Stochastic Estimation & Probabilistic Robotics

Probability Theory:

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Slides adapted from introduction.ppt, originally by Thrun, Burgard, and Fox at probabilistic-robotics.org

Reading Group Schedule

W1: Wed Apr 2	Probability Theory	Joey
W2: Wed Apr 9	Estimation Theory	Kurt
W3: Wed Apr 16	Kalman Filters	
W4: Wed Apr 23	Particle Filters	
W5: Wed Apr 30	Motion & Sensor Models	Paolo
W6: Wed May 7	Localization	
W7: Wed May 14	Mapping	
W8: Wed May 21	Simultaneous Localization & Mapping	
W9: Wed May 28	Markov Decision Processes	Alexandre
W10: Wed Jun 4	Data Association/Target Tracking	

Projector in room.

Presentation laptop available if needed, contact Joey.

Outline

- Probability theory
- Probability density functions
- Gaussian random variables
- Conditional probability
- Bayes formula
- Stochastic processes
- Markov processes and chains
- Bayes filters

Motivation

Key idea: Explicit representation of uncertainty using the calculus of probability theory

- Perception = state estimation
- Action = utility optimization

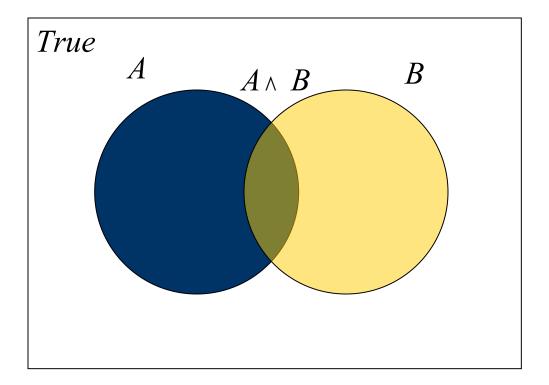
Axioms of Probability Theory

Pr(A) denotes probability that proposition A is true. Let S be the set of all possible outcomes.

- $0 \leq \Pr(A) \leq 1$
- Pr(S) = 1 $Pr(\emptyset) = 0$
- $Pr(A \lor B) = Pr(A) + Pr(B) Pr(A \land B)$

A Closer Look at Axiom 3

$Pr(A \lor B) = Pr(A) + Pr(B) - Pr(A \land B)$



Using the Axioms

 $Pr(A \lor \neg A) = Pr(A) + Pr(\neg A) - Pr(A \land \neg A)$ $Pr(True) = Pr(A) + Pr(\neg A) - Pr(False)$ $1 = Pr(A) + Pr(\neg A) - 0$ $Pr(\neg A) = 1 - Pr(A)$

Discrete Random Variables

•X denotes a random variable.

• X can take on a countable number of values in $\{x_1, x_2, ..., x_n\}$.

• $P(X=x_i)$, or $P(x_i)$, is the probability that the random variable X takes on value x_i .

•*P*(*) is called probability mass function.

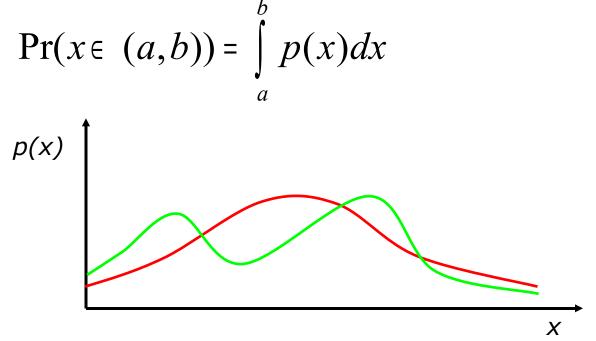
• A proper pmf satisfies:

$$\sum_{x} P(x) = 1$$

Continuous Random Variables

•X takes on values in the continuum.

•p(X=x), or p(x), is a probability density function.





Properties of PDFs

Normalization property

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) dx = 1$$

• Example: Uniform random variable

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{(b-a)} & x \in [a, b] \\ 0 & elsewhere \end{cases}$$

Expectations and Moments

 Expectation value of a scalar random variable (aka mean or average):

$$E[x] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xp(x)dx = \overline{x}$$

•*n*th moment:

$$E[x^n] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^n p(x) dx$$

Variance

•The 2nd central moment is also known as the variance:

$$\operatorname{var}(x) = E[(x - \overline{x})^2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \overline{x})^2 p(x) dx$$

$$var(x) = E[x^{2}] - (\bar{x})^{2} = \sigma_{x}^{2}$$

•The square root of the variance, σ , is also called the standard deviation.

Joint Probability

•
$$P(X=x \text{ and } Y=y) = P(x,y)$$

• If X and Y are independent then P(x,y) = P(x) P(y)

Covariance

•The covariance of two scalar random variables x and y:

$$\operatorname{cov}(x, y) = E[(x - \overline{x})(y - \overline{y})] = \sigma_{xy}^{2}$$

Correlation

•The correlation coefficient between x and y:

$$\rho_{xy} = \frac{\sigma_{xy}^2}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

Because of normalization:

$$\left|\rho_{xy}\right| \leq 1$$

More on Correlation

• Uncorrelated:

$$\left|\rho\right|_{xy} = 0$$

$$E[xy] = E[x]E[y]$$

•Linearly dependent:

$$\left|\rho_{xy}\right| = 1$$

$$ax + by = 0$$

Joint and Marginal PDFs

Marginal PDF for one random variable:

$$p(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x, y) dy$$

• If a set of random variables are independent, their joint PDF satisfies:

p(x, y) = p(x)p(y)

Random Vectors

•Vector-valued random variable:

$$x = [x_1 \cdots x_n]$$

• Expectation value of *x*:

$$E[x] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xp(x) dx_1 \cdots dx_n = \overline{x}$$

•The covariance matrix of x:

$$\operatorname{cov}(x) = E[(x - \overline{x})(x - \overline{x})'] = P_{xx}$$

Characteristic Function

• The characteristic function of x is the ndimensional Fourier transform of its PDF:

$$M_x(s) = E[e^{s'x}] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{s'x} p(x) dx$$

•The moments of x can be found using gradients of M_x , eg:

 $E[x] = \nabla_{s} M_{x}(s)|_{s=0}$

 Characteristic function = moment generating function.

Gaussian distributions

•The PDF of a Gaussian or normal random variable:

scalar:
$$p(x) = N(x; \overline{x}, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-x)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

vector:
$$p(x) = |2\pi P|^{-1/2} e^{-(1/2)(x-\bar{x})'P^{-1}(x-\bar{x})}$$

• Has a mean of E[x] and a variance of σ^2 .

Joint Gaussians

•To variables x and z are jointly Gaussian if:

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ z \end{bmatrix} \qquad p(x,z) = p(y) = N(y; \overline{y}, P_{yy})$$

• The mean and covariance of *y* :

$$\overline{y} = \begin{bmatrix} \overline{x} \\ \overline{z} \end{bmatrix} \qquad P_{yy} = \begin{bmatrix} P_{xx} & P_{xz} \\ P_{zx} & P_{zz} \end{bmatrix}$$

Conditional Gaussians

• The conditional PDF for x given z:

$$p(x \mid z) = \frac{p(x, z)}{p(z)}$$

•The conditional mean and covariance of x given z:

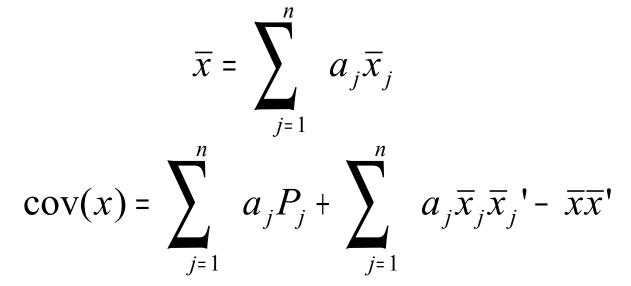
$$E[x | z] = \bar{x} + P_{xz} P_{zz}^{-1} (z - \bar{z})$$
$$cov(x | z) = P_{xx} - P_{xz} P_{zz}^{-1} P_{zx}$$

Mixture PDFs

• A mixture PDF is a weighted sum of PDFs:

$$p(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{j} p_{j}(x)$$

Mean and covariance of a mixture:



Conditional Probability

• $P(x \mid y)$ is the probability of x given y $P(x \mid y) = P(x,y) / P(y)$ $P(x,y) = P(x \mid y) P(y)$

• If X and Y are independent then P(x | y) = P(x)

• The same rules hold for PDFs: p(x | y) = p(x,y) / p(y)

Conditional Expectation

 Conditional expectation, expectation with respect to a conditional PDF:

$$E[x \mid z] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xp(x \mid z) dx$$

• Law of iterated expectations:

E[E[x | z]] = E[x]

Total Probability Theorem

Discrete case

Continuous case

$$\sum_{x} P(x) = 1 \qquad \qquad \int p(x) \, dx = 1$$

$$P(x) = \sum_{y} P(x, y) \qquad p(x) = \int p(x, y) \, dy$$

$$P(x) = \sum_{y} P(x | y)P(y)$$
 $p(x) = \int p(x | y)p(y) dy$

Bayes Formula

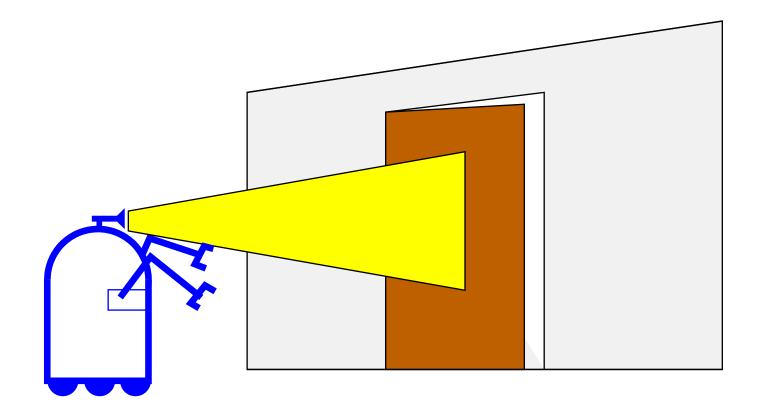
$$P(x, y) = P(x \mid y)P(y) = P(y \mid x)P(x)$$

 \Rightarrow

$$P(x|y) = \frac{P(y|x) P(x)}{P(y)} = \frac{\text{likelihood} \cdot \text{prior}}{\text{evidence}}$$

Simple Example of State Estimation

Suppose a robot obtains measurement z
What is P(open|z)?



Causal vs. Diagnostic Reasoning

- •*P(open|z)* is diagnostic.
- •*P*(*z*|*open*) is causal.
- Often causal knowledge is easier to obtain.

 Bayes rule allows us to use causal knowledge:

$$P(open \mid z) = \frac{P(z \mid open)P(open)}{P(z)}$$

Example

• P(z|open) = 0.6 $P(z|\neg open) = 0.3$

•
$$P(open) = P(\neg open) = 0.5$$

$$P(open \mid z) = \frac{P(z \mid open)P(open)}{P(z \mid open)P(open) + P(z \mid \neg open)P(\neg open)}$$
$$P(open \mid z) = \frac{0.6 \cdot 0.5}{0.6 \cdot 0.5 + 0.3 \cdot 0.5} = \frac{2}{3} = 0.67$$

• z raises the probability that the door is open.

Combining Evidence

• Suppose our robot obtains another observation z_2 .

How can we integrate this new information?

• More generally, how can we estimate $P(x | z_1...z_n)$?

Conditional Independence

$$P(x, y \mid z) = P(x \mid z)P(y \mid z)$$

equivalent to P(x|z) = P(x|z,y)and P(y|z) = P(y|z,x)

Bayes Rule with Background Knowledge

$$P(x \mid z_1, z_2) = \frac{P(z_1, z_2 \mid x)P(x)}{P(z_1, z_2)}$$

$$= \frac{P(z_2 | x, z_1) P(z_1 | x) P(x)}{P(z_2 | z_1) P(z_1)}$$

 $= \frac{P(z_2 \mid x, z_1) P(x \mid z_1)}{P(z_2 \mid z_1)}$

Recursive Bayesian Updating

$$P(x \mid z_1,...,z_n) = \frac{P(z_n \mid x, z_1,...,z_{n-1}) P(x \mid z_1,...,z_{n-1})}{P(z_n \mid z_1,...,z_{n-1})}$$

Markov assumption: z_n is independent of z_1, \ldots, z_{n-1} if we know *x*.

$$P(x | z_1,...,z_n) = \frac{P(z_n | x) P(x | z_1,...,z_{n-1})}{P(z_n | z_1,...,z_{n-1})}$$

Example: Second Measurement

•
$$P(z_2|open) = 0.5$$
 $P(z_2|\neg open) = 0.6$

•
$$P(open|z_l) = 2/3$$

 $P(open | z_2, z_1) = \frac{P(z_2 | open) P(open | z_1)}{P(z_2 | open) P(open | z_1) + P(z_2 | \neg open) P(\neg open | z_1)}$ $= \frac{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3}}{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3} + \frac{3}{5} \cdot \frac{1}{3}} = \frac{5}{8} = 0.625$

• *z*₂ lowers the probability that the door is open.

Actions

Often the world is dynamic since

- actions carried out by the robot,
- actions carried out by other agents,
- or just the time passing by

change the world.

How can we incorporate such actions?

Typical Actions

•The robot **turns its wheels** to move

- The robot uses its manipulator to grasp an object
- Plants grow over time...

 Actions are never carried out with absolute certainty.

• In contrast to measurements, actions generally increase the uncertainty.

Stochastic Processes

•A function of time and some random experiment *w*:

$$x(t) = x(t, w)$$

• Mean of the stochastic process at *t*:

$$\overline{x}(t) = E[x(t)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \xi p_{x(t)}(\xi) d\xi$$

Properties of Stochastic Processes

• Autocorrelation:

$$R(t_1, t_2) = E[x(t_1)x(t_2)]$$

•Autocovariance:

$$V(t_1, t_2) = E[(x(t_1) - \overline{x}(t_1))(x(t_2) - \overline{x}(t_2))]$$

= $R(t_1, t_2) - \overline{x}(t_1)\overline{x}(t_2)$

More Properties

• Stationary if for all $t_1 \& t_2$:

 $E[t_1] = E[t_2]$ $R(t_1, t_2) = R(t_1 - t_2)$

• Ergodic if stationary and:

$$\lim_{T\to\infty}\frac{1}{2T}\int_{-T}^{T}x(t)dt = \bar{x}$$

Random Walk

• Wiener-Levy or Brownian motion, steps of size s at intervals of Δ s.t.:

$$\frac{S}{\sqrt{\Delta}} \rightarrow \sqrt{\alpha}$$

 Produces stochastic process w(t) with a Gaussian PDF:

$$p(w(t)) = N(w(t);0,\alpha t)$$

Markov Processes

•"The future is independent of the past if the present is known"

Brownian motion is a Markov process as:

$$w(t) = w(t_1) + \int_{t_1}^t n(\tau) d\tau$$

Also, LTI excited by stationary white noise

 $\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bn(t)$

is a stationary Markov process.

Random Sequences

•Time-indexed sequence of random variables:

$$X^{k} = \{x(j)\}_{j=1}^{k}$$
 $k = 1, 2, ...$

• A sequence is Markov if:

 $p(x(k) | X^{j}) = p(x(k) | x(j))$

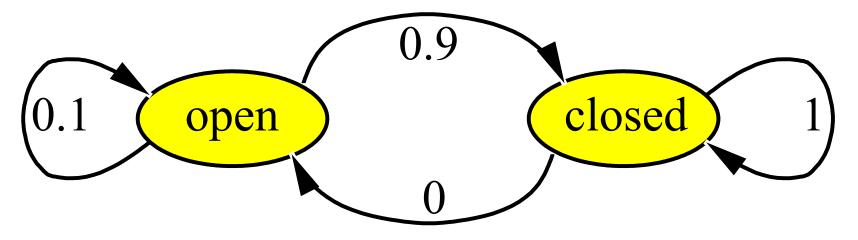
Markov Chains

•A Markov sequence in which state space is discrete and finite:

$$x(k) \in \{x_i, i = 1...n\}$$

• With state transition probabilities:

$$P\{x(k) = x_j \mid x(k-1) = x_i\} = \pi_{ij}$$



More Markov Chains

•Vector of probabilities of being in each state: $u(k) = [u_1(k), ..., u_n(k)]$

$$u(k) = [u_1(k), \dots, u_n(k)]$$
$$u_1(k) = P\{x(k) = x_i\}$$

•Time evolution given by:

$$u_i(k+1) = \sum_{j=1}^n \pi_{ij} u_j(k)$$
 $i = 1...n$

Law of Large Numbers

 Sum of a large number of sufficiently uncorrelated random variables tends towards the expected value

• Given stationary random sequence x with:

$$\lim_{|i-j|\to\infty}\rho(i-j)=0$$

if correlation coefficients -> 0 "sufficiently fast", then $[__n]$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \right] = \overline{x}$$

Central Limit Theorem

• If a sequence consists of independent random variables, then the PDF of

$$z_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

will tend towards a Gaussian.

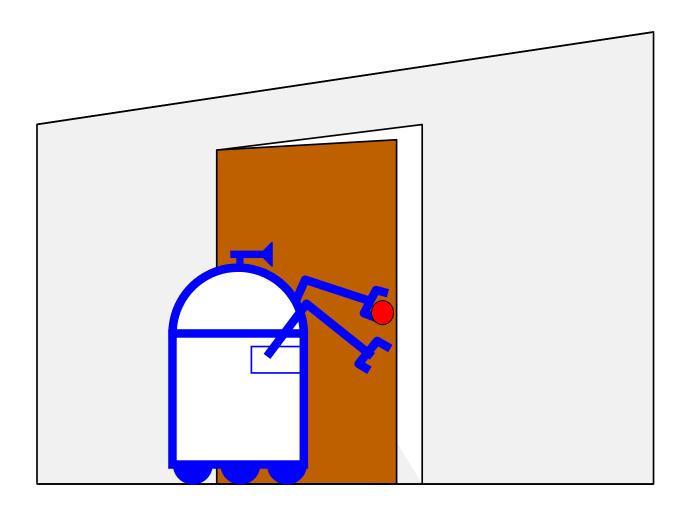
Modeling Actions

•To incorporate the outcome of an action *u* into the current "belief", we use the conditional pdf

P(x|u,x')

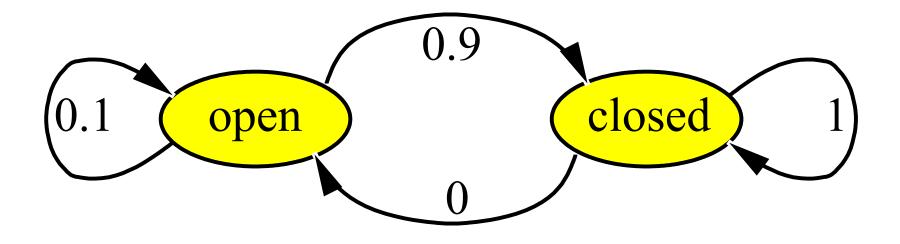
 This term specifies the pdf that executing u changes the state from x' to x.

Example: Closing the door



State Transitions

P(x|u,x') for u = "close door":



If the door is open, the action "close door" succeeds in 90% of all cases.

Integrating the Outcome of Actions

Continuous case:

$$P(x \mid u) = \int P(x \mid u, x') P(x') dx'$$

Discrete case:

$$P(x \mid u) = \sum P(x \mid u, x')P(x')$$

Example: The Resulting Belief

 $P(closed | u) = \sum P(closed | u, x')P(x')$ = P(closed | u, open)P(open)+ P(closed | u, closed)P(closed) $=\frac{9}{10}*\frac{5}{8}+\frac{1}{1}*\frac{3}{8}=\frac{15}{16}$ $P(open | u) = \sum P(open | u, x')P(x')$ = P(open | u, open)P(open)+ P(open | u, closed)P(closed) $= \frac{1}{3} + \frac{5}{3} + \frac{0}{3} + \frac{3}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$ 10 8 1 8 16 = 1 - P(closed | u)

Bayes Filters: Framework

•Given:

• Stream of observations *z* and action data *u*:

$$d_t = \{u_1, z_1, \dots, u_t, z_t\}$$

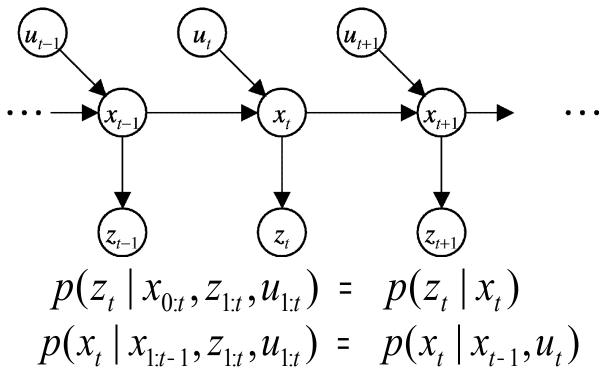
- Sensor model P(z|x).
- Action model P(x|u,x').
- Prior probability of the system state P(x).

•Wanted:

- Estimate of the state *X* of a dynamical system.
- The posterior of the state is also called **Belief**:

$$Bel(x_t) = P(x_t | u_1, z_1 ..., u_t, z_t)$$

Markov Assumption



Underlying Assumptions

- Static world
- Independent noise
- Perfect model, no approximation errors

$$= \eta P(z_t | x_t) \int P(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1}) Bel(x_{t-1}) dx_{t-1}$$

$$Bel(x_t) = \eta P(z_t | x_t) \int P(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1}) Bel(x_{t-1}) dx_{t-1}$$

- 1. Algorithm **Bayes_filter**(*Bel(x),d*):
- **2.** η=0

5.

- 3. If *d* is a perceptual data item *z* then
- 4. For all *x* do
 - $Bel'(x) = P(z \mid x)Bel(x)$
- 6. $\eta = \eta + Bel'(x)$
- 7. For all *x* do

8.
$$Bel'(x) = \eta^{-1}Bel'(x)$$

9. Else if *d* is an action data item *u* then 10. For all *x* do 11. $Bel'(x) = \int P(x | u, x') Bel(x') dx'$

12. Return *Bel'(x)*

Bayes Filters are Common

$$Bel(x_t) = \eta \ P(z_t \mid x_t) \int P(x_t \mid u_t, x_{t-1}) \ Bel(x_{t-1}) \ dx_{t-1}$$

- Kalman filters
- Particle filters
- Hidden Markov models
- Dynamic Bayesian networks
- Partially Observable Markov Decision
 Processes (POMDPs)

Summary

 Bayes rule allows us to compute probabilities that are hard to assess otherwise.

 Under the Markov assumption, recursive Bayesian updating can be used to efficiently combine evidence.

 Bayes filters are a probabilistic tool for estimating the state of dynamic systems.