

PURDUE CS47100  
SEPT 11, 2019  
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# INTRODUCTION TO AI

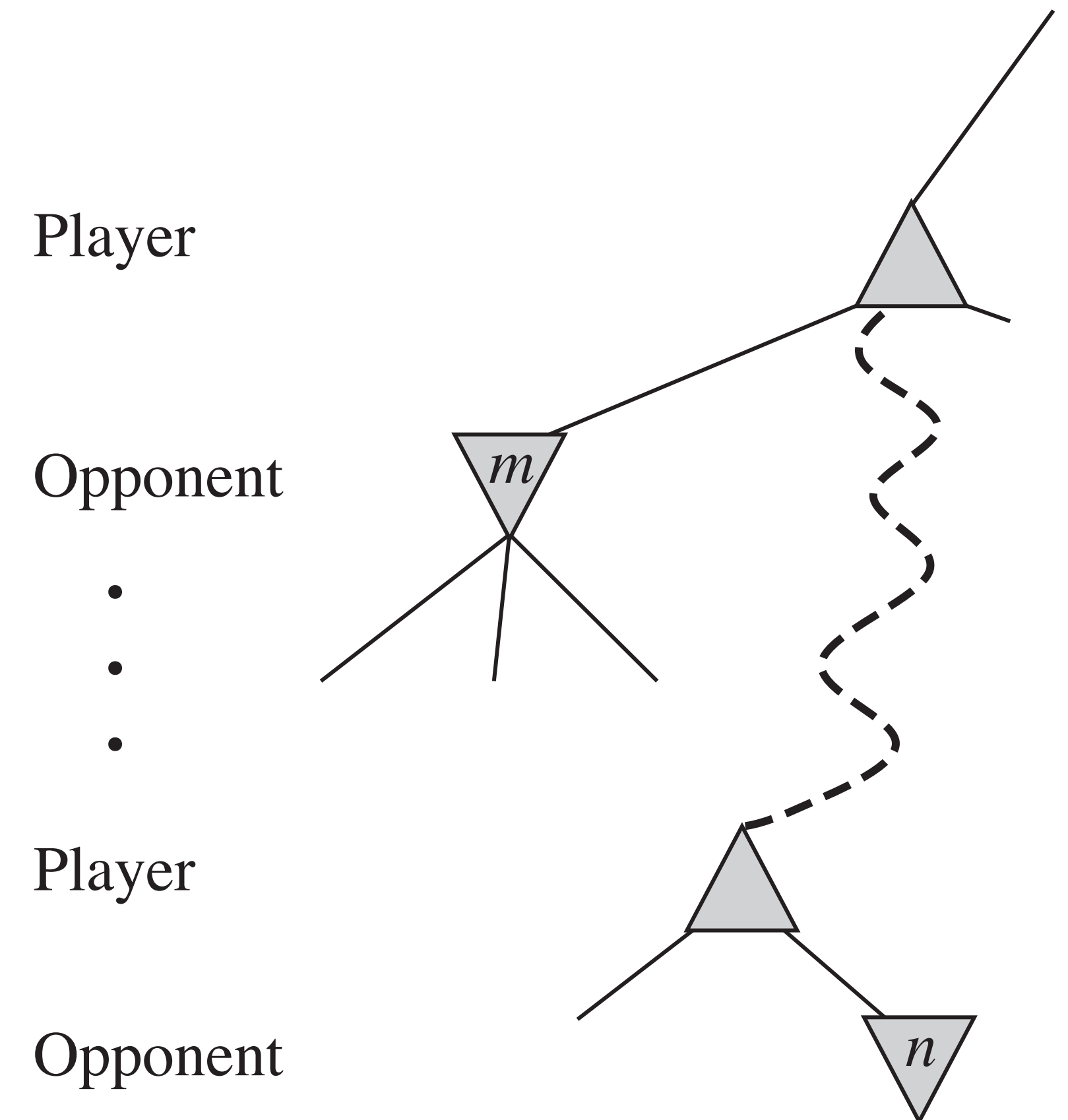
# RECAP: ADVERSARIAL SEARCH

- ▶ Minimax search is a way of finding an optimal move in a zero-sum two player game
- ▶ Alpha-beta pruning is a way of finding the optimal minimax solution while avoiding searching subtrees of moves which won't be selected
  - ▶ Some branches will never be played by rational players since they include sub-optimal decisions (for either player)
  - ▶ Pruning produces results that are exactly equivalent to complete (unpruned) search
  - ▶ Node *ordering* can improve effectiveness; Perfect ordering gives time complexity  $O(b^{m/2})$ , thus, can search twice as far as ordinary minimax in equal time

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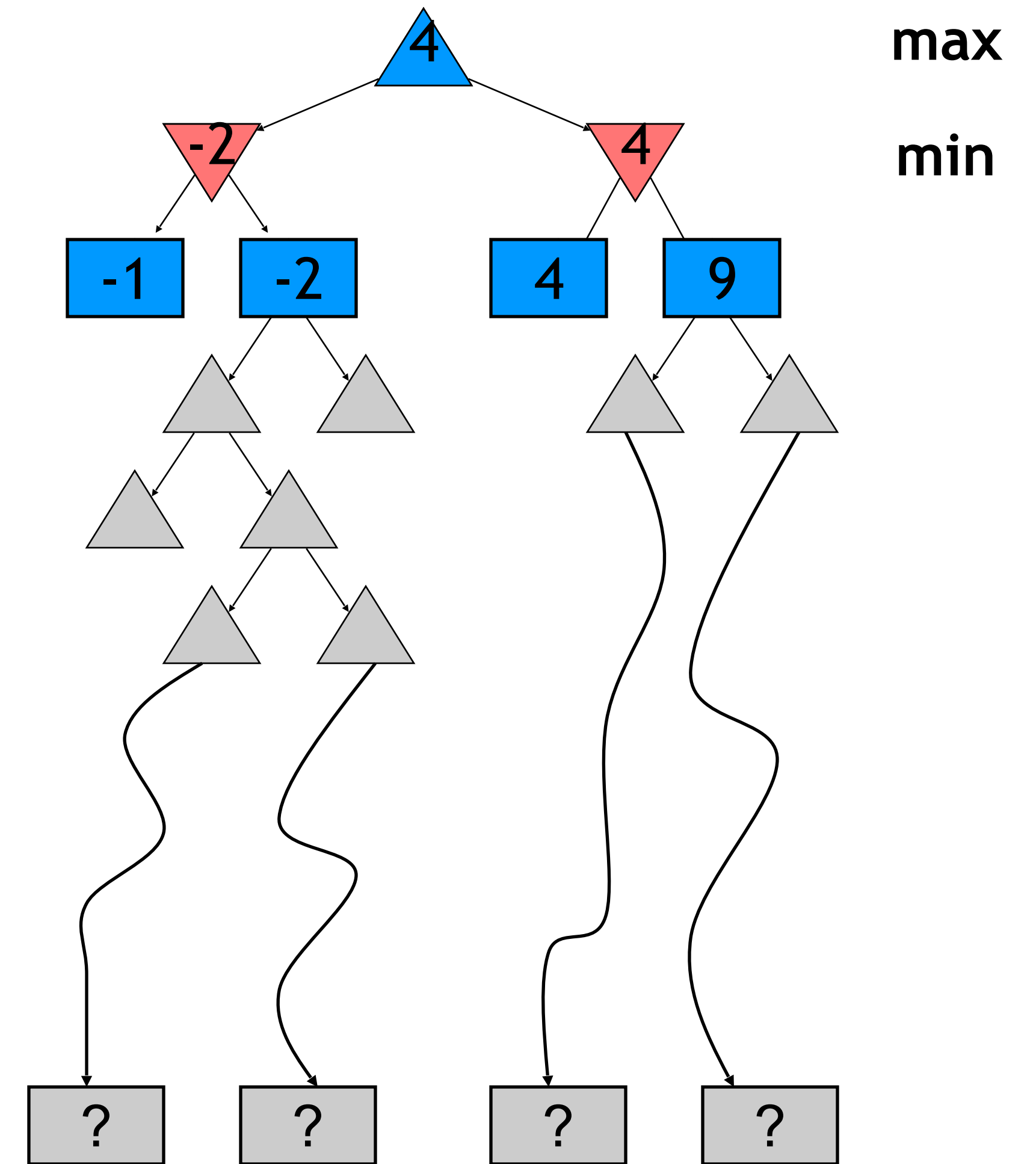
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# RESOURCE LIMITS

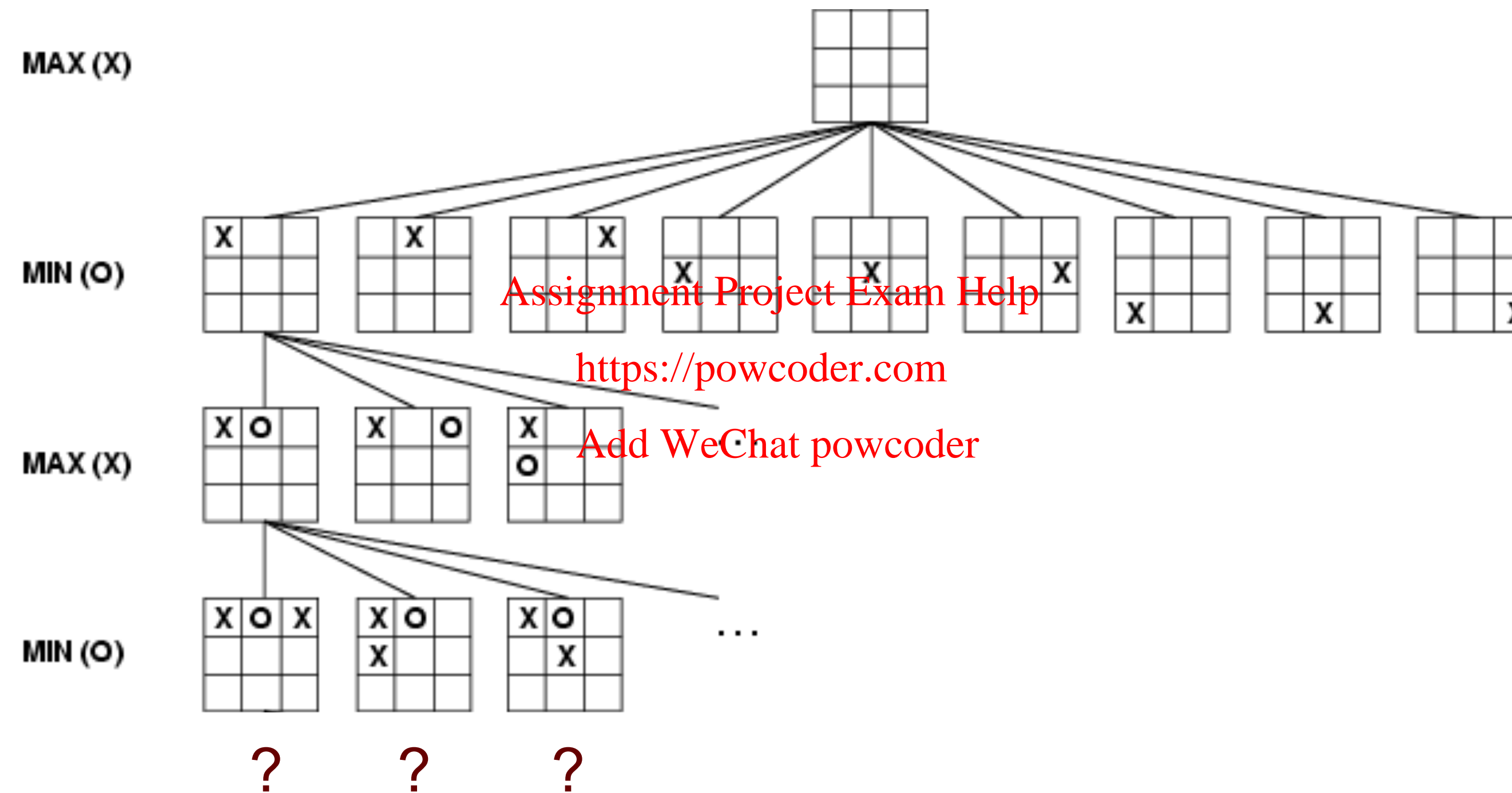


# RESOURCE LIMITS

- ▶ **Problem:** In realistic games, cannot search to leaves
- ▶ Example:
  - ▶ Suppose we have 100 seconds, can explore 10K nodes / sec
  - ▶ So can check 1M nodes per move
  - ▶  $\alpha$ - $\beta$  reaches about depth 8 - decent chess program
- ▶ Guarantee of optimal play is gone; More plies makes a BIG difference
- ▶ **Solution:** Depth-limited search
  - ▶ Instead, search only to a limited depth in the tree
  - ▶ Replace terminal utilities with an **evaluation function** for non-terminal positions



# WHAT TO DO WHEN SEARCH IS INTRACTABLE



- ▶ Stop the search before you reach terminal states (using depth cutoff)
- ▶ Evaluate nodes using an evaluation function – What properties should the evaluation function have?

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# EVALUATION FUNCTIONS



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# EVALUATION FUNCTIONS

- ▶ Desirable properties
  - ▶ Order terminal states in same way as true utility function
  - ▶ Strongly correlated with the actual minimax value of the states
  - ▶ Efficient to calculate
- ▶ Typically use **features** – simple characteristics of the game state that are correlated with the *probability of winning*
- ▶ The evaluation function combines feature values to produce a score:

$$Eval(x) = w_1 f_1(s) + w_2 f_2(s) + \dots + w_n f_n(s) = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i f_i(s)$$

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# EXAMPLE FEATURES

- ▶ What would be some useful features for chess?
  - ▶ Relative number of Bishops; Knights; Rooks; Pawns
  - ▶ Total number of pieces
  - ▶ Has queen?
  - ▶ Castled?
  - ▶ In check?
  - ▶ Distance of furthest pawn from start
  - ▶ Relative freedom (relative total number of possible moves)
  - ▶ etc.

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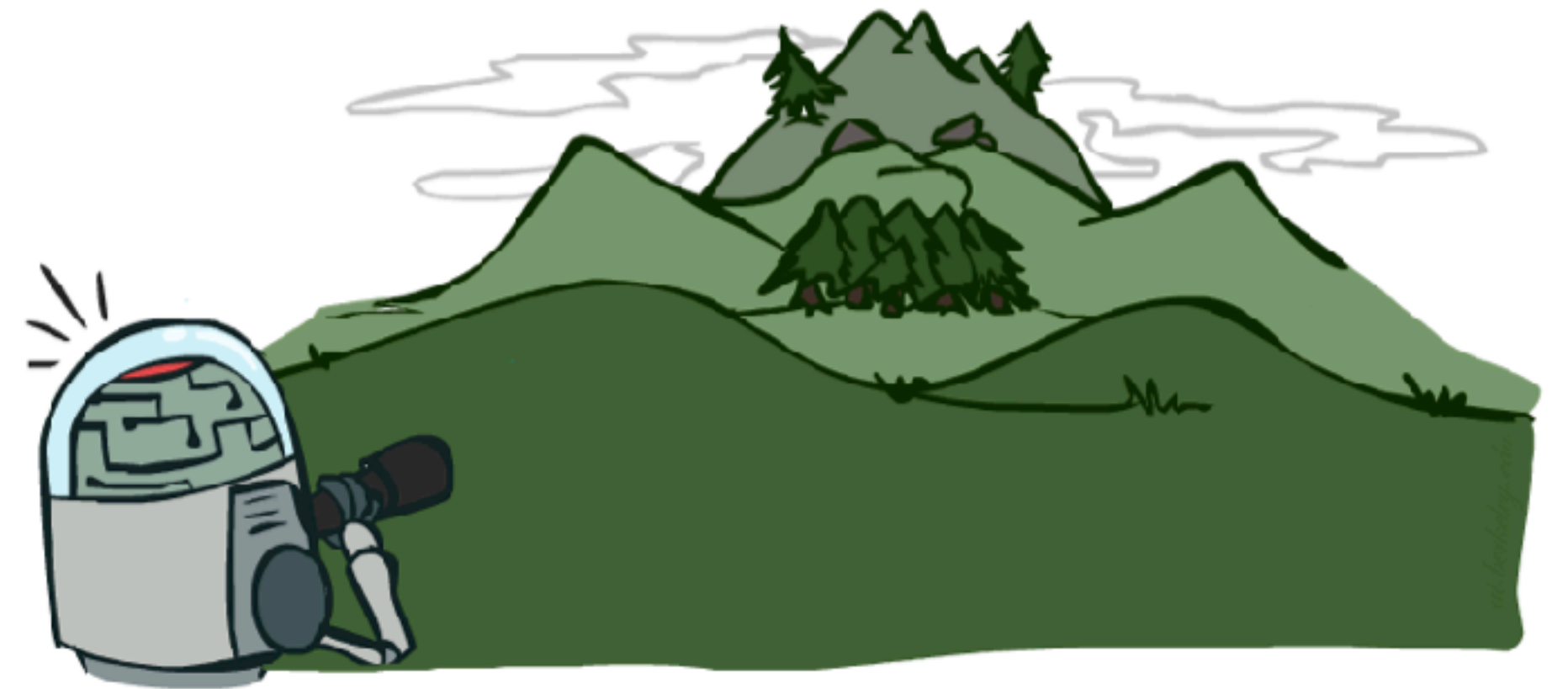
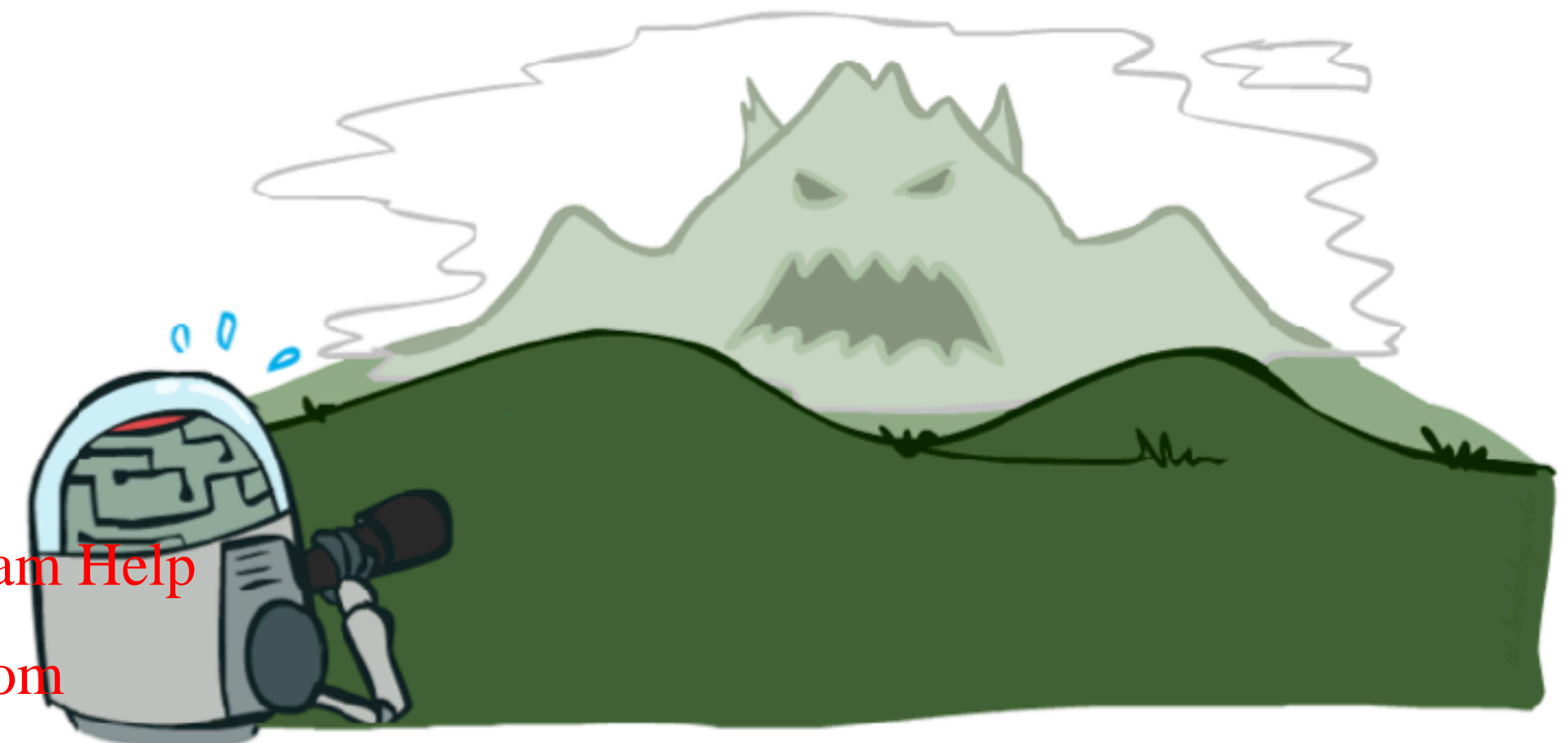
# DEPTH MATTERS

- ▶ Evaluation functions are always imperfect
- ▶ The deeper in the tree the evaluation function is buried, the less the quality of the evaluation function matters
- ▶ An important example of the tradeoff between complexity of features and complexity of computation

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# HOW COULD YOU LEARN A GOOD EVALUATION FUNCTION?

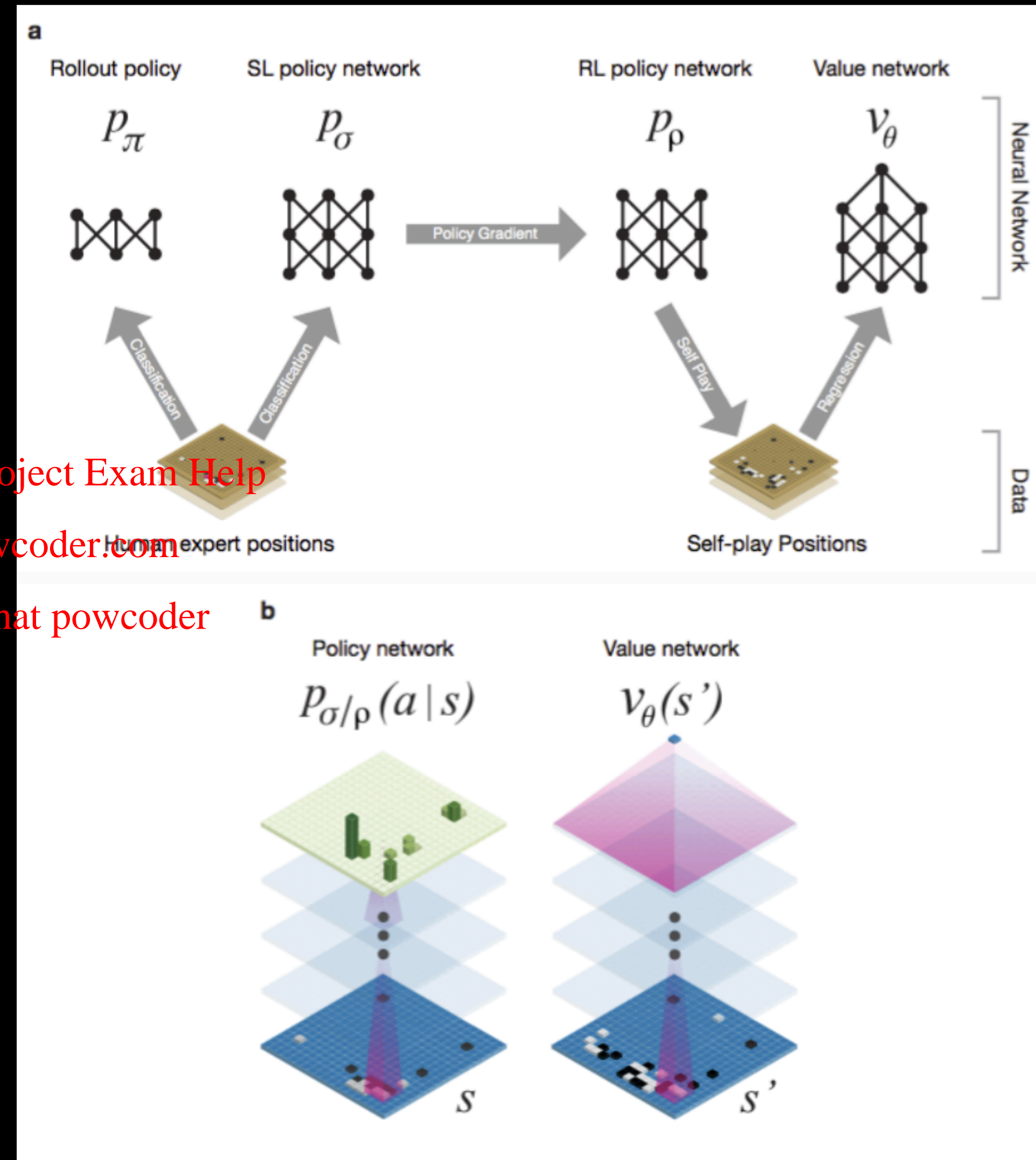
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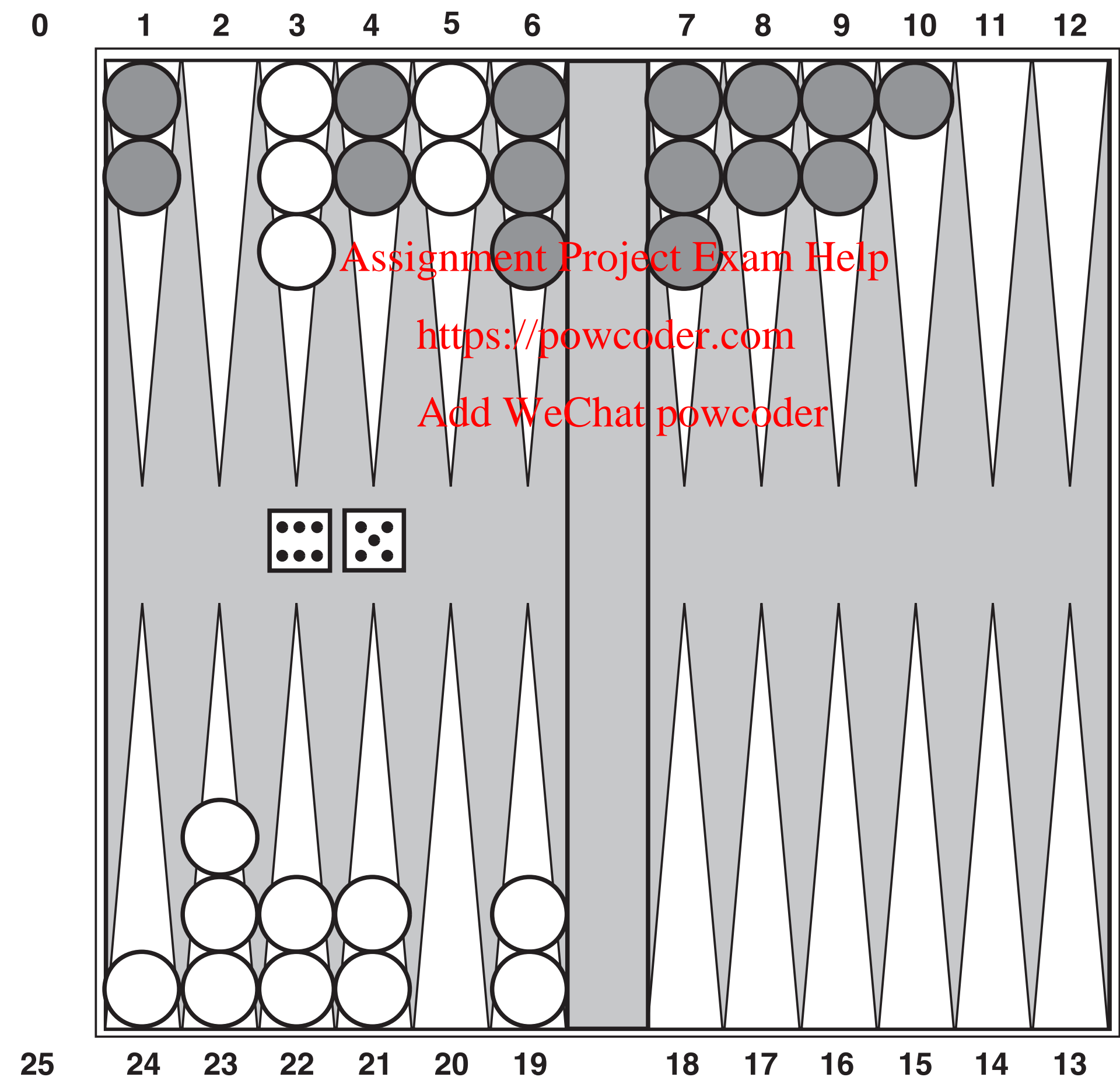
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# ALPHAGO SYSTEM

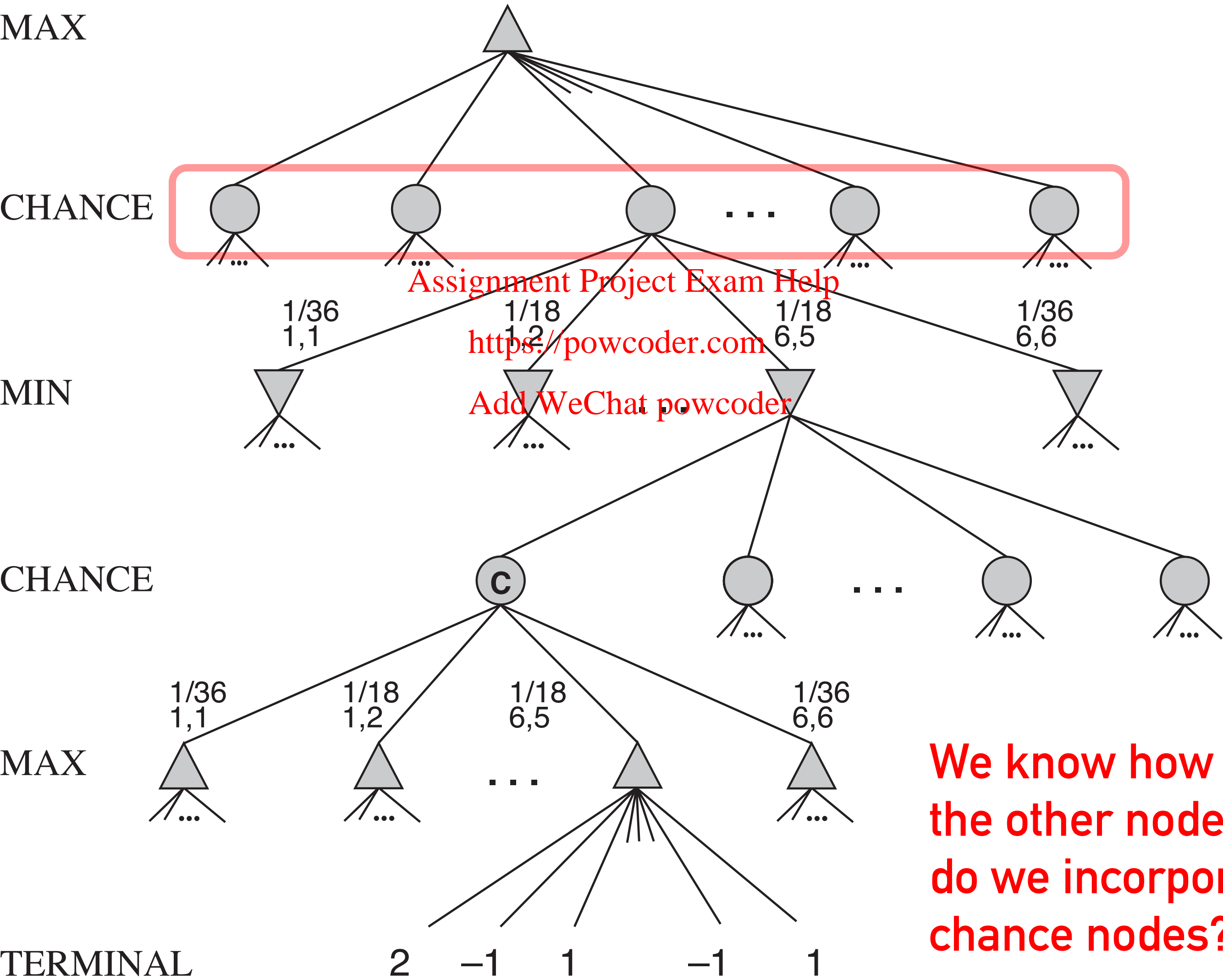
- **Deep learning + Reinforcement learning**
- One model predicts next move, given current state of board, *trained on 30 million positions from human games*
- Another model predicts likelihood of winning given current state, *trained on 30 million positions from self-play*
- **System** combines two models using Monte Carlo search



# WHAT IF A GAME HAS A “CHANCE ELEMENT”?



# GAME TREE WITH CHANCE ELEMENT



We know how to value the other nodes. How do we incorporate chance nodes?



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# EXPECTED VALUE

- ▶ The sum of the probability of each possible outcome multiplied by its value:

$$E(X) = \sum_i p_i x_i$$

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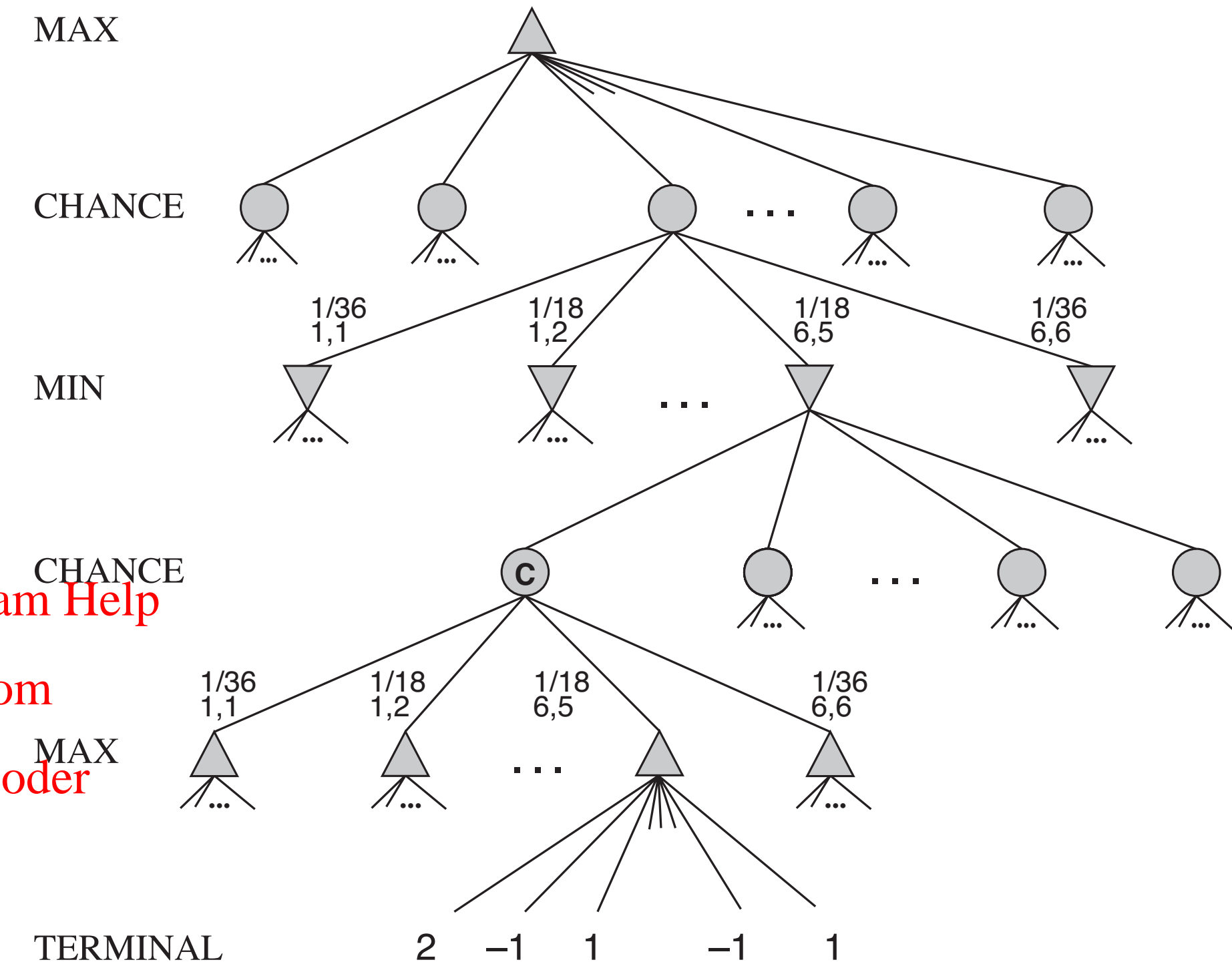
- ▶ Are there pathological cases where this statistic could do something strange
  - ▶ Extreme values ("outliers")
  - ▶ Functions that are a non-linear transformation of the probability of winning

# EXPECTED MINIMAX VALUE

- ▶ Now three different cases to evaluate, rather than just two.

▶ MAX, MIN, CHANCE

- ▶  $\text{EXPECTED-MINIMAX-VALUE}(n) =$   
 $\text{UTILITY}(n)$   
 $\max_{s \in \text{successors}(n)} \text{MINIMAX-VALUE}(s)$   
 $\min_{s \in \text{successors}(n)} \text{MINIMAX-VALUE}(s)$   
 $\sum_{s \in \text{successors}(n)} P(s) \times \text{EXPECTEDMINIMAX}(s)$



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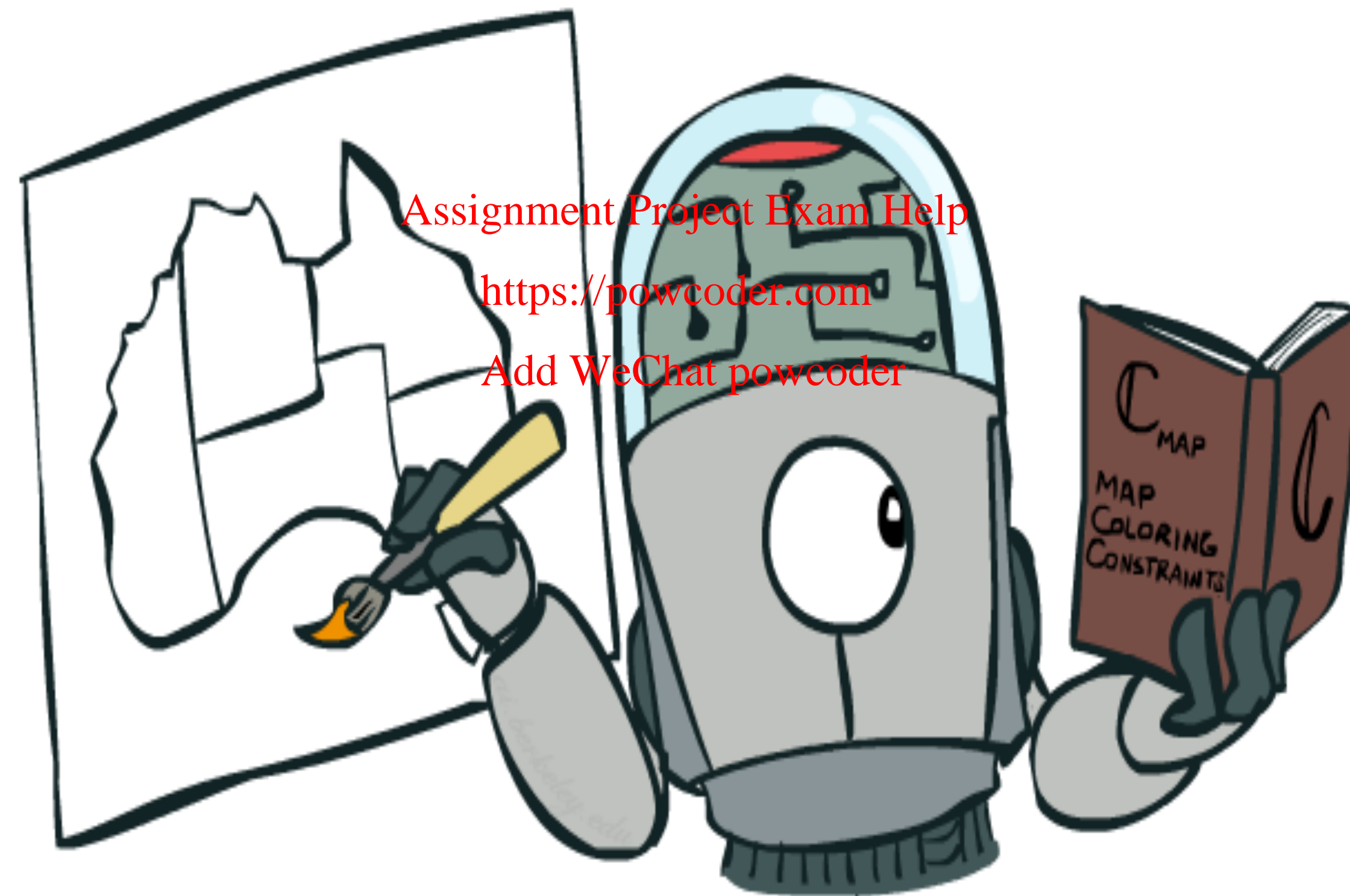
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if terminal node  
 if MAX node  
 if MIN node  
 if CHANCE node



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# CONSTRAINT SATISFACTION PROBLEMS



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# WHAT IS SEARCH FOR?

- ▶ **Planning:** sequences of actions

- ▶ The path to the goal is the important thing

- ▶ Paths have various costs, depths

- ▶ Heuristics give problem-specific guidance

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- ▶ **Identification:** assignments to variables

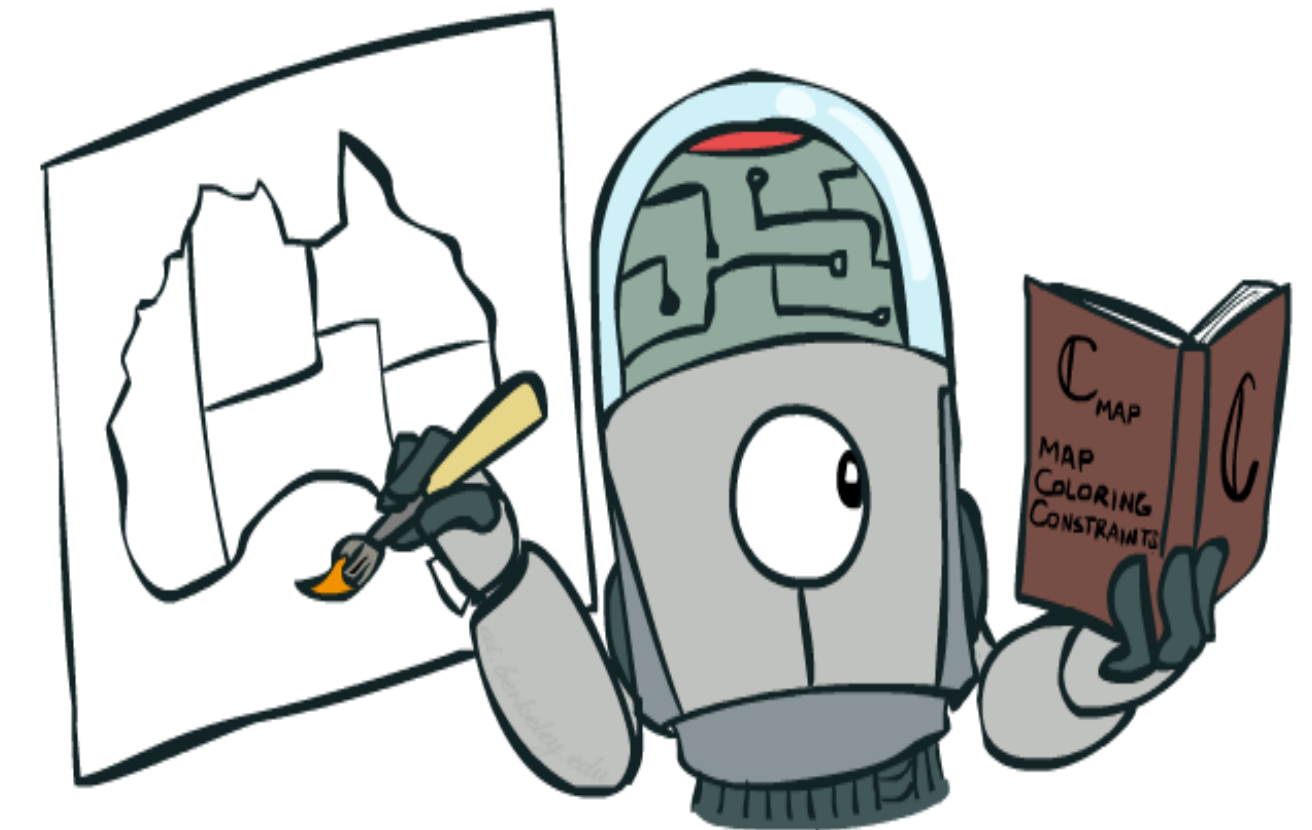
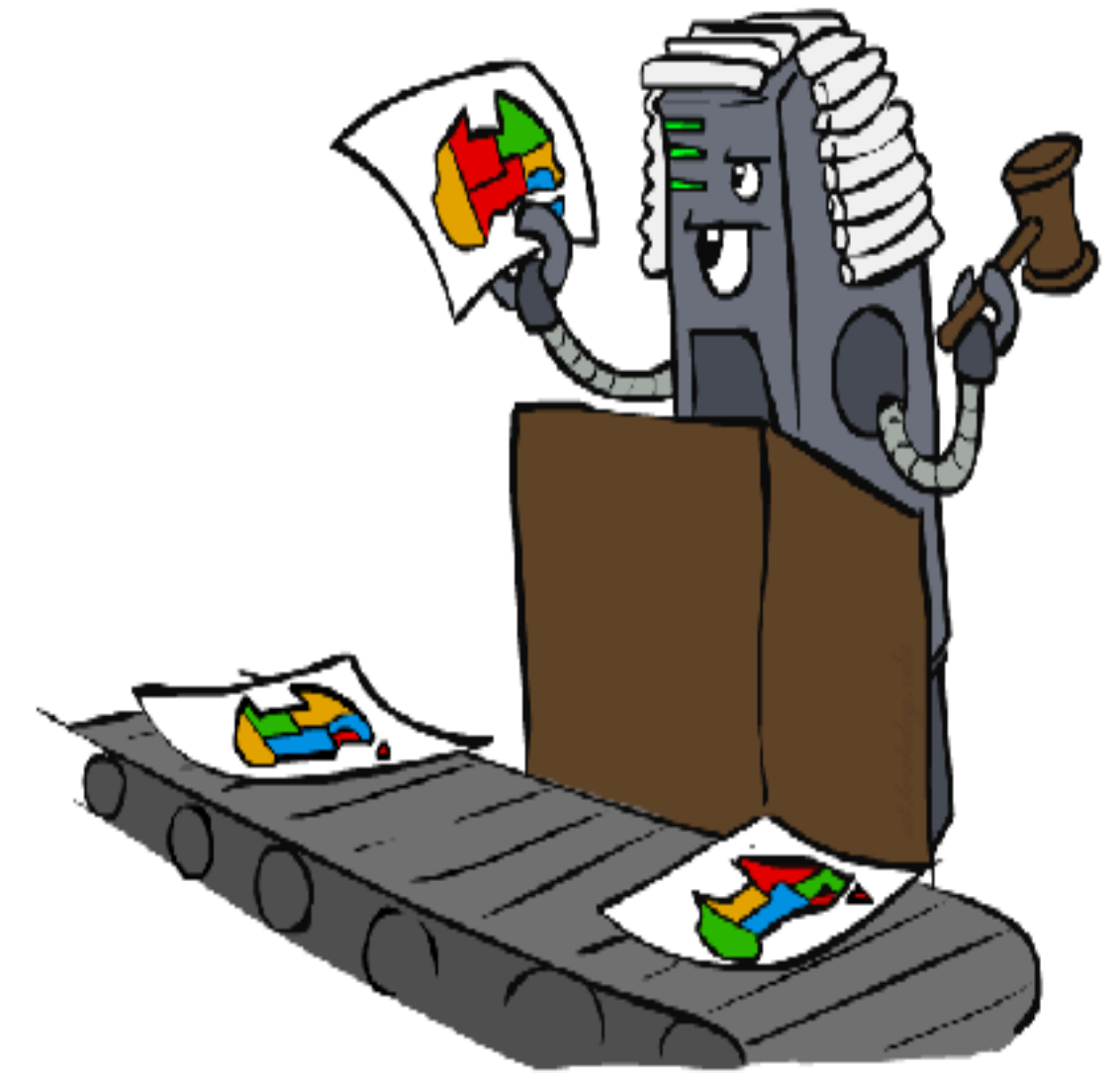
- ▶ The goal itself is important, not the path

- ▶ All paths at the same depth (for some formulations)

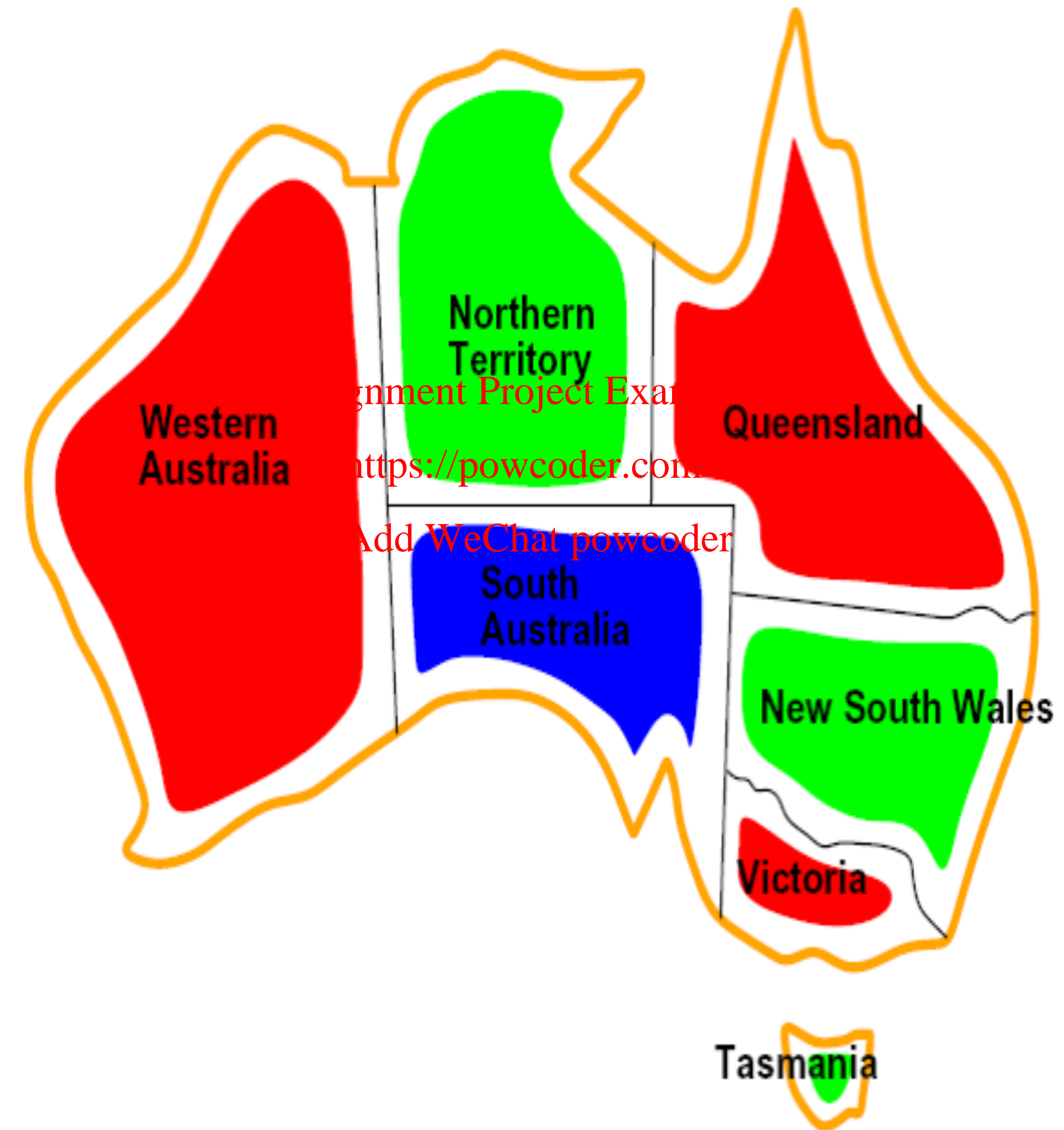


# CONSTRAINT SATISFACTION PROBLEMS

- ▶ Standard search problems:
  - ▶ State is a “black box”: arbitrary data structure
  - ▶ Goal test can be any function over states
- ▶ Constraint satisfaction problems (CSPs) – a special subset of search problems
  - ▶ State is defined by **variables  $X_i$**  with values from a **domain  $D$**
  - ▶ Goal test is a set of constraints specifying allowable combinations of values for subsets of variables
- ▶ Simple example of a formal representation language
- ▶ Allows useful general-purpose algorithms with more power than standard search algorithms



# CSP EXAMPLES





# EXAMPLE: MAP COLORING

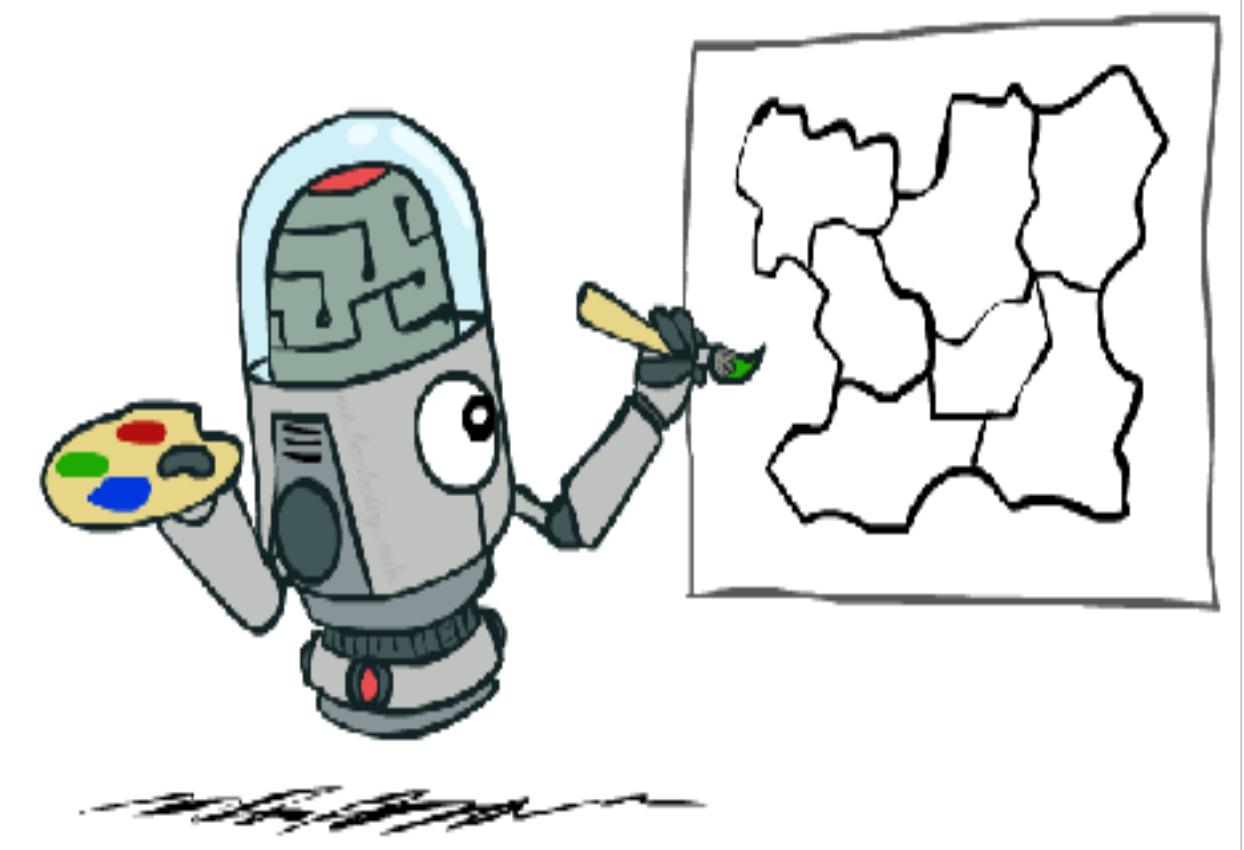
- ▶ Variables: WA, NT, Q, NSW, V, SA, T
- ▶ Domains:  $D = \{\text{red, green, blue}\}$
- ▶ Constraints: adjacent regions must have different colors

Implicit:  $WA \neq NT$

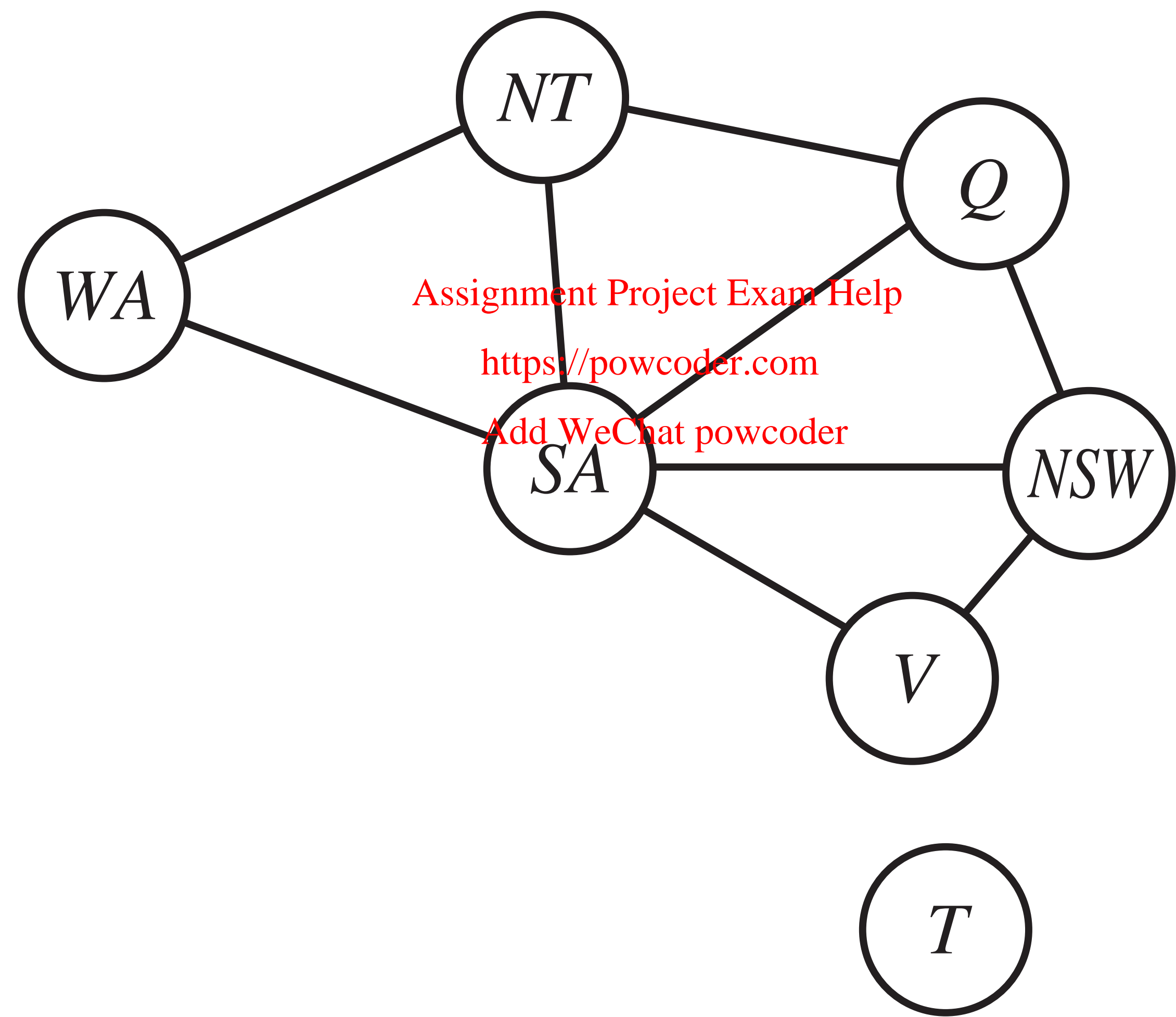
Explicit:  $(WA, NT) \in \{(\text{red, green}), (\text{red, blue}), \dots\}$

- ▶ Solutions are assignments satisfying all constraints, e.g.:

$\{WA=\text{red}, NT=\text{green}, Q=\text{red}, NSW=\text{green},$   
 $V=\text{red}, SA=\text{blue}, T=\text{green}\}$



# CONSTRAINT GRAPHS



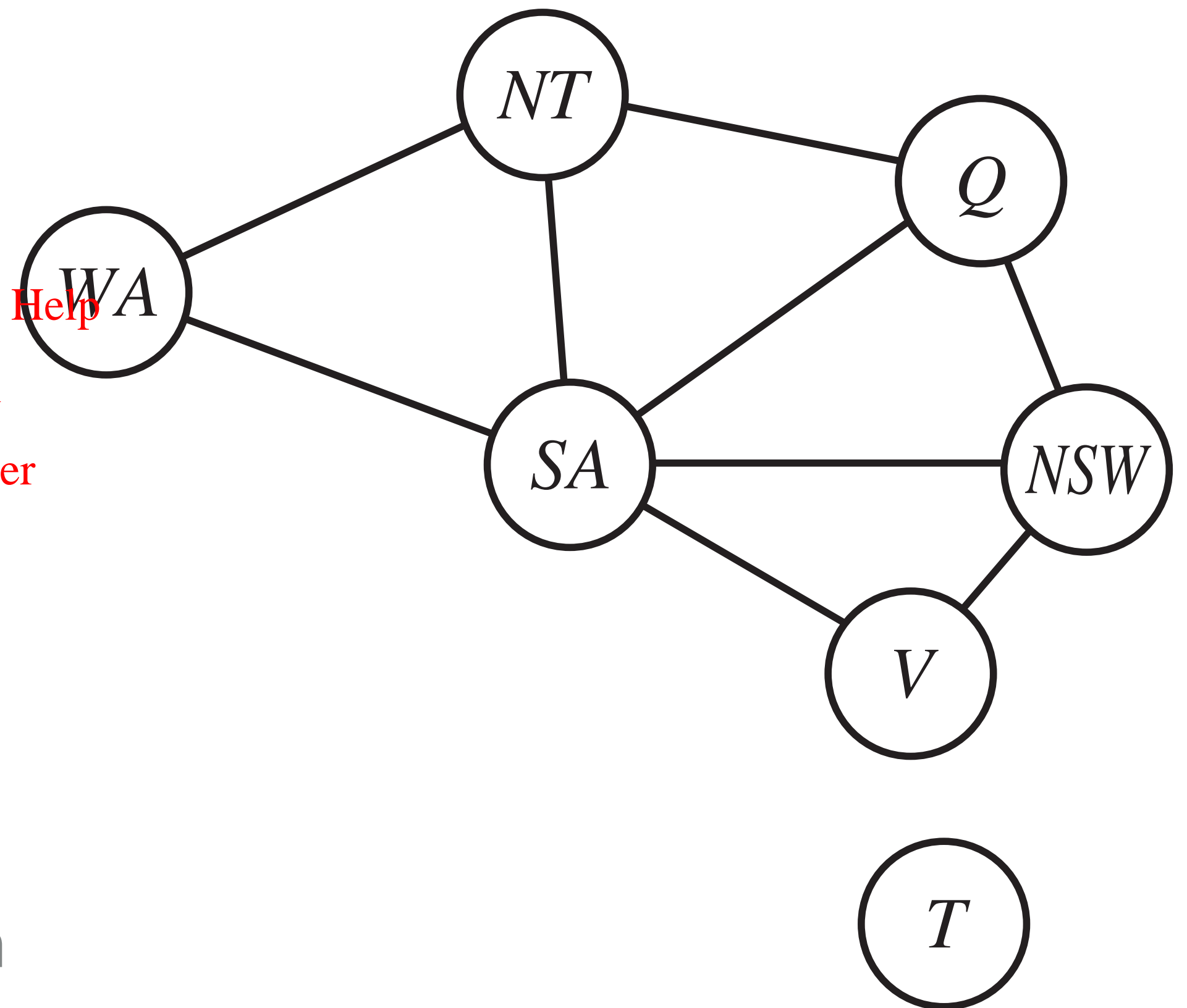
# CONSTRAINT GRAPHS

- ▶ Binary CSP: each constraint relates (at most) two variables
- ▶ Binary constraint graph: nodes are variables, arcs show constraints
- ▶ General-purpose CSP algorithms use the graph structure to speed up search.  
E.g., Tasmania is an independent subproblem

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# EXAMPLE: N-QUEENS

► Variables:  $Q_k$

► Domains:  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, N\}$

► Constraints:

Implicit:  $\forall i, j \text{ non-threatening}(Q_i, Q_j)$

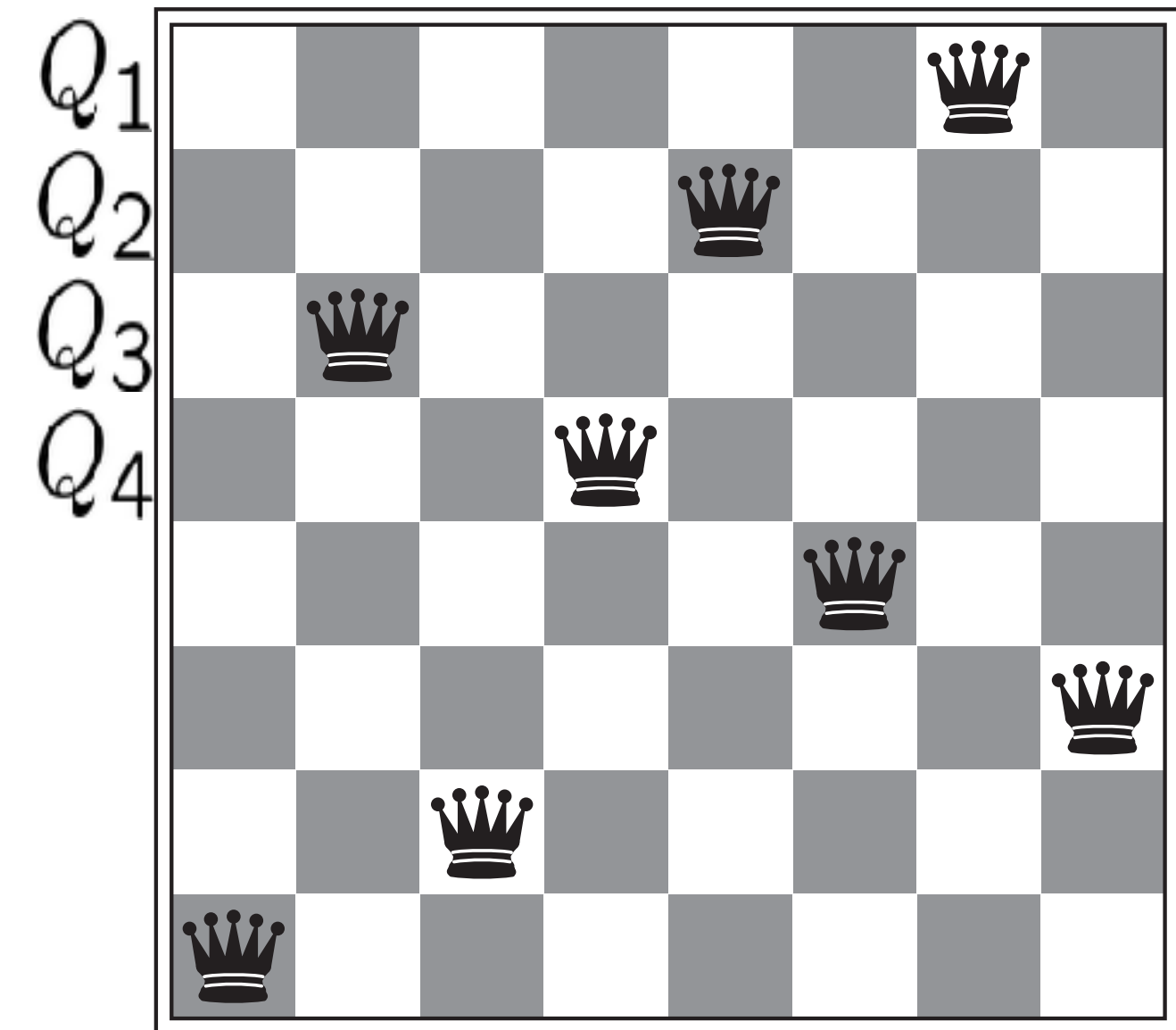
Explicit:  $(Q_1, Q_2) \in \{(1, 3), (1, 4), \dots\}$

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# EXAMPLE: SUDOKU

- ▶ Objective

- ▶ Fill the empty cells with numbers between 1 and 9

- ▶ Rules

- ▶ Numbers can appear only once on each row
  - ▶ Numbers can appear only once on each column
  - ▶ Numbers can appear only once on each region

- ▶ Variables? Domain?

- ▶ Constraints?

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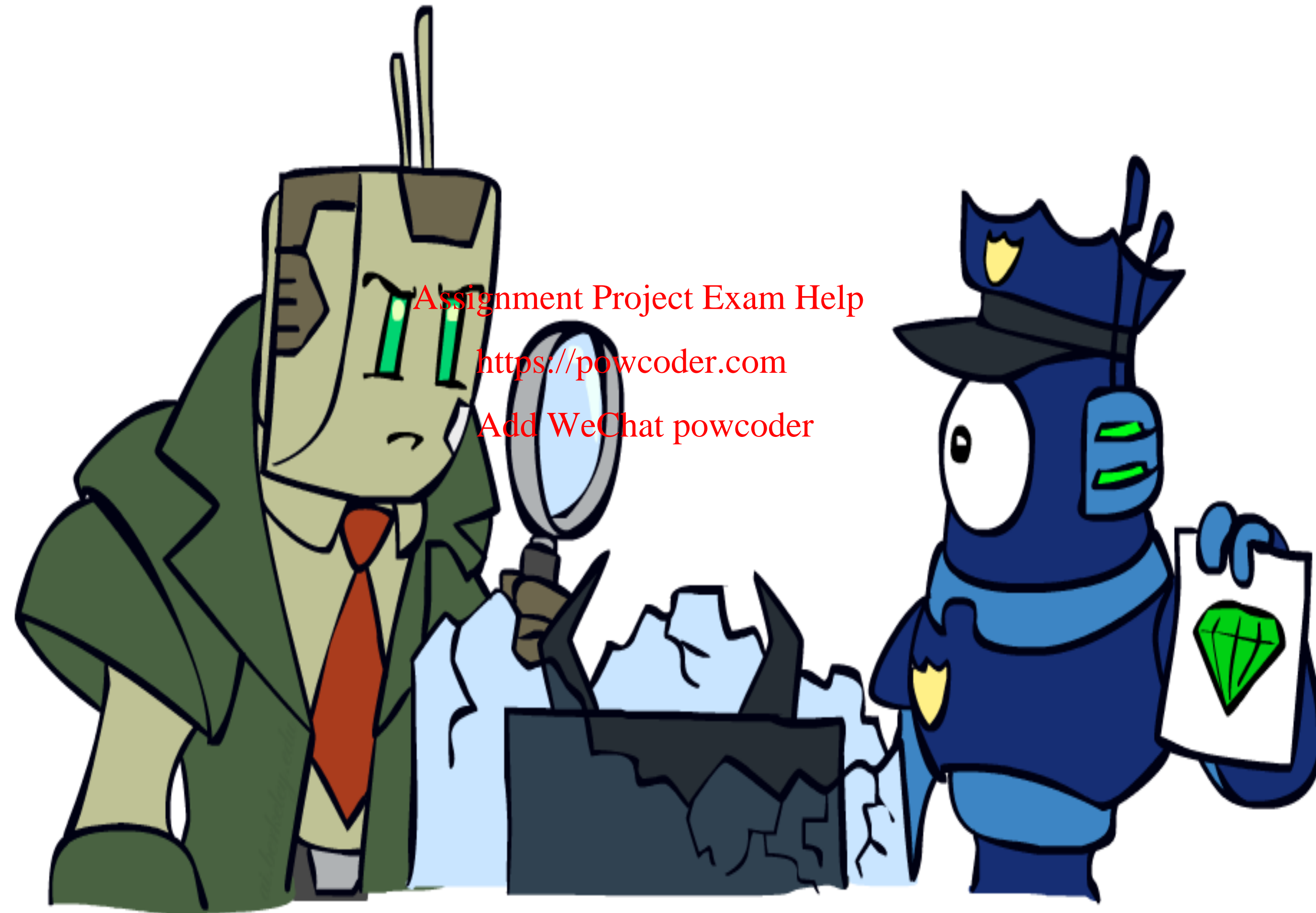
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8			4		6			7
						4		
	1					6	5	
5		9		3		7	8	
				7				
	4	8		2		1		3
	5	2					9	
		1						
3			9		2			5

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# SOLVING CSPS



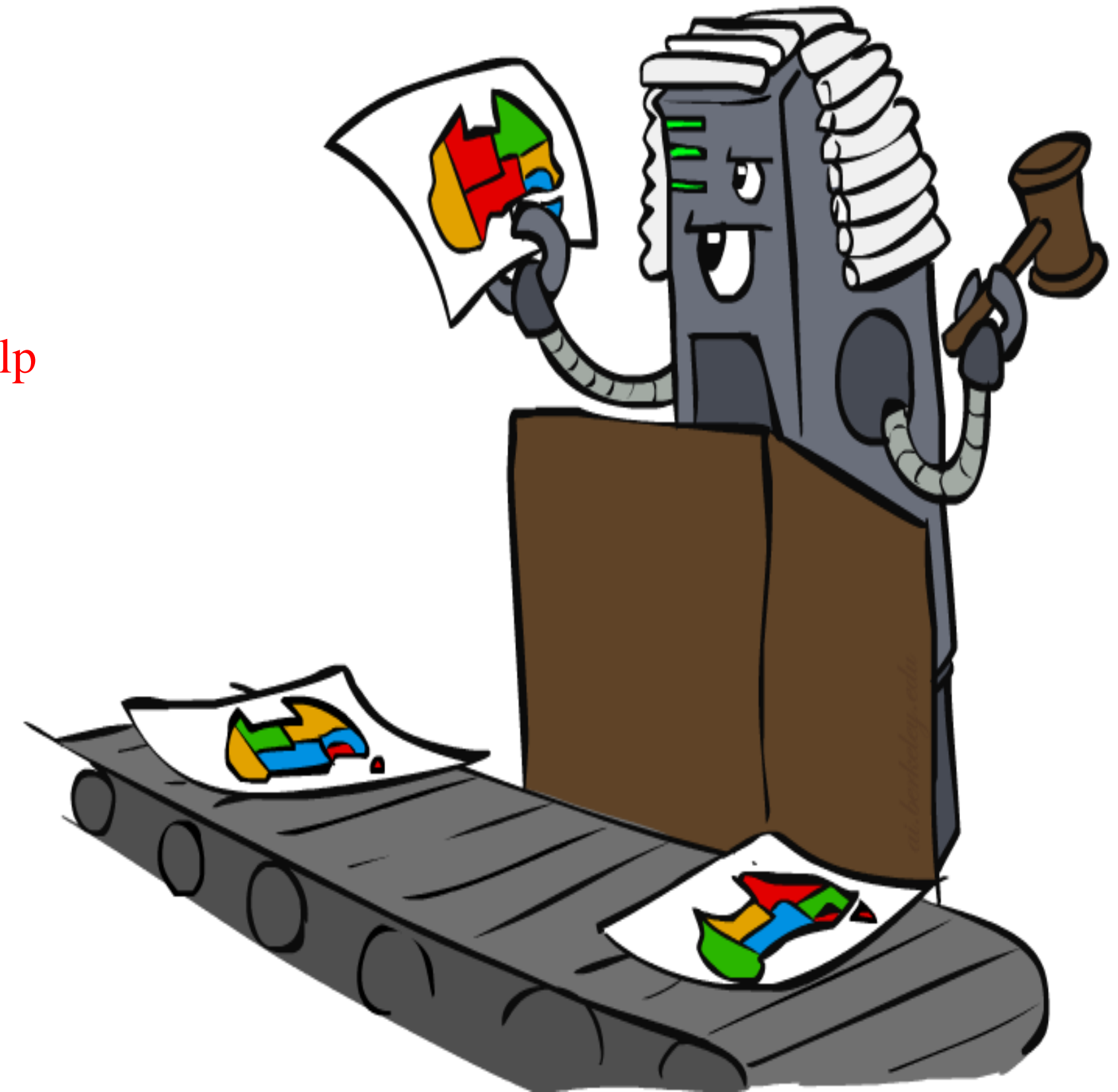
# STANDARD SEARCH FORMULATION

- ▶ Standard search formulation of CSPs
- ▶ States defined by the values assigned so far (ie. partial assignments)
  - ▶ Initial state: the empty assignment, {}
  - ▶ Successor function: assign a value to an unassigned variable
  - ▶ Goal test: the current assignment is complete and satisfies all constraints

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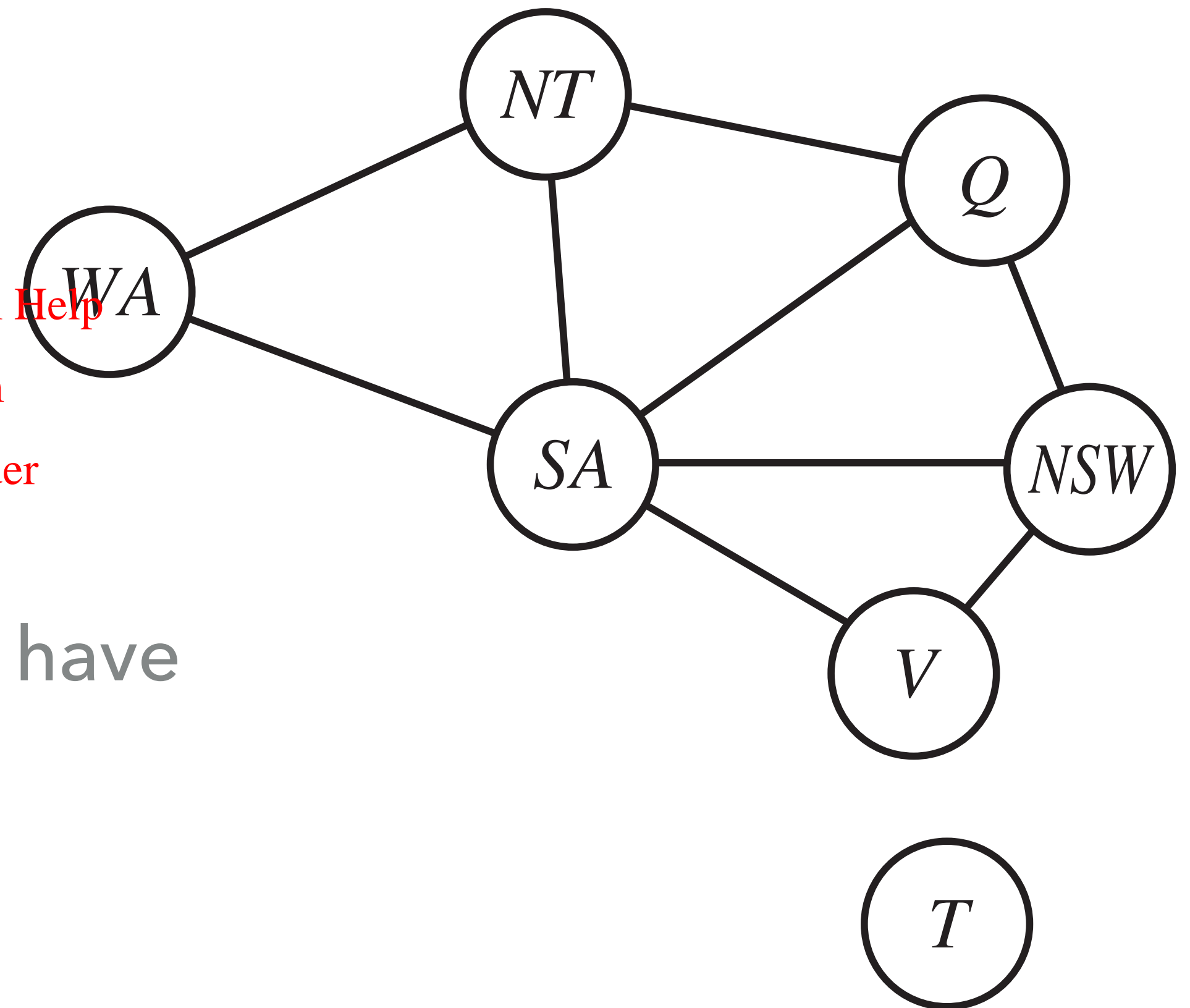
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# SEARCH METHODS

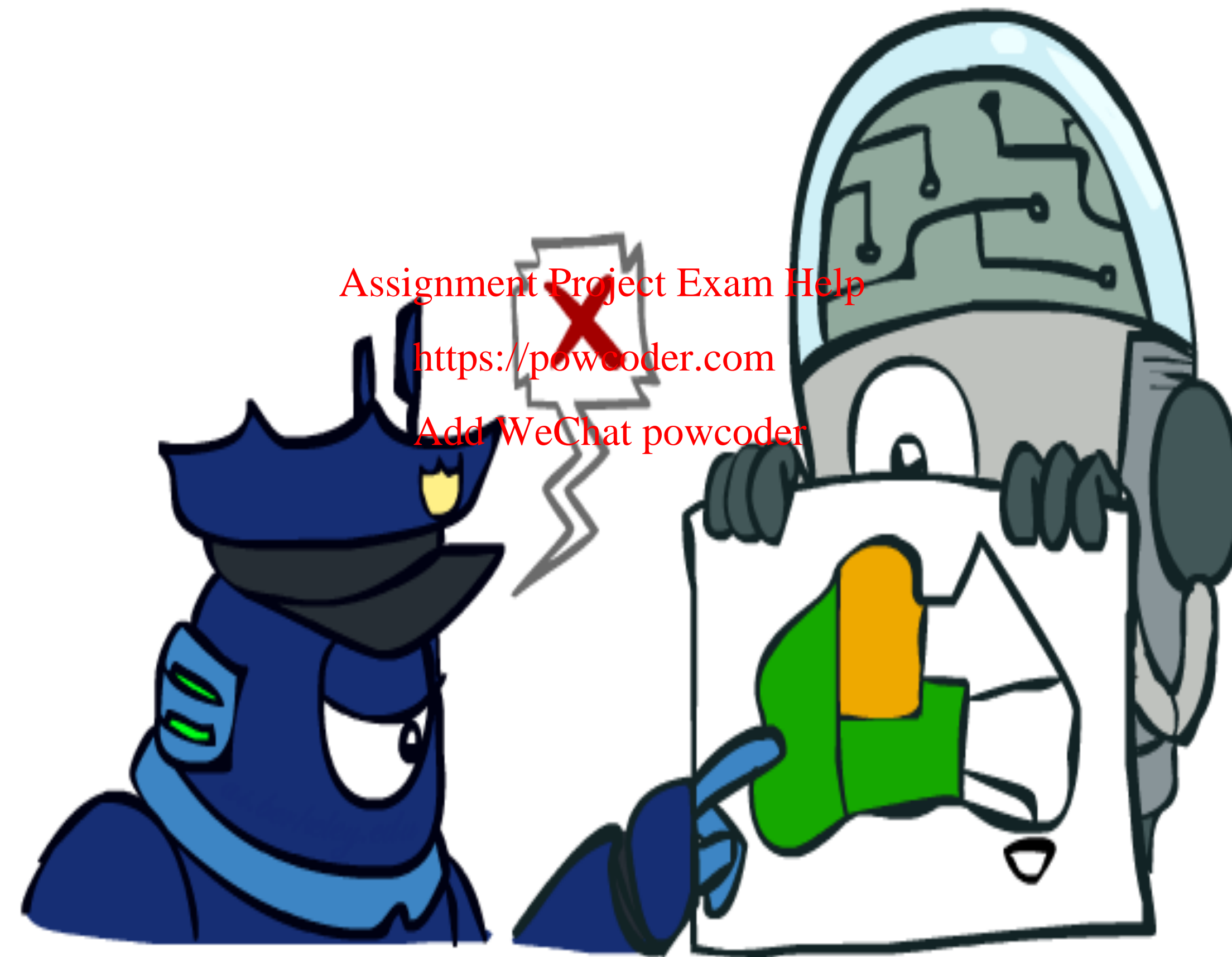
- ▶ What would BFS do?
- ▶ What would DFS do?
- ▶ What problems does naive state space search have in this setting?

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# BACKTRACKING SEARCH



# BACKTRACKING SEARCH

- ▶ Backtracking search is the basic uninformed algorithm for solving CSPs
- ▶ Idea 1: One variable at a time
  - ▶ Variable assignments are commutative, so fix ordering and only consider assignments to a single variable at each step
  - ▶ I.e., [WA = red then NT = green] same as [NT = green then WA = red]
- ▶ Idea 2: Check constraints as you go
  - ▶ “Incremental goal test” i.e. consider only values which do not conflict previous assignments
  - ▶ Might have to do some computation to check the constraints
- ▶ Depth-first search with these two improvements is called **backtracking search** (not the best name)
- ▶ Can solve n-queens for  $n \approx 25$





# BACKTRACKING EXAMPLE

