

Optimal Estimation Methods

(Lecture 14 – Kalman Filtering: Part III)

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- State and Measurement Model

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = F(t) \mathbf{x}(t) + B(t) \mathbf{u}(t) + G(t) \mathbf{w}(t)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{y}}(t) = H(t) \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{v}(t)$$

where $\mathbf{w}(t)$ and $\mathbf{v}(t)$ are zero-mean Gaussian noise processes with covariances given by *(Actually spectral densities)*

$$E \{ \mathbf{w}(t) \mathbf{w}^T(\tau) \} = Q(t) \delta(t - \tau)$$

$$E \{ \mathbf{v}(t) \mathbf{v}^T(\tau) \} = R(t) \delta(t - \tau)$$

$$E \{ \mathbf{v}(t) \mathbf{w}^T(\tau) \} = 0$$

(Infinite noise)

where the Dirac delta function is defined by

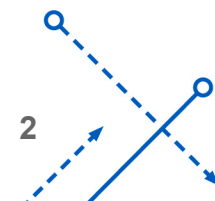
$$\delta(t - \tau) = \begin{cases} 0 & t \neq \tau \\ \infty & t = \tau \end{cases}$$

Physically doesn't make sense because we have an infinite covariance. Discuss why this function is used later.

- Kalman filter structure given by

$$\dot{\hat{\mathbf{x}}}(t) = F(t) \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t) + B(t) \mathbf{u}(t) + K(t) [\tilde{\mathbf{y}}(t) - H(t) \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t)]$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}}(t) = H(t) \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t)$$



- Define the following state error $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t) - \mathbf{x}(t)$
- Take derivative and substitute true and estimate equations

$$\dot{\tilde{\mathbf{x}}}(t) = E(t) \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t) + \mathbf{z}(t)$$

where

$$E(t) = F(t) - K(t) H(t)$$

$$\mathbf{z}(t) = -G(t) \mathbf{w}(t) + K(t) \mathbf{v}(t)$$

← Dynamics of error & estimate

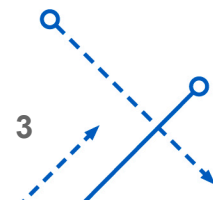
- Note that $\mathbf{u}(t)$ cancels in the error state
- Since $\mathbf{w}(t)$ and $\mathbf{v}(t)$ are uncorrelated, we have

$$E \{ \mathbf{z}(t) \mathbf{z}^T(\tau) \} = [G(t) Q(t) G^T(t) + K(t) R(t) K^T(t)] \delta(t - \tau)$$

- Using the matrix exponential solution for the error state

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \Phi(t, t_0) \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t \Phi(t, \tau) \mathbf{z}(\tau) d\tau$$

- Note that $\Phi(t, t_0)$ is associated with $E(t)$ not $F(t)$



- The state error covariance is defined by $P(t) \equiv E \{ \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t) \tilde{\mathbf{x}}^T(t) \}$
- Assuming that the initial state error is uncorrelated with $\mathbf{z}(t)$ gives

$$P(t) = \Phi(t, t_0) P(t_0) \Phi^T(t, t_0) + E \left\{ \left[\int_{t_0}^t \Phi(t, \tau) \mathbf{z}(\tau) d\tau \right] \left[\int_{t_0}^t \Phi(t, \tau) \mathbf{z}(\tau) d\tau \right]^T \right\}$$

$$= \Phi(t, t_0) P(t_0) \Phi^T(t, t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t \int_{t_0}^t \Phi(t, \tau) E \{ \mathbf{z}(\tau) \mathbf{z}^T(\zeta) \} \Phi^T(t, \zeta) d\tau d\zeta$$

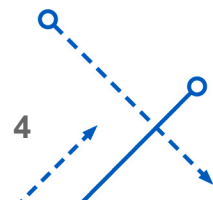
- Substituting

$$E \{ \mathbf{z}(\tau) \mathbf{z}^T(\zeta) \} = [G(\tau) Q(\tau) G^T(\tau) + K(\tau) R(\tau) K^T(\tau)] \delta(\tau - \zeta)$$

gives

$$P(t) = \Phi(t, t_0) P(t_0) \Phi^T(t, t_0)$$

$$+ \int_{t_0}^t \int_{t_0}^t \Phi(t, \tau) [G(\tau) Q(\tau) G^T(\tau) + K(\tau) R(\tau) K^T(\tau)] \Phi^T(t, \zeta) \delta(\tau - \zeta) d\tau d\zeta$$



- Now use the following property of the Dirac delta function

$$\int_a^b f(\tau) \delta(\tau - \zeta) d\tau = f(\zeta) \quad (1)$$

- Discussion on why this is true; Dirac delta function is defined by

$$\delta(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & t \neq 0 \\ \infty & t = 0 \end{cases}$$

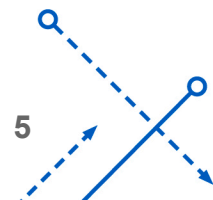
with

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} \delta(t) dt = 1$$

if $0 \in [t_1, t_2]$ and zero otherwise

- It is “infinitely peaked” at $t = 0$ with the total area of unity
- Can view this function as a limit of Gaussian (remember that the total integral of the pdf is one!)

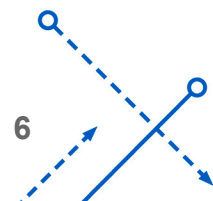
$$\delta(t) = \lim_{\sigma \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-t^2/2\sigma^2}$$



- Important property is given by

$$\int f(t) \delta(t) dt = f(0)$$

- This is easy to see
- First of all, $\delta(t)$ vanishes everywhere except $t = 0$
 - Therefore, it does not matter what values the function $f(t)$ takes except at $t = 0$
 - We can then say $f(t) \delta(t) = f(0) \delta(t)$
 - Then $f(0)$ can be pulled outside the integral; does not depend on t
 - Can easily be generalized to obtain Eq. (1)
- The Dirac delta function is not a function, because it is too singular
 - Instead, it is said to be a “distribution”
 - It is a generalized idea of functions, but can be used only inside integrals
 - In fact, $\int \delta(t) dt$ can be regarded as an “operator” which pulls the value of a function at zero



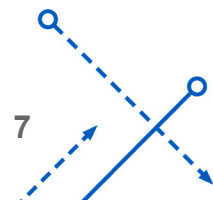
- Therefore, $P(t)$ is given by

$$P(t) = \Phi(t, t_0) P(t_0) \Phi^T(t, t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t \Phi(t, \zeta) [G(\zeta) Q(\zeta) G^T(\zeta) + K(\zeta) R(\zeta) K^T(\zeta)] \Phi^T(t, \zeta) d\zeta$$

- Replace the dummy variable ζ with τ

$$P(t) = \Phi(t, t_0) P(t_0) \Phi^T(t, t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t \Phi(t, \tau) [G(\tau) Q(\tau) G^T(\tau) + K(\tau) R(\tau) K^T(\tau)] \Phi^T(t, \tau) d\tau$$

- This is just done to keep notation consistent



- Taking the time derivative of $P(t)$ gives

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{P}(t) &= \frac{\partial \Phi(t, t_0)}{\partial t} P(t_0) \Phi^T(t, t_0) + \Phi(t, t_0) P(t_0) \frac{\partial \Phi^T(t, t_0)}{\partial t} \\ &+ \int_{t_0}^t \frac{\partial \Phi(t, \tau)}{\partial t} [G(\tau) Q(\tau) G^T(\tau) + K(\tau) R(\tau) K^T(\tau)] \Phi^T(t, \tau) d\tau \\ &+ \int_{t_0}^t \Phi(t, \tau) [G(\tau) Q(\tau) G^T(\tau) + K(\tau) R(\tau) K^T(\tau)] \frac{\partial \Phi^T(t, \tau)}{\partial t} d\tau \\ &+ \Phi(t, t) [G(t) Q(t) G^T(t) + K(t) R(t) K^T(t)] \Phi^T(t, t)\end{aligned}$$

- Using the properties of the matrix exponential leads to

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{P}(t) &= E(t) \Phi(t, t_0) P(t_0) \Phi^T(t, t_0) + \Phi(t, t_0) P(t_0) \Phi^T(t, t_0) E^T(t) \\ &+ E(t) \int_{t_0}^t \Phi(t, \tau) [G(\tau) Q(\tau) G^T(\tau) + K(\tau) R(\tau) K^T(\tau)] \Phi^T(t, \tau) d\tau \\ &+ \int_{t_0}^t \Phi(t, \tau) [G(\tau) Q(\tau) G^T(\tau) + K(\tau) R(\tau) K^T(\tau)] \Phi^T(t, \tau) d\tau E^T(t) \\ &+ G(t) Q(t) G^T(t) + K(t) R(t) K^T(t)\end{aligned}$$

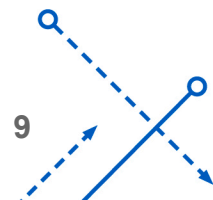
- Using the definition of $P(t)$ and $E(t)$ gives

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{P}(t) = & [F(t) - K(t) H(t)] P(t) + P(t) [F(t) - K(t) H(t)]^T \\ & + G(t) Q(t) G^T(t) + K(t) R(t) K^T(t) \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

- Valid for any gain $K(t)$
- Choose to minimize the trace of the derivative of $P(t)$

$$\text{minimize } J[K(t)] = \text{Tr}[\dot{P}(t)]$$

- Why the derivative?
 - We wish to minimize the rate of increase of $P(t)$
 - Note that we cannot determine the definiteness of the derivative of $P(t)$ for general matrices of $F(t)$, $H(t)$ and $G(t)$, even though we assume that $R(t)$ is positive definite and that $Q(t)$ is at least positive semi-definite
 - Therefore, the trace of the derivative of $P(t)$ may be positive or negative at any given time
 - Still fine because we have *chosen* (i.e., we can choose anything) to minimize the rate of increase of $P(t)$



- The necessary conditions lead to

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial K(t)} = 0 = 2K(t) R(t) - 2P(t) H^T(t)$$

- Note that the second derivative is $R(t)$, which is a positive definite matrix, leading to a minimization

- Solving for the gain gives

$$K(t) = P(t) H^T(t) R^{-1}(t)$$

- Note the resemblance to $K_k = P_k^+ H_k^T R_k^{-1}$

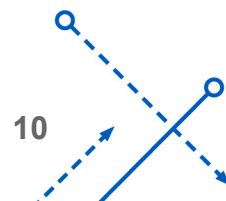
- Substituting the gain into Eq. (1) gives

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{P}(t) = & F(t) P(t) + P(t) F^T(t) \\ & - P(t) H^T(t) R^{-1}(t) H(t) P(t) + G(t) Q(t) G^T(t) \end{aligned}$$

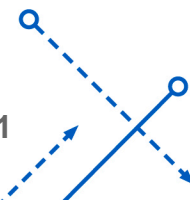
- This is known as the continuous-time Riccati equation

used for LQR control

Valid for this gain only



Model	$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = F(t) \mathbf{x}(t) + B(t) \mathbf{u}(t) + G(t) \mathbf{w}(t), \quad \mathbf{w}(t) \sim N(\mathbf{0}, Q(t))$ $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}(t) = H(t) \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{v}(t), \quad \mathbf{v}(t) \sim N(\mathbf{0}, R(t))$
Initialize	$\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_0) = \hat{\mathbf{x}}_0$ $P_0 = E \{ \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t_0) \tilde{\mathbf{x}}^T(t_0) \}$
Gain	$K(t) = P(t) H^T(t) R^{-1}(t)$
Covariance	$\dot{P}(t) = F(t) P(t) + P(t) F^T(t)$ $- P(t) H^T(t) R^{-1}(t) H(t) P(t) + G(t) Q(t) G^T(t)$
Estimate	$\dot{\hat{\mathbf{x}}}(t) = F(t) \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t) + B(t) \mathbf{u}(t)$ $+ K(t) [\tilde{\mathbf{y}}(t) - H(t) \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t)]$



- Can also be derived from the discrete-time Kalman filter
 - Need to convert the measurement and process noise covariances
 - Work on process noise covariance first

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Upsilon_k E \{ \mathbf{w}_k \mathbf{w}_k^T \} \Upsilon_k^T &= \Upsilon_k Q_k \Upsilon_k^T \\
 &= E \left\{ \left[\int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} \Phi(t_{k+1}, \tau) G(\tau) \mathbf{w}(\tau) d\tau \right] \left[\int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} \Phi(t_{k+1}, \varsigma) G(\varsigma) \mathbf{w}(\varsigma) d\varsigma \right]^T \right\} \\
 &= \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} \Phi(t_{k+1}, \tau) G(\tau) E \{ \mathbf{w}(\tau) \mathbf{w}^T(\varsigma) \} G^T(\varsigma) \Phi^T(t_{k+1}, \varsigma) d\tau d\varsigma
 \end{aligned}$$

- Substituting $E \{ \mathbf{w}(\tau) \mathbf{w}^T(\varsigma) \} = Q(\tau) \delta(\tau - \varsigma)$ and using the property of the Dirac delta function leads to

$$\Upsilon_k Q_k \Upsilon_k^T = \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} \Phi(t_{k+1}, \tau) G(\tau) Q(\tau) G^T(\tau) \Phi^T(t_{k+1}, \tau) d\tau$$

- The integral is difficult to evaluate even for simple systems
- Look at a first order approximation with $\Phi \approx (I + \tau F)$
- Substitute this into the integral and define $\Delta t \equiv t_{k+1} - t_k$, and retain only first-order terms in Δt

$$\Upsilon_k Q_k \Upsilon_k^T = \Delta t G(t) Q(t) G^T(t)$$

- We should note here that the matrix Q_k is a covariance matrix; however, the matrix $Q(t)$ is a *spectral density matrix*
 - Multiplying $Q(t)$ by the delta function converts it into a covariance matrix
- For time-invariant systems an exact solution is possible
- Form the following augmented matrix

$$\mathcal{A} = \begin{bmatrix} -F & G Q G^T \\ 0 & F^T \end{bmatrix} \Delta t$$

- Then compute the matrix exponential of it

$$\mathcal{B} = e^{\mathcal{A}} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{B}_{11} & \mathcal{B}_{12} \\ 0 & \mathcal{B}_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{B}_{11} & \Phi^{-1} \mathcal{Q} \\ 0 & \Phi^T \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\mathcal{Q} \equiv \Upsilon Q \Upsilon^T$ (where this Q is the discrete-time covariance)

- The state transition matrix is then given by

$$\Phi = \mathcal{B}_{22}^T$$

- The discrete-time process noise covariance is given by

$$\mathcal{Q} = \Phi \mathcal{B}_{12}$$

- Use the discrete-time covariance propagation now

$$P_{k+1}^- = \Phi_k P_k^+ \Phi_k^T + \Upsilon_k Q_k \Upsilon_k^T$$

- Note that this approach can adequately work for time-varying systems when the sampling interval is “small” enough

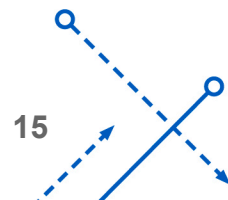
- The relationship between the discrete measurement covariance and continuous measurement covariance is not as obvious as the process noise covariance case
- Consider the following linear model

$$\tilde{y}_k = x + v_k$$

- Suppose that the time interval Δt is broken into equal samples, denoted by δ
- The least-squares estimate for x with m observations is given by

$$\hat{x} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m \tilde{y}_j$$

- The relationship between the discrete-time process v_k and the continuous-time process must surely involve the sampling interval



- Consider the following relationship

$$E \{v_k v_j^T\} = \begin{cases} 0 & k \neq j \\ \delta^d R & k = j \end{cases}$$

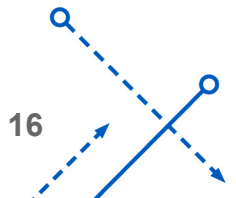
for some value of d

- Then, the estimate error variance is given by

$$E \{(x - \hat{x})^2\} = \frac{\delta^d R}{m}$$

- The limit $m \rightarrow \infty$, $\delta \rightarrow 0$, and $m\delta \rightarrow \Delta t$ gives

$$E \{(x - \hat{x})^2\} = \begin{cases} \infty & d < -1 \\ 0 & d > -1 \\ \frac{R}{\Delta t} & d = -1 \end{cases}$$

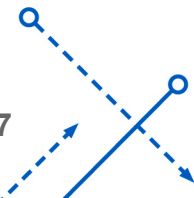


- If the continuous model is to be meaningful in the sense that the error variance is nonzero but finite, we must choose $d = -1$
- Toward this end in the sampling process, the continuous-time measurement process must be averaged over the sampling interval Δt in order to determine the equivalent discrete sample
- Then, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_k &= \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} \tilde{\mathbf{y}}(t) dt = \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} [H(t) \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{v}(t)] dt \\ &\approx H_k \mathbf{x}_k + \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} \mathbf{v}(t) dt\end{aligned}$$

- The discrete-time measurement covariance is determined using

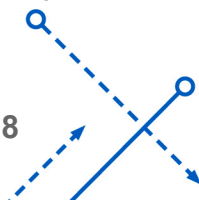
$$E \{ \mathbf{v}_k \mathbf{v}_k^T \} \equiv R_k = \frac{1}{\Delta t^2} \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} E \{ \mathbf{v}(\tau) \mathbf{v}^T(\varsigma) \} d\tau d\varsigma$$



- Substituting $E\{\mathbf{v}(\tau) \mathbf{v}^T(\zeta)\} = R(\tau) \delta(\tau - \zeta)$ and using the property of the Dirac delta function leads to

$$R_k = \frac{R(t)}{\Delta t}$$

- The implication of this relationship is that the discrete-time covariance approaches infinity in the continuous representation
 - This may be counterintuitive at first, but as shown before the inverse time dependence of the discrete-time covariance and the continuous-time equivalent is the *only* relationship that yields a well-behaved process
 - Also, it seems to make sense that as the sampling interval decreases the noise, and thus its covariance increases
 - The limit when $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ shows that the covariance approaches the continuous-time covariance, which is infinite. This is exactly why the covariance in the continuous-time has a delta function in it



- Go back to discrete-time Kalman filter equations

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k+1} = \Phi_k \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k + \Gamma_k \mathbf{u}_k + \Phi K_k [\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_k - H_k \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k]$$

$$K_k = P_k H_k^T [H_k P_k H_k^T + R_k]^{-1}$$

$$P_{k+1} = \Phi_k P_k \Phi_k^T - \Phi_k K_k H_k P_k \Phi_k^T + \Upsilon_k Q_k \Upsilon_k^T$$

- Use the first-order approximation $\Phi \approx (I + \Delta t F)$ and $\Upsilon_k Q_k \Upsilon_k^T = \Delta t G(t) Q(t) G^T(t)$ to give

$$\begin{aligned} P_{k+1} = & [I + \Delta t F(t)] P_k [I + \Delta t F(t)]^T + \Delta t G(t) Q(t) G^T(t) \\ & - [I + \Delta t F(t)] K_k H_k P_k [I + \Delta t F(t)]^T \end{aligned}$$

- Dividing by Δt and collecting terms gives

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{P_{k+1} - P_k}{\Delta t} = & F(t) P_k + P_k F^T(t) + \Delta t F(t) P_k F^T(t) \\ & - F(t) K_k H_k P_k - K_k H_k P_k F^T(t) - \frac{1}{\Delta t} K_k H_k P_k \\ & - \Delta t F(t) K_k H_k P_k F^T(t) + G(t) Q(t) G^T(t) \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

- From the definition of the gain K_k and using the previously derived relationship for R_k we have

$$\begin{aligned} K_k &= P_k H_k^T \left[H_k P_k H_k^T + \frac{R(t)}{\Delta t} \right]^{-1} \\ &= \Delta t P_k H_k^T [\Delta t H_k P_k H_k^T + R(t)]^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

- Therefore, the limiting condition on K_k gives

$$\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} K_k = 0$$

- However, when K_k is divided by Δt we have

$$\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{K_k}{\Delta t} = P(t) H^T(t) R^{-1}(t)$$

- Hence, in the limit as $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ Eq. (1) reduces exactly to the continuous-time covariance propagation

$$\dot{P}(t) = F(t) P(t) + P(t) F^T(t) - P(t) H^T(t) R^{-1}(t) H(t) P(t) + G(t) Q(t) G^T(t)$$

- Using the first-order approximations of $\Gamma = \Delta t B$ and $\Phi = (I + \Delta t F)$, the discrete-time state estimate becomes

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k+1} = [I + \Delta t F(t)] \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k + \Delta t B(t) \mathbf{u}_k + [I + \Delta t F(t)] K_k [\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_k - H_k \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k]$$

- Dividing by Δt and collecting terms gives

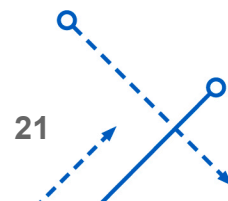
$$\frac{\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k+1} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k}{\Delta t} = F(t) \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k + B(t) \mathbf{u}_k + \left[\frac{K_k}{\Delta t} + F(t) K_k \right] [\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_k - H_k \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k]$$

- Hence, in the limit as $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ this reduces exactly to the continuous-time state estimate equation

$$\dot{\hat{\mathbf{x}}}(t) = F(t) \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t) + B(t) \mathbf{u}(t) + K(t) [\tilde{\mathbf{y}}(t) - H(t) \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t)]$$

$$K(t) = P(t) H^T(t) R^{-1}(t)$$

- Continuous-time equations are “simpler” for analysis purposes than the discrete-time equations
 - For example, substitute $R(t) = \Delta t R_k$ in continuous-time version to determine the effects of sampling in the discrete-time covariance



- Stability proven through a Lyapunov function

$$V[\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t)] = \tilde{\mathbf{x}}^T(t) P^{-1}(t) \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t), \quad \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t) \equiv \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t) - \mathbf{x}(t) \quad (1)$$

- Substitute the following into $\dot{\tilde{\mathbf{x}}}(t) = \dot{\hat{\mathbf{x}}}(t) - \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t)$

$$\dot{\hat{\mathbf{x}}}(t) = F(t) \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t) + B(t) \mathbf{u}(t) + K(t)[\tilde{\mathbf{y}}(t) - H(t) \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t)]$$

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = F(t) \mathbf{x}(t) + B(t) \mathbf{u}(t) + G(t) \mathbf{w}(t)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{y}}(t) = H(t) \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{v}(t)$$

to give

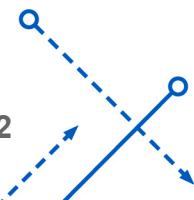
Error and estimate dynamics

$$\dot{\tilde{\mathbf{x}}}(t) = [F(t) - K(t) H(t)] \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t) + K(t) \mathbf{v}(t) - G(t) \mathbf{w}(t)$$

- Ignore the inputs since the matrix $F(t) - K(t) H(t)$ defines the stability of the filter, so use

$$\dot{\tilde{\mathbf{x}}}(t) = [F(t) - K(t) H(t)] \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t) \quad (2)$$

- Note, just as the discrete-time case, in reality a stochastic stability analysis should be done since random inputs exist, but we'll ignore this here (does not change final result)



- Need the time derivative of $P(t)$
 - Take the derivative of $P(t)P^{-1}(t) = I$

$$\frac{d}{dt} [P(t) P^{-1}(t)] = \dot{P}(t) P^{-1}(t) + P(t) \dot{P}^{-1}(t) = 0$$

- Solving for the inverse time derivative gives

$$\dot{P}^{-1}(t) = -P^{-1}(t) \dot{P}(t) P^{-1}(t)$$

- Substituting the following

$$\dot{P}(t) = F(t) P(t) + P(t) F^T(t) - P(t) H^T(t) R^{-1}(t) H(t) P(t) + G(t) Q(t) G^T(t)$$

gives

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{P}^{-1}(t) = & -P^{-1}(t) F(t) - F^T(t) P^{-1}(t) + H^T(t) R^{-1}(t) H(t) \\ & - P^{-1}(t) G(t) Q(t) G^T(t) P^{-1}(t) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

- Taking the time derivative of Eq. (1) gives

$$\dot{V}[\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t)] = \dot{\tilde{\mathbf{x}}}^T(t) P^{-1}(t) \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t) + \tilde{\mathbf{x}}^T(t) P^{-1}(t) \dot{\tilde{\mathbf{x}}}(t) + \tilde{\mathbf{x}}^T(t) \dot{P}^{-1}(t) \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t)$$

- Substituting Eqs. (2) and (3), and simplifying yields

$$\dot{V}[\tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t)] = -\tilde{\mathbf{x}}^T(t) [H^T(t) R^{-1}(t) H(t) + P^{-1}(t) G(t) Q(t) G^T(t) P^{-1}(t)] \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t)$$

- Clearly, if $R(t)$ is positive definite and $Q(t)$ is at least positive semi-definite, then the Lyapunov condition is satisfied and the continuous-time Kalman filter is stable
- Same analogies as the discrete-time Kalman filter
 - This means that the filter will “track” the measurements even if the measurements are unbounded!
 - These conditions are usually always met
 - Sometimes $Q(t)$ is zero, for example when estimating for a constant parameter

- Say we have an autonomous system
 - Filter state and output matrices as well as measurement and process noise covariance matrices are all time-invariant
 - Then the error-covariance reaches steady-state quickly
 - Covariance found by solving the *algebraic Riccati equation* (ARE)

Model	$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = F \mathbf{x}(t) + B \mathbf{u}(t) + G \mathbf{w}(t), \quad \mathbf{w}(t) \sim N(\mathbf{0}, Q)$ $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}(t) = H \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{v}(t), \quad \mathbf{v}(t) \sim N(\mathbf{0}, R)$
Initialize	$\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_0) = \hat{\mathbf{x}}_0$
Gain	$K = P H^T R^{-1}$
Covariance	$F P + P F^T - P H^T R^{-1} H P + G Q G^T = 0$
Estimate	$\dot{\hat{\mathbf{x}}}(t) = F \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t) + B \mathbf{u}(t) + K[\tilde{\mathbf{y}}(t) - H \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t)]$

ARE

- Goal is to solve for the algebraic Riccati equation

$$F P + P F^T - P H^T R^{-1} H P + G Q G^T = 0$$

- First need to show that the propagation can be factored into

$$P(t) = S(t) Z^{-1}(t), \quad \text{or} \quad P(t) Z(t) = S(t) \quad (1)$$

for some $n \times n$ matrices $S(t)$ and $Z(t)$

- Taking the time derivative gives

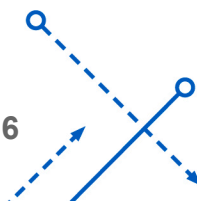
$$\dot{P}(t) Z(t) + P(t) \dot{Z}(t) = \dot{S}(t) \quad (2)$$

- Substituting the following

$$\dot{P}(t) = F(t) P(t) + P(t) F^T(t) - P(t) H^T(t) R^{-1}(t) H(t) P(t) + G(t) Q(t) G^T(t)$$

gives

$$P(t)[F^T Z(t) - H^T R^{-1} H S(t) + \dot{Z}(t)] \\ + [G Q G^T Z(t) + F S(t) - \dot{S}(t)] = 0$$



- Therefore, the following two differential equations must be true

$$\dot{Z}(t) = -F^T Z(t) + H^T R^{-1} H S(t)$$

$$\dot{S}(t) = G Q G^T Z(t) + F S(t)$$

- In order to satisfy Eqs. (1) and (2), initial conditions of $Z(t_0) = I$ and $S(t_0) = P(t_0)$ can be used
- Separating the columns of the $Z(t)$ and $S(t)$ matrices gives

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{\mathbf{z}}_i(t) \\ \dot{\mathbf{s}}_i(t) \end{bmatrix} = \mathcal{H} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{z}_i(t) \\ \mathbf{s}_i(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\mathbf{z}_i(t)$ and $\mathbf{s}_i(t)$ are the i^{th} columns of $Z(t)$ and $S(t)$, respectively, and \mathcal{H} is the *Hamiltonian matrix*, defined by

$$\mathcal{H} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} -F^T & H^T R^{-1} H \\ G Q G^T & F \end{bmatrix}$$

- It can be shown that if λ is an eigenvalue of \mathcal{H} , then $-\lambda$ is also an eigenvalue of \mathcal{H}



- Thus, the eigenvalues can be arranged in a diagonal matrix with

$$\mathcal{H}_\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda & 0 \\ 0 & -\Lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

where Λ is a diagonal matrix of the n unstable eigenvalues

- An eigenvalue/eigenvector decomposition of \mathcal{H} gives

$$\mathcal{H}_\Lambda = W^{-1} \mathcal{H} W$$

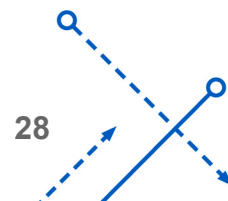
where W is the matrix of eigenvectors, which can be represented in block form as

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} W_{11} & W_{12} \\ W_{21} & W_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

- The solutions for $\mathbf{z}_i(t)$ and $\mathbf{s}_i(t)$ can be found in terms of their eigensystems

$$\mathbf{z}_i(t) = \mathbf{w}_1 e^{\lambda t}$$

$$\mathbf{s}_i(t) = \mathbf{w}_2 e^{\lambda t}$$



where \mathbf{w}_1 and \mathbf{w}_2 are eigenvectors that satisfy

$$(\lambda I - \mathcal{H}) \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}_1 \\ \mathbf{w}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$

- Going forward in time the unstable eigenvalues dominate, so that

$$\mathbf{z}_i(t) \rightarrow W_{11} e^{\Lambda t} \mathbf{c}_i$$

$$\mathbf{s}_i(t) \rightarrow W_{21} e^{\Lambda t} \mathbf{c}_i$$

where \mathbf{c}_i is an arbitrary constant, and W_{11} and W_{21} are the eigenvectors associated with the unstable eigenvalues

- Then, from Eq. (1) it follows that at steady-state, we have

$$P = W_{21} W_{11}^{-1}$$

- Therefore, the gain K can be computed off-line and remains constant
 - This can significantly reduce the on-board computational load



- First-Order System

$$\dot{x}(t) = f x(t) + w(t)$$

$$\tilde{y}(t) = x(t) + v(t)$$

where f is a constant, and the spectral densities of $w(t)$ and $v(t)$ are given by q and r , respectively

- Scalar version of the Riccati equation is given by

$$\dot{p}(t) = 2 f p(t) - r^{-1} p^2(t) + q, \quad p(t_0) = p_0$$

- The Hamiltonian system is given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{z}(t) \\ \dot{s}(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -f & r^{-1} \\ q & f \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z(t) \\ s(t) \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} z(t_0) \\ s(t_0) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ p_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The characteristic equation of this system is given by $s^2 - (f^2 + r^{-1}q) = 0$, which means the solutions for $z(t)$ and $s(t)$ involve hyperbolic functions



- Assume that the solutions are given by

$$z(t) = \cosh(at) + c_1 \sinh(at)$$

$$s(t) = p_0 \cosh(at) + c_2 \sinh(at)$$

where $a = (f^2 + r^{-1}q)^{1/2}$, and c_1 and c_2 are constants

- To determine the other constants, take time derivatives of $z(t)$ and $s(t)$ and compare them to the Hamiltonian system, giving

$$c_1 = \frac{p_0 r^{-1} - f}{a}, \quad c_2 = \frac{p_0 f + q}{a}$$

- Hence, using Eq. (1) the solution for $p(t)$ is given by

$$p(t) = \frac{p_0 a + (p_0 f + q) \tanh(at)}{a + (p_0 r^{-1} - f) \tanh(at)}$$

- Clearly, even for this simple first-order system the solution to the Riccati equation involves complicated functions
 - Analytical solutions are extremely difficult (if not impossible!) to determine for higher-order systems, so numerical procedures are typically required to integrate the Riccati differential equation

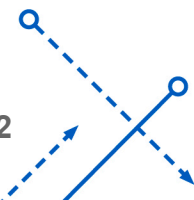
- The steady-state value for $p(t)$ is given by

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} p(t) \equiv p = \frac{(a + f)p_0 + q}{r^{-1}p_0 + a - f} = r(a + f)$$

- This result is verified by solving the algebraic Riccati equation
- Hence, the continuous-time Kalman filter equations are given by

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{\hat{x}}(t) &= -a\hat{x}(t) + (a + f)\tilde{y}(t) \\ \hat{y}(t) &= \hat{x}(t)\end{aligned}$$

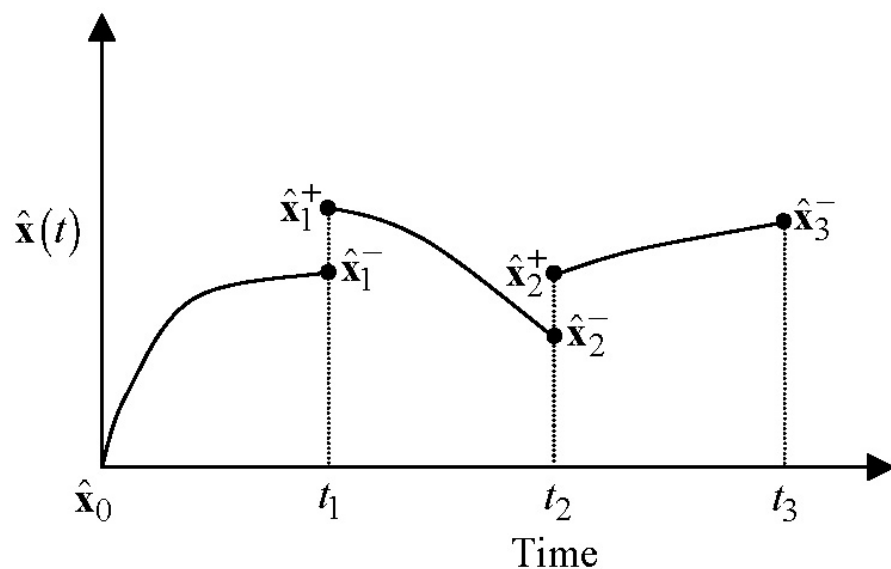
- Note that the filter dynamics are always stable
- Also, when $q = 0$ the solution for the steady-state gain is given by zero (note, ARE solution does not exist in this case), and the measurements are completely ignored in the state estimate
 - This is only true at steady-state, not when using the full equations
- Furthermore, the individual values for r and q are irrelevant; only their ratio is important in the filter design



- Most physical dynamical systems involve continuous-time models and discrete-time measurements taken from a digital signal processor
 - The system model and measurement model are given by

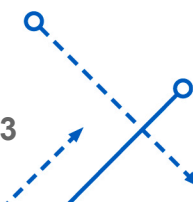
$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = F(t) \mathbf{x}(t) + B(t) \mathbf{u}(t) + G(t) \mathbf{w}(t)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_k = H_k \mathbf{x}_k + \mathbf{v}_k$$

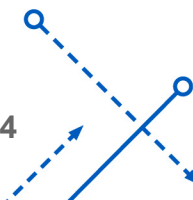


The state estimate model is propagated forward in time until a measurement occurs

Then a discrete-time state update occurs, which updates the propagated state



Model	$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = F(t)\mathbf{x}(t) + B(t)\mathbf{u}(t) + G(t)\mathbf{w}(t), \quad \mathbf{w}(t) \sim N(\mathbf{0}, Q(t))$ $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_k = H_k\mathbf{x}_k + \mathbf{v}_k, \quad \mathbf{v}_k \sim N(\mathbf{0}, R_k)$
Initialize	$\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_0) = \hat{\mathbf{x}}_0$ $P_0 = E \{ \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t_0) \tilde{\mathbf{x}}^T(t_0) \}$
Gain	$K_k = P_k^- H_k^T [H_k P_k^- H_k^T + R_k]^{-1}$
Update	$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_k^+ = \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k^- + K_k [\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_k - H_k \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k^-]$ $P_k^+ = [I - K_k H_k] P_k^-$
Propagation	$\dot{\hat{\mathbf{x}}}(t) = F(t) \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t) + B(t) \mathbf{u}(t)$ $\dot{P}(t) = F(t) P(t) + P(t) F^T(t) + G(t) Q(t) G^T(t)$



- A large class of estimation problems involve nonlinear models (possibly both the state and measurements)
 - For several reasons, state estimation for nonlinear systems is considerably more difficult and admits a wider variety of solutions than the linear problem
 - Several filters have been developed to handle this case
 - Common one is the Extended Kalman Filter (EKF)
- Extended Kalman Filter
 - This is a quasi-linear Kalman filter version
 - Retains same form for the covariance update and propagation as the linear Kalman filter
 - Assumes that the state errors are “small” so that a first-order Taylor series approximation is valid
 - Steady-state forms are usually not possible though
 - Model propagation and output estimates are done using the nonlinear models

- Continuous-Discrete Case

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{u}(t), t) + G(t) \mathbf{w}(t), \mathbf{w}(t) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, Q(t))$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_k = \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_k) + \mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{v}_k \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, R_k)$$

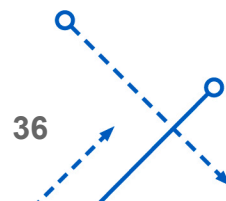
- First-order Taylor series expansion about some $\bar{\mathbf{x}}(t)$

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{u}(t), t) \cong \mathbf{f}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}(t), \mathbf{u}(t), t) + \left. \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \right|_{\bar{\mathbf{x}}(t)} [\mathbf{x}(t) - \bar{\mathbf{x}}(t)]$$

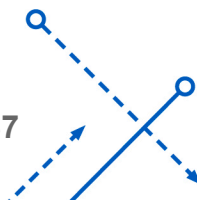
- Standard EKF uses current estimate, so that $\bar{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t)$
- Assuming an unbiased estimate, $E \{ \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t) \} = \mathbf{x}(t)$, gives

$$E \{ \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{u}(t), t) \} = \mathbf{f}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t), \mathbf{u}(t), t)$$

- Used to develop covariance propagation
- Same approach is applied to output equation
- Filter stability is not guaranteed!
 - Must be very careful or filter can diverge



Model	$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{u}(t), t) + G(t) \mathbf{w}(t), \mathbf{w}(t) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, Q(t))$ $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_k = \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_k) + \mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{v}_k \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, R_k)$
Initialize	$\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t_0) = \hat{\mathbf{x}}_0$ $P_0 = E \{ \tilde{\mathbf{x}}(t_0) \tilde{\mathbf{x}}^T(t_0) \}$
Gain	$K_k = P_k^- H_k^T (\hat{\mathbf{x}}_k^-) [H_k(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_k^-) P_k^- H_k^T (\hat{\mathbf{x}}_k^-) + R_k]^{-1}$ $H_k(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_k^-) \equiv \left. \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \right _{\hat{\mathbf{x}}_k^-}$
Update	$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_k^+ = \hat{\mathbf{x}}_k^- + K_k [\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_k - \mathbf{h}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_k^-)]$ $P_k^+ = [I - K_k H_k(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_k^-)] P_k^-$
Propagation	$\dot{\hat{\mathbf{x}}}(t) = \mathbf{f}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t), \mathbf{u}(t), t)$ $\dot{P}(t) = F(\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t), t) P(t) + P(t) F^T(\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t), t) + G(t) Q(t) G^T(t)$ $F(\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t), t) \equiv \left. \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \right _{\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t)}$



- Consider Van der Pol's equation

$$m \ddot{x} + 2c(x^2 - 1)\dot{x} + kx = 0$$

- Convert to state space using $\mathbf{x} = [x \quad \dot{x}]^T$

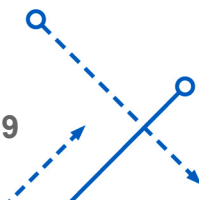
$$\dot{x}_1 = x_2$$

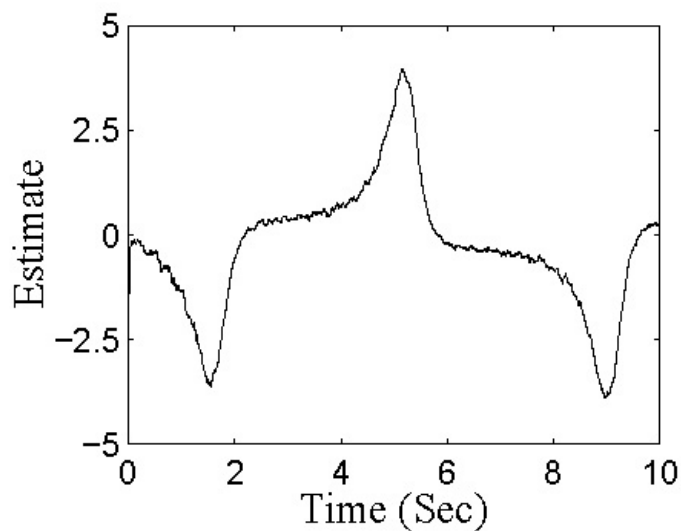
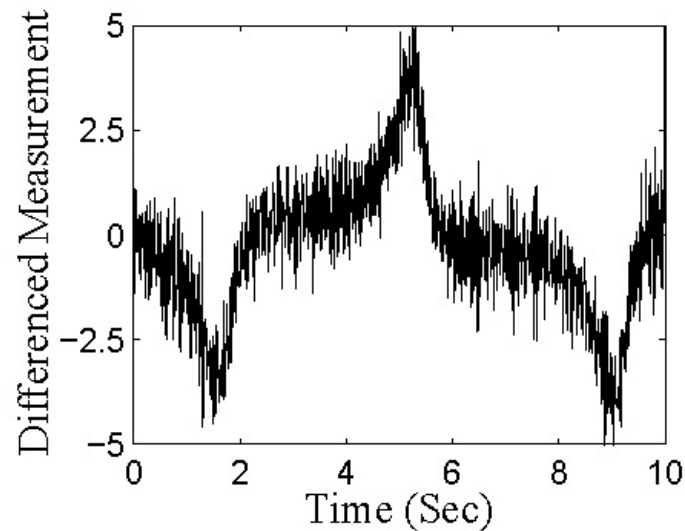
$$\dot{x}_2 = -2(c/m)(x_1^2 - 1)x_2 - (k/m)x_1$$

- The measurement output is position only, so $H = [1 \ 0]$
- Synthetic states are generated using $m = c = k = 1$, with an initial condition of $\mathbf{x}_0 = [1 \ 0]^T$
- The sampling interval is at 0.01 second intervals and the measurement noise standard deviation is set to 0.01
- The linearized model matrices are given by

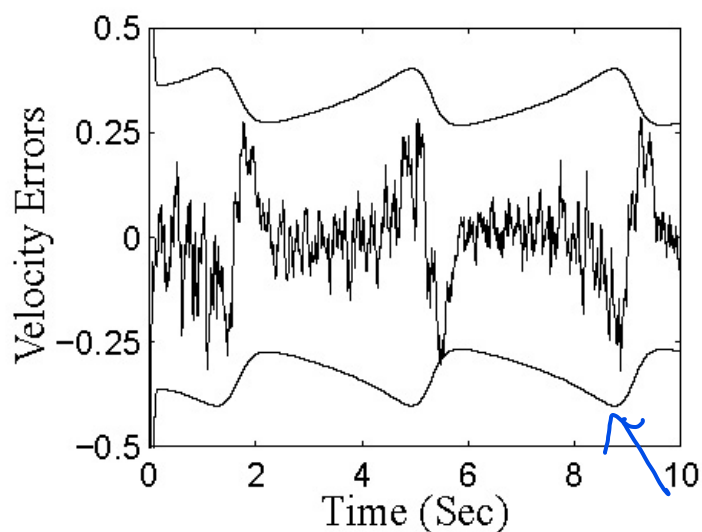
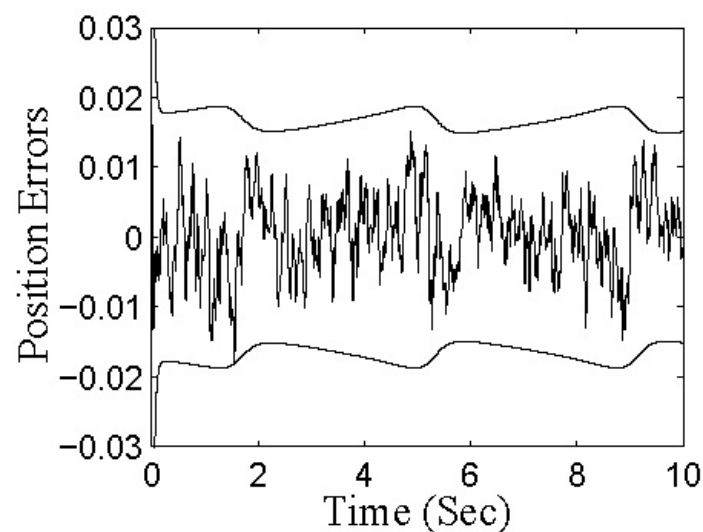
$$F = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -4(c/m)\hat{x}_1\hat{x}_2 - (k/m) & -2(c/m)(\hat{x}_1^2 - 1) \end{bmatrix}, \quad G = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Note that no process noise (i.e., no error) is introduced into the first state
 - This is due to the fact that the first state is a kinematical relationship that is correct in theory and in practice (i.e., velocity is always the derivative of position)
- In the EKF the model parameters are assumed to be given by $m = 1$, $c = 1.5$, and $k = 1.2$, which introduces errors in the assumed system, compared to the true system
 - Overcome by tuning the process noise covariance matrix
- Since we know the truth we can tune Q until the estimate errors are within their respective 3σ bounds
 - A value of 0.2 is found to give good results
- Initial covariance is set to $P_0 = 1000 I$



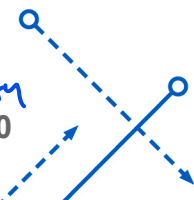


Note that using a simple finite difference results in a very noisy "estimate" for velocity



The EKF provides a much better estimate

error
sensors oscillate
due to loss of
observability



% State and Initialize

```
dt=0.01;t=[0:dt:10]';m=length(t);
```

```
h=[1 0];r=0.01^2;
```

```
xe=zeros(m,2);x=zeros(m,2);p_cov=zeros(m,2);ym=zeros(m,1);
```

```
x0=[1;0];x(1,:)=x0';xe(1,:)=x0';
```

```
p0=1000*eye(2);p=p0;p_cov(1,:)=diag(p0)';
```

% True and Assumed Parameters

```
c=1;k=1;
```

```
cm=1.5;km=1.2;
```

% Process Noise (note: there is coupling but is ignored)

```
q=0.2*[0 0;0 1];
```

```
% Main Routine
```

```
for i=1:m-1;
```

```
% Truth and Measurements
```

```
f1=dt*polfun(x(i,:),c,k);f2=dt*polfun(x(i,.)+0.5*f1',c,k);
```

```
f3=dt*polfun(x(i,.)+0.5*f2',c,k);f4=dt*polfun(x(i,.)+f3',c,k);
```

```
x(i+1,:)=x(i,.)+1/6*(f1'+2*f2'+2*f3'+f4');ym(i)=x(i,1)+sqrt(r)*randn(1);
```

```
% Kalman Update
```

```
gain=p*h'*inv(h*p*h'+r);p=(eye(2)-gain*h)*p;
```

```
xe(i,:)=xe(i,.)+gain'*(ym(i)-xe(i,1));
```

```
% Propagation
```

```
f1=dt*polfun(xe(i,:),cm,km);f2=dt*polfun(xe(i,.)+0.5*f1',cm,km);
```

```
f3=dt*polfun(xe(i,.)+0.5*f2',cm,km);f4=dt*polfun(xe(i,.)+f3',cm,km);
```

```
xe(i+1,:)=xe(i,.)+1/6*(f1'+2*f2'+2*f3'+f4');
```

```
fpart=[0 1;-4*cm*xe(i,1)*xe(i,2)-km -2*cm*(xe(i,1)^2-1)];phi=c2d(fpart,[0;1],dt);
```

```
p=phi*p*phi'+q*dt;p_cov(i+1,:)=diag(p)';
```

```
end
```

% 3-Sigma Outlier

```
sig3=p_cov.^(0.5)*3;
```

% Difference Measurement

```
ymd=diff(ym)/dt;ymd(m)=ym(m-1);
```

% Plot Results

```
subplot(221)
```

```
plot(t,ymd)
```

```
set(gca,'FontSize',12);
```

```
axis([0 10 -5 5]);
```

```
set(gca,'Xtick',[0 2 4 6 8 10]);set(gca,'Ytick',[-5 -2.5 0 2.5 5]);
```

```
xlabel('Time (Sec)');ylabel('Differenced Measurement')
```

```
subplot(222)
```

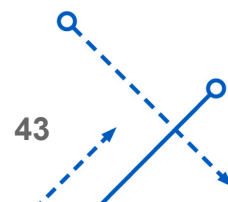
```
plot(t,x(:,2))
```

```
set(gca,'FontSize',12);
```

```
axis([0 10 -5 5]);set(gca,'Xtick',[0 2 4 6 8 10]);
```

```
set(gca,'Ytick',[-5 -2.5 0 2.5 5]);
```

```
xlabel('Time (Sec)');ylabel('Estimate')
```



```
subplot(223)
plot(t,xe(:,1)-x(:,1),t,sig3(:,1),t,-sig3(:,1))
set(gca,'FontSize',12);
axis([0 10 -0.03 0.03]);
set(gca,'Xtick',[0 2 4 6 8 10]);set(gca,'Ytick',[-0.03 -0.02 -0.01 0 0.01 0.02 0.03]);
xlabel('Time (Sec)');ylabel('Position Errors')
```

```
subplot(224)
plot(t,xe(:,2)-x(:,2),t,sig3(:,2),t,-sig3(:,2))
set(gca,'FontSize',12);
axis([0 10 -0.5 0.5]);
set(gca,'Xtick',[0 2 4 6 8 10]);set(gca,'Ytick',[-0.5 -0.25 0 0.25 0.5]);
xlabel('Time (Sec)');ylabel('Velocity Errors')
```

```
function f=polfun(x,c,k)
```

```
% Function Routine for Van der Pol's Equation
```

```
f=[x(2);-2*c*(x(1)^2-1)*x(2)-k*x(1)];
```

