Anytime Incremental ρ POMDP Planning in Continuous Spaces

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Outline

- Introduction
- 2 Background
- Solving POMDPs
- Φ POMCPOW Challenges and Solutions
- Conclusions

Autonomous Agents

• Autonomous agents appear in a wide range of domains:



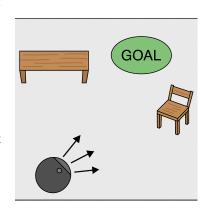


Autonomous Agents

- Autonomous agents must:
 - Perceive the world through noisy, partial observations
 - Act under uncertainty in outcomes and dynamics
 - Plan to achieve long-term objectives
- This talk focuses on sequential decision-making under uncertainty.
- Specifically, planning in the Partially Observable Markov Decision Process (POMDP) and its extension, the ρ POMDP.

MDP - Example

- Imagine a Roomba-like robot operating in a room.
- Its goal is to navigate to a designated target area.
- The robot acts in the environment by actuating its motors.
- However, due to motor errors, slippage, etc., the outcome of an action may not be as expected.
- We want the robot to reach the goal quickly and safely, avoiding obstacles along the way.



A Markov Decision Process (MDP) is defined by the tuple (S, A, T, R):

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- Example: A linear-Gaussian motion model that accounts for motor noise and slippage.
- **Definition:** $\mathcal{R}(s, a)$ is the reward function.
- Example: +100 for reaching the goal, -100 for hitting an obstacle, and -1 for each time step.

MDP - Objective

The agent aims to choose actions that **maximize expected cumulative reward**:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty}r(s_t,a_t)\right]$$

A solution to an MDP is a **policy** $\pi: \mathcal{S} \to \mathcal{A}$ that maps states to actions.

Value function:

$$V^{\pi}(s) = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} r(s_t, a_t) \mid s_0 = s, a_t = \pi(s_t)
ight]$$

• Action-value function:

$$Q^{\pi}(s,a) = \mathbb{E}_{s' \sim T(\cdot \mid s,a)} \left[r(s,a) + V^{\pi}(s') \right], \quad V^{\pi}(s) = Q^{\pi}(s,\pi(s))$$

POMDP - Example

- In the MDP setting, the robot always knew its exact position.
- Now, its position is unknown it only starts with a rough guess.
- The robot uses a laser rangefinder to measure distances to walls.
- These measurements are noisy and ambiguous multiple locations can produce similar readings.
- To navigate effectively, the robot must estimate its position using both its actions and sensor data.

A Partially Observable Markov Decision Process (POMDP) extends an MDP to handle partial observability. It is defined by the tuple:

$$(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{R}, \mathcal{O}, \mathcal{Z}, b_0)$$

ullet \mathcal{S} , \mathcal{A} , \mathcal{T} , and \mathcal{R} are the same as in MDP.

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- **Definition:** $\mathcal{Z}(o \mid s)$ is the observation model the probability of observing o in state s.

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- **Definition:** b_0 is the initial belief a distribution over states.
- Example: The robot's initial guess about its position, e.g., a uniform distribution over the room.

Belief - Definition

- In MDPs, the agent chooses actions based on the fully observable state.
- In POMDPs, the state is hidden, so the agent must act based on what it knows so far.
- To handle this, the agent maintains a **belief** b_t : a probability distribution over possible states at time t.
- The belief is updated over time using the agent's history of actions and observations:

$$h_t = (b_0, a_0, o_1, \dots, a_{t-1}, o_t)$$

The belief at time t is defined as:

$$b_t(s) = \mathbb{P}(s \mid h_t)$$



POMDP - Objective

As in MDPs, the agent aims to maximize expected cumulative reward:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty}r(s_t,a_t)\right]$$

Since the state is hidden, actions are chosen based on the agent's **belief**. A solution is a **policy** $\pi: \mathcal{B} \to \mathcal{A}$ mapping beliefs to actions.

Value function:

$$V^{\pi}(b) = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} r(s_t, a_t) \middle| b_0 = b, \ a_t = \pi(b_t)
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• Action-value function:

$$Q^{\pi}(b,a) = \mathbb{E}_{s \sim b, \, s' \sim T(\cdot|s,a), \, o \sim O(\cdot|s')} \left[r(s,a) + V^{\pi}(b') \right]$$

where b' is the updated belief after taking a and observing o.

Belief - Update

The belief is updated recursively using the Bayes filter:

$$b_t(s_t) = \eta \cdot \mathcal{Z}(o_t \mid s_t) \int_{\mathcal{S}} \mathcal{T}(s_t \mid s_{t-1}, a_{t-1}) \, b_{t-1}(s_{t-1}) \, ds_{t-1}$$

where η is a normalization constant.

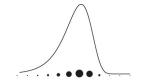
Special cases of the Bayes filter include:

- Kalman Filter for linear-Gaussian systems.
- Particle Filter for non-linear, non-Gaussian systems.

Particle Filter

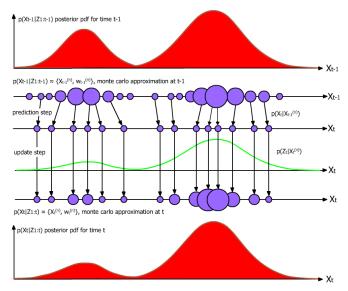
- A particle filter approximates the belief using a set of weighted samples (particles).
- Each particle represents a possible state and has an associated weight.

$$b(s) \approx \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i \cdot \delta(s - s_i)$$



- This representation is highly flexible and well-suited for capturing complex, multimodal beliefs.
- As the number of particles N increases, the approximation becomes more accurate.

Particle Filter – Update



ρ POMDP – Example

- Now, suppose the robot's task is to **localize itself** in the room.
- There is no designated goal location the objective is to reduce uncertainty.
- Examples: active localization, informative path planning, active learning, and active SLAM.
- Such tasks cannot be naturally expressed using the standard R(s, a).
- Instead, we define a **belief-dependent reward function** $\rho(b, a)$ for example, negative entropy.

A ρ POMDP is defined by the tuple:

$$(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{T}, \cancel{\mathcal{R}}, \mathcal{O}, \mathcal{Z}, b_0, \rho)$$

• S, A, T, O, Z, and b_0 are defined as in a standard POMDP.

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- Example: Information-theoretic rewards such as negative entropy or information gain.

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- This formulation naturally captures tasks centered on active information gathering.

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- This formulation naturally captures tasks centered on active information gathering.
- ullet In practice, ho can combine both belief-dependent and state-dependent rewards:

$$\rho(b,a) = \mathbb{E}_{s \sim b}[r(s,a)] + \mathcal{I}(b)$$



ρ POMDP – Objective

In ρ POMDPs, the agent aims to maximize expected cumulative belief-dependent reward:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty}\rho(b_t,a_t)\right]$$

Here, rewards depend directly on the **belief** and **action**. A solution is a **policy** $\pi: \mathcal{B} \to \mathcal{A}$ mapping beliefs to actions.

Solving POMDPs – Computation Complexity

Solving POMDPs is a challenging task due to the following reasons:

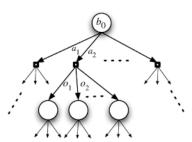
- Curse of dimensionality
- Curse of history
- Continuous state space
- Continuous action space
- Continuous observation space

Offline vs. Online Planning

- Offline methods aim to compute a policy $\pi: \mathcal{B} \to \mathcal{A}$ in advance.
 - Require solving for the entire belief space.
 - Computationally intractable for large or continuous domains.
 - Examples: value iteration, point-based solvers (PBVI).
- Online methods compute the next action at each time step, based on the current belief.
 - Avoid planning for unreachable beliefs.
 - More scalable in high-dimensional or continuous settings.
 - Examples: POMCP [6], DESPOT [7], POMCPOW [8].

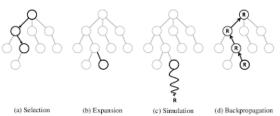
Online Tree Search

- Online methods plan by building a search tree rooted at the current belief — the **belief tree**.
- Nodes represent beliefs; edges correspond to actions and observations.
- The tree is expanded by simulating action-observation trajectories.
- The best action is selected based on estimated values at the root's children.
- The chosen action is executed in the real environment, an observation is received, the belief is updated, and the process repeats.



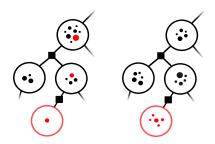
Monte Carlo Tree Search

- Monte Carlo Tree Search (MCTS) is a widely used planning algorithm.
- It uses random trajectory simulations to estimate the value of actions from the current belief.
- MCTS builds the tree incrementally using four key steps:
- **Selection:** Traverse the tree to select a promising node.
- Expansion: Add one or more child nodes.
- Simulation: Simulate a rollout from the new node to estimate return.
- **Backpropagation:** Propagate the return up the tree to update value estimates.



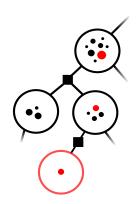
State Simulators vs. Belief Simulators

- SOTA online POMDP solvers use a particle-based approach to represent the belief.
- These solvers can be broadly categorized as state simulators or belief simulators.



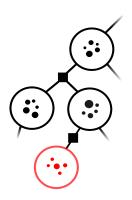
State Simulators

- Simulate state trajectories directly.
- Each time a belief node is visited, a new particle is added.
- Particles accumulated across visits.
- Representation improves at frequently visited (and promising) nodes.
- Belief-dependent rewards are more challenging to compute.
- Examples: POMCP [6], POMCPOW [8], DESPOT [7], LABECOP [5].



Belief Simulators

- Treat belief states as explicit nodes in a belief-MDP.
- Fixed set of particles created once upon expansion.
- Representation is static, wasting computation resources.
- Easy belief-dependent rewards computation.
- Examples: PFT-DPW [8], AdaOPS [10].



Online ρ POMDP Solvers

Setting	Belief Simulator	State Simulator
Discrete	hobeliefUCT [9]	ρ POMCP [9]
Continuous	PFT-DPW [8]	
	IPFT [4]	
	AI-FSSS [1]	
	SITH-PFT [11]	

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ρ POMCPOW – Challenges

- We aim to extend POMCPOW a state-of-the-art state-simulator for POMDPs to the ρ POMDP setting.
- This introduces several key challenges:
 - **Value estimation:** Running averages used in POMCPOW are incompatible with belief-dependent rewards.
 - Belief representation: Particle accumulation during visits does not ensure sufficient belief quality across the tree.
 - Reward recomputation: Belief updates require frequent and costly re-evaluation of the reward function.

In the next slides, we address each of these challenges in turn.

Challenge: Value Estimation

 In POMCPOW, node values are estimated using a running average of sampled rewards:

$$\hat{Q}(h,a) = \frac{1}{N(ha)} \sum_{i=1}^{N(ha)} R_i$$

- This is well-suited for state-based rewards, where the expected reward depends only on the state.
- In ρ POMDPs, rewards are **non-linear functions of the belief**, which evolves as new particles are added.
- Averaging rewards across outdated beliefs leads to biased and inconsistent value estimates.

Solution: Last-Value Update (LVU)

- To avoid mixing outdated rewards, we adopt the Last-Value Update (LVU) framework proposed by [9].
- In LVU, each node stores a value estimate based only on the most recent rewards from its children.

Value:

$$\hat{V}(h) = rac{1}{N(h)} \left[\mathsf{Rollout}(h) + \sum_{a \in \mathit{Ch}(h)} N(ha) \hat{Q}(ha)
ight]$$

Action-value:

$$\hat{Q}(\mathit{ha}) = rac{1}{\mathit{N}(\mathit{ha})} \sum_{o \in \mathit{Ch}(\mathit{ha})} \mathit{N}(\mathit{hao}) \left[\hat{
ho}(\mathit{hao}) + \gamma \hat{V}(\mathit{hao})
ight]$$



Our Contribution: Incremental LVU

- Standard LVU updates require summing over all children: O(n) time.
- This is costly in large trees, especially in continuous domains.
- We propose an **incremental update** that maintains correctness with just O(1) computation.

Incremental value update:

$$\hat{V}(h) \leftarrow \hat{V}(h) + \frac{1}{\textit{N}(h)} \Big[\textit{N}(\textit{ha}')\hat{\textit{Q}}(\textit{ha}') - (\textit{N}(\textit{ha}') - 1)\hat{\textit{Q}}^{\mathsf{prev}}(\textit{ha}') - \hat{V}(h)\Big]$$

Incremental action-value update:

$$\begin{split} \hat{Q}(\textit{ha}) \leftarrow \hat{Q}(\textit{ha}) + \frac{1}{\textit{N(ha)}} \Big[\textit{N(hao')} \big(\hat{\rho}(\textit{hao'}) + \gamma \hat{V}(\textit{hao'}) \big) \\ - (\textit{N(hao')} - 1) \big(\hat{\rho}^{\mathsf{prev}}(\textit{hao'}) + \gamma \hat{V}^{\mathsf{prev}}(\textit{hao'}) \big) - \hat{Q}(\textit{ha}) \Big] \end{split}$$

Challenge: Belief Representation

- Beliefs are typically represented using a particle-based approximation.
- In state simulators, particles are added incrementally during node visitation.
- This improves belief representation at frequently visited nodes.
- However, less-visited nodes may remain poorly represented.
- For belief-dependent rewards, we need good belief quality throughout the tree, not just locally.

Solution: Anytime Belief Refinement

- We ensure that belief quality improves over time and throughout the tree.
- Our approach provides a theoretical guarantee: under consistent selection strategies, every node is visited increasingly often.
- This enables belief refinement even in deep or rarely explored parts of the tree.
- Further details and formal results are available in the paper.

Challenge: Reward Re-computation

- In ρ POMDPs, rewards depend on the belief not just the state.
- As the belief evolves (e.g., when new particles are added), the reward must be updated accordingly.
- However, belief-dependent rewards are often:
 - Non-linear (e.g., entropy-based), making updates non-trivial.
 - Expensive to recompute from scratch.
- Major computational bottleneck in continuous domains.
- Want to update rewards **incrementally**, without full recomputation.
- We will focus in information-theoretic rewards.

Solution: Incremental Shannon Entropy

 Shannon entropy is a common information-theoretic reward used to quantify belief uncertainty:

$$\hat{H}(b) = -\sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i \log w_i$$

- Recomputing it after every belief update is linear in the number of particles: O(N).
- We derive an equivalent form that enables fast incremental updates:

$$\hat{H}(b) = -\frac{1}{\sum w_i} \sum w_i \log w_i + \log \sum w_i$$

• This formulation allows updating entropy in O(1) time after adding a new particle — by reusing cached terms.



Boers Entropy Estimator

- Shannon entropy is simple but not well-suited for particle-based beliefs — especially in continuous spaces.
- The Boers estimator [2] is specifically designed for such settings, capturing local density and the shape of the belief.
- It is defined as:

$$\hat{H}(b') = \log \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathcal{Z}(o \mid s_i') w_i' - \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i' \log \mathcal{Z}(o \mid s_i') - \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i' \log \left[\sum_{j=1}^{N} \mathcal{T}(s_i' \mid s_j, a) w_j \right]$$

- The final term a nested sum over particles is the computational bottleneck: $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$.
- This term can be updated incrementally and efficiently.



Incremental Update for Boers Estimator

Recall the final (expensive) term in the Boers estimator:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i' \log \left[\underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^{N} \mathcal{T}(s_i' \mid s_j, a) \cdot w_j}_{c_i} \right]$$

• Adding a new particle s_{N+1} affects all c_i . We incrementally update them as:

$$ilde{c}_i = rac{\sum_{j=1}^{N} w_j}{\sum_{j=1}^{N+1} w_j} \cdot c_i + \mathcal{T}(s_i \mid s_{N+1}, a) \cdot ilde{w}_{N+1}$$

- This reuses cached values and only requires computing one new transition column.
- Total cost drops from $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$ to $\mathcal{O}(N)$.



Experimental Setup

- We implemented ρ POMCPOW in Julia using the POMDPs.jl framework [3].
- Source code: github.com/ronbenc/rhoPOMCPOW
- Compared against state-of-the-art solvers on two benchmark domains:
 - Continuous 2D Light-Dark
 - Active Localization
- We also evaluate the benefit of incremental reward computation.

Benchmark Domains

- Both domains are set in a 2D continuous environment with:
 - Uncertain initial belief over the agent's state
 - Beacons that provide noisy observations (more accurate when closer)
 - Stochastic dynamics with 8 movement directions (unit circle) and a stay action that terminates the episode

Light-Dark:

- Task: navigate to a goal region from an uncertain start.
- Sparse rewards large bonus on success, heavy penalty on failure.
- Information gain is used as reward shaping to encourage localization.

• Active Localization:

- Task: actively reduce uncertainty about position.
- Reward: pure information gain.
- Environment includes obstacles that penalize collisions.
- Results are averaged over 1000 runs with different seeds. We report mean return \pm standard error.

Results – Continuous 2D Light-Dark

- Task: Navigate to a goal region using beacon-based observations.
- \bullet ρ POMCPOW outperforms due to its effective belief representation.
- Despite the added cost, incorporating information gain boosts planning effectiveness in ρ POMCPOW.

Algorithm	0.1s	0.2s	1.0s
$ ho$ POMCPOW †	22.3 ± 1.2	25.9 ± 1.1	26.2 \pm 1.1
POMCPOW	17.2 ± 1.4	17.5 ± 1.4	18.5 ± 0.9
IPFT [†]	-2.3 ± 1.8	6.4 ± 1.7	17.2 ± 1.2
PFT-DPW [†]	5.3 ± 1.6	13.4 ± 1.4	20.5 ± 1.0

[†] Uses information gain as reward shaping.

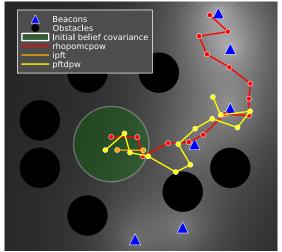
Results – Active Localization

- Task: Actively localize using beacon observations while avoiding obstacles.
- ρPOMCPOW steadily improves and outperforms as the planning time increases — thanks to its anytime refinement of beliefs.
- IPFT underperforms, likely due to its expensive particle reinvigoration mechanism.

Algorithm	0.1s	0.2s	1.0s
ρ POMCPOW	29.0 ± 0.5	38.1 ± 0.7	45.9 \pm 0.8
IPFT	27.1 ± 0.4	27.7 ± 0.4	27.0 ± 0.4
PFT-DPW	$\textbf{36.7}\pm0.7$	37.6 ± 0.7	38.7 ± 0.7

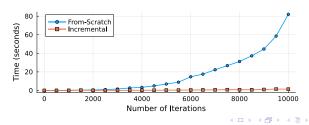
Example Trajectory - Active Localization

 The agent actively reduces uncertainty about its position while avoiding obstacles.



Effect of Incremental Reward Computation

- We compare ρ POMCPOW with and without incremental reward updates on the Light-Dark domain.
- Both variants use the same random seed to ensure identical search tree expansion.
- Result: Full recomputation becomes increasingly expensive as planning progresses.
- Incremental updates significantly reduce planning time essential for ρ POMCPOW to be applicable in real-time scenarios.



Conclusions

- We introduced ρ **POMCPOW** an anytime, online tree search algorithm for solving ρ POMDPs in continuous spaces.
- Our contributions include:
 - Incremental LVU for accurate and efficient value estimation.
 - Anytime belief refinement with theoretical guarantees on belief improvement.
 - Incremental reward computation, enabling scalable use of belief-dependent rewards.
- Empirical results demonstrate improved solution quality and planning efficiency over state-of-the-art methods.
- Limitations: convergence remains an open question; belief-dependent reward computation is still costly.

Questions?





Adaptive information belief space planning.

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