

Probability: Review

Pieter Abbeel
UC Berkeley EECS

Many slides adapted from Thrun, Burgard and Fox, Probabilistic Robotics

Why probability in robotics?

- Often state of robot and state of its environment are unknown and only noisy sensors available
 - Probability provides a framework to fuse sensory information
 - Result: probability distribution over possible states of robot and environment
- Dynamics is often stochastic, hence can't optimize for a particular outcome, but only optimize to obtain a good distribution over outcomes
 - Probability provides a framework to reason in this setting
 - Result: ability to find good control policies for stochastic dynamics and environments

Example 1: Helicopter

- State: position, orientation, velocity, angular rate
- Sensors:
 - GPS : noisy estimate of position (sometimes also velocity)
 - Inertial sensing unit: noisy measurements from
 - (i) 3-axis gyro [=angular rate sensor],
 - (ii) 3-axis accelerometer [=measures acceleration + gravity; e.g., measures (0,0,0) in free-fall],
 - (iii) 3-axis magnetometer
- Dynamics:
 - Noise from: wind, unmodeled dynamics in engine, servos, blades

Example 2: Mobile robot inside building

- State: position and heading
- Sensors:
 - Odometry (=sensing motion of actuators): e.g., wheel encoders
 - Laser range finder:
 - Measures time of flight of a laser beam between departure and return
 - Return is typically happening when hitting a surface that reflects the beam back to where it came from
- Dynamics:
 - Noise from: wheel slippage, unmodeled variation in floor

Axioms of Probability Theory

- $0 \leq \Pr(A) \leq 1$
- $\Pr(\Omega) = 1$ $\Pr(\phi) = 0$
- $\Pr(A \cup B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B) - \Pr(A \cap B)$

$\Pr(A)$ denotes probability that the outcome ω is an element of the set of possible outcomes A . A is often called an event. Same for B .

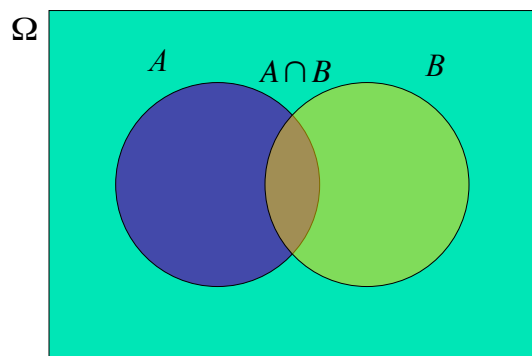
Ω is the set of all possible outcomes.

ϕ is the empty set.

5

A Closer Look at Axiom 3

$$\Pr(A \cup B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B) - \Pr(A \cap B)$$



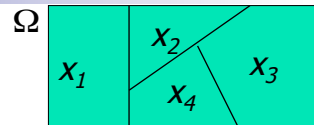
6

Using the Axioms

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(A \cup (\Omega \setminus A)) &= \Pr(A) + \Pr(\Omega \setminus A) - \Pr(A \cap (\Omega \setminus A)) \\ \Pr(\Omega) &= \Pr(A) + \Pr(\Omega \setminus A) - \Pr(\emptyset) \\ 1 &= \Pr(A) + \Pr(\Omega \setminus A) - 0 \\ \Pr(\Omega \setminus A) &= 1 - \Pr(A)\end{aligned}$$

7

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 probability mass function.
- E.g., X models the outcome of a coin flip, $x_1 = \text{head}$, $x_2 = \text{tail}$, $P(x_1) = 0.5$, $P(x_2) = 0.5$

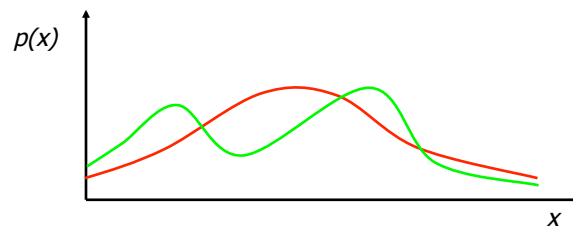
8

Continuous Random Variables

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

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

- E.g.



9

Joint and Conditional Probability

- $P(X=x \text{ and } Y=y) = P(x,y)$
- If X and Y are independent then
$$P(x,y) = P(x) P(y)$$
- $P(x | y)$ is the probability of x given y
$$P(x | y) = P(x,y) / P(y)$$
$$P(x,y) = P(x | y) P(y)$$
- If X and Y are independent then
$$P(x | y) = P(x)$$
- Same for probability densities, just $P \rightarrow p$

10

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

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

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

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

11

Bayes Formula

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

\Rightarrow

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

12

Normalization

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

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

Algorithm:

$$\forall x : \text{aux}_{x|y} = P(y|x) P(x)$$

$$\eta = \frac{1}{\sum_x \text{aux}_{x|y}}$$

$$\forall x : P(x|y) = \eta \text{aux}_{x|y}$$

13

Conditioning

- Law of total probability:

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

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

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

14

Bayes Rule with Background Knowledge

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

15

Conditional Independence

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

equivalent to

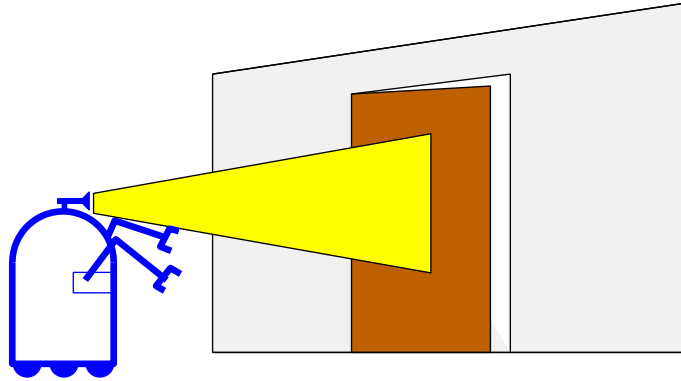
and $P(x|z) = P(x|z, y)$

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

16

Simple Example of State Estimation

- Suppose a robot obtains measurement z
- What is $P(open|z)$?



17

Causal vs. 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 **count frequencies!**

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

18

Example

- $P(z|open) = 0.6$ $P(z|\neg open) = 0.3$
- $P(open) = P(\neg open) = 0.5$

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

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

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

- z raises the probability that the door is open.

19

Combining Evidence

- Suppose our robot obtains another observation z_2 .
- How can we integrate this new information?
- More generally, how can we estimate $P(x | z_1 \dots z_n)$?

20

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 .

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

21

Example: Second Measurement

- $P(z_2 | open) = 0.5$ $P(z_2 | \neg open) = 0.6$
- $P(open | z_1) = 2/3$

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

- z_2 lowers the probability that the door is open.

22

A Typical Pitfall

- Two possible locations x_1 and x_2
- $P(x_1)=0.99$
- $P(z|x_2)=0.09$ $P(z|x_1)=0.07$

