

# The Smart Sampling Kalman Filter with Symmetric Samples

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Nonlinear Kalman Filters (KFs) are powerful and widely-used techniques when trying to estimate the hidden state of a stochastic nonlinear dynamic system. A novel sample-based KF is the Smart Sampling Kalman Filter ( $S^2$ KF). It is based on deterministic Gaussian samples which are obtained from an offline optimization procedure. Although this sampling technique is quite effective, it does not preserve the point symmetry of the Gaussian distribution. In this paper, we overcome this issue by extending the  $S^2$ KF with a new point-symmetric Gaussian sampling scheme to improve its estimation quality. Moreover, we also improve the numerical stability of the sample computation. This allows us to accurately approximate thousand-dimensional Gaussian distributions using tens of thousands of optimally placed and equally weighted samples. We evaluate the new symmetric  $S^2$ KF by computing higher-order moments of standard normal distributions and investigate the estimation quality of the  $S^2$ KF when dealing with symmetric measurement equations. Additionally, extended object tracking based on many measurements per time step is considered. This high-dimensional estimation problem shows the advantage of the  $S^2$ KF being able to use an arbitrary number of samples independent of the state dimension, in contrast to other state-of-the-art sample-based Kalman Filters. Finally, other estimators also relying on the  $S^2$ KF's Gaussian sampling technique, e.g., the Progressive Gaussian Filter (PGF), will benefit from the new point-symmetric sampling as well.

Refereeing of this contribution was handled by Ondrej Straka.

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## I. INTRODUCTION

Estimating the hidden state of a stochastic dynamic system based on noisy measurements is crucial for many applications in control, object tracking, or robotics. When considering linear systems corrupted by additive Gaussian noise, the Kalman Filter (KF) is the optimal estimator with respect to the mean square error [1]. Unfortunately, most practical problems are nonlinear, making closed-form solutions intractable. Consequently, approximative approaches have to be used. Particle Filters (PFs) [2]–[5] try to approximate the complete, in general multimodal, system state density with a set of weighted particles. This comes at the cost of computational complexity due to the curse of dimensionality. Another problem is sample degeneracy, in particular for high-dimensional state spaces, as a consequence of the particle reweighting using the likelihood function. To reduce computational complexity and circumvent the problem of sample degeneracy, the Progressive Gaussian Filter (PGF) [6], [7] approximates the system state as a Gaussian and moves the particles automatically to the important regions of the state space. Nevertheless, those nonlinear filters are still costly compared to linear filters applied to nonlinear problems.

The Extended Kalman Filter (EKF) explicitly linearizes the underlying models around the current state estimate to be able to apply the standard KF to the considered problem [8]. Iterated variants of the EKF (IEKF) try to improve the EKF approach by iteratively searching for a more suitable point for the model linearization [8]. A more suitable way of model linearization is based on statistical linearization, which can be performed in the best case analytically or, in all other cases, by exploiting samples in the form of Linear Regression Kalman Filters (LRKFs) [9]. LRKFs obtain the required moments by propagating samples through the system and measurement models and computing sample mean and sample covariance matrix, respectively. The most commonly used LRKF is the Unscented Kalman Filter (UKF) [10]. Its samples are, however, limited in number and placement, and several attempts exist to improve the UKF by finding its optimal parameter settings for specific estimation problems [11]. Nevertheless, the additional computational time required to find proper UKF parameters can be used instead to propagate more carefully chosen samples through the models in order to improve the estimation quality. For example, the Gauss-Hermite Kalman Filter (GHKF) introduced in [12] is based on the Gauss-Hermite quadrature rule to generate its samples. Unfortunately, the GHKF also suffers from the curse of dimensionality, and hence, is not well suited for larger state spaces. The fifth-degree Cubature Kalman Filter (CKF) [13] relies on a fifth-degree spherical-radial integration rule to construct its samples. However, by design, the number of samples still grows quadratically in the state dimension making the fifth-degree CKF computational

burdensome when dealing with larger state spaces. A non-deterministic LRKF was proposed with the Randomized UKF (RUKF) [14], [15]. Here, an arbitrary number of randomly scaled and rotated UKF sample sets are combined to a single set of samples. On the one hand this has the advantage of being able to change the employed number of samples. On the other hand it prohibits a reproducible filter behavior and imposes an additional runtime overhead compared to other LRKFs due to the creation of several random orthogonal matrices per prediction and measurement update. The estimation quality of any LRKF, regardless of the sampling it is based on, can be improved by using the iterated statistical linearization approach [16], [17]. A more detailed overview of linear filters and LRKFs can be found in [18], [19].

Recently, the Smart Sampling Kalman Filter (S<sup>2</sup>KF) was proposed in [19], [20], and already successfully used for Simultaneous Localization and Mapping (SLAM) in [21]. The S<sup>2</sup>KF uses optimal deterministic sampling of a standard normal distribution comprising an arbitrary number of equally weighted samples based on a combination of the Localized Cumulative Distribution (LCD) and a modified Cramér-von Mises distance [22], [23]. The same LCD approach was also extended to approximate arbitrary Gaussian mixture distributions [24].

In this paper, we improve the numerical stability of the LCD approach when dealing with Gaussian densities and, more importantly, extend the S<sup>2</sup>KF with a point-symmetric Gaussian sampling. This new sampling approach offers several benefits. First, it reflects the point symmetry of the Gaussian distribution and allows for matching all odd moments of a standard normal distribution exactly, which results in a more accurate state estimation. In this regard, the S<sup>2</sup>KF catches up to state-of-the-art LRKFs as all of them also rely on a point-symmetric sampling scheme. Second, due to the improved numerical stability, it is now possible to compute an optimal approximation of thousand-dimensional standard normal distributions comprising tens of thousands of samples. Third, as a minor benefit, the required number of parameters that have to be optimized is reduced by half. Consequently, the samples can be computed faster. However, this is only a minor improvement as the computation is performed offline.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. First, we give an overview of nonlinear Kalman filtering and its transition to LRKFs. After that, in Sec. III, we introduce a new point-symmetric version of the S<sup>2</sup>KF. In Sec. IV, we evaluate the symmetric S<sup>2</sup>KF by computing higher-order moments of multivariate standard normal distributions, showing the advantage of the new point-symmetric sampling scheme when dealing with symmetric measurement equations, and performing extended object tracking. Finally, conclusions are given in Sec. V.

## II. SAMPLE-BASED NONLINEAR KALMAN FILTERING

We consider estimating the hidden state  $\underline{x}_k$  of a discrete-time stochastic nonlinear dynamic system, where the system model

$$\underline{x}_k = \underline{a}_k(\underline{x}_{k-1}, \underline{w}_k) \quad (1)$$

describes its temporal evolution.<sup>1</sup> Additionally, we receive noisy measurements  $\tilde{\underline{y}}_k$  that are assumed to be generated according to the measurement model

$$\underline{y}_k = \underline{h}_k(\underline{x}_k, \underline{v}_k). \quad (2)$$

Thus, the received measurements  $\tilde{\underline{y}}_k$  are realizations of the random variable  $\underline{y}_k$ . The noise variables  $\underline{w}_k$  and  $\underline{v}_k$  are assumed to be Gaussian and independent of the system state for all time steps. Their densities are given by

$$f_k^w(\underline{w}_k) = \mathcal{N}(\underline{w}_k; \hat{\underline{w}}_k, \mathbf{C}_k^w)$$

and

$$f_k^v(\underline{v}_k) = \mathcal{N}(\underline{v}_k; \hat{\underline{v}}_k, \mathbf{C}_k^v),$$

where  $\hat{\underline{w}}_k$  and  $\hat{\underline{v}}_k$  denote the mean vectors, and  $\mathbf{C}_k^w$  and  $\mathbf{C}_k^v$  the covariance matrices.

Our goal is to determine a state estimate of  $\underline{x}_k$  in the form of a conditional state density

$$f_k^e(\underline{x}_k) := f(\underline{x}_k | \tilde{\underline{y}}_k, \dots, \tilde{\underline{y}}_1)$$

recursively over time using Bayesian inference. Such a recursive estimator consists of two parts, namely the prediction step and the filter step. On the one hand, the prediction step propagates the state estimate  $f_{k-1}^e(\underline{x}_{k-1})$  from time step  $k-1$  to the current time step  $k$  by employing the system model (1) resulting in the predicted state density

$$f_k^p(\underline{x}_k) := f(\underline{x}_k | \tilde{\underline{y}}_{k-1}, \dots, \tilde{\underline{y}}_1).$$

On the other hand, the filter step incorporates a newly received measurement  $\tilde{\underline{y}}_k$  into this propagated state estimate  $f_k^p(\underline{x}_k)$  with the aid of the measurement model (2).

In nonlinear Kalman filtering, both state densities are approximated as Gaussian distributions, and the predicted state density is given by

$$f_k^p(\underline{x}_k) \approx \mathcal{N}(\underline{x}_k; \hat{\underline{x}}_k^p, \mathbf{C}_k^p),$$

with predicted state mean

$$\hat{\underline{x}}_k^p = \iint \underline{a}_k(\underline{x}_{k-1}, \underline{w}_k) \cdot$$

$$f_{k-1}^e(\underline{x}_{k-1}) \cdot f_k^w(\underline{w}_k) d\underline{x}_{k-1} d\underline{w}_k \quad (3)$$

and predicted state covariance matrix

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{C}_k^p = & \iint (\underline{a}_k(\underline{x}_{k-1}, \underline{w}_k) - \hat{\underline{x}}_k^p) \cdot (\underline{a}_k(\underline{x}_{k-1}, \underline{w}_k) - \hat{\underline{x}}_k^p)^T \\ & \cdot f_{k-1}^e(\underline{x}_{k-1}) \cdot f_k^w(\underline{w}_k) d\underline{x}_{k-1} d\underline{w}_k, \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

<sup>1</sup>The subscript  $k$  denotes the discrete time step, matrices are printed bold face, and vectors are underlined.

respectively. Furthermore, the, in general intractable, Bayesian measurement update is also approximated to obtain the posterior Gaussian state density

$$f_k^e(\underline{x}_k) \approx \mathcal{N}(\underline{x}_k; \hat{\underline{x}}_k^e, \mathbf{C}_k^e),$$

with posterior state mean

$$\hat{\underline{x}}_k^e = \hat{\underline{x}}_k^p + \mathbf{C}_k^{x,y} \cdot (\mathbf{C}_k^y)^{-1} \cdot (\tilde{\underline{y}}_k - \hat{\underline{y}}_k) \quad (5)$$

and posterior state covariance matrix

$$\mathbf{C}_k^e = \mathbf{C}_k^p - \mathbf{C}_k^{x,y} \cdot (\mathbf{C}_k^y)^{-1} \cdot (\mathbf{C}_k^{x,y})^T, \quad (6)$$

which are the well-known Kalman Filter formulas [8]. In order to obtain (5) and (6), the measurement mean

$$\hat{\underline{y}}_k = \iint \mathbf{h}_k(\underline{x}_k, \underline{v}_k) \cdot f_k^p(\underline{x}_k) \cdot f_k^v(\underline{v}_k) d\underline{x}_k d\underline{v}_k, \quad (7)$$

the measurement covariance matrix

$$\mathbf{C}_k^y = \iint (\mathbf{h}_k(\underline{x}_k, \underline{v}_k) - \hat{\underline{y}}_k) \cdot (\mathbf{h}_k(\underline{x}_k, \underline{v}_k) - \hat{\underline{y}}_k)^T \cdot f_k^p(\underline{x}_k) \cdot f_k^v(\underline{v}_k) d\underline{x}_k d\underline{v}_k, \quad (8)$$

as well as the cross-covariance matrix of predicted state and measurement

$$\mathbf{C}_k^{x,y} = \iint (\underline{x}_k - \hat{\underline{x}}_k^p) \cdot (\mathbf{h}_k(\underline{x}_k, \underline{v}_k) - \hat{\underline{y}}_k)^T \cdot f_k^p(\underline{x}_k) \cdot f_k^v(\underline{v}_k) d\underline{x}_k d\underline{v}_k \quad (9)$$

are required.

Unfortunately, computing the above integrals in closed-form is only possible for a small set of system and measurement models, but it yields the best possible Kalman Filter for the given models. In all other cases, numerical integration methods have to be applied. As we aim for an online estimation technique, the employed numerical integration has to possess a *real-time capable computational complexity* and still deliver adequate integration results in order to obtain a good recursive state estimation quality. When looking at the five integrals, it can be seen that the last terms are always a product of two independent Gaussian densities, namely

$$f_{k-1}^e(\underline{x}_{k-1}) \cdot f_k^w(\underline{w}_k) = \mathcal{N} \left( \begin{bmatrix} \underline{x}_{k-1} \\ \underline{w}_k \end{bmatrix}; \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\underline{x}}_{k-1}^e \\ \hat{\underline{w}}_k \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}_{k-1}^e & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{C}_k^w \end{bmatrix} \right) \quad (10)$$

for the prediction and

$$f_k^p(\underline{x}_k) \cdot f_k^v(\underline{v}_k) = \mathcal{N} \left( \begin{bmatrix} \underline{x}_k \\ \underline{v}_k \end{bmatrix}; \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\underline{x}}_k^p \\ \hat{\underline{v}}_k \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}_k^p & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{C}_k^v \end{bmatrix} \right) \quad (11)$$

for the measurement update, respectively. By exploiting this fact, an efficient, i.e., fast but still accurate, computation of the integrals is possible. This can be done by replacing the occurring Gaussian distributions (10) and (11) with proper Dirac mixture densities, that is, sample-based density representations, and evaluating the system model (1) and measurement model (2) using these samples. As a result, emphasis is directly put on

the important regions of the state space, and the regions covered by only a small portion of the probability mass of the Gaussian densities are neglected. This approach leads to the class of Linear Regression Kalman Filters (LRKFs).

A Dirac mixture approximation of a given probability density function  $f_k(\underline{s}_k)$  comprising  $M_k$  samples with sample positions  $\underline{s}_{k,i}$  and sample weights  $\alpha_{k,i}$  is defined as

$$\sum_{i=1}^{M_k} \alpha_{k,i} \cdot \delta(\underline{s}_k - \underline{s}_{k,i}), \quad (12)$$

where  $\delta(\cdot)$  denotes the Dirac delta distribution and the sample weights must sum up to one. Such an approximation can be computed in several ways, e.g., by simply using random sampling or deterministic approaches such as done by the UKF.

Now, we assume that an approximation of the Gaussian joint density (10) comprising  $M_k$  samples with positions  $[\underline{x}_{k-1,i}^T, \underline{w}_{k,i}^T]^T$  and weights  $\alpha_{k,i}$  is at hand. By replacing the Gaussian joint density in the integrals (3) and (4) with this Dirac mixture approximation, and using the Dirac sifting property, we obtain an approximation for the predicted state mean

$$\hat{\underline{x}}_k^p \approx \sum_{i=1}^{M_k} \alpha_{k,i} \cdot \underline{a}_k(\underline{x}_{k-1,i}, \underline{w}_{k,i})$$

and the predicted state covariance matrix

$$\mathbf{C}_k^p \approx \sum_{i=1}^{M_k} \alpha_{k,i} \cdot (\underline{a}_k(\underline{x}_{k-1,i}, \underline{w}_{k,i}) - \hat{\underline{x}}_k^p) \cdot (\underline{a}_k(\underline{x}_{k-1,i}, \underline{w}_{k,i}) - \hat{\underline{x}}_k^p)^T.$$

The same procedure is used for computing the integrals required for the measurement update. First, a Dirac mixture approximation of the Gaussian (11) encompassing  $M_k$  samples with positions  $[\underline{x}_{k,i}^T, \underline{v}_{k,i}^T]^T$  and weights  $\alpha_{k,i}$  is computed. Second, by replacing the joint Gaussian with its Dirac mixture approximation in the three integrals (7), (8), and (9), and using once more the Dirac sifting property, we get an approximation for the measurement mean

$$\hat{\underline{y}}_k \approx \sum_{i=1}^{M_k} \alpha_{k,i} \cdot \mathbf{h}_k(\underline{x}_{k,i}, \underline{v}_{k,i}),$$

the measurement covariance matrix

$$\mathbf{C}_k^y \approx \sum_{i=1}^{M_k} \alpha_{k,i} \cdot (\mathbf{h}_k(\underline{x}_{k,i}, \underline{v}_{k,i}) - \hat{\underline{y}}_k) \cdot (\mathbf{h}_k(\underline{x}_{k,i}, \underline{v}_{k,i}) - \hat{\underline{y}}_k)^T,$$

and the cross-covariance matrix

$$\mathbf{C}_k^{x,y} \approx \sum_{i=1}^{M_k} \alpha_{k,i} \cdot (\underline{x}_{k,i} - \hat{\underline{x}}_k^p) \cdot (\mathbf{h}_k(\underline{x}_{k,i}, \underline{v}_{k,i}) - \hat{\underline{y}}_k)^T.$$

It should be noted that the number of samples for the time and the measurement update do not have to be the same. Moreover, both Dirac mixture approximations can be completely different in the way they are obtained, although this is usually not the case.

### III. THE SMART SAMPLING KALMAN FILTER WITH SYMMETRIC SAMPLES

In [22], the authors proposed an approach based on the Localized Cumulative Distribution (LCD) to optimally approximate Gaussian distributions with a set of equally weighted samples. This is done by transforming the approximation problem into an optimization problem. Unfortunately, such optimization is very time-consuming, and hence, not suitable for online nonlinear filtering. To enable the LCD approach for online filtering, it is used to optimally sample only a standard normal distribution offline (before filter usage) and transform these samples online (during filter usage) to any required Gaussian with the aid of the Mahalanobis transformation [25]. This is the fundamental basis for the  $S^2KF$  [19]. But other nonlinear estimators such as the Progressive Gaussian Filter also make use of this Gaussian sampling technique.

However, the current LCD approach can, and will, arrange the samples in an arbitrary way to optimally approximate a standard normal distribution. More precisely, it does not take the point symmetry of the standard normal distribution explicitly into account so that not all samples have point-symmetric counterparts. Here, we extend the LCD approach to approximate an  $N$ -dimensional standard normal distribution with a set of *point-symmetric and equally weighted samples*. Moreover, we improve the numerical stability of the LCD approach when dealing with Gaussian densities to allow approximations of very high dimensions. This new optimal point-symmetric sampling is then used to obtain a symmetric version of the  $S^2KF$ .

The use of point-symmetric samples offers several benefits. First, the proposed sampling reflect the point symmetry of the standard normal distribution allowing for more accurate estimation results as will be seen in the evaluation. Second, the used point symmetry makes it possible to capture *all odd moments* of the standard normal distribution exactly (a proof is given in Appendix A). Finally, although not the actual goal of the proposed sampling, the required number of sample positions, i.e., the parameters, that have to be optimized is reduced by half, and hence, speeds up the offline sample computation.

Besides point symmetry, other symmetries such as axial symmetry could also be exploited. However, this would prevent us from using an arbitrary number of samples and would limit the optimizer's control over the sample placement.

In the following, we first define the set of parameters describing point-symmetric Dirac mixtures in Sec. III-A. These parameters have then to be optimized in order to approximate a standard normal distribution in an optimal way. This requires the distance measures between a standard normal distribution and the point-symmetric Dirac mixtures given in Sec. III-B. Subsequently, the gradients of the distance measures are derived in Sec. III-C. Finally, in Sec. III-D, we give a procedure to compute point-symmetric Dirac mixture approximations of standard normal distributions based on the introduced distance measures and their gradients.

#### A. Point-Symmetric Dirac Mixtures

First, we have to modify the generic Dirac mixture (12) to obtain a point-symmetric one. This is performed by distinguishing between an even and odd number of samples. For the case of  $2L$  samples with  $L \in \mathbb{N}_+$ , that is, the even case, we place the samples point-symmetrically around the state space origin yielding the equally weighted Dirac mixture

$$\frac{1}{2L} \sum_{i=1}^L \delta(\underline{s} - \underline{s}_i) + \delta(\underline{s} + \underline{s}_i), \quad (13)$$

with sample positions  $\underline{s}_i$  and  $-\underline{s}_i$ . For  $2L + 1$  samples, the odd case, we additionally place a sample fixed at the state space origin and obtain the Dirac mixture

$$\frac{1}{2L + 1} \left( \delta(\underline{s}) + \sum_{i=1}^L \delta(\underline{s} - \underline{s}_i) + \delta(\underline{s} + \underline{s}_i) \right). \quad (14)$$

This preserves the desired point symmetry. As the position of the additional sample in the odd case is constant, the set of parameters

$$S := \{\underline{s}_1, \dots, \underline{s}_L\}$$

is the same for both Dirac mixtures. That is,  $S$  describes the entire set of  $2L$  or  $2L + 1$  samples forming a density approximation although  $S$  contains only half of the sample positions. Given a set  $S$ , the full set of point-symmetric samples is  $\{\underline{s}_1, -\underline{s}_1, \dots, \underline{s}_L, -\underline{s}_L\}$  or  $\{\underline{0}, \underline{s}_1, -\underline{s}_1, \dots, \underline{s}_L, -\underline{s}_L\}$ , depending on whether the even or the odd case is considered. Moreover, the Dirac mixtures specified in (13) and (14) are always point-symmetric no matter what values  $S$  will take.

For example, the UKF sample set comprising  $2L$  or  $2L + 1$  (equally weighted) samples [10] is a special case of these point-symmetric Dirac mixtures. With an even number of samples, it has the parametrization

$$\underline{s}_i = \sqrt{N} \cdot \underline{e}_i \quad \forall i \in \{1, \dots, N\},$$

where  $\underline{e}_i$  denotes the unit vector along the  $i$ th dimension. In the odd case, the parametrization is

$$\underline{s}_i = \sqrt{N + 0.5} \cdot \underline{e}_i \quad \forall i \in \{1, \dots, N\},$$

that is, the sample spread is larger due to the additional point mass at the state space origin.

## B. Distance Measures

Our goal is to determine the set of parameters  $S$  for the above Dirac mixtures so that they approximate a multivariate standard normal distribution in an optimal way. This requires a distance measure between the involved continuous and discrete distributions. As the classical cumulative distribution function is not suitable for the multi-dimensional case [26], we utilize the LCD approach in the same way as the asymmetric  $S^2$ KF.

**DEFINITION III.1** (Localized Cumulative Distribution [19]).

Let  $f(\underline{s})$  be an  $N$ -dimensional density function. The corresponding Localized Cumulative Distribution is defined as

$$F(\underline{m}, b) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} f(\underline{s}) \cdot K(\underline{s} - \underline{m}, b) d\underline{s},$$

with  $\underline{m} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R}_+$ , and the symmetric and integrable kernel

$$K(\underline{s} - \underline{m}, b) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s} - \underline{m}\|_2^2}{b^2}\right).$$

Here,  $\underline{m}$  characterizes the location of the kernel and  $b$  its size.

The LCD of an  $N$ -dimensional standard normal distribution is an integral of a product of two (unnormalized) Gaussians. By using the fact that the product of two Gaussian distributions is also an unnormalized Gaussian and the integral over a probability density equals one, its LCD is obtained by [22]

$$\begin{aligned} F_N(\underline{m}, b) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \mathcal{N}(\underline{s}; \underline{0}, \mathbf{I}_N) \cdot (2\pi)^{N/2} b^N \mathcal{N}(\underline{s}; \underline{m}, b^2 \mathbf{I}_N) d\underline{s} \\ &= \frac{(2\pi)^{N/2} b^N}{(2\pi)^{N/2} \sqrt{|(1+b^2)\mathbf{I}_N|}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{m}\|_2^2}{(1+b^2)}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{b^2}{1+b^2}\right)^{N/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{m}\|_2^2}{(1+b^2)}\right), \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mathbf{I}_N$  denotes the identity matrix of dimension  $N$ . Based on the Dirac sifting property, the LCD of the Dirac mixture comprising an even number of samples is given by

$$\begin{aligned} F_\delta^e(S, \underline{m}, b) &= \frac{1}{2L} \left( \sum_{i=1}^L \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i - \underline{m}\|_2^2}{b^2}\right) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i - \underline{m}\|_2^2}{b^2}\right) \right), \end{aligned}$$

whereas the LCD of the odd Dirac mixture is

$$\begin{aligned} F_\delta^o(S, \underline{m}, b) &= \frac{1}{2L+1} \left( \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{m}\|_2^2}{b^2}\right) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \sum_{i=1}^L \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i - \underline{m}\|_2^2}{b^2}\right) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i - \underline{m}\|_2^2}{b^2}\right) \right). \end{aligned}$$

To compare the standard normal LCD with a Dirac mixture LCD, we use the modified Cramér-von Mises distance defined as follows.

**DEFINITION III.2** (Modified Cramér-von Mises Distance).

The modified Cramér-von Mises (CvM) distance  $D$  between two LCDs  $F(\underline{m}, b)$  and  $\tilde{F}(\underline{m}, b)$  is given by

$$D(F, \tilde{F}) = \int_0^\infty w(b) \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} (F(\underline{m}, b) - \tilde{F}(\underline{m}, b))^2 d\underline{m} db,$$

with weighting function

$$w(b) = \begin{cases} \pi^{-N/2} b^{1-N}, & b \in (0, b_{\max}] \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

The new term  $\pi^{-N/2}$  in the weighting function  $w(b)$  (in contrast with the definition in [19]) is a consequence of the involved LCDs  $F_N$ ,  $F_\delta^e$ , and  $F_\delta^o$ . Without this term, the modified CvM distances between these LCDs would be unbounded for an increasing dimension  $N$ , which in turn would make the distances numerically unstable. This improvement now allows the  $S^2$ KF to compute Dirac mixture approximations for very high state dimensions, e.g.,  $N > 200$ .

Note that the LCD approach is closely related to the concept used in regularized particle filtering [3], [27]. Here, a kernel with a given bandwidth, i.e., kernel size, is convolved with a set of weighted particles, i.e., a Dirac mixture, to improve the sample diversity. Nevertheless, the LCD is also applied to a continuous density to make it comparable with a discrete one. Additionally, we also integrate over all kernel locations  $\underline{m}$  and kernel sizes  $b$ .

First, we consider the distance between the standard normal distribution and the Dirac mixture comprising an even number of samples, and then extend the results to the odd case. The distance  $D(F_N, F_\delta^e)$  can be split into three terms according to

$$D(F_N, F_\delta^e) = D^e(S) = D_1^e - 2D_2^e(S) + D_3^e(S),$$

with the sample-independent part

$$D_1^e = \int_0^{b_{\max}} b \left(\frac{b^2}{1+b^2}\right)^{N/2} db,$$

and the sample-dependent terms

$$D_2^e(S) = \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{2b}{2L} \left( \frac{2b^2}{1+2b^2} \right)^{N/2} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^L \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i\|_2^2}{(1+2b^2)}\right) db,$$

and

$$D_3^e(S) = \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{2b}{(2L)^2} \sum_{i=1}^L \sum_{j=1}^L \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i - \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b^2}\right) + \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i + \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b^2}\right) db.$$

The proof is given in Appendix B. Note that the integration over  $b$  is bounded by  $b_{\max}$  due to the support of the weighting function  $w(b)$ . To speed up the distance computation, the following theorem can be applied.

**THEOREM III.1.** *For a given  $b_{\max}$ , the following expression for  $D_3^e(S)$  can be obtained*

$$D_3^e(S) = \frac{2}{(2L)^2} \sum_{i=1}^L \sum_{j=1}^L \frac{b_{\max}^2}{2} \left( \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i - \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b_{\max}^2}\right) + \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i + \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b_{\max}^2}\right) \right) + \frac{1}{8} \left( \|\underline{s}_i - \underline{s}_j\|_2^2 \text{Ei}_0\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i - \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b_{\max}^2}\right) + \|\underline{s}_i + \underline{s}_j\|_2^2 \text{Ei}_0\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i + \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b_{\max}^2}\right) \right),$$

where  $\text{Ei}_0(x)$  is defined as

$$\text{Ei}_0(x) := \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x = 0 \\ \text{Ei}(x), & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

and  $\text{Ei}(x)$  denotes the exponential integral

$$\text{Ei}(x) := \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{e^t}{t} dt.$$

**PROOF** The proof is given in Appendix C.

Now, we consider the case of an odd number of samples. Like in the even case,  $D(F_{\mathcal{N}}, F_{\delta}^o)$  can be split into three terms

$$D(F_{\mathcal{N}}, F_{\delta}^o) = D^o(S) = D_1^o - 2D_2^o(S) + D_3^o(S).$$

The first part  $D_1^o$  is also independent of the samples  $S$  and identical to its even counterpart, i.e.,

$$D_1^o = D_1^e.$$

The sample-dependent terms  $D_2^o(S)$  and  $D_3^o(S)$  can be expressed in terms of the even case plus additional terms due to the fixed sample at the state space origin

according to

$$D_2^o(S) = \frac{2L}{2L+1} D_2^e(S) + \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{b}{2L+1} \left( \frac{2b^2}{1+2b^2} \right)^{N/2} db$$

and

$$D_3^o(S) = \frac{(2L)^2}{(2L+1)^2} D_3^e(S) + \frac{b_{\max}^2}{2(2L+1)^2} + \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{4b}{(2L+1)^2} \sum_{i=1}^L \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i\|_2^2}{2b^2}\right) db.$$

The proof is given in Appendix D. Like for the even case, also the computation of the odd case can be sped up by using the following theorem.

**THEOREM III.2.** *For a given  $b_{\max}$ , the following expression for  $D_3^o(S)$  can be obtained*

$$D_3^o(S) = \frac{(2L)^2}{(2L+1)^2} D_3^e(S) + \frac{b_{\max}^2}{2(2L+1)^2} + \frac{4}{(2L+1)^2} \sum_{i=1}^L \frac{b_{\max}^2}{2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i\|_2^2}{2b_{\max}^2}\right) + \frac{1}{8} \|\underline{s}_i\|_2^2 \text{Ei}_0\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i\|_2^2}{2b_{\max}^2}\right),$$

where  $\text{Ei}_0(\cdot)$  is defined as in Theorem III.1.

**PROOF** The proof is given in Appendix E.

The extra terms in  $D_2^o(S)$  and  $D_3^o(S)$ , compared to the even case, reflect the influence of the additional sample, placed at the state space origin, on the distance between the Dirac mixture and the standard normal distribution. The result is that the point mass of the additional sample will cause the other samples to have a slightly larger spread compared to a sample set without the additional sample at the state space origin. Concerning the above mentioned numerical stability, we also give a proof for the boundedness of both distances  $D^e(S)$  and  $D^o(S)$  in Appendix F. Note also that, like the standard normal distribution, both distance measures  $D^e(S)$  and  $D^o(S)$  are invariant under rotation/reflection (see Appendix G).

The proposed distance measures can be seen as constrained versions of the asymmetric LCD distance measure. Consequently, a Dirac mixture minimizing the new distance measures can be suboptimal with respect to the asymmetric distance measure. However, the actual goal is to approximate a standard normal distribution as best as possible, not to minimize certain distance measures. More precisely, the term ‘‘best’’ induces the utilized distance measure, and in addition to [22], here ‘‘best’’ also means to preserve the point symmetry of the standard normal distribution. This, in turn, requires new distance measures in the form of the proposed measures  $D^e(S)$  and  $D^o(S)$ .

### C. Gradients of the Distance Measures

In order to optimize the parameters  $S$  of a given Dirac mixture, we chose to apply a gradient-based iterative optimization procedure. This requires the partial derivatives of the two distance measures  $D^e(S)$  and  $D^o(S)$  with respect to the set of parameters  $S$ . For the even case, the partial derivatives are

$$\frac{\partial D^e(S)}{\partial s_i^{(d)}} = -2 \frac{\partial D_2^e(S)}{\partial s_i^{(d)}} + \frac{\partial D_3^e(S)}{\partial s_i^{(d)}} \quad \forall d \in \{1, \dots, N\},$$

with its two terms

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial D_2^e(S)}{\partial s_i^{(d)}} &= -\frac{s_i^{(d)}}{2L} \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{2b}{(1+2b^2)} \left( \frac{2b^2}{1+2b^2} \right)^{N/2} \\ &\quad \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i\|_2^2}{(1+2b^2)}\right) db, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial D_3^e(S)}{\partial s_i^{(d)}} &= -\frac{2}{(2L)^2} \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{1}{b} \\ &\quad \cdot \sum_{j=1}^L (s_i^{(d)} - s_j^{(d)}) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i - \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b^2}\right) \\ &\quad + (s_i^{(d)} + s_j^{(d)}) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i + \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b^2}\right) db. \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

Analogous to  $D_3^o(S)$ , the following theorem can be used for the computation of its partial derivatives.

**THEOREM III.3** *For a given  $b_{\max}$ , the following expression for  $\partial D_3^e(S)/\partial s_i^{(d)}$  can be obtained*

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial D_3^e(S)}{\partial s_i^{(d)}} &= \frac{1}{(2L)^2} \sum_{j=1}^L (s_i^{(d)} - s_j^{(d)}) \text{Ei}_0\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i - \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b_{\max}^2}\right) \\ &\quad + (s_i^{(d)} + s_j^{(d)}) \text{Ei}_0\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i + \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b_{\max}^2}\right), \end{aligned}$$

where  $\text{Ei}_0(\cdot)$  is defined as in Theorem III.1.

**PROOF** The proof is given in Appendix H.

As with the distance  $D^o(S)$  itself, its partial derivatives

$$\frac{\partial D^o(S)}{\partial s_i^{(d)}} = -2 \frac{\partial D_2^o(S)}{\partial s_i^{(d)}} + \frac{\partial D_3^o(S)}{\partial s_i^{(d)}} \quad \forall d \in \{1, \dots, N\}$$

can be obtained in terms of the even case plus additional terms according to

$$\frac{\partial D_2^o(S)}{\partial s_i^{(d)}} = \frac{2L}{2L+1} \frac{\partial D_2^e(S)}{\partial s_i^{(d)}}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial D_3^o(S)}{\partial s_i^{(d)}} &= \frac{(2L)^2}{(2L+1)^2} \frac{\partial D_3^e(S)}{\partial s_i^{(d)}} \\ &\quad - \frac{2s_i^{(d)}}{(2L+1)^2} \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{1}{b} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i\|_2^2}{2b^2}\right) db. \end{aligned}$$

To ease the computation of the partial derivatives of  $D_3^o(S)$ , the next theorem can be used.

**THEOREM III.4** *For a given  $b_{\max}$ , the following expression for  $\partial D_3^o(S)/\partial s_i^{(d)}$  can be obtained*

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial D_3^o(S)}{\partial s_i^{(d)}} &= \frac{(2L)^2}{(2L+1)^2} \frac{\partial D_3^e(S)}{\partial s_i^{(d)}} \\ &\quad + \frac{s_i^{(d)}}{(2L+1)^2} \text{Ei}_0\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i\|_2^2}{2b_{\max}^2}\right), \end{aligned}$$

where  $\text{Ei}_0(\cdot)$  is defined as in Theorem III.1.

**PROOF** The proof is given in Appendix I.

### D. The S<sup>2</sup>KF with Symmetric Samples

Based on the introduced distance measures  $D^e(S)$  and  $D^o(S)$ , and their partial derivatives, we can compute a Dirac mixture approximation of a standard normal distribution comprising an arbitrary number of optimally placed point-symmetric samples. As this amounts to a simple shape approximation, it does not guarantee an identity sample covariance matrix of the resulting Dirac mixture, a property of key importance in Kalman filtering. Thus, we will additionally constrain the possible resulting Dirac mixtures with this requirement in mind.

For the sample computation, the remaining integrals over  $b$  in the distance measures and their gradients are computed with the aid of an adaptive numerical integration scheme, namely the 31-point Gauss-Kronrod quadrature [28]. Furthermore, we utilize the low memory Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno quasi-Newton optimization (L-BFGS) [29]. The low memory variant is essential here as it avoids the explicit computation and storage of the inverse Hessian matrix of the distance measures. The set of Dirac mixture parameters  $S$  encompasses  $L \times N$  single parameters to be optimized. Hence, the (inverse) Hessian matrix of  $D^e(S)$  or  $D^o(S)$  would contain  $(L \times N)^2$  entries. When now assuming only a linear increase in the number of samples for an increasing dimension  $N$ , that is,  $2L = C \cdot N$ , with a linear factor  $C$ , the size of the Hessian grows with  $\mathcal{O}(N^4)$ . This problem is illustrated in Fig. 1 for two different linear factors (5 and 10). It can be seen that approximating a 100-dimensional standard normal distribution with a thousand samples would require a Hessian of  $\approx 20$  gigabytes, and already a Hessian of over 4 gigabytes in case of only 500 samples. Consequently, using the inverse Hessian of  $D^e(S)$  or  $D^o(S)$  directly in the optimization is intractable.

The computation of the point-symmetric samples works as follows.

- 1) Choose the desired number of samples  $M$  to approximate the  $N$ -dimensional standard normal distribution.
- 2) Depending on the number of samples  $M$ , the even distance measure  $D^e(S)$  or the odd distance measure  $D^o(S)$  is selected.

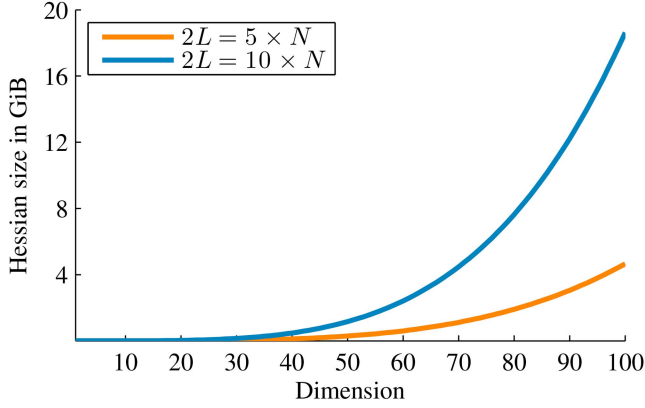


Fig. 1. Size of the Hessian matrix for different dimensions and number of samples.

- 3) A proper maximum kernel width  $b_{\max}$  has to be selected. Generally speaking, the larger the dimension  $N$  is the larger  $b_{\max}$  has to be in order to consider all sample positions during the optimization, and thus, to get a meaningful approximation. Empirically, we have found that a value of 70 is large enough for up to  $N \leq 1000$  dimensions.
- 4) The initial parameters of the point-symmetric Dirac mixture required by the L-BFGS procedure, i.e., the set  $S$  comprising  $L = \lfloor M/2 \rfloor$  sample positions, is obtained by drawing  $L$  samples randomly from an  $N$ -dimensional standard normal distribution.
- 5) The L-BFGS procedure optimizes the point-symmetric Dirac mixture parameters such that the distance measure is minimized, i.e., it moves the initial  $L$  samples (and implicitly their point-symmetric counterparts) in the state space to approximate the standard normal distribution in an optimal way. The point-symmetric Dirac mixture parameters resulting from the L-BFGS procedure are denoted as  $\{\underline{z}_i\}_{i=1}^L$ .

- 6) These parameters finally have to undergo a transformation so that the resulting Dirac mixture captures the identity covariance matrix of the standard normal distribution as much as possible. The transformation is done by first computing the sample covariance matrix

$$\mathbf{C}^z = \frac{2}{M} \sum_{i=1}^L \underline{z}_i \cdot \underline{z}_i^T,$$

second computing the Cholesky decomposition

$$\mathbf{C}^z = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^T,$$

and third transforming the parameters according to

$$\underline{s}_i = \mathbf{L}^{-1} \cdot \underline{z}_i, \quad \forall i \in \{1, \dots, L\}.$$

The proof of the transformation is given in Appendix J.

- 7) The desired set of point-symmetric samples finally approximating the standard normal distribution is either  $\{\underline{s}_1, -\underline{s}_1, \dots, \underline{s}_L, -\underline{s}_L\}$  or  $\{\underline{Q}, \underline{s}_1, -\underline{s}_1, \dots, \underline{s}_L, -\underline{s}_L\}$ , depending on whether  $M$  is even or odd.

Experimentally, we have found that in situations where the covariance matrix was added as an explicit constraint to the optimization procedure, the sample covariance matrix of the resulting Dirac mixture was less accurate compared to the proposed transformation approach. Moreover, the constraint made the optimization procedure much more time-consuming. Consequently, we dropped this approach in favor of the transformation approach.

The results of different LCD-based approximations of a two-dimensional standard normal distribution are depicted in Fig. 2. On the one hand, Figures 2(a) and 2(b) show approximations using the new point-symmetric sampling scheme comprising 12 and 13 samples, respectively. The point-symmetric arrangement around the state space origin can be clearly seen. Note

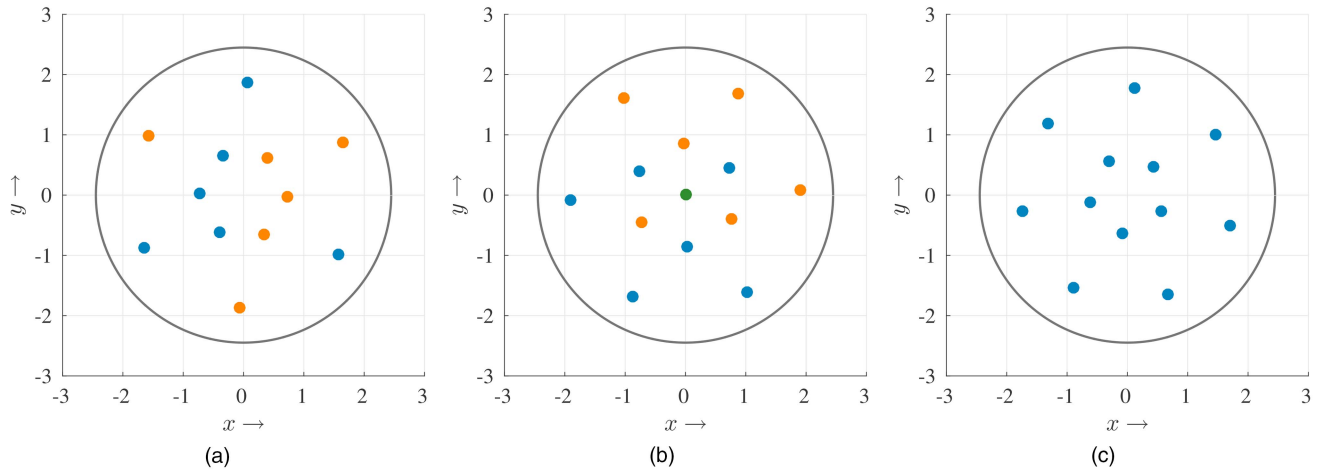


Fig. 2. Different LCD-based approximations of a two-dimensional standard normal distribution with samples  $\underline{s}_i$  (blue), point-symmetric counterparts  $-\underline{s}_i$  (orange), fixed sample at the state space origin in the odd case (green), and 95% confidence interval of the standard normal distribution (gray). (a) Symmetric approach with 12 samples. (b) Symmetric approach with 13 samples. (c) Asymmetric approach with 12 samples.



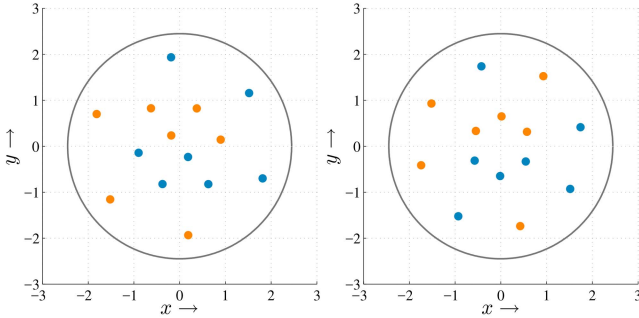


Fig. 3. Two different approximation results with 14 samples of a two-dimensional standard normal distribution.

also the subtle difference in the sample spread of the samples near the state space origin between Fig. 2(a) and Fig. 2(b). This is caused by the additional point mass from the fixed sample at the state space origin. On the other hand, Fig. 2(c) shows an approximation based on the classical asymmetric sampling scheme also comprising 12 samples. Here, the optimization procedure can position all samples individually, and hence, the samples are not necessarily arranged in a point-symmetric way like in the depicted case.

We also have to point out that, due to the random initialization of the L-BFGS procedure and the rotation/reflection invariance of the distance measures, the computed samples are not unique. That is, different approximations with the same number of samples can either differ only in a rotation/reflection or can have a completely different sample placement. For example, Fig. 3 shows two different approximation results for the same number of samples where the difference is not only a rotation or reflection. Concerning the time needed for the computation, on an Intel Core i7-3770 CPU, our implementation in C++ [30] takes about 4 minutes to approximate a 500D standard normal distribution with 10,000 samples and 35 minutes to approximate a 1000D standard normal distribution with 20,000 samples.

Using the above described optimal point-symmetric sampling of a standard normal distribution, we obtain a symmetric version of the S<sup>2</sup>KF. Furthermore, to avoid a re-computation on every program start, we store any computed Dirac mixture approximation of a standard normal distribution persistent in the file system for later reuse. This mechanism is called the *Sample Cache* and was already used by the asymmetric S<sup>2</sup>KF.

#### IV. EVALUATION

In this Section, we want to compare the new point-symmetric sampling scheme of the S<sup>2</sup>KF with its asymmetric version and other state-of-the-art LRKFs. First, we take a closer look at the approximation of higher-order moments of standard normal distributions. Then, the advantage of using a point-symmetric sampling scheme, and hence, the new version of the S<sup>2</sup>KF, is discussed by means of a simple symmetric measurement

equation. Finally, extended object tracking is performed to compare the recursive state estimation quality of various state-of-the-art LRKFs.

##### A. Moment Errors of a Standard Normal Distribution

First, we investigate how well the employed sampling schemes of state-of-the-art LRKFs approximate the moments of a standard normal distribution. Thus, we are interested in the expectation values

$$\mathbb{E}[x_1^{n_1} x_2^{n_2} \dots x_N^{n_N}] = \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} x_1^{n_1} x_2^{n_2} \dots x_N^{n_N} \mathcal{N}(\underline{x}; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}_N) d\underline{x},$$

with

$$\sum_{i=1}^N n_i = m, \quad 0 \leq n_i \leq m$$

for different dimensions  $N$  and moment orders  $m$ . This has the advantage of being independent of a concrete system and measurement model. For given  $N$  and  $m$ , the number of possible combinations  $J_{N,m}$  to select the values for  $n_i$  is equal to the number of terms in a multinomial sum with  $N$  summands raised to the power  $m$ , that is,

$$J_{N,m} = \binom{m+N-1}{N-1} = \frac{(m+N-1)!}{(N-1)!m!}.$$

Hence, a moment is characterized by  $J_{N,m}$  distinct values.

As all state-of-the-art LRKFs employ a point-symmetric sampling scheme and capture mean and covariance matrix, we focus on higher-order even moments. More precisely, we take a look at the 4th, 6th, and 8th moment, i.e.,  $m \in \{4, 6, 8\}$ . In many practical applications, 3D and 6D Gaussian distributions are of special interest. For example, the location and orientation in 2D or the position in 3D can be estimated using a three-dimensional system state. When additionally considering velocities in the 2D case or the orientation in the 3D case, a six-dimensional state is required. Thus, we chose to study the approximations of standard normal distributions with these two dimensions, i.e.,  $N \in \{3, 6\}$ .

We compare the new point-symmetric S<sup>2</sup>KF, the UKF with equally weighted samples, the RUKF, the fifth-degree CKF, and the GHKF with two quadrature points. To assess the different LRFK sampling techniques, for each dimension  $N$  and moment  $m$  we compute a normalized moment error according to

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{J_{N,m}} \sum_{j=1}^{J_{N,m}} (\mathbb{E}_j^{\text{true}} - \mathbb{E}_j^{\text{LRKF}})^2}, \quad (16)$$

where  $\mathbb{E}_j$  denotes one of the  $J_{N,m}$  possible combinations for the  $m$ th moment, the superscript “true” the true moment value and “LRKF” the LRFK sampling estimate. It is important to note that the moments computed with samples are *not* invariant under rotation. Thus, the same

holds for the normalized moment error (16). To mitigate this, we randomly rotate the sample sets of the UKF, fifth-degree CKF, and GHKF 100 times and build the average moment error. Regarding the S<sup>2</sup>KF and the RUKF, they do not have unique sample sets, and hence, for both filters 100 sample sets are generated and the average moment errors are computed as well. Moreover, the S<sup>2</sup>KF and the RUKF are evaluated with different number of samples. Note that we do not compare the asymmetric S<sup>2</sup>KF here due to its errors in the odd moments. Those errors will likely reduce the errors in even moments. Because of this, a moment-based comparison against the other LRKFs is not meaningful.

The results are depicted in Figures 4 and 5. As the UKF, the fifth-degree CKF, and the GHKF have a fixed number of samples, they are depicted as a bar at their respective employed number of samples. Additionally, for all filters their respective minimum and maximum moment errors are also depicted. The average moment errors of the UKF and the S<sup>2</sup>KF are nearly identical for the case when both filters use the same number of samples. This is due to the fact that both sample sets are equally weighted and the S<sup>2</sup>KF places its samples like the UKF (except for the rotation) as this minimize the utilized distance measure. The RUKF, however, scales the utilized UKF sample sets randomly. Consequently, its sample set is not necessarily equally weighted like for the UKF and the S<sup>2</sup>KF, and hence, their moment errors differ. Considering all average moment errors, the S<sup>2</sup>KF delivers always smaller errors than the RUKF and the GHKF (for the same number of samples). The sampling of the fifth-degree CKF is the only one that matches the 4th moment exactly. This is based on the fact that the spherical-radial rule of the fifth-degree CKF has a 5th-degree accuracy [13]. Regarding the spread of the moment errors, it can be seen that the S<sup>2</sup>KF and UKF have nearly the same variability in the errors, and that the maximum moment errors of the GHKF exceed the ones of the S<sup>2</sup>KF. Furthermore, the S<sup>2</sup>KF has a much smaller variability in the errors than the RUKF. Most times the errors of the S<sup>2</sup>KF are as small as the smallest errors of the RUKF or are even smaller, especially for the 6D standard normal distribution.

## B. Symmetric Measurement Equations

To illustrate the advantages of using a point-symmetric sampling scheme, we consider the two-dimensional system state

$$\underline{x} = [a, b]^T$$

combined with the scalar and symmetric measurement equation

$$y = h(\underline{x}, \nu) = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} + \nu,$$

where  $\nu$  is zero-mean Gaussian noise with variance  $\sigma^2 = 0.01$ . Hence, we measure a noisy distance from the system state  $\underline{x}$  to the state space origin. Such a

symmetric measurement equation arises for example in [31], [32].

We assume that the true system state is

$$\underline{x}_{true} = [1, 2]^T,$$

and our goal is to estimate it using a Nonlinear Kalman Filter initialized with mean and covariance matrix

$$\hat{\underline{x}}^p = [0, 0]^T, \quad \mathbf{C}^p = \text{diag}(4, 0.5).$$

The setup is illustrated in Fig. 6. From the the estimator's perspective, the received measurement  $\tilde{y}$  could stem from any state located on the gray circle around the prior mean, not only  $\underline{x}_{true}$ . Hence, a Nonlinear Kalman Filter cannot gain any new information about the hidden system state from the measurement  $\tilde{y}$ . This situation is reflected in a zero cross-covariance matrix of state and measurement  $\mathbf{C}^{x,y}$  in (5) and (6). Consequently, the posterior state estimate (mean and covariance matrix) equals the prior, no matter what prior uncertainty we have.

Now, we try to reproduce this result when using LRKFs. More precisely, we compare the asymmetric S<sup>2</sup>KF, its new point-symmetric version (both using 11 samples), and the UKF. We perform  $R = 100$  Monte Carlo runs. In each run, we reset the initial state estimate, and simulate a noisy measurement  $\tilde{y}$  to perform one measurement update. Moreover, both S<sup>2</sup>KF variants compute a new set of samples approximating a standard normal distribution in every Monte Carlo run. We compute the Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) for the posterior mean

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{R} \sum_{r=1}^R \|\hat{\underline{x}}_r^e - \hat{\underline{x}}^p\|_2^2},$$

where  $\hat{\underline{x}}_r^e$  denotes the estimated posterior mean of run  $r$ . Additionally, we compute the RMSE of the posterior covariance matrix

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{R} \sum_{r=1}^R \|\mathbf{C}_r^e - \mathbf{C}^p\|^2},$$

where  $\mathbf{C}_r^e$  denotes estimated posterior covariance matrix of run  $r$  and  $\|\cdot\|$  the Frobenius norm.

The results of the evaluation are depicted in Fig. 7. It can be seen that the UKF and the point-symmetric S<sup>2</sup>KF do not have any errors. This can be explained with their point-symmetric sampling scheme. More precisely, the cross-covariance matrix is computed correctly according to

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{C}^{x,y} &= \frac{1}{2L+1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \left( \hat{y} - \sqrt{(a_i)^2 + (b_i)^2} \right) \\ &+ \frac{1}{2L+1} \sum_{i=1}^L \left( \begin{bmatrix} a_i \\ b_i \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} a_i \\ b_i \end{bmatrix} \right) \left( \hat{y} - \sqrt{(a_i)^2 + (b_i)^2} \right) \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \end{aligned}$$

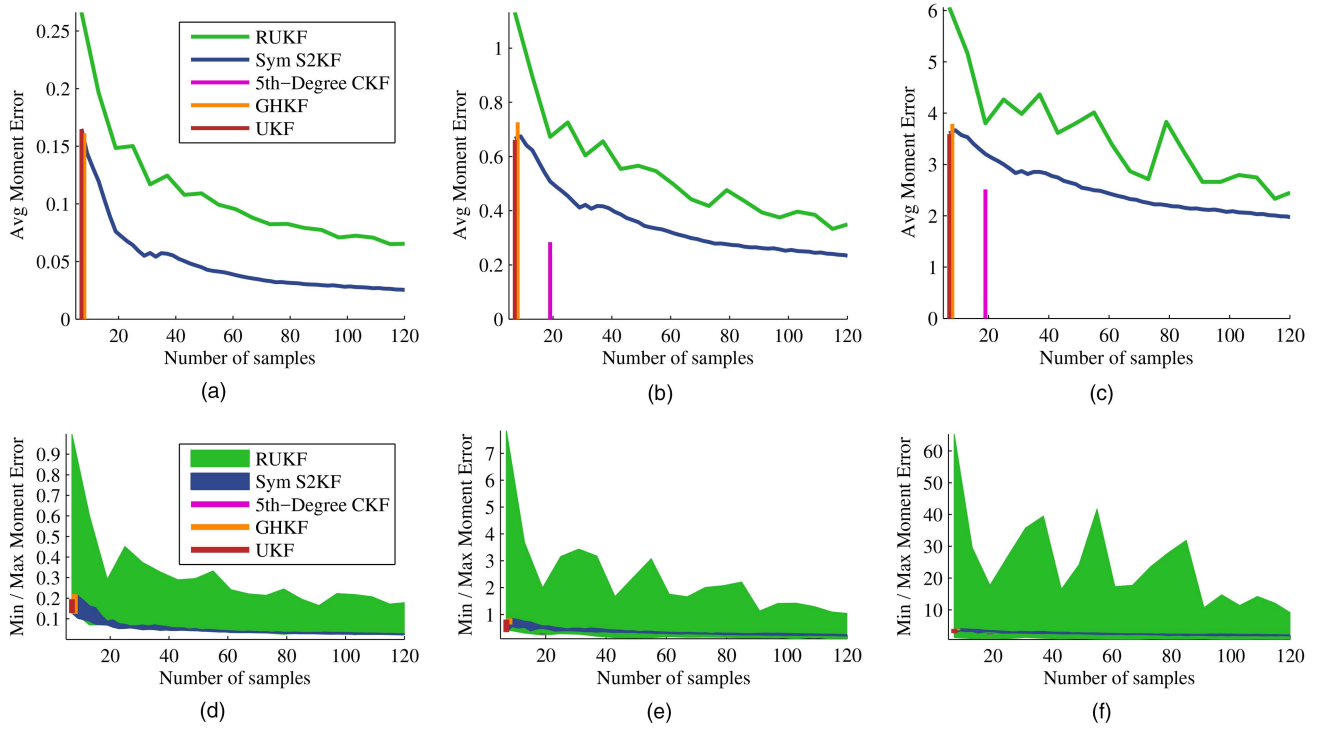


Fig. 4. Moment errors of a 3D standard normal distribution. (a) Average errors 4th moment. (b) Average errors 6th moment. (c) Average errors 8th moment. (d) Min/Max errors 4th moment. (e) Min/Max errors 6th moment. (f) Min / Max errors 8th moment.

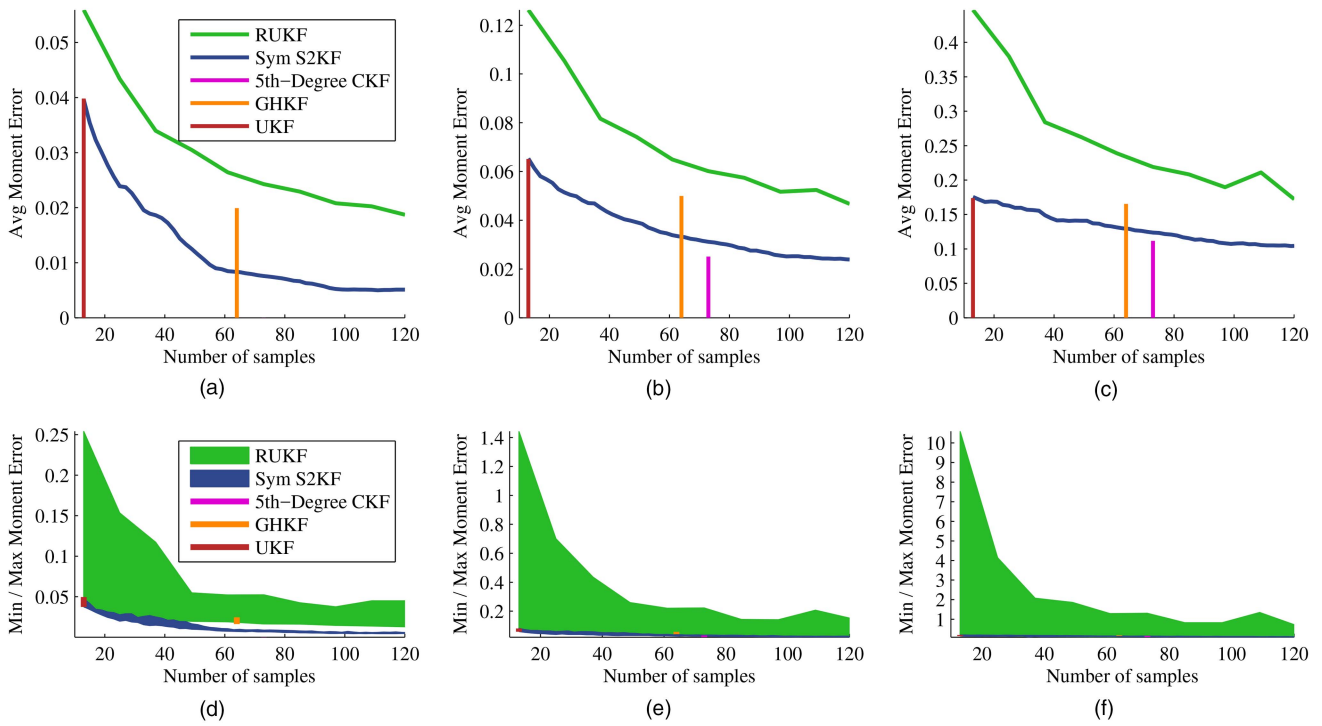


Fig. 5. Moment errors of a 6D standard normal distribution. (a) Average errors 4th moment. (b) Average errors 6th moment. (c) Average errors 8th moment. (d) Min/Max errors 4th moment. (e) Min/Max errors 6th moment. (f) Min/Max errors 8th moment.

where  $\hat{y}$  is the measurement mean,  $L = 2$  for the UKF, and  $L = 5$  for the point-symmetric  $S^2$ KF. For the asymmetric sampling scheme, however, point-symmetric samples cannot be guaranteed, and hence, the cross-covariance matrix  $C^{x,y}$  do not necessarily evaluates to

zero. In such a case, it introduces (theoretically non-existent) correlations between the measurement and the system state. As a consequence, the asymmetric  $S^2$ KF slightly changes its state estimate mistakenly. Over time, those small errors can accumulate to non-negligible es-

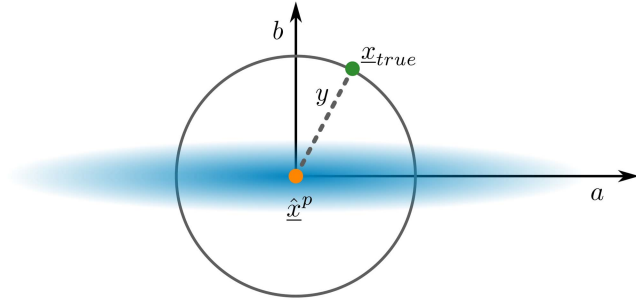


Fig. 6. Symmetric measurement model with prior mean (orange), prior uncertainty (blue), true system state (green).

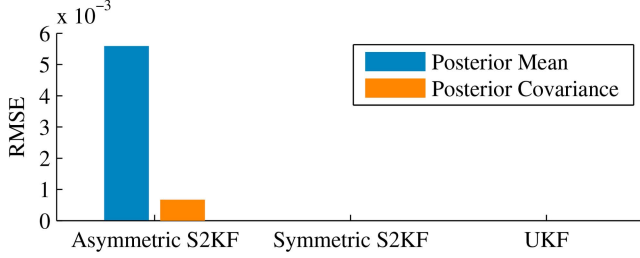


Fig. 7. Estimation errors for symmetric measurement model.

timization errors or even result in filter divergence. The other estimators do not have such a problem due to their point-symmetric sampling. So even such a simple scenario demonstrates the advantages of the new point-symmetric sampling scheme of the S<sup>2</sup>KF.

### C. Extended Object Tracking

Now, we consider estimating the pose and extent of a cylinder in 3D based on a Random Hypersurface Model (RHM) [33], [34]. The system state is composed of position  $\underline{c}_k = [c_k^x, c_k^y, c_k^z]^T$  and velocity  $\underline{v}_k = [v_k^x, v_k^y, v_k^z]^T$ , rotation angles  $\underline{\phi}_k = [\phi_k^x, \phi_k^y]^T$  and their velocities  $\underline{\omega}_k = [\omega_k^x, \omega_k^y]^T$ , as well as the cylinder radius  $r_k$  and length  $l_k$  according to

$$\underline{x}_k = [\underline{c}_k^T, \underline{v}_k^T, \underline{\phi}_k^T, \underline{\omega}_k^T, r_k, l_k]^T.$$

The temporal evolution of the cylinder is modeled with a constant velocity model

$$\underline{x}_k = \mathbf{A}\underline{x}_{k-1} + \underline{w},$$

with system matrix

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_3 & \mathbf{I}_3 & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I}_3 & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I}_2 & \mathbf{I}_2 & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I}_2 & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I}_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

and zero-mean Gaussian white noise  $\underline{w}$  with covariance matrix

$$\mathbf{C}^w = \text{diag}(10^{-6}\mathbf{I}_3, 10^{-4}\mathbf{I}_3, 10^{-10}\mathbf{I}_2, 10^{-5}\mathbf{I}_2, 10^{-4}\mathbf{I}_2).$$

TABLE I  
LRKF settings for the measurement update.

LRKF	Number of samples
Fifth-degree CKF	$2 \cdot 92^2 + 1 = 16,929$
RUKF (with 5 iterations)	$5 \cdot (2 \cdot 92) + 1 = 921$
RUKF (with 20 iterations)	$20 \cdot (2 \cdot 92) + 1 = 1,841$
Asymmetric S <sup>2</sup> KF	Freely selectable
Asymmetric S <sup>2</sup> KF	Freely selectable
Symmetric S <sup>2</sup> KF	Freely selectable
Symmetric S <sup>2</sup> KF	Freely selectable

This linear model allows to compute the prediction step analytically for all LRKFs.

A measurement is a noisy point

$$\tilde{\underline{y}}_k = [\tilde{y}_k^x, \tilde{y}_k^y, \tilde{y}_k^z]^T$$

from the cylinder's surface. It is related to the system state by means of the implicit nonlinear measurement equation

$$\underline{0} = \underline{h}(\underline{x}_k, \tilde{\underline{y}}_k, \underline{v}, s) = \begin{bmatrix} (m_k^x)^2 + (m_k^y)^2 - r_k^2 \\ m_k^z - s \cdot l_k \\ (m_k^z - s \cdot l_k)^2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (17)$$

where

$$\underline{m}_k = (\mathbf{R}(\phi_k^y) \cdot \mathbf{R}(\phi_k^x))^{-1}(\tilde{\underline{y}}_k - \underline{v} - \underline{c}_k),$$

and zero-mean Gaussian white noise  $\underline{v}$  with covariance matrix  $\mathbf{C}^v = 0.01 \cdot \mathbf{I}_3$  and multiplicative white noise  $s \sim \mathcal{U}(-0.5, 0.5)$ .<sup>2</sup> Furthermore,  $\mathbf{R}(\cdot)$  denotes a 3D rotation matrix around the respective axis. It is important to note that the measurement equation itself depends on the received measurement  $\tilde{\underline{y}}_k$ , and the estimator only takes the so-called pseudo measurement  $\underline{0}$  as input. The reason for this is that the proposed measurement model tries to minimize the Euclidean distance between the received measurements  $\tilde{\underline{y}}_k$  and the cylinder's surface, and thus, generates measurements of value zero in the optimal case. Note also that the quadratic term in the last row of (17) is necessary when dealing with multiplicative noise in combination with Kalman Filters [33], [35].

At each time step, we receive a set of 20 measurements

$$\mathcal{Y}_k = \{\tilde{\underline{y}}_k^{(1)}, \dots, \tilde{\underline{y}}_k^{(20)}\}.$$

As the order of processing measurements affects the filtered state estimate, we do not process measurements sequentially. More precisely, we process all measurements *at once*, that is, in a single measurement update, by stacking the measurements into a large measurement vector according to

$$\begin{bmatrix} \underline{0} \\ \vdots \\ \underline{0} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{h}(\underline{x}_k, \tilde{\underline{y}}_k^{(1)}, \underline{v}^{(1)}, s^{(1)}) \\ \vdots \\ \underline{h}(\underline{x}_k, \tilde{\underline{y}}_k^{(20)}, \underline{v}^{(20)}, s^{(20)}) \end{bmatrix}.$$

<sup>2</sup>As LRKFs can only sample Gaussian distributions, the uniform distribution will be approximated as a Gaussian using moment matching.

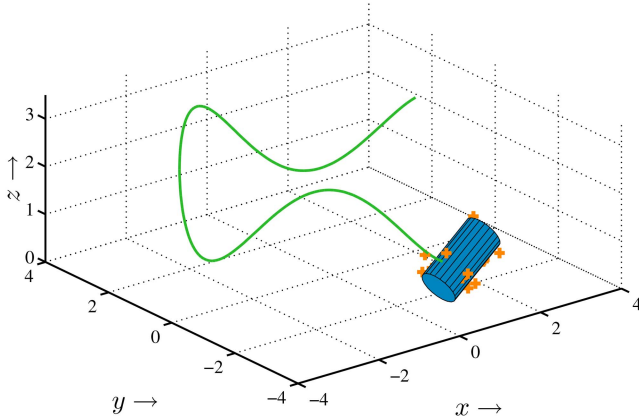


Fig. 8. Cylinder state (blue) after 360 time steps inclusive its trajectory (green line) and 20 noisy measurements (orange crosses).

This, in turn, requires a set of  $20 \cdot 4 = 80$  measurement noise variables in total. Together with the twelve-dimensional system state, a LRKF has to sample a 92-dimensional random vector to perform a measurement update. The number of samples used by the investigated LRKFs are summarized in Table I. It should be noted that the GHKF [12] is intractable for the considered scenario as it relies on a Cartesian product and would require at least  $2^{92}$  samples. In addition, the UKF is not able to estimate the cylinder's height as discussed in [20], and hence, it is also not evaluated here.

We simulate a nonlinear trajectory of a cylinder over 500 time steps including rotations in all its three degrees of freedom as depicted in Fig. 8. Additionally, the initial cylinder's length of 1 increases to 1.5 after 200 time steps, and the initial radius of 0.3 increases to 0.4 after further 100 time steps. Finally, at time step 400, the cylinder's length shrinks back to 0.5. We perform 100 Monte Carlo runs. In each run, we initialize the estimators with

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_0^e = [\hat{\mathbf{c}}^T, 0, \dots, 0, 1, 2]^T$$

$$\mathbf{C}_0^e = \text{diag}(\mathbf{C}^c, 10^{-3}\mathbf{I}_3, 10^{-7}\mathbf{I}_4, 10^{-2}\mathbf{I}_2),$$

where  $\hat{\mathbf{c}}$  denotes the mean and  $\mathbf{C}^c$  the covariance of the first set of measurements  $\mathcal{Y}_0$ . For each investigated LRKF, we compute the cylinder position RMSE (Fig. 9(a)), the RMSE of the angle between the true cylinder longitudinal axis and the estimated one (Fig. 9(b)), as well as the cylinder volume RMSE (Fig. 9(c)). Regarding the cylinder position, the RUKF instances were the filters with the largest errors although they used the same or twice the number of samples of the  $\text{S}^2\text{KF}$  variants. The asymmetric  $\text{S}^2\text{KF}$  was a little bit less accurate than the symmetric  $\text{S}^2\text{KF}$  and the fifth-degree CKF. Same results can be observed for the cylinder orientation error. For the cylinder volume error, all estimators had noticeable error peaks at time steps 200, 300, and 400. These can be explained with the abrupt shape changes of the cylinder at the respective time steps. Furthermore, the fifth-degree CKF is not as

good as in the other estimation quality criteria, and also the asymmetric  $\text{S}^2\text{KF}$  is slightly better than the symmetric  $\text{S}^2\text{KF}$  in the beginning.

However, when looking at the runtimes of the respective LRKF measurement updates in Fig. 9(d), the fifth-degree CKF was the slowest filter due to its large amount of samples. The runtimes of the asymmetric and the symmetric  $\text{S}^2\text{KF}$  were nearly identical as they used the same number of samples. For the case when the RUKF and the  $\text{S}^2\text{KF}$  variants used the same number of samples, the RUKF was slower (11.5 ms compared to 4.5 ms) due to the additional overhead resulting from the creation of several 92-dimensional random orthogonal matrices during each measurement update. All in all, both  $\text{S}^2\text{KF}$  variants were the filters yielding the best compromise between runtime performance and estimation accuracy. Moreover, this illustrates the advantage of being able to select the number of samples independently of the state/noise dimensions, in contrast to the fifth-degree CKF.

## V. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we introduced a new point-symmetric Gaussian sampling scheme for the Smart Sampling Kalman Filter. This reflects the point symmetry of the Gaussian distribution, allows for matching all odd moments of a standard normal distribution exactly, and improves the estimation quality of the  $\text{S}^2\text{KF}$ .

After describing the structure of a sample-based Kalman Filter, we extended the general Dirac mixture to a point-symmetric form by distinguishing between an even and an odd number of samples. Then, we adapted the existing LCD distance measure to these new Dirac mixtures and also gave formulas for their respective gradients. These are required by the iterative optimization procedure which optimizes the Dirac mixture parameters to optimally approximate a multi-dimensional standard normal distribution with a set of equally weighted point-symmetric samples. Furthermore, we improved the numerical stability of the optimization, and together with the halved number of Dirac mixture parameters to be optimized, now it is possible to compute optimal approximations of thousand-dimensional standard normal distributions comprising tens of thousands of samples. As the Progressive Gaussian Filter also relies on the  $\text{S}^2\text{KF}$  Gaussian sampling technique, it can directly use and benefit from the new point-symmetric sampling scheme.

The evaluations showed that the  $\text{S}^2\text{KF}$  can handle symmetric measurement equations now much better when using the new symmetric sampling scheme. It was also shown that the  $\text{S}^2\text{KF}$  gave the best compromise between estimation accuracy and filter runtime when dealing with high-dimensional problems such as extended object tracking. Additionally, this illustrated the advantage of the  $\text{S}^2\text{KF}$  being able to use an arbitrary number of samples independent of the state/noise dimensions.

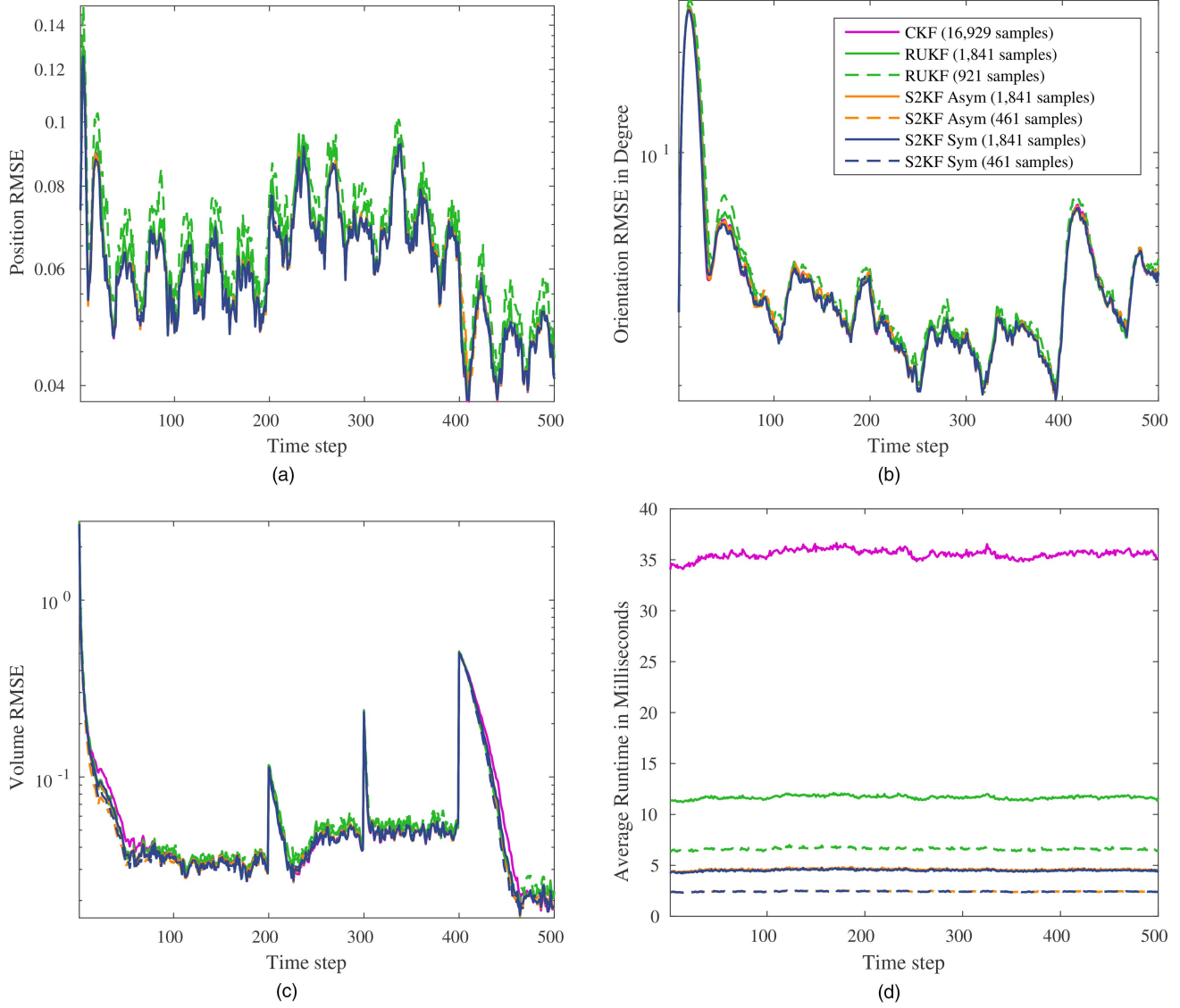


Fig. 9. Cylinder tracking simulation results. (a) Cylinder position error. (b) Cylinder orientation error. (c) Cylinder volume error. (d) Measurement update runtime.

Finally, an open source implementation of the S<sup>2</sup>KF including both the new point-symmetric Gaussian sampling and the asymmetric Gaussian sampling is available in the Nonlinear Estimation Toolbox [30].

## APPENDIX

### A. Odd Moments of a Point-Symmetric Dirac Mixture

The odd moments of an arbitrary density function  $f(\underline{x})$  with  $\underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^N$  are defined as

$$\mathbb{E}_f \left[ \prod_{j=1}^N x_j^{n_j} \right] = \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \prod_{j=1}^N x_j^{n_j} \cdot f(\underline{x}) d\underline{x},$$

where

$$\sum_{j=1}^N n_j = 2k + 1, \quad 0 \leq n_j \leq 2k + 1, \quad k \in \mathbb{N}.$$

For a standard normal distribution, i.e.,  $f(\underline{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\underline{x}; \underline{0}, \mathbf{I}_N)$ , all odd moments equals zero. Hence, we have to show that this also holds for a point-symmetric Dirac mixture density function comprising  $2L$  samples. By replacing the density  $f(\underline{x})$  with a point-symmetric Dirac mixture approximation we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_\delta \left[ \prod_{j=1}^N x_j^{n_j} \right] &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \prod_{j=1}^N x_j^{n_j} \frac{1}{2L} \sum_{i=1}^L \delta(\underline{x} - \underline{x}_i) + \delta(\underline{x} + \underline{x}_i) d\underline{x} \\ &= \frac{1}{2L} \sum_{i=1}^L \left( \prod_{j=1}^N x_{i,j}^{n_j} + \prod_{j=1}^N (-x_{i,j})^{n_j} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2L} \sum_{i=1}^L \left( \prod_{j=1}^N x_{i,j}^{n_j} - \prod_{j=1}^N x_{i,j}^{n_j} \right) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

The same result can be easily obtained for the case of an odd number of samples  $2L + 1$  where the additional sample is placed at the state space origin.

### B. Proof of Distance $D^e(S)$

By using the facts that the distance  $D^e(S)$  is composed of sums of products of unnormalized Gaussians and their product is also an unnormalized Gaussian as well as the integral over a Gaussian equals always one, the three terms of the distance  $D^e(S)$  are obtained according to

$$\begin{aligned} D_1^e &= \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{1}{\pi^{N/2} b^{N-1}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \left( \frac{b^2}{1+b^2} \right)^N \\ &\quad \cdot (2\pi)^N (1+b^2)^N \mathcal{N}(\underline{m}; \underline{0}, (1+b^2)\mathbf{I}_N)^2 d\underline{m} db \\ &= \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{1}{\pi^{N/2} b^{N-1}} \left( \frac{b^2}{1+b^2} \right)^N \pi^{\frac{N}{2}} (1+b^2)^{N/2} db \\ &= \int_0^{b_{\max}} b \left( \frac{b^2}{1+b^2} \right)^{N/2} db, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} D_2^e(S) &= \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{1}{\pi^{N/2} b^{N-1}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \left( \frac{b^2}{1+b^2} \right)^{N/2} \\ &\quad \cdot (2\pi)^{N/2} (1+b^2)^{N/2} \\ &\quad \cdot \mathcal{N}(\underline{m}; \underline{0}, (1+b^2)\mathbf{I}_N) \frac{(2\pi)^{N/2} b^N}{2L} \\ &\quad \cdot \sum_{i=1}^L \mathcal{N}(\underline{m}; \underline{s}_i, b^2\mathbf{I}_N) + \mathcal{N}(\underline{m}; -\underline{s}_i, b^2\mathbf{I}_N) d\underline{m} db \\ &= \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{2^N \pi^{N/2} b^{N+1}}{2L} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{N/2} (1+2b^2)^{N/2}} \\ &\quad \cdot \sum_{i=1}^L \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i\|_2^2}{(1+2b^2)}\right) \\ &\quad + \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|-\underline{s}_i\|_2^2}{(1+2b^2)}\right) db \\ &= \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{2b}{2L} \left( \frac{2b^2}{1+2b^2} \right)^{N/2} \\ &\quad \cdot \sum_{i=1}^L \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i\|_2^2}{(1+2b^2)}\right) db, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} D_3^e(S) &= \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{1}{\pi^{N/2} b^{N-1}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \left( \frac{(2\pi)^{N/2} b^N}{2L} \right)^2 \\ &\quad \cdot \sum_{i=1}^L \mathcal{N}(\underline{m}; \underline{s}_i, b^2\mathbf{I}_N) + \mathcal{N}(\underline{m}; -\underline{s}_i, b^2\mathbf{I}_N) \\ &\quad \cdot \sum_{j=1}^L \mathcal{N}(\underline{m}; \underline{s}_j, b^2\mathbf{I}_N) + \mathcal{N}(\underline{m}; -\underline{s}_j, b^2\mathbf{I}_N) d\underline{m} db \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{2^N \pi^{N/2} b^{N+1}}{(2L)^2} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{N/2} (2b^2)^{N/2}} \sum_{i=1}^L \sum_{j=1}^L \\ &\quad \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i - \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b^2}\right) + \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i + \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b^2}\right) \\ &\quad + \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|-\underline{s}_i - \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b^2}\right) \\ &\quad + \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_j - \underline{s}_i\|_2^2}{2b^2}\right) db \\ &= \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{2b}{(2L)^2} \sum_{i=1}^L \sum_{j=1}^L \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i - \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b^2}\right) \\ &\quad + \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i + \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b^2}\right) db. \end{aligned}$$

### C. Proof of Theorem III.1

Like in [22], to compute the term  $D_3^e(S)$  we use that for  $z > 0$

$$\int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{2}{b} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{z}{2b^2}\right) db = -\text{Ei}\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{z}{2b_{\max}^2}\right), \quad (18)$$

where  $\text{Ei}(x)$  is the exponential integral defined as

$$\text{Ei}(x) := \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{e^t}{t} dt.$$

Moreover, the product rule gives

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{b_{\max}^2}{2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{z}{2b_{\max}^2}\right) &= \int_0^{b_{\max}} b \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{z}{2b^2}\right) db \\ &\quad + \frac{z}{4} \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{1}{b} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{z}{2b^2}\right) db, \end{aligned}$$

and together with (18) we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{b_{\max}} b \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{z}{2b^2}\right) db &= \frac{b_{\max}^2}{2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{z}{2b_{\max}^2}\right) \\ &\quad + \frac{z}{8} \text{Ei}\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{z}{2b_{\max}^2}\right). \quad (19) \end{aligned}$$

Note that, although  $\text{Ei}(x)$  is not defined for  $x = 0$ , the integral in (19) still converges for  $z = 0$  and is equal to  $b_{\max}^2/2$ . Hence, we introduce the function

$$\text{Ei}_0(x) := \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x = 0 \\ \text{Ei}(x), & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases} \quad (20)$$

to also cover the case  $z = 0$ . By replacing  $\text{Ei}(x)$  in (19) with  $\text{Ei}_0(x)$ , we get the closed-form expression

$$\begin{aligned} D_3^e(S) &= \frac{2}{(2L)^2} \sum_{i=1}^L \sum_{j=1}^L \frac{b_{\max}^2}{2} \left( \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i - \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b_{\max}^2} \right) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i + \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b_{\max}^2} \right) \right) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{8} \left( \|\underline{s}_i - \underline{s}_j\|_2^2 \text{Ei}_0 \left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i - \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b_{\max}^2} \right) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \|\underline{s}_i + \underline{s}_j\|_2^2 \text{Ei}_0 \left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i + \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b_{\max}^2} \right) \right). \end{aligned}$$

#### D. Proof of Distance $D^o(S)$

The distance  $D^o(S)$  differs from its even counterpart due to the additional sample placed fixed at the state space origin. This does not effect  $D_1^o$ , and hence, it equals  $D_1^e$ . The other two terms are sums of their reweighted even counterparts (due to the changed sample weight) and terms comprising also products of unnormalized Gaussians. Hence, they are given as

$$\begin{aligned} D_2^o(S) &= \frac{2L}{2L+1} D_2^e(S) + \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{1}{\pi^{N/2} b^{N-1}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \left( \frac{b^2}{1+b^2} \right)^{N/2} \\ &\quad \cdot (2\pi)^{N/2} (1+b^2)^{N/2} \mathcal{N}(\underline{m}; \underline{0}, (1+b^2)\mathbf{I}_N) \\ &\quad \cdot \frac{(2\pi)^{N/2} b^N}{2L+1} \mathcal{N}(\underline{m}; \underline{0}, b^2\mathbf{I}_N) d\underline{m} db \\ &= \frac{2L}{2L+1} D_2^e(S) \\ &\quad + \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{2^N \pi^{N/2} b^{N+1}}{2L+1} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{N/2} (1+2b^2)^{N/2}} db \\ &= \frac{2L}{2L+1} D_2^e(S) + \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{b}{2L+1} \left( \frac{2b^2}{1+2b^2} \right)^{N/2} db \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} D_3^o(S) &= \frac{(2L)^2}{(2L+1)^2} D_3^e(S) + \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{1}{\pi^{N/2} b^{N-1}} \\ &\quad \cdot \int_{\mathbb{R}^N} \left( \frac{(2\pi)^{N/2} b^N}{2L+1} \right)^2 \left( 2 \cdot \mathcal{N}(\underline{m}; \underline{0}, b^2\mathbf{I}_N) \right. \\ &\quad \cdot \left( \sum_{i=1}^L \mathcal{N}(\underline{m}; \underline{s}_i, b^2\mathbf{I}_N) + \mathcal{N}(\underline{m}; -\underline{s}_i, b^2\mathbf{I}_N) \right) \\ &\quad \left. + \mathcal{N}(\underline{m}; \underline{0}, b^2\mathbf{I}_N) \right) d\underline{m} db \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{(2L)^2}{(2L+1)^2} D_3^e(S) + \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{2^N \pi^{N/2} b^{N+1}}{(2L+1)^2} \\ &\quad \cdot \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{N/2} (2b^2)^{N/2}} \left( 2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^L \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i\|_2^2}{2b^2} \right) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i\|_2^2}{2b^2} \right) + 1 \right) db \\ &= \frac{(2L)^2}{(2L+1)^2} D_3^e(S) + \frac{b_{\max}^2}{2(2L+1)^2} \\ &\quad + \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{4b}{(2L+1)^2} \sum_{i=1}^L \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i\|_2^2}{2b^2} \right) db. \end{aligned}$$

#### E. Proof of Theorem III.2

A closed-form expression for  $D_3^o(S)$  can directly be obtained by using again (19) and (20) as well as the closed-form expression for  $D_3^e(S)$  resulting in

$$\begin{aligned} D_3^o(S) &= \frac{(2L)^2}{(2L+1)^2} D_3^e(S) + \frac{b_{\max}^2}{2(2L+1)^2} \\ &\quad + \frac{4}{(2L+1)^2} \sum_{i=1}^L \frac{b_{\max}^2}{2} \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i\|_2^2}{2b_{\max}^2} \right) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{8} \|\underline{s}_i\|_2^2 \text{Ei}_0 \left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i\|_2^2}{2b_{\max}^2} \right). \end{aligned}$$

#### F. Boundedness of $D^e(S)$ and $D^o(S)$

We show the boundedness of the distances  $D^e(S)$  and  $D^o(S)$  for an increasing dimension  $N$ . For a given  $b_{\max}$  it holds

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} D_1^e = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^{b_{\max}} \underbrace{b \left( \frac{b^2}{1+b^2} \right)^{N/2}}_{\rightarrow 0 \text{ for } N \rightarrow \infty} db = 0,$$

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} D_2^e(S) &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{2b}{2L} \left( \frac{2b^2}{1+2b^2} \right)^{N/2} \\ &\quad \cdot \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^L \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i\|_2^2}{(1+2b^2)} \right)}_{\leq L} db \\ &\leq \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^{b_{\max}} \underbrace{b \left( \frac{2b^2}{1+2b^2} \right)^{N/2}}_{\rightarrow 0 \text{ for } N \rightarrow \infty} db = 0, \end{aligned}$$



and

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} D_3^e(S) &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{2b}{(2L)^2} \\ &\quad \cdot \sum_{i=1}^L \sum_{j=1}^L \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i - \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b^2}\right) \\ &\quad + \underbrace{\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i + \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b^2}\right)}_{\leq 2L^2} db \\ &\leq \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^{b_{\max}} b db = \frac{b_{\max}^2}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the distance  $D^e(S)$  is bounded by  $b_{\max}$  according to

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} D^e(S) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} D_1^e - 2D_2^e(S) + D_3^e(S) \leq \frac{b_{\max}^2}{2}.$$

In a similar manner, the same result can be obtained for the distance  $D^o(S)$ .

#### G. Invariance under Rotation/Reflection

We want to proof that the distance measures  $D^e(S)$  and  $D^o(S)$  are invariant under rotation/reflection. Let  $\mathbf{R} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$  be an orthogonal matrix and  $\underline{a}, \underline{b} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ . Then, it holds

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{R}\underline{a}\|_2^2 &= \|\underline{a}\|_2^2 \\ \|\mathbf{R}\underline{a} \pm \mathbf{R}\underline{b}\|_2^2 &= \|\underline{a} \pm \underline{b}\|_2^2. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, given two point-symmetric Dirac mixtures parameterized by the sets

$$A = \{\underline{s}_1, \dots, \underline{s}_L\}$$

and

$$B = \{\mathbf{R}\underline{s}_1, \dots, \mathbf{R}\underline{s}_L\},$$

we directly see that  $D^e(A) = D^e(B)$  and  $D^o(A) = D^o(B)$ .

#### H. Proof of Theorem III.3

With the aid of (18), the terms

$$\int_0^{b_{\max}} \frac{1}{b} (s_i^{(d)} \pm s_j^{(d)}) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i \pm \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b^2}\right) db \quad (21)$$

of (15) can be computed according to

$$-\frac{1}{2} (s_i^{(d)} \pm s_j^{(d)}) \text{Ei}\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i \pm \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b_{\max}^2}\right). \quad (22)$$

For the special case of  $\|\underline{s}_i \pm \underline{s}_j\|_2^2 = 0$  also  $s_i^{(d)} \pm s_j^{(d)}$  equals zero. Consequently, the integral (21) converges to zero as well. Like in the closed-form expression for  $D_3^e(S)$ , we can replace  $\text{Ei}(x)$  in (22) with (20) to

handle such cases and obtain a closed-form expression for  $\partial D_3^e(S)/\partial s_i^{(d)}$  according to

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial D_3^e(S)}{\partial s_i^{(d)}} &= \frac{1}{(2L)^2} \sum_{j=1}^L (s_i^{(d)} - s_j^{(d)}) \text{Ei}_0\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i - \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b_{\max}^2}\right) \\ &\quad + (s_i^{(d)} + s_j^{(d)}) \text{Ei}_0\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i + \underline{s}_j\|_2^2}{2b_{\max}^2}\right). \end{aligned}$$

#### I. Proof of Theorem III.4

A closed-form expression for  $\partial D_3^o(S)/\partial s_i^{(d)}$  can analogously be obtained by exploiting (18) and (22) as well as the closed-form expression for  $\partial D_3^e(S)/\partial s_i^{(d)}$  resulting in

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial D_3^o(S)}{\partial s_i^{(d)}} &= \frac{(2L)^2}{(2L+1)^2} \frac{\partial D_3^e(S)}{\partial s_i^{(d)}} \\ &\quad + \frac{s_i^{(d)}}{(2L+1)^2} \text{Ei}_0\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|\underline{s}_i\|_2^2}{2b_{\max}^2}\right). \end{aligned}$$

#### J. Sample Covariance Matrix Correction

Given a point-symmetric Dirac mixture parameterized by  $\{\underline{z}_i\}_{i=1}^L$ . Our goal is to find a matrix  $\mathbf{T}$  to transform these parameters according to

$$\underline{s}_i = \mathbf{T} \cdot \underline{z}_i, \quad \forall i \in \{1, \dots, L\},$$

such that the sample covariance matrix of the point-symmetric Dirac mixture given by  $\{\underline{s}_i\}_{i=1}^L$  equals the identity, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{C}^s = \frac{2}{M} \sum_{i=1}^L \underline{s}_i \cdot \underline{s}_i^T = \mathbf{I}_N,$$

where  $M = 2L + 1$  or  $M = 2L$ , depending on whether an additional sample is placed at the origin or not. Hence, we set

$$\mathbf{C}^s = \frac{2}{M} \sum_{i=1}^L (\mathbf{T}\underline{z}_i) \cdot (\mathbf{T}\underline{z}_i)^T = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{C}^z\mathbf{T}^T \stackrel{!}{=} \mathbf{I}_N.$$

With the matrix decomposition  $\mathbf{C}^z = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T$ , we see that  $\mathbf{I}_N = (\mathbf{T}\mathbf{A})(\mathbf{T}\mathbf{A})^T$  can be satisfied with  $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$ .  $\mathbf{A}$  can be computed, for example, with the eigendecomposition or Cholesky decomposition of  $\mathbf{C}^z$ .

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