Efficient Planar Pose Estimation via UWB Measurements

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Abstract—State estimation is an essential part of autonomous systems. Integrating the Ultra-Wideband (UWB) technique has been shown to correct the long-term estimation drift and bypass the complexity of loop closure detection. However, few works on robotics treat UWB as a stand-alone state estimation solution. The primary purpose of this work is to investigate planar pose estimation using only UWB range measurements. We prove the excellent property of a two-step scheme, which says we can refine a consistent estimator to be asymptotically efficient by one step of Gauss-Newton iteration. Grounded on this result, we design the GN-ULS estimator, which reduces the computation time significantly compared to previous methods and presents the possibility of using only UWB for real-time state estimation.

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background

State estimation is a fundamental prerequisite for an intelligent mobile robot to realize obstacle avoidance and path-planning tasks. In recent years, significant efforts have been devoted to achieving high-performance and real-time state estimation using onboard sensors such as IMU, cameras, and lidars. However, these methods confront issues such as long-term drift [1] and low robustness in geometrically degenerated environments [2]. To overcome the above-mentioned challenges, we can integrate external information such as GPS in state estimation [3].

Ultra-Wideband (UWB) is a radio technology that is robust to multi-path effect and can provide precise TOA or TDOA measurements [4]. UWB is traditionally used for localization [5]–[9], while many recent works [10]–[13] integrate UWB to realize drift-free state estimation in GPS-denied environments, few works on robotics investigate using UWB independently for pose estimation.

This work considers estimating a robot’s pose via only UWB range measurements obtained with a symmetric two-way TOA measuring technique. We focus on the planar case as shown in Fig. 1, which has many critical applications such as search and rescue robots [14] and indoor service robots [15]. We recognize it as the Rigid Body Localization (RBL) problem in the signal processing community.

Through the literature review, we find that the pose estimators’ statistical efficiency has not been well studied, and the estimators’ computational complexity requires further reduction to realize real-time estimation. In this work, we adopt a two-step scheme and develop a closed-form estimator, which is asymptotically efficient under mild conditions related to anchor geometry, and significantly reduces computation time. We also conduct simulations and experiments to demonstrate our method’s statistical and computational efficiency.

B. Related Work on Planar Rigid Body Localization

The maximum likelihood (ML) formulation of RBL under i.i.d Gaussian noise assumption is a constrained weighted least squares (LS) problem (2). However, the ML estimate is difficult to obtain due to the nonconvexity and nonlinearity of (2). A common practice is to apply the least squares methodology to the squared range measurements and formulate the squared least squares (SLS) problem (6).

As far as we know, the work [16] is the first to formulate the RBL problem, which proposes to modify the SLS problem by projecting the squared measurements onto the null space of unit vectors. This operation eliminates the quadratic term and makes the problem linear, and the idea is followed by the work [17] and our work. We term the resulting formulation (7) projected squared least squares (PSLS). Based on PSLS, the work [16] solves a weighted orthogonal Procrustes problem by Gauss-Newton algorithms and obtains the initial value from simpler problems with closed-form solutions. The work [16] also derives the unitarily constrained Cramer-Rao lower bound (CRLB). The work [17] harnesses the structure of the rotation matrix and formulates a generalized trust region subproblem (GTRS), and the solution is refined on the...
linearized SLS problem. The work [18] uses semidefinite relaxation and formulate SLS as a semidefinite program (SDP).

The solution is refined by one step of Gauss-Newton iteration on the ML problem.

To sum up, the ML estimate for the planar RBL problem is difficult to obtain. Previous works turn to the SLS problem and use different techniques to make the problem linear. However, earlier studies do not rigorously evaluate the proposed estimators’ deviation from the ML estimator or their statistical efficiency. Considering the growing interest in provably optimal state estimate [19], we believe these topics deserve careful study. The theoretical results also motivate the design of a faster optimal estimator.

C. Contributions

We summarize our contributions as follows:

(i) We design a closed-form planar pose estimator using only UWB range measurements, which has $O(n)$ computational complexity and provably converges to the ML estimator as the measurement number $n$ increases. Given the high sampling rate of practical UWB systems [20], our work can play a valuable role in applications.

(ii) We propose mild conditions related to anchor geometry, under which the ML estimator, therefore our method is asymptotically efficient, i.e., the estimate can converge to the true pose with minimum variance.

(iii) We conduct experiments in an indoor environment and elaborate on the data preprocessing procedure. The dataset and code are available on our website.

We organize the paper as follows. Section II gives formulations of the planar RBL problem. Section III develops the GN-ULS estimator in two steps. Section IV gives conditions under which the ML estimator, therefore the GN-ULS estimator, is asymptotically efficient. Section V compares different estimators via various simulations. Section V introduces data collection and discusses experiments on static and dynamic datasets. Section VII concludes the paper and discusses future works.

Notations: All vectors are column vectors and denoted by bold, lower case letters; matrices are denoted by bold, upper case letters; reference frames are denoted with $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{C}$. vec($A$) is a column vector obtained by stacking the columns of matrix $A$. Null($A$) is the null space of $A$. We use $\mathbf{I}, \mathbf{0}$ to denote identity matrices, unit vectors or matrices, and zero vectors or matrices. The symbol $\otimes$ represents the Hadamard product and $\otimes$ the Kronecker product. For a list of vectors, we use the tuple notation $(v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n)$ for $[v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n]$. We use the notation $a^\mu$ for the true value of an unknown variable $a$. We use the notation $O_p(1)$ for vectors or matrices whose entries are $O_p(1)$, i.e., stochastically bounded. We use the notation $o_p(1)$ for vectors or matrices whose entries are $o_p(1)$, i.e., convergent in probability towards zero.

II. PLANAR RIGID BODY LOCALIZATION

A. Range Measurement Model

Let $\mathcal{A}$ be the global frame, and let $\mathcal{B}$ be the local frame of the rigid body. The $z$-axes of $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$ are aligned.

Let $a_{im}^\mu \in \mathbb{R}^2, m \in \{1, \ldots, M\}$ be the planar coordinates of $M$ anchors in $\mathcal{A}$. Let $s_i^\mathcal{B} \in \mathbb{R}^2, i \in \{1, \ldots, N\}$ be the planar coordinates in $\mathcal{B}$ of $N$ tags fixed on the rigid body. The planar pose of $\mathcal{B}$ with respect to $\mathcal{A}$ can be represented by a rotation matrix $R^\mathcal{B} \in SO(2)$ and a position vector $t^\mathcal{B} \in \mathbb{R}^2$. Each anchor can range with each tag repeatedly. For the brevity of formulation, we consider repeatedly ranging for $T$ times equivalent to deploying $T$ anchors on the same site. In total, we have $M_T \triangleq MT$ anchors and $n = NM_T$ measurements.

We denote by $d_{im}$ the distance measurement between the $m$-th anchor and the $i$-th tag, denote by $\Delta h_{im}$ the height difference between the $m$-th anchor and the $i$-th tag. The distance measurement model is as follows:

$$d_{im} = \sqrt{\|a_{im}^\mu - R^\mathcal{B}s_i^\mathcal{B} - t^\mathcal{B}\|^2 + (\Delta h_{im})^2 + r_{im}}$$

(1)

where $r_{im}$ is the additive measurement noise.

The RBL problem is formulated as follows: given $a_{im}^\mu, s_i^\mathcal{B}, \Delta h_{im}$ and the distance measurements $d_{im}$, estimate the pose of the rigid body, i.e., the rotation $R^\mathcal{B}$ and the position $t^\mathcal{B}$.

B. Assumptions

We make the following assumptions:

Assumption 1: Anchors and tags are on the same height.

Remark 1: We assume $\Delta h_{im} = 0$ for simplicity, modification for $\Delta h_{im} \neq 0$ is straightforward and detailed in [21].

Assumption 2: $r_{im}$’s are i.i.d Gaussian noises with zero mean, finite and known standard deviation $\sigma_{im} > 0$.

Assumption 3: The sample distribution $F_m$ of the sequence $a_{1m}^\mu, a_{2m}^\mu, \ldots$ converges to some distribution $F_\mu$.

Example 1: Suppose $a_{im}^\mu$’s are independent samples from distribution function $F_\mu$. $F_m$ converges to $F_\mu$ as $M$ increases.

Example 2: As the number $T$ of repeated ranging increases, $F_m$ converges to $F_\mu$. Denote the measure induced by $F_\mu$ as $\mu$, we have $\mu(a_{im}^\mu) = \frac{1}{M}$ for $m = 1, \ldots, M$.

Assumption 4: At least three non-collinear anchors exist, and at least two tags non-collinear with the origin $O^\mathcal{B}$ of the local reference frame.

Remark 2: The necessary and sufficient condition for the planar pose to be observable requires at least three non-collinear anchors and at least two tags [21]. Under specific constraints, the required sensors can be further reduced, such as in work [22]. We make a slightly stronger assumption in this paper to ease the proof of Lemma 1.

Assumption 5: Consider the limit measure $\mu$ in Assumption 3, there does not exist any line $\mathcal{L}$ such that $\mu(\mathcal{L}) = 1$.

C. Maximum Likelihood Formulation

The ML estimates $R_{\text{ML}}$, $t_{\text{ML}}$ of the planar RBL problem are the solution to the following optimization problem:

$$\min_{R, t} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{m=1}^{M_T} \frac{(d_{im} - \|a_{im}^\mu - R^\mathcal{B}s_i^\mathcal{B} - t\|)^2}{\sigma_{im}^2}$$

s.t. $R \in SO(2)$, $t \in \mathbb{R}^2$,

(2a)

(2b)

1https://github.com/SLAMLab-CUHKSS/efficient-Pose-Estimation-via-UWB-measurements
D. Squared Least Squares Formulation
The ML formulation is non-linear, non-convex, and difficult to solve. We square both sides of (1) and have:

\[ d_{im}^2 = (\|a_{im}^\alpha - R_{s_i}^\beta - t\| + r_{im})^2 \]  
\[
= \|a_{im}^\alpha\|^2 - 2a_{im}^\alpha(\hat{R}_{s_i}^\beta + t) + \|\hat{R}_{s_i}^\beta + t\|^2 + 2\|a_{im}^\alpha - R_{s_i}^\beta - t\|r_{im} + r_{im}^2.
\]

(3a)

(3b)

where \( \sigma_{im}^2 \) is the covariance matrix for \( Pe_i \).

Motivated by (8), we can use a unit-length vector \( y = (y_1, y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \) to parameterize \( R \), where \( y_1, y_2 \) correspond to \( \sin(\theta), \cos(\theta) \) respectively. Denote \( AP \) as \( A, Pd \), as \( \hat{d}_i \), and \( \hat{e}_i \), we formulate the following GTRS problem:

\[
\min_{\hat{y}} \| d - H_1 \Gamma y - H_2 t \|^2_{\Sigma_{\hat{e}}} \quad \text{s.t.} \| y \|^2 = 1 \]  

where \( \Gamma = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T \), \( \hat{d} = (\hat{d}_1, \ldots, \hat{d}_N) \), \( H_1 = -2St \otimes \hat{A}^T \), and \( H_2 = -2IN \otimes \hat{A}^T \).

The matrix \( \Sigma_{\hat{e}} \) is dense and dependent on true distance \( d_{im}^* \) [16]. We discard the constraint and covariance for efficiency and simplicity and solve the resultant LS problem.

**Lemma 1:** Under Assumption 4, the design matrix \( H = [H_1 \Gamma, H_2] \) is full column rank, and the unique solution to the resultant LS problem is given by:

\[
(\text{ULS}) \quad \begin{bmatrix} \hat{y} \\ \hat{t} \end{bmatrix} = (H^T H)^{-1}H^T \hat{d},
\]

(10)

**Theorem 2:** The ULS estimator is \( \sqrt{n} \)-consistent, i.e.,

\[
\begin{bmatrix} \hat{y} \\ \hat{t} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} y^o \\ t^o \end{bmatrix} = O_p(1/\sqrt{n}).
\]

The proof is given in the full version of this paper [21].

Notice that the estimate \( \hat{y} \) from (10) is not constrained to have unit length, so we further project \( \hat{R} \triangleq \hat{\Gamma} \hat{y} \) onto SO(2).

The matrix projection \( \pi \) that maps an arbitrary matrix \( X \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2} \) onto SO(2) is defined as

\[
\pi(X) = \text{arg} \min_{W \in \text{SO}(2)} \| X - W \|^2_F.
\]

(11)

Let the SVD of \( X \) be \( USV^T \), we have

\[
\pi(X) = U \text{diag}([1, \text{det}(UV^T)])V^T
\]

(12)

**Theorem 3:** The projected estimate generated by (11) is \( \sqrt{n} \)-consistent, i.e.,

\[
\pi(\hat{R}) - R^* = O_p(1/\sqrt{n}).
\]

The proof is given in the full version of this paper [21].

**Remark 4:** By assigning \( O^\beta \) on tag \( j \), the measurement model of tag \( j \) becomes \( d_{jm} = \|a_{im}^\alpha - t^o\| + r_{jm} \). We can thus estimate translation \( t^o \) first using \( d_{jm} \)'s, and then substitute \( \hat{t} \) to estimate the rotation matrix \( R^\beta \). Similarly, we can first localize the tags and then infer the pose, as in work [23].

The accuracy of the intermediate step is crucial for such divide-and-conquer schemes. Given a \( \sqrt{MT} \)-consistent estimate for the intermediate step, the resultant pose estimator can achieve \( \sqrt{n} \)-consistency, as shown in section V and proved in the longer version of this paper [21].
B. One Step of the Gauss-Newton Iteration

Given a √n-consistent estimate from the first step, we implement one step of Gauss-Newton iteration on the ML problem (2) and obtain the GN-ULS estimator. Using (8), we can transform problem (2) into an unconstrained one:

\[
\min_{\theta, t} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{m=1}^{M} (d_{im} - L_m \mathbf{a}_m^T \mathbf{r}(\hat{\theta} + \theta) - t)^2 / \sigma_{im}^2
\]

where \( L_m = (s_i^T \otimes \mathbf{I}_2)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 4} \) and \( \mathbf{r}(\hat{\theta}) = \mathbf{R}(\hat{\theta}) \).

We use \( \hat{\theta} = 0 \), \( t = t \) as the initial value. Write \( f_{im}(\theta, t) \triangleq a_m^T \mathbf{r}(\hat{\theta} + \theta) - t \) and \( \sigma_{im}^2 \triangleq f_{im}(0, t) \). The derivatives of \( \| f_{im}(0) \| \) w.r.t. \( \theta \) and \( t \) are:

\[
\frac{\partial \| f_{im}(0) \|}{\partial (\theta, t)} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{\| f_{im}(0) \|} \Psi^T (L_i \otimes \hat{\mathbf{R}}^T) \mathbf{L}_i^T f_{im}(0) \\
-\frac{1}{\| f_{im}(0) \|} f_{im}(0) \end{bmatrix}
\]

where \( \Psi^T = \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}(\hat{\theta})}{\partial \theta} = [0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0]^T \). Stacking the rows \( \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}(\hat{\theta})}{\partial (\theta, t)} \) gives the matrix \( \mathbf{J}_0 \). Stacking \( \| f_{im}(0) \| \) gives the vector \( \mathbf{f}(0, t) \). Denote the covariance matrix of \( r_{im} \) as \( \Sigma_n \), the one step of Gauss-Netwon iteration \((\hat{\theta}, \hat{t})_{GN} \) writes:

\[
(\hat{\theta}, \hat{t})_{GN} = (0, \hat{t}) + (J_0^T \Sigma_n^{-1} J_0)^{-1} J_0^T \Sigma_n^{-1} (\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{f}(0, \hat{t}))
\]

(14)

as such, we obtain the GN-ULS estimates,

\[
(\text{GN-ULS}) \quad \hat{\mathbf{R}}_{GN} = \mathbf{R}(\hat{\theta} + \hat{\theta}_{GN}), \quad \hat{\mathbf{i}}_{GN} = \hat{\mathbf{i}}_{GN}
\]

We summarize the GN-ULS estimator in Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1 Unconstrained Least Squares estimator refined by one-step of Gauss-Newton iteration (GN-ULS)

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textbf{Input:} \( d_{im}, \sigma_{im}, a_m^{sd} \) and \( s_i^{sd} \).
  \item \textbf{Output:} the estimates of \( \mathbf{R}^0 \) and \( \mathbf{t}^0 \).
  \item 1: Construct \( \hat{\mathbf{d}} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 4} \) and \( \mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 4} \).
  \item 2: Derive the ULS estimator as \((\mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^T \hat{d} \).
  \item 3: Project the ULS estimate onto \( \mathbf{SO}(2) \) (11).
  \item 4: Construct \( \mathbf{J}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 4} \) and \( \mathbf{f}(0, \hat{t}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1} \).
  \item 5: Implement one step of Gauss-Netwon iteration (14).
  \item 6: Obtain the GN-ULS estimator (15).
\end{itemize}

IV. STATISTICAL EFFICIENCY ANALYSIS

According to Theorem 1, the GN-ULS estimates converge to the ML estimates as \( n \) increases. The following theorem describes the GN-ULS estimator’s statistical efficiency.

Theorem 4: Under assumptions 3-5, the ML estimates, therefore the GN-ULS estimates are asymptotically efficient, i.e., as measurement number \( n \) increases,

\[
\text{CRLB}^{-1/2} \left[ \begin{array}{c} \text{vec}(\hat{\mathbf{R}}_{ML} - \mathbf{R}^0) \\
\hat{\mathbf{t}}_{ML} - \mathbf{t}^0 \end{array} \right] \overset{D}{\rightarrow} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}),
\]

\[
\text{CRLB}^{-1/2} \left[ \begin{array}{c} \text{vec}(\hat{\mathbf{R}}_{GN} - \mathbf{R}^0) \\
\hat{\mathbf{t}}_{GN} - \mathbf{t}^0 \end{array} \right] \overset{D}{\rightarrow} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}).
\]

The formula for CRLB and proof are detailed in [21].

Remark 5: This theorem establishes the proposed estimator’s optimality and legitimizes us to approximate estimation covariance by CRLB, which is a vital problem in sensor fusion schemes. Although we need the true pose to calculate CRLB, we can reasonably use \( \hat{\mathbf{R}}_{GN}, \hat{\mathbf{t}}_{GN} \) as an alternative.

CRLB is related to sensor deployment in a complicated way, making it difficult to design a sensor deployment strategy from the view of theoretical lower bound. But in general, we should deploy the tags as sparsely as possible [21].

V. SIMULATIONS AND DISCUSSIONS

We verify the asymptotic efficiency of the proposed GN-ULS estimator by comparing the root mean square error (RMSE) with the lower bound, which is the square root of the trace of CRLB [16], denoted as \( \sqrt{\text{CRLB}} \). We compare with previous works [17] and [18], denoted as the GTRS and the GN-SDP respectively. We also compare with the divide-and-conquer approach that localizes the tags first. For the implementation of this estimator, denoted as DAC, we follow work [24] for localization and solve a least squares problem for pose estimation. Given a \( \sqrt{\text{CRLB}} \)–consistent position estimator, this DAC estimator can be proved to be \( \sqrt{n} \)–consistent, detailed in the full version of this paper [21].

A. Simulation Setup

In our simulations, there are \( M = 3 \) anchors deployed at \([50, 0]^T, [50, 50]^T \) and \([0, 50]^T \) in the global frame. There are \( N = 2 \) tags deployed at \([3, 0]^T \) and \([3, 3]^T \) in the local frame. The true pose is \( t_0 = [0, 25]^T \) and \( \theta_0 = 60^\circ \).

We run \( L = 1000 \) Monte-Carlo experiments for each setting and report the average results. We use the chordal distance [25] to calculate the RMSE for the rotation matrix:

\[
\text{RMSE}(\mathbf{R}) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^{L} || \hat{\mathbf{R}} - \mathbf{R}^0 ||^2_F}
\]

B. Simulation Results

1) Asymptotic efficiency under repeated ranging: We increase the number \( T \) of repeated ranging. The noise standard deviation \( \sigma_m \)'s are set to be \( 0.05[1,2,3,4,5,6] \). As shown in Fig. 2a, the ULS estimator and the DAC estimator are \( \sqrt{n} \)–consistent but not asymptotically efficient. The GTRS estimator deviates from the lower bound under large samples, and the main reason is that the estimate is refined on the SLS problem (6) but not on the ML problem (2). The GN-ULS and the DAC estimator are significantly more efficient with \( O(n) \) complexity, as shown in Figure. 2b. It also takes \( O(n) \) computation to construct the optimization problems for the GN-ULS and the GN-SDP estimator, but solving the problems dominates the computation cost.

2) Asymptotic efficiency under numerous anchors: We deploy new anchors uniformly on the simulation plane. The standard deviation \( \sigma_m \) is set to be \( 0.1 \). As shown in Fig. 3a, the GTRS estimator deviates from the lower bound. When we deploy 10000 anchors, the MATLAB CVX toolbox reports the SDP problem as infeasible. The same instability problem occurs in Fig. 3b under very small noise.
Fig. 2: Performance under repeated ranging. (a) RMSE of different pose estimators and the lower bound as the number $T$ of repeated ranging increases. (b) Average computation time of different pose estimators as $T$ increases.

Fig. 3: Performance with numerous anchors and under different noise levels. (a) RMSE of different pose estimators and the lower bound when the number $M$ of anchors increases. (b) RMSE of different pose estimators and the lower bound as the standard deviation increases.

3) Asymptotic efficiency under large noise: We adjust the standard deviation $\sigma_m$ from 0.01 to 10, and set $T = 1000$. As shown in Fig. 3b, GTRS and GN-SDP deviate from the lower bound under large noise, this is because they omit $r_m^2$ in (3b) and use noisy measurements to calculate the covariance matrix $\Sigma_k$.

C. Discussions

As the simulation results indicate, the GN-ULS attains theoretical lower bound, and performs better than computationally more complex estimators in stability and accuracy. As guaranteed by Theorem 1, the DAC estimator refined by one step of Gauss-Newton can perform comparably well to GN-ULS. But the DAC estimator appears more sensitive to outliers in dynamic experiments, as shown in Section VI.

VI. EXPERIMENTS

In this section, we introduce data collection and present experimental results on static and dynamic datasets.

A. System Overview

Fig. 4 presents the experimental system and environment with an overall volume of $10m \times 6m \times 4m$. The system consists of a motion capture system (OptiTrack: X22), UWB (NoopLoop: LinkTrack), an Ackerman trolley platform, and an embedded processor (NVIDIA: TX2). We use a carbon fibre cube frame, rather than directly using the trolley, as the rigid body to avoid blocking the UWB signal. Three UWB tags are fixed on the cube at approximately the same height as the eight anchors deployed in the environment.

B. Data Collection

We refer to the motion capture frame as the global frame. The UWB ranging frequency is 100Hz, and the motion capture system provides the ground truth of the pose at 120Hz, with $\pm 0.15$ millimeters and $\pm 0.5$ degrees claimed accuracy\footnote{https://optitrack.com/cameras/primex-22/}. During experiments, NVIDIA-TX2 unpacks the UWB data through its serial port and collects the motion capture system data through TCP. In dynamic datasets, we synchronize measurements using the system time of TX2 and perform interpolation to align the motion capture measurements with the UWB measurements\footnote{On the dynamic datasets, we observe a positive bias between estimated yaw and the ground truth for all compared methods. We believe this phenomenon is due to imperfect synchronization caused by processing delay and unreliable ground truth for yaw when reflective markers are hidden from some cameras. As a remedy, we compensate all estimates by a negative degree on dynamic datasets.}

C. UWB Calibration

UWB ranging measurement is practically modeled as:

$$\hat{d} = d^o + f(d^o) + e,$$

where $f(d^o)$ is a distance-related bias, and $e$ is a zero-mean Gaussian noise. We quiescent the trolley for a period of time and use the sample variance to estimate the standard deviation of $e$. The more demanding task is calibrating $f(d^o)$, which we assume to be a linear function of $d^o$ [26]. We control the trolley to move around in the environment, collect differences between the measured range and the true range, and fit a linear model to calibrate $f(d^o)$. The results show that the DAC estimator performs well in both static and dynamic datasets.

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calibration datasets and use the least squares method to fit $f(d^o)$. Considering the complex communication environment indoors, we implement outlier rejection before calibration. Similar to the methods in [6], [13], a range measurement at instant $t$ is rejected as an outlier if

$$d_t > \min\{d_{t-k}, \ldots, d_{t-1}\} + k v_{\text{max}} f + 0.1,$$  \hspace{1cm} (17)

where $k$ is the length of the time window, $v_{\text{max}}$ is the velocity upper bound during the experiment, $f$ is the ranging frequency, and $0.1m$ is a general error bound of UWB.

D. Static Datasets and Pose Estimation Results

We place the trolley at 7 different sites and change the orientation from $0^\circ$ to $300^\circ$ at an interval of approximately $60^\circ$. In total, we collect 42 static datasets, each lasting for around 100 seconds. We calculate the RMSE on all datasets and compare the average result. We choose two tags and three anchors and use the centimeter and the degree as units for Fig. 5. The result shows that all methods achieve similar accuracy to the ground truth system.

E. Dynamic Datasets and Pose Estimation Results

We control the trolley to move at different speeds $(0.49m/s, 0.23m/s, 0.11m/s)$, and collect fast, medium, and slow datasets. We implement interpolation when an outlier occurs to provide real-time estimates. It is not reasonable to use repeated measurements in the dynamic case. Instead, we adopt all three tags and eight anchors.

Fig. 6 visualizes the results on the fast dataset, where GN-ULS achieves an average RMSE of 3.97 degrees and 3.01 centimeters using 24 range measurements between eight anchors and three tags. Overall results on the three datasets are summarized in Table I, where GN-DAC represents one step of Gauss-Newton iteration based on the DAC estimator.

F. Discussions

All compared methods achieve similar accuracy in the experiments, given the standard deviation of noise in the magnitude of a centimeter. However, the GN-ULS and GN-DAC estimators significantly reduce the computation time. We attribute this advantage to the insights provided by Theorem 1. We also observe that the DAC estimator is less robust to outliers than the ULS estimator.

The estimators’ performance on the dynamic datasets is not as good as on the static datasets. The main reason is the complex indoor environment, where the distance-related bias $f(d^o)$ varies at different positions and orientations due to obstruction and signal reflection from the walls.

VII. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

This work studies planar pose estimation using UWB range measurements. Grounded on a two-step scheme, we design an asymptotically efficient pose estimator GN-ULS. The proposed estimator defeats previous works in computational efficiency, stability, and accuracy under large noise. We also find that using a $\sqrt{M_F}$-consistent intermediate estimator, the divide-and-conquer estimation scheme followed by one step of Gauss-Newton iteration performs comparably well but less robust to outliers.

In this work, we intend to present the possibility of using only range measurements for real-time pose estimation. The estimated trajectory is expected to be smoother and more accurate if integrated with motion models or odometry measurements. In future work, we plan to cope with the synchronization problem as the number of tags and sensors increases and the update frequency decreases, which is very important in large-scale dynamic scenarios.

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TABLE I: Position and Rotation RMSE on dynamic datasets

| Method   | Position RMSE [cm] | Rotation RMSE [deg] |
|----------|--------------------|---------------------|
|          | Fast   | Mid   | Slow  | Fast   | Mid   | Slow  |
| ULS      | 3.73   | 3.55  | 3.48  | 5.68   | 4.74  | 5.53  |
| DAC      | 3.60   | 3.07  | 3.14  | 11.55  | 11.74 | 11.18 |
| GN-ULS   | 3.01   | 3.00  | 2.59  | 3.97   | 3.40  | 3.75  |
| GN-DAC   | 3.07   | 3.07  | 2.65  | 4.39   | 3.80  | 4.21  |
| GN-SDP   | 3.00   | 3.08  | 2.58  | 3.99   | 3.37  | 3.80  |
| GTRS     | 3.22   | 3.27  | 2.83  | 4.42   | 3.97  | 4.13  |
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