COMS W4701: Artificial Intelligence

Lecture 4: Adversarial Search and Games

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Where are we now?

- Planning and identification (assignment) problems
- Applications: Pathing, motion planning, scheduling, ...

- Solution: General-purpose search algorithms
 - NP-hard (exponential) in the worst / naïve case
 - Different strategies to make search more efficient

We have only considered single-agent problems

Today

Adversarial search problems

Minimax algorithm

Alpha-beta pruning, evaluation functions, move ordering

Stochastic games

Al and Games

- 1950s and 60s: First checkers programs, some from reinforcement learning
- 1994: Chinook declared computer champion in checkers against Tinsley
- 2007: Checkers is solved (completely predictable)

- 1997: Deep Blue defeats chess world champion Kasparov
- 2017, 2019: AlphaZero, Leela Chess Zero defeat Stockfish, AI chess champ

- 2016: AlphaGo defeats go world champion Lee Sedol
- 2018-2020: AlphaZero, MuZero achieve state-of-the-art in chess, go, shogi

Adversarial Search

Several approaches for competitive multi-agent environments

Economics: Study aggregate system, no consideration of individual agents

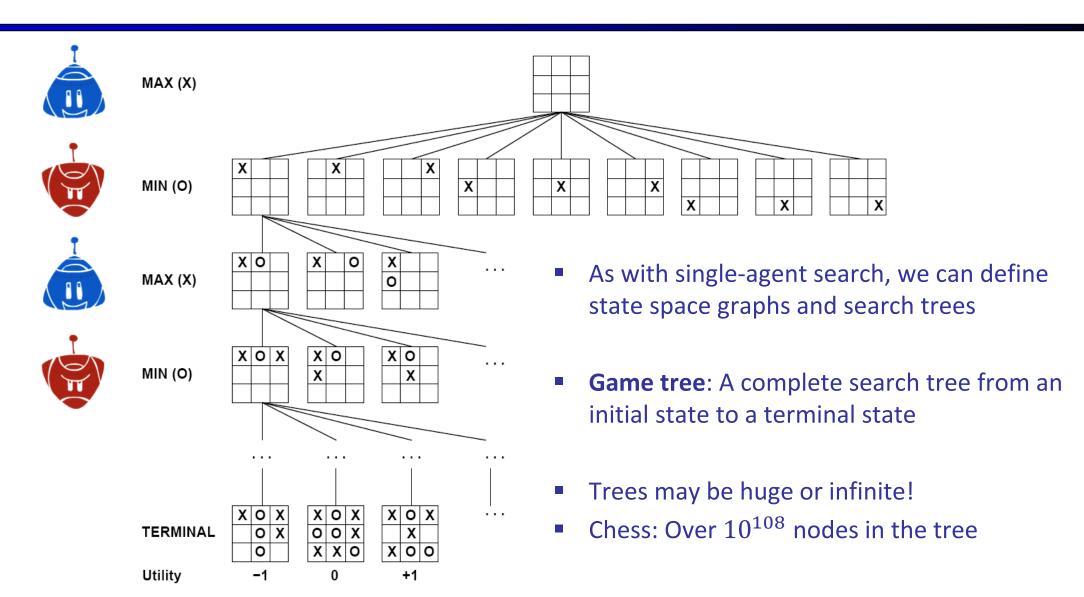
- Can consider other agents as part of a nondeterministic environment
- Does not consider goals and motivations of adversaries

- Incorporate other agents into unified adversarial search
- Will often have to operate real-time, accept suboptimal solutions

Two-player Zero-sum Games

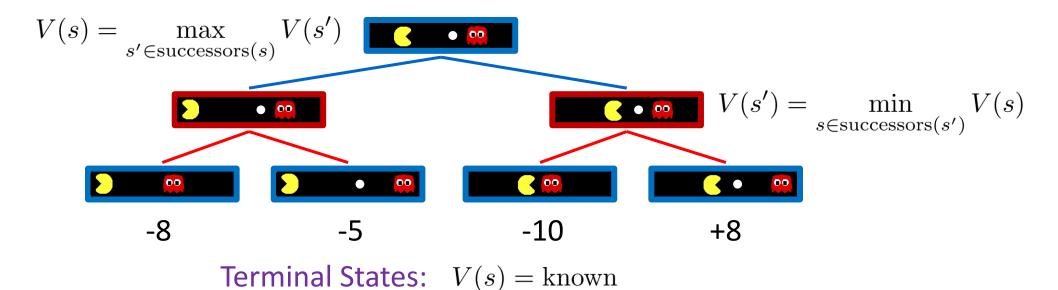
- Simple adversarial search problem: Two agents, turn-taking, deterministic, perfect information (fully observable), zero-sum (p1 wins = p2 loses and vice-versa)
- States (positions): Current state of the game
- Actions: Set of legal moves in a state s
- Transition model: Mapping from (state, action) to a new state
- Terminal test: Is the current state a terminal state (is the game over)?
- Utility function: A player's "score" or payoff at a terminal state
- Since games are zero-sum, we should have Utility(s, P1) = -Utility(s, P2)
 - Ex: Tic-tac-toe. X has three in a row, Utility(s, X) = 1, Utility(s, O) = -1

Game Trees



State Utilities

- Both players want to maximize their own utilities
- Equivalently, we can just use MAX's utilities, which player MIN wants to minimize
- Each player should plan its move based on expectation of opponent
- If non-terminal states also have utilities, decision-making would be easy

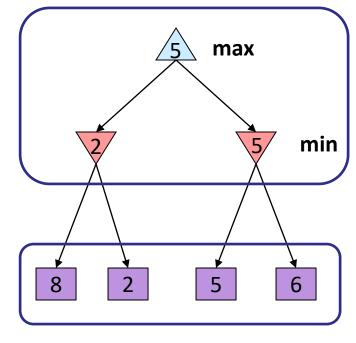


Minimax Values

- Value of each state depends on each player's move
- If we know that each player plays optimally, the entire game tree's values are known!
- Minimax value: Utility of a state assuming both players play optimally until the end of the game

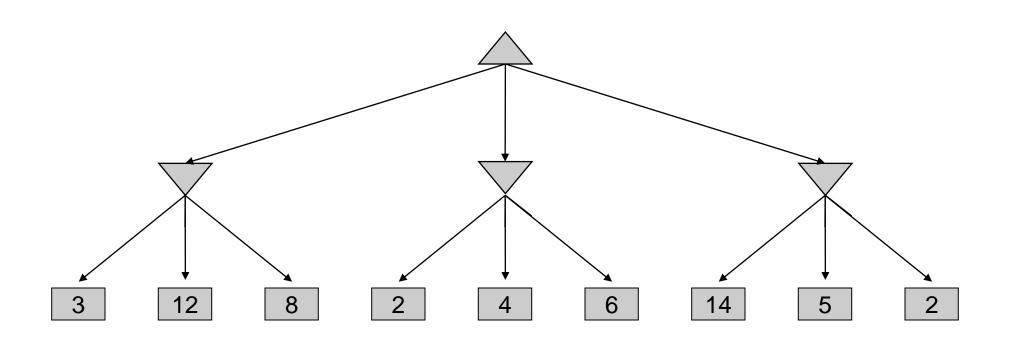
```
 \begin{cases} \text{UTILITY}(s) & \text{if TERMINAL-TEST}(s) \\ \max_{a \in Actions(s)} \text{MINIMAX}(\text{RESULT}(s, a)) & \text{if PLAYER}(s) = \text{MAX} \\ \min_{a \in Actions(s)} \text{MINIMAX}(\text{RESULT}(s, a)) & \text{if PLAYER}(s) = \text{MIN} \end{cases}
```

Minimax values: computed recursively



Terminal values: part of the game

Minimax Example



Minimax Search Algorithm

```
function MINIMAX-SEARCH(game, state) returns an action
  player \leftarrow qame.TO-MOVE(state)
                                                   Assuming root is MAX
  value, move \leftarrow MAX-VALUE(game, state)
  return move
function MAX-VALUE(game, state) returns a (utility, move) pair
  if game.IS-TERMINAL(state) then return game.UTILITY(state, player), null
  v \leftarrow -\infty
  for each a in game.ACTIONS(state) do
                                                                MAX calls MIN
    v2, a2 \leftarrow MIN-VALUE(game, game.RESULT(state, a))
    if v2 > v then
       v, move \leftarrow v2, a
  return v, move
function MIN-VALUE(game, state) returns a (utility, move) pair
  if game.IS-TERMINAL(state) then return game.UTILITY(state, player), null
  v \leftarrow +\infty
  for each a in game.ACTIONS(state) do
                                                                 MIN calls MAX
    v2, a2 \leftarrow \text{MAX-VALUE}(game, game. \text{RESULT}(state, a))
    if v2 < v then
       v, move \leftarrow v2, a
  return v, move
```

Multiplayer Games

We can generalize minimax to non-zero-sum or multiplayer games Keep track of *vector* of utilities at each node Each player maximizes own utility Can produce cooperation, alliances 1,6,6 7,1,2 **6,1,2** 7,2,1 **5,1,7** 1,5,2 7,7,1

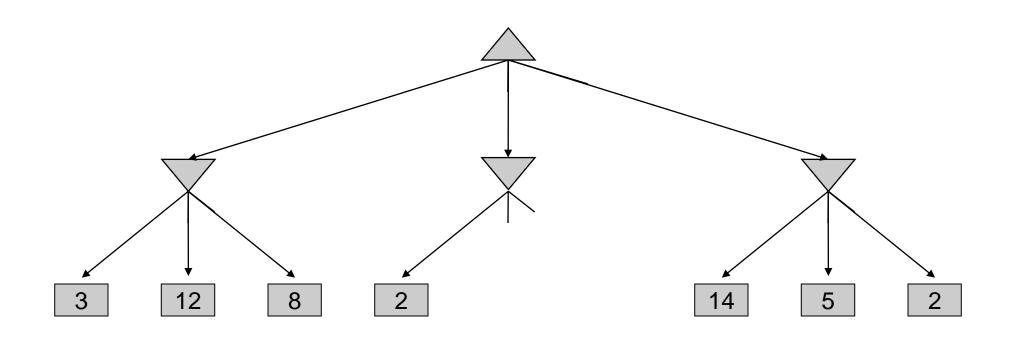
Improving Minimax

- Minimax executes a DFS-style search of the game tree
- Time complexity $O(b^d)$, space complexity O(bd)
- Optimal if both players play perfectly, complete if game eventually ends

- Example: Chess has $b \approx 35$, $d \approx 70$
- Completely infeasible to solve entirely!

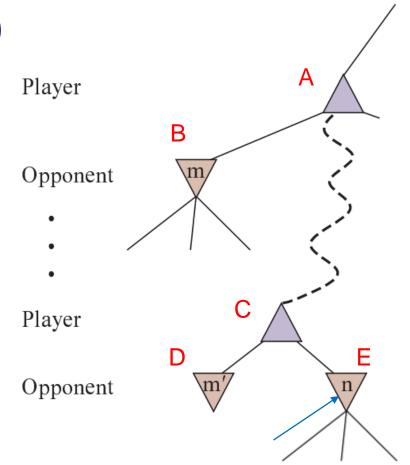
- Do we always need to expand entire tree?
- Improvements: Pruning, move ordering, cutting off search

Pruning



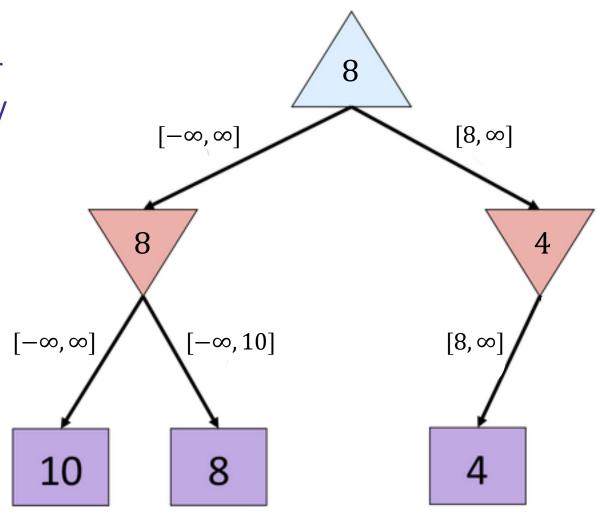
Pruning

- Best value for node E so far is n (from one of its children)
- If $n \le m'$, MAX would never choose to go from C to E
 - $max(m', min(n, ...), ...) \ge m'$
- Similarly, if $n \le m$ from node B, MAX would never choose the sequence of actions going from A to E
- In both cases, any remaining children of E should be pruned away



Alpha-Beta Pruning

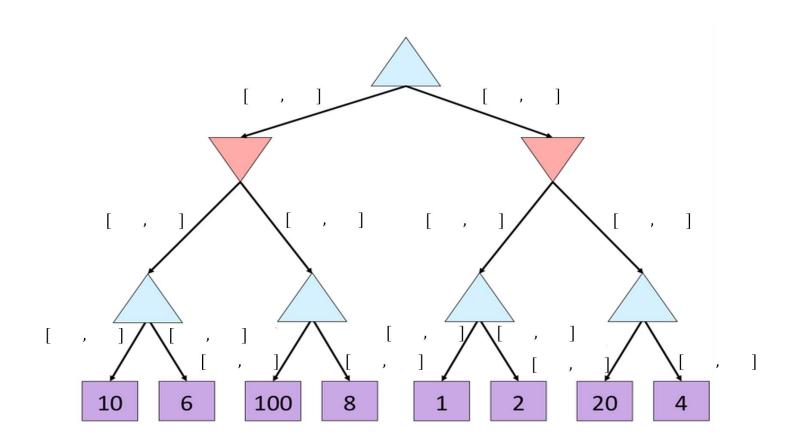
- General idea: Keep track of highest (α) and lowest (β) values seen so far by MAX and MIN nodes, respectively
- Skip remaining children (prune) if:
- MAX sees value higher than β
- MIN sees value lower than α
- Know that root node would never choose path to current node



Alpha-Beta Search

```
function ALPHA-BETA-SEARCH(game, state) returns an action
  player \leftarrow game.To-MovE(state)
  value, move \leftarrow \text{MAX-VALUE}(game, state, -\infty, +\infty) Assuming root is MAX
  return move
function MAX-VALUE(qame, state, \alpha, \beta) returns a (utility, move) pair
  if game.IS-TERMINAL(state) then return game.UTILITY(state, player), null
  v \leftarrow -\infty
  for each a in game.ACTIONS(state) do
     v2, a2 \leftarrow \text{MIN-VALUE}(qame, qame. \text{RESULT}(state, a), \alpha, \beta)
     if v2 > v then
        v, move \leftarrow v2, a
       \alpha \leftarrow \text{MAX}(\alpha, v)
                                              MAX updates \alpha, compares against \beta
     if v > \beta then return v, move
  return v, move
function MIN-VALUE(game, state, \alpha, \beta) returns a (utility, move) pair
  if game.IS-TERMINAL(state) then return game.UTILITY(state, player), null
  v \leftarrow +\infty
  for each a in game.ACTIONS(state) do
     v2, a2 \leftarrow \text{MAX-VALUE}(game, game. \text{RESULT}(state, a), \alpha, \beta)
     if v2 < v then
        v, move \leftarrow v2, a
                                              MIN updates \beta, compares against \alpha
       \beta \leftarrow \text{MIN}(\beta, v)
     if v < \alpha then return v, move
  return v, move
```

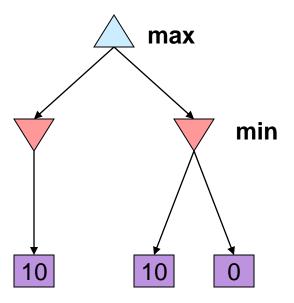
Alpha-Beta Example



Applet: http://homepage.ufp.pt/jtorres/ensino/ia/alfabeta.html

Alpha-Beta Properties

- Pruning does not change true minimax value of the root
- Intermediate (children) node values might be wrong!!
- If pruning, game tree values cannot be reused
- Will have to rerun minimax after each move



- In practice, we can store just the states/values that we know to be correct in a transposition table in case they come up again
 - Especially effective when there are multiple paths to a state

Move Ordering

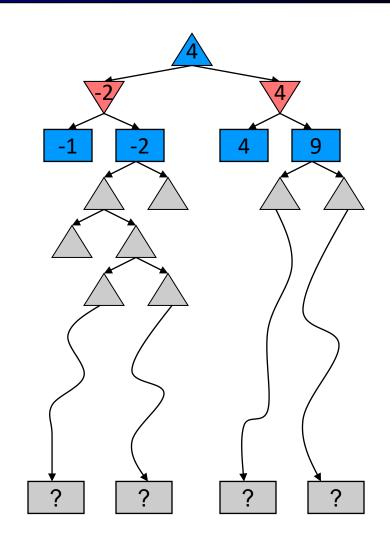
- Good move ordering improves effectiveness of pruning
- Alpha-beta with random ordering is roughly $^{\sim}O(b^{0.75d})$
- "Perfect ordering" gets us to $O(b^{0.5d})$, doubling solvable depth
- Usually requires domain knowledge
 - Simple chess ordering function: captures, threats, forward moves, backward moves
 - Try moves first that were good in past moves
- If using depth-limited search, iterative deepening can also inform move ordering
- Evaluations at depth 1 inform ordering at depth 2, those inform ordering at depth 3, and so on

Imperfect Decisions

- Problem: Most game trees still too big
- α - β can help but still need to find terminal nodes

- Heuristic: Turn non-terminal nodes into terminals!
- Evaluation function returns an estimate of this "terminal" state's utility

- Cutoff test decides when to do this
- No more guarantee of optimality



Evaluation Functions

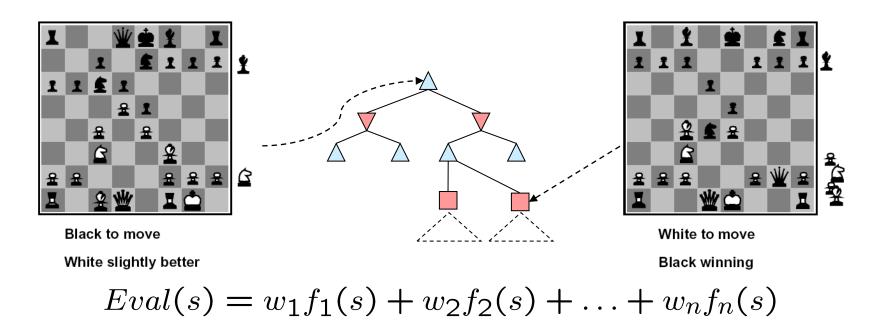
Evaluation functions are estimates of a state's utility

- Agent's performance depends strongly on eval function quality
 - Evaluation of terminals should be the same as that of true utility function
 - Evaluation of non-terminals should have some correlation with winning
 - Computation must be efficient

One common eval function: weighted linear sum of game features

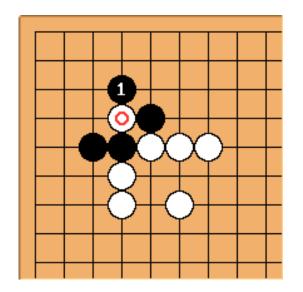
$$Eval(s) = w_1 f_1(s) + w_2 f_2(s) + \dots + w_n f_n(s)$$

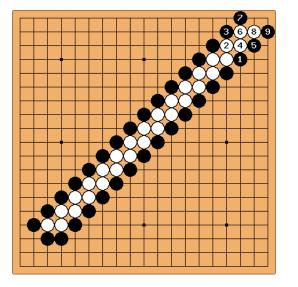
Example: Chess

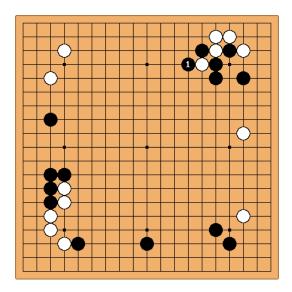


- Features may be derived from expert knowledge of common categories of states
- E.g., one feature for each type of piece, attack formations, king safety positions, etc.
- Weights correspond to material values of each feature
- Linear weighting assumes features are independent of each other

Example: Go







$$Eval(s) = w_1 f_1(s) + w_2 f_2(s) + \dots + w_n f_n(s)$$

- Example features in Go:
 - Num white pieces num black pieces
 - Buildup of potential "ladders"
 - Territorial "spread" of pieces

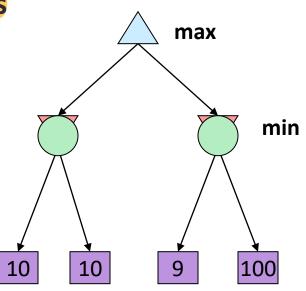
Depth Limits

- Now that we have eval function, when to cut off search and apply it?
- Simple approach: Use a fixed depth limit, or use iterative deepening
- Transposition table especially effective with latter approach
- Problem: Cutting off search at volatile positions can lead to loss of information
- Horizon effect: Agent may favor moves that push danger "over the horizon", appears
 to have been mitigated but actually just delayed
- If possible, only cut off search at quiescent (quiet) positions
- Quiescence search: Extend search at volatile positions until we find quieter ones
- "Adaptive" search depth based on domain knowledge

Stochastic Games

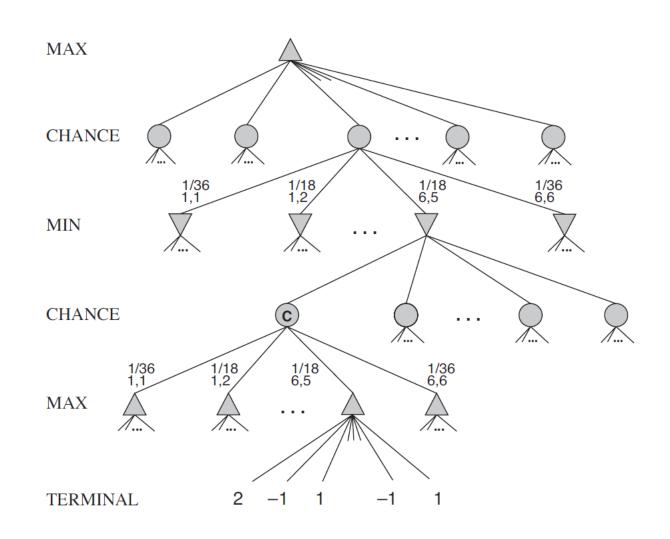
- Many games contain stochasticisty
- Opponents playing suboptimally (e.g., inexperienced) or randomly
- Explicit random elements (e.g., dice rolling)
- Instead of worst-case scenarios, we consider expected values
- Chance nodes have expectiminimax values

```
 \begin{cases} \text{UTILITY}(s) & \text{if Terminal-Test}(s) \\ \max_a \text{Expectiminimax}(\text{Result}(s,a)) & \text{if Player}(s) = \text{max} \\ \min_a \text{Expectiminimax}(\text{Result}(s,a)) & \text{if Player}(s) = \text{min} \\ \sum_r P(r) \text{Expectiminimax}(\text{Result}(s,r)) & \text{if Player}(s) = \text{Chance} \end{cases}
```

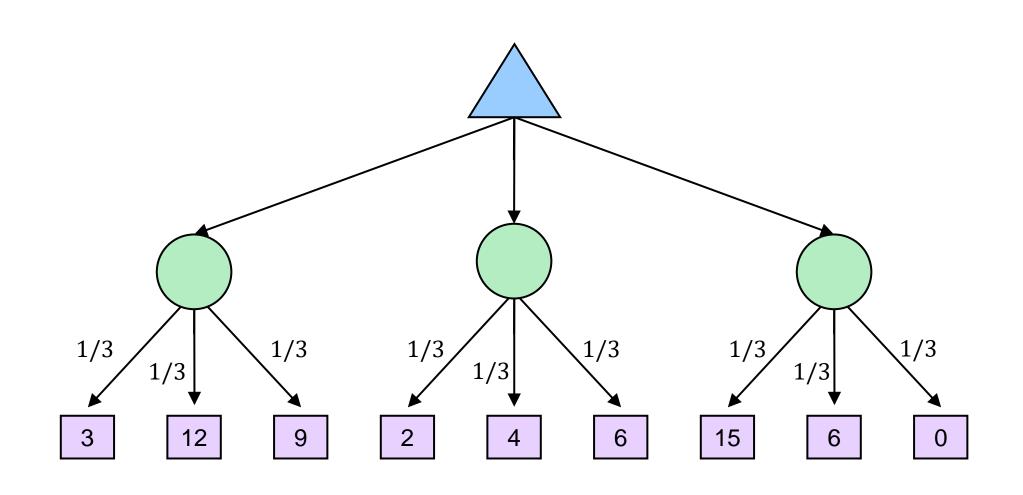


Example: Backgammon



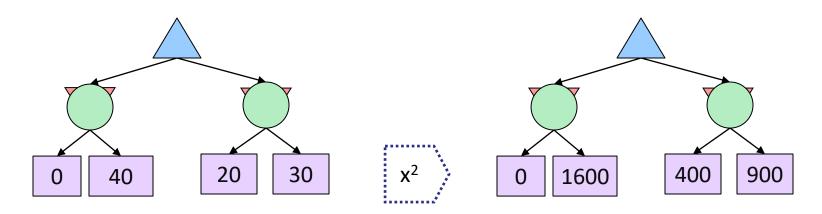


Expectiminimax Example



Expectiminimax Utilities

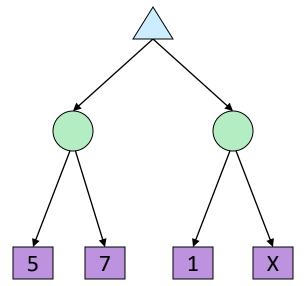
- Decisions in stochastic games are sensitive to choice of eval function
- Minimax: Decisions unchanged as long as relative ordering of node values is the same
- Expectiminimax: No guarantee that decisions stay the same if values change
- To fix, must ensure that eval function is a *positive linear transformation* of true utilities



Expectiminimax Pruning

- Pruning is more difficult than in deterministic games
- Cannot eliminate possibilities if we cannot predict results of stochastic transitions

 Pruning can occur if we have explicit bounds on utility values overall



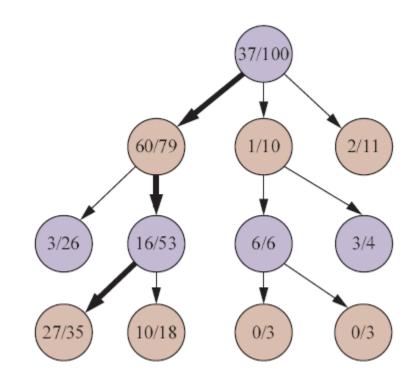
 If we can accept imperfect decisions, we can perform forward pruning to examine fewer branches All utilities ≤ 10

Monte Carlo Tree Search*

- Minimax and its variants are mostly type A strategies: search wide but shallow
- For games like Go with large branching factors, type B strategies like MCTS work better:
 search deep but narrow
- Idea: Run many simulations from current game state to a terminal
- No heuristic evaluations; we record end game results in all those simulations
- Results are tabulated and averaged; moves are chosen to maximize chances of winning
- Simulations may be informed by selection policy and playout policy

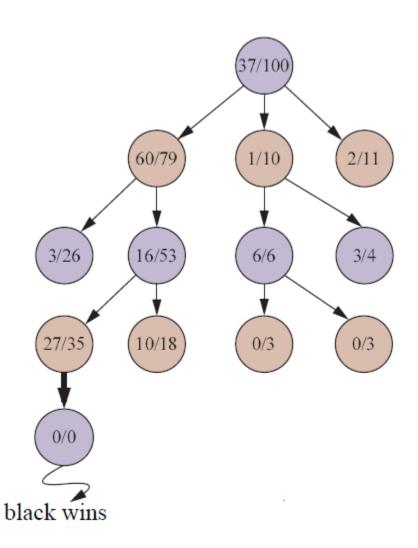
Selection Policy

- We grow a tree starting with current game state at the root
- Keep track of how many plays and wins we have simulated from each node
- A predetermined selection policy guides us down the tree to a leaf
- Goal: Obtain more simulation results for promising nodes (<u>exploitation</u>) but also for lesser known nodes (<u>exploration</u>)



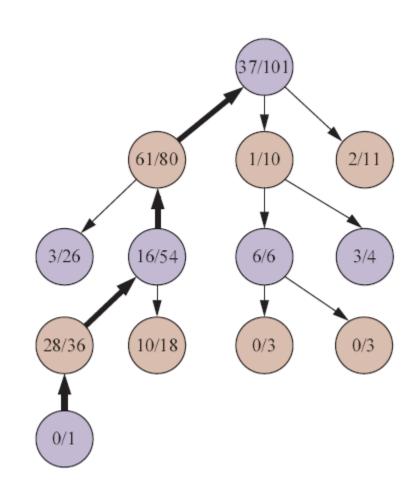
Playout Policy

- From selected leaf, add a single child node to the tree
- Simulate a complete game from the child state
- Encountered game states are not recorded!
- How do we perform a simulation in our head?
- Follow a predetermined playout policy
- Generally biases moves toward good or clever ones
- May incorporate game-specific heuristics
- May be obtained from deep learning (e.g. AlphaGo)



Backpropagation

- Once a simulation is done, the result is returned up the tree
- All nodes along path get updated
- Process iterates between growing and updating search tree
- When done, return the most simulated move
- Why not return move with highest win rate?
- We must also be wary of uncertainty!



MCTS vs Alpha-Beta

- MCTS simulations are linear in game depth
- For a game with branching factor of 32 and depth of 100, alpha-beta search down to 12 ply deep is equivalent to 10^7 MCTS simulations

- MCTS tends to do better when branching factor is high
- Also less sensitive than α - β to inaccurate eval functions
- Also good for brand new games with no predefined eval functions at all!

Stochastic nature of MCTS: no guarantee of exploring all good moves

Summary

Adversarial search problems consider the goals of multiple agents

Two-player zero-sum games can be solved via minimax search

 Improvements: Alpha-beta pruning, move ordering, transposition tables, evaluation functions and depth limits for imperfect decisions

- Can be extended to stochastic games with expectiminimax search
- Generally much harder, need to consider many more search possibilities