SReachTools Kernel Module: Data-Driven Stochastic Reachability Using Hilbert Space Embeddings of Distributions

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ABSTRACT

We present algorithms for performing data-driven stochastic reachability as an addition to SReachTools, an open-source stochastic reachability toolbox. Our method leverages a class of machine learning techniques known as kernel embeddings of distributions to approximate the safety probabilities for a wide variety of stochastic reachability problems. By representing the probability distributions of the system state as elements in a reproducing kernel Hilbert space, we can learn the "best fit" distribution via a simple regularized least-squares problem, and then compute the stochastic reachability safety probabilities as simple linear operations. This technique admits finite sample bounds and has known convergence in probability. We implement these methods as part of SReachTools, and demonstrate their use on a double integrator system, on a million-dimensional repeated planar quadrotor system, and a cart-pole system with a black-box neural network controller.

CCS CONCEPTS

• Computing methodologies \rightarrow Computational control theory; Kernel methods; • Theory of computation \rightarrow Stochastic control and optimization.

KEYWORDS

Stochastic Reachability, Machine Learning, Stochastic Optimal Control

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1 INTRODUCTION

Modern control systems incorporate a wide variety of elements which are resistant to traditional modeling techniques. For instance, systems with autonomous or learning components, human-in-the-loop elements, or poorly characterized stochasticity provide a significant challenge for model-based analysis methods. In practice, model assumptions can be overly simplistic or fail to capture uncertain behavior, and in some cases are simply wrong. As such, these scenarios have brought about a need for algorithms which can provide probabilistic guarantees of safety, even when a comprehensive

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model of the system is unavailable. Thus, data-driven techniques for safety analysis are widely applicable for systems with poorly characterized dynamics or uncertainties, and provide an inroad for computing the probability of safety for stochastic systems in a model-free manner.

We present an addition to SReachTools [24] which enables data-driven stochastic reachability, based on a machine learning technique known as conditional distribution embeddings [12, 17]. As a nonparametric technique, kernel distribution embeddings use principles from functional analysis to embed probability distributions as elements in a high-dimensional Hilbert space. These techniques have applications to Markov models [7], partially-observable models [13, 16], and have recently been used to solve stochastic reachability problems [20–22]. We incorporate an implementation of the algorithms presented in [20–22] into SReachTools, enabling data-driven solutions for stochastic reachability problems that are model-free and distribution agnostic.

These algorithms have several advantages over comparable modelbased techniques. First, the techniques admit finite sample bounds [21] and provide convergence guarantees in the infinite sample case [17]. Second, the algorithms largely avoid the curse of dimensionality [1], which can be a significant computational roadblock when solving dynamic programs. Without modification, [20] computes the safety probabilities for a stochastic chain of integrators up to ten thousand dimensions, which is beyond the scope of many existing toolsets. However, the techniques are also amenable to several approximative speedup techniques [6, 14, 28], which have been shown to reduce the computational complexity down to log-linear time. These techniques generally rely upon Fourier approximations of kernel functions and random sampling in the frequency domain, as well as approximations of Gaussian random matrices to alleviate the computational burden. In [22], the authors present an application of one of these techniques, known as random Fourier features [14], to solve a stochastic reachability problem for a million-dimensional system.

Several point-based stochastic reachability techniques are already implemented in SReachTools, based on chance constraints [26], Fourier transforms [25], and particle-based approaches [10], among others. Several existing toolboxes, including Faust ² [18], PRISM [9], STORM [4], and multiple preexisting algorithms in SReachTools, present solutions for stochastic reachability problems and model-checking of continuous and discrete-time Markov chains. Unlike most traditional approaches, however, our algorithms are data-driven, meaning we treat the system as a black box, and do not rely upon gridding-based solutions. Because of this, we are able to perform stochastic reachability on systems with arbitrary disturbances, as well as systems with autonomous elements such as neural network controllers (Figure 1). Effectively, this means we can also compute the safety probabilities for autonomous systems and perform neural network verification in a model-free

environment. Several existing toolboxes, such as Sherlock [5], NNV [23], and Marabou [8] tackle the problem of neural network verification, but to the best of our knowledge, our toolbox is the first to be able to compute safety probabilities for stochastic, autonomous systems using backward reachability.

The paper is organized as as follows: In Section 2, we present the system model and outline the stochastic reachability problems our algorithms are designed to solve. The contribution to SReachTools is presented in Section 3. We present a brief outline of the theory of conditional distribution embeddings and random Fourier features. Then, we describe the algorithms and their use as part of SReachTools. In Section 4, we present several numerical examples demonstrating the algorithms, including a stochastic integrator system, a repeated planar quadrotor system, and a cart-pole system with a black-box neural network controller. Concluding remarks are presented in Section 5.

2 STOCHASTIC REACHABILITY

We utilize the following notation throughout the paper. Let E be an arbitrary nonempty space. The indicator function $1_A: E \to \{0,1\}$ of $A \subseteq E$ is defined such that $1_A(x) = 1$ if $x \in A$, and $1_A(x) = 0$ if $x \notin A$. Let $\mathcal E$ denote the σ -algebra on E. If E is a topological space [3], the σ -algebra generated by the set of all open subsets of E is called the Borel σ -algebra, denoted by $\mathcal B(E)$. Let $(\Omega, \mathcal F, \mathbb P)$ denote a probability space, where $\mathcal F$ is the σ -algebra on Ω and $\mathbb P: \mathcal F \to [0,1]$ is a probability measure on the measurable space $(\Omega, \mathcal F)$. A measurable function $X: \Omega \to E$ is called a random variable taking values in $(E, \mathcal E)$. The image of $\mathbb P$ under $X, \mathbb P(X^{-1}A)$, $A \in \mathcal E$ is called the distribution of X.

2.1 System Model

Consider a Markov control process \mathcal{H} as defined in [19].

Definition 1. A Markov control process $\mathcal{H} = (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{U}, \mathcal{Q})$ is comprised of:

- $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ a measurable Borel space called the state space;
- $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{R}$, a compact Borel space called the control space;
- Q: B(X)×X×U → [0,1], a stochastic kernel that assigns a
 probability measure Q(· | x, u) on (X, B(X)) to every (x, u) ∈
 X × U.

The system evolves from an initial condition $x_0 \in X$ over a finite time horizon k = 0, 1, ..., N with control inputs chosen according to a Markov control policy π .

DEFINITION 2 (MARKOV POLICY). A Markov control policy $\pi = \{\pi_0, \pi_1, \dots, \pi_{N-1}\}$ is a sequence of universally measurable maps $\pi_k : X \to \mathcal{U}, k = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$. The set of all admissible Markov policies is denoted as \mathcal{M} .

2.2 Problem Definitions

We define the stochastic reachability problems the algorithms can solve as in [19] using the stochastic reachability tube definition from [27].

DEFINITION 3 (STOCHASTIC REACHABILITY TUBE). Given a finite time horizon $N \in \mathbb{N}$, a stochastic reachability tube is a sequence $\mathcal{A} = \{\mathcal{A}_0, \dots, \mathcal{A}_N\}$ of nonempty sets \mathcal{A}_k , where $k = 0, 1, \dots, N$.

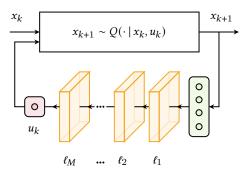


Figure 1: Feedback control diagram for a stochastic system with a neural network controller.

2.2.1 Terminal-Hitting Time Problem. Given a target tube \mathcal{T} , the terminal-hitting time safety probability $\hat{p}_{x_0}^{\pi}$ is defined as the probability that a system following a policy π will reach the target set \mathcal{T}_N at time k=N while remaining within the constraint tube \mathcal{T} for all time k< N from an initial condition x_0 .

$$\hat{p}_{x_0}^{\pi}(\mathcal{T}) = \mathbb{E}_{x_0}^{\pi} \left[\left(\prod_{i=0}^{N-1} 1_{\mathcal{T}_i}(x_i) \right) 1_{\mathcal{T}_N}(x_N) \right] \tag{1}$$

For a fixed policy $\pi \in \mathcal{M}$, we define the terminal-hitting value functions $W_k^{\pi}: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}, k = 0, 1, \dots, N$ as

$$\begin{split} W_N^{\pi}(x) &= 1_{\mathcal{T}_N}(x) \\ W_k^{\pi}(x) &= 1_{\mathcal{T}_k}(x) \int_X W_{k+1}^{\pi}(y) Q(\mathrm{d}y \,|\, x, \pi_k(x)) \end{split} \tag{2}$$

Then $W_0^{\pi}(x_0) = \hat{p}_{x_0}^{\pi}(\mathcal{T}).$

2.2.2 First-Hitting Time Problem. Let $\mathcal K$ denote the constraint tube and $\mathcal T$ denote the target tube. The first-hitting time safety probability $p_{x_0}^{\pi}$ is defined as the probability that a system following a policy π will reach the target tube $\mathcal T$ at some time $j \leq N$ while remaining within the constraint tube $\mathcal K$ for all time k < j from an initial condition x_0 .

$$p_{x_0}^{\pi}(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{T}) = \mathbb{E}_{x_0}^{\pi} \left[\sum_{j=0}^{N} \left(\prod_{i=0}^{j-1} 1_{\mathcal{K}_i \setminus \mathcal{T}_i}(x_i) \right) 1_{\mathcal{T}_N}(x_j) \right]$$
(3)

For a fixed policy $\pi \in \mathcal{M}$, we define the first-hitting value functions $V_k^{\pi}: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}, k = 0, 1, \dots, N$ as

$$V_N^{\pi}(x) = 1_{\mathcal{T}_N}(x)$$

$$V_k^{\pi}(x) = 1_{\mathcal{T}_k}(x) + 1_{\mathcal{K}_k \setminus \mathcal{T}_k}(x) \int_{\mathcal{X}} V_{k+1}^{\pi}(y) Q(\mathrm{d}y \mid x, \pi_k(x))$$

$$\tag{4}$$

Then $V_0^{\pi}(x_0) = p_{x_0}^{\pi}(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{T}).$

3 DATA-DRIVEN STOCHASTIC REACHABILITY

We consider the case where the stochastic kernel Q is unknown, but observations taken from the system evolution are available. Thus, we have no prior knowledge of the system dynamics or the structure of the disturbance. Because Q is unknown, we cannot compute the safety probabilities in (4) or (2) directly. Instead, we seek to compute an approximation of the safety probabilities by

embedding the expectation operator with respect to the stochastic kernel *Q* in a reproducing kernel Hilbert space and estimating the operator in Hilbert space.

DEFINITION 4 (RKHS). Let E be an arbitrary, nonempty space and \mathcal{H}_E be a Hilbert space over E, which is a linear space of functions of the form $f: E \to \mathbb{R}$. The Hilbert space \mathcal{H}_E is a reproducing kernel Hilbert space (RKHS) if there exists a positive definite kernel function $k_E: E \times E \to \mathbb{R}$, and it obeys the following properties:

$$k_E(x,\cdot) \in \mathcal{H}_E \qquad \forall x \in E$$
 (5a)

$$f(x) = \langle f, k_E(x, \cdot) \rangle_{\mathscr{H}_E} \qquad \forall f \in \mathscr{H}_E, \forall x \in E$$
 (5b)

where (5b) is called the reproducing property, and for any $x, x' \in E$, we denote $k_E(x,\cdot)$ in the RKHS \mathscr{H}_E as a function on E such that $x' \mapsto k_E(x, x')$.

We define an RKHS \mathscr{H}_X over X and $\mathscr{H}_{X\times\mathcal{U}}$ over $X\times\mathcal{U}$ with corresponding kernel functions k_X and $k_{X\times \mathcal{U}}$, and define the conditional distribution embedding of Q as:

$$m_{Y|x,u} := \int_{\mathcal{X}} k_{\mathcal{X}}(y,\cdot) Q(\mathrm{d}y \mid x,u) \tag{6}$$

By the reproducing property, for any function $f \in \mathcal{H}_X$, we can compute the expectation of f with respect to the distribution $Q(\cdot | x, u)$, where $(x, u) \in X \times \mathcal{U}$, as an inner product in Hilbert space with the embedding $m_{Y|x,\mu}$ [20]. Thus, we can compute the safety probabilities for the first-hitting time problem and the terminal-hitting time problem by computing the expectations in (4) and (2) as Hilbert space inner products.

Kernel Distribution Embeddings

However, we typically do not have access to $m_{Y|x,u}$ directly since the distribution is typically unknown. Instead, we compute an estimate $\hat{m}_{Y|x,u}$ of $m_{Y|x,u}$ using a sample $S = \{(x_i', x_i, u_i)\}_{i=1}^M$ of $M \in \mathbb{N}$ observations taken i.i.d. from Q, where $u_i = \pi(x_i)$ and $x_i' \sim Q(\cdot | x_i, u_i)$. The estimate $\hat{m}_{Y|x,u}$ can be found as the solution to a regularized least squares problem:

$$\min_{\hat{m}} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} \|k_{\chi}(x_{i}', \cdot) - \hat{m}_{Y|x_{i}, u_{i}}\|_{\mathscr{H}_{\chi}}^{2} + \lambda \|\hat{m}\|_{\Gamma}^{2}$$
 (7)

where $\lambda > 0$ is the regularization parameter and Γ is a vector-valued RKHS. The solution to (7) is unique and has the following form:

$$\hat{m}_{Y|x,u} = \beta^{\top} \Psi \tag{8}$$

where $\beta \in \mathcal{H}_X$ and Ψ is known as a *feature vector*, with elements $\Psi_i = k_{X \times \mathcal{U}}((x_i, u_i), (x, u))$. The coefficients β are the unique solution to the system of linear equations

$$(G + \lambda MI)\beta = \Phi \tag{9}$$

where $G = (q_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times M}$ is known as the Gram or kernel matrix, with elements $g_{ij} = k_{X \times \mathcal{U}}((x_i, u_i), (x_j, u_j))$, and Φ is a feature vector with elements $\Phi_i = k_{\chi}(x_i', \cdot)$. Thus, we can approximate the expectation of a function $f \in \mathscr{H}_X$ using an inner product $\langle \hat{m}_{Y|x,u}, f \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_X}$. As shown in [20, 22], we can substitute the inner product into the backward recursion in (4) and (2) to approximate the safety probabilities. We have implemented this in SReachTools as KernelEmbeddings. We present the algorithm for the first-hitting time problem as Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1: KernelEmbeddings

Input: sample S, policy π , horizon N**Output:** value function estimate $V_0^{\pi}(x)$

1: Initialize $V_N^{\pi}(x) \leftarrow 1_{\mathcal{T}_N}(x)$ 2: Compute $\hat{m}_{Y|x,\pi(x)}$ (8) using S

3: **for** $k \leftarrow N - 1$ to 0 **do**

4: $\mathcal{Y} \leftarrow [V_{k+1}^{\pi}(x_1'), \dots, V_{k+1}^{\pi}(x_M')]^{\top}$ 5: $V_k^{\pi}(x) \leftarrow 1_{\mathcal{T}_k}(x) + 1_{\mathcal{K}_k \setminus \mathcal{T}_k}(x) \mathcal{Y}^{\top}(G + \lambda MI)^{-1} \Psi$ 6: **end for**

7: Return $V_0^{\pi}(x) \approx p_x^{\pi}(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{T})$

Algorithm 2: KernelEmbeddingsRFF

Input: sample S, policy π , horizon N, sample Ω

Output: value function estimate $V_0^{\pi}(x)$

1: Initialize $V_N^{\pi}(x) \leftarrow 1_{\mathcal{T}_N}(x)$

2: Compute RFF approximation of $\hat{m}_{Y|x,\pi(x)}$ (11) using ${\mathcal S}$ and Ω

3: **for** $k \leftarrow N - 1$ to 0 **do**

7: Return $V_0^{\pi}(x) \approx p_x^{\pi}(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{T})$

Random Fourier Features

Note that in order to compute β in (9), we must solve a system of linear equations that scales with the number of observations M in the sample S. When M is prohibitively large, [14] shows that by exploiting Bochner's theorem [15], we can approximate the kernel function by computing its Fourier transform and approximating the Fourier integral in feature space using random realizations of the frequency variable.

BOCHNER'S THEOREM. [15] A continuous, translation-invariant kernel function $k(x, x') = \varphi(x - x')$ is positive definite if and only if $\varphi(x-x')$ is the Fourier transform of a non-negative Borel measure Λ .

Following [14], we construct an estimate of the Fourier integral using a set of D realizations $\Omega = \{\omega_i\}_{i=1}^D$, such that ω_i is drawn i.i.d. from the Borel measure Λ according to $\omega_i \sim \Lambda(\cdot)$. Then, we can efficiently compute an approximation of the kernel as a sum of cosines.

$$k(x, x') \approx \frac{1}{D} \sum_{i=1}^{D} \cos(\omega_i^{\mathsf{T}}(x - x'))$$
 (10)

According to [22], we can approximate the estimate using (10) as:

$$\hat{m}_{Y|x,u} \approx \gamma^{\mathsf{T}} Z \tag{11}$$

where Z is a feature vector computed using the RFF approximation of $k_{X\times \mathcal{U}}$ and the coefficients γ are the solution to the system of linear equations

$$(ZZ^{\top} + \lambda MI)\gamma = \Phi \tag{12}$$

This enables a more computationally efficient approximation of the safety probabilities [22] when the number of observations M is large, or when the dimensionality of the system is high. We implement this in SReachTools as KernelEmbeddingsRFF and present the algorithm for the first-hitting time problem as Algorithm 2.

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Table 1: Computation times of SReachPoint algorithms for a stochastic double integrator system with N=5.

Algorithm	Sample Size	Computation Time [s]
KernelEmbeddings KernelEmbeddingsRFF	M = 2500 M = 2500, D = 5000	0.72 s 2.78 s
ChanceAffine ChanceAffineUniform ChanceOpen GenzpsOpen ParticleOpen VoronoiOpen		3.71 s 2.22 s 0.25 s 0.53 s 0.34 s 1.69 s

3.3 SReachTools Kernel Module

We incorporate the algorithms into SReachTools as modular components, meaning they can be applied to any closed-loop system for which observations are available, and can be applied to either the first-hitting time problem, the terminal-hitting time problem, or the reach-avoid problem [24], which can be viewed as a simplification of the terminal-hitting time problem.

In the implementation, we restrict ourselves to a Gaussian kernel function since the Fourier transform is easy to compute, and to enable a more direct comparison between the two algorithms. The kernel has the form $k(x, x') = \exp(-\|x - x'\|_2^2/2\sigma^2)$, where σ is known as the bandwidth parameter. In order to use the algorithms, we must specify the parameter σ , the regularization parameter λ (7), the sample \mathcal{S} , and the problem, which is either the first-hitting time problem or the terminal hitting time problem, parameterized by the stochastic reachability tubes \mathcal{K} and \mathcal{T} (Definition 3).

The algorithm parameters σ and λ are typically chosen via cross-validation, though [2] suggests a method to select a more optimal rate. The default values are chosen to be $\sigma=0.1$ and $\lambda=1$. We represent a sample $\mathcal{S}=\{(x_i',x_i,u_i)\}_{i=1}^M$ of size $M\in\mathbb{N}$ taken i.i.d. from a Markov control process \mathcal{H} as a set of matrices, (X,U,Y), where the i^{th} columns of X and U are the observations x_i and u_i , where $u_i=\pi(x_i)$, and the i^{th} column of Y is x_i' , where $x_i'\sim Q(\cdot\,|\,x_i,u_i)$. For KernelEmbeddingsRFF, we are also required to specify the size D of the frequency sample Ω . The stochastic reachability tubes \mathcal{K} and \mathcal{T} are specified as in [24], which is typically defined as a sequence of polyhedra representing the constraints. However, we also include the possibility of representing the tubes via a function-based approach, where the constraints are user-specified indicator functions.

We then use the sample, the constraint and target tube definitions, and the kernel parameters as inputs to the algorithm and compute the safety probabilities for a point $x_0 \in X$ using SReachPoint [24], which returns the safety probability $p_{x_0}^{\pi}(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{T}) \in [0, 1]$.

4 NUMERICAL EXPERIMENTS

We present several examples to showcase the capabilities of the proposed methods. Numerical experiments were performed in Matlab on a Intel Xeon CPU with 32 GB RAM, and computation times were obtained using Matlab's Performance Testing Framework.

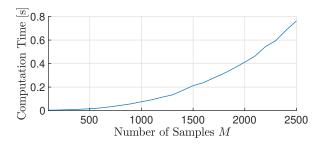


Figure 2: Computation time of KernelEmbeddings as a function of the sample size M.

4.1 Stochastic Chain of Integrators

We first consider a toy example to demonstrate the use of the algorithms and compare the output against known results. Consider a n-dimensional stochastic chain of integrators [22, 27], in which the input appears at the $n^{\rm th}$ derivative and each element of the state vector is the discretized integral of the element that follows it. The dynamics with sampling time T are given by:

$$x_{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & T & \cdots & \frac{T^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & \frac{T^{n-2}}{(n-2)!} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} x_k + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{T^n}{n!} \\ \frac{T^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \\ \vdots \\ T \end{bmatrix} u_k + w_k$$
 (13)

For the purpose of comparison against other algorithms, we restrict ourselves to the 2-dimensional case and Gaussian disturbances. We compare the computation time of the algorithms with a single evaluation point $x_0=0$ against several other algorithms present in SReachTools. The results are displayed in Table 1. Note that the kernel-based algorithms do not compute the *optimal* value functions unless the policy is the *maximally safe* Markov policy π^* [19]. This makes direct comparison of the algorithms in SReachTools difficult, since the existing algorithms also perform controller synthesis to obtain the maximal reach probability. We then seek to quantify the effect of the sample size M on the computation time. We vary M and plot the computation time as a function of M in Figure 2. This shows that as we increase the sample size M, the computation time increases exponentially.

In order to validate the approach, we compute the safety probabilities using dynamic programming $V_0^{\mathrm{DP}}(x_0)$. We then generate observations of the system by choosing $x_i \in \mathcal{X}, i=1,\ldots,2500$, uniformly in the range $[-1.1,1.1]^2$ and collect a sample S of size M=2500. The dynamic programming results are shown in Figure 3(a). Figure 3(b) shows the safety probabilities $V_0^{KM}(x_0)$ computed for a 2-dimensional integrator system using KernelEmbeddings. We then treat the dynamic programming solution as a truth model, and plot the absolute error $|V_0^{\mathrm{DP}}(x_0) - V_0^{KM}(x_0)|$ in Figure 3(c). In order to evaluate KernelEmbeddingsRFF, we then collect a sample of frequency realizations of size D=15000 and compute the safety probabilities $V_0^{RFF}(x_0)$. The results are shown in Figure 3(d), where Figure 3(e) shows the absolute error, $|V_0^{\mathrm{DP}}(x_0) - V_0^{RFF}(x_0)|$.

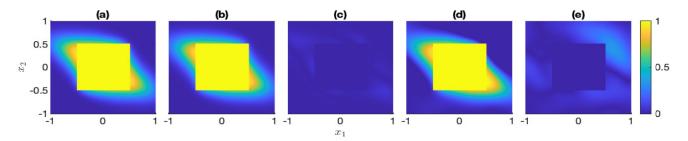


Figure 3: (a) Safety probabilities $V_0^{\mathrm{DP}}(x_0)$ for a 2-D stochastic chain of integrators computed using dynamic programming over a time horizon N=5. (b) Safety probabilities $V_0^{KM}(x_0)$ computed using KernelEmbeddings (c) Absolute error $|V_0^{\mathrm{DP}}(x_0)-V_0^{KM}(x_0)|$. (d) Safety probabilities $V_0^{RFF}(x_0)$ computed using KernelEmbeddingsRFF (e) Absolute error $|V_0^{\mathrm{DP}}(x_0)-V_0^{RFF}(x_0)|$.

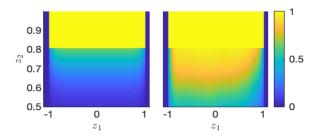


Figure 4: (left) First-hitting time safety probabilities for a single planar quadrotor system with a Gaussian disturbance and (right) with a beta distribution disturbance over the horizon N=5.

4.2 Repeated Planar Quadrotor

This example is used to showcase the ability of the system to handle high-dimensional systems [22]. This problem can be interpreted as a simplification of formation control for a large swarm of quadrotors, where we compute the safety probabilities for the entire swarm as they are controlled to reach a particular elevation. The nonlinear dynamics of a single quadrotor are given by

$$m\ddot{x} = -(u_1 + u_2)\sin(\theta)$$

$$m\ddot{y} = (u_1 + u_2)\cos(\theta) - mg$$

$$I\ddot{\theta} = r(u_1 - u_2)$$
(14)

where x is the lateral position, y is the vertical position, θ is the pitch, and we have the constants intertia I = 2, length r = 2, mass m = 5, and q = 9.8 is the gravitational constant.

The safety probabilities for a single planar quadrotor with a Gaussian and non-Gaussian disturbance are shown in Figure 4. We then formulate the dynamics for a swarm of quadrotors by repeating the dynamics until we have over a million state variables. We then generate a sample $\mathcal S$ of size M=1000 for the repeated system and compute the safety probabilities using KernelEmbeddings. Then, we collect a sample of frequency realizations of size D=15000 and compute the safety probabilities using KernelEmbeddingsRFF over a single time step N=1. The mean computation time for KernelEmbeddings was 1.23 hours, and for KernelEmbeddingsRFF the mean computation time was 44.63 seconds. This shows that

KernelEmbeddingsRFF can be used to compute the safety probabilities for extremely high-dimensional systems.

4.3 Cart-Pole

The following examples are used to showcase the ability of the algorithms to compute the safety probabilities for systems with neural network controllers.

4.3.1 Linearized Cart-Pole. The dynamics for the linearized cart-pole system [11] are given by:

$$\ddot{x} = 0.0043\dot{\theta} - 2.75\theta + 1.94u - 10.95\dot{x}$$

$$\ddot{\theta} = 28.58\theta - 0.044\dot{\theta} - 4.44u + 24.92\dot{x}$$
(15)

We add an additional Gaussian disturbance $\mathcal{N}(0,\Sigma)$ with $\Sigma=0.01I$ to the dynamical state equations, which can simulate dynamical uncertainty or minor system perturbations. The control input is computed via a feedforward neural network controller [11], which takes the current state and outputs a real number $u\in\mathbb{R}$, which can be interpreted as the input torque.

Figure 5(a) shows a cross-section of the safety probabilities for the system computed using KernelEmbeddings holding x and \dot{x} constant at 0, and Figure 5(b) shows a 2-D projection. The algorithms are agnostic to the structure of the dynamics, which means we do not require any prior knowledge of the structure of the neural network controller. Because of this, the algorithms are able to perform verification of systems that incorporate learning enabled components.

4.3.2 Nonlinear Cart-Pole. We then analyzed a nonlinear cart-pole system with a neural network controller [11], with dynamics given by:

$$\ddot{x} = \frac{u + ml\omega^{2}\sin(\theta)}{m_{t}}$$

$$-\frac{ml(g\sin(\theta) - \cos(\theta))(\frac{u + ml\omega^{2}\sin(\theta)}{m_{t}})}{l(\frac{4}{3} - m\frac{\cos^{2}(\theta)}{m_{t}})} \frac{\cos(\theta)}{m_{t}} \qquad (16)$$

$$\ddot{\theta} = \frac{g\sin(\theta) - \cos(\theta)(\frac{u + ml\omega^{2}\sin(\theta)}{m_{t}})}{l(\frac{4}{3} - m\frac{\cos^{2}(\theta)}{m_{t}})} \frac{\cos(\theta)}{m_{t}}$$

where g = 9.8 is the gravitational constant, the pole mass is m = 0.1, half the pole's length is l = 0.5, and $m_t = 1.1$ is the total mass. The

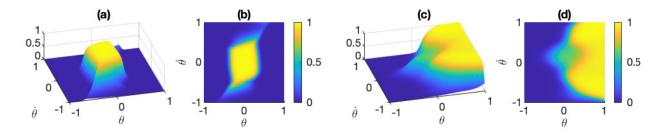


Figure 5: (a), (b) 3-D and 2-D cross-sections respectively, of the safety probabilities computed using KernelEmbeddings for linearized Cart-Pole system, and (c), (d) 3-D and 2-D cross-sections respectively, of safety probabilities computed using KernelEmbeddings for the nonlinear cart-pole system.

control input, $u \in \{-10, 10\}$, which affects the lateral position of the cart, is chosen by the neural network controller [11]. We add an additional Gaussian disturbance $\mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma)$ with $\Sigma = 0.01I$ to the dynamical state equations.

Figure 5(c) shows a 3-D representation of the safety probabilities for the system computed using KernelEmbeddings, and Figure 5(d) shows a 2-D projection. This example shows that we can handle systems which are traditionally very difficult to model and analyze, such as nonlinear systems and systems with neural network controllers.

5 CONCLUSION & FUTURE WORK

We presented a data-driven stochastic reachability module for SReachTools based on conditional distribution embeddings. These algorithms add to the suite of stochastic reachability algorithms already present in the toolbox and enable point-based stochastic reachability for a wide variety of stochastic systems. We would like to extend the kernel-based algorithms to enable model-free controller synthesis and broaden the capability of the algorithms to handle a wider variety of systems, such as hybrid system models.

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