

Long-term adaptive informative path planning for scalar field monitoring using cross-entropy optimization

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Dear editor,

Robots are extensively used in various civil and military applications [1, 2]. In the last decade, informative path planning (IPP) has been one of the most important research areas in modern robot engineering [3], especially in long-term monitoring of a particular area of interest. In such scenarios, it is expected that an optimal path will be chosen along with the collection of maximal information about the scalar field with a limited fuel budget. To the best of our knowledge, state-of-the-art IPP methods do not consider adaptive long-term scalar field monitoring tasks where the reliability on historical data is gradually decreasing. The Gaussian process (GP) is an attractive tool because its mean and covariance functions can describe a given scalar field. In this study, we design a time-varying likelihood of measurements to handle the concept of descending belief. Moreover, we utilize a clamped B-spline curve to analytically parameterize the continuous path. Here, the path is determined by a sequence of control points. When new measurements are received, an adaptive re-planning scheme that makes the trade-off between information gain and fuel budget is required [4]. Further, the results of simulations are depicted to display the effectiveness of our algorithms.

Modified Gaussian process. The Gaussian process is a powerful non-parameter tool used for describing an underlying scalar field that can be for-

mulated as $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ on d -dimensional space $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ [5]. Here, we focus on a scalar workspace where $d = 2$. A typical Gaussian process is defined as

$$f(x) \sim \mathcal{GP}(m(x), k(x, x')), \quad (1)$$

where $m(x)$ is the mean function and generally set to zero. $k(x, x')$ denotes the corresponding covariance function, which describes the relation between x and x' .

In practice, the scalar field $f(x)$ is defined only through noisy measurements $y = f(x) + \varepsilon$, where ε is generally white Gaussian noise, i.e., $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_n^2)$. This implies that the likelihood of measurements $y(x)$ is also Gaussian. Unfortunately, in our long-term monitoring application, the previously collected data would be inadmissible. This certainly results in a non-Gaussian likelihood of $y(x)$.

To consider the non-Gaussian likelihood, we design a new covariance function $k(x, x')$ as

$$k(x, x') = \begin{cases} \sigma_f^2 \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(x-x')^T M(x-x')) \\ + \sigma_n^2 \min\{m_{cov}, \exp(t_c^2 t(x)^2)/(2\nabla_t^2)\}, \\ \text{when } x = x', \\ \sigma_f^2 \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(x-x')^T M(x-x')), \\ \text{other,} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

where $\theta_{GP} = \{\sigma_f, M, \sigma_n\}$ is the Gaussian process hyperparameter set. Specifically, $M = \text{diag}(l)^{-1}$,

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where l is a positive vector. θ_{GP} can be obtained using simple descending algorithms.

$\theta_t = \{t_c, \nabla_t\}$ is the time hyperparameter set of the Gaussian process. $t(x) \geq 0$ is the time interval between now and the point of collection. Importantly, the influence of time-varying measurement reliability is decreasing and limited to $m_{cov}\sigma_n^2$. It is important to note that if maximum $m_{cov}\sigma_n^2$ is achieved, the corresponding measurements will be discarded.

Suppose we already have H history measurements $Y_H = \{y_{h1}, y_{h2}, \dots, y_H\}$ at locations $X_H = \{x_{h1}, x_{h2}, \dots, x_H\}$, and we want to predict values at locations of interest $X_T = \{x_{t1}, x_{t2}, \dots, x_T\}$. Therefore, using properties of Gaussian process, we can obtain the posterior distribution of $f(X_T)$ using

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{f}_{X_T} &= K(X_T, X_H) \\ &\times [K(X_H, X_H) + \sigma_n^2 I]^{-1} (Y_H - m(X_H)), \\ \text{cov}(f_{X_T}) &= K(X_T, X_T) - K(X_T, X_H) \\ &\times [K(X_H, X_H) + \sigma_n^2 I]^{-1} K(X_H, X_T). \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Given the model of the scalar field, we utilize a mutual information method to quantize the value of collected measurements. Suppose we have F forthcoming sampling locations on the candidate path $X_F = \{x_{f1}, x_{f2}, \dots, x_F\}$. The information gain by X_F can be formulated using

$$\begin{aligned} I(f(X_T), Y(X_F)) &= H(f(X_T)|X_H, Y_H) - H(f(X_T)|X_H, Y_H, X_F, Y_F) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{|\text{cov}(f(X_T)|X_H, Y_H)|}{|\text{cov}(f(X_T)|X_H, Y_H, X_F, Y_F)|}. \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Adaptive informative path planning. Clamped B-spline curve's continuous availability of any order derivatives makes it a powerful tool that can be used to represent a continuous path [6]. It is parameterized by a sequence of n control points $X_C = \{x_{c1}, x_{c2}, \dots, x_C\}$, which is formulated using

$$\begin{aligned} \tau(w) &= \sum_{i=c1}^C x_i B_{i,P}(w), \quad \text{where} \\ B_{i,0}(w) &= \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } v_i < w < v_{i+1}, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \\ B_{i,p}(w) &= \frac{w - v_i}{v_{i+1} - v_i} B_{i,p-1}(w) \\ &\quad + \frac{v_{i+p+1} - w}{v_{i+p+1} - v_{i+1}} B_{i+1,p-1}, \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where $B_{i,P}$ is the basis function, and $\{v_i\} \in [0, 1]$ is the knot vector, which is equally divided in $[0, 1]$. Briefly, we also define the curve as τ_{X_C} , and the

first derivative can be formulated as a B-spline curve using

$$\frac{d\tau(w)}{dw} = \sum_{i=c1}^{C-1} B_{i+1,P-1} Q_i, \quad (6)$$

where $Q_i = \frac{P}{v_{i+P+1} - v_{i+1}}$. The measurements are collected with a fixed interval l . Thus, the sampling locations are obtained using

$$X_S = \left\{ \tau(w_i) \mid \int_{w_{i-1}}^{w_i} \left| \frac{d\tau(w)}{dw} \right| dw = l \right\}, \quad (7)$$

where $w_0 = 0$.

Note that the B-spline curve is hardly divided into exact segments of length l . If the curve is partitioned into several sub-curves with length l , and the last one is less than l then the last location is abandoned. Now, we introduce our informative path planning scheme. First, the local sequence of control points X_C is optimized according to our designed objective function $O(X_C)$ in (8) using the cross-entropy method.

$$O(X_C) = I(X_C) u_{\text{obs}}(X_C) u_c(X_C), \quad (8)$$

where $I(X_C)$ is the mutual information carried by X_C . u_{obs} is the penalty of obstacles. $u_{\text{obs}}(X_C) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\{-\lambda_{\text{obs}} \min(|\tau_{X_C} - X_{\text{obs}}| - \epsilon_{\text{obs}})\}}$. $u_c(X_C)$ is the penalty of the limited resource. $u_c = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\{-\lambda_c (c(\tau_{X_C}) + \tilde{c}(\tau_{X_C}) - c_{\text{left}} - \epsilon_c)\}}$. X_{obs} denotes the obstacle region. ϵ_{obs} is the obstacle clearance parameter. $c(\tau_{X_C})$ denotes the length of τ_{X_C} , and $\tilde{c}(\tau_{X_C})$ approximates the length for returning to start location. c_{left} is the remaining source. Second, the measurements are collected along the path, which is determined by X_C . Finally, the posterior estimation of the scalar field is obtained based on (3).

Because we have quantified the information about the scalar field in terms of $I(X_C)$, it is critical to dynamically choose X_T according to the collected data. Instinctively, measurements are taken where the variance is high. Simultaneously, the total variance of the scalar field is kept at a low level. We divide X_T into two sets: X_{T_s} and X_{T_d} . X_{T_s} is fixed and averagely distributed in \mathcal{X} . Contrastingly, X_{T_d} is adaptively chosen in the high posterior variance region. We generate X_{T_d} with distribution expressed as

$$p(x_{T_d}) = \frac{1}{\text{cov}(f_{x_{T_d}})} \Big/ \int_{\mathcal{X}} \frac{1}{\text{cov}(f_{x_{T_d}})}. \quad (9)$$

Here we formally propose the long-term adaptive IPP algorithm in Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1 Long-term adaptive IPP algorithm

Input: starting point x_{start} , planning horizon ϱ , historical sequence of control points X_H , obstacle region \mathcal{X}_{obs} .

Output: posterior estimation of scalar field \hat{f} , local optimal path τ_{X_C} .

- 1: $[\mu, s_2] \leftarrow \text{init_para}(X_H, \varrho)$;
- 2: local optimal sequence of control points distribution $[\mu^*, s_2^*] \leftarrow \text{CEoptimize}(\mu, s_2, \mathcal{X}_{\text{obs}}, c_{\text{left}}, X_T)$;
- 3: $X_C \leftarrow \text{Sample}(\mu^*, s_2^*)$; $X_F \leftarrow \tau_{X_C}$;
- 4: $\hat{f} \leftarrow \text{solveGP}(X_H, X_F)$;
- 5: adaptive re-plan $X_{T_d} \leftarrow \text{Sample}(p(x_{T_d}))$.

The number of historical measurements X_H is increasing with in-situ data accumulation, which results in infinite dimensional X_H . Thus, X_H is truncated to a fixed scale according to the time label of the measurements. The scale is empirically chosen, where a trade-off of estimation error and computation efficiency must be managed.

Cross-entropy optimization was first proposed in [7]. It is widely used in multi-extremal optimization problems, which do not require a convex target function. Thus, it is appropriate in our path optimization problem. Suppose we need to maximize $O(X_C)$ in (8) and write the maximum as $\gamma^* = O^*(X_C) = \max_{X_C \in \mathcal{X}} O(x)$. We define a family of pdfs $\{\zeta(X, v), v \in \mathcal{V} \text{ is pdfs parameter}\}$ on \mathcal{X} . The probability of the rare event $\{O(X_C) \geq \gamma\}$ can be formulated as $l(\gamma) = \mathbb{P}_v(O(X) \geq \gamma) = \mathbb{E}_v I(O(X) \geq \gamma)$. Thus, it is possible to optimize the pdfs family parameter v , until the rare event probability is small enough. We formally present the optimization algorithm in Algorithm 2.

Algorithm 2 Cross-entropy optimization algorithm

Input: v_1 , quantile η , size N , max iterations M .

Output: pdf of x^* , i.e., $g(v^*)$.

- 1: **for** $t = 2, \dots, M$ **do**
- 2: generate samples from pdf $g(X, v_{t-1})$, and sort as $O_1 \leq O_2 \leq \dots \leq O_N$;
- 3: $\gamma_t \leftarrow O_{\lceil (1-\eta)N \rceil}$;
- 4: $v_t \leftarrow \arg \max_v \frac{1}{N} I\{O(X) \geq \gamma_t\} \ln g(X; v)$;
- 5: **if** $\gamma_t < \gamma_{t-1}$ **then**
- 6: break;
- 7: **end if**
- 8: **end for**

Simulations. Here, the proposed algorithms are demonstrated using simulations. The scalar field is randomly generated in an area of $3 \text{ m} \times 3 \text{ m}$. Suppose the start location is $[0, 0]$. Four circle obstacles with the same radius $r = 0.5 \text{ m}$ are separately located at $[1, 1]$, $[1, 2]$, $[2, 1]$, $[2, 2]$. All parameters include three parts, i.e., GPs, cross-entropy optimization, and path curve, where $t_c = 1$, $\nabla_t = 2$, $\eta = 0.1$, $N = 20$, $n = 4$, $l = 3$. As shown in Fig-

ure 1, the estimation variance is decreasing along with the optimized path.

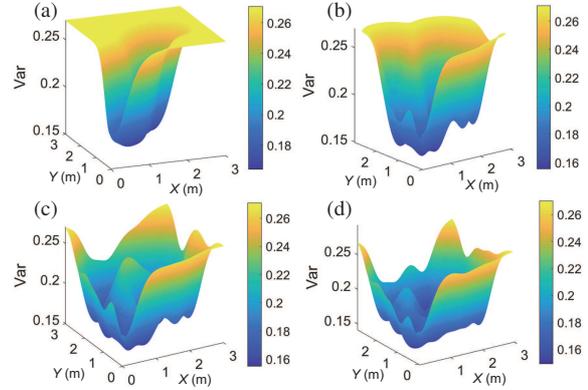


Figure 1 (Color online) Estimation variance at different iterations. (a) Iteration = 1; (b) iteration = 5; (c) iteration = 10; (d) iteration = 15.

Conclusion. Here, we present a new long-term adaptive IPP algorithm for scalar field monitoring in which time influence and energy limitations are considered in a long-term situation. Additionally, the interested target locations are adaptively chosen when new measurements are collected; and the cross-entropy method is utilized to obtain the local optimal path segment, which is more appropriate in online cases. Thus, it is more practical for real-world applications.

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