

CHEAP OUTDOORS AUTONOMOUS NAVIGATION WITH ROS

by

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A Thesis

Submitted to the Division of Natural Sciences New College of Florida in
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under the sponsorship of Professor Gary Kalmanovich

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This is the acknowledgements section. You should replace this with your own acknowledgements.

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and
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Abstract

In this thesis, I designed and implemented a compiler which performs optimizations that reduce the number of low-level floating point operations necessary for a specific task; this involves the optimization of chains of floating point operations as well as the implementation of a “fixed” point data type that allows some floating point operations to simulated with integer arithmetic. The source language of the compiler is a subset of C, and the destination language is assembly language for a micro-floating point CPU. An instruction-level simulator of the CPU was written to allow testing of the code. A series of test pieces of codes was compiled, both with and without optimization, to determine how effective these optimizations were.

Professor Gary Kalmanovich

May 23, 2017

Chapter 1

Theory

1.1 Probability Background

Discrete random variables have a finite output space of possible values that may be observed. Let X be a random variable, then we define the probability that we observe value x from X as $p(X = x) \equiv p(x)$. Since x is arbitrary, this defines a probability distribution. For every random variable X , we have

$$\sum_{x \in X} p(x) = 1 \tag{1.1}$$

Given two more random variables Y and Z , we'll define the joint distribution $p(X = x \text{ and } Y = y \text{ and } Z = z) \equiv p(x, y, z)$, and the conditional probability $p(X = x \text{ given that } Y = y \text{ and } Z = z) \equiv p(x | y, z)$. The conditional probability is defined to be

$$p(x | y, z) = \frac{p(x, y, z)}{p(y, z)} \tag{1.2}$$

The *Law of Total Probability* states that $p(x) = \sum_{y \in Y} p(x, y)$. Extending this law to use a third random variable Z , and incorporating the definition of conditional

probability, we end up with the following equation:

$$p(x | z) = \sum_{y \in Y} p(x, y, z) = \sum_{y \in Y} p(y, z) p(x | y, z) \quad (1.3)$$

Lastly, we can use equation 1.2 to derive a version of Bayes' Theorem.

$$p(x | y, z) = \frac{p(x, y, z)}{p(y, z)} = \frac{p(y, x, z)}{p(x, z)} * \frac{p(x, z)}{p(y, z)} = \frac{p(y | x, z) p(x, z)}{p(y | z)} \quad (1.4)$$

In the future this will prove to be a useful tool to compute a posterior probability distribution $p(x | y)$ from the inverse conditional probability $p(y | x)$ and the prior probability distribution $p(x)$.

1.2 Bayes Filter

1.2.1 Scenario

Consider the general case of a robot which uses sensors to gather information about its environment. These sensors provide readings at discrete time steps $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. Some amount of noise is associated with each of these readings. At each time step t , the robot may execute commands to affect its environment, and wishes to know its current state.

Let's encode the robot's current state at time t in the vector x_t . Similarly, z_t will represent a sensor measurement at time t , and u_t will represent the commands issued by the robot at time t . For each of these vectors we will use the notation $z_{1:t} = z_1, z_2, \dots, z_t$.

The robot only has access to data in the form of z_t and u_t . Thus it cannot ever have perfect knowledge of its state x_t . It will have to make do by storing a probability distribution assigning a probability to every possible realization of x_t . This posterior probability distribution will represent the robot's belief in its current state, and should be conditioned on all available data. Thus we'll define the robot's belief distribution

to be:

$$bel(x_t) = p(x_t \mid z_{1:t}, u_{1:t}) \quad (1.5)$$

1.2.2 Derivation

We can use equation 1.4 to rewrite $bel(x_t)$:

$$bel(x_t) = p(x_t \mid z_{1:t}, u_{1:t}) = \frac{p(z_t \mid x_t, z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t})p(x_t \mid z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t})}{p(z_t \mid z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t})} \quad (1.6)$$

In order to simplify $p(z_t \mid x_t, z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t})$, we'll have to make an important assumption. We'll assume that the state x_t satisfies the Markov property, that is, x_t perfectly encapsulates all prior information. Thus if x_t is known, then $z_{1:t}$ and $u_{1:t}$ are redundant. This assumption lets us remove consideration of past sensor measurements and commands, and to rewrite the belief distribution as:

$$bel(x_t) = \frac{p(z_t \mid x_t)p(x_t \mid z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t})}{p(z_t \mid z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t})} \quad (1.7)$$

Notice that $p(z_t \mid z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t})$ is a constant with respect to x_t . Thus it makes sense to let $\eta = (p(z_t \mid z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t}))^{-1}$ and rewrite the belief distribution as:

$$bel(x_t) = \eta p(z_t \mid x_t)p(x_t \mid z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t}) \quad (1.8)$$

Now we are left with two distributions of interest. Looking closely one may notice that $p(x_t \mid z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t})$ is simply our original belief distribution, equation 1.5, but not conditioned on the most recent sensor measurement, z_t . Let us refer to this distribution as $\overline{bel}(x_t)$, and break it down further using equation 1.3 and our Markov

assumption:

$$\begin{aligned}
\overline{bel}(x_t) &= p(x_t \mid z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t}) \\
&= \sum_{x_{t-1}} p(x_t \mid x_{t-1}, z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t}) p(x_{t-1} \mid z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t}) \\
&= \sum_{x_{t-1}} p(x_t \mid x_{t-1}, u_t) p(x_{t-1} \mid z_{1:t-1}, u_{1:t}) \\
&= \sum_{x_{t-1}} p(x_t \mid x_{t-1}, u_t) bel(x_{t-1}) \quad (1.9)
\end{aligned}$$

We have arrived at a recursive definition of $bel(x_t)$ with respect to $bel(x_{t-1})$! As long as $p(x_t \mid x_{t-1}, u_t)$ and $p(z_t \mid x_t)$ are known, we can recursively calculate $bel(x_t)$.

$p(x_t \mid x_{t-1}, u_t)$ defines a stochastic model for the robot's state, defining how the robot's state will evolve over time based upon what commands it issues. This probability distribution is known as the *state transition probability*. []

$p(z_t \mid x_t)$ also defines a stochastic model, modeling the sensor measurements z_t as noisy projections of the robot's environment. This distribution will be referred to as the *measurement probability*. []

Once we have models for both the *state transition probability* and *measurement probability*, we can finally construct the algorithm known as Bayes' Filter:

Given $(bel(x_{t-1}), u_t, z_t)$:

For all possible states x_t^* compute:

$$\overline{bel}(x_t^*) = \sum_{x_{t-1}^* \in x_{t-1}} p(x_t^* \mid x_{t-1}^*, u_t) bel(x_{t-1}^*)$$

$$bel(x_t^*) = \eta p(z_t \mid x_t^*) \overline{bel}(x_t^*)$$

end loop

Set $\sum_{x_t^* \in x_t} bel(x_t^*) = 1$, and solve for η

Use η to compute and return $bel(x_t)$ (1.10)

1.2.3 Example

1.3 Kalman Filter

Bibliography