### Lecture 5: Search with Other Agents

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https://shuaili8.github.io/Teaching/CS410/index.html

Part of slide credits: CMU AI & http://ai.berkeley.edu

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### Warm Up

• How is Tic Tac Toe different from maze search?









### Warm Up 2

• How is Tic Tac Toe different from maze search?



Multi-Agent, Adversarial, Zero Sum



Single Agent

### Game Type

### Behavior from Computation



[Demo: mystery pacman (L6D1)]

### Video of Demo Mystery Pacman



### Agents Getting Along with Other Agents





### Agents Getting Along with Humans





### Types of Games

- Many different kinds of games!
- Axes:
  - Deterministic or stochastic?
  - One, two, or more players?
  - Zero sum?
  - Perfect information (can you see the state)?
- Want algorithms for calculating a contingent plan (a.k.a. strategy or policy) which recommends a move for every possible eventuality



### History of Game Al

- 1956 checkers
- 1992 backgammon
- 1994 checkers
- 1997 chess
- 2016 Go
- 2017 Texas hold'em
- 2019 Majiang



### Types of Games 2





- General Games
  - Agents have independent utilities (values on outcomes)
  - Cooperation, indifference, competition, shifting alliances, and more are all possible
    - We don't make AI to act in isolation, it should a) work around people and b) help people
    - That means that every AI agent needs to solve a game

- Zero-Sum Games
  - Agents have opposite utilities (values on outcomes)
  - Lets us think of a single value that one maximizes and the other minimizes
  - Adversarial, pure competition

### Multi-Agent Applications





Adversarial

Team: Collaborative Competition: Adversarial

Touch line Center line **M** D D F F Penalty marc D M 10 yards M M M M G E Ø D Touch line Corner arc 100-120 yards

**Collaborative Maze Solving** 



- Common payoff games
  - Discussion: Use a technique you've learned so far to solve one!

### Zero-Sum Games

- **Checkers:** 1950: First computer player. 1994: First computer champion: Chinook ended 40-year-reign of human champion Marion Tinsley using complete 8-piece endgame. 2007: Checkers solved!
- **Chess:** 1997: Deep Blue defeats human champion Gary Kasparov in a six-game match. Deep Blue examined 200M positions per second, used very sophisticated evaluation and undisclosed methods for extending some lines of search up to 40 ply. Current programs are even better, if less historic.
- Go: 2016: Alpha GO defeats human champion. Uses Monte Carlo Tree Search, learned evaluation function.



### Zero-Sum Games 2

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• Pacman

### Game playing – state of the art



### "Standard" Games

- Standard games are deterministic, observable, two-player, turn-taking, zero-sum
- Game formulation:
  - States: S (start at s<sub>0</sub>)
  - Players: P={1...N} (usually take turns)
  - Actions: A (may depend on player / state)
  - Transition Function:  $\mathsf{SxA} \to \mathsf{S}$
  - Terminal Test:  $S \rightarrow \{t, f\}$
  - Terminal Utilities:  $SxP \rightarrow R$
- Solution for a player is a policy:  $S \rightarrow A$







### Adversarial Search

Cost -> Utility!



### Single-Agent Trees



#### Single-Agent Trees: Value of a State



V(s) = known 20

## How could we model multi-agent collaborative problems?



## How could we model multi-agent collaborative problems? 2

Simplest idea: each agent plans their own actions separately from others



#### Many Single-Agent Trees



• Combine the states and actions of the N agents

$$S_{0} = (S_{0}^{A}, S_{0}^{B})$$



- Search looks through all combinations of all agents' states and actions
- Think of one brain controlling many agents



- Search looks through all combinations of all agents' states and actions
- Think of one brain controlling many agents
- What is the size of the state space?
- What is the size of the action space?
- What is the size of the search tree?



### Idea 3: Centralized Decision Making

- Each agent proposes their actions and computer confirms the joint plan
- Example: Autonomous driving through intersections

# Idea 4: Alternate Searching One Agent at a Time

• Search one agent's actions from a state, search the next agent's actions from those resulting states , etc...



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### Adversarial Game Trees



### Adversarial Game Trees: Minimax Values



Terminal States: V(s) = known



### Minimax Search

- Deterministic, zero-sum games:
  - Tic-tac-toe, chess, checkers
  - One player maximizes result
  - The other minimizes result
- Minimax search:
  - A state-space search tree
  - Players alternate turns
  - Compute each node's minimax value: the best achievable utility against a rational (optimal) adversary





Terminal values: part of the game

### Minimax Implementation

$$V(s) = \max_{s' \in \text{successors}(s)} V(s')$$

def min-value(state):
initialize v = +∞
for each successor of state:
 v = min(v, max-value(successor))
return v

$$V(s') = \min_{s \in \text{successors}(s')} V(s)$$

### Minimax Implementation (Dispatch)

#### def value(state):

if the state is a terminal state: return the state's utility if the next agent is MAX: return max-value(state) if the next agent is MIN: return min-value(state)

def max-value(state):
initialize v = -∞
for each successor of state:
 v = max(v, value(successor))
 return v



def min-value(state):
initialize v = +∞
for each successor of state:
 v = min(v, value(successor))
 return v
#### Example

• Actions?

#### Pseudocode for Single Agent

```
def max_value(state):
```

```
if state.is_leaf:
    return state.value
# TODO Also handle depth limit
```

```
best_value = -1000000
```

```
for action in state.actions:
    next state = state.result(action)
```

next\_value = max\_value(next\_state)

```
if next_value > best_value:
    best_value = next_value
```

```
return best_value
```

#### Pseudocode for Minimax Search

def max\_value(state):

```
if state.is_leaf:
    return state.value
# TODO Also handle depth limit
```

```
best_value = -10000000
```

for action in state.actions:
 next\_state = state.result(action)

next\_value = min\_value(next\_state)

```
if next_value > best_value:
    best_value = next_value
```

```
return best_value
```

def min\_value(state):



 $V(s) = \max_{a} V(s'),$ where s' = result(s, a)

$$\hat{a} = \operatorname*{argmax}_{a} V(s'),$$
  
where  $s' = result(s, a)$ 

#### Pseudocode for Generic Game Tree

function minimax\_decision( state )
 return argmax a in state.actions value( state.result(a) )

function value(state) if state.is\_leaf return state.value

if state.player is MAX
 return max a in state.actions value( state.result(a) )

if state.player is MIN
 return min a in state.actions value( state.result(a) )

#### Quiz

- Minimax search belongs to which class?
- A) BFS
- B) DFS
- C) UCS
- D) A\*

#### Minimax Efficiency

- How efficient is minimax?
  - Just like (exhaustive) DFS
  - Time: O(b<sup>m</sup>)
  - Space: O(bm)
- Example: For chess,  $b\approx 35,\,m\approx 100$ 
  - Exact solution is completely infeasible
  - But, do we need to explore the whole tree?
  - Humans can't do this either, so how do we play chess?
  - Bounded rationality Herbert Simon



### **Resource** Limits





*The order of generation matters*: more pruning is possible if good moves come first

#### Game Tree Pruning: Alpha-Beta Pruning

<ul> <li>General configuration (MIN version)</li> </ul>	MAX	
<ul> <li>We're computing the MIN-VALUE at some node n</li> </ul>		
<ul> <li>We're looping over n's children</li> </ul>	MIN	
<ul> <li>n's estimate of the childrens' min is dropping</li> </ul>	:	
<ul> <li>Who cares about n's value? MAX</li> </ul>		×
<ul> <li>Let a be the best value that MAX can get at any choice point along the current path from the root</li> </ul>	i MAX MIN	
<ul> <li>If n becomes worse than a, MAX will avoid it, so we can stop considering n's other children (it's already bad enough that it won't be played)</li> </ul>		

• MAX version is symmetric

#### Alpha-Beta Implementation

 $\alpha$ : MAX's best option on path to root  $\beta$ : MIN's best option on path to root

```
\begin{array}{l} \mbox{def max-value(state, } \alpha, \beta): \\ \mbox{initialize } v = -\infty \\ \mbox{for each successor of state:} \\ v = max(v, value(successor, \alpha, \beta)) \\ \mbox{if } v \geq \beta \mbox{ return } v \\ \alpha = max(\alpha, v) \\ \mbox{return } v \end{array}
```

 $\begin{array}{l} \mbox{def min-value(state , \alpha, \beta):} \\ \mbox{initialize } v = +\infty \\ \mbox{for each successor of state:} \\ v = min(v, value(successor, \alpha, \beta)) \\ \mbox{if } v \leq \alpha \mbox{ return } v \\ \beta = min(\beta, v) \\ \mbox{return } v \end{array}$ 

#### Quiz



#### Quiz 2





 $\alpha$ : MAX's best option on path to root  $\beta$ : MIN's best option on path to root

def max-value(state,  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ): initialize  $v = -\infty$ for each successor of state:  $v = \max(v, value(successor, \alpha, \beta))$ if  $v \ge \beta$ return v  $\alpha = \max(\alpha, v)$ return v



 $\alpha$ : MAX's best option on path to root  $\beta$ : MIN's best option on path to root

 $\begin{array}{l} \mbox{def min-value(state , \alpha, \beta):} \\ \mbox{initialize } v = +\infty \\ \mbox{for each successor of state:} \\ v = min(v, value(successor, \alpha, \beta)) \\ \mbox{if } v \leq \alpha \\ \mbox{return } v \\ \beta = min(\beta, v) \\ \mbox{return } v \end{array}$ 





#### Alpha-Beta Pruning Properties

- This pruning has no effect on minimax value computed for the root!
- Values of intermediate nodes might be wrong
  - Important: children of the root may have the wrong value
  - So the most naïve version won't let you do action selection
- Good child ordering improves effectiveness of pruning
- With "perfect ordering":
  - Time complexity drops to O(b<sup>m/2</sup>)
  - Doubles solvable depth!
  - Chess: 1M nodes/move => depth=8, respectable
  - Full search of complicated games, is still hopeless...





#### Alpha-Beta Pruning: Action Selection Failure



# Resource Limits II Bounded lookahead



#### Depth-limited search

- Problem: In realistic games, cannot search to leaves!
- Solution: Depth-limited search
  - Instead, search only to a limited depth in the tree
  - Replace terminal utilities with an evaluation function for nonterminal positions
- Example:
  - Suppose we have 100 seconds, can explore 10K nodes / sec
  - So can check 1M nodes per move
  - For chess,  $b \approx 35$  so reaches about depth 4 not so good
  - $\alpha$ - $\beta$  reaches about depth 8 decent chess program
- Guarantee of optimal play is gone
- More plies makes a BIG difference
- Use iterative deepening for an anytime algorithm



#### 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





#### Video of Demo Limited Depth (2)



#### Video of Demo Limited Depth (10)



#### **Evaluation Functions**

• Evaluation functions score non-terminals in depth-limited search



- Ideal function: returns the actual minimax value of the position
- In practice: typically weighted linear sum of features:  $EVAL(s) = w_1 f_1(s) + w_2 f_2(s) + .... + w_n f_n(s)$ 
  - e.g.  $w_1 = 9$ ,  $f_1(s) = (num white queens num black queens), etc.$

#### **Evaluation for Pacman**



[Demo: thrashing d=2, thrashing d=2 (fixed evaluation function), smart ghosts coordinate  $(L6D^{61},7,8,10)$ ]

#### Video of Demo Thrashing (d=2)



# Why Pacman Starves

- A danger of replanning agents!
  - He knows his score will go up by eating the dot now (west, east)
  - He knows his score will go up just as much by eating the dot later (east, west)
  - There are no point-scoring opportunities after eating the dot (within the horizon, two here)
  - Therefore, waiting seems just as good as eating: he may go east, then back west in the next round of replanning!

#### Video of Demo Thrashing -- Fixed (d=2)



#### Video of Demo Smart Ghosts (Coordination)



# Video of Demo Smart Ghosts (Coordination) – Zoomed In



#### Iterative Deepening

Iterative deepening uses DFS as a subroutine:

- 1. Do a DFS which only searches for paths of length 1 or less. (DFS gives up on any path of length 2)
- 2. If "1" failed, do a DFS which only searches paths of length 2 or less.
- 3. If "2" failed, do a DFS which only searches paths of length 3 or less.

....and so on.

Why do we want to do this for multiplayer games?

Note: wrongness of eval functions matters less and less the deeper the search goes!



# Generalized minimax



#### Multi-Agent Utilities

• What if the game is not zero-sum, or has multiple players?

**1,6,**6

7,1,2

**6,1,2** 

7,2,1

<mark>5,1</mark>,7

1,5,2

- Generalization of minimax:
  - Terminals have utility tuples
  - Node values are also utility tuples
  - Each player maximizes its own component
  - Can give rise to cooperation and competition dynamically... 1,6,6



<mark>5,2</mark>,5

7,7,1

## Modeling Assumptions

#### What if your opponent isn't playing optimally?



#### Optimal against a perfect player. Otherwise?



#### Video of Demo Min vs. Exp (Min)


#### Video of Demo Min vs. Exp (Exp)



#### Worst-Case vs. Average Case



Idea: Uncertain outcomes controlled by chance, not an adversary!

## Why not minimax?

- Worst case reasoning is too conservative
- Need average case reasoning



#### Expectimax Search

- Why wouldn't we know what the result of an action will be?
  - Explicit randomness: rolling dice
  - Unpredictable opponents: the ghosts respond randomly
  - Unpredictable humans: humans are not perfect
  - Actions can fail: when moving a robot, wheels might slip



[Demo: min vs  $exp^{76}$ (L7D1,2)]

- Values should now reflect average-case (expectimax) outcomes, not worst-case (minimax) outcomes
- Expectimax search: compute the average score under optimal play
  - Max nodes as in minimax search
  - Chance nodes are like min nodes but the outcome is uncertain
  - Calculate their expected utilities
  - I.e. take weighted average (expectation) of children
- Later, we'll learn how to formalize the underlying uncertain-result problems as Markov Decision Processes

#### Video of Demo Minimax vs Expectimax (Min)



#### Video of Demo Minimax vs Expectimax (Exp)



#### Expectimax Pseudocode

#### def value(state):

if the state is a terminal state: return the state's utility
if the next agent is MAX: return max-value(state)
if the next agent is EXP: return exp-value(state)

```
def max-value(state):
    initialize v = -∞
    for each successor of state:
        v = max(v, value(successor))
    return v
```



def exp-value(state):
 initialize v = 0
 for each successor of state:
 p = probability(successor)
 v += p \* value(successor)
 return v

#### Expectimax Pseudocode 2

def exp-value(state):
 initialize v = 0
 for each successor of state:
 p = probability(successor)
 v += p \* value(successor)
 return v



v = (1/2) (8) + (1/3) (24) + (1/6) (-12) = 10

#### Expectimax Pseudocode 3

- function value(state)
  - if state.is\_leaf
  - return state.value
  - if state.player is MAX
  - return max a in state.actions
     value(state.result(a))
  - if state.player is MIN
  - return min a in state.actions value( state.result(a) )
  - if state.player is CHANCE
  - return sum s in state.next\_states
     P(s) \* value(s)

# Example





#### Quiz

#### Quiz 2





#### Expectimax: Depth-Limited



# We know how to compute with probabilities. But where do probabilities arise?

- - Model could be a simple uniform distribution (roll a de)
  - Model could be sophisticated and require a great deal of computation
  - We have a chance node for any outcome out of our confol: opponent or environment
  - The model might say that adversarial actions are likely!
- For now, assume each chance node magically comes along with probabilities that specify the distribution over its outcomes

Having a probabilistic belief about another agent's action does not mean that the agent is flipping ang<sub>7</sub> coins!

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# Quiz: Informed Probabilities

- Let's say you know that your opponent is actually running a depth 2 minimax, using the result 80% of the time, and moving randomly otherwise
- Question: What tree search should you use?



- Answer: Expectimax!
  - To figure out EACH chance node's probabilities, you have to run a simulation of your opponent
  - This kind of thing gets very slow very quickly
  - Even worse if you have to simulate your opponent simulating you...
  - … except for minimax and maximax, which have the nice property that it all collapses into one game tree

This is basically how you would model a human, except for their utility: their utility might be the same as yours (i.e. you try to help them, but they are depth 2 and noisy), or they might have a slightly different utility (like another person navigating in the office)

#### Dangerous Pessimism/Optimism

Assuming the worst case when it's not likely



#### Assuming chance when the world is adversarial



#### Assumptions vs. Reality



	Adversarial Ghost	Random Ghost
Minimax Pacman		
Expectimax Pacman		

Results from playing 5 games

Pacman used depth 4 search with an eval function that avoids trouble Ghost used depth 2 search with an eval function that seeks Pacman

[Demos: world assumptions (L<sup>90</sup>7D3,4,5,6)]

#### Assumptions vs. Reality



	Adversarial Ghost	Random Ghost
Minimax	Won 5/5	Won 5/5
Pacman	Avg. Score: 483	Avg. Score: 493
Expectimax	Won 1/5	Won 5/5
Pacman	Avg. Score: -303	Avg. Score: 503

Results from playing 5 games

Pacman used depth 4 search with an eval function that avoids trouble Ghost used depth 2 search with an eval function that seeks Pacman

[Demos: world assumptions (L<sup>91</sup>D3,4,5,6)]

# Video of Demo World Assumptions Random Ghost – Expectimax Pacman



# Video of Demo World Assumptions Adversarial Ghost – Minimax Pacman



# Video of Demo World Assumptions Adversarial Ghost – Expectimax Pacman



# Video of Demo World Assumptions Random Ghost – Minimax Pacman



# Mixed Layer Types

- E.g. Backgammon
- Expectiminimax
  - Environment is an extra "random agent" player that moves after each min/max agent
  - Each node computes the appropriate combination of its children



# Example: Backgammon

- Dice rolls increase b: 21 possible rolls with 2 dice
  - Backgammon  $\approx$  20 legal moves
  - Depth 2 = 20 x (21 x 20)<sup>3</sup> = 1.2 x 10<sup>9</sup>
- As depth increases, probability of reaching a given search node shrinks
  - So usefulness of search is diminished
  - So limiting depth is less damaging
  - But pruning is trickier...
- Historic AI: TDGammon uses depth-2 search + very good evaluation function + reinforcement learning: world-champion level play
- 1<sup>st</sup> AI world champion in any game!





# Utilities

We know how to compute with utilities given. But how to model utilities in real applications? And what properties of utilities are required?

#### Utilities

- Utilities are functions from outcomes (states of the world) to real numbers that describe an agent's preferences
- Where do utilities come from?
  - In a game, may be simple (+1/-1)
  - Utilities summarize the agent's goals
  - Theorem: any "rational" preferences can be summarized as a utility function
- We hard-wire utilities and let behaviors emerge
  - Why don't we let agents pick utilities?
  - Why don't we prescribe behaviors?









# Maximum Expected Utility

- Why should we average utilities? Why not minimax?
- Principle of maximum expected utility:
  - A rational agent should chose the action that maximizes its expected utility, given its knowledge
- Questions:
  - Where do utilities come from?
  - How do we know such utilities even exist?
  - How do we know that averaging even makes sense?
  - What if our behavior (preferences) can't be described by utilities?



#### What Utilities to Use?



- For worst-case minimax reasoning, terminal function scale doesn't matter
  - We just want better states to have higher evaluations (get the ordering right)
  - We call this insensitivity to monotonic transformations
- For average-case expectimax reasoning, we need magnitudes to be meaningful

#### Preferences

- An agent must have preferences among:
  - Prizes: *A*, *B*, etc.
  - Lotteries: situations with uncertain prizes

L = [p, A; (1 - p), B]



- Notation:
  - Preference:  $A \succ B$
  - Indifference:  $A \sim B$





• We want some constraints on preferences before we call them rational, such as:

Axiom of Transitivity:  $(A \succ B) \land (B \succ C) \Longrightarrow (A \succ C)$ 

 For example: an agent with intransitive preferences can be induced to give away all of its money

**Rational Preferences** 

- If B > C, then an agent with C would pay (say) 1 cent to get B
- If A > B, then an agent with B would pay (say) 1 cent to get A
- If C > A, then an agent with A would pay (say) 1 cent to get C



# Rational Preferences 2



 Theorem: Rational preferences imply behavior describable as maximization of expected utility

# MEU Principle

- Theorem [Ramsey, 1931; von Neumann & Morgenstern, 1944]
  - Given any preferences satisfying these constraints, there exists a real-valued function U such that:

 $U(A) \ge U(B) \Leftrightarrow A \succeq B$ 

 $U([p_1, S_1; \ldots; p_n, S_n]) = \sum_i p_i U(S_i)$ 

- i.e. values assigned by U preserve preferences of both prizes and lotteries!
- Maximum expected utility (MEU) principle:
  - Choose the action that maximizes expected utility
  - Note: an agent can be entirely rational (consistent with MEU) without ever representing or manipulating utilities and probabilities
  - E.g., a lookup table for perfect tic-tac-toe, a reflex vacuum cleaner



#### Human Utility Scales

- Normalized utilities:  $u_{+} = 1.0$ ,  $u_{-} = 0.0$
- Micromorts: one-millionth chance of death, useful for paying to reduce product risks, etc.
- QALYs: quality-adjusted life years, useful for medical decisions involving substantial risk
- Note: behavior is invariant under positive linear transformation

 $U'(x) = k_1 U(x) + k_2$  where  $k_1 > 0$ 

 With deterministic prizes only (no lottery choices), only ordinal utility can be determined, i.e., total order on prizes





#### Human Utilities

- Once we have total order on utilities, how to map utilities to numbers?
- Standard approach to assessment (elicitation) of human utilities:
  - Compare a prize A to a standard lottery L<sub>p</sub> between
    - "best possible prize"  $u_{+}$  with probability p
    - "worst possible catastrophe"  $u_{-}$  with probability 1-p
  - Adjust lottery probability p until indifference: A  $\sim L_p$
  - Resulting p is a utility in [0,1]






### Human Utilities: Money

- Money <u>does not</u> behave as a utility function, but we can talk about the utility of having money (or being in debt)
- Given a lottery L = [p, \$X; (1-p), \$Y]
  - The expected monetary value EMV(L) is p\*X + (1-p)\*Y
  - $U(L) = p^*U(\$X) + (1-p)^*U(\$Y)$
  - Typically, U(L) < U( EMV(L) )
  - In this sense, people are risk-averse
  - When deep in debt, people are risk-prone
    - When *X*, *Y* < 0, U(L) > U(EMV(L))





# Example: Insurance

- Consider the lottery [0.5, \$1000; 0.5, \$0]
  - What is its expected monetary value? (\$500)
  - What is its certainty equivalent?
    - Monetary value acceptable in lieu of lottery
    - \$400 for most people
  - Difference of \$100 is the insurance premium
    - There's an insurance industry because people will pay to reduce their risk
    - If everyone were risk-neutral, no insurance needed!
  - It's win-win: you'd rather have the \$400 and the insurance company would rather have the lottery (their utility curve is flat and they have many lotteries)



### Example: Human Rationality?

- Famous example of Allais (1953)
  - A: [0.8, \$4k; 0.2, \$0]
  - B: [1.0, \$3k; 0.0, \$0]
  - C: [0.2, \$4k; 0.8, \$0]
  - D: [0.25, \$3k; 0.75, \$0]
- Most people prefer B > A, C > D
- But if U(\$0) = 0, then
  - B > A ⇒ U(\$3k) > 0.8 U(\$4k)
  - C > D ⇒ 0.8 U(\$4k) > U(\$3k)



# Summary

- Types of games
- Adversarial Game Trees: Minimax search
- Resource Limits I: Alpha-Beta Pruning
- Resource Limits II: Depth-limited search
  - Evaluation functions
  - Iterative deepening
- Expectimax Search
  - Pruning ×/Depth-limited  $\checkmark$
  - Adversarial/Random environments vs. Minimax/Expectimax agents
  - Probabilities/Simulations
- Utilities
  - Rational preferences/MEU principle/Human utilities/Money

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# **Questions?**