

Posterior Cramér-Rao Bounds for Near-Field Radio SLAM

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Abstract

In 6G communications, the near-field region is expected to expand further, driven by the significant increase in carrier frequency and the number of antenna elements. Leveraging the spherical wave characteristics inherent to the near-field enables the acquisition of additional information. In this paper, we investigate the benefits of considering the near-field in radio simultaneous localization and mapping (SLAM) by deriving the posterior Cramér-Rao bounds (PCRBs). The theoretical analysis based on the PCRB corroborates the effectiveness of incorporating the near-field measurement in enhancing radio SLAM performance.

Index Terms—Near-field, radio SLAM, posterior Cramér-Rao bounds

I. INTRODUCTION

In the next generation of communications, the substantial increase in carrier frequency and antenna array aperture is anticipated to bring about the expansion of the near-field region [1]. The prior work [2] emphasized the efficacy of the involvement of an additional measurement in radio SLAM. This paper studies the benefits of exploiting the near-field measurement in radio SLAM, leveraging the curvature of the spherical wavefronts to estimate scatterer distances from the transmitter or receiver, hereinafter referred to as *near-field distance*. To quantify the additional information and analyze the effect of the measurement quality, the posterior Cramér-Rao bound (PCRB)-based error bounds (EBs) are derived.

II. SYSTEM MODEL

The propagation environment consists of a direct path from the base station (BS), reflected paths from the reflecting surfaces, modeled as virtual anchors (VAs), and scattering reflected paths characterized by scattering points (SPs). $\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{x}_{\text{LM}}^T, m]^T$ denotes the landmark state, where $\mathbf{x}_{\text{LM}} = [x_{\text{LM}}, y_{\text{LM}}, z_{\text{LM}}]^T$ is location for a landmark type $m \in \mathcal{M}$ with the landmark type set $\mathcal{M} = \{\text{BS}, \text{VA}, \text{SP}\}$. The BS location \mathbf{x}_{BS} is known and fixed. The environment is modeled by the landmark set $\mathcal{X} = \{\mathbf{x}^1, \dots, \mathbf{x}^I\}$ where I is the total number of landmarks.

Vehicle state at time k is denoted by $\mathbf{s}_k = [\mathbf{v}_k^T, \alpha_k, \zeta_k, \rho_k, B_k]^T$, where $\mathbf{v}_k = [x_k, y_k, z_k]^T$, α_k , ζ_k , ρ_k , and B_k are the position, heading, translation speed, turn-rate, and clock bias, respectively. The vehicle transition density is as follows.

$$f(\mathbf{s}_k | \mathbf{s}_{k-1}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{s}_k; \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{s}_{k-1}), \mathbf{Q}), \quad (1)$$

where $\mathbf{v}(\cdot)$ is a known transition function and the process noise covariance \mathbf{Q} .

In this work, we assume the BS with a single antenna and the vehicle with N -element antenna arrays. At time k , a set of measurements $\mathcal{Z}_k = \{z_k^1, \dots, z_k^{\hat{I}_k}\}$ is provided through the channel estimation at the receiver, where \hat{I}_k is the number of measurements involving misdetected measurements and clutter

measurements at time k . Each elements of the measurement set \mathcal{Z}_k can be expressed as

$$z_k^i = \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^i, \mathbf{s}_k) + \mathbf{w}_k^i, \quad (2)$$

where $\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^i, \mathbf{s}_k) = [\tau_k^i, (\boldsymbol{\theta}_k^i)^T, d_k^i]^T$ and $\mathbf{w}_k^i = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}_k^i; \mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^i)$ with a known covariance $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^i$. The ToA and near-field distance can be measured as

$$\tau_k^i = \begin{cases} \|\mathbf{v}_k - \mathbf{x}_{\text{LM}}^i\| + B_k & m^i = \text{BS}, \\ \|\mathbf{v}_k - \mathbf{x}_{\text{LM}}^i\| + \|\mathbf{x}_{\text{BS}} - \mathbf{x}_{\text{LM}}^i\| + B_k & m^i \in \{\text{VA}, \text{SP}\}, \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

$$d_k^i = \|\mathbf{v}_k - \mathbf{x}_{\text{LM}}^i\| + B_k \quad \forall m^i, \quad (4)$$

where \mathbf{x}_{LM}^i denotes the landmark location associated with the i -th path, and m^i indicates its type. The detailed formulations for the AoA in azimuth and elevation are described in [3, Appendix B].

III. FUNDAMENTAL PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS

The EBs can be obtained by recursively updating a posterior information matrix (PIM) utilizing complete states [4]. A complete state of the system can be expressed as $\check{\mathbf{s}}_k = [(\mathbf{s}_k)^T, (\mathbf{x}_{\text{LM}}^1)^T, \dots, (\mathbf{x}_{\text{LM}}^I)^T]^T$, the transition function of the complete state is denoted as $\check{\mathbf{v}}(\check{\mathbf{s}}_k) = [(\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{s}_k))^T, (\mathbf{x}_{\text{LM}}^1)^T, \dots, (\mathbf{x}_{\text{LM}}^I)^T]^T$, and the measurement function of the complete state given the true DA is denoted as $\check{\mathbf{h}}(\check{\mathbf{s}}_k) = [(\bar{\mathbf{h}}(\mathbf{x}^1, \mathbf{s}_k))^T, \dots, (\bar{\mathbf{h}}(\mathbf{x}^I, \mathbf{s}_k))^T]^T$, where

$$\bar{\mathbf{h}}(\mathbf{x}^i, \mathbf{s}_k) = \begin{cases} \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^i, \mathbf{s}_k) & \text{if } i\text{-th landmark is detected,} \\ \mathbf{0}_{d_z \times 1} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

Suppose $\check{\mathbf{H}}_k$ and $\check{\mathbf{V}}_k$ represent the Jacobian matrices of $\check{\mathbf{h}}(\check{\mathbf{s}}_k)$ and $\check{\mathbf{v}}(\check{\mathbf{s}}_k)$ with respect to $\check{\mathbf{s}}_k$, and $\check{\mathbf{Q}}_k = \text{blkdiag}(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{0}_{3I \times 3I})$ and $\check{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_k = \text{blkdiag}(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^1, \dots, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^I)$ denote the complete form of process and measurement noise covariances, respectively. The PIM can be described as a recursive formulation,

$$\mathbf{J}_k = \check{\mathbf{H}}_k^T \check{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_k^{-1} \check{\mathbf{H}}_k + (\check{\mathbf{Q}}_k + \check{\mathbf{V}}_k \mathbf{J}_{k-1}^{-1} \check{\mathbf{V}}_k^T)^{-1}. \quad (6)$$

The positioning EB (PEB), heading EB (HEB), and clock bias EB (CEB) of the vehicle at time k can be computed as

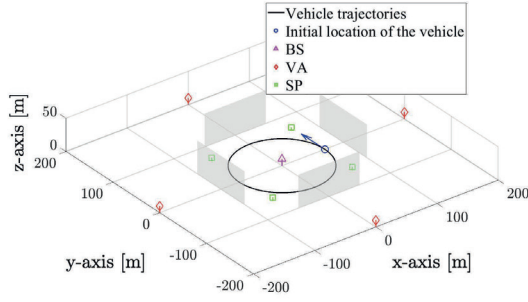


Fig. 1: Vehicle trajectories and map of the simulation environment with 1 BS, 4 VAs, and 4 SPs.

$\sqrt{\sum_{\mu=1}^3 [J_k]_{\mu,\mu}^{-1}}$, $\sqrt{[J_k]_{4,4}^{-1}}$, and $\sqrt{[J_k]_{7,7}^{-1}}$, respectively, and the landmark EB (LEB) of i -th landmark at time k can be computed as $\sqrt{\sum_{\mu=3i+5}^{3i+7} [J_k]_{\mu,\mu}^{-1}}$.

The first term in (6) represents the information from the measurements at time k , denoted as $J_{D,k}$, and the second term represents the prior information matrix at time k , denoted as $J_{P,k}$. The near-field distance only contributes to $J_{D,k}$, and it can be expressed as two diagonal blocks related to the vehicle state and i -th landmark, respectively,

$$[J_{D,k}]_{1:7,1:7} = \sum_{i=1}^I \left(\frac{\partial \hat{h}(\mathbf{x}^i, \mathbf{s}_k)}{\partial \mathbf{s}_k} \right)^\top (\hat{\Sigma}_k^i)^{-1} \left(\frac{\partial \hat{h}(\mathbf{x}^i, \mathbf{s}_k)}{\partial \mathbf{s}_k} \right) + \sum_{i=1}^I \left(\frac{\partial d_k^i}{\partial \mathbf{s}_k} \right)^\top (\sigma_{d,k}^i)^{-2} \left(\frac{\partial d_k^i}{\partial \mathbf{s}_k} \right), \quad (7)$$

$$[J_{D,k}]_{3i+5:3i+7,3i+5:3i+7} = \left(\frac{\partial \hat{h}(\mathbf{x}^i, \mathbf{s}_k)}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{LM}^i} \right)^\top (\hat{\Sigma}_k^i)^{-1} \left(\frac{\partial \hat{h}(\mathbf{x}^i, \mathbf{s}_k)}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{LM}^i} \right) + \left(\frac{\partial d_k^i}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{LM}^i} \right)^\top (\sigma_{d,k}^i)^{-2} \left(\frac{\partial d_k^i}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{LM}^i} \right), \quad (8)$$

where $\hat{h}(\mathbf{x}^i, \mathbf{s}_k) = [\hat{h}(\mathbf{x}^i, \mathbf{s}_k)]_{1:3}$, $\hat{\Sigma}_k^i = [\Sigma_k^i]_{1:3,1:3}$, and $\sigma_{d,k}^i$ is the standard deviation of the near-field distance measurement noise. The second terms in both (7) and (8) contain non-negative information of both vehicle state and landmarks, which can improve the accuracy of the mapping and vehicle state estimation.

IV. RESULTS

We consider 3D vehicular networks with a single BS, four flat walls, and four SPs, as shown in Fig. 1. The vehicle is moving on a circular road around the BS according to the dynamics (1), with the transition function $v(\cdot)$ [3, Sec. VI] and the process noise modeled as additive zero-mean Gaussian, where its covariance is $\mathbf{Q} = \text{diag}[0.04 \text{ m}^2, 0.04 \text{ m}^2, 0, 10^{-6} \text{ rad}^2, 0, 0, 0.04 \text{ m}^2]$. The measurement noise covariance is set to $\Sigma_k^i = \text{diag}[0.04 \text{ m}^2, 4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ rad}^2, 4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ rad}^2, \sigma_d^2]$. The BS is located at $[0 \text{ m}, 0 \text{ m}, 10 \text{ m}]^\top$, four VAs are located at $[\pm 200 \text{ m}, 0 \text{ m}, 10 \text{ m}]^\top$ and $[0 \text{ m}, \pm 200 \text{ m}, 10 \text{ m}]^\top$, and four SPs

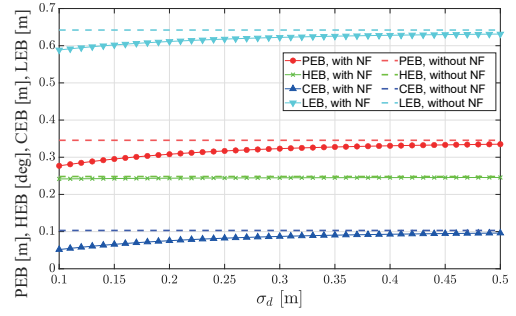


Fig. 2: The PEB, HEB, CEB, and average LEB along σ_d from 0.1 to 0.5, compared with the corresponding lower bounds without exploiting near-field distance.

are located at $[\pm 65 \text{ m}, 65 \text{ m}, 5 \text{ m}]^\top$ and $[\pm 65 \text{ m}, -65 \text{ m}, 5 \text{ m}]^\top$. The additional settings and descriptions for the other parameters are provided in [3].

To demonstrate the contribution of exploiting the near-field distance, we derived the PCRB in Section III. The EBs along the different values of σ_d can be computed based on the PCRB, as shown in Fig. 2. The EBs of the case, considering the near-field distance, are always lower than the EBs without the near-field, where the predefined ranges of σ_d are from 0.1 to 0.5.

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we proposed the near-field radio SLAM framework leveraging the curvature of the spherical wavefronts and analyzed how the near-field distance benefits. The fundamental performance analysis indicated that incorporating the near-field distance into radio SLAM improves the performance for both vehicle state estimation and mapping. Furthermore, we observe that the more accurate estimation of the near-field distance leads to more significant improvements. The results present new opportunities for enhanced radio SLAM by exploiting new measurements, which can be acquired in future communications.

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