

# L08: Planning under Uncertainty

Planning Algorithms in Al

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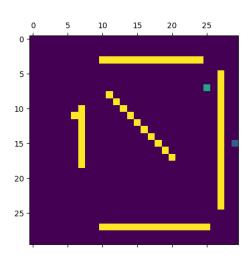
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# Summary L08, Sutton and Barto, Ch3 plus papers

- Uncertainty in State Propagation
- **→** The Markov property
- Reward and Return
- → Markov Decision Process (MDP)
- Stochastic Policy
- → Bellman equation
- → Partially observable MDP
- → Belief Space Planning

### **Uncertainty in State Propagation**

- From last lecture, we presented nature as a mysterious and unpredictable source of uncertainty for the robot (our agent).
- Now we can consider that a real system. There might be a difference between what we wanted to do (planned action) and what it really happened (executed action) after propagating a state.



Maze pursuer choosing next action (PS4).



Wheeled robot Akula traversing uneven terrain.

### Probabilistic Transition between States

- Transitioning between states considering uncertainty, two options
  - Uncertainty in the action space:  $s' = f(s, a + \epsilon)$ , where  $\epsilon$  is a r.v.
  - Uncertainty in the state space:  $s' = f(s, a) + \eta$ , where  $\eta$  is a r.v.
- Note we have changed the <u>convention</u> to indicate states s and actions a.
- •Since there is a random variable involved, we can build the transition probability from any state s and any action a:

$$p(s'|s, a) = Pr\{S' = s'|S = s, A = a\}$$

### Sequences of State Propagation

• A sequence plan is executed by following a sequence of actions (policy) and propagating states over time. For the deterministic case:

$$s_{t+1} = f(s_t, a_t)$$

Now, for the propagation of states, we need to determine all r.v. affecting the propagation:

$$s_{t+1} = f(s_t, a_t) = f(f(s_{t-1}, a_{t-1}), a_t) = f(f(f(s_{t-2}, a_{t-2}), a_{t-1}), a_t))$$

It results in a recursive form where the probability of transition is:

$$p(s_{t+1}|s_1,a_1,\ldots,s_t,a_t)$$

# The Markov property

The future only depends on the present and we can discard the past.

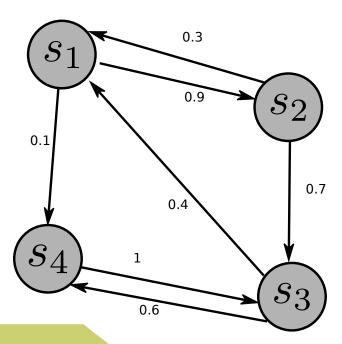
$$p(s_{t+1}|s_1,\ldots,s_t) = p(s_{t+1}|s_t)$$

- The current state at time t captures all relevant information for prediction.
- There is no need to store past states if the states are Markov.
- The same idea can be applied for probability transitions:

$$p(s_{t+1}|s_1, a_1, \dots, s_t, a_t) = p(s_{t+1}|s_t, a_t)$$

# Markov Process (Markov Chain)

- The most straightforward way to use the Markov property is in the form or a Markov Process or Markov Chain.
- The elements are a state space *S* and a transition Probability matrix *P* between states.



#### Reward

- ullet At each time step, the reward is a simple number  $R_t \in \mathbb{R}$
- The agent's goal is to maximize the total amount of reward it receives maximizing not immediate reward, but cumulative reward in the long run.
- The reward hypothesis:

"That all of what we mean by goals and purposes can be well thought of as the maximization of the expected value of the cumulative sum of a received scalar signal (called reward)."

#### Example:

- A robot getting to its goal may receive +1 or -1 for a collision.
- Students get grades after submitting PS's

#### Return

• The **return** is cumulative reward summing for all the rewards until the end of the episode, at the terminal state time index T:

$$G_t = R_{t+1} + R_{t+2} + \ldots + R_T$$

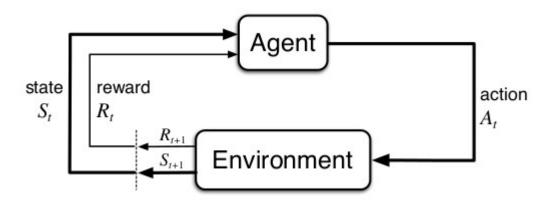
- This presents a problem for continuous tasks, those that never end.
- Then, one can define a **discount rate**  $\gamma \in [0, 1]$

$$G_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \gamma^2 R_{t+3} + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k R_{t+k+1}$$

• We could unite both returns if we consider a **terminal action** (or an *absorbing state*) whose reward is zero. This way, finite plans can be solved and their solution is unmodified even with discount.

#### Markov Decision Process

Finally, we have all components to define a Markov Decision Process. In essence, an MPD is an *environment* with the following components:



This scheme we use for planning, but in general is also valid for most of the theory behind reinforcement learning.

### Markov Decision Process

Finally, we have all components to define a Markov Decision Process. In essence, an MPD is an *environment* with the following components:

More formally, MDP is a tuple  $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{R}, \gamma \rangle$ 

- ullet Finite set of states  ${\cal S}$
- Finite set of actions A
- State transition probability matrix

$$\mathcal{P}_{s's}^{a} = Pr\{S_{t+1} = s' | S_t = s, A_t = a\}$$

- Reward function  $\mathcal{R}_s^a = \mathbb{E}[R_{t+1}|S_t = s, A_t = a]$
- Discount factor  $\gamma \in [0, 1]$

### **Markov Decision Process**

After defining all components, we can do a simplification in notation by considering the joint probability

$$p(s', r|s, a) = Pr\{S_{t+1} = s', R_{t+1} = r|S_t = s, A_t = a\}$$

Now, we can express the all the required elements of the MDP in terms of only this probability, which will simplify notation. For example:

Expected reward of action-state:

$$r(s, a) = \mathbb{E}[R_{t+1} | S_t = s, A_t = a] = \sum_{r \in \mathcal{R}} r \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} p(s', r | s, a)$$

State transition probabilities

$$p(s'|s,a) = Pr\{S_{t+1} = s'|S_t = s, A_t = a\} = \sum_{r \in \mathcal{R}} p(r,s',r|s,a)$$

Expected reward for action-state-nextstate

$$r(s, a, s') = \mathbb{E}[R_{t+1} \mid S_t = s, A_t = a, S_{t+1} = s'] = \frac{\sum_{r \in \mathcal{R}} rp(s', r \mid s, a)}{p(s' \mid s, a)}$$

# Example MPD: Transition Graph

$$\mathcal{A} = \{a_{\text{nothing}}, a_{\text{gas}}\} = \{a_n, a_g\}$$

$$\mathcal{S} = \{s_{\text{moving}}, s_{\text{stopped}}\} = \{s_{\text{m}}, s_{\text{s}}\}$$

$$a_n$$

$$S_s$$

$$a_g$$

$$a_g$$

### Stochastic Policies: Action Selection

• Previously in this course we have studied action selection as a **deterministic policy**, where the plan states which is next (best) action to execute:

$$\pi(s) = a$$

Now, one can model the effect of uncertainty as a **stochastic policy**, a probability (for discrete spaces), that reflects the randomness brought by natural effects, imperfections in modeling, etc.

$$\pi(a|s) = Pr\{A_t = a|S_t = s\}, \text{ where } s \in \mathcal{S}, a \in \mathcal{A}(s)$$

• As a result of the MDP, we will consider stochastic policies to be Markovian:

$$\pi(a_t|s_1,\ldots,s_t) = \pi(a_t|s_t)$$

### Value Function

• The **state-value function** for policy *pi* is:

$$v_{\pi}(s) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi}[G_t|S_t = s] = \mathbb{E}_{\pi}\left[\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k R_{t+k+1} \middle| S_t = s\right]$$

This *value* gives an estimate of "how good" given a state. We have seen examples of this in the accumulated cost L() in lecture 5.

The only novelty here is that the policy is of stochastic nature, but still one can solve this by using the Expectation operator.

Similarly, we can define the action-value function for policy pi:

$$q_{\pi}(s, a) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi}[G_t | S_t = s, A_t = a] = \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k R_{t+k+1} | S_t = s, A_t = a \right]$$

### Bellman equation

• From the *value-state function* a recursive form arises, the **Bellman equation**  $for v_n$ :

$$v_{\pi}(s) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi}[G_{t} \mid S_{t} = s]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{k} R_{t+k+1} \mid S_{t} = s \right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[ R_{t+1} + \gamma \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{k} R_{t+k+2} \mid S_{t} = s \right]$$

$$= \sum_{a} \pi(a|s) \sum_{s'} \sum_{r} p(s', r|s, a) \left[ r + \gamma \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{k} R_{t+k+2} \mid S_{t+1} = s' \right] \right]$$

$$= \sum_{a} \pi(a|s) \sum_{s', r} p(s', r|s, a) \left[ r + \gamma v_{\pi}(s') \right],$$

There are several ways of solving this. We already studied one of them *Dynamic programming* which requires a complete backup of all states. A different alternative is solving directly the linear system

# **Optimal Value Functions**

- The previous example solved the Bellman equation for a policy, but we never said it was a "good" policy.
- The the notion of optimality defined in the optimal state-value function:

$$v_*(s) = \max_{\pi} v_{\pi}(s), \forall s \in \mathcal{S}$$

Here we are comparing all possible policies and an optimal policy is the best

• Similarly, the *optimal action-value function* is defined as:

$$q_*(s, a) = \max_{\pi} q_{\pi}(s, a), \quad \forall s \in \mathcal{S} \text{ and } \forall a \in \mathcal{A}(s)$$

This function gives the expected return for taking action a in state s thereafter following an optimal policy.

• We can also write q in terms of v:

$$q_*(s, a) = \mathbb{E}[R_{t+1} + \gamma v_*(S_{t+1}) | S_t = s, A_t = a]$$

### **Optimal Value Functions**

A recursive form arises, the **Bellman optimality equation**:

$$v_{*}(s) = \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}(s)} q_{\pi_{*}}(s, a)$$

$$= \max_{a} \mathbb{E}_{\pi^{*}} [G_{t} \mid S_{t} = s, A_{t} = a]$$

$$= \max_{a} \mathbb{E}_{\pi^{*}} \left[ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{k} R_{t+k+1} \mid S_{t} = s, A_{t} = a \right]$$

$$= \max_{a} \mathbb{E}_{\pi^{*}} \left[ R_{t+1} + \gamma \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{k} R_{t+k+2} \mid S_{t} = s, A_{t} = a \right]$$

$$= \max_{a} \mathbb{E}[R_{t+1} + \gamma v_{*}(S_{t+1}) \mid S_{t} = s, A_{t} = a]$$

$$= \max_{a} \sum_{s', r} p(s', r | s, a) [r + \gamma v_{*}(s')].$$

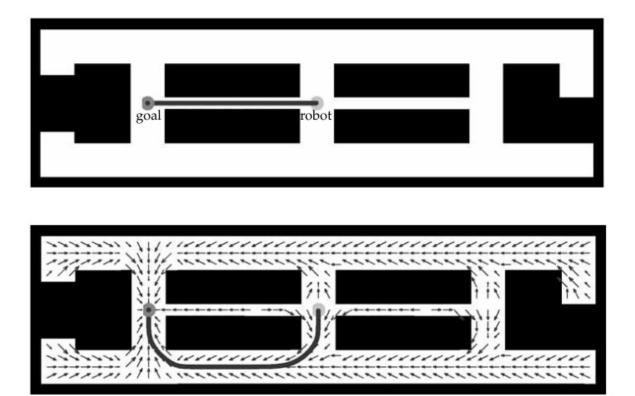
# **Optimal Value Functions**

- The Bellman optimality equation expresses the fact that the value of a state under an optimal policy must equal the expected return for the best action from that state.
- Once the Optimal Bellman Equation has been solved, there is a simple way to calculate an optimal policy: a *greedy* approach just following the best (expected) value.

$$a^*(s) = \max_{a} q_*(s, a)$$

• We need to ensure that the probability of transition is not zero, but other than that, this short-term search would provide the long-term optimal path.

### MDP: Example of robot navigation



The shortest path is not the solution for the following navigation problem, where the reward penalizes collisions.

### MDP, remarks

- (1) we accurately know the dynamics of the environment;
- (2) we have enough computational resources to complete the computation of the solution (tabular cases so far)
- (3) the Markov property.
- In practice, direct MDP or any other discretization is not easy to implement and we will approximate solutions to MDP.
- Some (even more complicated) problems can be approximated as MDP.

# Partially Observable MDP

• In addition to uncertainty in action imagine now there is uncertainty in the state, and it is not possible to know for certain what it is:

- Now the state *s* is not directly observable and one simply can gather observations *z* from sensors for example.
- This is known as Partially Observable Markov Decision Process (POMDP)
- The motivation is that planning now becomes a process were not just a return is optimized, the algorithm anticipates *certainty*, actively gather information and explore optimality while planning.
- In brief, if MDP had a problem of feasibility for tabular problems, things get much worse here, to the point that only small grid worlds allow to solve POMDP exhaustively.

### Belief Space or Information Space

- Same as the C-space modeled the robot/agents state variables, we can also take into account these "extra" dimensions due to observations.
- In the **belief space**, we would include additional variables to the robot configuration capturing uncertainty.
- How to represent this? This is a research question.
- How to propagate states? It also depends on the approach.
- Briefly present some papers related to the topic of Belief Space Planning.

### Particle RRT

- An extension to the RRT explicitly considering uncertainty
- It uses a Particle Filter to model uncertainty (so it is a weight) and propagates the tree stochastically, with several particles at each node.

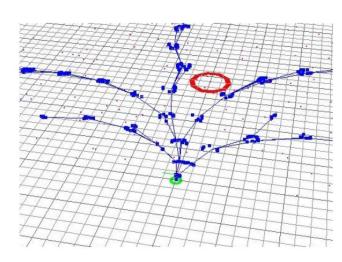


Fig. 1. A pRRT tree with several particles at each node

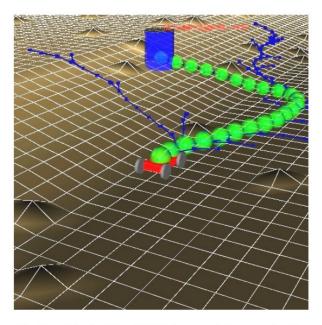
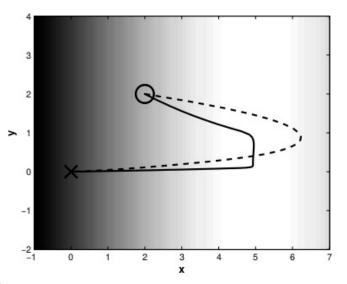


Fig. 6. A tree built by pRRT. Spheres mark the planned path.

### Belief space planning assuming ML observations

- In order to capture future stochastic trajectories, assume maximum likelihood observation is always obtained and build the prediction from that. This way, the POMDP problem is transformed into a cont. MDP
- Given a Gaussian distribution and a linearization point (ML), one can do *covariance propagation* and obtain the belief space in the form of a mean and a covariance and plan from there.



• In this example, the dark-light domain, a robot must localize its position in the plane before approaching the goal