## Special Topics in AI: Intelligent Agents and Multi-Agent Systems

Probabilistic approaches to Robotics (State Estimation and Motion Planning)

Alessandro Farinelli

#### Mobile robots









### **Outline**

- Mobile robots and uncertainty
- Localization for mobile robots
  - State estimation based on Bayesian filters
- Motion planning
  - Markov Decision Processes for path planning
- Acknowledgment: material based on slides from
  - Russel and Norvig; Artificial Intelligence: a Modern Approach
  - Thrun, Burgard, Fox; Probabilistic Robotics

#### Sensors

Range finders: sonar (land, underwater), laser range finder, radar (aircraft), tactile sensors, GPS





Imaging sensors: cameras (visual, infrared)
Proprioceptive sensors: shaft decoders (joints, wheels), inertial sensors, force sensors, torque sensors

## **Uncertainty**

*open* = open a door

Will open actually open the door?

#### Problems:

- 1) partial observability and noisy sensors
- 2) uncertainty in action outcomes
- 3) immense complexity of modelling and predicting environment

## **Probability**

Probabilistic assertions summarize effects of

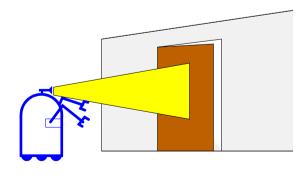
- laziness (enumeration of all relevant facts),
- ignorance (lack of relevant facts)

Subjective or Bayesian probability:

- Probabilities relate propositions to one's own state of knowledge
  - P(open | I am in front of the door) = 0.6
  - P(open | I am in front of the door; door is not locked) = 0.8

## Simple Example of State Estimation

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



## 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 knowledge:

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

count frequencies!

## Example

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

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

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

z raises the probability that the door is open.

## **Combining Evidence**

Suppose our robot obtains another observation z2.

How can we integrate this new information?

More generally, how can we estimate P(x | z1...zn)?

## **Recursive Bayesian Updating**

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

<u>Markov assumption</u>:  $z_n$  independent of  $z_1,...,z_{n-1}$  if we know x

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

$$= \eta P(z_n \mid x) P(x \mid z_1,...,z_{n-1})$$

$$= \eta_{1...n} \prod_{i=1...n} P(z_i \mid x) P(x)$$

## **Example: Second Measurement**

$$P(z2 | open) = 0.5$$
  $P(z2 | \neg open) = 0.6$   $P(open | z1) = 2/3$ 

$$P(open | z_2, z_1) = \frac{P(z_2 | open) P(open | z_1)}{P(z_2 | open) P(open | z_1) + P(z_2 | \neg open) P(\neg open | z_1)}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3}}{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3} + \frac{3}{5} \cdot \frac{1}{3}} = \frac{5}{8} = 0.625$$

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

#### **Actions**

Often the world is dynamic

- actions carried out by the robot,
- actions carried out by other agents,
- time passing by

How can we incorporate such actions?

## **Modeling Actions**

To incorporate the outcome of an action u into the current "belief", we use conditional pdf

#### P(x|u,x')

This term specifies the pdf that executing u changes the state from x' to x.

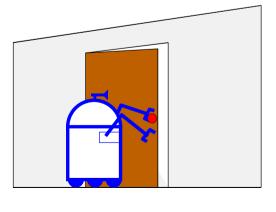
15

## **Typical Actions**

The robot moves
The robot moves objects
People move around the robot

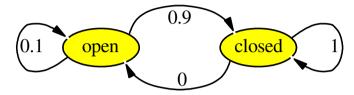
Actions are never carried out with absolute certainty. In contrast to measurements, actions generally increase the uncertainty.

## Example: Closing the door



#### **State Transitions**

• P(x|u,x') for u = "close door":



• If the door is open, the action "close door" succeeds in 90% of all cases.

## Integrating the Outcome of Actions

Continuous case:

$$P(x \mid u) = \int P(x \mid u, x') P(x') dx'$$

Discrete case:

$$P(x \mid u) = \sum P(x \mid u, x') P(x')$$

## Example: The Resulting Belief

$$P(closed \mid u) = \sum P(closed \mid u, x')P(x')$$

 $= P(closed \mid u, open)P(open)$ 

 $+P(closed \mid u, closed)P(closed)$ 

$$=\frac{9}{10}*\frac{5}{8}+\frac{1}{1}*\frac{3}{8}=\frac{15}{16}$$

 $P(open \mid u) = \sum P(open \mid u, x')P(x')$ 

 $= P(open \mid u, open)P(open)$ 

 $+ P(open \mid u, closed)P(closed)$ 

$$=\frac{1}{10}*\frac{5}{8}+\frac{0}{1}*\frac{3}{8}=\frac{1}{16}$$

 $=1-P(closed \mid u)$ 

## Bayes Filters: Framework

#### • Given:

Stream of observations z and action data u:

$$d_t = \{u_1, z_1, \dots, u_t, z_t\}$$

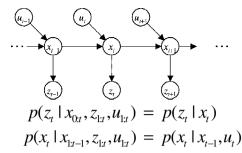
- Sensor model P(z|x)
- Action model P(x|u,x')
- Prior probability of the system state P(x)

#### · Compute:

- Estimate of the state X of a dynamical system
- The posterior of the state is also called Belief:

$$Bel(x_t) = P(x_t \mid u_1, z_1 \dots, u_t, z_t)$$

## **Markov Assumption**



#### **Underlying Assumptions**

- Static world (no one else changes the world)
- Independent noise (over time)
- Perfect model, no approximation errors

## Bayes Filter Algorithm

- 1. Algorithm **Bayes\_filter**( *Bel(x),d* ):
- 2. η=0

5.

- 3. If *d* is a *perceptual* data item *z* then
- 4. For all x do
  - $Bel'(x) = P(z \mid x)Bel(x)$
- 6.  $\eta = \eta + Bel'(x)$
- 7. For all  $\dot{x}$  do
- 8.  $Bel'(x) = \eta^{-1}Bel'(x)$
- 9. Else if *d* is an *action* data item *u* then
- 10. For all *x* do
- 11.  $Bel'(x) = \int P(x \mid u, x') Bel(x') dx'$
- 12. Return Bel'(x)

$$Bel(x_{t}) = \eta \ P(z_{t} \mid x_{t}) \int P(x_{t} \mid u_{t}, x_{t-1}) \ Bel(x_{t-1}) \ dx_{t-1}$$

## **Bayes Filters**

## Bayes Filters are Familiar!

$$Bel(x_t) = \eta \ P(z_t \mid x_t) \int P(x_t \mid u_t, x_{t-1}) \ Bel(x_{t-1}) \ dx_{t-1}$$

Kalman filters

Particle filters

Hidden Markov models

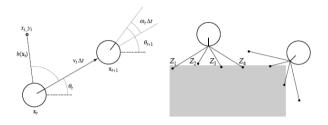
Dynamic Bayesian networks

Partially Observable Markov Decision Processes (POMDPs)

## Bayesian filters for localization

How do I know whether I am in front of the door?

Localization as a state estimation process (filtering)



State update

**Sensor Reading** 

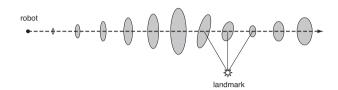
## Particle filters

Particles to represent the belief

<u>Pros</u>: no assumption on belief, action and sensor models

Cons: update can be computationally demanding

## Kalman Filter for Localization



#### Gaussian pdf for belief

- Pros: closed form representation, very fast update
- Cons:

Works only for linear action and sensor models (can use EKF to overcome this)

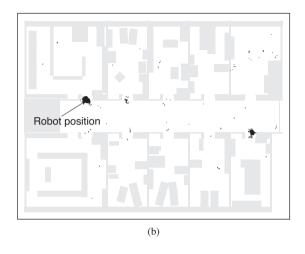
Works well only for unimodal beliefs

## Particle Filters: prior



(a)

## Particle Filters: bimodal belief



## Mapping and SLAM

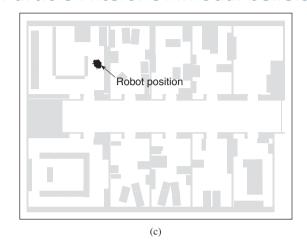
Localization: given map and observations, update pose estimation

Mapping: given pose and observation, update map

SLAM: given observations, update map and pose New observations increase uncertainty

<u>Loop closures</u> reduce uncertainty

## Particle Filters: Unimodal beliefs



## **SLAM** in action

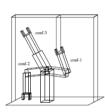
Courtesy of Sebastian Thrun and Dirk Haehnel ( link for the video)

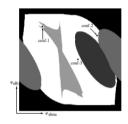
## Motion Planning for Mobile Robots

Plan for motion in free configuration space (not workspace)

workspace

configuration space





Cell decomposition

Skeletonization (PRM)

## Planning the motion

Given finite state space representing free configuration space

Find a  $\underline{\text{sequence}}$  of states from start to goal

Several approaches:

Rapidly-exploring Random Trees (RRT)

**Potential Fields** 

**Markov Decision Processes** 

(i.e. building a navigation function)

## **Markov Decision Process**

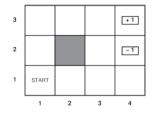
**Configuration Space Planning** 

Convert free configuration space in finite state space

• Mathematical model to plan <u>sequences of actions</u> in face of uncertainty



## Example MDP





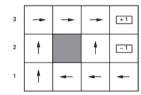
States  $s \in S$ , actions  $a \in A$  $\underline{\text{Model}}\ T(s,a,s') \equiv P(s'|s,a) = \text{probability that } a \text{ in } s \text{ leads to}$ 

 $\frac{\text{Reward function}}{= \begin{cases} -0.04 \\ \pm 1 \end{cases}} \frac{R(s) \text{ (or } R(s, a), R(s, a, s'))}{\text{ (small penalty) for nonterminal states}}$ 

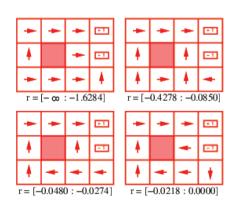
## **Solving MDPs**

In MDPs, aim is to find an optimal policy  $\pi(s)$  i.e., best action for every possible state s (because can't predict where one will end up) The optimal policy maximizes (say) the expected sum of rewards

Optimal policy when state penalty R(s) is -0.04:



### Risk and Reward



## **Utility of State Sequences**

Need to understand preferences between sequences of states Typically consider stationary preferences on reward sequences

$$[r, r_0, r_1, r_2, \ldots] \succ [r, r'_0, r'_1, r'_2, \ldots] \Leftrightarrow [r_0, r_1, r_2, \ldots] \succ [r'_0, r'_1, r'_2, \ldots]$$

 $\underline{\text{Theorem}}$ : there are only two ways to combine rewards over time.

1) Additive utility function:

$$U([s_0, s_1, s_2, \ldots]) = R(s_0) + R(s_1) + R(s_2) + \cdots$$

2) Discounted utility function:

$$U([s_0, s_1, s_2, \ldots]) = R(s_0) + \gamma R(s_1) + \gamma^2 R(s_2) + \cdots$$
  
where  $\gamma$  is the discount factor

## **Utility of States**

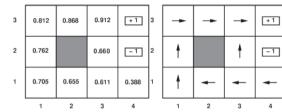
Utility of a state (a.k.a. its value) is defined to be

U(s) =

expected (discounted) sum of rewards (until termination) assuming optimal actions

Given the utilities of the states, choosing the best action is just MEU:

maximize the expected utility of the immediate successors



# Dynamic Programming: The Bellman equation

Definition of utility of states leads to a simple relationship among utilities of neighboring states:

expected sum of rewards

= current reward

 $+ \gamma \times \frac{\text{expected sum of rewards after taking best action}}{\text{Gellman equation (1957):}}$ 

$$U(s) = R(s) + \gamma \max_{a} \sum_{s'} U(s') T(s, a, s')$$

$$U(1,1) = -0.04$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} + \gamma \max\{0.8\,U(1,2) + 0.1\,U(2,1) + 0.1\,U(1,1), & \text{up} \\ 0.9\,U(1,1) + 0.1\,U(1,2) & \text{left} \\ 0.9\,U(1,1) + 0.1\,U(2,1) & \text{down} \\ 0.8\,U(2,1) + 0.1\,U(1,2) + 0.1\,U(1,1)\} & \text{right} \end{array}$$

One equation per state = n nonlinear equations in n unknowns

#### Utilities contd.

Problem: infinite lifetimes  $\implies$  additive utilities are infinite

- 1) <u>Finite horizon</u>: termination at a fixed time T  $\implies$  <u>nonstationary</u> policy:  $\pi(s)$  depends on time left (e.g., state (1,3) with T=3)
- 2) Absorbing state(s): w/ prob. 1, agent eventually "dies" for any  $\overline{\pi}$
- ⇒ expected utility of every state is finite
- 3) Discounting: assuming  $\gamma <$  1,  $R(s) \leq R_{\max}$ ,

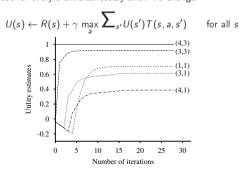
$$U([s_0, \dots s_\infty]) = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t R(s_t) \le R_{\max}/(1-\gamma)$$

Smaller  $\gamma \Rightarrow$  shorter horizon

4) Maximize system gain = average reward per time step Theorem: optimal policy has constant gain after initial transient E.g., taxi driver's daily scheme cruising for passengers

## Value Iteration algorithm

Idea: Start with arbitrary utility values
Update to make them locally consistent with Bellman eqn.
Everywhere locally consistent ⇒ global optimality
Repeat for every s simultaneously until "no change"



## **Policy Iteration**

Howard, 1960: search for optimal policy and utility values simultaneously

Algorithm:

 $\pi\leftarrow$  an arbitrary initial policy repeat until no change in  $\pi$  compute utilities given  $\pi$  update  $\pi$  as if utilities were correct (i.e., local MEU) To compute utilities given a fixed  $\pi$  (value determination):

$$U(s) = R(s) + \gamma \sum_{s'} U(s') T(s, \pi(s), s')$$
 for all  $s$ 

i.e., n simultaneous  $\underline{\text{linear}}$  equations in n unknowns, solve in  $O(n^3)$ 

## **Partial Observability**

POMDP has an <u>observation model</u> O(s,e) defining the probability that the agent obtains evidence e when in state s Agent does not know which state it is in

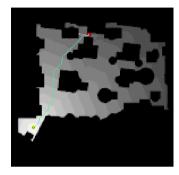
 $\implies$  makes no sense to talk about policy  $\pi(s)!!$  Theorem (Astrom, 1965): the optimal policy in a POMDP is a function

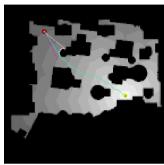
 $\pi(b)$  where b is the <u>belief state</u> (probability distribution over states)

Can convert a POMDP into an MDP in belief-state space, where  $% \left( 1\right) =\left( 1\right) \left( 1\right)$ 

T(b, a, b') is the probability that the new belief state is b' given that the current belief state is b and the agent does a.

## MDP for robot navigation

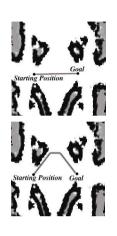


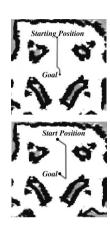


## Solving POMDPs

Solutions automatically include information-gathering behavior If there are n states, b is an n-dimensional real-valued vector  $\implies$  solving POMDPs is very (actually, PSPACE-) hard! The real world is a POMDP (with initially unknown T and O)

## **Coastal Navigation**





## **Summary**

- Probability: powerful tool to model uncertainty
- · Localization:
  - State estimation
  - Bayesian filters
- · Motion Planning:
  - Planning problem in finite state space (C-free)
  - MDPs powerful techniques to build navigation functions

## References and Further Readings

#### Material for the slides

- Russel and Norvig; Artificial Intelligence a Modern Approach (Chapter 25)
- Thrun, Burgard, Fox; Probabilistic Robotics (Chapter 2, 14 and 15)

#### Further readings

- · Latombe; Robot Motion Planning
- · La Valle, Kuffner; Randomized Kinodynamic Planning
- Thrun,Fox,Burgard; A probabilistic approach to concurrent mapping and localization for mobile robots

## **Summary**

- Bayes rule allows us to compute probabilities that are hard to assess otherwise.
- Under the Markov assumption, recursive Bayesian updating can be used to efficiently combine evidence.
- Bayes filters are a probabilistic tool for estimating the state of dynamic systems.

52