

## Several Random Variables (Con't)

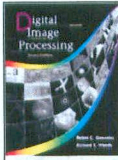
The joint central moment of order  $kq$  involving random variables  $x$  and  $y$  is defined as

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_{kq} &= E[(x - m_x)^k (y - m_y)^q] \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - m_x)^k (y - m_y)^q p(x, y) dx dy\end{aligned}$$

where  $m_x = E[x]$  and  $m_y = E[y]$  are the means of  $x$  and  $y$ , as defined earlier. We note that

$$\mu_{20} = E[(x - m_x)^2] \quad \text{and} \quad \mu_{02} = E[(y - m_y)^2]$$

are the variances of  $x$  and  $y$ , respectively.

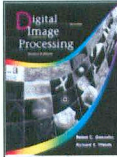


## Several Random Variables (Con't)

The moment  $\mu_{11}$

$$C_{xy} = \begin{aligned} \mu_{11} &= E[(x - m_x)(y - m_y)] \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - m_x)(y - m_y)p(x, y) dx dy \end{aligned}$$

is called the *covariance* of  $x$  and  $y$ . As in the case of correlation, the covariance is an important concept, usually given a special symbol such as  $C_{xy}$ .



## Several Random Variables (Con't)

By direct expansion of the terms inside the expected value brackets, and recalling the  $m_x = E[x]$  and  $m_y = E[y]$ , it is straightforward to show that

$$\begin{aligned}C_{xy} &= E[xy] - m_y E[x] - m_x E[y] + m_x m_y \\ &= E[xy] - E[x]E[y] \\ &= R_{xy} - E[x]E[y].\end{aligned}$$

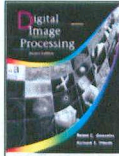
From our discussion on correlation, we see that the covariance is zero if the random variables are either uncorrelated *or* statistically independent. This is an important result worth remembering.

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$$\begin{aligned}C_{xy} &= E[(x - m_x)(y - m_y)] = E[xy - m_x y - m_y x + m_x m_y] \\ &= E[xy] - m_x E[y] - m_y E[x] + m_x m_y\end{aligned}$$

If  $R_{xy} = E[x]E[y]$  The variables are uncorrelated.

$$\text{and } C_{xy} = R_{xy} - E[x]E[y] = 0$$



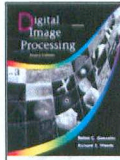
## Several Random Variables (Con't)

If we divide the covariance by the square root of the product of the variances we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma &= \frac{\mu_{11}}{\sqrt{\mu_{20}\mu_{02}}} \\ &= \frac{C_{xy}}{\sigma_x\sigma_y} \\ &= E\left[\frac{(x - m_x)}{\sigma_x} \frac{(y - m_y)}{\sigma_y}\right].\end{aligned}$$

The quantity  $\gamma$  is called the *correlation coefficient* of random variables  $x$  and  $y$ . It can be shown that  $\gamma$  is in the range  $-1 \leq \gamma \leq 1$  (see Problem 12.5). As discussed in Section 12.2.1, the correlation coefficient is used in image processing for matching.



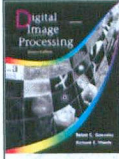


## The Multivariate Gaussian Density

As an illustration of a probability density function of more than one random variable, we consider the *multivariate Gaussian probability density function*, defined as

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} |\mathbf{C}|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} [(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{m})^T \mathbf{C}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{m})]}$$

where  $n$  is the *dimensionality* (number of components) of the random vector  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\mathbf{C}$  is the *covariance matrix* (to be defined below),  $|\mathbf{C}|$  is the determinant of matrix  $\mathbf{C}$ ,  $\mathbf{m}$  is the *mean vector* (also to be defined below) and  $T$  indicates transposition (see the review of matrices and vectors).



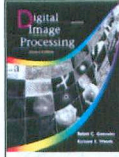
## The Multivariate Gaussian Density (Con't)

The *mean vector* is defined as

$$\mathbf{m} = E[\mathbf{x}] = \begin{bmatrix} E[x_1] \\ E[x_2] \\ \vdots \\ E[x_n] \end{bmatrix}$$

and the *covariance matrix* is defined as

$$\mathbf{C} = E[(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m})(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m})^T].$$

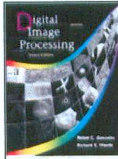


## The Multivariate Gaussian Density (Con't)

The element of  $\mathbf{C}$  are the covariances of the elements of  $\mathbf{x}$ , such that

$$c_{ij} = C_{x_i x_j} = E[(x_i - m_i)(x_j - m_j)]$$

where, for example,  $x_i$  is the  $i$ th component of  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $m_i$  is the  $i$ th component of  $\mathbf{m}$ .



## The Multivariate Gaussian Density (Con't)

Covariance matrices are *real* and *symmetric* (see the review of matrices and vectors). The elements along the main diagonal of  $\mathbf{C}$  are the variances of the elements  $\mathbf{x}$ , such that  $c_{ii} = \sigma_{x_i}^2$ . When all the elements of  $\mathbf{x}$  are uncorrelated or statistically independent,  $c_{ij} = 0$ , and the covariance matrix becomes a *diagonal matrix*. If all the variances are equal, then the covariance matrix becomes proportional to the *identity matrix*, with the constant of proportionality being the variance of the elements of  $\mathbf{x}$ .

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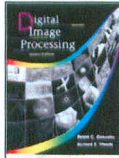
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.3 & -0.5 & -0.2 \\ -0.5 & 1.2 & 0 \\ -0.2 & 0 & 1.6 \end{bmatrix}$$

elements are real  
symmetric about the diagonal.

the diagonal elements are the  
variances of the variables.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1.5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

in this case the variables  
are statistically independent



## The Multivariate Gaussian Density (Con't)

**Example:** Consider the following *bivariate* ( $n = 2$ ) Gaussian probability density function

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} |\mathbf{C}|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}[(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{m})^T \mathbf{C}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{m})]}$$

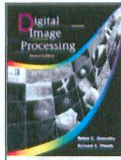
with

$$\mathbf{m} = \begin{bmatrix} m_1 \\ m_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

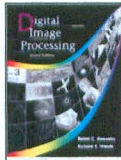
$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$



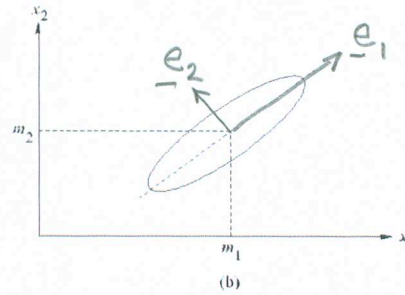
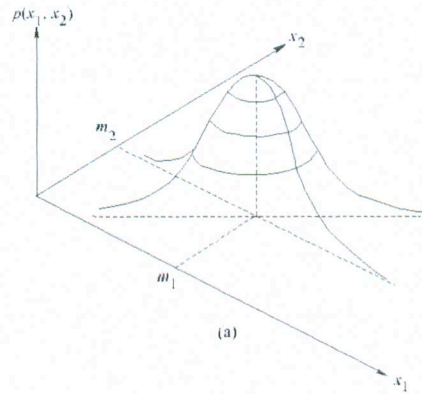


## The Multivariate Gaussian Density (Con't)

where, because  $\mathbf{C}$  is known to be symmetric,  $c_{12} = c_{21}$ . A schematic diagram of this density is shown in Part (a) of the following figure. Part (b) is a horizontal slice of Part (a). From the review of vectors and matrices, we know that the main directions of data spread are in the directions of the eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{C}$ . Furthermore, if the variables are uncorrelated or statistically independent, the covariance matrix will be diagonal and the eigenvectors will be in the same direction as the coordinate axes  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  (and the ellipse shown would be oriented along the  $x_1$  - and  $x_2$ -axis). If, the variances along the main diagonal are equal, the density would be symmetrical in all directions (in the form of a bell) and Part (b) would be a circle. Note in Parts (a) and (b) that the density is centered at the mean values  $(m_1, m_2)$ .



### The Multivariate Gaussian Density (Con't)

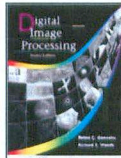


$\underline{e}_1$  &  $\underline{e}_2$  are the eigenvectors of  $\underline{C}$



## Linear Transformations of Random Variables

As discussed in the *Review of Matrices and Vectors*, a linear transformation of a vector  $\mathbf{x}$  to produce a vector  $\mathbf{y}$  is of the form  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ . Of particular importance in our work is the case when the rows of  $\mathbf{A}$  are the eigenvectors of the covariance matrix. Because  $\mathbf{C}$  is real and symmetric, we know from the discussion in the *Review of Matrices and Vectors* that it is always possible to find  $n$  orthonormal eigenvectors from which to form  $\mathbf{A}$ . The implications of this are discussed in considerable detail at the end of the *Review of Matrices and Vectors*, which we recommend should be read again as a conclusion to the present discussion.



## Example: estimating points on a line

Y	4	1	0	1	4	9
X	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
$\zeta$						

← compute  $m_Y, \sigma_Y^2$   
 ← compute  $m_X, \sigma_X^2$

Fig. 8.1.1. Definition of a random variable X.

- Estimate the value of X given Y by points on a straight line

$$\hat{X} = aY + b$$

- Write the mean square error as

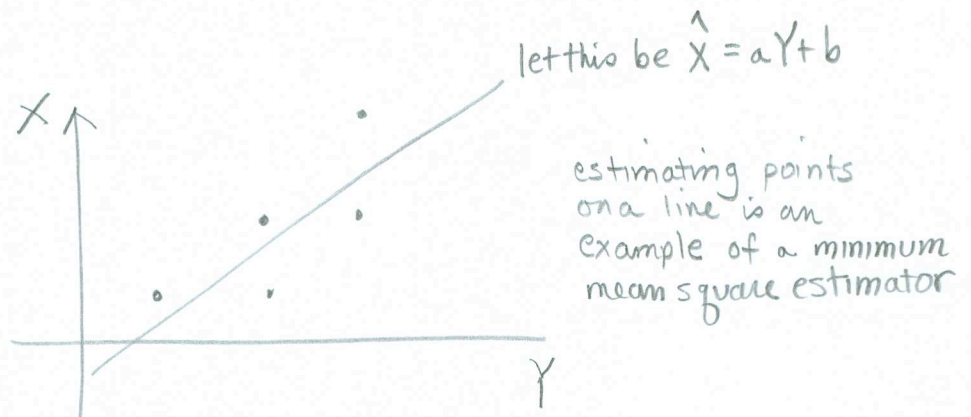
$$E(e^2) = E\{[X - \hat{X}]^2\} = E\{[X - (aY + b)]^2\}$$

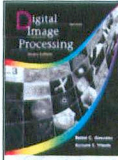
- Set partial derivative of mean square error wrt b equal to zero to get b

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial b} E(e^2) = E\{2[X - aY - b](-1)\} = -2E(X) + 2aE(Y) + 2b = 0$$

$$b = E(X) - aE(Y) = m_X - am_Y$$

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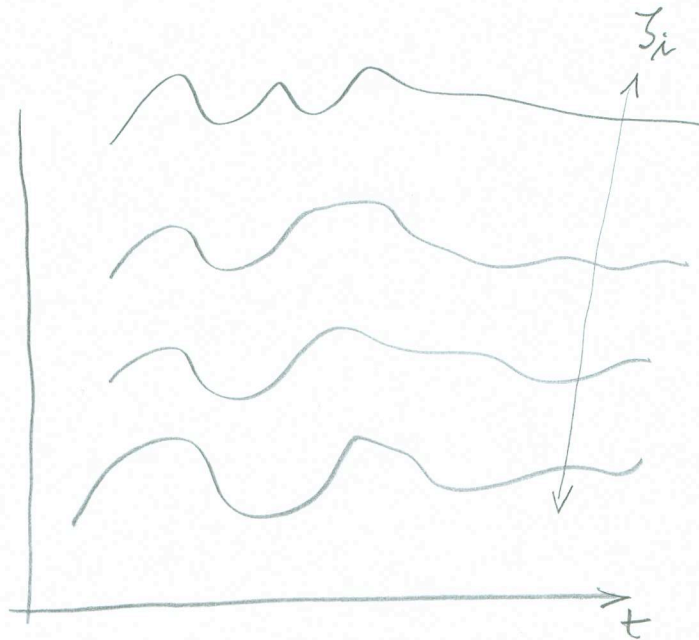




## Stochastic processes and ensembles

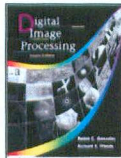
- A stochastic process produces an output waveform rather than just a number
- A specific output waveform is denoted by  $X(t, \zeta_i)$
- A collection of time functions  $X(t, \zeta_i)$  is called an ensemble
- Mix, Fig.6.1.1 illustrates an ensemble

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This is an ensemble.





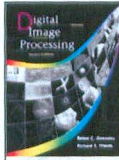
## Mean Square Estimation

- Let  $e = X - \hat{X}$  where  $e$  is the error between the random variable  $X$  and our estimate  $\hat{X}$
- The mean squared error is:

$$E(e^2) = E\left[(X - \hat{X})^2\right]$$

- The value of  $\hat{X}$  which minimizes  $E(e^2)$  is the minimum mean-square estimate of  $X$

← This is what we used in the Wiener filter



# Example: estimating points on a line

*substituting for b*

- The mean square error is then

$$E(e^2) = E\{[X - aY - m_x + am_y]^2\} = E\{[(X - m_x) - a(Y - m_y)]^2\}$$

$$E(e^2) = E\{(X - m_x)^2 - 2a(X - m_x)(Y - m_y) + a^2(Y - m_y)^2\} = \sigma_x^2 - 2a\mu_{11} + a^2\sigma_y^2$$

*Annotations: 'covariance' points to  $\mu_{11}$ ; 'variance' points to  $\sigma_y^2$ .*

- Take the derivative wrt a and set equal to zero to get  $a = \frac{\mu_{11}}{\sigma_y^2}$

- We can calculate the means and variances of the data to get

$$a = \frac{\mu_{11}}{\sigma_y^2} = 0.319 \quad b = m_x - am_y = 0.5 - (0.319)(3.17) = -0.5$$

- or  $\hat{X} = 0.319Y - 0.5$

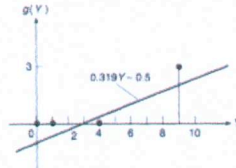


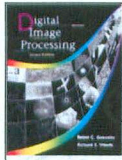
Fig. 8.1.2. Estimates for X.

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$$a = \frac{\mu_{11}}{\sigma_y^2} \quad \text{where } \mu_{11} = E[(x - m_x)(y - m_y)]$$

*the covariance of x and y*

$$b = m_x - am_y$$



## Continuous Waveform Calculations

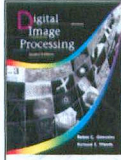
- The inner product  $\langle v_1(t) | v_2(t) \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} v_1(t) v_2(t) dt$

- The norm or length  $\|v(t)\| = \sqrt{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} v^2(t) dt}$

- Distance metric  $d(v_1, v_2) = \sqrt{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [v_1(t) - v_2(t)]^2 dt}$

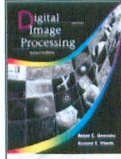
the distance between two waveforms.

we want to treat wave forms like vectors and matrices



## Discrete Waveform Calculations

- The inner product  $\langle v_1(t) | v_2(t) \rangle = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} v_1(n)v_2(n)$
- The norm or length  $\|v(t)\| = \sqrt{\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} v^2(n)}$
- Distance metric  $d(v_1, v_2) = \sqrt{\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} [v_1(n) - v_2(n)]^2}$



## Random Variable Calculations

- The inner product  $\langle X | Y \rangle = E(XY)$
- The norm or length  $E(X) = \sqrt{E(X^2)}$
- Distance metric  $d(X, Y) = \|X - Y\| = \sqrt{E((X - Y)^2)}$
- Orthogonal requires  $\langle X | Y \rangle = E(XY) = 0$

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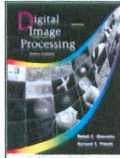
Expand idea of functions as vectors to random variables  
Note the inclusion of  $E()$  every where.

See slide #13

$$E[g(x)] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} g(x) P(x) dx \quad \text{continuous}$$

$$E[g(x)] = \sum_{i=1}^N g(x_i) P(x_i) \quad \text{discrete}$$





## Linear estimator

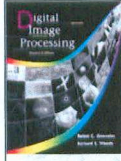
$$\hat{d} = h_0x(n) + h_1x(n-1) + h_2x(n-2) + h_3x(n-3) + \dots + h_px(n-p)$$

where  $x(i)$  is the data, the  $h_i$ 's are constants, and  $\hat{d}$  is the estimate of the output  $d$

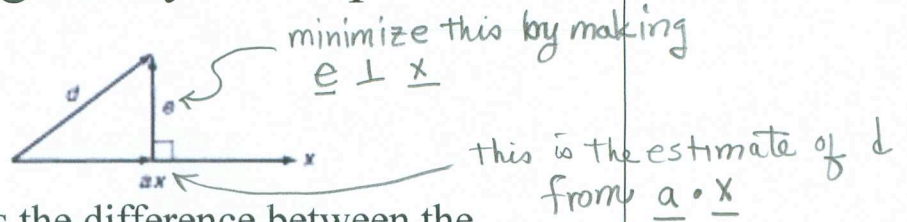
In general  $x(n) = s(n) + w(n)$  where  $s$  is the actual signal and  $w$  is white noise

Extrapolation:  $d(n) = s(n+k)$  estimate a future value  
Interpolation:  $d(n) = s(n-k)$  estimate a previous value  
Smoothing:  $d(n) = s(n)$  estimate the current value

we want to make an estimate  $\hat{d}$  of  $d$  which is a linear function of a number  $p+1$  of known, previous NOISY inputs  
The noise is assumed to be white noise.



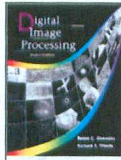
## Orthogonality Principle



- The error  $\underline{e}$  is the difference between the estimate  $\underline{ax}$  and the parameter  $\underline{d}$  to be estimated   
 *actual*
- The length of the error vector  $\underline{e}$  is minimized when the error is orthogonal to the data  $x$ .

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For the Kalman filter (and others) we minimize  $\underline{e}$  by making  $\underline{e} \perp \underline{x}$  where  $\hat{\underline{d}} = \underline{a} \cdot \underline{x}$ , a linear estimator



# Single Observation

- Given one observation  $x(n)$  and we want to estimate  $s(n)$   
 observation  $x(n) = s(n) + w(n)$        $d(n) = s(n)$   $\hat{d}$  is an estimate of  $s(n)$
- Require the error  $e(n) = d(n) - \hat{d}(n)$  to be orthogonal to the data  $x(n)$

$$E\{e(n)x(n)\} = E\{(d(n) - \hat{d}(n))x(n)\} = 0$$

- Using the estimate  $\hat{d}(n) = h_0 x(n)$  gives      if you have only one value the estimate is simple.
- $E\{(d(n) - h_0 x(n))x(n)\} = E\{d(n)x(n)\} - h_0 E\{x(n)x(n)\} = 0$
- This can be re-arranged to give
- $E\{d(n)x(n)\} - h_0 E\{x(n)x(n)\} = R_{sx}(0) - h_0 R_{xx}(0) = 0$
- Which says the optimum estimator is given when

$$h_0 = \frac{R_{sx}(0)}{R_{xx}(0)}$$

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see slide #29

$$R_{xy} = E[xy] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} xy P(x,y) dx dy$$

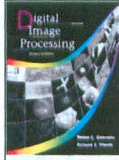
This is called the correlation of  $x$  and  $y$   
 also called the cross-correlation function  
 and the moment  $\gamma_{11}$

NOTE:

$$E[d(n)x(n)] = E[s(n)x(n)] = R_{sx}(0)$$

this is always the difference between the times of the two waveforms.

typically the second minus the first



## Multiple Observations

- Given two observations  $x(n)$  and  $x(n-1)$  and we want to estimate  $s(n)$   
$$x(n) = s(n) + w(n) \quad d(n) = s(n)$$
- Require the error  $e(n) = d(n) - \hat{d}(n)$  to be orthogonal to the data  $x(n)$

$$E\{e(n)x(n)\} = E\{(d(n) - \hat{d}(n))x(n)\} = 0$$

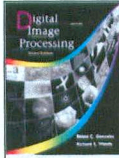
- Using the estimate  $\hat{d}(n) = h_0x(n) + h_1x(n-1)$  now gives two equations

$$E\{(d(n) - h_0x(n) - h_1x(n-1))x(n)\} = E\{d(n)x(n)\} - h_0E\{x(n)x(n)\} - h_1E\{x(n-1)x(n)\} = 0$$

$$E\{(d(n) - h_0x(n) - h_1x(n-1))x(n-1)\} = E\{d(n)x(n-1)\} - h_0E\{x(n)x(n-1)\} - h_1E\{x(n-1)x(n-1)\} = 0$$

Two observations is much more interesting mathematically.





## Multiple Observations

- Rewriting these equations in terms of autocorrelation functions

$$E\{d(n)x(n)\} - h_0 E\{x(n)x(n)\} - h_1 E\{x(n-1)x(n)\} = R_{DX}(0) - h_0 R_{XX}(0) - h_1 R_{XX}(-1) = 0$$

$$E\{d(n)x(n-1)\} - h_0 E\{x(n)x(n-1)\} - h_1 E\{x(n-1)x(n-1)\} = R_{DX}(1) - h_0 R_{XX}(1) - h_1 R_{XX}(0) = 0$$

- And putting them in matrix form gives

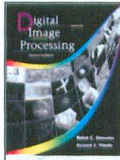
$$\begin{bmatrix} R_{XX}(0) & R_{XX}(-1) \\ R_{XX}(1) & R_{XX}(0) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} h_0 \\ h_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R_{DX}(0) \\ R_{DX}(1) \end{bmatrix}$$

$\begin{bmatrix} R_{SX}(0) \\ R_{SX}(1) \end{bmatrix}$

- Which can be solved for  $h_0$  and  $h_1$ .

remember  $d(x) = s(x)$





# Single Observation Example

- Find the optimum  $h_0$  and mean-square error in estimating  $s(n)$  if the data is  $x(n)=s(n)+w(n)$ . The noise  $w(n)$  is white Gaussian noise with zero mean and unit variance. The signal, which is also zero mean and is independent of the noise, has an autocorrelation function given by  $R_{SS}(n)=0.9^{|n|}$

- The solution requires that we compute both  $R_{XX}(0)$  and  $R_{SX}(0)$ .

- Computing  $R_{XX}(0)$

$$R_{XX}(0) = E\{x(n)x(n)\} = E\{(s(n)+w(n))(s(n)+w(n))\}$$

$$R_{XX}(0) = E\{s(n)s(n)\} + E\{s(n)w(n)\} + E\{w(n)s(n)\} + E\{w(n)w(n)\}$$

$$R_{XX}(0) = R_{SS}(0) + R_{SW}(0) + R_{WS}(0) + R_{WW}(0)$$

- Both cross-correlations are zero since the signal is independent of the noise and for white noise  $R_{WW}(n)=\delta(n)$  giving.

$$R_{XX}(0) = R_{SS}(0) + R_{SW}(0) + R_{WS}(0) + R_{WW}(0) = 0.9^0 + 0 + 0 + \delta(0) = 1 + 1 = 2$$

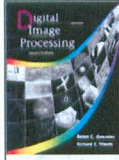
Sometimes these are known analytically or a general model is known.

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autocorrelation of signal

cross-correlations

autocorrelation of noise is  $\delta(0)$



## Single Observation Example (cont.)

- Computing  $R_{SX}(0)$ .  
 $R_{SX}(0) = E\{s(n)x(n)\} = E\{s(n)(s(n) + w(n))\}$   
 $R_{SX}(0) = E\{s(n)s(n)\} + E\{s(n)w(n)\}$   
 $R_{SX}(0) = R_{SS}(0) + R_{SW}(0) = 0.9^0 + 0 = 1$

- We can evaluate the optimum estimator coefficient as

$$h_0 = \frac{R_{SX}(0)}{R_{XX}(0)} = \frac{1}{2}$$

- The mean squared error is given by

$$E(e^2) = E((s(n) - \hat{s}(n))(s(n) - \hat{s}(n))) = E((s(n) - h_0x(n))(s(n) - h_0x(n)))$$

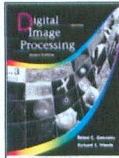
$$E(e^2) = E(s(n)s(n)) - h_0E(s(n)x(n)) - h_0E(x(n)s(n)) + h_0^2E(x(n)x(n))$$

$$E(e^2) = R_{SS}(0) - h_0R_{SX}(0) - h_0R_{XS}(0) + h_0^2R_{XX}(0) = 0.9^0 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)1 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)1 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

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$$E(e^2) = E \left[ \underbrace{s(n) - \hat{s}(n)} \right] \left[ s(n) - \hat{s}(n) \right]$$

simply the  
difference between the noise-free value and the estimate from  
the noisy values



# Two Observation Example

- Expand the previous example to two observations, i.e., find the optimum  $h_0$  and  $h_1$  in estimating  $s(n)$  if the data is  $x(n)=s(n)+w(n)$ . The noise  $w(n)$  is white Gaussian noise with zero mean and unit variance. The signal, which is also zero mean and is independent of the noise, has an autocorrelation function given by  $R_{SS}(n)=0.9^{|n|}$

- The solution requires that we compute evaluate the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} R_{XX}(0) & R_{XX}(-1) \\ R_{XX}(1) & R_{XX}(0) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} h_0 \\ h_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R_{SX}(0) \\ R_{SX}(1) \end{bmatrix}$$

$\delta(1)=0$

- The new quantities to be evaluated are  $R_{XX}(1)$ ,  $R_{XX}(-1)$ , and  $R_{SX}(1)$ .

$$R_{XX}(1) = R_{SS}(1) + R_{SW}(1) + R_{WS}(1) + R_{WW}(1) = 0.9^1 + 0 + 0 + \delta(1) = 0.9$$

$$R_{XX}(-1) = R_{SS}(-1) + R_{SW}(-1) + R_{WS}(-1) + R_{WW}(-1) = 0.9^{-1} + 0 + 0 + \delta(1) = 0.9$$

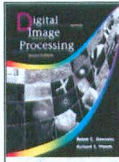
$$R_{SX}(1) = E\{s(n)x(n+1)\} = E\{s(n)(s(n+1) + w(n+1))\}$$

$$R_{SX}(1) = E\{s(n)s(n+1)\} + E\{s(n)w(n+1)\}$$

$$R_{SX}(1) = R_{SS}(1) + R_{SW}(1) = 0.9^1 + \cancel{0} = 0.9$$

0

Not that different from the previous example except we MUST use a matrix approach.



## Two Observation Example

- Evaluating the matrices gives

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0.9 \\ 0.9 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} h_0 \\ h_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0.9 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Which can be solved to give  $h_0=0.3730$  and  $h_1=0.2821$ . The mean-square error is calculated as

$$E(e^2) = E((s(n) - \hat{s}(n))(s(n) - \hat{s}(n))) = E((s(n) - h_0x(n) - h_1x(n-1))(s(n) - h_0x(n) - h_1x(n-1)))$$

$$E(e^2) = E(s(n)s(n)) - h_0E(s(n)x(n)) - h_1E(s(n)x(n-1)) - h_0E(x(n)s(n)) + h_0^2E(x(n)x(n))$$

$$+ h_0h_1E(x(n)x(n-1)) - h_1E(x(n-1)s(n)) + h_0h_1E(x(n-1)x(n)) + h_1^2E(x(n-1)x(n-1))$$

$$E(e^2) = R_{SS}(0) - h_0R_{SX}(0) - h_1R_{SX}(1) - h_0R_{XS}(0) + h_0^2R_{XX}(0) + h_0h_1R_{XX}(1)$$

$$- h_1R_{XS}(-1) + h_0h_1R_{XX}(-1) + h_1^2R_{XX}(0)$$

$$E(e^2) = 0.9^0 - (0.373)(1) - (0.2821)(0.9) - (0.373)(1) + (0.373)^2(2) + (0.373)(0.2821)(0.9)$$

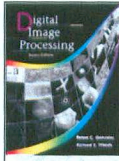
$$- (0.2821)(0.9) + (0.373)(0.2821)(0.9) + (0.2821)^2(2) = 0.373$$

$$R_{XX}(-1) = R_{SS}(-1) + R_{\text{sw}}(-1) = 0.9^{2-1} + \delta(1) = 0.9$$

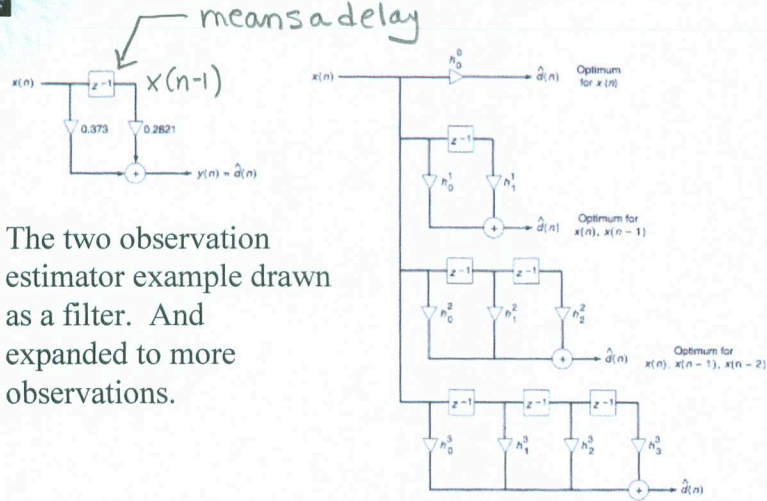
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$$E(e^2) = E \left[ \underbrace{(s(n))}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{The noise-free actual value}}} - \underbrace{\hat{s}(n)}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{the estimate of the noisy signal}}} \right] \left[ \underbrace{(s(n))}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{The noise-free actual value}}} - \underbrace{\hat{s}(n)}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{the estimate of the noisy signal}}} \right]$$





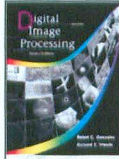
# Estimator Filter Architecture



The two observation estimator example drawn as a filter. And expanded to more observations.

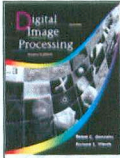
We can generalize this process to many more observations,





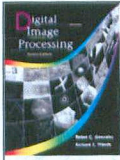
## Kalman Filter

- What is the optimum estimator filter for  $n$  samples of a signal which is evolving over time?
- Kalman (1960) proposed a signal model which can be used to recursively estimate a signal evolving over time.



## Optimum Filtering

- Kalman filters are often used to provide accurate estimates of position and velocity
- A Kalman filter is an efficient recursive filter which estimates the state of a dynamical system from a series of incomplete and noisy measurements
- Estimates can be
  - past time (interpolation or smoothing)
  - present time (filtering)
  - future time (prediction)



## Design a Kalman Filter for a simple system

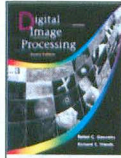
Simple system can be defined in multiple ways:

- Impulse function —  $h(n) = \alpha^n u(n)$

- Transfer function —  $H(z) = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha z^{-1}}$

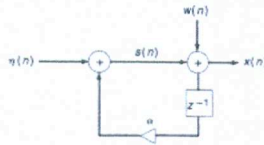
- Difference equation —  $s(n) = \alpha s(n-1) + \eta(n)$

← This is the normal approach

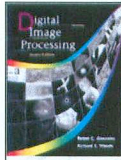


## Kalman signal model

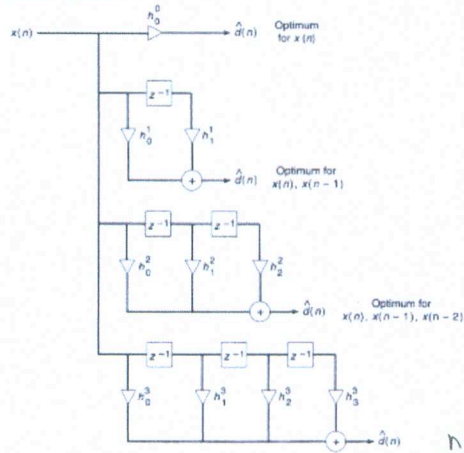
The Kalman signal model for this system is



- $s(n)$  is the output signal
- $w(n)$  is white noise in the observations
- $x(n)$  is the actual observed output ( $s + n$ )
- $\eta(n)$  is the white noise which drives the system



# Recursive Estimation?



In our previous architecture we need to compute a new coefficient and add a delay (processing block)

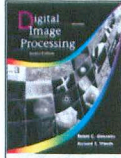
Instead, can we recursively do a mean square estimate of the signal using the previous estimate and the new signal observation? If so, it would have to behave like

$$\hat{d}(n) = A_n \hat{d}(n-1) + K_n x(n)$$

new estimate      previous estimate      new signal observation

Can we use a fixed length (size) architecture to recursively update the  $h_i^n$





## The Kalman Filter

- Assume that we can write  $A_n = (1 - K_n)\alpha$
- Then the optimum estimator can be written

$$\hat{d}(n) = A_n \hat{d}(n-1) + K_n x(n) = (1 - K_n)\alpha \hat{d}(n-1) + K_n x(n)$$

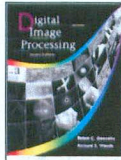
- The normal form for this is

$$\hat{d}(n) = \alpha \hat{d}(n-1) + K_n [x(n) - \alpha \hat{d}(n-1)]$$

- Where the first term is called the forward prediction term and the second is called the residual or correction term

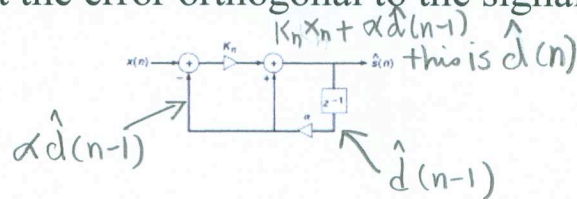
this is insight  
by Kalman

} the purpose is  
to get a  
specific  
architecture  
for implementation



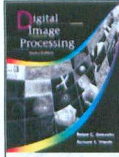
## The Kalman Filter

- For the specified system, the Kalman filter uses a time varying gain  $K_n$  as shown below to set the error orthogonal to the signal



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The key idea is that everything but  $K_n$  is constant  
 $K_n$  is adjusted over time to keep  $\underline{e}(n)$  orthogonal  
to  $\underline{x}(n)$



## Basic Kalman theory

- The mean square error is  
$$\varepsilon(n) = E[e^2(n)] = E\left\{\left[d(n) - \hat{d}(n)\right]^2\right\} = E\left\{\left[d(n) - A_n \hat{d}(n-1) + K_n x(n)\right]^2\right\}$$
- Since we are using a linear estimator the error is also given by

$$\varepsilon(n) = E[e(n)d(n)]$$

- Solving these (without proof) requires

$$K_n = \frac{\varepsilon(n)}{E\left[(w(n) - m_w)^2\right]} = \frac{\varepsilon(n)}{\sigma_w^2}$$

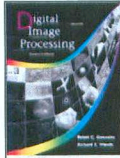
this is the formula for  $K_n$

- Where 
$$\varepsilon(n) = \left[ \frac{\sigma_\eta^2 + \alpha^2 \varepsilon(n-1)}{\sigma_\eta^2 + \sigma_w^2 + \alpha^2 \varepsilon(n-1)} \right] \sigma_w^2$$

- and

$$\varepsilon(0) = \frac{\sigma_s^2 \sigma_w^2}{\sigma_s^2 + \sigma_w^2}$$

$\varepsilon(n)$  is the error over time  
(this changes)  
 $\sigma_w^2$  is the variance of the noise  
(and doesn't change)



# Kalman Filter (algorithm)

The signal has an exponential autocorrelation function. The parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\sigma_n^2$  must be known. The additive noise  $w(n)$  is white with known variance  $\sigma_w^2$ . Then

Step 1. Set  $n=0$  and calculate the initial mean square error  $\epsilon(0) = \frac{\sigma_n^2 \sigma_w^2}{\sigma_n^2 + \sigma_w^2}$

Step 2. Calculate the Kalman gain  $K_n = \frac{\epsilon(n)}{\sigma_n^2}$

Step 3. Input the data  $x(n)$  and calculate the estimate. *new*

$$\hat{s}(n) = \alpha \hat{s}(n-1) + K_n [x(n) - \alpha \hat{s}(n-1)]$$

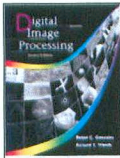
For  $n=0$  assume  $\hat{s}(0) = 0$  so that  $\hat{s}(0) = K_n x(0)$

Step 4. Let  $n=n+1$

Step 5. Update the error  $\epsilon(n) = \left[ \frac{\sigma_n^2 + \alpha^2 \epsilon(n-1)}{\sigma_n^2 + \sigma_w^2 + \alpha^2 \epsilon(n-1)} \right] \sigma_w^2$

$$\text{where } \sigma_n^2 = (1 - \alpha^2) \sigma_s^2$$

Step 6. Go to Step 2.



## Example of Kalman Filtering

- Consider a particle moving in the plane at constant velocity subject to random perturbations in its trajectory. The new position  $(x_1, x_2)$  is the old position plus the velocity  $(\Delta x_1, \Delta x_2)$  plus noise  $w$

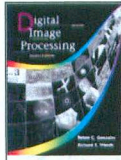
$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \\ \Delta x_1(t) \\ \Delta x_2(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \\ \Delta x_1(t) \\ \Delta x_2(t) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} w_{x1} \\ w_{x2} \\ w_{\Delta x1} \\ w_{\Delta x2} \end{bmatrix}$$

- We assume we only observe the position of the particle

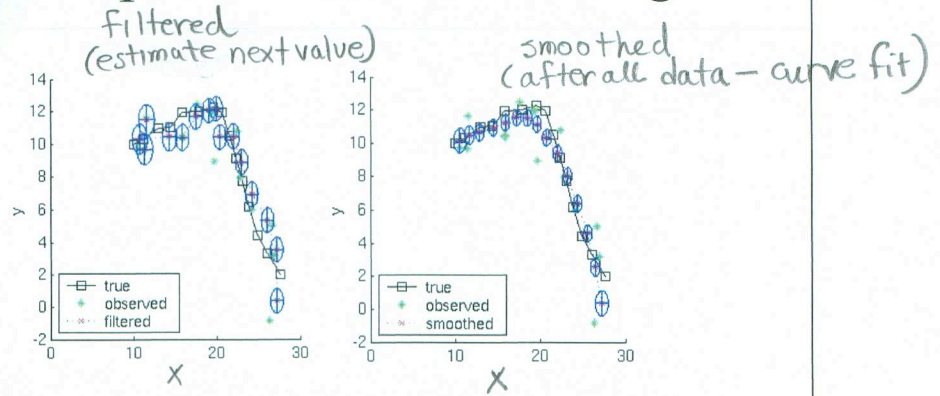
$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1(t) \\ y_2(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \\ \Delta x_1(t) \\ \Delta x_2(t) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} v_{x1} \\ v_{x2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$\uparrow$  new position  $(x, y)$        $\uparrow$  velocity  $(v_x, v_y)$





## Example of Kalman Filtering



Suppose we start out at position (10,10) moving to the right with velocity (1,0). We sampled a random trajectory of length 15. The figures show the filtered and smoothed trajectories. The mean squared error of the filtered estimate is 4.9; for the smoothed estimate it is 3.2. Not only is the smoothed estimate better, but we know that it is better, as illustrated by the smaller uncertainty ellipses

$$\hat{s}_1 = A s_0$$

initial state  
↓

↑ prediction of next state

$$\hat{P}_1 = A P_0 A^T + Q$$

update covariance matrix  
for predicted state

look for new location of feature and measure it  
This is  $m_1$

compute the Kalman gain matrix using  $m_1$

$$K_1 = \hat{P}_1 H^T (H \hat{P}_1 H^T + R)^{-1} \quad \text{where } m_1 = H s_0$$

↑ measurement    ↑ initial state (previous measurement)

$$P_1 = \hat{P}_1 + K_1 H \hat{P}_1$$

update covariance

↑ this is the new covariance.

$$\hat{s}_2 = \hat{s}_1 + K_1 (m_1 - H \hat{s}_1)$$

↑ Kalman gain

↑ previous estimate  
this is the new prediction for the next state

Repeat process.