ROBÓTICA AÉREA Módulo III, Tema 2: Sensor fusion Tema 2.1: Bayes filter

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Contenidos

- Multisensor data fusion and probabilistic robotics
- Bayes' rule
 - Probability density/mass function
 - Bayes' rule
 - Summary
- Bayes filter
 - Markov assumption
 - Bayes filter
 - Example
 - Summary



Probablistic robotics

- The standard MULTISENSOR DATA FUSION methods employed in robotics are based on probabilistic methods.
- PROBABILISTIC ROBOTICS intends to address the uncertainties in robot perception and action.
- Instead of relying on a single "best guess", probabilistic algorithms represent information by **probability distributions over a whole space of guesses**.
- By doing so, they can represent ambiguity and degree of belief in a mathematically sound way. Estimation and control choices are made robustly by taking into account of the uncertainty.
- Probabilistic methods used in robotics are generally based on Bayes' rule (Teorema de Bayes) for combining prior information (información previa) and observation information.
- We shall illustrate this concept with mobile robot localization as an example the problem of estimating a robot's coordinates relative to an external reference frame.
- The **belief** bel(x) (creencia) of its location is represented by a **probability density function** (función de densidad de probabilidad) over the space of all locations x.



Mobile robot localization

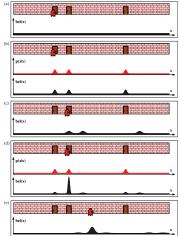


Figure: Mobile robot localization using probabilistic methods [Thrun, 2005].

- Prior to sensor measurements, the belief bel(x) has a **uniform distribution** over all locations
- After the first sensor measurement z, the robot realizes that it is **in front of a door**.
 - For a given x position, the probability of the sensor detecting a door at x is given by p(z|x), three bell-shape distributions in front of three indistinguishable doors.
 - The robot then updates the belief bel(x) accordingly, including three distinct hypotheses which are equally plausible given the sensor data.
 - The robot also assigns small but non-zero probabilities in front of walls, to account for the possibilities of errors in its assessment of seeing a door. The ability to maintain lowprobability hypotheses is essential for attaining robustness.



Mobile robot localization

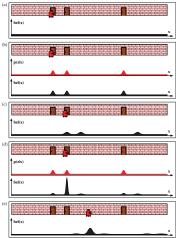


Figure: Mobile robot localization using probabilistic methods [Thrun, 2005].

- After moving, the belief has been shifted in the direction of motion. The larger spread of bel(x) reflects the uncertainty in robot motion.
- The sensor detects a second door.
 - The probability of the sensor detecting a door, p(z|x), is the same as the first sensor measurement
 - However, for the belief bel(x), based on prior information and current sensor measurements, the probabilistic algorithm now can place most of the probability near one of the doors. The robot is now quite confident about where it is.
- The probabilistic algorithm **updates the belief** bel(x) **recursively** as the robot moves. At each iteration, there are two steps:
 - PREDICTION/PROPAGATION (propagación) by integrating equations of motion with control inputs
 - UPDATE/CORRECTION (corrección) of the prediction results with observation ingerts



Discrete probability distribution

$$\sum_{x} p(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(X = x_i) = 1$$

- DISCRETE RANDOM VARIABLE (variable aleatoria discreta) X can have a countable number of values in $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$.
- PROBABILITY MASS FUNCTION (PMF, función de masa de probabilidad) of X, p(x) = $P(X = x_i)$, denotes the **probability** of X having a certain value x_i .
- For instance, a fair coin (moneda) gives p(head, cara) = p(tail, cruz) = 1/2.
- Discrete probability sums up to one.

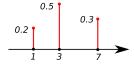


Figure: The probability mass function of a discrete probability distribution: p(1) = 0.2, p(3) =0.5, p(7) = 0.3 (source, ©Oleg Alexandrov).



Continuous probability distribution

$$P(X \in [a,b]) = \int_a^b p(x) dx, \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) dx = 1$$

- CONTINUOUS RANDOM VARIABLE (variable aleatoria continua) X can have a continuum of values.
- PROBABILITY DENSITY FUNCTION (PDF, función de densidad de probabilidad) p(x) is the probability "per unit length".
 - It is also called PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTION FUNCTION.
 - We can **NOT specify** the probability for X to have a **particular value** x.
 - $P(X \in [x, x+dx]) = p(x) dx$ is the probability of X falling within the **infinitesimal interval** (intervalo infinitesimal) [x, x+dx].
 - $P(X \in [a, b]) = \int_a^b p(x) dx$ is the probability of X falling within the **interval** [a, b].
- Integration of the PDF over the whole continuous space, i.e., zeroth moment $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^0 p(x) dx$, equals to one.
- There can be p(x)>1 for a continuous PDF, but NOT for a discrete PMF. For instance, Dirac Delta function with infinite value at origin and zero elsewhere, $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x) \, \mathrm{d}x = 1$.
- An example in thermodynamics: 1D Maxwellian velocity distribution function.



Probability density/mass functio

1D Maxwellian velocity distribution function

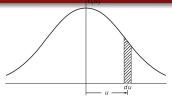


Figure: A velocity distribution function. The shaded area is f(u) du. (source, $\mathbb{O}R$. Feynman).

$$f_M(u) = \sqrt{\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T}} \exp\left(-\frac{mu^2/2}{k_B T}\right)$$

- A gas in thermal equilibrium at rest has the mean velocity $\bar{u} = 0$.
- The temperature T (in K) measures the random jiggling motion of the atoms. With k_B the Boltzmann constant, k_BT has the unit of energy J.
- The possibility (fraction) of particles having velocities within a range du about u, [u, u + du], is $f_M(u) du$.
- For the zeroth moment, you can prove $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u^0 f_M(u) du = 1$ by using Gaussin integral $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} exp(-x^2) dx = \sqrt{\pi}$.
- If the number density of this gas is n (in m^{-3}), the number density of particles having velocities within a range du about u, [u, u + du], is $nf_M(u) du$ and we have $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} nf_M(u) du = n \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_M(u) du = n$.
- The zero mean velocity can be demonstrated by the first moment $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u^1 f_M(u) du = \overline{u} = 0$.
- The temperature measures the average energy of the particle, which can be derived

from the second moment as $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{mu^2}{2} f_M(u) du = k_B T$.



Joint probability

The JOINT PROBABILITY (probabilidad conjunta) of two random variables X and Y describes the probability that both events X = x and Y = y occur together.

$$p(x,y) = P(X = x, Y = y)$$

	X = 0	X=1
Y = 0	30	20
Y = 1	10	40

$$P(X = 0, Y = 0) = 30\%$$

$$P(X = 0, Y = 1) = 10\%$$

$$P(X = 1, Y = 0) = 20\%$$

$$P(X = 1, Y = 1) = 40\%$$



Conditional probability

The CONDITIONAL PROBABILITY (probabilidad condicionada) of X = x given Y = y (x dado y) describes the probability that the event X = x occurs given the occurrence of the other event Y = y as a condition. In other words, it is the probability of X = x conditioned on Y = y.

$$p(x|y) = P(X = x|Y = y)$$

	X = 0	X=1
Y = 0	30	20
Y = 1	10	40

$$P(X = 0, Y = 0) = 30\%$$

$$P(X = 0 | Y = 0) = \frac{30}{30 + 20} = 60\%$$

$$P(X = 0, Y = 1) = 10\%$$

$$P(X = 0 | Y = 1) = \frac{10}{10 + 40} = 20\%$$

$$P(X = 1, Y = 0) = 20\%$$

$$P(X = 1 | Y = 0) = \frac{20}{30 + 20} = 40\%$$

$$P(X = 1, Y = 1) = 40\%$$

$$P(X = 1 | Y = 1) = \frac{40}{10 + 40} = 80\%$$



Total probability

	X = 0	X=1
Y=0	30	20
Y = 1	10	40

$$P(X = 0, Y = 0) = 30\% \quad P(X = 0|Y = 0) = \frac{30}{30 + 20} = 60\% \quad P(X = 0) = \frac{30 + 10}{100} = 40\%$$

$$P(X = 0, Y = 1) = 10\% \quad P(X = 0|Y = 1) = \frac{10}{10 + 40} = 20\% \quad P(X = 1) = \frac{20 + 40}{100} = 60\%$$

$$P(X = 1, Y = 0) = 20\% \quad P(X = 1|Y = 0) = \frac{20}{30 + 20} = 40\% \quad P(Y = 0) = \frac{30 + 20}{100} = 50\%$$

$$P(X = 1, Y = 1) = 40\% \quad P(X = 1|Y = 1) = \frac{40}{10 + 40} = 80\% \quad P(Y = 1) = \frac{10 + 40}{100} = 50\%$$

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



Joint, conditional, total probability

p(x,y)	<i>x</i> ₁	X2	<i>X</i> 3	X4	p(y)
<i>y</i> ₁	1/8	1/16	1/32	1/32	1/4
y 2	1/16	1/8	1/32	1/32	1/4
<i>y</i> ₃	1/16	1/16	1/16	1/16	1/4
<i>y</i> ₂	1/4	0	0	0	1/4
p(x)	1/2	1/4	1/8	1/8	$\sum = 1$

00000000000

- Joint probability p(x2, y2) = 1/8.
- Total probability $p(y_2)$?

$$p(y_2) = \sum_{x_i} p(y_2, x_i) = 1/16 + 1/8 + 1/32 + 1/32 = 1/4$$

- Conditional probability $p(x_2|y_2)$? $p(x_2|y_2) = \frac{1/8}{1/4} = 1/2$.
- $\sum_{x_i} p(x_i) = \sum_{y_i} p(y_i)$? $\sum_{x} p(x) = \sum_{y} p(y) = 1$.
- $\sum_{x_i} p(x_i|y_2)$? $\sum_{x_i} p(x_i|y_2) = 1$.



Bayes' rule

$$p(x,y) = p(x|y)p(y) = p(y|x)p(x) \implies p(H|D) = \frac{p(D|H)p(H)}{p(D)}$$

- In Bayesian probability theory, there are two events, being **hypothesis** H (e.g., position x) and **observation data** D (e.g., measurement z from the sensor to detect a door).
- Our goal is to obtain the probability of the hypothesis after consideration of the data. This conditional probability is called POSTERIOR PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTION (probabilidad a posteriori), p(H|D) (e.g., p(x|z), the probability of position x for given sensor measurement z).
- ullet The PRIOR PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTION (probabilidad a priori), p(H), summarizes the knowledge we have regarding the hypothesis H prior to considering data D.
- The LIKEHOOD FUNCTION (función de verosimilitud), p(D|H), assesses the **probability of the observed data** given that the **hypothesis is true** (e.g., p(z|x), the probability of sensor measurement z for given position x).
- Typically, what we **need** is the posterior probability p(H|D). However, what is **easier** to obtain is the likehood function p(D|H).
- Bayes' rule provides a **convenient way** to compute the posterior probability p(H|D) using the likehood function p(D|H).



Bayes' rule

$$p(H|D) = \frac{p(D|H)p(H)}{p(D)}$$

• The total probability, p(D), describes **how likely it is to make a observation**. It can be obtained by **integrating** (or summing) p(D|H)p(H) over all possible hypotheses H.

$$p(D) \stackrel{\text{total prob.}}{=} \sum_{H} p(D, H) \stackrel{\text{joint prob.}}{=} \sum_{H} p(D|H)p(H)$$

• To calculate the posterior probability distribution p(H|D) for any value of H, the value of p(D) is the same. For this reason, a **constant** normalizer coefficient η is normally used in Bayes' rule, which guarantees $\Sigma_x p(x|y) = 1$.

$$p(H|D) = \eta p(D|H)p(H), \, \eta = \frac{1}{p(D)}$$

Bayes rule can be used for multiple conditions.

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

Bayes rule plays a predominant role in probabilistic robotics.



Independent, conditionally independent

• Two random variables X and Y are INDEPENDENT if the occurrence of event X = xdoes not affect the probability of occurrence of event Y = y. The joint probability writes p(x,y) = p(x)p(y) .

Equivalently, two random variables X and Y are **independent** if knowing the value of Y does not change the probabilities of X. The conditional probability writes

$$p(x|y) = \frac{p(x,y)}{p(y)} = \frac{p(x)p(y)}{p(y)} = p(x)$$
.

 Two random variables X and Y are CONDITIONALLY INDEPENDENT given a third conditioning random variable Z if and only if they are independent in their conditional **probability** distribution given Z.

$$p(x,y|z) = p(x|z)p(y|z) .$$

Equivalently, conditional independence implies that a variable Y carries no information about a variable X if the value of conditioning variable Z is known.

$$p(x|z) = \frac{p(x,y|z)}{p(y|z)} = \frac{p(x,y,z)}{p(y,z)} = p(x|y,z), \quad p(y|z) = p(y|x,z).$$

 Generally, for conditional independence and (absolute) independence, one condition does not imply the other.

$$p(x,y|z) = p(x|z)p(y|z) \Leftrightarrow p(x,y) = p(x)p(y)$$
.



Glossary

- Probability mass function, $\sum_{x} p(x) = 1$.
- Probability density function or probability distribution function, $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) dx = 1$.
- Joint probability, p(x, y).
- Conditional probability, p(x|y) = p(x,y)/p(y).
- Total probability, $p(x) = \sum_{y} p(x, y) = \sum_{y} p(x|y)p(y)$.
- Bayes' rule

$$p(H|D) = \frac{p(D|H)p(H)}{p(D)} = \frac{p(D|H)p(H)}{\sum_{H} p(D|H)p(H)} = \eta p(D|H)p(H)$$

hypothesis H, observation data D, prior probability distribution p(H), posterior probability distribution p(H|D), likehood function p(D|H), normalizer η .

Bayes' rule with multiple conditions

$$p(x|y,z) = \frac{p(y|x,z)p(x|z)}{p(y|z)} = \frac{p(y|x,z)p(x|z)}{\sum_{x} p(y|x,z)p(x|z)} = \eta p(y|x,z)p(x|z)$$

- Totally independent, p(x,y) = p(x)p(y) and p(x|y) = p(x).
- Conditionally independent, p(x,y|z) = p(x|z)p(y|z) and p(x|y,z) = p(x|z).



State, measurement, and control

- STATE is denoted by x, which can be generally defined as the collection of all aspects of **the robot and its environment** that can impact the future (e.g., *pose, velocity, angular velocity, location of obstacle or landmark*).
- Environment Measurement <u>DATA</u> is denoted by **z**, which **provides information** about a momentary **state of the environment** (e.g., *camera images, range scans, GPS, star tracker data*). Environment OBSERVATION tends to **increase the robot's knowledge**.
- CONTROL <u>DATA</u> is denoted by <u>u</u>, which carries information about the **change of sate** in the environment caused by control actions (e.g., pull or push action, acceleration data, odometer that measures the evolution of a robot's wheels, thruster thrust and reaction wheel torque on a spacecraft). Motion tends to **induce a loss of** knowledge due to the inherent noise in robot actions.
- The specific variables included in x, u, and z depend on the context.
- TIME is generally defined **discretely** at instant t_k , $k=0,1,2\cdots$ (0 for the initial instant).



Dynamic Bayes network

- At the instant t_k , the following quantities are defined
 - x_k , the **state** vector to be estimated at t_k ;
 - $x_{0:k} = \{x_0, x_1 \cdots x_k\}$, the **history** of states;
 - u_k, the control inputs applied at time t_{k-1} to change the state from t_{k-1} to t_k.
 - $u_{1:k} = \{u_1, u_2 \cdots u_k\}$, the **history** of control inputs.
 - z_k, the measurements (i.e., observations) made at t_k to estimate x_k;
 - $\mathbf{z}_{1:k} = \{\mathbf{z}_1, \mathbf{z}_2 \cdots \mathbf{z}_k\}$, the **history** of observations;

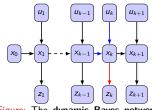


Figure: The dynamic Bayes network characterizes the evolution of controls, states, and measurements.

- The evolution of states and measurements is governed by probabilistic distributions.
 - Since the emergence of state x_t might be conditioned on all past states, measurements, and controls, the evolution of state is characterized by

$$p(x_k|x_{0:k-1},z_{1:k-1},u_{1:k})$$
.

• The evolution of measurement z_k is characterized by

$$p(z_k|x_{0:k},z_{1:k-1},u_{1:k})$$
.



Markov assumption

The Markov assumption postulates that past and future data are independent if one knows the current state x_k .

• Assuming that the state x_{k-1} is a **sufficient summary** of all previous states, controls and measurements, the state transition probability (probabilidad de transición de estado) characterizes the **state evolution** as

$$p(x_k|x_{0:k-1},z_{1:k-1},u_{1:k})\approx p(x_k|x_{k-1},u_k)$$
.

In other words, **given** the conditioning variables $\{x_{k-1}, u_k\}$, there is **conditional independence** between x_k and $\{x_{0:k-2}, z_{1:k-1}, u_{1:k-1}\}$.

• Assuming that x_k is a sufficient summary of all previous states, controls and measurements, the measurement probability (probabilidad de medición) characterizes the measurement evolution as

$$p(z_k|x_{0:k},z_{1:k-1},u_{1:k})\approx p(z_k|x_k)$$
.

In other words, given the conditioning variable $\{x_k\}$, there is **conditional independence** between z_k and $\{x_{0:k-1}, z_{1:k-1}, u_{1:k}\}$.

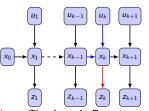


Figure: The dynamic Bayes network characterizes the evolution of controls, states, and measurements.

Probabilistic filtering

- FILTERING (técnicas de filtrado) is concerned with the sequential process of maintaining a probabilistic model for a **state** that evolves over time and is periodically observed by a sensor. It forms the basis for many problems in **tracking and navigation**.
- The general filtering problem can be formulated in Bayesian form.
- The robot has an internal belief of its **true state**. Beliefs are represented by conditional probabilities of state (x) conditioned on the available data (z) and (z).
- Prediction (predicción) $\overline{bel}(x_k)$: the probability distribution of the state x_k at time t_k , just **after executing control** u_k and **before incorporating measurement** z_k , conditioned on all past measurements $z_{1:k-1}$ and all past controls $u_{1:k}$.

$$\overline{bel}(x_k) = p(x_k|z_{1:k-1}, u_{1:k})$$

• Belief (creencia) $bel(x_k)$: the probability distribution of the state x_k at time t_k , after incorporating measurement z_k , conditioned on all past measurements $z_{1:k}$ and all past controls $u_{1:k}$. $bel(x_k) = p(x_k|z_{1:k}, u_{1:k})$.

Figure: The dynamic Bayes network characterizes the evolution of controls, states, and measurements.



Bayes filter: inputs and outputs

Recursive_Bayes_filter($bel(x_{k-1}), u_k, z_k$)

- 1: for all possible values of the state x_k do
- 2: PREDICTION: $\overline{bel}(x_k) = \int p(x_k|u_k, x_{k-1})bel(x_{k-1}) dx_{k-1}$
- 3: UPDATE: $bel(x_k) = \eta p(z_k|x_k)\overline{bel}(x_k)$
- 4: end for
- 5: return $bel(x_k)$
- The above pseudo-algorithm depicts one iteration of the recursive Bayes Filter. At each iteration, the current belief $bel(x_k)$ is calculated from the belief $bel(x_{k-1})$ obtained in the previous iteration.
- Inputs
 - $bel(x_{k-1})$, the **belief** at t_{k-1} ;
 - u_k , the **control** at t_k ;
 - z_k , the **measurement** at t_k .
- Outputs (return):
 - $bel(x_k)$, the updated belief at t_k .



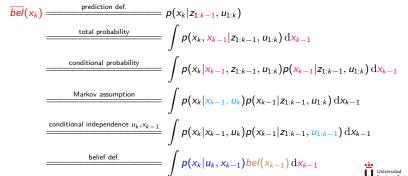
Bayes filter: prediction/propagation step

Recursive_Bayes_filter($bel(x_{k-1}), u_k, z_k$)

1: for all possible values of state x_k do

- 1: for all possible values of state x_k do 2: PREDICTION: $bel(x_k) = \int p(x_k|u_k, x_{k-1})bel(x_{k-1}) dx_{k-1}$
- 3: UPDATE: $bel(x_k) = \eta p(z_k|x_k) \overline{bel}(x_k)$
- 4: end for
- 5: return $bel(x_k)$

PREDICTION/PROPAGATION step (predicción/propogación): the prediction, $\overline{bel}(x_k)$, is given by the **integration** of the multiplication of state transition probability, $p(x_k|u_k,x_{k-1})$, and belief at t_{k-1} , $bel(x_{k-1})$, over all possible state at t_{k-1} , x_{k-1} .



Bayes filter: update/correction step

```
Recursive_Bayes_filter( bel(x_{k-1}), u_k, z_k )

1: for all possible values of state x_k do

2: PREDICTION: \overline{bel(x_k)} = \int p(x_k|u_k, x_{k-1})bel(x_{k-1}) \, \mathrm{d}x_{k-1}

3: UPDATE: bel(x_k) = \eta p(z_k|x_k)\overline{bel}(x_k)

4: end for

5: return bel(x_k)
```

MEASUREMENT UPDATE/CORRECTION step (corrección): the belief, $bel(x_k)$, is given by the **multiplication** of normalizer, η , measurement probability, $p(z_k|x_k)$, and prediction, $\overline{bel}(x_k)$.

$$bel(x_k) \stackrel{\text{belief def.}}{=} p(x_k|z_{1:k}, u_{1:k})$$

$$= \frac{Bayes' \text{ rule}}{p(z_k|x_k, z_{1:k-1}, u_{1:k})p(x_k|z_{1:k-1}, u_{1:k})} \frac{p(z_k|x_k, z_{1:k-1}, u_{1:k})p(x_k|z_{1:k-1}, u_{1:k})}{p(z_k|z_{1:k-1}, u_{1:k})}$$

$$= \frac{Normalizer}{\eta p(z_k|x_k, z_{1:k-1}, u_{1:k})p(x_k|z_{1:k-1}, u_{1:k})} \frac{Markov \text{ assumption}}{\eta p(z_k|x_k)p(x_k|z_{1:k-1}, u_{1:k})} \frac{\eta p(z_k|x_k)p(x_k|z_{1:k-1}, u_{1:k})}{prediction \text{ def.}} \frac{\eta p(z_k|x_k)\overline{bel}(x_k)}{p(z_k|x_k)\overline{bel}(x_k)}$$

$$\eta = \frac{1}{p(z_k|z_{1:k-1}, u_{1:k})} = \frac{1}{\int p(z_k|x_k, z_{1:k-1}, u_{1:k})p(x_k|z_{1:k-1}, u_{1:k})} \frac{1}{dx_k}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\int p(z_k|x_k)\overline{bel}(x_k) dx_k}$$

Robot and door state: model

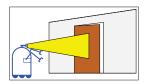


Figure: A mobile robot estimating the state of a door [Thrun, 2005].

- We use the example of a **robot** estimating the state of a door to illustrate Bayes filter algorithm.
- State

$$X_k = \{\text{open}, \text{closed}\}$$

Measurement

$$Z_k = \{s_open, s_closed\}$$

Control

$$U_k = \{\text{push}, \text{nothing}\}$$

 The robot is assumed to have the following initial beliefs.

$$bel(X_0 = open) = 0.5$$
,
 $bel(X_0 = closed) = 0.5$.

The robot **does not know** the state of the door, thus **assigning equal prior probability** for the two possible door state values.

 The noise of the sensor is assumed to be characterized by the following measurement probabilities,

$$\begin{split} &P(Z_k = \text{s_open}|X_k = \text{open}) = 0.6 \;, \\ &P(Z_k = \text{s_closed}|X_k = \text{open}) = 0.4 \;, \\ &P(Z_k = \text{s_open}|X_k = \text{closed}) = 0.2 \;, \\ &P(Z_k = \text{s_closed}|X_k = \text{closed}) = 0.8 \;. \end{split}$$

The sensor is **relatively reliable** in detecting a **closed** door (error probability 0.2), but not an open door (error probability 0.4).

Robot and door state: model

- The following state transition probabilities are assumed for two types of controls.
 - The robot uses its manipulator to **push** the door open:

$$\begin{split} &P(X_k = \mathsf{open}|U_k = \mathsf{push}, X_{k-1} = \mathsf{open}) = 1 \;, \\ &P(X_k = \mathsf{closed}|U_k = \mathsf{push}, X_{k-1} = \mathsf{open}) = 0 \;, \\ &P(X_k = \mathsf{open}|U_k = \mathsf{push}, X_{k-1} = \mathsf{closed}) = 0.8 \;, \\ &P(X_k = \mathsf{closed}|U_k = \mathsf{push}, X_{k-1} = \mathsf{closed}) = 0.2 \;. \end{split}$$

If the door is **closed**, the robot has 80% *chance of success to open it*. If the door is already **open**, it remains *open*.

The robot does nothing:

$$\begin{split} &P(X_k = \mathsf{open}|U_k = \mathsf{nothing}, X_{k-1} = \mathsf{open}) = 1 \;, \\ &P(X_k = \mathsf{closed}|U_k = \mathsf{nothing}, X_{k-1} = \mathsf{open}) = 0 \;, \\ &P(X_k = \mathsf{open}|U_k = \mathsf{nothing}, X_{k-1} = \mathsf{closed}) = 0 \;, \\ &P(X_k = \mathsf{closed}|U_k = \mathsf{nothing}, X_{k-1} = \mathsf{closed}) = 1 \;. \end{split}$$

The door **remains** its original state.



Recursive_Bayes_filter($bel(x_{k-1}), u_k, z_k$)

- 1: for all possible values of the state x_k do
- 2: $\overline{bel}(x_k) = \int p(x_k|u_k, x_{k-1})bel(x_{k-1}) dx_{k-1}$
- 3: $bel(x_k) = \frac{\eta p(z_k|x_k)\overline{bel}(x_k)}{\overline{bel}(x_k)}$
- 4: end for
- 5: return $bel(x_k)$
- At k = 1, the robot does nothing ($u_1 = \text{nothing}$) and it senses an open door ($z_1 = s_{-}\text{open}$).
- Prediction: $\overline{bel}(x_1) = \sum_{x_0} p(x_1|u_1, x_0)bel(x_0).$ $\overline{bel}(X_1 = \text{open}) = P(X_1 = \text{open}|U_1 = \text{nothing}, X_0 = \text{open}) \qquad \times bel(X_0 = \text{open})$ $+ P(X_1 = \text{open}|U_1 = \text{nothing}, X_0 = \text{closed}) \qquad \times bel(X_0 = \text{closed})$ $= 1 \times 0.5 + 0 \times 0.5 = 0.5$

$$\overline{bel}(X_1 = \mathsf{closed}) = P(X_1 = \mathsf{closed}|U_1 = \mathsf{nothing}, X_0 = \mathsf{open}) \qquad \times bel(X_0 = \mathsf{open}) \\ + P(X_1 = \mathsf{closed}|U_1 = \mathsf{nothing}, X_0 = \mathsf{closed}) \qquad \times bel(X_0 = \mathsf{closed}) \\ = 0 \times 0.5 + 1 \times 0.5 = 0.5$$

• Since the robot does nothing and we are **sure** about the consequences, the prediction is the same as previous belief, $\overline{bel}(x_1) = bel(x_0)$.



Robot and door state: Bayes filter

Recursive_Bayes_filter($bel(x_{k-1}), u_k, z_k$)

- 1: for all possible values of the state x_k do
- 2: $\overline{bel}(x_k) = \int p(x_k|u_k, x_{k-1})bel(x_{k-1}) dx_{k-1}$
 - 3: $bel(x_k) = \frac{\partial}{\partial p(z_k|x_k)} \overline{bel}(x_k)$
- 4: end for
- 5: return $bel(x_k)$
- Update: $bel(x_1) = \eta P(Z_1 = s_open|x_1)bel(x_1)$.

$$P(Z_1 = \text{s_open}|X_1 = \text{open}) \times \overline{bel}(X_1 = \text{open}) = 0.6 \times 0.5 = 0.3$$

$$P(Z_1 = s_open | X_1 = closed) \times \overline{bel}(X_1 = closed) = 0.2 \times 0.5 = 0.1$$

$$\eta = 1/(0.3 + 0.1) = 2.5$$

$$bel(X_1 = \mathsf{open}) = \eta P(Z_1 = \mathsf{s_open}|X_1 = \mathsf{open}) \times \overline{bel}(X_1 = \mathsf{open}) = 0.75$$

$$bel(X_1 = \mathsf{closed}) = \eta P(Z_1 = \mathsf{s_open} | X_1 = \mathsf{closed}) \times \overline{bel}(X_1 = \mathsf{closed}) = 0.25$$

• The goal of normalization: $bel(X_1 = open) + bel(X_1 = closed) = 1$.



Recursive_Bayes_filter($bel(x_{k-1}), u_k, z_k$)

- 1: for all possible values of the state x_k do
- 2: $\overline{bel}(x_k) = \int p(x_k|u_k, x_{k-1})bel(x_{k-1}) dx_{k-1}$
- 3: $bel(x_k) = \frac{\eta}{p}(z_k|x_k)\overline{bel}(x_k)$
- 4: end for
- 5: return $bel(x_k)$
- At k=2, the robot pushes the door ($u_2=$ push) and it senses an open door ($z_2=$ s_open).
- Prediction: $\overline{bel}(X_2 = \text{open}) = 1 \times 0.75 + 0.8 \times 0.25 = 0.95$, $\overline{bel}(X_2 = \text{closed}) = 0 \times 0.75 + 0.2 \times 0.25 = 0.05$.
- Normalizer:

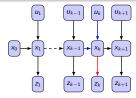
$$p(Z_2 = \text{s_open}|X_2 = \text{open}) \times \overline{bel}(X_1 = \text{open}) = 0.6 \times 0.95 = 0.57$$

 $p(Z_2 = \text{s_open}|X_2 = \text{closed}) \times \overline{bel}(X_1 = \text{closed}) = 0.2 \times 0.05 = 0.01$
 $\eta = 1/0.58 \approx 1.724$

• Update: $bel(X_2 = \text{open}) \approx 0.983$, $bel(X_2 = \text{closed}) \approx 0.017$.



Glossary



- State, x; Measurement, z; Control, u.
- Probabilistic distributions

State evolution	State transition probability	Prediction
$p(x_k x_{0:k-1},u_{1:k},z_{1:k-1})$	$p(x_k x_{k-1},u_k)$	$\overline{bel}(x_k) = p(x_k z_{1:k-1}, u_{1:k})$
Measurement evolution	Measurement probability	Belief
$p(z_k x_{0:k},u_{1:k},z_{1:k-1})$	$p(z_k x_k)$.	$bel(x_k) = p(x_k z_{1:k}, u_{1:k})$

Markov assumption

$$p(x_k|x_{k-1}, u_k) \approx p(x_k|x_{0:k-1}, u_{1:k}, z_{1:k-1})$$
$$p(z_k|x_k) \approx p(z_k|x_{0:k}, u_{1:k}, z_{1:k-1})$$

Bayes filter

prediction:
$$\overline{bel}(x_k) = \int p(x_k|u_k, x_{k-1})bel(x_{k-1}) dx_{k-1}$$

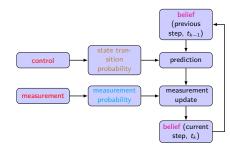
update: $bel(x_k) = \eta p(\mathbf{z}_k | x_k) \overline{bel}(x_k)$



Bayes filter algorithm

Recursive_Bayes_filter($bel(x_{k-1}), u_k, z_k$)

- 1: for all possible values of the state x_i do
- 2: $\overline{bel}(x_k) = \int p(x_k|u_k, x_{k-1})bel(x_{k-1}) dx_{k-1}$
- 3: $bel(x_k) = \eta p(z_k|x_k) \overline{bel}(x_k)$
- 4: end for
- 5: return $bel(x_k)$
- Define state x_k , control u_k , and measurement z_k
- Assume initial belief $bel(x_0)$ at t_0 .
- Provide control history $u_{1:k}$ and obtain measurement history $z_{1:k}$.
- Model state transition probability $p(x_k | u_k, x_{k-1})$ and measurement probability $p(z_k | x_k)$.
- Carry out the **recursive** Bayes filter algorithm to **update** the **belief** $bel(x_k)$ at each time step t_k .



• Kalman filter is a kind of Gaussian filters that constitute the earliest tractable implementations of the Bayes filter for continuous spaces of random variables. All Gaussian filters share the basic idea that beliefs are represented by normal distributions.



Summa

Acrónimos

KF Kalman Filter

PDF Probability Distribution Function

PMF Probability Mass Function



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