Announcement

Programming Assignment 4

■ Due: Dec. 1, 11:59pm

Announcement

Homework 4

■ Due: Nov. 26, 11:59pm

Probabilistic Reasoning over Time

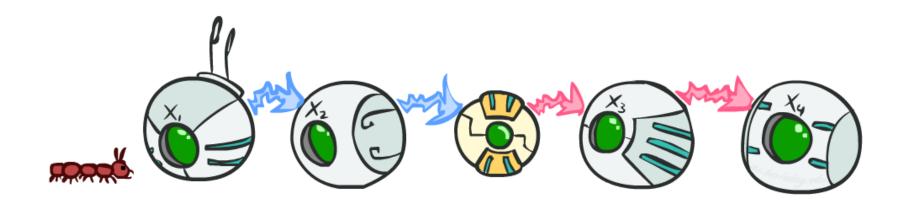


AIMA Chapter 15

Uncertainty and Time

- Often, we want to reason about a sequence of observations
 - Speech recognition
 - Robot localization
 - Medical monitoring
 - User attention
- Need to introduce time into our models

Markov Models



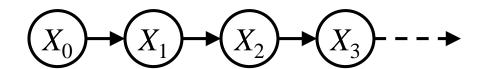
Markov Models (aka Markov chain/process)

- Assume discrete variables that share the same finite domain
 - Values in the domain is called the states

$$(X_0)$$
 X_1 X_2 X_3 X_3 X_4 X_5 X_5 X_5 X_5 X_6 Y_6 Y_6 Y_6 Y_7 Y_8 $Y_$

- The *transition model* $P(X_t \mid X_{t-1})$ specifies how the state evolves over time
- Stationarity assumption: same transition probabilities at all time steps
- Joint distribution $P(X_0,...,X_T) = P(X_0) \prod_t P(X_t \mid X_{t-1})$

Quiz: are Markov models a special case of Bayes nets?

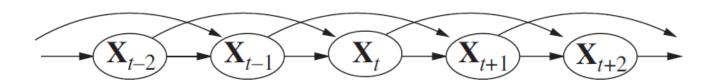


- Yes and no!
- Yes:
 - Directed acyclic graph, joint = product of conditionals
- No:
 - Infinitely many variables (unless we truncate)
 - Repetition of transition model not part of standard Bayes net syntax

Markov Assumption: Conditional Independence



- Markov assumption: X_{t+1} , ... are independent of X_0 ,..., X_{t-1} given X_t
 - Past and future independent given the present
 - Each time step only depends on the previous
- This is a first-order Markov model
- A kth-order model allows dependencies on k earlier steps



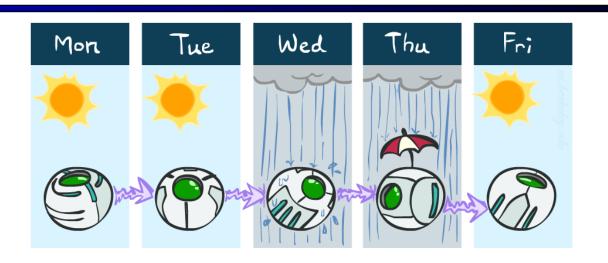
Example: Weather

- States {rain, sun}
- Initial distribution $P(X_0)$

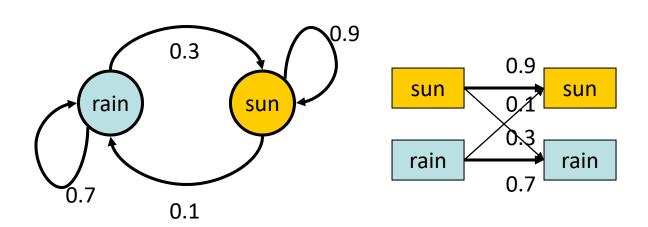
P(X _o)	
sun	rain
0.5	0.5

• Transition model $P(X_t \mid X_{t-1})$

X _{t-1}	$P(X_{t} X_{t-1})$	
	sun	rain
sun	0.9	0.1
rain	0.3	0.7



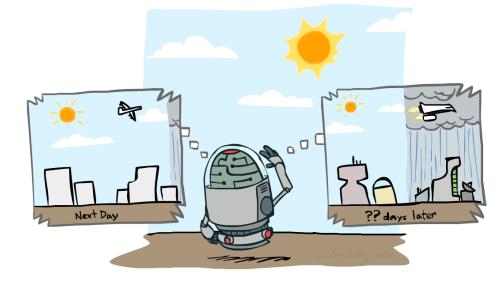
Two new ways of representing the same CPT



Weather prediction

■ Time 0: <0.5,0.5>

X _{t-1}	$P(X_{t} X_{t-1})$	
	sun	rain
sun	0.9	0.1
rain	0.3	0.7

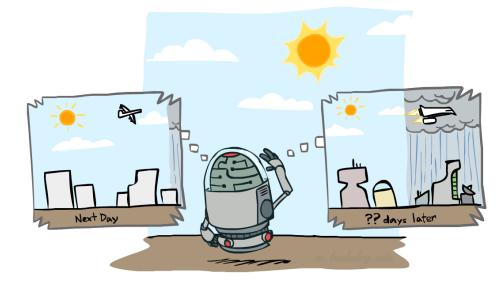


- What is the weather like at time 1?
 - $P(X_1) = \sum_{X_0} P(X_1, X_0 = X_0)$
 - $= \sum_{X_0} P(X_0 = X_0) P(X_1 \mid X_0 = X_0)$
 - **=** 0.5<0.9,0.1> + 0.5<0.3,0.7> = <0.6,0.4>

Weather prediction, contd.

■ Time 1: <0.6,0.4>

X _{t-1}	$P(X_{t} X_{t-1})$	
	sun	rain
sun	0.9	0.1
rain	0.3	0.7

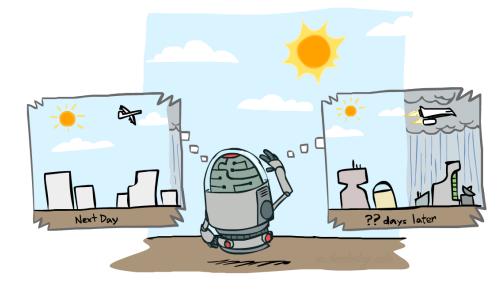


- What is the weather like at time 2?
 - $P(X_2) = \sum_{X_1} P(X_2, X_1 = X_1)$
 - $= \sum_{X_1} P(X_1 = X_1) P(X_2 \mid X_1 = X_1)$
 - = 0.6 < 0.9, 0.1 > + 0.4 < 0.3, 0.7 > = < 0.66, 0.34 >

Weather prediction, contd.

■ Time 2: <0.66,0.34>

X _{t-1}	$P(X_{t} X_{t-1})$	
	sun	rain
sun	0.9	0.1
rain	0.3	0.7



- What is the weather like at time 3?
 - $P(X_3) = \sum_{X_2} P(X_3, X_2 = X_2)$
 - $= \sum_{X_2} P(X_2 = X_2) P(X_3 \mid X_2 = X_2)$
 - = 0.66 < 0.9, 0.1 > + 0.34 < 0.3, 0.7 > = < 0.696, 0.304 >

Forward algorithm (simple form)

• What is the state at time t (given an initial distribution $P(X_0)$)?

$$P(X_{t}) = \sum_{X_{t-1}} P(X_{t}, X_{t-1} = X_{t-1})$$

$$= \sum_{X_{t-1}} P(X_{t-1} = X_{t-1}) P(X_{t} \mid X_{t-1} = X_{t-1})$$
Probability from previous iteration

Transition model

Iterate this update starting at t=0

Example Run of Mini-Forward Algorithm

From initial observation of sun

X _{t-1}	X _t	$P(X_{t} X_{t-1})$
sun	sun	0.9
sun	rain	0.1
rain	sun	0.3
rain	rain	0.7

From initial observation of rain

• From yet another initial distribution $P(X_0)$:

$$\left\langle \begin{array}{c} p \\ 1-p \\ P(X_0) \end{array} \right\rangle \qquad \cdots \qquad \left\langle \begin{array}{c} 0.75 \\ 0.25 \\ P(X_{\infty}) \end{array} \right\rangle$$

Stationary Distributions

For most chains:

- Influence of the initial distribution gets less and less over time.
- The distribution we end up in is independent of the initial distribution

Stationary distribution:

- The distribution we end up with is called the stationary distribution P_{∞} of the chain
- It satisfies

$$P_{\infty}(X) = P_{\infty+1}(X) = \sum_{x} P(X|x)P_{\infty}(x)$$

Example: Stationary Distributions

Computing the stationary distribution

$$X_0 \rightarrow X_1 \rightarrow X_2 \rightarrow X_3 \rightarrow X_3$$

$$P_{\infty}(sun) = P(sun|sun)P_{\infty}(sun) + P(sun|rain)P_{\infty}(rain)$$

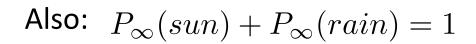
$$P_{\infty}(rain) = P(rain|sun)P_{\infty}(sun) + P(rain|rain)P_{\infty}(rain)$$

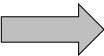
$$P_{\infty}(sun) = 0.9P_{\infty}(sun) + 0.3P_{\infty}(rain)$$

$$P_{\infty}(rain) = 0.1P_{\infty}(sun) + 0.7P_{\infty}(rain)$$

$$P_{\infty}(sun) = 3P_{\infty}(rain)$$

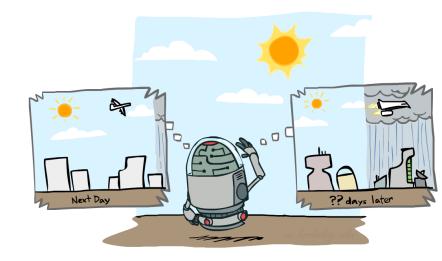
$$P_{\infty}(rain) = 1/3P_{\infty}(sun)$$





$$P_{\infty}(sun) = 3/4$$

$$P_{\infty}(rain) = 1/4$$



X _{t-1}	X _t	$P(X_{t} X_{t-1})$
sun	sun	0.9
sun	rain	0.1
rain	sun	0.3
rain	rain	0.7

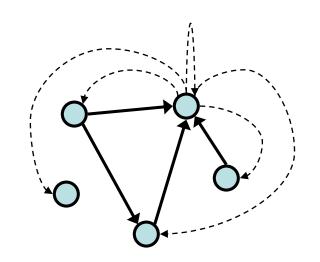
Application of Stationary Distribution: Web Link Analysis

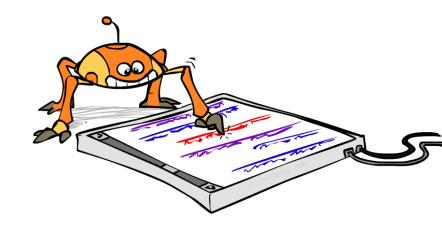
Web browsing

- Each web page is a state
- Initial distribution: uniform over pages
- Transitions:
 - With prob. c, uniform jump to a random page
 - With prob. 1-c, follow a random outlink

Stationary distribution: PageRank

- Will spend more time on highly reachable pages
- Google 1.0 returned the set of pages containing all your keywords in decreasing rank
- Now: use link analysis along with many other factors (rank actually getting less important)





Application of Stationary Distributions: Gibbs Sampling

- Each joint instantiation over all hidden and query variables is a state: $\{X_1, ..., X_n\} = H \cup Q$
- Transitions:
 - Pick a variable and resample its value conditioned on its Markov blanket
- Stationary distribution:
 - Conditional distribution $P(X_1, X_2, ..., X_n | e_{1_i}, ..., e_m)$
 - When running Gibbs sampling long enough, we get a sample from the desired distribution

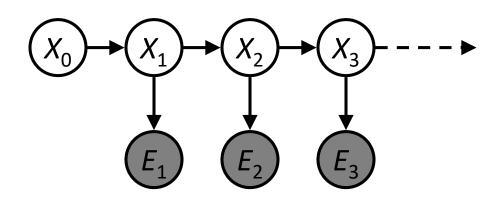


Hidden Markov Models



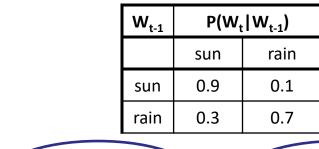
Hidden Markov Models

- Usually the true state is not observed directly
 - E.g., you stay indoor and cannot see the weather, but you can see if people come in with umbrella or not.
- Hidden Markov models (HMMs)
 - Underlying Markov chain over states X
 - You observe evidence E at each time step





Example: Weather HMM

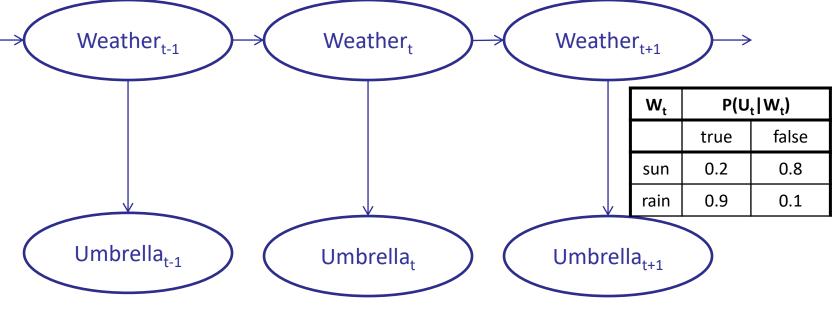


An HMM is defined by:

• Initial distribution: $P(X_0)$

■ Transition model: $P(X_t | X_{t-1})$

■ Emission model: $P(E_t | X_t)$





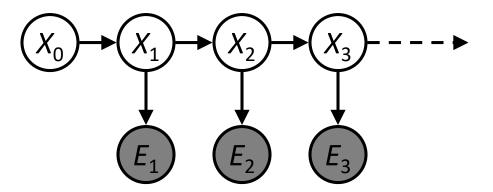


HMM as probability model

- Joint distribution for Markov model: $P(X_0,...,X_T) = P(X_0) \prod_{t=1:T} P(X_t \mid X_{t-1})$
- Joint distribution for hidden Markov model:

$$P(X_0, X_1, E_1, ..., X_T, E_T) = P(X_0) \prod_{t=1:T} P(X_t \mid X_{t-1}) P(E_t \mid X_t)$$

- Independence in HMM
 - Future states are independent of the past given the present
 - Current evidence is independent of everything else given the current state



Real HMM Examples

- Speech recognition HMMs:
 - Observations are acoustic signals (continuous valued)
 - States are specific positions in specific words (so, tens of thousands)
- Machine translation HMMs:
 - Observations are words (tens of thousands)
 - States are translation options
- Robot tracking:
 - Observations are range readings (continuous)
 - States are positions on a map (continuous)
- Molecular biology:
 - Observations are nucleotides ACGT
 - States are coding/non-coding/start/stop/splice-site etc.

Inference tasks

- Useful notation: $X_{a:b} = X_a$, X_{a+1} , ..., X_b
- Filtering: $P(X_t | e_{1:t})$
 - belief state posterior distribution over the most recent state given all evidence
 - Ex: robot localization
- **Prediction**: $P(X_{t+k}|e_{1\cdot t})$ for k > 0
 - posterior distribution over a future state given all evidence
- Smoothing: $P(X_k | e_{1:t})$ for $0 \le k < t$
 - posterior distribution over a past state given all evidence
- Most likely explanation: arg $\max_{x_{0:t}} P(x_{0:t} \mid e_{1:t})$
 - Ex: speech recognition, decoding with a noisy channel

- Filtering: infer current state given all evidence
- Aim: a recursive filtering algorithm of the form

$$P(X_{t+1}|e_{1:t+1}) = g(e_{t+1}, P(X_t|e_{1:t}))$$

Apply Bayes' rule

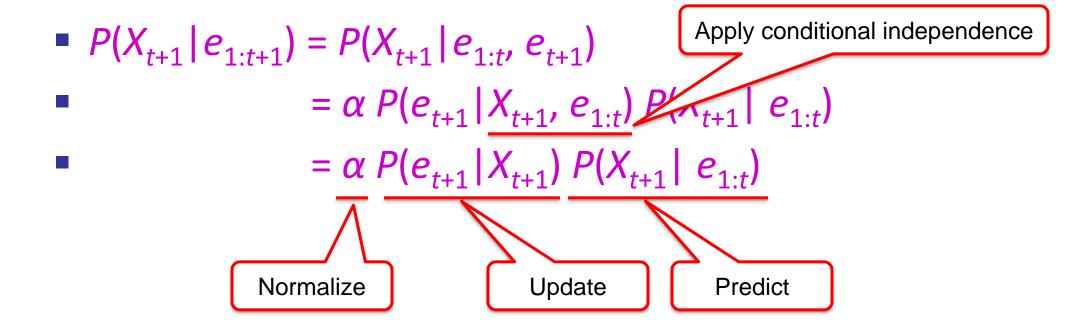
$$P(X_{t+1} | e_{1:t+1}) = P(X_{t+1} | e_{1:t}, e_{t+1})$$

$$= \alpha P(e_{t+1} | X_{t+1}, e_{1:t}) P(X_{t+1} | e_{1:t})$$

$$\alpha = 1 / P(e_{t+1} | e_{1:t})$$

- Filtering: infer current state given all evidence
- Aim: a recursive filtering algorithm of the form

$$P(X_{t+1}|e_{1:t+1}) = g(e_{t+1}, P(X_t|e_{1:t}))$$



- Filtering: infer current state given all evidence
- Aim: a recursive filtering algorithm of the form

$$P(X_{t+1}|e_{1:t+1}) = g(e_{t+1}, P(X_t|e_{1:t}))$$

■
$$P(X_{t+1} | e_{1:t+1}) = P(X_{t+1} | e_{1:t}, e_{t+1})$$

■ $= \alpha P(e_{t+1} | X_{t+1}, e_{1:t}) P(X_{t+1} | e_{1:t})$ Condition on X_t
■ $= \alpha P(e_{t+1} | X_{t+1}) P(X_{t+1} | e_{1:t})$
■ $= \alpha P(e_{t+1} | X_{t+1}) \sum_{X_t} P(X_t | e_{1:t}) P(X_{t+1} | X_t, e_{1:t})$

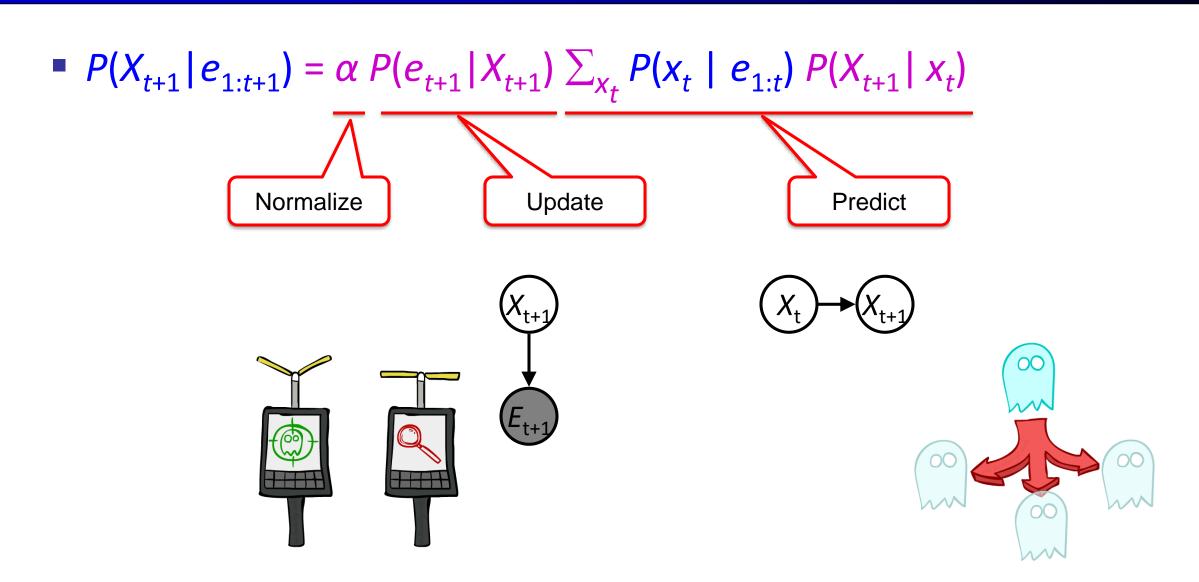
 $= \alpha P(e_{t+1}|X_{t+1}) \sum_{X_t} P(X_t | e_{1:t}) P(X_{t+1}|X_t)$

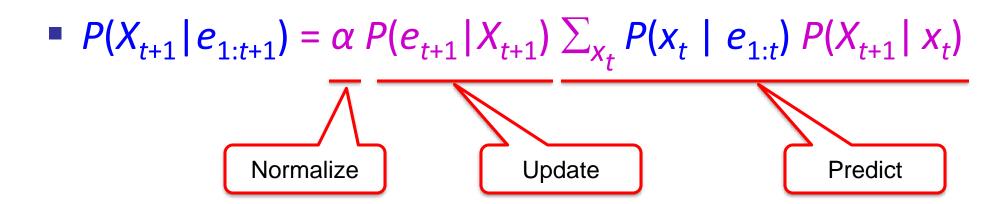
- Filtering: infer current state given all evidence
- Aim: a recursive filtering algorithm of the form

$$P(X_{t+1}|e_{1:t+1}) = g(e_{t+1}, P(X_t|e_{1:t}))$$

```
 P(X_{t+1}|e_{1:t+1}) = P(X_{t+1}|e_{1:t}, e_{t+1}) 
 = \alpha P(e_{t+1}|X_{t+1}, e_{1:t}) P(X_{t+1}|e_{1:t}) 
 = \alpha P(e_{t+1}|X_{t+1}) P(X_{t+1}|e_{1:t}) 
 = \alpha P(e_{t+1}|X_{t+1}) \sum_{X_t} P(X_t|e_{1:t}) P(X_{t+1}|X_t, e_{1:t})
```

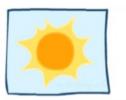
pply conditional independence



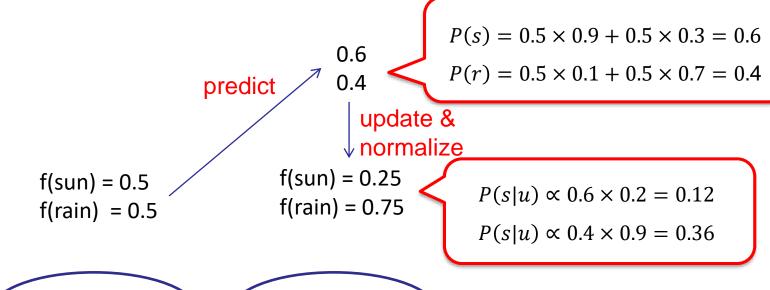


- $f_{1:t+1} = FORWARD(f_{1:t}, e_{t+1})$
- We start with $f_{1:0} = P(X_0)$ and then iterate
- Cost per time step: $O(|X|^2)$ where |X| is the number of states

Example: Weather HMM

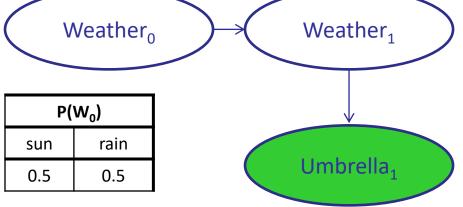






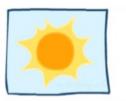
$P(X_{t+1} e_{1:t+1}) = \alpha P(e_{t+1} X_{t+1}) \sum_{X_t} P(X_t e_{1:t}) P(X_{t+1} X_t)$		
Normalize	Update	Predict

\mathbf{W}_{t-1}	$P(W_t W_{t-1})$	
	sun	rain
sun	0.9	0.1
rain	0.3	0.7

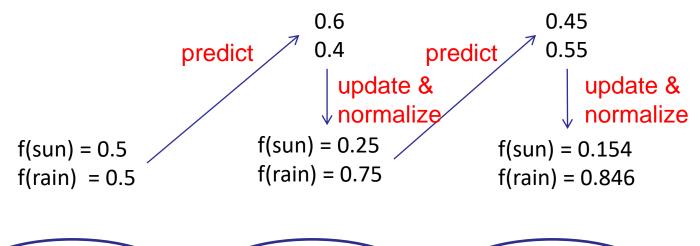


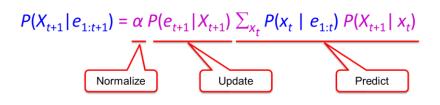
W _t	P(U _t W _t)	
	true	false
sun	0.2	0.8
rain	0.9	0.1

Example: Weather HMM

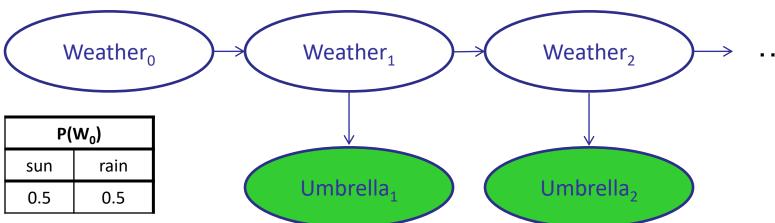




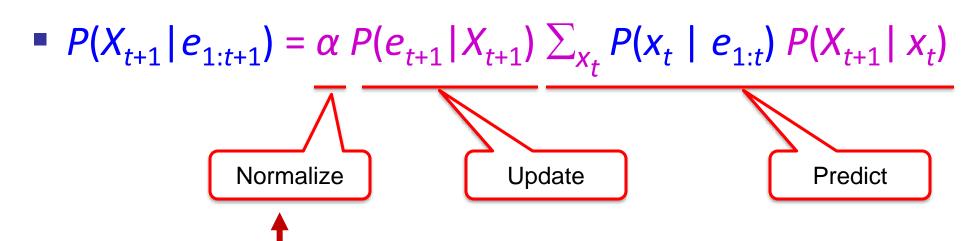




W_{t-1}	$P(W_t W_{t-1})$	
	sun	rain
sun	0.9	0.1
rain	0.3	0.7



W_{t}	$P(U_t W_t)$	
	true	false
sun	0.2	0.8
rain	0.9	0.1

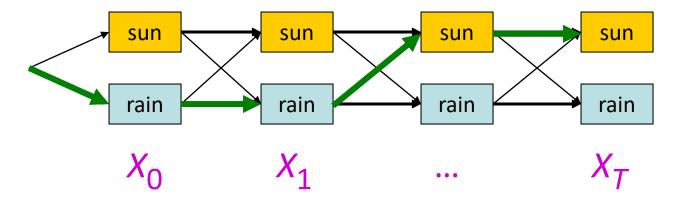


 α is a constant. So if we only want to compute $P(x_t \mid e_{1:t})$, then we can skip normalization when computing $P(x_1 \mid e_1)$, $P(x_2 \mid e_{1:2})$, ..., $P(x_{t-1} \mid e_{1:t-1})$

Q: How is the algorithm related to variable elimination?

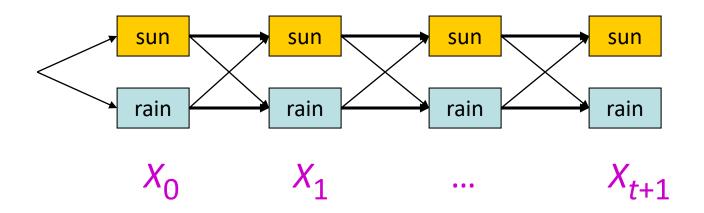
Another view of the algorithm

State trellis: graph of states and transitions over time



- Each arc represents some transition $x_{t-1} \rightarrow x_t$
- Each arc has weight $P(x_t \mid x_{t-1}) P(e_t \mid x_t)$ (arcs to initial states have weight $P(x_0)$)
- Each path is a sequence of states
- The **product** of weights on a path is proportional to that state sequence's probability $P(x_0) \prod_t P(x_t \mid x_{t-1}) P(e_t \mid x_t) = P(x_{1:t}, e_{1:t}) \propto P(x_{1:t} \mid e_{1:t})$

Another view of the algorithm



Forward algorithm computes sum over all possible paths

$$P(x_{t+1} | e_{1:t+1}) = \sum_{x_{1:t}} P(x_{1:t+1} | e_{1:t+1})$$

- It uses dynamic programming to sum over all paths
 - For each state at time t, keep track of the total probability of all paths to it

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{f}_{1:t+1} = \mathsf{FORWARD}(\mathbf{f}_{1:t} \,,\, \mathbf{e}_{t+1}) \\ & = \alpha \; P(\mathbf{e}_{t+1} | X_{t+1}) \; \sum_{X_t} P(X_{t+1} | \; X_t) \; \mathbf{f}_{1:t}[X_t] \end{aligned}$$

Most Likely Explanation

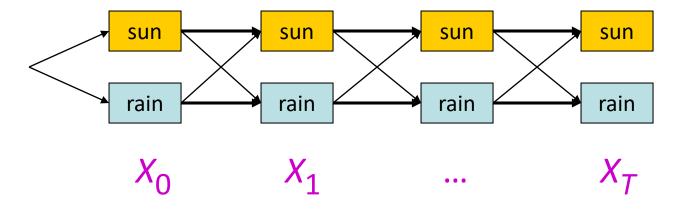


Inference tasks

- Filtering: $P(X_t|e_{1:t})$
 - belief state—input to the decision process of a rational agent
- **Prediction**: $P(X_{t+k}|e_{1:t})$ for k > 0
 - evaluation of possible action sequences; like filtering without the evidence
- Smoothing: $P(X_k | e_{1:t})$ for $0 \le k < t$
 - better estimate of past states, essential for learning
- Most likely explanation: $arg max_{x_{0:t}} P(x_{0:t} | e_{1:t})$
 - speech recognition, decoding with a noisy channel

Most likely explanation = most probable path

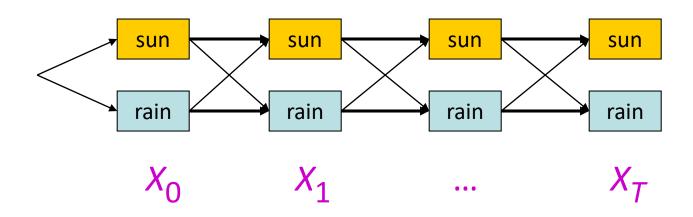
State trellis: graph of states and transitions over time



- The **product** of weights on a path is proportional to that state sequence's probability $P(x_0) \prod_t P(x_t \mid x_{t-1}) P(e_t \mid x_t) = P(x_{0:t}, e_{1:t}) \propto P(x_{0:t} \mid e_{1:t})$
- Viterbi algorithm computes best paths

$$arg max_{x_{0:t}} P(x_{0:t} | e_{1:t})$$

Forward / Viterbi algorithms



Viterbi Algorithm (max)

For each state at time *t*, keep track of the (unnormalized) *maximum probability of any path* to it

$$m_{1:t+1} = VITERBI(m_{1:t}, e_{t+1})$$

= $P(e_{t+1}|X_{t+1}) \max_{X_t} P(X_{t+1}|X_t) m_{1:t}[X_t]$

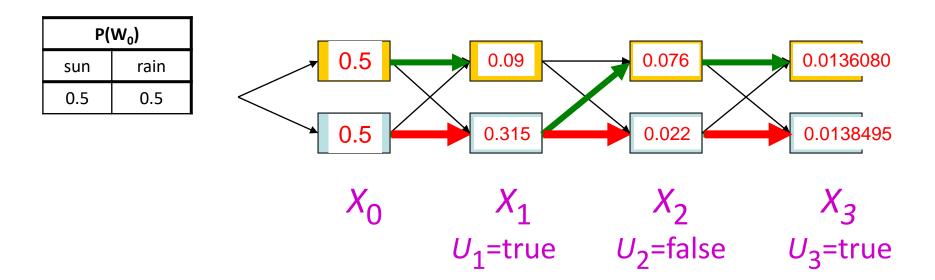
Forward Algorithm (sum)

For each state at time *t*, keep track of the *total probability of all paths* to it

$$f_{1:t+1} = \text{FORWARD}(f_{1:t}, e_{t+1})$$

= $\alpha P(e_{t+1}|X_{t+1}) \sum_{X_t} P(X_{t+1}|X_t) f_{1:t}[X_t]$

Viterbi algorithm contd.

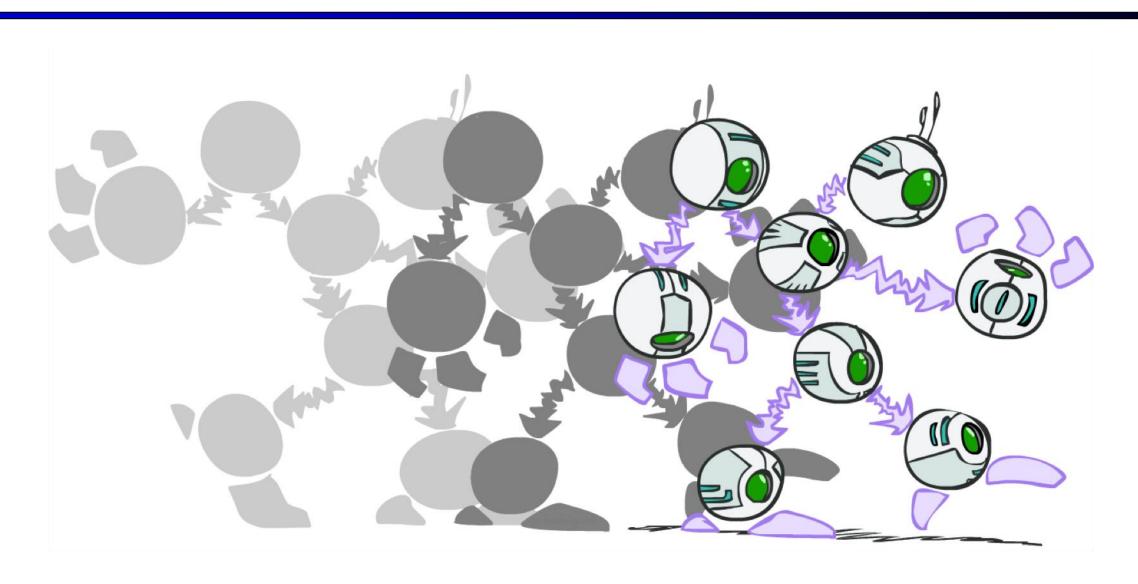


W_{t-1}	$P(W_t W_{t-1})$		
	sun	rain	
sun	0.9	0.1	
rain	0.3	0.7	

W_{t}	P(U _t W _t)			
	true	false		
sun	0.2	0.8		
rain	0.9	0.1		

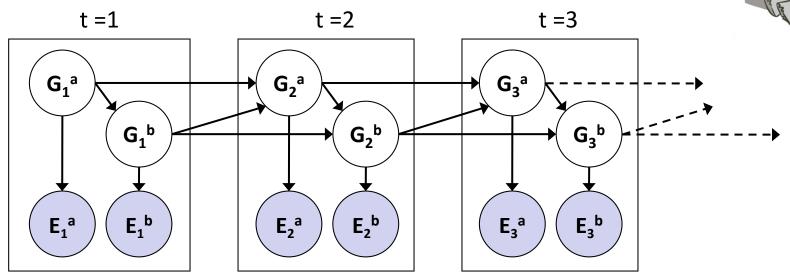
- $\mathbf{m}_{1:t+1} = P(e_{t+1}|X_{t+1}) \max_{X_t} P(X_{t+1}|X_t) \mathbf{m}_{1:t}[X_t]$
- Time complexity: O(|X|²T)
- Space complexity: O(|X| T)

Dynamic Bayes Nets



Dynamic Bayes Nets (DBNs)

- We want to track multiple variables over time, using multiple sources of evidence
- Idea: Repeat a fixed Bayes net structure at each time
- Variables from time t can condition on those from t-1



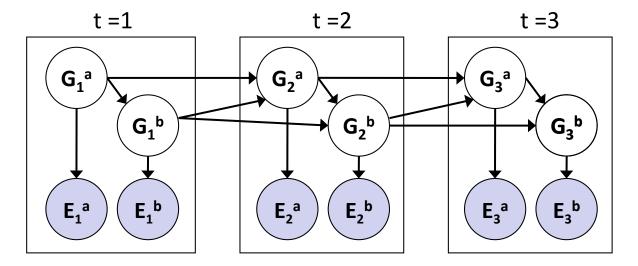


DBNs and **HMMs**

- Every HMM is a DBN
- Every discrete DBN can be represented by a HMM
 - Each HMM state is Cartesian product of DBN state variables
 - E.g., 3 binary state variables => one state variable with 2³ possible values
 - Advantage of DBN vs. HMM?
 - Sparse dependencies => exponentially fewer parameters
 - E.g., 20 binary state variables, 2 parents each; DBN has $20 \times 2^{2+1} = 160$ parameters, HMM has $2^{20} \times 2^{20} = 10^{12}$ parameters

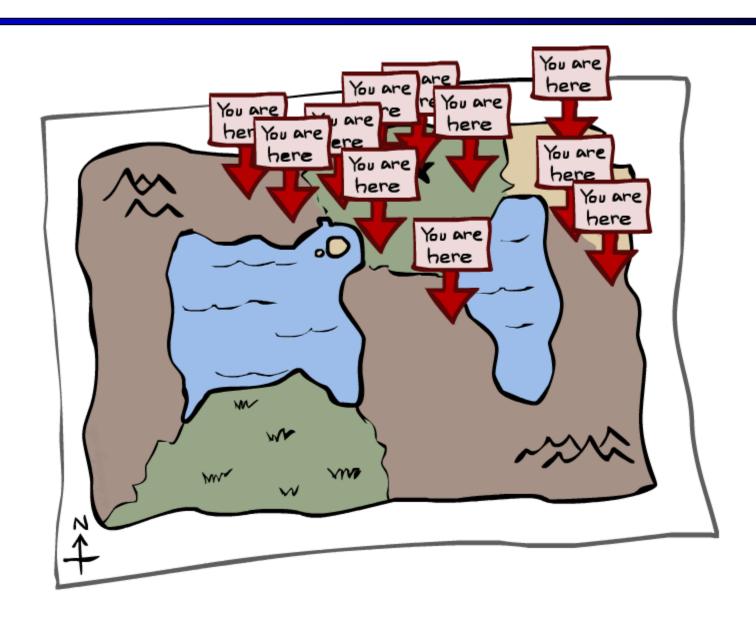
Exact Inference in DBNs

- Variable elimination applies to dynamic Bayes nets
- Offline: "unroll" the network for T time steps, then eliminate variables to find $P(X_T | e_{1:T})$
 - Problem: results in very large BN



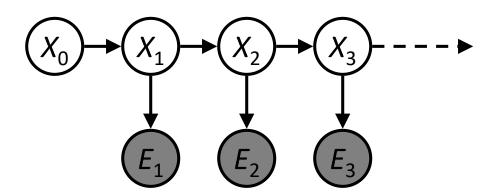
- Can we do better?
 - Do we need to unroll for many steps? What is the best variable order of elimination?
- Online: unroll as we go, eliminate all variables from the previous time step

Particle Filtering



Large state space

- When |X| is huge (e.g., position in a building), exact inference becomes infeasible
- Can we use approximate inference, e.g., likelihood weighting?
 - Evidences are "downstream"
 - By ignoring the evidence: with more states sampled over time, the weight drops quickly (going into low-probability region)
 - Hence: too few "reasonable" samples



Particle Filtering

- Represent belief state at each step by a set of samples
 - Samples are called particles
- Our representation of P(X) is now a list of N particles (samples)
 - P(x) approximated by number of particles with value x
 - So, many x may have P(x) = 0
 - Generally, N << |X|
 - More particles, more accuracy; but a large N would defeat the point.

0.0	0.1	0.0
0.0	0.0	0.2
0.0	0.2	0.5

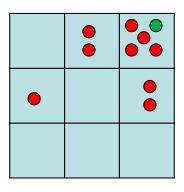


	•

Representation: Particles

Initialization

- sample N particles from the initial distribution $P(X_0)$
- All particles have a weight of 1



Particles:

(3,3)

(2,3)

(3,3)

(3,2)

(3,3)

(3,2)

(1,2)

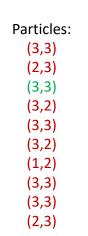
(3,3)

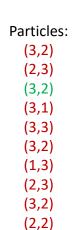
(3,3)

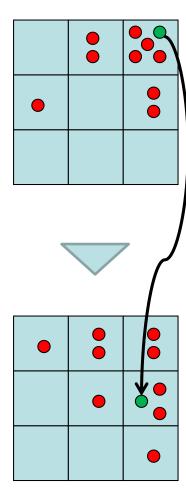
(2,3)

Particle Filtering: Propagate forward

- Each particle is moved by sampling its next position from the transition model:
 - $x_{t+1} \sim P(X_{t+1} | x_t)$
- This captures the passage of time
 - If enough samples, close to exact probabilities (consistent)







Particle Filtering: Observe

- Similar to likelihood weighting, weight samples based on the evidence
 - $W = P(e_t | X_t)$
 - Particles that fit the evidence better get higher weights, others get lower weights
- What happens if we repeat the Propagate-Observe procedure over time?
 - It is exactly likelihood weighting (if we multiply the weights)
 - Weights drop quickly...

Particles: (3,2)				
(2,3) (3,2)	•	•		•
(3,1)				
(3,3)				
(3,2)				•
(1,3)				
(2,3) (3,2)				
(2,2)				
De videle e	•		7	
Particles: (3,2) w=.9				
(2,3) w=.2 (3,2) w=.9	•	•		•
(3,1) w=.4				
(3,3) w=.4 (3,2) w=.9		•		
(1,3) w=.1				
(2,3) w=.2				

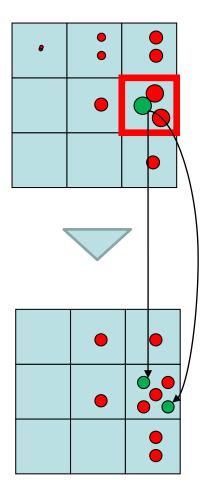
Particle Filtering: Resample

- Rather than tracking weighted samples, we *resample*
 - Generate N new samples from our weighted samples
 - Each new sample is selected from the current population of samples; the probability is proportional to its weight.
 - The new samples have weight of 1
- Now the update is complete for this time step, continue with the next one

Particles:
(3,2) w=.9
(2,3) w=.2
(3,2) w=.9
(3,1) w=.4
(3,3) w=.4
(3,2) w=.9
(1,3) w=.1
(2,3) w=.2
(3,2) w=.9
(2,2) w=.4

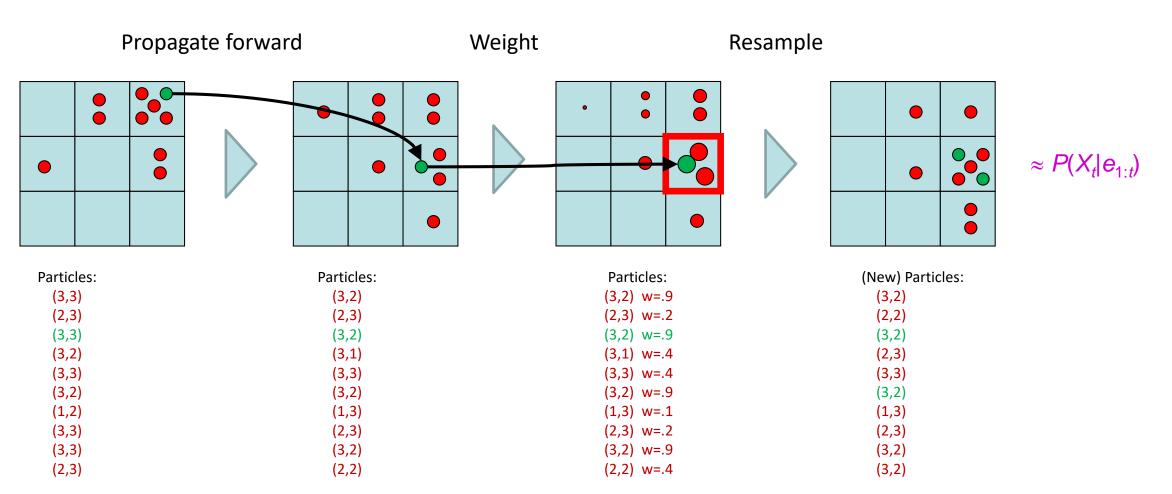
(New) Particles:
(3,2)
(2,2)
(3,2)
(2,3)
(3,3)
(3,2)
(1,3)
(2,3)
(3,2)

(3,2)



Summary: Particle Filtering

Particles: track samples of states rather than an explicit distribution

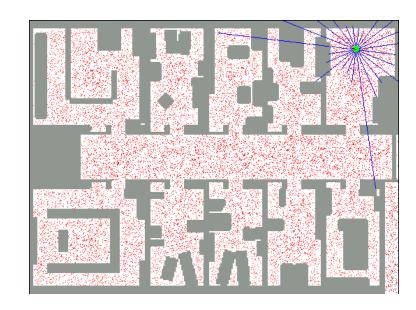


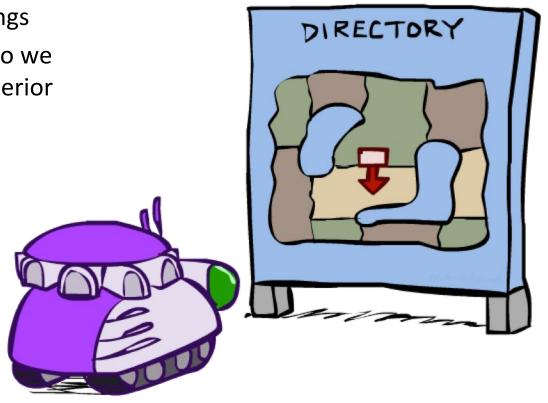
Consistency: see proof in AIMA Ch. 15

Robot Localization

In robot localization:

- We know the map, but not the robot's position
- Observations may be vectors of range finder readings
- State space and readings are typically continuous so we cannot usually represent or compute an exact posterior
- Particle filtering is a main technique



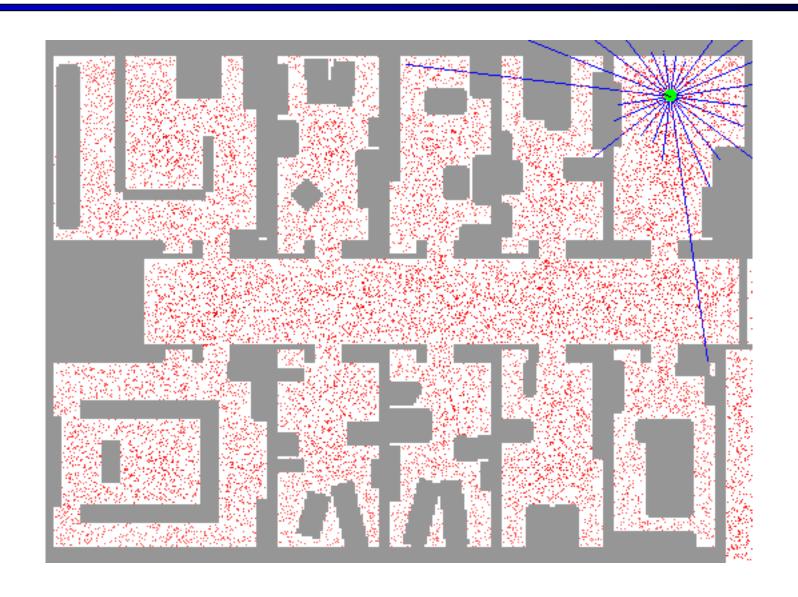


Particle Filter Localization (Sonar)



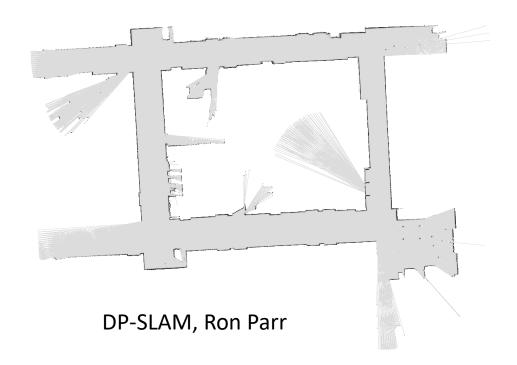
[Dieter Fox, et al.]

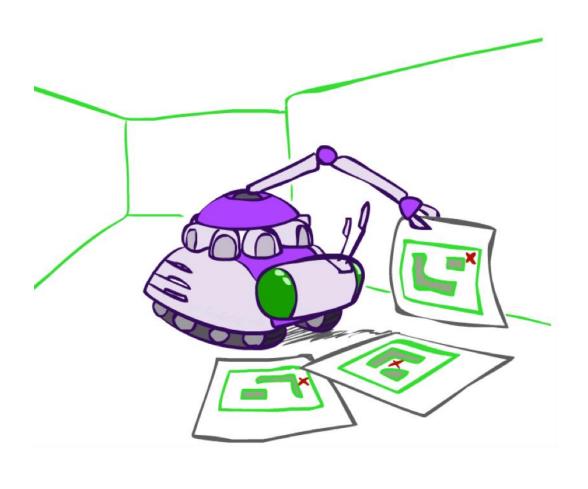
Particle Filter Localization (Laser)



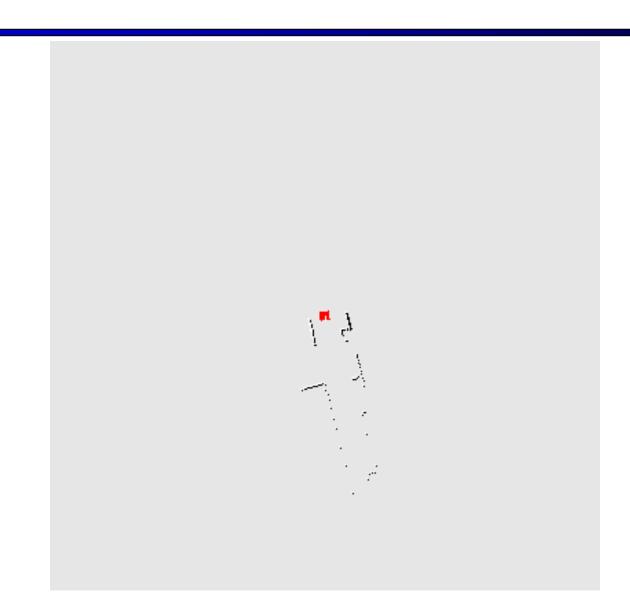
Robot Mapping

- SLAM: Simultaneous Localization And Mapping
 - We do not know the map or our location
 - State consists of position AND map!
 - Main techniques: Kalman filtering (Gaussian HMMs) and particle methods



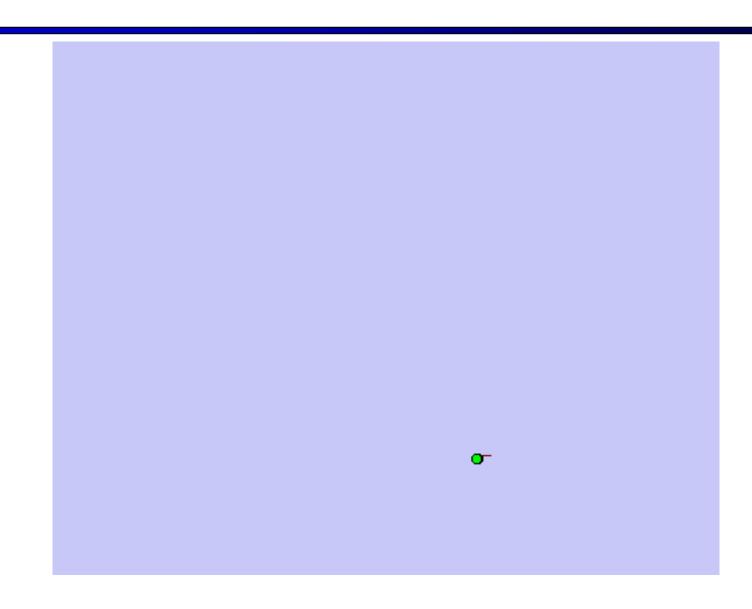


Particle Filter SLAM – Video 1



[Sebastian Thrun, et al.]

Particle Filter SLAM – Video 2



Summary

- Probabilistic temporal models
 - Markov model
 - Hidden Markov model
 - Filtering: forward algorithm
 - MLE: Viterbi algorithm
 - Dynamic Bayesian network
 - Approximate inference by particle filtering

