

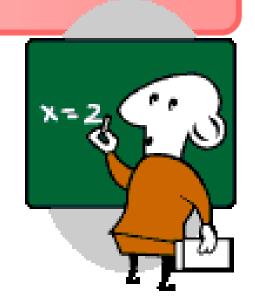
Non Parametric Filters Histogram and Particle Filters

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What we will discuss

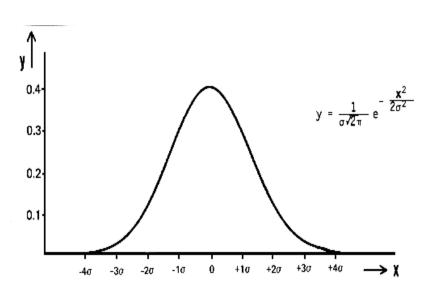
- Discuss the merits of non-parametric density representations,
- Remember histograms and introduce the Histogram Filters,
- Introduce Particle Filters,
- Introduce resampling and Importance Sampling,
- Review practical issues and properties of particle filters,
- Try to conclude...

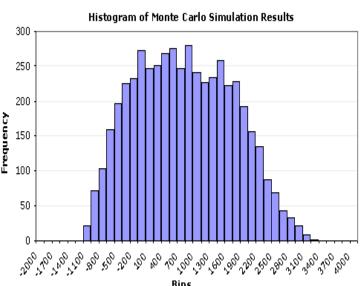




Non-Parametric Representations

- What is a non-parametric density representation?
- Finite set of values (samples) instead of a parametric closed form expression
- Example: Gaussian versus its histogram

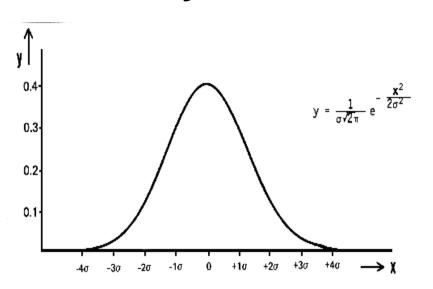


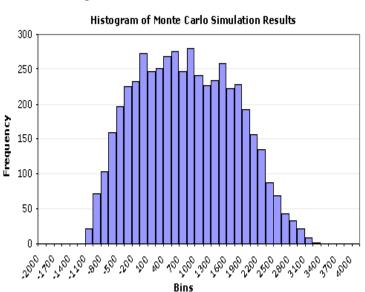




Why Non-Parametric?

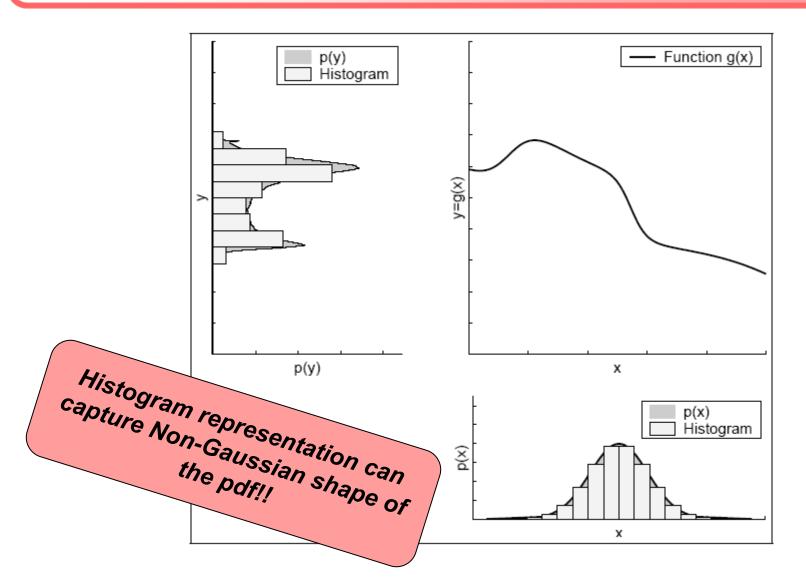
- Why would we want to use non-parametric?
- Why would we not want to use non-parametric?
- Quality? Computational Complexity?
- As N→∞, non-parametric rep. converges uniformly to the true density.







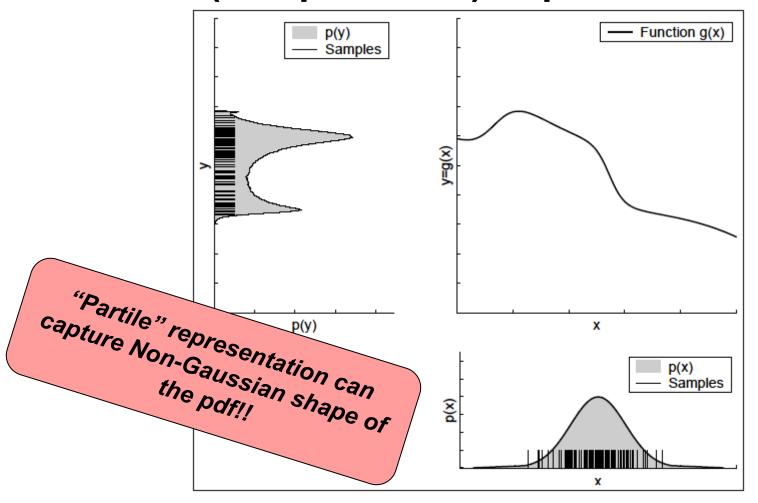
What do you see?





Other Non-Parametric Reps

Particles (Sample based) Representation





Non-Parametric Advantages

- Both histograms and particle sets have:
- No strong parametric assumptions on density (any arbitrary shape can be represented),
- Accuracy of the representation can be adjusted as required (by setting N)
- Results in conceptually much simpler program implementations,
- Well suited for complex multi-modal beliefs (e.g. in global localization with hard data association problems)



Non-Parametric Disadvantages

- Simply: Computational Complexity!!
- A naïve implementation can be orders of magnitude more complex than parametric implementations (e.g. Kalman Filters)
- Problem becomes compounded if state-space dimension increases. (much larger N needed!)
- Fortunately:
 - Computational complexity can be adapted by adapting number of parameters N,
 - Complexity and accuracy can be traded off using:
 Resource Adaptation,
 - Resource adaptive algorithms very important in robotics and embedded systems



 How would we use non-parametric density representations to implement recursive state estimation?

Use the Bayes Filtering framework in discrete-form



Part1: The Histogram Filter



Part1: The Histogram Filter

Remember the generic Bayes Filter:

```
1: Algorithm Bayes_filter(bel(x_{t-1}), u_t, z_t):
2: for all x_t do
3: \overline{bel}(x_t) = \int p(x_t \mid u_t, x_{t-1}) \ bel(x_{t-1}) \ dx_{t-1}
4: bel(x_t) = \eta \ p(z_t \mid x_t) \ \overline{bel}(x_t)
5: endfor
6: return bel(x_t)
```

Table 2.1 The general algorithm for Bayes filtering.



6:

The Histogram Filter - DBF

Discrete Bayes Filter from the Bayes Filter

```
1: Algorithm Bayes_filter(bel(x_{t-1}), u_t, z_t):
2: for all x_t do
3: \overline{bel}(x_t) = \int p(x_t \mid u_t, x_{t-1}) \ bel(x_{t-1}) \ dx_{t-1}
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5: endfor
6: return bel(x_t)
```

```
1: Algorithm Discrete_Bayes_filter(\{p_{k,t-1}\}, u_t, z_t):
2: for all k do
3: \bar{p}_{k,t} = \sum_i p(X_t = x_k \mid u_t, X_{t-1} = x_i) \; p_{i,t-1}
4: p_{k,t} = \eta \; p(z_t \mid X_t = x_k) \; \bar{p}_{k,t}
5: endfor
```

return $\{p_{k,t}\}$



The Histogram Filter - Discretization

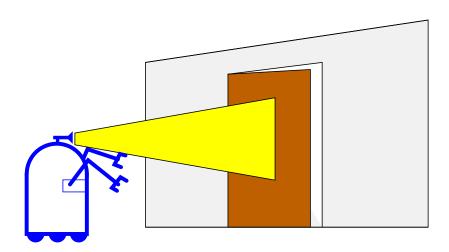
- Some problems are already discrete in nature (state of a door, states of a game board),
- Some problems are <u>represented</u> in discrete form because of the <u>resolution</u> of <u>interest</u>. (E.g. occupancy grid maps)
- Entirely continuous problems may also be discretized through <u>various approximations</u>.
 (e.g. the orientation of a robot with 5° steps),
- Granularity (resolution) of the discretization may be very important (not only for performance but also for proper operation of the filters)

13



Example – Estimation of Door State

Problem is to estimate a single number!!
 Prob(door=open|all past states, all past measurements)





Continuous State Space

- When DBF is applied to a continuous state space, it is called the *Histogram Filter*,
- Histogram Filter decompose such a space into "bins" through a suitable "partitioning",

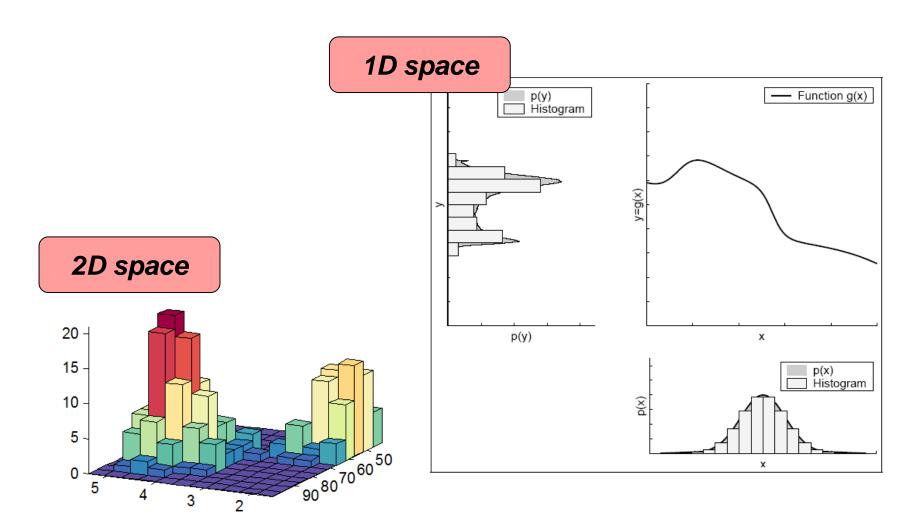
$$dom(X_t) = \mathbf{x}_{1,t} \cup \mathbf{x}_{2,t} \cup \dots \mathbf{x}_{K,t}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{i,t} \cap \mathbf{x}_{k,t} = \emptyset \text{ and } \bigcup_k \mathbf{x}_{k,t} = dom(X_t)$$

- Most common partitioning is a multidimensional grid representation,
- Resulting Pdf approximation is a piecewise constant pdf.



Example - 1D / 2D spaces





Use in Continuous Spaces

We might be given the continuous densities,

$$p(x_t \mid u_t, x_{t-1})$$
 and $p(z_t \mid x_t)$

- These are defined for a continuum of states, not for the discrete "bins",
- How can we discretize the given continuous densities?



Use in Continuous Spaces

- Given continuous $p(x_t \mid u_t, x_{t-1})$ and $p(z_t \mid x_t)$
- For each bin, we can pick a representative "mean" state:

$$\hat{x}_{k,t} = |\mathbf{x}_{k,t}|^{-1} \int_{\mathbf{x}_{k,t}} x_t \, dx_t$$

• Then approximate the discrete probability mass functions as:

There is a correction in the book here.

$$p(z_t \mid \mathbf{x}_{k,t}) \approx p(z_t \mid \hat{x}_{k,t})$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}_{k,t} \mid u_t, \mathbf{x}_{i,t-1}) \approx \eta |\mathbf{x}_{k,t}| p(\hat{x}_{k,t} \mid u_t, \hat{x}_{i,t-1})$$

Discrete "probability" is calculated from the continuous "likelihood" value at the mean state which is integrated over the "bin"



Use in Continuous Spaces

Then, the Discrete Bayes Filter can be used directly:

```
1: Algorithm Discrete_Bayes_filter(\{p_{k,t-1}\}, u_t, z_t):
2: for all k do
3: \bar{p}_{k,t} = \sum_{i} p(X_t = x_k \mid u_t, X_{t-1} = x_i) \; p_{i,t-1}
4: p_{k,t} = \eta \; p(z_t \mid X_t = x_k) \; \bar{p}_{k,t}
5: endfor
6: return \{p_{k,t}\}
```

$$p(z_t \mid \mathbf{x}_{k,t}) \approx p(z_t \mid \hat{x}_{k,t})$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}_{k,t} \mid u_t, \mathbf{x}_{i,t-1}) \approx \eta |\mathbf{x}_{k,t}| p(\hat{x}_{k,t} \mid u_t, \hat{x}_{i,t-1})$$



Practical Issues: Decomposition

- Histogram filters can trade-off accuracy with computational complexity but...
- Desired accuracy may come at a <u>prohibitive</u> computational <u>price</u>!!
- A Naïve uniform grid decomposition with full update may be unusable.
- Some ideas:
 - Density trees,
 - Selective Updating,
 - "Topological" representations,

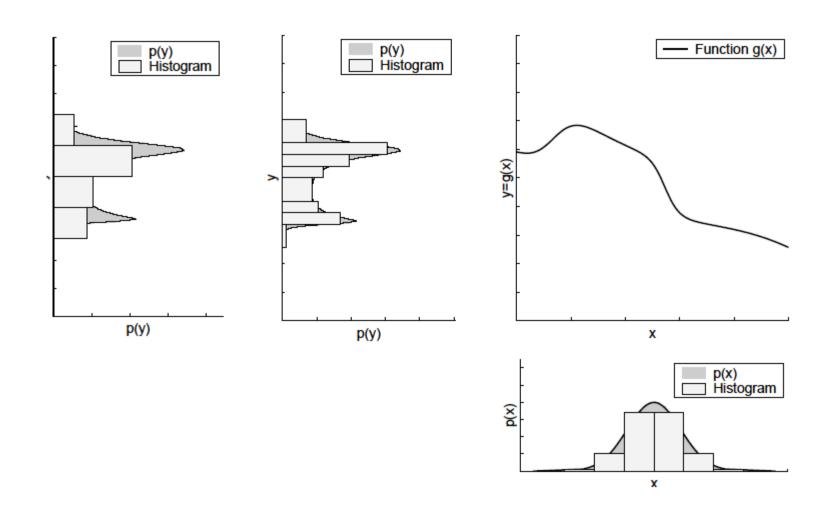


Decomposition: Density Trees

- Important example of "dynamic decomposition",
- Dynamic techniques adapt to the shape of the posterior being approximated,
- Static techniques easier to implement, Dynamic techniques more efficient and hence faster,
- Density Trees: A recursive decomposition that takes into account the distribution,
 - The more likely a region, the finer the decomposition (more bins) and vice versa.
 - Achieves higher approximation quality with the same computational complexity,
 - OR: Cuts the complexity by orders of magnitude for the same approximation quality



Dynamic Decomposition: Example





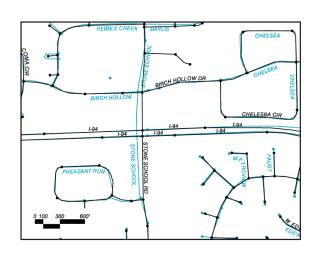
Practical Issues: Selective Update

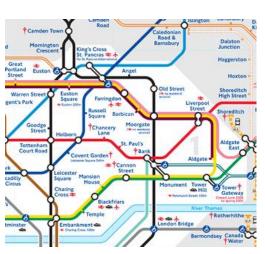
- Instead of worrying about the decomposition, worry about the filter updates,
- E.g., generate a uniform grid decomposition but...
- Update only a fraction of the cells (probabilities) at a time, specifically...
- Those that have the posterior probabilities that exceeds a certain threshold.
- It can also be viewed as a dynamic decomposition technique,
- Can save orders of magnitude in computational complexity. What about storage space?



Practical Issues: Topological Reps

- "Metric" vs "Topological" representations,
- Topological: Coarse, graph-like representations where only significant places or features are stored,
- E.g. corridors, intersections, dead ends,
- "Topological" representations usually more efficient but much less precise,







Special: Binary Bayes w Static State

- A special case of Discrete Bayes Filter,
- Best approximation for certain problems (e.g. occupancy grid maps)
- State is static: belief at time t is only a function of the measurements:

```
bel_t(x) = p(x \mid z_{1:t}, u_{1:t}) = p(x \mid z_{1:t})
```

- An elegant and efficient formulation using the so called "log-odds ratios"
- Uses the inverse measurement model p(x|z_t) contrary to our usual model p(z_t|x)

25



Special: Binary Bayes w Static State

P(x): Prior probability of state x

1: Algorithm binary_Bayes_filter(
$$l_{t-1}, z_t$$
):

2:
$$l_t = l_{t-1} + \log \frac{p(x|z_t)}{1 - p(x|z_t)} - \log \frac{p(x)}{1 - p(x)}$$

3: $\int return l_t$

$$l_{t}(x) = \log \frac{p(x \mid z_{1:t})}{1 - p(x \mid z_{1:t})}$$

All terms in terms of "Log-odds ratios"

Inverse measurement model

(Typically used when measurements are more complex than the state)

 This additive form avoids truncation problems with probabilities close to 1 or 0.



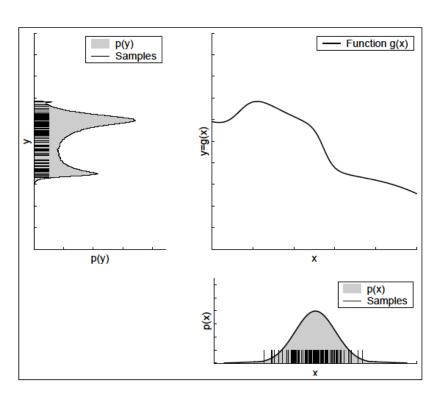
Particle Filters

- "Particles representation" of density:
- Density represented by samples drawn from it
- For a Bayes Filter implementation:

We need to be able to draw samples from:

p(x'|x,u) (motion) and evaluate: p(z|x) (sensor)

Usually easier to do!





Particle Filters

• The "belief" $bel(x_t)$, i.e. the posterior density of robot pose is represented by a particle set:

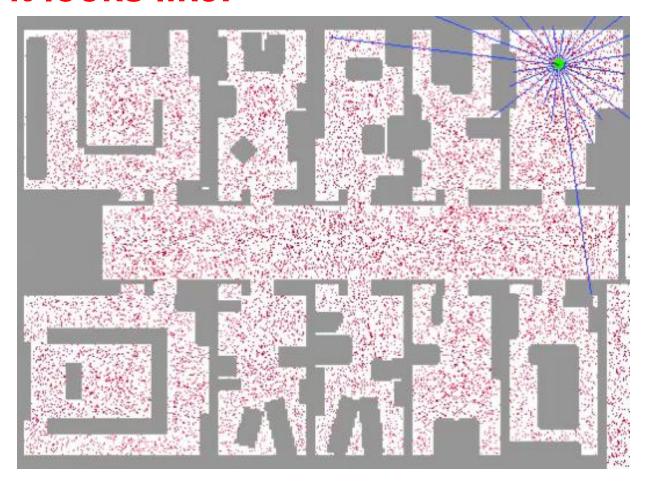
$$\mathcal{X}_t := x_t^{[1]}, x_t^{[2]}, \dots, x_t^{[M]}$$

- The particle set is recursively updated at each iteration,
- "Condensation" of particles around a state indicates "high posterior likelihood" of state; given "measurements" and "commands"



Particle Filters - Example

How it looks like:





Particle Filters – How it Works?

```
Algorithm Particle_filter(\mathcal{X}_{t-1}, u_t, z_t):
1:
2:
                    \mathcal{X}_t = \mathcal{X}_t = \emptyset
3:
                    for m = 1 to M do
                          sample x_t^{[m]} \sim p(x_t \mid u_t, x_{t-1}^{[m]})
4:
                          w_t^{[m]} = p(z_t \mid x_t^{[m]})
5:
                          \bar{\mathcal{X}}_t = \bar{\mathcal{X}}_t + \langle x_t^{[m]}, w_t^{[m]} \rangle
6:
7:
                     endfor
8:
                     for m = 1 to M do
                           draw i with probability \propto w_t^{[i]}
9:
                           add x_t^{[i]} to \mathcal{X}_t
10:
                     endfor
 11:
 12:
                     return \mathcal{X}_t
```



Particle Filters – How it Works?

```
Algorithm Particle_filter(\mathcal{X}_{t-1}, u_t, z_t):
1:
                 \bar{\mathcal{X}}_t = \mathcal{X}_t = \emptyset
2:
                 for m = 1 to \Lambda
3:
                      sample a
4:
5:
                                                           revious set of "particles", command
                                                                       measurement is used
6:
                                                            termediate and Posterior particle
                                                              We will consider M paricles
7:
                  endfor
                                                            A new sample is drawn from the
                  for m=1 to M
8:
                                                            motion model: "prediction step"
                                                          "weight" ("importance factor") is
                       draw i with probab
9:
                                                              assigned for each sample
                       add x_t^{[i]} to \mathcal{X}_t
                                                           to integrate the measurement:
10:
                                                       measNew sample added to the setep"
11:
                  endfor
                                                                 paired with its weight
 12:
                  return \mathcal{X}_t
```



Particle Filters - How it Works?

```
Algorithm Particle_filter(\mathcal{X}_{t-1}, u_t, z_t):
1:
                  \bar{\mathcal{X}}_t = \mathcal{X}_t = \emptyset
2:
3:
                   for m = 1 to M do
                        sample x_t^{[m]} \sim p(x_t \mid u_t, x_{t-1}^{[m]})
4:
                        w_t^{[m]} = p(z_t \mid x_t^{[m]})
5:
                                                               At this point, we have something
                        \bar{\mathcal{X}}_t = \bar{\mathcal{X}}_t + \langle x_t^{[m]}, w_t^{[m]} \rangle
                                                             different than what we started with!
6:
                                                                 The "real trick" of particle filters:
                   endfor
7:
                                                                   importance sampling
                   for m = 1 to M do
8:
                         draw i with probability \propto w_t^{[i]}
9:
                         add x_t^{[i]} to \mathcal{X}_t
10:
                                        Samples drawn "with replacement e set is generated:
11:
                    endfor
                                         I.e., same particles may beibickeddra ving a sample is
                   return \mathcal{X}_t
 12:
                                          more than once for the newsetonal to its weight
                                                                                                  32
                                           (And some others may be lost)
```



Resampling: Importance Sampling

- Interesting and necessary step of particle filters,
- Transform a set of (x_i, w_i) pairs into a new proper particle set (no weights) for time t,
- Probability of drawing (x_i) should be proportional to its weight (w_i)
- M particles are chosen "with replacement",
- (Same particle may be chosen multiple times, some particles may be lost)



- When we pass the particles from the motion model, we have the "prediction" step,
- We have a set of particles representing:

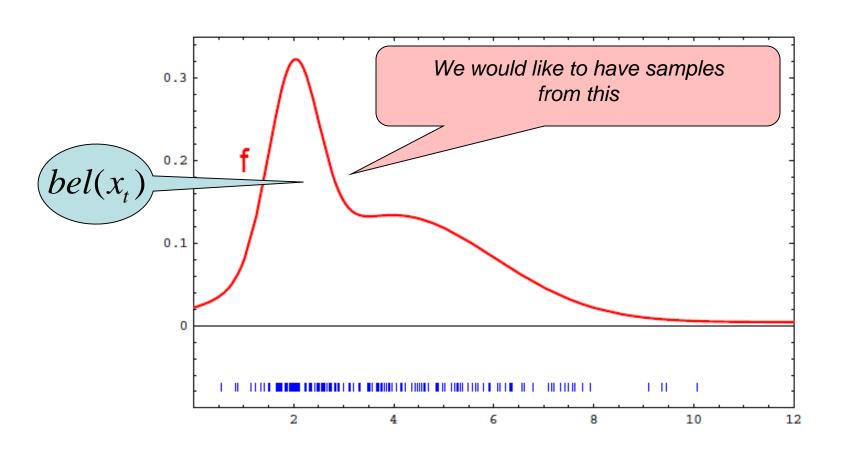
$$\overline{bel}(x_t)$$

 How can we obtain a set of samples distributed (approximately) according to

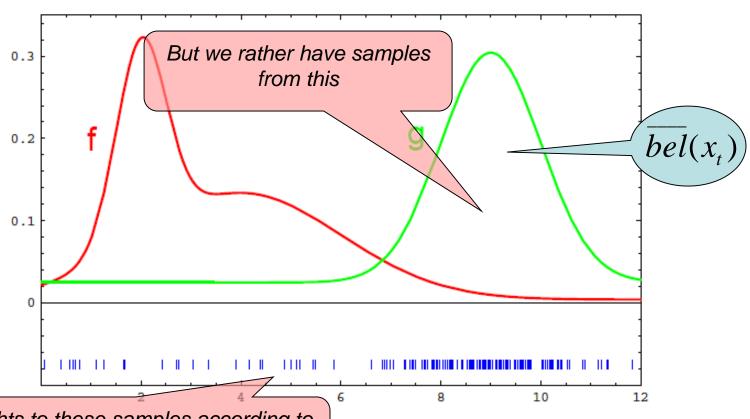
$$bel(x_t)$$

which also integrates the measurements?



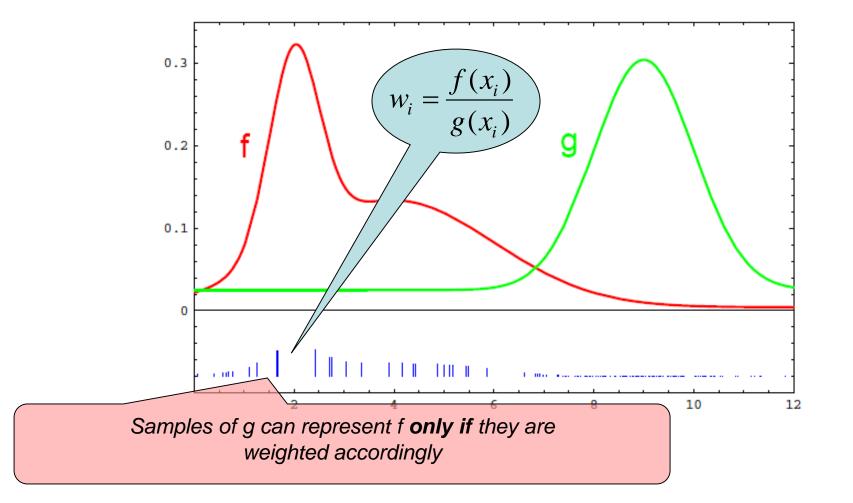






Assign weights to these samples according to their "fitness" to the desired density f







Importance Weights

Consider the update step of the Bayes Filter:

$$bel(x_t) = \eta \ p(z_t \mid x_t) \ \overline{bel}(x_t)$$

Hence we have:

$$w_i = \frac{f(x_i)}{g(x_i)} = \frac{bel(x_i)}{\overline{bel}(x_i)} = \frac{\text{target distribution}}{\text{proposal distribution}} = \eta \ p(z_t \mid x_t)$$

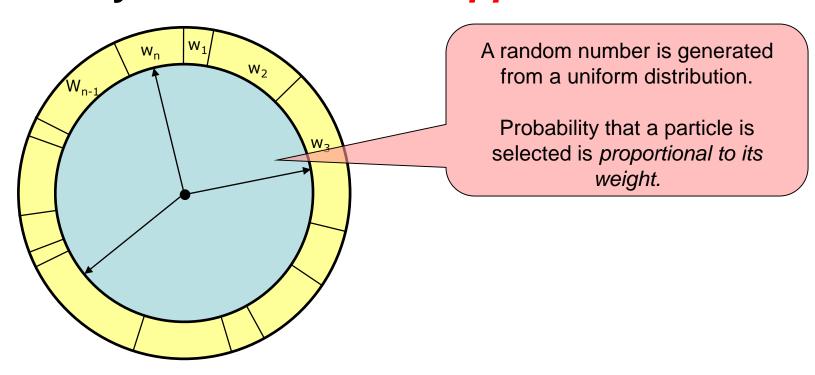
- The normalizer in the w_i (hence its actual value) is irrelevant because we only resample with probabilities *proportional* to w_i .
- Hence we can use in the algorithm:

$$w_i = p(z_t \mid x_t)$$



The Resampling Step

- Now, let us resample according to weights:
- One way: Roulette Wheel approach:





Problems With Sampling/Resampling

Estimator Variance:

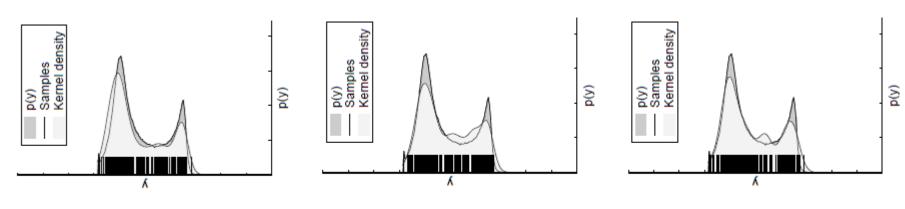
(Variance of particles as a density estimator) Is a source of performance loss in Particle Filters

"The fact that statistics (mean, variance, ...) computed from *M* finite samples drawn from a distribution will differ from the statistics of the original distribution"

That means *M* samples may be a poor representation of the true density (in particular if *M* is small).

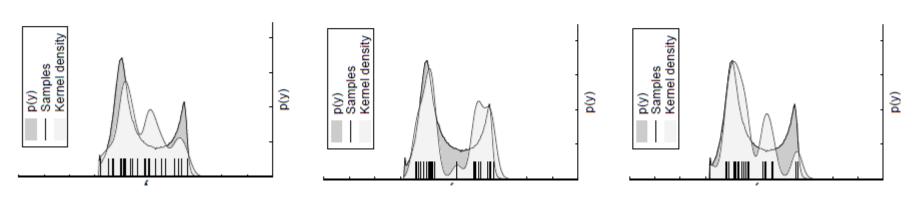


Estimator Variance Illustration



250 samples

Every particular sample set "instance" results in a different density approximation (The continuous approximation of particles illustrated with "Kernel density")



25 samples



- Estimator Variance Divergence
 Major failure mode of original particle filter with Roulette wheel resampling
- Example: Stationary robot (constant state) and no sensor (no measurement of state).
- Repetitive resampling monotonically increases estimator variance (particle set converges into a spurious local maxima)
- End effect: Particles may be gradually lost (resulting in a single particle) due to random resampling, resulting in "localized" robot (!!!)



- Estimator Variance: One fix
- Resampling step may be done less frequently, (multiple measurements can still be multiplicatively integrated into the weight factors)
- Stop resampling if the robot stops / new measurements are not coming,
- If resampling is not done, particles may be wasted in regions of low probability,
- The proper precision-cost balance requires experience and tuning for a particular application.



- Estimator Variance: Another Fix
- Use of a "low variance sampler" instead of a roulette wheel strategy

Use a sequencial stochastic process to pick

 W_3

particles

M equally spaces samples.

One random number generates *M* universally sampled particles

- Stochastic universal sampling
- Systematic resampling
- Linear time complexity
- Easy to implement, low variance

44



- Particle Deprivation
- Divergence of the filter characterized by no samples remaining in the vicinity of the correct state.
- Result of Estimator Variance problem,
- Can be diminished (but not fixed) by:
 - Increasing sample size (M),
 - Adding uniformly distributed samples at each step,



Again: Particle Filtering Algorithm

```
Algorithm Particle_filter(\mathcal{X}_{t-1}, u_t, z_t):
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4:
                          w_t^{[m]} = p(z_t \mid x_t^{[m]})
5:
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9:
                           add x_t^{[i]} to \mathcal{X}_t
10:
                     endfor
 11:
 12:
                     return \mathcal{X}_t
```



Summary

- We discussed non-parametric Bayes Filter implementations: Histogram and Particle Filters,
- Approximation of posterior by finite set of values,
- Histogram Filter: Decompose state space into M convex regions – assign a probability for each region,
- Decomposition technique plays important role: Static and Dynamic versions, as well as Topological/Non-topo versions determine performance and implementation,
- Particle Filter: Represent the posterior by random samples of state. Recursively update these.
- Very easy implementation and flexible posterior,
- Some failure modes that need special attention