

Safedrive Dreamer: Navigating Safety-Critical Scenarios in the Real-world with World Models

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Abstract

001 *Ensuring safety in dynamic and unpredictable*
002 *environments is a crucial challenge in the rapidly*
003 *evolving field of autonomous driving. In this*
004 *work, we propose the Safedrive Dreamer, a novel*
005 *vision-based navigation framework that integrates*
006 *world models with safety-critical decision ability,*
007 *enabling autonomous vehicles to navigate com-*
008 *plex situations safely in the real world. Our ap-*
009 *proach proactively learns potential dangers and*
010 *plans safer routes, leveraging the predictive capa-*
011 *bilities of world models and significantly reducing*
012 *the reliance on extensive trial-and-error learning*
013 *in the real world. The effectiveness of Safedrive*
014 *Dreamer is validated through a series of experi-*
015 *ments in real-world sim-to-real driving conditions,*
016 *covering a diverse range of safety-critical scenar-*
017 *ios, such as abrupt obstacle avoidance. Our re-*
018 *sults show that Safedrive Dreamer achieves supe-*
019 *rior performance in safety metrics, such as colli-*
020 *sion avoidance and risk minimization, compared*
021 *to other end-to-end solutions. This framework ad-*
022 *vances autonomous driving safety and offers in-*
023 *sights into integrating world models for enhanc-*
024 *ing decision-making in safety-critical applications.*
025 *Safedrive Dreamer paves the way for developing*
026 *more resilient and trustworthy autonomous driving*
027 *systems that are adept at handling the dynamics*
028 *and uncertainties of the real world.*

1. Introduction

029

The advancement of machine learning (ML) in autonomous driving (AD) represents a paradigm shift, offering a nuanced approach to navigating complex, dynamic environments [15] [26]. As a safety-critical application [16] [25], the autonomous driving system faces challenges regarding robustness and safety in the real-world deployment process [28] [2]. Unreliable autonomous driving systems may threaten human life and the surrounding environment [20].

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Direct learning in real-world environments is costly and potentially dangerous [9]. Most of the time, agents are trained within designed simulated environments before being deployed into reality, referred to as "sim-to-real" [14]. The real world is characterized by uncertainties including stochastic interactions with other road users and the possibility of encountering rare weather or lighting conditions [9]. Thus, creating a perfect high-fidelity training environment is computationally costly and impractical [22]. The inevitable discrepancy between simulation and reality leads to the potential degradation of an agent's performance upon real deployment [12] [5], known as the "reality gap" (RG). One solution for bridging the RG is domain randomization [12] [20] [13], which involves exposing extensive training environments with randomized parameters to the agent during the learning stage, enhancing its adaptability to variable real-world conditions after deployment. Although this method usually works well, it lacks a guarantee

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061	of reliability.	
062	While ensuring the transferability of the agent,	106
063	another challenge is to guarantee the safety of the	107
064	agent’s real-world behaviors. In the absence of	108
065	safety constraints, the intermediate policies during	109
066	the training may lead to severe physical damage,	110
067	as data-driven approaches such as the Reinforce-	
068	ment learning (RL) method explore all possible ac-	111
069	tions to derive the optimal policy through trial and	112
070	error [4]. Real-world behavior safety also suffers	113
071	from the inevitability of the reality gap. Some	114
072	rare but safety-critical real-world scenarios such as	115
073	abrupt obstacles or actors that are hard to identify	116
074	due to obstructions [25], may not be commonly fea-	117
075	tered in the simulation but still play a crucial role	118
076	in forming the safety metrics [1].	119
077	To tackle these challenges, we introduce	120
078	“ <i>Safedrive Dreamer</i> ”, a framework that integrates	121
079	advanced world models with safety-aware learn-	122
080	ing algorithms to bridge the sim-to-real transi-	123
081	tion (<i>reality gap</i>). Furthermore, this framework	124
082	is validated using a test vehicle in the real world.	125
083	“ <i>Safedrive Dreamer</i> ” aims to make predictions and	126
084	navigate through safety-critical scenarios with un-	127
085	precedented reliability and safety, marking a sig-	128
086	nificant step forward in the quest for autonomous	129
087	driving. Our main contributions are:	130
088	• We integrate world models with safety-critical	
089	decision-making to enhance autonomous driving	131
090	safety and efficiency.	132
091	• We close the reality gap between sim-to-real in	133
092	safety-critical scenarios through our safe sim-to-	134
093	real framework.	135
094	• We demonstrate superior performance in safety	136
095	metrics like collision avoidance and risk mini-	137
096	mization through real-world testing.	138
097	2. Related work	139
098	Generating and testing safety-critical scenar-	140
099	ios is crucial in autonomous driving testing.	141
100	Wang et al. [25] proposed an adversarial frame-	142
101	work designed to generate safety-critical scenar-	143
102	ios for LiDAR-based autonomous driving systems.	144
103	Hanselmann et al. [11] introduce KING, a method	145
104	for generating safety-critical driving scenarios us-	146
105	ing the CARLA simulator. They employ a kine-	147
	matic bicycle model to optimally perturb back-	148
	ground traffic trajectories, enhancing the genera-	149
	tion of challenging scenarios for self-driving sys-	150
	tems. However, they didn’t evaluate the perfor-	151
	mance in a real-world setting.	
	Our framework is closely related to Model-	
	-based Reinforcement Learning (MBRL), which in-	
	-volves learning a system dynamics model from the	
	environment. The accuracy of MBRL heavily de-	
	-pends on the model’s fidelity [18]. While construct-	
	-ing an accurate model presents challenges, compar-	
	-ed to model-free RL approaches, MBRL gener-	
	-ally has a higher sample efficiency and requires	
	-less real data [7], [3], [8], [17], [6]. For exam-	
	-ple, MBRL [4] offers high-probability safety as-	
	-surances of stability by leveraging Lyapunov func-	
	-tions, with regularity assumptions in terms of a	
	-Gaussian process prior. However, constructing a	
	-Lyapunov function is often challenging and in-	
	-volves hand-crafted elements without a universal	
	-principle [8]. Zanon et al. [30] combine RL’s	
	-adaptability with MPC’s ability to enforce safety	
	-and stability constraints. However, linear MPC	
	-might fail to provide satisfactory performance and	
	-safety in systems with strong nonlinearities.	
	Numerous previous studies investigated how to	
	bridge the sim2real gap while providing a way to	
	ensure generalizability. Wang et al. [24] introduced	
	a novel reinforcement learning framework for au-	
	-tonomous driving that combines traditional modu-	
	-lar pipelines with end-to-end approaches. They ad-	
	-dressed key challenges such as effective represen-	
	-tation learning, sim-to-real generalization to com-	
	-plex real-world scenarios, and training cost bal-	
	-ance, followed by validation on a real-world ve-	
	-hicle. Akhauri et al. [1] employ a CNN-LSTM	
	-network that undergoes a two-phase training pro-	
	-cess to improve robustness, capitalize on the invari-	
	-ance of spatio-temporal features across domains	
	and utilizes salient data augmentation to aid tar-	
	-get domain training. A bi-directional domain adap-	
	-tation (BDA) method with high sample efficiency	
	proposed by Truong et al. [23], comprises a real-	
	-to-sim observation adaptation module (OA) and	
	a sim-to-real dynamic adaptation module (DA),	
	bridges the vision domain the dynamic domain	

152 gaps. Yuan et al. [29] introduce a learning-efficient 198
153 DRQfD framework for modeling lane-changing decisions 199
154 within a hierarchical decision-making archi- 200
155 tecture for learning-based autonomous driving 201
156 (HAD). They employ a twin high-fidelity simula- 202
157 tor based on ROS-Gazebo and use a domain ran- 203
158 domization method to bridge the sim-to-real gap. 204
159 Mozifian et al. [19] present an Intervention-Based 205
160 Invariant Transfer Learning (IBIT) approach, merg- 206
161 ing domain randomization with data augmentation, 207
162 which allows the agent to focus on essential visual 208
163 features for task completion, therefore enhances the 209
164 agent’s generalization across real-world scenarios.
165 Although these past studies have improved the gen-
166 eralization performance and quantified generaliz-
167 ability to some extent, they still lack an index to
168 quantify the guaranteed degree of generalization
169 performance. Moreover, in these studies, although
170 the testing unseen scenarios differ from the train-
171 ing scenarios, they are still relatively similar, which
172 means there needs to be more investigation on the
173 safety performance and generalizability for some
174 rare, uncommon scenarios that are even hard to
175 generate in the simulator.

176 Further contributing to this field, Ren et al. [21]
177 employed a two-stage approach where it first
178 constructs a policy distribution through a condi-
179 tional variational autoencoder (cVAE) with expert
180 demonstrations. It then refines a posterior distribu-
181 tion over latent variables in fresh environments, fo-
182 cusing on optimizing a generalization performance
183 bound derived from PAC-Bayes theory. However,
184 to ensure a high guarantee of the generalization per-
185 formance, it relies on the assumption of the same
186 underlying distributions between training and novel
187 environments, which is challenging to satisfy in a
188 sim-to-real process. Moreover, it also needs proof
189 of robustness in safety-critical scenarios.

190 In summary, although novel frameworks prop-
191 osed in past research have bridged the gap
192 between simulation and reality (sim2real) and
193 achieved excellent generalization performance
194 compared to their baselines, these studies did not
195 delve deeply into sim-to-real transfer in uncom-
196 mon, safety-critical scenarios. Additionally, sev-
197 eral studies among the related work still needed to

be validated in real-world environments. The in-
sights gained from these previous studies have been
organized into a table, which intuitively compares
their sample efficiency (measured by training sam-
ple size), the deployment process of experimental
validation (sim2sim: trained in a simulated envi-
ronment and then deployed to another unseen sim-
ulated environment; sim2real: trained in a simu-
lated environment and then deployed to an unseen
real environment), the specific training task, and
whether there is a way to quantify the guaranteed
of generalization performance.

3. Method 210

We propose the Safedrive Dreamer framework 211
which integrates world models with safety-aware 212
learning to address the challenges of autonomous 213
driving in safety-critical scenarios. At its core, the 214
framework adapts the concept of Safe Reinforce- 215
ment Learning (SafeRL) through a Constrained 216
Markov Decision Process (CMDP) setup, enabling 217
the autonomous system to learn policies that maxi- 218
mize safety and performance simultaneously. 219

Safedrive Dreamer leverages a world model to 220
simulate future states and actions, allowing the au- 221
tonomous agent to anticipate and navigate through 222
complex driving scenarios safely. The world model 223
is trained on data collected from both real-world 224
driving and high-fidelity simulations, ensuring a 225
comprehensive understanding of diverse driving 226
conditions. This model facilitates the agent’s abil- 227
ity to predict outcomes of actions before execution, 228
crucial for making informed decisions in dynamic 229
environments. 230

$$z_{t+1}, r_{t+1}, c_{t+1} = \text{WorldModel}(s_t, a_t) \quad (1) \quad 231$$

where z_{t+1} is the predicted next state, r_{t+1} the an- 232
ticipated reward, and c_{t+1} the potential cost or risk 233
associated with action a_t from state s_t . 234

The world model on which Safedrive Dreamer 235
is based is depicted in Fig. 1. In this world model, 236
the input is defined as the content stored in the Re- 237
play Buffer. The use of the Replay Buffer facilitates 238
the removal of correlations among data, thereby en- 239
hancing the diversity of the samples. The input data 240

Table 1. Wang et al. [24] considered some rare scenarios, such as dense pedestrian flow and high beam lighting conditions during testing but did not investigate the model’s performance in more safety-critical environments. Ren et al. [21], during the testing, added an object with a relatively unique geometry. However, the results showed that the trained model could not perfectly complete the task, which means still lacks consideration for such rare scenarios.

Article	Framework	Training sample size	Deployment Type		Training Task	Consideration of Safety-critical/rare scenarios during testing	Quantified guarantee for generalization performance
			sim2sim	sim2real			
Wang et al.	Versatile and efficient autonomous driving framework	●	✓	✓	Autonomous Driving (lane-following, turning, dynamic obstacle avoidance)	●	-
Akhaoui et al.	Spatio-temporal features transfer with salient data augmentation	●	✓	-	Autonomous Driving (Collision Classification, turning)	○	-
Truong et al.	Bi-directional Domain Adaptation (BDA)	●	✓	-	Autonomous Navigation (turning, obstacle avoidance)	○	-
Yuan et al.	Deep Recurrent Q-learning from demonstration (DRQID)	○	-	✓	Autonomous Driving (Car-following, Lane changing)	○	-
Mozifian et al.	Intervention-based Invariant Transfer learning (IBIT)	-	✓	✓	Robotic Manipulation (grasping objects)	○	-
Ren et al.	Two-tier training pipeline with PAC-Bayes Control	○	-	✓	Robotic Manipulation (grasping objects, pushing objects, navigation)	●	✓

○ - total training samples smaller than 3000 samples, or 2 hours
 ● - total training samples greater than 5000 samples, or 7 hours
 ● - in between

○ - doesn't consider effects of special/rare/safety-critical scenarios
 ● - consider effects of special/rare/safety-critical scenarios to some extent
 ● - fully consider effects of special/rare/safety-critical scenarios

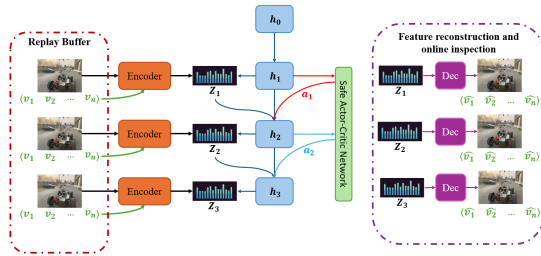


Figure 1. The architecture of Safedrive Dreamer’s World Model consists of two main components: On the left-hand side, there is the Replay Buffer, responsible for processing input data and facilitating learning through the policy network and value network trained within Dreamer. On the right-hand side, there is the feature reconstruction and online observation area. Although this section does not directly participate in the decision-making process, the feedback it provides is crucial for model evaluation and performance calibration.

241 includes not only RGB images but also additional
 242 modal information, Such as vehicle speed information,
 243 radar, and simulated imagery. These high-dimensional
 244 sensory inputs are processed by an encoder, which then
 245 transforms them into discrete, low-dimensional state
 246 variables. These discrete,

low-dimensional state variables are combined with
 information h_t from the hidden layer to obtain the
 latent state z_t . The hidden layer’s h_t encompasses
 all prior observations and actions up to the current
 timestep (next state, reward, cost, etc.), enabling
 Safedrive Dreamer to make decisions based on the
 entire sequence of observations.

Model updating for the prediction of the current
 action constitutes a key emphasis within the
 Safedrive Dreamer algorithm. The hidden layer
 state h_t captures all antecedent observations and
 actions, which, combined with the latent state z_{t-1} ,
 facilitate the forecasting of future actions and states
 within the latent space. Prognostications are con-
 ducted via the Safe Actor-Critic Network, which
 extrapolates not just the ensuing latent state but also
 prospective rewards, costs, and additional salient
 information. These ”imagined” results are inter-
 nally construed without direct engagement with the
 tangible environment, thus empowering the model
 to internally evaluate potential outcomes of dis-
 parate behaviors prior to actual implementation.
 This modality mitigates the exigency for empirical
 exploration in volatile environments, thereby ame-
 liorating the security and efficacy of the learning

272 trajectory.

We define ψ as parameters of Safedrive Dreamer that are continuously adjusted during the optimization process to better predict state transitions and rewards. Within the Safedrive Dreamer framework, the update of world model parameters is governed by a loss function as defined below (equation 2), which synthesizes regularization loss, future prediction loss, observation loss, reward loss, and cost loss. In addition, to bolster the model’s exploratory capabilities, an entropy loss is introduced. These collective loss components guide the adjustment of model parameters towards minimizing predictive errors and enhancing behavioral diversity ([10]). The $sg(*)$ represents the gradient stopping operation, employed to regulate or stabilize the learning process.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(\psi) = & \sum_{t=1}^T \alpha_1 KL(z_t || sg(\hat{z}_t)) + \alpha_2 KL(sg(z_t) || \xi) \\ & - \beta_1 \ln O_\psi(o_t | s_t) - \beta_2 \ln R_\psi(r_t | s_t) \\ & - \beta_3 \ln C_\psi(c_t | s_t) + \xi H(\pi_\psi(\cdot | s_t)) \end{aligned}$$

273 Additionally, the latent state z_t can be recon-
274 structed into RGB images via the decoder, allowing
275 the model to evaluate the quality of its state repre-
276 sentation and predictions. By comparing the output
277 of the decoder with actual observations, an error
278 signal can be generated to guide the learning pro-
279 cess of the model, and the accuracy of the model’s
280 predictions regarding obstacles or traffic conditions
281 on the road can be visually inspected through on-
282 line observation.

283 4. World Model-based Safe RL and Sim- 284 to-Real Transition

285 In the framework of Constrained Markov Deci-
286 sion Processes (CMDP), we seek an optimal policy
287 π' that maximizes expected return and satisfies pre-
288 defined constraints. This is expressed as:

$$289 \pi' = \arg \max_{\pi_\theta \in \Pi_C} J^r(\pi_\theta), \quad (3)$$

290 where $J^r(\pi_\theta)$ is the return function under policy
291 π_θ , and Π_C represents the policy space meeting all
292 constraints.

We extend the model-based transition probability P to $P_{WorldModel}$, enabling simulation of actions’ outcomes through the world model to optimize policy while managing risks.

5. Experimental Setup and Results

In our study, a comprehensive series of experiments were conducted within simulation environments crafted to replicate the driving conditions of the real world, encompassing urban traffic flows, highway travel, and scenarios involving pedestrians and cyclists. We evaluated the performance of Safedrive Dreamer against benchmark methods in terms of safety metrics, such as the number of safety incidents, and performance metrics, like average travel time. Likewise, Safedrive Dreamer was deployed on the Pix-Hooke platform and subjected to a variety of challenges in the real world through a series of meticulously designed experiments.

5.1. Experiment setup

Hardware Setup: The hardware utilized in this study is built on the PIX-Hooke open-source autonomous driving development platform, which integrates perception, decision-making, and control into a single system. The test vehicle is powered by a 72-volt lead-acid battery and equipped with high-precision steering, braking, and propulsion systems. Moreover, the PIX-Hooke platform operates on the Ubuntu 18.04 operating system and is equipped with a Core I7-8700 processor and an NVIDIA RTX2080 GPU, providing substantial computational power for autonomous driving tasks. The platform is also equipped with various perception hardware, including LiDAR and RGB cameras, as shown in Fig. 2.

Evaluation Metrics: To thoroughly evaluate the performance of the Safedrive Dreamer algorithm across various scenarios, the defined evaluation metrics are as follows:

- **Meters Per Intervention (MPI, m):** This metric measures the distance traveled between interventions. For example, if the vehicle travels 200 meters before an intervention is needed, the MPI is

- 336 200. A higher MPI value indicates better performance, as it signifies fewer interventions.
- 337
- 338 • Travel Time (TT, s): The total time taken to travel from the start point to the endpoint. This metric helps evaluate the efficiency of the autonomous vehicle; shorter travel times indicate higher efficiency.
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- 343 • Success Rate (SR, %): The percentage of the journey completed successfully without any interventions before the first one occurs. A higher SR indicates that the vehicle can navigate longer distances independently, which is a sign of better performance.
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- 349 • Standard Deviation of Speed (Std[v], m/s): This represents the consistency in speed variation and is related to the longitudinal smoothness of the travel trajectory. A lower standard deviation indicates a smoother driving experience.
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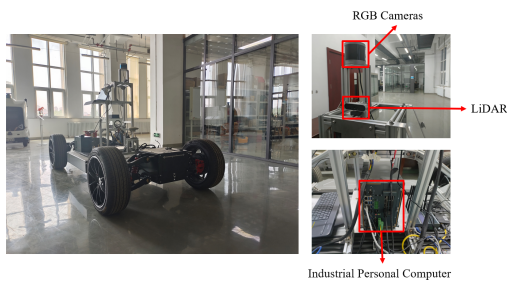


Figure 2. Pix-Hooke hardware description.

354 5.2. Real-world physical scenarios test

355 **Experiment Description:** To evaluate the performance of Safedrive Dreamer in real-world physical environments, we established a series of test environments based on actual vehicular scenarios.

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The complexities of these environments are diverse, encompassing interactions with external

agents of varying scales. Specifically, we designed a variety of agent quantities and condition combinations within these environments and progressively demonstrated how the Safedrive Dreamer’s capability to understand the environment evolves with increasing training durations.

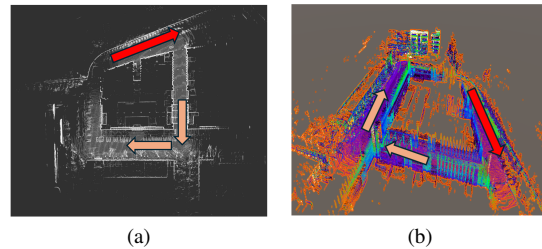


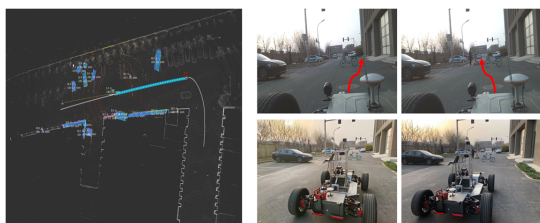
Figure 3. LiDAR scanning is utilized for the visualization of real physical scenarios, with red arrows indicating the driving trajectories in simple vehicle scenes, and pale orange arrows depicting the trajectories in more complex scenarios.

Progressive Scenario Analysis: In setting up the environment for scenarios and scaling interactions with external agents, we selected five typical scenarios to analyze and validate the evolution of Safedrive Dreamer’s interactive capabilities with the environment and agents at different stages. As depicted in Fig. 4, the design of the scenarios and interactions was progressively developed.

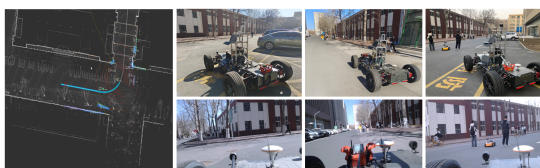
During the scenario construction process, we implemented a progressively increasing difficulty design strategy, akin to the “level-by-level challenge” mode found in games. Within the Bridge environment, we initially collected a set of data based on the Carla platform, covering:

- basic simple straight-line driving scenarios.
- more complex scenarios combining straight roads and curves.

This collected data was used for preliminary training in Safedrive Dreamer to ensure that the world model-based agent could initially adapt to and understand the traffic environment. Subsequently, the training results obtained in Bridge were transferred to real-vehicle environments for validation and application. Given the relatively limited training data from Carla, we had to continue more in-depth train-



(a) Simple scenarios, from left to right, the sequence displays the LiDAR path, a straight driving scenario with only a single simple static obstacle, and a straight driving scenario that includes a manually operated small remote-controlled vehicle in addition to the static obstacle.



(b) Complex scenarios, from left to right, the sequence displays the LiDAR path, a curve and straight path scene with fewer pedestrians, a curve and straight path scene with more pedestrians, and a curve and straight path scene incorporating both dynamic obstacles and pedestrians.

Figure 4. Experiment scenarios for Safedrive Dreamer performance evaluation



Figure 5. We present the curve showing the variation of the average reward of Safedreamer over time during training. On this curve, the actual reward at several specific time points is recorded. Concurrently, the vehicle states corresponding to these time points are displayed and illustrated through images A to D. For instance, during the process of generalizing the vehicle to real-world scenarios for learning, there was an increase in the reward curve, indicating an action to avoid obstacles. However, a collision still occurred, leading to a subsequent decrease in reward. This collision is represented on the reward curve by dashed line A, with the corresponding state time point documented.

399 ing in the real-vehicle environment.

400 As shown in Fig. 5, in the real-vehicle training
401 phase, following the design strategy previously
402 described, we placed the vehicle in a straight-line
403 driving scenario with a simple static obstacle. Man-
404 ual interventions were made to address unsafe be-
405 haviors as the vehicle learned the forward progres-
406 sion strategy, with the scenario being reset multi-
407 ple times for enhanced learning. Once the vehi-
408 cle mastered the simple static obstacle scenario, we
409 increased the number of interactive agents within
410 the scene, introducing additional challenges to the
411 training process.

412 After the vehicle had mastered specific strate-
413 gies within the simple static obstacle environment
414 and demonstrated robustness in interactions with
415 agents, we generalized its capabilities to the more
416 complex scenarios of turns and straight lines that
417 had been defined in both the Bridge and Real en-
418 vironments. This process mirrored the learning ap-

proach in simpler scenarios, where the number of
interactive agents was incrementally increased.

5.3. Comparison with Baseline Model

In the comparison with the baseline model, we
conducted analyses against advanced safety mod-
els and the World Model to demonstrate the per-
formance advantages of our model. Specifically,
in Table 1, we present the results of our perfor-
mance comparison between our model and the
Daydreamer model, as well as the Efficient Rein-
forcement Learning Framework for Autonomous
Driving. This comparison serves to illustrate the
superior performance of our model and underscores
its potential in the realm of autonomous driving.

The Dreamer algorithm[27]: by planning within
a learned world model, effectively reduces trial and
error and has demonstrated superior performance
to pure reinforcement learning in video games. Ex-
periments have shown that Dreamer can rapidly
adapt to environmental changes and accomplish

Table 2. Performance Comparison with Baseline Model

Model	MPI(m)	TT(s)	SR(%)	Std[V]	MPI(m)	TT(s)	SR(%)	Std[V]
Simple scenario					Complex scenario			
DayDreamer	86.1	21	82.3	0.25	55.2	25	59.5	0.44
Efficient-IL	94.2	25	83.7	0.31	71.4	28	66.3	0.38
Efficient-RL	91.6	27	77.5	0.27	62.8	26	64.7	0.36
Our	97.8	21	91.3	0.22	80.7	23	71.8	0.33

439 complex tasks when applied to autonomous vehi-
440 cles.

441 Efficient Reinforcement Learning
442 Framework[24]: A fully functional autonomous
443 vehicle was constructed for real-world validation,
444 exhibiting exceptional generalizability and training
445 efficiency through the integration of end-to-end
446 and modular approaches.

447 In Table 1, we present the performance of the
448 Safedrive Dreamer model across four key metrics
449 and compare it with other models to demonstrate
450 its performance under different evaluation crite-
451 ria. The analysis indicates that, in both simple
452 and complex scenarios, our model achieves the best
453 performance in terms of Meters Per Intervention
454 (MPI), demonstrating its capability to generalize
455 from simple to complex scenarios and exhibiting
456 strong robustness. In terms of travel time, Safedrive
457 Dreamer performs on par with DayDreamer in sim-
458 ple scenarios, reaching the lowest level, surpass-
459 ing all other algorithms in complex environments,
460 and maintaining high efficiency. This underscores
461 the model’s strong adaptability in complex environ-
462 ments.

463 Additionally, regarding the success rate and
464 standard deviation of speed, Although the success
465 rate in complex scenarios is slightly lower than in
466 simple ones, the model still demonstrates stabil-
467 ity and maintains optimal performance, further re-
468 flecting the enhancement in safety brought about
469 by employing safe reinforcement learning in the
470 Safedrive Dreamer.

471 6. Conclusion

472 In this work, we introduced Safedrive Dreamer,

a novel framework integrating world models with
473 safety-critical decision-making for autonomous
474 driving in dynamic and uncertain real-world con-
475 ditions. Our approach enhances autonomous vehi-
476 cles’ ability to navigate safely by proactively learn-
477 ing potential dangers and planning safer routes.
478 Through a comprehensive series of experiments
479 based on sim-to-real scenarios, Safedrive Dreamer
480 demonstrated superior performance in safety met-
481 rics, including collision avoidance and risk mini-
482 mization, outperforming existing end-to-end solu-
483 tions.
484

485 Our findings demonstrate the effectiveness of
486 leveraging predictive world models for decision-
487 making in safety-critical applications. Further-
488 more, the transition from simulation-based train-
489 ing to real-world deployment highlighted the im-
490 portance of bridging the sim-to-real gap, ensuring
491 the reliability and robustness of autonomous driv-
492 ing systems in handling diverse and unpredictable
493 traffic conditions. However, due to safety concerns,
494 we didn’t evaluate the model in some other more
495 extreme scenarios such as high speed, congested
496 intersections, and multi-vehicle collaboration sce-
497 narios. We will add more baselines and compare
498 them in more extreme scenarios.

499 In conclusion, Safedrive Dreamer shows in-
500 sights of developing more resilient and trustwor-
501 thy autonomous driving systems that can navigate
502 the complexities and uncertainties of the real world.
503 Future work will focus on extending the framework
504 to incorporate more diverse scenarios and further
505 improving the sim-to-real transferability to ensure
506 even higher levels of safety and efficiency in au-
507 tonomous driving.

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References

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