Search and Game Playing

- CSCE 315 Programming Studio
  Fall 2010


### Overview

- Search problems: definition
- Example: 8-puzzle
- General search
- Evaluation of search strategies
- Strategies: breadth-first, uniform-cost, depth-first
- More uninformed search: depth-limited, iterative deepening, bidirectional search

### Search Problems: Definition

\[
\text{Search} = \langle \text{initial state}, \text{operators}, \text{goal states} \rangle
\]

- Initial State: description of the current situation as given in a problem
- Operators: functions from any state to a set of successor (or neighbor) states
- Goal: subset of states, or test rule

### Variants of Search Problems

Search = \langle \text{state space, initial state, operators, goal states} \rangle

- State space: set of all possible states reachable from the current initial state through repeated application of the operators (i.e. path).

Search = \langle \text{initial state, operators, goal states, path cost} \rangle

- Path cost: find the best solution, not just a solution. Cost can be many different things.
Types of Search

- Uninformed: systematic strategies
- Informed: Use domain knowledge to narrow search
- Game playing as search: minimax, state pruning, probabilistic games

Search State

State as Data Structure
- examples: variable assignment, properties, order in list, bitmap, graph (vertex and edges)
- captures all possible ways world could be
- typically static, discrete (symbolic), but does not have to be

Choosing a Good Representation
- concise (keep only the relevant features)
- explicit (easy to compute when needed)
- embeds constraints

Operators

Function from state to subset of states
- drive to neighboring city
- place piece on chess board
- add person to meeting schedule
- slide tile in 8-puzzle

Characteristics
- often requires instantiation (fill in variables)
- encode constraints (only certain operations are allowed)
- generally discrete: continuous parameters → infinite branching

Goals: Subset of states or test rules

Specification:
- set of states: enumerate the eligible states
- partial description: e.g. a certain variable has value over $x$
- constraints: or set of constraints. Hard to enumerate all states matching the constraints, or very hard to come up with a solution at all (i.e. you can only verify it; P vs. NP).

Other considerations:
- space, time, quality (exact vs. approximate trade-offs)
An Example: 8-Puzzle

- State: location of 8 number tiles and one blank tile
- Operators: blank moves left, right, up, or down
- Goal test: state matches the configuration on the right (see above)
- Path cost: each step cost 1, i.e. path length, or search tree depth

Generalization: 15-puzzle, ..., \((N^2 - 1)\)-puzzle

8-Puzzle: Example

Possible state representations in LISP (0 is the blank):

- (0 2 3 1 8 4 7 6 5)
- ((0 2 3) (1 8 4) (7 6 5))
- ((0 1 7) (2 8 6) (3 4 5))
- or use the make-array, aref functions.

How easy to: (1) compare, (2) operate on, and (3) store (i.e. size).

General Search Algorithm

Pseudo-code:

```plaintext
function General-Search (problem, Que-Fn)
    node-list := initial-state
    loop begin
        // fail if node-list is empty
        if Empty(node-list) then return FAIL
        // pick a node from node-list
        node := Get-First-Node(node-list)
        // if picked node is a goal node, success!
        if (node == goal) then return as SOLUTION
        // otherwise, expand node and enqueue
        node-list := Que-Fn(node-list, Expand(node))
    loop end
```

GOAL!
Evaluation of Search Strategies

- time-complexity: how many nodes expanded so far?
- space-complexity: how many nodes must be stored in node-list at any given time?
- completeness: if solution exists, guaranteed to be found?
- optimality: guaranteed to find the best solution?

Breadth First Search

- node visit order (goal test): 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15
- queuing function: enqueue at end (add expanded node at the end of the list)
- Important: A node taken out of the node list for inspection counts as a single visit!

BFS: Evaluation

branching factor \( b \), depth of solution \( d \):

- complete: it will find the solution if it exists
- time: \( 1 + b + b^2 + \ldots + b^d \)
- space: \( O(b^{d+1}) \) where \( d \) is the depth of the shallowest solution
- space is more problem than time in most cases (p 75, figure 3.12).
- time is also a major problem nonetheless (same as time)

BFS: Expand Order

Evolution of the queue (bold = expanded and added children):
1. [1]: initial state
2. [2][3]: dequeue 1 and enqueue 2 and 3
3. [3][4][5]: dequeue 2 and enqueue 4 and 5
4. [4][5][6][7]: all depth 3 nodes
...
8. [8][9][10][11][12][13][14][15]: all depth 4 nodes
**Depth First Search**

- node visit order (goal test): 1 2 4 8 5 10 11 3 6 12 13 7 14 15
- queuing function: enqueue at left (stack push; add expanded node at the beginning of the list)

**DFS: Expand Order**

Evolution of the queue (bold = expanded and added children):
1. [1] : initial state
2. [2][3] : pop 1 and push expanded in the front
3. [4][5] [3] : pop 2 and push expanded in the front
4. [8][9] [5] [3] : pop 4 and push expanded in the front

**DFS: Evaluation**

branching factor $b$, depth of solutions $d$, max depth $m$:
- incomplete: may wander down the wrong path
- time: $O(b^m)$ nodes expanded (worst case)
- space: $O(bm)$ (just along the current path)
- good when there are many shallow goals
- bad for deep or infinite depth state space

**Key Points**

- Description of a search problem: initial state, goals, operators, etc.
- Considerations in designing a representation for a state
- Evaluation criteria
- BFS, DFS: time and space complexity, completeness
- When to use one vs. another
- Node visit orders for each strategy
- Tracking the stack or queue at any moment
**Depth Limited Search (DLS): Limited Depth DFS**

- **node visit order for each depth limit \( l \):**
  1. \( l = 1 \): 1 2 3
  2. \( l = 2 \): 1 2 4 5 3 6 7
- **queuing function:** enqueue at front (i.e. stack push)
- **push the depth of the node as well:**
  \((<\text{depth}>,<\text{node}>)\)

**DLS: Evaluation**

- branching factor \( b \), depth limit \( l \), depth of solution \( d \):
  - complete: if \( l \geq d \)
  - time: \( O(b^l) \) nodes expanded (worst case)
  - space: \( O(bl) \) (same as DFS, where \( l = m \) (\( m \): max depth of tree in DFS)
  - good if solution is within the limited depth.
  - non-optimal (same problem as in DFS).

**Iterative Deepening Search: DLS by Increasing Limit**

- **node visit order:**
  1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 ...
- **revisits already explored nodes at successive depth limit**
- **queuing function:** enqueue at front (i.e. stack push)
- **push the depth of the node as well:**
  \((<\text{depth}>,<\text{node}>)\)
IDS: Expand Order

1. [ (d1, 1) ] : initial state
2. [(d2, 2)][(d2, 3)] : pop 1 and push 2 and 3
3. [(d3, 4)][(d3, 5)][(d2, 3)] : pop 2 and push 4 and 5
4. [(d3, 5)][(d2, 3)] : pop 4, cannot expand it further
5. [(d2, 3)] : pop 5, cannot expand it further
6. [(d3, 6)][(d3, 7)] : pop 3, and push 6, 7

Basically the same as DLS: Evolution of the queue (bold=expanded and then added): (depth, node); e.g. Depth limit = 3

IDS: Evaluation

branching factor $b$, depth of solution $d$:

- complete: cf. DLS, which is conditionally complete
- time: $O(b^d)$ nodes expanded (worst case)
- space: $O(bd)$ (cf. DFS and DLS)
- optimal!: unlike DFS or DLS
- good when search space is huge and the depth of the solution is not known (*)

Bidirectional Search (BDS)

• Search from both initial state and goal to reduce search depth.

- $O(b^{d/2})$ of BDS vs. $O(b^{d+1})$ of BFS.

BDS: Considerations

1. how to back trace from the goal?
2. successors and predecessors: are operations reversible?
3. are goals explicit?: need to know the goal to begin with
4. check overlap in two branches
5. BFS? DFS? which strategy to use? Same or different?
BDS Example: 8-Puzzle

5 4 8
6 1 2
7 3 2

→
5 4 8
6 1 2
7 3 2

→ ...

1 2 3
8 4
7 6 5

→
1 2 3
8 4
7 6 5

• Is it a good strategy?
• What about Chess? Would it be a good strategy?
• What kind of domains may be suitable for BDS?

Avoiding Repeated States

Repeated states can be devastating in search problems.

• Common cases: problems with reversible operators → search space becomes infinite
• One approach: find a spanning tree of the graph

Avoiding Repeated States: Strategies

5 4 8
6 1 2
7 3 2

→
5 4 8
6 1 2
7 3 2

→
5 4 8
6 1 2
7 3 2

→ ...

Key Points

• DLS, IDS, BDS search order, expansions, and queuing
• DLS, IDS, BDS evaluation
• DLS, IDS, BDS: suitable domains
• Repeated states: why removing them is important

Do not return to the node's parent

Avoid cycles in the path (this is a huge theoretical problem in its own right)

Do not generate states that you generated before: use a hash table to make checks efficient

How to avoid storing every state? Would using a short signature (or a checksum) of the full state description help?
Overview

• Best-first search
• Heuristic function
• Greedy best-first search
• A* 
• Designing good heuristics
• IDA*
• Iterative improvement algorithms
  1. Hill-climbing
  2. Simulated annealing

Informed Search

From domain knowledge, obtain an evaluation function.

• best-first search: order nodes according to the evaluation function value
• greedy search: minimize estimated cost for reaching the goal – fast, but incomplete and non-optimal.
• A*: minimize $f(n) = g(n) + h(n)$, where $g(n)$ is the current path cost from start to $n$, and $h(n)$ is the estimated cost from $n$ to goal.

Best First Search

```
function Best-First-Search (problem, Eval-Fn)
    Queuing-Fn ← sorted list by Eval-Fn(node)
    return General-Search(problem, Queuing-Fn)
```

• The queuing function queues the expanded nodes, and sorts it every time by the Eval-Fn value of each node.
• One of the simplest Eval-Fn: estimated cost to reach the goal.

Heuristic Function

- $h(n) =$ estimated cost of the cheapest path from the state at node $n$ to a goal state.
- The only requirement is the $h(n) = 0$ at the goal.
- Heuristics means “to find” or “to discover”, or more technically, “how to solve problems” (Polya, 1957).

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Heuristics: Example

- $h_{SLD}(n)$: straight line distance (SLD) is one example.
- Start from A and Goal is I: C is the most promising next step in terms of $h_{SLD}(n)$, i.e. $h(C) < h(B) < h(F)$
- Requires some knowledge:
  1. coordinates of each city
  2. generally, cities toward the goal tend to have smaller SLD.

Greedy Best-First Search: Evaluation

Branching factor $b$ and max depth $m$:
- Fast, just like Depth-First-Search: single path toward the goal.
- Time: $O(b^m)$
- Space: same as time – all nodes are stored in sorted list(!), unlike DFS
- Incomplete, just like DFS
- Non-optimal, just like DFS

Greedy Best-First Search

function Greedy-Best-First Search (problem)

\[ h(n) = \text{estimated cost from } n \text{ to goal} \]

return Best-First-Search(problem, $h$)

- Best-first with heuristic function $h(n)$
**A*: Uniform Cost + Heuristic Search

Avoid expanding paths that are already found to be expensive:

- \( f(n) = g(n) + h(n) \)
- \( f(n) \) : estimated cost to goal through node \( n \)
- provably complete and optimal!

**restrictions**: \( h(n) \) should be an **admissible heuristic**

- admissible heuristic: one that never overestimate the actual cost of the best solution through \( n \)

**NOTE**: \( f(n) \) can be different depending on the path taken to \( f(n) \) if multiple paths exists from root to \( n \)!

**Behavior of A* Search**

- usually, the \( f \) value never decreases along a given path: **monotonicity**
- in case it is nonmonotonic, i.e. \( f(\text{Child}) < f(\text{Parent}) \), make this adjustment:
  \[ f(\text{Child}) = \max(f(\text{Parent}), g(\text{Child}) + h(\text{Child})) \]
- this is called **pathmax**
Optimality of $A^*$

$G_2$: suboptimal goal in the node-list.

$n$: unexpanded node on a shortest path to goal $G_1$

• $f(G_2) = g(G_2)$ since $h(G_2) = 0$
• $> g(G_1)$ since $G_2$ is suboptimal
• $\geq f(n)$ since $h$ is admissible

Since $f(G_2) > f(n)$, $A^*$ will never select $G_2$ for expansion.

Lemma to Optimality of $A^*$

Lemma: $A^*$ expands nodes in order of increasing $f(n)$ value.

• Gradually adds f-contours of nodes (cf. BFS adds layers).
• The goal state may have a $f$ value: let's call it $f^*$
• This means that all nodes with $f < f^*$ will be expanded!

Complexity of $A^*$

$A^*$ is complete and optimal, but space complexity can become exponential if the heuristic is not good enough.

• condition for subexponential growth:
  
  \[ |h(n) - h^*(n)| \leq O(\log h^*(n)) \]
  
  where $h^*(n)$ is the true cost from $n$ to the goal.

• that is, error in the estimated cost to reach the goal should be less than even linear, i.e. $< O(h^*(n))$.

Unfortunately, with most heuristics, error is at least proportional with the true cost, i.e. $\geq O(h^*(n)) > O(\log h^*(n))$. 

Optimality of $A^*$: Example

1. Expansion of parent allowed: search fails at nodes B, D, and E.

2. Expansion of parent disallowed: paths through nodes B, D, and E with have an inflated path cost $g(n)$, thus will become nonoptimal.

$A \rightarrow C \rightarrow E \rightarrow C \rightarrow A \rightarrow F \rightarrow ...$

inflated path cost
Linear vs. Logarithmic Growth Error

- Error in heuristic: $|h(n) - h^*(n)|$.
- For most heuristics, the error is at least linear.
- For $A^*$ to have subexponential growth, the error in the heuristic should be on the order of $O(\log h^*(n))$.

A*: Evaluation

- Complete: unless there are infinitely many nodes with $f(n) \leq f(G)$
- Time complexity: exponential in (relative error in $h \times$ length of solution)
- Space complexity: same as time (keep all nodes immediately outside of current $f$-contour in memory)
- Optimal

Problem with $A^*$

Space complexity is usually exponential!

- we need a memory bounded version
- one solution is: Iterative Deepening $A^*$, or $IDA^*$

Heuristic Functions: Example

Eight puzzle

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<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>1</th>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
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- $h_1(n) = \text{number of misplaced tiles}$
- $h_2(n) = \text{total Manhattan distance (city block distance)}$
  
  $h_1(n) = 7$ (not counting the blank tile)
  $h_2(n) = 2+3+3+2+4+2+0+2 = 18$

* Both are admissible heuristic functions.
Dominance

If \( h_2(n) \geq h_1(n) \) for all \( n \) and both are admissible, then we say that \( h_2(n) \) dominates \( h_1(n) \), and is better for search.

Typical search costs for depth \( d = 14 \):

- Iterative Deepening: 3,473,941 nodes expanded
- \( A^*(h_1) \): 539 nodes
- \( A^*(h_2) \): 113 nodes

Observe that in \( A^* \), every node with \( f < f^* \) is expanded. Since \( f = g + h \), nodes with \( h(n) < f^* - g(n) \) will be expanded, so larger \( h \) will result in less nodes being expanded.

- \( f^* \) is the \( f \) value for the optimal solution path.

Designing Admissible Heuristics

Relax the problem to obtain an admissible heuristics.

For example, in 8-puzzle:

- allow tiles to move anywhere \( \rightarrow h_1(n) \)
- allow tiles to move to any adjacent location \( \rightarrow h_2(n) \)

For traveling:

- allow traveler to travel by air, not just by road: SLD

Other Heuristic Design

- Use composite heuristics: \( h(n) = \max(h_1(n), ..., h_m(n)) \)
- Use statistical information: random sample \( h \) and true cost to reach goal. Find out how often \( h \) and true cost is related.

Iterative Deepening \( A^* \): \( IDA^* \)

\( A^* \) is complete and optimal, but the performance is limited by the available space.

- Basic idea: only search within a certain \( f \) bound, and gradually increase the \( f \) bound until a solution is found.
- Popular use include path finding in game AI.
**IDA***

**function / ISA*(problem)**

- `root ← Make-Node(Initial-State(problem))`
- `f-limit ← f-Cost(root)`
- **loop do**
  - `solution, f-limit ← DFS-Contour(root, f-limit)`
  - **if** `solution != NULL` **then return solution**
  - **if** `f-limit == ∞` **then return failure**
- **end loop**

Basically, iterative deepening depth-first-search with depth defined as the $f$-cost ($f = g + n$):

**IDA**: Evaluation

- **complete and optimal** (with same restrictions as in $A^*$)
- **space**: proportional to longest path that it explores (because it is depth first!)
- **time**: dependent on the number of different values $h(n)$ can assume.

**IDA**: Time Complexity

Depends on the heuristics:

- **small number of possible heuristic function values** $→$ small number of $f$-contours to explore $→$ becomes similar to $A^*$
- **complex problems**: each $f$-contour only contain one new node
  - if $A^*$ expands $N$ nodes,
  - $IDA^*$ expands
    $1 + 2 + .. + N = \frac{N(N+1)}{2} = O(N^2)$
- **a possible solution is to have a fixed increment $ε$ for the $f$-limit**
  $→$ solution will be suboptimal for at most $ε$ ($ε$-admissible)

**DFS-Contour(root, f-limit)**

Find solution from node `root`, within the $f$-cost limit of `f-limit`.
DFS-Contour returns solution sequence and new $f$-cost limit.
- **if** $f$-cost(`root`) $> f$-limit, return fail.
- **if** `root` is a goal node, return solution and new $f$-cost limit.
- **recursive call** on all successors and return solution and minimum $f$-limit returned by the calls
- **return** null solution and new $f$-limit by default

Similar to the recursive implementation of DFS.
Iterative Improvement Algorithms

Start with a complete configuration (all variable values assigned, and optimal), and gradually improve it.

- Hill-climbing (maximize cost function)
- Gradient descent (minimize cost function)
- Simulated Annealing (probabilistic)

Hill-Climbing

- no queue, keep only the best node
- greedy, no back-tracking
- good for domains where all nodes are solutions:
  - goal is to improve quality of the solution
  - optimization problems
- note that it is different from greedy search, which keeps a node list

Hill-Climbing Strategies

Problems of local maxima, plateau, and ridges:

- try random-restart: move to a random location in the landscape and restart search from there
- parallel search
- simulated annealing *

Hardness of problem depends on the shape of the landscape.
*: coming up next

Hill-Climbing and Gradient Search: Problems

- Possible solution: simulated annealing – gradually decrease randomness of move to attain globally optimal solution (more on this next week).
Simulated Annealing: Overview

Annealing:
- heating metal to a high-temperature (making it a liquid) and then allowing to cool slowly (into a solid); this relieves internal stresses and results in a more stable, lower-energy state in the solid.
- at high temperature, atoms move actively (large distances with greater randomness), but as temperature is lowered, they become more static.

Simulated annealing is similar:
- basically, hill-climbing with randomness that allows going down as well as the standard up
- randomness (as temperature) is reduced over time

Simulated Annealing (SA)

Goal: minimize (not maximize) the energy \( E \), as in statistical thermodynamics.

For successors of the current node,
- if \( \Delta E \leq 0 \), the move is accepted
- if \( \Delta E > 0 \), the move is accepted with probability
  \[
P(\Delta E) = e^{-\frac{\Delta E}{kT}},\]
  where \( k \) is the Boltzmann constant and \( T \) is temperature.
- randomness is in the comparison: \( P(\Delta E) < \text{rand}(0, 1) \)

\( \Delta E = E_{\text{new}} - E_{\text{old}} \).

The heuristic \( h(n) \) or \( f(n) \) represents \( E \).

Temperature and \( P(\Delta E) < \text{rand}(0, 1) \)

Downward moves of any size are allowed at high temperature, but at low temperature, only small downward moves are allowed.

- Higher temperature \( T \) \(|\rightarrow\) higher probability of downward hill-climbing
- Lower \( \Delta E \) \(|\rightarrow\) higher probability of downward hill-climbing

\( T \) Reduction Schedule

High to low temperature reduction schedule is important:
- reduction too fast: suboptimal solution
- reduction too slow: wasted time
- question: does the form of the reduction schedule curve matter? linear, quadratic, exponential, etc.?

The proper values are usually found experimentally.
Simulated Annealing Applications

- VLSI wire routing and placement
- Various scheduling optimization tasks
- Traffic control
- Neural network training
- etc.

Key Points

- best-first-search: definition
- heuristic function $h(n)$: what it is
- greedy search: relation to $h(n)$ and evaluation. How it is different from DFS (time complexity, space complexity)
- $A^*$: definition, evaluation, conditions of optimality
- complexity of $A^*$: relation to error in heuristics
- designing good heuristics: several rule-of-thumbs
- $IDA^*$: evaluation, time and space complexity (worst case)
- hill-climbing concept and strategies
- simulated annealing: core algorithm, effect of $T$ and $\Delta E$, source of randomness.

Game Playing

- attractive AI problem because it is abstract
- one of the oldest domains in AI
- in most cases, the world state is fully accessible
- computer representation of the situation can be clear and exact
- challenging: uncertainty introduced by the opponent and the complexity of the problem (full search is impossible)
- hard: in chess, branching factor is about 35, and 50 moves by each player $= 35^{100}$ nodes to search
  - compare to $10^{40}$ possible legal board states
- game playing is more like real life than mechanical search
Games vs. Search Problems

“Unpredictable” opponent → solution is a contingency plan

Time limits → unlikely to find goal, must approximate

Plan of attack:

- algorithm for perfect play (Von Neumann, 1944)
- finite horizon, approximate evaluation (Zuse, 1945; Shannon, 1950; Samuel, 1952–57)
- pruning to reduce costs (McCarthy, 1956)

Types of Games

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>deterministic</th>
<th>chance</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>perfect info</td>
<td>chess, checkers, go, othello</td>
<td>backgammon, monopoly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imperfect info</td>
<td>battle ship</td>
<td>bridge, poker, scrabble</td>
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Two-Person Perfect Information Game

- initial state: initial position and who goes first
- operators: legal moves
- terminal test: game over?
- utility function: outcome (win:+1, lose:-1, draw:0, etc.)

- two players (MIN and MAX) taking turns to maximize their chances of winning (each turn generates one ply)
- one player’s victory is another’s defeat
- need a strategy to win no matter what the opponent does

Minimax: Strategy for Two-Person Perfect Info

- generate the whole tree, and apply util function to the leaves
- go back upward assigning utility value to each node
- at MIN node, assign min(successors’ utility)
- at MAX node, assign max(successors’ utility)
- assumption: the opponent acts optimally
Minimax Decision

function Minimax-Decision (game) returns operator
    return operator that leads to a child state with the max(Minimax-Value(child state, game))

function Minimax-Value(state, game) returns utility value
    if Goal(state), return Utility(state)
    else if Max's move then
        return max of successors' Minimax-Value
    else
        return min of successors' Minimax-Value

Minimax: Evaluation

Branching factor $b$, max depth $m$:

- **complete**: if the game tree is finite
- **optimal**: if opponent is optimal
- **time**: $b^m$
- **space**: $bm$ – depth-first (only when utility function values of all nodes are known!)

Minimax Exercise

Resource Limits

- Time limit: as in Chess → can only evaluate a fixed number of paths
- Approaches:
  - **evaluation function**: how desirable is a given state?
  - **cutoff test**: depth limit
  - **pruning**

Depth limit can result in the horizon effect: interesting or devastating events can be just over the horizon!
Evaluation Functions

For chess, usually a linear weighted sum of feature values:

- \( \text{Eval}(s) = \sum_i w_i f_i(s) \)
- \( f_i(s) = (\text{number of white piece } X) - (\text{number of black piece } X) \)
- other features: degree of control over the center area
- exact values do not matter: the order of Minimax-Value of the successors matter.

\[\alpha\] Cuts

When the current max value is greater than the successor’s min value, don’t look further on that min subtree:

Right subtree can be at most 2, so MAX will always choose the left path regardless of what appears next.

\[\beta\] Cuts

When the current min value is less than the successor’s max value, don’t look further on that max subtree:

Right subtree can be at least 5, so MIN will always choose the left path regardless of what appears next.

\[\alpha - \beta\] Pruning

- memory of best MAX value \( \alpha \) and best MIN value \( \beta \)
- do not go further on any one that does worse than the remembered \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \)
**α − β Pruning Properties**

Cut off nodes that are known to be suboptimal.

Properties:
- pruning **does not** affect final result
- good move ordering improves effectiveness of pruning
- with **perfect ordering**, time complexity = \( b^{m/2} \)
  - doubles depth of search
  - can easily reach 8-ply in chess
- \( b^{m/2} = (\sqrt{b})^m \), thus \( b = 35 \) in chess reduces to
  \( b = \sqrt{35} \approx 6 \) !!!!

**Key Points**
- Game playing: what are the types of games?
- Minimax: definition, and how to get minmax values
- Minimax: evaluation
- α-β pruning: why it saves time

**Overview**
- formal α − β pruning algorithm
- α − β pruning properties
- games with an element of chance
- state-of-the-art game playing with AI
- more complex games

**α − β Pruning: Initialization**

Along the path from the beginning to the current **state**:
- **α**: best MAX value
  - initialize to \(-\infty\)
- **β**: best MIN value
  - initialize to \(\infty\)
**α − β Pruning Algorithm: Max-Value**

function Max-Value (state, game, α, β) return utility value

α: best MAX on path to state; β: best MIN on path to state

if Cutoff(state) then return Utility(state)

v ← −∞

for each s in Successor(state) do

· v ← Max(α, Min-Value(s,game,α,β))
· if v ≥ β then return v /* CUT!! */
· α ← Max(α, v)
end

return v

**α − β Pruning Algorithm: Min-Value**

function Min-Value (state, game, α, β) return utility value

α: best MAX on path to state; β: best MIN on path to state

if Cutoff(state) then return Utility(state)

v ← ∞

for each s in Successor(state) do

· v ← Min(β, Max-Value(s,game,α,β))
· if v ≤ α then return v /* CUT!! */
· β ← Min(β, v)
end

return v

**α − β Pruning Tips**

- At a MAX node:
  - Only α is updated with the MAX of successors.
  - Cut is done by checking if returned v ≥ β.
  - If all fails, MAX(v of succesors) is returned.

- At a MIN node:
  - Only β is updated with the MIN of successors.
  - Cut is done by checking if returned v ≤ α.
  - If all fails, MIN(v of succesors) is returned.

**α − β Exercise**

...
Ordering is Important for Good Pruning

- For MIN, sorting successor’s utility in an increasing order is better (shown above; left).
- For MAX, sorting in decreasing order is better.

Games With an Element of Chance

Rolling the dice, shuffling the deck of card and drawing, etc.

- chance nodes need to be included in the minimax tree
- try to make a move that maximizes the expected value \( \rightarrow \) expectimax
- expected value of random variable \( X \):
  \[
  E(X) = \sum_x x P(x)
  \]
- expectimax
  \[
  \text{expectimax}(C) = \sum_i P(d_i) \max_{s \in S(C,d_i)} (\text{utility}(s))
  \]

Game Tree With Chance Element

- chance element forms a new ply (e.g. dice, shown above)

Design Considerations for Probabilistic Games

- the value of evaluation function, not just the scale matters now!
  (think of what expected value is)
- time complexity: \( b^m n^m \), where \( n \) is the number of distinct dice rolls
- pruning can be done if we are careful
State of the Art in Gaming With AI

- Chess: IBM’s Deep Blue defeated Garry Kasparov (1997)
- Backgammon: Tesauro’s Neural Network → top three (1992)
- Othello: smaller search space → superhuman performance
- Checkers: Samuel’s Checker Program running on 10Kbyte (1952)

Genetic algorithms can perform very well on select domains.

Hard Games

The game of Go, popular in East Asia:

- $19 \times 19 = 361$ grid: branching factor is huge!
- search methods inevitably fail: need more structured rules
- the bet was high: $1,400,000$ prize for the first computer program to beat a select, 12-year old player. The late Mr. Ing Chang Ki (photo above) put up the money from his personal funds.


Key Points

- formal $\alpha - \beta$ pruning algorithm: know how to apply pruning
- $\alpha - \beta$ pruning properties: evaluation
- games with an element of chance: what are the added elements? how does the minmax tree get augmented?