



Kalman Filtering and Applied Estimation

Lecture 9 Square Root Filters

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Outline – Square Root

- **Efficient Processing**
 - Processing the Ricatti Equation
 - Sensitivity to round-off errors (precision)
- **Square Root Types**
 - Joseph -
 - Potter – Cholesky, Householder
 - Carlson – Cholesky
 - Bierman – UD
- **Comparisons**
 - Speed versus accuracy
 - Memory is not a problem



Square Root

- **Chapter 6**
- Although Kalman filtering is suited for computer implementation, the computer is not ideally suited.
- The Kalman filter - in terms of **covariance matrices** - is particularly **sensitive to round-off errors**.
 - Alternative representations for the covariance matrix of estimation uncertainty, in terms of symmetric products of triangular factors.
 - Note: issues sparseness
 - Note: covariance, transpose, & inverse covariance computation
- The alternative Kalman filter implementations use these factors of the covariance matrix (or its inverse) in three types of **filter operations**:
 1. **Temporal** updates
 2. **Observational** updates
 3. **Combined** updates (temporal and observational)



Square Root Approaches

- **Square Root Covariance Approach**
 - Cholesky products
 - Symmetry for easier processing
- **Triangular Approach**
 - Upper, Lower Triangular
 - Diagonalize – Gram-Schmidt
- **Information Approach**
 - More efficient
 - Information versus track states
 - Shown to be useful for distributed systems

Square Root



- **Chapter 6**
 - Alternative representations for the **covariance matrix** of estimation uncertainty, in terms of symmetric products of triangular factors.
- **1. Square root covariance filters**, which use a decomposition of the covariance matrix of estimation uncertainty as a symmetric product of triangular **Cholesky factors**:

$$P = CC^T$$

- **2. UD covariance filters**, which use a modified (square-root-free) Cholesky decomposition of the covariance matrix:

$$P = UDU^T$$

- **3. Square root Information filters**, which use a symmetric product factorization of the information matrix,

$$I = P^{-1}$$

Square Root



- **Chapter 6**
 - Alternative representations for the **covariance matrix** of estimation uncertainty, in terms of symmetric products of triangular factors.

- **1. Cholesky decomposition methods**, by which a **symmetric positive definite** matrix M can be represented as symmetric products of triangular matrix C :

$$M = CC^T \text{ or } M = UDU^T.$$

- The Cholesky decomposition algorithms compute C (or U and D), given M .
- **2. Triangularization methods**, by which a symmetric product of a general matrix A can be represented as a **symmetric product of a triangular matrix** C :

$$AA^T = CC^T \text{ or } AA^T = UDU^T$$

These methods compute C (or U and D), given A (or A and D').

- **3. Rank One Modification Methods**, by which the sum of a symmetric product of a triangular matrix and **scaled symmetric product** of a vector (rank-one matrix) v can be represented by a symmetric product of a new triangular matrix C :

$$C'C'^T + svv^T = CC^T \text{ or } U'D'U'^T + svv^T = UDU^T$$

These methods compute C (or U and D), given C' (or D' and U'), s , and v .

Square Root



• KF Operations

• TABLE 6.5 OPERATIONS FOR CONVENTIONAL KALMAN FILTER

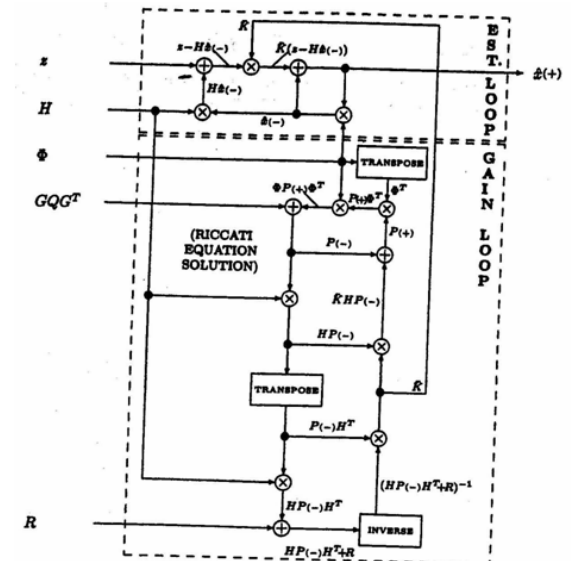
- **State dimension = n**
- **Measurement dimension = ℓ**
- **Operation** **flops**

Operation	flops
$H \times P(-)$	$n^2 \ell$
$H \times (HP(-))^T + R$	$(1/2)n\ell^2 + (1/2)n\ell$
$[H(HP(-))^T + R]^{-1}$	$\ell^3 + (1/2)\ell^2 + (1/2)\ell$
$[H(HP(-))^T + R]^{-1} \times [HP(-)]$	$n\ell^2$
$P(-) - [HP(-)] \times [H(HP(-))^T + R]^{-1} [HP(-)]$	$(1/2)n^2\ell + (1/2)n\ell$
Total	$(3/2)n^2\ell + (3/2)n\ell^2 + n\ell + \ell^3 + (1/2)\ell^2 + (1/2)\ell$

Square Root



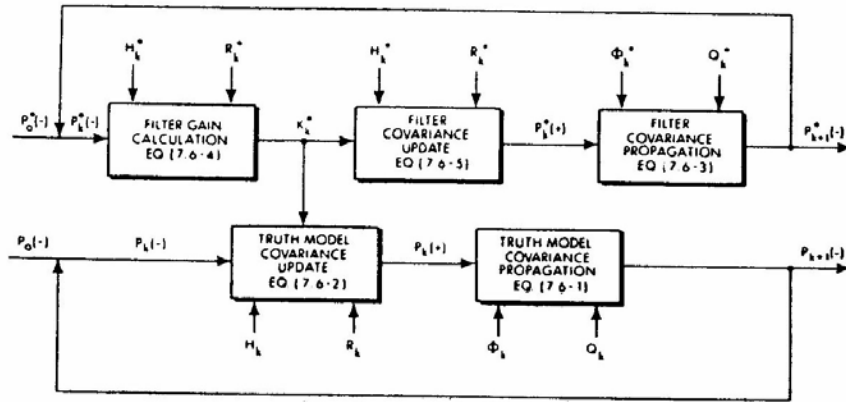
• KF Operations





• KF Operations

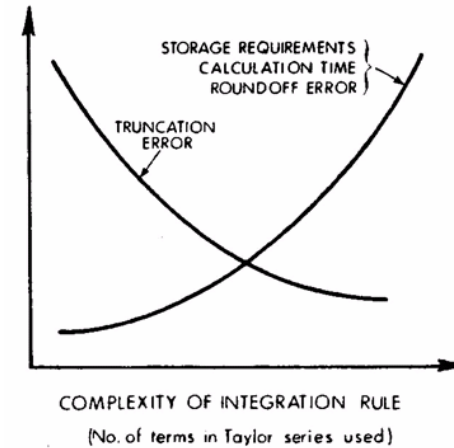
Gelb, 1974



• KF Operations

Gelb, 1974

• Integration time vs roundoff errors



Gelb, 1974

• In the square-root formulation, **Matrix W** is calculated instead of P,

where $P = WW^T$.

Thus, P(+) is always assured to be **positive definite**.

The square-root formulation gives the same accuracy in single precision as does the conventional formulation in double precision.

Unfortunately, the **matrix W is not unique**, and this leads to a proliferation of square-root algorithms. The square-root algorithm takes the form:

Update $W(+)=W(-)[I-Z(U^T)^{-1}(U+V)^{-1}Z^T]$

Extrapolation $[dW(-)/dt] = FW(-) + (1/2)Q[W^T(-)]^{-1}$

where $Z = W^T(-)H^T$ note: $Z = Hx + v$
 $UU^T = R + Z^T Z$
 $VV^T = R$



Gelb, 1974

• In the square-root formulation, **Matrix W** is calculated instead of P,

where $P = WW^T$.

Differential equation which can be a difference equation

$$\dot{P} = \dot{W}W^T + \dot{W}W^T$$

$$\dot{P} = [FW + (1/2)Q(W^T)^{-1}]W^T + W[W^T F^T + (1/2)W^{-1}Q]$$

$$\dot{P} = F(WW^T) + (1/2)Q + (WW^T)F^T + (1/2)Q$$

$$\dot{P} = FP + PF^T + Q$$

Square Root

Gelb, 1974



Of course, a **penalty is paid** in that the “square root” of certain matrices such as **R must be calculated**; a tedious process involving eigenvalue--eigenvector routines. An indication of the number of **extra calculations** required to implement the square-root formulation can be seen from the sample case illustrated in Table 8.4-1, which is for a state vector of dimension 10 and a scalar measurement. This potential increase in computation time has motivated a search for **efficient square root algorithms**. Recently, **Carlson** (Ref. 53) has derived an algorithm which utilizes a lower triangle form for W to improve computation speed. Carlson demonstrates that this algorithm approaches or exceeds the speed of the conventional algorithm for low-order filters and reduces existing disadvantages of square-root filters for the high-order case.

TABLE 8.4-1 COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF CALCULATIONS INVOLVED IN THE CONVENTIONAL AND SQUARE-ROOT FORMULATIONS OF THE KALMAN FILTER (REF. 11)

Update:	Square Roots	M&D	+	A&S	Equivalent M&D
Conventional	0	310		211	352
Square-Root	1	322		302	387
Extrapolation:	Square Roots	M&D	+	A&S	Equivalent M&D
Conventional	0	2100		2250	2550
Square-Root	10	4830		4785	5837

Note: M&D = multiplications and divisions, A&S = additions and subtractions

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Square Root

Gelb, 1974



• Example 8.4-2 illustrates how SR algorithms minimize round-off error. Suppose

$$H = [1 \ 0] \quad , \quad r = \varepsilon^2 \quad \quad P(-) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\varepsilon \leq 1$ and to simulate computer **word length roundoff**, we assume $1 + \varepsilon \neq 1$ but $1 + \varepsilon^2 \cong 1$. It follows that the **exact value** for P(+)

$$P(+)= \begin{bmatrix} [\varepsilon^2 / (1 + \varepsilon^2)] & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

whereas the value calculated in the computer using the **standard Kalman filter algorithm** is

$$P(+)= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Using the **square-root algorithm** is

$$P(+)= \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Since $K = P(+)\ H^T\ R^{-1}$ is:

Exact **True**
Conventional **Bad**
Square-Root **Good**

Exact	$K = \begin{bmatrix} 1/(1+\varepsilon^2) \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$
Conventional	$K = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$
Square-Root	$K = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Clearly conventional formulation may lead to **divergence problems**.

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Square Root

Gelb, 1974



•Storage Requirements

TABLE 8.4-4 KALMAN FILTER **STORAGE REQUIREMENTS** FOR LARGE N (PROGRAM INSTRUCTIONS NOT INCLUDED) (REF. 43)

Algorithm		Storage Locations			
		$n \geq m$	$n \cong m$	$n \cong 1$	$m \geq n$
Standard Kalman	[Eq. (8.4-1)]	$2.5 n^2$	$3.5 (n + 1.3)$	$3.5 n^2$	m^2
Joseph	[Eq. (8.4-4)]	$2.5 n^2$	$1.5 n(n+1)$	$1.5 n^2$	m^2
Andrews Square-Root		$3 n^2$	$5.5 n(n+0.8)$	$5.5 n^2$	$2.5 m^2$
Standard Kalman	[Eq. (8.4-1)] (no symmetry)	$3 n^2$	$5 n (n + 0.6)$	$5 n^2$	$2 m^2$
Joseph	[Eq. (8.4-4)] (no symmetry)	$3n^2$	$6 n (n+0.6)$	$6 n^2$	$2 m^2$

n = is the state vector dimension
m = is the measurement vector dimension

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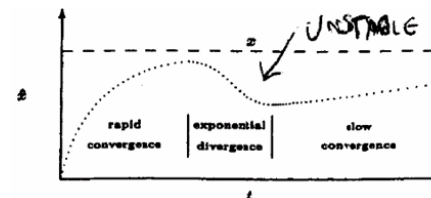
Square Root



• Chapter 6 - Convergence



• Round-off causes gain to **change sign momentarily**



• Rapid convergence, exponential divergence, slow convergence

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Square Root

•Chapter 6 - KF

Note the reduced computations (?)

TABLE 6.2 FIRST-ORDER ERROR PROPAGATION MODELS

Round-off error in filter variable	Conventional Implementation	Error model (by filter type)	Square root covariance
$\delta x_{k+1}(-)$	$A_1 [\delta x_k(-) + \delta P_k(-) A_2 (z - H x_k(-))] + \Delta x_{k+1}$		
$\delta \bar{K}_k$	$A_1 \delta P_k(-)$		
$\delta P_{k+1}(-)$	$A_1 \delta P_k(-) A_1^T + \Delta P_{k+1} + \Phi [\delta P_k(-) - \delta P_k^T(-)] \Phi^T - \Phi [\delta P_k(-) - \delta P_k^T(-)] A_1^T$		$A_1 \delta P_k(-) A_1^T + \Delta P_{k+1}$
	$A_1 = \Phi - \delta \bar{K}_k H$ $A_2 = H^T [H P_k H^T + R]^{-1}$		

The error propagation expression for the conventional Kalman filter includes extra terms that are proportional to the anti-symmetric part of P. Consequently, implementation methods maintains the symmetry of P will avoid error propagation. The same effect can be obtained by computing only the unique elements of P, which is fairly common practice anyway. (The square root covariance implementations maintain symmetry of P.)



Square Root

•Chapter 6 – Roundoff Errors

TABLE 6.3 UPPER BOUNDS ON ADDED ROUND-OFF ERRORS

Norm of added round-off errors	Conventional implementation	Upper bounds (by filter type)	Square root covariance
$ \Delta x_{k+1}(-) $	$\epsilon_1 (A_1 x_{k+1}(-) + \bar{K}_k z_k)$		$\epsilon_4 [A_1 x_k(-) + \bar{K}_k z_k + \Delta \bar{K}_k (H x_k(-) + z_k)]$
$ \Delta \bar{K}_k $	$\epsilon_2 \kappa^2 (R^*) \bar{K}_k $		$\epsilon_5 \kappa(R^*) (\lambda_m^{-1}(R^*) C_{P_{k+1}} + \bar{K}_k C_{R^*} + A_3 / \lambda_1(R^*))$
$ \Delta P_{k+1}(-) $	$\epsilon_3 \kappa^2 (R^*) P_{k+1}(-) $		$\frac{\epsilon_6 (1 + \kappa(R^*)) P_{k+1} A_3 }{ C_{P_{k+1}} }$

$\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_6$ are constant multiples of ϵ , the unit round-off error.

$$A_1 = \Phi - \bar{K}_k H$$

$$A_3 = [(\bar{K}_k C_{R^*}) | C_{P_{k+1}} |]$$

$$R^* = H P_k(-) H^T + R$$

$R^* = C_R \bullet C_{R^*}^T$ (triangular Cholesky decomposition).

$P_{k+1}(-) = C_{P_{k+1}} C_{P_{k+1}}^T$ (triangular Cholesky decomposition).

$\lambda_1(R^*) \geq \lambda_2(R^*) \geq \dots \geq \lambda_m(R^*) \geq 0$ are the characteristic values of R^* .

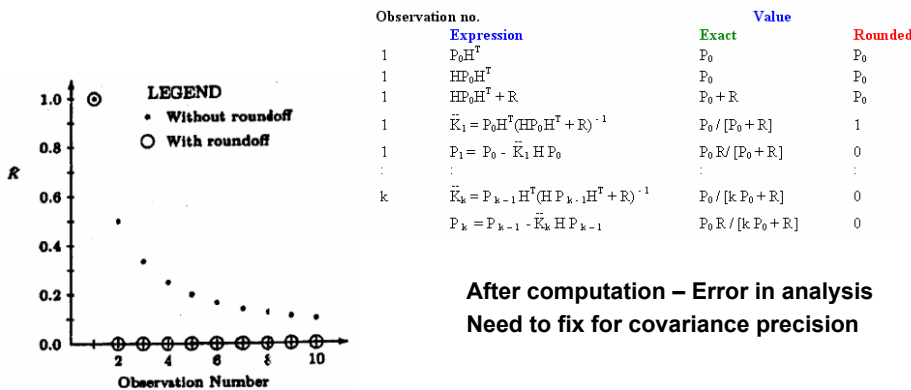
$\kappa(R^*) = \lambda_1(R^*) / \lambda_m(R^*)$ is the condition number of R^* .



Square Root

•Chapter 6 – Roundoff Errors

(Round-off Errors Due to Large a priori Uncertainty)



After computation – Error in analysis
Need to fix for covariance precision



Square Root

• Chapter 6

• Joseph [13], who demonstrated improved numerical stability by rearranging the standard formulas for the observational update (given here for scalar measurements) into the following formats:

$$\dot{z} = R^{-1/2} z$$

$$\dot{H} = \dot{x} H$$

$$\bar{K} = [H P(-) H^T + 1]^{-1} P(-) H^T$$

$$P(+)= (I - \bar{K} H) (I - \bar{K} H)^T + \bar{K} \bar{K}^T$$



• Chapter 6

- **De Vries implementation**, at Rockwell International, is designed to **reduce the computational complexity** of Joseph formulation by **judicious rearrangement of the matrix** expressions and **reuse** of intermediate results

TABLE 6.6 DE VRIES-JOSEPH IMPLEMENTATION OF CO VARIANCE UPDATE

Operation	Complexity
Without using de-correlation	
$T_1 = P(-)H^T$	ℓn^2
$T_2 = HT_1 + R$	$n \ell (\ell + 1)/2$
$UDU^T = T_2$	$(1/6) \ell (\ell + 1) (\ell + 2)$ [UD factorization]
$UDU^T K^T = T_1^T$	$\ell^2 n$ [to solve for K]
$T_3 = (1/2) K T_2 - T_1$	$\ell^2 (n + 1)$
$T_4 = T_3 K^T$	ℓn^2
$P(+)= P(-) + T_4 + T_4^T$	[Included above]
Total	$(1/6) \ell^3 + (3/2) \ell^2 + (1/3) \ell + (1/2) \ell n + (5/2) \ell^2 n + 2 \ell n^2$
Using de-correlation	$(2/3) \ell^3 + \ell^2 - (5/3) \ell - (1/2) \ell n + (1/2) \ell^2 n$



• Chapter 6 - Factorization

- **Matrix factoring and decomposition.**
 - The terms *decomposition* and *factoring* (or *fractorization*) are used interchangeably to describe the process of transforming a matrix or matrix expression into an equivalent product of factors.
- The term **decomposition** is somewhat more general. It is also used to describe non-product representations, such as the **additive decomposition** of a **square matrix** into its **symmetric** and **anti-symmetric** parts
- $A = (1/2) (A + A^T) + (1/2) (A - A^T).$



• Chapter 6 - Factorization

- Another distinction between *decomposition* and *factorization* is made by Dongarra, Moler, Bunch, and Stewart [81], who use the term
- **factotization** to refer to an arithmetic process for performing a product decomposition of a matrix in which not all factors are preserved.
- The term **triangularization** is used in this book to indicate a **QR factorization** (in the sense of Dongarra *et al*) involving a **triangular factor** that is preserved and an orthogonal factor that is not preserved.
- The more **numerically stable implementations** of the Kalman filter use one or more of the following techniques to **solve the associated Riccati equation**:



• Chapter 6 - Factorization

- Solve the associated Riccati equation:
- **1. Factoring the covariance matrix of state estimation uncertainty** (the **dependent variable of the Riccati equation**) into **Cholesky factors** (usually, triangular factors), or into modified Cholesky factors (unit triangular and diagonal factors).
 - A **Cholesky factor** of a symmetric nonnegative definite matrix M is a matrix C such that $CC^T = M$. Cholesky decomposition algorithms solve for C that is either upper triangular or lower triangular.
 - The **modified Cholesky decomposition** algorithms solve for **diagonal factors** and either a lower triangular factor L or an upper triangular factor U such that $M = UDU^T = LDL^T$, where D and D are diagonal factors with nonnegative diagonal elements.



•Chapter 6 - Factorization

- solve the associated Riccati equation:
- **2.** Factoring the covariance matrix of **measurement noise** R to reduce the computational complexity of the observational update implementation, and factoring the **plant noise covariance** matrix Q to reduce the computational complexity of the temporal update implementation. (These methods effectively “**de-correlate**” the components of the measurement or plant noise vector.)
- **3.** Taking the **symmetric matrix square roots** of elementary matrices. A symmetric elementary matrix has the form:

$$I - \sigma v v^T$$

where I is the $n \times n$ identity matrix, σ is a scalar, and v is an n -vector. The symmetric square root of an elementary matrix is also an elementary matrix with the same v , but a different value for σ .



•Chapter 6 - Factorization

- Solve the associated Riccati equation:
- **4.** Factoring general matrices as products of triangular and orthogonal matrices. Two general methods are used in Kalman filtering:
 - (a) **Triangularization (QR decomposition)** methods were originally developed for more numerically stable solutions of systems of linear equations. They factor a matrix into the product of an orthogonal matrix Q and a triangular matrix R . In the application to Kalman filtering, only the triangular factor is needed. We will call the QR decomposition triangularization, because Q and R already have special meanings in Kalman filtering. The two triangularization methods used in Kalman filtering are:



•Chapter 6 - Factorization

- Solve the associated Riccati equation:
- **4.** Factoring general matrices as products of triangular and orthogonal matrices.
- (a) **Triangularization (QR decomposition)** methods
- The two triangularization methods used in Kalman filtering are:
 - i. **Givens rotations** [160] triangularize a matrix by operating on one element at a time. (A modified Givens method due to Gentleman [159] generates diagonal and unit triangular factors.)
 - ii. **Householder transformations** triangularize a matrix by operating on one row or column at a time.



•Chapter 6 - Factorization

- Solve the associated Riccati equation:
- **4.** Factoring general matrices as products of triangular and orthogonal matrices. Two general methods are
- (b) **Gram-Schmidt ortho-normalization** is another general method for factoring a general matrix into a product of an orthogonal matrix and a triangular matrix. Usually, the triangular factor is not saved. In the application to Kalman filtering, only the triangular factor is saved.



•Chapter 6 - Factorization

- Solve the associated Riccati equation:
- **5. Rank one modification algorithms.** A “rank one modification” of a symmetric positive definite $n \times n$ matrix M has the form $M \pm v v^T$, where v is a n -vector (and therefore has matrix rank equal to one).
- The algorithms compute a Cholesky factor of the modification $M \pm v v^T$, given v and a Cholesky factor of M .



•Chapter 6 - Factorization

- Solve the associated Riccati equation:
- **6. Block matrix factorizations** of matrix expressions in the Riccati equation. The general approach uses two different factorizations to represent the two sides of an equation, such as

$$CC^T = AA^T + BB^T =$$

$$CC^T = AA^T + BB^T = [A \ B] \begin{bmatrix} A^T \\ B^T \end{bmatrix}$$

- The alternative **Cholesky factors** C and $[A \ B]$ must then be related by orthogonal transformations (triangularizations). A QR decomposition of $[A \ B]$ will yield a corresponding solution of the Riccati equation in terms of a Cholesky factor of the covariance matrix.



•Chapter 6 - Factorization

- Solve the associated Riccati equation:
- **6. Block matrix factorizations** of Riccati equation.

$$CC^T = AA^T + BB^T = [A \ B] \begin{bmatrix} A^T \\ B^T \end{bmatrix}$$

- In the example used above, $[A \ B]$ would be called a “ 1×2 ” block partitioned matrix, because there are one row and two columns of blocks (matrices) in the partitioning. Different block dimensions are used to solve different problems:
 - (a) The **discrete-time temporal update** equation is solved in “square root” form by using alternative 1×2 block partitioned Cholesky factors.
 - (b) The **observational update equation** is solved in “square root” form by using alternative 2×2 block partitioned Cholesky factors and modified Cholesky factors representing the observational update equation.
 - (c) The **combined temporal/observational update** equations are solved in “square root” form by using alternative 2×3 block partitioned Cholesky factors of the combined temporal and observational update equations.



•Chapter 6 - Factorization

- **Cholesky factors** and modified Cholesky factors
 - The product of a matrix C with its own transpose, in the form $CC^T = M$ is called the *symmetric product* of C , and C is called a Cholesky factor of M . Strictly speaking, a **Cholesky factor** is not a **matrix square root**, although the terms are often used interchangeably in the literature. (A matrix square root S of M is a solution of $M = SS = S^2$, without the transpose.)
 - All symmetric nonnegative definite matrices (such as covariance matrices) have Cholesky factors, but the Cholesky factor of a given symmetric nonnegative definite matrix is **not unique**.
 - For any **orthogonal matrix** T (i.e., such that $TT^T = I$), the product $\Gamma = CT$ satisfies the equation $\Gamma\Gamma^T = CTT^TC^T = CC$. That is, Γ is also a Cholesky factor of M . However, for suitable constraints on the solution (e.g., being upper triangular or lower triangular with nonnegative diagonal elements), a unique C can be found.
 - French geodesist André-Louis Cholesky (1875 - 1918) [135], and is called the Cholesky decomposition.



•Chapter 6 - Factorization

•Cholesky factors Use in Kalman Filtering

- Cholesky decomposition methods produce **triangular matrix** factors (Cholesky factors), and the **sparseness of these factors** can be exploited in the implementation of the Kalman filter equations. These methods are used for the following purposes:
 1. In the decomposition of **covariance matrices** (P, R, and Q) for implementation of “square root” filters.
 2. In “**de-correlating**” measurement errors between components of vector-valued measurements, so that the **components may be processed sequentially** as independent scalar-valued measurements. (See page 218.)
 3. As part of a **numerically stable method** for computing matrix expressions containing the factor $(HPH^T + R)^{-1}$ in the conventional form of the Kalman filter. (This matrix inversion can be obviated by the de-correlation methods, however.)
 4. In Monte Carlo analysis of Kalman filters by simulation. Cholesky factors are used for **generating independent random sequences** of vectors with pre-specified means and covariance matrices.

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•Chapter 6 - Factorization

•Cholesky factors Ex

•Consider the 3×3 example for finding a **lower triangular** Cholesky factor $P = CC^T$ for symmetric P :

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_{11} & P_{12} & P_{13} \\ P_{12} & P_{22} & P_{23} \\ P_{13} & P_{23} & P_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & 0 \\ c_{31} & c_{32} & c_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & 0 \\ c_{31} & c_{32} & c_{33} \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_{11} & P_{12} & P_{13} \\ P_{12} & P_{22} & P_{23} \\ P_{13} & P_{23} & P_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11}^2 & c_{11}c_{21} & c_{11}c_{31} \\ c_{11}c_{21} & c_{21}^2 + c_{22}^2 & c_{21}c_{31} + c_{22}c_{32} \\ c_{11}c_{31} & c_{21}c_{31} + c_{22}c_{32} & c_{31}^2 + c_{32}^2 + c_{33}^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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•Chapter 6 - Factorization

• Modified Cholesky factors Ex

•Uses the UD formulation

- Given M , a symmetric, positive definite $m \times m$ matrix, computes U and D , modified Cholesky factors of M , such that U is a unit upper triangular matrix, D is a diagonal matrix, and $M = UDU^T$.

•DECORRELATION

$$R = UDU^T,$$

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•Chapter 6 - Factorization

• Modified Cholesky factors Ex

• DECORRELATION Value

TABLE 6.15 OPERATIONS FOR SEQUENTIAL PROCESSING OF MEASUREMENTS

Operation	flops
$H \times P(-)$	n^2
$H \times (HP(-))^T + R$	n
$[H (HP(-))^T + R]^{-1}$	1
$[H (HP(-))^T + R]^{-1} \times [HP(-)]$	n
$P(-) - [HP(-)] \times [H(HP(-))^T + R]^{-1} [HP(-)]$	$(1/2)n^2 + (1/2)n$
Total (per component) $\times \ell$ components	$(3/2)n^2 + 5/2n + 1) \times \ell$
+ de-correlation complexity	$(2/3)\ell^3 + \ell^2 - (5/3)\ell + (1/2)\ell^2n - (1/2)\ell n$
Total	$(2/3)\ell^3 + \ell^2 - (2/3)\ell + (1/2)\ell^2n + 2\ell n (3/2)\ell n^2$

The **computational advantage** of the de-correlation approach is

$$(1/3)\ell^3 - (1/2)\ell^2 + (7/6)\ell + \ell n + 2\ell^2 n + \ell n^2 \text{ flops.}$$

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•Chapter 6 – Square Root

• Potter

•An **elementary matrix** is a matrix of the form $I - s v w^T$, where

- I is an identity matrix,
- s is a scalar, and
- v, w are column vectors of the same row dimension as I .

- Elementary matrices have the property that their products are also elementary matrices. Their squares are also elementary matrices, with the same vector values (v, w) but with different scalar values (s).



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

• Potter

•**Symmetric elementary matrices.** An elementary matrix is symmetric if $v = w$. The squares of such matrices have the same format:

$$(I - \sigma v v^T)^2 = (I - \sigma v v^T)(I - \sigma v v^T)$$

$$(I - \sigma v v^T)^2 = I - 2\sigma v v^T + \sigma^2 |v|^2 v v^T$$

$$(I - \sigma v v^T)^2 = I - (2\sigma - \sigma^2 |v|^2) v v^T$$

$$(I - \sigma v v^T)^2 = I - s v v^T$$

$$s = (2\sigma - \sigma^2 |v|^2)$$



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

• Potter

•The symmetric square root of a symmetric elementary matrix. One can invert the last equation above and take the square root of the symmetric elementary matrix $(I - s v v^T)$. This is done by solving the scalar quadratic equation

$$s = 2\sigma - \sigma^2 |v|^2$$

$$\sigma^2 |v|^2 - 2\sigma + s = 0$$

$$\sqrt{I - s v v^T} = I - \sigma v v^T$$

$$\sigma = \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 - s |v|^2}}{|v|^2}$$

to obtain the solution

In order that this square root be a real matrix, it is necessary that the radicand

$$1 - s |v|^2 \geq 0.$$



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

• Triangularization

• (**QR decomposition**) of $A = [C_k C_{k+1} | C Q]$. It is a theorem of linear algebra that any general matrix A can be represented as a product

$$A = C_{k+1} T^T$$

of a triangular matrix $C_{k+1} T^T$ and an orthogonal matrix T . This type of decomposition is called **QR decomposition or triangularization**. By means of this triangularization, the symmetric matrix product factorization

$$P_{k+1}(-) = A A^T$$

$$P_{k+1}(-) = (C_{k+1} T^T) (C_{k+1} T^T)^T$$

$$P_{k+1}(-) = C_{k+1} T^T T C_{k+1}^T(-)$$

$$P_{k+1}(-) = C_{k+1} T^T T^T C_{k+1}^T(-)$$

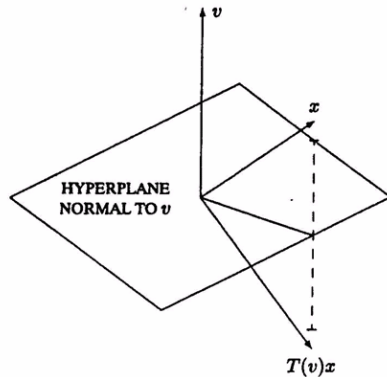
$$P_{k+1}(-) = C_{k+1} C_{k+1}^T(-)$$



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

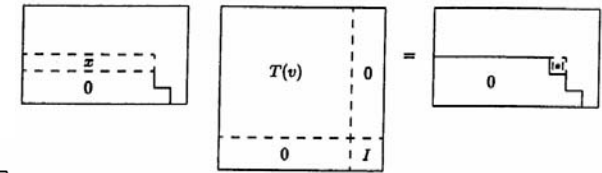
- **Triangularization (Householder)**
- **Alston S. Householder** It uses an elementary matrix of the

$$T(v) = I - \frac{2}{v^T v} v v^T$$



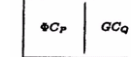
•Chapter 6 – Square Root

- **Triangularization (Householder - Upper)**
- **Zeroing**

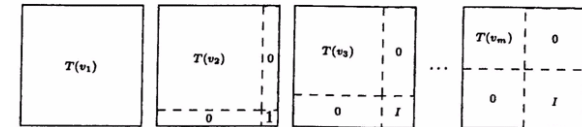


- **Upper**

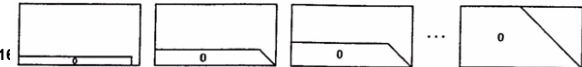
INPUT MATRIX



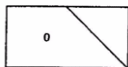
SEQUENCE OF HOUSEHOLDER REFLECTIONS



SEQUENCE OF PARTIAL RESULTS



FINAL RESULT



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

- **Triangularization (Potter)**

$$P(-) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} C(-) C^T(-)$$

$$P(+) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} C(+) C^T(+)$$

I_n is the $n \times n$ identity matrix
 $V = C^T(-)H^T$ is an $n \times \ell$ general matrix
 n is the dimension of the state vector
 ℓ is the dimension of the measurement vector

so that the observational update equation

$$P(+) = P(-) - P(-)H^T [HP(-)H^T + R]^{-1} HP(-)$$

could be partially factored as

$$C(+)C^T(+) = C(-)C^T(-) - C(-)C^T(-) H^T [HC(-)C^T(-) H^T + R]^{-1} HC(-)C^T(-)$$

$$C(+)C^T(+) = C(-)C^T(-) - C(-)V [V^T V + R]^{-1} V^T C^T(-)$$

$$C(+)C^T(+) = C(-) [I_n - V [V^T V + R]^{-1} V^T] C^T(-),$$



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

- **Triangularization (Potter)**

$$[I_n - V [V^T V + R]^{-1} V^T]$$

For the case that the measurement is a scalar ($\ell = 1$), Potter was able to factor it in the form

$$I_n - V [V^T V + R]^{-1} V^T = WW^T,$$

so that the resulting equation,

$$C(+)C^T(+) = C(-) (WW^T) C^T(-) \quad C(+)C^T(+) = (C(-)W) (C(-)W)^T$$

could be solved for the *a posteriori* Cholesky factor of $P(+)$, as $C(+) = C(-)W$

When the measurement is a scalar, the expression to be factored is a symmetric **elementary matrix** of the form

$$I_n - \frac{v v^T}{R + |v|^2}$$

where R is a positive scalar and $v = C^T(-)H^T$ is a column n -vector.

Square Root



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

• Triangularization (Potter)

- Potter square root observational update formula :
- the solution for the a *posteriori* Cholesky factor C(+)
of the covariance matrix P can be expressed as the product

$$\begin{aligned} C(+)^T C(+)^T &= P(+)^T \\ C(+)^T C(+)^T &= C(-)^T (I - \sigma \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^T) C(-)^T \\ C(+)^T C(+)^T &= C(-)^T (I - \sigma \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^T) (I - \sigma \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^T)^T C(-)^T \end{aligned}$$

which can be factored as with

$$C(+)^T = C(-)^T (I - \sigma \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^T)$$

with

$$\sigma = \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 - s |\mathbf{v}|^2}}{|\mathbf{v}|^2} \quad \sigma = \frac{1 + \sqrt{\frac{R}{R + |\mathbf{v}|^2}}}{|\mathbf{v}|^2}$$

Square Root



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

• Triangularization (Carlson) - FAST

- This algorithm is due to Neal A. Carlson. It generates an upper triangular Cholesky factor W for the Potter factorization, and has generally **lower computational complexity** than the Potter algorithm. It is a specialized and simplified form of an algorithm used by Agee and Turner [103] for Kalman filtering. It is a **rank-one modification algorithm**, like the Potter algorithm, but it produces a triangular Cholesky factor. It can be derived from the following lemma:

- Lemma 4 (Carlson). If W is an upper triangular n x n matrix such that

$$W W^T = I - \frac{\mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^T}{R + |\mathbf{v}|^2} \rightarrow \sum_{k=m}^j W_{ik} W_{mk} = \Delta_{im} - \frac{\mathbf{v}_i \mathbf{v}_m}{R + \sum_{k=1}^j \mathbf{v}_k^2}$$

- for all i, m, j such that 1 ≤ i ≤ m ≤ j ≤ n.

Square Root



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

• Triangularization (Carlson) – FAST - UPPER

$$W_{ij} W_{jj} = \Delta_{ij} - \frac{\mathbf{v}_i \mathbf{v}_j}{R + \sum_{k=1}^j \mathbf{v}_k^2}$$

$$W_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & i > j \\ \frac{\sqrt{R + \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} \mathbf{v}_k^2}}{\sqrt{R + \sum_{k=1}^j \mathbf{v}_k^2}} & i = j \\ \frac{-\mathbf{v}_i \mathbf{v}_j}{(R + \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} \mathbf{v}_k^2) \sqrt{R + \sum_{k=1}^j \mathbf{v}_k^2}} & i < j \end{cases}$$

$$C_{ij}(+) = \sum_{k=1}^j C_{ik}(-) W_{kj} + \text{terms with zero factors}$$

$$C_{ij}(+) = C_{ij}(-) W_{jj} + \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} C_{ik}(-) W_{kj}$$

$$C_{ij}(+) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{R + \sum_{k=1}^j \mathbf{v}_k^2}} \left[C_{ij}(-) \sqrt{R + \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} \mathbf{v}_k^2} - \frac{\mathbf{v}_j \sum_{k=1}^j C_{ik}(-) \mathbf{v}_k}{\sqrt{R + \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} \mathbf{v}_k^2}} \right]$$

Square Root



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

• Triangularization (Bierman) – UD

- Partial UD factorization of the covariance equations. In a manner similar to the case with Cholesky factors for scalar-valued measurements, the conventional form of the observational update of the covariance matrix:

$$P(+)^T = P(-)^T - \frac{P(-)^T H^T H P(-)^T}{R + H P(-)^T H^T}$$

- can be partially factored in terms of UD factors:

$$\begin{aligned} P(-)^T &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} U(-)^T D(-)^T U^T(-)^T & \mathbf{v} &= U^T(-)^T H^T \\ P(+)^T &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} U(+)^T D(+)^T U^T(+)^T \\ U(+)^T D(+)^T U^T(+)^T &= U(-)^T D(-)^T U^T(-)^T - \frac{U(-)^T D(-)^T U^T(-)^T H^T H U(-)^T D(-)^T U^T(-)^T}{R + H U(-)^T D(-)^T U^T(-)^T H^T} U^T(-)^T \\ U(+)^T D(+)^T U^T(+)^T &= U(-)^T D(-)^T U^T(-)^T - \frac{U(-)^T D(-)^T \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^T D(-)^T U^T(-)^T}{R + \mathbf{v}^T D(-)^T \mathbf{v}} \\ U(+)^T D(+)^T U^T(+)^T &= U(-)^T \left[D(-)^T - \frac{D(-)^T \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^T D(-)^T}{R + \mathbf{v}^T D(-)^T \mathbf{v}} \right] U^T(-)^T \end{aligned}$$



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

• Triangularization (Bierman) – UD

• Proofs in Book

• **Lemma 5.** If for m such that $1 < m \leq n$, and for all i, j such that $1 \leq i \leq j \leq m$

$$\sum_{k=j}^m B_{ik} D_{kk}(+) B_{jk} = D_{ij}(-) - \frac{D_{ii}(-) v_i D_{jj}(-) v_j}{R + \sum_{k=1}^m v_k^2 D_{kk}(-)}$$

$$\sum_{k=j}^{m-1} B_{ik} D_{kk}(+) B_{jk} = D_{ij}(-) - \frac{D_{ii}(-) v_i D_{jj}(-) v_j}{R + \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} v_k^2 D_{kk}(-)}$$

• **Lemma 6.** If

$$B D(+) B^T = D(-) - \frac{D(-) v v^T D(-)}{R + v^T D(-) v}$$

then Equation 6.104 holds for all m such that $1 < m \leq n$.



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

• Triangularization (Bierman) – UD

• Proofs in Book

• **Lemma 7.** If

$$B D(+) B^T = D(-) - \frac{D(-) v v^T D(-)}{R + v^T D(-) v}$$

then for $1 \leq j \leq n$

$$D_{jj}(+) = D_{ii}(-) \left[\frac{R + \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} v_k^2 D_{kk}(-)}{R + \sum_{k=1}^j v_k^2 D_{kk}(-)} \right]$$

and for $1 \leq i < j \leq n$,

$$B_{ij} = \frac{D_{ii}(-) v_i v_j}{R + \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} v_k^2 D_{kk}(-)}$$



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

• Triangularization (??)

• A Square Partitioned Cholesky Factorization

• The following factorization of the observational update equations first appeared in a paper by Kaminski, Bryson, and Schmidt [179]. The derivation presented here has been modified to yield upper triangular Cholesky factors.

Let C_N be a Cholesky factor of the covariance matrix of the innovations $v_k = z_k - H_k \hat{x}_k(-)$, defined as

$$N_k = E \langle (z_k - H_k \hat{x}_k(-)) (z_k - H_k \hat{x}_k(-))^T \rangle \quad (6.144)$$

$$N_k = H_k P_k(-) H_k^T + R_k \quad (6.145)$$

[BLASCH] $N_k = S_k$

and let $C_{P(-)}, C_{P(+)}$, and C_R be Cholesky factors of $P_k(-), P_k(+)$, and R_k , respectively. Then the symmetric partitioned $(n + \ell) \times (n + \ell)$ Cholesky factorization

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_k(-) & P_k(-) H_k^T \\ H_k P_k(-) & N_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} C_{P(-)} & 0 \\ H_k C_{P(-)} & C_N \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} C_{P(-)}^T & C_{P(-)}^T H_k^T \\ 0 & C_N^T \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.146)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_k(-) & P_k(-) H_k^T \\ H_k P_k(-) & N_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} C_{P(-)} & 0 \\ H_k C_{P(-)} & C_N \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} C_{P(-)} & 0 \\ H_k C_{P(-)} & C_N \end{bmatrix}^T \quad (6.147)$$



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

• Triangularization (??)

• A Square Partitioned Cholesky Factorization

• yield upper triangular Cholesky factors.

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_k(-) & P_k(-) H_k^T \\ H_k P_k(-) & N_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} C_{P(-)} & 0 \\ H_k C_{P(-)} & C_N \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} C_{P(-)}^T & C_{P(-)}^T H_k^T \\ 0 & C_N^T \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.146)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_k(-) & P_k(-) H_k^T \\ H_k P_k(-) & N_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} C_{P(-)} & 0 \\ H_k C_{P(-)} & C_N \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} C_{P(-)} & 0 \\ H_k C_{P(-)} & C_N \end{bmatrix}^T \quad (6.147)$$

can also be factored as

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_k(-) & P_k(-) H_k^T \\ H_k P_k(-) & N_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} C_{P(+)} & P_k(-) H_k^T C_N^{-T} \\ 0 & C_N \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} C_{P(+)}^T & 0 \\ C_N^{-1} H_k P_k^T(-) & C_N^T \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.148)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_k(-) & P_k(-) H_k^T \\ H_k P_k(-) & N_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} C_{P(+)} & P_k(-) H_k^T C_N^{-T} \\ 0 & C_N \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} C_{P(+)} & P_k(-) H_k^T C_N^{-T} \\ 0 & C_N \end{bmatrix}^T \quad (6.149)$$

Consequently, the two Cholesky factorizations are related by an orthogonal transformation. That is, if O is any orthogonal triangularizing transformation such that the conformably partitioned product

$$\begin{bmatrix} C_{P(-)} & 0 \\ H_k C_{P(-)} & C_N \end{bmatrix} O = \begin{bmatrix} C_A & B \\ 0 & C_C \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.150)$$

is upper triangular, then the upper triangular sub-matrices $C_A = C_{P(+)}$ $C_C = C_N$

Square Root



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

- **Triangularization (??)**
- **A Square Partitioned Cholesky Factorization**
- **yield upper triangular Cholesky factors.**

and the sub-matrix B satisfies the equation

$$\begin{aligned} B C_C^{-T} &= [P_k(-) H_k^T C_N^{-T}] C_N^{-1} \\ B C_C^{-T} &= P_k(-) H_k^T (C_N C_N^T)^{-1} \\ B C_C^{-T} &= K_k \end{aligned}$$

the Kalman gain. Note, however, that the observational update of the estimated state

$$\hat{x}_k(+) = \hat{x}_k(-) + \Delta \hat{x}_k$$

$$\Delta \hat{x}_k = K_k [z_k - H_k \hat{x}_k(-)]$$

$$\Delta \hat{x}_k = B C_C^{-T} [z_k - H_k \hat{x}_k(-)]$$

can be implemented more robustly by solving the triangular system

$$C_C^T y = [z_k - H_k \hat{x}_k(-)]$$

Erik Blasch – EE716 for y , using back substitution, then taking the product $B y$.

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Square Root



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

- **Triangularization (Kaliath)**
- **A Square Partitioned UD Factorization**

Let the UDU^T factorization of the covariance of innovations be

$$U_N D_N U_N^T = N_k$$

$$U_N D_N U_N^T = H_k P_k(-) H_k^T + R_k$$

Then the symmetric partitioned $(n + \ell) \times (n + \ell)$ matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_k(-) & P_k(-) H_k^T \\ H_k P_k(-) & N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} U_{P(-)} & 0 \\ H_k U_{P(-)} & U_N \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} D_{P(-)} & 0 \\ 0 & D_N \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_{P(-)}^T & U_{P(-)}^T H_k^T \\ 0 & U_N^T \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_k(-) & P_k(-) H_k^T \\ H_k P_k(-) & N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} U_{P(-)} & 0 \\ H_k U_{P(-)} & U_N \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} D_{P(-)} & 0 \\ 0 & D_N \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_{P(-)} & 0 \\ H_k U_{P(-)} & U_N \end{bmatrix}^T$$

can also be factored as

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_k(-) & P_k(-) H_k^T \\ H_k P_k(-) & N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} U_{P(+)} & P_k(-) H_k^T U_N^{-1} D_N^{-1} \\ 0 & U_N \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} D_{P(+)} & 0 \\ 0 & D_N \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_{P(+)}^T & 0 \\ D_N^{-1} U_N^{-T} H_k P_k(-) & U_N^T \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_k(-) & P_k(-) H_k^T \\ H_k P_k(-) & N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} U_{P(+)} & P_k(-) H_k^T U_N^{-1} D_N^{-1} \\ 0 & U_N \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} D_{P(+)} & 0 \\ 0 & D_N \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_{P(+)} & P_k(-) H_k^T U_N^{-1} D_N^{-1} \\ 0 & U_N \end{bmatrix}^T$$

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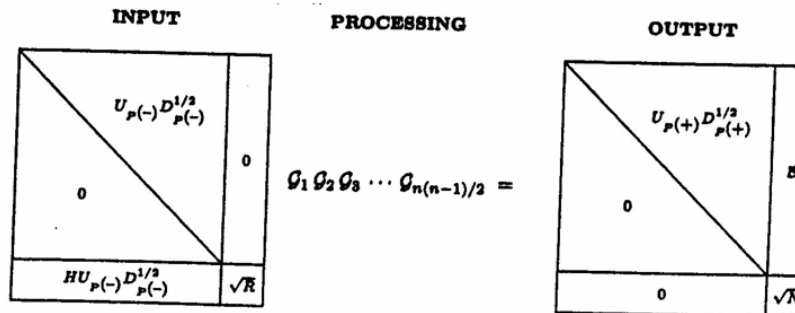
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Square Root



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

- **Triangularization (Kaliath)**
- **A Square Partitioned UD Factorization**



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Square Root



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

- **Triangularization (Schmidt)**

A **non-square, non-triangular Cholesky factor** of $P_k(-)$. If C_P is a Cholesky factor of $P_{k-1}(-)$ and C_Q is a Cholesky factor of Q_k , then the partitioned $n \times (n + q)$ matrix

$$A = [G_{k-1} C_Q \mid \Phi_{k-1} C_P] \quad (6.181)$$

has the $n \times n$ symmetric matrix product value

$$AA^T = [G_{k-1} C_Q \mid \Phi_{k-1} C_P] [G_{k-1} C_Q \mid \Phi_{k-1} C_P]^T \quad (6.182)$$

$$AA^T = \Phi_{k-1} [C_P C_P^T] \Phi_{k-1}^T + G_{k-1} [C_Q C_Q^T] G_{k-1}^T \quad (6.183)$$

$$AA^T = \Phi_{k-1} [P_{k-1}(+)] \Phi_{k-1}^T + G_{k-1} Q G_{k-1}^T \quad (6.184)$$

$$AA^T = P_k(-) \quad (6.185)$$

That is, A is a **non-square, non-triangular Cholesky factor** of $P_k(-)$. If only it were square and triangular, it would be the kind of Cholesky factor we are looking for. It is not, but fortunately there are algorithmic procedures for modifying A to that format.

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•Chapter 6 – Square Root

• Triangularization (Thorton - MWGS)

•This *UD* factorization is due to Catherine Thornton [121]. It is also called *modified weighted Gram-Schmidt (MWGS)* orthogonalization. [Gram-Schmidt *ortho-normalization* is a procedure for generating a set or “unit normal” vectors as linear combinations of a set of linearly independent vectors. That is, the resulting vectors are mutually orthogonal and have unit length. The procedure without the unit length property is called Gram-Schmidt *orthogonalization*. These algorithmic methods were derived by Jorgen Pedersen Gram (1850 - 1916) and Erhard Schmidt (1876 - 1959).] It uses a factorization algorithm due to Björck [137] that is actually quite different from the conventional Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization algorithm, and more robust against round-off errors. However, the algebraic properties of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization are useful for deriving the factorization.



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

• Triangularization (Thorton - MWGS)

• UD

The Thornton temporal update for UD factors uses triangularization of the Q matrix (if it is not already diagonal) in the form $Q = GD_QG^T$, where D_Q is a diagonal matrix. If we let the matrices

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} U_{k-1}^T(+) \Phi_{k-1}^T \\ G_{k-1}^T \end{bmatrix} \quad L^T D_\beta L = P_{k-1}(-) \quad (6.198)$$

$$D_w = \begin{bmatrix} D_{k-1}(+) & 0 \\ 0 & D_{Q_{k-1}} \end{bmatrix} \quad U_k(-) = L^T \quad (6.199)$$

then the modified weighted Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization procedure will produce a unit lower triangular $n \times n$ matrix L^{-1} and a diagonal matrix D_β such that

$$A = B L \quad (6.200)$$

$$L^T D_\beta L = L^T B^T D_w B L \quad (6.201)$$

$$L^T D_\beta L = (B L)^T D_w B L \quad (6.202)$$

$$L^T D_\beta L = A^T D_w A \quad (6.203)$$

$$L^T D_\beta L = [\Phi_{k-1} U_{k-1}(+) G_{k-1}] \begin{bmatrix} D_{k-1}(+) & 0 \\ 0 & D_{Q_{k-1}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_{k-1}^T(+) \Phi_{k-1}^T \\ G_{k-1}^T \end{bmatrix} \quad (6.204)$$

$$L^T D_\beta L = \Phi_{k-1} U_{k-1}(+) D_{k-1}(+) U_{k-1}^T(+) \Phi_{k-1}^T + G_{k-1} D_{Q_{k-1}} G_{k-1}^T \quad (6.205)$$

$$L^T D_\beta L = \Phi_{k-1} P_{k-1}(+) \Phi_{k-1}^T + Q_{k-1} \quad (6.206)$$



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

• Triangularization (Kailath - Observation)

• UD



•Chapter 6 – Square Root

• Information Filter

•The inverse of the covariance matrix of estimation uncertainty is called the *Information matrix*:

$$Y \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} P^{-1}$$

•This is also called the *Fisher Information matrix*, named after the English statistician Ronald Aylmer Fisher (1890 -1962). More generally, for distributions with differentiable probability density functions, the Information matrix is defined as the matrix of second-order derivatives of the logarithm of the probability density with respect to the variates. For Gaussian distributions, this equals the inverse of the covariance matrix.

•Implementation using Y (or its Cholesky factors) rather than P (or its Cholesky factors) are called *Information filters*. (Implementations using P are also called *covariance filters*.)



CHAPTER5

- `exam53.m` demonstrates the **extended Kalman filter** in the estimation of position, velocity, and damping factor of a damped harmonic oscillator with constant forcing function using Example 5.3.
- `exam53x.m` and `Exam53y.m` descriptions are given in `whatsup.doc`.

CHAPTER6

- `Shootout.m` is a demonstration of the efficiency of nine alternative observational updates, using the ill-conditioned problem in Example 6.2.)
- `Carlson.m` - N. A. Carlson's observational update method.
- `Utchol.m` - upper triangular Cholesky decomposition (Matlab does lower)
- `Potter.m` - J. E. Potter's observational update method.
- `Joseph.m` - P. D. Joseph's observational update method.
- `Josephb.m` - P. D. Joseph's observational update, modified by Bierman.
- `Josephdv.m` - P. D. Joseph's observational update, modified by De Vries.
- `Bierman.m` - G. J. Bierman's observational update method.
- `Thornton.m` - C. L. Thornton's temporal update method.

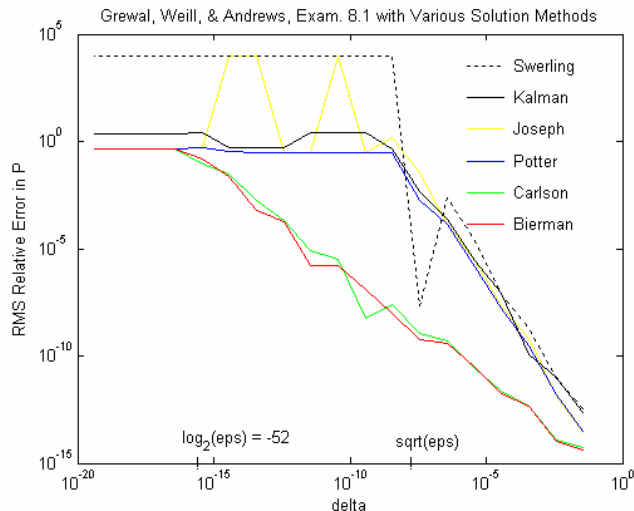


•shootout.m demonstrates SR

```
% These alternative approaches are each evaluated for delta
% ranging from several order of magnitude larger than eps^(2/3)
% to several orders of magnitude smaller than eps^(2/3)
%
for k=1:19,
    d(k) = delta*10^(10-k);
%
% COMMON PARAMETERS TO ALL METHODS
%
P = eye(3);
D0 = eye(3);
U0 = eye(3);
R = d(k)^2*eye(2);
H = [1,1,1; 1,1, 1+d(k)];
x0 = [1;1;-1];
z = H*x0 + d(k)*[randn;randn];
```



•shootout.m demonstrates SR



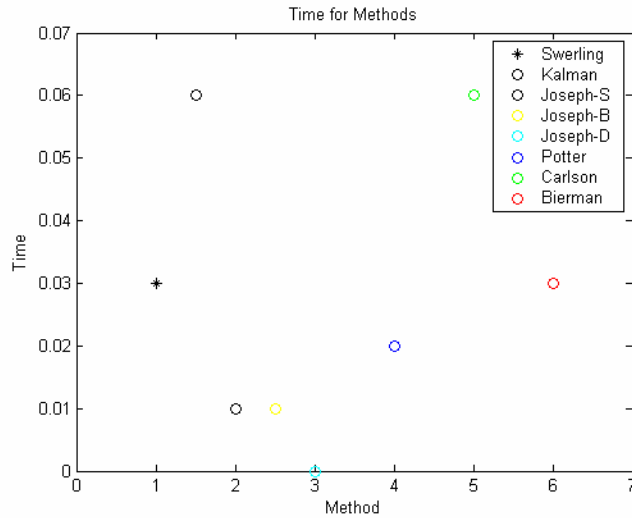
•shootout.m CPUTIME

```
t1 = cputime;
K = P*H'/(H*P*H'+R);
PK = P - K*H*P;
tCK = tCK + cputime - t1;
xK = x0 + K*(z - H*x0);
%
% SWERLING IMPLEMENTATION
%
t2 = cputime;
PS = inv(P + (H'/R)*H);
tSW = tSW + cputime - t2;
```

Square Root Comparison



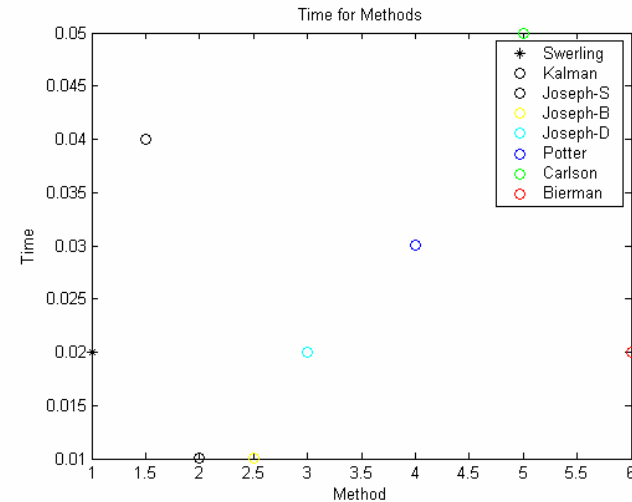
•shootout.m – plotted CPUTIME



Square Root Comparison



•shootout.m – plotted CPUTIME



Square Root Comparison



• 1 Time Comp and 1 Obs. Update Maybeck, 1979

Filter	Adds (all times $\frac{1}{2}$)	Multiplies (all times $\frac{1}{2}$)	Divides	Square roots
Conventional Kalman	$9n^3 + 3n^2(3m + s - 1) + n(15m + 3s - 6)$	$9n^3 + 3n^2(3m + s + 3) + n(27m + 9s)$	m	0
Joseph form Kalman	$18n^3 + 3n^2(5m + s - 10) + n(9m^2 + 6m + 3s) + 3m^3 - 6m^2 + 3m$	$18n^3 + 3n^2(5m + s + 4) + n(9m^2 + 24m + 9s) + 3m^3 + 9m^2 - 6m$	$2m - 1$	0
Potter covariance square root (MGS)	$12n^3 + 3n^2(6m + 2s) + n(6m - 6) + 6m$	$12n^3 + 3n^2(5m + 2s + 2) + n(24m + 6s) + 12m$	$n + 2m$	$n + m$
Potter covariance square root (Householder)	$10n^3 + 3n^2(6m + 2s - 1) + n(6m + 5) + 6m$	$10n^3 + 3n^2(5m + 2s + 2) + n(24m + 6s + 8) + 12m$	$n + 2m$	$n + m$
Carlson covariance square root (RSS)	$5n^3 + 3n^2(3m + s + 1) + n(9m + 3s - 14) + 2s^3 + 4s$	$5n^3 + 3n^2(4m + s + 3) + n(30m + 9s - 2) + 2s^3 + 4s^2 - 2s$	$2m + s$	$mn + s$
Carlson covariance square root (MGS)	$9n^3 + 3n^2(3m + s - 1) + 3n(3m + 3s - 8) + 2s^3 + 6s^2 + 4s$	$9n^3 + 3n^2(4m + s + 2) + 3n(10m + 5s - 7) + 2s^3 + 12s^2 + 4s$	$2m + s$	$mn + s$
Inverse covariance square root	$10n^3 + 3n^2(m + 3s + 2) + n(9m + 9s - 16)$	$10n^3 + 3n^2(m + 3s + 6) + n(15m + 21s - 10)$	$2s - 1$	0
Inverse covariance square root	$9n^3 + 3n^2(2m + 6s + 5) + n(12m + 6s - 6)$	$9n^3 + 3n^2(2m + 6s + 6) + n(12m + 24s + 3) + 6s$	$2n + 2s$	$n + s$
U-D factor	$9n^3 + 3n^2(3m + 2s + 2) + 3n(3m + 1)$	$9n^3 + 3n^2(3m - 2s + 7) + 3n(m + 4s - 4) - 6s$	$n(m + 1) - 1$	0

Square Root Comparison



• Computation Time

Maybeck, 1979

*Operations for One Total Filter Recursion**

Filter	Adds	Multiplies	Divides	Square roots	Time (msec)
Conventional Kalman	2340	2690	2	0	17.36
Joseph form Kalman	3631	4498	3	0	28.27
Potter covariance square root (MGS)	3612	3884	14	12	26.49
Potter covariance square root (Householder)	3247	3564	14	12	24.19
Carlson covariance square root (RSS)	2080	2560	50	30	18.24
Carlson covariance square root (MGS)	2830	3355	50	30	23.53
Inverse covariance square root	3520	3950	19	0	25.82
Inverse covariance square root	5080	5455	40	20	37.55
U-D factor	2935	3330	29	0	21.77

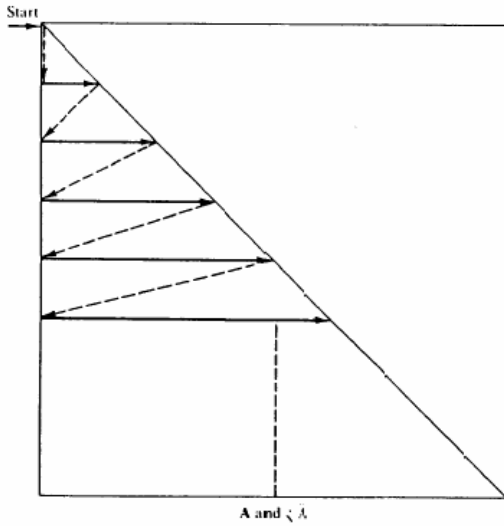
time for addition = 2.7 μ sec
time for multiplication = 4.1 μ sec
time for division = 6.6 μ sec
time for square root = 60.0 μ sec

Square Root Comparison



- Square Root
- Cholesky

Maybeck, 1979



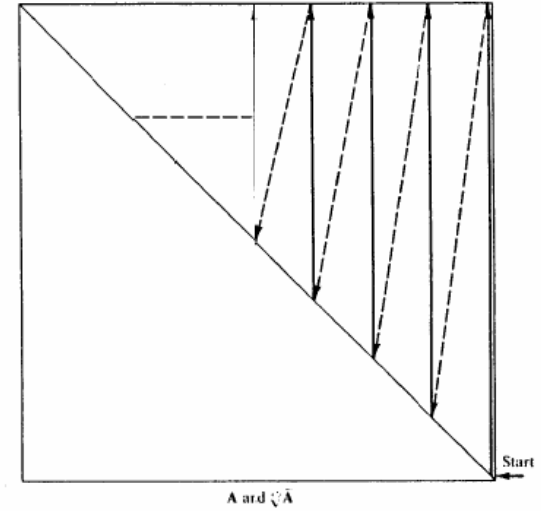
73

Square Root Comparison



- Square Root
- Carlson

Maybeck, 1979



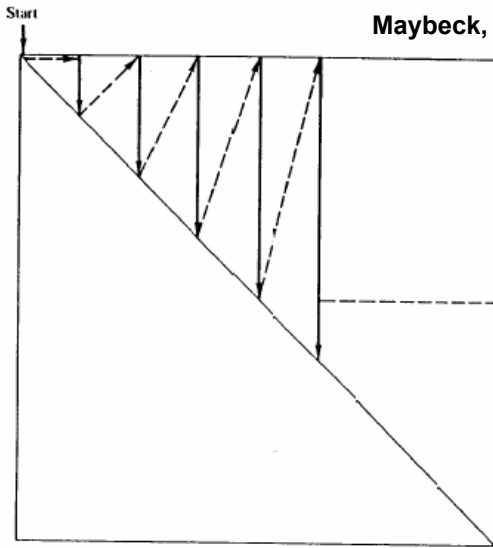
74

Square Root Comparison



- Square Root
- Potter (UD)

Maybeck, 1979



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FIG. 7.3 Scanning of $[D - (1/\sigma)v^T]$ and generation of U.