# 732A96/TDDE15 Advanced Machine Learning State Space Models

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Lecture 10: Linear-Gaussian State Space Models and the Kalman Filter

# Contents

- Linear Gaussian State Space Models
- Robot Localization
- Bayes Filter
- Kalman Filter

### Literature

- Main source
  - Thrun, S. et al. Probabilistic Robotics. MIT Press, 2005. Chapters 2, 3.1 and 3.2.
- Additional source
  - Bishop, C. M. Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning. Springer, 2006. Chapter 13.3.

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- Moreover, we assume that the transition, emission and initial distributions are Gaussian. That is,

$$p(z_t|z_{t-1}) = \mathcal{N}(z_t|Az_{t-1}, \Gamma)$$

$$p(x_t|z_t) = \mathcal{N}(x_t|Cz_t, \Sigma)$$

$$p(z_0) = \mathcal{N}(z_0|\mu_0, V_0)$$

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## or equivalently

$$z_t = Az_{t-1} + w_t$$
 // Linear model  $x_t = Cz_t + v_t$   $z_0 = \mu_0 + u_0$ 

#### where

$$w_t \sim \mathcal{N}(w_t|0,\Gamma)$$
 // Gaussian noise  $v_t \sim \mathcal{N}(v_t|0,\Sigma)$   $u_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(u_0|0,V_0)$ 

because recall that E[Ax + B] = AE[x] + B and  $cov[Ax + B] = Acov[x]A^{T}$ .

Recall that if

$$p(x) = \mathcal{N}(x|\mu, \Lambda^{-1})$$
$$p(y|x) = \mathcal{N}(y|Ax + B, L^{-1})$$

then

$$p(x,y) = \mathcal{N}(x,y|A\mu + B,R^{-1})$$

where

$$R^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \Lambda^{-1} & \Lambda^{-1} A^T \\ A \Lambda^{-1} & L^{-1} + A \Lambda^{-1} A^T \end{pmatrix}$$

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▶ Recall also that if  $p(x) = \mathcal{N}(x|\mu, \Sigma)$  and  $\Lambda = \Sigma^{-1}$  and

$$x = (x_a, x_b)^T \qquad \mu = (\mu_a, \mu_b)^T$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{aa} & \Sigma_{ab} \\ \Sigma_{ba} & \Sigma_{bb} \end{pmatrix} \qquad \Lambda = \begin{pmatrix} \Lambda_{aa} & \Lambda_{ab} \\ \Lambda_{ba} & \Lambda_{bb} \end{pmatrix}$$

then

$$\begin{split} & p(x_a) = \mathcal{N}(x_a|\mu_a, \Sigma_{aa}) \\ & p(x_a|x_b) = \mathcal{N}(x_a|\mu_{a|b}, \Lambda_{aa}^{-1}) \text{ where } \mu_{a|b} = \mu_a - \Lambda_{aa}^{-1} \Lambda_{ab}(x_b - \mu_b) \end{split}$$

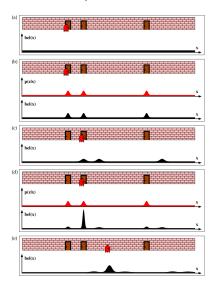
- Note that the filtered and smoothed distributions, i.e.  $p(z^t|x^{0:t})$  and  $p(z^t|x^{0:T})$ , are Gaussian and we know how to compute them from the transition, emission and initial distributions:
  - ▶ Build the joint distribution  $p(z^{0:t}, x^{0:t})$  and  $p(z^{0:t}, x^{0:T})$  and, then, marginalize and condition.
  - ▶ Then, we know how to reason with linear Gaussian SSMs.

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- We also know how to compute  $\alpha(z^t)$  and  $\beta(z^t)$ :
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  - $\,\blacktriangleright\,$  Then, we know how to learn linear Gaussian SSMs: EM + FB algorithms.
- Note that the Viterbi algorithm is not needed: The most probable path consists of the most probable values of the smoothed distributions, because no transition has zero probability.

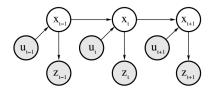
## Robot Localization

▶ The robot may need to know itself its location, e.g. to plan ahead.



x = latent variable z = observed variable  $bel(x^t) = p(x^t|z^{0:t}) =$  filtering **Confussing notation**, because Thrun et al. invert Bishop's notation. We follow the former since their book is the primary source for this lecture.

## Robot Localization



**Figure 2.2** The dynamic Bayes network that characterizes the evolution of controls, states, and measurements.

- x<sub>t</sub> = state, e.g. robot's position.
- $ightharpoonup z_t = \text{measurement}$ , e.g. robot's sensor reading.
- $u_t = \text{control}$ , e.g. robot's action.
- State transition probability = p(x'|u,x).
- Measurement probability = p(z|x).
- Note the Markovian and stationary assumptions.
- Belief  $bel(x_t) = p(x_t|z_{1:t}, u_{1:t}).$
- Prior belief  $\overline{bel}(x_t) = p(x_t|z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t})$ .
- Prediction = computing  $\overline{bel}(x_t)$  from  $bel(x_{t-1})$ .
- Correction = computing  $bel(x_t)$  from  $\overline{bel}(x_t)$ .

An efficient way to compute beliefs from measurement and control data.

#### Bayes filter algorithm

- $1 bel(x_0) = p(x_0)$
- 2 For t = 1, ...
- 3  $\overline{bel}(x_t) = \int p(x_t|u_t, x_{t-1})bel(x_{t-1})dx_{t-1}$  // Prediction
  - 4  $bel(x_t) = \eta p(z_t|x_t)\overline{bel}(x_t)$  // Correction

An efficient way to compute beliefs from measurement and control data.

### Bayes filter algorithm

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In line 3, note that

$$\overline{bel}(x_t) = \int p(x_t|x_{t-1}, z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t}) p(x_{t-1}|z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t}) dx_{t-1}$$

$$= \int p(x_t|x_{t-1}, u_t) p(x_{t-1}|z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t-1}) dx_{t-1}$$

$$= \int p(x_t|u_t, x_{t-1}) bel(x_{t-1}) dx_{t-1}$$

by the Markovian assumption and  $x_{t-1} \perp_p u_t | z_{1:t-1}$ .

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In line 4, note that

$$bel(x_t) \propto p(z_t|x_t, z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t})p(x_t|z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t}) = p(z_t|x_t)\overline{bel}(x_t)$$

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▶ The algorithm is efficient only if lines 3-4 can be evaluated in closed form.

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- ► Kalman filter = Bayes filter + linear Gaussian SSMs ⇒ efficient.
- Recall that a linear Gaussian SSM is defined as

$$x_t = A_t x_{t-1} + B_t u_t + \epsilon_t$$
  

$$z_t = C_t x_t + \delta_t$$
  

$$x_0 = \mu_0 + \tau_0$$

where

$$\begin{split} & \epsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\epsilon_t|0, R_t) \\ & \delta_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\delta_t|0, Q_t) \\ & \tau_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(\tau_0|0, \Sigma_0) \end{split}$$

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or equivalently

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$$p(x_t|x_{t-1}, u_t) = \mathcal{N}(x_t|A_tx_{t-1} + B_tu_t, R_t)$$

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Note that  $x_t$ ,  $z_t$  and  $u_t$  may be vectors (of different dimensions).

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- Note that  $x_t$ ,  $z_t$  and  $u_t$  may be vectors (of different dimensions).
- Note that  $R_t$  and  $Q_t$  depend on t, i.e. no stationarity assumption. Fine for reasoning but not so fine for learning.

- $\overline{bel}(x_t) = \mathcal{N}(x_t|\overline{\mu}_t, \overline{\Sigma}_t)$
- $bel(x_t) = \mathcal{N}(x_t|\mu_t, \Sigma_t)$

### Kalman filter algorithm

```
\begin{array}{lll} 1 \text{ Set } \mu_0 \text{ and } \Sigma_0 \text{ from } p(x_0) \\ 2 \text{ For } t = 1, \dots \\ 3 & \overline{\mu}_t = A_t \mu_{t-1} + B_t u_t & // \text{ Prediction} \\ 4 & \overline{\Sigma}_t = A_t \Sigma_{t-1} A_t^T + R_t & // \text{ Prediction} \\ 5 & K_t = \overline{\Sigma}_t C_t^T \left( C_t \overline{\Sigma}_t C_t^T + Q_t \right)^{-1} & // \text{ Kalman gain} \\ 6 & \mu_t = \overline{\mu}_t + K_t (z_t - C_t \overline{\mu}_t) & // \text{ Correction} \\ 7 & \Sigma_t = (I - K_t C_t) \overline{\Sigma}_t & // \text{ Correction} \end{array}
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```

- ▶ Note that  $(z_t C_t \overline{\mu}_t)$  in line 6 is the deviation between the actual measurement and the predicted measurement.
- ▶ The Kalman gain  $K_t$  specifies the impact of the deviation in the correction.

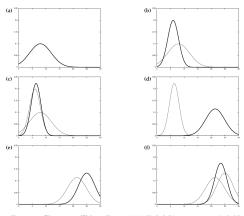


Figure 3.2 Illustration of Kalman filters: (a) initial belief, (b) a measurement (in bold) with the associated uncertainty, (c) belief after integrating the measurement into the belief using the Kalman filter algorithm, (d) belief after motion to the right (which introduces uncertainty), (e) a new measurement with associated uncertainty, and (f) the resulting belief.

- (a)  $\overline{bel}(x_t)$ , (b)  $p(z_t|x_t)$ , (c)  $bel(x_t)$ .
- (d)  $\overline{bel}(x_{t+1})$ , (e)  $p(z_{t+1}|x_{t+1})$ , (f)  $bel(x_{t+1})$ .

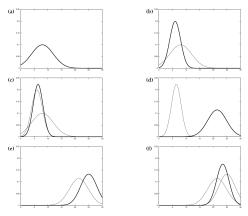


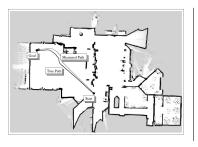
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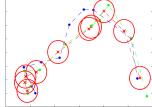
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- Prediction increases uncertainty, and correction decreases it.

- Gaussian distributions are unimodal. Hence,  $bel(x_t)$  is unimodal.
- This fits many robot localization scenarios but not all, e.g. the door scenario where the robot may be in several distant locations.

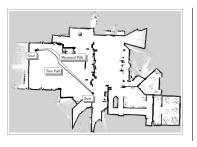
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- ► Trade-off between accuracy and simplicity/tractability/efficiency.

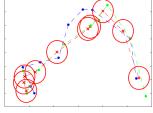
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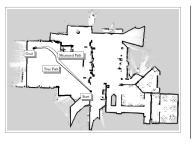
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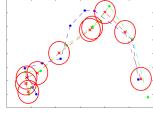




- Other examples:
  - ▶ No visual contact of the robot, e.g. on Mars and  $u_t = \text{Earth's commands}$ .

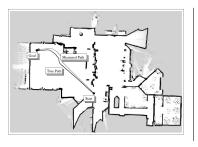
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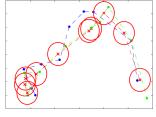




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  - No visual contact of the robot, e.g. on Mars and  $u_t = \text{Earth's commands}$ .
  - $x_t$  = unemployment rate at time t,  $z_t$  = labor force survey,  $u_t$  = tax policy.

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  - No visual contact of the robot, e.g. on Mars and  $u_t = \text{Earth's commands}$ .
  - $x_t = \text{unemployment rate at time } t, z_t = \text{labor force survey}, u_t = \text{tax policy}.$
  - $x_t = \text{democrats'}$  voting share at time t,  $z_t = \text{poll result}$ ,  $u_t = \text{tax policy}$ .

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Thank you