Belief-State Query Policies for User-Aligned Planning under Partial Observability

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Abstract

Planning in real-world settings often entails addressing partial observability while aligning with users' requirements. We present a novel framework for expressing users' constraints and preferences about agent behavior in a partially observable setting using parameterized belief-state query (BSQ) constraints in the setting of goal-oriented partially observable Markov decision processes (gPOMDPs). We present the first formal analysis of such constraints and prove that while the expected cost of a BSQ constraint is not a convex function w.r.t its parameters, it is piecewise constant and yields an implicit discrete parameter search space that is finite for finite horizons. This theoretical result leads to novel algorithms that optimize gPOMDP agent behavior with guaranteed user alignment. Theoretical analysis proves that our algorithms converge to the optimal user-aligned behavior in the limit. Empirical results show that BSQ constraints provide a computationally feasible approach for user-aligned planning in partially observable settings.

1 Introduction

Users of sequential decision-making (SDM) agents in partially observable settings often have requirements and preferences on expected behavior, ranging from safety concerns to high-level knowledge of task completion requirements. However, users are ill-equipped to specify desired behaviors from such agents. For instance, although reward engineering can often encode fully observable preferences [Devidze et al., 2021, Gupta et al., 2023], it requires significant trial-and-error, and can produce unintended behavior even when done by experts working on simple domains [Booth et al., 2023]. These challenges are compounded in partially observable environments, where the agent will not know the full state on which the users' requirements and preferences are typically defined. For example, defining a reward function on the belief state to align the agent's behavior with the user can result in wireheading [Everitt and Hutter, 2016] (see Sec. 2 for further discussion on related work).

Consider a simplified, minimal example designed to illustrate the key principles (Fig. 1(a)). A robot located on a spaceship experiences a communication error with the ship and needs to decide whether to attempt to repair itself or the ship. Importantly, while a robot error is harder to detect, the user would rather risk repairing the robot than repairing the ship, as each repair risks introducing additional failures. In other words, the user may expect the robot to work with the following goals and preferences: The objective is to fix the communication channel. First, if there is a "high" likelihood that the robot is broken, it should try to repair itself; otherwise, if there is a "high" likelihood that the ship is broken, it should try to repair that. Such preferences go beyond preferences in fully observable settings: they use queries on the current belief state for expressing users' requirements while using the conventional paradigm of stating objectives in terms of the true underlying state. Such a formulation avoids wireheading, allowing users to express their constraints and preferences in partially observable

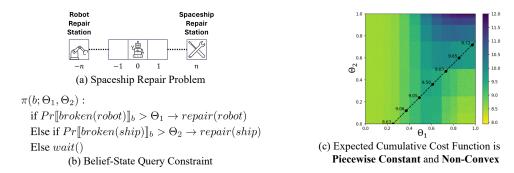


Figure 1: (a) Spaceship Repair running example. (b) BSQ constraint for the user preference from the Introduction. (c) The expected cumulative cost function for (b) with a horizon of 12.

settings. Although such constraints on behavior are intuitive and common, they leave a significant amount of uncertainty to be resolved by the agent: it needs to optimize the threshold values of "high" probability under which each rule would apply while attempting to achieve the objective.

We introduce mathematical and algorithmic foundations for addressing these problems by defining constraints on behaviors in terms of properties of the belief state, expressed through belief-state queries (BSQs). We prove the surprising result that although the space of possible threshold values in preferences such as the one listed above is uncountably infinite, only a finite number of evaluations are required for computing optimal, user-aligned policies for finite-horizon problems. We use this result to develop a probabilistically complete algorithm for computing optimal constrained policies. Our main contributions are:

- 1. A framework for encoding user requirements and preferences over agent behavior in goaloriented partially observable Markov decision processes (Sec. 3).
- 2. Mathematical analysis proving that the expected cost function of a BSQ constraint w.r.t its parameters is piecewise constant but generally non-convex. (Sec. 4).
- 3. A probabilistically complete algorithm for computing optimal user-aligned policies in goal-oriented POMDPs (Sec. 5).
- 4. Empirical evaluation on a diverse set of problems showing both the efficiency of our algorithm and the quality of the computed user-aligned policies. (Sec. 7).

2 Related Work

Planning over preferences has been well studied in fully observable settings [Baier et al., 2007, Aguas et al., 2016]. Voloshin et al. [2022] present an approach for complying with an LTL specification while carrying out reinforcement learning. Other approaches for using LTL specifications use the grounded state to create a reward function to teach reinforcement learning agents [Toro Icarte et al., 2018, Vaezipoor et al., 2021]. These approaches do not extend to partially observable settings as they consider agents that can access the complete state.

In partially observable settings, existing approaches for using domain knowledge and preferences require extensive, error-prone reward design and/or do not guarantee compliance. LTL specifications have been incorporated either by designing a reward function that incentivizes actions more likely to adhere to these specifications [Liu et al., 2021, Tuli et al., 2022] or by imposing a compliance threshold [Ahmadi et al., 2020]. In both approaches, the user calibrates rewards for user alignment with those for objective completion; it is difficult to ensure user alignment. We focus on the problem of guaranteeing user alignment without reward engineering.

Mazzi et al. [2021, 2023] proposed expressing domain control knowledge using belief state probabilities. Mazzi et al. [2021] used expert-provided rule templates and execution traces to construct a shield to prevent irregular actions. Mazzi et al. [2023] used execution traces and domain-specified belief-state queries to learn action preconditions over the belief state. Both approaches use input traces and focus on ensuring a policy is consistent with previously observed behavior. We address the complementary problem of computing user-aligned policies without past traces.

Belief-state queries have been used to solve POMDPs with uniform parameter sampling [Srivastava et al., 2012] but formal analysis, feasibility of optimizing BSQ constraints, and the existence of provably convergent algorithms have remained open as research questions prior to this work.

3 Formal Framework

This section formally defines the BSQ framework for expressing user requirements on the agent's belief. Our framework is built for relational goal-oriented partially observable Markov decision processes.

3.1 Goal-Oriented Partially Observable Markov Decision Process

Partially observable Markov decision processes (POMDPs) constitute a standard mathematical framework for modeling SDM problems in partially observable, stochastic settings [Kaelbling et al., 1998, Smallwood and Sondik, 1973]. State-of-the-art POMDP solvers often rely on approximate online approaches [Silver and Veness, 2010, Somani et al., 2013] where recent work addresses the problem of obtaining performance bounds [Barenboim and Indelman, 2023, Lim et al., 2023].

We use goal-oriented POMDPs (gPOMDPs), where the agent tries to complete one of the tasks/goals. This eliminates the burden of error-prone reward engineering by using a default cost function that associates a constant cost for each timestep before reaching the goal. E.g., the Spaceship Repair problem (Sec. 1) has two objects: the robot and the spaceship. A state is defined using a Boolean function broken(o) representing whether object o needs repair and an integer-valued function rlocation() representing the robot's location. These functions are not observable. The agent has two types of actions: try to repair object o (repair(o)) or wait (wait()). A transition function expresses the distribution of rlocation() depending on the action taken and the robot's previous location. At each timestep, the robot receives a noisy observation $obs_err(o)$ regarding the status of object o. Thus the set of observations can be expressed as $\{obs_err(robot), obs_err(ship)\}$. Due to noisy perception, $obs_error(o)$ may not match broken(o). An observation function denotes the probability of each observation conditioned on the (hidden) current state. E.g., $Pr(obs_err(robot) = 1|broken(robot) = 1) = 0.75$. The goal is to reach the repair station corresponding to the truly broken component. We define gPOMDPs formally as follows.

Definition 1. A goal-oriented partially observable Markov decision process \mathcal{P} is defined as $\langle \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{O}, \mathcal{T}, \Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mathsf{Cost}, H, b_0 \rangle$ where \mathcal{C} is the finite set of constant symbols and \mathcal{F} is the finite set of functions. The set of state variables for \mathcal{F} , \mathcal{V}_F , is defined as all instantiations of functions in \mathcal{F} with objects in \mathcal{O} . The set of states \mathcal{S} is the set of all possible valuations for \mathcal{V}_F ; \mathcal{A} is a finite set of actions, \mathcal{O} is a subset of \mathcal{F} of observation predicates, $\mathcal{T}: \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{S} \to [0,1]$ is the transition function T(s,a,s') = Pr(s'|a,s); $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{S}$ is the set of goal states that are also sink states, $\Omega: \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{O} \to [0,1]$ is the observation function; $\Omega(s,a,o) = Pr(o|s,a)$, $\mathsf{Cost}(s) = \{0 \text{ if } s \in \mathcal{G}; else 1\}$ is the cost function, H is the horizon, and b_0 is the initial belief state. A solution for a gPOMDP is a policy that has a non-zero probability of reaching \mathcal{G} in H-1 timesteps.

3.2 Belief-State Queries and Constraints

Computing a policy for any gPOMDP requires planning around state uncertainty. This is done using the concept of a *belief state*, which is a probability distribution over the currently possible states. Formally, the belief state constitutes a sufficient statistic for observation-action histories [Astrom et al., 1965]. We express user requirements using queries on the current belief state.

For any belief state b, when action a is taken and observation o is observed, the updated belief state is computed using $b'(s') = \alpha\Omega(s',a,o)\sum_s \mathcal{T}(s,a,s')b(s)$ where α is the normalization factor. We refer to this belief propagation as b' = bp(b,a,o). We extend the notation to refer to the sequential application of this equation to arbitrary bounded histories as $bp^*(b_0,a_1,o_1,...,a_n,o_n) = bp(...bp(bp(b_0,a_1,o_1),a_2,o_2)...)$.

For example, the user preference in the Spaceship Repair problem has the expression "a high likelihood that the robot is broken". This can be expressed as a query on a belief state b: $Pr[broken(robot)]_b > \Theta_{rob}$ where Θ_{rob} is a parameter. If rlocation() is fully observable, the expression "the robot location is smaller than Θ_l in a belief state b" can be expressed as $Pr[rlocation() < \Theta_l]_b = 1$. We can combine both queries to express "a high likelihood the robot"

is broken and its location is lower than Θ_l ", as: $Pr[broken(robot)]_b > \Theta_{rob} \wedge Pr[rlocation() < \Theta_l]_b == 1$.

Formally, BSQs use the vocabulary of the underlying gPOMDP. There are two types of queries we can ask: (1) whether formula φ is true with a probability that satisfies a threshold Θ ; (2) whether the fully observable portion of the state satisfies a formula φ containing a threshold Θ . These thresholds represent the parameters of a BSQ constraint. The agent must optimize these parameters to achieve the goal while aligning with the user's requirements. BSQs can be combined using conjunctions or disjunctions to express more complex requirements, which we define as a compound BSQ in Def. 3. We omit subscripts when clear from context.

Definition 2. A belief-state query $\lambda_{\mathcal{P}}(b; \varphi, \circ, \Theta)$, where b is a belief state, φ is a first-order logic formula composed of functions in gPOMDP \mathcal{P} , \circ is any comparison operator, and $\Theta \in \mathbb{R}$ is a parameter, is defined as $\lambda_{\mathcal{P}}(b; \varphi, \circ, \Theta) = Pr[\![\varphi]\!]_b \circ \Theta$.

Definition 3. A compound BSQ $\Psi(b; \overline{\Theta})$, where b is a belief state and $\overline{\Theta} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, is either a conjunction or a disjunction of BSOs that contain n total parameters.

We use BSQs to formally express user requirements of the form discussed in the introduction by mapping BSQs with variable parameters to actions. Fig. 1(b) illustrates this with a BSQ constraint for the Spaceship Repair problem. Formally,

Definition 4. Let b be a belief state and $\overline{\Theta}$ be a tuple of n parameter variables over \mathbb{R} . An n-parameter Belief-State Query constraint $\pi(b,\overline{\Theta})$ is a tuple of rules $\{r_1,...,r_m\}$ where each $r_i=\Psi_i\to a_i$ is composed of a compound BSQ Ψ_i and an action $a_i\in\mathcal{A}$. The set $\{\Psi_1,...,\Psi_m\}$ is mutually exclusive and covers the n-dimensional parameter space \mathbb{R}^n .

In practice, mutually exclusive coverage is easily achieved using an *if... then... else* structure, where each condition includes a conjunction of the negation of preceding conditions and the list of rules includes a terminal *else* with the catchall BSQ *True* (Fig. 1). Any assignment of values $\overline{\vartheta} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ to the parameters $\overline{\Theta}$ of a BSQ constraint produces an executable policy that maps every possible belief state to an action:

Definition 5. A BSQ policy $\pi(b, \overline{\vartheta})$ is a BSQ constraint $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$ with an assignment in \mathbb{R} to each of the n parameters $\overline{\Theta}$.

Let $Pr_t^\pi(\mathcal{G})$ be the probability that an execution of a policy π reaches a state in \mathcal{G} within t timesteps. A BSQ policy $\pi(b,\overline{\vartheta})$ is said to be a solution to a gPOMDP with goal \mathcal{G} and horizon H iff $Pr_{H-1}^{\pi(b,\overline{\vartheta})}(\mathcal{G})>0$. The quality of a BSQ policy is defined as its expected cost; due to the uniform cost function in the definition of gPOMDPs, the expected cost of a BSQ policy is the expected time taken to reach a goal state. Formally, the expected cost of a BSQ policy $\pi(b,\overline{\vartheta})$ is $E_{\pi}(\overline{\vartheta};H)=\sum_{t=1}^{H}t\times Pr_{\mathcal{G},t}[\pi(b,\overline{\Theta})]$, where H is the horizon and $Pr_{\mathcal{G},t}[\pi(b,\overline{\Theta})]$ is the probability of policy $\pi(b,\overline{\vartheta})$ reaching a goal state for the first time at timestep t. Thus, given a gPOMDP \mathcal{P} , with goal \mathcal{G} , and a BSQ constraint $\pi(b,\overline{\Theta})$, the objective is to compute:

$$\overline{\vartheta}^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\overline{\vartheta}} \{ E_{\pi}(\overline{\vartheta}; H) : \operatorname{Pr}_{H-1}^{\pi(b, \overline{\vartheta})}(\mathcal{G}) > 0 \}$$

4 Formal Analysis

Our main theoretical result is that the continuous space of policy parameters is, in fact, partitioned into finitely many constant-valued convex sets. This insight allows the development of scalable algorithms for computing low-cost user-aligned policies. We introduce formal concepts and key steps in proving this result here; complete proofs for all results are available in the appendix. We begin with the notion of strategy trees to conceptualize the search process for BSQ policies.

4.1 Strategy Trees

Every BSQ constraint $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$ and a gPOMDP \mathcal{P} defines a strategy tree (e.g., Fig. 2(a)) that captures the possible decisions at each execution step. Intuitively, the tree starts at a belief node representing

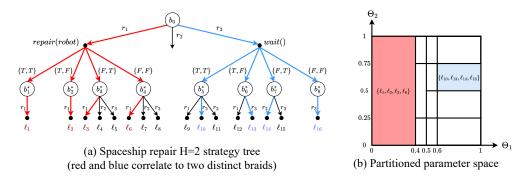


Figure 2: (a) Strategy tree created from BSQ constraint in Fig. 1 and Spaceship Repair gPOMDP for a horizon of 2. (b) Complete partitions of parameter space with partitions from two of the braids highlighted. Error detection sensor accuracy for the robot and ship is 60% and 75%, respectively.

the initial belief state. Outgoing edges from belief nodes represent rule selection in $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$, resulting in action nodes. Outgoing edges from action nodes represent possible observations, leading to belief nodes representing the corresponding updated belief. If the tree is truncated at horizon H, each leaf represents the outcome of a unique trajectory of rules from $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$ and observations.

Each belief node represents a belief state that can be calculated using the rule-observation trajectory leading to that node. A labeling function $l: V_B \cup V_A \to B \cup A$ maps the set of belief nodes V_B to belief states in B and the set of action nodes V_A to actions in A. For ease of notation we define $b_i^* = l(v_i)$ for all belief nodes $v_i \in V_B$ and $a_i^* = l(v_i)$ for all action nodes $v_i \in V_A$.

Definition 6. Let \mathcal{P} be a gPOMDP, $\pi(b,\overline{\Theta})$ be a BSQ constraint for \mathcal{P} , and let b_0 be the initial belief. The strategy tree $\mathcal{T}_{\pi}(b_o)$ is defined as $\mathcal{T}_{\pi}(b_o) = \langle V, E \rangle$ where $V = V_B \cup V_A$ is a set containing belief nodes V_B and action nodes V_A , whereas, $E = E_B \cup E_A$ is a set containing edges from belief nodes to action nodes $(E_b \subseteq V_B \times V_A)$ and edges from action nodes to belief nodes $(E_A \subseteq V_A \times V_B)$. E_B is defined as $\{(v_i, r, v_j) | v_i \in V_B, v_j \in V_A, r \in \pi(b, \overline{\Theta}), \text{ and } \exists \Psi : r = \Psi \to a_j^*\}$. E_a is defined as $\{(v_m, o, v_n) | v_m \in V_A, v_n \in V_B, o \in \mathcal{O}, \exists (v_p, r = \Psi \to a, v_m) \in E_b; b_n^* = bp(b_p^*, a, o)\}$.

Non-convexity of the expected cost function for BSQ constraints $\,$ Each BSQ constraint permits infinitely many BSQ policies, one for each assignment of real values to its parameters. Unfortunately, the expected cost of BSQ constraints is not a convex function of these parameters. Fig. 1(c) shows this with a counterexample using the BSQ constraint from Fig. 1(b), a horizon of 12, and setting the robot's initial distance from each repair station to 5. This plot was constructed by sampling the expected cost for a quarter of a million equally-spaced parameter assignments to the BSQ constraint in Fig. 1(a). $E_{\pi}(\overline{\vartheta};H)$ is clearly not convex: the expected cost along the line $\Theta_2=\Theta_1-0.25$ has two inflection points at $\Theta_1=0.6$ and $\Theta_1=0.8$. This creates two local minima: $\Theta_1\leqslant 0.16$ and $\Theta_1\geqslant 0.83 \land \Theta_2\leqslant 0.1$. Intuitively, this is due to the short horizon, which causes the optimal strategy to be selecting a repair station and traversing to it regardless of the observations. This makes it difficult to compute good BSQ policies using existing solvers. However, every possible BSQ policy can be associated with a set of strategy tree leaves that are reachable under that policy. Thus, for a given horizon, there are only finitely many expected costs for BSQ policies for a given problem.

The main challenge in computing good BSQ policies is that the set of possible BSQ policies with distinct expected costs grows exponentially with the horizon and good BSQ parameters could be distributed arbitrarily in the high-dimensional, continuous space of parameter values. We use strategy trees to define groups of leaves called braids, which we will then use to prove that the space of BSQ policy parameters turns out to be well-structured in terms of the expected cost function.

Braids We refer to the set of all leaves reachable under a policy $\pi(b, \overline{\vartheta})$ as the braid of $\overline{\vartheta}$. Due to the mutual exclusivity of rules for every assignment of parameter values to a BSQ constraint, at most, one outgoing edge can be taken from each belief node (as these correspond to the rules and actions). However, the stochasticity of dynamics and observations allows for multiple outgoing edges to be possible from action nodes. E.g., in the strategy tree for the Spaceship Repair problem (Fig. 2(a)), leaves ℓ_2 and ℓ_{10} cannot both be reachable under a BSQ policy because that would require rules r_1

and r_2 to be satisfied at the same belief. However, both ℓ_1 and ℓ_5 may be reachable under the same BSQ policy since their paths diverge on an action node. Formally,

Definition 7. Let H be the horizon, and let $\pi(b,\overline{\Theta})$ be a BSQ constraint for a gPOMDP \mathcal{P} . The braid of a parameter assignment $\overline{\vartheta}$, $braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta})$, is the set of all leaves in strategy tree $\mathcal{T}_{\pi}(b_0)$ rooted at the initial belief b_0 that can be reached while executing $\pi(b,\overline{\vartheta})$: $braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}) = \{\ell_H : \text{the path to } \ell_H \text{ is } (r_1,o_1,...,r_H,o_H); \forall i \ r_i = \Psi_i \rightarrow a_i, \ b_i = bp^*(b_0,r_1,o_1,...,r_i,o_i) \text{ and } \overline{\vartheta} \text{ satisfies } \Psi_i.$

The unique interval of parameter values where a leaf is reachable can be calculated by taking the intersection of the parameter intervals needed to satisfy each rule on the path to that leaf. This is because for any compound BSQ Ψ , we can compute the unique interval of parameter values $I(\Psi)$ under which b will satisfy $I(\Psi)$ by substituting each BSQ in Ψ with its corresponding inequality:

Lemma 1. Let $\Psi(b; \overline{\Theta})$ be an n-dimensional compound BSQ. There exists a set of intervals $I(\Psi) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ s.t. $\Psi(b; \overline{\Theta})$ evaluates to true iff $\overline{\Theta} \in I(\Psi)$.

We can utilize this result to compute the unique interval of parameter values consistent with a braid by taking the intersection of the intervals of each leaf contained in that braid (Def. 8):

Definition 8. Let $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$ be a BSQ constraint, \mathcal{P} be a gPOMDP, b_0 be the initial belief state, and H be the horizon. The interval of leaf ℓ , $I(\ell)$, is defined as the intersection of intervals $\bigcap_i I(\Psi_i)$ of the conditions of each rule r_i that occurs in the path to that leaf. The interval for a set of leaves L is defined as $I(L) = \bigcap_{\ell \in L} I(\ell_i)$.

Any leaf or braid with an empty parameter interval does not align with the user's requirements. For example, in Fig. 2, note that r_1 is the only rule satisfiable if r_1 is selected from b_0 and the robot is observed to be broken. Using the Fig. 1(b) policy and assuming the sensor accuracy is 60%, picking a rule other than r_1 implies that 50% likelihood was high enough to fix the robot yet 60% was not, which is a contradiction. Removing misaligned leaves and braids prunes the tree.

4.2 BSQ Policies are Piecewise Constant

We now use the concept of braids to prove that the continuous, high-dimensional space of parameter values of a BSQ constraint reduces to a finite set of contiguous, convex partitions with each partition having a constant expected cost. This surprising result implies that although the expected cost of BSQ policies is not a convex function of parameter assignments, optimizing a BSQ constraint requires optimization over a finite set rather than over a continuous space. We first define a notion of similarity over assignments to BSQ constraints that define BSQ policies:

Definition 9. Let $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$ be a BSQ constraint, \mathcal{P} be a gPOMDP, and H be the horizon, and let $\overline{\vartheta}_1, \overline{\vartheta}_2$ be assignments to $\overline{\Theta}$. $\overline{\vartheta}_1$ is said to be similar to $\overline{\vartheta}_2$, $\overline{\vartheta}_1 \equiv_H \overline{\vartheta}_2$, iff $\operatorname{braid}_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1) = \operatorname{braid}_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)$.

It is trivial to show \equiv_H is transitive, symmetric, and reflexive, making it an equivalence relation over \mathbb{R}^n . As such, \equiv_H defines a partition over the same space:

Theorem 1. Let $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$ be a BSQ constraint, \mathcal{P} be a gPOMDP, b_0 be the initial belief state, and H be the horizon. The operator \equiv_H partitions \mathbb{R}^n .

However, this result is not sufficient to define the structure of partitions induced in \mathbb{R}^n , which will be required for an efficient optimization algorithm. Based on Sec. 4.1, we know that leaves whose trajectories diverge due to different rules must not be in the same braid. Furthermore, a belief state can only lead to one set of possible observations for an action regardless of the BSQ policy being followed. Intuitively, this prevents braids from being proper subsets of each other, which implies that the parameter intervals for two braids can never have overlapping parameter intervals. This gives us the desired structure for partitions induced in the space of parameter values for BSQ constraints: there are parameter intervals corresponding to distinct braids in the policy tree. In other words, the set of braids partitions the parameter space into contiguous, high-dimensional intervals. This can be proved formally and stated as follows:

Theorem 2. Let $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$ be a BSQ constraint, b_0 be the initial belief state, and H be the horizon. Each partition ρ created by operator \equiv_H partitioning \mathbb{R}^n is the disjoint intervals, $\rho \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ where $\forall \overline{\vartheta} \in \rho$, $\operatorname{braid}_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}) = L$ where L is a fixed set of leaves.

Since each partition corresponds to a braid and each braid corresponds to a fixed set of leaves, which defines the expected cost for all policies corresponding to that braid, all policies defined by a partition of the parameter space have a constant expected cost. As such, the domain of the expected cost function $E_{\pi}(\overline{\vartheta}; H)$ for gPOMDP \mathcal{P} can be represented as the disjoint intervals of each braid partition. Thus, $E_{\pi}(\overline{\vartheta}; H)$ is piecewise constant. The following result formalizes this.

Theorem 3. Let $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$ be a BSQ constraint, \mathcal{P} be a gPOMDP, b_0 be the initial belief state, and Hbe the horizon. Each partition created by operator \equiv_H partitioning \mathbb{R}^n has a constant expected cost.

In some situations, the braids that partition the parameter space can be calculated in closed form (e.g., see the appendix for partitions for the Spaceship Repair problem). The next section uses the theory developed above to develop a general approach for computing the braids and intervals corresponding to a BSQ constraint, for evaluating the expected cost for each such partition, and for optimizing over these partitions.

Partition Refinement Search

In this section, we present a novel algorithm for optimizing the parameters for a BSQ constraint using the theory of braids developed above. The Partition Refinement Search (PRS) algorithm (Algo. 1) constructs the set of partitions using hierarchical partition selection and refinement, where a partition is selected to be refined, a leaf that can occur in that partition is sampled and evaluated, and the partitions are refined to isolate the interval of the braid corresponding to the sample. It keeps track of the hypothesized optimal partition X_{opt} with X_{opt} being the final result returned after timeout.

PRS constructs the first parameter space interval as the domain of all possible parameter values (line 3). This is set as the initial hypothesized optimal partition (line 4). In each iteration, a partition ρ is selected using exploration-exploitation approaches discussed in Sec. 6 (lines 6). A leaf ℓ is sampled from ρ by uniformly sampling parameter value $\overline{\vartheta}$ from ρ 's parameter intervals and

Algorithm 1 Partition Refinement Search (PRS)

- gPOMDP \mathcal{P} , BSQ constraint 1: Inputs: $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$, horizon H
- 2: Output: Minimum cost partition and its expected cost $\langle \rho_{opt}, \hat{E}[\rho_{opt}] \rangle$
- 3: $\rho_{init} \leftarrow \times_{\Theta \in \overline{\Theta}} \mathcal{D}_{\Theta}$ 4: $X = \{\langle \rho_{init}, \infty \rangle\}, X_{opt} = \langle \rho_{init}, \infty \rangle$ 5: **while** !TimeOut() **do**
- $\langle \rho, \hat{E}[\rho] \rangle \leftarrow SelectPartition(X)$
- $\overline{\vartheta}_s \sim UniformSample(\rho)$ 7:
- $\ell, E_{\ell} \leftarrow Rollout(\mathcal{P}, \pi(b, \overline{\vartheta}_s), H)$
- $X \leftarrow (X \setminus \langle \rho, \hat{E}[\rho] \rangle) \cup \langle \rho \setminus I(\ell), \hat{E}[\rho] \rangle$
- $X \leftarrow X \cup \langle \rho \cap I(\ell), \hat{E}[\rho] \cup E_{\ell} \rangle$ 10:
- $X_{opt} \leftarrow \arg\min \hat{E}[\rho]$ $\langle \rho, \hat{E}[\rho] \rangle \in X$
- 12: end while
- 13: **return** X_{opt}

performing rollouts from the initial belief state to a reachable leaf using the BSQ policy $\pi(b, \overline{\vartheta})$ (lines 7 and 8). The sampled leaf ℓ is used to refine partition ρ using the insight braids cannot overlap (Sec. 4.2). If there exists a subinterval of ρ where ℓ does not occur, a new partition for this subinterval is constructed containing ρ 's previous leaves and expected cost (line 9). The remaining portion of ρ , where ℓ can occur, is used to construct a partition with an updated expected cost representing ρ 's previous leaves and ℓ (line 10). The hypothesized optimal partition is then updated (line 11).

PRS converges to the true optimal BSQ policies in the limit:

Theorem 4. Let $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$ be a BSQ constraint, \mathcal{P} be a gPOMDP, b_0 the initial belief state, and Hbe the horizon. The likelihood of the Partition Refinement Search algorithm returning the optimal parameter interval converges to one in the limit of infinite samples.

Complexity analysis While the theoretical space and time complexity are linear in the number of leaves, due to PRS grouping leaves from the strategy tree (Def. 6), there is good reason to expect better performance in practice. As discussed in Sec. 4.1, strategy trees can get pruned with the removal of branches and leaves that do not align with the user's requirements. For example, in the Spaceship Repair problem using the Fig. 1 BSQ constraint, a third of the possible leaves are pruned at a horizon of two, and the pruning becomes even more significant for longer horizons. Additionally, empirical results suggest that rules earlier in rule-observation trajectories are more important in dictating the partitions. Furthermore, selecting and refining partitions can be performed in parallel, further improving performance.

6 Partition Selection Approaches

We explored multiple partition selection approaches with a multiprocessing version of PRS in line 6. Each approach used the same dynamic exploration rate e_r that diminished over time. Each thread managed a subset of partitions $X' \subseteq X$ and updated a global hypothetical optimal partition. Additionally, new partitions were selected for sampling if they had fewer than five samples. In this paper, we focus on three selection approaches and discuss two others in the Appendix.

Epsilon Greedy (PRS-Epsilon) We explore e_r percent of the time by uniformly sampling $s \sim U_0^1$ and checking if $s \leqslant e_r$. If we are exploring, we uniformly at random select a partition from X'. Otherwise, the partition with minimum expected cost, $\arg\min_{\langle \rho, \hat{E}[\rho] \rangle \in X'} \hat{E}[\rho]$, is selected.

Boltzmann Exploration (PRS-Bolt) Partitions are selected in a weighted random fashion with the probability of selecting partition ρ as $\alpha \times exp(\hat{E}[\rho]/e_r)$ with α being the normalization factor.

Local Thompson Sampling (PRS-Local) Each thread treats the problem as a multi-armed bandit problem where the expected cost for the next sample from each partition is simulated using $\mathcal{N}(\mu_c, \sigma_c \times e_r)$ with μ_c and σ_c being the partition's mean and standard deviation, respectively. The partition with the lowest estimated expected cost is selected.

7 Empirical Results

We created an implementation of PRS and evaluated it on four challenging risk-averse problems. Complete source code is available in the supplementary material. We describe the problems and user preferences here; further details, including BSQ constraint listings, can be found in the Appendix.

Lane merger (LM) In this problem, an autonomous vehicle driving on a two-lane road must switch lanes safely before reaching a lane merger. However, there is currently a car in the other lane that the agent does not know the location or speed of. Switching lanes too close to this car risks a severe accident. The autonomous vehicle has a noisy detection system that returns whether a vehicle is located in certain areas around the car. The user's preference is: If there's a high likelihood of safely switching lanes, do so. If there is a high likelihood of the other car being in close proximity and it is possible to slow down, slow down. Otherwise, keep going.

Spaceship repair (SR) This is a modified version of the running example with BSQ constraint Fig. 1(b). The robots start 7 steps and 5 steps away from the robot and ship repair stations, respectively. Additionally, the robot's sensor is 75% accurate at detecting errors with the robot and only 55% for the ship. With the short horizon H=12, this results in the parameter space being not convex with multiple local minimums with differing expected costs.

Graph rock sample (GRS) We modified the classic RockSample(n, k) problem [Smith and Simmons, 2004] by replacing the grid with a graph with waypoints where some waypoints contain rocks. Additionally, we introduced risk by causing the robot to break beyond repair if it samples a rock not worth sampling. We also categorized the rocks into types, and the rover's goal is to bring a sample of each type to the desired location if a safe rock for that type exists. This goal requires a longer horizon to reach compared to the other problems. The user's preference is: *Evaluating rocks of types not sampled in order* $r_1, ..., r_n$, if the rock has a high likelihood of being safe to sample, go and take a sample of it. Else, if the rock has a high likelihood of being safe to sample, get close enough and scan it. Otherwise, move towards the exit if no rocks are worth sampling or scanning.

Store visit (SV) This problem is based on the partially observable OpenStreetMap problem in Liu et al. [2021]. A robot is located in a city where some locations are unsafe (e.g., construction, traffic), which can terminally damage the robot. The robot is initially uncertain of its location but it can scan its surroundings to determine its general location. The agent traverses the city and can visit the closest building. The goal is to visit a bank and then a store. This problem features a nuanced BSQ constraint: If you are significantly unsure of your current location, scan the area. If you have visited a bank, do the following to visit a store; otherwise, do it to visit a bank. If you are sufficiently sure the current location has the building you are looking for, visit it. Otherwise, move towards where you think that building is while avoiding unsafe locations. If all else fails, scan the current area.

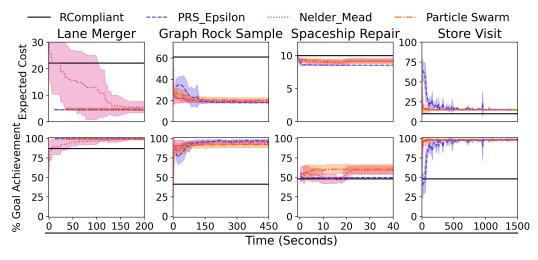


Figure 3: Empirical results evaluating the hypothesized optimal partition performance tracked. Equally spaced samples across PRS evaluation time are taken while a sample is taken each iteration of Nelder-Mead and Particle Swarm. The error displayed is the standard deviation error.

7.1 Baselines

We evaluated PRS against three different types of baselines.

RCompliant Select random parameter values uniformly at random from the parameter space to produce user-aligned policies.

Hyperparamter optimization algorithms To measure the benefits of PRS against existing hyperparameter optimization algorithms, we implemented both *Nelder-Mead* [Nelder and Mead, 1965] and *Particle Swarm* [Kennedy and Eberhart, 1995]. The expected cost of parameter space point $\overline{\vartheta}$, for BSQ constraint π , was computed by averaging 1,000 parallel runs of the policy $\pi(b; \overline{\vartheta})$. For Nelder-Mead optimization, we used a simplex that had vertices numbering one more than the number of parameters in the BSQ constraint being optimized. To prevent poor initialization, the first hundred points are randomly sampled to construct the initial simplex using the best-performing points that are far enough apart. For Particle Swarm optimization, 10 particles were used with the location and momentum of each particle clipped to the search space.

Unconstrained POMDP solvers To measure the differences between BSQ policies and unconstrained POMDP solvers, we implemented variations of our problems into POMDPX and solved them with DESPOT [Somani et al., 2013] and SARSOP [Kurniawati et al., 2009] for 1,000 evaluation runs. To measure whether an action-observation trajectory produced with these solvers aligns with the user's requirements, we check if there exist parameter values $\overline{\vartheta}$ where policy $\pi(b; \overline{\vartheta})$ could produce that trajectory. We use this to evaluate the solutions produced.

7.2 Analysis of Results

For each problem, we evaluated each baseline and PRS variant ten times. For Spaceship Repair, the horizon was 12, with PRS having a 3-minute timeout. For the other problems, the horizon was 100 with a 25-minute timeout. The timeout for Nelder-Mead and Particle Swarm was one hour. Note that the highest expected cost is equal to the horizon due to the default cost function. The performance of each PRS partition selection approach can be found in Figure 4 and the quality of solutions over time compared to the baselines are shown in Figure 3. Additional figures can be found in the Appendix.

Partition selection approach evaluations PRS partition selection approaches converged to a similar quality policy. The only difference was the time taken with approaches that did not rely on the standard deviation converging faster due to there being a lower standard deviation near the optimal solution, causing selection approaches that used the standard deviation to explore the wrong partition. We use PRS-Epsilon as a representative when comparing against the other baselines.

PRS solution quality PRS produced a higher-quality policy compared to the ones produced by RCompliant. For Spaceship Repair, the simplest problem solved on the shortest horizon, policies produced by PRS-Epsilon had a 17.05% lower expected cost and 3.41% higher goal achievement rate. For the other problems, policies produced by RCompliant had more than twice the expected cost and achieved only half the success rate on both Graph Rock Sample and Store Visit. These results demonstrate that optimizing BSQ parameter values has a significant impact on the performance of user-aligned policies.

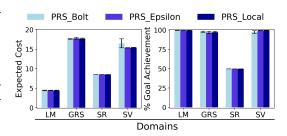


Figure 4: Results for PRS with different partition selection approaches from Section 6.

Hyperparameter optimization evaluation Compared to traditional hyperparameter optimization algorithms, PRS always found the user-aligned policy with the lowest expected cost with little performance deviation. This is due to Nelder-Mead and Particle Swarm struggling to optimize a nonconvex piecewise-constant function using noisy data, resulting in known problems with local-search algorithms: problems of getting stuck in sub-optimal local minima and exploring the incorrect space. Additionally, PRS converged first since it is more sample-efficient. It is computationally expensive to update the belief state, resulting in poor-quality solutions being more expensive to evaluate due to taking longer to reach the goal. PRS's exploration only requires a couple of evaluations before spending the computational resources on more promising areas. On the other hand, Nelder-Mead and Particle Swarm require accurate expected costs to figure out where to explore.

An interesting result is that, in Spaceship Repair, solutions found by Nelder-Mead and Particle Swarm both had a 7.73% higher expected cost and 18.31% higher goal achievement rate than the PRS-Epsilon solutions. There is likely a high negative correlation between the expected cost and goal achievement rate. PRS is better at optimizing the stated objective of minimizing the expected cost.

Unconstrained solver evaluation Without the constraints and preferences encoded in the BSQ constraints, DESPOT and SARSOP struggled with this set of problems. SARSOP failed to converge to a policy within two days due to the long evaluation horizon. DESPOT could not run on Lane Merger, which had the largest state space and branching factor. DESPOT could only achieve the goal 0.5% of the time on Graph Rock Sample. DESPOT achieved a lower expected cost of 20.0% and 13.3% on variations of Spaceship Repair and Store Visit, respectively. However, DESPOT's policy aligned with the user's requirements on Store Visit and only 7.3% of the time on Spaceship Repair. This indicates that the BSQ framework offers a new approach for expressing both domain knowledge and user requirements.

8 Conclusion

We presented the BSQ policy framework for expressing users' requirements over the belief state in partially observable settings for computing user-aligned agent behavior. We performed a formal analysis of these policies, proving that the parameter value space introduced in the BSQ constraints can be partitioned, resulting in BSQ constraints being optimizable through a hierarchical optimization paradigm. We introduced the probabilistically complete Partition Refinement Search algorithm to perform this optimization. Our empirical results show that it converges to the optimal user-aligned policy quicker and more consistently than existing algorithms. Results indicate that BSQ constraints provide a promising approach for solving diverse real-world problems requiring user alignment.

Limitations and future work There are many interesting directions for future work based on the current BSQ policy framework. BSQ representations can be made more expressive by allowing deterministic functions, which would not compromise the presented theoretical results. Furthermore, there exists a natural extension of this work into finite memory controllers that allows temporally extended requirements to be encoded with the same theoretical results. Relaxing the constraints on mapping each belief state to a single action would expand the usability. For more complex problems, a belief-state approximation approach would be required, but the underlying strategy tree discussed in this work would remain mostly unchanged. Another interesting research direction is to develop methods that help users express their requirements in the BSQ framework.

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A Appendix Organization

B Lemmas and Proofs From Formal Analysis [Section 3]

In this section, we provide the formal proofs for Lemma 1, Theorem 1, Theorem 2, and Theorem 3 from Section 3, where we proved that braids partition the parameter space resulting in the expected cost function of a BSQ constraint w.r.t its parameter being piecewise constant. We define and prove Lemmas 2, 3, 4, and 5 in this section for building these proofs.

First, we prove that the similarity operator \equiv_H for braids (Def. 9) has the properties of being reflexive, symmetric, and transitive. As such, \equiv_H defines an equivalence relation over the n-dimensional parameter space \mathbb{R}^n , meaning it defines a partition over \mathbb{R}^n .

Theorem 1. Let $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$ be a BSQ constraint, \mathcal{P} be a gPOMDP, b_0 be the initial belief state, and H be the horizon. The operator \equiv_H partitions \mathbb{R}^n .

Proof. Let $\overline{\vartheta} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be n-parameter values and H be the horizon. By way of contradiction, let's assume that $\overline{\vartheta}$ is not similar to itself, $\overline{\vartheta} \not\equiv \overline{\vartheta}$. This would mean that $braid_{H,1}(\overline{\vartheta}) \not\equiv braid_{H,2}(\overline{\vartheta})$. As such, there must exist a leaf ℓ , which is in one but not the other braid. Note that ℓ represents a unique rule-observation trajectory $\{r_1,o_1,...,r_H,o_H\}$. Additionally, for ℓ to be in one of these braids it would need to be true that $\forall i,r_i.\Psi(b_i^*,\overline{\vartheta})$ must be satisfied, where $b_i^*=bp^*(b_0,r_1,o_1,...,r_i,o_i)$ (Def. 7). However, note that this would hold true for the other braid as well, making it a contradiction for ℓ to be exclusive in either $braid_{H,1}(\overline{\vartheta})$ or $braid_{H,2}(\overline{\vartheta})$. As such, $\overline{\vartheta}$ must be similar to itself meaning the similarity property holds.

Let $\overline{\vartheta}_1, \overline{\vartheta}_2, \overline{\vartheta}_3 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ where $\overline{\vartheta}_1 \equiv_H \overline{\vartheta}_2$ and $\overline{\vartheta}_2 \equiv_H \overline{\vartheta}_3$. Therefore, $braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1) = braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)$ and $braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2) = braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_3)$ (Def. 7). Using substitution, $braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1) = braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_3)$ meaning $\overline{\vartheta}_1 \equiv_H \overline{\vartheta}_3$. As such, the transitive property holds.

Due to set equality being symmetric, the symmetric property holds. Thus, the operator \equiv_H is an equivalence relation over \mathbb{R}^n causing \equiv_H to define a partition over \mathbb{R}^n .

For compound BSQs Ψ , we now prove that there exist unique intervals of the parameter space where Ψ is satisfied that we can calculate.

Lemma 1. Let $\Psi(b; \overline{\Theta})$ be an n-dimensional compound BSQ. There exists a set of intervals $I(\Psi) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ s.t. $\Psi(b; \overline{\Theta})$ evaluates to true iff $\overline{\Theta} \in I(\Psi)$.

Proof. Let \mathcal{P} be a gPOMDP, b be a belief state, $\Theta \in \mathbb{R}$ be a parameter, \circ be a comparison operator, and φ be a first-order logic formula composed of functions from \mathcal{P} . There exist two possible forms for a BSQ (Def. 2). Let $\lambda_p(b; \varphi, \circ, \Theta) = Pr[\![\varphi]\!]_b \circ \Theta$. Note that $Pr[\![\varphi]\!]_b$ evaluates into the probability of φ being satisfied in a belief state b. Therefore, we can simplify $\lambda_p(b; \varphi, \circ, \Theta)$ to $p \circ \Theta$ where $p \in [0, 1]$, meaning this type of BSQ simplifies to an inequality. Now, let $\lambda_p(b; \varphi, \circ, \Theta) = Pr[\![\varphi]\!]_b == 1$ where φ is composed of Θ and fully observable functions in \mathcal{P} . We assume that Θ cannot be used as a function parameter, meaning that it must be an operand of a relational operator in φ . Since the functions are fully observable, they can be evaluated for b, leaving the inequalities involving Θ to dictate whether φ is satisfied. Thereby, BSQs evaluate to inequalities involving Θ .

A compound BSQ Ψ comprises conjunctions/disjunctions of BSQs by Definition 3. By substituting each BSQ with its inequalities, we can calculate the interval of Ψ , $I(\Psi)$.

Let us assume that $\Theta \in I(\Psi)$. By way of contradiction, let us assume that Θ does not satisfy Ψ . If Ψ is a conjunction of BSQs, there exists at least one BSQ that is not satisfied by Θ . If Ψ is a disjunction, all the BSQs are unsatisfied by Θ . However, this would mean that Θ cannot satisfy the inequalities from these BSQs, so Θ cannot be in $I(\Psi)$ since $I(\Psi)$ is constructed using the regions of the parameter space that satisfy the necessary BSQs, which is a contradiction.

Conversely, let us assume that Θ satisfies Ψ . This means one or all the BSQs are satisfied by Θ depending on if Ψ is a conjunction or disjunction. If Θ was not in $I(\Psi)$, there could not exist a set of BSQs satisfied for Ψ to be satisfied.

Thus, for a belief state b, a n-parameter compound BSQ Ψ has an interval in the parameter space $I(\Psi)$ s.t. $\forall \Theta \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\Theta \in I(\Psi)$ iff $\Theta(b;\Theta)$ evaluates true.

As mentioned in Section 3, braids cannot be proper subsets of each other, which we will now prove in Lemma 2. As a high-level intuition, removing a leaf can only occur if a rule along that leaf's rule-observation trajectory is not satisfied, which would mean another rule must be satisfied since Def. 2 guarantees coverage of the belief state and parameter space. This results in at least one leaf being added to a braid that removes this first leaf, making this new braid not a subset of the other one.

Lemma 2. Let $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$ be a BSQ constraint, \mathcal{P} be a gPOMDP, b_0 be the initial belief, and H be the horizon. $\forall \overline{\vartheta}_1, \overline{\vartheta}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n$, if $braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1) \subseteq braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)$ then $braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1) = braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)$.

Proof. Assume there exists $\overline{\vartheta}_1, \overline{\vartheta}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ s.t. $braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1) \subset braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)$ implying there exists leaf ℓ_2 where $\ell_2 \in braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2) \backslash braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1)$.

Let $\ell_1 \in braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1)$ be the leaf with the largest rule-observation trajectory τ_0 prefix shared with ℓ_2 before differing. The trajectory for ℓ_1 can be expressed as $\tau_0\tau_1$ where τ_1 is the remaining trajectory for reaching ℓ_1 . Similarly, the trajectory for ℓ_2 can be expressed as $\tau_0\tau_2$. Note τ_0 represents the actions executed and observations observed from the initial belief state till right before the diversion resulting in the the belief state b being the same for both leaves up to this point.

If the first element in τ_1 and τ_2 is a rule, note that $braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)$ must also contain ℓ_1 . This would imply that $\pi(b; \overline{\vartheta}_2)$ is not mutually exclusive since two rules can occur in one element of the strategy tree. This is a contradiction by Def. 4. If the first element in τ_1 and τ_2 is an observation, different observations occurred after executing the last shared action in τ_0 . Due to the observation model and sharing the belief state b at this point, both observations must be possible. This means a leaf in $braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1)$ must have a larger shared trajectory prefix than ℓ_1 , which is a contradiction. Thus, braids cannot be strict subsets of each other.

Since braids cannot be proper subsets of each other, we can now prove that both braids must contain leaves the other does not have. In turn, this prevents the interval of braids from overlapping. Note that the interval of a braid can be calculated by taking the intersections of the intervals of each leaf contained in that braid (Def. 8): $I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta})) = \bigcap_{\ell \in braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta})} I(\ell)$.

Lemma 3. Let $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$ be a BSQ constraint, \mathcal{P} be gPOMDP, b_0 be the initial belief, and H be the horizon. $\forall \overline{\vartheta}_1, \overline{\vartheta}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n$, if $braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1) \cap braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2) \neq \varnothing$ and $braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1) \neq braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)$ then $I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1)) \cap I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)) = \varnothing$.

Proof. Let $\overline{\vartheta}_1, \overline{\vartheta}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ where $braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1) \cap braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2) \neq \varnothing$ and $braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1) \neq braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)$. Both braids cannot be proper subsets (Lemma 2) meaning both braids must contain leaves that are not in the other braid: $braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)\backslash braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1) \neq \varnothing$ and $braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1)\backslash braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2) \neq \varnothing$.

By Definition 8, the interval of a braid is the conjunction of the intervals of each leaf it contains. Using the associative and commutative properties, this can be rewritten as the conjunction of two sets: the interval of leaves shared and the interval of leaves not.

$$I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1)) = I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1) \cap braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)) \cap I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1) \backslash braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2))$$
$$I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)) = I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1) \cap braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)) \cap I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2) \backslash braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1)$$

A braid's interval must exclude these unreachable leaves since a braid is all reachable leaves (Def. 7). As such, $I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2))$ must not overlap with $I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1)\backslash braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2))$ and $I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1))$ must not overlap with $I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)\backslash braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1))$. However, due to the conjunctions of intervals, $I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1)) \subseteq I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1)\backslash braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2))$ and $I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)) \subseteq I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)\backslash braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1))$. Thus, the intervals of $I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1))$ and $I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2))$ cannot overlap.

The fact that two braids cannot have overlapping intervals allows us to prove that the sets of parameter values are similar iff they share the same braid interval.

Lemma 4. $\forall \overline{\vartheta}_1, \overline{\vartheta}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n, \overline{\vartheta}_1 \equiv_H \overline{\vartheta}_2 \text{ iff } I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1)) = I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)).$

Proof. Let $\overline{\vartheta}_1 \equiv_H \overline{\vartheta}_2$, meaning $braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1) = braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2) = L$ where L is the set of reachable leaves (Defs. 7 and 9). By Definition 8, the interval of a set of leaves is the intersection of each leaf contained in the set, meaning both braids must have the same interval.

Let $I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1)) = I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2))$. By way of contradiction, assume $braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1) \neq braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)$. By Lemma 3, this would mean $I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1)) \cap I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)) = \emptyset$, which is a contradiction. Thus, $braid(\overline{\vartheta}_1) = braid(\overline{\vartheta}_2)$ meaning $\overline{\vartheta}_1 \equiv_H \overline{\vartheta}_2$ (Def. 9).

We can now prove that partitions produced by \equiv_H partitioning the parameter space \mathbb{R}^n each represent a single braid, causing each partition to have a disjoint interval where a constant set of leaves is reachable.

Theorem 2. Let $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$ be a BSQ constraint, b_0 be the initial belief state, and H be the horizon. Each partition ρ created by operator \equiv_H partitioning \mathbb{R}^n is the disjoint intervals, $\rho \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ where $\forall \overline{\vartheta} \in \rho$, $braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}) = L$ where L is a fixed set of leaves.

Proof. Let ρ be a partition produced by \equiv_H partitioning the parameter space \mathbb{R}^n . Note that this means that parameter value sets contained in ρ must be similar (Def. 9): $\forall \overline{\vartheta}_1, \overline{\vartheta}_2 \in \rho, \overline{\vartheta}_1 \equiv_H \overline{\vartheta}_2$. As such, all parameter values have the same braid (Def. 7), meaning there exists a set of leaves L that are reachable in ρ . By Def. 8, this set's interval must be $I(L) = \bigcap_{\ell_H \in L} I(\ell_H)$. By Lemma 3, the interval of other braids cannot overlap with I(L). Also, there are no proper subsets (Lemma 2), meaning that no other braid can occur in I(L) making it disjoint.

By Def. 8, I(L) must be contained in ρ due to all parameter value sets in I(L) having the same braid of L leaves. If ρ contained parameter value sets not in I(L), this would imply there exists $\overline{\vartheta}$ outside of I(L) where just the leaves in L are reachable, which is a contradiction due to I(L) being the only interval space where all the leaves of L are reachable. Meaning the interval of ρ is actually I(L). Thus, each partition represents a disjoint interval where only all leaves in L are reachable.

Due to the braid intervals not overlapping, we can prove that parameter value sets contained in that braid's interval must have a constant expected cost.

Lemma 5. Let $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$ be a BSQ constraint and H be the horizon. $\forall \overline{\vartheta}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^n, \ \forall \overline{\vartheta}_2, \overline{\vartheta}_3 \in I(braid(\overline{\vartheta}_1)), E_{\pi}(\overline{\vartheta}_2; H) = E_{\pi}(\overline{\vartheta}_3; H).$

Proof. Let $\overline{\vartheta}_2, \overline{\vartheta}_3 \in I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta_1}))$ where $\overline{\vartheta}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a tuple of n parameters. Note that $braid(\overline{\vartheta}_1) = braid(\overline{\vartheta}_2) = braid(\overline{\vartheta}_3)$ due there being no strict subsets (Lemma 2) and leaves in $\overline{\vartheta}_2$ and $\overline{\vartheta}_3$ would have to be reachable in $\overline{\vartheta}_1$. Each braid represents a policy tree (Def. 5), and the expected cost is based on the probability distribution of leaves in the braid. Since both $\overline{\vartheta}_2$ and $\overline{\vartheta}_3$ represent the same policy tree, they must have identical expected cost values.

It is now trivial to show that each partition represents a disjoint interval of the parameter space where the expected cost is constant.

Theorem 3. Let $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$ be a BSQ constraint, \mathcal{P} be a gPOMDP, b_0 be the initial belief state, and H be the horizon. Each partition created by operator \equiv_H partitioning \mathbb{R}^n has a constant expected cost.

Proof. Let ρ be a partition created by partitioning \mathbb{R}^n with \equiv_H . By Theorem 2, all parameter value sets in the disjoint interval of ρ must have the same braid. As such, by Lemma 5, the expected cost is constant for all the parameter sets. Thus, the disjoint interval of each partition must have a constant expected cost.

C Proofs For Partition Refinement Search [Section 5]

In this section, we provide the formal proof for Theorem 4 proving that the Partition Refinement Search algorithm introduced in Section 5 is probabilistically complete. We define and prove Lemmas 6, 7, and 8 for building this proof.

When PRS refines a partition ρ using a leaf ℓ , it can produce up to two possible partitions: a partition for ρ where ℓ is reachable and a partition for ρ where ℓ is not (if it exists). We now show that this process prevents empty partitions.

Lemma 6. Let $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$ be a BSQ constraint, \mathcal{P} be a gPOMDP, b_0 be the initial belief state, and H be the horizon. For each partition ρ constructed by Partition Refinement Search, $\rho \neq \emptyset$.

Proof. Let $\rho \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a partition constructed by PRS. Since PRS creates partitions based on whether sampled leaves are included or excluded, let L_i be the leaves PRS included in partition ρ and L_e be the leaves excluded. Therefore, $\rho = I(L_i) \setminus I(L_e)$.

By way of contradiction, let $\rho = \varnothing$. There are two cases where this could occur: (1) excluding leaf ℓ caused $\rho = \varnothing$ or (2) including ℓ caused $\rho = \varnothing$. For case (1), we explicitly do not add partitions if excluding the leaf results in an empty interval, meaning this cannot happen. For case (2), this implies that there exists a previous partition ρ_0 where sampling leaf ℓ_0 resulted in the partition constructed from ρ_0 including ℓ_0 creating ρ where $\rho = \varnothing$. Due to ℓ_0 being uniformly sampled from ρ_0 , ℓ_0 must be reachable in ρ_0 meaning $\rho_0 \cap I(\ell_0) \neq \varnothing$. However, line 10 of Algo. 1 calculates the interval of ρ as $\rho_0 \cap I(\ell_0)$ meaning $\rho \neq \varnothing$, which is a contradiction. Thus, all partitions must be not empty. \square

A critical property of PRS is that each partition constructed converges to represent a single braid.

Lemma 7. Let $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$ be a BSQ constraint, \mathcal{P} be a gPOMDP, b_0 be the initial belief state, and H be the horizon. Let ρ be a partition constructed by Partition Refinement Search. If all leaves reachable in $\rho \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ have been sampled, $\forall \overline{\vartheta} \in \rho$, $I(braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta})) = \rho$.

Proof. Let $\rho \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a partition constructed by PRS. Let $L_\rho = \{\ell_1, ..., \ell_n\}$ be the n-sampled unique leaves for ρ . Let all leaves reachable from ρ be sampled, $\forall \ell, \ell \in L_\rho \leftrightarrow [\exists \overline{\vartheta} \in \rho, \ell \in braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta})]$.

Due to $\rho \neq \emptyset$ (Lemma 6) and BSQ constraints covering \mathbb{R}^n (Def. 4), there must exist a non-empty set of leaves L reachable within ρ . Since all leaves are sampled, we know that $L \subseteq L_{\rho}$. However, there cannot be proper subsets (Lemma 2) meaning $L = L_{\rho}$. This means that the interval of ρ must also equal the interval of leaves I(L). Thus, ρ must represent a braid.

Since partitions are constructed by including/excluding sampled leaves hierarchically, we can prove that this makes each partition represent a unique braid.

Lemma 8. Let $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$ be a BSQ constraint, \mathcal{P} be a gPOMDP, b_0 be the initial belief state, and H be the horizon. Let $\rho_1, \rho_2 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be partitions constructed by Partition Refinement Search. If all leaves reachable in ρ_1 and ρ_2 have been sampled, $\forall \overline{\vartheta}_1 \in \rho_1, \forall \overline{\vartheta}_2 \in \rho_1, braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_1) \neq braid_{\pi,H}(\overline{\vartheta}_2)$.

Proof. Let $\rho_1, \rho_2 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be two different partitions constructed by PRS. Note that the PRS partitions \mathbb{R}^n by refining one partition using leaf ℓ into two by explicitly including $I(\ell)$ in one partition and excluding $I(\ell)$ in the other (Algorithm 1). Meaning ρ_1 and ρ_2 cannot overlap.

Since both partitions represent a possible non-empty braid (Lemma 7), there exists a set of leaves reachable in both partitions. However, by the partition construction process, there must exist at least one leaf included in one but excluded in the other. Due to there being no interval overlap between braids, two different braids must be reachable in each partition (Lemma 2). Thus, all partitions must represent a unique braid.

Using the property that each partition in PRS represents a unique braid, we can now prove that PRS is probabilistically complete.

Theorem 4. Let $\pi(b, \overline{\Theta})$ be a BSQ constraint, \mathcal{P} be a gPOMDP, b_0 the initial belief state, and H be the horizon. The likelihood of the Partition Refinement Search algorithm returning the optimal parameter interval converges to one in the limit of infinite samples.

Proof. Note that gPOMDPs have a finite set of observations and finite horizon (Def. 1), and BSQ constraints have a finite number of rules (Def. 4). As such, there exists a finite number of unique rule-observation trajectories in the strategy tree (Def. 6). Therefore, there exists a finite number of leaves due to each leaf having a unique rule-observation trajectory. This results in there only being a

finite set of braids being all possible combinations of reachable leaves (Def. 7). Since each partition represents a unique braid (Lemma 8), the number of partitions must be finite.

Let $\rho \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a partition constructed by PRS that is not equivalent to a braid. By Lemma 7, this means there exists a leaf ℓ reachable in ρ that has not been sampled yet. This also means there must exist a non-empty interval $\rho \cap I(\ell)$ where sampling from ρ can reach ℓ . Due to uniform sampling selecting parameter values when sampling a leaf for refining the partition (line 7 of Algorithm 1), the probability of selecting a parameter value that could sample ℓ can be calculated as $\frac{\rho \cap I(\ell)}{\rho} = Pr(I(\ell)|\rho)$.

Note that ℓ represents a unique rule-observation trajectory $\{r_1,o_1,...,r_H,o_H\}$. Note the probability of an observation o being observed in belief state b after action a is executed is $Pr(o|b,a) = \sum_{s'} [\Omega(s',a,o) \sum_s \mathcal{T}(s,a,s')b(s)]$. Meaning that the probability of reaching ℓ during rollout is $Pr(\ell) = \prod_i Pr(o_i|b_i)$ where $b_i = bp^*(b_0,r_1,o_1,...,r_i,o_i)$. Since we know that ℓ is reachable, $Pr(\ell) > 0$.

We assume that partition selection approaches discussed in Section 6 have a non-zero probability of refining any partition. Let $Pr(\rho)$ be the probability of ρ being selected. This means that in any refinement step, the probability of sampling leaf ℓ is $Pr(\ell)Pr(I(\ell)/\rho)Pr(\rho)$. Due to each probability being greater than zero, the probability of any non-sampled leaf being sampled must be greater than zero. Therefore, with enough refinement steps, all the leaves will be sampled since there is only a finite number of leaves. Thus, the set of partitions will be refined to the set of braids as the number of samples increases to infinite.

Note that each partition represents a unique braid (Lemma 8) with a set probability distribution of outcomes based on the reachable leaves. Due to a non-zero probability of refining a partition $Pr(\rho)$, the sampled expected cost of a partition will converge to the actual expected cost due to the law of large numbers.

Therefore, within a finite number of samples, the partitions constructed by PRS will accurately represent the set of braids with an accurate representation of their expected costs. Thus, PRS will find the minimal expected cost partition as the number of samples increases to infinite.

D Spaceship Repair Partitions Closed Form

In this section, we calculate the braids that partition the parameter space for the Spaceship Repair problem with the BSQ constraint from Fig. 1.

First, we give the exact observation model used. From Section 3.1, the Spaceship Repair state is composed of two functions: broken(o) and rlocation(). This means each state is expressed as $\{broken(robot), broken(ship), rlocation()\}$. Additionally, the set of observations can be expressed as $\{obs_err(robot), obs_err(ship)\}$. Let p_r and p_s be the probability of the observation reflecting the actual state of the robot and spaceship, respectively. The probability of observation o in state s after action a is executed is calculated as follows.

```
Pr(o = \{obs\_err(robot), obs\_err(ship)\} | s = \{broken(robot), broken(ship), rlocation()\}\}) = \begin{cases} p_r p_s, & \text{if } broken(robot) = obs\_err(robot) \land broken(ship) = obs\_error(ship) \\ p_r(1 - p_s), & \text{if } broken(robot) = obs\_err(robot) \land broken(ship) \neq obs\_error(ship) \\ (1 - p_r)p_s, & \text{if } broken(robot) \neq obs\_err(robot) \land broken(ship) \neq obs\_error(ship) \\ (1 - p_r)(1 - p_s), & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
```

Note observations are independent of the robot's location and actions. For clarity, we express the states as whether or not the robot and spaceship are broken, $\{broken(robot), broken(ship)\}$. This means there are four possible states depending on whether the robot and ship are broken. For ease of notation, we represent these states as $S = \{s_{TT}, s_{TF}, s_{FT}, s_{FF}\}$, where s_{TF} represents that state where the robot is broken and the spaceship is not. Similar, let the four possible observations be represented as $O = \{o_{TT}, o_{TF}, o_{FT}, o_{FF}\}$.

The precondition of the first rule of the Spaceship Repair problem BSQ constraint is $[broken(robot)]_b \le \Theta_1$ (Figure 1). For any belief state b, the probability of the robot being broken is the probability of the states where that is true: $[broken(robot)]_b = b(s_{TT}) + b(s_{TF})$.

Let $\{a_1, o_1, ..., a_t, o_t\}$ be an action-observation trajectory for t timesteps where at each timestep an action is executed followed by an observation being observed. We can calculate the probability of the state where the robot and spaceship are broken, s_{TT} , as follows.

$$b_t(s_{TT}) = \alpha Pr(o_t|s_{TT}, a_t) \sum_{s} \mathcal{T}(s, a_t, s_{TT}) b_{t-1}(s)$$
(2)

Note that, due to the observations being independent of the robot's location, the observation and transition functions are independent of the action. For example, there is no action the robot can perform to change whether the robot or spaceship is broken due to the problem being to reach a broken component rather than fixing it. We can simplify Equation 2 significantly as follows.

$$b_t(s_{TT}) = \alpha Pr(o_t|s_{TT})b_{t-1}(s_{TT})$$
(3)

We can now rewrite Equation 3 by unrolling the recursion. Note that α is the normalization factor meaning we don't need to calculate α each timestep because the final normalization will factor in all these changes. Additionally, due to the probability of each initial state being uniform, we don't need to keep track of the initial belief. Also, note there exist four possible observations. Due to the commutativity of multiplication, we can rearrange to get the following. Let c_{TT} , c_{TF} , c_{FT} , and c_{FF} be the counts of the number of each observation where $c_{TT} + c_{TF} + c_{FT} + c_{FF} = t$.

$$b_t(s_{TT}) = \alpha Pr(o_{TT}|s_{TT})^{c_{TT}} Pr(o_{TF}|s_{TT})^{c_{TF}} Pr(o_{FT}|s_{TT})^{c_{FT}} Pr(o_{FF}|s_{TT})^{c_{FF}}$$
(4)

Using Equation 1, the probability of this state can be written in terms of p_r and p_s .

$$b_t(s_{TT}) = \alpha(p_r p_s)^{c_{TT}} (p_r (1 - p_s))^{c_{TF}} ((1 - p_r) p_s)^{c_{FT}} ((1 - p_r) (1 - p_s))^{c_{FF}}$$
(5)

$$b_t(s_{TT}) = \alpha p_r^{c_{TT} + c_{TF}} p_s^{c_{TT} + c_{FT}} (1 - p_r)^{c_{FT} + c_{FF}} (1 - p_s)^{c_{TF} + c_{FF}}$$
(6)

This same process can be applied to the other three states to get the equation of their likelihoods.

$$b_t(s_{TF}) = \alpha p_r^{c_{TT} + c_{TF}} p_s^{c_{TF} + c_{FF}} (1 - p_r)^{c_{FT} + c_{FF}} (1 - p_s)^{c_{TT} + c_{FT}}$$
(7)

$$b_t(s_{FT}) = \alpha p_r^{c_{FT} + c_{FF}} p_s^{c_{TT} + c_{FT}} (1 - p_r)^{c_{TT} + c_{TF}} (1 - p_s)^{c_{TF} + c_{FF}}$$
(8)

$$b_t(s_{FF}) = \alpha p_x^{c_{FT} + c_{FF}} p_s^{c_{TF} + c_{FF}} (1 - p_x)^{c_{TT} + c_{TF}} (1 - p_s)^{c_{TT} + c_{FF}}$$
(9)

We can group the states into two groups depending on whether or not the robot is broken. By factoring we can get the following.

$$b_t(s_{TT}) + b_t(s_{TF}) = \alpha p_r^{c_{TT} + c_{TF}} [p_s^{c_{TT} + c_{FT}} (1 - p_s)^{c_{TF} + c_{FF}} + p_s^{c_{TF} + c_{FF}} (1 - p_s)^{c_{TT} + c_{FT}}]$$
(10)

$$b_t(s_{FT}) + b_t(s_{FF}) = \alpha p_r^{c_{FT} + c_{FF}} [1 - p_r)^{c_{TT} + c_{TF}} [p_s^{c_{TT} + c_{FT}} (1 - p_s)^{c_{TF} + c_{FF}} + p_s^{c_{TF} + c_{FF}} (1 - p_s)^{c_{TT} + c_{FT}}]$$
(11)

Note that in Equations 10 and 11 everything in the brackets is shared, which is due to the individual observations of the spaceship and robot being independent of each other. Also, for normalization, we just divide the sum of Equations 10 and 11, which is equivalent to the sum probability of all states. Additionally, note that Equation 10 is equivalent to the BSQ precondition $[broken(robot)]_{b_t}$. Substituting into this BSQ and simplifying we get the following.

$$[broken(robot)]_{b_t} = \frac{p_r^{c_{TT} + c_{TF}} (1 - p_r)^{c_{FT} + c_{FF}}}{p_r^{c_{TT} + c_{TF}} (1 - p_r)^{c_{FT} + c_{FF}} + p_r^{c_{FT} + c_{FF}} (1 - p_r)^{c_{TT} + c_{TF}}}$$
(12)

Note that there are two exponent values: the number of times the robot is observed to be broken and the number it is not. Let $d_r = c_{TT} + c_{TF} - c_{FT} - c_{FF}$ be the difference in the number of times that the robot is observed to be broken to not. If $d_r > 0$, then the robot has been observed to be broken more often than not. By substituting $d_r + c_{FT}c_{FF} = c_{TT} + c_{TF}$ into Equation 12 the equation simplifies down.

$$[broken(robot)]_{b_t} = \frac{p_r^{d_r}}{p_r^{d_r} + (1 - p_r)^{d_r}}$$
(13)

Following a similar process, the BSQ from the second rule in the BSQ constraint from Figure 1 can be written similarly. Let d_s be the difference in the number of times the spaceship is observed to be or not. If $d_s > 0$, then the spaceship has been observed to be broken more often than not.

$$[broken(ship)]_{b_t} = \frac{p_s^{d_s}}{p_s^{d_s} + (1 - p_s)^{d_s}}$$
(14)

Note that the observation model used $p_r = 0.6$ and $p_s = 0.75$ for the heatmap in Figure 1. The horizontal thresholds can be calculated using Equation 14 and the vertical with Equation 13.

Therefore, a partition is specific value of $d_r \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $d_s \in \mathbb{Z}$ that is equivalent to saying: The objective is to fix the communication channel. If the difference in the number of times the robot has been observed being broken than not is greater than d_r , it should try to repair itself; otherwise, if the difference in the number of times the spaceship has been observed being broken than not is greater than d_s , it should try to repair that. Formally, this partition represents the parameter space where $\frac{p_r^{d_r-1}}{p_r^{d_r-1}+(1-p_r)^{d_r-1}} \leqslant \Theta_1 < \frac{p_r^{d_r}}{p_r^{d_r}+(1-p_r)^{d_r}}$ and $\frac{p_s^{d_s-1}}{p_s^{d_s-1}+(1-p_s)^{d_s-1}} \leqslant \Theta_2 < \frac{p_s^{d_s}}{p_s^{d_s}+(1-p_s)^{d_s}}$ where all parameter value sets that satisfy both inequalities are similar. Due to d_r and d_s being the difference between observation counts, the set of possible partitions is finite for finite horizons.

We explored solving the Spaceship Repair problem directly using these inequalities. The belief state reflects the probability of each outcome, meaning the main challenge is calculating the average number of timesteps to reach the goal. This can be solved by finding the average length of time of the Gambler's Ruin problem. One possible direction of future work is exploring solving BSQ constraints and gPOMDPs this way.

E Evaluation Problem's Belief-State Query Preferences

In this section, we provide the BSQ constraints for the Lane Merger, Graph Rock Sample, and Store Visit problems discussed in Section 7. To do this, we first describe the functions that compose each problem's states and actions. We use loops and quantifiers in the BSQ constraints for clarity that can be unrolled on a problem-by-problem basis.

E.1 Lane Merger

The Lane Merger problem is that there are two lanes, and the agent must merge into the other lane within a certain distance. In this other lane, there is another car whose exact location and speed are unknown. Therefore, there exist two objects in the environment: the agent (agent) and the other car (other). For either object o, the location and speed are tracked using the unary integer functions loc(o) and speed(o). For actions, the agent can increase their speed $(speed_up())$, decrease their speed $(slow_down())$, remain in their current lane at their current speed $(keep_speed())$, or attempt to merge lanes (merge()). Using these functions, the BSQ constraint $\pi_{lm}(b;\Theta_1,\Theta_2)$ is formally defined as follows.

```
\begin{split} \pi_{lm}(b;\Theta_1,\Theta_2): \\ &\text{If } Pr[\![loc(agent) > loc(other) + speed(other) + 2 \lor \\ &loc(agent) + speed(agent) + 2 < loc(other)]\!]_b > \Theta_1 \rightarrow merge() \\ &\text{Else if } Pr[\![|loc(agent) - loc(other)| \leqslant 1]\!]_b > \Theta_2 \land \\ &Pr[\![speed(agent) > 0]\!]_b == 1 \rightarrow slow\_down() \\ &\text{Else } keep\_speed() \end{split}
```

E.2 Graph Rock Sample

The Graph Rock Sample problem is that there is a rover with pre-programmed waypoints, where some waypoints contain rocks. These rocks have been categorized into types, and whether it is safe for the rover to sample them is unknown. The objective of the rover is to sample each type with a safe rock before traversing to a dropoff location. The objects are the waypoints, including the rocks $\{r_1, ..., r_n\}$ and the dropoff location (dropoff). The rover knows if or if it is not located at waypoint w using the unary Boolean function loc(w). The rover also knows whether it needs to sample rocks of type t using the unary Boolean function needed(t). For any rock r, the distance from the rover, whether the rock is type t, and if the rock is safe to sample are tracked using the unary double function distance(r) and the Boolean functions type(r,t), and safe(r), respectively. The rover can move to neighboring waypoint w (move(w)), sample rock r at its current waypoint (sample(r)), and scan any rock r (scan(r)). For clarity, we use the function goto(w) to specify taking the edge that moves the rover closer to waypoint w. Using these functions, the BSQ constraint $\pi_{grs}(b; \Theta_1, \Theta_2, \Theta_3)$ is formally defined as follows.

```
\begin{split} &\pi_{grs}(b;\Theta_1,\Theta_2,\Theta_3):\\ &\text{For } r_c \in \{r_1,...,r_n\}:\\ &\text{If } Pr[\exists t | type(r_c,t) \land needed(t) \land loc(r_c) \land safe(r_c)]\!]_b \geqslant \Theta_1 \to sample(r_c)\\ &\text{Else if } Pr[\exists t | type(r_c,t) \land needed(t) \land \neg loc(r_c) \land safe(r_c)]\!]_b \geqslant \Theta_1 \to goto(r_c)\\ &\text{Else if } Pr[\exists t | type(r_c,t) \land needed(t) \land safe(r_c)]\!]_b \geqslant \Theta_2 \land\\ &Pr[[distance(r_c) \leqslant \Theta_3]\!]_b == 1 \to scan(r_c)\\ &\text{Else if } Pr[\exists t | type(r_c,t) \land needed(t) \land safe(r_c)]\!]_b \geqslant \Theta_2 \land\\ &Pr[[distance(r_c) > \Theta_3]\!]_b == 1 \to goto(r_c)\\ &\text{Else } goto(dropoff) \end{split}
```

E.3 Store Visit

The Store Visit problem involves an agent in a city with a grid-based layout. Some locations are unsafe, while others contain a bank or a store. The objective is for the agent to visit a bank safely and then a store. The objects are the agent, the set of stores $\{s_1, ..., s_n\}$, and the set of banks $\{b_1, ..., b_m\}$. Labeling functions bank(o) and store(o) check whether object o is a bank or store, respectively. The ternary Boolean function keeps track of the current (x,y) location of the object o, loc(o,x,y). Similarly, whether location (x,y) is safe is tracked by the binary Boolean function $is_safe(x,y)$. Lastly, the state keeps track of whether the agent has visited a bank using the nullary Boolean function vbank(). The agent can move left (left()), right (right()), up (up), and down (down()) in the grid. The agent can also visit a building in its current location (visit()) or scan its surroundings to figure out its location (scan()). Using these functions, the BSQ constraint $\pi_{sv}(b;\Theta_1,\Theta_2,\Theta_3)$ is formally defined as follows.

```
\pi_{sv}(b;\Theta_1,\Theta_2,\Theta_3):
          If \forall x, y | Pr[loc(agent, x, y)]_b < \Theta_3 \rightarrow scan()
         Else if Pr[\exists s, x, y | vbank() \land store(s) \land loc(s, x, y) \land loc(agent, x, y)]_b \geqslant \Theta_1 \rightarrow visit()
          For s_c \in \{s_1, ..., s_n\}:
                    Else if Pr[\exists x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2 | vbank() \land store(s_c) \land loc(agent, x_1, y_1) \land loc(s_c, x_2, y_2) \land loc(s_
                              x_1 < x_2 \land is\_safe(x_1 + 1, y_1)|_b \geqslant \Theta_2 \rightarrow right()
                   x_1 > x_2 \wedge is\_safe(x_1 - 1, y_1) \|_b \geqslant \Theta_2 \rightarrow left()
                   Else if Pr[\exists x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2 | vbank() \land store(s_c) \land loc(agent, x_1, y_1) \land loc(s_c, x_2, y_2) \land loc(s_
                              y_1 > y_2 \land is\_safe(x_1, y_1 - 1) ||_b \geqslant \Theta_2 \rightarrow down()
                   y_1 < y_2 \land is\_safe(x_1, y_1 + 1)|_b \geqslant \Theta_2 \to up()
          Else if Pr[\exists k, x, y | \neg vbank() \land bank(k) \land loc(k, x, y) \land loc(agent, x, y)]_b \geqslant \Theta_1 \rightarrow visit()
          For k_c \in \{k_1, ..., k_m\}:
                    x_1 < x_2 \land is \ safe(x_1 + 1, y_1) |_b \geqslant \Theta_2 \rightarrow right()
                    x_1 > x_2 \land is \ safe(x_1 - 1, y_1) \|_b \geqslant \Theta_2 \to left()
                    y_1 > y_2 \wedge is \ safe(x_1, y_1 - 1) \|_b \geqslant \Theta_2 \to down()
                    y_1 < y_2 \land is\_safe(x_1, y_1 + 1) \|_b \geqslant \Theta_2 \to up()
          Else scan()
```

F Hyperparameter Optimization Algorithms Implementation

G Experimental Setup And Computational Cost

In this section, we go through the empirical setup of the experiments performed in Section 7 and include an estimate of the computation cost for running the experiments for this paper.

All experiments were performed on an Intel(R) Xeon(R) W-2102 CPU @ 2.90GHz without using a GPU. The Partition Refinement Search algorithm was implemented using a manager-worker design pattern where 8 workers were initialized when solving. The manager maintained the hypothesized optimal partition and current exploration rate. Every 12.5 seconds, the current hypothesized optimal partition was recorded. At exactly 25 minutes, the hypothesized optimal partition was recorded as the solution before closing the workers.

Both solutions and recorded hypothesized optimal partitions were evaluated using the same random seed to ensure that the same initial states were assessed. This evaluation process was carried out in parallel using a manager-worker design pattern with 16 workers. 25,000 independent runs were conducted for each solution to determine the expected cost and goal achievement rate. Additionally, for each recorded hypothesized optimal partition, 10,000 runs were performed. The average performance and standard deviation error were calculated by averaging the results of ten runs for each combination of problem and solver. A similar approach was used to evaluate the random-parameter user-compliant policy RCompliant. Instead of using solved policies, ten parameter value sets were uniformly selected randomly from the parameter space, and each set was evaluated for 25,000 runs. These results are presented in Figure 3.

For constructing the Spaceship Repair heatmap (Figure 1), all combinations of parameters Θ_1 and Θ_2 were evaluated with parameter values sampled from 0 to 1 with increments of 0.002. This produced

251,001 equally-spaced parameter values. Parameter values were evaluated on 300 runs with a horizon of 12 to calculate the expected cost.

Computational cost Running the Partition Refinement Search algorithm for the empirical evaluation section (Section 7) involved nine processes running simultaneously for 25 minutes across ten trials for each of the five partition-selection approaches. This resulted in 21 hours of CPU usage when run in parallel, equivalent to 187.5 hours if executed sequentially. Evaluation complexities were significant, such as the variance in time per run and problem type. For instance, evaluating the solutions and hypothesized optimal partitions for the Lane Merger problem using 17 processes took approximately 48 hours in parallel. The overall CPU usage for the main experiment approximates to 360 hours (15 days) in parallel, translating to about 6,288 hours (262 days) if run sequentially. Additionally, constructing the Spaceship Repair heatmap (Figure,1) required approximately 24 hours of CPU time using 11 processes. These experiments were conducted thrice, culminating in an estimated total computational cost of 2,160 hours (90 days) using an Intel(R) Xeon(R) W-2102 CPU @ 2.90GHz, or 19,656 hours (819 days) if operations were performed sequentially.

H Additional Results

In this section, we provide additional results from the experiments performed. This includes introducing two additional partition selection approaches we evaluated: Global Thompson Sampling and Maximum Confidence. We also provide graphs of the performance of the hypothesized optimal partition for PRS-Epsilon, PRS-Bolt, and PRS-Local. Finally, we provide a results table for all five partition selection approaches and the baseline RCompliant.

As a reminder, PRS is implemented for multiprocessing by having each process manage a subset of the partitions $X' \subseteq X$ but share a global hypothesis of the optimal partition. Also, a dynamic exploration rate e_r is used that diminishes over the solving time. Using this framework, two additional partition selection approaches were explored.

Maximum Confidence (PRS-Max) We explore e_r percent of the time by uniformly sampling $s \sim U_0^1$ and checking if $s \leqslant e_r$. If exploring, we uniformly at random select a partition from X'. Otherwise, the partition with maximum standard deviation, $\arg\min_{\langle \rho, \hat{E}[\rho] \rangle \in X'} \sigma(\hat{E})[\rho]$, is selected.

Global Thompson Sampling (PRS-Global) Unlike the other partition selection approaches, each processor iterates over all partitions it manages before selecting multiple partitions to refine. Partitions are chosen for two reasons: (1) they are below the minimum number of samples, or (2) the partition has the potential of being better than the current global hypothesized optimal partition. This is simulated for each partition using $\mathcal{N}(\mu_c, \sigma_c \times e_r)$ with μ_c and σ_c being the mean and standard deviation of that partition, respectively. If the sample taken from this normal distribution has a lower expected cost than the hypothesized optimal partition, this partition is selected for refinement.

Performance of the hypothesized optimal In Figure 5, we show the results of the three partition selection approaches introduced in the main paper (Section 6) on the other 3 problems not shown. The performance supports the idea that PRS converges regardless of the partition refinement approach and that the performance always outperforms the baseline RComplient policy. Additionally, the high standard deviation slowed down the convergence of approaches that rely on the standard deviation, like Local Thompson Sampling. Finally, note that Boltzmann Exploration converged prematurely during the Store Visit problem due to the fast cooling temperature.

Tabulated performance In Table 1, the expected cost and the goal achievement rate have been tabulated, showing the near identical performance of four of the partition refinement approaches. The only exception was Maximum Confidence since selecting the highest standard deviation partition is a form of exploring rather than exploiting. Additionally, as we have mentioned, the solutions for this set of problems have a lower standard deviation, resulting in this partition selection approach exploring the wrong partitions. However, despite this poor partition selection approach, the Partition Refinement Search algorithm is robust enough to outperform the baseline RCompliant policy significantly.

I Broader Impacts

The primary positive impact of BSQ constraints is their accessibility to non-experts, allowing them to input their requirements directly into a solver that optimizes the completion of tasks while aligning

Droblome		Lane	Gra	Graph Rock	Spa	paceship		Store
LIODICIIIS	Z	Merger	Š	Sample	R	epair		
	E_{π}	% Goal	E_{π}	% Goal	E_{π}	% Goal	E_{π}	% Goal
PRS-Bolt	4.38 ± 0.03	$38 \pm 0.03 \mid 99.62\% \pm 0.03\%$	17.65 ± 0.10	$97.73\% \pm 0.83\%$	37.36 ± 0.14	$71.66\% \pm 0.41\%$	16.50 ± 1.09	$97.41\% \pm 1.66\%$
PRS-Epsilon	4.40 ± 0.04	$.40 \pm 0.04 $ 99.59% ± 0.06 %	17.77 ± 0.21	$96.84\% \pm 1.41\%$	37.37 ± 0.10	$71.90\% \pm 0.40\%$	15.34 ± 0.05	$99.44\% \pm 0.19\%$
PRS-Global	4.38 ± 0.03	$.38 \pm 0.03 $ 99.61% ± 0.03 %	17.66 ± 0.10	$97.12\% \pm 1.30\%$	37.43 ± 0.23	$71.58\% \pm 0.69\%$	15.38 ± 0.07	$99.32\% \pm 0.18\%$
PRS-Local	4.39 ± 0.04	$99.60\% \pm 0.04\%$	17.71 ± 0.14	$97.73\% \pm 0.83\%$	37.45 ± 0.14	$71.67\% \pm 0.41\%$	15.39 ± 0.08	$99.54\% \pm 0.24\%$
PRS-Max	4.43 ± 0.04	$4.43 \pm 0.04 \mid 99.60\% \pm 0.13\% \mid$	25.27 ± 7.71	$92.40\% \pm 4.75\%$	37.83 ± 0.27	$71.63\% \pm 0.93\%$	20.07 ± 1.96	$92.66\% \pm 2.47\%$
Nelder-Mead	4.41 ± 0.04	$99.58\% \pm 0.04\%$	19.87 ± 4.24	$92.63\% \pm 6.24\%$	37.98 ± 0.66	$70.72\% \pm 1.37\%$	15.56 ± 0.59	$98.89\% \pm 1.80\%$
Particle Swarm	4.42 ± 0.02	$1.42 \pm 0.02 \mid 99.57\% \pm 0.03\% \mid$	21.40 ± 4.42	$91.10\% \pm 6.77\%$	37.58 ± 0.35	$71.90\% \pm 0.77\%$	16.21 ± 1.12	$97.85\% \pm 1.80\%$
RCompliant	25.5 ± 16.8	$25.5 \pm 16.8 \mid 84.25\% \pm 18.1\%$	60.9 ± 17.52	60.9 ± 17.52 $41.27\% \pm 19.45\%$	43.78 ± 5.05	43.78 ± 5.05 $63.52\% \pm 7.30\%$	65.94 ± 31.9	$39.14\% \pm 37.0\%$

Table 1: Expected cost (E_{π}) and percent goal achievement rate (% Goal) of Partition Refinement Search and RConfidence on the Lane Merger, Graph Rock Sample, Spaceship Repair, and Store Visit problems. The performance was measured over ten runs to calculate the performance average and standard deviation.

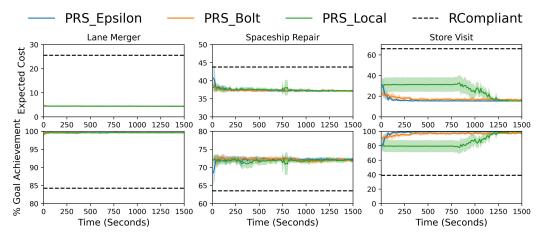


Figure 5: Performance of the hypothesized optimal partition while solving for the Lane Merger, Spaceship Repair, and Store Visit problems.

with the user. Moreover, BSQ constraints enable encoding safety constraints with enforceable guarantees over the belief state. Thus, this paper represents an important step in making AI more usable for non-experts, particularly in encoding constraints and preferences, while addressing safety concerns in real-world applications."

A potential negative impact of making AI more accessible through BSQ constraints is that it could also be exploited by bad actors who might encode harmful preferences. To mitigate this risk, one approach is to design goals such that negative outcomes inherently prevent goal completion, thereby teaching the agent to avoid these outcomes. Additionally, future work can explore methods for prioritizing certain constraints to ensure that the AI does not align with harmful intentions.

J Additional Limitations

While we discussed in Section 8 some of the limitations of this work, there is one additional limitation that is an important direction of future work: aligning user and problem objectives. For example, in Graph Rock Sample if the encoded goal for the gPOMDP did not require collecting rocks but the user still wanted to collect one rock of each type using the BSQ constraint in Appendix E.2, PRS would optimize the parameters to make it so no rocks are worth scanning or sampling to exit as fast as possible to minimize the expected cost. While this case is an obvious misalignment between the gPOMDP and BSQ constraint, these misalignments can be more subtle, leading to the optimal policy not behaving as intended. Therefore, future work needs to be done to explore catching misalignments to allow the user to understand and fix them.

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