Introduction to Mobile Robotics

Summary

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Probabilistic Robotics

Probabilistic Robotics

Key idea: Explicit representation of uncertainty

(using the calculus of probability theory)

- Perception = state estimation
- Action = utility optimization

Bayes Formula

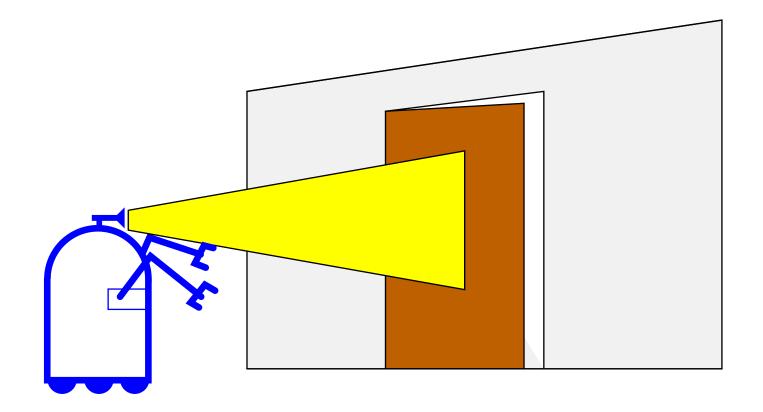
$P(x, y) = P(x \mid y)P(y) = P(y \mid x)P(x)$

\Rightarrow

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

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.
 Count frequencies!
- Bayes rule allows us to use causal knowledge:

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

Bayes Filters

z = observation u = action x = state

$$Bel(x_{t}) = P(x_{t} | u_{1}, z_{1}, ..., u_{t}, z_{t})$$
Bayes
$$= \eta P(z_{t} | x_{t}, u_{1}, z_{1}, ..., u_{t}) P(x_{t} | u_{1}, z_{1}, ..., u_{t})$$
Markov
$$= \eta P(z_{t} | x_{t}) P(x_{t} | u_{1}, z_{1}, ..., u_{t})$$
Total prob.
$$= \eta P(z_{t} | x_{t}) \int P(x_{t} | u_{1}, z_{1}, ..., u_{t}, x_{t-1})$$

$$P(x_{t-1} | u_{1}, z_{1}, ..., u_{t}) dx_{t-1}$$
Markov
$$= \eta P(z_{t} | x_{t}) \int P(x_{t} | u_{t}, x_{t-1}) P(x_{t-1} | u_{1}, z_{1}, ..., u_{t}) dx_{t-1}$$
Markov
$$= \eta P(z_{t} | x_{t}) \int P(x_{t} | u_{t}, x_{t-1}) P(x_{t-1} | u_{1}, z_{1}, ..., u_{t}) dx_{t-1}$$
Markov

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

Bayes Filters are Familiar!

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

- Kalman filters
- Particle filters
- Hidden Markov models
- Dynamic Bayesian networks

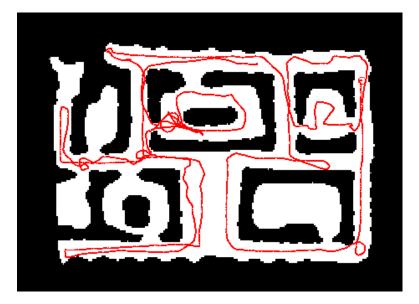
Sensor and Motion Models

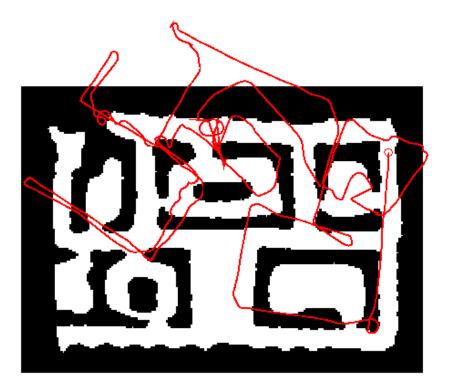
 $P(z \mid x, m)$

P(x | x', u)

Motion Models

- Robot motion is inherently uncertain.
- How can we model this uncertainty?





Probabilistic Motion Models

- To implement the Bayes Filter, we need the transition model p(x | x', u).
- The term p(x | x', u) specifies a posterior probability, that action u carries the robot from x' to x.

Typical Motion Models

- In practice, one often finds two types of motion models:
 - Odometry-based
 - Velocity-based (dead reckoning)
- Odometry-based models are used when systems are equipped with wheel encoders.
- Velocity-based models have to be applied when no wheel encoders are given.
- They calculate the new pose based on the velocities and the time elapsed.

Odometry Model

- Robot moves from $\langle \overline{x}, \overline{y}, \overline{\theta} \rangle$ to $\langle \overline{x}', \overline{y}', \overline{\theta}' \rangle$.
- Odometry information $u = \langle \delta_{rot1}, \delta_{rot2}, \delta_{trans} \rangle$.

$$\delta_{trans} = \sqrt{(\overline{x}' - \overline{x})^2 + (\overline{y}' - \overline{y})^2}$$

$$\delta_{rot1} = \operatorname{atan2} (\overline{y}' - \overline{y}, \overline{x}' - \overline{x}) - \overline{\theta}$$

$$\delta_{rot2} = \overline{\theta}' - \overline{\theta} - \delta_{rot1}$$

$$\delta_{rot2} = \delta_{rot1} = \delta_{rot2}$$

Sensors for Mobile Robots

- Contact sensors: Bumpers
- Internal sensors
 - Accelerometers (spring-mounted masses)
 - Gyroscopes (spinning mass, laser light)
 - Compasses, inclinometers (earth magnetic field, gravity)
- Proximity sensors
 - Sonar (time of flight)
 - Radar (phase and frequency)
 - Laser range-finders (triangulation, tof, phase)
 - Infrared (intensity)
- Visual sensors: Cameras
- Satellite-based sensors: GPS

Beam-based Sensor Model

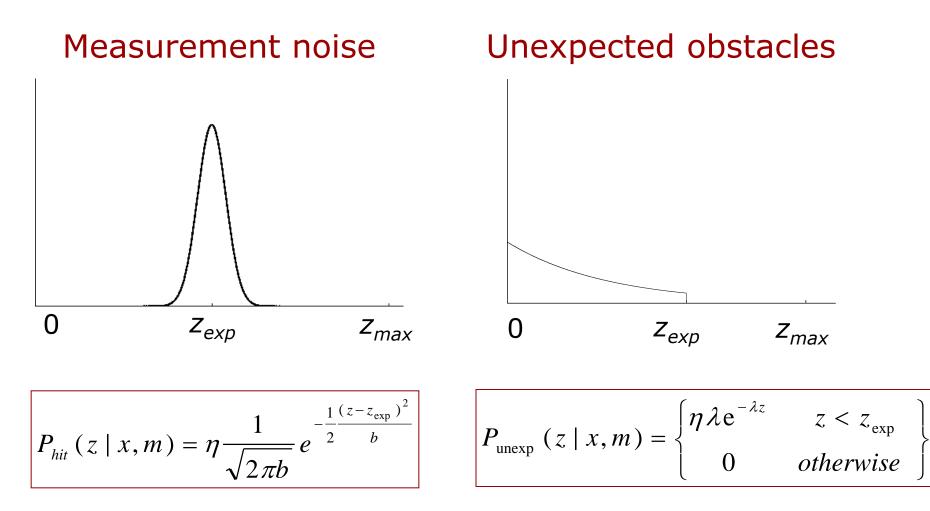
Scan z consists of K measurements.

$$z = \{z_1, z_2, ..., z_K\}$$

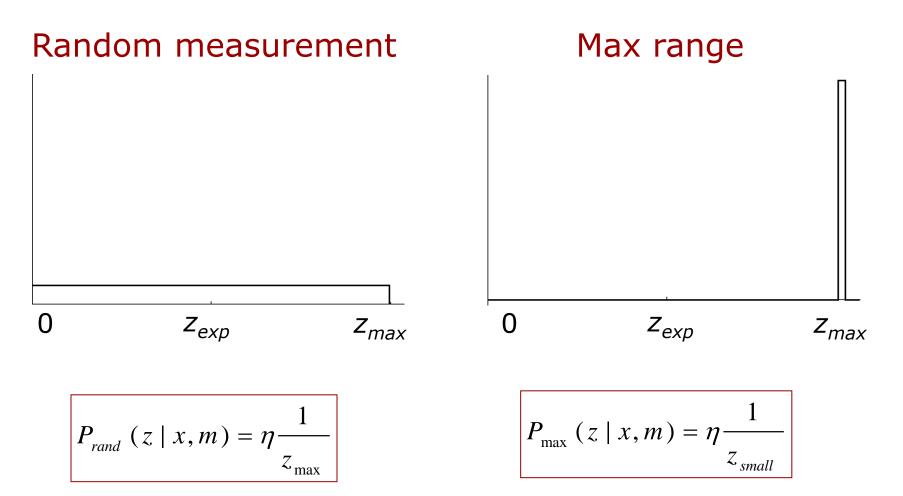
Individual measurements are independent given the robot position.

$$P(z \mid x, m) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} P(z_k \mid x, m)$$

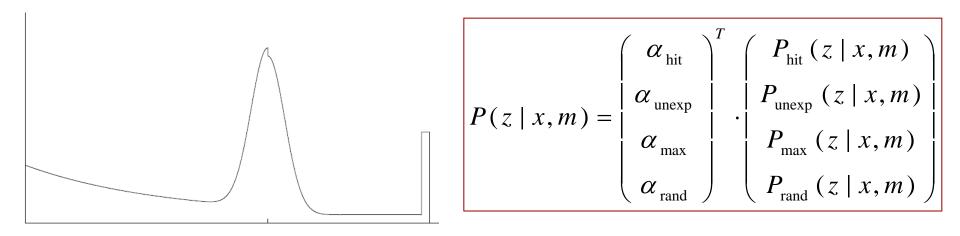
Beam-based Proximity Model



Beam-based Proximity Model



Resulting Mixture Density



How can we determine the model parameters?

Bayes Filter in Robotics

Bayes Filters in Action

- Discrete filters
- Kalman filters
- Particle filters

Discrete Filter

- The belief is typically stored in a histogram / grid representation
- To update the belief upon sensory input and to carry out the normalization one has to iterate over all cells of the grid

Piecewise Constant

Bel(s)
P(o s)
[≜] Bel(s)
P(o s)
Bel(s)
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Kalman Filter

- Optimal for linear Gaussian systems!
- Most robotics systems are nonlinear!
- Polynomial in measurement dimensionality k and state dimensionality n:

$$O(k^{2.376} + n^2)$$

Kalman Filter Algorithm

- 1. Algorithm Kalman_filter(μ_{t-1} , Σ_{t-1} , u_t , z_t):
- 2. Prediction:
- $\mathbf{3.} \quad \boldsymbol{\mu}_t = \boldsymbol{A}_t \boldsymbol{\mu}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{B}_t \boldsymbol{u}_t$
- $\mathbf{4.} \qquad \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_t = \boldsymbol{A}_t \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{t-1} \boldsymbol{A}_t^T + \boldsymbol{Q}_t$
- 5. Correction: 6. $K_t = \overline{\Sigma}_t C_t^T (C_t \overline{\Sigma}_t C_t^T + R_t)^{-1}$ 7. $\mu_t = \mu_t + K_t (z_t - C_t \overline{\mu}_t)$ 8. $\Sigma_t = (I - K_t C_t) \overline{\Sigma}_t$
- 9. Return μ_t , Σ_t

Extended Kalman Filter

- Approach to handle non-linear models
- Performs a linearization in each step
- Not optimal
- Can diverge if nonlinearities are large!
- Works surprisingly well even when all assumptions are violated!
- Same complexity than the KF

Particle Filter

- Basic principle
 - Set of state hypotheses ("particles")
 - Survival-of-the-fittest
- Particle filters are a way to efficiently represent non-Gaussian distributions

Mathematical Description

Set of weighted samples

$$S = \left\{ \left< s^{[i]}, w^{[i]} \right> \mid i = 1, \dots, N \right\}$$

State hypothesis Importance weight

The samples represent the posterior

$$p(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i \cdot \delta_{s^{[i]}}(x)$$

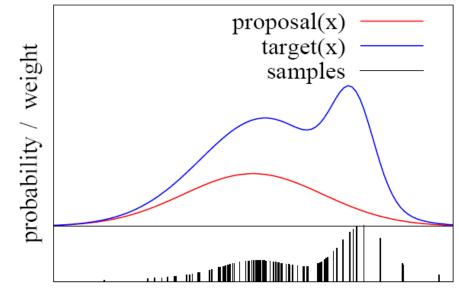
Particle Filter Algorithm in Brief

Sample the next generation for particles using the proposal distribution

- Compute the importance weights : weight = target distribution / proposal distribution
- Resampling: "Replace unlikely samples by more likely ones"

Importance Sampling Principle

- We can even use a different distribution g to generate samples from f
- By introducing an importance weight w, we can account for the "differences between g and f"
- w = f/g
- *f* is often called target
- g is often called proposal
- Pre-condition: $f(x) > 0 \rightarrow g(x) > 0$



Particle Filter Algorithm

1. Algorithm **particle_filter**(S_{t-1} , $u_{t-1} z_t$):

$$2. \quad S_t = \emptyset, \quad \eta = 0$$

- **3.** For $i = 1 \dots n$ **Generate new samples**
- 4. Sample index j(i) from the discrete distribution given by w_{t-1}
- 5. Sample x_t^i from $p(x_t | x_{t-1}, u_{t-1})$ using $x_{t-1}^{j(i)}$ and u_{t-1}

$$6. w_t^i = p(z_t \mid x_t^i)$$

$$\eta = \eta + w_t^i$$

8. $S_t = S_t \cup \{ < x_t^i, w_t^i > \}$

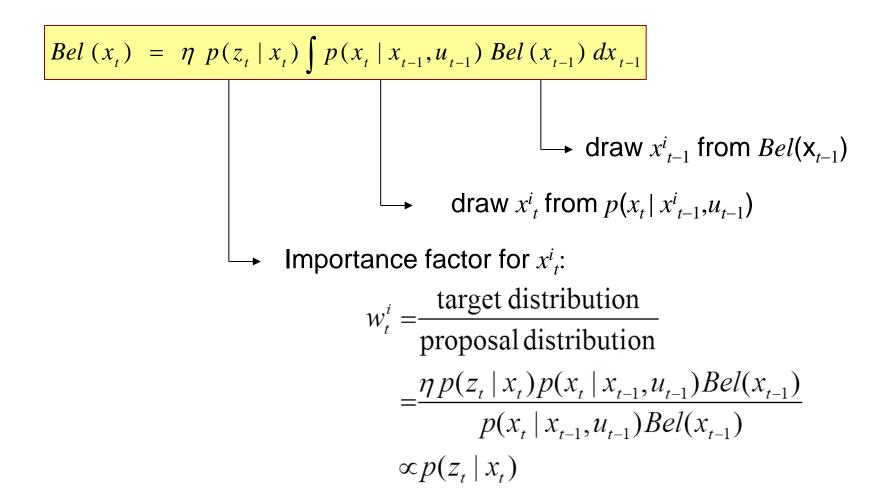
9. **For** i = 1...n

10. $w_t^i = w_t^i / \eta$

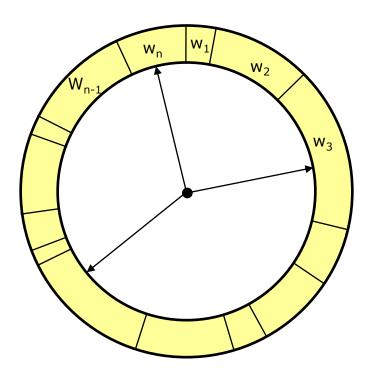
Compute importance weight Update normalization factor Insert

Normalize weights

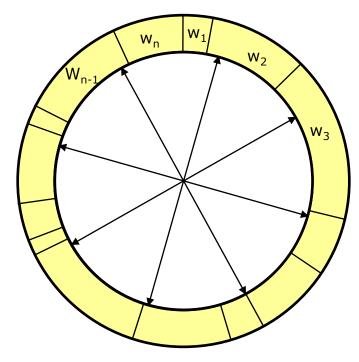
Particle Filter Algorithm



Resampling

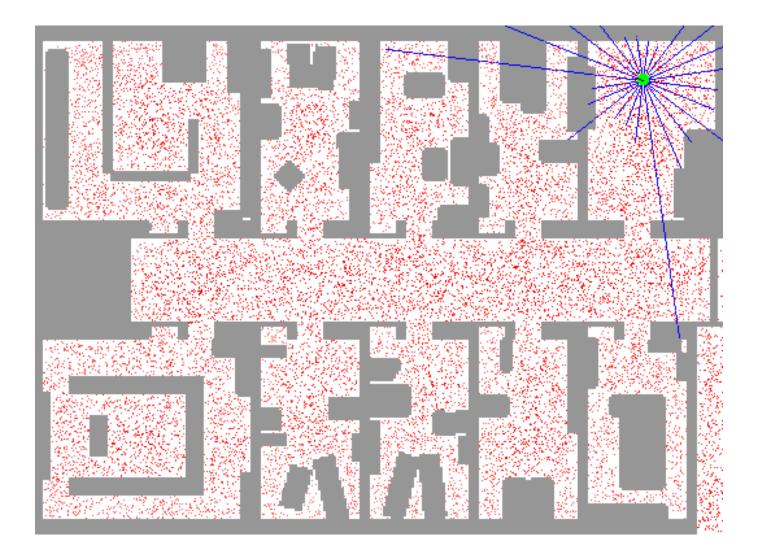


- Roulette wheel
- Binary search, n log n



- Stochastic universal sampling
- Systematic resampling
- Linear time complexity
- Easy to implement, low variance

MCL Example



Mapping

Why Mapping?

- Learning maps is one of the fundamental problems in mobile robotics
- Maps allow robots to efficiently carry out their tasks, allow localization ...
- Successful robot systems rely on maps for localization, path planning, activity planning etc

Occupancy Grid Maps

- Discretize the world into equally spaced cells
- Each cells stores the probability that the corresponding area is occupied by an obstacle
- The cells are assumed to be conditionally independent
- If the pose of the robot is know, mapping is easy

Updating Occupancy Grid Maps

 Update the map cells using the inverse sensor model

$$Bel\left(m_{t}^{[xy]}\right) = 1 - \left(1 + \frac{P\left(m_{t}^{[xy]} \mid z_{t}, u_{t-1}\right)}{1 - P\left(m_{t}^{[xy]} \mid z_{t}, u_{t-1}\right)} \cdot \frac{1 - P\left(m_{t}^{[xy]}\right)}{P\left(m_{t}^{[xy]}\right)} \cdot \frac{Bel\left(m_{t-1}^{[xy]}\right)}{1 - Bel\left(m_{t-1}^{[xy]}\right)}\right)^{-1}$$

Or use the log-odds representation

$$\overline{B}(m_t^{[xy]}) = \log odds (m_t^{[xy]} | z_t, u_{t-1}) - \log odds (m_t^{[xy]}) + \overline{B}(m_{t-1}^{[xy]})$$

$$\overline{B}\left(m_t^{[xy]}\right) = \log odds \ (m_t^{[xy]})$$
$$odds \ (x) = \left(\frac{P(x)}{1 - P(x)}\right)$$

Reflection Probability Maps

- Value of interest: P(reflects(x,y))
- For every cell count
 - hits(x,y): number of cases where a beam ended at <x,y>
 - misses(x,y): number of cases where a beam passed through <x,y>

$$Bel(m^{[xy]}) = \frac{\text{hits}(x, y)}{\text{hits}(x, y) + \text{misses}(x, y)}$$

SLAM

The SLAM Problem

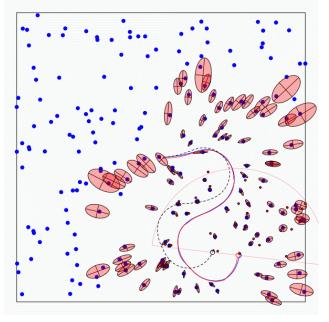
A robot is exploring an unknown, static environment.

Given:

- The robot's controls
- Observations of nearby features

Estimate:

- Map of features
- Path of the robot



Chicken-and-Egg-Problem

- SLAM is a chicken-and-egg problem
 - A map is needed for localizing a robot
 - A good pose estimate is needed to build a map
- Thus, SLAM is regarded as a hard problem in robotics
- A variety of different approaches to address the SLAM problem have been presented
- Probabilistic methods outperform most other techniques

Simultaneous Localization and Mapping

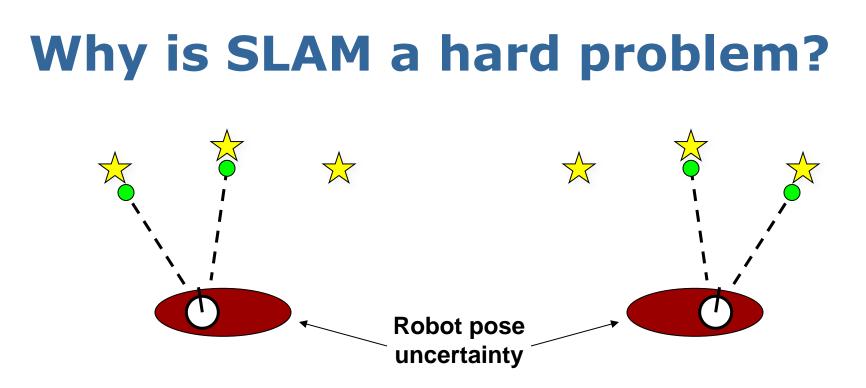
• Full SLAM: $p(x_{1:t}, m | z_{1:t}, u_{1:t})$

Estimates entire path and map!

Online SLAM:

$$p(x_{t}, m \mid z_{1:t}, u_{1:t}) = \int \int \dots \int p(x_{1:t}, m \mid z_{1:t}, u_{1:t}) dx_{1} dx_{2} \dots dx_{t-1}$$

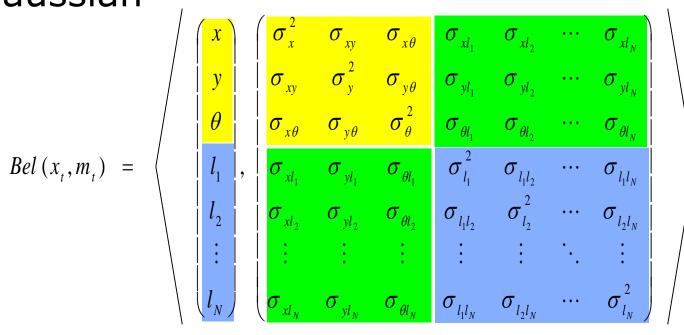
Integrations typically done one at a time Estimates most recent pose and map!



- In the real world, the mapping between observations and landmarks is unknown
- Picking wrong data associations can have catastrophic consequences
- Pose error correlates data associations

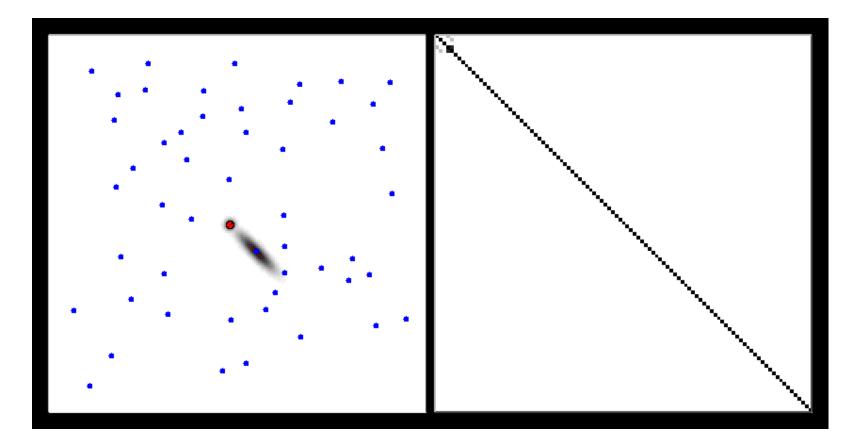
(E)KF-SLAM

 Map with N landmarks:(3+2N)-dimensional Gaussian



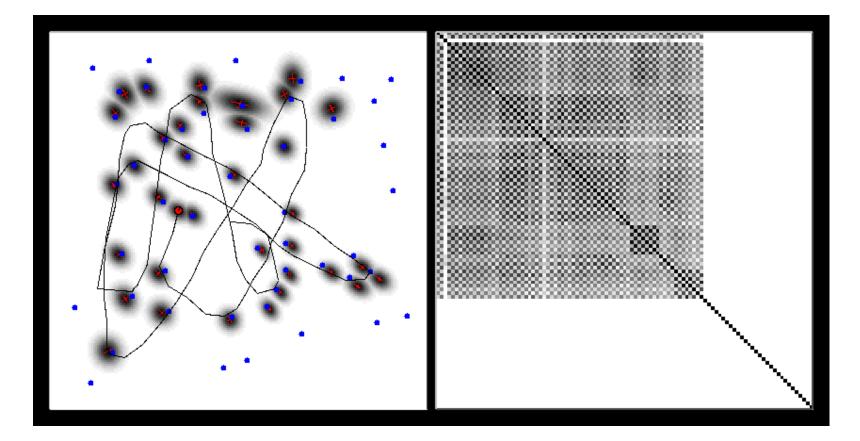
Can handle hundreds of dimensions





Map Correlation matrix

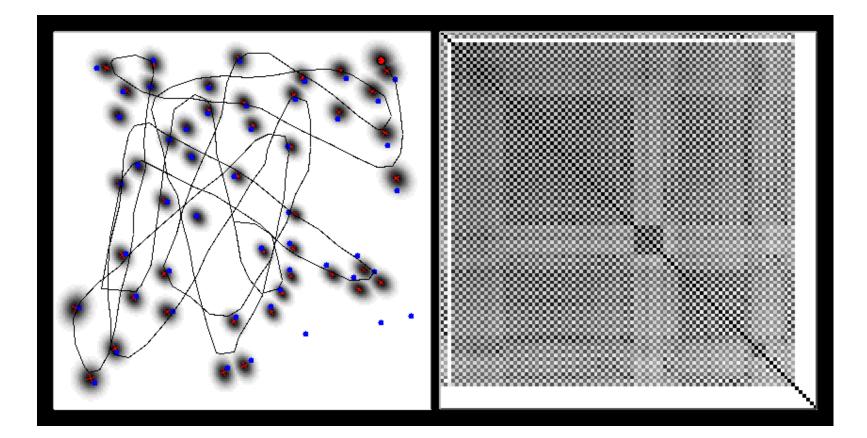
EKF-SLAM



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Correlation matrix





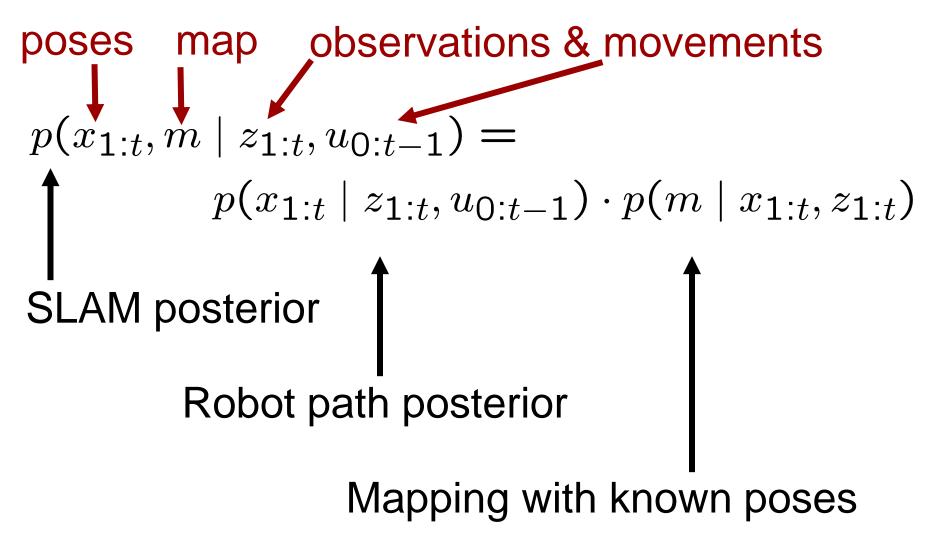
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Correlation matrix

FastSLAM

- Use a particle filter for map learning
- Problem: the map is high-dimensional
- Solution: separate the estimation of the robot's trajectory from the one of the map of the environment
- This is done by means of a factorization in the SLAM posterior often called Rao-Blackwellization

Rao-Blackwellization



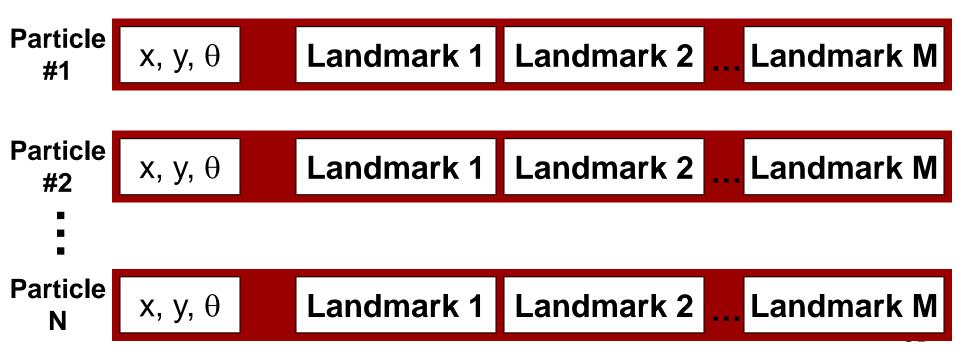
Factorization first introduced by Murphy in 1999

Rao-Blackwellized Mapping

- Each particle represents a possible trajectory of the robot
- Each particle
 - maintains its own map and
 - updates it upon "mapping with known poses"
- Each particle survives with a probability proportional to the likelihood of the observations relative to its own map

FastSLAM

- Rao-Blackwellized particle filtering based on landmarks
- Each landmark is represented by a 2x2 Extended Kalman Filter (EKF)
- Each particle therefore has to maintain M EKFs



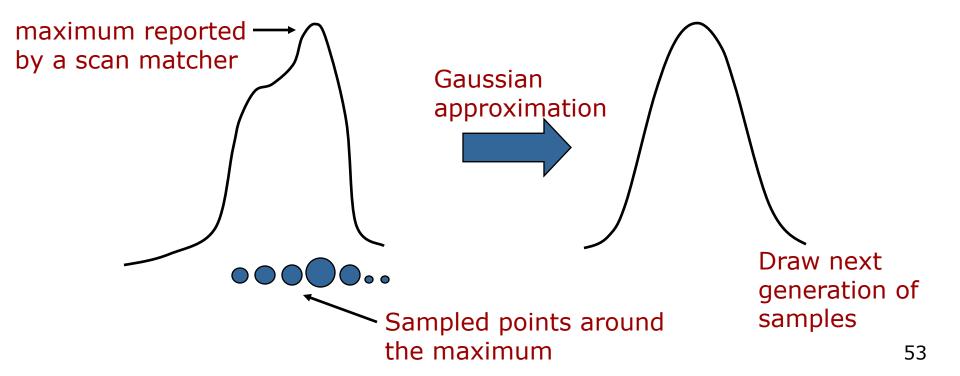
Grid-based FastSLAM

- Similar ideas can be used to learn grid maps
- To obtain a practical solution, an efficiently computable, informed proposal distribution is needed
- Idea: in the SLAM posterior, the observation model dominates the motion model (given an accurate sensor)

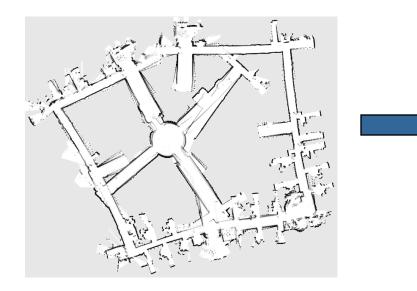
Proposal Distribution

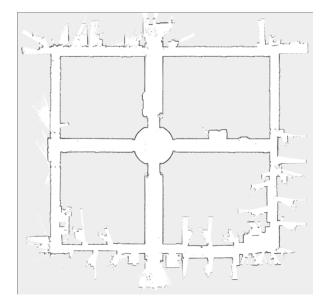
$$p(x_t | x_{t-1}^{(i)}, m^{(i)}, z_t, u_t) \simeq \frac{p(z_t | x_t, m^{(i)})}{\int_{x_t \in \{x | p(z_t | x, m^{(i)}) > \epsilon\}} p(z_t | x_t, m^{(i)}) dx_t}$$

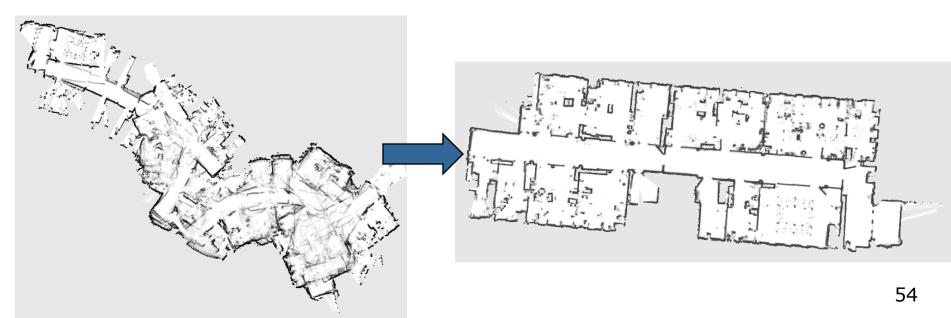
Approximate this equation by a Gaussian:



Typical Results







Robot Motion

Robot Motion Planning

Latombe (1991): "... eminently necessary since, by definition, a robot accomplishes tasks by moving in the real world."

Goals:

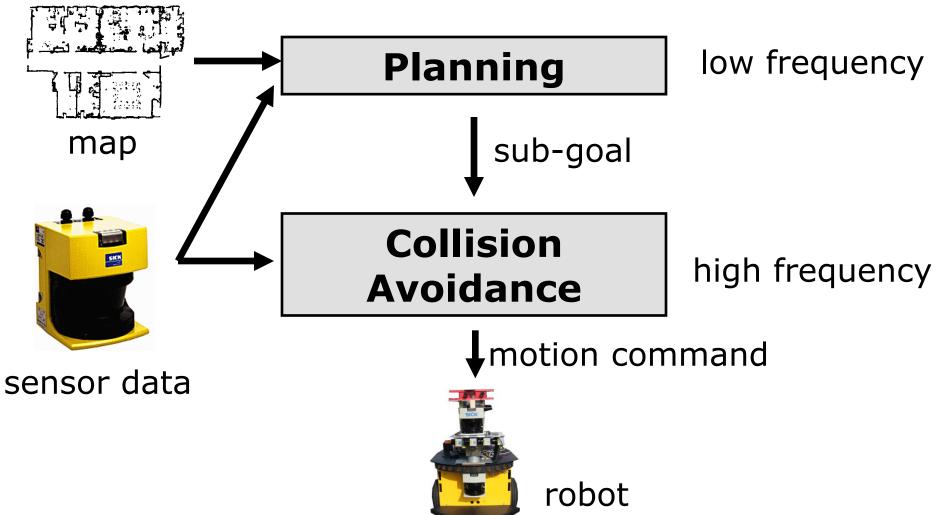
- Collision-free trajectories.
- Robot should reach the goal location as fast as possible.

Two Challenges

 Calculate the optimal path taking potential uncertainties in the actions into account

 Quickly generate actions in the case of unforeseen objects

Classic Two-layered Architecture



Information Gain-based Exploration

- SLAM is typically passive, because it consumes incoming sensor data
- Exploration actively guides the robot to cover the environment with its sensors
- Exploration in combination with SLAM: Acting under pose and map uncertainty
- Uncertainty should/needs to be taken into account when selecting an action
- Key question: Where to move next?

Mutual Information

 The mutual information I is given by the reduction of entropy in the belief

action to be carried out $I(X,M;Z^{a}) =$ uncertainty of the filter – "uncertainty of the filter after carrying out action a''

Integrating Over Observations

 Computing the mutual information requires to integrate over potential observations

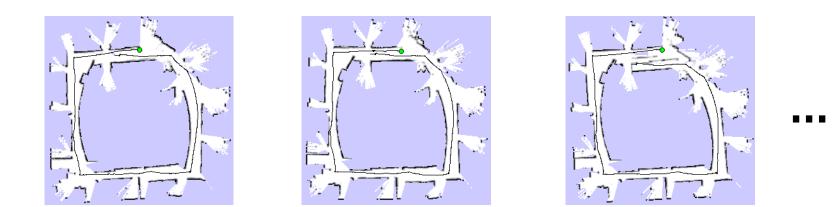
$$I(X,M;Z^{a}) = H(X,M) - H(X,M \mid Z^{a})$$

$$H(X,M \mid Z^{a}) = \int_{z} p(z \mid a) H(X,M \mid Z^{a} = z) dz$$

$$potential observation$$
sequences

Integral Approximation

 The particle filter represents a posterior about possible maps



map of particle 1 map of particle 2 map of particle 3

Integral Approximation

- The particle filter represents a posterior about possible maps
- Simulate laser measurements in the maps of the particles

$$H(X, M \mid Z^{a}) = \sum_{z} p(z \mid a) H(X, M \mid Z^{a} = z)$$

measurement sequences
simulated in the maps
$$= \sum_{i} \omega^{[i]} H(X, M \mid Z^{a} = z_{sim_{a}}^{[i]})$$

Summary on Information Gainbased Exploration

- A decision-theoretic approach to exploration in the context of RBPF-SLAM
- The approach utilizes the factorization of the Rao-Blackwellization to efficiently calculate the expected information gain
- Reasons about measurements obtained along the path of the robot
- Considers a reduced action set consisting of exploration, loop-closing, and placerevisiting actions

The Exam is Approaching ...

- This lecture gave a short overview over the most important topics addressed in this course
- For the exam, you need to know at least the basic formulas (e.g., Bayes filter, MCL eqs., Rao-Blackwellization, entropy, ...)

Good luck for the exam!