

**CSE397/497-013**  
**Introduction to Mobile Robotics**

**Localization & Mapping II**



**LEHIGH**  
UNIVERSITY

Department of  
Computer Science & Engineering

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and Applied Science

CSE397/497 Intro to Mobile Robotics

**5.2.1**

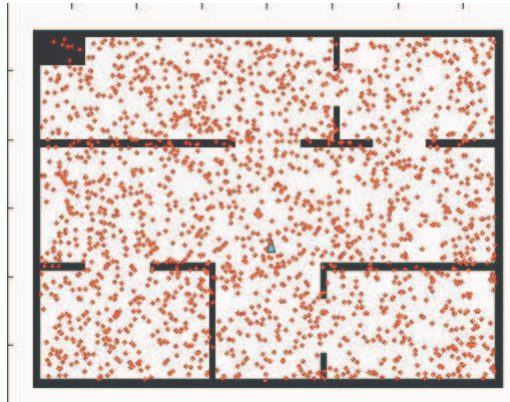
**Today's Agenda**

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- Plagiarism
- Homework 4
  - *New due date is 10 Nov 05 ☹*
  - *MPEGs required for submission (keep them small < 1 MB)*
  - *Questions*
- The plane Jane vanilla Kalman Filter

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## Monte Carlo Localization (Homework 5)



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## Bayesian Filters (1)

$$p(B | A) = \frac{p(A | B) p(B)}{p(A)}$$

- PFs and Kalman Filters (KF/EKF) are example of Bayesian Filters
- Bayesian filters do not *explicitly* estimate the state
- Instead, they propagate a *posterior* probability density function for the state from which it can be inferred
- In the KF, a gaussian distribution  $\mathbf{P}$  is propagated at each timestep with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . The former is used as the state estimate
- In the PF, a (weighted) particle set corresponds to the posterior from which an estimate for the state can be inferred

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## The Particle Filter

- Unlike the KF, which represents the *pdf* parametrically as a gaussian, the PF approximates it as a sample set

$$Bel(\bar{x}) \approx \{x^i, w^i\} \quad i \in [1..m]$$

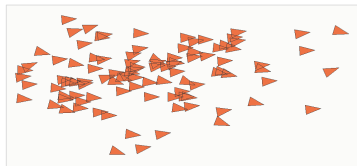
- $m$  denotes the number of particles in the sample set
- $x^i$  corresponds to a hypothetical state estimate
- $w^i$  corresponds to a weight reflecting a “confidence” in how well the particle  $x^i$  reflects the true state  $x$
- $\sum_m w^i = 1$ , so that the sample set corresponds to a discrete probability density function
- It has been shown that as the number of samples approaches infinity, the sample set converges to the true posterior [Tanner, *Tools for Statistical Inference*, 1996]. However, no proofs for rates of convergence exist

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## Predictor-Corrector Example

1) We have a *prior* of uniform weighted particle

$t = k^-$



At this point, we have  $m$  unique samples

2) Particles are weighted based on the sensor measurement and resampled according to weight to generate our posterior.

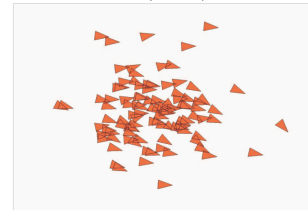
$t = k$



We still have  $m$  samples, but they are all *equally weighted* and not necessarily unique

3) Particles are passed through our motion model to generate a new posterior

$t = (k+1)^-$



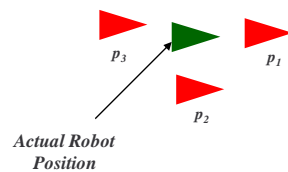
Particles are again unique and equally weighted

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## Predictor-Corrector Example (2)

1) We have a *prior* of uniform weighted particle

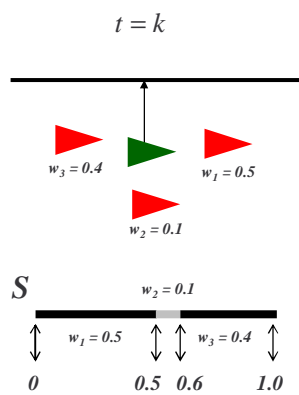
$$t = k^-$$



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## Predictor-Corrector Example (3)

2a) Particles are weighted based on the sensor measurement

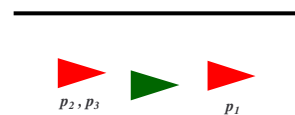


2b) Particles are resampled according to weight to generate our posterior.

$$s_1 = 0.323$$

$$s_2 = 0.677$$

$$s_3 = 0.900$$

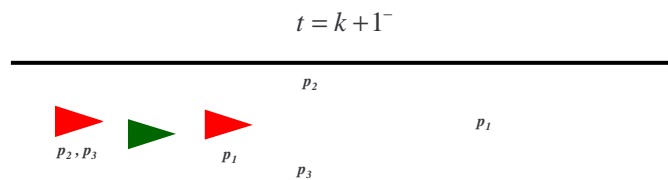


We still have  $m$  samples, but they are all *equally weighted* and not necessarily unique

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## Predictor-Corrector Example (3)

3) Particles are passed through our motion model to generate a new posterior



Particles are again unique and equally weighted

4) Iterate...

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## The Particle Filter Algorithm

```
function  $X_{k+1} = \text{runFilter}(X_k, z_k, u_k)$ 
 $X_{k+1} = \emptyset$ 
for  $i = 1 : m$ 
    generate random  $x$  from  $X$  based on sample weights;
    generate random  $x' \sim p(x' | u_k, x)$ ;
     $w = p(z_k | x')$ ;
    Insert  $(x', w) \in X_{k+1}$ ;
end
Normalize weight factors  $\forall w_i \in X_{k+1}$ ;
return  $X_{k+1}$ ;
```

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## The Particle Filter Algorithm (ver. 2.0)

```
function  $X_{k+1} = \text{runFilter}(X_k, z_k, u_k)$ 
 $X_{k+1} = \emptyset$ ;  $X_{temp} = \emptyset$ ;
for  $i = 1 : m$ 
    generate random  $x$  from  $X_k$  based on sample weights;
    Insert  $x \in X_{temp}$ 
end
for all  $x \in X_{temp}$ 
     $x = x' \sim p(x' | u_k, x)$ ;
end
for all  $x \in X_{temp}$ 
     $w = p(z_k | x')$ ;
    Insert  $(x, w) \in X_{k+1}$ ;
end
Normalize weight factors  $\forall w_i \in X_{k+1}$ ;
return  $X_{k+1}$ ;
```

*This version will  
be better for your  
Matlab implementation  
on the PF assignment!*

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## The MCL Problem

$$p(B | A) = \frac{p(A | B) p(B)}{p(A)}$$

- In the MCL problem, our objective is to estimate position and orientation in a workspace
- We assume the availability of a map  $m$
- This allows us to condition our belief to not only the current pose, but constrained to lie within a map. Thus, our belief equation becomes

$$Bel(\bar{x}_t) = \eta(z_t | x_t, m) \int p(\bar{x}_t | u_t, x_{t-1}, m) Bel(\bar{x}_{t-1}) dx_{t-1}$$

- Thus, we can infer expected measurements from a given pose through:
  - Ray tracing if we are doing an occupancy grid
  - Line intersection if we are representing the map as a set of lines
- We can also combine map information with our motion model to exploit constraints in the workspace

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## Generating the Sensor Model

- Operation of the particle filter hinges upon associating a probability with each sensor measurement given a state so that a proper weight can be associated with each sample

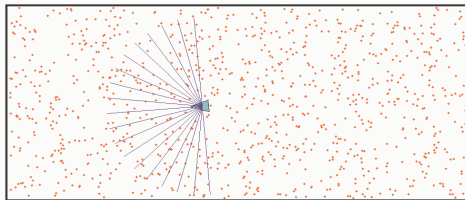
$$Bel(\tilde{x}_t) = \eta p(\underline{z_t} | x_t, m) \int p(\tilde{x}_t | u_t, x_{t-1}, m) Bel(\tilde{x}_{t-1}) dx_{t-1}$$

- This is NOT the same as sampling the probability density function of  $z$
- For a continuous distribution, the probability of measuring a specific value is zero
- Normally, sensors have a resolution which a given measurement is rounded to (*e.g.* a LRF may have a cm level resolution)
- Probabilities can then be determined by integrating the sensor *pdf* over this resolution range

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## Generating a MCL Specific Sensor Model

- MCL is typically performed with range sensors at known bearing angles to the robot (although cameras have also been used)
- As such, a single scan consists of numerous sensor measurements (*e.g.* from laser or sonar pulses)



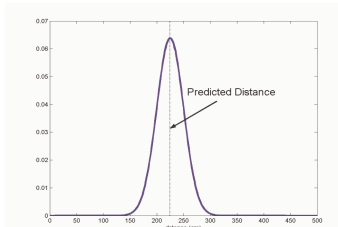
- If we assume that these  $n$  measurements are independent, the conditional probability can then be expressed as

$$p(z_t | x_t, m) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(z_t^i | x_t, m)$$

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## MCL Sensor Model Issues (1)

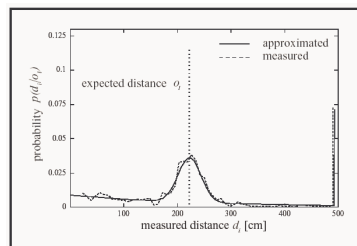
- A shortcoming of particle filters is that they tend to fail if the sensor models are too accurate
- This can result from a not generating an initial sample close enough to the true state estimate
- One potential solution is to inflate the sensor model error. For example, the standard deviation for the SICK LRF is modeled as  $\sigma \approx 25\text{cm}$  when in reality it is closer 1cm.
- This violates the basis from which the PF was derived, but has basis in actual measurements and works well in practice



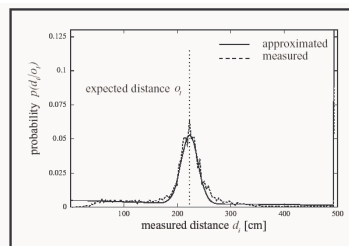
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## Markov Localization

- The critical challenge is the calculation of  $p(i|l)$   $p(l|i) = \frac{p(i|l)p(l)}{p(i)}$ 
  - The number of possible sensor readings and geometric contexts is extremely large
  - $p(i|l)$  is computed using a model of the robot's sensor behavior, its position  $l$ , and the local environment metric map around  $l$ .
  - Assumptions
    - Measurement error can be described by a distribution with a mean
    - Non-zero chance for any measurement



Ultrasound.



Laser range-finder.

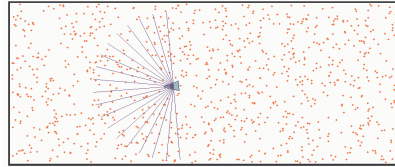
Courtesy of  
W. Burgard

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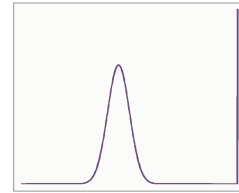


## MCL Sensor Model Issues (2)

- A second issue using the LRF is that for many scans, there will be no sensor data available



- This typically results from wall features being outside the maximum range of the sensor as above, but can also arise when the laser scan is absorbed, multi-path error, etc.
- To address this, the probability of obtaining such a reading is explicitly modeled. The weighting of this is probability is a function of the range and the environment being explored



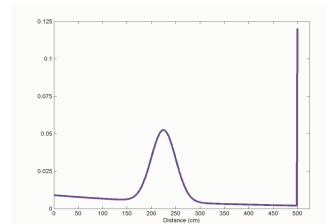
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## MCL Sensor Model Issues (3)

- Recall that the conditional probability for the sensor measurement is expressed as the product of the individual probabilities.

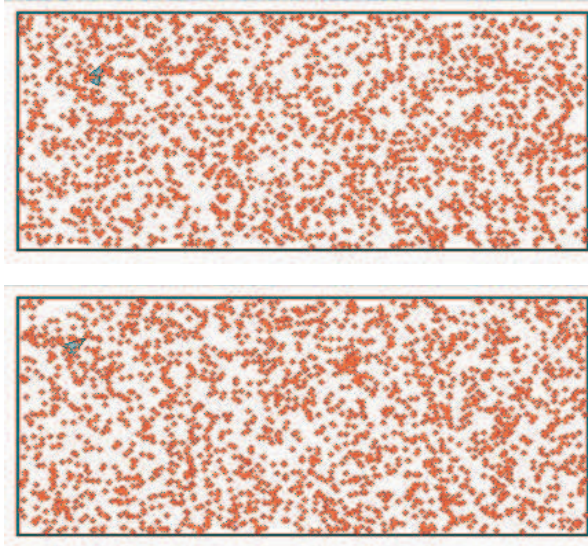
$$p(z_t | x_t, m) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(z_t^i | x_t, m)$$

- As a consequence, a single “outlier” can cause the probability to approach zero
- Such errors can readily be caused by errors in our map, furniture, persons/robots moving throughout the environment, etc.
- This is handled by introducing an exponential based probability density into the sensor model for unmodeled “obstacles”



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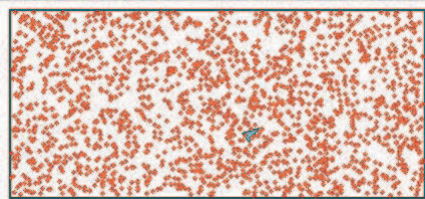
## Simple MCL Examples



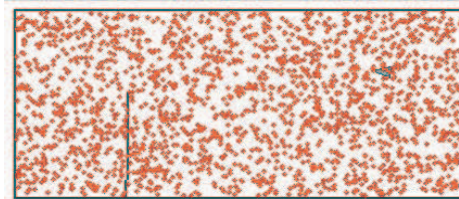
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## When can MCL Fail?

- MCL relies upon difference in the environment to induce corresponding differences in sensor measurements
- Large open areas, long featureless corridors, symmetric environments, etc. can cause MCL to be slow to converge or to converge to the wrong pose
- MCL can exploit even minor differences to obtain a correct pose estimate



Inconsistent Convergence



Consistent Convergence

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## MCL Extensions

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- MCL provides a method for solving the kidnapped robot problem – previously a very difficult problem in mobile robotics
- This is accomplished by adding a small amount of random particles at each time step, and resampling to the original number of particles
- MCL has also been extended to solve the SLAM problem – Simultaneous Localization and Mapping
- This is accomplished by generating a map on the fly, and conditioning your measurements to the portion of the map currently available
- In structured 2D environments, particle filters (with SICK lasers) have effectively solved the SLAM problem

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## *The Kalman Filter*

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## Notation Review

1. Matrices are denoted by a capital letter. In text, they will be bold (e.g. **A**)
2. Vectors are denoted by a lowercase letter. In text, they will be bold (e.g. **x**). In Microsoft Equations, they will have an overscore

e.g.  $\vec{x}_i$

3. Scalars are lowercase letters without emphasis
4.  $\mathbf{x}_k^-$  denotes the *a priori* estimate for the state vector **x** at time step **k** before the measurement update phase
5.  $\mathbf{x}_k$  denotes the estimate for the state vector **x** at time step **k** after the measurement update phase

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## Bayesian Filters (1)

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## First & Second Order Statistics/Moments: Expected Value & Variance of the State

- The *expected value* for a random variable  $X$  is (*i.e.* the mean) defined as

$$\mu = E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i x_i \quad \text{for discrete } X$$

$$\mu = E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x p_X(x) dx \quad \text{for continuous } X$$

- The *variance* of  $X$  about the mean is defined as

$$\sigma^2 = E[(x - \mu)^2] = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i (x_i - \mu)^2 \quad \text{for discrete } X$$

$$\sigma^2 = E[(x - \mu)^2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu)^2 p_X(x) dx \quad \text{for continuous } X$$

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## What is Covariance?

- When  $X$  is a vector, the variance is expressed in terms of a *covariance matrix*  $C$  where

$$c_{ij} = E[(\bar{x}_i - \bar{\mu}_i)^T (\bar{x}_j - \bar{\mu}_j)]$$

- The resulting matrix has the form

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \rho_{12}\sigma_1\sigma_2 & \cdots & \rho_{1n}\sigma_1\sigma_n \\ \rho_{12}\sigma_1\sigma_2 & \sigma_2^2 & \cdots & \rho_{2n}\sigma_2\sigma_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \rho_{1n}\sigma_1\sigma_n & \rho_{2n}\sigma_2\sigma_n & \cdots & \sigma_n^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $\rho_{ij}$  corresponds to the degree of correlation between variables  $X_i$  and  $X_j$

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## The Correlation Coefficient

- Correlation is a means to estimate how two functions/series are correlated. For a discrete series, it is defined as

$$\rho = \frac{\sum_i [(x_i - \mu_x)(y_i - \mu_y)]}{\sqrt{\sum_i (x_i - \mu_x)^2} \sqrt{\sum_i (y_i - \mu_y)^2}} \equiv \frac{C_{xy}}{\sqrt{C_{xx}} \sqrt{C_{yy}}} \equiv \frac{C_{xy}}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

where  $\rho$  denotes the *correlation coefficient*

- The denominator normalizes the correlation coefficient such that

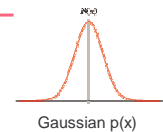
$$\rho \in [-1, 1]$$

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## The Gaussian Distribution

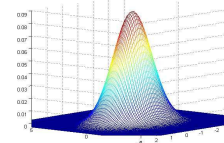
- A 1-D Gaussian distribution is defined as

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$



- In 2-D (assuming uncorrelated variables) this becomes

$$p(\vec{x}) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2} e^{-\left[\frac{(x_1-\mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2} + \frac{(x_2-\mu_2)^2}{2\sigma_2^2}\right]}$$



- In  $n$  dimensions, it generalizes to

$$p(\vec{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n |C|}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\vec{x}-\mu)^T C^{-1}(\vec{x}-\mu)}$$

The Normal (Gaussian) distribution is completely parameterized by its first and second moments.

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## What is a Kalman Filter?

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- *Optimal recursive data fusion algorithm*
- Predictor-Corrector style algorithm
- Processes all available sensor measurements in estimating the value of parameters of interest using
  - *Knowledge of system and sensor dynamics*
  - *Statistical models reflecting uncertainty in system noise and sensor dynamics*
  - *Any information regarding initial conditions*

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## What is a Kalman Filter (cont'd)?

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- *Optimal* in the sense that for systems which can be described by a linear model – e.g.

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{x}_{k+1} &= Ax_k + Bu_k + w_k \\ z_k &= Hx_k + v_k\end{aligned}$$

and for which the process and measurement noises  $w_k$  and  $v_k$  are *normally distributed*, the Kalman filter is the provably optimal estimator (estimate has minimum error variance)

- In our case, “process noise” corresponds to uncertainty in the motion model, measurement noise is from uncertainty in the sensing model,  $x$  denotes the state being estimated (the robot pose) and  $z$  the sensor measurements

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## What is a Kalman Filter (cont'd)?

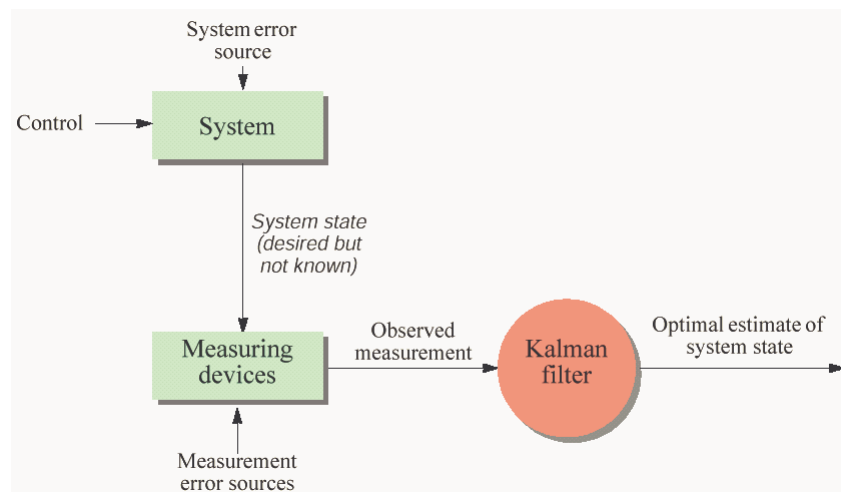
- *Recursive* in the sense that it is “memory-less”
  - Does not require all previous data to be maintained in memory and reprocessed at each time step
  - Propagates first and second order statistics only (i.e. mean and variance/covariance)
- The primary assumption for the KF is that noise in both our motion model and sensor measurements can be approximated with unimodal, zero-mean Gaussian noise

$$p(w) \sim N(0, Q) \quad p(v) \sim N(0, R)$$

- With this assumption - and the linear process/measurement models - the uncertainty in the state estimate will also be normally distributed

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## Kalman Filter Localization



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## Introduction to Kalman Filter (1)

- Two measurements

$$\hat{q}_1 = q_1 \text{ with variance } \sigma_1^2$$

$$\hat{q}_2 = q_2 \text{ with variance } \sigma_2^2$$

- Weighted least-squares

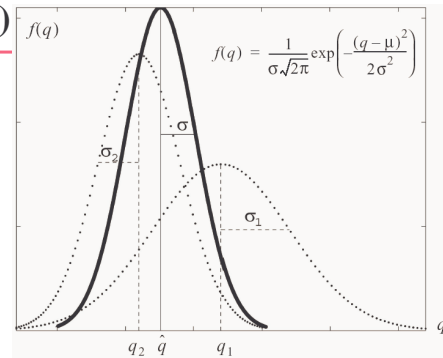
$$S = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i (\hat{q} - q_i)^2$$

- Finding minimum error

$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial \hat{q}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \hat{q}} \sum_{i=1}^n w_i (\hat{q} - q_i)^2 = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n w_i (\hat{q} - q_i) = 0$$

- After some calculation and rearrangements

$$\hat{q} = q_1 + \frac{\sigma_1^2}{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2} (q_2 - q_1)$$



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## Introduction to Kalman Filter (2)

- In Kalman Filter notation

$$\hat{x}_{k+1} = \hat{x}_k + K_{k+1}(z_{k+1} - \hat{x}_k)$$

$$K_{k+1} = \frac{\sigma_k^2}{\sigma_k^2 + \sigma_z^2} ; \sigma_k^2 = \sigma_1^2 ; \sigma_z^2 = \sigma_2^2$$

$$\sigma_{k+1}^2 = \sigma_k^2 - K_{k+1} \sigma_k^2$$

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## Introduction to Kalman Filter (3)

- Dynamic Prediction (robot moving)

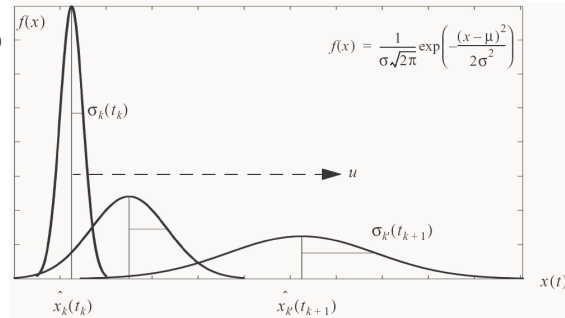
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = u + w$$

$u = \text{velocity}$   
 $w = \text{noise}$

- Motion

$$\hat{x}_{k'} = \hat{x}_k + u(t_{k+1} - t_k)$$

$$\sigma_{k'}^2 = \sigma_k^2 + \sigma_w^2[t_{k+1} - t_k]$$



- Combining fusion and dynamic prediction

$$\hat{x}_{k+1} = \hat{x}_{k'} + K_{k+1}(z_{k+1} - \hat{x}_{k'})$$

$$= [\hat{x}_k + u(t_{k+1} - t_k)] + K_{k+1}[z_{k+1} - \hat{x}_k - u(t_{k+1} - t_k)]$$

$$K_{k+1} = \frac{\sigma_{k'}^2}{\sigma_{k'}^2 + \sigma_z^2} = \frac{\sigma_k^2 + \sigma_w^2[t_{k+1} - t_k]}{\sigma_k^2 + \sigma_w^2[t_{k+1} - t_k] + \sigma_z^2}$$

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## The Predictor-Corrector Approach

- In this example, prediction came from using knowledge of the vehicle dynamics to estimate its change in position
- The analogy would be integrating information from the vehicle odometry or to estimate changed in position
- The correction is accomplished through making exteroceptive observations and then fusing this with your current estimate
- This is akin to updating position estimates using landmark information, etc.
- In practice, the prediction rate is typically much higher than the correction

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## The Discrete Kalman Filter (1)

- The Kalman filter addresses the problem of estimating the state  $\mathbf{x} \in R^n$  of a discrete-time controlled process governed by the linear difference equation

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}}_{k+1} = A\bar{\mathbf{x}}_k + B\bar{\mathbf{u}}_k + \bar{\mathbf{w}}_k$$

and with a measurement  $z \in R^m$  that is

$$\bar{z}_k = H\bar{\mathbf{x}}_k + \bar{\mathbf{v}}_k$$

where  $\mathbf{w}_k$  and  $\mathbf{v}_k$  represent the process and measurement noise. They are assumed independent, white, and with Gaussian PDFs

$$p(\mathbf{w}) \sim N(0, Q) \quad p(\mathbf{v}) \sim N(0, R)$$

NOTE: The matrices A,B,H,Q & R may be time varying

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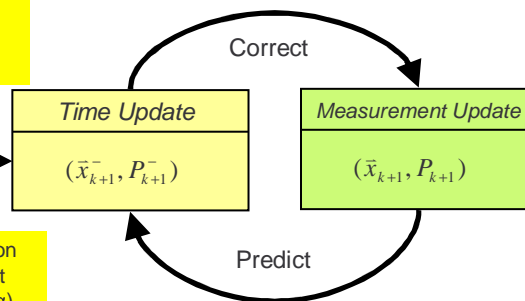
## The Discrete Kalman Filter (2)

- At each time step, the KF propagates both a *state estimate*  $\mathbf{x}_k$  and an estimate for the *error covariance*  $\mathbf{P}_k$ . The latter provides an indication of the uncertainty associated with the state estimate
- As mentioned previously, the KF is a predictor-corrector algorithm. Prediction comes in the *time update* phase, and correction in the *measurement update* phase

The "-" superscript implies a prediction – NOT inverse!

$(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_1^-, \mathbf{P}_1^-)$

In our case, prediction will be from the robot kinematics ( $vX$ ,  $vY$ ,  $\alpha$ )



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## The Time Update Phase

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1. Predict the state ahead

$$\vec{x}_{k+1}^- = A\vec{x}_k + B\vec{u}_k$$

2. Project the error covariance ahead

$$P_{k+1}^- = AP_k A^T + Q$$

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## The Measurement Update Phase

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1. Compute the Kalman Gain  $K_k$

$$K_k = P_k^- H^T (H P_k^- H^T + R)^{-1}$$

2. Update the estimate based on the new measurement  $z_k$

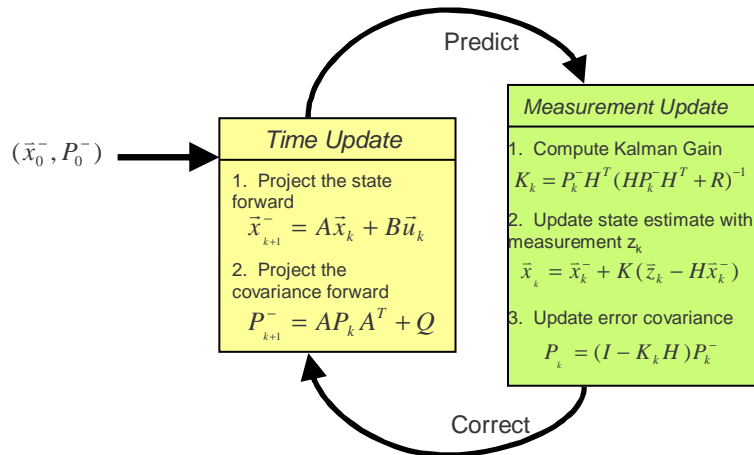
$$\vec{x}_k = \vec{x}_k^- + K(\vec{z}_k - H\vec{x}_k^-)$$

3. Update the error covariance

$$P_k = (I - K_k H) P_k^-$$

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## The Discrete Kalman Filter (3)



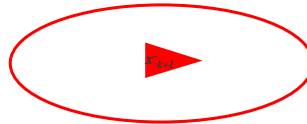
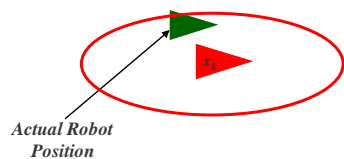
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## Predictor-Corrector KF Example (1)

1) We have a *covariance matrix*  $P$  with mean  $x_k$ .  $x_k$  is our pose estimate and the  $P$  is the uncertainty associated with that pose estimate.

2) We predict the next position from our motion model

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{x}_{k+1}^- &= A\bar{x}_k^- + B\bar{u}_k \\ P_{k+1}^- &= AP_k^- A^T + Q\end{aligned}$$



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## Predictor-Corrector KF Example (2)

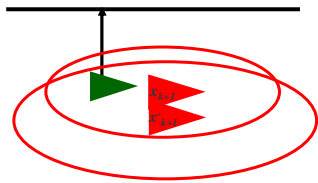
3) We take a new measurement in the MU phase...

... and use this to estimate our new position  $x_k$  and covariance  $P_{k+1}$

$$K_k = P_k^- H^T (H P_k^- H^T + R)^{-1}$$

$$\hat{x}_k = \bar{x}_k^- + K(z_k - H\bar{x}_k^-)$$

$$P_k = (I - K_k H) P_k^-$$



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## 1-D Example Estimating a Random Constant

- Suppose we are trying to estimate the value of a 1D constant from corrupted sensor measurements. Our process model is then

$$x_{k+1} = Ax_k + Bu_k + w_k = x_k + w_k$$

$$z_k = Hx_k + v_k = x_k + v_k$$

- The KF equations then are

Variance of our state estimate

Time Update

$$x_{k+1}^- = x_k$$

$$P_{k+1}^- = P_k + Q$$

Variance of our signal level

Measurement Update

$$K_k = P_k (P_k + R)^{-1}$$

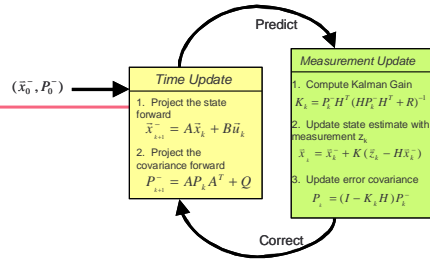
$$x_k = x_k^- + K(z_k - x_k^-)$$

$$P_k = (I - K_k) P_k^-$$

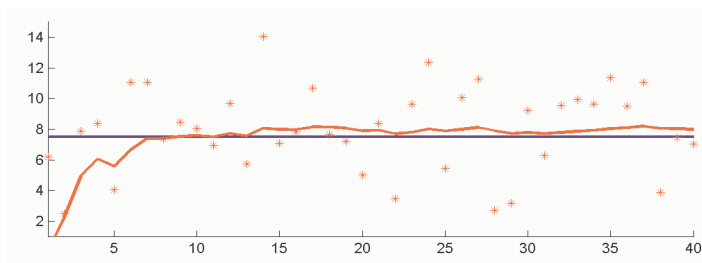
Variance of our measurement device

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## Simulation Results (1)

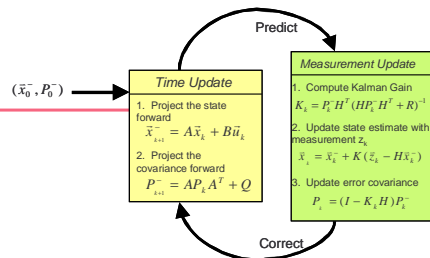


- Let us assume that  $x^*=7.5$ ,  $Q=0.01$ ,  $R=9$
- With perfect knowledge of the process and sensor covariance model, we obtain

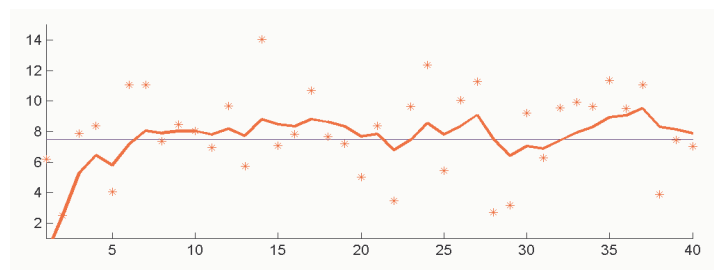


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## Simulation Results (2)

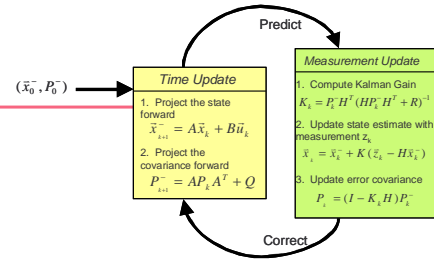


- Let us assume that  $x^*=7.5$ ,  $Q=0.01$ ,  $R=9$
- Let us further assume that the user believes that the sensor covariance  $R=0.09$

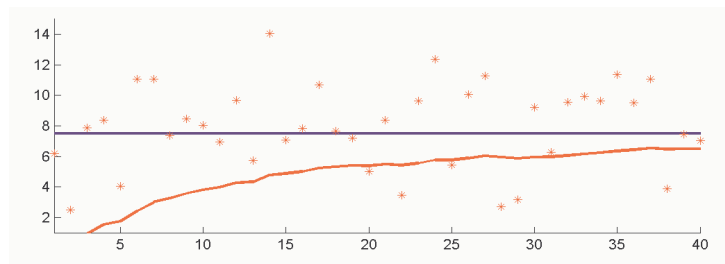


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## Simulation Results (3)



- Let us assume that  $x^*=7.5$ ,  $Q=0.01$ ,  $R=9$
- Let us further assume that the user believes that the sensor covariance  $R=900$



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## Kalman Filters vs. Particle Filters

KF	PF
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Compact representation</li> <li>• Single state hypothesis</li> <li>• Explicitly model Gaussian PDF for state / covariance estimation</li> <li>• Scales well computationally for higher dimensional representations</li> <li>• Diverge in the kidnapped robot problem</li> <li>• Limited to linear system models</li> <li>• Optimal</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Memory-intensive representation</li> <li>• <math>n</math> hypotheses (1 for each particle)</li> <li>• Implicitly Approximates any PDF for state/covariance</li> <li>• Limited to ~3 dimensions on modern computers</li> <li>• Solves the kidnapped robot problem</li> <li>• Works for any system model</li> <li>• Sub-optimal</li> </ul>

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## Summary

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- The primary limitation of a *PF* is the dimension of the state that can be represented ( $\sim 3$ ), as computational complexity scales exponentially with the dimension
- This often relegates *PF* to indoor localization problems
- *KFs* can represent much higher dimensional states in real time  $O(1000)$
- *Hybrid* filters that integrate *PFs* and *KFs* are not uncommon
- The primary limitation of the *KF* is that it can only be used for linear models, but for these it is *the optimal data fusion algorithm*
- An *Extended Kalman Filter* (EKF) that approximates the *KF* through linearization techniques has greatly expanded *KF* applications and is one of the most widely used algorithms in mobile robotics