

COMP4680/8650 Advanced Topics in Statistical Machine Learning

Week 6: Dynamic Bayesian Networks

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Temporal Models

In many situations we are interested in reasoning about the state of the world as it evolves over time. Examples:

robot localization, patient health, speech recognition

Instead of a single set of random variables X we model the variables' trajectory over time $X_{0:T} = X_0, ..., X_T$.

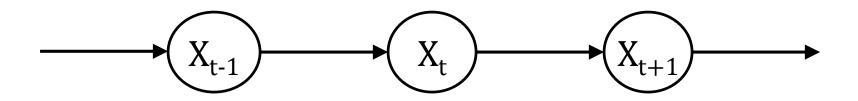
We will make two simplifications:

- time discretization
- Markov assumption

Markov Models

Markov Assumption: "the future is independent of the past given that we know the present"

$$p(X_{0:T}) = p_0(X_0) \prod_{t=1}^{T} p_t(X_t \mid X_{t-1})$$



Stationary Dynamical Systems

We say that a dynamical system is **stationary** (or time invariant) if $p_t(X_t \mid X_{t-1})$ is the same for all t.

If this is the case then we can represent infinite trajectories very compactly. We only need to represent

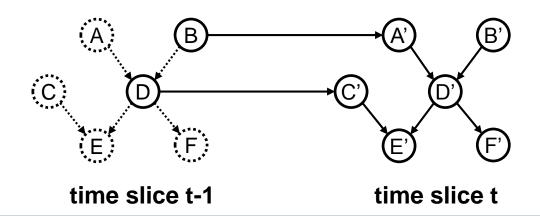
- the initial state distribution $p_0(X_0)$
- the transition model $p(X' \mid X)$



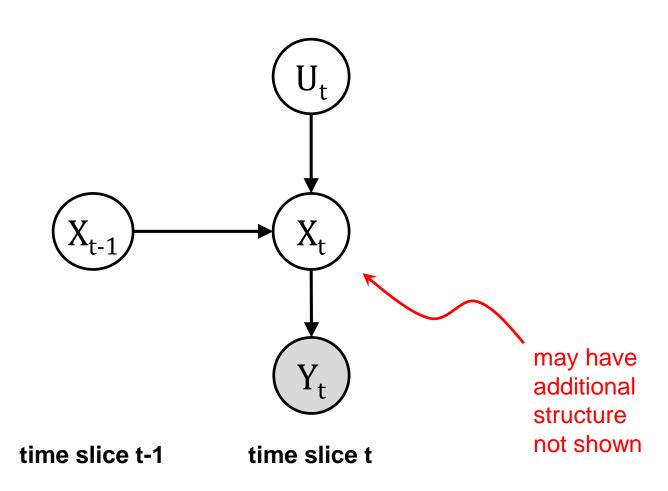
Dynamic Bayesian Networks

A dynamic Bayesian network (DBN) is a pair (B_0, B_{\rightarrow}) where

- $-B_0$ is a BN over the variables at time zero
- $-B_{\rightarrow}$ is a 2-time-slice "template" defining
 - the dependence of variables from time t-1 to time t
 - the dependence of variables within time t



Typical DBN (Hidden Markov Model)



Inference in DBNs

- Consider a system evolving over time where:
 - x_t is the (unknown) system state at time t
 - u_t is the (known) control input at time t
 - $-y_t$ is some (observed) measurement at time t

- filtering estimates $p(x_{0:t} \mid y_{1:t}, u_{1:t})$
- smoothing estimates $p(x_{0:t} \mid y_{1:T}, u_{1:T})$
 - smoothing takes into account future observations

Efficient Recursive Filtering

Define the belief over the state at time t as

$$bel(x_t) = p(x_t \mid y_{1:t}, u_{1:t})$$

Bayesian updating proceeds in two steps:

- **prediction:** $bel'(x_t) = \int p(x_t | x_{t-1}, u_t) bel(x_{t-1}) dx_{t-1}$
- correction: $bel(x_t) \propto p(y_t \mid x_t)bel'(x_t)$

In order to implement the Bayes filter we often need to use tractable approximations. Considerations:

computational efficiency, accuracy of approximation, ease of implementation

Linear Gaussian Systems

The linear Gaussian assumption for the **transition** (motion) and **measurement** models is a popular choice and leads to the famous Kalman filter.

The variables of the model are all assumed to be continuous-valued vectors:

- state (hidden), $x_t \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- control (input), $u_t \in \mathbf{R}^q$
- measurement (output), $y_t \in \mathbf{R}^p$

Linear Gaussian Assumptions

 The state is assumed to evolve as a linear function of the previous state and the current control input,

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

where ϵ_t is additive zero-mean Gaussian noise.

The measurements are also a linear function of state,

$$y_t = C_t x_t + \delta_t$$

where δ_t is additive zero-mean Gaussian noise.

• Our belief over the **initial state**, x_0 , must also be Gaussian distributed.

Linear Gaussian Probabilities

- Initial belief: $p(x_0) = \mathcal{N}(x_0; \mu_0, \Sigma_0)$
- State transition probability:

$$p(x_t \mid u_t, x_{t-1}) = \mathcal{N}(x_t; A_t x_{t-1} + B_t u_t, Q_t)$$

Measurement probability:

$$p(y_t \mid x_t) = \mathcal{N}(y_t; C_t x_t, R_t)$$

Under these assumptions the posterior distribution over x_t will be Gaussian.

Kalman Filter Algorithm

Prediction Step

$$\mu_{t|t-1} = A_t \mu_{t-1|t-1} + B_t u_t$$

$$\Sigma_{t|t-1} = A_t \Sigma_{t-1|t-1} A_t^T + Q_t$$

Correction Step

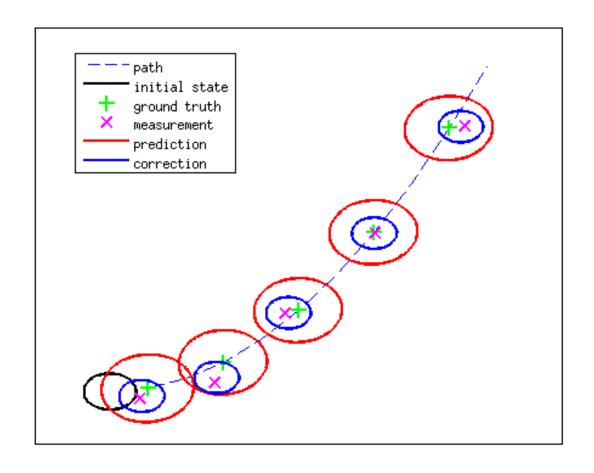
$$K_{t} = \Sigma_{t|t-1} C_{t}^{T} \left(C_{t} \Sigma_{t|t-1} C_{t}^{T} + R_{t} \right)^{-1}$$

$$\mu_{t|t} = \mu_{t|t-1} + K_{t} \left(y_{t} - C_{t} \mu_{t|t-1} \right)$$

$$\Sigma_{t|t} = (I - K_{t} C_{t}) \Sigma_{t|t-1}$$

Computational efficiency: $O(p^3)$ for matrix inversion and $O(n^2)$ for covariance update. Measurement does not appear in Σ update.

Kalman Filter Example



Conditional Gaussians

Consider jointly Gaussian random variables x and y,

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \sim N \left(\begin{bmatrix} \mu_x \\ \mu_y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{xx} & \Sigma_{xy} \\ \Sigma_{xy}^T & \Sigma_{yy} \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

Then $P(x \mid y)$ is Gaussian with

$$\mu_{x|y} = \mu_x + \Sigma_{xy} \Sigma_{yy}^{-1} (y - \mu_y)$$

$$\Sigma_{x|y} = \Sigma_{xx} - \Sigma_{xy} \Sigma_{yy}^{-1} \Sigma_{xy}^{T}$$

(See Murphy §4.3.4.3)

Kalman Filter Derivation

Prediction Step

$$\mu_{t|t-1} = E[x_t]$$

$$= E[Ax_{t-1} + Bu_t + \eta_t]$$

$$= AE[x_{t-1}] + Bu_t + E[\eta_t]$$

$$= A\mu_{t-1|t-1} + Bu_t$$

$$\begin{split} \Sigma_{t|t-1} &= Var[x_t] \\ &= Var[Ax_{t-1} + Bu_t + \eta_t] \\ &= AVar[x_{t-1}]A^T + Var[\eta_t] \\ &= A\Sigma_{t-1|t-1}A^T + Q_t \end{split}$$

Kalman Filter Derivation

Correction Step. First write as joint Gaussian over state and measurements

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_t \\ y_t \end{bmatrix} \sim N \left(\begin{bmatrix} \mu_{t|t-1} \\ C_t \mu_{t|t-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{t|t-1} & \Sigma_{t|t-1} C_t^T \\ C_t \Sigma_{t|t-1}^T & C_t \Sigma_{t|t-1} C_t^T + R_t \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

Now apply the conditional Gaussian rule,

$$\mu_{t|t} = \mu_{t|t-1} + \Sigma_{t|t-1} C_t^T (C_t \Sigma_{t|t-1} C_t^T + R_t)^{-1} (y_t - C_t \mu_{t|t-1})$$

$$\Sigma_{t|t} = \Sigma_{t|t-1} - \Sigma_{t|t-1} C_t^T (C_t \Sigma_{t|t-1} C_t^T + R_t)^{-1} C_t \Sigma_{t|t-1}^T$$

Extended Kalman Filter

The **extended Kalman filter** (EFK) allows the use of non-linear motion and measurement models,

$$x_t = g(x_{t-1}, u_t) + \eta_t$$

$$y_t = h(x_t) + \delta_t$$

These models are linearized around the current mean of the state posterior, $\mu_{t-1|t-1}$, before each filter update

$$g(x_{t-1}, u_t) \approx g(\mu_{t-1|t-1}, u_t) + G_t(x_{t-1} - \mu_{t-1|t-1})$$
$$h(x_t) \approx h(\mu_{t|t-1}) + H_t(x_t - \mu_{t|t-1})$$

where G_t and H_t are Jacobians.

The accuracy of the EKF depends heavily on the goodness of the linear approximation.

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$$g(x_{t-1}, u_t) \approx g(\mu_{t-1|t-1}, u_t) + G_t(x_{t-1} - \mu_{t-1|t-1})$$

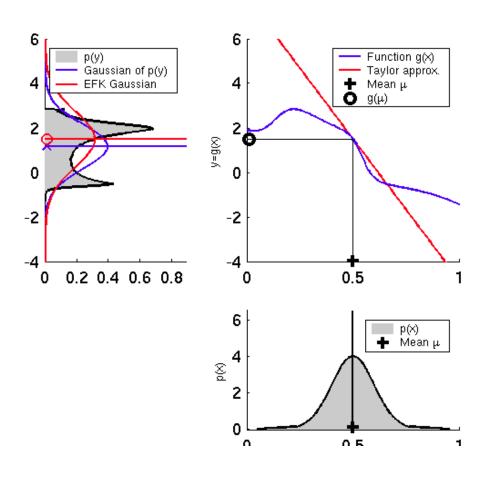
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Extended Kalman Filter Illustration



Extended Kalman Filter Algorithm

The extended Kalman filter is then

$$\mu_{t|t-1} = g(\mu_{t-1|t-1}, u_t)$$

$$\Sigma_{t|t-1} = G_t \Sigma_{t-1|t-1} G_t^T + R_t$$

$$K_{t} = \Sigma_{t|t-1} H_{t}^{T} (H_{t} \Sigma_{t|t-1} H_{t}^{T} + Q_{t})^{-1}$$

$$\mu_{t|t} = \mu_{t|t-1} + K_{t} (y_{t} - h(\mu_{t|t-1}))$$

$$\Sigma_{t|t} = (I - K_{t} H_{t}) \Sigma_{t|t-1}$$

Unscented Kalman Filter

Instead of using a taylor series expansion to linearize the motion and measurement models, the **unscented Kalman filter** (UKF) performs stochastic linearization, which preserves statistical properties of the belief state.

- Weighted samples are generated from $N(\mu_{t-1|t-1}, \Sigma_{t-1|t-1})$ and propagated though $g(x_{t-1}, u_t)$
- A Gaussian is then fitted to the transformed results

The UKF does not require calculation of analytical derivatives. It also works better in practice than the EKF.

Particle Filtering

- The particle filter is a nonparametric Bayes filter, also known as Sequential Monte Carlo.
- The posterior $p(x_t \mid x_{0:t-1}, y_{1:t})$ is represented by a set of random samples

$$\mathcal{X}_t = \left\{x_t^{(1)}, \dots, x_t^{(m)}\right\}$$

 The representation is approximate (unlike the Kalman filter) but can model a much broader range of probability distributions (and non-linear dynamics).

Particle Filter Algorithm

Update and Weight Particles

for i = 1 to m do
$$\text{sample } x_t^{(i)} \text{ from } p(x_t \mid u_t, x_{t-1}^{(i)})$$

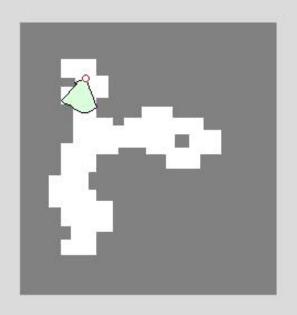
$$\text{set } w_t^{(i)} = p(y_t \mid x_t^{(i)})$$

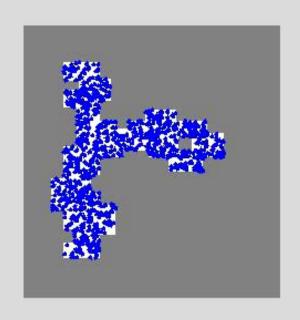
Resample Particles

```
initialise \mathcal{X}_t = \emptyset for j = 1 to m do  \text{draw } i \text{ with probability proportional to } w_t^{(k)}  add x_t^{(i)} to \mathcal{X}_t
```



Particle Filter Example



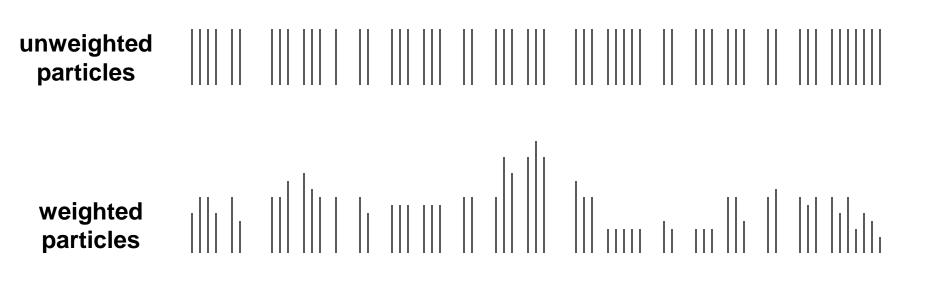


real robot location

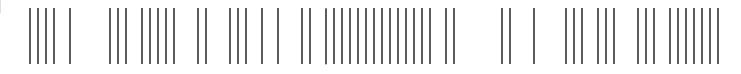
particle filter



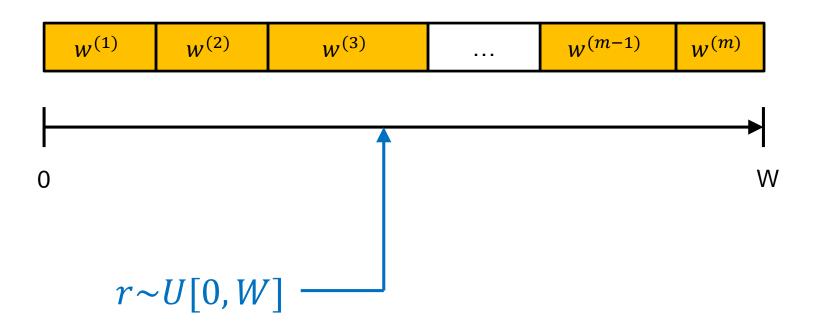
Resampling Step



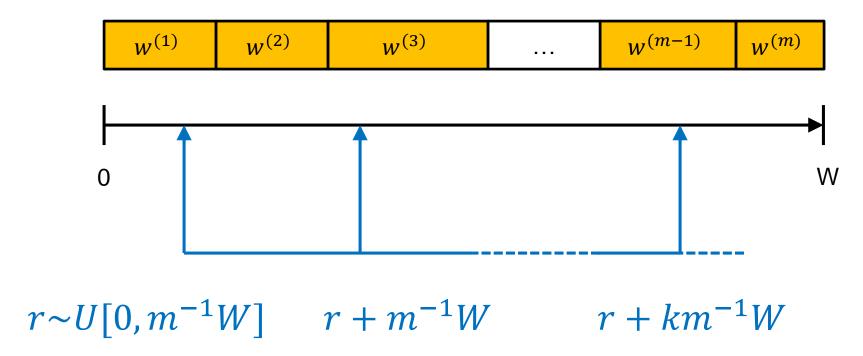
unweighted resampled particles



Sampling from [0, W]



Low Variance Sampler



makes samples dependent

Low Variance Sampler Algorithm

```
initialise \mathcal{X}_t = \emptyset
set W = \sum_{i=1}^{m} w_t^{(i)}
sample r \sim U[0, m<sup>-1</sup>W]
set i = 1 and c = w_t^{(1)}
for j = 1 to m do
       U = r + (j - 1) m^{-1}W
       while U > c do
               set i += 1 and c += w_t^{(l)}
       add x_t^l to \mathcal{X}_t
```

Particle Deprivation

- Particle Deprivation: no particles are near the true state
- This is a result of variance in random sampling
 - An unlucky series of random numbers can wipe out all particles near the true state
 - Since this has a non-zero probability of happening at each time slice it will happen eventually
- A popular solution is to add a small number of randomly generated particles when resampling
 - Also addresses the "kidnapped robot" problem

Distributional Particles

- Computational cost/number of particles explodes as dimensionality increases
- Distributional particles (aka Rao-Blackwellization) by keeping part of the distribution in analytical form
- Example: conditionally linear Gaussian models
 - Let the state be represented by $(x_t, z_t) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times [1, ..., K]$
 - Assume that conditioned on z_t the system can be modelled with linear Gaussian dynamics

$$x_{t} = A(z_{t-1})x_{t-1} + B(z_{t-1})u_{t} + \eta_{t}$$

$$y_{t} = C(z_{t})x_{t} + \eta_{t}$$

- Then we can approximate the distribution over (x_t, z_t) by a set of particles with $z_t \sim [0, ..., K]$ and $x_t \sim N(\mu_t, \Sigma_t)$.

RBPF Algorithm

Update and Weight Particles

```
for i = 1 to m do  \text{sample } z_t^{(i)} \text{ from } p(z_t \mid u_t, z_{t-1}^{(i)})  Kalman filter update for \mu_t^{(i)} and \Sigma_t^{(i)} given z_t^{(i)} set w_t^{(i)} = p(y_t \mid x_t^{(i)}, z_t^{(i)})
```

Resample Particles

```
initialise \mathcal{X}_t = \emptyset for j = 1 to m do draw i with probability proportional to w_t^{(k)} add \left(x_t^{(i)}, z_t^{(i)}\right) to \mathcal{X}_t
```