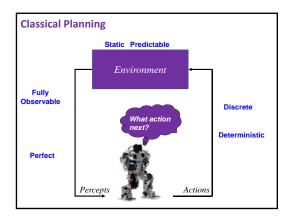
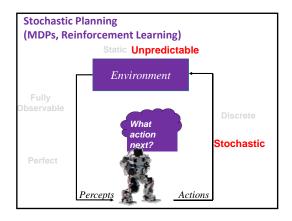
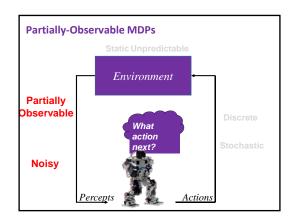
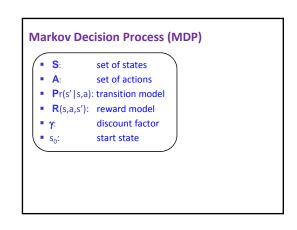
CSE-473 Artificial Intelligence

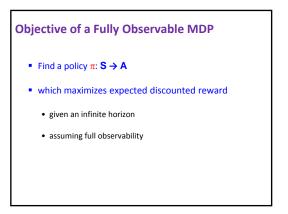
Partially-Observable MDPS
(POMDPs)



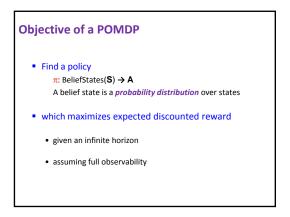


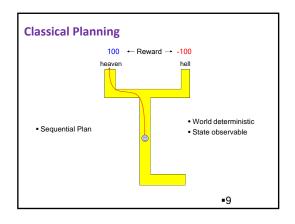


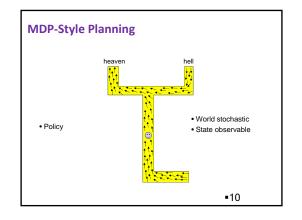


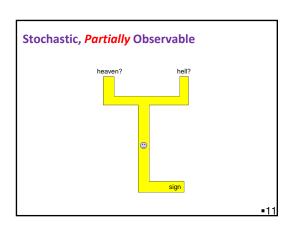


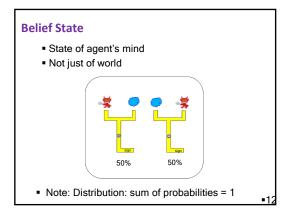
Partially-Observable MDP S: set of states A: set of actions Pr(s'|s,a): transition model R(s,a,s'): reward model γ: discount factor s₀: start state E set of possible evidence (observations) Pr(e|s)

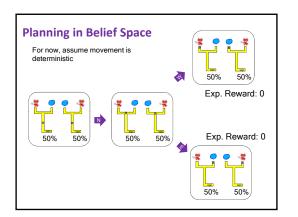


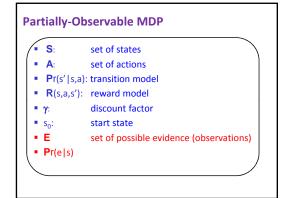


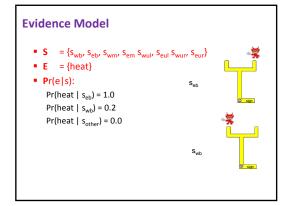


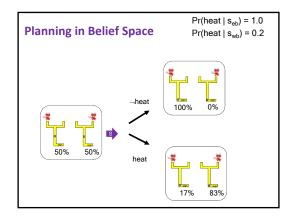












POMDPs

- 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 space:

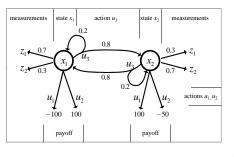
$$V_T(b) = \max_{u} \left[r(b, u) + \bigvee V_{T-1}(b') p(b' \mid u, b) \ db' \right]$$

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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.
- How many belief states are there?
- 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 $\gamma = 1$.

$$r(x_1, u_1) = -100 \qquad r(x_2, u_1) = +100$$

$$r(x_1, u_2) = +100 \qquad r(x_2, u_2) = -50 \longleftarrow$$

$$r(x_1, u_3) = -1 \qquad r(x_2, u_3) = -1$$

$$p(x_1'|x_1, u_3) = 0.2 \qquad p(x_2'|x_1, u_3) = 0.8$$

$$p(x_1'|x_2, u_3) = 0.8 \qquad p(z_2'|x_2, u_3) = 0.2$$

$$p(z_1|x_1) = 0.7 \qquad p(z_2|x_1) = 0.3$$

$$p(z_1|x_2) = 0.3 \qquad p(z_2|z_2) = 0.7$$

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:

$$r(b,u) = E_x[r(x,u)]$$

$$= \int r(x,u)p(x) dx$$

$$= p_1 r(x_1,u) + p_2 r(x_2,u)$$
₂₁

Payoffs in Our Example (1)

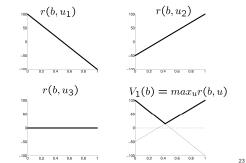
- If we are totally certain that we are in state x_i and execute action u_{ij} we receive a reward of -100
- If, on the other hand, we definitely know that we are in x_2 and execute u_1 , the reward is +100.
- In between it is the linear combination of the extreme values weighted by the probabilities

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

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

 $r(b, u_3) = -1$

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 $V_l(b)$ is the maximum of the three functions at each point

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

It is piecewise linear and convex.

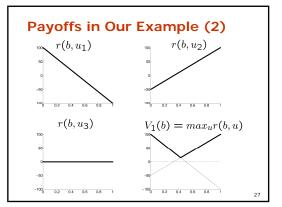
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Pruning

- 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 $V_I(b)$.

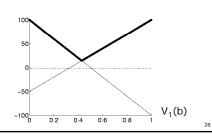
$$V_1(b) = \max \left\{ \begin{array}{ccc} -100 \; p_1 & +100 \; (1-p_1) \\ 100 \; p_1 & -50 \; (1-p_1) \end{array} \right\}$$

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Increasing the Time Horizon

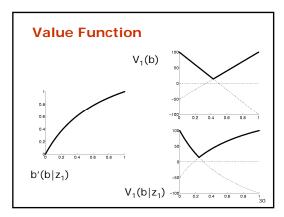
 Assume the robot can make an observation before deciding on an action.



Increasing the Time Horizon

- Assume the robot can make an observation before deciding on an action.
- Suppose the robot perceives z_I for which $p(z_I/x_I)=0.7$ and $p(z_I/x_2)=0.3$.
- Given the observation z_l we update the belief using Bayes rule.

$$\begin{aligned} p'_1 &= \frac{0.7 \, p_1}{p(z_1)} \\ p'_2 &= \frac{0.3(1 - p_1)}{p(z_1)} \\ p(z_1) &= 0.7 \, p_1 + 0.3(1 - p_1) = 0.4 \, p_1 + 0.3 \end{aligned}$$



Increasing the Time Horizon

- Assume the robot can make an observation before deciding on an action.
- Suppose the robot perceives z_l for which $p(z_l \mid x_l) = 0.7$ and $p(z_l \mid x_2) = 0.3$.
- Given the observation z_l we update the belief using Bayes rule.
- Thus $V_I(b \mid z_1)$ is given by

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

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

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

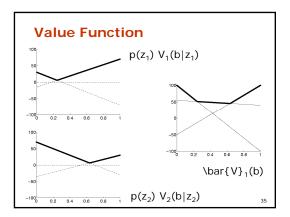
$$\begin{split} \bar{V}_1(b) &= E_z[V_1(b \mid z)] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^2 p(z_i) \, V_1(b \mid z_i) \\ &= \max \left\{ \begin{array}{l} -70 \, p_1 \, + 30 \, (1-p_1) \\ 70 \, p_1 \, - 15 \, (1-p_1) \end{array} \right\} \\ &+ \max \left\{ \begin{array}{l} -30 \, p_1 \, + 70 \, (1-p_1) \\ 30 \, p_1 \, - 35 \, (1-p_1) \end{array} \right\} \end{split}$$

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Resulting Value Function

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

$$\begin{split} \bar{V}_1(b) \;\; &= \;\; \max \left\{ \begin{array}{l} -70\;p_1\;\; +30\;(1-p_1)\;\; -30\;p_1\;\; +70\;(1-p_1) \\ -70\;p_1\;\; +30\;(1-p_1)\;\; +30\;p_1\;\; -35\;(1-p_1) \\ +70\;p_1\;\; -15\;(1-p_1)\;\; -30\;p_1\;\; +70\;(1-p_1) \\ +70\;p_1\;\; -15\;(1-p_1)\;\; +30\;p_1\;\; -35\;(1-p_1) \end{array} \right\} \\ &= \;\; \max \left\{ \begin{array}{l} -100\;p_1\;\; +100\;(1-p_1) \\ +40\;p_1\;\; +55\;(1-p_1) \\ +100\;p_1\;\; -50\;(1-p_1) \end{array} \right\} \end{split}$$



State Transitions (Prediction) When the agent selects u_i its state potentially

- changes.

 When computing the value function, we have to take
- When computing the value function, we have to take these potential state changes into account.

$$p_1' = E_x[p(x_1 \mid x, u_3)]$$

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

$$= 0.2p_1 + 0.8(1 - p_1)_{0.2}$$

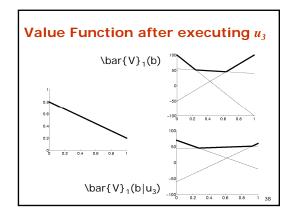
$$= 0.8 - 0.6p_1$$

$$= 0.8 - 0.6p_1$$

Resulting Value Function after executing u_3

Taking the state transitions into account, we finally obtain.

$$\begin{split} \bar{V}_1(b) &= \max \begin{cases} -70 \ p_1 \ +30 \ (1-p_1) \ -30 \ p_1 \ +70 \ (1-p_1) \\ -70 \ p_1 \ +30 \ (1-p_1) \ +30 \ p_1 \ -35 \ (1-p_1) \\ +70 \ p_1 \ -15 \ (1-p_1) \ +30 \ p_1 \ -35 \ (1-p_1) \end{cases} \\ &= \max \begin{cases} -100 \ p_1 \ +100 \ (1-p_1) \\ +40 \ p_1 \ +55 \ (1-p_1) \\ +100 \ p_1 \ -50 \ (1-p_1) \end{cases} \\ \\ \bar{V}_1(b \mid u_3) &= \max \begin{cases} 60 \ p_1 \ -60 \ (1-p_1) \\ 52 \ p_1 \ +43 \ (1-p_1) \\ -20 \ p_1 \ +70 \ (1-p_1) \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

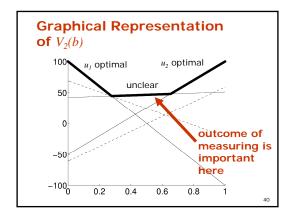


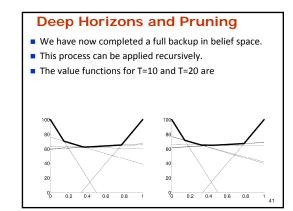
Value Function for T=2

■ 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)

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

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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^{547,864} 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.