfy the third condition equals  $P\{D|C\}$ . Thus, we can calculate  $P\{D|E\}$  as

$$P\{D|E\} = \frac{P_C}{P_E} * e^{-m_i/f_i} * P\{D|C\}. \quad (10)$$

Substituting equations 6, 9, 10 into equation 5, we obtain

$$P_d = \lambda_n e^{-1} + \frac{e^{-1/2} \lambda_n}{2} (1 - e^{-\lambda_n/2}) (1 + e^{\lambda_m}). \quad (11)$$

**Remark 2:** In SUIP,  $P_d$  is a monotonically decreasing function of  $\lambda_m/\lambda_n$ , and it achieves maximum value when  $\lambda_n = 1$  (i.e.,  $\lambda_m = 0$ ), which is

$$P_d^{max} = e^{-1} + e^{-1/2} (1 - e^{-1/2}) \approx 0.6065. \quad (12)$$

Fig. 4 plots  $P_d$  in SUIP vs.  $P_d$  in BUIP when  $\lambda_m/\lambda_n$  increases from 0 to 1. We observe significant increase of  $P_d$  in SUIP compared with in BUIP:  $P_d$  in SUIP is 65 percent higher than that in BUIP when  $\lambda_m/\lambda_n = 0$  (i.e., there are no unknown tags in the system), and is 29 percent higher when  $\lambda_m/\lambda_n = 1$  (i.e., when  $n_i = m_i$ ). The improvement gradually decreases due to interferences caused by unknown tags.

## 7.2 Analysis of MUIP

### 7.2.1 Impact of $h$ on $P_d$

In this section we derive  $P_d(h)$ , the probability that a known tag can be deactivated in an arbitrary slot when  $h$  reselection seeds are used. We denote by  $P_h\{D|C\}$  and  $P_h\{D|E\}$  the probability that a known tag is deactivated in an expected collision slot and in an expected empty slot when  $h$  seeds are used, respectively. Using the same notations defined in Section 7.1, we have

$$P_d(h) = P_S * P\{D|S\} + P_C * P_h\{D|C\} + P_E * P_h\{D|E\}. \quad (13)$$

Recall that the probability of a known tag  $t$  can be deactivated in an original expected collision slot with one seed is  $P\{D|C\}$ . Thus the probability that  $t$  cannot be deactivated with all of the  $h$  seeds is  $(1 - P\{D|C\})^h$ , which leads to

$$P_h\{D|C\} = 1 - (1 - P\{D|C\})^h. \quad (14)$$

As in SUIP, we can calculate  $P_h\{D|E\}$  as

$$P_h\{D|E\} = \frac{P_C}{P_E} * e^{-m_i/f_i} * P_h\{D|C\}. \quad (15)$$



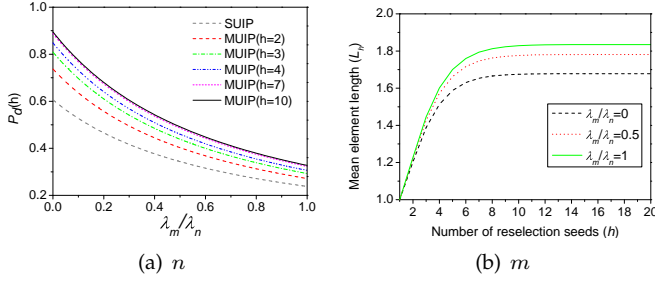


Fig. 5. (a)  $P_d(h)$  in MUIP vs.  $P_d$  in SUIP when  $\lambda_m/\lambda_n$  varies, and (b) Mean segment length when  $h$  increases.

TABLE 1  
Ratio of singleton slots in MUIP and MIC [28] with different  $h$ .

$h$	2	3	4	5	6	7
MIC	0.580	0.696	0.764	0.808	0.839	0.861
MUIP	0.607	0.737	0.809	0.849	0.870	0.881

Substituting equations 14, 15 into equation 13, we have

$$P_d(h) = \lambda_n e^{-1} + P_C * (1 + e^{1-\lambda_n}) * \Psi, \quad (16)$$

where

$$\Psi = 1 - \left[ 1 - \frac{e^{-1/2}\lambda_n}{2 * P_C} (1 - e^{-\lambda_n/2}) \right]^h. \quad (17)$$

**Remark 3:** When  $\lambda_m/\lambda_n$  is fixed,  $P_d(h)$  is a monotonically increasing function of  $h$ .

*Proof:* From equation 17 it is easy to see that  $\Psi$  is a monotonically increasing function of  $h$ , which immediately implies Remark 3 according to equation 16.  $\square$

Fig. 5(a) plots  $P_d(h)$  for different  $h$  when  $\lambda_m/\lambda_n$  varies from 0 to 1. We observe that when  $h$  is small (e.g., when  $h = 2, 3, 4$ ), increasing  $h$  can significantly increase  $P_d(h)$ . On the other hand, when  $h$  is large enough, increasing  $h$  leads only marginal increase of  $P_d(h)$ . For example, we can observe that  $P_d(10)$  is nearly the same as  $P_d(7)$ . Actually, the increase of  $h$  cannot arbitrarily increase  $P_d(h)$ : Because  $\lim_{h \rightarrow \infty} \Psi = 1$ , we have

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow \infty} P_d(h) = \lambda_n e^{-1} + P_C * (1 + e^{1-\lambda_n}). \quad (18)$$

When simulating MUIP in Section 10, we set  $h = 7$ .

### 7.2.2 Multiple Reselections Technique Efficiency

We compare the performance of our multi-pairing technique with the multiple hashing approach MIC proposed in [28] from two aspects: The probability of a slot becoming singleton when  $h$  seeds are used, and the total length of the bit vectors sent from the reader to tags.

TABLE 1 lists the ratio of expected singleton slots in MUIP and MIC when different number of seeds are used. It shows that MUIP generates more singleton slots than MIC does with the same number of seeds. In MIC, the colliding tags can reselect any slot that has not been occupied. With one reselection chance, the probability

that a colliding tag can reselect an expected singleton slot is about  $1/e \approx 0.368$ . Thus the efficiency of this technique is affected mainly by the number of reselection chances. On the other hand, in MUIP, a colliding tag reselects between two paired slots. For a two-collision slot (i.e. the collision is caused by two tags responding simultaneously), the slot pairing technique has a probability of 0.5 to generate two expected singleton slots. For a collision slot in which  $k$  tags responding, slot pairing can still generate one expected singleton slot with a probability of  $k/2^{k-1}$ . The efficiency of MUIP is affected mainly by the number of colliding tags in a slot. With the optimal frame size in both MUIP and MIC, most collisions are two-collisions. As a result, MUIP performs better than MIC.

In MIC, for every slot the reader broadcasts three bits to represent the seed index that tags mapped to this slot should use to select replying slot. Thus the total number of bits broadcasted in MIC is  $3 * f_i$ . In contrast, in MUIP the reader broadcasts two  $f_i$ -bits long vectors to notify tags which slots are empty and collision. Besides, in MUIP the reader also broadcasts a seed-selection vector  $\mathbf{v}_s$  for only collision slots. Let  $L_h$  be the mean length of elements in  $\mathbf{v}_s$ . The total number of bits broadcasted in MUIP is  $2 * f_i + f_i * P_C * L_h$ , where  $P_C$  is the probability that a slot is collision.

We derive  $L_h$  as follows. Recall that in MUIP if the  $l$ -th seed should be used in slot reselection, the length of corresponding element is  $l$ . Denote by  $P_s(l)$  the probability that the  $l$ -th seed should be used in slot reselection. Noting that the first seed is used when none of the  $h$  seeds can resolve the collision slot, we can calculate the mean element length as

$$L_h = 1 * \left[ 1 - \sum_{l=2}^h P_s(l) \right] + \sum_{l=2}^h l * P_s(l). \quad (19)$$

$P_s(l)$  equals the probability that the collision slot cannot be resolved by  $r_1, \dots, r_{l-1}$  but can be resolved by  $r_l$ , thus

$$P_s(l) = (1 - P\{D|C\})^{l-1} * P\{D|C\}. \quad (20)$$

Substituting equation 20 into equation 19, with a given  $\lambda_m/\lambda_n$ , we can calculate  $L_h$  for different  $h$ . Fig. 5(b) plots  $L_h$  for different  $\lambda_m/\lambda_n$  when  $h$  increases. When  $h = 7$  and  $\lambda_m/\lambda_n = 0$ , i.e., the scenario that MIC addresses,  $L_h \approx 1.6533$ . Note that  $P_C = 1 - e^{-n_i/f_i} - \frac{n_i}{f_i} e^{-n_i/f_i} \leq 1 - 2 * e^{-1} \approx 0.2642$  when  $\frac{n_i}{f_i} \leq 1$ . Thus the total number of bits broadcasted in MUIP is only  $2 * f_i + f_i * P_C * L_h \leq (2 + 0.2642 * 1.6533) * f_i = 2.4369 * f_i$ , much less than the  $3 * f_i$  bits in MIC.

It can also be observed from Fig. 5(b) that  $L_h$  is always smaller than 2, which shows that our approach represents seed index more efficiently than MIC does. The small average length of elements owe to the variable length coding of the seed index: Most collision slots are resolved by the first or the second seed (see Fig. 5(a)), and when none of the  $h$  seeds can resolve the collision slot we just use the first seed.

## 8 FAULT TOLERANCE

In this section we discuss how to cope with channel errors to enhance the robustness of our protocols.

### 8.1 Reader to Tag Transmission Error

The indicator vector transmitted from the reader to tags might be corrupted due to channel errors. If the bit corresponding to a tag's replying slot is incorrectly received (i.e., the sent bit is "0" but the received bit is "1" or vice versa), the tag might take incorrect actions. In order to help tags check whether the received information is correct or not, we can add a cyclic-redundancy check (CRC) code in each segment when transmitting the indicator vector. For example, we can divide the indicator vector into 80 bits long segments and add a 16 bits CRC code to each segment. After receiving the indicator vector, the tag first checks whether its indicator bit is correctly received. If the segment is correctly received, the tag takes its action according to its corresponding bit as described in our protocols. Otherwise, it does not participate in the current round, but will keep active to participate in the next round. For SUIP and MUIP, a tag participates in the current round only when it correctly receives all its corresponding bits.

With this mechanism, the correctness of our protocols can be guaranteed even when transmission error happens. The key point to guarantee the correctness of our protocols is that the reader have to correctly trace how many known tags have been deactivated, according to which it determines when to terminate the first phase. Recall that the reader deactivates known tags only when it receives exact one reply in expected singleton slots. If a known tag receives corrupted information, it will not participate in the current round. However, the other unknown tags selecting the same slot, if there are some, will also not participate in the current round due to transmission error. Thus the reader will not receive any response in the slot. If the reader receives no reply in an expected singleton slot, it skips this slot and does not count the corresponding known tag as being deactivated. In this way, the reader can trace the *correct number of deactivated known tags*, and thus can guarantee the correctness of the protocols.

The time efficiency of the protocols would degrade slightly when we use this scheme. The EPC C1G2 specification [2] provides two types of CRC code: CRC16 that uses 16 bits and CRC5 that uses 5 bits. If we adopt CRC16, according to the time setting given in the specification [2], in each round the execution time of BUIP will be increased by

$$\frac{t_{ID} * (\frac{f_i}{80} - \frac{f_i}{96})}{t_{ID} * \frac{f_i}{96} + f_i * t_l} = \frac{2.4 * (\frac{1}{80} - \frac{1}{96})}{2.4 * \frac{1}{96} + 0.44} = 0.0108, \quad (21)$$

which is only about 1.1 percent. Similarly, when CRC16 is used, the execution time of SUIP and MUIP will be increased by no more than 2 percent and 3 percent,

respectively. If we use the shorter CRC5 code, the execution time will be increased by only 0.3, 0.6, and 0.8 percent in BUIP, SUIP, and MUIP, respectively.

### 8.2 Tag to Reader Transmission Error

Our protocols can tolerate the tag to reader transmission errors. Note that in our protocols tags transmit 16-bits long short responses (*RN16*) to the reader rather than a single bit. The main purpose of the responses is to help the reader differentiate different status of a slot (e.g., empty, singleton, or collision) to recognize known tags and unknown tags. The transmission error will not affect the status of a slot, and thus will not break the correctness of our protocols.

## 9 ZERO-COST ESTIMATION OF UNKNOWN TAGS

Our protocols need to know the number of active unknown tags ( $m_i$ ) to set the optimal frame size. If we use a separate estimation algorithm [35]–[38] to estimate  $m_i$ , it will inevitably increase the execution time. We develop a zero-cost estimation algorithm to estimate  $m_i$  by using the information collected in the deactivation phase.

The algorithm is motivated by the observation that the actual status of a slot may differ from its expected status because of unknown tags' interference. For example, if an unknown tag replies in an expected empty (singleton) slot, the actual status of the slot will be singleton (collision). The ratio of slots whose actual status are different from their expected status is related to the number of active unknown tags, i.e.,  $m_i$ . Thus, by counting how many slots change their status in the previous round, we can estimate  $m_i$  in the current round.

Our estimation algorithm works as following. Consider the  $i$ -round in which there are  $n_i$  known tags and  $m_i$  unknown tags, respectively, and assume that the frame size is  $f_i$ . Let  $R_U$  be the ratio of tags whose actual status differ from expected status. For slot  $S$ , its actual status differs from its expected status if and only if there are at least one unknown tags select  $S$ , with probability

$$1 - (1 - \frac{1}{f_i})^{m_i} \approx 1 - e^{-m_i/f_i}. \quad (22)$$

If we know  $R_U$  and  $f_i$ , we can estimate  $m_i$  by letting

$$R_U = 1 - e^{-m_i/f_i}, \quad (23)$$

from which we can derive that

$$m_i = -f_i * \ln(1 - R_U). \quad (24)$$

The problem is that  $f_i$  also depends on  $m_i$  (recall that  $f_i$  should be set to  $n_i + m_i - 1$ ). To solve this dilemma, we assume  $m_1 = 0$  and set  $f_1 = n$  in the first round. At the end of the first round, the reader can obtain  $R_U$  by counting the number of slots changed from empty to non-empty or from singleton to collision. It then estimates  $m_1$  with equation 24. Note that  $m_1$  is

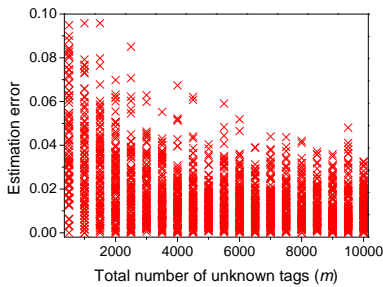


Fig. 6. Estimation error when  $m$  changes ( $n=10,000$ ).

the number of active unknown tags *at the beginning of this round*, but we need to know the number of active known tags *at the end of this round* to set the frame size in the next round. Let  $\Delta m_1$  be the number of labelled unknown tags in the first round, then we have

$$m_2 = m_1 - \Delta m_1. \quad (25)$$

We then can use  $m_2$  to set frame size in the second round. With this method, we can estimate  $m_{i+1}$  with the information collected in the  $i$ -th round and set the frame size in the  $(i+1)$ -th round accordingly.

We estimate the number of the labelled unknown tags in the  $i$ -th round, i.e.,  $\Delta m_i$ , as following. Let  $r_e$  be the ratio of expected empty slots in the  $i$ -th round. Because unknown tags select their transmission slots uniformly,  $\Delta m_i$  can be estimated as

$$\Delta m_i = m_i * r_e, \quad (26)$$

where  $r_e$  can be calculated as the ratio of the number of expected empty slots  $N_e$  to the total number of slots in the frame, i.e.,

$$r_e = \frac{N_e}{f_i}. \quad (27)$$

Fig. 6 plots the estimation error of our algorithm when  $m$  varies from 500 to 10000 stepped by 500, assuming  $n = 10000$ . For each  $m$  we plot the estimation error of our algorithm in 100 independent executions of BUIP. It can be seen that the estimation error decreases along with the increase of  $m$ , and is smaller than 0.05 in most cases. We point out here that our estimation algorithm incurs no additional cost to our unknown tag identification protocols, because it utilizes the information collected in the  $i$ -th round to estimate  $m_{i+1}$  in the  $(i+1)$ -th round.

## 10 PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

### 10.1 Simulation settings

We develop a simulator with JAVA to evaluate the performance of our protocols. Our protocols are compared with two methods: A *Baseline* method that collects IDs of all the tags in the system, and an *Ideal* method that collects IDs of only unknown tags. The execution time of the Baseline method is an upper bound on the time needed to identify all the unknown tags, and the execution time of the Ideal method represents a lower bound.

We also compare our protocols with the CU scheme [19], which is the most efficient probabilistic unknown tag identification algorithm up to now.

We adopt the timing scheme specified for the EPC Global Class 1 Generation 2 UHF tags [2] to compute the execution time of different protocols. We set the bidirectional transmission rate between the reader and tags at 62.5 Kbps. With this setting, it takes about 2.4ms to transmit a tag ID and 0.44ms to transmit a 16-bit short response, i.e.,  $t_{ID} = 2.4ms$  and  $t_l = 0.44ms$ . An empty slot takes 0.184ms. A slot in CU takes the same time as an empty slot.

The main performance metric is the execution time. We consider two system parameters, the number of known tags ( $n$ ) and the number of unknown tags ( $m$ ), and tune their values to study their impacts on the execution time of different protocols. Their default values are set as  $n = 10,000$  and  $m = 2,000$ , respectively. For MUIP, we set the number of reselection seeds at  $h = 7$ . For every parameter setting, we run the considered protocols in 100 independent instances and report the average data.

We use the approach proposed in [27] to detect missing tags before executing our protocols, and add this overhead to the execution time of our protocols when comparing with other approaches. We implement the DFSA [33] protocol to identify unknown tags in CU and our protocols. When implementing DFSA, we use the optimal frame size, which is fair to all the considered approaches. We note that the identification throughput may degrade in real environments [14], [23]. However, as this will affect the performance of the considered protocols in the same way, we do not consider this issue in our paper.

### 10.2 Deactivation Time

We first investigate how the number of known tags ( $n$ ) and the number of unknown tags ( $m$ ) affect the deactivation time (i.e., the execution time of the first phase) in our protocols. Intuitively, the larger  $n$  and  $m$  are, the longer time needed to deactivate all the known tags in the first phase. Fig. 7(a) plots the deactivation time of the three protocols when  $n$  changes. We observe that when there are more known tags, the deactivation time in all the three protocols increases. SUIP and MUIP outperform BUIP by using slot pairing and multiple reselections, which greatly increases the probability  $P_d$  and consequently decreases the amortized cost to deactivate a known tag. Compared with BUIP, SUIP and MUIP reduce deactivation time by up to 15 percent and 19 percent, respectively.

As we have pointed out in the design of our protocols, replies from unknown tags will disturb the recognition of known tags and thus increase the deactivation time. Fig. 7(b) plots the deactivation time in the three protocols when  $m$  increases. In all the three protocols, the deactivation time increases when  $m$  increases. However, SUIP

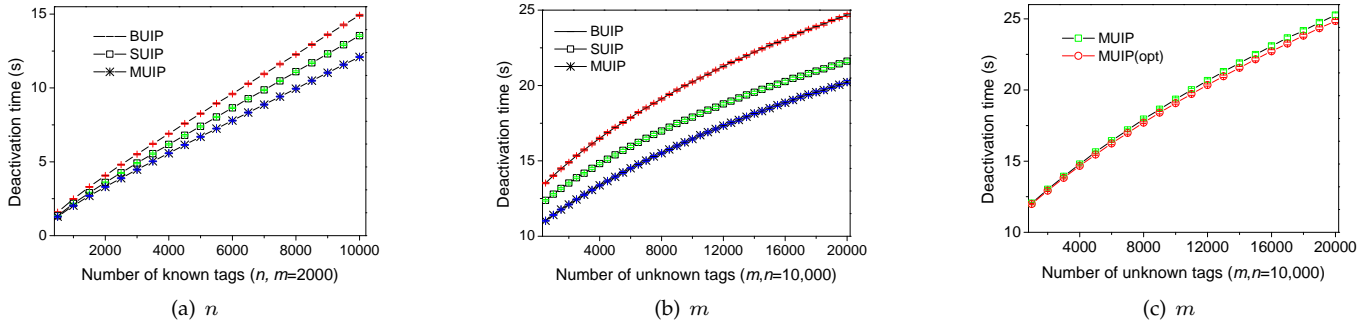


Fig. 7. Deactivation time of different protocols: (a) when  $n$  changes; (b) when  $m$  changes; (c) Impact of estimation error.

and MUIP always outperform BUIP due to their ability to deactivate known tags in the original collision/empty slots by slot pairing. Compared with BUIP, the deactivation time in SUIP and MUIP is reduced by 12 percent and 19 percent, respectively.

Fig. 7(c) plots the impact of estimation error in the number of unknown tags ( $m_i$ ) on the deactivation time of MUIP. In this figure, the line marked with MUIP(opt) demonstrates the performance of MUIP when the value of  $m_i$  is exactly known, i.e., when the estimation of  $m_i$  contains no error. It can be seen that the difference between MUIP and MUIP(opt) is very small. Compared with MUIP(opt), MUIP increases deactivation time by less than 2 percent.

### 10.3 Total Execution Time

Fig. 8(a) plots the total execution time of our three protocols and the Baseline and the Ideal method when  $n$  changes from 1000 to 10,000, assuming that  $m = 2000$ . As  $n$  increases, the execution time of our protocols gradually increases, but increases much slower than the Baseline method does. When  $n$  increases from 1000 to 10,000, the execution time of the Baseline method increases 66.7s (from 22s to 88.7s). In contrast, the execution time of BUIP, SUIP, MUIP increases only 12.4s, 11.4s, and 10.1s, respectively. Compared with the Baseline method, our best protocol MUIP saves time by up to 70 percent and 55 percent in average.

The gaps between our protocols and the Ideal method increase slightly when  $n$  increases. However, when the number of unknown tags is comparable to the number of known tags, the execution time of our best protocol is only slightly longer than the Ideal method. For example, when  $n = 1000$ , MUIP uses only 2s more time than the Ideal method (16.7s vs. 14.7s), which accounts for only 12 percent of the total execution time of MUIP. When there are much more known tags than unknown tags, our protocols need longer time to deactivate all the known tags. For example, when  $n = 10,000$ , MUIP uses 26.8s to identify all the unknown tags, while the Ideal method uses only 14.7s. In this case, the deactivation time accounts for 45 percent of the total execution time of MUIP. In cases where there are much less unknown

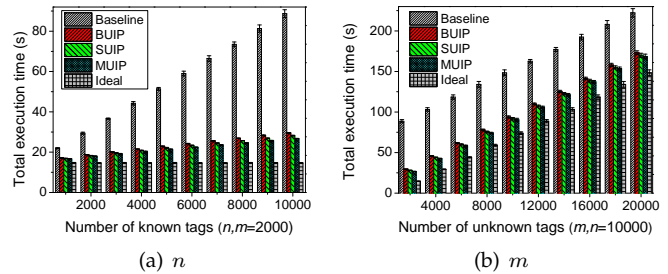


Fig. 8. The total execution time of different protocols: (a) when  $n$  changes; (b) when  $m$  changes.

tags than known tags in the system, our best protocol would perform nearly as well as the Ideal method.

Fig. 8(b) plots the execution time of different protocols when  $m$  increases from 2000 to 20,000, assuming that  $n = 10,000$ . Compared with the Baseline method, our best protocol MUIP saves 70 percent time when  $m = 2000$ . Even when  $m$  is as large as 20,000, MUIP still saves 24 percent time compared with the Baseline method. Thus our protocols can effectively reduce identification time even when there are two times more unknown tags than known tags in the system.

### 10.4 Comparison with CU

The CU scheme proposed in [19] can collect a required fraction of unknown tags with probability higher than a specified threshold  $\beta$ . We compare the time needed for CU to collect 90%, 95% and 99% unknown tags (assuming  $\beta = 0.95$ ) with the execution time of MUIP. The parameters in CU are determined by using the methods given in [19]. Table 2 lists the results, where CU(90%), CU(95%), and CU(99%) mean the time for CU to collect at least 90%, 95%, and 99% of unknown tags with probability higher than or equal to 0.95, respectively. We can see that the execution time of MUIP to identify all unknown tags is even almost less than the execution time of CU to collect only 90% of unknown tags.

MUIP outperforms CU due to the following reasons. First, MUIP runs much less rounds than CU because it can efficiently deactivate known tags. Recall that in

TABLE 2  
Execution Time of MUIP and CU When  $m$  Changes( $n = 10000$ ).

Alg. Name	Total Execution Time (s)									
	1000	2000	3000	4000	5000	6000	7000	8000	9000	10000
CU(99%)	35.17	41.28	50.43	59.71	68.85	78.29	87.37	96.55	101.0	109.8
CU(95%)	25.70	30.82	39.15	47.52	55.98	64.33	72.83	81.30	89.84	98.33
CU(90%)	19.23	27.07	35.01	42.96	51.06	59.26	67.26	75.24	83.52	<b>85.93</b>
MUIP	<b>18.65</b>	<b>26.79</b>	<b>34.78</b>	<b>42.74</b>	<b>50.70</b>	<b>58.63</b>	<b>66.54</b>	<b>74.26</b>	<b>82.53</b>	90.55

MUIP known tags can be deactivated with a very high probability in each round (up to 0.89 when  $h = 7$ ), while in CU the unknown tags can be collected in each round with probability only  $1 - e^{-1/1.443} = 0.5$ . Second, the length of each round in MUIP is significantly shorter than that in CU. In each round of CU, the frame length is  $1.443(n + m)$ , where  $n$  and  $m$  are the total number of known tags and the total number of unknown tags, respectively. In contrast, in MUIP the frame length is  $n_i + m_i - 1$ , where  $n_i$  and  $m_i$  are the number of known tags and unknown tags in the *current round*, respectively. Third, in MUIP  $n_i$  and  $m_i$  decreases after every round because some known tags are deactivated and some unknown tags are labeled. In contrast, in CU the number of active known tags are unchanged during the execution because CU does not deactivate known tags.

When  $m$  is very large, the execution time of MUIP is dominated by the time spent in the second phase, in which case CU might use shorter time than MUIP does because it will leave a significant number of tags unidentified. For example, as shown in Table 2, CU(90%) uses less time than MUIP when  $m = 10,000$ , in which case it leaves about 1000 unknown tags unidentified. However, even when  $m$  is as large as 16,000, MUIP (122.8s) still uses less time than CU(95%)(128.1s) and CU(99%)(149.9s) do.

## 11 CONCLUSION

Equally important as the missing tag identification, unknown tag identification deserves more investigation in RFID systems. It is not the reverse way of missing tag identification to completely identify unknown tags. In this paper, we propose a series of protocols to perform fast and complete unknown tag identification in a large RFID systems. Simulation results show the superior performance of the proposed protocols. While in an ideal unknown identification protocol the execution time should depend on only the number of unknown tags, in the proposed protocols the execution time is still slightly impacted by known tags to some extent. In the future, we will investigate how to further reduce the impact of known tags on collecting unknown tags.

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