

CS 188: Artificial Intelligence

Hidden Markov Models



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[Slides adapted from Saagar Sanghavi, Dan Klein, Pieter Abbeel, Anca Dragan, Stuart Russell]

Reasoning over Time or Space

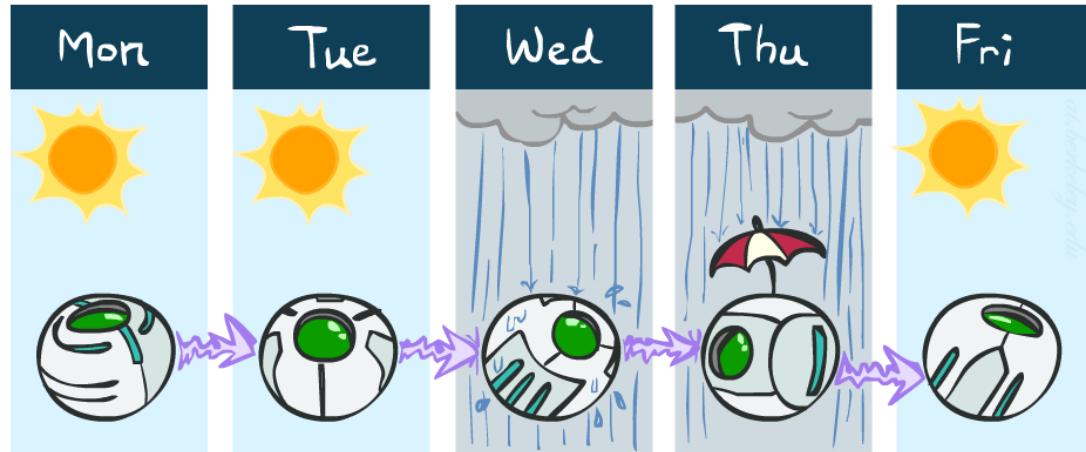
- Often, we want to **reason about a sequence** of observations
 - Speech recognition
 - Robot localization
 - User attention
 - Medical monitoring
- Need to introduce time (or space) into our models

Example Markov Chain: Weather

- States: $X = \{\text{rain}, \text{sun}\}$

- Initial distribution:

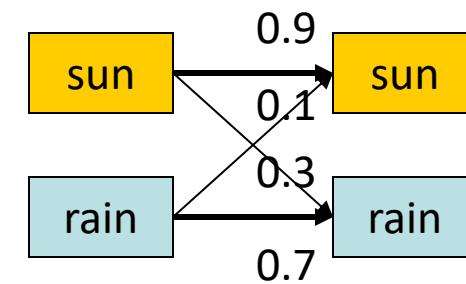
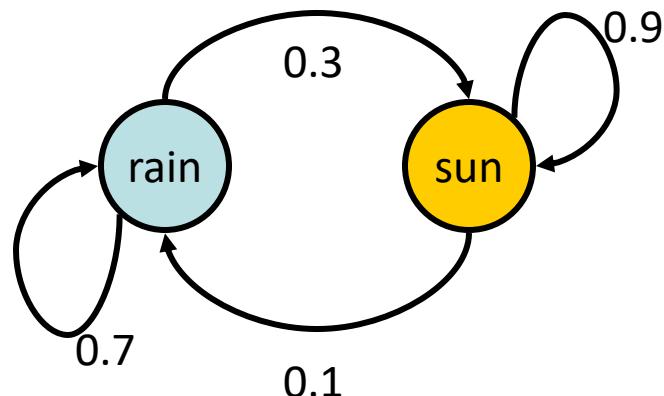
$P(X_0)$	
sun	rain
1	0.0



- CPT $P(X_t | X_{t-1})$:

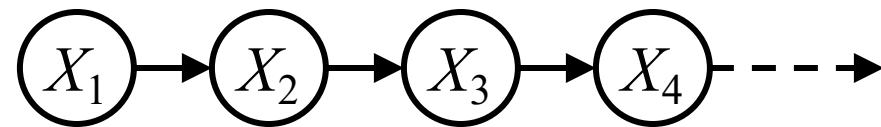
Two new ways of representing the same CPT

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



Markov Chains

- Value of X at a given time is called the **state**



$$P(X_t) = ?$$

$$P(X_1) \quad P(X_t | X_{t-1})$$

- Transition probabilities (**dynamics**): $P(X_t | X_{t-1})$ specify how the state evolves over time

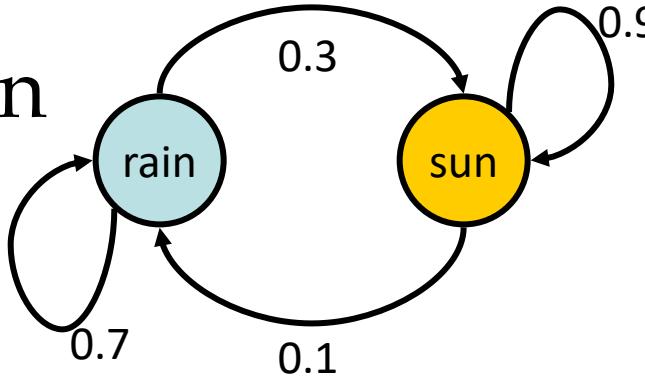
Markov Assumption



- Basic conditional independence:
 - Given the present, the future is independent of the past!
 - Each time step only depends on the previous
 - This is called the (first order) Markov property

Example Markov Chain: Weather

- Initial distribution: 1.0 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

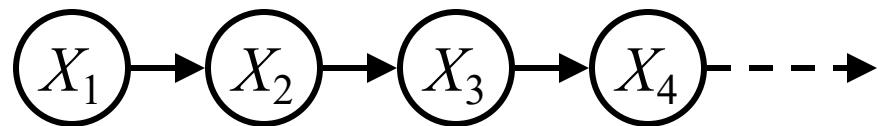
- What is the probability distribution after one step?

$$P(X_2 = \text{sun}) = \sum_{x_1} P(x_1, X_2 = \text{sun}) = \sum_{x_1} P(X_2 = \text{sun}|x_1)P(x_1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_2 = \text{sun}) &= P(X_2 = \text{sun}|X_1 = \text{sun})P(X_1 = \text{sun}) + \\ &\quad P(X_2 = \text{sun}|X_1 = \text{rain})P(X_1 = \text{rain}) \\ &0.9 \cdot 1.0 + 0.3 \cdot 0.0 = 0.9 \end{aligned}$$

Mini-Forward Algorithm

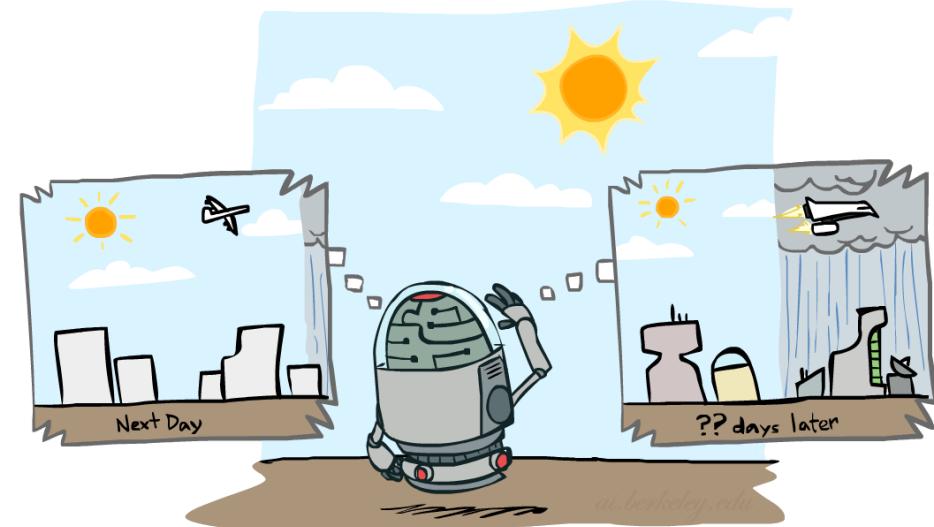
- Question: What's $P(X)$ on some day t ?



$P(x_1)$ = known

$$\begin{aligned} P(x_t) &= \sum_{x_{t-1}} P(x_{t-1}, x_t) \\ &= \sum_{x_{t-1}} P(x_t \mid x_{t-1}) P(x_{t-1}) \end{aligned}$$

Forward simulation



Example Run of Mini-Forward Algorithm

- From initial observation of sun

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \left\langle \begin{array}{c} 1.0 \\ 0.0 \end{array} \right\rangle & \left\langle \begin{array}{c} 0.9 \\ 0.1 \end{array} \right\rangle & \left\langle \begin{array}{c} 0.84 \\ 0.16 \end{array} \right\rangle & \left\langle \begin{array}{c} 0.804 \\ 0.196 \end{array} \right\rangle & \xrightarrow{\hspace{1cm}} \left\langle \begin{array}{c} 0.75 \\ 0.25 \end{array} \right\rangle \\ P(X_1) & P(X_2) & P(X_3) & P(X_4) & P(X_\infty) \end{array}$$

- From initial observation of rain

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \left\langle \begin{array}{c} 0.0 \\ 1.0 \end{array} \right\rangle & \left\langle \begin{array}{c} 0.3 \\ 0.7 \end{array} \right\rangle & \left\langle \begin{array}{c} 0.48 \\ 0.52 \end{array} \right\rangle & \left\langle \begin{array}{c} 0.588 \\ 0.412 \end{array} \right\rangle & \xrightarrow{\hspace{1cm}} \left\langle \begin{array}{c} 0.75 \\ 0.25 \end{array} \right\rangle \\ P(X_1) & P(X_2) & P(X_3) & P(X_4) & P(X_\infty) \end{array}$$

- From yet another initial distribution $P(X_1)$:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \left\langle \begin{array}{c} p \\ 1 - p \end{array} \right\rangle & \dots & \xrightarrow{\hspace{1cm}} \left\langle \begin{array}{c} 0.75 \\ 0.25 \end{array} \right\rangle \\ P(X_1) & & P(X_\infty) \end{array}$$

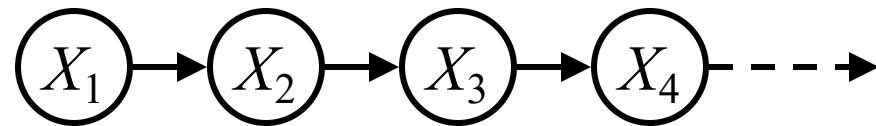
Stationary Distribution

- 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 Distribution

- Question: What's $P(X)$ at time $t = \text{infinity}$?



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

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

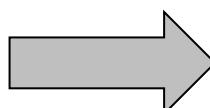
$$P_{\infty}(\text{sun}) = 0.9P_{\infty}(\text{sun}) + 0.3P_{\infty}(\text{rain})$$

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

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

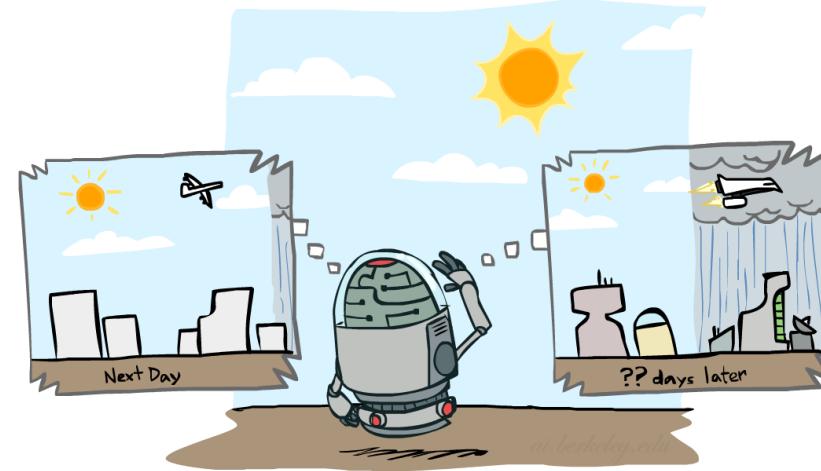
$$P_{\infty}(\text{rain}) = 1/3P_{\infty}(\text{sun})$$

Also: $P_{\infty}(\text{sun}) + P_{\infty}(\text{rain}) = 1$



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

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



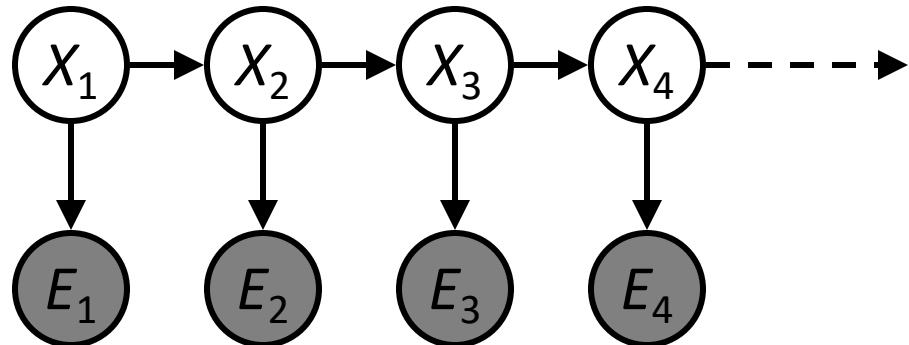
X_{t-1}	X_t	$P(X_t X_{t-1})$
sun	sun	0.9
sun	rain	0.1
rain	sun	0.3
rain	rain	0.7

Hidden Markov Models

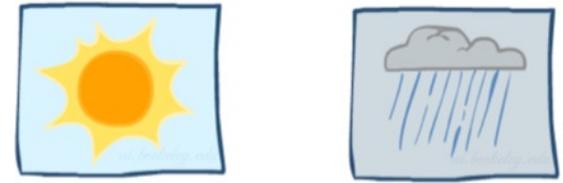
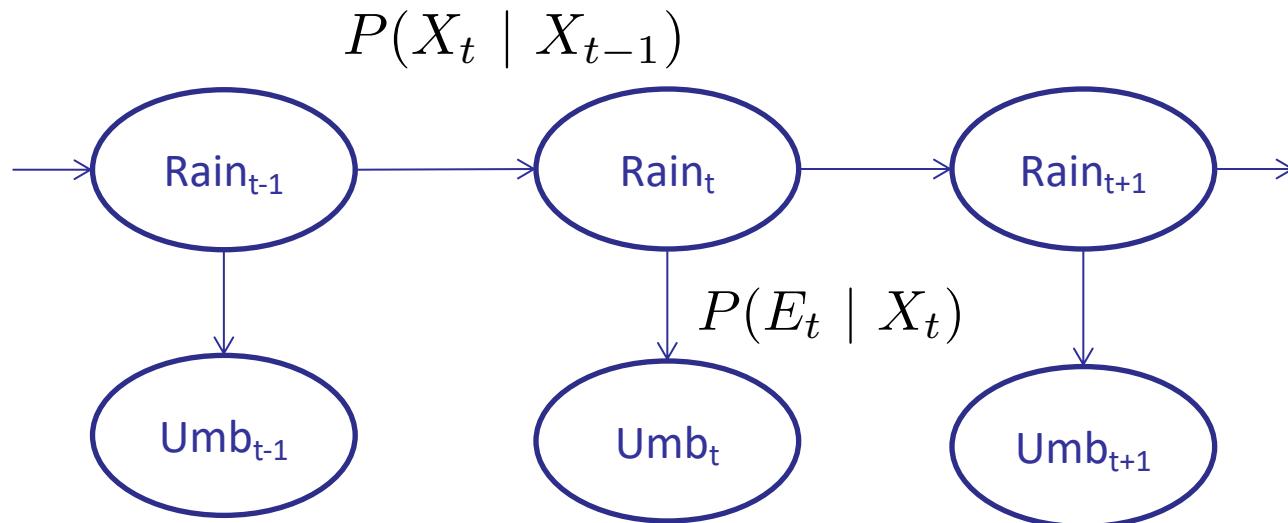


Hidden Markov Models

- Markov chains not so useful for most agents
 - Need observations to update your beliefs
- Hidden Markov models (HMMs)
 - Underlying Markov chain over states X_i
 - You observe outputs (effects) at each time step



Example: Weather HMM



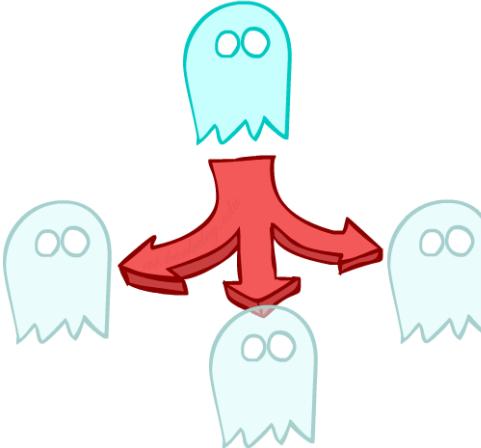
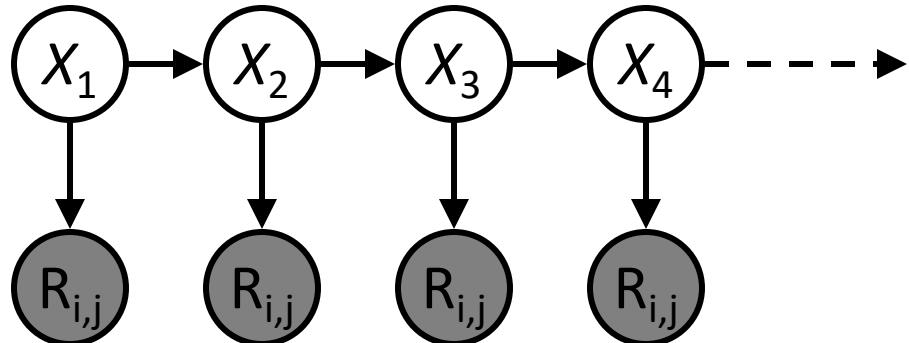
- An HMM is defined by:
 - Initial distribution: $P(X_1)$
 - Transitions: $P(X_t | X_{t-1})$
 - Emissions: $P(E_t | X_t)$

R _{t-1}	R _t	P(R _t R _{t-1})
+r	+r	0.7
+r	-r	0.3
-r	+r	0.3
-r	-r	0.7

R _t	U _t	P(U _t R _t)
+r	+u	0.9
+r	-u	0.1
-r	+u	0.2
-r	-u	0.8

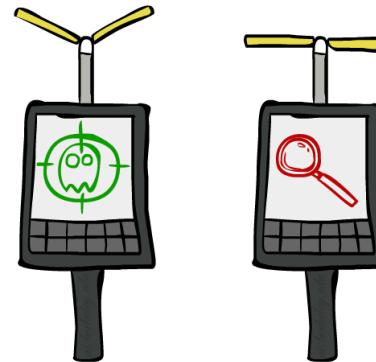
Example: Ghostbusters HMM

- $P(X_1) = \text{uniform}$
- $P(X | X')$ = usually move clockwise, but sometimes move in a random direction or stay in place
- $P(R_{ij} | X)$ = sensor model:
red means close, green means far away.



1/9	1/9	1/9
1/9	1/9	1/9
1/9	1/9	1/9

$P(X_1)$



1/6	1/6	1/2
0	1/6	0
0	0	0

$P(X | X' = <1,2>)$

Ghostbusters Basic Dynamics



Ghostbusters – Circular Dynamics -- HMM



Ghostbusters Circular Dynamics

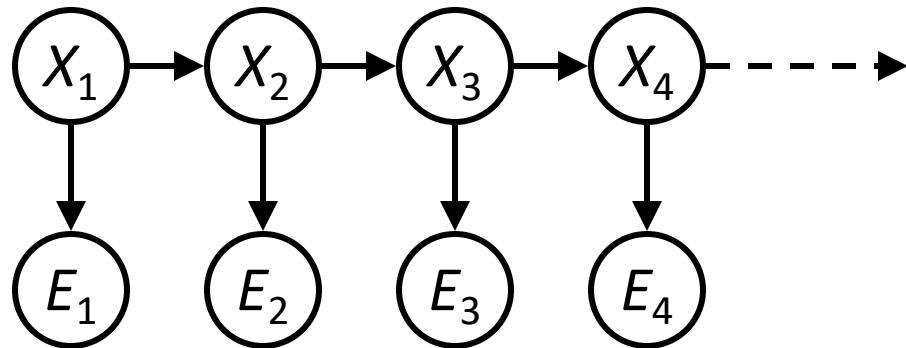


Ghostbusters Whirlpool Dynamics



Conditional Independence

- HMMs have two important independence properties:
 - Markovian assumption of hidden process
 - Current observation independent of all else given current state



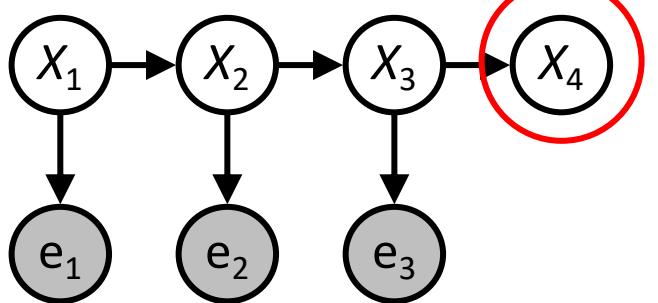
- Does this mean that evidence variables are guaranteed to be independent?
 - [No, they tend to correlate by the hidden state]

Real HMM Examples

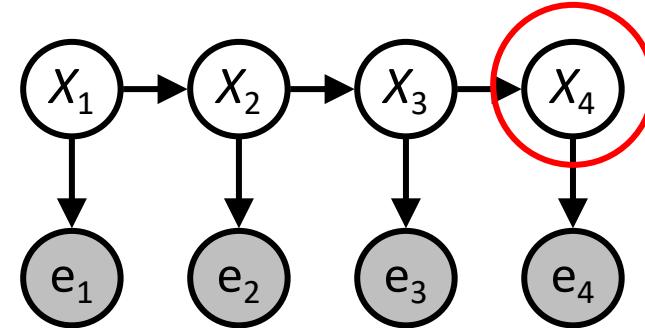
- Robot tracking:
 - Observations are range readings (continuous)
 - States are positions on a map (continuous)
- Speech recognition HMMs:
 - Observations are acoustic signals (continuous valued)
 - States are specific positions in specific words (so, tens of thousands)
- Machine translation HMMs:
 - Observations are words (tens of thousands) in language translating from
 - States are words in language translating to

Inference tasks

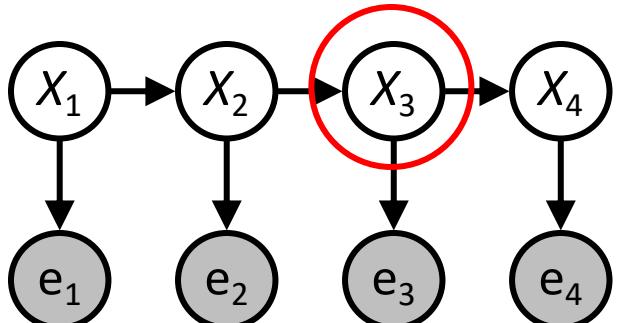
Prediction: $P(X_{t+k} | e_{1:t})$



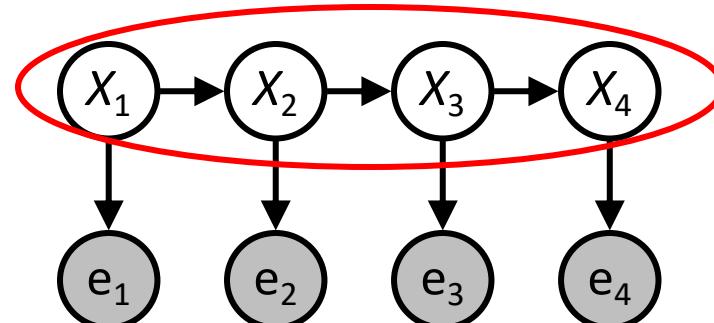
Filtering: $P(X_t | e_{1:t})$



Smoothing: $P(X_k | e_{1:t}), k < t$



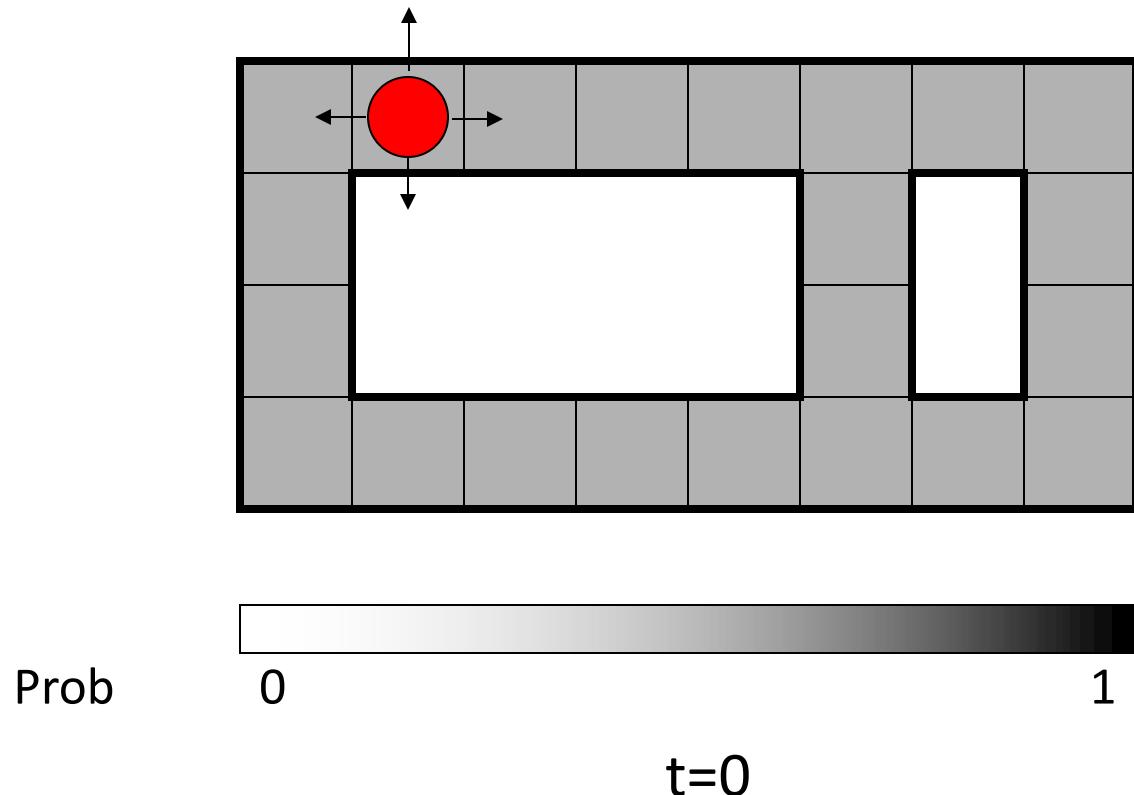
Explanation: $P(X_{1:t} | e_{1:t})$



Filtering

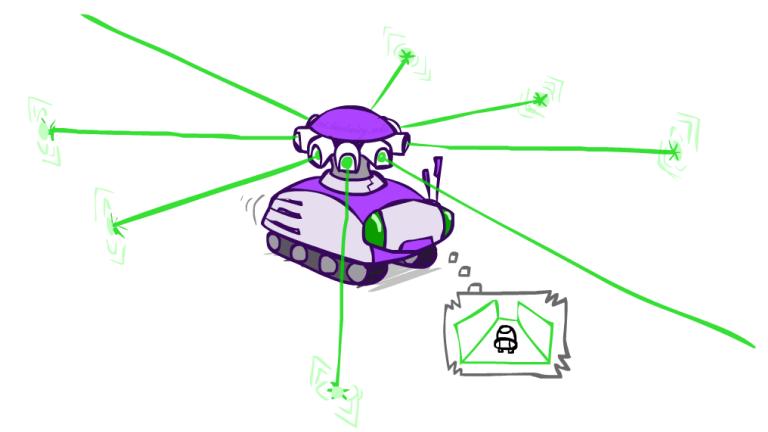
- Filtering: Tracking the distribution $P(X_t \mid e_1, \dots, e_t)$ (called the belief state) over time
 - $P_0(X)$ initial state (usually uniform)
 - As time passes, or we get observations, update belief state
- Discrete state-space (HMMs):
 - Exact Inference: Forward Algorithm
 - Approximate Inference: Particle Filtering
- Continuous state-space (dynamical systems):
 - Exact Inference: Kalman Filtering (OOS, see EE 126 or EE 221A for details)

Example: Robot Localization

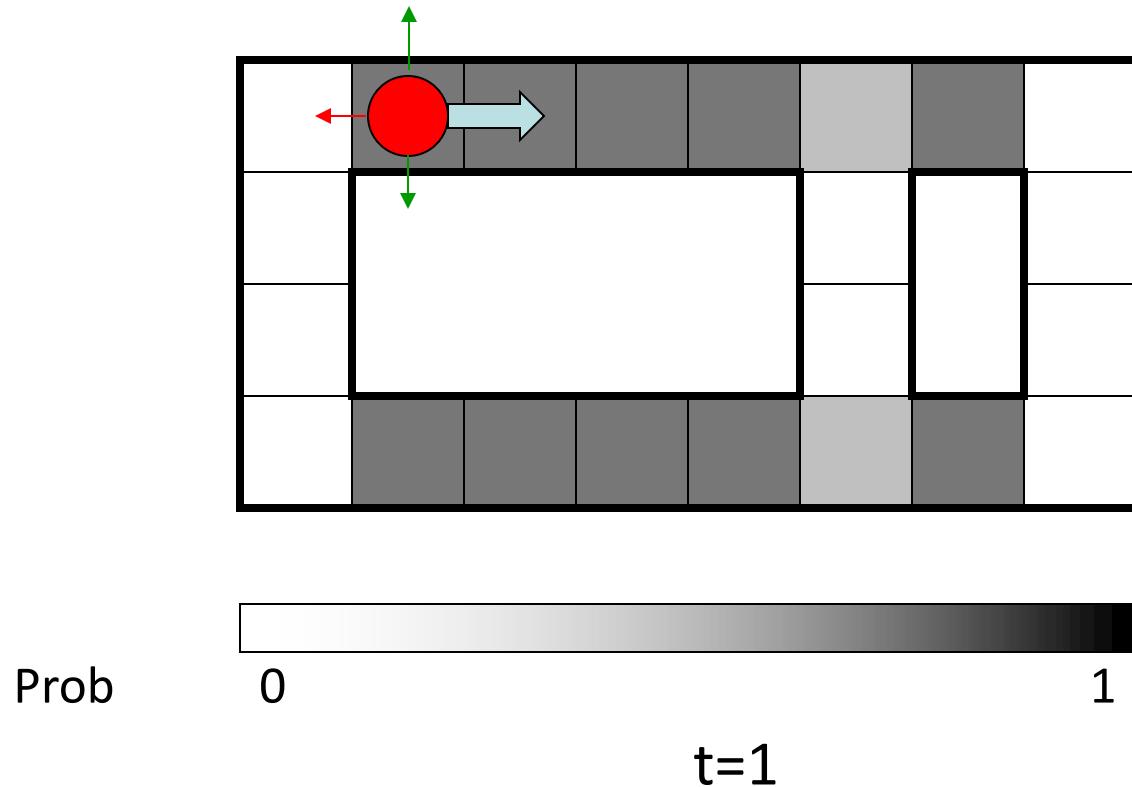


Sensor model: can read in which directions there is a wall,
never more than 1 mistake

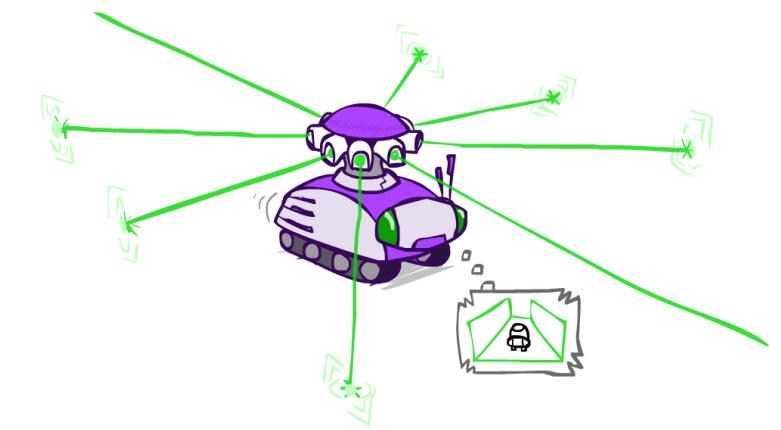
Motion model: may not execute action with small prob.



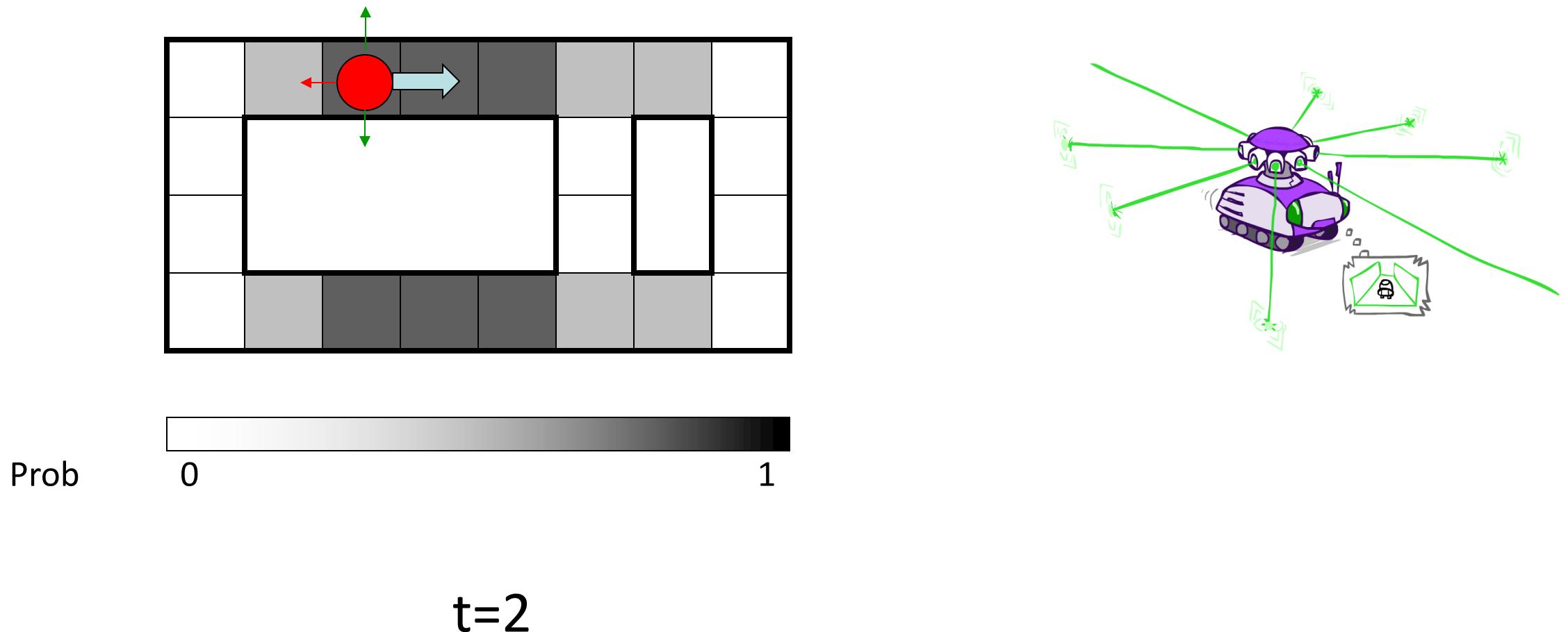
Example: Robot Localization



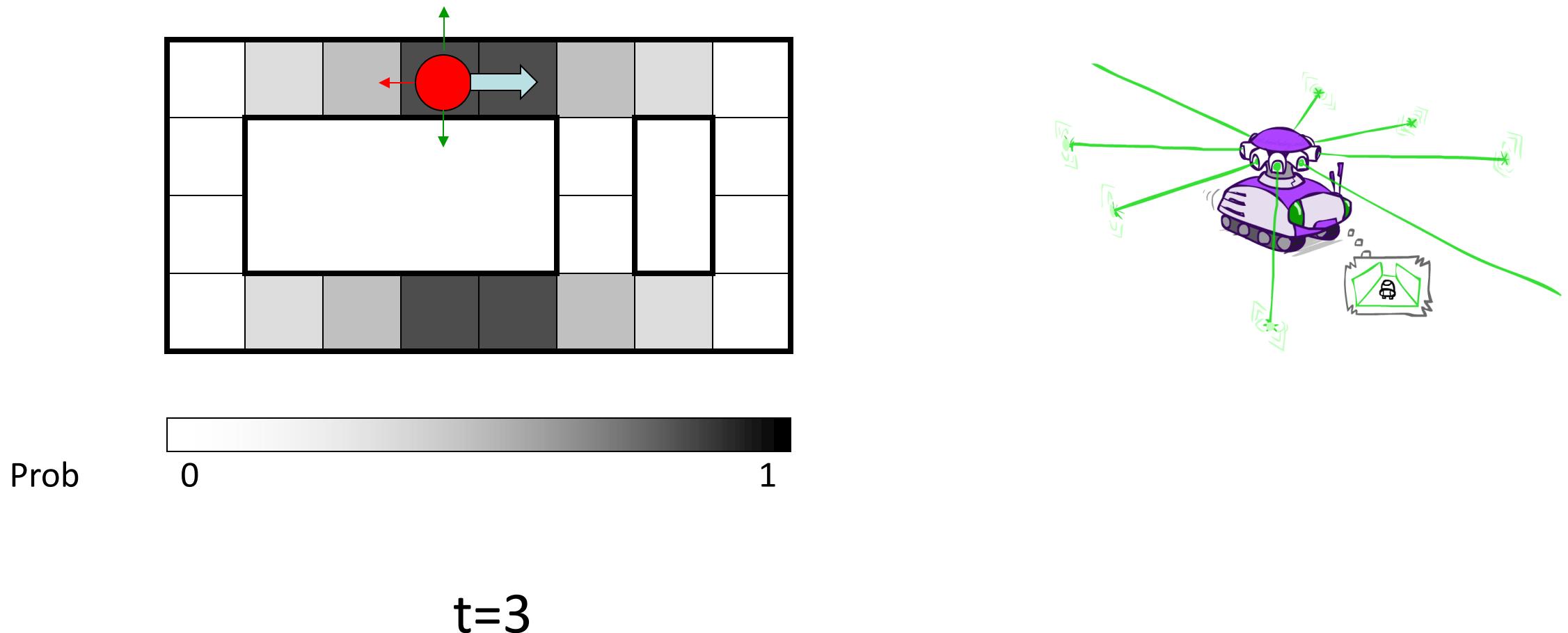
Lighter grey: was possible to get the reading, but less likely b/c
required 1 mistake



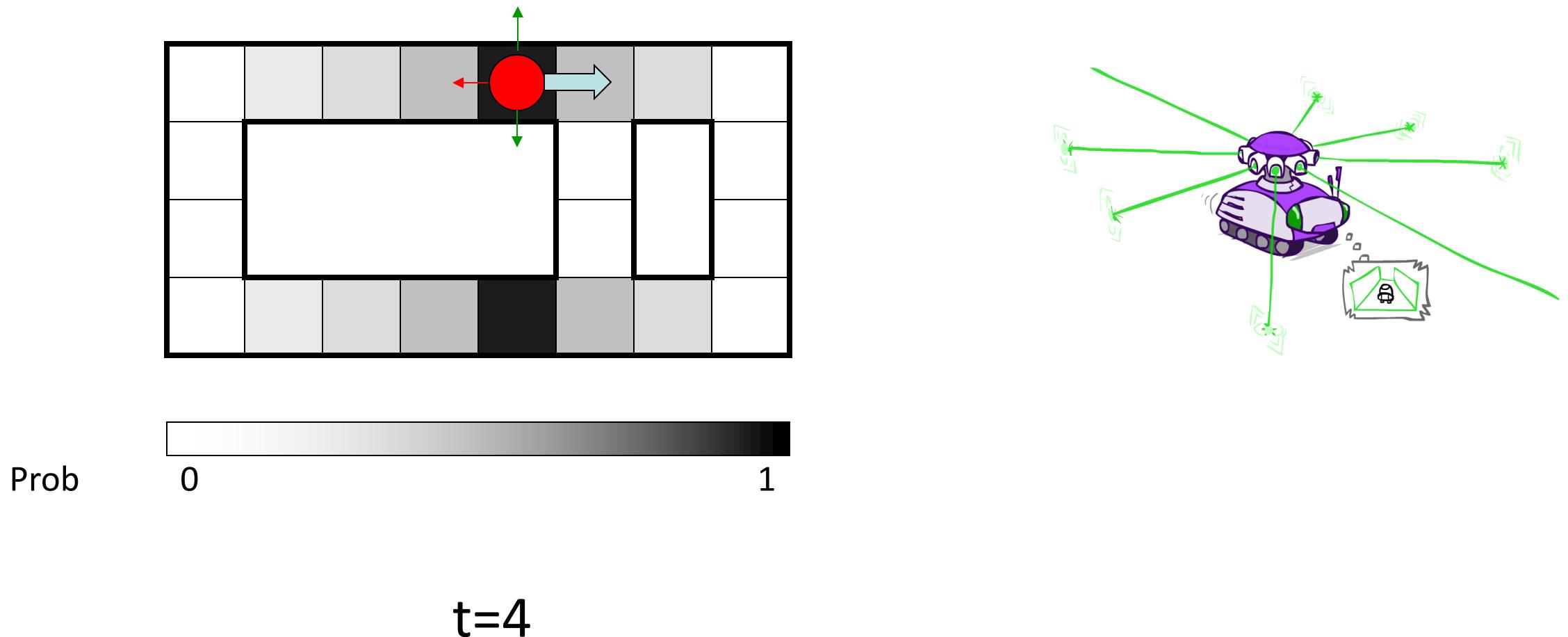
Example: Robot Localization



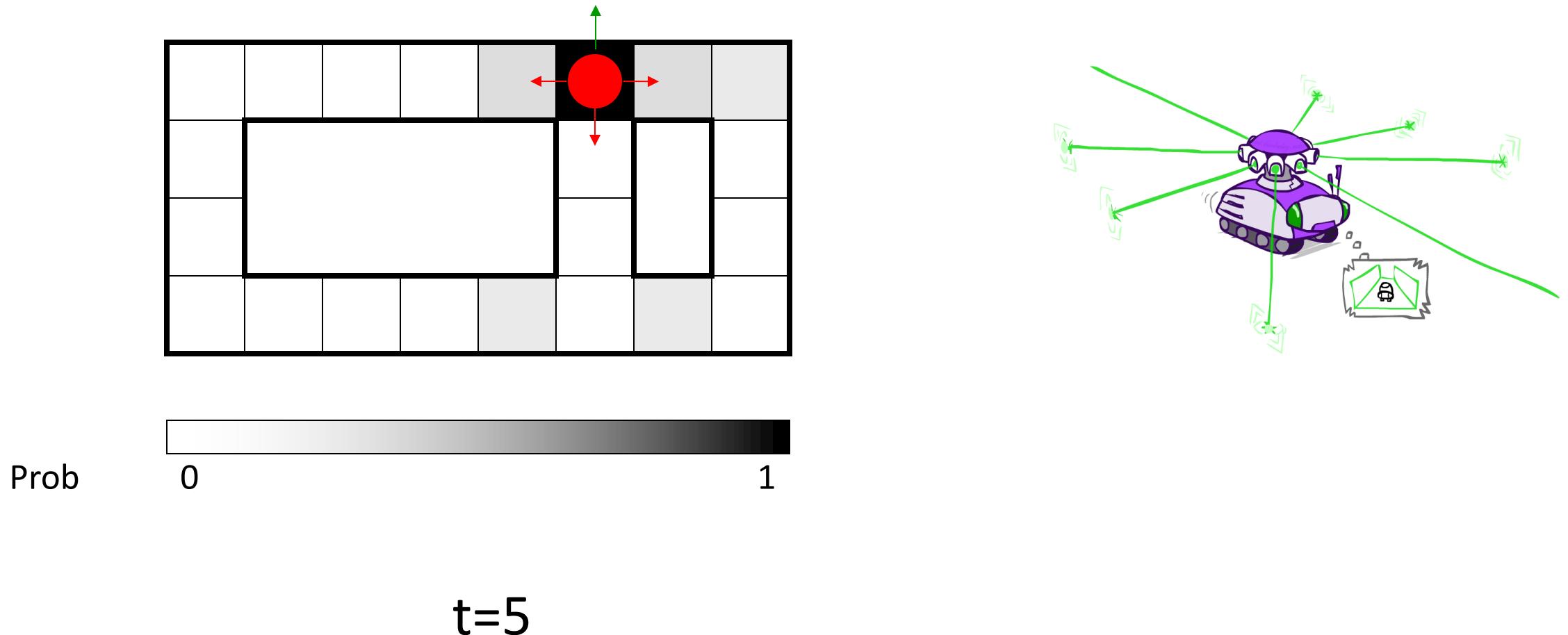
Example: Robot Localization



Example: Robot Localization

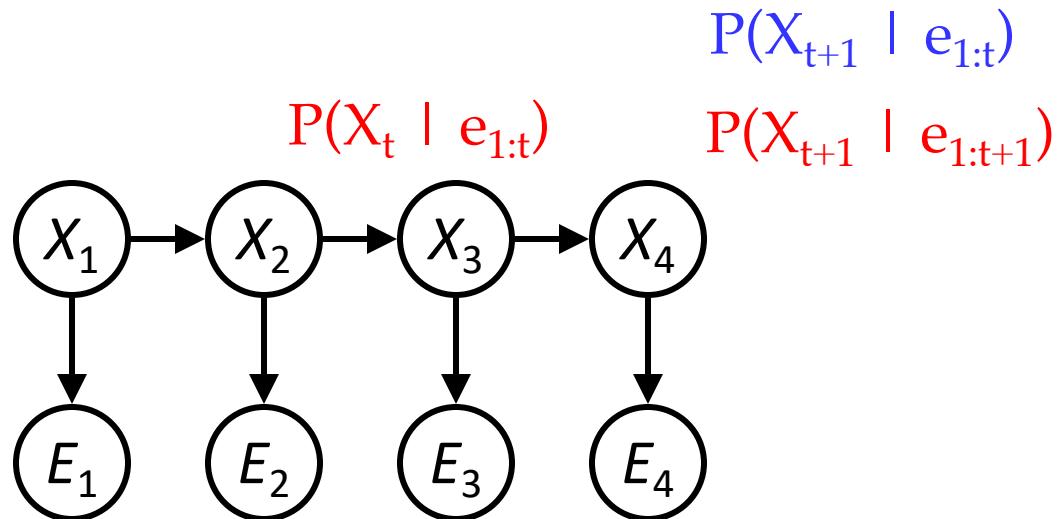


Example: Robot Localization

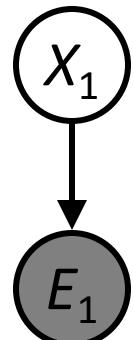


Inference: Find State Given Evidence

- We are given evidence at each time and want to know $P(X_t | e_{1:t})$
- Idea: start with $P(X_1)$ and derive $P(X_t | e_{1:t})$ in terms of $P(X_{t-1} | e_{1:t-1})$
- Two steps: Passage of time + Incorporate Evidence



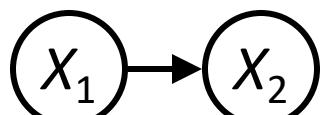
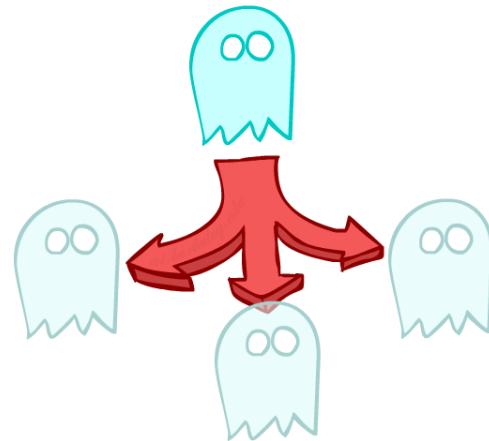
Inference: Base Cases



$$P(X_1|e_1)$$

$$P(X_1|e_1) = \frac{P(X_1, e_1)}{\sum_{x_1} P(x_1, e_1)}$$

$$P(X_1|e_1) = \frac{P(e_1|X_1)P(X_1)}{\sum_{x_1} P(e_1|x_1)P(x_1)}$$



$$P(X_2)$$

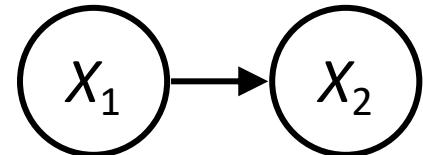
$$P(X_2) = \sum_{x_1} P(x_1, X_2)$$

$$P(X_2) = \sum_{x_1} P(X_2|x_1)P(x_1)$$

Passage of Time

- Assume we have current belief $P(X \mid \text{evidence to date})$

$$P(X_t | e_{1:t})$$



- Then, after one time step passes:

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_{t+1} | e_{1:t}) &= \sum_{x_t} P(X_{t+1}, x_t | e_{1:t}) \\ &= \sum_{x_t} P(X_{t+1} | x_t, e_{1:t}) P(x_t | e_{1:t}) \\ &= \sum_{x_t} P(X_{t+1} | x_t) P(x_t | e_{1:t}) \end{aligned}$$

- Basic idea: beliefs get “pushed” through the transitions

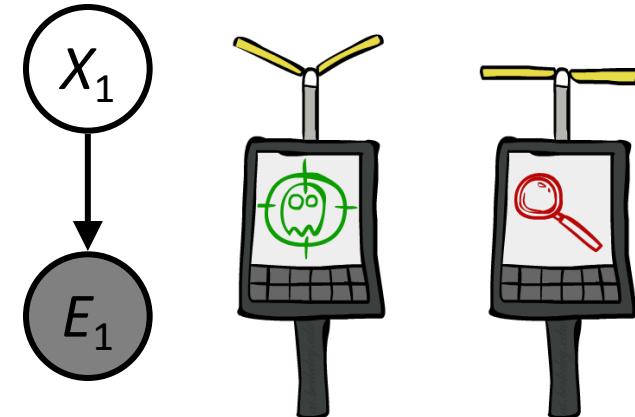
Observation

- Assume we have current belief $P(X \mid \text{previous evidence})$:

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

- Then, after evidence comes in:

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_{t+1} | e_{1:t+1}) &= P(X_{t+1}, e_{t+1} | e_{1:t}) / P(e_{t+1} | e_{1:t}) \\ &\propto_{X_{t+1}} P(X_{t+1}, e_{t+1} | e_{1:t}) \\ &= P(e_{t+1} | e_{1:t}, X_{t+1}) P(X_{t+1} | e_{1:t}) \\ &= P(e_{t+1} | X_{t+1}) P(X_{t+1} | e_{1:t}) \end{aligned}$$



- Basic idea: beliefs “reweighted” by likelihood of evidence
- Unlike passage of time, we have to renormalize

Example: Passage of Time

- As time passes, uncertainty “accumulates”

(Transition model: ghosts usually go clockwise)

<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01
<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01
<0.01	<0.01	1.00	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01
<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01

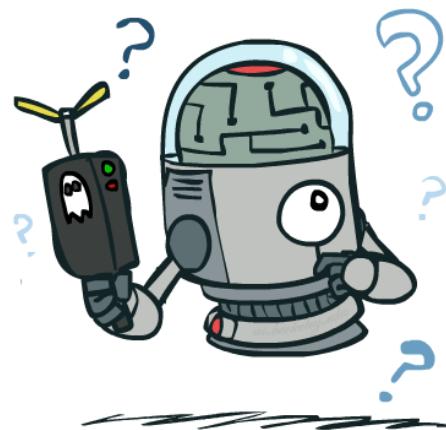
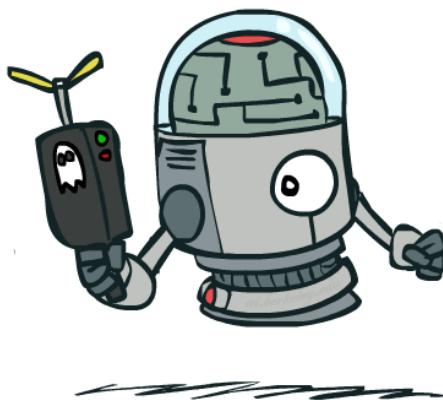
T = 1

<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01
<0.01	<0.01	0.06	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01
<0.01	0.76	0.06	0.06	<0.01	<0.01
<0.01	<0.01	0.06	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01

T = 2

0.05	0.01	0.05	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01
0.02	0.14	0.11	0.35	<0.01	<0.01
0.07	0.03	0.05	<0.01	0.03	<0.01
0.03	0.03	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01

T = 5



Example: Observation

- As we get observations, beliefs get reweighted, uncertainty “decreases”

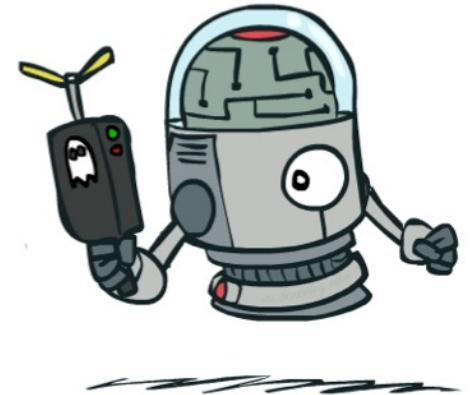
0.05	0.01	0.05	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01
0.02	0.14	0.11	0.35	<0.01	<0.01
0.07	0.03	0.05	<0.01	0.03	<0.01
0.03	0.03	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01

Before observation



<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	0.02	<0.01
<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	0.83	0.02	<0.01
<0.01	<0.01	0.11	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01
<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01	<0.01

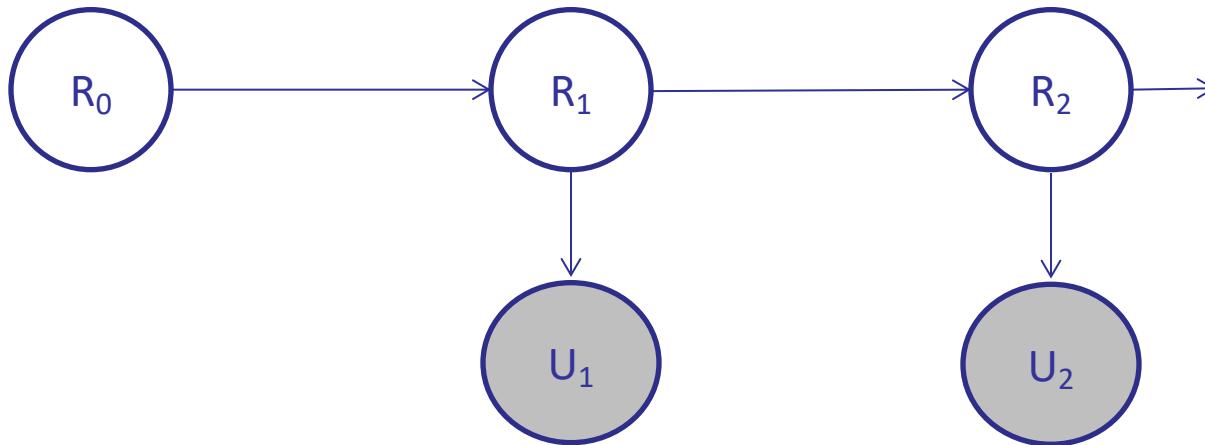
After observation



$$B(X) \propto P(e|X)B'(X)$$

Example: $U_1 = +u$, $U_2 = +u$

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(R_0 = +r) &= 0.5 & P(R_1 = +r) &= 0.5 \\
 P(R_0 = -r) &= 0.5 & P(R_1 = -r) &= 0.5 \\
 && P(R_1 = +r | +u_1) &= 0.818 \\
 && P(R_1 = -r | +u_1) &= 0.182 \\
 && P(R_2 = +r | +u_1) &= 0.627 \\
 && P(R_2 = -r | +u_1) &= 0.373 \\
 && P(R_2 = +r | +u_1, +u_2) &= 0.883 \\
 && P(R_2 = -r | +u_1, +u_2) &= 0.117
 \end{aligned}$$



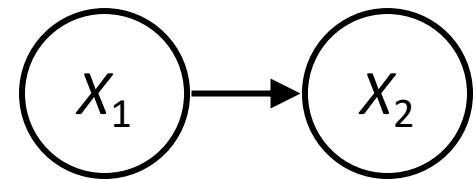
R_t	R_{t+1}	$P(R_{t+1} R_t)$
+r	+r	0.7
+r	-r	0.3
-r	+r	0.3
-r	-r	0.7

R_t	U_t	$P(U_t R_t)$
+r	+u	0.9
+r	-u	0.1
-r	+u	0.2
-r	-u	0.8

Online Belief Updates

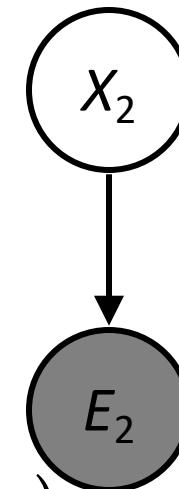
- Every time step, we start with current $P(X \mid \text{evidence})$
- We update for time:

$$P(x_t | e_{1:t-1}) = \sum_{x_{t-1}} P(x_{t-1} | e_{1:t-1}) \cdot P(x_t | x_{t-1})$$



- We update for evidence:

$$P(x_t | e_{1:t}) \propto_X P(x_t | e_{1:t-1}) \cdot P(e_t | x_t)$$



- The forward algorithm does both at once (and doesn't normalize)

The Forward Algorithm

- We are given evidence at each time and want to know

$$P(X_t|e_{1:t})$$

- We can derive the following updates

$$\begin{aligned} P(x_t|e_{1:t}) &\propto_{X_t} P(x_t, e_{1:t}) \\ &= \sum_{x_{t-1}} P(x_{t-1}, x_t, e_{1:t}) \\ &= \sum_{x_{t-1}} P(x_{t-1}, e_{1:t-1}) P(x_t|x_{t-1}) P(e_t|x_t) \\ &= P(e_t|x_t) \sum_{x_{t-1}} P(x_t|x_{t-1}) P(x_{t-1}, e_{1:t-1}) \end{aligned}$$

We can normalize as we go if we want to have $P(x|e)$ at each time step, or just once at the end...

Video of Demo Pacman – Sonar (with beliefs)



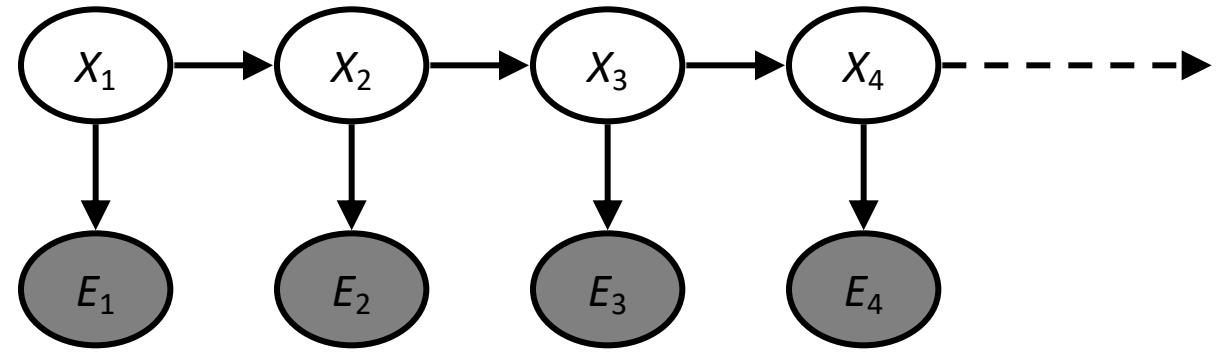
Most Likely Explanation



HMMs: MLSE Queries

- HMMs defined by

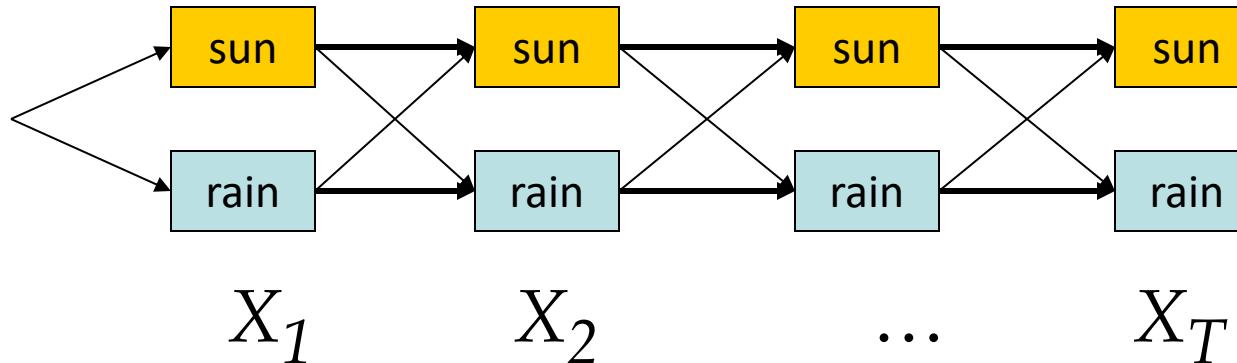
- States X
- Observations E
- Initial distribution: $P(X_1)$
- Transitions: $P(X|X_{-1})$
- Emissions: $P(E|X)$



- New query: most likely explanation: $\arg \max_{x_{1:t}} P(x_{1:t}|e_{1:t})$
- New method: the Viterbi algorithm

Most likely explanation = most probable path

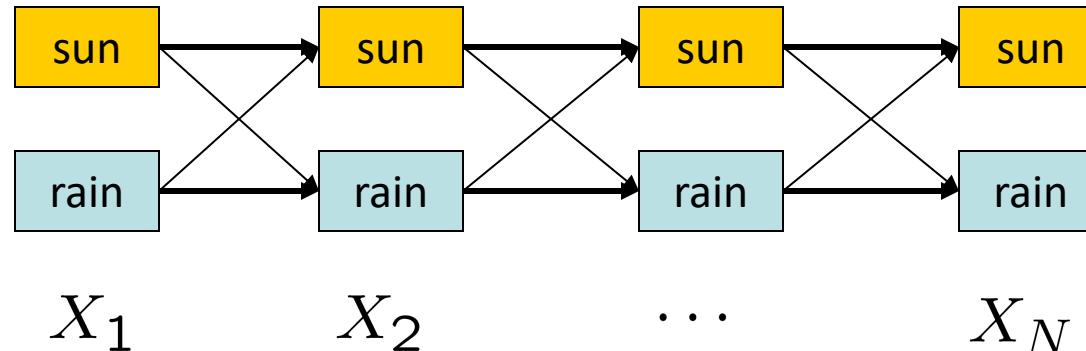
- **State trellis:** graph of states and transitions over time



$$\begin{aligned} & \operatorname{argmax}_{x_{1:t}} P(x_{1:t} \mid e_{1:t}) \\ &= \operatorname{argmax}_{x_{1:t}} P(x_{1:t}, e_{1:t}) \\ &= \operatorname{argmax}_{x_{1:t}} P(x_{1:t}, e_{1:t}) \\ &= \operatorname{argmax}_{x_{1:t}} P(x_0) \prod_t P(x_t \mid x_{t-1}) P(e_t \mid x_t) \end{aligned}$$

- 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 $P(x_0)$)
- The **product** of weights on a path is proportional to that state seq's probability
- Forward algorithm: sums of paths
- **Viterbi algorithm:** best paths
 - Dynamic Programming: solve subproblems, combine them as you go along

Forward / Viterbi Algorithms



Forward Algorithm (Sum)

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

$$f_t[x_t] = P(x_t, e_{1:t})$$

$$= P(e_t|x_t) \sum_{x_{t-1}} P(x_t|x_{t-1}) f_{t-1}[x_{t-1}]$$

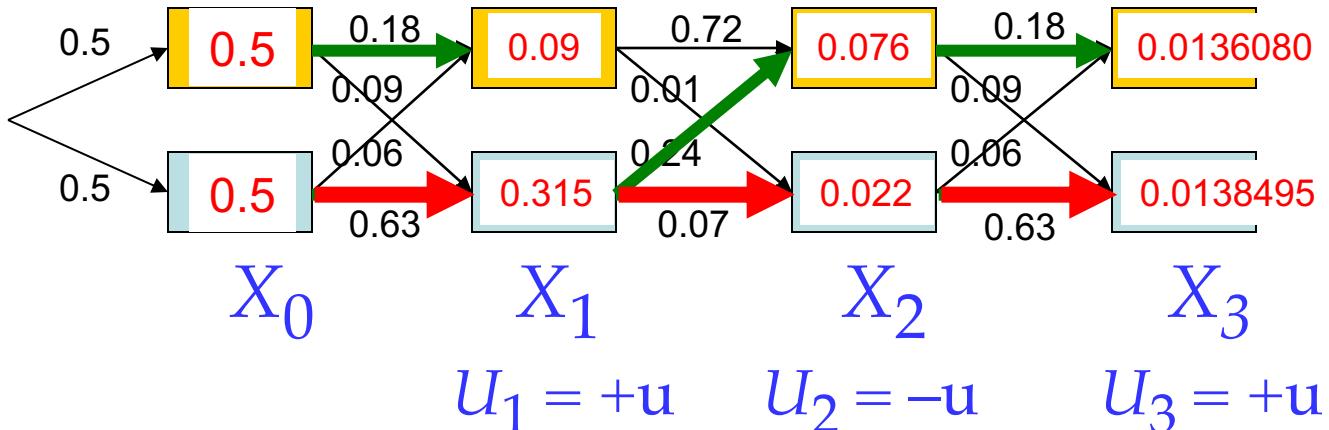
Viterbi Algorithm (Max)

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

$$m_t[x_t] = \max_{x_{1:t-1}} P(x_{1:t-1}, x_t, e_{1:t})$$

$$= P(e_t|x_t) \max_{x_{t-1}} P(x_t|x_{t-1}) m_{t-1}[x_{t-1}]$$

Viterbi algorithm



R_t	R_{t+1}	$P(R_{t+1} R_t)$
+r	+r	0.7
+r	-r	0.3
-r	+r	0.1
-r	-r	0.9

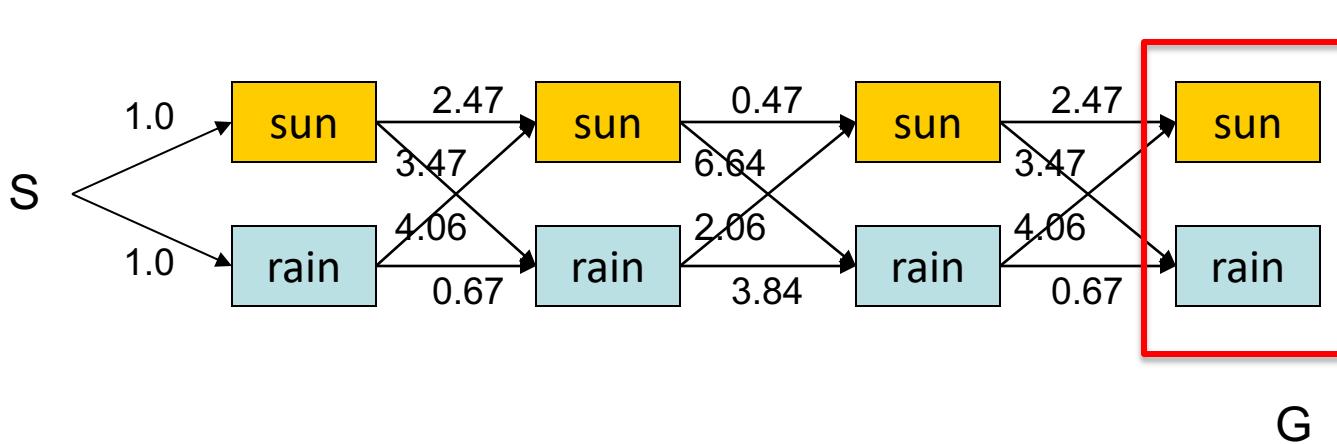
R_t	U_t	$P(U_t R_t)$
+r	+u	0.9
+r	-u	0.1
-r	+u	0.2
-r	-u	0.8

Time complexity?
 $O(|X|^2 T)$

Space complexity?
 $O(|X|T)$

Number of paths?
 $O(|X|^T)$

Viterbi in negative log space



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

argmax of product of probabilities
= argmin of sum of negative log probabilities
= minimum-cost path

Viterbi is essentially uniform cost graph search

Viterbi Algorithm Pseudocode

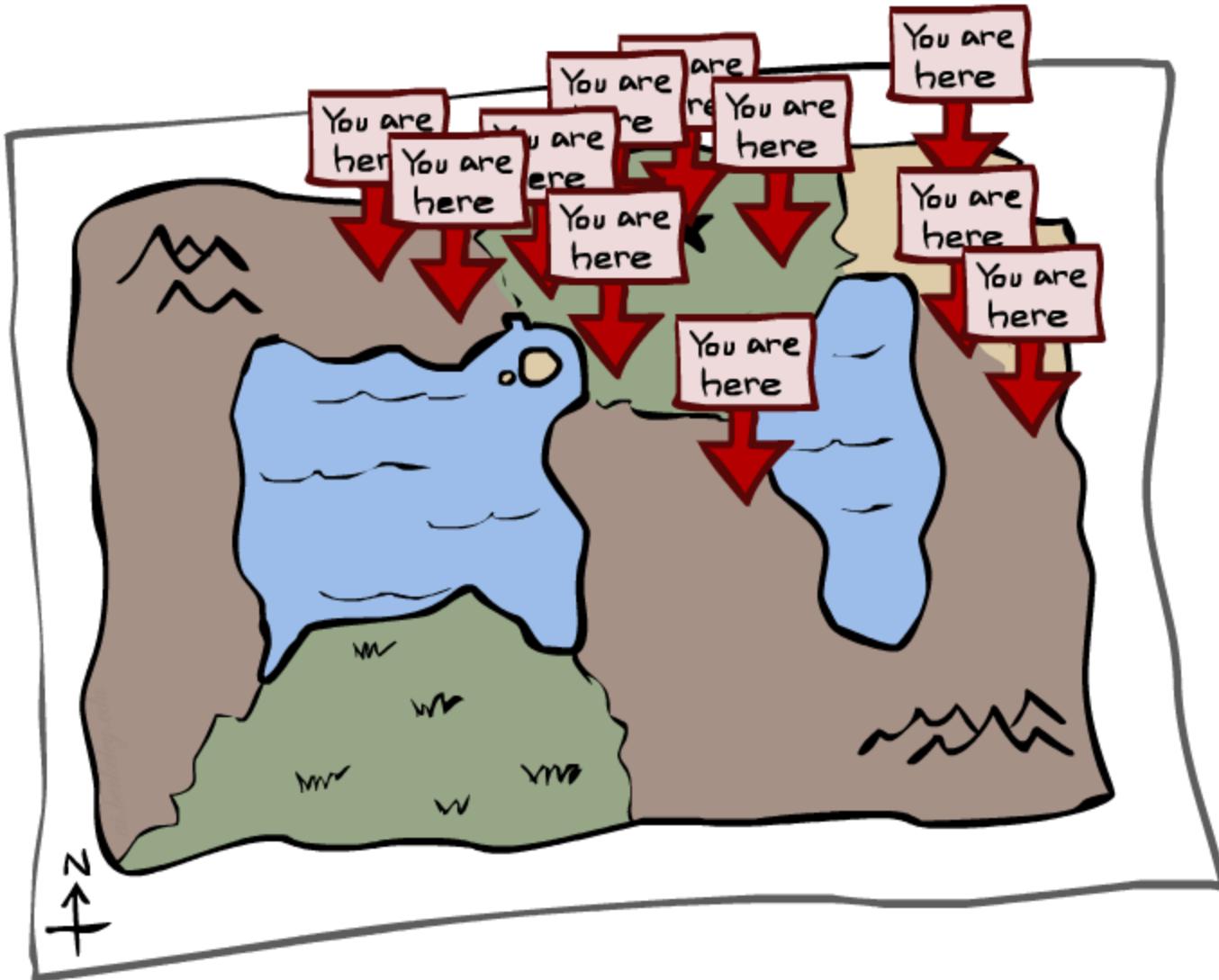
```
function VITERBI( $O, S, \Pi, Y, A, B$ ) :  $X$ 
    for each state  $i = 1, 2, \dots, K$  do
         $T_1[i, 1] \leftarrow \pi_i \cdot B_{iy_1}$ 
         $T_2[i, 1] \leftarrow 0$ 
    end for
    for each observation  $j = 2, 3, \dots, T$  do
        for each state  $i = 1, 2, \dots, K$  do
             $T_1[i, j] \leftarrow \max_k (T_1[k, j - 1] \cdot A_{ki} \cdot B_{iy_j})$ 
             $T_2[i, j] \leftarrow \arg \max_k (T_1[k, j - 1] \cdot A_{ki} \cdot B_{iy_j})$ 
        end for
    end for
     $z_T \leftarrow \arg \max_k (T_1[k, T])$ 
     $x_T \leftarrow s_{z_T}$ 
    for  $j = T, T - 1, \dots, 2$  do
         $z_{j-1} \leftarrow T_2[z_j, j]$ 
         $x_{j-1} \leftarrow s_{z_{j-1}}$ 
    end for
    return  $X$ 
end function
```

Observation Space	$O = \{o_1, o_2, \dots, o_N\}$
State Space	$S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_K\}$
Initial probabilities	$\Pi = (\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_K)$
Observations	$Y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_T)$
Transition Matrix	$A \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times K}$
Emission Matrix	$B \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times N}$

Matrix $T_1[i, j]$ stores probabilities of most likely path so far with $x_j = s_i$

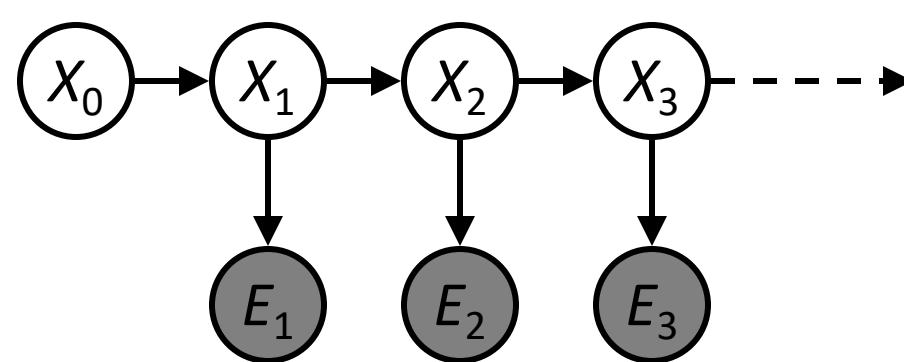
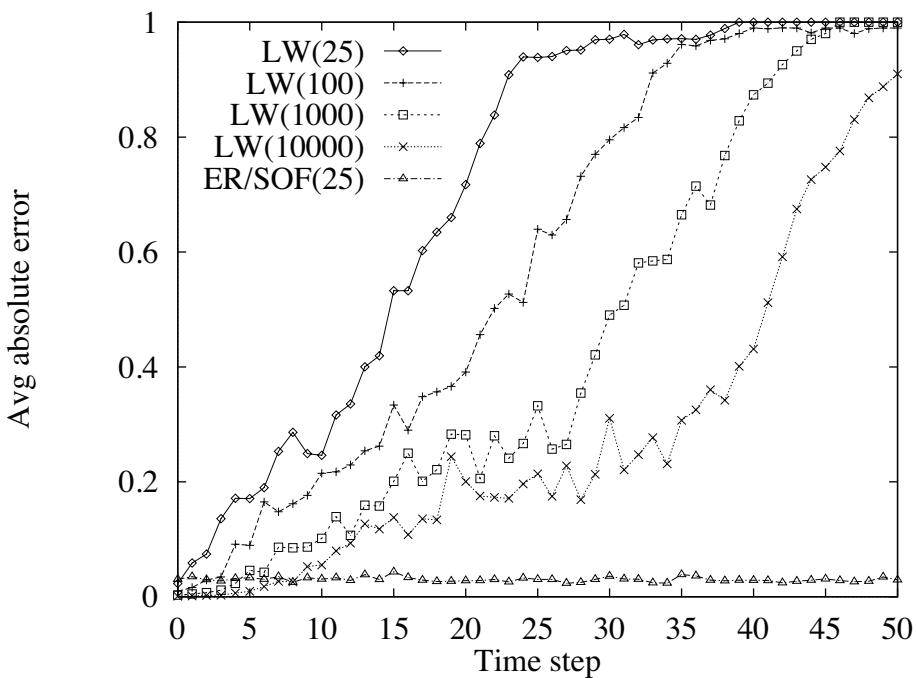
Matrix $T_2[i, j]$ stores x_{j-1} of most likely path so far with $x_j = s_i$

Particle Filtering

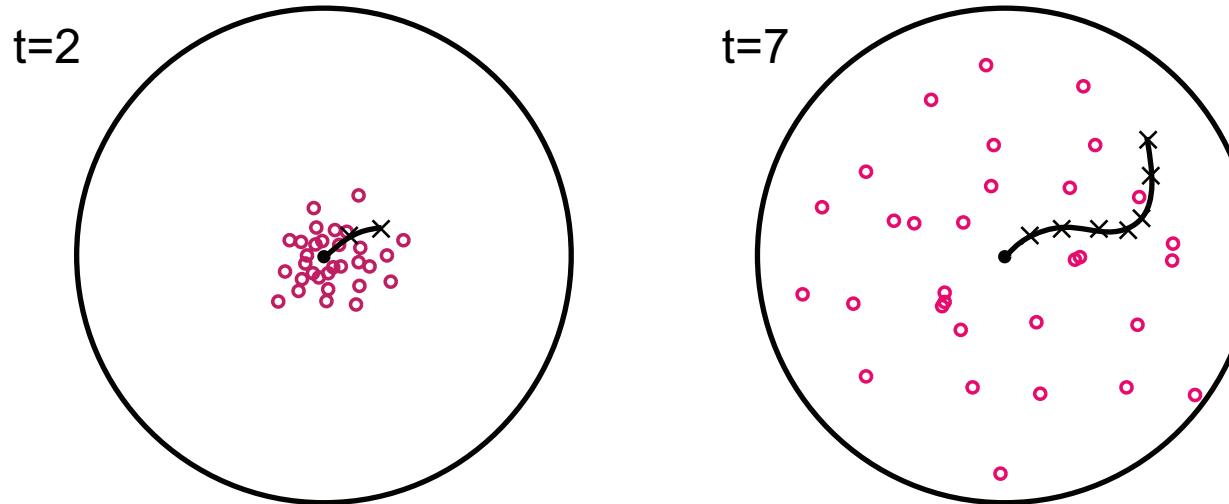


Approximate Inference on HMMs

- When $|X|$ is more than 10^6 or so (e.g., 3 ghosts in a 10×20 world), exact inference becomes infeasible
- Likelihood weighting fails completely – number of samples needed grows *exponentially* with T



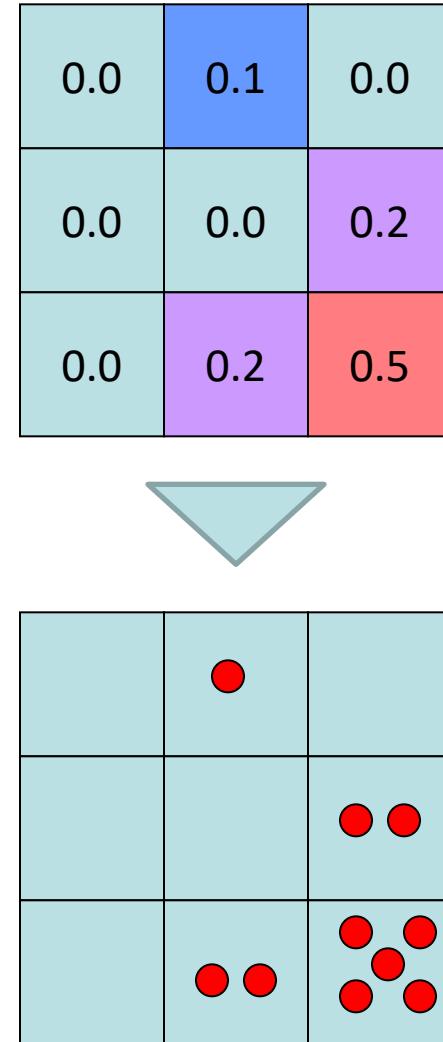
We need a new idea!



- The problem: sample state trajectories go off into low-probability regions, ignoring the evidence; too few “reasonable” samples
- Solution: kill the bad ones, make more of the good ones
- This way the population of samples stays in the high-probability region
- This is called *resampling* or survival of the fittest

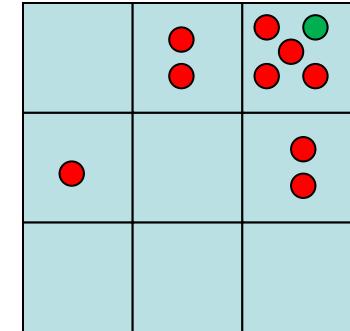
Particle Filtering

- Filtering: approximate solution
- Sometimes $|X|$ is too big to use exact inference
 - $|X|$ may be too big to even store $P(X \mid e_{1:T})$
- Solution: approximate inference
 - Track samples of X , not all values
 - Samples are called particles
 - Time per step is linear in the number of samples
 - But: number needed may be large
 - In memory: list of particles, not states
- This is how robot localization works in practice



Representation: Particles

- Our representation of $P(X)$ is now a list of N particles (samples)
 - Generally, $N \ll |X|$
- $P(x)$ approximated by number of particles with value x
 - So, many x may have $P(x) = 0!$
 - More particles, more accuracy
 - Usually we want a *low-dimensional* marginal
 - E.g., “Where is ghost 1?” rather than “Are ghosts 1,2,3 in [2,6], [5,6], and [8,11]?”
- For now, 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: Elapse Time

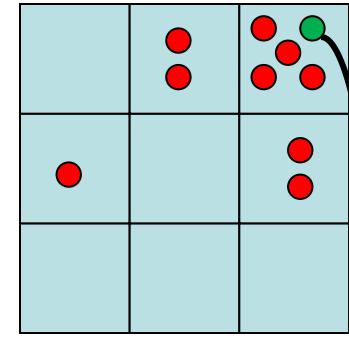
- Each particle is moved by sampling its next position from the transition model

$$x' = \text{sample}(P(X'|x))$$

- This is like prior sampling – sample's frequencies reflect the transition probabilities
- Here, most samples move clockwise, but some move in another direction or stay in place
- This captures the passage of time**
 - If enough samples, close to exact values before and after (consistent)

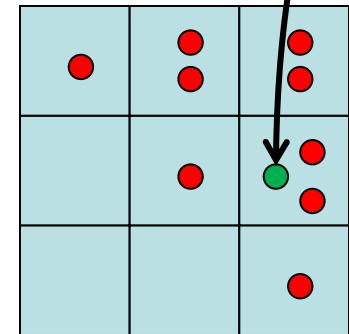
Particles:

(3,3)
(2,3)
(3,3)
(3,2)
(3,3)
(3,2)
(1,2)
(3,3)
(3,3)
(2,3)



Particles:

(3,2)
(2,3)
(3,2)
(3,1)
(3,3)
(3,2)
(1,3)
(2,3)
(3,2)
(2,2)



Particle Filtering: Incorporate Observation

- After observing Evidence e_{t+1} :

- Don't sample observation, fix it
- Similar to likelihood weighting, downweight samples based on the evidence

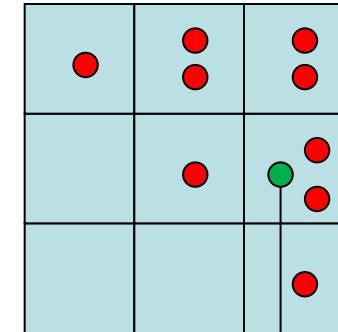
$$w(x) = P(e|x)$$

$$B(X) \propto P(e|X)B'(X)$$

- As before, the probabilities don't sum to one, since all have been downweighted (in fact they now sum to (N times) an approximation of $P(e)$)

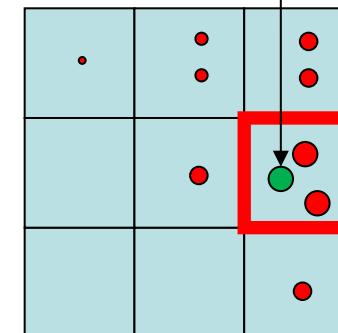
Particles:

(3,2)
(2,3)
(3,2)
(3,1)
(3,3)
(3,2)
(1,3)
(2,3)
(3,2)
(2,2)



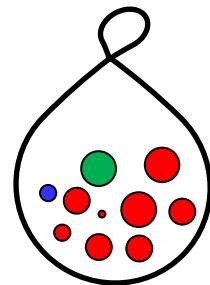
Particles:

(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



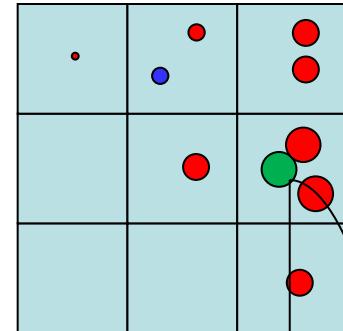
Particle Filtering: Resample

- Rather than tracking weighted samples, we resample
- N times, we choose from our weighted sample distribution (i.e. draw with replacement)
- This is equivalent to renormalizing the distribution
- Now the update is complete for this time step, continue with the next one



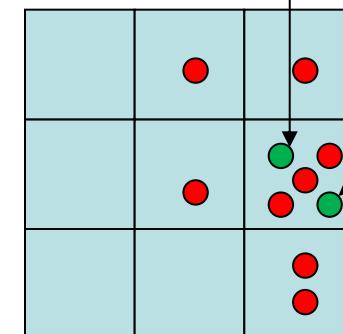
Particles:

(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



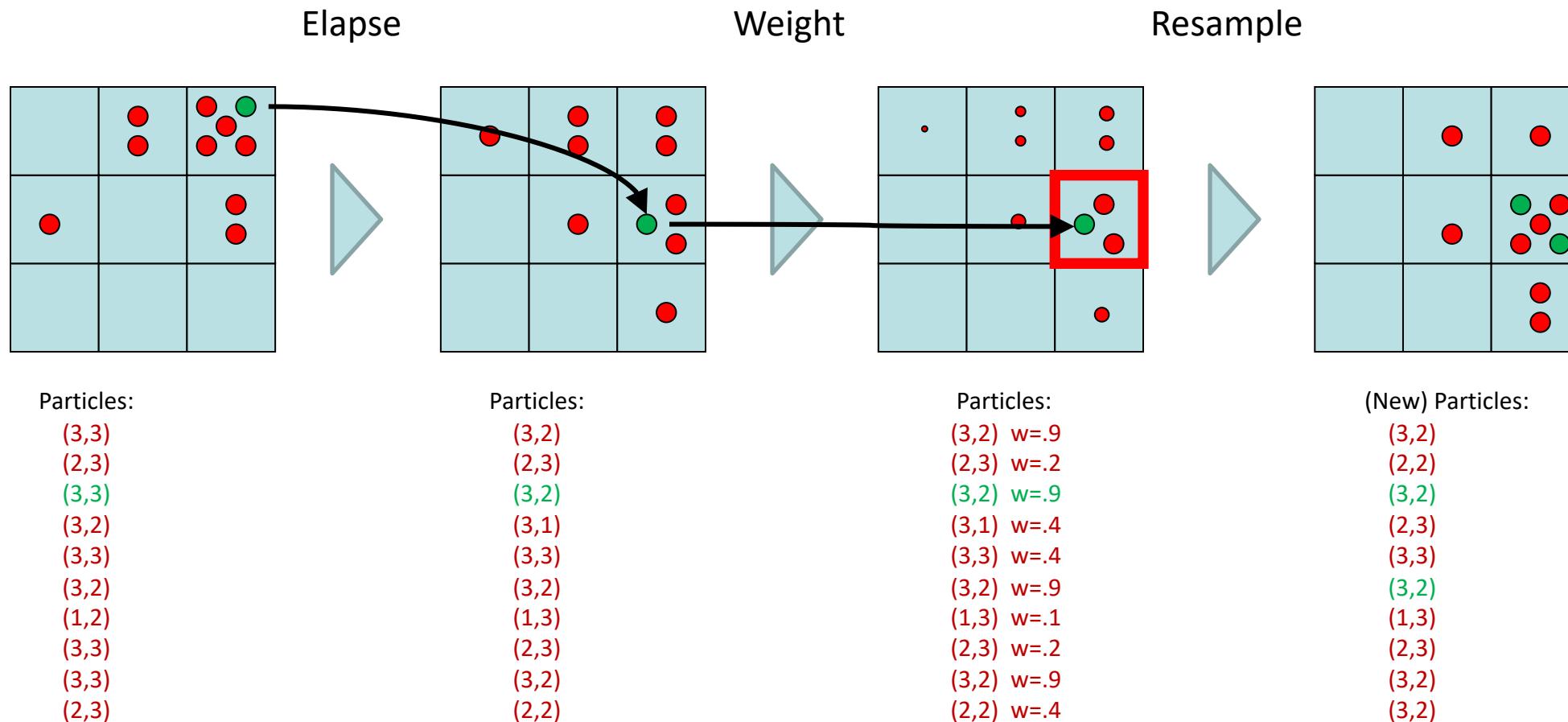
(New) Particles:

(3,2)
(2,2)
(3,2)
(2,3)
(3,3)
(3,2)
(1,3)
(2,3)
(3,2)
(3,2)



Recap: Particle Filtering

- Particles: track samples of states rather than an explicit distribution



Video of Demo – Moderate Number of Particles



Video of Demo – One Particle

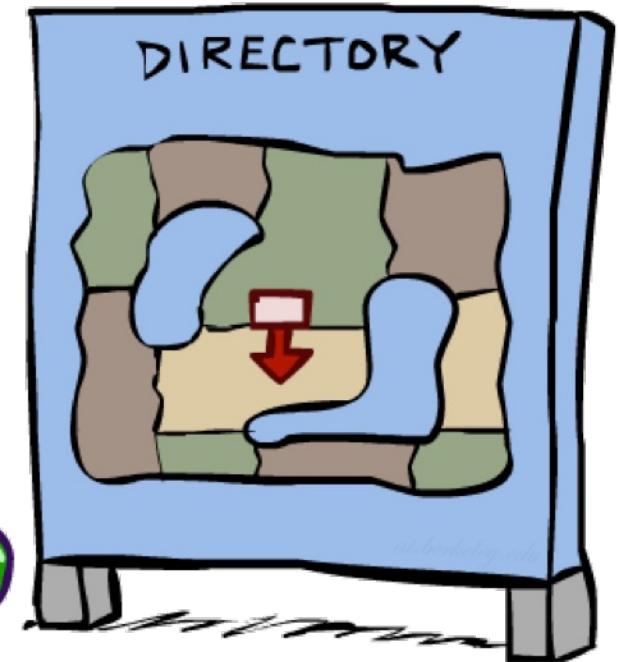
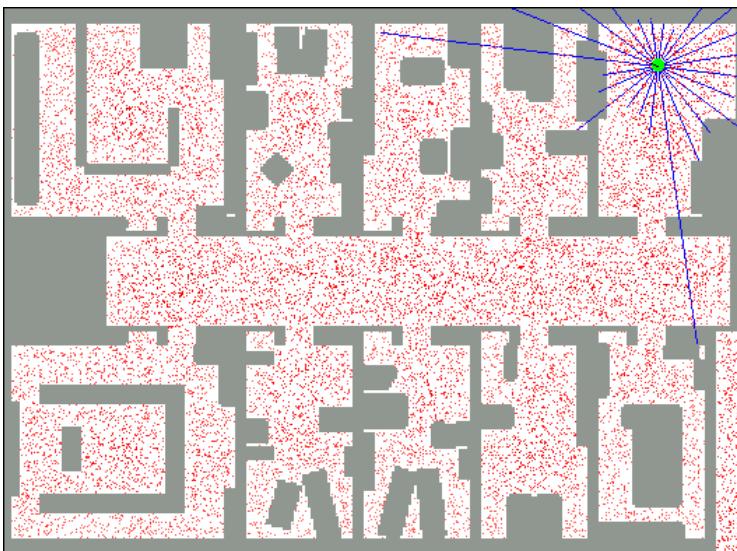


Video of Demo – Huge Number of Particles



Robot Localization

- In robot localization:
 - Know the map, but not the robot's position
 - Observations may be vectors of range finder readings
 - State space and readings typically continuous (very fine grid) and so we cannot store $P(X_t \mid e_{1:t})$
 - Particle filtering is a main technique



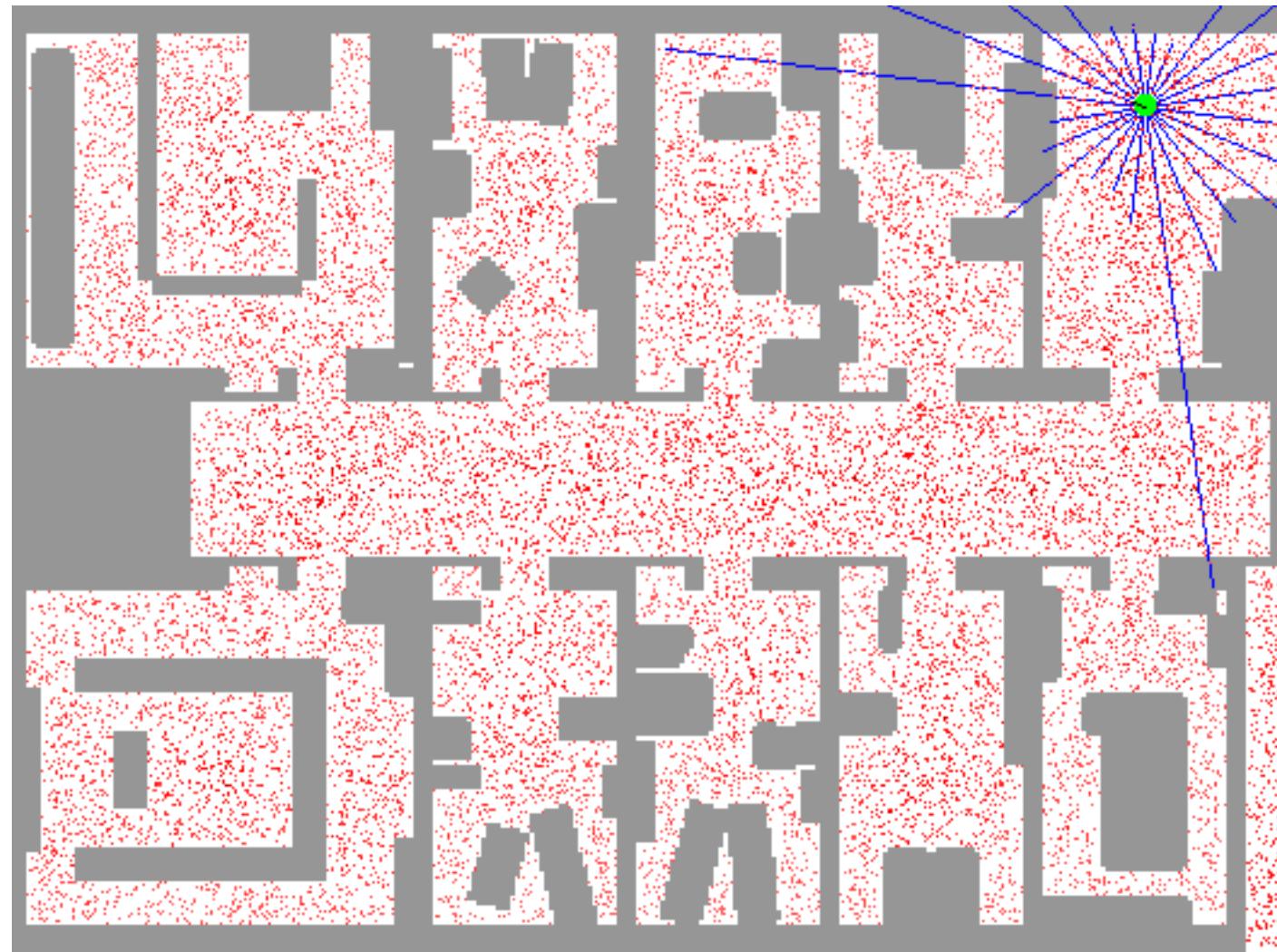
Particle Filter Localization (Sonar)



A 3D point cloud visualization of a robot's environment. The scene includes a grey floor, red walls, and a blue ceiling. A green dot represents the robot's estimated position. Red dots represent sensor data, forming a grid-like pattern. A small blue box in the bottom-left corner displays the number "40000".

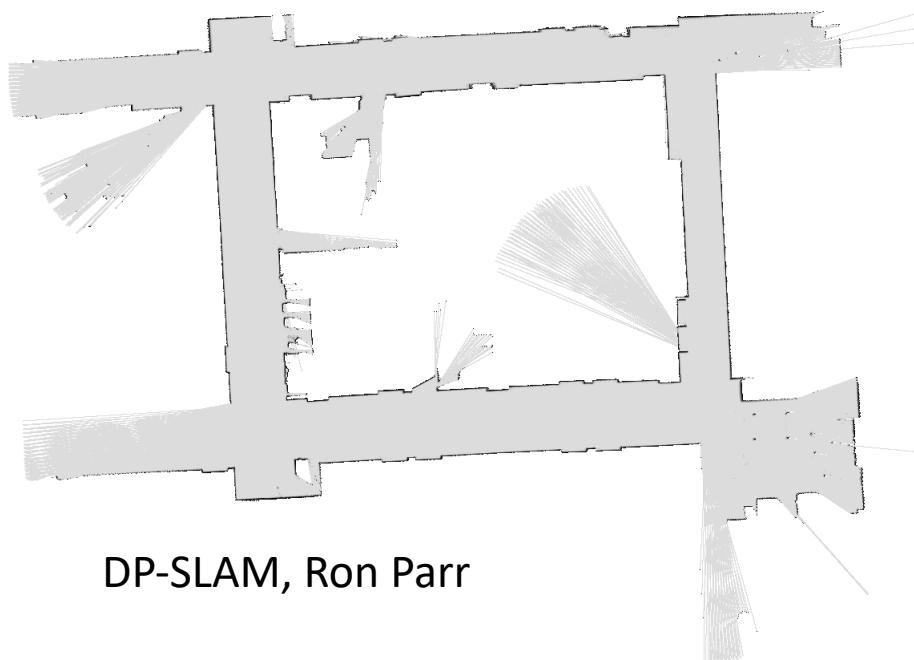
**Global localization with
sonar sensors**

Particle Filter Localization (Laser)

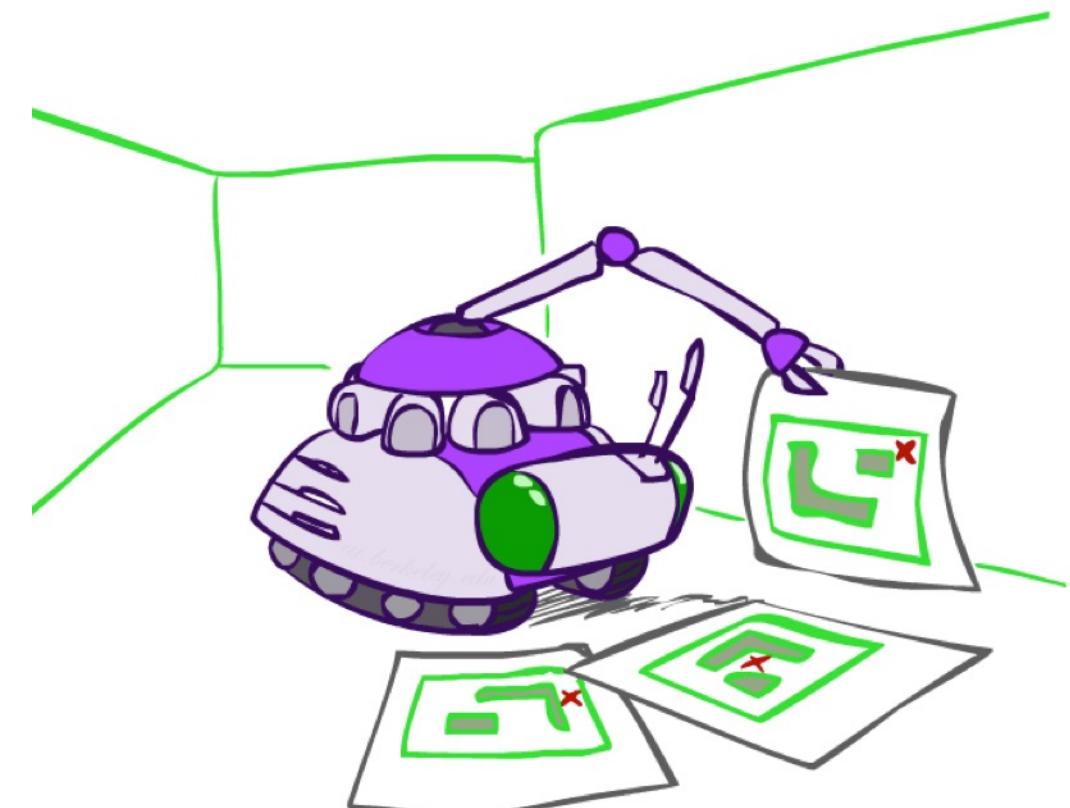


Robot Mapping

- 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

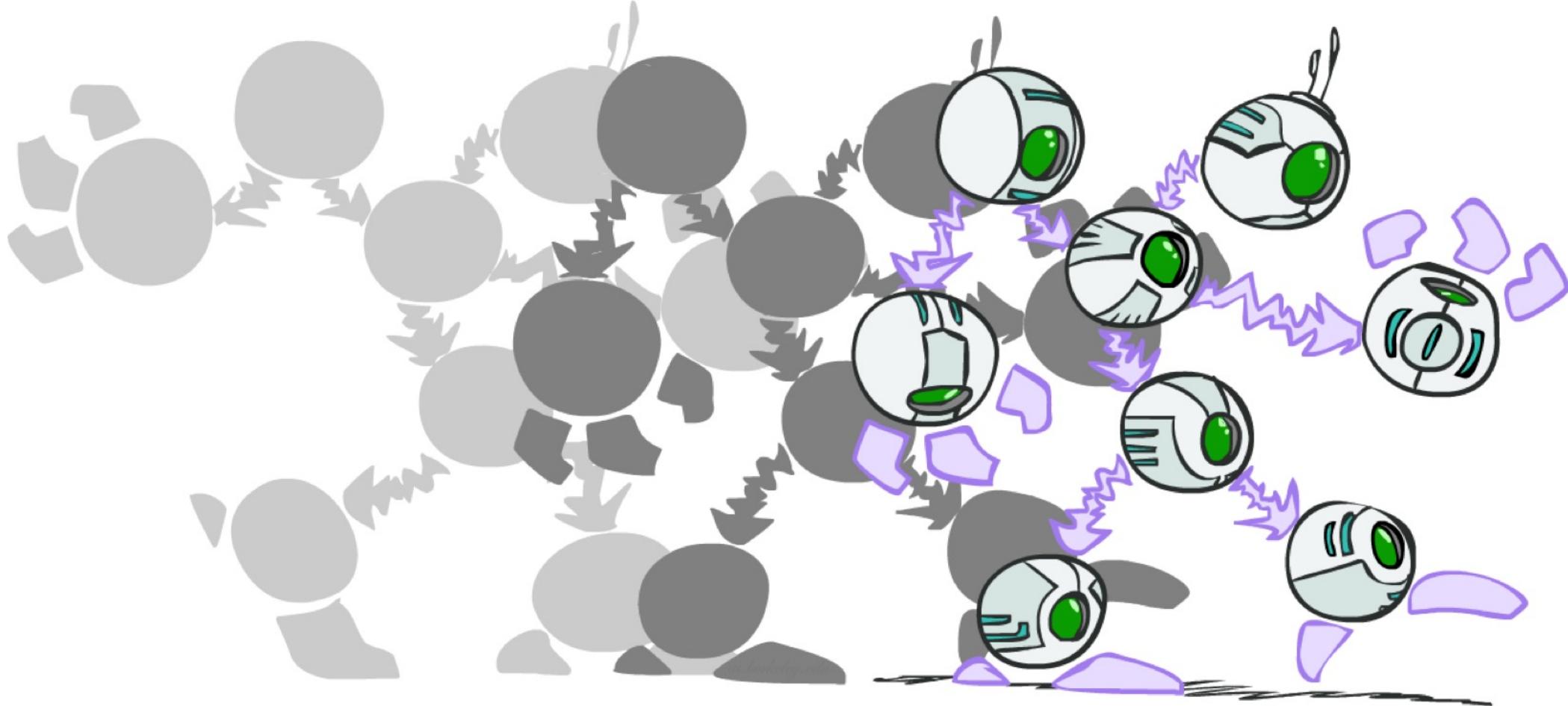


DP-SLAM, Ron Parr



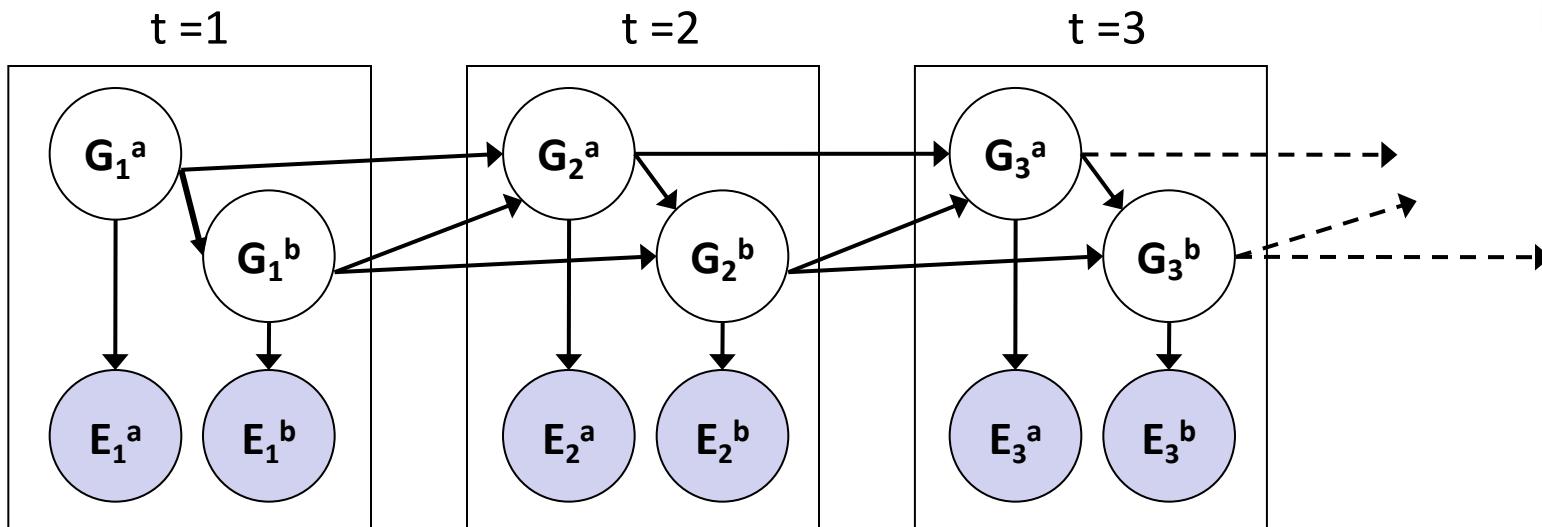
[Demo: PARTICLES-SLAM-mapping1-new.avi]

Dynamic Bayes Nets

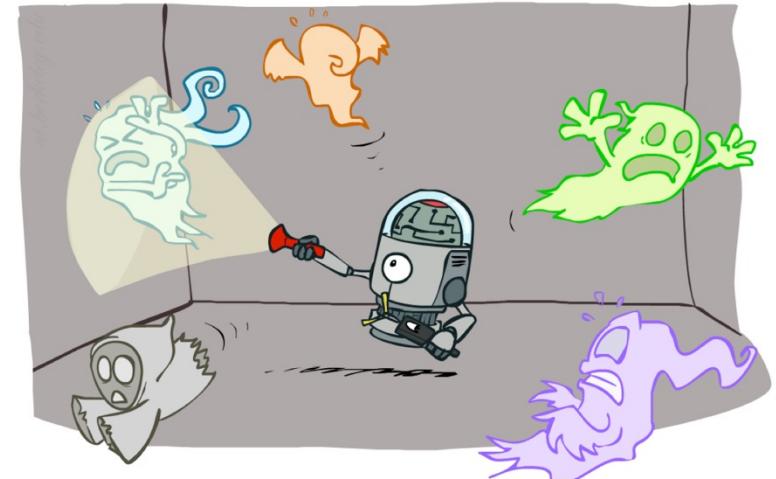


Dynamic Bayes Nets (DBNs)

- 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 $t-1$

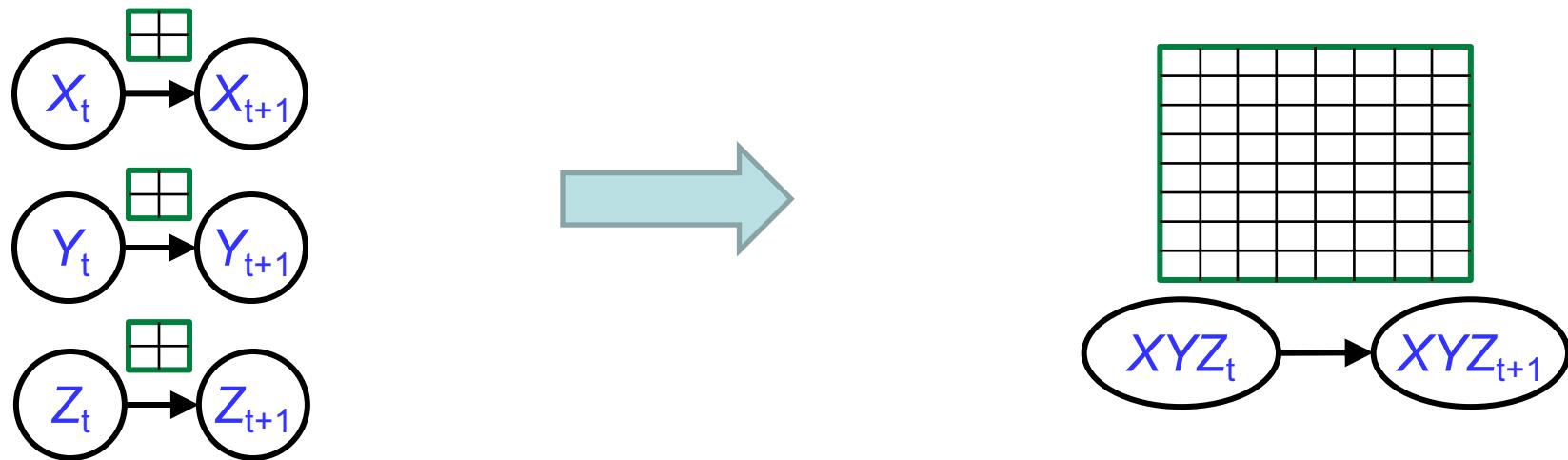


- Dynamic Bayes nets are a generalization of HMMs



DBNs and HMMs

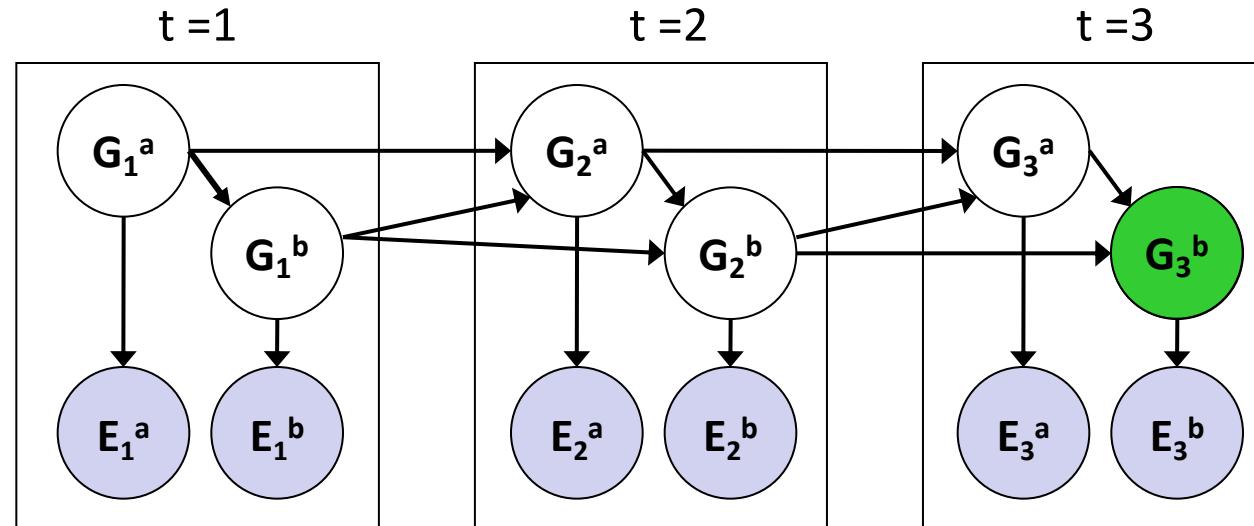
- Every HMM is a single-variable DBN
- Every discrete DBN is an HMM
 - HMM state is Cartesian product of DBN state variables



- Sparse dependencies => exponentially fewer parameters in DBN
 - E.g., 20 state variables, 3 parents each;
DBN has $20 \times 2^3 = 160$ parameters, HMM has $2^{20} \times 2^{20} = \sim 10^{12}$ parameters

Exact Inference in DBNs

- Variable elimination applies to dynamic Bayes nets
- Procedure: “unroll” the network for T time steps, then eliminate variables until $P(X_T | e_{1:T})$ is computed



- Online belief updates: Eliminate all variables from the previous time step; store factors for current time only

DBN Particle Filters

- A particle is a complete sample for a time step
- **Initialize:** Generate prior samples for the t=1 Bayes net
 - Example particle: $\mathbf{G}_1^a = (3,3)$ $\mathbf{G}_1^b = (5,3)$
- **Elapse time:** Sample a successor for each particle
 - Example successor: $\mathbf{G}_2^a = (2,3)$ $\mathbf{G}_2^b = (6,3)$
- **Observe:** Weight each *entire* sample by the likelihood of the evidence conditioned on the sample
 - Likelihood: $P(E_1^a | \mathbf{G}_1^a) * P(E_1^b | \mathbf{G}_1^b)$
- **Resample:** Select prior samples (tuples of values) in proportion to their likelihood