Lecture slides for Automated Planning: Theory and Practice

#### Chapter 16 Planning Based on Markov Decision Processes

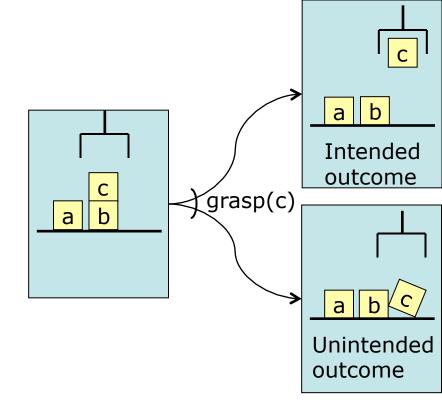
#### Dana S. Nau University of Maryland

12:48 PM February 29, 2012

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#### **Motivation**

- Until now, we've assumed that each action has only one possible outcome
  - But often that's unrealistic
- In many situations, actions may have more than one possible outcome
  - Action failures
    - » e.g., gripper drops its load
  - Exogenous events
    - » e.g., road closed
- Would like to be able to plan in such situations
- One approach: Markov Decision Processes



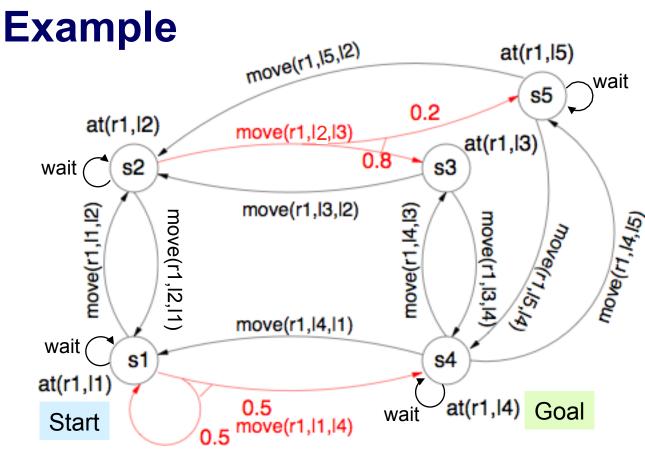


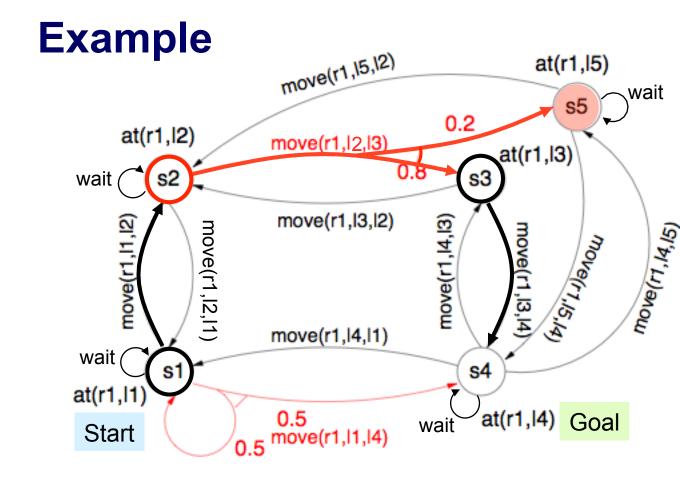
#### **Stochastic Systems**

- Stochastic system: a triple  $\Sigma = (S, A, P)$ 
  - S = finite set of states
  - A = finite set of actions
  - $P_a(s' | s)$  = probability of going to s' if we execute a in s
  - $\sum_{s' \in S} P_a(s' \mid s) = 1$
- Several different possible action representations
  - e.g., Bayes networks, probabilistic operators
- The book does not commit to any particular representation
  - It only deals with the underlying semantics
  - Explicit enumeration of each  $P_a(s' | s)$

#### Robot r1 starts at location l1

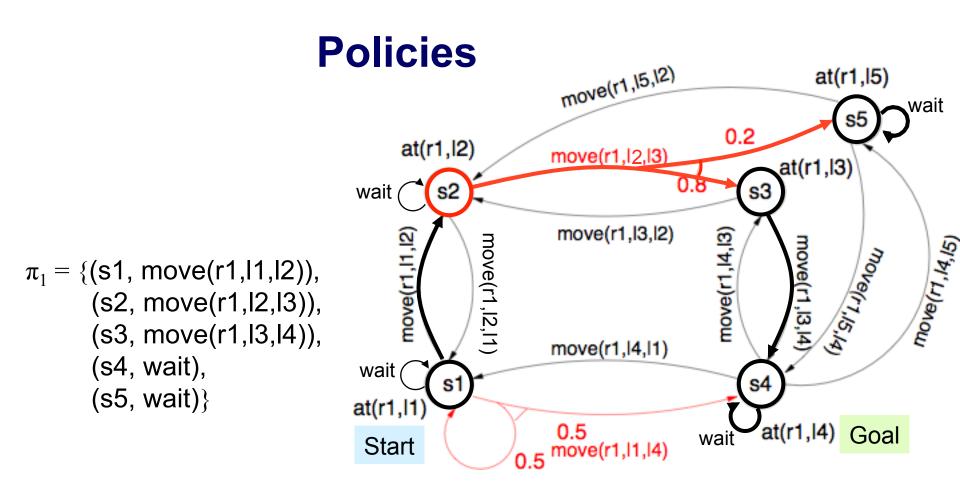
- State s1 in the diagram
- Objective is to get r1 to location l4
  - State s4 in the diagram





- Robot r1 starts at location l1
  - State s1 in the diagram
- Objective is to get r1 to location l4
  - State s4 in the diagram
- No classical plan (sequence of actions) can be a solution, because we can't guarantee we'll be in a state where the next action is applicable

 $\pi = \langle \text{move}(r1, I1, I2), \text{move}(r1, I2, I3), \text{move}(r1, I3, I4) \rangle$ 

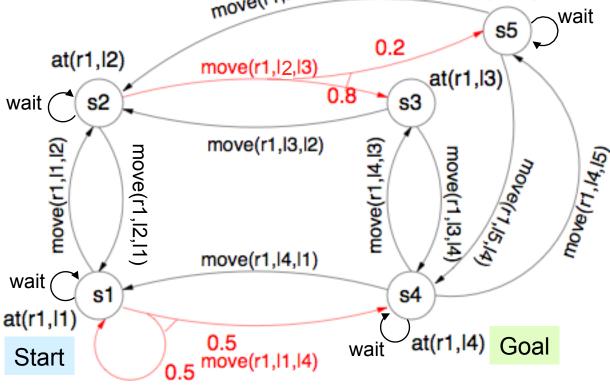


• *Policy*: a function that maps states into actions

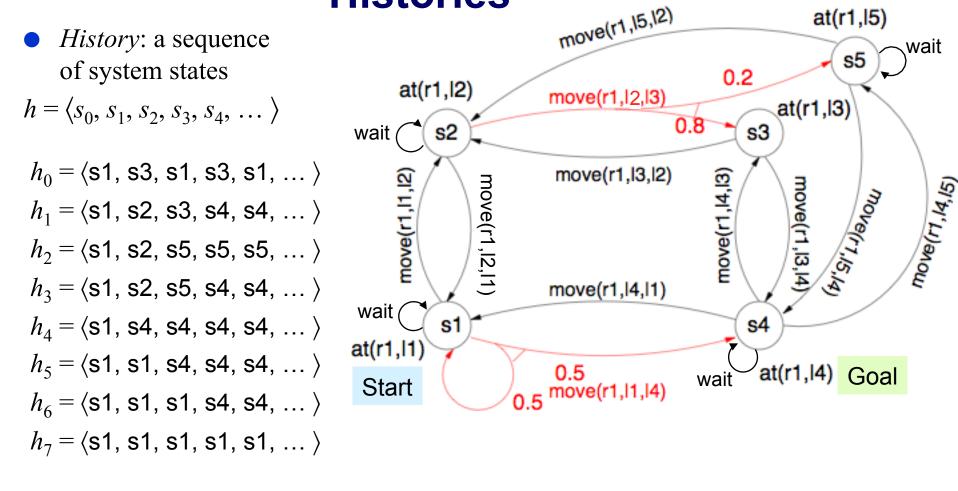
Write it as a set of state-action pairs

# **Initial States** s, there at(r1,l2) move(r1,l2,l3)wait (192) 0.8

- For every state s, there will be a probability
   P(s) that the system starts in s
- The book assumes there's a unique state  $s_0$  such that the system always starts in  $s_0$
- In the example, s<sub>0</sub> = s1
   P(s1) = 1
   P(s) = 0 for all s ≠ s1



at(r1,l5)



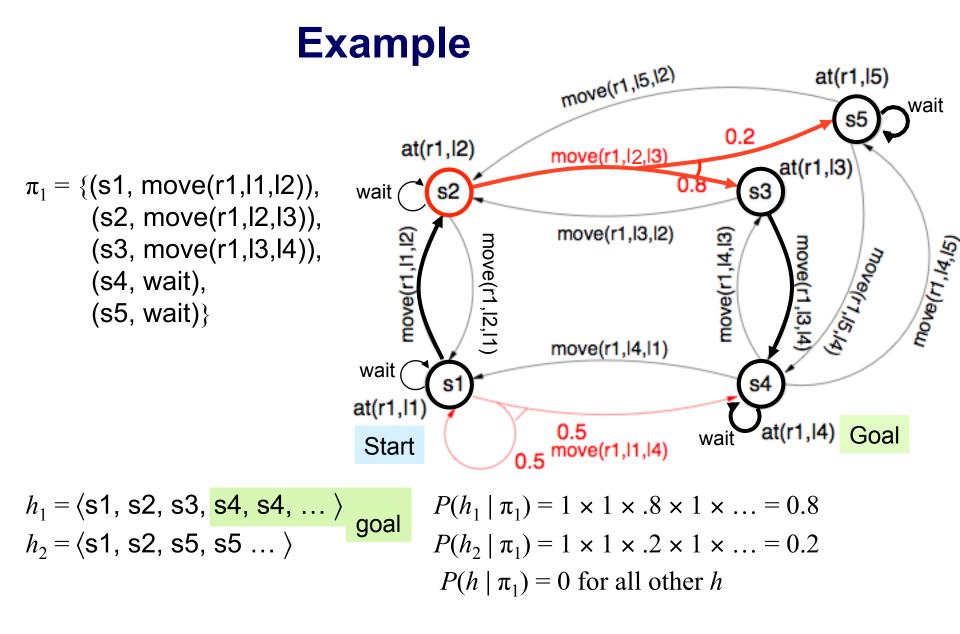
**Histories** 

• Each policy induces a probability distribution over histories

• If 
$$h = \langle s_0, s_1, \dots \rangle$$
 then  $P(h|\pi) = \frac{P(s_0)}{\pi} \prod_{i \ge 0} P_{\pi(S_i)}(s_{i+1} | s_i)$ 

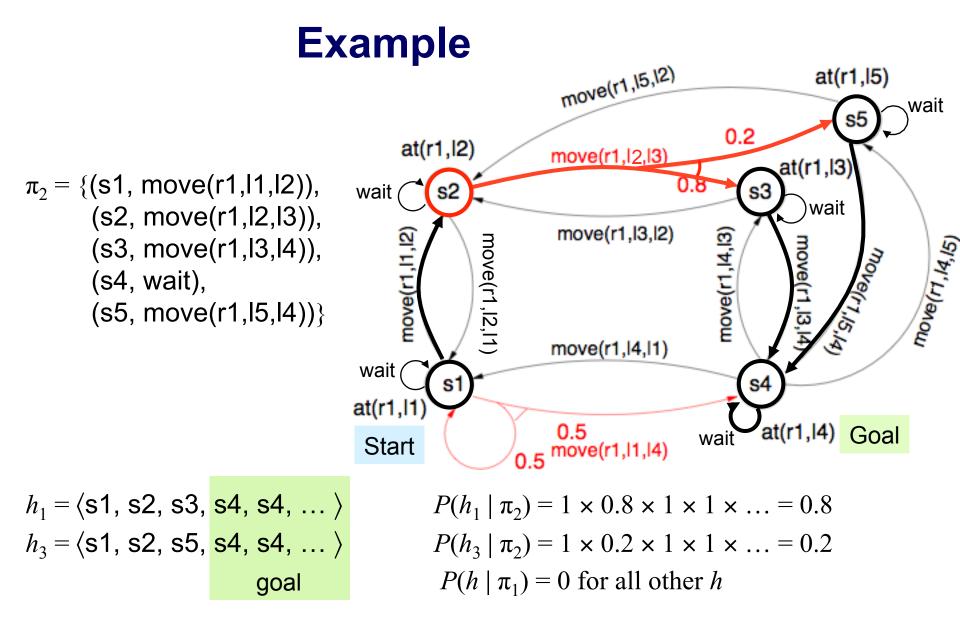
The book omits this because it assumes a unique starting state

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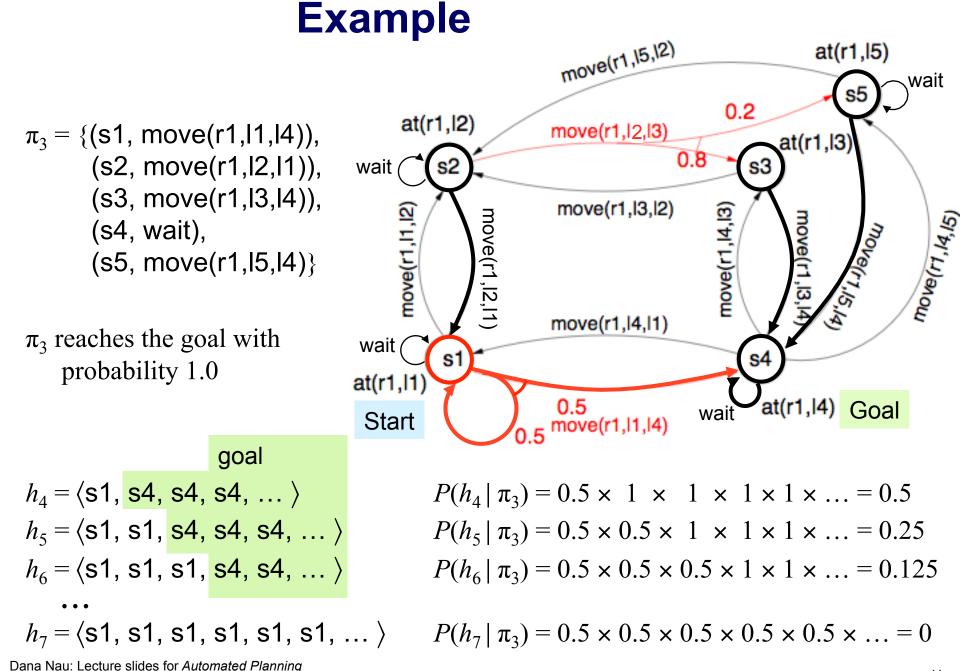
so  $\pi_1$  reaches the goal with probability 0.8

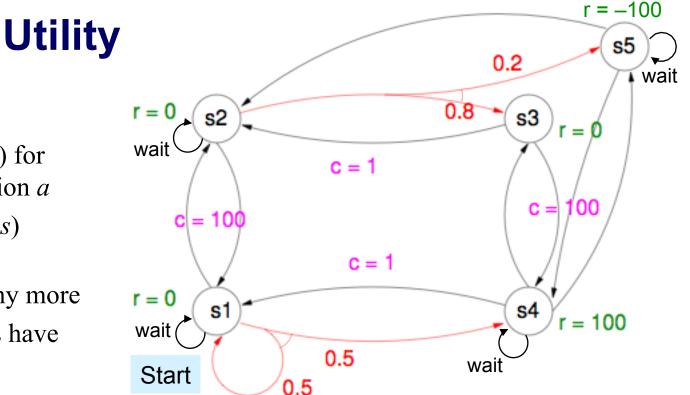
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so  $\pi_2$  reaches the goal with probability 1

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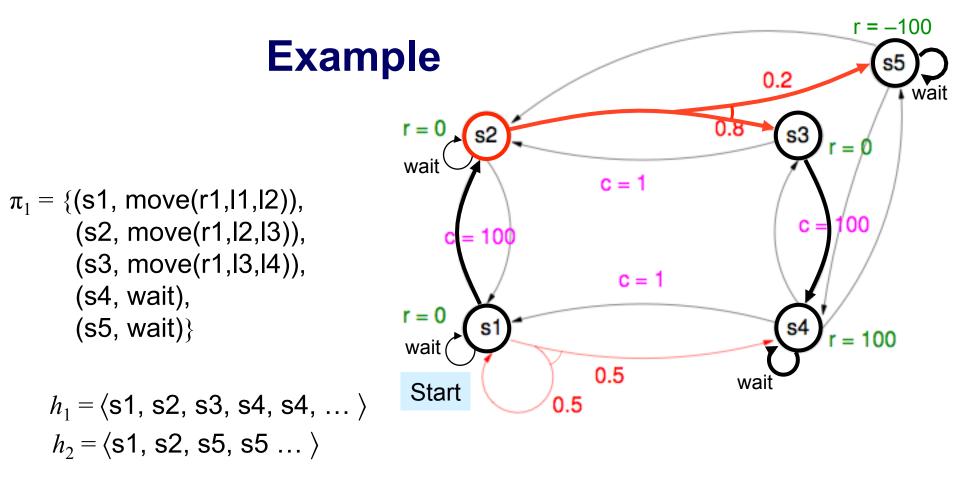




- Numeric *cost C*(*s*,*a*) for each state *s* and action *a*
- Numeric *reward* R(s) for each state s
- No explicit goals any more
  - Desirable states have high rewards
- Example:
  - C(s,wait) = 0 at every state except s3
  - C(s,a) = 1 for each "horizontal" action
  - C(s,a) = 100 for each "vertical" action
  - R as shown
- Utility of a history:

• If  $h = \langle s_0, s_1, ... \rangle$ , then  $V(h \mid \pi) = \sum_{i \ge 0} [R(s_i) - C(s_i, \pi(s_i))]$ 

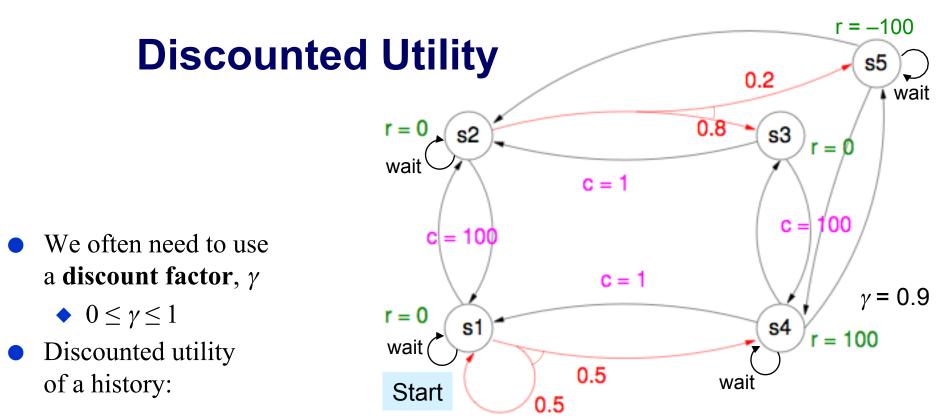
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 $V(h_1|\pi_1) = [R(s1) - C(s1,\pi_1(s1))] + [R(s2) - C(s2,\pi_1(s2))] + [R(s3) - C(s3,\pi_1(s3))] + [R(s4) - C(s4,\pi_1(s4))] + [R(s4) - C(s4,\pi_1(s4))] + \dots$ =  $[0 - 100] + [0 - 1] + [0 - 100] + [100 - 0] + [100 - 0] + \dots = \infty$ 

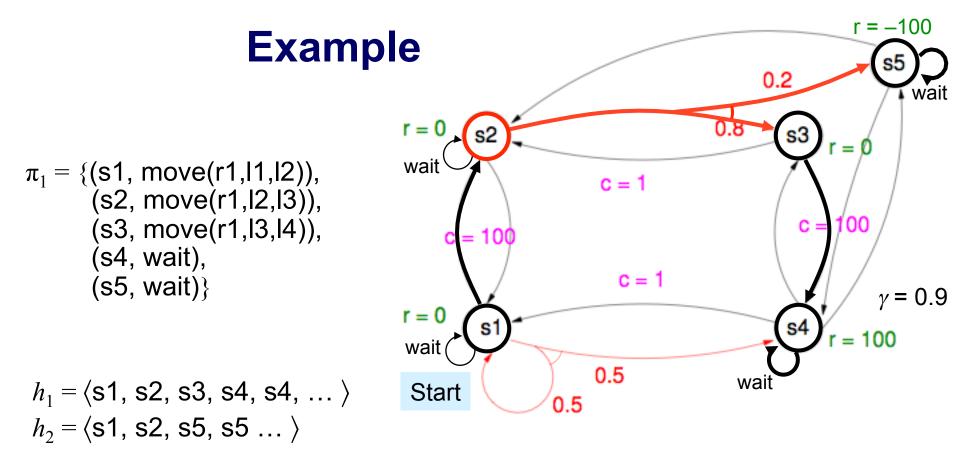
 $V(h_2|\pi_1) = [0-100] + [0-1] + [-100-0] + [-100-0] + [-100-0] + \dots = -\infty$ 

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$$V(h \mid \pi) = \sum_{i \ge 0} \gamma^i [R(s_i) - C(s_i, \pi(s_i))]$$

- Distant rewards/costs have less influence
- Convergence is guaranteed if  $0 \le \gamma < 1$
- Expected utility of a policy:
  - $E(\pi) = \sum_{h} P(h|\pi) V(h|\pi)$



$$\begin{split} V(h_1|\pi_1) &= .9^0[0-100] + .9^1[0-1] + .9^2[0-100] + .9^3[100-0] + .9^4[100-0] + \dots \\ &= 547.9 \end{split}$$

 $V(h_2|\pi_1) = .9^0[0 - 100] + .9^1[0 - 1] + .9^2[-100 - 0] + .9^3[-100 - 0] + \dots = -910.1$ 

 $E(\pi_1) = 0.8 V(h_1|\pi_1) + 0.2 V(h_2|\pi_1) = 0.8(547.9) + 0.2(-910.1) = 256.3$ 

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#### **Planning as Optimization**

- For the rest of this chapter, a special case:
  - Start at state  $s_0$
  - All rewards are 0
  - Consider *cost* rather than *utility* 
    - » the negative of what we had before
- This makes the equations slightly simpler
  - Can easily generalize everything to the case of nonzero rewards
- Discounted cost of a history *h*:
  - $C(h \mid \pi) = \sum_{i \ge 0} \gamma^i C(s_i, \pi(s_i))$
- Expected cost of a policy  $\pi$ :
  - $E(\pi) = \sum_{h} P(h \mid \pi) C(h \mid \pi)$
- A policy  $\pi$  is *optimal* if for every  $\pi'$ ,  $E(\pi) \le E(\pi')$
- A policy  $\pi$  is *everywhere optimal* if for every *s* and every  $\pi'$ ,  $E_{\pi}(s) \leq E_{\pi'}(s)$ 
  - where  $E_{\pi}(s)$  is the expected utility if we start at s rather than  $s_0$

## **Bellman's Theorem**

• If  $\pi$  is any policy, then for every *s*,

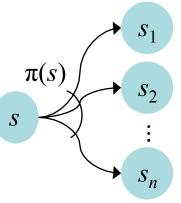
•  $E_{\pi}(s) = C(s, \pi(s)) + \gamma \sum_{s \in S} P_{\pi(s)}(s' \mid s) E_{\pi}(s')$ 

• Let  $Q_{\pi}(s,a)$  be the expected cost in a state *s* if we start by executing the action *a*, and use the policy  $\pi$  from then onward

• 
$$Q_{\pi}(s,a) = C(s,a) + \gamma \sum_{s' \in S} P_a(s' \mid s) E_{\pi}(s')$$

- **Bellman's theorem:** Suppose  $\pi^*$  is everywhere optimal. Then for every s,  $E_{\pi^*}(s) = \min_{a \in A(s)} Q_{\pi^*}(s, a)$ .
- Intuition:
  - If we use π\* everywhere else, then the set of optimal actions at s is arg min<sub>a∈A(s)</sub> Q<sub>π\*</sub>(s,a)
  - If  $\pi^*$  is optimal, then at each state it should pick one of those actions
  - Otherwise we can construct a better policy by using an action in arg min<sub>a∈A(s)</sub> Q<sub>π\*</sub>(s,a), instead of the action that π\* uses
- From Bellman's theorem it follows that for all *s*,

• 
$$E_{\pi^*}(s) = \min_{a \in A(s)} \{ C(s,a) + \gamma \sum_{s' \in S} P_a(s' \mid s) E_{\pi^*}(s') \}$$



#### **Policy Iteration**

- Policy iteration is a way to find  $\pi^*$ 
  - Suppose there are *n* states  $s_1, ..., s_n$
  - Start with an arbitrary initial policy  $\pi_1$
  - For i = 1, 2, ...
    - » Compute  $\pi_i$ 's expected costs by solving *n* equations with *n* unknowns
      - *n* instances of the first equation on the previous slide

$$E_{\pi_{i}}(s_{1}) = C(s, \pi_{i}(s_{1})) + \gamma \sum_{k=1}^{n} P_{\pi_{i}(s_{1})}(s_{k} | s_{1}) E_{\pi_{i}}(s_{k})$$
  

$$\vdots$$
  

$$E_{\pi_{i}}(s_{n}) = C(s, \pi_{i}(s_{n})) + \gamma \sum_{k=1}^{n} P_{\pi_{i}(s_{n})}(s_{k} | s_{n}) E_{\pi_{i}}(s_{k})$$

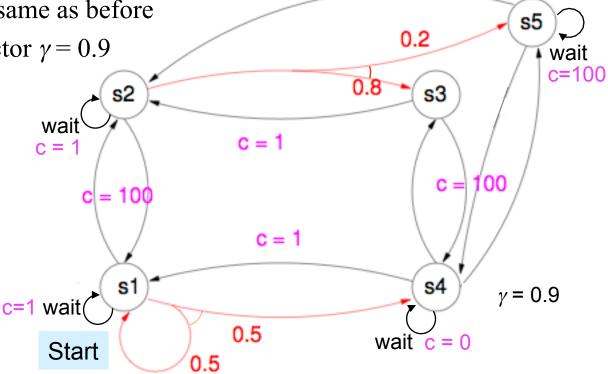
» For every  $s_j$ ,  $\pi_{i+1}(s_j) = \arg \min_{a \in A} Q_{\pi_i}(s_j, a)$   $= \arg \min_{a \in A} C(s_j, a) + \gamma \sum_{k=1}^n P_a(s_k | s_j) E_{\pi_i}(s_k)$ » If  $\pi_{i+1} = \pi_i$  then exit

• Converges in a finite number of iterations

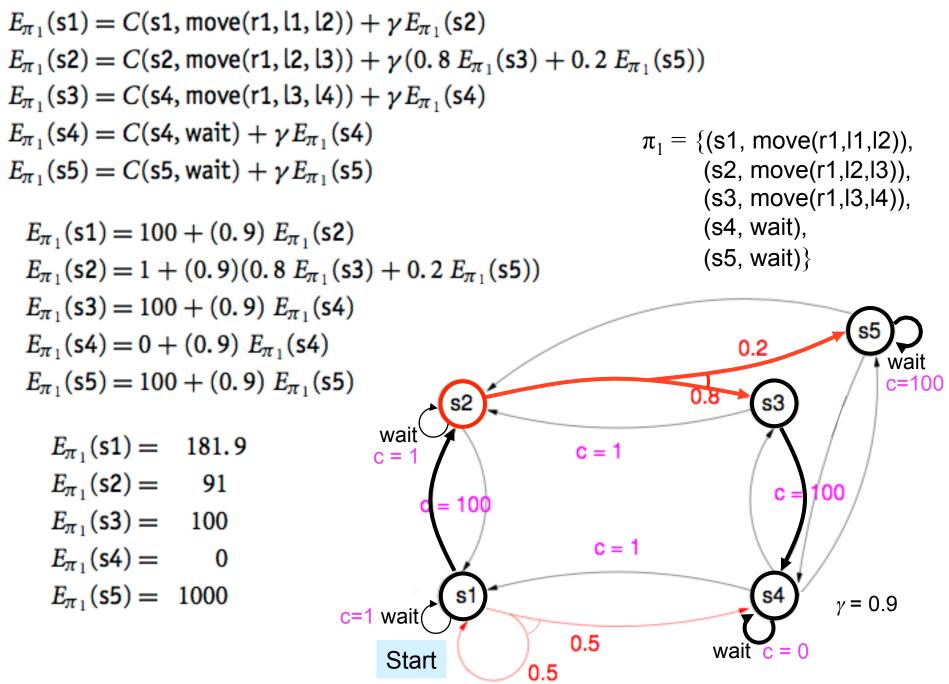
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#### Example

- Modification of the previous example
  - To get rid of the rewards but still make s5 undesirable:
    - » *C*(**s5**, wait) = 100
  - To provide incentive to leave non-goal states:
    - » *C*(s1,wait) = *C*(s2,wait) = 1
  - All other costs are the same as before
  - As before, discount factor  $\gamma = 0.9$



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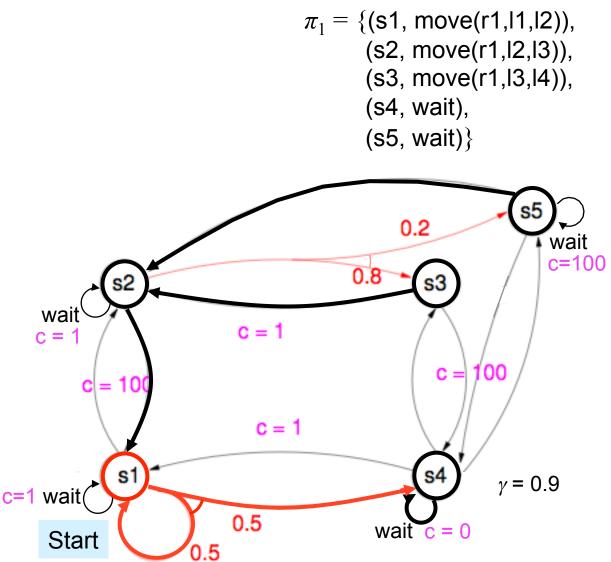


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#### **Example (Continued)**

 $E_{\pi_1}(s1) =$ 181.9  $E_{\pi_1}(s2) =$ 91  $E_{\pi_1}(s3) =$ 100  $E_{\pi_1}(s4) =$ 0  $E_{\pi_1}(s5) = 1000$ At each state *s*, let  $\pi_2(s) = \arg \min_{a \in A(s)} Q_{\pi}(s, a)$ :  $\pi_2 = \{(s1, move(r1, l1, l4)), \}$ (s2, move(r1, l2, l1)),(s3, move(r1,l3,l4)),

(s4, wait), (s5, move(r1,l5,l4)}



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#### Value Iteration

- Start with an arbitrary cost  $E_0(s)$  for each *s* and a small  $\varepsilon > 0$
- For i = 1, 2, ...
  - for every s in S and a in A,

• 
$$Q_i(s,a) := C(s,a) + \gamma \sum_{s' \in S} P_a(s' \mid s) E_{i-1}(s')$$

 $\gg E_i(s) = \min_{a \in A(s)} Q_i(s,a)$ 

$$\pi_i(s) = \arg\min_{a \in A(s)} Q_i(s,a)$$

• If  $\max_{s \in S} |E_i(s) - E_{i-1}(s)| < \varepsilon$  for every *s* then exit

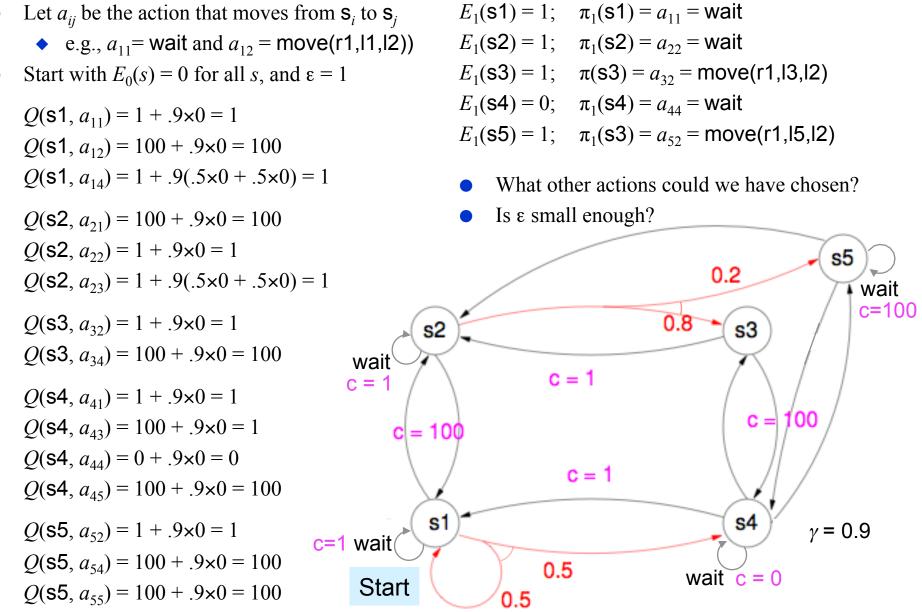
•  $\pi_i$  converges to  $\pi^*$  after finitely many iterations, but how to tell it has converged?

- In Policy Iteration, we checked whether  $\pi_i$  stopped changing
- In Value Iteration, that doesn't work
- In general,  $E_i \neq E\pi_i$ 
  - When  $\pi_i$  doesn't change,  $E_i$  may still change
  - The changes in  $E_i$  may make  $\pi_i$  start changing again

#### Value Iteration

- Start with an arbitrary cost  $E_0(s)$  for each *s* and a small  $\varepsilon > 0$
- For i = 1, 2, ...
  - for each s in S do
    - » for each a in A do
    - $Q(s,a) := C(s,a) + \gamma \sum_{s' \in S} P_a(s' \mid s) E_{i-1}(s')$ »  $E_i(s) = \min_{a \in A(s)} Q(s,a)$
    - »  $\pi_i(s) = \arg \min_{a \in A(s)} Q(s, a)$
  - If  $\max_{s \in S} |E_i(s) E_{i-1}(s)| < \varepsilon$  for every *s* then exit
- If E<sub>i</sub> changes by < ε and if ε is small enough, then π<sub>i</sub> will no longer change
   In this case π<sub>i</sub> has converged to π\*
- How small is small enough?

#### Example



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#### Discussion

- Policy iteration computes an entire policy in each iteration, and computes values based on that policy
  - More work per iteration, because it needs to solve a set of simultaneous equations
  - Usually converges in a smaller number of iterations
- Value iteration computes new values in each iteration, and chooses a policy based on those values
  - In general, the values are not the values that one would get from the chosen policy or any other policy
  - Less work per iteration, because it doesn't need to solve a set of equations
  - Usually takes more iterations to converge

## **Discussion (Continued)**

- For both, the number of iterations is polynomial *in the number of states* 
  - But the number of states is usually quite large
  - Need to examine the entire state space in each iteration
- Thus, these algorithms can take huge amounts of time and space
- To do a complexity analysis, we need to get explicit about the syntax of the planning problem
  - Can define probabilistic versions of set-theoretic, classical, and state-variable planning problems
  - I will do this for set-theoretic planning

#### **Probabilistic Set-Theoretic Planning**

• The statement of a probabilistic set-theoretic planning problem is  $P = (S_0, g, A)$ 

•  $S_0 = \{(s_1, p_1), (s_2, p_2), \dots, (s_j, p_j)\}$ 

- » Every state that has nonzero probability of being the starting state
- ◆ *g* is the usual set-theoretic goal formula a set of propositions
- ◆ *A* is a set of probabilistic set-theoretic actions
  - » Like ordinary set-theoretic actions, but multiple possible outcomes, with a probability for each outcome

$$a = (name(a), precond(a),$$

effects<sub>1</sub><sup>+</sup>(a), effects<sub>1</sub><sup>-</sup>(a),  $p_1(a)$ , effects<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup>(a), effects<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>(a),  $p_2(a)$ ,

..., effects<sub>k</sub><sup>+</sup>(a), effects<sub>k</sub><sup>-</sup>(a),  $p_k(a)$ )

### **Probabilistic Set-Theoretic Planning**

- Probabilistic set-theoretic planning is EXPTIME-complete
  - Much harder than ordinary set-theoretic planning, which was only PSPACEcomplete
- Worst case requires exponential time
- Unknown whether worst case requires exponential space
  - ◆ PSPACE  $\subseteq$  EXPTIME  $\subseteq$  NEXPTIME  $\subseteq$  EXPSPACE
- What does this say about the complexity of solving an MDP?
- Value Iteration and Policy Iteration take exponential amounts of time *and* space because they iterate over all states in every iteration
  - In some cases we can do better

#### **Real-Time Value Iteration**

- A class of algorithms that work roughly as follows
- loop

• Forward search from the initial state(s), following the current policy  $\pi$ 

- » Each time you visit a new state s, use a heuristic function to estimate its expected cost E(s)
- » For every state *s* along the path followed
  - Update  $\pi$  to choose the action a that minimizes Q(s,a)
  - Update *E*(*s*) accordingly
- Best-known example: Real-Time Dynamic Programming

- Need explicit goal states
  - If *s* is a goal, then actions at *s* have no cost and produce no change
- For each state s, maintain a value V(s) that gets updated as the algorithm proceeds
  - Initially V(s) = h(s), where *h* is a heuristic function
- **Greedy policy**:  $\pi(s) = \arg \min_{a \in A(s)} Q(s, a)$ 
  - where  $Q(s,a) = C(s,a) + \gamma \sum_{s' \in S} P_a(s'|s) V(s')$
- procedure RTDP(s)
  - loop until *termination condition*
  - » RTDP-trial(s)
- procedure RTDP-trial(s)
  - while s is not a goal state
    - »  $a := \arg \min_{a \in A(s)} Q(s,a)$
    - » V(s) := Q(s,a)
    - » randomly pick s' with probability  $P_a(s'|s)$

$$\gg s := s'$$

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procedure RTDP(*s*)

(the outer loop on the previous slide)

- loop until *termination condition* » RTDP-trial(s)
- procedure RTDP-trial(*s*)
  - while *s* is not a goal state
    - »  $a := \arg \min_{a \in A(s)} Q(s,a)$
    - » V(s) := Q(s,a)
    - » randomly pick s' with probability  $P_a(s'|s)$
- s5 0.2 wait C =0.8s2 s3 100 wai c = 1c = 100 C =c = 100c = 1**s**1 s4 c=1 wait 0.5 wait c = 0

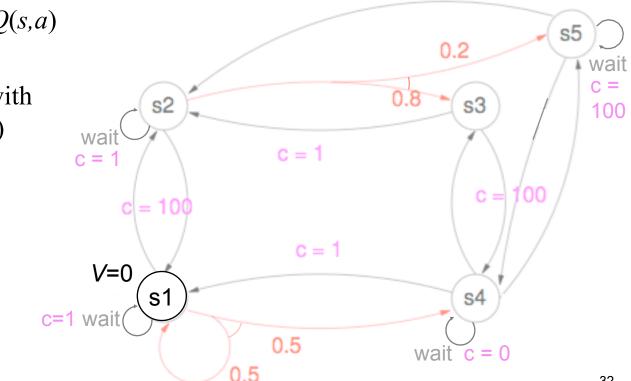
 $\gg s := s'$ 

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(the forward search on the previous slide)

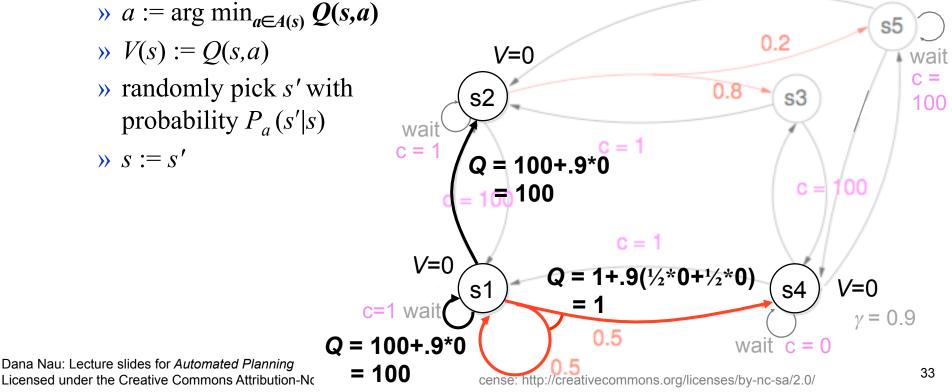
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    - » V(s) := Q(s,a)
    - » randomly pick s' with probability  $P_a(s'|s)$
    - $\gg s := s'$

Example:  $\gamma = 0.9$ h(s) = 0 for all s

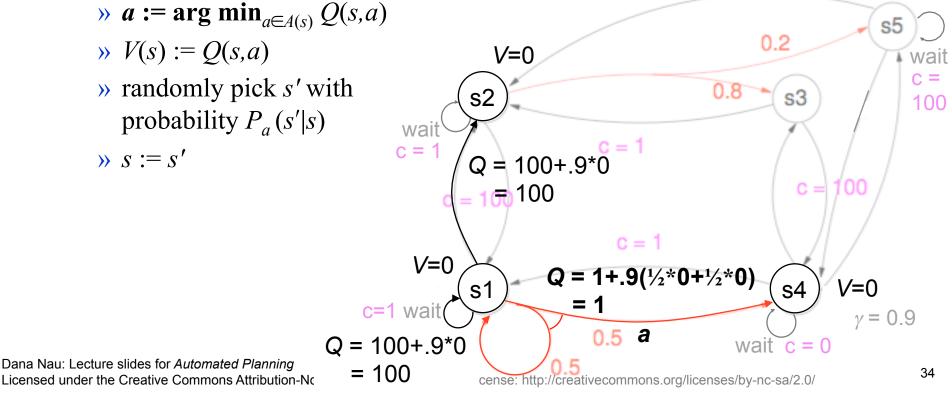


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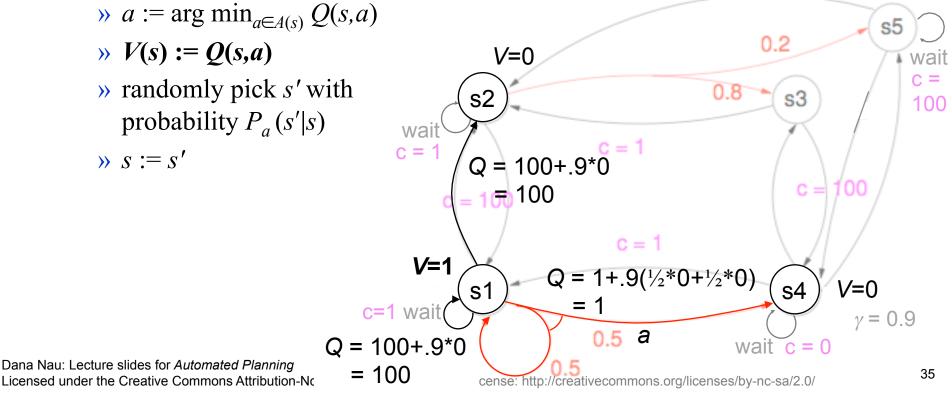
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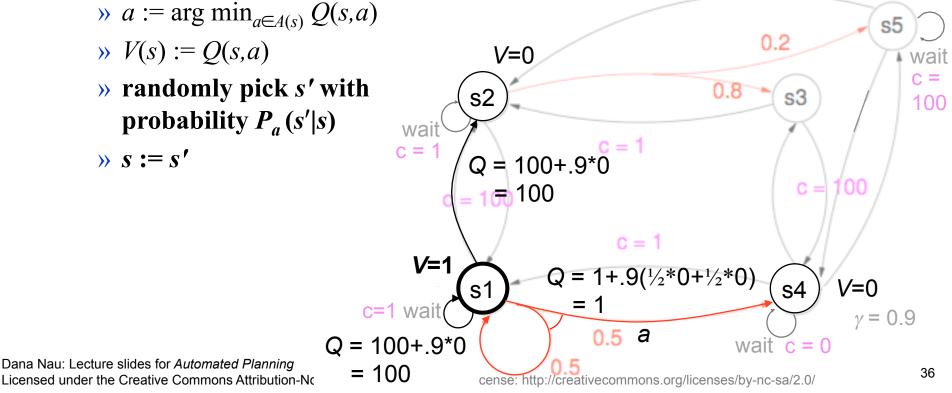
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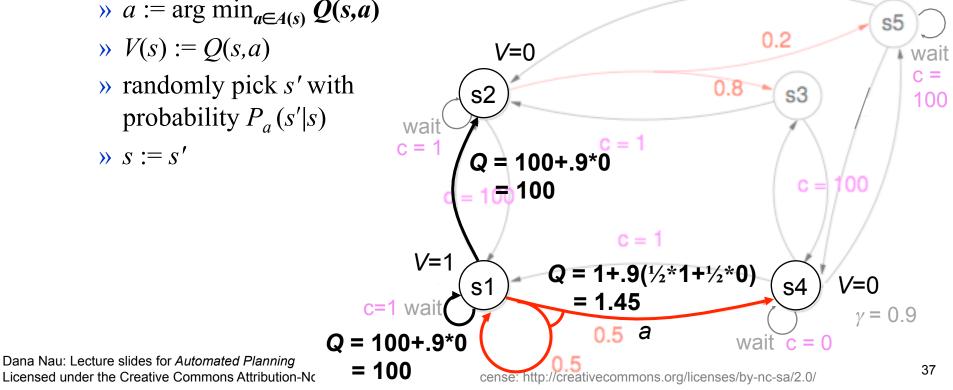
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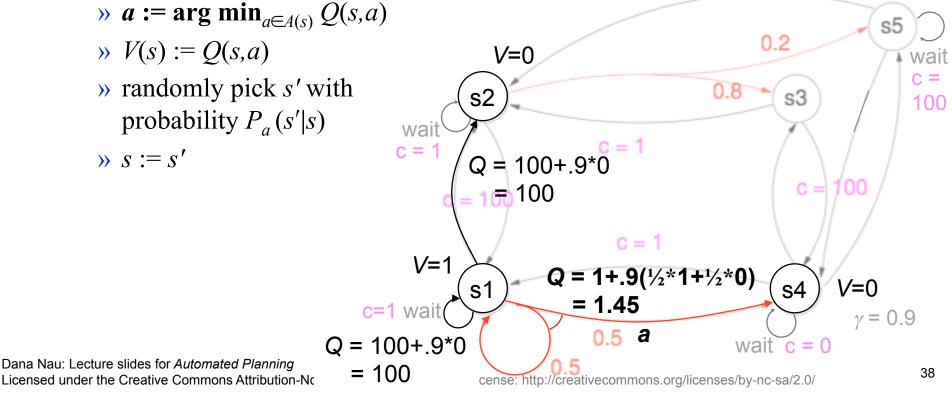
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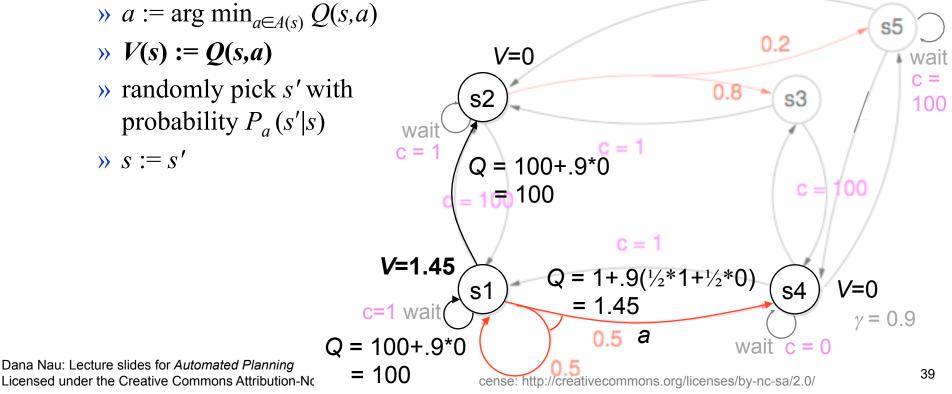
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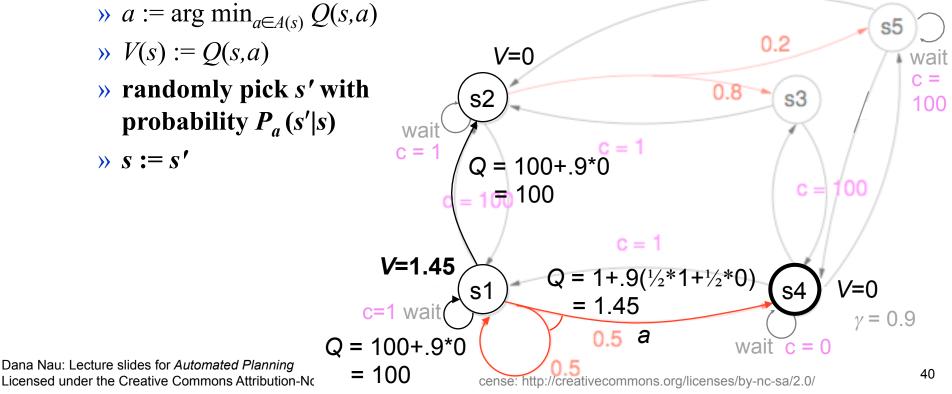
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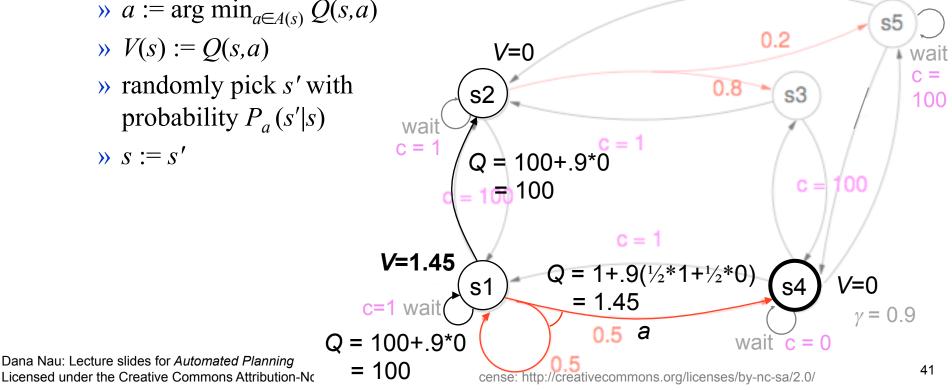
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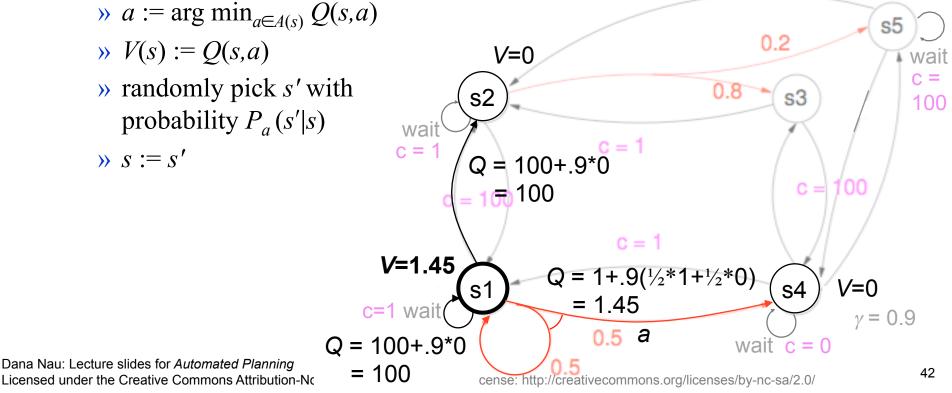
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- In practice, it can solve much larger problems than policy iteration and value iteration
- Won't always find an optimal solution, won't always terminate
  - If *h* doesn't overestimate, and if a goal is reachable (with positive probability) at every state
    - » Then it will terminate
  - If in addition to the above, there is a positive-probability path between every pair of states
    - » Then it will find an optimal solution

#### **POMDPs**

• Partially observable Markov Decision Process (POMDP):

- a stochastic system  $\Sigma = (S, A, P)$  as defined earlier
- A finite set *O* of *observations* 
  - »  $P_a(o|s) =$  probability of observation *o* after executing action *a* in state *s*
- Require that for each *a* and *s*,  $\sum_{o \in O} P_a(o|s) = 1$
- O models partial observability
  - The controller can't observe *s* directly; it can only do *a* then observe *o*
  - The same observation *o* can occur in more than one state
- Why do the observations depend on the action *a*?
  - » Why do we have  $P_a(o|s)$  rather than P(o|s)?

## POMDPs

• Partially observable Markov Decision Process (POMDP):

- a stochastic system  $\Sigma = (S, A, P)$  as defined earlier
  - »  $P_a(s'|s) =$  probability of being in state s' after executing action a in state s
- A finite set *O* of *observations* 
  - »  $P_a(o|s) =$  probability of observation *o* after executing action *a* in state *s*
- Require that for each *a* and *s*,  $\sum_{o \in O} P_a(o|s) = 1$
- *O* models partial observability
  - The controller can't observe *s* directly; it can only do *a* then observe *o*
  - The same observation *o* can occur in more than one state
- Why do the observations depend on the action *a*?
  - » Why do we have  $P_a(o|s)$  rather than P(o|s)?
  - This is a way to model sensing actions
    - » e.g., *a* is the action of obtaining observation *o* from a sensor

# **More about Sensing Actions**

• Suppose *a* is an action that never changes the state

•  $P_a(s|s) = 1$  for all s

• Suppose there are a state *s* and an observation *o* such that *a* gives us observation *o* iff we're in state *s* 

• 
$$P_a(o|s) = 0$$
 for all  $s' \neq s$ 

- $\bullet P_a(o|s) = 1$
- Then to tell if you're in state *s*, just perform action *a* and see whether you observe *o*

Two states *s* and *s'* are *indistinguishable* if for every *o* and *a*,  $P_a(o|s) = P_a(o|s')$ 

#### **Belief States**

- At each point we will have a probability distribution b(s) over the states in S
  - *b* is called a *belief state*
  - Our current belief about what state we're in
- Basic properties:
  - $0 \le b(s) \le 1$  for every *s* in *S*
  - $\sum_{s \in S} b(s) = 1$
- Definitions:
  - $b_a$  = the belief state after doing action *a* in belief state *b* 
    - »  $b_a(s) = P(\text{we're in } s \text{ after doing } a \text{ in } b) = \sum_{s' \in S} P_a(s|s') b(s')$
  - $b_a(o) = P(\text{observe } o \text{ after doing } a \text{ in } b) = \sum_{s' \in S} P_a(o|s') b(s')$
  - $b_a^{o}(s) = P(\text{we're in } s \mid \text{we observe } o \text{ after doing } a \text{ in } b)$

# **Belief States (Continued)**

• According to the book,

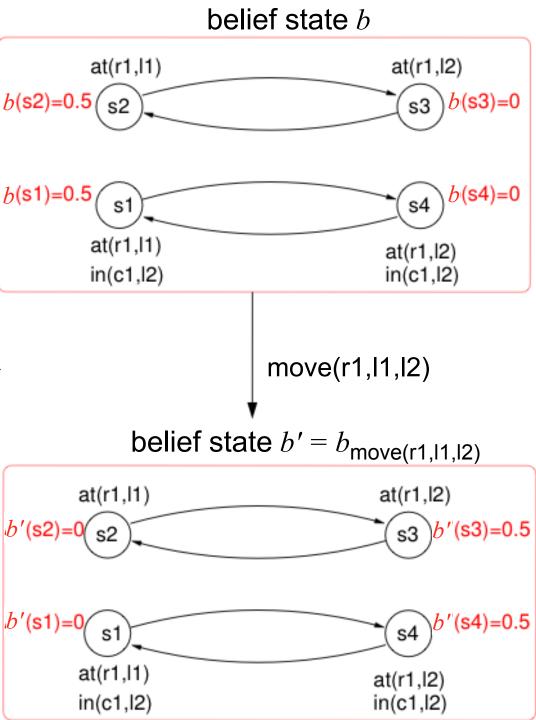
 $\bullet \ b_a^{o}(s) = P_a(o|s) \ b_a(s) \ / \ b_a(o)$ 

- (16.14)
- I'm not completely sure whether that formula is correct
- But using it (possibly with corrections) to distinguish states that would otherwise be indistinguishable
  - Example on next page

# Example

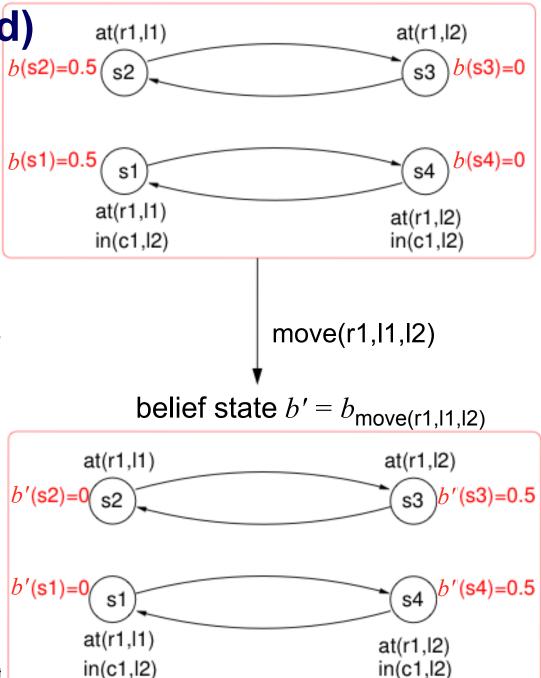
- Modified version of DWR
- Robot r1 can move between 11 and 12
  - » move(r1,l1,l2)
  - » move(r1,l2,l1)
  - With probability 0.5, there's a container c1 in location l2
     » in(c1,l2)
  - $O = \{$ full, empty $\}$ 
    - » full: c1 is present
    - » empty: c1 is absent
    - » abbreviate full as f, and empty as e

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# Example (Continued)

- move doesn't return a useful observation
- For every state s and for move action a,
  - $P_a(\mathbf{f}|s) = P_a(\mathbf{e}|s) =$  $P_a(\mathbf{f}|s) = P_a(\mathbf{e}|s) = 0.5$
- Thus if there are no other actions, then
  - s1 and s2 are indistinguishable
  - s3 and s4 are indistinguishable



belief state h

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# **Example (Continued)**

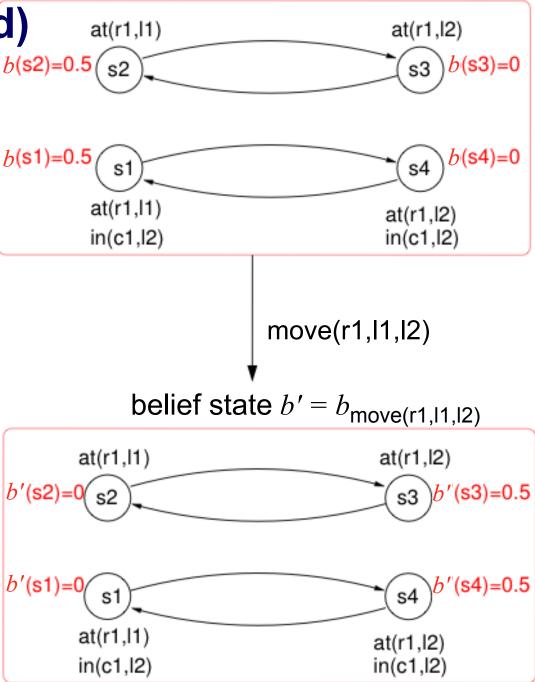
Suppose there's a sensing action
 see that works perfectly in
 location I2

$$P_{see}(f|s4) = P_{see}(e|s3) = 1$$

$$P_{see}(f|s3) = P_{see}(e|s4) = 0$$

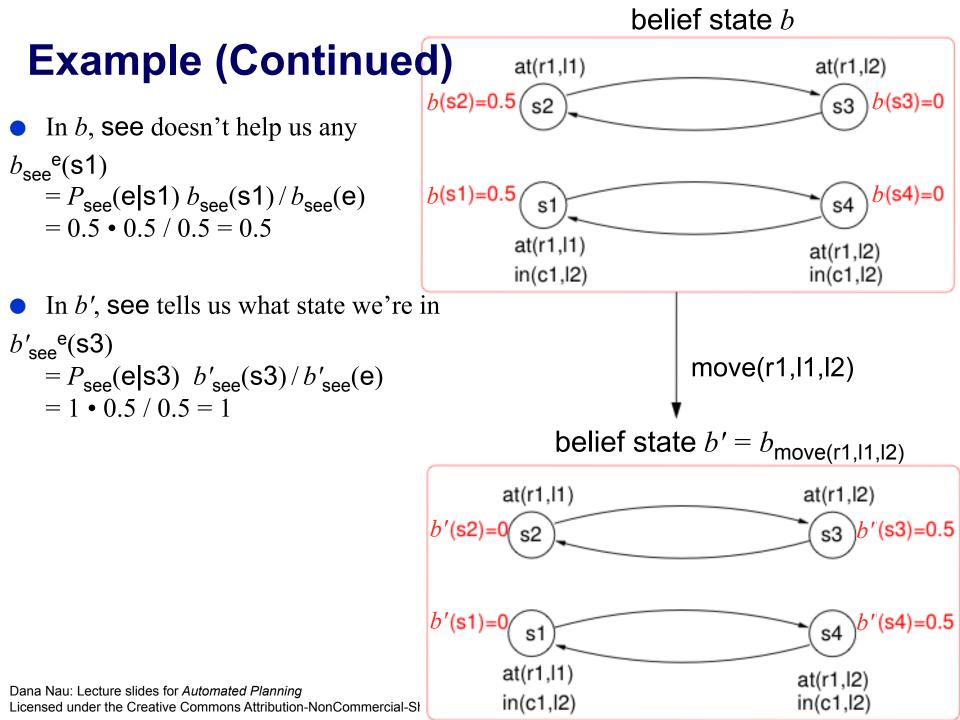
- Then s3 and s4 are distinguishable
- Suppose see doesn't work elsewhere

 $P_{see}(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{s1}) = P_{see}(\mathbf{e}|\mathbf{s1}) = 0.5$  $P_{see}(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{s2}) = P_{see}(\mathbf{e}|\mathbf{s2}) = 0.5$ 



belief state h

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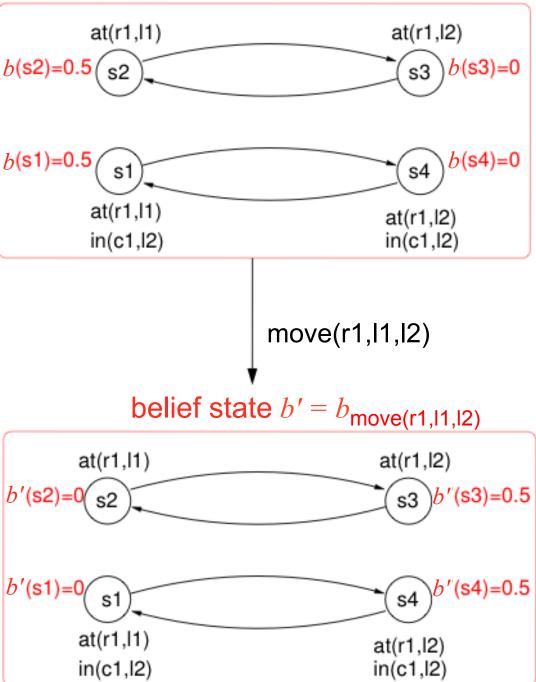
## **Policies on Belief States**

- In a fully observable MDP, a policy is a partial function from *S* into *A*
- In a partially observable MDP, a policy is a partial function from *B* into *A* 
  - where *B* is the set of all belief states
- *S* was finite, but *B* is infinite and continuous
  - A policy may be either finite or infinite

#### belief state b

# Example

- Suppose we know the initial belief state is *b*
- Policy to tell if there's a container in 12:
  - π = {(b, move(r1,l1,l2)),
     (b', see)}



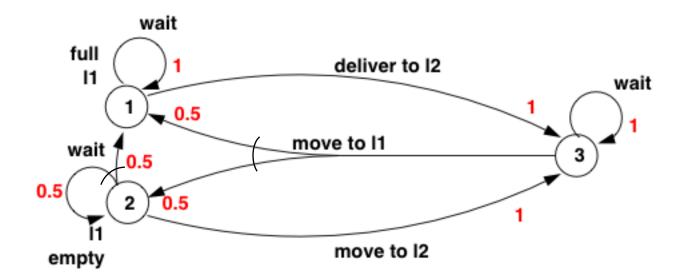
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# **Planning Algorithms**

- POMDPs are very hard to solve
- The book says very little about it
- I'll say even less!

## **Reachability and Extended Goals**

- The usual definition of MDPs does not contain explicit goals
  - Can get the same effect by using *absorbing* states
- Can also handle problems where there the objective is more general, such as maintaining some state rather than just reaching it
- DWR example: whenever a ship delivers cargo to 11, move it to 12
  - Encode ship's deliveries as nondeterministic outcomes of the robot's actions



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