Probability Review

2/12/2018

Why Probabilistic Robotics?

- autonomous mobile robots need to accommodate the uncertainty that exists in the physical world
- sources of uncertainty
 - environment
 - sensors
 - actuation
 - software
 - algorithmic
- probabilistic robotics attempts to represent uncertainty using the calculus of probability theory

Axioms of Probability Theory

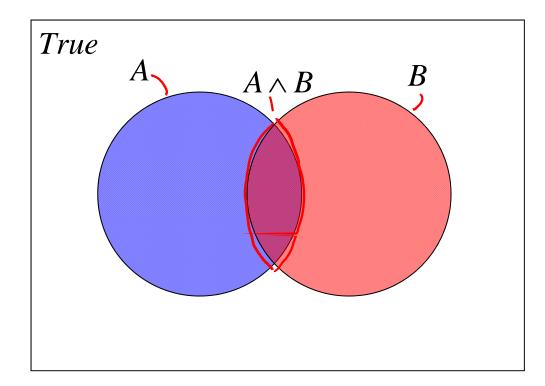
Pr(A) denotes probability that proposition A is true.

•
$$0 \le \Pr(A) \le 1$$

• $\Pr(True) = 1$ $\Pr(False) = 0$
• $\Pr(A \lor B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B) - \Pr(A \land B)$
• $\Pr(A \lor B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B) - \Pr(A \land B)$

A Closer Look at Axiom 3

AND OR $Pr(A \lor B) = Pr(A) + Pr(B) - Pr(A \land B)$



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Using the Axioms

$$Pr(A \lor \neg A) = Pr(A) + Pr(\neg A) - Pr(A \land \neg A)$$

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

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

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

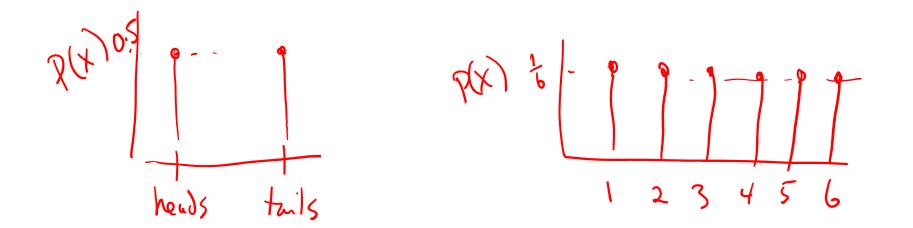
- > X denotes a random variable.
- X can take on a countable number of values in {x₁, x₂, ..., x_n}.
- P(X=x_i), or P(x_i), is the probability that the random variable X takes on value x_i.
- > $P(\cdot)$ is called probability mass function.



$$P(X=heads) = P(X=tails) = 1/2$$

fair dice

P(X=1) = P(X=2) = P(X=3) = P(X=4) = P(X=5) = P(X=6) = 1/6

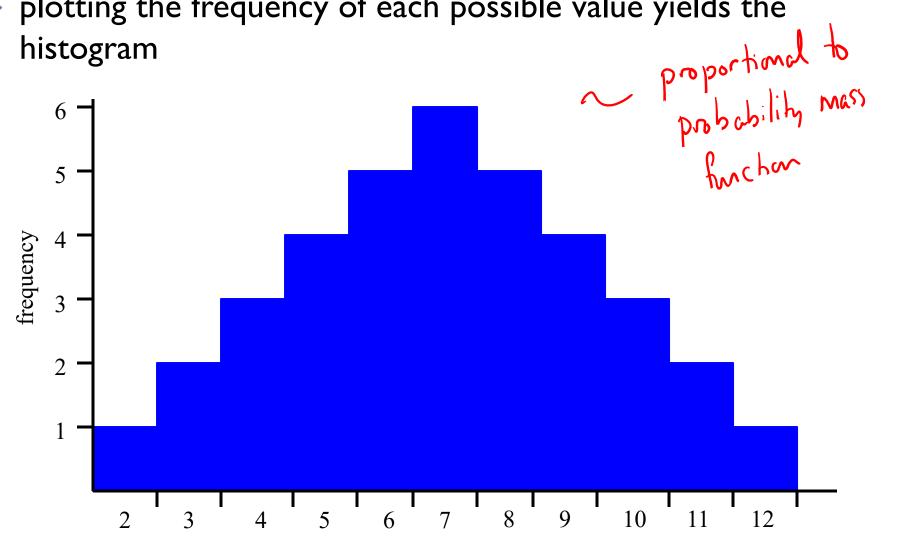


sum of two fair dice ? - a random variable

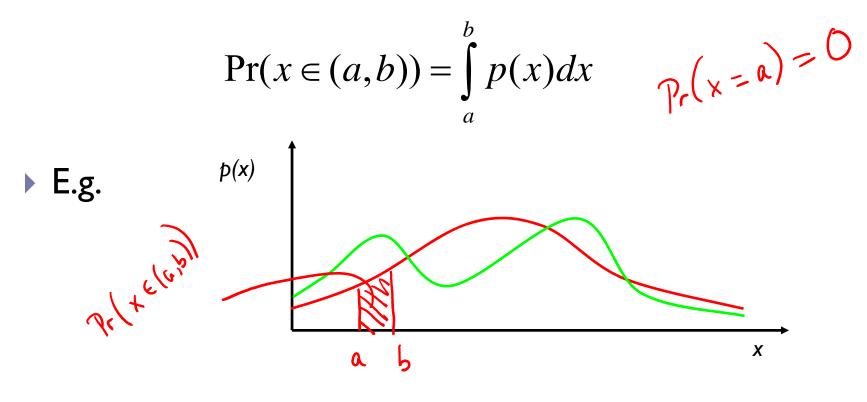
P(X=2)	(1,1)	1/36
P(X=3)	(1,2), (2,3) (2,1)	2/36
P(X=4)	(1,3), (2,2), (3,1)	3/36
P(X=5)	(1,4), (2,3), (3,2), (4,1)	4/36
P(X=6)	(1,5), (2,4), (3,3), (4,2), (5,1)	5/36
P(X=7)	(1,6), (2,5), (3,4), (4,3), (5,2), (6,1)	6/36
P(X=8)	(2, 6), (3, 5), (4, 4), (5, 3), (6, 2)	5/36
P(X=9)	(3, 6), (4, 5), (5, 4), (6, 3)	4/36
P(X=10)	(4, 6), (5, 5), (6, 4)	3/36
P(X=11)	(5, 6), (6, 5)	2/36
P(X=12)	(6, 6)	1/36
sum = 1		

probabi mess

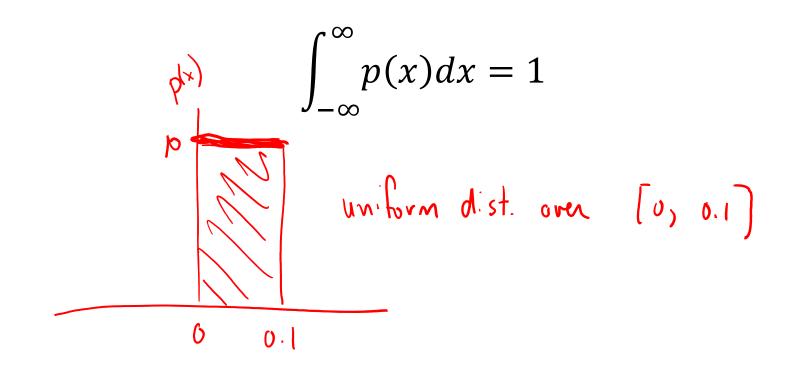
plotting the frequency of each possible value yields the histogram

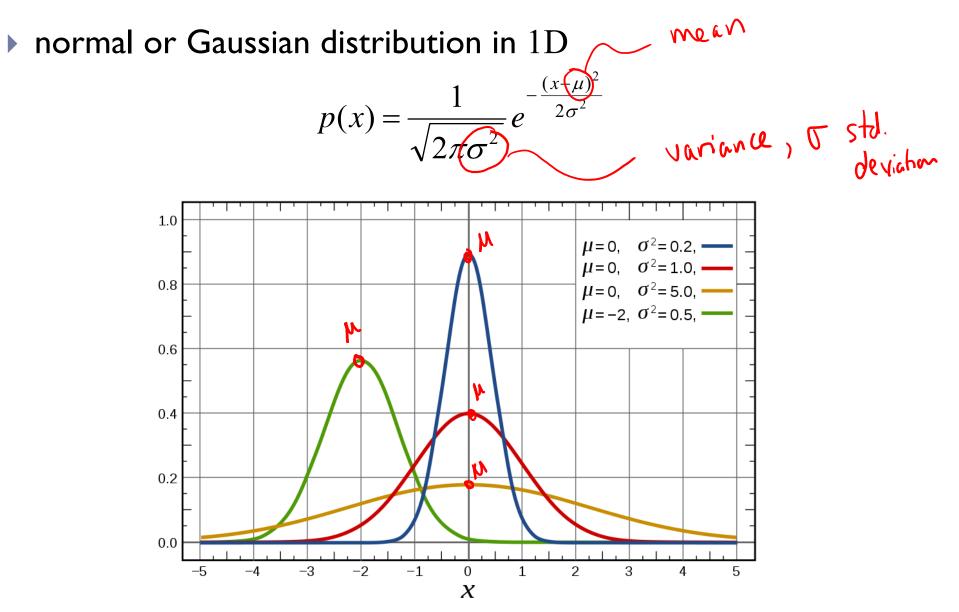


- > X takes on values in the continuum.
- p(X=x), or p(x), is a probability density function.



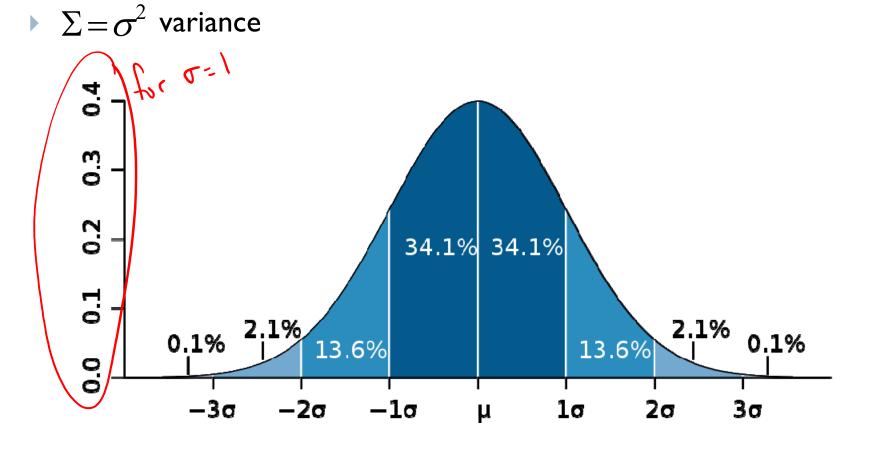
- unlike probabilities and probability mass functions, a probability density function can take on values greater than 1
 - e.g., uniform distribution over the range [0, 0.1]
- however, it is the case that



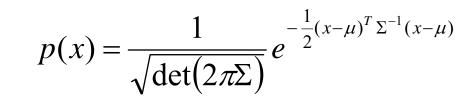


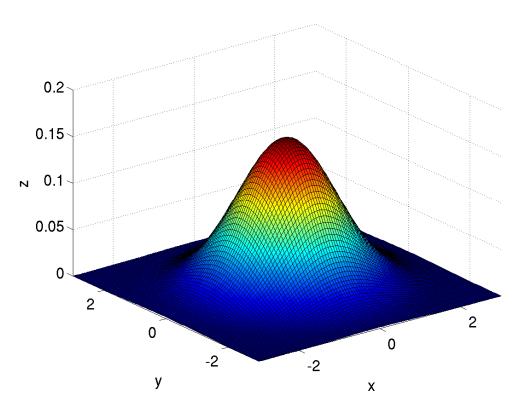
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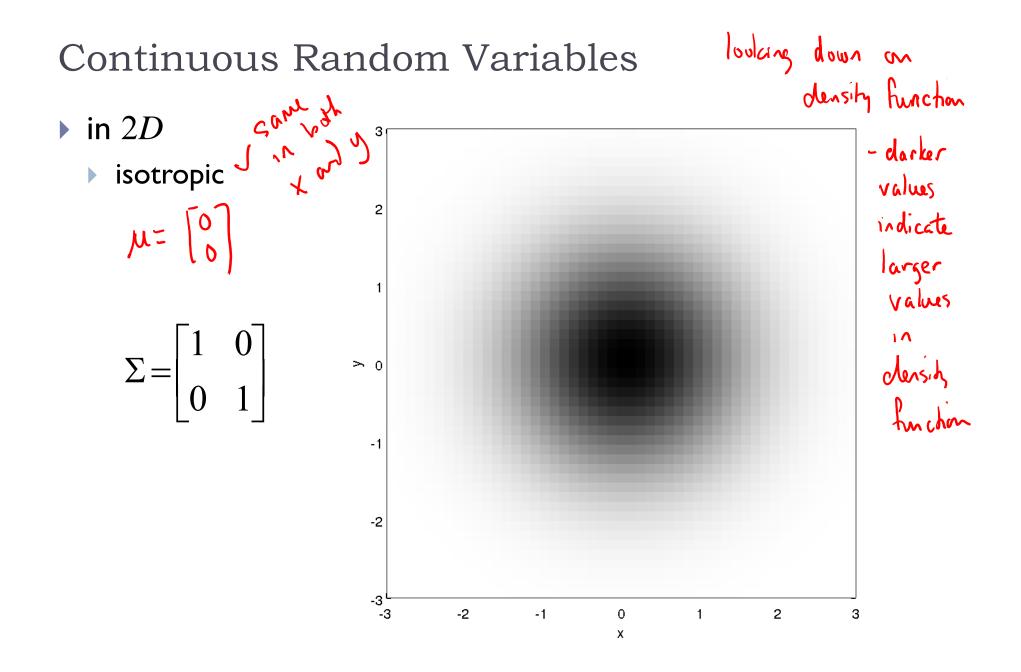
- ▶ 1D normal, or Gaussian, distribution
 - μ mean
 - \blacktriangleright σ standard deviation

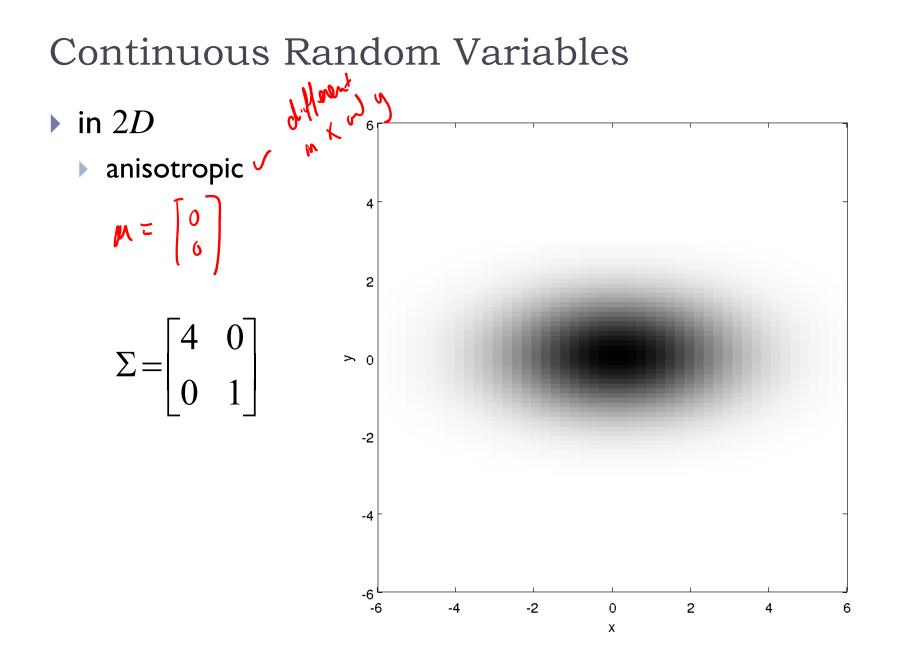


- > 2D normal, or Gaussian, distribution
 - μ mean
 - \sum covariance matrix

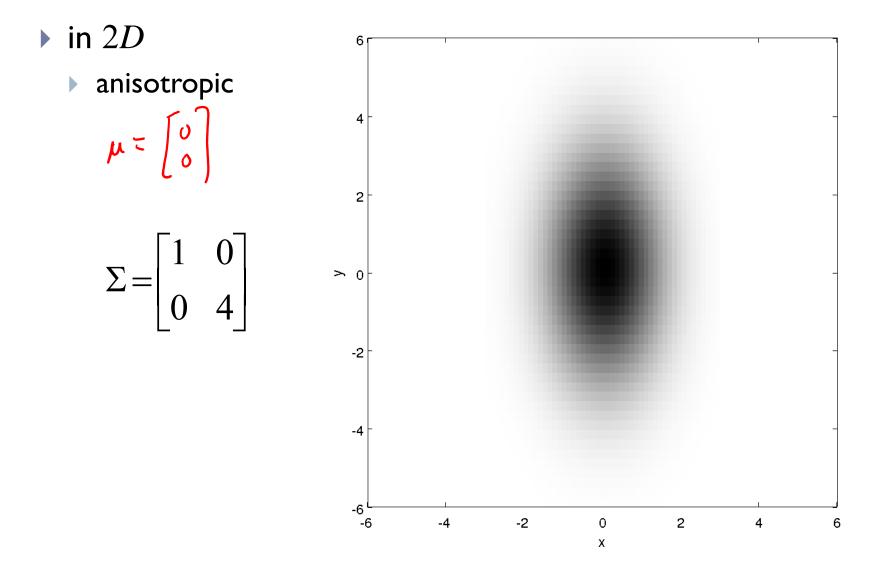


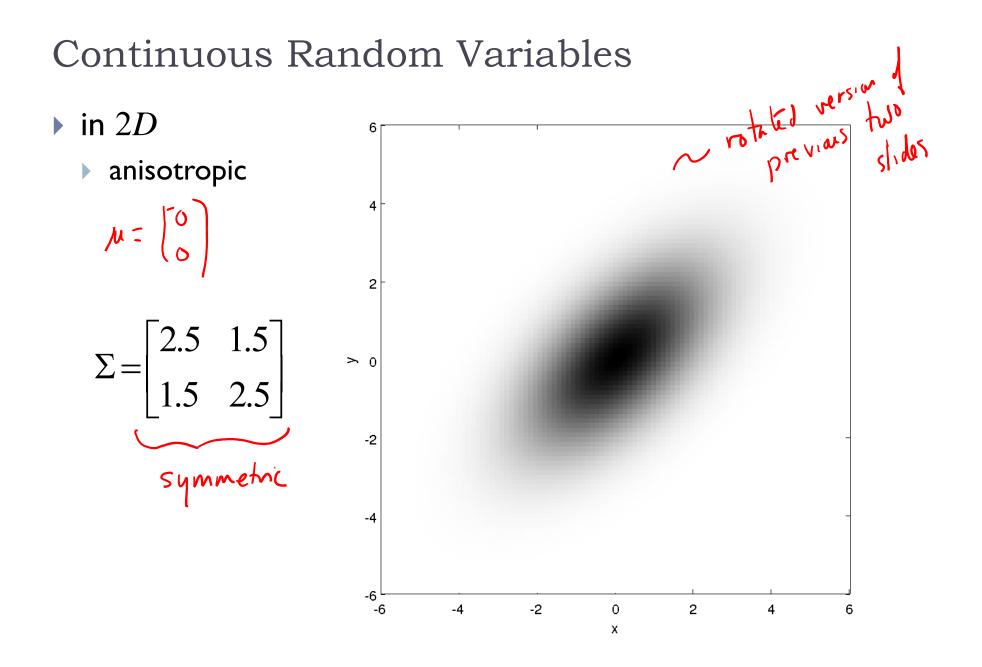






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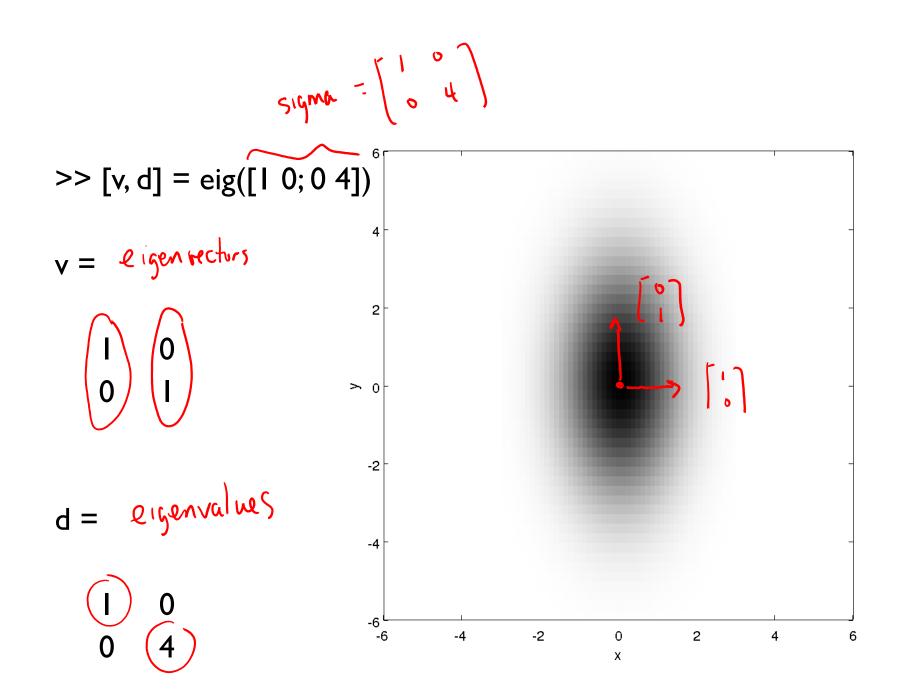


Covariance matrices

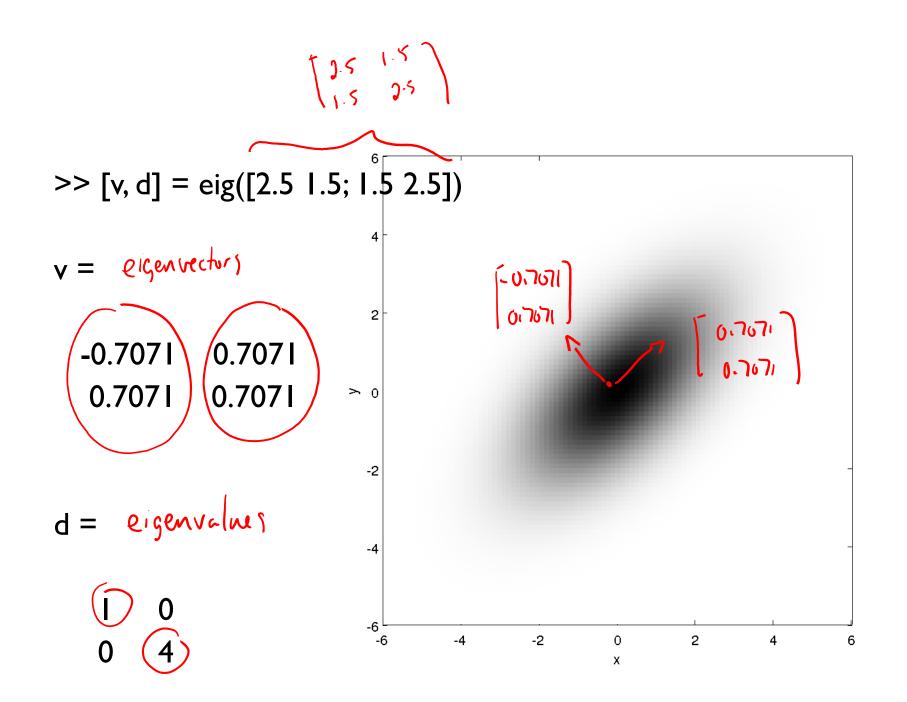
- the covariance matrix is always symmetric and positive semidefinite
- positive semi-definite:

$$x^T \Sigma x \ge 0$$
 for all x

> positive semi-definiteness guarantees that the eigenvalues of Σ are all greater than or equal to 0



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the joint probability distribution of two random variables

$$P(X=x \text{ and } Y=y) = P(x,y)$$

describes the probability of the event that X has the value x and Y has the value y

If X and Y are independent then
D() D()

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

the joint probability distribution of two random variables

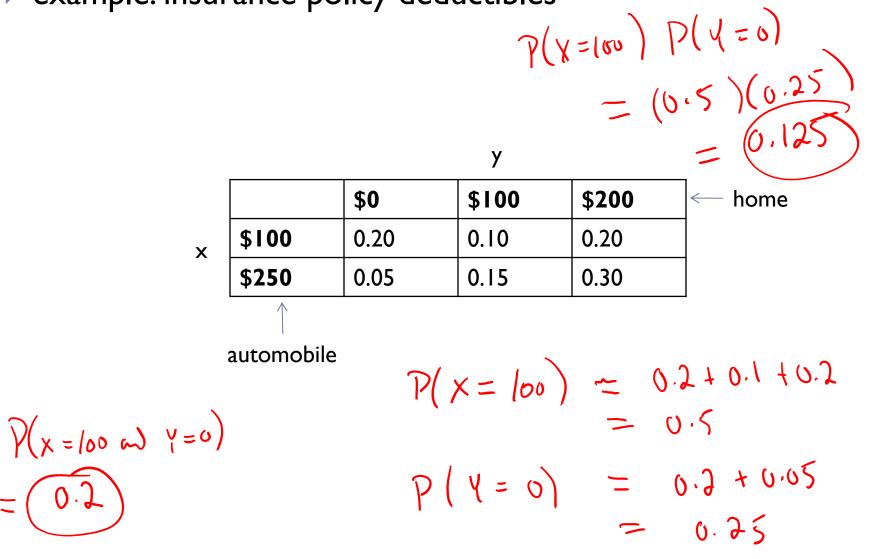
P(X=x and Y=y) = P(x,y)

describes the probability of the event that X has the value xand Y has the value y

• example: two fair dice p(x = ever) = 3 p(y = ever) = 3 p(y = ever) = 3

$$P(X=\text{even and } Y=\text{even}) = 9/36$$
$$P(X=1 \text{ and } Y=\text{not } 1) = 5/36$$

example: insurance policy deductibles



Joint Probability and Independence

X and Y are said to be independent if

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

for all possible values of x and y

• example: two fair dice

$$P(X=\text{even and } Y=\text{even}) = (1/2) (1/2)$$

 $P(X=1 \text{ and } Y=\text{not } 1) = (1/6) (5/6)$

are X and Y independent in the insurance deductible example?
 no, see previous slide

Marginal Probabilities

• the marginal probability distribution of X

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

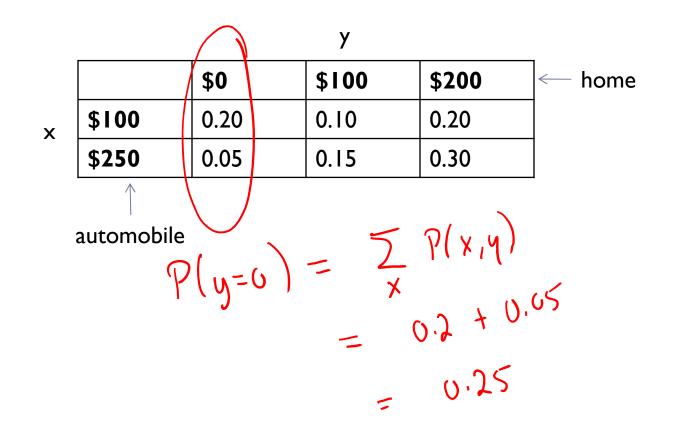
describes the probability of the event that X has the value x

• similarly, the marginal probability distribution of Y

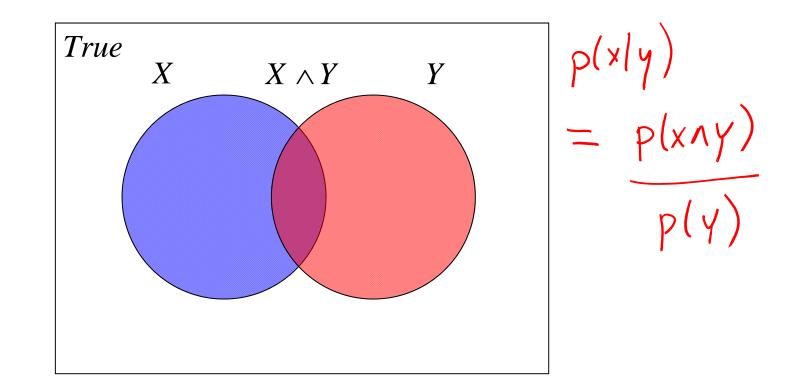
$$P_Y(y) = \sum_x P(x, y)$$

describes the probability of the event that Y has the value y

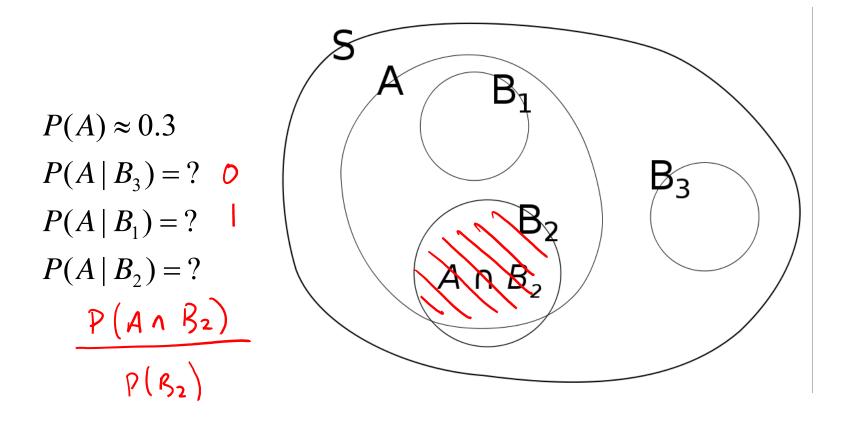
example: insurance policy deductibles



- the conditional probability P(x | y) = P(X=x | Y=y) is the probability of P(X=x) if Y=y is known to be true
 - "conditional probability of x given y"



Conditional Probability $\mathcal{P}(s) = 1$



- "information changes probabilities"
- example:
 - > roll a fair die; what is the probability that the number is a 3?

what is the probability that the number is a 3 if someone tells you that the number is odd? is even?

- "information changes probabilities"
- example:
 - Pick a playing card from a standard deck; what is the probability that it is the ace of hearts? $\frac{1}{5}$
 - what is the probability that it is the ace of hearts if someone tells you that it is an ace? that is a heart? that it is a king?

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

▶ if X and Y are independent then

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

$$\therefore P(x \mid y) = \frac{P(x)P(y)}{P(y)} = P(x)$$

1.e. information about y does not affect $p(x|y)$

Bayes Formula

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

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

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

Bayes Rule with Background Knowledge

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

Back to Kinematics

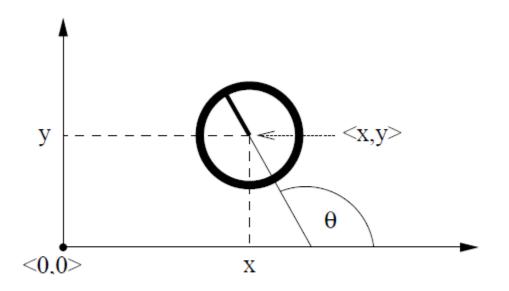


Figure 5.1 Robot pose, shown in a global coordinate system.

pose vector or state
$$x_t = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ \theta \end{pmatrix}$$
 bearing or heading

Probabilistic Robotics

we seek the conditional density

 $p(x_t | u_t, x_{t-1})$

what is the density of the state

 X_t

 \mathcal{U}_t

 X_{t-1}

given the motion command

$$= \begin{bmatrix} V_L \\ V_R \end{bmatrix}^2 \text{ for d'ifferential} drive$$

performed at

Probabilistic Robotics

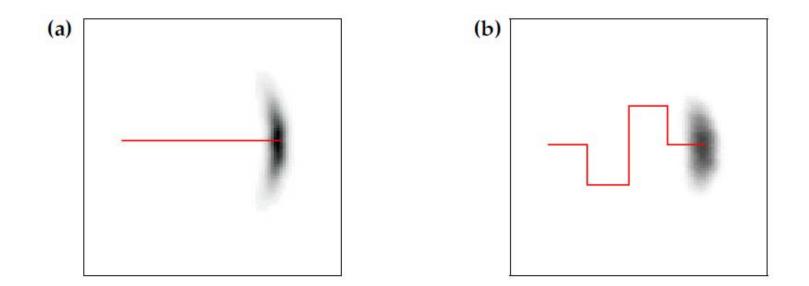


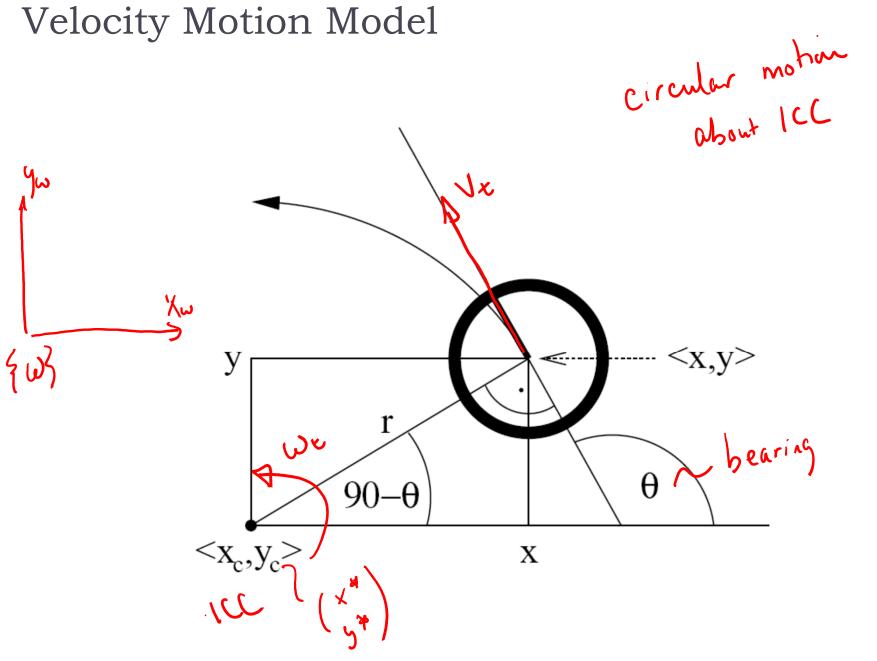
Figure 5.2 The motion model: Posterior distributions of the robot's pose upon executing the motion command illustrated by the solid line. The darker a location, the more likely it is. This plot has been projected into 2-D. The original density is three-dimensional, taking the robot's heading direction θ into account.

Velocity Motion Model

- assumes the robot can be controlled through two velocities
 - translational velocity V
 - > rotational velocity ω (about an ICC)
- our motion command, or control vector, is

$$u_t = \begin{pmatrix} v_t \\ \omega_t \end{pmatrix}$$

 positive values correspond to forward translation and counterclockwise rotation



Velocity Motion Model

center of circle

$$\begin{pmatrix} x^* \\ y^* \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda \sin \theta \\ \lambda \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{x+x'}{2} + \mu(y-y') \\ \frac{y+y'}{2} + \mu(x'-x) \end{pmatrix}$$

where

$$\mu = \frac{1}{2} \frac{(x-x')\cos\theta + (y-y')\sin\theta}{(y-y')\cos\theta - (x-x')\sin\theta}$$

Velocity Motion Model
1: Algorithm motion_model_velocity(
$$x_t, u_t, x_{t-1}$$
):
2: $\mu = \frac{1}{2} \frac{(x - x')\cos\theta + (y - y')\sin\theta}{(y - y')\cos\theta - (x - x')\sin\theta}$ for a state control state
3: $x^* = \frac{x + x'}{2} + \mu(y - y')$
4: $y^* = \frac{y + y'}{2} + \mu(x' - x)$
5: $r^* = \sqrt{(x - x^*)^2 + (y - y^*)^2}$
6: $\Delta \theta = \operatorname{atan2}(y' - y^*, x' - x^*) - \operatorname{atan2}(y - y^*, x - x^*)$
7: $\hat{v} = \frac{\Delta \theta}{\Delta t} r^*$
8: $\hat{\omega} = \frac{\Delta \theta}{\Delta t}$
9: $\hat{\gamma} = \frac{\theta' - \theta}{\Delta t} - \hat{\omega}$
10: return $\operatorname{prob}(v - \hat{v}, \alpha_1 | v | + \alpha_2 | \omega |) \cdot \operatorname{prob}(\omega - \hat{\omega}, \alpha_3 | v | + \alpha_4 | \omega |)$
 $\cdot \operatorname{prob}(\hat{\gamma}, \alpha_5 | v | + \alpha_6 | \omega |)$

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