

Particle Filter

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Pop Quiz!

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- ▶ Kalman filter
- ▶ Extended Kalman filter (EKF)
- ▶ Iterated EKF
- ▶ Invariant EKF
- ▶ Rauch–Tung–Striebel Smoother
- ▶ Sliding Window Filter
- ▶ Batch estimator
- ▶ Sigma-point Kalman filter (i.e. UKF, CKF, GHKF)
- ▶ Iterated Sigma-point Kalman filter
- ▶ ESGVI [1]

Pop Quiz!

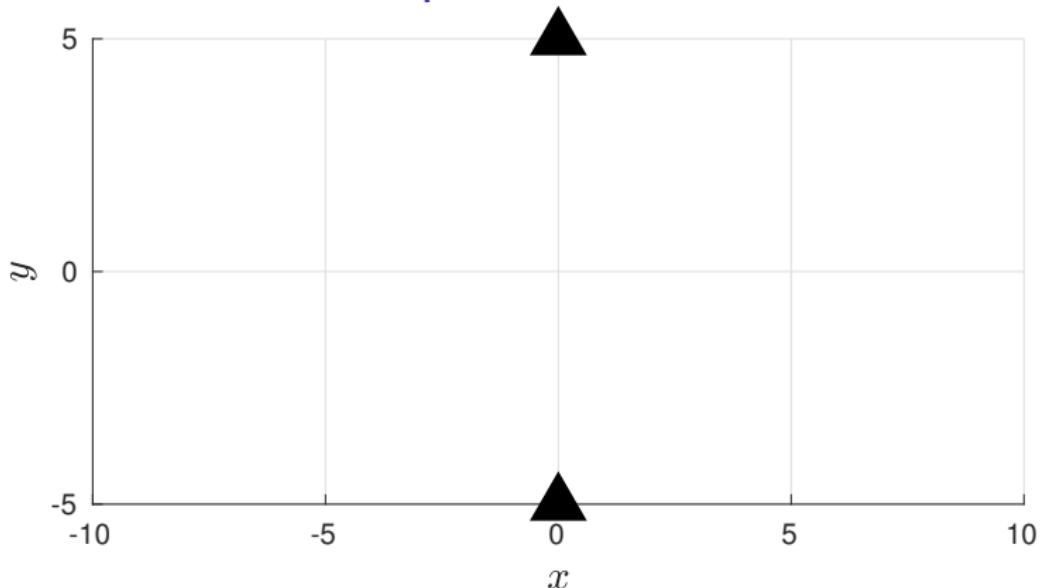
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They all assume the state distribution is Gaussian.

- ▶ This makes them Gaussian *assumed density filters*.

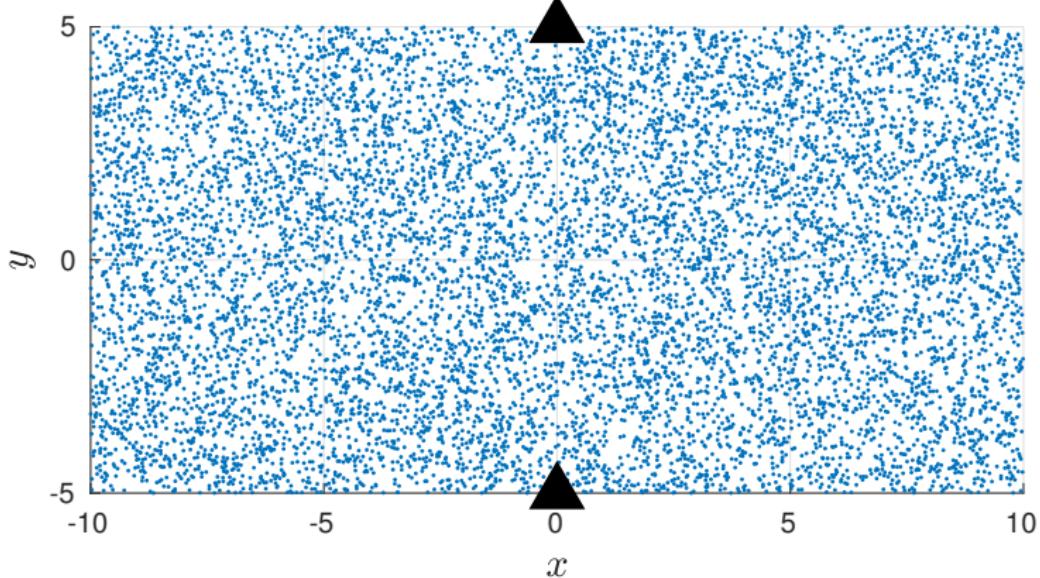
A Non-Gaussian Example



- ▶ Suppose we know a robot lies *somewhere* inside the region $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{r}_a^{zw} \in [[-10 \ -5]^T, [10 \ 5]^T]$.
- ▶ The robot gets distance measurements to two landmarks ℓ_1, ℓ_2 (black triangles) with measurement model

$$y_j = \left\| \mathbf{r}_a^{zw} - \mathbf{r}_a^{\ell_j w} \right\| + v, \quad v \sim \mathcal{N}(0, R) \quad (1)$$

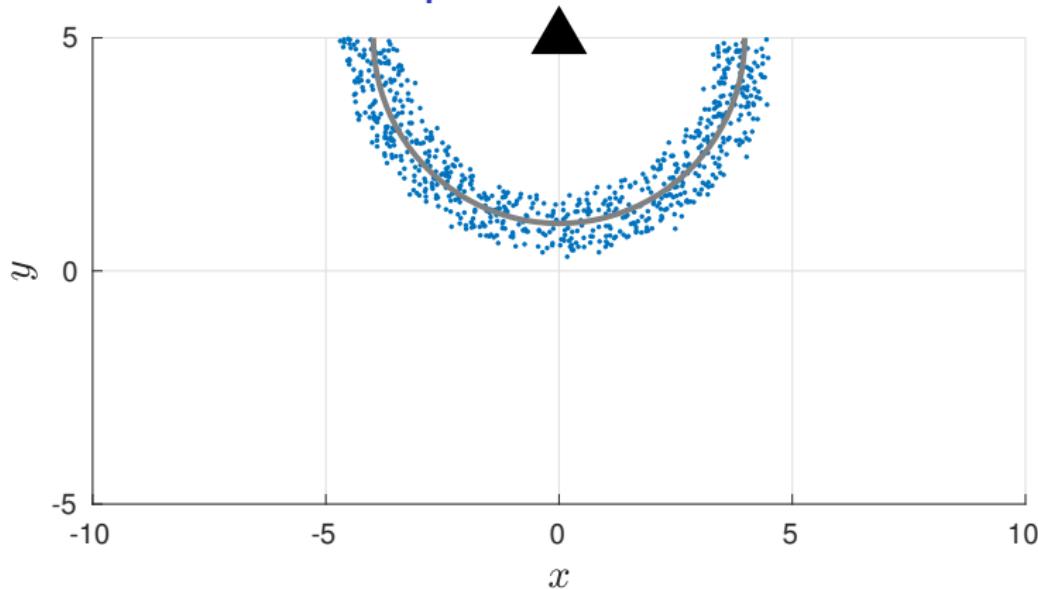
A Non-Gaussian Example



- We are already doing something impossible with Gaussian estimators, we have a *uniform prior*

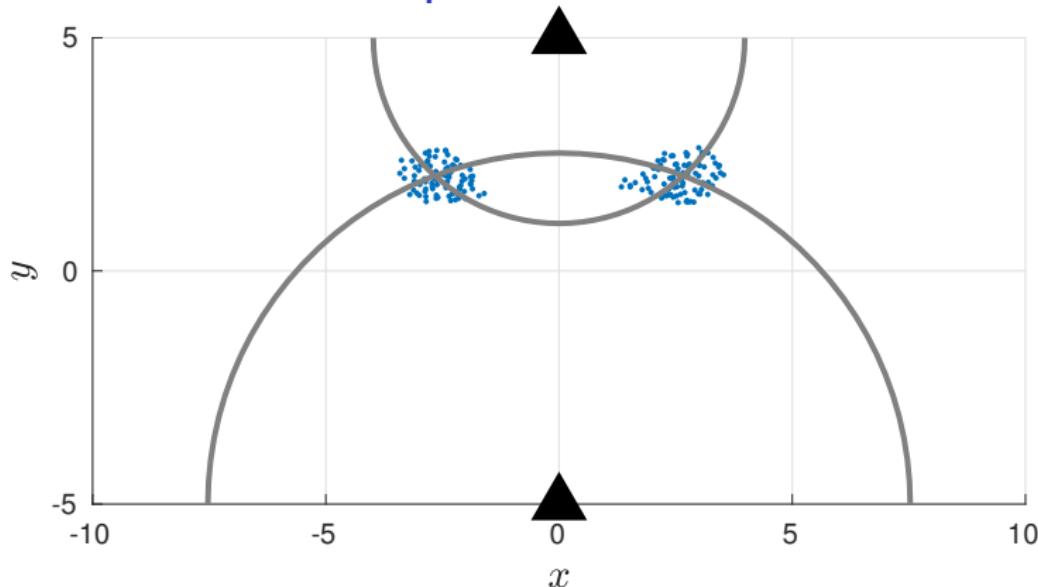
$$p(\mathbf{x}_0) = \text{Unif} \left(\begin{bmatrix} -10 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \right).$$

A Non-Gaussian Example



- ▶ Obtaining a single distance measurement to the top landmark, the distribution of positions lies on a circle.
- ▶ Gaussian distributions always look like ellipses, so a Gaussian estimator would do a horrible job here.

A Non-Gaussian Example



- ▶ Obtaining a second distance measurement to the bottom landmark, we now have two possible ambiguous locations where the robot could be.
- ▶ The distribution is *multi-modal*.

Review: Probability Density Functions

Probability Density Function (PDF)

A continuous PDF is a function $p : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that satisfies the *axiom of total probability*,

$$\int_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{b}} p(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = 1. \quad (2)$$

If the random variable $\mathbf{x} \in [\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}]$ is distributed according to $p(\mathbf{x})$, it is written as $\mathbf{x} \sim p(\mathbf{x})$.

Gaussian PDFs

A Gaussian PDF with mean $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and covariance $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is denoted as $p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$, where

$$\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det(2\pi\boldsymbol{\Sigma})}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right). \quad (3)$$

The Usual Estimation Setup

- We will assume there exists a **process model** of the form

$$\mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}, \mathbf{w}_{k-1}), \quad \mathbf{w}_{k-1} \sim p(\mathbf{w}_{k-1}). \quad (4)$$

Markov Assumption [2, Ch. 4.1]

The current state \mathbf{x}_k is independent of anything before $k - 1$, if the state and input $\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}$ are known:

$$p(\mathbf{x}_k | \mathbf{x}_{1:k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{0:k-1}, \mathbf{y}_{0:k-1}) = p(\mathbf{x}_k | \mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}). \quad (5)$$

- We will assume there is a **measurement model** of the form

$$\mathbf{y}_k = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_k, \mathbf{v}_k), \quad \mathbf{v}_k \sim p(\mathbf{v}_k). \quad (6)$$

Conditional Independence Assumption [2, Ch. 4.1]

The current measurement \mathbf{y}_k given the current state \mathbf{x}_k is conditionally independent of the measurement and state histories:

$$p(\mathbf{y}_k | \mathbf{x}_{1:k}, \mathbf{y}_{1:k-1}) = p(\mathbf{y}_k | \mathbf{x}_k) \quad (7)$$

The Task of All Estimators

All estimators seek to compute, or represent in some way, the *posterior distribution*

$$p(\mathbf{x}_{0:k} | \mathbf{y}_{0:k}, \mathbf{u}_{0:k-1}), \quad (8)$$

where

- ▶ $\mathbf{x}_{0:k} = [\mathbf{x}_0^T \dots \mathbf{x}_k^T]^T = \mathbf{x}$ is the state,
- ▶ $\mathbf{y}_{0:k} = \mathbf{y}$ are the output measurements,
- ▶ $\mathbf{u}_{0:k-1} = \mathbf{u}$ are the input measurements,
- ▶ and we also have some prior information $p(\mathbf{x}_0)$.

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- ▶ and we also have some prior information $p(\mathbf{x}_0)$.

When filtering, such as an EKF, the output is information about the current state \mathbf{x}_k only, given all earlier measurements

$$p(\mathbf{x}_k | \mathbf{y}_{0:k}, \mathbf{u}_{0:k-1}). \quad (9)$$

In general, (9) is an extremely complicated, intractable expression.

Review: Examples of Some Known PDFs

In certain cases, we **do** have nice expressions for some PDFs.

- If we have an initial guess (a prior) of the state with mean $\check{\mathbf{x}}_0$ and covariance $\check{\mathbf{P}}_0$, then

$$p(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathcal{N}(\check{\mathbf{x}}_0, \check{\mathbf{P}}_0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det(2\pi\check{\mathbf{P}}_0)}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_0 - \check{\mathbf{x}}_0)^T \check{\mathbf{P}}_0^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_0 - \check{\mathbf{x}}_0)\right). \quad (10)$$

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- If we have a nonlinear process model with additive noise $\mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}) + \mathbf{w}_{k-1}$, $\mathbf{w}_{k-1} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{Q}_{k-1})$ then

$$\begin{aligned} p(\mathbf{x}_k | \mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}) &= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}), \mathbf{Q}_{k-1}) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det(2\pi\mathbf{Q}_{k-1})}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}))^T \mathbf{Q}_{k-1}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}))\right) \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

Review: Examples of Some Known PDFs

- ▶ If we have a nonlinear measurement model with additive noise
 $\mathbf{y}_k = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_k) + \mathbf{v}_k$, $\mathbf{v}_k \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{R}_k)$ then

$$\begin{aligned} p(\mathbf{y}_k | \mathbf{x}_k) &= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_k), \mathbf{R}_k) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det(2\pi\mathbf{R}_k)}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}_k - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_k))^T \mathbf{R}_k^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_k - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_k))\right). \quad (12) \end{aligned}$$

Review: Bayes' Rule, Marginalization

Bayes' Rule

Any joint PDF $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ can be written as

$$p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x}) = p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y})p(\mathbf{y})$$

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The last equation is known as *Bayes' Rule*.

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Definition (Marginalization)

Recall that *marginalization* refers to integrating a joint PDF $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ with respect to some of the variables, such as \mathbf{x}

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Review: Bayes' Filter

- Back to our goal of determining the posterior distribution $p(\mathbf{x}_k | \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u})$, we can use Bayes' rule to write

$$p(\mathbf{x}_k | \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u}) = \eta p(\mathbf{y}_k | \mathbf{x}_k) p(\mathbf{x}_k | \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}_{0:k-1}). \quad (16)$$

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- For the second term, we can insert a dependence on \mathbf{x}_{k-1} through marginalization,

$$p(\mathbf{x}_k|\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}_{0:k-1}) = \int p(\mathbf{x}_k, \mathbf{x}_{k-1}|\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}_{0:k-1}) d\mathbf{x}_{k-1} \quad (17)$$

$$= \int p(\mathbf{x}_k|\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}_{0:k-1}, \mathbf{x}_{k-1}) p(\mathbf{x}_{k-1}|\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}_{0:k-1}) d\mathbf{x}_{k-1}$$

$$= \int p(\mathbf{x}_k|\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}) p(\mathbf{x}_{k-1}|\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}_{0:k-1}) d\mathbf{x}_{k-1}. \quad (18)$$

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$$= \int p(\mathbf{x}_k | \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}_{0:k-1}, \mathbf{x}_{k-1}) p(\mathbf{x}_{k-1} | \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}_{0:k-1}) d\mathbf{x}_{k-1}$$

$$= \int p(\mathbf{x}_k | \mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}) p(\mathbf{x}_{k-1} | \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}_{0:k-1}) d\mathbf{x}_{k-1}. \quad (18)$$

Bayes' Filter

Substituting (18) into (16) gives Bayes' filter,

$$p(\mathbf{x}_k | \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u}) = \eta p(\mathbf{y}_k | \mathbf{x}_k) \int p(\mathbf{x}_k | \mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}) p(\mathbf{x}_{k-1} | \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}_{0:k-1}) d\mathbf{x}_{k-1}. \quad (19)$$

Monte Carlo Integration

- ▶ Clearly, we need a method to evaluate generic integrals of the form

$$E[\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})] = \int \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}) p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{x}. \quad (20)$$

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$$E[\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})] = \int \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}) p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{x}. \quad (20)$$

- ▶ In an ideal Monte Carlo approximation, we can draw samples $\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \sim p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y})$, $i = 1, \dots, N$ and approximate the integral with

$$E[\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})] \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}). \quad (21)$$

Monte Carlo Integration Example

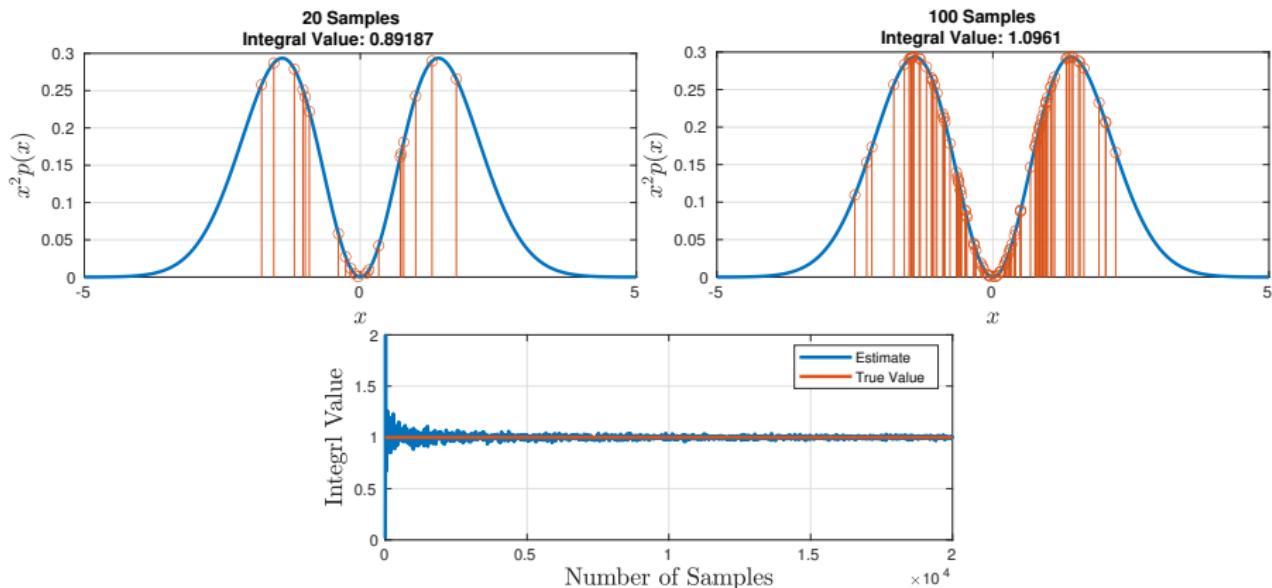


Figure 1: Computation of the integral $\int x^2 p(x) dx$ where $p(x) = \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

Starting Simple: A Prior and One Measurement

Lets start by considering just a **single correction step**. That is, we have access to

- ▶ some prior information of our state $p(\mathbf{x}_0)$,
- ▶ one measurement \mathbf{y}_0 with measurement model,

$$\mathbf{y}_0 = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_0) + \mathbf{v}_0, \quad \mathbf{v}_0 \sim p(\mathbf{v}_0) \quad (22)$$

and hence we assume that we know $p(\mathbf{y}_0|\mathbf{x}_0)$.

The posterior distribution is

$$p(\mathbf{x}_0|\mathbf{y}_0). \quad (23)$$

Importance Sampling

- ▶ In this case, integrals to compute will be of the form $\int \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_0)p(\mathbf{x}_0|\mathbf{y}_0)d\mathbf{x}_0$.
- ▶ Unfortunately, even sampling from $p(\mathbf{x}_0|\mathbf{y}_0)$ is difficult, if not impossible.
- ▶ Hence, we will introduce an *importance distribution* $\pi(\mathbf{x}_0|\mathbf{y}_0)$ that we **can** sample from,

$$\int \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_0)p(\mathbf{x}_0|\mathbf{y}_0)d\mathbf{x}_0 = \int \left(\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_0) \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_0|\mathbf{y}_0)}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_0|\mathbf{y}_0)} \right) \pi(\mathbf{x}_0|\mathbf{y}_0)d\mathbf{x}_0. \quad (24)$$

- ▶ As such, after sampling $\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \sim \pi(\mathbf{x}_0|\mathbf{y}_0)$, the integral can be approximated with

$$E[\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_0)] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)}|\mathbf{y}_0)}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)}|\mathbf{y}_0)} \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)}) \quad (25)$$

$$\triangleq \sum_{i=1}^N w^{(i)} \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)}), \quad w^{(i)} = \frac{1}{N} \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)}|\mathbf{y}_0)}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)}|\mathbf{y}_0)}. \quad (26)$$

Importance Sampling

- ▶ ... except we cannot even evaluate $p(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)}|\mathbf{y}_0)$, in general.
- ▶ But, using Bayes' rule,

$$p(\mathbf{x}_0|\mathbf{y}_0) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}_0|\mathbf{x}_0)p(\mathbf{x}_0)}{\int p(\mathbf{y}_0|\mathbf{x}_0)p(\mathbf{x}_0)d\mathbf{x}_0}. \quad (27)$$

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- Hence,

$$E[\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_0)] = \int \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_0) p(\mathbf{x}_0 | \mathbf{y}_0) d\mathbf{x}_0 = \frac{\int \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_0) p(\mathbf{y}_0 | \mathbf{x}_0) p(\mathbf{x}_0) d\mathbf{x}_0}{\int p(\mathbf{y}_0 | \mathbf{x}_0) p(\mathbf{x}_0) d\mathbf{x}_0} \quad (28)$$

$$= \frac{\int \left(\frac{p(\mathbf{y}_0 | \mathbf{x}_0) p(\mathbf{x}_0)}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_0 | \mathbf{y}_0)} \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_0) \right) \pi(\mathbf{x}_0 | \mathbf{y}_0) d\mathbf{x}_0}{\int \left(\frac{p(\mathbf{y}_0 | \mathbf{x}_0) p(\mathbf{x}_0)}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_0 | \mathbf{y}_0)} \right) \pi(\mathbf{x}_0 | \mathbf{y}_0) d\mathbf{x}_0} \quad (29)$$

$$\approx \frac{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{p(\mathbf{y}_0 | \mathbf{x}_0^{(i)}) p(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)})}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)} | \mathbf{y}_0)} \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)})}{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{p(\mathbf{y}_0 | \mathbf{x}_0^{(i)}) p(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)})}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)} | \mathbf{y}_0)}} \quad (30)$$

Importance Sampling

$$E[\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_0)] \approx \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\frac{\frac{p(\mathbf{y}_0 | \mathbf{x}_0^{(i)}) p(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)})}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)} | \mathbf{y}_0)}}{\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{p(\mathbf{y}_0 | \mathbf{x}_0^{(i)}) p(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)})}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)} | \mathbf{y}_0)}} \right) \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)}) \quad (31)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^N \underbrace{\left(\frac{w^{*(i)}}{\sum_{i=1}^N w^{*(i)}} \right)}_{w^{(i)}} \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)}) \quad (32)$$

where the *un-normalized weights* are defined as

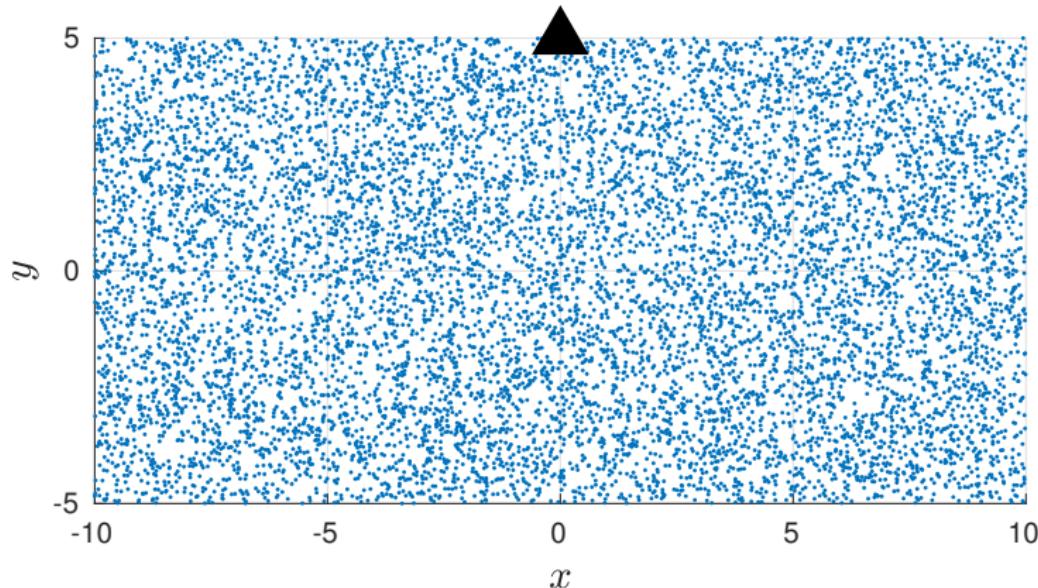
$$w^{*(i)} = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}_0 | \mathbf{x}_0^{(i)}) p(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)})}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_0^{(i)} | \mathbf{y}_0)}. \quad (33)$$

- At last, (32) is something we can compute. The posterior can also be approximated as

$$p(\mathbf{x}_0 | \mathbf{y}_0) \approx \sum_{i=1}^N w^{(i)} \delta(\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_0^{(i)}) \quad (34)$$

where $\delta(\cdot)$ is the Dirac delta function.

Importance Sampling Example

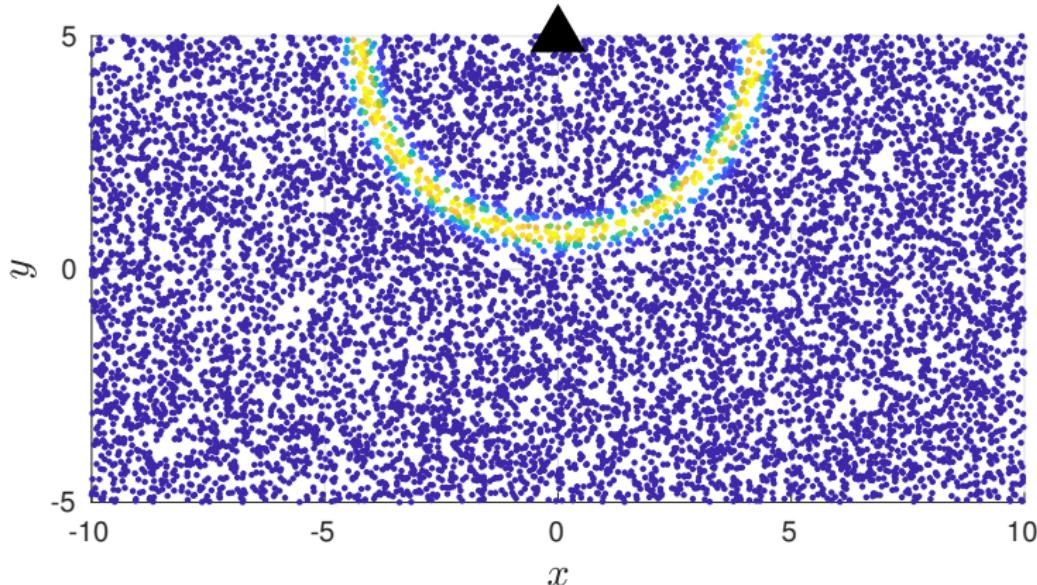


- We will use the earlier example, choosing

$$\pi(\mathbf{x}_0 | \mathbf{y}_0) = p(\mathbf{x}_0) = \text{Unif}([-10 \ -5]^T, [10, 5]^T). \quad (35)$$

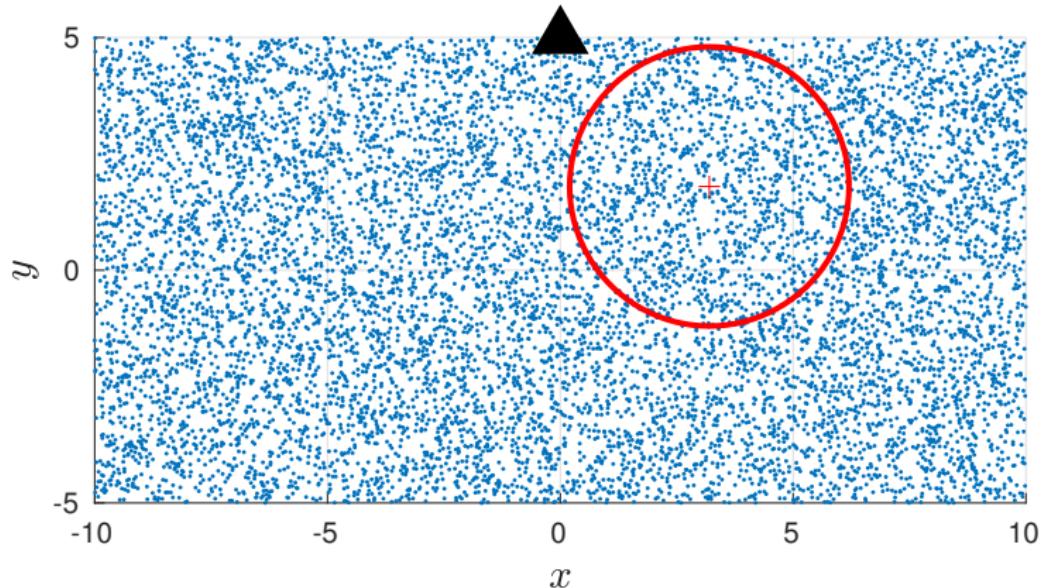
and we receive a distance measurement y_0 to the top landmark.

Importance Sampling Example



- ▶ The samples' color have been scaled according to their weight $w^{(i)}$.

Importance Sampling Example 2

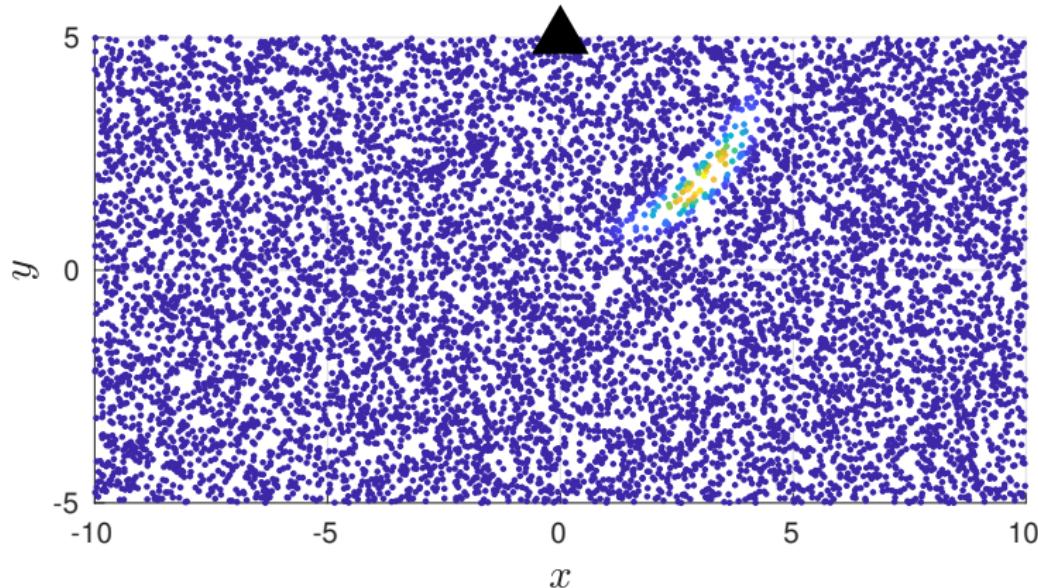


- As another example, we choose

$$\pi(\mathbf{x}_0 | \mathbf{y}_0) = \text{Unif}([-10 \ -5]^T, [10, 5]^T). \quad (36)$$

and we have a prior $p(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathcal{N}([3.2 \ 1.8]^T, \mathbf{1})$.

Importance Sampling Example 2



- ▶ The samples' color have been scaled according to their weight $w^{(i)}$.
- ▶ Now, what about the case with multiple measurements?

Sequential Importance Sampling

- ▶ Let's generalize the previous importance sampling procedure to the posterior given many measurements $p(\mathbf{x}_{0:k} | \mathbf{y}_{0:k}, \mathbf{u}_{0:k-1}) = p(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u})$.
- ▶ Using the Markov and conditional independence assumptions, as well as Bayes' rule,

$$p(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u}) = \eta p(\mathbf{y}_k | \mathbf{x}_k) p(\mathbf{x}_k | \mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}) p(\mathbf{x}_{0:k-1} | \mathbf{y}_{0:k-1}, \mathbf{u}). \quad (37)$$

- ▶ Repeating the same importance sampling derivation as before will eventually give the following un-normalized weights

$$w_k^{*(i)} = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}_k | \mathbf{x}_k^{(i)}) p(\mathbf{x}_k^{(i)} | \mathbf{x}_{k-1}^{(i)}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}) p(\mathbf{x}_{0:k-1}^{(i)} | \mathbf{y}_{0:k-1}, \mathbf{u})}{\pi(\mathbf{x}^{(i)} | \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u})} \quad (38)$$

Sequential Importance Sampling

- The importance distribution can be written as,

$$\pi(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u}) = \pi(\mathbf{x}_k|\mathbf{x}_{0:k-1}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u})\pi(\mathbf{x}_{0:k-1}|\mathbf{y}_{0:k-1}, \mathbf{u}). \quad (39)$$

- Thus the un-normalized weights can be written as

$$w_k^{*(i)} = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}_k|\mathbf{x}_k^{(i)})p(\mathbf{x}_k^{(i)}|\mathbf{x}_{k-1}^{(i)}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1})}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_k^{(i)}|\mathbf{x}_{0:k-1}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u})} \underbrace{\frac{p(\mathbf{x}_{0:k-1}^{(i)}|\mathbf{y}_{0:k-1}, \mathbf{u})}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_{0:k-1}^{(i)}|\mathbf{y}_{0:k-1}, \mathbf{u})}}_{\triangleq w_{k-1}^{(i)}}, \quad (40)$$

$$w_k^{*(i)} = w_{k-1}^{(i)} \frac{p(\mathbf{y}_k|\mathbf{x}_k^{(i)})p(\mathbf{x}_k^{(i)}|\mathbf{x}_{k-1}^{(i)}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1})}{\pi(\mathbf{x}_k^{(i)}|\mathbf{x}_{0:k-1}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u})}, \quad (41)$$

after which, they should be normalized to sum to 1.

- We have a recursive expression, where the weights are “updated”.

“Bootstrapping” the Importance Distribution

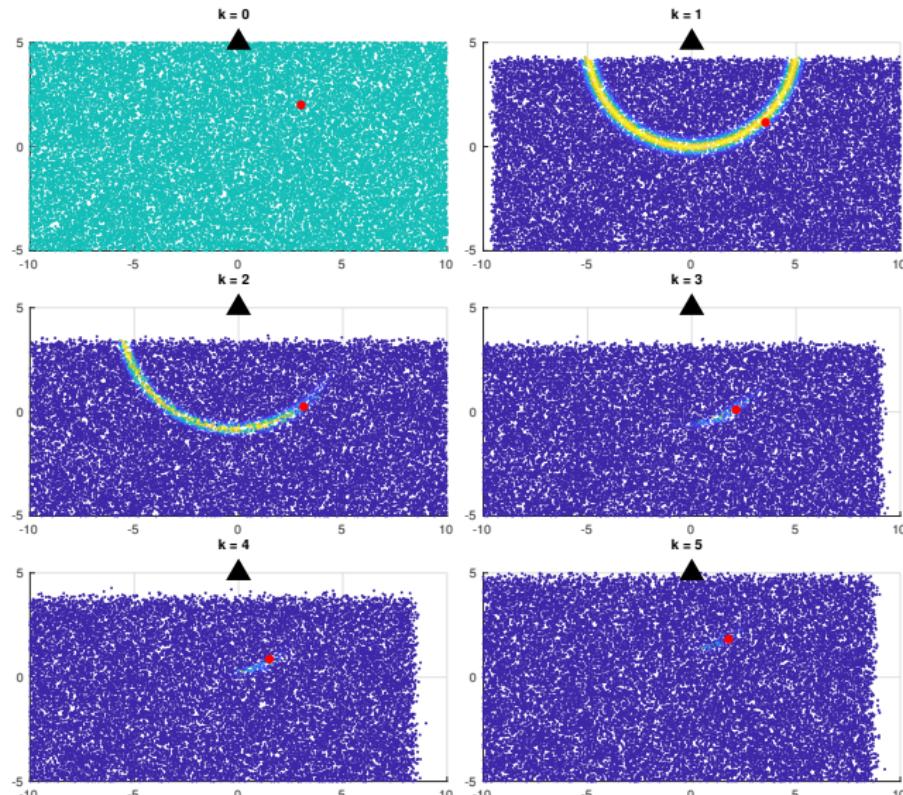
- If we choose $\pi(\mathbf{x}_k | \mathbf{x}_{0:k-1}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u}) = p(\mathbf{x}_k | \mathbf{x}_{k-1}^{(i)}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1})$ as the importance distribution, the weights becomes

$$w_k^{*(i)} = w_{k-1}^{(i)} \frac{p(\mathbf{y}_k | \mathbf{x}_k^{(i)}) p(\mathbf{x}_k^{(i)} | \mathbf{x}_{k-1}^{(i)}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1})}{p(\mathbf{x}_k^{(i)} | \mathbf{x}_{k-1}^{(i)}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1})}, \quad (42)$$

$$= w_{k-1}^{(i)} p(\mathbf{y}_k | \mathbf{x}_k^{(i)}). \quad (43)$$

- This forms the basis of the most popular particle filter, the *bootstrap particle filter*.

Sequential Importance Sampling Example



Red dot is the true position.

$$p(\mathbf{x}_0) =$$

$$\text{Unif} \left(\begin{bmatrix} -10 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$\mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{x}_{k-1} + \Delta t \mathbf{u}_{k-1}$$

$$\mathbf{u}(t) = [\cos(t) \ -\sin(t)]^T$$

$$y_k = \|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{r}_a^{\ell w}\|$$

Resampling

- ▶ As is, the filter will have a *degeneracy problem* [2, 3].
- ▶ That is, almost all of the weights will go to 0, except one, which will go to 1.

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- ▶ Interpret the weights as the probability of making a copy of the sample.

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- ▶ This problem can be solved by resampling.
 - ▶ Make copies of samples with high weights.
 - ▶ Discard samples with low weights.
- ▶ Interpret the weights as the probability of making a copy of the sample.
- ▶ There are many resampling strategies [3]:
 - ▶ multinomial resampling;
 - ▶ residual resampling;
 - ▶ stratified resampling;
 - ▶ **systematic resampling.**

Systematic Resampling

From N normalized weights $w^{(i)}$, systematic resampling proceeds as follows.

1. Create bins with boundaries β_m according to $\beta_m = \sum_{i=1}^m w^{(i)}$.
2. Select a random number $\Delta \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1/N)$.
3. Draw N new samples using the look-up values

$$\ell_j = \Delta + j(1/N), \quad j = 0, \dots, N - 1 \quad (44)$$

and choosing the sample whose bin contains ℓ_j .

4. Reset all the weights to $w^{(i)} = 1/N$.

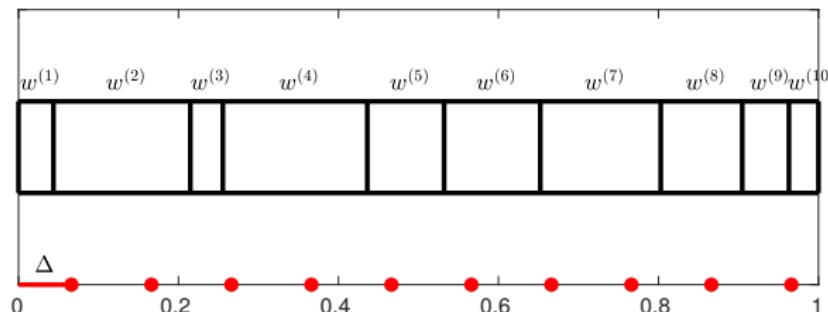


Figure 2: Systematic resampling schematic for $N = 10$. Red dots are ℓ_j values.

Systematic Resampling

This completes the plain-vanilla *bootstrap particle filter*.

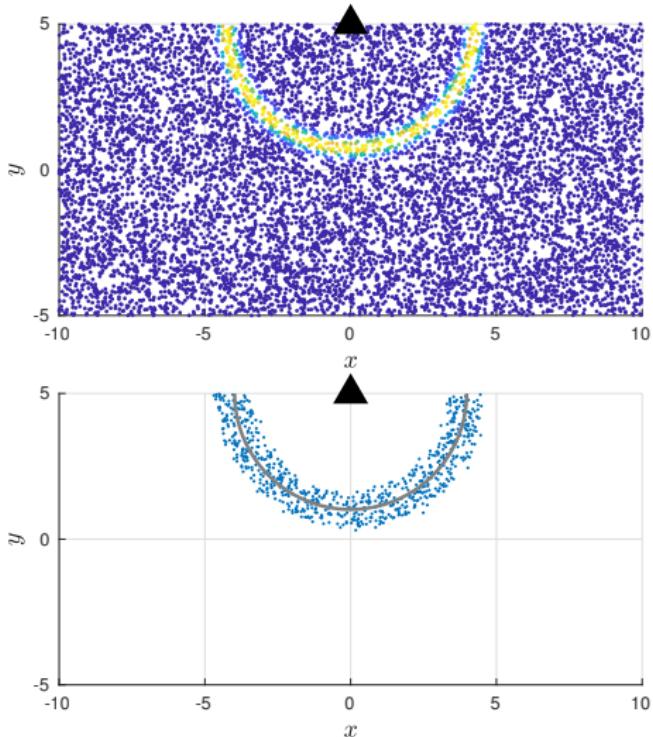


Figure 3: (top) Before resampling. (bottom) After resampling.

Sample Impoverishment

- ▶ Resampling can occasionally result in *sample impoverishment*.
- ▶ We end up with a large amount of copies of just a few samples.
- ▶ This often happens when process noise is low.
- ▶ Suggestions to fix this problem can be found in [3].

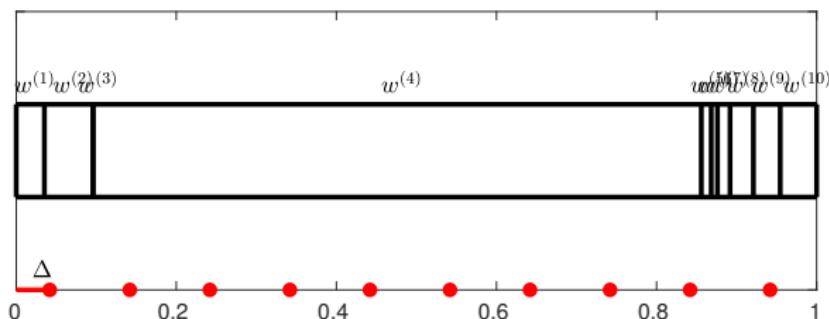
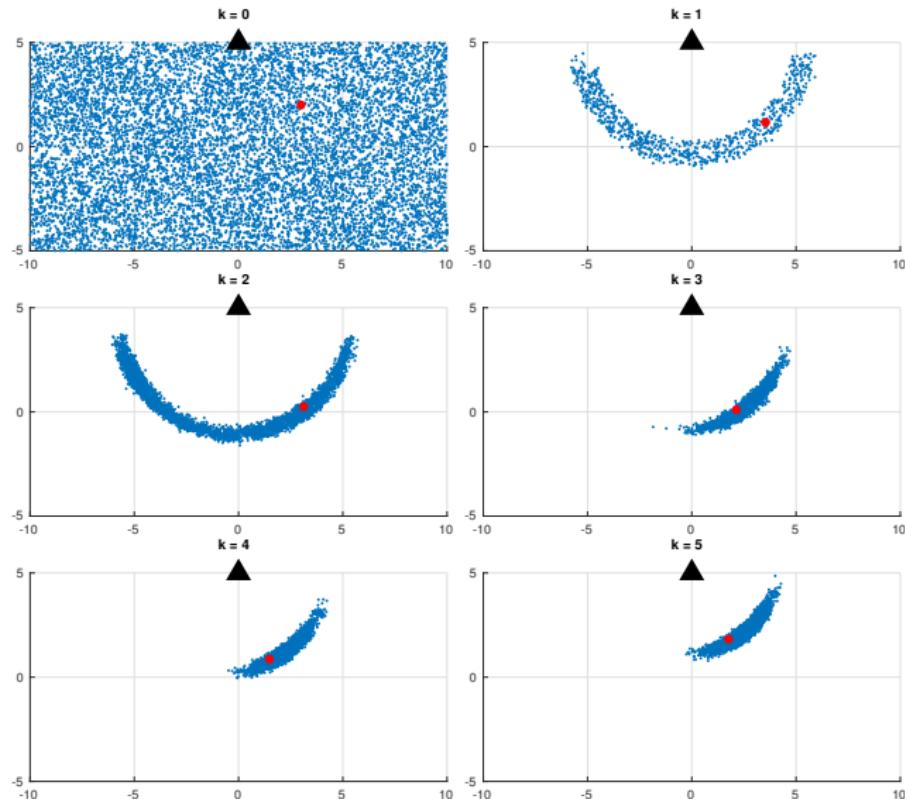


Figure 4: Excessive copies of a single sample, results in loss of diversity.

Sequential Importance Resampling (Particle Filter)



Red dot is the true position.

$$p(\mathbf{x}_0) =$$

$$\text{Unif} \left(\begin{bmatrix} -10 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$\mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{x}_{k-1} + \Delta t \mathbf{u}_{k-1}$$

$$\mathbf{u}(t) = [\cos(t) \ -\sin(t)]^T$$

$$y_k = \|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{r}_a^{\ell w}\|$$

Summary

Bootstrap Particle Filter (resampling at every step)

Assuming that we have $\mathbf{x}_{k-1}^{(i)}$, $i = 1, \dots, N$ samples from the previous time step, which together represent $p(\mathbf{x}_{k-1} | \mathbf{y}_{0:k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{0:k-2})$, the PF proceeds as follows.

Predict:

1. Draw N noise samples $\mathbf{w}_k^{(i)}$ from $p(\mathbf{w}_k)$.
2. Compute the “predicted particles” with

$$\mathbf{x}_k^{(i)} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{k-1}^{(i)}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}, \mathbf{w}_k^{(i)}), \quad i = 1, \dots, N, \quad (45)$$

which now approximate $p(\mathbf{x}_k | \mathbf{y}_{0:k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{0:k-1})$.

Correct:

1. Compute the un-normalized weights as

$$w_k^{*(i)} = p(\mathbf{y}_k | \mathbf{x}_k^{(i)}) \quad (46)$$

and normalize them to sum to 1.

2. Do resampling.

Advantages and Disadvantages

Advantages:

- ▶ Easy to implement.
- ▶ Does not require analytical expressions for $f(\cdot)$ and $g(\cdot)$, nor their derivatives.
- ▶ Works with any noise distribution, not just Gaussian.
- ▶ Can represent non-Gaussian posteriors.

Disadvantages:

- ▶ It has its own issues, such as sample impoverishment.
- ▶ Computationally demanding. For comparison:
 - ▶ EKF requires 1 function evaluation of $f(\cdot)$ and $g(\cdot)$;
 - ▶ UKF requires $2L + 1$ (usually 30-50) function evaluations $f(\cdot)$ and $g(\cdot)$ where $L = \dim(\mathbf{x}_k) + \dim(\mathbf{w}_k)$;
 - ▶ PF requires N (anywhere from 500-50000+) $f(\cdot)$ and $g(\cdot)$ evaluations.

References

These slides are based on [2–4]

- [1] T. D. Barfoot, J. R. Forbes, and D. Yoon, “Exactly Sparse Gaussian Variational Inference with Application to Derivative-Free Batch Nonlinear State Estimation (preprint),”, vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 1–31, 2019. arXiv: 1911.08333. [Online]. Available: <http://arxiv.org/abs/1911.08333>.
- [2] S. Särkkä, *Bayesian Filtering and Smoothing*. Cambridge University Press, 2010, pp. 1–232.
- [3] J. Elfring, E. Torta, and R. V. D. Molengraft, “Particle Filters : A Hands-On Tutorial,” *Sensors*, vol. 21, no. 438, pp. 1–28, 2021.
- [4] T. Barfoot, *State Estimation for Robotics*. Toronto, ON: Cambridge University Press, 2019.