# A path planning method for UAVs based on multi-objective pigeon-inspired optimisation and differential evolution 

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#### Abstract

Inspired by the behaviour of pigeon flocks, an improved method of path planning and autonomous formation for unmanned aerial vehicles based on the pigeon-inspired optimisation and differential evolution is proposed in this paper. Firstly, the mathematical model for UAV path planning is devised as a multi-objective optimisation with three indices, i.e., the length of a path, the sinuosity of a path, and the risk of a path. Then, the method integrated by pigeoninspired optimisation and mutation strategies of differential evolution is developed to optimise feasible paths. Besides, Pareto dominance is applied to select the global best position of a pigeon. Finally, a series of simulation results compared with standard particle swarm optimisation algorithm and standard differential evolution algorithm show the effectiveness of our method.


Keywords: path planning; unmanned aerial vehicle; UAV; pigeon-inspired optimisation; differential evolution.

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## 1 Introduction

Unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV) plays an important role in some high-risk missions because of its small size, easy of use, low cost, low environment requirements, and strong survivability, etc. UAV path planning refers to finding the optimal or suboptimal collision-free path with some certain performance indices for a UAV from the departure point to the terminal point under certain constraints, which can be formulated as a typical constrained optimisation problem.

Population-based optimisation algorithms have been applied to solve path planning problems. Unlike traditional single-point base algorithms that may easily get trapped into local optimal and unsuitable for dynamic or nonlinear problems, the population-based optimisation algorithms can overcome these disadvantages and have more efficiency in solving path planning problems. Genetic algorithm (GA) is a search heuristic inspired by the process of natural selection which belongs to evolutionary algorithms (EA). GA based on mutation, crossover and selection. Hu and Yang (2004) proposed a knowledge-based GA for path planning of a mobile robot, which uses problem-specific GAs for robot path planning instead of the standard GAs. Ant colony optimisation (ACO) is a metaheuristic which takes inspiration from the foraging behaviour of ant species. ACO based on autocatalysis, i.e., the exploitation of positive feedback, can be used by ants to find the shortest path between a food source and their nest. Brand et al. (2010) investigated the application of ACO to robot path planning in a dynamic environment. Particle swarm optimisation (PSO) is an evolutionary computation technique developed by Kennedy and Eberhart in 1995. The method is inspired by social behaviour of bird flocking or fish schooling. Qin et al. (2004) presented an advanced PSO algorithm for mobile robot path planning. Roberge et al. (2013) used GA and PSO to cope with real-time UAV path planning problems. Cui et al. (2020) proposed a hybrid multi-objective particle swarm optimisation (HMOPSO) algorithm for multi-objective optimisation by combining particle swarm search with local search.

Pigeon-inspired optimisation (PIO) (Duan and Qiao, 2014) is a new bio-inspired swarm intelligence optimiser especially for air robot path planning. Inspired by natural pigeons' behaviour, the algorithm presents a map and compass operator model based on magnetic field and sun, landmark operator model based on landmarks.

Further improvements and discussions of PIO path planning are as follows. Zhang and Duan (2017) proposed a novel Predator-prey pigeon-inspired optimisation (PPPIO) to solve the three-dimensional path planning problem of UAVs in a dynamic environment. Li and Deng (2018) proposed a new algorithm for independent navigation of UAV path planning based on pigeon-inspired optimisation and quantum entanglement theory. Cui et al. (2019) establish an external archive to store the best solution that is continuously generated during the evolution of the population. Qiu and Duan (2018) modified multi-objective pigeon-inspired optimisation (MPIO) based on the hierarchical learning behaviour in pigeon flocks.

Despite good performance of PIO, it still has deficiencies in solving multi-objective problems. For example, it uses a single objective function or multiplying multiple objective functions with different weight coefficients. The latter is a single objective method and has some inescapable problems. Therefore, in this paper, an improved method is proposed by integrating mutation strategies of differential evolution into the PIO algorithm and applying Pareto dominance to deal with the UAV path planning problem.

The rest of the paper is organised as follows. Section 2 gives a mathematical model of UAV path planning. In Section 3, a brief review of the principle of basic PIO is presented. Section 4 concerns the proposed method based on multi-objective PIO and DE. Comparative simulation validations are elaborated in Section 5. Finally, our conclusions and future perspectives are drawn in Section 6.

## 2 Mathematical model of UAV path planning

To achieve the goal of UAV path planning, the environment of the flying airspace should be expressed and stored first to make the UAV understand the surrounding environments. The method is proposed by Sun et al. (2005) and improved to three-dimensional model in this paper.

Figure 1 UAV flying airspace model


Figure 1 describes the global coordinate system $O-X Y Z$, and the cylinders, defined as $m$, are a series of dangerous areas, such as enemy radar detection areas. UAV must keep clear of these areas, otherwise it will be shot down by anti-aircraft weapons. $D$ and $T$ are the departure point and the terminal point of a UAV. $O^{\prime}-X^{\prime} Y^{\prime} Z^{\prime}$ is a local coordinate system which is set $D$ as the origin, the line between $D$ and $T$ as $X^{\prime}$ axis and the $Y^{\prime}$ axis and $Z^{\prime}$ axis accord with the Cartesian coordinate system. The corresponding transformation equation between the global coordinate system and the local coordinate system is as follows:

$$
\left(\begin{array}{l}
x^{\prime}  \tag{1}\\
y^{\prime} \\
z^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\cos \theta \cos \chi & \sin \theta & -\cos \theta \sin \chi \\
-\sin \theta \cos \chi & \cos \theta & \sin \theta \sin \\
\sin \chi & 0 & \cos \chi
\end{array}\right]\left[\left(\begin{array}{l}
x \\
y \\
z
\end{array}\right)-\left(\begin{array}{l}
x_{D} \\
y_{D} \\
z_{D}
\end{array}\right)\right]
$$

where $\theta$ is the inclination angle and $\chi$ is the deflection angle from the $X$ axis to the line $D T$. ( $x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}, z^{\prime}$ ) is the coordinate in the local coordinate system, $(x, y, z)$ is the coordinate in the global coordinate system, $\left(x_{D}, y_{D}, z_{D}\right)$ is the departure point $D$ in the global system.

At first, the flying path $D T$ is split into $n+1$ segments. The path can be defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
P=\left(D, P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{n}, T\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Furthermore, denote the departure point $D$ and the terminal point $T$ as $P_{0}$ and $P_{n+1}$, and then the path can be defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
P=\left(P_{0}, P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}, P_{n+1}\right) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

If the UAV expects to arrive at the terminal point $T$ safely, it must not enter the dangerous areas in the flying airspace. Times which the UAV enters these areas will be calculated to determine whether the path is feasible. If the flying path segment ( $P i, P_{i+1}$ ) of the UAV intersects the border of the dangerous area $j$, the attribute value, defined as $E T_{i j}$, is one. Otherwise, the attribute value is zero. Then the sum of the times of a path $P$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
E T(P)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} E T_{i j} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

The UAV path planning is to find the optimal or suboptimal collision-free path with some certain performance indices. In this paper, three performance indices, i.e., the length of a path, the sinuosity of a path, and the risk of a path are concerned.

According to the flying airspace model, the length of a UAV's path is defined as $F_{L}(P)$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{L}(P)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} D\left(P_{i}, P_{i+1}\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $D(\cdot, \cdot)$ is the Euclidean distance between the point $P_{i}$ and $P_{i+1}$.

When the UAV flies in the airspace, we hope the sinuosity of the path should be as low as possible. The sinuosity of a path is defined as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{S}(P)=\min _{i=1,2, \ldots, n}\left(\alpha_{0},\left(180^{\circ}-\alpha_{i}\right)\right) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\alpha_{0}$ is the angle between the $X^{\prime}$ axis and $\left(P_{0}, P_{1}\right), \alpha_{i}$ is the intersection angle between the line $\left(P_{i,}, P_{i+1}\right)$ and ( $P_{i+1}, P_{i+2}$ ).

To evaluate the risk degree of a flying path, function $F_{R}(P)$ is defined as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{R}(P)=\exp \left(-\xi \cdot D\left(P, d_{j}\right)\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\xi$ is a parameter, $D\left(P, d_{j}\right)$ is the minimum distance between the path and the dangerous areas.

Integrate the functions (5), (6) and (7), the mathematical optimisation model of the UAV path planning can be described as the following multi-objective optimisation with a constraint:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \min F(P)=\left(F_{L}(P), F_{S}(P), F_{R}(P)\right) \\
& \text { s.t. } E T(P)=0 \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

The length, sinuosity and risk degree of a path are dependent in some ways, which makes the algorithm difficult to get the best solutions at the same time. Therefore, it is necessary to find a Pareto set to keep balance among all objectives.

## 3 Brief review of basic PIO

Pigeons have the special homing ability by using three special navigation tools: the sun, the earth's magnetic field and the landmarks. As the pigeons gradually approach to their loft, the effect of the sun and magnetic field will decline progressively. The pigeons will use familiar landmark image messages to correct their route. Inspired by the pigeons' navigation behaviour, a bio-inspired swarm intelligence optimiser is proposed named PIO. In PIO, the position of each pigeon and the loft represent the potential solution and the optimal solution to an optimisation problem respectively. In other words, the behaviour of pigeon homing represents the convergence process of solutions to the global optimum. The map and compass operator is presented to imitate the navigation tool of the sun and the magnetic field on pigeons, while the landmark operator is raised to imitate the impact of familiar landmarks on the pigeon homing. PIO employs the two independent operators to optimise feasible solutions to optimise problems.

In the map and compass operator, the rules are denoted by the position $X_{i}$ and the velocity $V_{i}$ of pigeon $i$. The positions and velocities in a D-dimension search space are updated each iteration. The position $X_{i}$ and the velocity $V_{i}$ at the $t^{\text {th }}$ iteration can be calculated in the following formulas:

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{c}
V_{i}(t)=V_{i}(t-1) \cdot e^{-R t}+\text { rand } \cdot\left(X_{g}-X_{i}(t-1)\right)  \tag{9}\\
X_{i}(t)=X_{i}(t-1)+V_{i}(t)
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $R$ is the map and compass factor, rand is a random number within $[0,1]$, and $X_{g}$ is the current global best position.

In the landmark operator, half of the pigeons are decreased by $N_{p}$ every iteration. $X_{c}(t)$ is defined as the centre of some pigeons' position at the $t^{\text {th }}$ iteration. Each pigeon's position $X_{i}$ can be can be calculated with the following equations:

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{c}
N_{p}(t)=\frac{N_{p}(t-1)}{2} \\
X_{c}(t)=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_{p}} X_{i}(t) \cdot \text { fitness }\left(X_{i}(t)\right)}{\sum_{i=1}^{N_{p}} \text { fitness }\left(X_{i}(t)\right)}  \tag{10}\\
X_{i}(t)=X_{i}(t-1)+\text { rand } \cdot\left(X_{c}(t)-X_{i}(t-1)\right)
\end{array}\right.
$$

where fitness $(\cdot)$ is the quality of each pigeon. For minimum optimisation problems,

$$
\text { fitness }\left(X_{i}(t)\right)=\frac{1}{f_{\min }\left(X_{i}(t)\right)+\varepsilon}
$$

where $\varepsilon$ is a constant value.
Given the formulas (9) and (10), the basic PIO process generally follows the steps described in Table 1.

Table 1 Steps of basic PIO
Step 1 Initialise the airspace information and the dangerous areas information.

Step 2 Initialise PIO algorithm parameters, including space dimension D , population size $N_{p}$, map and compass factor $R$, the number of $N_{c 1}$ and $N_{c 2}$ for two operators, etc.
Step 3 Set each pigeon with a randomised velocity and position. Then compare the fitness of each pigeon and find the global best position $X_{g}$.
Step 4 Operate map and compass operator. Update velocity and path of each pigeon using equation (9). Compare the fitness of each pigeon and find the new $X g$.
Step 5 If the number of iterative times is greater than $N_{c l}$, stop the map and compass operator and operate the landmark operator. Otherwise go to Step 4.
Step 6 Rank all of the pigeons according to the fitness value. Half pigeons whose fitness values are low will follow the pigeons with higher fitness. According to equation (10), calculate $X_{c}$ and update the position $X_{i}$.
Step 7 If the number of iterative times is greater than $N_{c 2}$, stop the landmark operator. Otherwise, go to Step 6.

## 4 Path planning method based on multi-objective PIO and DE

In the following section, a novel path planning method based on multi-objective pigeon-inspired optimisation and differential evolution (MOPIODE) is introduced to solve the problems in Section 2. To evaluate the quality of a path, Pareto dominance is used to select the global best position of a path. For the infeasible paths which blocked by the dangerous areas, the improved mutation operation of differential evolution is applied to improve the feasibility of these paths.

At first, generate initialisation pigeons randomly and set a feasible path for initial $X_{g}$. Then classify these pigeons by feasibility, i.e., whether $E T(P)=0$.

For those feasible paths, i.e., $E T(P)=0, X_{i}(t)$ and $X_{g}(t)$ is defined as the position and global best position in the $t^{\text {th }}$ iteration, respectively. The three objective functions, i.e., the length of a path, the sinuosity of a path and the risk of a path are used to construct multi-objective Pareto dominance to update the global best path. If $F\left(X_{i}(t+1)\right) \prec F\left(X_{g}(t)\right)$ is satisfied, where $\prec$ represents Pareto dominance for feasible paths. If $X_{i}(t+1)$ and $X_{g}(t)$ do not dominate each other, keep the $X_{g}(t)$ unchanged. Then update each pigeon's position and velocity according to equation (9).

For the infeasible paths, i.e., the paths blocked by dangerous areas in the flying airspace, use the improved mutation operation to improve the feasibility and accelerate the search progress. In $t^{\text {th }}$ iteration, select two infeasible paths randomly, denoted as $X_{R 1}(t)$ and $X_{R 2}(t)$, then apply the mutation operation. The equation for $X_{i}(t+1)$ of $\mathrm{DE} / \mathrm{rand} / 1$ is as following:

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{i}(t+1)=X_{i}(t)+F \cdot\left(X_{R 1}(t)-X_{R 2}(t)\right) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $F$ is the scaling factor to control the magnitude of the difference vector.

Table 2 Steps of path planning method
Step 1 Initialise the flying airspace and the dangerous areas, set the parameters including the space dimension $D$, the population size $N_{p}$, map and compass factor $R$, the number of $N_{c 1}$ and $N_{c 2}$ for two operators, the scaling factor $F$, etc.
Step 2 Initialise the pigeons randomly and select the global best position, then divide the pigeons into two sets, i.e., the feasible sets and the infeasible sets according to their feasibility.
Step 3 Update the position and velocity according to the map and compass operator, i.e., equation (9), in the feasible set's pigeons. Evaluate these paths' feasibility, if a path is infeasible, move it to the infeasible set. Then calculate each pigeon's fitness and select the global best position $X_{g}$.
Step 4 Update the position according to the improved mutation operation, i.e., the equation (11), in the infeasible set's pigeons. Evaluate these paths feasibility, if a path is feasible, move it to the feasible set.
Step 5 If the number of iterative times is greater than $N_{c 1}$, go to Step 6, otherwise return to Step 4.
Step 6 Abandon the pigeons in the infeasible set. Stop the map and compass operator and apply the landmark operator.
Step 7 If the number of iterative times is greater than $N_{c 2}$, stop the landmark operator and output the solution. Otherwise, go to Step 6.

If the number of iterative times is greater than $N_{c 1}$, for the feasible pigeons, stop the map and compass operator and operate landmark operator. The infeasible pigeons will be
abandoned because they will disturb the calculation of centre of the pigeons $X_{c}$.

The steps of the path planning method for UAV based on multi-objective pigeon-inspired optimisation and differential evolution are described in Table 2.

## 5 Comparative simulation results

To validate the proposed method in solving UAV path planning problems, the simulation experiments are conducted by MATLAB on a PC. The performances are compared with multi-objective particle swarm optimisation (MOPSO) algorithm and multi-objective differential evolution (MODE) algorithm.

Table 3 Flying airspace information

|  |  |  | $y(m)$ | $z(m)$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $D$ |  | 5 | 5 | 25 |
| $T$ | $j$ | 95 | 95 | 25 |
|  | $x_{j}$ | $y_{j}$ | $z_{j}$ |  |
| Dangerous area | 1 | 20 | 20 | 10 |
|  | 2 | 40 | 45 | 7 |
|  | 3 | 75 | 65 | 8 |
|  | 4 | 26 | 76 | 23 |
|  | 5 | 82 | 35 | 12 |

Table 4 Parameters of MOPIODE, MOPSO and MODE

| Algorithm | Variable | Description | Value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| MOPIODE | $N_{p}$ | Number of pigeons | 50 |
|  | $N_{c 1}$ | Maximum iteration of map and compass operator | 60 |
|  | $N_{c 2}$ | Maximum iteration of landmark operator | 100 |
|  | $V_{U}$ | Upper bound of velocities | 2 |
|  | $V_{L}$ | Lower bound of velocities | -2 |
|  | $R$ | Map and compass factor | 0.1 |
|  | $F$ | Scaling factor | 0.3 |
|  | $\varepsilon$ | Constant in landmark operator | 0.4 |
| MOPSO | $N$ | Number of particles | 50 |
|  | $N_{c}$ | Maximum iteration | 100 |
|  | W | Inertia weight | 0.8 |
|  | $c_{1}$ | Personal attractor | 0.5 |
|  | c2 | Global attractor | 0.5 |
| MODE | $N$ | Number of populations | 50 |
|  | $N_{c}$ | Maximum iteration | 100 |
|  | $F$ | Scaling factor | 0.5 |
|  | $C r_{u}$ | Upper bound of crossover probability | 0.6 |
|  | $\mathrm{Cr}_{l}$ | Lower bound of crossover probability | 0.1 |

The coordinate of departure point $D$, terminal point $T$, and the dangerous areas' information are shown in Table 3. The number of path points, i.e., $n=13$. The adjustable parameter $\alpha$ in formula $F_{S}(P)$ is set to 0.2 . The simulation parameters are shown in Table 4.

Figure 2 descript the results of UAV path optimised by MOPIODE, MOPSO and MODE algorithms. Coordinates of these path points are shown in Table 5. Moreover, Figure 3 shows three evolution curves of the three algorithms.

Figure 2 Simulation results, (a) path optimised by MOPIODE (b) path optimised by MOPSO (c) path optimised by MODE (d) path optimised by MOPIODE in a top-down view (e) path optimised by MOPSO in a top-down view (f) path optimised by MODE in a top-down view (see online version for colours)

(a)

(b)

Figure 2 Simulation results, (a) path optimised by MOPIODE (b) path optimised by MOPSO (c) path optimised by MODE (d) path optimised by MOPIODE in a top-down view (e) path optimised by MOPSO in a top-down view (f) path optimised by MODE in a top-down view (continued) (see online version for colours)

(c)

(d)

(e)

Figure 2 Simulation results, (a) path optimised by MOPIODE (b) path optimised by MOPSO (c) path optimised by MODE (d) path optimised by MOPIODE in a top-down view (e) path optimised by MOPSO in a top-down view (f) path optimised by MODE in a top-down view (continued) (see online version for colours)

(f)

Table 5 Coordinates of path points

| Algorithm | Path i | $x(m)$ | $y(m)$ | $z(m)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| MOPIODE | 1 | 13.85 | 9.67 | 25.49 |
|  | 2 | 26.64 | 5.48 | 23.69 |
|  | 3 | 34.89 | 18.76 | 27.61 |
|  | 4 | 37.52 | 25.77 | 20.91 |
|  | 5 | 53.08 | 21.63 | 28.31 |
|  | 6 | 67.21 | 20.73 | 24.98 |
|  | 7 | 61.57 | 40.08 | 19.42 |
|  | 8 | 61.51 | 50.93 | 29.17 |
|  | 9 | 60.59 | 66.06 | 18.82 |
|  | 10 | 61.52 | 79.05 | 28.65 |
|  | 11 | 70.69 | 82.38 | 29.65 |
|  | 12 | 82.84 | 82.65 | 22.22 |
|  | 13 | 88.29 | 87.56 | 28.50 |
| MOPSO | 1 | 10.67 | 8.55 | 25.83 |
|  | 2 | 31.30 | 3.54 | 26.59 |
|  | 3 | 39.01 | 11.91 | 26.41 |
|  | 4 | 45.02 | 13.82 | 24.99 |
|  | 5 | 65.62 | 8.44 | 25.07 |
|  | 6 | 62.53 | 25.37 | 20.12 |
|  | 7 | 52.04 | 49.83 | 28.16 |
|  | 8 | 60.01 | 55.96 | 24.12 |
|  | 9 | 64.29 | 59.66 | 25.29 |
|  | 10 | 56.53 | 82.62 | 26.70 |
|  | 11 | 71.82 | 82.28 | 23.46 |
|  | 12 | 80.72 | 87.09 | 23.82 |
|  | 13 | 88.41 | 89.68 | 23.87 |

Table 5 Coordinates of path points (continued)

| Algorithm | Path $i$ | $x(m)$ | $y(m)$ | $z(m)$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| MODE | 1 | 12.61 | 10.95 | 31.36 |
|  | 2 | 39.10 | 0.00 | 22.36 |
|  | 3 | 32.53 | 19.04 | 18.34 |
|  | 4 | 31.23 | 29.43 | 21.42 |
|  | 5 | 54.97 | 20.91 | 17.99 |
|  | 6 | 67.92 | 19.40 | 24.60 |
|  | 7 | 68.14 | 34.73 | 16.98 |
|  | 8 | 59.98 | 48.56 | 21.63 |
|  | 9 | 49.29 | 77.17 | 21.40 |
|  | 10 | 54.82 | 82.38 | 25.35 |
|  | 11 | 67.23 | 84.94 | 22.28 |
|  | 12 | 77.94 | 83.31 | 21.01 |
|  | 13 | 74.07 | 99.45 | 33.87 |

Figure 3 Evolution curves of three algorithms, (a) length of a UAV's path (b) sinuosity of a UAV's path (c) risk of a UAV's path (see online version for colours)


Figure 2 illustrates the detailed results of the UAV's path optimised by MOPIODE, MOPSO and MODE separately. Where Figures 3(d) to 3(f) describe these paths in a
top-down view. It's obvious in Figures 3(a) to 3(c), the proposed path planning method outperformed the other two algorithms, in terms of the length, sinuosity and risk degree of the path. These prove that MOPIODE produces improvements in finding a short, smooth and safety path for UAV than PSO and DE algorithm.

## 6 Conclusions and future perspectives

This paper proposed a new path plan method by integrating PIO into DE algorithm, improving its ability to get out of dangerous areas. The performance of the proposed method was evaluated and compared with that of PSO and DE. Experimental results showed that MOPIODE outperforms generally the other two algorithms in solving the problem.

Our future work will focus on applications of the improved PIO algorithm to solve other complicated optimisation problems.

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