Batch State Estimation — Using All Available Data for Estimation —

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Problem Statement

Consider the following process and measurement models,

$$\mathbf{x}_{k} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}) + \mathbf{w}_{k-1}, \qquad k = 1, \dots, K$$
(1)

$$\mathbf{y}_{k} = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_{k}) + \mathbf{v}_{k}, \qquad k = 0, \dots, K.$$
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Suppose we have access to all the inputs u_k and outputs y_k, as well as an uncertain estimate of the initial state,

$$\mathbf{x}_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(\check{\mathbf{x}}_0, \mathbf{P}_0).$$
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How do we find the "best" estimate of the all of states, all at once, using all the data available?

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- How do we find the "best" estimate of the all of states, all at once, using all the data available?
- ► This is the *batch state estimation* problem.
- The notation

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x} &= \mathbf{x}_{0:K} = \{\mathbf{x}_0, \dots, \mathbf{x}_K\}, \\ \mathbf{u} &= \mathbf{u}_{0:K} = \{\mathbf{u}_0, \dots, \mathbf{u}_K\}, \\ \mathbf{y} &= \mathbf{y}_{0:K} = \{\mathbf{y}_0, \dots, \mathbf{y}_K\}, \end{aligned}$$

will be used.

Batch Estimation



Figure 1: (red) Ground truth trajectory. (blue) Estimated trajectory. Simulation of the estimation of a ground robot's trajectory using batch estimation.

Batch Estimation vs. Extended Kalman Filter



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Figure 2: The MAP estimate finds the largest overall value of $p(\mathbf{x}|\check{\mathbf{x}}_0, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y})$.

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Figure 2: The MAP estimate finds the largest overall value of $p(\mathbf{x}|\check{\mathbf{x}}_0, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y})$.

- Note that this is the mode of the distribution, as opposed to the mean.
- The next few steps consist of manipulating p(x|x̃₀, u, y) into a form so that a gradient-based optimization algorithm (i.e., Gauss-Newton) can be used.

Bayes' rule can be used to reformat the problem,

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \arg \max_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \check{\mathbf{x}}_0, \mathbf{u}) p(\mathbf{x}|\check{\mathbf{x}}_0, \mathbf{u})}{p(\mathbf{y}|\check{\mathbf{x}}_0, \mathbf{u})}$$
(5)
=
$$\arg \max_{\mathbf{x}} \alpha p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \check{\mathbf{x}}_0, \mathbf{u}) p(\mathbf{x}|\check{\mathbf{x}}_0, \mathbf{u}),$$
(6)

where the denominator has been lumped into a constant α , which does not depend on x.

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2. From our process model, we can write

$$p(\mathbf{x}_k|\mathbf{x}_{0:k-1},\mathbf{u}_{0:K},\check{\mathbf{x}}_0) = p(\mathbf{x}_k|\mathbf{x}_{k-1},\mathbf{u}_{k-1})$$
(8)

since \mathbf{x}_k is only conditioned on \mathbf{x}_{k-1} , \mathbf{u}_{k-1} (the *Markov* assumption).

> These assumptions allow us to "split" the PDFs into their factored joint likehoods

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$$p(\mathbf{x}|\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{0}, \mathbf{u}) = p(\mathbf{x}_{0}|\mathbf{x}_{1:K}, \check{\mathbf{x}}_{0}, \mathbf{u}_{0:K}) p(\mathbf{x}_{1:K}|\check{\mathbf{x}}_{0}, \mathbf{u}_{0:K})$$

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= $p(\mathbf{x}_{0}|\check{\mathbf{x}}_{0}) \prod_{k=1}^{K} p(\mathbf{x}_{k}|\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}).$

Returning to the optimization problem, it can now be written as

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \arg\max_{\mathbf{x}} \alpha p(\mathbf{x}_0 | \check{\mathbf{x}}_0) \left(\prod_{k=1}^K p(\mathbf{x}_k | \mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}) \right) \left(\prod_{k=0}^K p(\mathbf{y}_k | \mathbf{x}_k) \right).$$
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(9)

- Minimizing the negative logarithm of (9) does not change the solution to the optimization problem, as it is a monotonically increasing function.
- Hence,

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \underset{\mathbf{x}}{\arg\min} - \ln\left(\alpha p(\mathbf{x}_0|\check{\mathbf{x}}_0) \left(\prod_{k=1}^K p(\mathbf{x}_k|\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1})\right) \left(\prod_{k=0}^K p(\mathbf{y}_k|\mathbf{x}_k)\right)\right)$$
(10)
$$= \underset{\mathbf{x}}{\arg\min} - \ln\alpha - \ln p(\mathbf{x}_0|\check{\mathbf{x}}_0) - \sum_{k=1}^K \ln p(\mathbf{x}_k|\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}) - \sum_{k=0}^K \ln p(\mathbf{y}_k|\mathbf{x}_k).$$
(11)

Minimizing the Negative Logarithm



Figure 3: The maximum of p(x|y) is at the same x value as the minimum of $-\ln p(x|y)$. [1]

Using Gaussian Error Distributions

The problem simplifies further if the probability density functions in (11) are assumed to be Gaussian distributions,

$$p(\mathbf{x}_{0}|\check{\mathbf{x}}_{0}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^{n} \det \mathbf{P}_{0}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_{0} - \check{\mathbf{x}}_{0})^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{P}_{0}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_{0} - \check{\mathbf{x}}_{0})\right),$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}_{k}|\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^{n} \det \mathbf{Q}_{k}}}$$

$$\times \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_{k} - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1})^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Q}_{k}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_{k} - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}))\right),$$

$$p(\mathbf{y}_{k}|\mathbf{x}_{k}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^{p} \det \mathbf{R}_{k}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}_{k} - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_{k}))^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{R}_{k}^{-1}(\mathbf{y}_{k} - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_{k}))\right).$$

Using Gaussian Error Distributions

The cost function then becomes

$$\begin{split} \hat{\mathbf{x}} &= \arg\min_{\mathbf{x}} - \ln\alpha - \ln\frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det \mathbf{P}_0}} - \ln\frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det \mathbf{Q}_k}} - \ln\frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det \mathbf{R}_k}} \\ &+ \left(\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_0 - \check{\mathbf{x}}_0)^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{P}_0^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_0 - \check{\mathbf{x}}_0)\right) \\ &+ \sum_{k=1}^K \left(\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}))^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{Q}_k^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}))\right) \\ &+ \sum_{k=0}^K \left(\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}_k - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_k))^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{R}_k^{-1}(\mathbf{y}_k - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_k))\right). \end{split}$$

The first four terms are independent of x, and can be lumped into a single constant α .

Using Gaussian Error Distributions

Finally, by defining

$$\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}_0(\mathbf{x}) \\ \mathbf{e}_{u,1}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{e}_{u,K}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \mathbf{e}_{y,0}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{e}_{y,K}(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{where} \quad \mathbf{e}_{u,k}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}, \mathbf{0}),$$
$$\mathbf{e}_{y,k}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}_k - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_k, \mathbf{0}),$$
$$\mathbf{w} = \operatorname{diag}(\mathbf{P}_0^{-1}, \mathbf{Q}_1^{-1}, \dots, \mathbf{Q}_K^{-1}, \mathbf{R}_0^{-1}, \dots, \mathbf{R}_K^{-1}),$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{e}(\mathbf{x})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{e}(\mathbf{x}) + \alpha,$$
 (12)

which is a weighted nonlinear least squares problem!

b Drop the α term.

Summary of MAP Estimation

Maximum A Posteriori

In summary, the optimization problem

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \arg \max p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y})$$
 (13)

is completely equivalent to

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \arg\min\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{x})^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{x}),$$
 (14)

where e(x), W have been defined previously,

- 1. we assume that $p(\mathbf{y}_k | \mathbf{x}, \check{\mathbf{x}}_0, \mathbf{u}) = p(\mathbf{y}_k | \mathbf{x}_k)$,
- 2. we assume that $p(\mathbf{x}_{k}|\mathbf{x}_{1:k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{1:K}, \check{\mathbf{x}}_{0}) = p(\mathbf{x}_{k}|\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1})$, and
- 3. we assume that the PDFs $p(\mathbf{x}_0|\check{\mathbf{x}}_0)$, $p(\mathbf{x}_k|\mathbf{x}_{k-1},\mathbf{u}_{k-1})$, $p(\mathbf{y}_k|\mathbf{x}_k)$ are Gaussian.

An Aside on Matrix Construction

- > When constructing the batch matrices, the order of states and errors is arbitrary.
- It is equally mathematically valid to choose any ordering, so long as the construction of the matrices is consistent with the ordering.
- Some orderings provide computational benefits (sparsity in matrices).



Figure 4: One choice of state and error ordering.

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Figure 5: Another choice of state and error ordering.

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$$\delta \mathbf{x}^{(i)} = -(\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{e}(\mathbf{x}), \tag{16}$$

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- 5. and repeat until convergence.
- α is a step size (can be chosen with line search).
- Could also use Levenberg–Marquardt.

The Linear Case

Given linear process and measurement models,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}_k &= \mathbf{A}_{k-1} \mathbf{x}_{k-1} + \mathbf{B}_{k-1} \mathbf{u}_{k-1} + \mathbf{w}_{k-1}, & \mathbf{w}_k \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{Q}_k), \\ \mathbf{y}_k &= \mathbf{C}_k \mathbf{x}_k + \mathbf{v}_k, & \mathbf{v}_k \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{R}_k), \end{aligned}$$
(18)

it follows that the error matrix $\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{x})$ can be written as

$$\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{z} \tag{20}$$

where
$$\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{x}_{0}^{\mathsf{T}} \dots \mathbf{x}_{K}^{\mathsf{T}}]^{\mathsf{T}}$$
,
 $\mathbf{z} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_{0}^{\mathsf{T}} \dots \mathbf{x}_{K}^{\mathsf{T}} \end{bmatrix}^{\mathsf{T}}$,
 $\mathbf{B}_{0}\mathbf{u}_{0}$
 \vdots
 $\mathbf{B}_{K-1}\mathbf{u}_{K-1}$
 \mathbf{y}_{0}
 \mathbf{y}_{1}
 \vdots
 \mathbf{y}_{K}
 \mathbf{y}_{K}
 $\mathbf{H} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & & & & \\ -\mathbf{A}_{0} & \mathbf{1} & & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & & \\ & & -\mathbf{A}_{K-1} & \mathbf{1} \\ -\mathbf{C}_{0} & & & & \\ & & & -\mathbf{C}_{1} & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & \mathbf{C}_{K} \end{bmatrix}$. (21)

The Linear Case

The Gauss-Newton step becomes

$$\delta \mathbf{x}^{(i)} = -(\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{e}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}),$$
(22)

$$= -(\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{H})^{-1}\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \mathbf{z}),$$
(23)

$$= -\mathbf{x}^{(i)} + (\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{H})^{-1}\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{z}$$
(24)

• The iterations $\mathbf{x}^{(i+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + \delta \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$ then reduce to a single solution for the optimal estimate

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{z}.$$
(25)

Starting with a Continuous-Time Model

Suppose that we instead have a continuous time process model $f(\cdot)$ where

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \boldsymbol{f}(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{u}(t), \mathbf{w}(t)), \qquad \qquad \mathbf{w}(t) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{Q}(t)), \tag{26}$$

$$\mathbf{y}_k = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_k) + \mathbf{v}_k,$$
 $\mathbf{v}_k \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{R}_k).$ (27)

• We can linearize about some trajectory $\mathbf{x}(t) = \bar{\mathbf{x}}(t) + \delta \mathbf{x}(t)$, $\mathbf{w}(t) = \mathbf{0} + \delta \mathbf{w}(t)$, $\mathbf{y}_k = \mathbf{g}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_k) + \delta \mathbf{y}_k$ to create a linear approximation for the perturbation dynamics

$$\delta \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{A}(t)\delta \mathbf{x}(t) + \mathbf{L}(t)\delta \mathbf{w}(t) \qquad \qquad \delta \mathbf{w}(t) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{Q}(t)), \tag{28}$$

$$\delta \mathbf{y}_k = \mathbf{C}_k \delta \mathbf{x}_k + \mathbf{v}_k \qquad \qquad \delta \mathbf{v}_k \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{R}_k). \tag{29}$$

 Using a discretization scheme (zero-order-hold), we can create a discrete time equivalent model

$$\delta \mathbf{x}_{k} = \mathbf{A}_{k-1} \delta \mathbf{x}_{k-1} + \delta \mathbf{w}_{k-1} \qquad \delta \mathbf{w}_{k-1} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{Q}_{k-1}), \tag{30}$$

$$\delta \mathbf{y}_k = \mathbf{C}_k \delta \mathbf{x}_k + \delta \mathbf{v}_k \qquad \qquad \delta \mathbf{v}_k \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{R}_k), \tag{31}$$

where $\delta \mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{f}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}, \mathbf{0})$ and $\delta \mathbf{y}_k = \mathbf{y}_k - \mathbf{g}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_k)$.

Starting with a Continuous-Time Model

- ► To proceed with the batch MAP framework, we set the linearization points to simply be our current best state estimate $\bar{\mathbf{x}}_{k-1} = \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k-1}^{(i)}$ at iteration *i*.
- The state is given by

$$\mathbf{x}_{k} = \bar{\mathbf{x}}_{k} + \delta \mathbf{x}_{k} = \mathbf{f}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k-1}^{(i)}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}) + \mathbf{A}_{k-1}\delta \mathbf{x}_{k-1} + \delta \mathbf{w}_{k-1}$$
(32)

$$= \mathbf{f}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k-1}^{(i)}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}) + \mathbf{A}_{k-1}(\mathbf{x}_{k-1} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k-1}^{(i)}) + \delta \mathbf{w}_{k-1}$$
(33)

$$= \mathbf{A}_{k-1}\mathbf{x}_{k-1} + \underbrace{\mathbf{f}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k-1}^{(i)}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}) - \mathbf{A}_{k-1}\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{k-1}^{(i)}}_{\triangleq \boldsymbol{u}_{k-1}} + \mathbf{w}_{k-1}$$
(34)

and so it follows that $\mathbf{x}_k \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}_{k-1}\mathbf{x}_{k-1} + \boldsymbol{u}_{k-1}, \mathbf{Q}_{k-1}).$

This produces a linear batch problem with the error written as e(x) = Hx - z, and as usual,

$$\delta \hat{\mathbf{x}}^{(i)} = -(\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{e}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}^{(i)})$$
(35)

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}^{(i+1)} = \hat{\mathbf{x}}^{(i)} + \alpha \delta \hat{\mathbf{x}}^{(i)}$$
(36)

▶ We then recompute (35) at the new state estimate, and this is repeated until convergence.

Estimate Mean and Covariance

- The solution to our optimization problem gave us the mode of our state distribution, p(x|x̃₀, u, y).
- It is useful to also know its mean and covariance.
- For this, it is more convenient to use the *information form* of a Gaussian PDF.

Recall that a Gaussian PDF is given by

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det \boldsymbol{\Sigma}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right).$$
(37)

Recall that a Gaussian PDF is given by

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det \boldsymbol{\Sigma}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right).$$
(37)

 \blacktriangleright We can expand and manipulate the inside of the $\exp(\cdot)$ to give

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det \boldsymbol{\Sigma}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\mathbf{x} - 2\boldsymbol{\mu}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$
(38)

(39)

(40)

Recall that a Gaussian PDF is given by

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det \boldsymbol{\Sigma}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right).$$
(37)

 \blacktriangleright We can expand and manipulate the inside of the $\exp(\cdot)$ to give

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det \Sigma}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{x} - 2\boldsymbol{\mu}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\mu}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$
(38)
$$= \frac{\exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\mu}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}))}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det \boldsymbol{\Sigma}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\mu}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{x}\right)$$
(39)

(40)

Recall that a Gaussian PDF is given by

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det \boldsymbol{\Sigma}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right).$$
(37)

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$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det \boldsymbol{\Sigma}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{x} - 2\boldsymbol{\mu}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$
(38)

$$= \frac{\exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\mu}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\mu}))}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^{n}\det\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}}\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\mathbf{x}\right)$$
(39)

$$= \frac{\exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\eta}))}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^{n}\det\boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}\right)$$
(40)

Recall that a Gaussian PDF is given by

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det \boldsymbol{\Sigma}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right).$$
(37)

 \blacktriangleright We can expand and manipulate the inside of the $\exp(\cdot)$ to give

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det \boldsymbol{\Sigma}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{x} - 2\boldsymbol{\mu}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$
(38)

$$= \frac{\exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\mu}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\mu}))}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^{n}\det\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}}\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\mathbf{x}\right)$$
(39)

$$= \frac{\exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\eta}))}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^{n}\det\boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1}}}\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}\right)$$
(40)

where we have defined $\Lambda = \Sigma^{-1}$ as the *information matrix* and $\eta = \Lambda \mu$ as the *information vector*.

Information Form of a Gaussian Distribution

In summary, a Gaussian PDF can equivalently be expressed in information form, denoted $\mathcal{N}^{-1}(\eta, \Lambda) = \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$, where

$$\mathcal{N}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\eta}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}) = \beta \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}\mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}\right),\tag{41}$$

where

 \triangleright β is a normalization constant given in (40),

•
$$\Lambda = \Sigma^{-1}$$
 is called the *information matrix*, and

• $\eta = \Lambda \mu$ is called the *information vector*.

Estimate Mean and Covariance - The Linear Case

► In the linear case, the PDF of x is

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\check{\mathbf{x}}_{0},\mathbf{u},\mathbf{y}) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^{K(n+p)}\det\mathbf{W}^{-1}}}}_{\text{some constant }\beta} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{z})^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{z})\right).$$
(42)

We can manipulate the inside of the exponential to get

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\check{\mathbf{x}}_{0}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}) = \beta \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} - \mathbf{z}^{\mathsf{T}})\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{z})\right),$$
(43)
$$= \beta \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} - 2\mathbf{z}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{H}\mathbf{z} + \mathbf{z}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{z})\right),$$
(44)
$$= \underbrace{\beta \exp(-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{z}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{z})}_{\mathsf{new \ constant \ \kappa}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\underbrace{\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{H}}_{\mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}=\mathbf{\Lambda}}\mathbf{x} + \underbrace{(\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{z})^{\mathsf{T}}}_{\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathsf{T}}}\mathbf{x}\right)$$
(45)

which is exactly in the information form of a Gaussian PDF.

Estimate Mean and Covariance - The Linear Case

Hence, from

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\check{\mathbf{x}}_{0},\mathbf{u},\mathbf{y}) = \kappa \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\underbrace{\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{H}}_{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}=\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}\mathbf{x} + \underbrace{(\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{z})^{\mathsf{T}}}_{\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathsf{T}}}\mathbf{x}\right)$$
(46)

we see that $\Lambda = \mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{H}$ is the *information matrix*, and $\eta = \mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{z}$ is the *information vector*.

 Given the information matrix and information vector, it is easy to extract the covariance and mean with

$$\Sigma = \Lambda^{-1} \tag{47}$$

$$= (\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \tag{48}$$

$$\mu = \Sigma \eta$$
 (49)

$$= (\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{z} = \hat{\mathbf{x}}$$
(50)

In the linear case, the mean of the distribution is also the mode.

Estimate Mean and Covariance - The Nonlinear Case

. . .

In the nonlinear case, the PDF of x is

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\check{\mathbf{x}}_0, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}) = \beta \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{x})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{e}(\mathbf{x})\right).$$
(51)

which is **not** Gaussian.

However, we can approximate it as a Gaussian using a the first-order approximation evaluated at our estimate x

$$\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{x}) \approx \underbrace{\mathbf{e}(\hat{\mathbf{x}})}_{\overline{\mathbf{e}}} + \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}). \tag{52}$$

This leads to,

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\check{\mathbf{x}}_0, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}) \approx \beta \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\bar{\mathbf{e}}^\mathsf{T} + (\mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}})^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{H}^\mathsf{T})\mathbf{W}(\bar{\mathbf{e}} + \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}))\right),\tag{53}$$

$$= \kappa \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \underbrace{\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{H}}_{\mathbf{\Lambda}} \mathbf{x} + \underbrace{(\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{H} \hat{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \bar{\mathbf{e}})^{\mathsf{T}}}_{\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathsf{T}}} \mathbf{x}\right).$$
(54)

Estimate Mean and Covariance - The Nonlinear Case

Hence, from

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\check{\mathbf{x}}_{0},\mathbf{u},\mathbf{y}) \approx \kappa \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\underbrace{\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{H}}_{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{x} + \underbrace{\left(\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{H}\hat{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\bar{\mathbf{e}}\right)^{\mathsf{T}}}_{\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\mathsf{T}}}\mathbf{x}\right)$$
(55)

we see that $\Lambda = \mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{H}$ is the *information matrix*, and $\eta = \mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{H}\hat{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\bar{\mathbf{e}}$ is the *information vector*.

Given the information matrix and information vector, it is easy to extract the covariance and mean with

$$\Sigma = \Lambda^{-1}$$
 (56)

$$= (\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{H})^{-1}$$
(57)

$$\mu = \Sigma \eta$$
 (58)

$$= \hat{\mathbf{x}} - \underbrace{(\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{H})^{-1}\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{W}\bar{\mathbf{e}}}_{\text{should converge to }\mathbf{0}}$$
(59)

- The invariant framework can be leveraged for batch estimation problems where the state is an element of a matrix Lie group.
- ► Let the state be represented by an element of a matrix Lie group, X ∈ G, with process and measurement models given by

$$\dot{\mathbf{X}}(t) = \boldsymbol{F}(\mathbf{X}(t), \mathbf{u}(t), \mathbf{w}(t)),$$
(60)

$$\mathbf{y}_k = \mathbf{g}_k(\mathbf{X}_k) + \mathbf{v}_k. \tag{61}$$

Linearization using any perturbation definition will lead to

$$\delta \dot{\boldsymbol{\xi}}(t) = \mathbf{A}(t) \delta \boldsymbol{\xi}(t) + \mathbf{L}(t) \delta \mathbf{w}(t), \tag{62}$$
$$\delta \mathbf{y}_k = \mathbf{C}_k \delta \boldsymbol{\xi}_k + \mathbf{v}_k, \tag{63}$$

Discretization using any scheme (zero-order-hold, euler) will lead to

$$\delta \boldsymbol{\xi}_{k} = \mathbf{A}_{k-1} \delta \boldsymbol{\xi}_{k-1} + \delta \mathbf{w}_{k}$$

$$\delta \mathbf{y}_{k} = \mathbf{C}_{k} \delta \boldsymbol{\xi}_{k} + \mathbf{v}_{k},$$
(64)
(65)

 After the discretization, a corresponding nonlinear discrete time process model will have the form

$$\mathbf{X}_{k} = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{X}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}, \mathbf{w}_{k-1})$$
(66)

Starting from an initial guess X
₀, the error in the initial guess can be defined using the left-or right invariant error definition, with the left-invariant initial error is given by

$$\exp\left(\mathbf{e}_{0}^{\mathrm{L}^{\wedge}}\right) = \mathbf{E}_{0}^{\mathrm{L}} = \mathbf{X}_{0}^{-1}\check{\mathbf{X}}_{0},\tag{67}$$

and the right-invariant initial error is given by

$$\exp\left(\mathbf{e}_{0}^{\mathrm{R}^{\wedge}}\right) = \mathbf{E}_{0}^{\mathrm{R}} = \check{\mathbf{X}}_{0}\mathbf{X}_{0}^{-1}.$$
(68)

- ▶ The error due to the input is denoted $\mathbf{E}_{u,k} \in G$, and can also be defined in a left- or right-invariant sense.
- The left-invariant error due to the input is given by

$$\exp\left(\mathbf{e}_{u,k}^{\mathrm{L}}^{\wedge}\right) = \mathbf{E}_{u,k}^{\mathrm{L}} = \mathbf{X}_{k}^{-1}\mathbf{F}_{k-1}\left(\mathbf{X}_{k-1},\mathbf{u}_{k-1},\mathbf{0}\right),\tag{69}$$

whereas the right-invariant error due to the input is given by

$$\exp\left(\mathbf{e}_{u,k}^{\mathrm{R}}\right) = \mathbf{E}_{u,k}^{\mathrm{R}} = \mathbf{F}_{k-1}\left(\mathbf{X}_{k-1}, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}, \mathbf{0}\right) \mathbf{X}_{k}^{-1}.$$
(70)

Leveraging the invariant framework, recall that left- and right-invariant measurements are of the form

$$\mathbf{y}_k^{\mathrm{L}} = \mathbf{X}_k \mathbf{b}_k + \mathbf{v}_k,\tag{71}$$

$$\mathbf{y}_{k}^{\mathrm{R}} = \mathbf{X}_{k}^{-1} \mathbf{b}_{k} + \mathbf{v}_{k}, \tag{72}$$

where \mathbf{b}_k is some known column matrix.

> For left-invariant measurements, the measurement error is defined by

$$\mathbf{e}_{y,k}^{\mathrm{L}} = \mathbf{X}_{k} \left(\mathbf{y}_{k}^{\mathrm{L}} - \mathbf{g}_{k} \left(\mathbf{X}_{k}, \mathbf{0} \right) \right), \tag{73}$$

as is done in the IEKF.

For right-invariant measurements, the measurement error is defined by

$$\mathbf{e}_{y,k}^{\mathrm{R}} = \mathbf{X}_{k}^{-1} \left(\mathbf{y}_{k}^{\mathrm{R}} - \mathbf{g}_{k} \left(\mathbf{X}_{k}, \mathbf{0} \right) \right).$$
(74)

Using the invariant error definitions, the errors in the initial guess, the errors due to input, and the measurement errors can then be stacked as

$$\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{X}) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}_0 \\ \mathbf{e}_{u,1} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{e}_{u,K} \\ \mathbf{e}_{y,0} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{e}_{y,K} \end{bmatrix}.$$
 (75)

For a group affine process model and a left-or right-invariant measurement model, the Jacobian of the error, written

$$\mathbf{H} = \left. \frac{\partial \mathbf{e}(\mathbf{X})}{\partial \delta \boldsymbol{\xi}} \right|_{\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}^{(i)}},\tag{76}$$

is state-estimate independent.

The Gauss-Newton algorithm becomes the following.

- 1. Start with an initial guess for $\check{\mathbf{X}}_0$,
- 2. compute the Jacobian of the error

$$\mathbf{H} = \left. \frac{\partial \mathbf{e}(\mathbf{X})}{\partial \delta \boldsymbol{\xi}} \right|_{\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}^{(i)}}.$$
(77)

3. compute the Gauss-Newton step

$$\delta \boldsymbol{\xi}^{(i)} = -(\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{e}(\mathbf{X}^{(i)}), \tag{78}$$

where $\delta \boldsymbol{\xi}^{(i)} = [\delta \boldsymbol{\xi}_0^{(i)^{\mathsf{T}}}, \dots, \delta \boldsymbol{\xi}_K^{(i)^{\mathsf{T}}}]^{\mathsf{T}}$,

4. update the estimate for all k = 0, ..., K, using the appropriate left-invariant or right-invariant correction step given respectively by

$$\mathbf{X}_{k}^{(i+1)} = \mathbf{X}_{k}^{(i)} \exp\left(-\alpha \delta \boldsymbol{\xi}_{k}^{(i)^{\wedge}}\right),\tag{79}$$

$$\mathbf{X}_{k}^{(i+1)} = \exp\left(-\alpha \delta \boldsymbol{\xi}_{k}^{(i)^{\wedge}}\right) \mathbf{X}_{k}^{(i)},\tag{80}$$

where α is a line search parameter,

5. and repeat until convergence.

Closing Remarks

- MAP/batch estimation is one of the most accurate and robust state estimation techniques we have today.
- However, in this form, it is not appropriate for real-time state estimation, because the complexity continues to grow as the state history gets larger and larger.
- There are many alternatives to the Gauss-Newton algorithm, such as the Levenberg-Marquart algorithm, which may have better performance.
- The matrix (H^TWH) is block tri-diagonal and sparse, which allows for efficient techniques to solve the Gauss-Newton step.

For more details, see [1]

[1] T. Barfoot, *State Estimation for Robotics*. Toronto, ON: Cambridge University Press, 2019.