7. The Kalman Filter: Algorithm

7.1 The Kalman Filter equations

Recall the auxiliary random variable description of the system:

$$\begin{split} x_m(0) &:= x(0), \quad x(0) \sim \mathcal{N}(x_0, P_0) \\ \mathbf{S1:} & \quad x_p(k) := A(k) x_m(k-1) + B(k) u(k) + v(k), \quad v(k) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, Q(k)) \\ \mathbf{S2:} & \quad z_m(k) := H(k) x_p(k) + w(k), \quad w(k) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, R(k)) \\ & \quad x_m(k) \text{ defined via its PDF} \\ & \quad f_{x_m(k)}(\xi) := f_{x_p(k)|z_m(k)}(\xi|\mathbf{z}(k)) \quad \forall \xi \end{split}$$

The objective is to calculate the PDFs of $x_p(k)$ and $x_m(k)$. Define

$$\hat{x}_p(k) = \mathbf{E}[x_p(k)], \qquad P_p(k) = \mathbf{Var}[x_p(k)]$$

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We claim that $x_p(k)$ and $x_m(k)$ are Gaussian random variables, which we will prove by induction. The importance of this property is that the random variables are then fully characterized by their mean and variance.

Proof:

The claim is true for $x_m(0)$, by definition. Assume $x_m(k-1)$ is GRV, show $x_p(k)$ and $x_m(k)$ are GRV.

- S1: Linear combination of GRVs is a GRV, i.e. $x_p(k)$ is a GRV, by induction assumption.
- **S2:** A bit more complicated. To simplify the notation, we use short-hand notation for PDFs again and will drop the time index k, since all random variables in question are indexed by k. We then have:

$$f(x_m) := f(x_p|z) = \frac{f(z|x_p) f(x_p)}{f(z)}$$

Since x_p is a GRV, proved in **S1** above, we have

$$f(x_p) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(\left(x_p - \hat{x}_p\right)^T P_p^{-1}\left(x_p - \hat{x}_p\right)\right)\right)$$
$$f(z|x_p) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(\left(z - Hx_p\right)^T R^{-1}\left(z - Hx_p\right)\right)\right)$$

PDF f(z) does not depend on x_p and is just a constant, therefore:

$$f(x_m) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left((x_p - \hat{x}_p)^T P_p^{-1} (x_p - \hat{x}_p) + (z - Hx_p)^T R^{-1} (z - Hx_p)\right)\right)$$
$$\propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left((x_p - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x_p - \mu)\right)\right) \quad \text{for some } \mu \text{ and } \Sigma$$

Therefore $x_m(k)$ is a GRV! This proves our induction.

What are μ and Σ ? Comparing terms, we get:

Quadratic term:

$$x_p^T (P_p^{-1} + H^T R^{-1} H) x_p = x_p^T \Sigma^{-1} x_p$$

$$\therefore \Sigma^{-1} = (P_p^{-1} + H^T R^{-1} H)$$

Linear Term:

$$-2x_p^T (P_p^{-1} \hat{x}_p + H^T R^{-1} z) = -2x_p^T \Sigma^{-1} \mu$$

$$\therefore \mu = \Sigma (P_p^{-1} \hat{x}_p + H^T R^{-1} z)$$

$$= \Sigma (P_p^{-1} \hat{x}_p + H^T R^{-1} (z - H \hat{x}_p + H \hat{x}_p))$$

$$= \Sigma (\Sigma^{-1} \hat{x}_p + H^T R^{-1} (z - H \hat{x}_p))$$

$$= \hat{x}_p + \Sigma H^T R^{-1} (z - H \hat{x}_p)$$

Summary

Step 1: A priori state estimate/Prediction step.

The mean and variance of $x_p(k)$ can be readily calculated (**PSET 4: P4**).

$$\hat{x}_p(k) = A(k)\hat{x}_m(k-1) + B(k)u(k)$$

$$P_p(k) = A(k)P_m(k-1)A^T(k) + Q(k)$$

Step 2: A posteriori state estimate/Measurement update step.

Results from above.

$$P_m(k) = (P_p^{-1}(k) + H^T(k)R^{-1}(k)H(k))^{-1}$$

$$\hat{x}_m(k) = \hat{x}_p(k) + P_m(k)H^T(k)R^{-1}(k) (z(k) - H(k)\hat{x}_p(k))$$

Done! Kalman Filter equations - simply bookkeeping of GRVs.

7.2 Alternative equations

Alternative form of measurement update equations (PSET 4: P5):

$$K(k) = P_p(k)H^T(k) (H(k)P_p(k)H^T(k) + R(k))^{-1}$$

$$\hat{x}_m(k) = \hat{x}_p(k) + K(k) (z(k) - H(k)\hat{x}_p(k))$$

$$P_m(k) = (I - K(k)H(k)) P_p(k)$$

$$= (I - K(k)H(k)) P_p(k) (I - K(k)H(k))^T + K(k)R(k)K^T(k)$$

K(k): Kalman filter gain

- Note that these are the recursive least squares equations! This is a second interpretation of the Kalman Filter, which applies to non-Gaussian random variables: a minimum mean squared error (MMSE), optimal, linear, unbiased estimator.
- Gaussian random variables give us for free: linearity, and that the MMSE optimal value is just the mean, which by definition is unbiased.

- For Gaussian random variables, the Kalman Filter is the best you can do.
- For non-Gaussian random variables, one must be careful. The Kalman Filter is no longer optimal (nonlinear may do better), but reasonable.
- Information Filter: $I_p(k) := P_p^{-1}(k), I_m(k) := P_m^{-1}(k).$ Example: $I_m(k) = I_p(k) + H^T(k)R^{-1}(k)H(k)$
 - The measurements give us information.
 - Becomes computationally attractive when we have a large number of sensors, relative to number of states.

7.3 The steady-state Kalman Filter

- All system and noise matrices are constant: A(k) = A, Q(k) = Q, etc.
- The Kalman Filter is still time varying:

$$P_p(k) = AP_m(k-1)A^T + Q$$

$$P_m(k) = (P_p^{-1}(k) + H^T R^{-1} H)^{-1}$$

Assume $P_p(k)$ and $P_m(k)$ converge. Define $P_{\infty} := \lim_{k \to \infty} P_p(k)$. Then we have

$$P_{\infty} = A \left(P_{\infty}^{-1} + H^{T} R^{-1} H \right)^{-1} A^{T} + Q$$

We claim: $\left(P_{\infty}^{-1} + H^T R^{-1} H\right)^{-1} = P_{\infty} - P_{\infty} H^T \left(H P_{\infty} H^T + R\right)^{-1} H P_{\infty}$ (PSET 4: P5, matrix inversion lemma), from which follows (PSET 4: P6)

$$P_{\infty} = AP_{\infty}A^T - AP_{\infty}H^T \left(HP_{\infty}H^T + R\right)^{-1}HP_{\infty}A^T + Q,$$

a Discrete Algebraic Riccati Equation (DARE). We can then compute the steady-state gain:

$$K = P_{\infty}H^{T} \left(HP_{\infty}H^{T} + R\right)^{-1}.$$

This only makes sense if $P_{\infty} \geq 0!$

Theorem

The DARE has a unique solution $P_{\infty} \geq 0$ (all eigenvalues are non-negative) if and only if

- 1. (H, A) is detectable (can observe instability), and
- 2. (A,Q) is stabilizable (noise excites unstable parts)

Furthermore, the resulting (I - KH) A is stable (all eigenvalues have magnitude less than unity).

The steady-state estimator

Let $\hat{x}(k) = \hat{x}_m(k)$ and $e(k) = x(k) - \hat{x}(k)$ (the estimation error).

$$\hat{x}(k) = (I - KH) A\hat{x}(k-1) + (I - KH) Bu(k) + Kz(k)$$

= $(I - KH) (A\hat{x}(k-1) + Bu(k)) + KHx(k) + Kw(k)$

Therefore,

$$\begin{split} e(k) &= \left(I - KH\right)x(k) - \left(I - KH\right)\left(A\hat{x}(k-1) + Bu(k)\right) - Kw(k) \\ &= \left(I - KH\right)\left(Ax(k-1) + Bu(k) + v(k)\right) - \left(I - KH\right)\left(A\hat{x}(k-1) + Bu(k)\right) - Kw(k) \\ &= \underbrace{\left(I - KH\right)A}_{\text{stability important!}} e(k-1) + \left(I - KH\right)v(k) - Kw(k) \end{split}$$

Example

Let
$$A = 2$$
, $B = 0$, $H = 1$, $R = 1$, $Q = \varepsilon \ge 0$

$$x(k) = 2x(k-1) + v(k)$$

$$z(k) = x(k) + w(k)$$

Case $\varepsilon = 0$: (A, Q) not stabilizable

$$P = 4P - \frac{4P^2}{P+1}, \quad P = 0 \text{ solution}$$

$$3 = \frac{4P}{P+1}$$
, $4P = 3P+3$, $P = 3$ solution

Two solutions! P = 0 seems to be better, since variance=0! $P = 0 \Rightarrow K = 0$, therefore:

$$\hat{x}(k) = 2\hat{x}(k-1)$$

 $e(k) = 2e(k-1) + v(k)$

But $v(k) = 0 \ \forall \ k$ (0 variance). Therefore, if e(0) = 0, $e(k) = 0 \ \forall \ k$. But if $e(0) \neq 0$ (or if a little bit of noise), we have a problem...

Case $\varepsilon > 0$: (A, Q) stabilizable

$$\begin{split} P &= 4P - \frac{4P^2}{P+1} + \varepsilon, \quad \frac{4P^2}{P+1} = 3P + \varepsilon, \quad 4P^2 = 3P^2 + 3P + \varepsilon P + \varepsilon \\ P^2 &- P(3+\varepsilon) - \varepsilon = 0 \\ P &= \frac{(3+\varepsilon) \pm \sqrt{(3+\varepsilon)^2 + 4\varepsilon}}{2} \\ &\approx \frac{(3+\varepsilon)}{2} \left(1 \pm \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{4\varepsilon}{(3+\varepsilon)^2}\right)\right) \\ &\approx 3 + \frac{4}{3}\varepsilon, \quad -\frac{\varepsilon}{3} \end{split}$$

Summary: The P=0 solution is arbitrarily sensitive to noise.

$$P = 3$$
: $(I - KH) A = \left(1 - \frac{3}{4}\right) 2 = \frac{1}{2}$, a stable solution.