# POMDPs: Partially Observable Markov Decision Processes

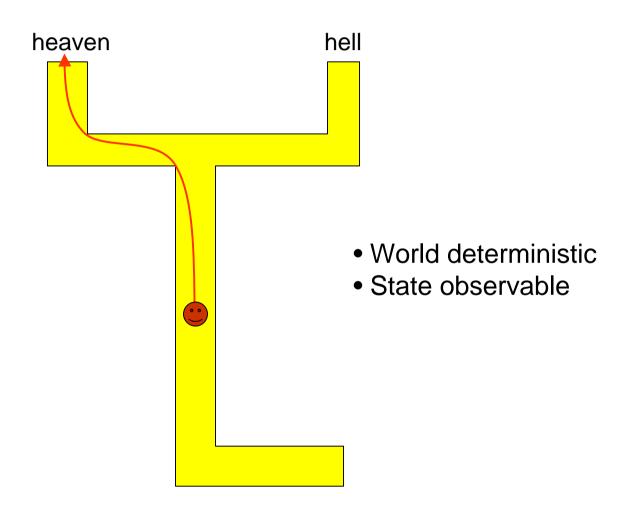
Advanced Al

Wolfram Burgard

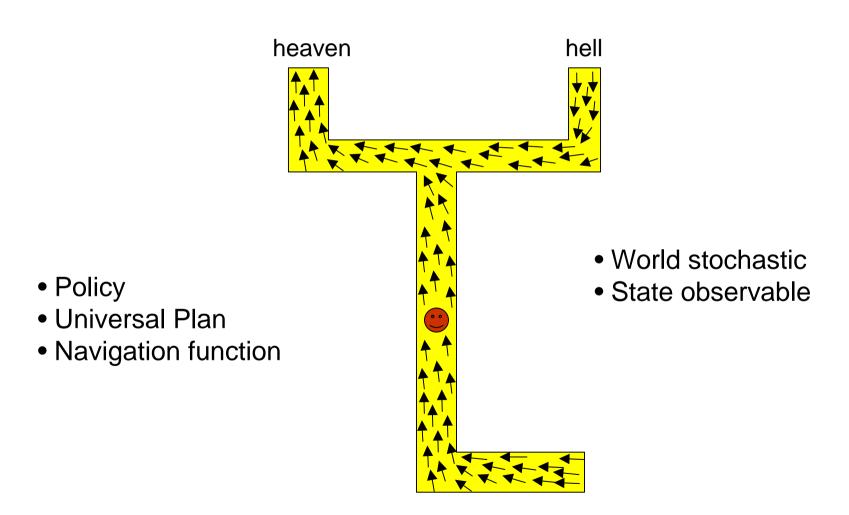
# **Types of Planning Problems**

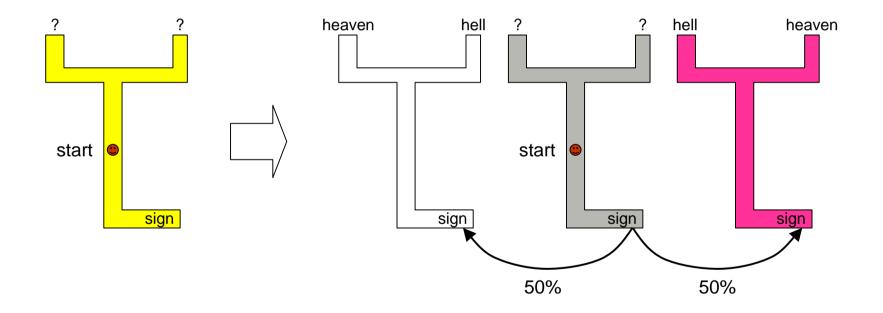
	State	Action Model
Classical Planning	observable	Deterministic, accurate
MDPs	observable	stochastic
POMDPs	partially observable	stochastic

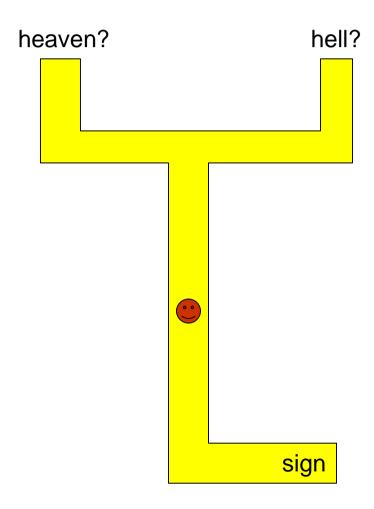
## Classical Planning

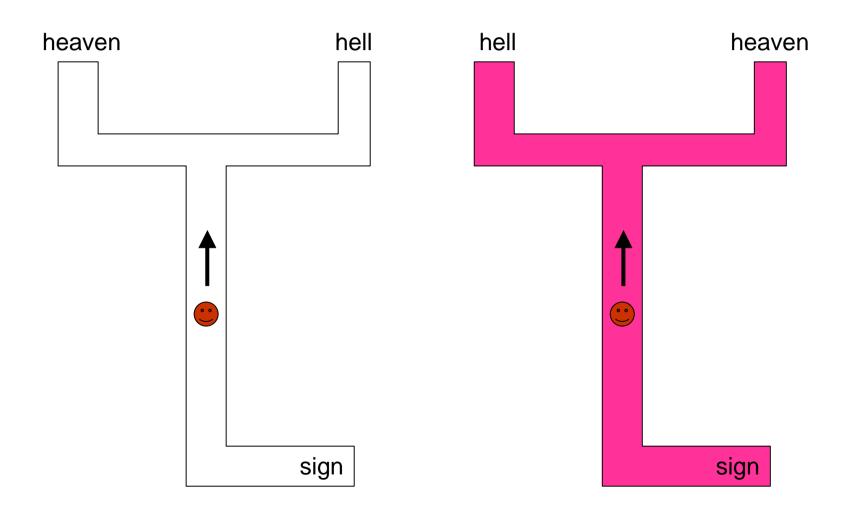


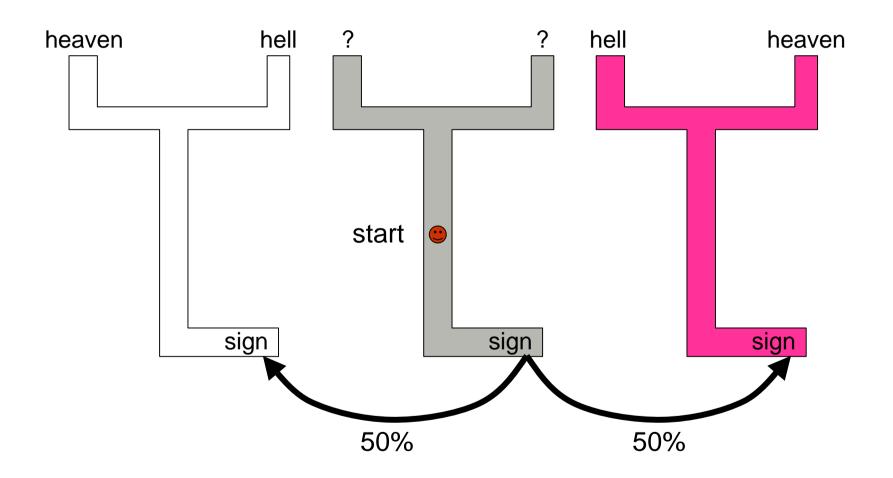
## **MDP-Style Planning**











#### Notation (1)

Recall the Bellman optimality equation:

$$V^{*}(s) = \max_{a \in A(s)} \sum_{s'} P_{ss'}^{a} \left[ R_{ss'}^{a} + \gamma V^{*}(s') \right]$$

Throughout this section we assume

$$R_{ss'}^{a} = \frac{1}{\gamma} R_{s}^{a} = \frac{1}{\gamma} r(s, a)$$

is independent of s' so that the Bellman optimality equation turns into

$$V^{*}(s) = \gamma \max_{a \in A(s)} \left[ R_{s}^{a} + \sum_{s'} V^{*}(s') P_{ss'}^{a} \right] = \gamma \max_{a \in A(s)} \left[ r(s, a) + \sum_{s'} V^{*}(s') P_{ss'}^{a} \right]$$

#### Notation (2)

In the remainder we will use a slightly different notation for this equation:

$$V(x) = \gamma \max_{u} \left[ r(x, u) + \int V(x') p(x' \mid u, x) dx' \right]$$

According to the previously used notation we would write

$$V^{*}(s) = \gamma \max_{a \in A(s)} \left[ r(s, a) + \sum_{s'} V^{*}(s') P_{ss'}^{a} \right]$$

We replaced s by x and a by u, and turned the sum into an integral.

#### Value Iteration

Given this notation the value iteration formula is

$$V_T(x) = \gamma \max_{u} \left[ r(x, u) + \int V_{T-1}(x') p(x' \mid u, x) dx' \right]$$

with

$$V_1(b) = \gamma \max_u r(x, u)$$

#### **POMDPs**

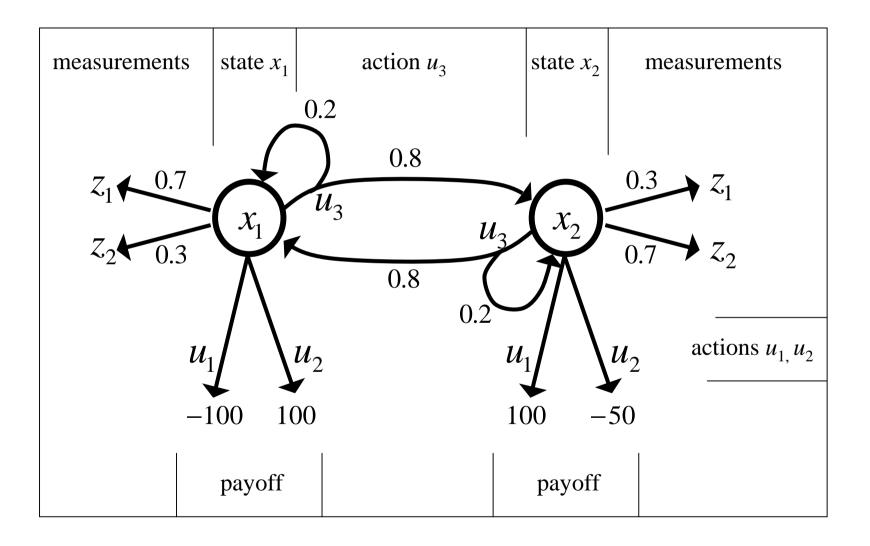
- In POMDPs we apply the very same idea as in MDPs.
- Since the state is not observable, the agent has to make its decisions based on the belief state which is a posterior distribution over states.
- Let b be the belief of the agent about the state under consideration.
- POMDPs compute a value function over belief spaces:

$$V_T(b) = \gamma \max_{u} \left[ r(b, u) + \int V_{T-1}(b') p(b' \mid u, b) db' \right]$$

#### **Problems**

- Each belief is a probability distribution, thus, each value in a POMDP is a function of an entire probability distribution.
- This is problematic, since probability distributions are continuous.
- Additionally, we have to deal with the huge complexity of belief spaces.
- For finite worlds with finite state, action, and measurement spaces and finite horizons, however, we can effectively represent the value functions by piecewise linear functions.

#### An Illustrative Example



#### The Parameters of the Example

- The actions  $u_1$  and  $u_2$  are terminal actions.
- The action  $u_3$  is a sensing action that potentially leads to a state transition.
- The horizon is finite and  $\gamma=1$ .

$$r(x_1, u_1) = -100$$
  $r(x_2, u_1) = +100$   
 $r(x_1, u_2) = +100$   $r(x_2, u_2) = -50$   
 $r(x_1, u_3) = -1$   $r(x_2, u_3) = -1$   
 $p(x'_1|x_1, u_3) = 0.2$   $p(x'_2|x_1, u_3) = 0.8$   
 $p(x'_1|x_2, u_3) = 0.8$   $p(z'_2|x_2, u_3) = 0.2$   
 $p(z_1|x_1) = 0.7$   $p(z_2|x_1) = 0.3$   
 $p(z_1|x_2) = 0.3$   $p(z_2|x_2) = 0.7$ 

#### Payoff in POMDPs

- In MDPs, the payoff (or return) depended on the state of the system.
- In POMDPs, however, the true state is not exactly known.
- Therefore, we compute the expected payoff by integrating over all states:

$$r(b, u) = E_x[r(x, u)]$$
  
=  $\int r(x, u)p(x) dx$   
=  $p_1 r(x_1, u) + p_2 r(x_2, u)$ 

#### Payoffs in Our Example (1)

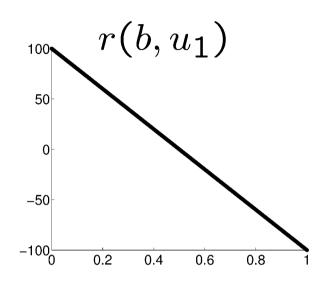
- If we are totally certain that we are in state  $x_1$  and execute action  $u_1$ , we receive a reward of -100
- If, on the other hand, we definitely know that we are in  $x_2$  and execute  $u_1$ , the reward is +100.
- In between it is the linear combination of the extreme values weighted by their probabilities

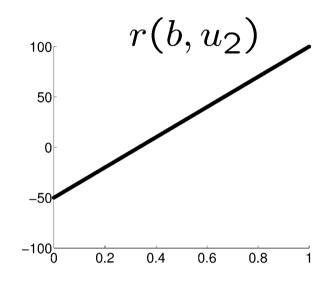
$$r(b, u_1) = -100 p_1 + 100 p_2$$
  
=  $-100 p_1 + 100 (1 - p_1)$ 

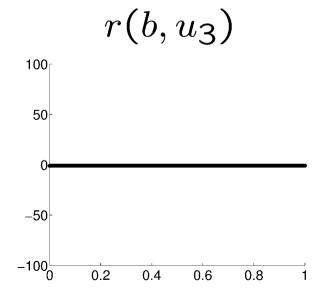
$$r(b, u_2) = 100 p_1 - 50 (1 - p_1)$$

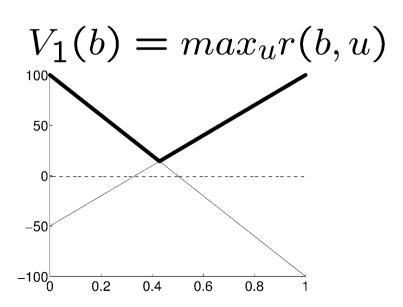
$$r(b, u_3) = -1$$

### Payoffs in Our Example (2)









#### The Resulting Policy for T=1

- Given we have a finite POMDP with T=1, we would use  $V_I(b)$  to determine the optimal policy.
- In our example, the optimal policy for T=1 is

$$\pi_1(b) = \begin{cases} u_1 & \text{if } p_1 \le \frac{3}{7} \\ u_2 & \text{if } p_1 > \frac{3}{7} \end{cases}$$

This is the upper thick graph in the diagram.

#### Piecewise Linearity, Convexity

The resulting value function  $V_1(b)$  is the maximum of the three functions at each point

$$V_1(b) = \max_{u} r(b, u)$$

$$= \max \left\{ \begin{array}{ccc} -100 \ p_1 & +100 \ (1 - p_1) \\ 100 \ p_1 & -50 \ (1 - p_1) \\ -1 \end{array} \right\}$$

It is piecewise linear and convex.

#### Pruning

- If we carefully consider  $V_I(b)$ , we see that only the first two components contribute.
- The third component can therefore safely be pruned away from  $V_i(b)$ .

$$V_1(b) = \max \left\{ \begin{array}{rr} -100 \ p_1 & +100 \ (1-p_1) \\ 100 \ p_1 & -50 \ (1-p_1) \end{array} \right\}$$

#### Increasing the Time Horizon

- If we go over to a time horizon of T=2, the agent can also consider the sensing action  $u_3$ .
- Suppose we perceive  $z_1$  for which  $p(z_1/x_1)=0.7$  and  $p(z_1/x_2)=0.3$ .
- Given the observation  $z_1$  we update the belief using Bayes rule.
- Thus  $V_1(b \mid z_1)$  is given by

$$V_{1}(b \mid z_{1}) = \max \begin{cases} -100 \cdot \frac{0.7 p_{1}}{p(z_{1})} + 100 \cdot \frac{0.3 (1-p_{1})}{p(z_{1})} \\ 100 \cdot \frac{0.7 p_{1}}{p(z_{1})} - 50 \cdot \frac{0.3 (1-p_{1})}{p(z_{1})} \end{cases}$$

$$= \frac{1}{p(z_{1})} \max \begin{cases} -70 p_{1} + 30 (1-p_{1}) \\ 70 p_{1} - 15 (1-p_{1}) \end{cases}$$

#### **Expected Value after Measuring**

Since we do not know in advance what the next measurement will be, we have to compute the expected belief

$$\bar{V}_{1}(b) = E_{z}[V_{1}(b \mid z)]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{2} p(z_{i}) V_{1}(b \mid z_{i})$$

$$= \max \left\{ \begin{array}{ccc}
-70 p_{1} & +30 (1 - p_{1}) \\
70 p_{1} & -15 (1 - p_{1})
\end{array} \right\}$$

$$+ \max \left\{ \begin{array}{ccc}
-30 p_{1} & +70 (1 - p_{1}) \\
30 p_{1} & -35 (1 - p_{1})
\end{array} \right\}$$

#### Resulting Value Function

The four possible combinations yield the following function which again can be simplified and pruned.

$$\bar{V}_{1}(b) = \max \begin{cases} -70 \ p_{1} + 30 \ (1-p_{1}) - 30 \ p_{1} + 70 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ -70 \ p_{1} + 30 \ (1-p_{1}) + 30 \ p_{1} - 35 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ +70 \ p_{1} - 15 \ (1-p_{1}) - 30 \ p_{1} + 70 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ +70 \ p_{1} - 15 \ (1-p_{1}) + 30 \ p_{1} - 35 \ (1-p_{1}) \end{cases}$$

$$= \max \left\{ \begin{array}{ccc} -100 \ p_{1} & +100 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ +40 \ p_{1} & +55 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ +100 \ p_{1} & -50 \ (1-p_{1}) \end{array} \right\}$$

#### State Transitions (Prediction)

- When the agent selects  $u_3$  its state potentially changes.
- When computing the value function, we have to take these potential state changes into account.

$$p'_1 = E_x[p(x_1 | x, u_3)]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{2} p(x_1 | x_i, u_3)p_i$$

$$= 0.2p_1 + 0.8(1 - p_1)$$

$$= 0.8 - 0.6p_1$$

# Resulting Value Function after executing $u_3$

Taking also the state transitions into account, we finally obtain.

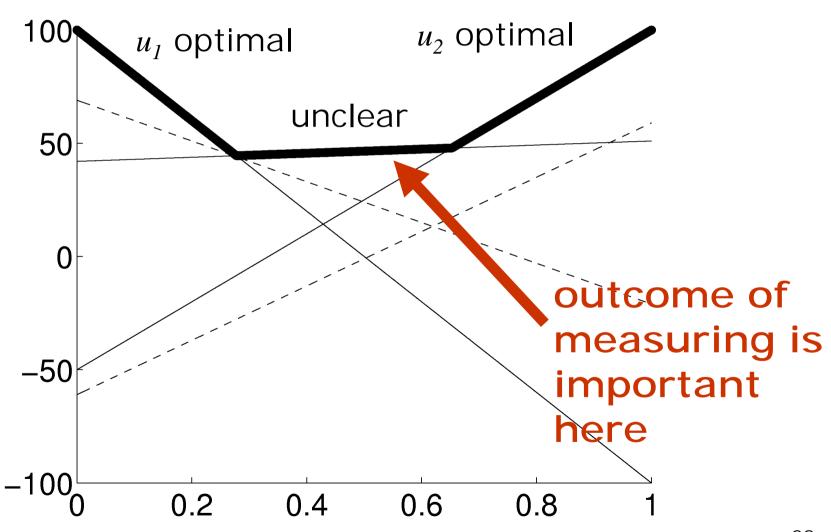
$$\bar{V}_1(b \mid u_3) = \max \left\{ \begin{array}{rrr}
60 \ p_1 & -60 \ (1-p_1) \\
52 \ p_1 & +43 \ (1-p_1) \\
-20 \ p_1 & +70 \ (1-p_1)
\end{array} \right\}$$

#### Value Function for T=2

■ Taking into account that the agent can either directly perform  $u_1$  or  $u_2$ , or first  $u_3$  and then  $u_1$  or  $u_2$ , we obtain (after pruning)

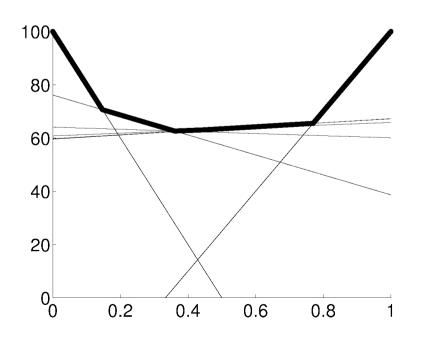
$$ar{V}_2(b) = \max \left\{ egin{array}{ll} -100 \ p_1 & +100 \ (1-p_1) \ 100 \ p_1 & -50 \ (1-p_1) \ 51 \ p_1 & +42 \ (1-p_1) \end{array} 
ight\}$$

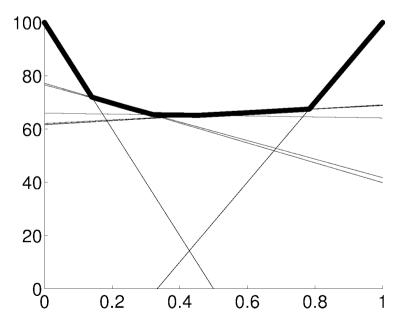
# Graphical Representation of $V_2(b)$



#### Deep Horizons and Pruning

- We have now completed a full backup in belief space.
- This process can be applied recursively.
- The value functions for T=10 and T=20 are





#### Why Pruning is Essential

- Each update introduces additional linear components to V.
- Each measurement squares the number of linear components.
- Thus, an unpruned value function for T=20 includes more than 10<sup>547,864</sup> linear functions.
- At T=30 we have  $10^{561,012,337}$  linear functions.
- The pruned value functions at T=20, in comparison, contains only 12 linear components.
- The combinatorial explosion of linear components in the value function are the major reason why POMDPs are impractical for most applications.

#### A Summary on POMDPs

- POMDPs compute the optimal action in partially observable, stochastic domains.
- For finite horizon problems, the resulting value functions are piecewise linear and convex.
- In each iteration the number of linear constraints grows exponentially.
- POMDPs so far have only been applied successfully to very small state spaces with small numbers of possible observations and actions.