# Artificial Intelligence **06. Adversarial Search**

What To Do When Your "Solution" is Somebody Else's Failure

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Autumn Term

### Agenda

- Introduction
- 2 Minimax Search
- Evaluation Functions
- 4 Alpha-Beta Search
- 5 Monte-Carlo Tree Search (MCTS)
- 6 Stochasticity
- Conclusion

#### The Problem



 $\rightarrow$  "Adversarial search" = Game playing against an opponent.

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# Why AI Game Playing?

#### Many good reasons:

- Playing a game well clearly requires a form of "intelligence".
- Games capture a pure form of competition between opponents.
- Games are abstract and precisely defined, thus very easy to formalize.
- $\rightarrow$  Game playing is one of the oldest sub-areas of Al (ca. 1950).
- $\rightarrow$  The dream of a machine that plays Chess is, indeed, *much* older than Al! (von Kempelen's Mechanical Turk (1769), Torres y Quevedo's "El Ajedrecista" (1912))

# "Game" Playing? Which Games?

... sorry, we're not gonna do football here.

#### Restrictions:

- Game states discrete, number of game states finite.
- Finite number of possible moves.
- The game state is fully observable.
- The outcome of each move is deterministic.
- Two players: Max and Min.
- Turn-taking: It's each player's turn alternatingly. Max begins.
- Terminal game states have a utility u. Max tries to maximize u, Min tries to minimize u.
- In that sense, the utility for Min is the exact opposite of the utility for Max ("zero-sum").
- There are no infinite runs of the game (no matter what moves are chosen, a terminal state is reached after a finite number of steps).

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### An Example Game



- Game states: Positions of figures.
- Moves: Given by rules.
- Players: White (Max), Black (Min).
- Terminal states: Checkmate.
- Utility of terminal states, e.g.:
  - $\bullet$  +100 if Black is checkmated.
  - 0 if stalemate.
  - $\bullet$  -100 if White is checkmated.

# "Game" Playing? Which Games Not?

... football.

#### Important types of games that we don't tackle here:

- Chance. (E.g., backgammon)
- More than two players. (E.g., halma)
- Hidden information. (E.g., most card games)
- Simultaneous moves. (E.g., football)
- Not zero-sum, i.e., outcomes may be beneficial (or detrimental) for both players. (→ Game theory: Auctions, elections, economy, politics, . . . )

 $\rightarrow$  Many of these more general game types can be handled by similar/extended algorithms.

### (A Brief Note On) Formalization

**Definition (Game State Space).** A game state space is a 6-tuple  $\Theta = (S, A, T, I, S^T, u)$  where:

- S, A, T, I: States, actions, deterministic transition relation, initial state. They are as in classical search problems, except:
  - S is the disjoint union of  $S^{Max}$ ,  $S^{Min}$ , and  $S^{T}$ .
  - A is the disjoint union of  $A^{Max}$  and  $A^{Min}$ .
  - For  $a \in A^{Max}$ , if  $s \xrightarrow{a} s'$  then  $s \in S^{Max}$  and  $s' \in S^{Min} \cup S^T$ .
  - For  $a \in A^{Min}$ , if  $s \xrightarrow{a} s'$  then  $s \in S^{Min}$  and  $s' \in S^{Max} \cup S^T$ .
- $S^T$  is the set of terminal states.
- $u: S^T \mapsto \mathbb{R}$  is the utility function.

**Commonly used terminology:** state=position, end state=terminal state, action=move.

(A round of the game – one move Max, one move Min – is often referred to as a "move", and individual actions as "half-moves". We don't do that here.)

Minimax Search Evaluation Fns Alpha-Beta Search MCTS Introduction

### Why Games are Hard to Solve

Why Games are hard to solve, part 1:  $\rightarrow$  What is a "solution" here?

**Definition** (Strategy). Let  $\Theta$  be a game state space, and let  $X \in \{Max, \}$ Min. A strategy for X is a function  $\sigma^X: S^X \mapsto A^X$  so that a is applicable to s whenever  $\sigma^X(s) = a$ .

- We don't know how the opponent will react and need to prepare for all possibilities.
- A strategy is optimal if it yields the best possible utility for X assuming perfect opponent play (not formalized here).

Three types of solutions:

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- Ultra-weak: prove whether the first player will win, lose or draw from the initial position, given perfect play on both sides (without specifying the winning strategy).
- Weak: Provide a strategy that is optimal from the beginning of the game.

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• Strong: Provide a strategy that is optimal from any valid state.

→In (almost) all games, computing a strategy is infeasible. Instead, we compute the next move "on demand", given the current game state. **Artificial Intelligence** 

# Why Games are Hard to Solve

#### Why Games are hard to solve, part 2:

- Number of reachable states: in Chess  $10^{40}$ ; in Go  $10^{100}$ .
- It's worse even: Our algorithms here look at search trees (game trees), no duplicate checking.
  - Chess: branching factor ca. 35 (a player has about 31 to 35 legal moves at their disposal at each turn), ca. 100 moves in one game (50 moves per player),  $35^{100} \approx 10^{154}$ .
  - Go: branching factor ca. 200, ca. 300 moves  $\approx 10^{690}$ .

# How To Describe a Game State Space?

 $\rightarrow$  Like for classical search problems, there are three possible ways to describe a game: blackbox/API description, declarative description, explicit game state space.

#### Which ones do humans use?

- ullet Explicit pprox Hand over a book with all  $10^{40}$  game positions in Chess.
- Blackbox  $\approx$  Give possible Chess moves on demand but don't say how they are generated.
- $\bullet \ \, \mathsf{Declarative!} \ \, \mathsf{With} \ \, \mathsf{``game description language''} = \mathsf{natural language}.$

# Specialized vs. General Game Playing

#### And which game descriptions do computers use?

- Explicit: Only in illustrations.
- Blackbox/API: Assumed description in This Chapter.
  - Method of choice for almost all those game players out there in the market (Chess computers, video game opponents, you name it).
  - Programs designed for, and specialized to, a particular game.
  - Human knowledge is (was?) key: evaluation functions (see later), opening databases (Chess!), end databases.
- Declarative: General Game Playing, active area of research in Al.
  - Generic Game Description Language (GDL), based on logic.
  - Solvers are given only "the rules of the game", no other knowledge/input whatsoever (cf. Chapter 2).
  - Regular academic competitions since 2005.

# Our Agenda for This Chapter

- Minimax Search: How to compute an optimal strategy?
  - → Minimax is the canonical (and easiest to understand) algorithm for solving games, i.e., computing an optimal strategy.
- **Evaluation Functions:** But what if we don't have the time/memory to solve the entire game?
  - $\rightarrow$  Given limited time, the best we can do is look ahead as far as possible. Evaluation functions tell us how to evaluate the leaf states at the cut-off.
- Alpha-Beta Search: How to prune unnecessary parts of the tree?
  - $\rightarrow$  An essential improvement over Minimax (state of the art in Chess).
- Monte-Carlo Tree Search (MCTS): An alternative form of game search, based on sampling rather than exhaustive enumeration.
  - → The main alternative to Alpha-Beta Search (state of the art in Go).
- Stochastic Games: What if is there an element of chance in the game?
  - → How to adapt Minimax to stochastic games.

### Questionnaire

#### Question!

(C): 1958

When was the first game-playing computer built?

(A): 1941 (B): 1950 (D): 1965

 $\rightarrow$  In 1941, a small box beat humans at Nim (take away objects from heaps, player taking the last object looses).

#### Question!

Does the video game industry attempt to make the computer opponents as intelligent as possible?

(A): Yes (B): No

 $\rightarrow$  In some cases, yes (I guess). In general, no. For example, in Ego-Shooter games, if your computer opponents did the best they can, you'd be shot immediately and always.

#### "Minimax"?

 $\rightarrow$  We want to compute an optimal move for player "Max". In other words: "We are Max, and our opponent is Min."

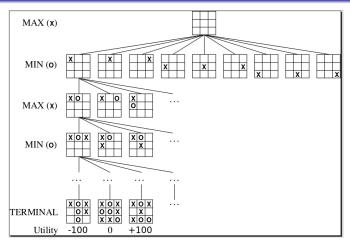
#### Remember:

- Max attempts to maximize the utility u(s) of the terminal state that will be reached during play.
- Min attempts to minimize u(s).

#### So what?

The computation alternates between minimization and maximization
 hence "Minimax".

### Example Tic-Tac-Toe



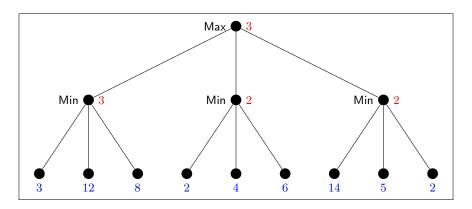
- Game tree, current player marked on the left.
- Last row: terminal positions with their utility.
- Upper bound on size of this tree?  $9 * 8 * \cdots * 1 = 9! = 362,880$ .

#### Minimax: Outline

#### We max, we min, we max, we min ...

- Depth-first search in game tree, with Max in the root.
- 2 Apply utility function to terminal positions.
- **9** Bottom-up for each inner node n in the tree, compute the utility u(n) of n as follows:
  - If it's Max's turn: Set u(n) to the maximum of the utilities of n's successor nodes
  - If it's Min's turn: Set u(n) to the minimum of the utilities of n's successor nodes.
- Selecting a move for Max at the root: Choose one move that leads to a successor node with maximal utility.

### Minimax: Example



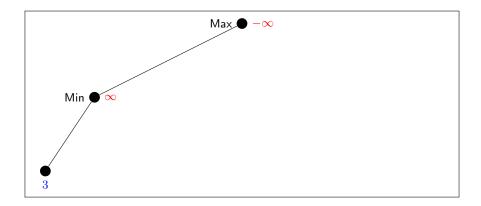
- Blue numbers: Utility function u applied to terminal positions.
- Red numbers: Utilities of inner nodes, as computed by Minimax.

#### Minimax: Pseudo-Code

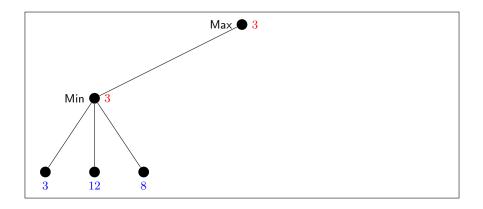
Input: State  $s \in S^{Max}$ , in which Max is to move.

```
function Minimax-Decision(s) returns an action
  v \leftarrow \mathsf{Max}\text{-}\mathsf{Value}(s)
  return an action a \in Actions(s) yielding value v
function Max-Value(s) returns a utility value
  if Terminal-Test(s) then return u(s)
  v \leftarrow -\infty
  for each a \in Actions(s) do
     v \leftarrow \max(v, Min-Value(ChildState(s, a)))
  return v
function Min-Value(s) returns a utility value
  if Terminal-Test(s) then return u(s)
  v \leftarrow +\infty
  for each a \in Actions(s) do
     v \leftarrow \min(v, Max-Value(ChildState(s, a)))
  return v
```

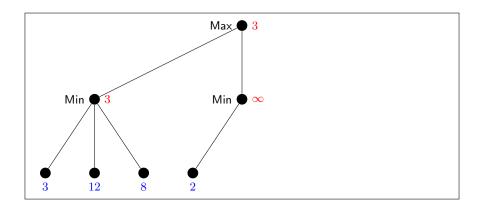
### Minimax: Example, Now in Detail



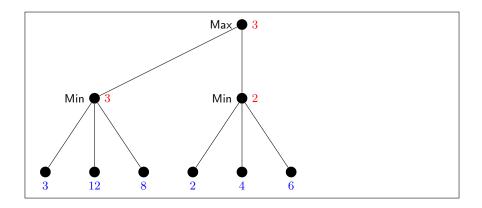
### Minimax: Example, Now in Detail



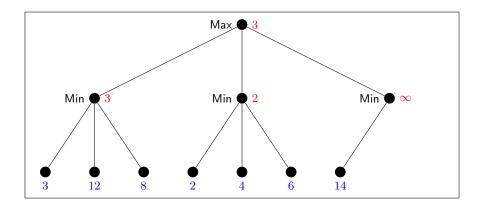
### Minimax: Example, Now in Detail



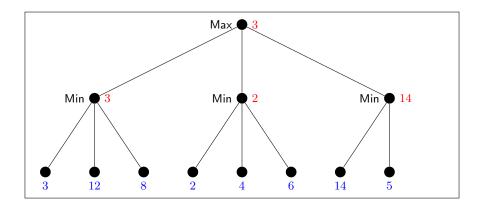
### Minimax: Example, Now in Detail



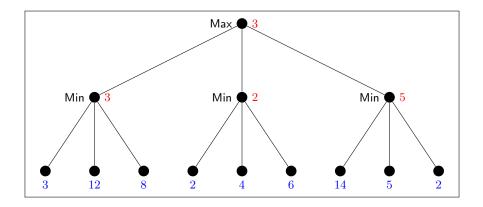
### Minimax: Example, Now in Detail



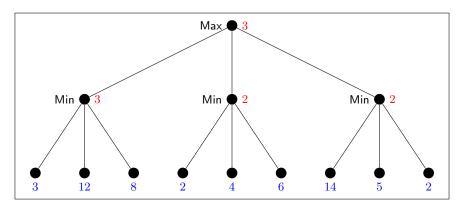
## Minimax: Example, Now in Detail



### Minimax: Example, Now in Detail



### Minimax: Example, Now in Detail



→ So which action for Max is returned? Leftmost branch. Note: The maximal possible pay-off is higher for the rightmost branch, but assuming perfect play of Min, it's better to go left. (Going right would be "relying on your opponent to do something stupid".)

#### Minimax, Pro and Contra

#### Pro:

- Minimax is the simplest possible (reasonable) game search algorithm.
   If any of you sat down, prior to this lecture, to implement a
   Tic-Tac-Toe player, chances are you invented this in the process (or looked it up on Wikipedia).
- Returns an optimal action, assuming perfect opponent play.

**Contra:** Completely infeasible (search tree way too large).

#### Remedies:

- Limit search depth, apply evaluation function to the cut-off states.
- Use alpha-beta pruning to reduce search.
- Don't search exhaustively; sample instead: MCTS.

# Properties of Minimax

- Complete: Yes, if tree is finite (chess has specific rules for this).
- Optimal: Yes, against an optimal opponent. Otherwise?
- Time complexity:  $O(b^m)$  with b branching factor and m depth of the solution.
- Space complexity: O(bm) (depth-first exploration).

For chess,  $b\approx 35$ ,  $m\approx 80$  for "reasonable" games. Considering duplicate states, the state space is  $35^{80}$ .

→ Exact solution completely infeasible!

### Questionnaire



- Tic Tac Toe.
- Max = x, Min = o.
- Max wins: u = 100; Min wins: u = -100; stalemate: u = 0.

#### Question!

What's the Minimax value for the state shown above? (Note: Max to move)

(A): 100

(B): -100

ightarrow 100: Max moves; choosing the top left corner, it's a certain win for Max.

#### Question!

What's the Minimax value for the initial game state?

(A): 100

(B): -100

 $\rightarrow$  The correct value (and thus the value computed by Minimax) is 0: Given perfect play, Tic Tac Toe always results in a stalemate.

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#### **Evaluation Functions**

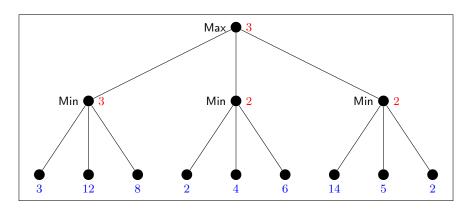
**Problem:** Minimax game tree too big.

**Solution:** Impose a search depth limit ("horizon") d, and apply an evaluation function to the non-terminal cut-off states.

#### An evaluation function f maps game states to numbers:

- f(s) is an estimate of the actual value of s (as would be computed by unlimited-depth Minimax for s).
  - ightarrow If cut-off state is terminal: Use actual utility u instead of f.
- Analogy to heuristic functions (cf. Chapter 4): We want f to be both (a) accurate and (b) fast.
- Another analogy: (a) and (b) are in contradiction . . . need to trade-off accuracy against overhead.
  - $\rightarrow$  Most games (e.g. Chess): f inaccurate but very fast. AlphaGo: f accurate but slow.

### Our Example, Revisited: Minimax With Depth Limit d=2



- Blue: Evaluation function f, applied to the cut-off states at d=2.
- ullet Red: Utilities of inner nodes, as computed by Minimax using d,f.

## **Example Chess**



#### **Evaluation function in Chess:**

- Material: Pawn (Pedone) 1, Knight (Cavallo) 3, Bishop (Alfiere) 3, Rook (Torre) 5, Queen (Regina) 9.
  - $\rightarrow$  3 points advantage  $\implies$  safe win.
- Mobility: How many fields do you control?
- King safety, Pawn structure, . . .
- $\rightarrow$  Note how simple this is! (I daresay this is not how Kasparov evaluates his positions . . . )

### Linear Evaluation Functions, Search Depth

**Fast simple** *f*: weighted linear function

$$w_1 f_1 + w_2 f_2 + \cdots + w_n f_n$$

where the  $w_i$  are the weights, and the  $f_i$  are the features.

#### How to obtain such functions?

- Weights  $w_i$  can be learned automatically.
- The features  $f_i$  have to be designed by human experts.

#### The Horizon Problem

**Problem:** Critical aspects of the game can be cut-off by the horizon.



Black to move

#### Who's gonna win here?

- White wins (Pawn cannot be prevented from becoming a queen.)
- Recall: Pawn (Pedone) 1, Knight (Cavallo) 3, Bishop (Alfiere) 3, Rook (Torre) 5, Queen (Regina) 9.
- Black has a +4 advantage in material, so if we cut-off here then our evaluation function will say "-100, black wins".
- The loss for black is beyond our horizon unless we search extremely deeply:
   Black can hold off the end by repeatedly giving check to White's king.

# How Deeply to Search?

Want: In given time, search as deeply as possible.

**Problem:** Very difficult to predict search runtime.

- → Solution? Iterative deepening.
  - Search with depth limit  $d = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$
  - Time's up: Return result of deepest completed search.

#### Better solution: Quiescence search

- Dynamically adapted d.
- Search more deeply in "unquiet" positions. → Value of evaluation function fluctuates quickly.
- Example Chess: Piece exchange situations ("you take mine, I take yours") are very unquiet ... 

   Keep searching until the end of the piece exchange is reached.

### Questionnaire, ctd.



- Tic-Tac-Toe. Max = x, Min = o.
- Evaluation function  $f_1(s)$ : Number of rows, columns, and diagonals that contain AT LEAST ONE "x".
- (d: depth limit; I: initial state)

#### Question!

With d=3 i.e. considering the moves Max-Min-Max, and using  $f_1$ , which moves may Minimax choose for Max in the initial state I?

(A): Middle. (B): Corner.

 $\rightarrow$  (A): Alone, an "x" in the middle gives  $f_1=4$ , and an "x" in the corner gives  $f_1=3$ . If Max chooses a corner, then Min may choose the middle and the maximum reachable in the next step is  $f_1=5$ . If Max chooses the middle, wherever Min moves, Max can choose a corner afterwards and get  $f_1=6$ .

### Questionnaire, ctd.



- Tic-Tac-Toe. Max = x, Min = o.
- Evaluation function f<sub>2</sub>(s): Number of rows, columns, and diagonals that contain AT LEAST TWO "x".
- (d: depth limit; I: initial state)

#### Question!

With d=3 i.e. considering the moves Max-Min-Max, and using  $f_2$ , which moves may Minimax choose for Max in the initial state I?

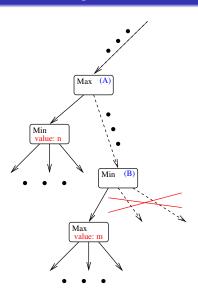
(A): Middle. (B): Corner.

 $\rightarrow$  (A) and (B): With two "x" on the board,  $f_2 \le 1$  for any state. Wherever we move, and wherever Min moves, we'll be able to get  $f_2 = 1$ .

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## Alpha Pruning: Idea



#### Say n > m.

 $\rightarrow$  By choosing to go to the left in Max node (A), Max already can get utility at least n in this part of the game.

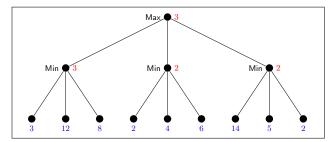
Say that, "later on in the same subtree", i.e. below a different childnode of (A), in Min node (B), Min can force Max to get value m < n.

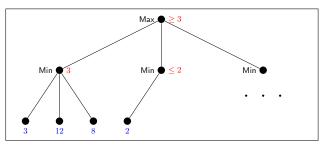
Then we already know that (B) will not actually be reached during the game, given the strategy we currently compute for Max.

# Alpha Pruning: The Idea in Our Example

#### Question:

Can we save some work here?





#### Answer: Yes!

→ We already know at this point that the middle action won't be taken by Max.

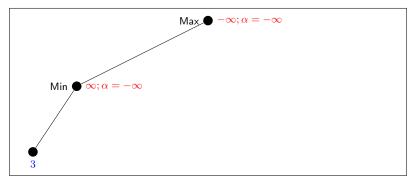
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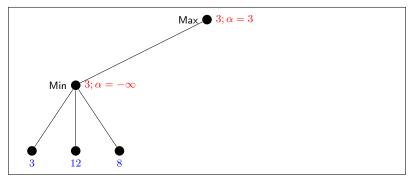
# Alpha Pruning

What is  $\alpha$ ? For each search node n, the highest Max-node utility that search has found already on its path to n.



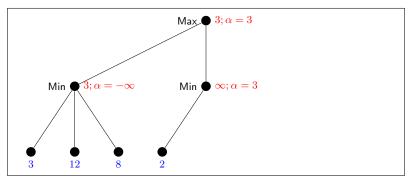
# Alpha Pruning

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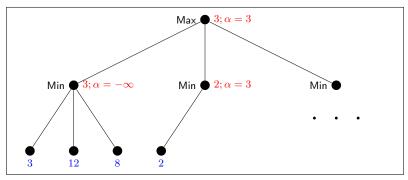
# Alpha Pruning

What is  $\alpha$ ? For each search node n, the highest Max-node utility that search has found already on its path to n.



# Alpha Pruning

What is  $\alpha$ ? For each search node n, the highest Max-node utility that search has found already on its path to n.



**How to use**  $\alpha$ **?** In a Min node n, if one of the successors already has utility  $\leq \alpha$ , then stop considering n. (Pruning out its remaining successors.)

## Alpha-Beta Pruning

#### Reminder:

- What is  $\alpha$ : For each search node n, the highest Max-node utility that search has found already on its path to n.
- How to use  $\alpha$ : In a Min node n, if one of the successors already has utility  $\leq \alpha$ , then stop considering n. (Pruning out its remaining successors.)

#### We can use a dual method for Min:

- What is  $\beta$ : For each search node n, the lowest Min-node utility that search has found already on its path to n.
- How to use  $\beta$ : In a Max node n, if one of the successors already has utility  $\geq \beta$ , then stop considering n. (Pruning out its remaining successors.)

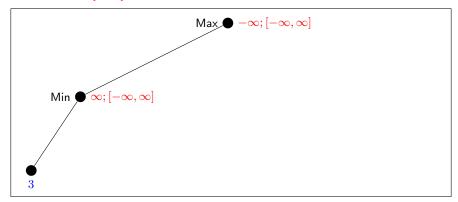
... and of course we can use both together.

# Alpha-Beta Search: Pseudo-Code

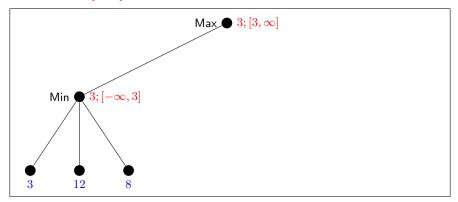
```
function Alpha-Beta-Search(s) returns an action
  v \leftarrow \mathsf{Max}\text{-}\mathsf{Value}(s, -\infty, +\infty)
  return an action a \in Actions(s) yielding value v
function Max-Value(s, \alpha, \beta) returns a utility value
  if Terminal-Test(s) then return u(s)
  v \leftarrow -\infty
  for each a \in Actions(s) do
      v \leftarrow \max(v, Min-Value(ChildState(s, a), \alpha, \beta))
      \alpha \leftarrow \max(\alpha, v)
      if v > \beta then return v /* Here: v > \beta \Leftrightarrow \alpha > \beta */
  return v
function Min-Value(s, \alpha, \beta) returns a utility value
  if Terminal-Test(s) then return u(s)
  v \leftarrow +\infty
  for each a \in Actions(s) do
      v \leftarrow \min(v, Max-Value(ChildState(s, a), \alpha, \beta))
      \beta \leftarrow \min(\beta, v)
      if v < \alpha then return v /* Here: v < \alpha \Leftrightarrow \alpha > \beta */
  return v
```

= Minimax (slide 21) +  $\alpha/\beta$  book-keeping and pruning.

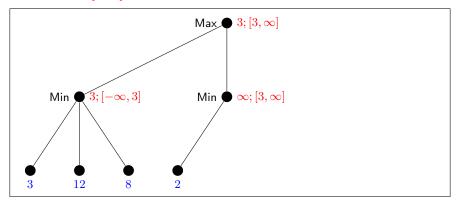
### Notation: v; $[\alpha, \beta]$



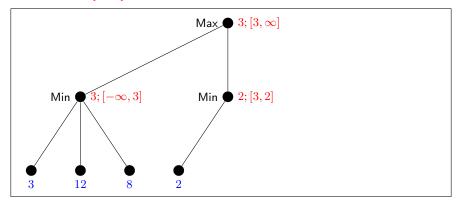
### Notation: v; $[\alpha, \beta]$



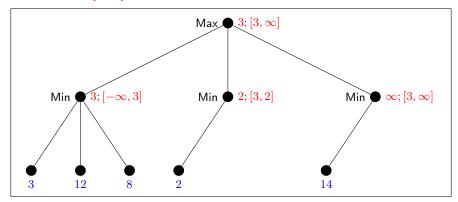
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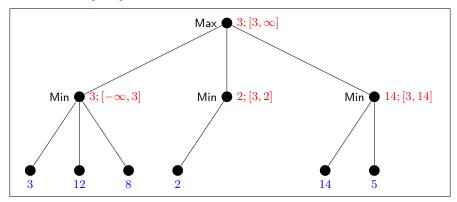
### Notation: v; $[\alpha, \beta]$



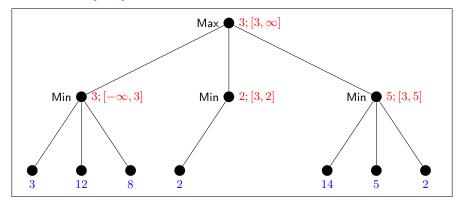
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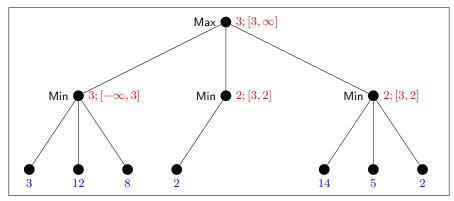


Notation: v;  $[\alpha, \beta]$ 



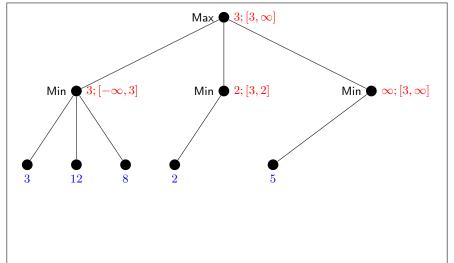
# Alpha-Beta Search: Example

### Notation: v; $[\alpha, \beta]$

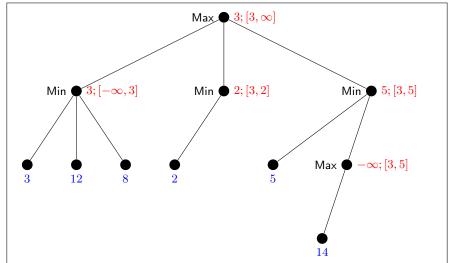


→ Note: We could have saved work by choosing the opposite order for the successors of the rightmost Min node. Choosing the best moves (for each of Max and Min) first yields more pruning!

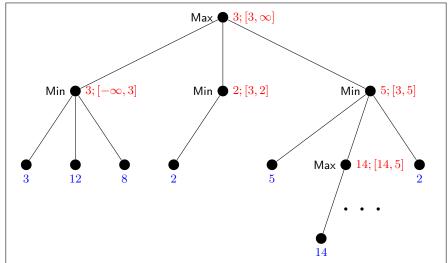
### Showing off some actual $\beta$ pruning:



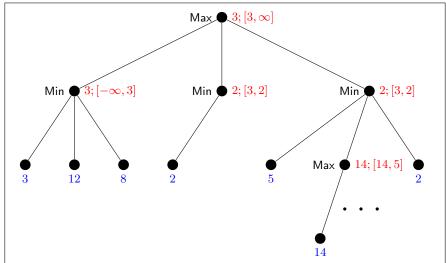
### Showing off some actual $\beta$ pruning:



### Showing off some actual $\beta$ pruning:



### Showing off some actual $\beta$ pruning:



# How Much Pruning Do We Get?

 $\rightarrow$  Choosing best moves first yields most pruning in alpha-beta search.

#### With branching factor b and depth limit m:

- Minimax: b<sup>m</sup> nodes.
- Best case: Best moves first  $\Rightarrow b^{m/2}$  nodes! Double the lookahead!
- Practice: Often possible to get close to best case.

#### Example Chess:

- Move ordering: Try captures and checks first, then threats, then forward moves, then backward moves.
- Double lookahead: E.g. with time for  $10^9$  nodes, Minimax 3 rounds (white move, black move), Alpha-beta 6 rounds.

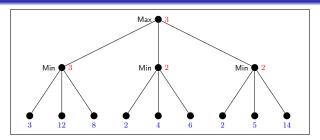
## Computer Chess State of the Art

- Alpha-beta search.
- Fast evaluation functions fine-tuned by human experts and training.
- Case-based reasoning (positions from 2 million known games, in 1997).
- Very large game opening databases.
- Very large game termination databases.
- Fast hardware.
- ightarrow A mixture of (a) very fast search, and (b) human expertise.
- → Typically similar in other games (e.g. Checkers/Dame).

#### Except: Go!

→AlphaZero has greatly challenged this.

### Questionnaire



#### Question!

How many nodes does alpha-beta prune out here?

(A): 0 (B): 2

(C): 4 (D): 6

ightarrow (C): Same example as before, except that we changed the ordering of the right-branch leaves to have the best Min move first. Thus the f=5 and f=14 right-branch leaves will now be pruned. As before, the f=4 and f=6 middle-branch leaves will be pruned, yielding a total of 4 pruned nodes.

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### And now ...



AlphaGo = Monte-Carlo tree search + neural networks

# Limitations of Alpha Beta Search

Alpha Beta search is a strong algorithm but it has two issues (e.g. in Go):

- It needs an accurate/fast evaluation function. This is not always easy to obtain. For example, traditionally there have not been very good evaluation functions for the game of Go.
  - ightarrow Evaluate positions by playing random games  $f(s) = {\it average \ utility \ of \ these \ simulations}$
- ② Not so much exploration in problems with large branching factor. The branching factor in Go is  $\approx 300$  moves. To explore the full tree minimax tree up to depth 3, we need  $300^3=27,000,000$  evaluations.
  - → Spend more time evaluating "promising" moves

# Monte-Carlo Tree Search: Underlying Principles

- How to estimate the value of a state? Average utility over a number of simulations of complete games starting from the state (playout).
- How do we choose what moves to make during the playout? A
   playout policy needs to bias the moves towards good ones.
  - $\rightarrow$  For Go and other games, playout policies have been successfully learned from self-play by using neural networks.
- From what positions do we start the playouts, and how many playouts do we allocate to each position?
  - → Pure Monte Carlo Search does simulations starting from the current state of the game and tracks which of the possible moves has the highest win percentage.
  - $\rightarrow$  **Selection policy** focuses the computation on important parts of the game tree, balancing exploration and exploitation.

# Monte-Carlo Sampling

 $\rightarrow$  When deciding which action to take on game state s:

Imagine that each of the available actions is a slot machine that on average gives you an unknown reward:







**Monte-Carlo Sampling:** Evaluate actions through sampling.

- Exploitation: play in the machine that returns the best reward.
- Exploration: play machines that have not been tried a lot yet.

Upper Confidence Bound (UCB): formula that automatically balances exploration and exploitation to maximize total gains.

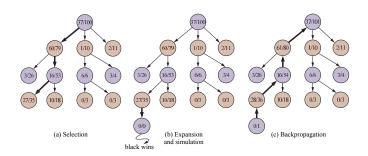
# Monte-Carlo Tree Search: 4 Steps

Monte-Carlo Tree Search repeatedly follows the following steps:

- Selection: traverse the tree starting at the root, applying the selection policy to choose successors until reaching a leaf node that has not been fully expanded.
- Expansion: Grow tree by generating a new child of the leaf node by applying a new action.
- Simulation: From the newly generated child node, perform a run of the game, selecting moves for both players according to the playout policy, to obtain the final reward.
- Back-propagation: Use the result of the simulation to update all the search tree nodes going up to the root.

When time to decide is over, choose the "best" move and play it.

 $\to$ There are multiple versions of MCTS depending on what strategies are followed in each of the steps.



Root represents a state where white has just moved (white has won 37 out of the 100 playouts done so far.)

- (a) We select moves, all the way down the tree, ending at the leaf node marked 27/35 (for 27 wins for black out of 35 playouts).
- (b) We expand the selected node and do a simulation (playout), which ends in a win for black.
- (c) The results of the simulation are back-propagated up the tree.

### How to Guide the Search?: Selection Rule

### How to "sample"? Selection Rule

- Exploitation: Prefer moves that have high average already (interesting regions of state space).
- Exploration: Prefer moves that have not been tried a lot yet (don't overlook other, possibly better, options).
- → Classical formulation: balance exploitation vs. exploration.

# Upper Confidence bounds applied to Trees

- UCT [Kocsis and Szepesvári (2006)]. Inspired by Multi-Armed Bandit problems.
- A formula defining the balance. Very popular (buzzword).

$$UCB1(n) = \frac{U(n)}{N(n)} + C \times \sqrt{\frac{logN(PARENT(n))}{N(n)}}$$

U(n)= total utility of all playouts that went through node n N(n)= number of playouts through node n PARENT(n) is the parent node of n in the tree

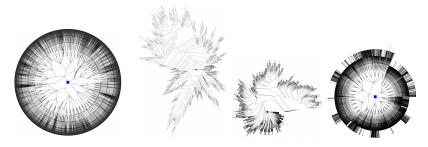
# Monte-Carlo Tree Search: Algorithm

```
function Monte-Carlo-Tree-Search(state) returns an action tree \leftarrow \text{Node}(state)
while Is-Time-Remaining() do leaf \leftarrow \text{Select}(tree)
child \leftarrow \text{Expand}(leaf)
result \leftarrow \text{Simulate}(child)
Back-Propagate(result, child)
return the move in Actions(state) whose node has highest number of playouts
```

- A game tree (tree) is initialized.
- Cycle SELECT / EXPAND / SIMULATE / BACK-PROPAGATE is repeated until the algorithm runs out of time.
- Move that led to node with highest number of playouts is returned.
- UCB1 formula ensures that the node with the most playouts is almost always the node with the highest win percentage.

## Alpha-Beta versus UCT

Illustration from Ramanujan and Selman (2011) that visualizes the search space of Alpha Beta and three variants of UCT (more exploration or exploitation):

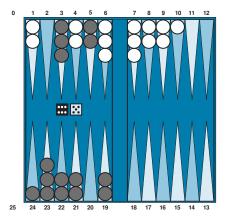


Alpha Beta UCT (from more exploitation to more exploration)

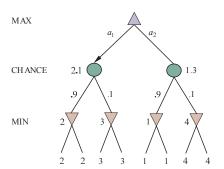
### Monte-Carlo Tree Search: Conclusions

- MTCS is chosen when branching factor becomes very high and the evaluation function is difficult.
- MTCS is more robust than Alpha-Beta search (it is also possible to combine MCTS and evaluation functions).
- MTCS can be applied to unknown games.
- MTCS is a form of reinforcement learning.

## Backgammon



Stochastic Games includes a random element, e.g. throwing of dice. They combine luck and skill.



- A game tree in backgammon must include chance nodes in addition to MAX and MIN nodes (circles).
- We can only calculate the expected value of a position: the average over all possible outcomes of the chance nodes.
- We can generalize the minimax value for deterministic game, expectiminimax value.

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# Summary

- Games (2-player turn-taking zero-sum discrete and finite games) can be understood as a simple extension of classical search problems.
- Each player tries to reach a terminal state with the best possible utility.
- Minimax searches the game depth-first, max'ing and min'ing at the respective turns of each player. It yields perfect play, but takes time  $O(b^d)$  where b is the branching factor and d the search depth.
- Except in trivial games (Tic-Tac-Toe), Minimax needs a depth limit and apply an evaluation function to estimate the value of the cut-off states.
- Alpha-beta search remembers the best values achieved for each player elsewhere in the tree already, and prunes out sub-trees that won't be reached in the game.
- Monte-Carlo tree search (MCTS) samples game branches, and averages the findings. AlphaGo controls this using neural networks: evaluation function ("value network"), and action filter ("policy network").
- For stochastic games, we can generalize minimax to expectiminimax.

# Reading

• Chapter 5: Adversarial Search, Sections 5.1 – 5.4 [Russell and Norvig (2010)].

Content: Section 5.1 corresponds to my "Introduction", Section 5.2 corresponds to my "Minimax Search", Section 5.3 corresponds to my "Alpha-Beta Search". I have tried to add some additional clarifying illustrations. RN gives many complementary explanations, nice as additional background reading.

Section 5.4 corresponds to my "Evaluation Functions", but discusses additional aspects relating to narrowing the search and look-up from opening/termination databases. Nice as additional background reading.

Last edition of the RN (4th edition) contains a description of MCTS in Chapter 5.4.

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### References I

- Levente Kocsis and Csaba Szepesvári. Bandit based Monte-Carlo planning. In Johannes Fürnkranz, Tobias Scheffer, and Myra Spiliopoulou, editors, *Proceedings of the 17th European Conference on Machine Learning (ECML 2006)*, volume 4212 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 282–293. Springer-Verlag, 2006.
- Raghuram Ramanujan and Bart Selman. Trade-offs in sampling-based adversarial planning. In Fahiem Bacchus, Carmel Domshlak, Stefan Edelkamp, and Malte Helmert, editors, *Proceedings of the 21st International Conference on Automated Planning and Scheduling (ICAPS'11)*. AAAI Press, 2011.
- Stuart Russell and Peter Norvig. Artificial Intelligence: A Modern Approach (Third Edition). Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, 2010.