Generalized Hybrid Beamforming for Vehicular Connectivity using THz Massive MIMO

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Abstract—Hybrid beamforming (HBF) array structure has been extensively demonstrated as the practically-feasible architecture for massive MIMO. From the perspectives of spectral efficiency (SE), energy efficiency (EE), cost and hardware complexity, HBF strikes a balanced performance tradeoff when compared to the fully-analog and the fully-digital implementations. Using the HBF architecture, it is possible to realize three different subarray structures, specifically the fully-connected, the sub-connected and the overlapped subarray structures. This paper presents a novel generalized framework for the design and performance analysis of the HBF architecture. A parameter, known as the subarray spacing, is introduced such that varying its value leads to the different subarray configurations and the consequent changes in system performance. Using a realistic power consumption model, we investigate the performance of the generalized HBF array structure in a cellular infrastructure-to-everything (C-I2X) application scenario (involving pedestrian and vehicular users) using the single-path terahertz (THz) channel model. SPA tables are provided for the comparative performance analysis of the different subarray structures. The results show that the overlapped subarray implementation maintains a balanced tradeoff in terms of SE, EE and hardware cost when compared to the popular fully-connected and the sub-connected structures. The overlapped subarray structure, therefore, offers promising potentials for the beyond-5G networks employing THz massive MIMO to deliver ultra-high data rates whilst maintaining a balance in the EE of the network.

Index Terms—Antenna array, B5G, C-I2X, Hybrid beamforming, Massive MIMO, Terahertz, V2X.

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(0.1-10 THz)1 can provide the multi-gigahertz (GHz) contiguous bandwidths required to meet the projected throughput demands [1]–[3]. As a result, THz band communication (THzBC) has received considerable attention in the research community in the present decade. This trend is expected to continue as the progress being made in various areas of THzBC (such as electronic components, channel modeling, spectrum allocation, standardization, use cases, etc.) continue to spur further research activities [4], [5].

To enable THzBC, the transmitters (TX) and receivers (RX) must use antenna arrays with a high number of antenna elements (AEs), otherwise referred to as the large scale antenna system (LSAS) or massive multiple-input multiple-output (MIMO) [4]. This is because the free space path loss (FSPL) increases as the carrier frequency (f_c) increases, according to the fundamental Friis equation [6]. Fortunately, a 100× increase in f_c (e.g., from 6 GHz to 0.6 THz) correspondingly leads to a 100-fold reduction in wavelength (λ). As a result, the dimensions of the antenna elements as well as their inter-element spacing become incredibly small (due to their dependence on λ). It thus becomes possible to pack a large number of antenna elements in a physically-limited space thereby enabling massive MIMO [7]. Using appropriate beamforming or precoding2 techniques, massive MIMO can provide the needed array gains to counter the severe effects of the high path loss (PL) at high frequencies (e.g., mmWave, THz) and thus increase the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) for user devices. It also provides the

1The US Federal Communications Commission has, on 15 March 2019, approved a new category of experimental licenses for frequencies between 95 GHz and 3 THz for THz communications and other applications. https://docs.fcc.gov/public/attachments/DOC-356588A1.pdf

2Beamforming is used in its widest meaning, throughout this paper, such that beamforming and precoding refer to exactly the same thing and can be used interchangeably. (cf.: https://ima-mimo.ellintech.se/2017/10/03/what-is-the-difference-between-beamforming-and-precoding/).
opportunity for highly-directional beams to mitigate multi-user interference (MUI). The large arrays can also be leveraged to provide spatial multiplexing gains by transmitting multiple streams so as to boost spectral efficiency (SE) [7]–[9]. The combined benefits from the huge bandwidth in THz as well as the array and multiplexing gains from massive MIMO will lead to significant enhancement in user throughput, quality of experience (QoE) and system capacity. More so, 5G targets green (energy-efficient), soft (self-organizing) and super-fast (ultra-high rate) networks [10]. Thus, energy efficiency (EE) is a critical key performance indicator (KPI) for THz massive MIMO. The research community has thus been investigating different system architectures with a view to identifying the optimal model, not only in terms of the SE-EE performance but also with respect to the hardware requirement, cost and implementation complexity [5], [11], [12].

For massive MIMO, three beamforming architectures have been identified: (i) analog beamforming (ABF), (ii) digital beamforming (DBF) and (iii) hybrid beamforming (HBF) [7], [13]. In the ABF implementation, all the antenna elements are connected to a single radio frequency chain (RFC) via a network of phase shifters (PS). For DBF, each antenna element is connected to a dedicated RFC. The HBF architecture uses a reduced number of RFCs. It divides its structure into two stages: the large-sized ABF stage for increasing array gain and the small-sized DBF stage for mitigating MUI [8], [14], [15]. Comparing the three architectures, HBF maintains a balanced performance between the ABF (with low SE, power consumption, cost and complexity) on the one hand and the DBF (with high SE, power consumption, cost and complexity) on the other. As a result, HBF has been copiously demonstrated as the realistic and practically-feasible array structure for massive MIMO [7], [11]. It is thus the architecture of interest in this paper.

A. Related Works

Focusing on the HBF architecture, different subarray structures can be realized depending on the interconnection among the RF chains, PSs and AEs (i.e., the RF-PS-AE mapping). The three structures that have been proposed in the literature are: (i) the fully-connected structure [7], [11], [14], (ii) the sub-connected structure [11], [13], [14] (also known as the partially-connected or array-of-subarrays [5]) and (iii) the overlapped subarray structure [12], [16]. The performance analyses of these HBF structures have been investigated for diverse scenarios. The authors in [9], [11], [17] considered single-cell, single-user, multi-stream communication while the authors in [8] and [18] analyzed for the single-cell, multi-user, multi-stream system. In [19], the HBF evaluation was extended to the multi-cell, multi-user, multi-stream scenario. However, these evaluations consider the typical cellular deployments with inter-site distances (ISD) ≥ 500 m for the μWave setups and 50-200 m for the mmWave scenarios. Extension to the THz domain with ISDs ≤ 10 m, particularly for outdoor applications, is still missing.

In addition, the fully-connected and the sub-connected array structures have received considerable attention in the literature [5], [8], [11]. However, the investigation of the overlapped array structure is rather very limited [12], [16]. More so, the analyses of the HBF structures are usually done in a disjoint manner. To the best knowledge of the authors, no generalized framework is available in the literature for a comprehensive and comparative analysis of the different structures in a unified and systematic manner.

B. Contributions

In this work, we propose a novel generalized framework for the design and analysis of HBF antenna array structures. To the authors’ best knowledge, this work is the first to explore the analysis in a generalized fashion. The main contributions and results of this paper are outlined as follows:

• We develop a generalized model for the design and analysis of any HBF array structure or configuration using THz massive MIMO. We outline, in a step-wise manner, the procedures for the design and then we analyze the performance of quintessential configurations comparatively. The evaluation is done using a cellular infrastructure-to-everything (C-I2X) application scenario involving both cellular and vehicular communication.

• Using a realistic power consumption model, we assess the performance of the system not only in terms of the SE and EE but also the power and hardware cost for the network. Different from most existing works, our comprehensive power consumption model includes the TX power, the TX circuit power, RX circuit power as well as the backhaul power. Our results reveal that the backhaul power constitute the largest percentage of the total power consumption in the B5G scenario as ultra-high data rates are exchanged between the TX and the core network. This result is contrary to the situation with relatively low-rate legacy networks where the TX power takes the largest chunk.

• For all subarray structures, the EE-SE performance curves follow the typical quasi-concave (bell-shaped) trend. As the SE increases, the EE increases first, then reaches the optimal value and continues to decrease thereafter. The optimal EE point is critical for the design of energy-efficient networks.

• In between the fully-connected structure with the highest SE and the sub-connected structure with the largest EE, our results show that the overlapped subarray structures offer an exciting window for a balanced performance tradeoff, not only with respect to SE and EE but also the power and hardware costs. Thus, the overlapped configurations can be further harnessed to optimize the performance of future networks.

C. Paper Organization

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. In Section II, we present the proposed generalized HBF subarray structure, highlighting the design procedures and the practical power consumption model for the analysis. The C-I2X application scenario used in this work is presented in Section III. We describe the system model, THz channel model and the
Figure 1. Beamforming Array Structure

precoding and postcoding techniques employed in Section IV. Simulation results and discussions follow in Section V, while conclusion and the future research direction are presented in section VI.

Notations: We use the following notations throughout the paper. \( A \) is a matrix, \( a \) is a vector and \( a \) is a scalar. The identity and block diagonal matrices are denoted with \( I \) and \( \text{blkdiag} \), respectively. \( |·| \) represents the cardinality of a vector, \( ∥·∥_F \) denotes the Frobenius norm and \( [A]_{m,n} \) represents the element of matrix \( A \) in the \( m^{th} \) row and \( n^{th} \) column. The inverse, transpose and conjugate transpose operator are denoted with \((·)^{-1}\), \((·)^T\) and \((·)^H\), respectively.

II. GENERALIZED HBF ARRAY STRUCTURE

In this section, we describe the generalized model for the HBF array structure proposed in this work as shown in Fig. 1(a). We first outline the step-wise procedures for the design of the generalized framework and then introduce a realistic power consumption model for the HBF architecture.

A. Design Procedures

(i) Set the transmit power \( (P_T) \) for the BS, noting the appropriate regulation on the effective isotropic radiated power (EIRP) limits.
(ii) Set the number of AEs \( (N_{TX}) \) for the BS of the massive MIMO system under consideration.
(iii) Determine the number of RF chains \( (N_{RF}) \) based on the expected maximum multiplexing capability of the BS. Note that for any HBF structure, \( 1 < N_{RF} < N_{TX} \).
(iv) Set the inter-subarray spacing \( (\Delta N) \) where \( \Delta N \in \{0, 1, 2, \ldots, \frac{N_{TX}}{N_{RF}}\} \). For the generalized framework proposed in this work, note that \( \Delta N \) is the critical parameter that determines the specific array structure, as given by (1).

\[
\Delta N = \begin{cases} 0 & \rightarrow \text{fully-connected} \\ \left[1, \frac{N_{TX}}{N_{RF}} - 1\right] & \rightarrow \text{overlapped} \\ \frac{N_{TX}}{N_{RF}} & \rightarrow \text{sub-connected} \end{cases} 
\]  

(v) Determine the required number of PSs for each RF chain \( (N_{PS}^k, \ \forall k \in \{1, 2, \ldots, N_{RF}\}) \) using (2). The total number of required PSs \( (N_{PS}) \) for a BS is then determined using (3).

\[
N_{PS}^k = N_{TX} - \Delta N \left(\frac{N_{TX}}{N_{RF}} - 1\right) 
\]

\[
N_{PS} = \sum_{k=1}^{N_{RF}} N_{PS}^k = N_{RF} \times N_{PS}^k 
\]

(vi) For each RF chain, develop the mapping index vector \( \mathbf{m}_k \) using (4) where \( \forall k \in \{1, 2, \ldots, N_{RF}\} \). The entries in \( \mathbf{m}_k \) give the indices of the AEs connected to the \( k^{th} \) RF chain.

\[
\mathbf{m}_k = [(k-1) \Delta N + 1, \ldots, N_{TX} - \Delta N \left(\frac{N_{RF}}{N_{RF}} - k\right)] 
\]

Note that the number of AEs in a subarray \( (N_{sub}^{TX}) \) equals the number of PSs connected to each RF chain, where \( N_{sub}^{TX} = N_{PS}^k = |\mathbf{m}_k| \).

(vii) Develop the \( N_{TX} \times N_{RF} \) mapping index matrix \( (\mathbf{M}) \) by stacking the \( \mathbf{m}_k \)’s. Elements of \( \mathbf{M} \) are given by (5) and each element shows the connection index of
the $k^{th}$ RF chain to the $j^{th}$ AE, $\forall k \in \{1,2,\ldots, K\}$, $\forall j \in \{1,2,\ldots, J\}$ by letting $K = N_{RF}$ and $J = N_{TX}$. We note that $M$ becomes a block diagonal matrix for the sub-connected array structure.

\[
M = \begin{bmatrix}
m_{1,1} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
0 & m_{\Delta N+1,2} & \cdots & 0 \\
m_{N_{sub},1} & \cdots & m_{J-N_{sub}+1,K} \\
0 & \Delta N & \cdots & m_{J,K}
\end{bmatrix}
\]  
\tag{5}

(viii) Develop the $N_{TX} \times N_{RF}$ (or $J \times K$) boolean/binary matrix $B$ by replacing all nonzero elements of $M$ in (5) with ones (1’s) as shown in (6).

\[
B = \begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\
1 & \vdots & \cdots & 1 \\
0 & 1 & \cdots & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\]  
\tag{6}

(ix) Develop the $N_{TX} \times 1$ combiner vector ($g$), given by (7) indicating the number of RF chains connected to the $j^{th}$ AE.

\[
g = \begin{bmatrix}
g_1 \\
g_2 \\
\vdots \\
g_{N_{TX}}
\end{bmatrix}, \quad g_j = \sum_{k=1}^{N_{RF}} B_{j,k} \quad \forall j \in \{1,2,\ldots, N_{TX}\}
\]  
\tag{7}

(x) Determine the number of combiners ($N_{comb}$) needed for the specific array structure using (8). Note that AEs connected to just a single RF chain do not need combiners.

\[
N_{comb} = \left| \left\{ g_j > 1 \right\} \right|_{j=1}^{N_{TX}} = \begin{cases} 
N_{TX} & \text{fully-connected} \\
N_{TX} - 2 \Delta N & \text{overlapped} \\
0 & \text{sub-connected}
\end{cases}
\]  
\tag{8}

(xi) Determine the transmit beam power ($P^k_b$) for each of the $K$ beams using (9) where $(\cdot)$ is the weighting factor. The total transmit power constraint set in step (i) is enforced by (10).

\[
P^k_b = \frac{P_T}{N_{TX}} \left( \sum_{j \in m_k} (g_j)^{-1} \right) \quad \forall k \in \{1,2,\ldots, K\}
\]  
\tag{9}

Based on the enumerated design procedures, the required number of components for the different subarray configurations can be determined depending on the choice of $\Delta N$. We remark that while the design procedures outlined above focus on the BS or AP, the generalized framework is equally applicable for the RXs or UEs by replacing the appropriate TX components with the corresponding RX components. A table such as Table I can then be populated with the appropriate entries based on the values set and determined in this subsection.

In Table I, we give the values of the required number of components for the sample scenario considered in this work where the AP is equipped with $N_{TX} = 64$, $N_{RF} = 8$ and $\Delta N = \{0,2,4,6,8\}$. The AP employs the generalized structure as shown in Fig. 1. This leads to the fully-connected structure when $\Delta N = 0$ and leads to the sub-connected structure when $\Delta N = N_{TX}/N_{RF}$ while $\Delta N = \{1,2,\ldots,N_{TX}/N_{RF}-1\}$ represent the overlapped subarray structure. For the UEs, we consider $N_{RX} = 8$, $N_{RF} = 1$ and $\Delta N = 0$ for all the users $K = \{1,2,\ldots,8\}$. This corresponds to a fully-connected structure for the single stream per user ABF configuration. The numbers of the respective required components for each UE are also given in Table I.

B. Power Consumption Model

The power consumption model of the generalized HBF array structure in Fig. 1 is given in this subsection. We model a realistic power consumption framework considering not only the power consumption at the radio access network $P_{RAN}$ but also the backhaul power consumption $P_{BH}$. The total consumed power $P_{total}$ is thus given by (11).

\[
P_{total} = P_{RAN} + P_{BH}
\]  
\tag{11}

(i) RAN Power ($P_{RAN}$): For the coverage of a single BS, $P_{RAN}$ consists of the transmit power of the BS $P_T$, the circuit power of the BS $P_{cct}$ and the combined RX circuit powers $P_{cct}$ of all the $N_{UE}$ users served by the BS. Different from most existing studies [5], [11], [22], we include the power consumed by the RXs in the model.

\[
P_{RAN} = P_T + P_{cct} + N_{UE} \cdot P_{RX}
\]  
\tag{12}

(ii) Backhaul Power ($P_{BH}$): This involves the power consumed for the communication between the BS and the core network. It is dependent on the data rate ($R$) or the amount of data transferred per unit time ($\text{bits/s}$). In (13), $L_{BH} = 250 \text{ mW/(Gbits/s)}$ [21] is the power per unit data rate.

\[
P_{BH} = L_{BH} \cdot R
\]  
\tag{13}

The breakdown of the component powers, their values and number of required components are given by (16)-(18) (on the top of the next page), and in Table I and Table II, respectively. We assume a fixed miscellaneous power $P_{FIX} = 1 \text{ W}$ (noting that small cell BSs or APs do not have an active cooling
| TX Component | Unit Power Consumption | Value [mW] | RX Component | Unit Power Consumption | Value [mW] |
|--------------|------------------------|-----------|--------------|------------------------|-----------|
| $P_{DAC}$   | Digital to Analog Converter [20] | 110       | $P_{ADC}$   | Analog to Digital Converter [20] | 200       |
| $P_{MIX}$   | Mixer [5]              | 23        | $P_{MIX}$   | Mixer [5]              | 23        |
| $P_{LO}$    | Local Oscillator [5]   | 5         | $P_{LO}$    | Local Oscillator [5]   | 5         |
| $P_{LPF}$   | Low Pass Filter [5]    | 15        | $P_{LPF}$   | Low Pass Filter [5]    | 15        |
| $P_{PS}$    | Phase Shifter [20]     | 30        | $P_{PS}$    | Phase Shifter [20]     | 30        |
| $P_{PA}$    | Power Amplifier [20]   | 16        | $P_{LNA}$   | Low Noise Amplifier [20] | 30       |
| $P_{BB}$    | Baseband precoder [20] | 243       | -           | -                      | -         |
| $P_{comb}$  | Combiner [21]          | 19.5      | -           | -                      | -         |

$$P_{TX}^{ext} = N_{RF}^{TX} P_{RFC}^{TX} + N_{RF}^{TX} N_{sub} P_{PS}^{TX} + N_{TX} P_{PA} + N_{comb}^{TX} P_{comb}^{TX} + P_{BB}^{TX} + P_{FIX}$$  \[(16)\]

$$P_{RX}^{ext} = N_{RF}^{RX} P_{RFC}^{RX} + N_{RF}^{RX} N_{sub} P_{PS}^{RX} + N_{RX} P_{LNA}$$  \[(17)\]

$$P_{total}^{T} = P_{T} + \left[ N_{RF}^{TX} P_{RFC}^{TX} + N_{RF}^{TX} N_{sub} P_{PS}^{TX} + N_{TX} P_{PA} + N_{comb}^{TX} P_{comb}^{TX} + P_{BB}^{TX} + P_{FIX} \right] N_{UE} \left[ N_{RF}^{RX} P_{RFC}^{RX} + N_{RF}^{RX} N_{sub} P_{PS}^{RX} + N_{RX} P_{LNA} \right] + L_{BH} \cdot R$$  \[(18)\]

system [23]). The $P_{TX}^{RFC}$ and $P_{RX}^{RFC}$ are given by (14) and (15), respectively [5].

$$P_{TX}^{RFC} = P_{DAC} + P_{MIX} + P_{LO} + P_{LPF}$$  \[(14)\]

$$P_{RX}^{RFC} = P_{ADC} + P_{MIX} + P_{LO} + P_{LPF}$$  \[(15)\]

III. C-I2X Application Scenario

Notwithstanding the benefits that can be harnessed with THz massive MIMO, the use cases identified for THzBC are still largely limited to short-range communication scenarios. These ultra-high rate applications include terabit wireless local area network (T-WLAN), terabit wireless personal area network (T-WPAN) and on-chip/chip-to-chip communications [4]. For outdoor applications, research trends point to the viability of THzBC for cellular and vehicular networks [1]. In these two scenarios, THz access points (APs) mounted on street lampposts can be used to provide ultra-broadband connectivity to pedestrian cellular users as well as high-mobility vehicles [6], [24]. The inter-site distance (ISD) of the THz APs in such scenarios typically does not exceed 10 m due to the high path loss (PL) at THz frequencies.

The range constraint of THzBC necessitates the ultra-dense deployment of transceivers thereby leading to the DenseTeraNet Massive MIMO Networks, referred to as DenseTeraNet throughout this paper. DenseTeraNet mimics the 5G ultra-dense small cell network (UDN) framework and inherits its benefits and challenges, both features at a much larger scale.
The application scenario is shown in Fig. 2 where we consider DenseTeraNet for a cellular infrastructure to everything (C-I2X) paradigm. ‘X’ represents a combination of pedestrian users and high-mobility vehicles while ‘I’ refers the lamppost-mount AP for the downlink communication scenario.

The DenseTeraNet model is a promising candidate to offload traffic from the base stations (BSs) and provide enhanced mobile broadband (eMBB) to users in the context of cellular communications. In a similar vein, it will also support the cellular vehicle to anything (C-V2X) paradigm for next-generation vehicular networks (NGVNs). Towards 5G/B5G, the third-generation partnership project (3GPP) is pushing the limits for cellular networks while the fifth generation Automotive Association (5GAA) is driving the efforts for the commercialization of the 5G New Radio (NR) C-V2X. The partnership of the key players in the automotive and telecommunications industries aims to evolve innovative technology solutions for the future intelligent transport systems (ITS) and next-generation mobile networks (NGMN) [24].

While both the eMBB [25] and the 5G NR C-V2X [24] use cases require ultra-high rate communication, the legacy dedicated short range communication (DSRC) and the Long Term Evolution Advanced (LTE-A) can only support maximum rates of 27 and 100 Mbps, respectively [6]. These rates are grossly inadequate for the above B5G use cases foreseen with regards to the bandwidth, reliability and latency requirements. Consequently, THzBC is being identified to come to the rescue. Typical applications of the DenseTeraNet C-I2X will include autonomous driving, high-rate infotainment and ultra-reliable safety services, among others [6], [24].

B5G mobile devices and ITS-supported vehicles will, therefore, be equipped with arrays of sensors that will generate terabytes of data. On-board communication chipsets will facilitate the use and sharing of this data for diverse services and applications such as live map download, videos streaming, cloud processing, cooperative perception, platooning, intent/trajectory sharing, real-time local updates, path planning, collision avoidance, blind-spot removal and general warnings. Overall, these features will lead to enhanced vehicular safety, better traffic management, more efficient toll collection, commute time reduction and ultra-broadband connectivity for increased quality of experience (QoE) of users.

IV. System Model

Consider the network deployment layout shown in Fig. 2. We focus on the single-cell, multi-user downlink scenario where a massive MIMO AP communicates $N_{UE}$ user devices (i.e., the sum of cellular and vehicular users being scheduled in each transmission time interval (TTI)). Using the generalized structure introduced in Section II, we consider an AP employing HBF (with $N_{TX} = 64$, $N_{RX}^{TP} = 8$). At the UEs, we consider ABF (i.e., where $N_{RX} = 8$, $N_{RX}^{RF} = 1$ at each UE) thereby focusing on the multi-user beamforming case with a single stream per user, as shown in Fig. 1. The total number of streams $N_s = N_{UE} = N_{RX}^{RF} = 8$. All other necessary parameters and components have been introduced, defined and determined in Section II, and in particular in Tables I and II.

A. THz Channel Model

As shown in the network layout in Fig. 2, we consider an urban street deployment where the APs are mounted on street lampposts along a road 500 m long. The APs are evenly spaced at 10 m interval and are mounted at a height $h_{TX} = 5$ m on the walkway lampposts. All UEs are at a height $h_{RX} = 1.5$ m. Each cellular user (cUE) traverses the route at a pedestrian speed of $v_{RX} = 3.6$ km/h while each vehicular user (vUE) moves at $v_{RX} = 36$ km/h, respectively. The width ($w$) of the walkway for cUEs is 2 m while the vUEs are at a further 3 m from the walkway. At each time instant, the I2X downlink connectivity is by line of sight (LoS) as the three-dimensional (3D) separation distance ($d$) between each user and its serving AP gives a LOS probability $P_{LOS} \approx 1$, according to (19) [26].

$$P_{LOS}(d) = \left[ \min \left( \frac{27}{d}, 1 \right) \left( 1 - e^{\frac{-d}{1.7}} \right) + e^{\frac{-d}{1.7}} \right]^2$$

We consider a 3D statistical spatial channel model (SSCM) for the THz channel model. The large-scale fading is given by the effective omnidirectional path loss $PL_{eff}$ which combines the path loss (PL) and the shadow fading (SF) as (20).

$$PL_{eff} = 20 \log_{10} \left( \frac{4\pi f_c}{c} \right) + 10n \log_{10} (d) + X(0, \sigma)$$

where $n$ is the path loss exponent (PLE) and $X$ is the log-normal random SF variable with zero mean and $\sigma$ standard deviation.

For the small-scale fading, we consider a single-path channel for analytical tractability. Accordingly, the double-directional channel impulse response (CIR) $h_{dir}$ for the transmission link of each UE is given by (21).

$$h_{dir}(t, \phi, \theta) = P_{RX} \cdot e^{j\phi} \cdot \delta(t - \tau) \cdot G_{TX}(\phi, \theta) \cdot G_{RX}(\phi, \theta)$$

For the single-path channel in (21), $P_{RX}, \phi$ and $\tau$ denote the received power magnitude, phase and propagation time delay, respectively. The time is $t$ while $\phi$ and $\theta$ are the angle offsets from the boresight direction for the azimuth and elevation, respectively. It is instructive to note that for a single-path LoS channel, the offsets $(\phi, \theta) = 0$ as the angles of departure (AoD) are the same as the boresight angles, for both the azimuth and elevation. $G_{TX}(\phi, \theta)$ and $G_{RX}(\phi, \theta)$ are the TX and RX antenna array gains that are modeled with (22) and (23) [26].

$$G_{TX/RX}(\phi, \theta) = \max \left( G_0 e^{\alpha \phi^2 + \beta \theta^2}, \frac{G_0}{100} \right)$$

where $G_0$ is the maximum directive boresight gain, $\xi$ is the average antenna efficiency, $\phi_{3dB}$ and $\theta_{3dB}$ are the azimuth and elevation half-power beamwidths (HPBW), respectively. The variables $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are evaluated using (23). Further, $G_{TX}$ and $G_{RX}$, as well as the corresponding $(\phi_{3dB}^{TX}, \theta_{3dB}^{TX})$ and $(\phi_{3dB}^{RX}, \theta_{3dB}^{RX})$, are determined by the number of AEs forming a beam $N_{sub}$. As $N$ increases, $N_{sub}$ decreases (see Table I). Consequently, as we move from the fully-connected, through the overlapped subarray, to the subconnected array,
the array gain $G$ decreases. Given that $G_{AE}$ is the gain of an antenna element, $G_{TX}$ and $G_{RX}$ are given by (24) and (25), respectively [27].

$$G_{TX}(dB) = G_{AE}(dB) + 10 \log_{10}(N_{TX}^{T})$$ (24)

$$G_{RX}(dB) = G_{AE}(dB) + 10 \log_{10}(N_{RX}^{T})$$ (25)

Note that with mobility, the phase ($\varphi$) is composed of the distance-dependent phase change ($\varphi_D$) and the velocity-induced Doppler shift ($\varphi_D$), which is given by (26)-(28).

$$\varphi = \Phi + \varphi_D$$ (26)

$$\varphi = 2\pi(f_c \tau + f_D \Delta t)$$ (27)

$$\varphi = 2\pi(f_c \tau + v_{RX} \cos(\phi) \Delta t)$$ (28)

where $\lambda = c/f_c$, $c = 3\times 10^8$ m/s is the speed of light, $v_{RX}$ is user speed and $f_D$ is the Doppler frequency which is positive when the user is moving towards the AP and negative when moving away from it [28].

For the sake of simplicity, we consider the uniform linear array (ULA) structure at both the AP and the UEs. The inter-element spacing is $d_{TX} = d_{RX} = \lambda/2$. The channel between an AP and each UE can be given by (29).

$$H = \sqrt{N_{TX}N_{RX}P_{L}(d)} \cdot e^{j2\pi \cdot a_{RX}(\phi_{RX}) \cdot a_{TX}(\phi_{TX})}$$ (29)

where $a_{TX}$ and $a_{RX}$ in (29) are the TX and RX array response vectors given by (30) and (31), respectively [8], [26].

$$a_{TX}(\phi_{TX}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N_{TX}}} \left( e^{\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} d_{TX}(n_t-1) \sin(\phi_{TX})} \right)$$ (30)

$$a_{RX}(\phi_{RX}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N_{RX}}} \left( e^{\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} d_{RX}(n_r-1) \sin(\phi_{RX})} \right)$$ (31)

B. Precoding and Postcoding

Since HBF is considered at the TX, the AP uses a baseband precoder $F_{BB} \in C^{J \times K}$ in (32) followed by an RF precoder $F_{RF} \in C^{J \times K}$ given by (33) (where $J = N_{TX}$ and $K = N_{TX}^{T} = N_{UE}$) such that [8]:

$$F_{BB} = [f_{1}^{BB}, f_{2}^{BB}, \ldots, f_{K}^{BB}]$$ (32)

$$F_{RF} = [f_{1}^{RF}, f_{2}^{RF}, \ldots, f_{K}^{RF}]$$ (33)

The transmit symbol vector $s \in C^{K \times 1}$ and the sampled transmit signal vector $x \in C^{K \times 1}$ in (34) are related by (35):

$$s = [s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_K]^T, \quad x = [x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_K]^T$$ (34)

$$x = F_{RF}F_{BB}s$$ (35)

Since ABF is considered at each of the users, the RF postcoder $W_{RF} \in C^{N_{RX} \times K}$ is given by (36). The received signal vector (after the precoding and postcoding operations) is $y = [y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_K]^T$ where $y_k$ for each user $\forall k \in 1, 2, \ldots, K$ is given by (37).

$$W_{RF} = [w_{1}^{RF}, w_{2}^{RF}, \ldots, w_{K}^{RF}]$$ (36)

$$y_k = w_k^{H}H_k \sum_{k=1}^{K} F_{RF}F_{BB}s_k + n_k$$ (37)

In (37), $H_k \in C^{N_{RX}^{K} \times N_{TX}^{K}}$ is the channel matrix between the AP and the $k^{th}$ UE and $n_k$ is the additive white Gaussian noise (AWGN) following a complex normal distribution $CN(0, \sigma)$ with zero mean and $\sigma$ standard deviation. The transmit power ($P_T$) constraint is realized by normalizing $F_{BB}$ such that:

$$\|F_{RF}F_{BB}\|^2_F = K$$ (38)

Since the RF precoder at the AP and the postcoder at each UE are implemented with PSS, elements $(m, n)$ of $F_{RF}$ and $W_{RF}$ matrices are further constrained to have constant magnitudes (but variable phases). These constraints are enforced by (39) and (40). Therefore, the steering vectors based on the angles of AoD at the AP and AoA at each user are used as the RF beamformers for the precoder and postcoder, respectively [5], [8], [9].

$$[F_{RF}]_{m,n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N_{TX}}} e^{j \phi_{m,n}} = a_{TX}(\phi_{TX})$$ (39)

$$[W_{RF}]_{m,n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N_{RX}}} e^{j \phi_{m,n}} = a_{RX}(\phi_{RX})$$ (40)

For the baseband precoder $F_{BB}$ at the AP, we employed the zero-forcing (ZF) precoder [29] given by (41) to cancel MUI. The effective channel $H_{eff}^H$ (i.e., the equivalent channel after the RF precoding and postcoding operations) is given by (42).

$$F_{BB} = H_{eff}^H (H_{eff}H_{eff}^H)^{-1}$$ (41)

$$H_{eff}^H = w_k^{H}H_kF_{RF}$$ (42)

V. SPECTRAL AND ENERGY EFFICIENCY PERFORMANCE

Following the generalized HBF antenna structure and the system, channel and power consumption models introduced in Sections II-IV, we give the expressions for the performance of the system in this section, in terms of the achievable sum data rate ($R$), spectral efficiency ($\eta_{SE}$) and energy efficiency ($\eta_{EE}$). The main objective is to efficiently design $F_{RF}$, $F_{BB}$ and $W_{RF}$ to maximize the system performance.
A. Spectral Efficiency and Achievable rate

Given the received signal $y_k$ in (37), the $\eta_{SE}^k$ [(bits/s)/Hz] and $R_k$ (bits/s) of the $k^{th}$ user are given by (43) and (44), respectively

$$\eta_{SE}^k = \log_2 \left( 1 + \frac{P_k}{T} \cdot \frac{\l vert w^H_k H_k F_{RF} f^{BB}_k \r vert^2}{\sum_{n \neq k} P^k_T \cdot \l vert w^H_k H_k F_{RF} f^{BB}_n \r vert^2 + \sigma_k^2} \right)$$

$$R_k = BW_k \cdot \eta_{SE}^k$$

where $BW_k$ is the bandwidth allocated to the $k^{th}$ user. Similarly, $\sigma_k^2$ is the noise term of the $k^{th}$ user. The achievable sum rate of all the $K$ users is

$$R = \sum_{k=1}^{K} R_k$$

Different from most works in the literature where $P_k = P_T$, we note that this is simply not the case for $P_k^k$ for the generalized framework explored in this work, particularly for the overlapped subarray structure as already given in (9).

B. Energy Efficiency

The energy efficiency (b/J, bits/Joule) of the system is the ratio of the system throughput or sum data rate $R$ (given by (45)) to the total power consumption $P_{total}$ (expressed as (18) in Section II).

$$\eta_{EE} = \frac{\text{sum rate}}{\text{total power consumed}} = \frac{R}{P_{total}}$$

The optimal EE as a function of the SE, $\eta_{EE}^\ast(\eta_{SE})$ is given according to the fundamental EE-SE relation [30] by (47)

$$\frac{d \eta_{EE}^\ast(\eta_{SE})}{d \eta_{SE}} = \frac{R}{BW} = 0$$

$\eta_{EE}^\ast(\eta_{SE}) = \max (\eta_{EE}(\eta_{SE}))$ is strictly quasiconcave in $\eta_{SE}$ when $P_{total}$ includes both the transmit power $P_T$ and the circuit power $P_{C\ell}$ [30], [31].

A. Power and Hardware Costs

First, we provide a comparative performance analysis of the structures with respect to the hardware requirement and power consumption. In Table I (see Section II), we provided a breakdown of the hardware components needed to realize each of the structures for the case where $N_{TX} = 64$, $N_{RX} = 8$ for the AP and $N_{RX} = 8$, $N_{RF} = 1$ for each of the $K = 8$ UEs. For the phased array network, the number of required PSs $N_{PS}$ changes significantly with the specific structure. In Fig. 3, we show how $N_{PS}$ varies with the $N_{RF}$ for a fixed $N_{TX}$.

With a $P_{PS} = 30$ mW per unit PS, the overlapped subarray structures offer a window of opportunity between the fully-connected and the sub-connected structures at the two extreme ends, in terms of power consumption. The case is similar with respect to the number of combiners $N_{comb}$ required for each of the structures. However, the contribution of the PSs to the $P_{total}$ is far greater than that of the combiner, both in terms of the number required as well as the unit component power cost as can be seen in Tables I and II, respectively. With respect to the overall power consumption of the network, Fig. 4 shows the $P_{total}$ for the different structures as well as the proportions of the contributing components (i.e., the consumed power at the TX ($P_{TX}$), the consumed power at all RX ($P_{RXs}$) and the power consumed for backhauling ($P_{BH}$)) when $P_T = 1$ W. Note that $P_{total} = P_{TX} + P_{RXs} + P_{BH}$, where $P_T$ is included in $P_{TX}$.

From Fig. 4, it can be seen that $P_{total}$ decreases as we move from the fully-connected ($\Delta N = 0$), through the overlapped subarray, to the sub-connected structure ($\Delta N = 8$). Similarly, as we move from ($\Delta N = 0 \rightarrow \Delta N = 8$), the contribution of $P_{TX}$ and $P_{BH}$ reduces, with $P_{TX}$ reducing at a faster rate than $P_{BH}$. Except for the fully-connected structure, $P_{BH} > P_{TX}$ for all structures. As noted in [23], the computation and backhaul power consumption will constitute the largest of the total power consumption of future networks. For all cases, the $P_{RXs}$ maintain steady values, constituting roughly 10% and 15% of $P_{total}$ for the fully-connected and sub-connected structures, respectively.

A. Spectral and Energy Efficiency

The sum SE and the EE performance for different transmit powers $P_T$, for all the considered structures, are shown in Figs. 5 and 6, respectively. For all the subarray structures in
Fig. 3. Number of PSs required for different structures (N_{TX} = 64)

Fig. 4. Power consumption of components for different △N (P_T = 1 W)

Fig. 5. Sum Spectral efficiency versus total transmit power

Fig. 6. Energy efficiency versus total transmit power

Fig. 7 shows the EE-SE performance tradeoff curves for the different subarray structures. For each structure, the EE starts to increase as the SE increases. It then reaches the optimal point (given by (47)) and thereafter continues to decrease as SE increases. Each curve follows a quasi-concave (bell-shaped) trend, which is consistent with the results in [5], [10], [30], [31]. Further, it can be observed that each of the structures has different performance. The fully-connected structure has the highest SE and lowest EE on one end, while the sub-connected structure has the lowest SE and highest EE on the other end. In between these two ends, the different overlapped subarray structures show varying performance depending on △N. For example, the overlapped structure with △N = 4 strikes a good balance in EE-SE performance for the considered scenario.

C. User Performance

In Fig. 8, we show the SE performance for all the users as the P_T increases. Similarly, the EE performance for all users with increasing P_T is shown in Fig. 9. For space constraints, we show the results for only the overlapped subarray case with △N = 4 adjudged from the preceding subsection as the structure having a balanced performance tradeoff with respect to SE and EE.

In Figs. 8 and 9, it can be seen that the performance of each of the users are very close in values at each P_T point, thus guaranteeing a level of fairness among users. As usual,
transmit power (W) for each user ($\Delta N = 4$)

Fig. 8 follows the logarithmically-increasing trend in SE as $P_T$ increases for each of the users. Similarly, the curves in Fig. 9 follow the quasi-concave trend in EE as the $P_T$ increases for each of the users. In addition, with equal bandwidth allocation per user, $R_k = \eta_{SE} \times (BW/K)$. Therefore, each user is able to reach a data rate of more than 5 Gbps (which is good for 5G) with a minimum SE of 20 bits/s/Hz in a 2 GHz BW for 8 users.

VII. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we proposed a novel generalized HBF array structure for the downlink THz multi-user massive MIMO network. The generalized framework enables the design and comparative performance analysis of different possible subarray configurations (i.e., the fully-connected, the sub-connected and the overlapped subarray structures). The performance of the proposed model was analyzed using a single-path LoS THz channel model for a C-I2X application scenario, where 'X' is combination of pedestrian users and high-mobility vehicles. The results show that the overlapped subarray structure can provide a balanced performance tradeoff in terms of SE, EE and hardware costs between the popular fully-connected structure (with high SE and limited EE) and the sub-connected structure (with reduced SE and high EE). The overlapped subarray structure, therefore, shows exciting potentials for next-generation networks that target both high-rate and green operation of networks. As a future work, it is of interest to extend the analysis to the multi-path channels and to a multi-cell scenario taking into consideration the effects of dense deployment of infrastructure.

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