Lecture 6: Recursive Nonlinear Non-Gaussian Estimation, Part II AER1513: State Estimation

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Outline

Lecture 6: Recursive Nonlinear Non-Gaussian Estimation, Part II

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Motivation

- last lecture we looked at recursive estimation techniques for nonlinear non-Gaussian situations
- we derived the Bayes filter, generalized Gaussian filter, and finally the IEKF and EKF
- this lecture, we will continue to explore some other options in our filter taxonomy that avoid the use of linearization
- we'll introduce the sigmapoint transformation as a replacement to linearization, and use it to derive the sigmapoint Kalman filter
- we'll then return to the Bayes filter and branch off in a different way to derive the particle filter



System

 we define our system using the following nonlinear, time-varying models:

motion model:
$$\mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{w}_k), \qquad k = 1...K$$
 (1a) observation model: $\mathbf{y}_k = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_k, \mathbf{n}_k), \qquad k = 0...K$ (1b)

where k is again the discrete-time index and K its maximum

- the variables have the following meanings:

system state : $\mathbf{x}_k \in \mathbb{R}^N$

initial state : $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^N \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\check{\mathbf{x}}_0, \check{\mathbf{P}}_0\right)$

input : $\mathbf{v}_k \in \mathbb{R}^N$

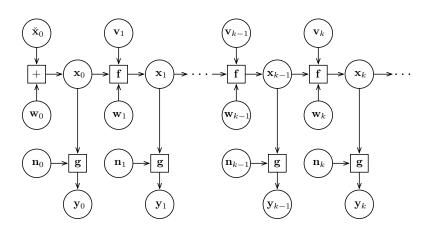
process noise : $\mathbf{w}_k \in \mathbb{R}^N \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{Q}_k\right)$

measurement : $\mathbf{y}_k \in \mathbb{R}^M$

measurement noise : $\mathbf{n}_k \in \mathbb{R}^M \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{R}_k\right)$



Markov property





Problem statement

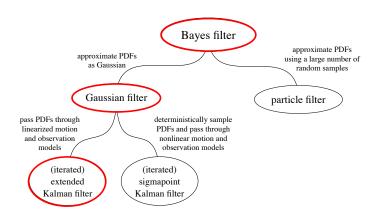
- our state estimation problem is still the following:

Definition

The problem of state estimation is to come up with an estimate, $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_k$, of the true *state* of a system, at one or more timesteps, k, given knowledge of the initial state, $\check{\mathbf{x}}_0$, a sequence of measurements, $\mathbf{y}_{0:K,\text{meas}}$, a sequence of inputs, $\mathbf{v}_{1:K}$, as well as knowledge of the system's motion and observation models.



Filter taxonomy





Bayes filter

recall the very general Bayes filter:

$$\underbrace{\frac{p(\mathbf{x}_k | \check{\mathbf{x}}_0, \mathbf{v}_{1:k}, \mathbf{y}_{0:k})}{\text{posterior belief}}}_{\text{posterior belief}} = \eta \underbrace{\frac{p(\mathbf{y}_k | \mathbf{x}_k)}{\text{observation}} \int \underbrace{p(\mathbf{x}_k | \mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{v}_k)}_{\text{motion}} \underbrace{p(\mathbf{x}_{k-1} | \check{\mathbf{x}}_0, \mathbf{v}_{1:k-1}, \mathbf{y}_{0:k-1})}_{\text{prior belief}} d\mathbf{x}_{k-1}}_{\text{correction}} \underbrace{d\mathbf{x}_{k-1} | \check{\mathbf{x}}_0, \mathbf{v}_{1:k-1}, \mathbf{y}_{0:k-1})}_{\text{prior belief}} d\mathbf{x}_{k-1}$$

- we can see this takes on a predictor-corrector form, just like the KF



(2)

Generalized Gaussian filter

 assuming all the densities are Gaussian we have the generalized Gaussian filter:

 in this case, the moments come from constructing the joint Gaussian (state and measurement)...somehow

$$p(\mathbf{x}_{k}, \mathbf{y}_{k} | \check{\mathbf{x}}_{0}, \mathbf{v}_{1:k}, \mathbf{y}_{0:k-1}) = \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{x,k} \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_{u,k} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xx,k} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xy,k} \\ \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{yx,k} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{yy,k} \end{bmatrix} \right)$$
(4)



IEKF

 using linearization to compute the statistical moment in the joint Gaussian we have

- in this case, we iterate the last three equations to convergence
- the 'mean' of the IEKF actually converges to the mode of the posterior

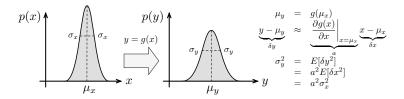


EKF

- finally, with just one iteration we have the EKF



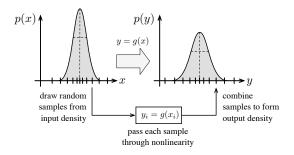
Transforming PDFs through nonlinearities



- we've seen how to use linearization to transform a Gaussian through a nonlinearity
- there are some other techniques we can use:
 - Monte Carlo sampling can be used to transform any PDF through a nonlinearity
 - sigmapoint transformation can be used to transform a Gaussian through a nonlinearity



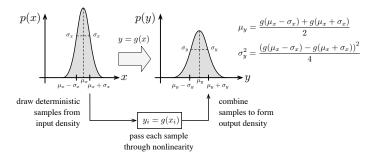
Monte Carlo sampling



- Monte Carlo just draws many random samples from the input, transforms each sample, then recombines the samples (e.g., compute moments)
- it's very inefficient, works with any type of PDF, any type of nonlinearity



Sigmapoint transformation



- the sigmapoint transformation draws a small number of deterministic samples, transforms each sample, then recombines using special moment formulas
- it's quite efficient, works with Gaussian PDFs



SP: step 1

– a set of 2L+1 sigmapoints is computed from the input density, $\mathcal{N}\left(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{x},\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xx}\right)$, according to

$$\mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^T = \mathbf{\Sigma}_x$$
 (Cholesky decomposition, \mathbf{L} lower-triangular) (72

$$\mathbf{x}_0 = \boldsymbol{\mu}_x \tag{7b}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{i} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_{x} + \sqrt{L + \kappa} \operatorname{col}_{i} \mathbf{L}$$

$$i = 1 \dots L$$

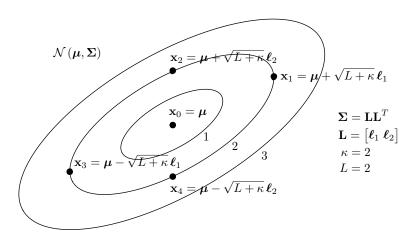
$$(7c)$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{i+L} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_x - \sqrt{L+\kappa} \operatorname{col}_i \mathbf{L}$$
 $i = 1 \dots L$ (7d)

where $L = \dim(\boldsymbol{\mu}_x)$



SP: step 1





SP: step 1

- the original moments can easily be rebuilt from the sigmapoints:

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_x = \sum_{i=0}^{2L} \alpha_i \, \mathbf{x}_i \tag{8a}$$

$$\Sigma_{xx} = \sum_{i=0}^{2D} \alpha_i \left(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_x \right) \left(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_x \right)^T$$
 (8b)

where

$$\alpha_i = \begin{cases} \frac{\kappa}{L + \kappa} & i = 0\\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{L + \kappa} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (9)

which we note sums to 1

– the user-definable parameter, κ , will be explained later



SP: steps 2-5

– each of the sigmapoints is individually passed through the nonlinearity, $\mathbf{g}(\cdot)$:

$$\mathbf{y}_i = \mathbf{g}\left(\mathbf{x}_i\right), \qquad i = 0\dots 2L$$
 (10)

– the mean of the output density, μ_y , is computed as

$$\mu_y = \sum_{i=0}^{2L} \alpha_i \, \mathbf{y}_i \tag{11}$$

– the covariance of the output density, Σ_y , is computed as

$$\Sigma_{yy} = \sum_{i=0}^{2L} \alpha_i \left(\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_y \right) \left(\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_y \right)^T$$
 (12)

– the output density, $\mathcal{N}\left(oldsymbol{\mu}_{y},oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{yy}
ight)$, is returned



SP commentary

- by approximating the input density instead of linearizing, we avoid the need to compute the Jacobian of the nonlinearity (either in closed form or numerically)
- we employ only standard linear algebra operations (Cholesky decomposition, outer products, matrix summations)
- the computation cost is similar to linearization (when a numerical Jacobian is used)
- there is no requirement that the nonlinearity be smooth and differentiable



Comparison example

- we'll use a simple example to compare the various transformation methods:
 - Monte Carlo
 - linearization
 - sigmapoint
- consider the simple one-dimensional nonlinearity

$$f(x) = x^2 (13)$$

- let the prior density be

$$\mathcal{N}(\mu_x, \sigma_x^2) \tag{14}$$



Example: Monte Carlo

- for this example, we can work out the Monte Carlo method analytically
- an arbitrary sample (a.k.a., realization) of the input density is given by

$$x_i = \mu_x + \delta x_i, \qquad \delta x_i \leftarrow \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_x^2)$$
 (15)

- transforming this sample through the nonlinearity we get

$$y_i = f(x_i) = f(\mu_x + \delta x_i) = (\mu_x + \delta x_i)^2 = \mu_x^2 + 2\mu_x \delta x_i + \delta x_i^2$$
 (16)

 taking the expectation of both sides we arrive at the mean of the output:

$$\mu_y = E[y_i] = \mu_x^2 + 2\mu_x \underbrace{E[\delta x_i]}_{0} + \underbrace{E[\delta x_i^2]}_{\sigma_x^2} = \mu_x^2 + \sigma_x^2 \tag{17}$$



Example: Monte Carlo

– we do a similar thing for the variance of the output:

$$\sigma_y^2 = E\left[(y_i - \mu_y)^2\right]$$

$$= E\left[(2\mu_x \delta x_i + \delta x_i^2 - \sigma_x^2)^2\right]$$

$$= \underbrace{E\left[\delta x_i^4\right]}_{3\sigma_x^4} + 4\mu_x \underbrace{E\left[\delta x_i^3\right]}_{0} + (4\mu_x^2 - 2\sigma_x^2) \underbrace{E\left[\delta x_i^2\right]}_{\sigma_x^2}$$

$$-4\mu_x \sigma_x^2 \underbrace{E\left[\delta x_i\right]}_{0} + \sigma_x^4$$

$$= 4\mu_x^2 \sigma_x^2 + 2\sigma_x^4$$

$$(186)$$

where $E\left[\delta x_i^3\right]=0$ and $E\left[\delta x_i^4\right]=3\sigma_x^4$ are the well-known third and fourth moments for a Gaussian PDF



Example: linearization

- linearizing about the mean of the input density we have

$$y_i = f(\mu_x + \delta x_i) \approx \underbrace{f(\mu_x)}_{\mu_x^2} + \underbrace{\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\Big|_{\mu_x}}_{2\mu_x} \delta x_i = \mu_x^2 + 2\mu_x \delta x_i \tag{19}$$

- taking the expectation we arrive at the mean of the output:

$$\mu_y = E[y_i] = \mu_x^2 + 2\mu_x \underbrace{E[\delta x_i]}_{0} = \mu_x^2 \tag{20}$$

- for the variance of the output we have

$$\sigma_y^2 = E\left[(y_i - \mu_y)^2 \right] = E\left[(2\mu_x \delta x_i)^2 \right] = 4\mu_x^2 \sigma_x^2$$
 (21)

- this estimate is biased and overconfident compared to Monte Carlo



- there are 2L + 1 = 3 sigmapoints in dimension L = 1:

$$x_0 = \mu_x, \quad x_1 = \mu_x + \sqrt{1+\kappa} \,\sigma_x, \quad x_2 = \mu_x - \sqrt{1+\kappa} \,\sigma_x$$
 (22)

where κ is a user-definable parameter that we discuss below

- we pass each sigmapoint through the nonlinearity:

$$y_{0} = f(x_{0}) = \mu_{x}^{2}$$

$$y_{1} = f(x_{1}) = (\mu_{x} + \sqrt{1 + \kappa} \sigma_{x})^{2}$$

$$= \mu_{x}^{2} + 2\mu_{x}\sqrt{1 + \kappa} \sigma_{x} + (1 + \kappa)\sigma_{x}^{2}$$

$$y_{2} = f(x_{2}) = (\mu_{x} - \sqrt{1 + \kappa} \sigma_{x})^{2}$$

$$= \mu_{x}^{2} - 2\mu_{x}\sqrt{1 + \kappa} \sigma_{x} + (1 + \kappa)\sigma_{x}^{2}$$
(23a)



- the mean of the output is given by

$$\mu_{y} = \frac{1}{1+\kappa} \left(\kappa y_{0} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{2} y_{i} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{1+\kappa} \left(\kappa \mu_{x}^{2} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\mu_{x}^{2} + 2\mu_{x} \sqrt{1+\kappa} \, \sigma_{x} + (1+\kappa) \sigma_{x}^{2} + \mu_{x}^{2} \right) -2\mu_{x} \sqrt{1+\kappa} \, \sigma_{x} + (1+\kappa) \sigma_{x}^{2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{1+\kappa} \left(\kappa \mu_{x}^{2} + \mu_{x}^{2} + (1+\kappa) \sigma_{x}^{2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{1+\kappa} \left(\kappa \mu_{x}^{2} + \mu_{x}^{2} + (1+\kappa) \sigma_{x}^{2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\mu_{x}^{2} + \sigma_{x}^{2}}{(24d)}$$

which is independent of κ and exactly the same as Monte Carlo



for the variance we have

$$\sigma_{y}^{2} = \frac{1}{1+\kappa} \left(\kappa \left(y_{0} - \mu_{y} \right)^{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{2} \left(y_{i} - \mu_{y} \right)^{2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{1+\kappa} \left(\kappa \sigma_{x}^{4} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\left(2\mu_{x} \sqrt{1+\kappa} \sigma_{x} + \kappa \sigma_{x}^{2} \right)^{2} + \left(-2\mu_{x} \sqrt{1+\kappa} \sigma_{x} + \kappa \sigma_{x}^{2} \right)^{2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{1+\kappa} \left(\kappa \sigma_{x}^{4} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\left(2\mu_{x} \sqrt{1+\kappa} \sigma_{x} + \kappa \sigma_{x}^{2} \right)^{2} \right) \right)$$
(25a)

$$= \frac{1}{1+\kappa} \left(\kappa \sigma_x^4 + 4(1+\kappa)\mu_x^2 \sigma_x^2 + \kappa^2 \sigma_x^4 \right) \tag{25c}$$

$$= 4\mu_x^2 \sigma_x^2 + \kappa \sigma_x^4 \tag{25d}$$

which can be made to be identical to Monte Carlo by selecting the user-definable parameter, κ , to be 2

 thus, for this nonlinearity, the unscented transformation can exactly capture the correct mean and variance of the output



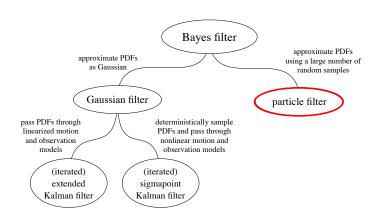
– we choose κ to make the fourth moment of the sigmapoints match the true kurtosis of the Gaussian input density:

$$3\sigma_{x}^{4} = \frac{1}{1+\kappa} \left(\kappa \underbrace{(x_{0} - \mu_{x})^{4}}_{0} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{2} (x_{i} - \mu_{x})^{4} \right)$$
(26a)
$$= \frac{1}{2(1+\kappa)} \left(\left(\sqrt{1+\kappa}\sigma_{x} \right)^{4} + \left(-\sqrt{1+\kappa}\sigma_{x} \right)^{4} \right)$$
(26b)
$$= (1+\kappa)\sigma_{x}^{4}$$
(26c)

- comparing the desired and actual kurtosis, we should pick $\kappa=2$ to make them match exactly
- not surprisingly, this has a positive effect on accuracy of the transformation



Particle filter





Particle filter

- let's try to use the Monte Carlo transformation method to implement the Bayes filter
- the particle filter is one of the only practical techniques able to handle non-Gaussian noise and nonlinear observation and motion models
- it is practical in that it is very easy to implement; we do not even need to have analytical expressions for $f(\cdot)$ and $g(\cdot)$, nor their derivatives
- can be inefficient due to the need for many samples
- sometimes called the bootstrap algorithm, the condensation algorithm, or the survival-of-the-fittest algorithm



PF: prediction

- draw M samples from the joint density comprising the prior and the motion noise:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k-1,m} \\ \mathbf{w}_{k,m} \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow p\left(\mathbf{x}_{k-1} | \check{\mathbf{x}}_0, \mathbf{v}_{1:k-1}, \mathbf{y}_{1:k-1}\right) p(\mathbf{w}_k)$$
(27)

where m is the unique particle index

- generate a prediction of the posterior PDF by using \mathbf{v}_k
- this is done by passing each prior particle/noise sample through the nonlinear motion model:

$$\check{\mathbf{x}}_{k,m} = \mathbf{f}\left(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k-1,m}, \mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{w}_{k,m}\right) \tag{28}$$

- these new predicted particles together approximate the density, $p(\mathbf{x}_k|\check{\mathbf{x}}_0, \mathbf{v}_{1:k}, \mathbf{y}_{1:k-1})$



PF: correction

- correct the posterior PDF by incorporating \mathbf{y}_k
- first, assign a scalar weight, $w_{k,m}$, to each predicted particle based on the divergence between the desired posterior and the predicted posterior for each particle:

$$w_{k,m} = \frac{p\left(\check{\mathbf{x}}_{k,m} \middle| \check{\mathbf{x}}_{0}, \mathbf{v}_{1:k}, \mathbf{y}_{1:k}\right)}{p\left(\check{\mathbf{x}}_{k,m} \middle| \check{\mathbf{x}}_{0}, \mathbf{v}_{1:k}, \mathbf{y}_{1:k-1}\right)} = \eta p\left(\mathbf{y}_{k} \middle| \check{\mathbf{x}}_{k,m}\right)$$
(29)

where η is a normalization constant

- this is typically accomplished in practice by simulating an expected sensor reading, $\check{\mathbf{y}}_{k,m}$, using the nonlinear observation model:

$$\check{\mathbf{y}}_{k,m} = \mathbf{g}\left(\check{\mathbf{x}}_{k,m}, \mathbf{0}\right) \tag{30}$$

– we then assume $p(\mathbf{y}_k|\check{\mathbf{x}}_{k,m}) = p(\mathbf{y}_k|\check{\mathbf{y}}_{k,m})$, where the right-hand side is a known density (e.g., Gaussian)



PF: correction

 second, resample the posterior based on the weight assigned to each predicted posterior particle:

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k,m} \stackrel{\text{resample}}{\longleftarrow} \left\{ \check{\mathbf{x}}_{k,m}, w_{k,m} \right\} \tag{31}$$

- this can be done in several different ways (e.g., Madow systematic sampling)
- create M bins based on weights

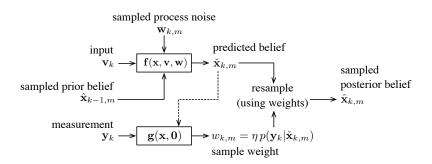
$$\beta_m = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^m w_n}{\sum_{\ell=1}^M w_\ell}$$
 (32)

$$0 \le \beta_1 \le \beta_2 \le \ldots \le \beta_{M-1} \le 1$$

– march along in steps of 1/M, adding a sample from each bin that is visited



PF in pictures





PF in action

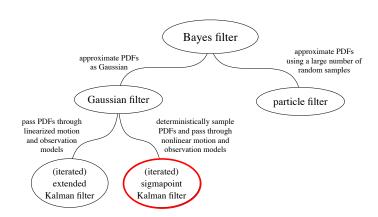


PF commentary

- we do not necessarily need to resample every time we go through the algorithm
- to be on the safe side, it is wise to add a small percentage of samples in the prediction step that are uniformly drawn from the entire state sample space
- for high-dimensional state estimation problems, the PF can become computationally intractable
- the PF is an anytime algorithm we can just keep adding particles until we run out of time, then resample and give an answer
- we can dynamically pick the number of particles online using a heuristic such as $\sum w_{k,m} \ge w_{\rm thresh}$, a threshold
- the CRLB is set by the uncertainty in the measurements that we have available – using more samples does not allow us to do better



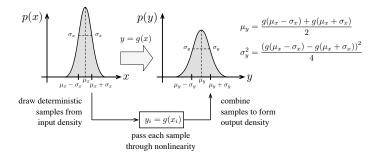
Sigmapoint Kalman filter





SPKF

 we can also derive a filtering scheme that uses the sigmapoint transformation to implement the generalized Gaussian filter, rather than linearization





SPKF: prediction

 both the prior belief and the motion noise have uncertainty so these are stacked together in the following way:

$$\mu_z = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k-1} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \mathbf{\Sigma}_{zz} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{P}}_{k-1} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{Q}_k \end{bmatrix}$$
 (33)

where we see that $\{\mu_z, \Sigma_{zz}\}$ is still a Gaussian representation

- we let $L=\dim \mu_z$
- convert $\{\mu_z, \Sigma_{zz}\}$ to a sigmapoint representation:

$$\mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^T = \mathbf{\Sigma}_{zz}$$
 (Cholesky decomposition, \mathbf{L} lower-triangular) (34a)

$$\mathbf{z}_0 = \boldsymbol{\mu}_z \tag{34b}$$

$$\mathbf{z}_{i} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_{z} + \sqrt{L + \kappa} \operatorname{col}_{i} \mathbf{L}$$

$$i = 1 \dots L$$
(34c)

$$\mathbf{z}_{i+L} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_z - \sqrt{L + \kappa} \operatorname{col}_i \mathbf{L}$$
 $i = 1 \dots L$ (34d)



SPKF: prediction

- unstack each sigmapoint into state and motion noise,

$$\mathbf{z}_i = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k-1,i} \\ \mathbf{w}_{k,i} \end{bmatrix} \tag{35}$$

- pass each sigmapoint through the nonlinear motion model exactly:

$$\check{\mathbf{x}}_{k,i} = \mathbf{f}\left(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k-1,i}, \mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{w}_{k,i}\right) \qquad i = 0...2L$$
(36)

– the latest input, \mathbf{v}_k , is required



SPKF: prediction

– recombine the transformed sigmapoints into the predicted belief, $\{\check{\mathbf{x}}_k,\check{\mathbf{P}}_k\}$, according to

$$\check{\mathbf{x}}_k = \sum_{i=0}^{2L} \alpha_i \, \check{\mathbf{x}}_{k,i} \tag{37a}$$

$$\check{\mathbf{P}}_{k} = \sum_{i=0}^{2L} \alpha_{i} \left(\check{\mathbf{x}}_{k,i} - \check{\mathbf{x}}_{k} \right) \left(\check{\mathbf{x}}_{k,i} - \check{\mathbf{x}}_{k} \right)^{T}$$
(37b)

where

$$\alpha_i = \begin{cases} \frac{\kappa}{L + \kappa} & i = 0\\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{L + \kappa} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (38)



- this step is a little more subtle
- we'll begin by recalling the generalized Gaussian correction step:

$$\mathbf{K}_k = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{xy,k} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{yy,k}^{-1} \tag{39a}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{P}}_k = \check{\mathbf{P}}_k - \mathbf{K}_k \mathbf{\Sigma}_{xy,k}^T \tag{39b}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k} = \check{\mathbf{x}}_{k} + \mathbf{K}_{k} \left(\mathbf{y}_{k} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{y,k} \right) \tag{39c}$$

– we'll use the sigmapoint transformation to come up with better versions of $\mu_{y,k}$, $\Sigma_{yy,k}$, and $\Sigma_{xy,k}$ than we found through linearization



 both the predicted belief and the observation noise have uncertainty so these are stacked together in the following way:

$$\mu_z = \begin{bmatrix} \check{\mathbf{x}}_k \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \mathbf{\Sigma}_{zz} = \begin{bmatrix} \check{\mathbf{P}}_k & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{R}_k \end{bmatrix}$$
 (40)

where we see that $\{\mu_z, \Sigma_{zz}\}$ is still a Gaussian representation

- we let $L=\dim {m \mu}_z$
- convert $\{\mu_z, \Sigma_{zz}\}$ to a sigmapoint representation:

$$\mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^T = \mathbf{\Sigma}_{zz}$$
 (Cholesky decomposition, \mathbf{L} lower-triangular) (41a)

$$\mathbf{z}_0 = \boldsymbol{\mu}_z \tag{41b}$$

$$\mathbf{z}_{i} = \boldsymbol{\mu}_{z} + \sqrt{L + \kappa} \operatorname{col}_{i} \mathbf{L}$$
 (41c)

$$\mathbf{z}_i = oldsymbol{\mu}_z + \sqrt{L + \kappa} \cot_i \mathbf{L}$$
 $\mathbf{z}_{i+L} = oldsymbol{\mu}_z - \sqrt{L + \kappa} \cot_i \mathbf{L}$ $i = 1 \dots L$





- unstack each sigmapoint into state and observation noise,

$$\mathbf{z}_{i} = \begin{bmatrix} \check{\mathbf{x}}_{k,i} \\ \mathbf{n}_{k,i} \end{bmatrix} \tag{42}$$

 pass each sigmapoint through the nonlinear observation model exactly:

$$\check{\mathbf{y}}_{k,i} = \mathbf{g}\left(\check{\mathbf{x}}_{k,i}, \mathbf{n}_{k,i}\right) \tag{43}$$



recombine the transformed sigmapoints into the desired moments:

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_{y,k} = \sum_{i=0}^{2L} \alpha_i \, \check{\mathbf{y}}_{k,i} \tag{44a}$$

$$\sum_{yy,k} = \sum_{i=0}^{2L} \alpha_i \left(\check{\mathbf{y}}_{k,i} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{y,k} \right) \left(\check{\mathbf{y}}_{k,i} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{y,k} \right)^T$$
(44b)

$$\sum_{xy,k} = \sum_{i=0}^{2D} \alpha_i \left(\check{\mathbf{x}}_{k,i} - \check{\mathbf{x}}_k \right) \left(\check{\mathbf{y}}_{k,i} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{y,k} \right)^T$$
(44c)

where

$$\alpha_i = \begin{cases} \frac{\kappa}{L+\kappa} & i = 0\\ \frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{L+\kappa} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (45)

 these are plugged into the generalized Gaussian correction-step equations above to complete the correction step



SPKF commentary

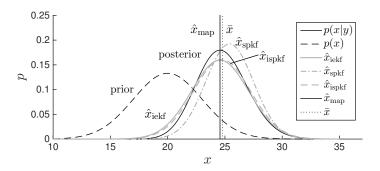
- a big advantage of the SPKF (over the EKF) is that it does not require any analytical derivatives of the motion and observation models
- in fact, the models could even just be black-box software functions
 no need to express them mathematically!
- there are some additional efficiencies that can be found in the calculations when the observation model becomes:

$$\mathbf{y}_k = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_k) + \mathbf{n}_k,\tag{46}$$

 there is even an iterated SPKF that can be formulated using the idea of statistical Jacobians



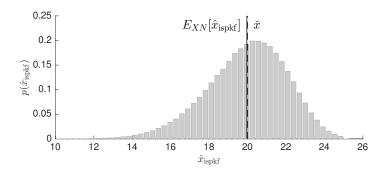
SPKF example



- we see that the SPKF does converge to a slightly different place than the IEKF on our simple stereo camera example
- it does not go to the MAP solution...



SPKF example



 over 1,000,000 we find the ISPKF actually converges quite close to the mean of the true posterior, not the mode



Summary

- we investigated a few more alternatives in our taxonomy of filters
- by using Monte Carlo sampling, we came up with the particle filter, which can be used for general nonlinear, non-Gaussian problems, but is quite inefficient in most cases
- by using the sigmapoint transformation, we came up with the sigmapoint Kalman filter, which is only slightly less efficient than the EKF, but is quite a bit more accurate on nonlinear problems
- the choice of EKF, PF, or SPKF depends on how nonlinear and non-Gaussian your problem is

