Berner Fachhochschule - Technik und Informatik

# **Object-Oriented Programming 2**

Topic 2: Collections

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### **Outline**

The Collection Framework

Lists

Queues and Deques

Sets and Sorted Sets

Maps and Sorted Maps

**Iterators** 

The Minimax Algorithm



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#### The Collection Framework

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The Minimax Algorithm

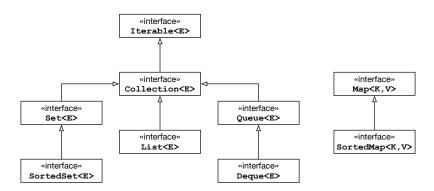


### The Collection Framework

- ► A collection represents an iterable group of elements
- ► There are various types of collections, depending on how the elements are stored and on how manipulations work
  - → Some allow duplicate elements, others do not
  - → Some are ordered, others are unordered
  - → Some have a fixed (or maximal) size, others have a variable size
  - → Some can be modified, others are immutable
- ► The generic interface Collection<E> is the root of the Java Collections Framework (JCF)
- ▶ The JCF exists since Java 1.2 (generic types added in Java 5)
- ► The interfaces Map<K,V and SortedMap<K,V> do not inherit from Collection<E>, but are still members of the JCF



### Interfaces of the Collection Framework



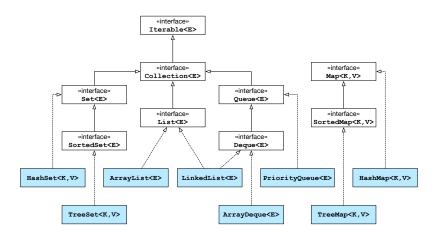


### The Collection Interface

- ► The interface Collection defines a number of methods that perform basic operations
  - → boolean isEmpty(): Returns true if the collection is empty
  - → int size(): Returns the collection's number of elements
  - ightarrow boolean add(E e): Ensures that the collection contains e
  - → boolean remove(Object e): Removes e from the collection
  - → boolean contains(Object e): Returns true if the collection contains e
  - → void clear(): Removes all elements form the collection
  - → Object[] toArray(): Returns an array containing all of the elements from the collection
- An additional method is inherited from Iterable<E>
  - → Iterator<E> iterator(): Returns an iterator over all elements



### Classes of the Collection Framework





#### Classes of the Collection Framework

- ► A class that implements Collection<E> is supposed to provide at least two constructors for constructing . . .
  - → an empty collection
  - → a collection containing all elements of another collection
- Examples:
  - → ArrayList(), ArrayList(Collection<? extends E> c)
  - → LinkedList(), LinkedList(Collection<? extends E> c)
  - → HashSet(). HashSet(Collection<? extends E> c)
  - → etc.



### **Example of Using Collections I**

```
public class CollectionTester {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
   Collection<String> c1 = new ArrayList<>();
   c1.add("Hello"):
   c1.add("World");
   c1.size(); // returns 2
   System.out.println(c1); // prints "[Hello, World]"
   Collection<String> c2 = new LinkedList<>(c1);
   c2.add("!"):
   c2.add("!");
   c2.size(); // returns 4
   c2.remove("World");
   c2.size(); // returns 3
   System.out.println(c2); // prints "[Hello, !, !]"
```



# **Example of Using Collections II**

```
Collection<String> c3 = new HashSet(c2);
  c3.add("World");
  c3.add("World");
  c3.size(); // returns 3
  System.out.println(c3); // prints "[!, Hello, World]"
}
```



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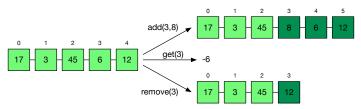
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### Lists

- ► The interfaces List, Queue, and Deque extend the interface Collection by introducing ...
  - → an ordering of the elements stored in the collection
  - → additional access methods
- ► A list offers positional access, i.e., manipulations of elements are based on their numerical position (index) in the list





#### The List Interface

- ▶ E get(int i): Returns the element at the specified index i
- ▶ E set(int index, E element): Replaces the element at the specified index i with e
- void add(int i, E e): Inserts e at the specified index i
- ► E remove(int i): Removes the element at the specified index i
- ▶ int indexOf(Object e): Returns the index of the first occurrence of e
- ▶ int lastIndexOf(Object e): Returns the index of the last occurrence of e



# ArrayList vs. LinkedList

- ► The main difference between the classes ArrayList and LinkedList is their internal way of storing the elements
  - → ArrayList uses internally an array (which needs to be replaced by a bigger one if it gets full)
  - → LinkedList uses internally a doubly linked chain of nodes, which carry the elements
- ▶ This has implications on the running times of some methods
  - → ArrayList allows for fast random access, but adding or removing elements may require existing elements to be shifted
  - → LinkedList allows for constant-time insertions or removals, but only sequential access
- Recommendation: use ArrayList except in cases where insertions or removals are the dominant operations



# **Example of Using Sets I**

```
public class ListTester {
 public static int ROUNDS = 500000;
  public static void main(String[] args) {
   List<String> 11 = new ArrayList<>();
   System.out.println("ArrayList: start...");
   for (int i = 1; i <= ROUNDS; i++) {</pre>
     11.add(0, "Hello");
   System.out.println("done");
   List<String> 12 = new LinkedList<>();
   System.out.println("LinkedList: start...");
   for (int i = 1; i <= ROUNDS; i++) {</pre>
     12.add(0, "World");
```



# **Example of Using Sets II**

```
}
System.out.println("done");
}
```



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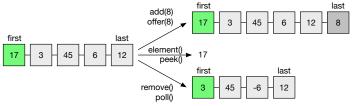
# **Queues and Deques (and Stacks)**

- ► A queue offers first-in-first-out access (FIFO) to its elements
  - → Elements are added to the back of the queue
  - → Elements are removed from the front of the queue
- ► A deque (short form for "double ended queue", pronounced as "deck") offers access to both of its extremities
  - → Elements are added to the front or the back of the deque
  - → Elements are removed from the front or the back of the deque
- A deque also includes typical methods of a stack, which offers last-in-first-out access (LIFO)
  - → Elements are added to the front (push)
  - → Elements are removed from the front (pop)



### The Queue Interface

- ▶ E element(), E peek(): Retrieves, but does not remove, the first element of the queue
- ▶ boolean add(E e), boolean offer(E e): Inserts e into the queue if it is possible
- ► E remove(), E poll(): Retrieves and removes the first element of the queue



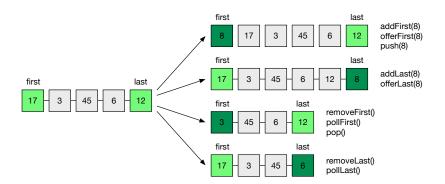


# The Deque Interface

- ► E getFirst(), E peekFirst(): Retrieves, but does not remove, the first element of the deque
- ► E getLast(), E peekLast(): Retrieves, but does not remove, the last element of the deque
- ▶ void addFirst(E e), void offerFirst(E e), void push(E e): Inserts e at the front of the deque
- ▶ void addLast(E e), void offerLast(E e): Inserts e at the end of the deque
- ► E removeFirst(), E pollFirst(), E pop(): Retrieves and removes the first element of the deque
- ► E removeLast(), E pollLast(): Retrieves and removes the last element of the deque



# The Deque Interface





# ArrayDeque vs. PriorityQueue

- ► In a ArrayDeque, the order of the elements is determined by the sequence of insertion operations
- ▶ In a PriorityQueue, the order of the elements is determined by their natural order or by specifying a comparator
  - → PriorityQueue()
  - → PriorityQueue(Comparator<? super E> comparator)
- Another difference is their internal way of storing the elements
  - → ArrayDeque uses internally an array (similar to ArrayList)
  - → PriorityQueue uses internally a heap
- ► All critical operations are efficient: average O(1) for ArrayDeque, worst-case O(log n) for PriorityQueue



# **Example of Using Queues I**

```
public class QueueTester {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
   Queue<String> p1 = new ArrayDeque<>(); // Insertion order
   p1.add("Peter");
   p1.add("John");
   p1.add("Tom");
   p1.add("Andrew");
   while (!p1.isEmpty()) {
     System.out.println(p1.remove());
   } // Loop prints "Peter", "John", "Tom", "Andrew"
   Queue < String > p2 = new PriorityQueue <> (); // Natural order
   p2.add("Peter");
   p2.add("John");
   p2.add("Tom");
```



# **Example of Using Queues II**

```
p2.add("Andrew");
while (!p2.isEmpty()) {
 System.out.println(p2.remove());
} // Loop prints "Andrew", "John", "Peter", "Tom"
// String length comparator
Comparator<String> c = new Comparator<String>() {
 @Override
 public int compare(String s1, String s2) {
   if (s1.length() < s2.length()) {</pre>
     return -1;
   if (s1.length() > s2.length()) {
     return 1;
   return 0;
```



# **Example of Using Queues III**

```
Queue<String> p3 = new PriorityQueue<>(c);
 p3.add("Peter");
 p3.add("John");
 p3.add("Tom");
 p3.add("Andrew");
 while (!p3.isEmpty()) {
    System.out.println(p3.remove());
 } // Loop prints "Tom", "John", "Peter", "Andrew"
}
```



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### Sets

- A set in Java is a collection that contains no duplicates
- Duplicates are elements e1 and e2 such that e1.equals(e2)
- Compared to a list, there are two important differences:
  - → A list may contain duplicates
  - → Elements in a list are ordered (positional access)
- Java sets correspond to sets in mathematics, except that Java sets can be modified
  - $\rightarrow$  boolean contains(Object x): tests if  $x \in X$
  - $\rightarrow$  boolean contains All (Collection <?> y): tests if  $Y \subseteq X$
  - ightarrow boolean addAll(Collection<? extends E> y): computes  $X \cup Y$
  - $\rightarrow$  boolean retainAll(Collection<?> y): computes  $X \cap Y$
  - $\rightarrow$  boolean removeAll(Collection<?> y): computes  $X \setminus Y$



### **Sorted Sets**

► A sorted set in Java is a set that provides a total order on its elements, which is determined by their natural order or by specifying a comparator

- ➤ The interface SortedSet provides some additional methods that exploit the existence of an order
  - → E first(): Returns the minimal element currently in this set
  - → E last(): Returns the maximal element currently in this set
  - → SortedSet<E> tailSet(E e): Returns elements that are greater than or equal to e
  - → SortedSet<E> headSet(E e): Returns elements that are strictly less than e
  - → SortedSet<E> subSet(E e1, E e2): Returns the elements that range from e1 (inclusive) to e2 (exclusive)



### HashSet vs. TreeSet

- ▶ In a HashSet, the order of the elements is unspecified
- ► In a TreeSet, the order is determined by their natural order or by specifying a comparator (similar to PriorityQueue)
  - → TreeSet()
  - → TreeSet(Comparator<? super E> comparator)
- Another difference is their internal way of storing the elements
  - → HashSet uses internally a hash table (array)
  - → TreeSet uses internally a red-black tree
- ▶ All critical operations are efficient: average O(1) for HashSet, worst-case  $O(\log n)$  for TreeSet



# **Example of Using Sets I**

```
public class SetTester {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
   Set<Integer> s1 = new HashSet<>(Arrays.asList(new Integer
        []{1,2,3,4});
   Set<Integer> s2 = new HashSet<>(Arrays.asList(new Integer
        []{3,4,5});
   Set<Integer> s3 = new HashSet<>(Arrays.asList(new Integer
        []{2,5,6});
   s2.addAll(s3);
   System.out.println(s2); // s2 = s2 cup s3 = {2,3,4,5,6}
   s2.retainAll(s1); // s2 = s2 cap s1 = {2,3,4}
   System.out.println(s2); // s2 = s2 cap s1 = {2,3,4}
```

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# **Example of Using Sets II**

```
s2.removeAll(s3);
System.out.println(s2); // s2 = s2 minus s3 = {3,4}
s2.add(3):
s2.add(5);
s2.add(5):
System.out.println(s2); // s2 = s2 cup \{3,5,5\} = \{3,4,5\}
SortedSet<Integer> s = new TreeSet<>(Arrays.asList(new
    Integer []\{1,3,7,2,5,4,7\});
System.out.println(s.headSet(5)); // {1,2,3,4}
System.out.println(s.tailSet(5)); // {5,7}
System.out.println(s.subSet(2,5)); // {2,3,4}
```



# The Equals Method

→ e.equals(null) == false

Duplicates in sets and sorted sets are defined differently:

```
→ Sets: e1.equals(e2)
→ Sorted sets:
e1.compareTo(e2) == 0 or c.compareTo(e1,e2) == 0
```

- ► The method equals(Object obj) as defined in Object only performs an identity check e1 == e2
- Important: If you need a Set<MyClass>, you must override equals(Object obj) in your class MyClass

```
→ e.equals(e) == true (Reflexivity)
→ e1.equals(e2) == e2.equals(e1) (Symmetry)
→ e1.equals(e2) && e2.equals(e3) == e1.equals(e3)
   (Transitivity)
```



# **Auto-Generated Equals Method I**

```
public class MyClass {
 private int x;
 private String y;
 Onverride
 public boolean equals(Object obj) {
   if (obj == null) {
     return false;
   if (this == obj) {
     return true;
   if (getClass() != obj.getClass()) {
     return false;
   MyClass other = (MyClass) obj;
```



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# **Auto-Generated Equals Method II**

```
if (this.x != other.x) {
 return false;
if (this.y == null) {
 if (other.y != null) {
   return false;
} else if (!this.y.equals(other.y)) {
 return false;
return true;
```



### The HashCode Method

- ► A set implemented based on hash tables (e.g. HashSet) requires a hash function that is compatible with equals
- ► The method hashCode() as defined in Object only transforms the memory address of the object into an integer
- Important: If you need a HashSet<MyClass>, you must override hashCode() in your class MyClass
  - → If e1.equals(e2), then e1.hashCode() == e2.hashCode()
  - → Otherwise, e1.hashCode() !=e2.hashCode() with high probability
- General recommendation: Always override hashCode() when you override equals(Object obj)



### Auto-Generated HashCode Method

Let  $h_1, \ldots, h_n$  be the hash codes of the n fields of an object x, then a good practice is to define  $h_0 = 1$  and compute

$$hashCode(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} h_i \cdot 31^{n-i}$$

▶ Example: Let n = 2, then  $hashCode(x) = 31^2 + 31h_1 + h_2$ 

```
@Override
public int hashCode() {
  final int prime = 31;
  int result = 1;
  result = prime * result + x;
  result = prime * result + ((y == null) ? 0 : y.hashCode());
  return result;
}
```



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## Maps and Sorted Maps

▶ A map in Java is an object that maps keys to values (similar to a function  $f: \{k_1, \ldots, k_n\} \rightarrow V$  in mathematics)

$$k_1 \mapsto v_1 = f(k_1)$$
  
 $\vdots$   
 $k_n \mapsto v_n = f(k_n)$ 

- ▶ A map cannot contain duplicate keys (each key maps to at most one value), but different keys can map to the same value
- ► The goal of a map is to provide a key-based access to the values stored in the map
- ► A sorted map is a map that provides a total ordering on its keys (similar to SortedSet)



# The Map Interface

- Since Map<K,V> does not inherit from Collection<E>, it defines its own methods isEmpty(), size(), and clear()
  - → boolean containsKey(Object key)): Returns true if the map contains a mapping with the given value
  - → boolean containsValue(Object key)): Returns true if the map contains a mapping for the given key
  - → V get(Object key): Returns the value of the mapping for the given key (or null if the key does not exist)
  - → V put(K key, V value): Adds a new mapping or replaces the value of an existing mapping
  - → V remove(Object key): Removes the mapping if the given key exists
  - → V replace(K key, V value): Replaces the value in the mapping if the given key exists
  - → Collection<V> values(): Returns a collection of all values
  - → Set<K> keySet(): Returns a set of all keys



# HashMap vs. TreeMap

- ▶ In a HashMap, the order of the keys is unspecified
- In a TreeMap, the order is determined by their natural order or by specifying a comparator (similar to TreeSet)
  - → TreeMap()
  - → TreeMap(Comparator<? super E> comparator)
- Another difference is their internal way of storing the elements
  - → HashMap uses internally a hash table (array)
  - → TreeMap uses internally a red-black tree
- ▶ All critical operations are efficient: average O(1) for HashMap, worst-case  $O(\log n)$  for TreeMap



# **Example of Using Maps I**

```
public class MapTester {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
   Map<Integer,String> map = new HashMap<>();
   map.put(1, "Hello");
   map.put(5, "World");
   map.put(7, "Hello");
   map.put(10, "Hello World");
   map.put(10, "Hello World!"); // replaces previous value
   System.out.println(map.keySet()); // prints [1, 5, 7, 10]
   System.out.println(map.values()); // prints [Hello, World,
         Hello, Hello World!]
   String str1 = map.get(1);
   if (str1 != null) {
```



# **Example of Using Maps II**

```
System.out.println(str1); // prints "Hello"
String str2 = map.get(2);
if (str2 != null) {
 System.out.println(str2); // nothing is printed
// the following code is less efficient
int key = 1;
if (map.containsKey(key)) {
 System.out.println(map.get(key)); // prints "Hello"
```



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#### **Iterators**

- An iterator in Java is an object that helps iterating through all elements in a collection
- ► The interface Iterator<E> defines the following methods:
  - → boolean hasNext(): Returns true if the iteration has more elements
  - → E next(): Returns the next element in the iteration
- Note that an iterator only allows a single iteration
- The following is a typical example of usage:

```
Iterator<String> iterator = ...;
while(iterator.hasNext()) {
   System.out.println(iterator.next());
}
```



# **Array Iterator I**

```
public class ArrayIterator<E> implements Iterator<E> {
 private E[] array;
 private int currentIndex;
 public ArrayIterator(E[] array) {
   this.array = array;
   this.currentIndex = 0;
 @Override
 public boolean hasNext() {
   return this.currentIndex < this.array.length;</pre>
 Onverride
 public E next() {
```



# **Array Iterator II**

```
if (!this.hasNext()){
    throw new NoSuchElementException();
}
return this.array[this.currentIndex++];
}
```



# Reverse Array Iterator I

```
public class ReverseArrayIterator<E> implements Iterator<E> {
 private E[] array;
 private int currentIndex;
 public ReverseArrayIterator(E[] array) {
   this.array = array;
   this.currentIndex = array.length - 1;
 @Override
 public boolean hasNext() {
   return this.currentIndex >= 0;
 Onverride
 public E next() {
```



# Reverse Array Iterator II

```
if (!this.hasNext()) {
    throw new NoSuchElementException();
}
return this.array[this.currentIndex--];
}
```



#### **Iterator Tester I**

```
public class IteratorTester {
 public static void main(String[] args) {
   Integer[] values = new Integer[] { 1, 3, 3, 5, 6, 9 };
   Iterator<Integer> i1 = new ArrayIterator<>(values);
   while (i1.hasNext()) {
     System.out.print(i1.next() + " ");
   System.out.println();
   // prints 1 3 3 5 6 9
   Iterator<Integer> i2 = new ReverseArrayIterator<>(values);
   while (i2.hasNext()) {
     System.out.print(i2.next() + " ");
```



#### Iterator Tester II

```
System.out.println();
   // prints 9 6 5 3 3 1
}
```



#### **List Iterators**

➤ The ListIterator<E> interface extends Iterator<E> with methods for traversing a list backwards

- → boolean hasPrevious(): Returns true if a backward iteration has more elements
- → E previous(): Returns the previous element in a backward iteration
- It also provides methods for adding, removing, or replacing element in the list
  - → void add(E e): Inserts an element into the list
  - → void remove(): Removes the current element from the list
  - → void set(E e): Replaces the current element in the list



## **Obtaining Iterators from Collections**

- An iterator can be obtained from a collection using a method inherited from Iterable<E>
  - → Iterator<E> iterator(): Returns an iterator over all elements in the collection (the order is unspecified)
- Similarly, a list iterator can be obtained from a list
  - → ListIterator<E> listIterator(): Returns a list iterator over all elements in the list
- Note that the Java for-each loop work for any class that implements the Iterable<E> interface

```
Iterable<Integer> values =Arrays.asList(new Integer
    []{1,3,3,5,7,9});
int sum = 0;
for (Integer value: values) {
   sum = sum + value;
}
```

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# The Minimax-Algorithm

- ► The minimax algorithm is an optimal game playing algorithm for two player games such as tic-tac-toe, chess, go, uril, . . .
- ▶ Let A and B be the two players and S the finite set of possible game states, where . . .
  - $\rightarrow$   $s_0 \in S$  is the initial state
  - ightarrow  $S^* \subseteq S$  are final states, in which the game ends
- ▶ For all final states  $s^* \in S^*$ , the winner of the game is defined by a function  $E: S^* \to [-1, 1]$ , where

$$E(s^*) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } A \text{ wins} \\ 0, & \text{if the game ends as draw} \\ -1, & \text{if } B \text{ wins} \end{cases}$$

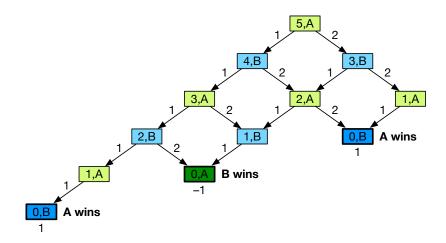


# **Example: Subtraction Game**

- ▶ In a (k, n)-subtraction game, A and B take turns in removing up to k objects from a pile with initially n objects
  - $\rightarrow$  A begins
  - → Whoever removes the last object from the pile wins
- ► Example: (2,5)-subtraction game
  - $\rightarrow$  States:  $S = \{(5, A), (4, A), \dots, (0, A), (4, B), \dots, (0, B)\}$
  - $\rightarrow$  Initial state:  $s_0 = (5, A)$
  - $\rightarrow$  Final states:  $S^* = \{(0, A), (0, B)\}$



# **Example: Subtraction Game**





## Minimax Algorithm: General Idea

- ▶ Let  $next(s) \subseteq S$  be the reachable states from  $s \in S$
- ► Example: (2,5)-subtraction game

```
→ next((5, A)) = \{(4, B), (3, B)\}

→ next((4, B)) = \{(3, A), (2, A)\}

⋮

→ next((0, A)) = next(0, B) = \{\}
```

▶ The minimax algorithm extends E from  $E: S^* \to [-1,1]$  to  $F: S \to [-1,1]$  by computing F(s) recursively by for all  $s \in S$ 

$$F(s) = \begin{cases} E(s), & \text{if } s \in S^* \\ \max\{F(s') : s' \in next(s)\}, & \text{if it is } A\text{'s turn} \\ \min\{F(s') : s' \in next(s)\}, & \text{if it is } B\text{'s turn} \end{cases}$$



# Minimax Algorithm: Pseudocode

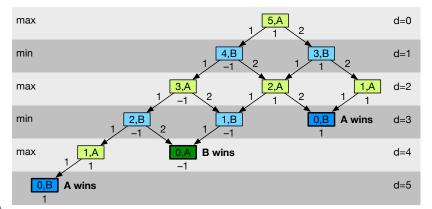
```
Algorithm: Minimax(s, d)
if s \in S^* then
                                                    // game ends
return E(s)
if d \mod 2 = 0 then
                                                       // A's turn
    m \leftarrow -1
   for s' \in next(s) do
    m \leftarrow \max(m, \text{Minimax}(s', d+1))
else
                                                       // B's turn
    m \leftarrow 1
    for s' \in next(s) do
     m \leftarrow \min(m, \text{Minimax}(s', d+1))
return m
```



## **Example: Subtraction Game**

Initial call: Minimax((5, A), 0)

Return value: F((5, A)) = 1, i.e. A wins by removing 2 objects





## Minimax Algorithm: Performance

- ► The branching factor *b* of a game is the average number legal moves (children in the game tree)
- Examples:
  - $\rightarrow$  (k, n)-subtraction game:  $b \le k, h \le n$
  - → Chess:  $b \approx 35$
  - → Go:  $b \approx 250$
- ▶ The minimax algorithms runs in  $O(b^h)$  time, where h denotes the height (maximal depth) of the game tree
- In other words, exploring the full game tree is impossible for most non-trivial games



## **Pruned Minimax Algorithm**

- ► To apply the minimax algorithm to non-trivial games, the game tree exploration must be pruned
- ► The simplest pruning method is to stop the recursion when a maximal depth  $d_{max}$  is reached
- ▶ When the recursion stops at state  $s \in S$ , then a evaluation function  $\tilde{E}: S \to [-1, 1]$  is applied to s
  - ightharpoonup For  $s \in S^*$ , let  $\tilde{E}(s) = E(s)$
  - ightharpoonup Otherwise, let  $\tilde{E}(s)$  be an estimate of the advantage of state s relative to A and B, such that  $\tilde{E}(s)=1$  means maximal advantage for A and  $\tilde{E}(s)=-1$  maximal advantage for B
- ► The quality of the estimate  $\tilde{E}(s)$  and  $d_{\text{max}}$  determine the quality and accuracy of the final minimax return value



# Pruned Minimax Algorithm: Pseudocode

```
Algorithm: Minimax(s, d, d_{max})
if s \in S^* or d = d_{max} then
                                                         // game ends
 return \tilde{E}(s)
if d \mod 2 = 0 then
                                                            // A's turn
    m \leftarrow -1
    for s' \in next(s) do
     m \leftarrow \max(m, \text{Minimax}(s', d+1, d_{\text{max}}))
else
                                                            // B's turn
    m \leftarrow 1
    for s' \in next(s) do
     m \leftarrow \min(m, \text{Minimax}(s', d+1, d_{\text{max}}))
return m
```



## **Defining the Evaluation Function**

▶ One popular strategy for constructing an evaluation function  $\tilde{E}: S \to [-1,1]$  is as a weighted sum

$$\tilde{E}(s) = \frac{1}{W} \sum_{i=1}^{k} w_i \cdot \tilde{E}_i(s)$$

of k individual evaluation criteria

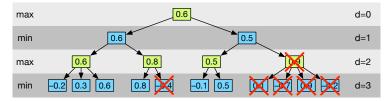
- ▶ The value  $w_i \in [0, 1]$  denotes the weight of criterion i and  $W = \sum_{i=1}^{k} w_i$  denotes the total weight of all criteria
- $\tilde{E}_i: S \to [-1,1]$  defines the evaluation function of criterion i
- Example from chess:

$$\tilde{E}(s) = 9 \cdot (Q - Q') + 5 \cdot \frac{R - R'}{2} + 3 \cdot \frac{B - B'}{2} + 3 \cdot \frac{N - N'}{2} + \frac{P - P'}{8} + \dots$$



# **Alpha-Beta Pruning**

- ▶ There are many ways of optimizing the minimax algorithm
- ► The general idea is to prune branches of the game tree that will not influence the final minimax return value
- ► The simplest optimization is known as alpha-beta pruning



► The following version of the minimax algorithm is initially called with  $Minimax(s_0, 0, d_{max}, -1, 1)$ 



## Alpha-Beta Pruning: Pseudocode I

```
Algorithm: Minimax(s, d, d_{max}, \alpha, \beta)
if s \in S^* or d = d_{max} then
                                                              // game ends
return \tilde{E}(s)
if d \mod 2 = 0 then
                                                                  // A's turn
     m \leftarrow -1
    for s' \in next(s) do
          m \leftarrow \max(m, \text{Minimax}(s', d+1, d_{\text{max}}, \alpha, \beta))
         \alpha \leftarrow \max(\alpha, m)
         if \alpha > \beta then
              return m
                                                                  //\beta cutoff
```



# Alpha-Beta Pruning: Pseudocode II

