# KALMAN FILTER GENERALIZATIONS

### 5.1: Maintaining symmetry of covariance matrices

- The Kalman filter as described so far is theoretically correct, but has known vulnerabilities and limitations in practical implementations.
- In this unit of notes, we consider the following issues:
  - 1. Improving numeric robustness;
  - 2. Sequential measurement processing and square-root filtering;
  - 3. Dealing with auto- and cross-correlated sensor or process noise;
  - 4. Extending the filter to prediction and smoothing;
  - 5. Reduced-order filtering;
  - 6. Using residue analysis to detect sensor faults.

### Improving numeric robustness

- Within the filter, the covariance matrices  $\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^-$  and  $\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^+$  must remain
  - 1. Symmetric, and
  - 2. Positive definite (all eigenvalues strictly positive).
- It is possible for both conditions to be violated due to round-off errors in a computer implementation.
- We wish to find ways to limit or eliminate these problems.

### Dealing with loss of symmetry

- The cause of covariance matrices becoming asymmetric or non-positive definite must be due to either the time-update or measurement-update equations of the filter.
- Consider first the time-update equation:

$$\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} = A \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k-1}^{+} A^{T} + \Sigma_{\tilde{w}}.$$

- Because we are adding two positive-definite quantities together, the result must be positive definite.
- A "suitable implementation" of the products of the matrices will avoid loss of symmetry in the final result.
- Consider next the measurement-update equation:

$$\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^+ = \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^- - L_k C_k \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^-.$$

- *Theoretically*, the result is positive definite, but due to the subtraction operation it is possible for round-off errors in an implementation to result in a non-positive-definite solution.
- The problem may be mitigated in part by computing instead

$$\Sigma_{\tilde{x}_k}^+ = \Sigma_{\tilde{x}_k}^- - L_k \Sigma_{\tilde{z},k} L_k^T.$$

This may be proven correct via

$$\begin{split} \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{+} &= \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} - L_k \Sigma_{\tilde{z},k} L_k^T \\ &= \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} - L_k \Sigma_{\tilde{z},k} \left( \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} C_k^T \Sigma_{\tilde{z},k}^{-1} \right)^T \\ &= \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} - L_k \Sigma_{\tilde{z},k} \Sigma_{\tilde{z},k}^{-1} C_k \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} \\ &= \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} - L_k C_k \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} . \end{split}$$

- With a "suitable implementation" of the products in the  $L_k \Sigma_{\tilde{z},k} L_k^T$  term, symmetry can be guaranteed. However, the subtraction may still give a non-positive definite result if there is round-off error.
- A better solution is the <u>Joseph form covariance update</u>.

$$\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{+} = [I - L_k C_k] \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} [I - L_k C_k]^T + L_k \Sigma_{\tilde{v}} L_k^T.$$

• This may be proven correct via

$$\begin{split} \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{+} &= [I - L_{k}C_{k}] \; \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} [I - L_{k}C_{k}]^{T} + L_{k}\Sigma_{\tilde{v}}L_{k}^{T} \\ &= \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} - L_{k}C_{k}\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} - \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-}C_{k}^{T}L_{k}^{T} + L_{k}C_{k}\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-}C_{k}^{T}L_{k}^{T} + L_{k}\Sigma_{\tilde{v}}L_{k}^{T} \\ &= \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} - L_{k}C_{k}\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} - \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-}C_{k}^{T}L_{k}^{T} + L_{k}\left(C_{k}\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-}C_{k}^{T} + \Sigma_{\tilde{v}}\right)L_{k}^{T} \\ &= \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} - L_{k}C_{k}\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} - \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-}C_{k}^{T}L_{k}^{T} + L_{k}\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}L^{T} \\ &= \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} - L_{k}C_{k}\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} - \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-}C_{k}^{T}L_{k}^{T} + \left(\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-}C_{k}^{T}\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-1}\right)\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}L^{T} \\ &= \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} - L_{k}C_{k}\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} . \end{split}$$

- Because the subtraction occurs in the "squared" term, this form "guarantees" a positive definite result.
- If we end up with a negative definite matrix (numerics), we can replace it by the nearest symmetric positive semidefinite matrix.<sup>1</sup>
- Omitting the details, the procedure is:
  - Calculate singular-value decomposition:  $\Sigma = USV^T$ .
  - Compute  $H = VSV^T$ .
  - Replace  $\Sigma$  with  $(\Sigma + \Sigma^T + H + H^T)/4$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Nicholas J. Higham, "Computing a Nearest Symmetric Positive Semidefinite Matrix," *Linear Algebra and its Applications*, vol. 103, pp. 103–118, 1988.

### 5.2: Sequential processing of measurements

- There are still improvements that may be made. We can:
  - Reduce the computational requirements of the Joseph form,
  - Increase the precision of the numeric accuracy.
- One of the computationally intensive operations in the Kalman filter is the matrix inverse operation in  $L_k = \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^- C_k^T \Sigma_{\tilde{z},k}^{-1}$ .
- Using matrix inversion via Gaussian elimination (the most straightforward approach), is an  $\mathcal{O}(m^3)$  operation, where m is the dimension of the measurement vector.
- If there is a single sensor, this matrix inverse becomes a scalar division, which is an  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  operation.
- Therefore, if we can break the *m* measurements into *m* single-sensor measurements and update the Kalman filter that way, there is opportunity for significant computational savings.

#### Sequentially processing independent measurements

 We start by assuming that the sensor measurements are independent. That is, that

$$\Sigma_{\tilde{v}} = \operatorname{diag} \left[ \sigma_{\tilde{v}_1}^2, \cdots \sigma_{\tilde{v}_m}^2 \right].$$

- We will use colon ":" notation to refer to the measurement number. For example,  $z_{k:1}$  is the measurement from sensor 1 at time k.
- Then, the measurement is

$$z_{k} = \begin{bmatrix} z_{k:1} \\ \vdots \\ z_{k:m} \end{bmatrix} = C_{k}x_{k} + v_{k} = \begin{bmatrix} C_{k:1}^{T}x_{k} + v_{k:1} \\ \vdots \\ C_{k:m}^{T}x_{k} + v_{k:m} \end{bmatrix},$$

where  $C_{k:1}^T$  is the first row of  $C_k$  (for example), and  $v_{k:1}$  is the sensor noise of the first sensor at time k, for example.

- We will consider this a sequence of scalar measurements  $z_{k:1} \dots z_{k:m}$ , and update the state estimate and covariance estimates in m steps.
- We initialize the measurement update process with  $\hat{x}_{k:0}^+ = \hat{x}_k^-$  and  $\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:0}^+ = \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^-$ .
- Consider the measurement update for the *i*th measurement,  $z_{k:i}$

$$\hat{x}_{k:i}^{+} = \mathbb{E}[x_k \mid \mathbb{Z}_{k-1}, z_{k:1} \dots z_{k:i}] 
= \mathbb{E}[x_k \mid \mathbb{Z}_{k-1}, z_{k:1} \dots z_{k:i-1}] + L_{k:i}(z_{k:i} - \mathbb{E}[z_k \mid \mathbb{Z}_{k-1}, z_{k:1} \dots z_{k:i-1}]) 
= \hat{x}_{k:i-1}^{+} + L_{k:i}(z_{k:i} - C_{k:i}^{T} \hat{x}_{k:i-1}^{+}).$$

Generalizing from before

$$L_{k:i} = \mathbb{E}[\tilde{x}_{k:i-1}^+ \tilde{z}_{k:i}^T] \Sigma_{\tilde{z}_{k:i}}^{-1}.$$

■ Next, we recognize that the variance of the innovation corresponding to measurement  $z_{k:i}$  is

$$\Sigma_{\tilde{z}_{k:i}} = \sigma_{\tilde{z}_{k:i}}^2 = C_{k:i}^T \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:i-1}^+ C_{k:i} + \sigma_{\tilde{v}_i}^2.$$

■ The corresponding gain is  $L_{k:i} = \frac{\sum_{\tilde{x},k:i-1}^{+} C_{k:i}}{\sigma_{\tilde{z}_{k:i}}^{2}}$  and the updated state is

$$\hat{x}_{k:i}^{+} = \hat{x}_{k:i-1}^{+} + L_{k:i} \left[ z_{k:i} - C_{k:i}^{T} \hat{x}_{k:i-1}^{+} \right]$$

with covariance

$$\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:i}^+ = \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:i-1}^+ - L_{k:i}C_{k:i}^T \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:i-1}^+.$$

The covariance update can be implemented as

$$\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:i}^{+} = \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:i-1}^{+} - \frac{\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:i-1}^{+} C_{k:i} C_{k:i}^{T} \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:i-1}^{+}}{C_{k:i}^{T} \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:i-1}^{+} C_{k:i} + \sigma_{\tilde{v}_{i}}^{2}}.$$

An alternative update is the Joseph form,

$$\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:i}^{+} = \left[I - L_{k:i}C_{k:i}^{T}\right] \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:i}^{+} \left[I - L_{k:i}C_{k:i}^{T}\right]^{T} + L_{k:i}\sigma_{\tilde{v}_{i}}^{2}L_{k:i}^{T}.$$

■ The final measurement update gives  $\hat{x}_k^+ = \hat{x}_{k:m}^+$  and  $\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^+ = \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:m}^+$ .

### Sequentially processing correlated measurements

- The above process must be modified to accommodate the situation where sensor noise is correlated among the measurements.
- Assume that we can factor the matrix  $\Sigma_{\tilde{v}} = \mathcal{S}_v \mathcal{S}_v^T$ , where  $\mathcal{S}_v$  is a lower-triangular matrix (for symmetric positive-definite  $\Sigma_{\tilde{v}}$ , we can).
  - The factor  $S_v$  is a kind of a matrix square root, and will be important in a number of places in this course.
  - It is known as the "Cholesky" factor of the original matrix.
  - In MATLAB, Sv = chol(SigmaV, 'lower');
  - Be careful: MATLAB's default answer (without specifying "lower") is an upper-triangular matrix, which is not what we're after.
- The Cholesky factor has strictly positive elements on its diagonal (positive eigenvalues), so is guaranteed to be invertible.
- Consider a modification to the output equation of a system having correlated measurements

$$z_k = Cx_k + v_k$$

$$\bar{z}_k = S_v^{-1} z_k = S_v^{-1} Cx_k + S_v^{-1} v_k$$

$$\bar{z}_k = \bar{C}x_k + \bar{v}_k.$$

 Note that we will use the "bar" decoration (→) frequently in this chapter of notes.

- It rarely (if ever) indicates the mean of that quantity.
- Rather, it refers to a definition having similar meaning to the original symbol.
- For example,  $\bar{z}_k$  is a (computed) output value, similar in interpretation to the measured output value  $z_k$ .
- Consider now the covariance of the modified noise input  $\bar{v}_k = S_v^{-1} v_k$

$$\Sigma_{\tilde{v}_k} = \mathbb{E}[\bar{v}_k \bar{v}_k^T]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[\mathcal{S}_v^{-1} v_k v_k^T \mathcal{S}_v^{-T}]$$

$$= \mathcal{S}_v^{-1} \Sigma_{\tilde{v}} \mathcal{S}_v^{-T} = I.$$

- Therefore, we have identified a transformation that de-correlates (and normalizes) measurement noise.
- Using this revised output equation, we use the prior method.
- We start the measurement update process with  $\hat{x}_{k:0}^+ = \hat{x}_k^-$  and  $\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:0}^+ = \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^-$ .
- The Kalman gain is  $\bar{L}_{k:i} = \frac{\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:i-1}^+ \bar{C}_{k:i}}{\bar{C}_{k:i}^T \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:i-1}^+ \bar{C}_{k:i} + 1}$  and the updated state is

$$\hat{x}_{k:i}^{+} = \hat{x}_{k:i-1}^{+} + \bar{L}_{k:i} \left[ \bar{z}_{k:i} - \bar{C}_{k:i}^{T} \hat{x}_{k:i-1}^{+} \right]$$

$$= \hat{x}_{k:i-1}^{+} + \bar{L}_{k:i} \left[ (\mathcal{S}_{v}^{-1} z_{k})_{i} - \bar{C}_{k:i}^{T} \hat{x}_{k:i-1}^{+} \right].$$

with covariance

$$\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:i}^{+} = \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:i-1}^{+} - \bar{L}_{k:i}\bar{C}_{k:i}^{T}\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:i-1}^{+}$$

(which may also be computed with a Joseph form update, for example).

■ The final measurement update gives  $\hat{x}_k^+ = \hat{x}_{k:m}^+$  and  $\Sigma_{\tilde{x}:k}^+ = \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k:m}^+$ .

### LDL updates for correlated measurements

 An alternative to the Cholesky decomposition for factoring the covariance matrix is the LDL decomposition

$$\Sigma_{ ilde{v}} = \mathcal{L}_v \mathcal{D}_v \mathcal{L}_v^T$$
,

where  $\mathcal{L}_v$  is lower-triangular and  $\mathcal{D}_v$  is diagonal (with positive entries).

- In MATLAB, [L,D] = ldl(SigmaV);
- The Cholesky decomposition is related to the LDL decomposition via

$$S_v = \mathcal{L}_v \mathcal{D}_v^{1/2}$$
.

- Both texts show how to use the LDL decomposition to perform a sequential measurement update.
- A computational advantage of LDL over Cholesky is that no square-root operations need be taken. (We can avoid finding  $\mathcal{D}_n^{1/2}$ .)
- A pedagogical advantage of introducing the Colesky decomposition is that we use it later on.

### 5.3: Square-root filtering

- The modifications to the basic Kalman filter that we have described so far are able to
  - Ensure symmetric, positive-definite covariance matrices;
  - Speed up the operation of a multiple-measurement Kalman filter.
- The filter is still sensitive to finite word length: no longer in the sense of causing divergence, but in the sense of not converging to as good a solution as possible.
- Consider the set of numbers: 1,000,000; 100; 1. There are six orders of magnitude in the spread between the largest and smallest.
- Now consider a second set of numbers: 1,000; 10; 1. There are only three orders of magnitude in spread.
- But, the second set is the square root of the first set: We can reduce dynamic range (number of bits required to implement a given precision of solution) by using square roots of numbers.
- For example, we can get away with single-precision math instead of double-precision math.
- The place this really shows up is in the eigenvalue spread of covariance matrices. If we can use square-root matrices instead, that would be better.
- Consider the Cholesky factorization from before. Define  $\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^+ = \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k}^+ \left(\mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k}^+\right)^T$  and  $\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^- = \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k}^- \left(\mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k}^-\right)^T$ .

■ We would like to be able to compute the covariance time updates and measurement updates in terms of  $\mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k}^{\pm}$  instead of  $\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{\pm}$ . Let's take the steps in order.

**SR-KF step 1a:** State estimate time update.

■ We compute

$$\hat{x}_k^- = A_{k-1}\hat{x}_{k-1}^+ + B_{k-1}u_{k-1}.$$

No change in this step from standard KF.

**SR-KF step 1b:** Error covariance time update.

We start with standard step

$$\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} = A_{k-1} \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k-1}^{+} A_{k-1}^{T} + \Sigma_{\tilde{w}}.$$

■ We would like to write this in terms of Cholesky factors

$$\mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} \left( \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} \right)^{T} = A_{k-1} \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k-1}^{+} \left( \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k-1}^{+} \right)^{T} A_{k-1}^{T} + \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{w}} \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{w}}^{T}.$$

- One option is to compute the right side, then take the Cholesky decomposition to compute the factors on the left side. This is computationally too intensive.
- Instead, start by noticing that we can write the equation as

$$\mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} \left( \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} \right)^{T} = \left[ A_{k-1} \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k-1}^{+}, \ \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{w}} \right] \left[ A_{k-1} \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k-1}^{+}, \ \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{w}} \right]^{T}$$
$$= M M^{T}.$$

- This might at first appear to be exactly what we desire, but the problem is that  $S_{\tilde{x},k}^-$  is and  $n \times n$  matrix, whereas M is an  $n \times 2n$  matrix.
- But, it is at least a step in the right direction. Enter the QR decomposition.

- **QR** decomposition: The QR decomposition algorithm computes two factors  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  and  $R \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  for a matrix  $Z \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  such that Z = QR, Q is orthogonal, R is upper-triangular, and  $m \geq n$ .
  - The property of the QR factorization that is important here is that *R* is related to the Cholesky factor we wish to find.
  - Specifically, if  $\tilde{R} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is the upper-triangular portion of R, then  $\tilde{R}^T$  is the Cholesky factor of  $\Sigma = M^T M$ .
  - That is, if  $\tilde{R} = \operatorname{qr}(M^T)^T$ , where  $\operatorname{qr}(\cdot)$  performs the QR decomposition and returns the upper-triangular portion of R only, then  $\tilde{R}$  is the lower-triangular Cholesky factor of  $MM^T$ .
  - Continuing with our derivation, notice that if we form M as above, then compute  $\tilde{R}$ , we have our desired result.

$$S_{\tilde{x},k}^- = \operatorname{qr}\left(\left[A_{k-1}S_{\tilde{x},k-1}^+, S_{\tilde{w}}\right]^T\right)^T.$$

- The computational complexity of the QR decomposition is  $\mathcal{O}(mn^2)$ , whereas the complexity of the Cholesky factor is  $\mathcal{O}(n^3/6)$  plus  $\mathcal{O}(mn^2)$  to first compute  $MM^T$ .
- In MATLAB:

```
Sminus = qr([A*Splus,Sw]')';
Sminus = tril(Sminus(1:nx,1:nx));
```

#### **SR-KF step 1c:** Estimate system output.

As before, we estimate the system output as

$$\hat{z}_k = C_k \hat{x}_k^- + D_k u_k.$$

SR-KF step 2a: Estimator (Kalman) gain matrix.

- In this step, we must compute  $L_k = \Sigma_{\tilde{x}\tilde{z},k}^-(\Sigma_{\tilde{z},k})^{-1}$ .
- Recall that  $\Sigma_{\tilde{x}\tilde{z},k}^- = \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^- C_k^T$  and  $\Sigma_{\tilde{z},k} = C_k \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^- C_k^T + \Sigma_{\tilde{v}}$ .
- We may find  $S_{\tilde{z},k}$  using the QR decomposition, as before. And, we already know  $S_{\tilde{x},k}^-$ .
- So, we can now write  $L_k(S_{\tilde{z},k}S_{\tilde{z},k}^T) = \Sigma_{\tilde{x}\tilde{z},k}^-$ .
- If  $z_k$  is not a scalar, this equation may often be computed most efficiently via back-substitution in two steps.
  - First,  $(M)\mathcal{S}_{\tilde{z},k}^T = \Sigma_{\tilde{x}\tilde{z},k}^-$  is found, and
  - Then  $L_k S_{\tilde{z},k} = M$  is solved.
  - Back-substitution has complexity  $\mathcal{O}(n^2/2)$ .
  - Since  $S_{\tilde{z},k}$  is already triangular, no matrix inversion need be done.
- Note that multiplying out  $\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^- = \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k}^- \left(\mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k}^-\right)^T$  in the computation of  $\Sigma_{\tilde{x}\tilde{z},k}^-$  may drop some precision in  $L_k$ .
- However, this is not the critical issue.
- The critical issue is keeping  $S_{\tilde{x},k}^{\pm}$  accurate for whatever  $L_k$  is used, which is something that we do manage to accomplish.
- In MATLAB:

```
Sz = qr([C*Sminus,Sv]')';
Sz = tril(Sz(1:nz,1:nz));
L = (Sminus*Sminus')*C'/Sz'/Sz;
```

### **SR-KF step 2b:** State estimate measurement update.

■ This is done just as in the standard Kalman filter,

$$\hat{x}_k^+ = \hat{x}_k^- + L_k(z_k - \hat{z}_k).$$

### **SR-KF step 2c:** Error covariance measurement update.

■ Finally, we update the error covariance matrix.

$$\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{+} = \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} - L_k \Sigma_{\tilde{z},k} L_k^T,$$

which can be written as,

$$\mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k}^{+} \left( \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k}^{+} \right)^{T} = \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} \left( \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k}^{-} \right)^{T} - L_{k} \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{z}} \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{z}}^{T} L_{k}^{T}.$$

- Note that the "—" sign prohibits us using the QR decomposition to solve this problem as we did before.
- Instead, we rely on the "Cholesky downdating" procedure.
- In MATLAB,

```
% deal with MATLAB wanting upper-triangular Cholesky factor
Sx_ = Sminus';
% Want SigmaPlus = SigmaMinus - L*Sigmaz*L';
cov_update_vectors = L*Sz;
for j=1:length(zhat),
    Sx_ = cholupdate(Sx_,cov_update_vectors(:,j),'-');
end
% Re-transpose to undo MATLAB's strange Cholesky factor
Splus = Sx_';
```

If you need to implement this kind of filter in a language other than MATLAB, a really excellent discussion of finding Cholesky factors, QR factorizations, and both Cholesky updating and downdating may be found in: G.W. Stewart, <u>Matrix Algorithms, Volume I: Basic</u> Decompositions, Siam, 1998. Pseudo-code is included.

#### Summary of the square-root linear Kalman filter

Linear state-space model:

$$x_k = A_{k-1}x_{k-1} + B_{k-1}u_{k-1} + w_{k-1}$$

$$z_k = C_k x_k + D_k u_k + v_k,$$

where  $w_k$  and  $v_k$  are independent, zero-mean, Gaussian noise processes of covariance matrices  $\Sigma_{\widetilde{w}}$  and  $\Sigma_{\widetilde{v}}$ , respectively.

**Initialization:** For k = 0, set

$$\hat{x}_0^+ = \mathbb{E}[x_0]$$
  $\mathcal{S}_{\widetilde{w}} = \operatorname{chol}(\Sigma_{\widetilde{w}}, \text{lower}').$ 

$$\Sigma_{\tilde{x},0}^+ = \mathbb{E}[(x_0 - \hat{x}_0^+)(x_0 - \hat{x}_0^+)^T].$$
  $S_{\tilde{v}} = \operatorname{chol}(\Sigma_{\tilde{v}}, \text{'lower'}).$ 

$$\mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},0}^+ = \operatorname{chol}(\Sigma_{\tilde{x},0}^+, \text{lower}).$$

**Computation:** For k = 1, 2, ... compute:

State estimate time update:  $\hat{x}_k^- = A_{k-1}\hat{x}_{k-1}^+ + B_{k-1}u_{k-1}$ .

Error covariance time update:  $S_{\tilde{x},k}^- = \text{cholupdate}\left(\left(A_{k-1}S_{\tilde{x},k-1}^+\right)^T, S_{\widetilde{w}}^T\right)^T$ .

Output estimate:  $\hat{z}_k = C_k \hat{x}_k^- + D_k u_k$ .

Estimator gain matrix.\*  $\mathcal{S}_{\tilde{z},k} = \text{cholupdate}\left(\left(C_k \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k}^-\right)^T, \mathcal{S}_{\tilde{v}}^T\right)^T$ .

 $MS_{\tilde{z},k}^T = S_{\tilde{x},k}^- \left(S_{\tilde{x},k}^-\right)^T C_k^T$ , (solved by backsubstitution)

 $L_k S_{\tilde{z},k} = M$ , (solved by backsubstitution)

State estimate meas. update:  $\hat{x}_k^+ = \hat{x}_k^- + L_k(z_k - \hat{z}_k)$ .

Error covariance meas. update:  $S_{\tilde{x},k}^+ = \text{cholupdate}\left(\left(S_{\tilde{x},k}^-\right)^T, \left(L_k S_{\tilde{z},k}\right)^T, '-'\right)^T$ .

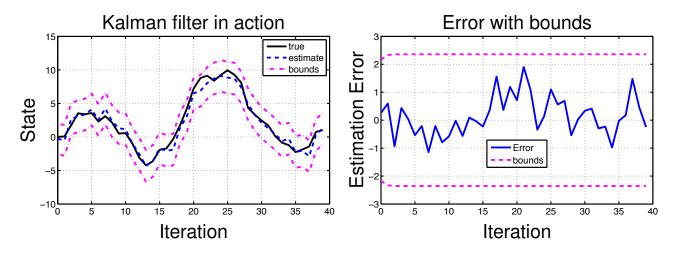
<sup>\*</sup>If a measurement is missed for some reason, then simply skip the measurement update for that iteration. That is,  $L_k=0$  and  $\hat{x}_k^+=\hat{x}_k^-$  and  $\mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k}^+=\mathcal{S}_{\tilde{x},k}^-$ .

# 5.4: MATLAB code for the square-root Kalman filter steps

Coding a square-root Kalman filter in MATLAB is straightforward.

```
% Initialize simulation variables
SRSigmaW = chol(1, 'lower'); % Square-root process noise covar
SRSigmaV = chol(1,'lower'); % Square-root sensor noise covar
A = 1; B = 1; C = 1; D = 0; % Plant definition matrices
maxIter = 40;
xtrue = 0; xhat = 0 % Initialize true and estimated system initial state
SigmaX = 0.1; % Initialize Kalman filter covariance
SRSigmaX = chol(SigmaX, 'lower');
        % Unknown initial driving input: assume zero
% Reserve storage for variables we might want to plot/evaluate
xstore = zeros(maxIter+1,length(xtrue)); xstore(1,:) = xtrue;
xhatstore = zeros(maxIter, length(xhat));
SigmaXstore = zeros(maxIter, length(xhat)); % store diagonal only
for k = 1:maxIter,
  % SR-KF Step 1a: State estimate time update
  xhat = A*xhat + B*u; % use prior value of "u"
  % SR-KF Step 1b: Error covariance time update
  SRSigmaX = gr([A*SRSigmaX, SRSigmaW]')';
  SRSigmaX = tril(SRSigmaX(1:length(xhat),1:length(xhat)));
  % [Implied operation of system in background, with
  % input signal u, and output signal z]
  u = 0.5*randn(1) + cos(k/pi); % for example... (measured)
  w = SRSigmaW*randn(length(xtrue));
  v = SRSigmaV*randn(length(C*xtrue));
  ztrue = C*xtrue + D*u + v; % y is based on present x and u
  xtrue = A*xtrue + B*u + w; % future x is based on present u
  % SR-KF Step 1c: Estimate system output
  zhat = C*xhat + D*u;
  % SR-KF Step 2a: Compute Kalman gain matrix
  % Note: "help mrdivide" to see how "division" is implemented
  SRSigmaZ = qr([C*SRSigmaX,SRSigmaV]')';
  SRSigmaZ = tril(SRSigmaZ(1:length(zhat),1:length(zhat)));
```

```
L = (SRSigmaX*SRSigmaX')*C'/SRSigmaZ'/SRSigmaZ;
  % SR-KF Step 2b: State estimate measurement update
  xhat = xhat + L*(ztrue - zhat);
  % SR-KF Step 2c: Error covariance measurement update
  Sx_{-} = SRSigmaX';
  cov_update_vectors = L*SRSigmaZ;
  for j=1:length(zhat),
    Sx_ = cholupdate(Sx_,cov_update_vectors(:,j),'-');
  end
  SRSigmaX = Sx_';
  % [Store information for evaluation/plotting purposes]
  xstore(k+1,:) = xtrue; xhatstore(k,:) = xhat;
  SigmaXstore(k,:) = diag(SRSigmaX*SRSigmaX');
end;
figure(1); clf;
plot(0:maxIter-1,xstore(1:maxIter),'k-',0:maxIter-1,xhatstore,'b--', ...
  0:maxIter-1, xhatstore+3*sqrt(SigmaXstore), 'm-.',...
  0:maxIter-1, xhatstore-3*sqrt(SigmaXstore), 'm-.'); grid;
title('Kalman filter in action'); xlabel('Iteration');
ylabel('State'); legend('true', 'estimate', 'bounds');
figure(2); clf;
plot(0:maxIter-1,xstore(1:maxIter)-xhatstore,'b-', ...
  0:maxIter-1,3*sqrt(SigmaXstore),'m--',...
  0:maxIter-1, -3*sqrt(SigmaXstore), 'm--');
grid; legend('Error', 'bounds',0); title('Error with bounds');
xlabel('Iteration'); ylabel('Estimation Error');
```



### 5.5: Cross-correlated process and measurement noises: Coincident

- The standard KF assumes that  $\mathbb{E}[w_k v_j^T] = 0$ . But, sometimes we may encounter systems where this is not the case.
- This might happen if both the physical process and the measurement system are affected by the same source of disturbance. Examples are changes of temperature, or inductive electrical interference.
- In this section, we assume that  $\mathbb{E}[w_k w_j^T] = \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}} \delta_{kj}$ ,  $\mathbb{E}[v_k v_j^T] = \Sigma_{\widetilde{v}} \delta_{kj}$ , and  $\mathbb{E}[w_k v_j^T] = \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}\widetilde{v}} \delta_{kj}$ .
- Note that the correlation between noises is memoryless: the only correlation is at identical time instants.
- We can handle this case if we re-write the plant equation so that it has a new process noise that is uncorrelated with the measurement noise.
- Using an arbitrary matrix T (to be determined), we can write

$$x_{k+1} = A_k x_k + B_k u_k + w_k + T (z_k - C_k x_k - D_k u_k - v_k)$$
  
=  $(A_k - T C_k) x_k + (B_k - T D_k) u_k + w_k - T v_k + T z_k$ .

- Denote the new transition matrix  $\bar{A}_k = A_k TC_k$ , new input matrix as  $\bar{B}_k = B_k TD_k$ , and the new process noise as  $\bar{w}_k = w_k Tv_k$ .
- Further, denote the known (measured/computed) sequence as a new input  $\bar{u}_k = Tz_k$ .
- Then, we can write a modified state space system

$$x_{k+1} = \bar{A}_k x_k + \bar{B}_k u_k + \bar{u}_k + \bar{w}_k.$$

■ We can create a Kalman filter for this system, provided that the cross-correlation between the new process noise  $\bar{w}_k$  and the sensor

noise  $v_k$  is zero. We enforce this:

$$\mathbb{E}[\bar{w}_k v_k^T] = \mathbb{E}\left[[w_k - T v_k] v_k^T\right] = \Sigma_{\tilde{w}\tilde{v}} - T \Sigma_{\tilde{v}} = 0.$$

- This gives us that the previously unspecified matrix  $T = \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}\widetilde{v}} \Sigma_{\widetilde{v}}^{-1}$ .
- Using the above, the covariance of the new process noise may be found to be

$$\begin{split} \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}} &= \mathbb{E}[\bar{w}_k \bar{w}_k^T] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\Big[ \Big[ w_k - \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}\widetilde{v}} \Sigma_{\widetilde{v}}^{-1} v_k \Big] \Big[ w_k - \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}\widetilde{v}} \Sigma_{\widetilde{v}}^{-1} v_k \Big]^T \Big] \\ &= \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}} - \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}\widetilde{v}} \Sigma_{\widetilde{v}}^{-1} \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}\widetilde{v}}^T. \end{split}$$

A new Kalman filter may be generated using these definitions:

$$ar{A}_k = A_k - \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}\widetilde{v}} \Sigma_{\widetilde{v}}^{-1} C_k$$
  $\Sigma_{\widetilde{w}} = \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}} - \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}\widetilde{v}} \Sigma_{\widetilde{v}}^{-1} \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}\widetilde{v}}^T,$ 

and

$$x_{k+1} = (A_k - \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}\widetilde{v}} \Sigma_{\widetilde{v}}^{-1} C_k) x_k + (B_k - \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}\widetilde{v}} \Sigma_{\widetilde{v}}^{-1} D_k) u_k + \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}\widetilde{v}} \Sigma_{\widetilde{v}}^{-1} z_k + \bar{w}_k$$
$$z_k = C_k x_k + D_k u_k + v_k.$$

### Cross-correlated process and measurement noises: Shifted

- A close relation to the above is when the process noise and sensor noise have correlation one timestep apart.
- That is, we assume that  $\mathbb{E}[w_k w_j^T] = \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}} \delta_{kj}$ ,  $\mathbb{E}[v_k v_j^T] = \Sigma_{\widetilde{v}} \delta_{kj}$ , and  $\mathbb{E}[w_k v_j^T] = \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}\widetilde{v}} \delta_{k,j-1}$ . The cross-correlation is nonzero only between  $w_{k-1}$  and  $v_k$ .
- We can re-derive the KF equations using this assumption. We will find that the differences show up in the state-error covariance terms.

The state prediction error is

$$\tilde{x}_k^- = x_k - \hat{x}_k^- = A_k \tilde{x}_{k-1}^+ + w_{k-1}.$$

With the assumptions of this section, the covariance between the state prediction error and the measurement noise is

$$\mathbb{E}[\tilde{x}_k^- v_k^T] = \mathbb{E}\left[ [A_k \tilde{x}_{k-1}^+ + w_{k-1}] v_k^T \right] = \Sigma_{\tilde{w}\tilde{v}}.$$

■ The covariance between the state and the measurement becomes

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\tilde{x}_{k}^{-}\tilde{z}_{k}^{T} \mid \mathbb{Z}_{k-1}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\tilde{x}_{k}^{-}\left(C_{k}\tilde{x}_{k}^{-} + v_{k}\right)^{T} \mid \mathbb{Z}_{k-1}\right]$$
$$= \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{-}C_{k}^{T} + \Sigma_{\tilde{w}\tilde{v}}.$$

The measurement prediction covariance becomes

$$\begin{split} \Sigma_{\tilde{z},k} &= \mathbb{E} \left[ \tilde{z}_k \tilde{z}_k^T \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left[ [C_k \tilde{x}_k^- + v_k] [C_k \tilde{x}_k^- + v_k]^T \right] \\ &= C_k \Sigma_{\tilde{x}_k}^- C_k^T + \Sigma_{\tilde{v}} + C_k \Sigma_{\tilde{w}\tilde{v}} + \Sigma_{\tilde{m}\tilde{v}}^T C_k^T. \end{split}$$

The modified KF gain then becomes,

$$L_k = \left[\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^- C_k^T + \Sigma_{\tilde{w}\tilde{v}}\right] \left(C_k \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^- C_k^T + \Sigma_{\tilde{v}} + C_k \Sigma_{\tilde{w}\tilde{v}} + \Sigma_{\tilde{w}\tilde{v}}^T C_k^T\right)^{-1}.$$

- Except for the modified filter gain, all of the KF equations are the same as in the standard case.
- Note that since  $w_{k-1}$  is the process noise corresponding to the interval  $[t_{k-1}, t_k]$  and  $v_j$  is the measurement noise at  $t_j$ , it can be seen that the first case considered process noise correlated with measurement noise at the beginning of the above interval, and the second case considered process noise correlated with the end of the interval.

### **Auto-correlated process noise**

- Another common situation that contradicts the KF assumptions is that the process noise is correlated in time.
- That is, with the standard assumption that  $x_{k+1} = A_k x_k + B_k u_k + w_k$ , we do not have zero-mean white-noise  $w_k$ .
- Instead, we have  $w_k = A_w w_{k-1} + \bar{w}_{k-1}$ , where  $\bar{w}_{k-1}$  is a zero-mean white-noise process.
- We handle this situation by estimating both the true system state  $x_k$  and also the noise state  $w_k$ . We have

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_k \\ w_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{k-1} & I \\ 0 & A_w \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{k-1} \\ w_{k-1} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} B_{k-1} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} u_{k-1} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \bar{w}_{k-1} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$x_k^* = A_{k-1}^* x_{k-1}^* + B_{k-1}^* u_{k-1} + w_{k-1}^*,$$

where the overall process noise covariance is

$$\Sigma_{\widetilde{w}^*} = \mathbb{E}[w_{k-1}^*(w_{k-1}^*)^T] = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbb{E}[\bar{w}_{k-1}(\bar{w}_{k-1})^T] \end{bmatrix}$$

and the output equation is

$$z_k = \begin{bmatrix} C_k & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_k \\ w_k \end{bmatrix} + D_k u_k + v_k$$
$$= C_k^* x_k^* + D_k u_k + v_k.$$

■ A standard Kalman filter may now be designed using the definitions of  $x_k^*$ ,  $A_k^*$ ,  $B_k^*$ ,  $C_k^*$ ,  $D_k$ ,  $\Sigma_{\widetilde{w}^*}$ , and  $\Sigma_{\widetilde{v}}$ .

#### **Auto-correlated sensor noise**

■ Similarly, we might encounter situations with auto-correlated sensor noise:  $v_k = A_v v_{k-1} + \bar{v}_{k-1}$ , where  $\bar{v}_k$  is white.

■ We take a similar approach. The augmented system is

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_k \\ v_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{k-1} & 0 \\ 0 & A_v \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{k-1} \\ v_{k-1} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} B_{k-1} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} u_{k-1} + \begin{bmatrix} w_{k-1} \\ \bar{v}_{k-1} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$x_k^* = A_{k-1}^* x_{k-1}^* + B_{k-1}^* u_{k-1} + w_{k-1}^*$$

with output equation

$$z_k = \begin{bmatrix} C_k & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_k \\ v_k \end{bmatrix} + D_k u_k + 0$$
$$= C_k^* x_k^* + D_k u_k + 0$$

■ The covariance of the combined process noise is

$$\Sigma_{\widetilde{w}^*} = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(egin{array}{c} w_k \ ar{v}_k \end{array}
ight) \left(egin{array}{cc} w_k \ ar{v}_k \end{array}
ight)
ight] = \left[egin{array}{cc} \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}} & 0 \ 0 & \Sigma_{\widetilde{ar{v}}} \end{array}
ight].$$

■ A Kalman filter may be designed using these new definitions of of  $x_k^*$ ,  $A_k^*$ ,  $B_k^*$ ,  $C_k^*$ ,  $D_k$ ,  $\Sigma_{\widetilde{w}^*}$ , with  $\Sigma_{\widetilde{v}} = 0$  (the placeholder for measurement noise is zero in the above formulations).

### Measurement differencing

- Zero-covariance measurement noise can cause numerical issues.
- A sneaky way to fix this is to introduce an artificial measurement that is computed as a scaled difference between two actual measurements:  $\bar{z}_k = z_{k+1} A_v z_k$ .
- KF equations can then be developed using this new "measurement."
- The details are really messy and not conducive to a lecture presentation. I refer you to Bar-Shalom!
- Care must be taken to deal with the "future" measurement  $z_{k+1}$  in the update equations, but it works out to a causal solution in the end.

## 5.6: Kalman-filter prediction and smoothing

ullet Prediction is the estimation of the system state at a time m beyond the data interval. That is,

$$\hat{x}_{m|k}^- = \mathbb{E}[x_m \mid \mathbb{Z}_k],$$

where m > k.

- There are three different prediction scenarios:
  - <u>Fixed-point prediction</u>: Find  $\hat{x}_{m|k}^-$  where m is fixed, but k is changing as more data becomes available;
  - Fixed-lead prediction: Find  $\hat{x}_{k+L|k}^-$  where L is a fixed lead time;
  - Fixed-interval prediction: Find  $\hat{x}_{m|k}^-$  where k is fixed, but m can take on multiple future values.
- The desired predictions can be extrapolated from the standard Kalman filter state and estimates.
- The basic approach is to use the relationship (cf. Homework 1)

$$x_{m} = \left(\prod_{j=0}^{m-k-1} A_{m-1-j}\right) x_{k} + \sum_{i=k}^{m-1} \left(\prod_{j=0}^{m-i-2} A_{m-1-j}\right) B_{i} u_{i}$$
$$+ \sum_{i=k}^{m-1} \left(\prod_{j=0}^{m-i-2} A_{m-1-j}\right) w_{i},$$

in the relationship

$$\hat{x}_{m|k}^- = \mathbb{E}[x_m \mid \mathbb{Z}_k],$$

with the additional knowledge that  $\hat{x}_k^+ = \mathbb{E}[x_k \mid \mathbb{Z}_k]$  from a standard Kalman filter.

■ That is,

$$\hat{x}_{m|k}^{-} = \mathbb{E}[x_{m} \mid \mathbb{Z}_{k}] \\
= \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\prod_{j=0}^{m-k-1} A_{m-1-i}\right) x_{k} \mid \mathbb{Z}_{k}\right] + \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=k}^{m-1} \left(\prod_{j=0}^{m-i-2} A_{m-1-i}\right) B_{i} u_{i} \mid \mathbb{Z}_{k}\right] \\
+ \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=k}^{m-1} \left(\prod_{j=0}^{m-i-2} A_{m-1-j}\right) w_{i} \mid \mathbb{Z}_{k}\right] \\
= \left(\prod_{j=0}^{m-k-1} A_{m-1-i}\right) \hat{x}_{k}^{+} + \sum_{i=k}^{m-1} \left(\prod_{j=0}^{m-i-2} A_{m-1-i}\right) B_{i} \mathbb{E}[u_{i} \mid \mathbb{Z}_{k}].$$

- Note that we often assume that  $\mathbb{E}[u_k] = 0$ .
- If, furthermore, the system is time invariant,

$$\hat{x}_{m|k}^- = A^{m-k} \hat{x}_k^+.$$

■ The covariance of the prediction is

$$\Sigma_{\tilde{x},m|k}^{-} = \mathbb{E}[(x_{m} - \hat{x}_{m|k}^{-})(x_{m} - \hat{x}_{m|k}^{-})^{T} \mid \mathbb{Z}_{k}]$$

$$= \left(\prod_{j=0}^{m-k-1} A_{m-1-i}\right) \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{+} \left(\prod_{j=0}^{m-k-1} A_{m-1-i}\right)^{T}$$

$$+ \sum_{i=k}^{m-1} \left(\prod_{j=0}^{m-i-2} A_{m-1-j}\right) \Sigma_{\tilde{w}} \left(\prod_{j=0}^{m-i-2} A_{m-1-j}^{T}\right).$$

If the system is time invariant, this reduces to

$$\Sigma_{\widetilde{x},m|k}^{-} = A^{m-k} \Sigma_{\widetilde{x},k}^{+} \left( A^{m-k} \right)^{T} + \sum_{j=1}^{m-k} A^{j} \Sigma_{\widetilde{w}} \left( A^{j} \right)^{T}.$$

### **Smoothing**

■ Smoothing is the estimation of the system state at a time m amid the data interval. That is,

$$\hat{x}_{m|N}^+ = \mathbb{E}[x_m \mid \mathbb{Z}_N],$$

where m < N.

- There are three different smoothing scenarios:
  - Fixed-point smoothing: Find  $\hat{x}_{m|k}^+$  where m is fixed, but k is changing as more data becomes available;
  - Fixed-lag smoothing: Find  $\hat{x}_{k-L|k}^-$  where L is a fixed lag time;
  - Fixed-interval smoothing: Find  $\hat{x}_{m|N}^+$  where k is fixed, but m can take on multiple past values.
- Of these, fixed-interval smoothing is the most relevant, and both texts have detailed derivations.
- The others use a variation of this idea.

### Fixed interval smoothing

- The algorithm consists of a forward recursive pass followed by a backward pass.
- The forward pass uses a Kalman filter, and saves the intermediate results  $\hat{x}_k^-$ ,  $\hat{x}_k^+$ ,  $\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^-$ , and  $\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^+$ .
- The backward pass starts at time *N* of the last measurement, and computes the smoothed state estimate using the results obtained from the forward pass.

Recursive equations (backward sweep)

$$\hat{x}_{m|N}^{+} = \hat{x}_{m}^{+} + \lambda_{m} \left( \hat{x}_{m+1|N}^{+} - \hat{x}_{m+1}^{-} \right)$$
$$\lambda_{m} = \Sigma_{\tilde{x},m}^{+} A_{m}^{T} \left( \Sigma_{\tilde{x},m+1}^{-} \right)^{-1}$$

where m = N - 1, N - 2, ..., 0. Note,  $\hat{x}_{N|N}^+ = \hat{x}_N^+$  to start backward pass.

The error covariance matrix for the smoothed estimate is

$$\Sigma_{\tilde{x},m|N}^{+} = \Sigma_{\tilde{x},m}^{+} + \lambda_m \left[ \Sigma_{\tilde{x},m+1|N}^{+} - \Sigma_{\tilde{x},m+1}^{-} \right] \lambda_m^T,$$

but it is not needed to be able to perform the backward pass.

Note, the term in the square brackets is negative semi-definite, so the covariance of the smoothed estimate is "smaller" than for the filtered estimate only.

### Fixed point smoothing

 $\blacksquare$  Here, m is fixed, and the final point k keeps increasing.

$$\hat{x}_{m|k}^{+} = \hat{x}_{m|k-1}^{+} + \mu_{k} \left( \hat{x}_{k}^{+} - \hat{x}_{k}^{-} \right)$$

$$\mu_{k} = \prod_{i=m}^{k-1} \lambda_{i},$$

where the product multiplies on the left as *i* increases.

■ For k = m + 1,

$$\hat{x}_{m|m+1}^{+} = \hat{x}_{m}^{+} + \mu_{m+1} \left( \hat{x}_{m+1}^{+} - \hat{x}_{m+1}^{-} \right)$$
$$\mu_{m+1} = \lambda_{m} = \Sigma_{\tilde{x},m}^{+} A_{m}^{T} \left( \Sigma_{\tilde{x},m+1}^{-} \right)^{-1}.$$

■ For k = m + 2,

$$\hat{x}_{m|m+2}^{+} = \hat{x}_{m|m+1}^{+} + \mu_{m+2} \left( \hat{x}_{m+2}^{+} - \hat{x}_{m+2}^{-} \right)$$
$$\mu_{m+2} = \sum_{\tilde{x},m+1}^{+} A_{m+1}^{T} \left( \sum_{\tilde{x},m+2}^{-} \right)^{-1} \mu_{k+1},$$

and so forth.

### Fixed lag smoothing

- Here, we seek to estimate the state vector at a fixed time interval lagging the time of the current measurement.
- This type of smoothing trades off estimation latency for more accuracy.
- The fixed interval smoothing algorithm could be used to perform fixed-lag smoothing when the number of backward steps equals the time lag
- This is fine as long as the number of backward steps is small.
- Fixed-lag smoothing algorithm has a startup problem: Cannot run until enough data is available.

#### 5.7: Reduced-order Kalman filter

- Why estimate the entire state vector when you are measuring one or more state elements directly?
- Consider partitioning system state into (may require transformation)

 $x_{k:a}$ : measured state

 $x_{k:b}$ : to be estimated.

■ So.

$$z_k = Cx_k + Du_k + v_k = x_{k:a} + Du_k + v_k$$
$$\hat{x}_{k:a} = z_k - Du_k = x_{k:a} + v_k.$$

- We assume that the measurement is noise-free (otherwise, we would need to estimate  $x_{k:a}$  also). So,  $\hat{x}_{k:a} = z_k Du_k = x_{k:a}$ .
- In order to design an estimator for  $x_{k:b}$ , we need to create a suitable state-space model of the dynamics of  $x_{k:b}$ .
- We begin by writing the equations for the partitioned system

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{k+1:a} \\ x_{k+1:b} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{aa} & A_{ab} \\ A_{ba} & A_{bb} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{k:a} \\ x_{k:b} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} B_a \\ B_b \end{bmatrix} u_k + \begin{bmatrix} w_{k:a} \\ w_{k:b} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$z_k = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{k:a} \\ x_{k:b} \end{bmatrix} + Du_k.$$

■ We wish to write the  $x_{k:b}$  dynamics in the form:

$$x_{k+1:b} = A_{xb}x_{k:b} + B_{xb}m_{k,1} + \bar{w}_k$$

$$m_{k,2} = C_{xb}x_{k:b} + D_{xb}m_{k,1} + \bar{v}_k,$$

where  $m_{k,1}$  and  $m_{k,2}$  are some measurable inputs, and will be combinations of  $z_k$  and  $u_k$ .

- Once we have this state-space form, we can create a Kalman-filter state estimator for  $x_{k:b}$ .
- We start the derivation by finding an output equation for  $x_{k:b}$ . Consider the dynamics of the measured state:

$$x_{k+1:a} = A_{aa}x_{k:a} + A_{ab}x_{k:b} + B_{a}u_k + w_{k:a}$$
$$z_{k+1} = A_{aa}z_k + A_{ab}x_{k:b} + B_{a}u_k + w_{k:a}.$$

Let

$$m_{k,2} = z_{k+1} - A_{aa}z_k - B_au_k$$
.

■ Then

$$m_{k,2} = A_{ab}x_{k:b} + w_{k:a},$$

where  $m_{k,2}$  is known/measurable and thus " $C_{xb}$ " is equal to  $A_{ab}$ .

- This is our reduced-order estimator output relation.
- We now look for a state equation for  $x_{k:b}$ . Consider the dynamics of the estimated state:

$$x_{k+1:b} = A_{ba}x_{k:a} + A_{bb}x_{k:b} + B_{b}u_k + w_{k:b}$$
$$A_{bb}x_{k:b} + A_{ba}z_k + B_{b}u_k + w_{k:b}.$$

Let

$$B_{xb}m_{k,1} = A_{ba}z_k + B_bu_k$$

so that the reduced-order recurrence relation is

$$x_{k+1:b} = A_{bb}x_{k:b} + B_{xb}m_{k,1} + w_{k:b}.$$

This might be accomplished via

$$B_{xb}m_{k,1} = \left[ A_{ba} \middle| B_b \right] \left[ \begin{matrix} z_k \\ \vdots \\ u_k \end{matrix} \right]$$

although the details of how this is done do not matter in the end.

So, for the purpose of designing our estimator, the state-space equations are:

$$x_{k+1:b} = A_{bb}x_{k:b} + B_{xb}m_{k,1} + \bar{w}_k$$
$$m_{k,2} = A_{ab}x_{k:b} + \bar{v}_k,$$

where  $\bar{w}_k = w_{k:b}$  and  $\bar{v}_k = w_{k:a}$ .

- Note that the measurement is non-causal, so the filter output will lag the true output by one sample.
- Another (causal) approach that does not assume noise-free measurements is presented in: D. Simon, "Reduced Order Kalman Filtering without Model Reduction," *Control and Intelligent Systems*, vol. 35, no. 2, pp. 169–174, April 2007.
- This algorithm can end up more complicated than full Kalman filter unless many states are being removed from estimation requirements.

### 5.8: Measurement validation gating

- Sometimes the systems for which we would like a state estimate have sensors with intermittent faults.
- We would like to detect faulty measurements and discard them (the time update steps of the KF are still implemented, but the measurement update steps are skipped).
- The Kalman filter provides an elegant theoretical means to accomplish this goal. Note:
  - The measurement covariance matrix is  $\Sigma_{\tilde{z},k} = C_k \Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^- C_k^T + \Sigma_{\tilde{v}}$ ;
  - The measurement prediction itself is  $\hat{z}_k = C_k \hat{x}_k^- + D_k u_k$ ;
  - The innovation is  $\tilde{z}_k = z_k \hat{z}_k$ .
- A measurement validation gate can be set up around the measurement using normalized estimation error squared (NEES)

$$e_k^2 = \tilde{z}_k^T \Sigma_{\tilde{z},k}^{-1} \tilde{z}_k.$$

- NEES  $e_k^2$  varies as a Chi-squared distribution with m degrees of freedom, where m is the dimension of  $z_k$ .
- If  $e_k^2$  is outside the bounding values from the Chi-squared distribution for a desired confidence level, the measurement is discarded.
- Note: If a number of measurements are discarded in a short time interval, it may be that the sensor has truly failed, or that the state estimate and its covariance has gotten "lost."
- It is sometimes helpful to "bump up" the covariance  $\Sigma_{\tilde{x},k}^{\pm}$ , which simulates additional process noise, to help the Kalman filter to reacquire.

### **Chi-squared test**

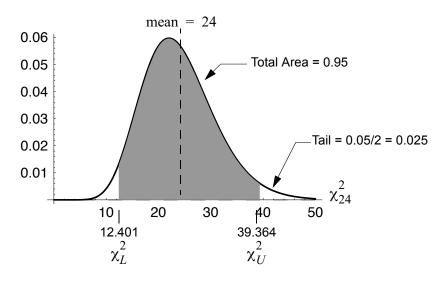
■ A chi-square random variable is defined as a sum of squares of independent unit variance zero mean normal random variables.

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \frac{X_i - \mathbb{E}[X_i]}{\sigma} \right)^2.$$

- Y is *chi-square* with n degrees of freedom.
- Since it is a sum of squares, it is never negative and is not symmetrical about its mean value.
- The pdf of Y with n degrees of freedom is

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{2^{n/2}\Gamma(n/2)} y^{(n/2-1)} e^{-n/2}.$$

■ For confidence interval estimation we need to find two critical values.



Critical values for 95% confidence and  $\chi^2$  with 24 degrees of freedom

■ If we want  $1 - \alpha$  confidence that the measurement is valid, we want to make sure that Y is between  $\chi_L^2$  and  $\chi_U^2$  where  $\chi_L^2$  is calculated using  $\alpha/2$  and  $\chi_U^2$  is calculated using  $1 - \alpha/2$ .

- The  $\chi^2$  pdf, cdf, and inverse cdf are available in most analysis software packages (*e.g.*, MATLAB, Mathematica, and even the spreadsheet program Excel).
- For hand calculations a  $\chi^2$ -table is available on page 5–33.

**TRICKS WITH MATLAB:** MATLAB may also be used to find the  $\chi^2$  values if a table is not convenient. This requires the MATLAB *statistics toolbox:* 

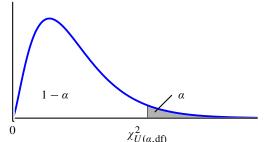
```
CHIZINV Inverse of the chi-square cumulative distribution function (cdf).
X = CHIZINV(P,V) returns the inverse of the chi-square cdf with V
degrees of freedom at the values in P. The chi-square cdf with V
degrees of freedom, is the gamma cdf with parameters V/2 and 2.
The size of X is the common size of P and V. A scalar input
functions as a constant matrix of the same size as the other input.

>> % want to compute values for alpha = 0.05
>> chi2inv(1-.025,24) % Tail probability of alpha/2=0.025, n = 24. Upper
    critical value

ans = 39.3641
>> chi2inv(.025,24) % Lower critical value
ans = 12.4012
```

# **Appendix:** Critical Values of $\chi^2$

■ For some deg. of freedom, each entry represents the critical value of  $\chi^2$  for a specified upper tail area  $\alpha$ .



	specified upper tall area $\alpha$ .															0	)				$\chi_U^2$				,df)						-												
	0.005	7.879	10.597	12.838	14.860	16.750	18.548	20.278	21.955	23.589	25.188	26.757	28.300	29.819	31.319	32.801	34.267	35.718	37.156	38.582	39.997	41.401	42.796	44.181	45.559	46.928	48.290	49.645	50.993	52.336	53.672	55.003	56.328	57.648	58.964	60.275	61.581	62.883	64.181	65.476	991.99	73.166	79.490
	0.01	6.635	9.210	11.345	13.277	15.086	16.812	18.475	20.090	21.666	23.209	24.725	26.217	27.688	29.141	30.578	32.000	33.409	34.805	36.191	37.566	38.932	40.289	41.638	42.980	44.314	45.642	46.963	48.278	49.588	50.892	52.191	53.486	54.776	56.061	57.342	58.619	59.893	61.162	62.428	63.691	69.957	76.154
	0.025	5.024	7.378	9.348	11.143	12.833	14.449	16.013	17.535	19.023	20.483	21.920	23.337	24.736	26.119	27.488	28.845	30.191	31.526	32.852	34.170	35.479	36.781	38.076	39.364	40.646	41.923	43.195	44.461	45.722	46.979	48.232	49.480	50.725	51.966	53.203	54.437	55.668	56.896	58.120	59.342	65.410	71.420
	0.05	3.841	5.991	7.815	9.488	11.070	12.592	14.067	15.507	16.919	18.307	19.675	21.026	22.362	23.685	24.996	26.296	27.587	28.869	30.144	31.410	32.671	33.924	35.172	36.415	37.652	38.885	40.113	41.337	42.557	43.773	44.985	46.194	47.400	48.602	49.802	50.998	52.192	53.384	54.572	55.758	61.656	67.505
	0.10	2.706	4.605	6.251	7.779	9.236	10.645	12.017	13.362	14.684	15.987	17.275	18.549	19.812	21.064	22.307	23.542	24.769	25.989	27.204	28.412	29.615	30.813	32.007	33.196	34.382	35.563	36.741	37.916	39.087	40.256	41.422	42.585	43.745	44.903	46.059	47.212	48.363	49.513	50.660	51.805	57.505	63.167
il Areas	0.25	1.323	2.773	4.108	5.385	6.626	7.841	9.037	10.219	11.389	12.549	13.701	14.845	15.984	17.117	18.245	19.369	20.489	21.605	22.718	23.828	24.935	26.039	27.141	28.241	29.339	30.435	31.528	32.620	33.711	34.800	35.887	36.973	38.058	39.141	40.223	41.304	42.383	43.462	44.539	45.616	50.985	56.334
Upper Tail Areas	0.75	0.102	0.575	1.213	1.923	2.675	3.455	4.255	5.071	5.899	6.737	7.584	8.438	9.299	10.165	11.037	11.912	12.792	13.675	14.562	15.452	16.344	17.240	18.137	19.037	19.939	20.843	21.749	22.657	23.567	24.478	25.390	26.304	27.219	28.136	29.054	29.973	30.893	31.815	32.737	33.660	38.291	42.942
	06.0	0.016	0.211	0.584	1.064	1.610	2.204	2.833	3.490	4.168	4.865	5.578	6.304	7.042	7.790	8.547	9.312	10.085	10.865	11.651	12.443	13.240	14.041	14.848	15.659	16.473	17.292	18.114	18.939	19.768	20.599	21.434	22.271	23.110	23.952	24.797	25.643	26.492	27.343	28.196	29.051	33.350	37.689
	0.95	0.004	0.103	0.352	0.711	1.145	1.635	2.167	2.733	3.325	3.940	4.575	5.226	5.892	6.571	7.261	7.962	8.672	9.390	10.117	10.851	11.591	12.338	13.091	13.848	14.611	15.379	16.151	16.928	17.708	18.493	19.281	20.072	20.867	21.664	22.465	23.269	24.075	24.884	25.695	26.509	30.612	34.764
	0.975	0.	0.051	0.216	0.484	0.831	1.237	•	•	2.700	•	3.816	4.404	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	10.283	•	Ċ.	12.401	13.120	ς,	14.573	15.308	•	•	17.539	18.291	19.047	19.806	0	i.		2		24.433	8.3	2
	0.99	00.	.02	Τ.	. 29	.5	.87		.64	0.	.55	0.	3.571	•	.66		.81	.40	.01	•		.89	•	0.19		. 52	.19	12.879	.5	.25	.95	15.655	6.3	17.074	17.789	.5	$\sim$	9	9.	1.4	2.1	25.901	9.7
	0.995	00.	.01	.07	0.207	.41	.67	•	.34	.73	.15	.60	0	.56	.07	.60	.14	.69	.26	. 84	.43	0.	.64	9.260	•	0.52	.16	1.80	12.461		3.7	4.4	5.13		16.501	17.192	7.88	8.58	9.2	9.99	.70	4.	7.99
Degrees of	Freedom	П	N	m	4	Ŋ	9	7	8	0	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	45	50