Causal Belief Decomposition for Planning with Sensing: Completeness Results and Practical Approximation

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Abstract
Belief tracking is a basic problem in planning with sensing. While the problem is intractable, it has been recently shown that for deterministic and non-deterministic systems expressed in compact form, it can be done in time and space that are exponential in the problem width. The width measures the maximum number of state variables that are all relevant to a given precondition or goal. In this work, we extend this result both theoretically and practically. First, we introduce an alternative decomposition scheme and algorithm with the same time complexity but different completeness guarantees, whose space complexity is much smaller: exponential in the causal width of the problem that measures the number of state variables that are causally relevant to a given precondition, goal, or observable. Second, we introduce a fast, meaningful, and powerful approximation that trades completeness by speed, and is both time and space exponential in the problem causal width. It is then shown empirically that the algorithm combined with simple heuristics yields state-of-the-art real-time performance in domains with high widths but low causal widths such as Minesweeper, Battleship, and Wumpus.

1 Introduction
Planning with sensing is a search problem in belief space that involves two tasks: keeping track of beliefs and selecting the action to do next. In this paper, we consider the first task in a logical, non-probabilistic setting, where beliefs stand for sets of states. While belief tracking for problems expressed in compact form is computationally intractable, it has been recently shown that for deterministic problems, the problem can be solved in time and space that are exponential in a problem width parameter that in many of the existing benchmarks is bounded and small [Palacios and Geffner, 2009; Albore et al., 2009]. The same result has been extended to non-deterministic problems where the task of keeping track of global beliefs is replaced by the task of keeping track of local beliefs for each precondition and goal variable, each of which involves the variables that are relevant to $X$. The width $w(X)$ of a variable $X$ is the number of variables that are relevant to $X$, and the width of the problem, $w(P)$, is the maximum number of variables that are all relevant to a precondition or goal variable. The algorithm that tracks beliefs in time and space that are exponential in the problem width is called factored belief tracking [Bonet and Geffner, 2012].

A limitation of these accounts is that many meaningful domains have large, unbounded widths. In this work, we aim to extend these results so that such problems can be handled effectively. For this, we introduce an alternative decomposition scheme and belief tracking algorithm with the same time complexity as factored belief tracking but whose space complexity is often much smaller: exponential in the causal width of the problem. The causal width measures the number of state variables that are all causally relevant to a given precondition, goal, or observable. We also determine the conditions under which the new belief tracking scheme is complete, and use the new decomposition to define an incomplete but meaningful and powerful approximation algorithm that is practical enough, as it is both time and space exponential in the problem causal width.

The paper is organised as follows. After reviewing the basic model and notions from Bonet and Geffner [2012], we introduce the new notion of causal width, a new decomposition scheme, and the new algorithm. We then test the algorithm experimentally.

2 Planning with Sensing
We review the standard model for planning with sensing, and a language for representing these models in compact form.

2.1 Model
The model for planning with sensing is a simple extension of the model for conformant planning where a goal is to be achieved with certainty in spite of uncertainty in the initial situation or action effects. The model for conformant planning is characterized by a tuple $S = \langle S, S_0, S_G, A, F \rangle$ where $S$ is a finite state space, $S_0$ is a non-empty set of possible initial states, $S_G$ is a non-empty set of goal states, $A$ is a set of actions with $A(s)$ denoting the actions applicable in state $s \in S$, and $F$ is a non-deterministic transition function such that $F(a, s)$ denotes the non-empty set of possible successor states that follow action $a$ in state $s$, $a \in A(s)$. 
Conformant planning can be cast as a path-finding problem over beliefs defined as the sets of states that are deemed possible at any one point [Bonet and Geffner, 2000]. The initial belief $b_0$ is $S_0$, and the belief $b_a$ that results from an action $a$ in a belief state $b$ is:

$$b_a = \{s' \mid \text{there is } s \in b \text{ such that } s' \in F(a, s)\},$$  \hfill (1)

where it is assumed that the action $a$ is applicable at each state $s$ in $b$. Contingent planning or planning with sensing is planning with both uncertainty and feedback. The model for contingent planning is the model for conformant planning extended with a sensor model. A sensor model is a function $O(s, a)$ that maps state-action pairs into observations tokens $o$. The expression $o \in O(s, a)$ means that token $o$ is a possible observation when $s$ is the true state of the system and $a$ is the last action done. Executions in the contingent setting are sequences of action-observation pairs $a_0, o_0, a_1, o_1, \ldots$. If $b = b_i$ is the belief state when the action $a_i$ is applied and $o_i$ is the token that is observed, then the belief $b_{i+1}$ after the action $a = a_i$ is given by Eq. 1, and the belief $b_{i+1} = b_a^o$ that follows from observing the token $o$ is:

$$b_a^o = \{s \mid s \in b_a \text{ and } o \in O(s, o)\}. \quad (2)$$

An execution $a_0, o_0, a_1, o_1, \ldots$ is deemed possible in $P$ if starting from the initial belief $b_0$, each action $a_i$ is applicable at the belief $b_i$ (i.e., $a_i \in A(s)$ for all $s \in b_i$), and $b_{i+1}$ is non-empty. The contingent model is similar to POMDPs but with uncertainty encoded through sets rather than probability distributions.

2.2 Syntax

Syntactically, conformant problems can be expressed in compact form through a set of state variables, which for convenience we assume to be multi-valued. More precisely, a conformant planning problem is a tuple $P = \langle V, I, A, G \rangle$ where $V$ stands for the problem variables $X$, each one with a finite domain $D_X$, $I$ is a set of clauses over the $V$-literals defining the initial situation, $A$ is a set of actions, and $G$ is a set of $V$-literals defining the goal. Every action $a$ has a precondition $Pre(a)$, given by a set of $V$-literals, and a set of conditional effects $C \rightarrow E_1 \ldots E_m$, where $C$ and each $E_i$ is a set (conjunction) of $V$-literals. The conditional effect is non-deterministic if $n > 1$; else it is deterministic. A conformant problem $P = \langle V, I, A, G \rangle$ defines a conformant model $S(P) = \langle S, S_0, S_G, A, F \rangle$, where $S$ is the set of valuations over the variables in $V$, $S_0$ and $S_G$ are the set of valuations that satisfy $I$ and $G$, $A(s)$ is the set of operators whose conditions are true in $s$, and $F(a, s)$ is determined by the conditional effects of $a$ in the standard way.

Contingent problems can be described by extending the syntactic description of conformant problems with a compact encoding of the sensor model. For this, we assume a set $V'$ of observable multi-valued variables $Y$, not necessarily disjoint with the set of state variables $V$ (i.e., some state variables may be observable), and formulas $W_a(Y = y)$ over a subset of state variables, for each action $a$ and each possible value $y$ of each observable variable $Y$. The formula $W_a(Y = y)$ encodes the states over which the observation $Y = y$ is possible when $a$ is the last action. A contingent problem is a tuple $P = \langle V, I, A, G, V', W \rangle$ that defines a contingent model that is given by the conformant model $(S, S_0, S_G, A, F)$ determined by the first four components in $P$, and the sensor model $O(s, a)$ determined by the last two components, where $o \in O(s, a)$ if $o$ is a valuation over the observable variables $Y \subseteq V'$ such that $Y = y$ is true in $o$ only if the formula $W_a(Y = y)$ in $W$ is true in $s$.

For simplicity and without loss of generality, we make three simplifying assumptions [Bonet and Geffner, 2012]; namely, that the initial situation $I$ is given by a set of literals, that non-deterministic conditional effects involve just one variable in their heads, and that every observable variable is relevant to a variable appearing in some precondition or goal. If these assumptions are not true for a problem, they can be enforced by means of simple, equivalence-preserving transformations.\footnote{A longer version of the paper provides the proofs and necessary details.} Extensions of this basic language featuring defined variables and state constraints are discussed below.

3 Belief Tracking for Planning

A real execution is an interleaved sequence of actions and observations $a_0, o_0, a_1, o_1, \ldots$, where $a_i$ is an action from the problem and $o_i$ is a full valuation over the observable variables. We will find it convenient, however, to consider generalized executions $a_0, o_0, a_1, o_1, \ldots$ where the $o_i$’s denote partial valuations, and in particular, observation literals $Y = y$. Any real execution can be expressed as a generalized execution provided that the observation literals that arise from the same (full) observation are separated by dummy NO-OP actions with no effects. The belief tracking for planning problem can then be expressed as follows:

**Definition 1.** The belief tracking for planning (BTP) problem is the problem of determining whether a generalized execution $\tau : a_0, o_0, a_1, o_1, \ldots, a_k, o_k$ is possible for a problem $P$, and whether it achieves the goal.

In other words, for a planner to be complete, it just needs to determine which observations are possible after an execution, which actions are applicable, and whether the goal has been achieved. There is no need, on the other hand, to determine whether an arbitrary formula is true after an execution. This is an important distinction which is not exploited by the baseline algorithm for BTP, which is called flat belief tracking and is the result of the iterative application of Equations 1 and 2. The complexity of flat belief tracking is exponential in the number of state variables $|V|$. Often, however, the value of some variables is not uncertain and such variables do not add up to the complexity of tracking beliefs. We call such variables determined. Formally, a set of state variables $X$ is determined when they are all initially known, they appear in the heads of deterministic effects only, and the variables appearing in the body of such effects, if any, are in the set as well. The set of determined variables for problem $P$ is the maximal set of variables that is determined.

The BTP problem, however, remains intractable in the worst case:

**Theorem 2.** The belief tracking for planning (BTP) problem is NP-hard and coNP-hard.
4 Width and Factored Belief Tracking

Factored belief tracking [Bonet and Geffner, 2012] improves flat belief tracking by focusing on the beliefs that are strictly necessary for solving BTP, and by exploiting the structure of the problem. For this, a variable $X$ is regarded as an immediate cause of a variable $X'$ in a problem $P$, written $X \in Ca(X')$, if $X \neq X'$, and either $X$ occurs in the body $C$ of a conditional effect $C \rightarrow E_1 \cdot \cdot \cdot E_n$ such that $X'$ occurs in a head $E_i$, $1 \leq i \leq n$, or $X$ occurs in a formula $W_a(X' = x')$ for an observable variable $X'$ and value $x' \in D_{X'}$. Causal relevance is the transitive closure of this relation:

Definition 3. $X$ is causally relevant to $X'$ in $P$ if $X = X'$, $X \in Ca(X')$, or $X$ is causally relevant to a variable $Z$ that is causally relevant to $X'$.

In the presence of observations, however, relevance does not flow only causally, but like in Bayesian Networks [Pearl, 1988], it also flows evidently:

Definition 4. $X$ is evidentially relevant to $X'$ in $P$ if $X'$ is causally relevant to $X$ and $X$ is an observable variable.

Relevance is the transitive closure of the causal and evidential relations taken together:

Definition 5. $X$ is relevant to $X'$ if $X$ is causally or evidentially relevant to $X'$, or $X$ is relevant to a variable $Z$ that is relevant to $X'$.

The width of a variable $X$ and the width of the problem are defined in terms of the relevance relation:

Definition 6. The width of a variable $X$, $w(X)$, is the number of state variables that are relevant to $X$ and are not determined. The width of the problem $P$, $w(P)$, is $\max_X w(X)$, where $X$ ranges over the variables that appear in a goal or action precondition.

The result obtained by Bonet and Geffner [2012] is an algorithm that solves the BTP problem in time and space that are exponential in the problem width. For this, factored belief tracking does not track the global belief $b$ over all the problem variables after an execution, but tracks the ‘local beliefs’ $b_X$ over the state variables that are relevant to each variable $X$ appearing in action preconditions or goals. This is sufficient for solving BTP. The local beliefs $b_X$ are defined in turn as the global beliefs that result from an execution over a problem that is like $P$ but with all state variables that are not relevant to $X$, projected away. These projected problems are defined as:

Definition 7. The projection of problem $P = (V, I, A, G, V', W')$ on a subset of state variables $S \subseteq V$ is $P_S = (V_S, I_S, A_S, G_S, V'_S, W'_S)$ where $V_S$ is $S$, $I_S$ and $G_S$ are the initial and goal formulas $I$ and $G$ (logically) projected over the variables in $S$, $A_S$ is $A$ but with preconditions and conditional effects projected over $S$, $V'_S$ is $V'$, and $W_S$ is the set of formulas $W_a(Y = y)$ in $W$ projected over the variables in $S$.

For convenience, the projection $P_S$ of $P$ where $S$ is the set of state variables relevant to $X$ is abbreviated as $P_X$. The projections $P_X$ for variables $X$ appearing in action preconditions or goals ensure three key properties: first, that the real and generalized executions $o_0, o_1, o_1, \ldots$ that are possible in $P$ are possible in $P_X$; second, that belief tracking over the projections $P_X$ is time and space exponential in $w(P)$, and finally, that the beliefs $b_X$ and $b$ that result from such executions over $P_X$ and $P$ are equivalent over the set of variables relevant to $X$. Factored belief tracking is the algorithm that solves the belief tracking problem over $P$ by keeping track of the local beliefs $b_X$ for each precondition and goal variable $X$ using flat belief tracking over each of the projections $P_X$:

Theorem 8 (Bonet and Geffner [2012]). Factored belief tracking solves the belief tracking problem for planning in time and space that are exponential in the problem width.

5 Causal vs. Factored Decompositions

While there are many domains that have a bounded and low width [Palacios and Geffner, 2009; Albore et al., 2009], there are also many meaningful domains that do not. The contribution of this paper is a reformulation of the above results that lead to a fast, meaningful, and powerful approximation belief tracking algorithm that applies effectively to a much larger class of problems. For this, we introduce the idea of decompositions, cast factored belief tracking in terms of one such decomposition, and introduce an alternative decomposition leading to different algorithms:

Definition 9. A decomposition of a problem $P$ is a pair $D = \{T, B\}$, where $T$ is a set of variables $X$ appearing in $P$, called the target variables of the decomposition, and $B$ is the collection of beams $B(X)$ associated with such target variables such that $B(X)$ is a set of state variables from $P$.

A decomposition $D = \{T, B\}$ maps $P$ into a set of subproblems $P_X^D$, one for each variable $X$ in $T$, that correspond to the projections of $P$ over the state variables in the beam $B(X)$. The decomposition that underlies factored belief tracking is:

Definition 10. The factored decomposition $F = \{T_F, B_F\}$ of $P$ is such that $T_F$ stands for the set of variables $X$ appearing in action preconditions or goals, and $B(F)$ is the set of state variables relevant to $X$.

Factored belief tracking is flat belief tracking applied to the subproblems determined by the factored decomposition. The complexity of the algorithm is exponential in the problem width, which bounds the size of the beams in the decomposition. The algorithms that we introduce next are based on a different decomposition:

Definition 11. The causal decomposition $C = \{T_C, B_C\}$ of $P$ is such that $T_C$ stands for the action precondition, goal, and observable variables in $P$, and $B_C(X)$ is the set of state variables that are causally relevant to $X$.

The causal decomposition determines a larger number of subproblems, as subproblems are generated also for the observable variables $X$, but the beams $B_C(X)$ associated with these subproblems are smaller, as they contain only the state.
variables that are causally relevant to \( X \) as opposed to the relevant variables. The causal width of a problem is defined in terms of the largest beam in the causal decomposition:

**Definition 12.** The causal width of a variable \( X \) in a problem \( P, \ \omega_c(X) \), is the number of state variables that are causally relevant to \( X \) and are not determined. The causal width of \( P \) is \( \max X \omega_c(X) \), where \( X \) ranges over the target variables in the causal decomposition of \( P \).

The first and simplest belief tracking algorithm defined over the new causal decomposition is what we call Decoupled Causal Belief Tracking or Decoupled CBT, which runs in time and space that are exponential in the causal width:

**Definition 13.** Decoupled CBT is flat belief tracking applied independently to each of the problems \( P^X_c \) determined by the causal decomposition of \( P \).

Since causal width is never greater than width and is often much smaller, Decoupled CBT will run much faster than factored belief tracking in general. This, however, comes at a price, that we express using relational operators for projection and joins, exploiting that beliefs are tables or relations whose rows are states, and whose columns are variables. The subproblem of \( P \) determined for a target variable \( X \) in the causal decomposition is denoted as \( P^X_c \); i.e., \( P^X_c = P_{BC}(X) \).

**Theorem 14.** Decoupled CBT is sound and runs in time and space that are exponential in the causal width of \( P \).

**Theorem 15.** Decoupled CBT is causally decomposable when for every pair of beams \( B_C(X) \) and \( B_C(X') \) in the causal decomposition, then 1) the variables in the intersection of the two beams are all memory variables, or 2) there is a beam in the decomposition that includes both beams.

**Theorem 16.** CBT is space exponential in the problem causal width, and time exponential in the problem width.

CBT is sound but still not complete. However, the range of problems for which CBT is complete, unlike Decoupled CBT, is large and meaningful enough, and it includes for example the three domains to be considered in the experimental section: Minesweeper, Battleship and Wumpus. We express the completeness conditions for CBT by introducing the notions of memory variables and causally decomposable problems. A state variable \( X \) is a memory variable in a problem \( P \) when the value \( X_k \) of the variable at any time point \( k \) can be determined uniquely from an observation of the value of the variable \( X_i \) at any other time point \( i \), the actions done in the execution, and the initial belief state of the problem. Thus, static variables are memory variables, as much as variables that are determined (Section 3). For the first, \( X_k = X_i \), while for the second, \( X_k \) is determined by the initial belief and the actions before time \( k \). All the variables in permutation domains [Amir and Russell, 2003] are also memory variables.

**Definition 17.** A problem \( P \) is causally decomposable when for every pair of beams \( B_C(X) \) and \( B_C(X') \) in the causal decomposition, then 1) the variables in the intersection of the two beams are all memory variables, or 2) there is a beam in the decomposition that includes both beams.

**Theorem 18.** CBT is always sound and it is complete for causally decomposable problems.

### 7 Approximation: Beam Tracking

The last algorithm, beam tracking is also defined over the new causal decomposition but it is not aimed at being complete but rather efficient and effective. It combines the low complexity of Decoupled CBT, which is time and space exponential in the causal width of the problem, with a form of local consistency that approximates the global consistency enforced in CBT:

**Definition 19.** Beam tracking is the belief tracking algorithm that operates on the causal decomposition \( C = \langle T_C, B_C \rangle \), setting the beliefs \( b^X_0 \) at time 0 over each beam \( B_C(X), X \in T_C \), to the projection of the initial belief over the beam, and setting the successive beliefs \( b^{i+1}_X \) in two steps. First, they are set to \( b_0^a \) for \( b = b^X_0, a = a_i, \) and \( o = o_i \), where \( a_i \) and \( o_i \) are the action and observation at time \( i \) in the execution. Then a local form of consistency is enforced upon these beliefs by means of the following updates until a fixed point is reached:

\[
b^{i+1}_X := \prod_{B_C(X)} (b^{i+1}_X \Join b^{i+1}_Y).
\]

For example, if \( b \) contains the valuations (states) \( X = 1, Y = 1 \) and \( X = 2, Y = 2 \), the projection \( \Pi(X) b \) will contain the valuations \( X = 1 \) and \( X = 2 \). Likewise, if \( b' \) contains \( Y = 1, Z = 1 \) and \( Y = 1, Z = 2 \), the join \( b \Join b' \) will contain \( X = 1, Y = 1, Z = 1 \) and \( X = 1, Y = 2, Z = 2 \).

\[
B_C(X), X \in T_C, \text{ to the projection of the initial belief over the beam, and the successive beliefs } b^{i+1}_X \text{ as:}
\]

\[
b^{i+1}_X = \prod_{B_C(X)} \{ (b^{i+1}_Y)_a : Y \in T_C \text{ and relevant to } X \} \cdot (3)
\]

where \( a = a_i \) and \( o = o_i \) are the action and obs. at time \( i \) in the execution, and \( (b^{i+1}_Y)_a \) is \( b^{i+1}_a \) from Eqs. 1–2 with \( b = b^i_\cdot \).

Progressing and filtering the local beliefs in the causal decomposition is time and space exponential in the problem causal width, but the consistency operation captured by the join-project operation in (3) is time exponential in the number of state variables that are relevant to \( X \). As a result:

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\[
b^{i+1}_X := \prod_{B_C(X)} (b^{i+1}_X \Join b^{i+1}_Y).
\]
The filtering captured by the iterative updates in Eq. 4 defines a form of relational arc consistency [Dechter and Beek, 1997] where equality constraints among beams sharing common variables is enforced in polynomial time and space in the size of the beams. Beam tracking is sound but not complete. In problems that satisfy the conditions in Theorem 18, however, the incompleteness is the sole result of replacing global consistency by local consistency.

8 Extensions

Before considering the experiments, we discuss briefly two simple but useful extensions of the language and the algorithms. The first involves defined variables. A variable $Z$ with domain $D_Z$ can be defined as a function of a subset of state variables in the problem, or as a function of the belief over such variables (e.g., $Z$ true when $X = Y$ is known to be true). Variables defined in this way can then be used in action preconditions or goals, and the immediate causes of such variables are the state variables appearing in its definition. All the results above carry to domains with defined variables once they are added to the set of target variables in the factored and causal decompositions. The second extension is state constraints. In Battleship, for example, they are used to express the conditions under which the neighbor of a cell containing a ship, will contain the same ship. A state constraint represented by a formula $C$ can be encoded by means of a dummy observable variable $Y$ that is always observed to be true, and can be observed to be true only in states where $C$ is true; i.e., $W_a(Y = \text{true}) = C$. For the implementation, however, it pays off to treat such constraints as relations, and to include them in all the ‘joins’ over beliefs that include the variables in $C$. In causal belief tracking, this has no effect on the completeness or complexity of the algorithm, but in beam tracking, changing the update in (4) to

$$b_{i+1}^{X} := \Pi_{B_{i}(X)}(b_{i}^{X} \times b_{i}^{Y} \times C)$$

(5)

where $C$ stands for the state constraints whose variables are included in $B_{C}(X) \cup B_{C}(Y)$, makes local consistency stronger with no effect on the complexity of the algorithm. Moreover, when there is one such pair of beams for every state constraint, the state constraints can increase the causal width of the problem by a constant factor of 2 at most, yet the effective causal width of the problem does not change, as the beams associated with the dummy observables introduced for such constraints can be ignored.

9 Experimental Results

We have tested the beam tracking algorithm over three domains, Battleship, Minesweeper, and Wumpus, in combination with simple heuristics for selecting actions. Belief tracking in these domains is difficult [Kaye, 2000; Scott et al., 2011], and the sizes of the instances considered are much larger than those used in contingent planning. Moreover, some of these domains do not have full contingent solutions. We thus compare our on-line planner that relies on hand-crafted heuristics with two reported solvers that rely on belief tracking algorithms tailored to the domains. We also consider a simpler and fully-solvable version of Wumpus where the comparison with off-line and on-line contingent planners is feasible. The results have been obtained on a Xeon ‘Woodcrest’ 5140 CPU running at 2.33 GHz with 8GB of RAM.

### Battleship

The problem is encoded with 6 variables per cell: $hit_{x,y}$ tells if a torpedo has been fired at the cell, $sz_{x,y}$ is the size of the ship occupying the cell (0 if no such ship), $hz_{x,y}$ encodes if ship is placed horizontally or vertically, $nhits_{x,y}$ is the number of hits for ship at cell, and $ancc_{x,y}$ is the relative position of the ship on the cell. The observable variable is $water_{x,y}$ with sensor model given by $W_{fire(x,y)}(water_{x,y} = \text{true}) = \{sz_{x,y} = 0\}$. In addition, state constraints are used to describe how a ship at a given cell constrains the variables associated with neighboring cells. The goal of the problem is to achieve the equality $nhits_{x,y} = sz_{x,y}$ over the cells that may contain a ship. In this encoding, the causal beams never contain more than 5 variables, even though the problem width is not bounded and grows with the grid dimensions.

Table 1 shows results for two policies: a random policy that fires at any non-fired cell at random, and a greedy policy that fires at the non-fired cell most likely to contain a ship. Approximations of these probabilities are obtained from the beliefs computed by beam tracking. The difference in performance between the two policies shows that the beliefs are very informative. Moreover, for the $10 \times 10$ game, the agent fires $40.0 \pm 6.9$ torpedos on average, matching quite closely the results of Silver and Veness [2010] obtained with a combination of UCT [Kocsis and Szepesvári, 2006] for action selection, and a particle filter [Doucet et al., 2000] tuned to the domain for belief tracking. Their approach involves 65,000 simulations per action and takes in the order of 2 seconds per game, while ours takes 0.096 seconds per game.

### Minesweeper

We consider Minesweeper instances over $m \times n$ grids containing $k$ randomly placed mines. The problem can be described with $3mn$ boolean state variables $mine_{x,y}, open_{x,y}$ and $flagged_{x,y}$ that denote the presence/absence of a mine at cell $(x, y)$ and whether the cell has been opened or flagged, and $mn$ observable variables $obs_{x,y}$ with domain $D = \{0, 1\}$. The problem is encoded with 5 variables: $hit_{x,y}$ tells if a mine has been fired at the cell, $exp_{x,y}$ is the relative position of the mine on the cell, $kind_{x,y}$ tells if an unopened cell has been opened or flagged, and $ancc_{x,y}$ is the relative position of the cell on the grid. The observer variable is $water_{x,y}$ with sensor model given by $W_{flag(x,y)}(water_{x,y} = \text{true}) = \{kind_{x,y} = 0\}$. In addition, state constraints are used to describe how the mine at a given cell constrains the variables associated with neighboring cells. The goal of the problem is to achieve the equality $kind_{x,y} + ancc_{x,y} = 0$ over the cells that may contain a mine. In this encoding, the causal beams never contain more than 5 variables, even though the problem width is not bounded and grows with the grid dimensions.

### Table 1: Battleship. Averages over 10,000 runs. Time is in seconds.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>dim</th>
<th>policy</th>
<th>#ships</th>
<th>#torpedos</th>
<th>avg. time per decision game</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$10 \times 10$ greedy</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40.0 ± 6.9</td>
<td>2.4e-4</td>
<td>9.6e-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$20 \times 20$ greedy</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>163.1 ± 32.1</td>
<td>6.6e-4</td>
<td>1.0e-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$30 \times 30$ greedy</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>389.4 ± 73.4</td>
<td>1.2e-3</td>
<td>4.9e-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$40 \times 40$ greedy</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>723.8 ± 129.2</td>
<td>2.1e-3</td>
<td>1.5e-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$10 \times 10$ random</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>94.2 ± 5.9</td>
<td>5.7e-5</td>
<td>5.3e-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$20 \times 20$ random</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>387.1 ± 13.6</td>
<td>7.4e-5</td>
<td>2.3e-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$30 \times 30$ random</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>879.5 ± 22.3</td>
<td>8.5e-5</td>
<td>7.4e-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$40 \times 40$ random</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1,572.8 ± 31.3</td>
<td>9.5e-5</td>
<td>1.4e-1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*4 A real-time animation for Minesweeper can be found at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=U98ow4n87RA.*

*5 This is a rich encoding that allows to observe when a ship has been fully sunk. In the experiments, this observation was not used in order to compare with the work of Silver and Veness [2010].
of the gold. The observable variables are boolean: glitter the cell. One more hidden state variable stores the position is described with known state variables for the agent’s posi-
m. The time required for selecting actions is likely to be orders-
mines. The authors do not report times, but as in Battleship, 16
returns the minimum cost of a safe path to the nearest cell that
shows, very large instances are solved in real time. Moreover,
ununsolved instances were all proven to be unsolvable using
the information gathered by the agent and a SAT solver.
We also considered a simpler version of Wumpus that has
been used as a benchmark for testing off-line and on-line con-
tingent planners. In this version, there are no pits, the agent
is known to start at the bottom-left corner, the gold is known to be at the opposite corner, and a wumpus is known to be on the cell below or to the left of each diagonal cell, except for the first two cells. The problem has a full contingent solution for grids \( n \times n \) for \( n \geq 3 \). Off-line planners have been shown to scale up to \( n = 7 \) [Albore et al., 2009; To et al., 2011], while on-line planners to \( n = 20 \) [Albore et al., 2009; Brafman and Shani, 2012]. We tried our K-replanner [Bonet and Geffner, 2011] that is domain-independent, relies on a very effective form of belief representation based on literals and invariants, but is however less powerful than beam tracking. The K-replanner manages to scale up to \( n = 40 \). Beam tracking with the heuristic above yields solutions to much larger grids, e.g., \( n > 100 \), in real-time. Unfortunately, since it’s not possible to try the other planners with the same action selection mechanism, it is not possible to say how much of the gap in performance is due to the belief representation, and how much to action selection. It must also be kept in mind that none of the planners handle action non-
determinism which poses no problem for beam tracking.

### 10 Summary

We have introduced a causal decomposition scheme in be-
ief tracking for planning along with a new algorithm, causal
belief tracking, that is provably complete for a broad range of
domains. CBT is time exponential in the problem width, and space exponential in the often much smaller causal width.
We then introduced a second algorithm, beam tracking, as a
meaningful approximation of CBT that is both time and space
exponential in the problem causal width. The empirical re-
sults in Battleship, Minesweeper, and Wumpus, where very
large instances are solved in real-time with a greedy policy
that is defined on top of these beliefs, suggest that the al-
gorithm may be practical enough, managing to track beliefs
effectively and efficiently over large deterministic and non-
deterministic spaces.

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plement graphical interfaces for the three games and James Biagioni for his command-line wumpuslite simulator.
References


