# Partially Observable Markov Decision Processes Chapter 17

Mausam (Based on slides by Dieter Fox, Lee Wee Sun)





## Stochastic, Fully Observable





### Stochastic, Partially Observable



## **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 current state
- POMDPs compute a value function over belief space:

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

## **POMDPs**

- Each belief is a probability distribution,
  - value fn is a function of an entire probability distribution.
- Problematic, since probability distributions are continuous.
- Also, we have to deal with huge complexity of belief spaces.

- For finite worlds with finite state, action, and observation spaces and finite horizons,
  - we can represent the value functions by piecewise linear functions.

# Applications

- Robotic control
  - helicopter maneuvering, autonomous vehicles
  - Mars rover path planning, oversubscription planning
  - elevator planning
- Game playing backgammon, tetris, checkers
- Neuroscience
- Computational Finance, Sequential Auctions
- Assisting elderly in simple tasks
- Spoken dialog management
- Communication Networks switching, routing, flow control
- War planning, evacuation planning

# **Dialog Systems**



 Aim: Find out what the person wants

- Actions: Ask appropriate questions
- Observations: Output of speech recognizer

# **Assistive Technology**



- Aim: Assist person with dementia in handwashing
- Actions: Prompt the person with suggestions when appropriate
- Observations: Video of activity

POMDP

Hoey, Von Bertoldi, Poupart, Mihailidis 2007

## Aircraft Collision Avoidance System



- Aim: Avoid collision with nearby aircraft
- Actions: Maneuver the UAV
- Observations: Limited view sensors

<u>Image from</u> http://web.mit.edu/temizer/www/selim/ Temitzer, Kochenderfer, Kaelbling, Lozano-Perez, Kuchar 2010 Bai, Hsu, Lee, Kochenderfer 2011

- Commonalities in the examples
  - Need to learn, estimate or track the current state of the system from history of actions and observations
  - Based on current state estimate, select an action that leads to good outcomes, not just currently but also in future (planning)

# **Powerful but Intractable**

- Partially Observable Markov Decision Process (POMDP) is a very powerful modeling tool
- But with great power
   ... comes great intractability!

No known way to solve it quickly

No small policy



# State Space Size

Moderate state space size





navigation

tracking



- simple grasping
- Exact belief and policy evaluation

Very large, continuous state spaces



 Approximate belief and policy evaluation

# Partially Observable Markov Decision Process

- Partially Observable Markov Decision Process (POMDP) <S,A,T,R,Ω,O>
- Observations Ω: Set of possible observations
  - Navigation example:
    - Set of locations output by GPS sensor



Robot navigation

POMDP

# POMDP <*S*,*A*,*T*,*R*,*Ω*,*O*>

- Observation probability function O: Probability of observing o in state s' when previous action is a
  - *O(o, a, s')* = Pr*(o | a, s')*
  - Navigation example:
    - Darker shade, higher probability





# Belief

- POMDP <*S*,*A*,*T*,*R*,*Ω*,*O*>
- Belief *b*: Probability of state *s*
  - $b(s) = \Pr(s)$
  - Navigation example:
    - Exact position of robot unknown
    - Only have probability distribution of positions, obtained through sensor readings



Robot navigation

POMDP

# **POMDP** Policy

- POMDP
   <*S*,*A*,*T*,*R*,Ω,*O*>
- Policy π : Function from belief to action
  - *a* = π(*b*)
  - Navigation example:
    - Which way to move, based on current belief



#### Robot navigation

## POMDP

# POMDP <*S*,*A*,*T*,*R*,*Ω*,*O*>

*R(a,b)*: Expected reward for taking action *a* when belief is *b*

$$R(a,b) = E(R(s,a,s))$$

$$=\sum_{i}\sum_{j}T(s_{i},a,s_{j})b(s_{i})R(s_{i},a,s_{j})$$

• Optimal Policy  $\pi^*$ : Function  $\pi$  that maximizes  $\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t R(\pi(b_t), b_t)$ 



# **Value Function**

- POMDP <*S*,*A*,*T*,*R*,*Ω*,*O*>
- Value function for π : Expected return for starting from belief b

$$V^{\pi}(b) = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t R(\pi(b_t), b_t),$$

with 
$$b_0 = b$$

 Optimal value function V\*: Value function associated with an optimal policy π\*



#### Robot navigation

### POMDP

# An Illustrative Example



### The Parameters of the Example

- The actions u<sub>1</sub> and u<sub>2</sub> are terminal actions.
- The action u<sub>3</sub> is a sensing action that potentially leads to a state transition.
- The horizon is finite and  $\gamma = 1$ .

$$\begin{aligned} r(x_1, u_1) &= -100 & r(x_2, u_1) &= +100 \\ r(x_1, u_2) &= +100 & r(x_2, u_2) &= -50 \\ r(x_1, u_3) &= -1 & r(x_2, u_3) &= -1 \end{aligned}$$

- $p(x'_1|x_1, u_3) = 0.2 \qquad p(x'_2|x_1, u_3) = 0.8$  $p(x'_1|x_2, u_3) = 0.8 \qquad p(z'_2|x_2, u_3) = 0.2$ 
  - $p(z_1|x_1) = 0.7$   $p(z_2|x_1) = 0.3$  $p(z_1|x_2) = 0.3$   $p(z_2|x_2) = 0.7$

# **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<sub>1</sub> and execute action u<sub>1</sub>, 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 the probabilities

$$r(b, u_1) = -100 p_1 + 100 p_2$$
  
= -100 p\_1 + 100 (1 - p\_1)

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

$$r(b, u_3) = -1$$
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Payoffs in Our Example (2)



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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

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

• This is the upper thick graph in the diagram.

Piecewise Linearity, Convexity

The resulting value function V<sub>1</sub>(b) is the maximum of the three functions at each point

$$V_1(b) = \max_u r(b, u)$$
  
= 
$$\max \left\{ \begin{array}{rrr} -100 \ p_1 & +100 \ (1 - p_1) \\ 100 \ p_1 & -50 \ (1 - p_1) \\ -1 \end{array} \right\}$$

It is piecewise linear and convex.

# Pruning

- If we carefully consider V<sub>1</sub>(b), we see that only the first two components contribute.
- The third component can therefore safely be pruned away from V<sub>1</sub>(b).

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

## Increasing the Time Horizon

Assume the robot can make an observation before deciding on an action.



## Increasing the Time Horizon

- Assume the robot can make an observation before deciding on an action.
- Suppose the robot perceives  $z_1$  for which  $p(z_1 | x_1) = 0.7$  and  $p(z_1 | x_2) = 0.3$ .
- Given the observation z<sub>1</sub> we update the belief using Bayes rule.

$$p'_{1} = \frac{0.7 p_{1}}{p(z_{1})}$$

$$p'_{2} = \frac{0.3(1 - p_{1})}{p(z_{1})}$$

$$p(z_{1}) = 0.7 p_{1} + 0.3(1 - p_{1}) = 0.4 p_{1} + 0.3$$

## Increasing the Time Horizon

- Assume the robot can make an observation before deciding on an action.
- Suppose the robot perceives  $z_1$  for which  $p(z_1 | x_1) = 0.7$  and  $p(z_1 | x_2) = 0.3$ .
- Given the observation z<sub>1</sub> we update the belief using Bayes rule.
- Thus  $V_{I}(b \mid z_{1})$  is given by

$$V_{1}(b \mid z_{1}) = \max \begin{cases} -100 \cdot \frac{0.7 p_{1}}{p(z_{1})} + 100 \cdot \frac{0.3 (1-p_{1})}{p(z_{1})} \\ 100 \cdot \frac{0.7 p_{1}}{p(z_{1})} - 50 \cdot \frac{0.3 (1-p_{1})}{p(z_{1})} \end{cases} \\ = \frac{1}{p(z_{1})} \max \begin{cases} -70 p_{1} + 30 (1-p_{1}) \\ 70 p_{1} - 15 (1-p_{1}) \end{cases} \end{cases}_{32}$$

**Expected Value after Measuring** 

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

$$\overline{V_1}(b) = E_z[V_1(b \mid z)] = \sum_{i=1}^2 p(z_i)V_1(b \mid z_i)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^2 p(z_i)V_1\left(\frac{p(z_i \mid x_1)p_1}{p(z_i)}\right)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^2 V_1(p(z_i \mid x_1)p_1)$$

**Expected Value after Measuring** 

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

$$\overline{V}_{1}(b) = E_{z}[V_{1}(b \mid z)] \\
= \sum_{i=1}^{2} p(z_{i}) V_{1}(b \mid z_{i}) \\
= \max \left\{ \begin{array}{cc} -70 \ p_{1} & +30 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ 70 \ p_{1} & -15 \ (1-p_{1}) \end{array} \right\} \\
+ \max \left\{ \begin{array}{cc} -30 \ p_{1} & +70 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ 30 \ p_{1} & -35 \ (1-p_{1}) \end{array} \right\}$$

## **Resulting Value Function**

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

$$\bar{V}_{1}(b) = \max \begin{cases} -70 \ p_{1} \ +30 \ (1-p_{1}) \ -30 \ p_{1} \ +70 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ -70 \ p_{1} \ +30 \ (1-p_{1}) \ +30 \ p_{1} \ -35 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ +70 \ p_{1} \ -15 \ (1-p_{1}) \ -30 \ p_{1} \ +70 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ +70 \ p_{1} \ -15 \ (1-p_{1}) \ +30 \ p_{1} \ -35 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ +30 \ p_{1} \ -35 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ +40 \ p_{1} \ +55 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ +100 \ p_{1} \ -50 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ \end{cases}$$

### **Value Function**



**State Transitions (Prediction)** 

 When the agent selects u<sub>3</sub> its state potentially changes.



Resulting Value Function after executing  $u_3$ 

Taking the state transitions into account, we finally obtain.

$$\bar{V}_{1}(b) = \max \begin{cases} -70 \ p_{1} \ +30 \ (1-p_{1}) \ -30 \ p_{1} \ +70 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ -70 \ p_{1} \ +30 \ (1-p_{1}) \ +30 \ p_{1} \ -35 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ +70 \ p_{1} \ -15 \ (1-p_{1}) \ -30 \ p_{1} \ +70 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ +70 \ p_{1} \ -15 \ (1-p_{1}) \ +30 \ p_{1} \ -35 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ +40 \ p_{1} \ +55 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ +100 \ p_{1} \ -50 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ +100 \ p_{1} \ -50 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\bar{V}_{1}(b \mid u_{3}) = \max \begin{cases} 60 \ p_{1} \ -60 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ 52 \ p_{1} \ +43 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ -20 \ p_{1} \ +70 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ \end{pmatrix}$$
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Value Function after executing  $u_3$ 



Value Function for T=2

 Taking into account that the agent can either directly perform u<sub>1</sub> or u<sub>2</sub> or first u<sub>3</sub> and then u<sub>1</sub> or u<sub>2</sub>, we obtain (after pruning)

$$\bar{V}_{2}(b) = \max \left\{ \begin{array}{rrr} -100 \ p_{1} & +100 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ 100 \ p_{1} & -50 \ (1-p_{1}) \\ 51 \ p_{1} & +42 \ (1-p_{1}) \end{array} \right\}$$

# **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



## **Deep Horizons and Pruning**





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1: Algorithm POMDP(*T*):  $\Upsilon = (0, \ldots, 0)$ 2: 3: for  $\tau = 1$  to T do  $\Upsilon' = \emptyset$ 4: 5: for all  $(u'; v_1^k, \ldots, v_N^k)$  in  $\Upsilon$  do for all control actions u do 6: 7: for all measurements z do 8: for j = 1 to N do  $v_{j,u,z}^{k} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} v_{i}^{k} p(z \mid x_{i}) p(x_{i} \mid u, x_{j})$ 9: endfor 10:11: endfor 12: endfor 13: endfor 14:for all control actions u do 15: for all k(1), ..., k(M) = (1, ..., 1) to  $(|\Upsilon|, ..., |\Upsilon|)$  do 16: for i = 1 to N do  $v_i' = \gamma \left[ r(x_i, u) + \sum_z v_{u, z, i}^{k(z)} \right]$ 17:18:endfor add  $(u; v'_1, \ldots, v'_N)$  to  $\Upsilon'$ 19: 20: endfor 21: endfor 22: optional: prune  $\Upsilon'$ 23:  $\Upsilon = \Upsilon'$ 24: endfor 25: return  $\Upsilon$ 

# 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.

# **POMDP Summary**

- 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.