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# Probabilistic Robotics

## Probabilities and Bayes Rule

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- Probabilities
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- Example

# Probabilistic Robotics

## Key ideas

- ▶ Explicit representation of uncertainty using the calculus of probability theory
- ▶ Perception as state estimation
- ▶ Action selection as utility optimisation

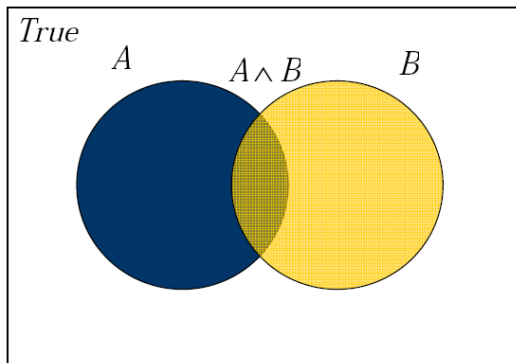
## Axioms of Probability Theory

$\Pr(A)$  denotes probability that proposition  $A$  is true.

1.  $0 \leq \Pr(A) \leq 1$
2.  $\Pr(\textit{True}) = 1$   
 $\Pr(\textit{False}) = 0$
3.  $\Pr(A \vee B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B) - \Pr(A \wedge B)$

## A Closer Look At Axiom 3

$$\Pr(A \vee B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B) - \Pr(A \wedge B)$$



## Using the Axioms

$$\Pr(A \vee \neg A) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(\neg A) - \Pr(A \wedge \neg A)$$

$$\Pr(\textit{True}) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(\neg A) - \Pr(\textit{False})$$

$$1 = \Pr(A) + \Pr(\neg A) - 0$$

$$\Pr(\neg A) = 1 - \Pr(A)$$

## Discrete Random Variables

$X$  denotes a random variable.

$X$  can take on a countable number of values in  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ .

$P(X = x_i)$ , or  $P(x_i)$ , is the probability that the random variable  $X$  takes on value  $x_i$ .

$P(\cdot)$  is called the probability mass function.

A *probability mass function* (abbreviated PMF) is a function that gives the probability that a discrete random variable is exactly equal to some value.

Example:  $P(\text{Room}) = \langle 0.7, 0.2, 0.08, 0.02 \rangle$

## Continuous Random Variables

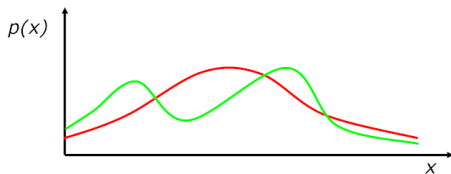
$X$  takes on values on the continuum.

$p(X = x)$ , or  $p(x)$ , is a *probability density function* (abbreviated PDF) with

$$\Pr(x \in (a, b)) = \int_a^b p(x) dx$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) dx = 1$$

Example:



An unimodal and a multimodal case.

## Joint and Conditional Probability

$$P(X = x \wedge Y = y) = P(x, y)$$

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent then

$$P(x, y) = P(x) P(y)$$

$P(x|y)$  is the probability of  $x$  given  $y$  such as

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

$$P(x, y) = P(x|y) P(y)$$

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent then

$$P(x|y) = P(x)$$

## Law of Total Probability, Marginals

Discrete case

$$\sum_x P(x) = 1$$

$$P(x) = \sum_y P(x, y)$$

$$P(x) = \sum_y P(x|y) P(y)$$

Continuous case

$$\int p(x) dx = 1$$

$$p(x) = \int p(x, y) dy$$

$$p(x) = \int p(x|y) p(y) dy$$

## Bayes Theorem (1)

Definition of conditional probability:

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

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

Rearranging and combining these two equations, we find

$$P(x|y) P(y) = P(x, y) = P(y|x) P(x)$$

Dividing both sides by  $P(y)$ , we obtain

$$P(x|y) = \frac{P(y|x) P(x)}{P(y)}$$

## Bayes Theorem (2)

$$P(x|y) = \frac{P(y|x) P(x)}{P(y)} \quad \text{posterior} = \frac{\text{likelihood prior}}{\text{evidence}}$$

$P(x)$  is the *prior probability* or *marginal probability* of  $x$ . It is “prior” in the sense that it does not take into account any information about  $y$ .

$P(x|y)$  is the conditional probability of  $x$ , given  $y$ . It is also called the *posterior probability* because it is derived from or depends upon the specified value of  $y$ .

$P(y|x)$  is the conditional probability of  $y$  given  $x$ .

$P(y)$  is the *prior* or *marginal probability* of  $y$ , and acts as a *normalising constant*. It is also referred to as *evidence*.

## Normalisation

$$P(x|y) = \frac{P(y|x) P(x)}{P(y)} = \eta P(y|x) P(x)$$
$$\eta = P(y)^{-1} = \frac{1}{\sum_x P(y|x) P(x)}$$

Algorithm:

- ▶  $\forall x : \text{aux}_{x|y} = P(y|x) P(x)$
- ▶  $\eta = \frac{1}{\sum_x \text{aux}_{x|y}}$
- ▶  $\forall x : P(x|y) = \eta \text{aux}_{x|y}$

## Conditioning

Law of total probability:

$$P(x) = \int P(x, z) dz$$

$$P(x) = \int P(x|z)P(z) dz$$

$$P(x|y) = \int P(x|y, z)P(z|y) dz$$

## Bayes Theorem With Background Knowledge

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

## Conditional Independence

Given  $x$  and  $y$  are independent:

$$P(x, y|z) = P(x|z) P(y|z)$$

equivalent to

$$P(x|z) = P(x|z, y)$$

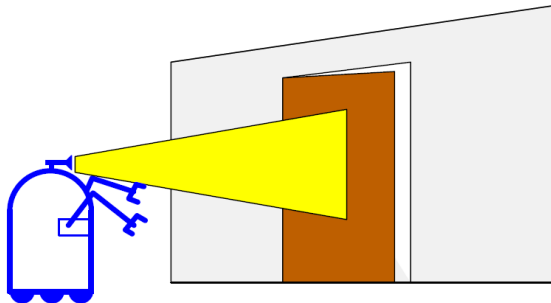
and

$$P(y|z) = P(y|z, x)$$

## Simple Example of State Estimation

Suppose a robot obtains a measurement  $z$ .

What is  $P(open|z)$ ?



## Causal Versus Diagnostic Reasoning

$P(open|z)$  is diagnostic.

$P(z|open)$  is causal.

Often causal knowledge is easier to obtain.

Bayes rule allows us to use causal knowledge:

$$P(open|z) = \frac{P(z|open) P(open)}{P(z)}$$

$P(z|open)$  ... count frequencies

## Example

$$P(z|open) = 0.6$$

$$P(z|\neg open) = 0.3$$

$$P(open) = P(\neg open) = 0.5$$

$$P(open|z) = \frac{P(z|open) P(open)}{P(z|open) P(open) + P(z|\neg open) P(\neg open)}$$

$$P(open|z) = \frac{0.6 \cdot 0.5}{0.6 \cdot 0.5 + 0.3 \cdot 0.5} = \frac{2}{3} = 0.67$$

$z$  raises the probability that the door is open.

## Combining Evidence

Suppose our robot obtains a another observation  $z_2$ .

How can we integrate this new information?

More generally, how can we estimate  $P(x|z_1, \dots, z_n)$  ?

## Recursive Bayesian Updating

$$P(x|z_1, \dots, z_n) = \frac{P(z_n|x, z_1, \dots, z_{n-1}) P(x|z_1, \dots, z_{n-1})}{P(z_n|z_1, \dots, z_{n-1})}$$

Markov assumption:  $z_n$  is independent of  $z_1, \dots, z_{n-1}$  if we know  $x$ .

$$\begin{aligned} P(x|z_1, \dots, z_n) &= \frac{P(z_n|x) P(x|z_1, \dots, z_{n-1})}{P(z_n|z_1, \dots, z_{n-1})} \\ &= \eta P(z_n|x) P(x|z_1, \dots, z_{n-1}) \\ &= \eta_{1\dots n} \left[ \prod_{i=1\dots n} P(z_i|x) \right] P(x) \end{aligned}$$

## Example: Second Measurement

$$P(z_2|open) = 0.5$$

$$P(z_2|\neg open) = 0.6$$

$$P(open|z_1) = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(open|z_2, z_1) &= \frac{P(z_2|open) P(open|z_1)}{P(z_2|open) P(open|z_1) + P(z_2|\neg open) P(\neg open|z_1)} \\ &= \frac{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3}}{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3} + \frac{3}{5} \cdot \frac{1}{3}} = \frac{5}{8} = 0.625 \end{aligned}$$

$z_2$  lowers the probability that the door is open.

## A Typical Pitfall

Two possible locations  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ .

$$P(x_1) = 0.99$$

$$P(z|x_2) = 0.09$$

$$P(z|x_1) = 0.07$$

