

GAME PLAYING

CHAPTER 6

Types of games

	deterministic	chance
perfect information	chess, checkers, go, othello, rock-paper-scissors	backgammon, monopoly
imperfect information	battleships, kriegspiel, stratego	bridge, poker, scrabble, nuclear war

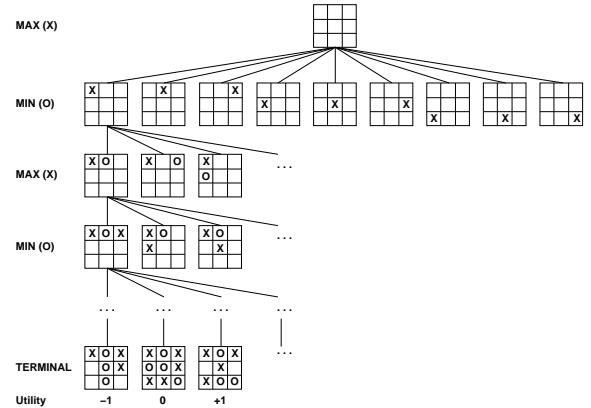
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Outline

- ◊ Games
- ◊ Perfect play
 - minimax decisions
 - α - β pruning
- ◊ Resource limits and approximate evaluation
- ◊ Games of chance
- ◊ Games of imperfect information

Game tree (2-player, deterministic, turns)



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Games vs. search problems

“Unpredictable” opponent \Rightarrow solution is a strategy specifying a move for every possible opponent reply

Time limits \Rightarrow unlikely to find goal, must approximate

Plan of attack:

- Computer considers possible lines of play (Babbage, 1846)
- Algorithm for perfect play (Zermelo, 1912; Von Neumann, 1944)
- Finite horizon, approximate evaluation (Zuse, 1945; Wiener, 1948; Shannon, 1950)
- First chess program (Turing, 1951)
- Machine learning to improve evaluation accuracy (Samuel, 1952–57)
- Pruning to allow deeper search (McCarthy, 1956)

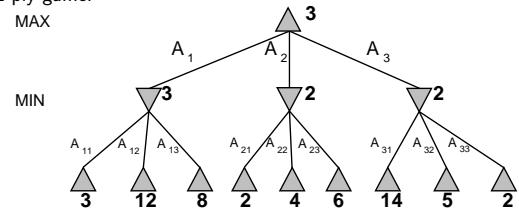
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Minimax

Perfect play for deterministic, perfect-information games

Idea: choose move to position with highest **minimax** value
 $=$ best achievable utility against best play

E.g., 2-ply game:



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Minimax algorithm

```

function MINIMAX-DECISION(state) returns an action
  inputs: state, current state in game
  return the a in ACTIONS(state) maximizing MIN-VALUE(RESULT(a, state))

function MAX-VALUE(state) returns a utility value
  if TERMINAL-TEST(state) then return UTILITY(state)
  v  $\leftarrow -\infty$ 
  for a, s in SUCCESSORS(state) do v  $\leftarrow$  MAX(v, MIN-VALUE(s))
  return v

function MIN-VALUE(state) returns a utility value
  if TERMINAL-TEST(state) then return UTILITY(state)
  v  $\leftarrow \infty$ 
  for a, s in SUCCESSORS(state) do v  $\leftarrow$  MIN(v, MAX-VALUE(s))
  return v

```

Properties of minimax

- Complete?? Yes, if tree is finite (chess has specific rules for this)
- Optimal?? Yes, against an optimal opponent. Otherwise??
- Time complexity??

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- Time complexity?? $O(b^m)$
- Space complexity??

Properties of minimax

Complete?? Only if tree is finite (chess has specific rules for this).
NB A finite strategy can exist even in an infinite tree!

Optimal??

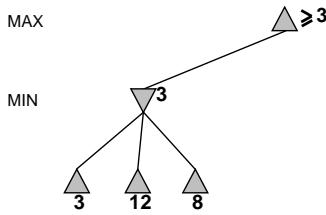
Properties of minimax

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

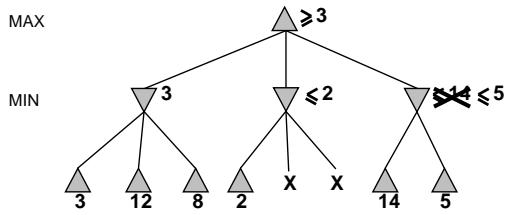
For chess, $b \approx 35$, $m \approx 100$ for “reasonable” games
⇒ exact solution completely infeasible

But do we need to explore every path?

α - β pruning example



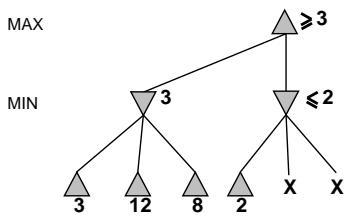
α - β pruning example



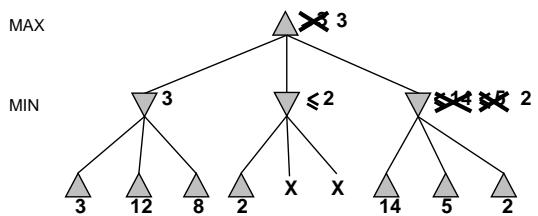
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α - β pruning example



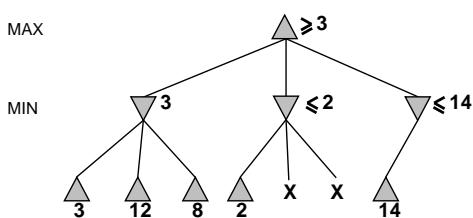
α - β pruning example



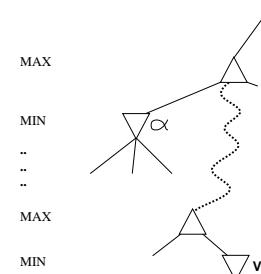
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α - β pruning example



Why is it called α - β ?



α is the best value (to MAX) found so far off the current path

If v is worse than α , MAX will avoid it \Rightarrow prune that branch

Define β similarly for MIN

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The α - β algorithm

```

function ALPHA-BETA-DECISION(state) returns an action
  return the a in ACTIONS(state) maximizing MIN-VALUE(RESULT(a, state))

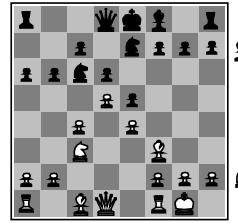
function MAX-VALUE(state,  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ) returns a utility value
  inputs: state, current state in game
     $\alpha$ , the value of the best alternative for MAX along the path to state
     $\beta$ , the value of the best alternative for MIN along the path to state
  if TERMINAL-TEST(state) then return UTILITY(state)
  v  $\leftarrow -\infty$ 
  for a, s in SUCCESSORS(state) do
    v  $\leftarrow \text{MAX}(v, \text{MIN-VALUE}(s, \alpha, \beta))$ 
    if v  $\geq \beta$  then return v
     $\alpha \leftarrow \text{MAX}(\alpha, v)$ 
  return v

function MIN-VALUE(state,  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ) returns a utility value
  same as MAX-VALUE but with roles of  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  reversed

```

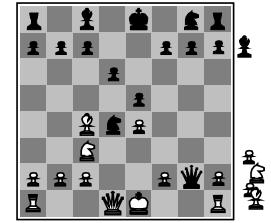
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Evaluation functions



Black to move

White slightly better



White to move

Black winning

For chess, typically linear weighted sum of features

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

e.g., $w_1 = 9$ with

$f_1(s) = (\text{number of white queens}) - (\text{number of black queens})$, etc.

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Properties of α - β

Pruning **does not** affect final result

Good move ordering improves effectiveness of pruning

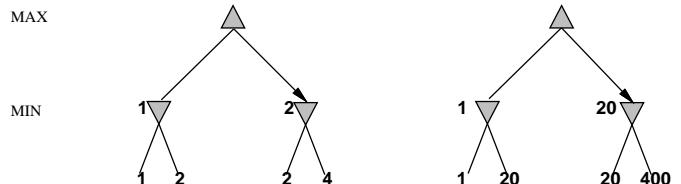
With "perfect ordering," time complexity = $O(b^{m/2})$
 \Rightarrow **doubles** solvable depth

A simple example of the value of reasoning about which computations are relevant (a form of **metareasoning**)

Unfortunately, 35^{50} is still impossible!

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Digression: Exact values don't matter



Behaviour is preserved under any **monotonic** transformation of EVAL

Only the order matters:

an **ordinal utility** function suffices for deterministic games

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Resource limits

Standard approach:

- Use CUTOFF-TEST instead of TERMINAL-TEST
 e.g., depth limit (perhaps add **quiescence search**)
- Use EVAL instead of UTILITY
 i.e., **evaluation function** that estimates desirability of position

Suppose we have 10^6 seconds, explore 10^4 nodes/second

$\Rightarrow 10^6$ nodes per move $\approx 35^{8/2}$

$\Rightarrow \alpha$ - β reaches depth 8 \Rightarrow pretty good chess program

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Deterministic games in practice

Checkers: Chinook ended 40-year-reign of human world champion Marion Tinsley in 1994. Used an endgame database defining perfect play for all positions involving 8 or fewer pieces on the board, a total of 443,748,401,247 positions. Exact solution imminent.

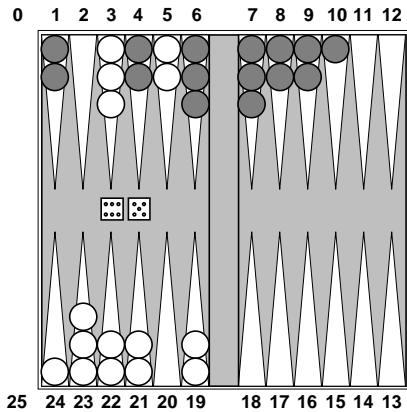
Chess: Deep Blue defeated human world champion Gary Kasparov in a six-game match in 1997. Deep Blue examined 200 million positions per second, used very sophisticated evaluation and undisclosed methods for extending some lines of search up to 40 ply.

Othello: human champions refuse to compete against computers, who are too good.

Go: human champions refuse to compete against computers, who are too bad. In go, $b > 300$, so most programs use pattern knowledge bases to suggest plausible moves.

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Nondeterministic games: backgammon



25 24 23 22 21 20 19 18 17 16 15 14 13

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Nondeterministic games in practice

Dice rolls increase b : 21 possible rolls with 2 dice
Backgammon \approx 20 legal moves (can be 6,000 with 1-1 roll)

$$\text{depth 4} = 20 \times (21 \times 20)^3 \approx 1.2 \times 10^9$$

As depth increases, probability of reaching a given node shrinks
 \Rightarrow value of lookahead is diminished

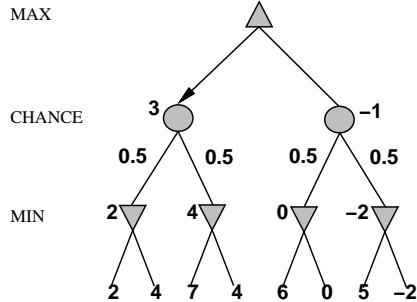
α - β pruning is much less effective

TDGAMMON uses depth-2 search + very good EVAL
 \approx world-champion level

Nondeterministic games in general

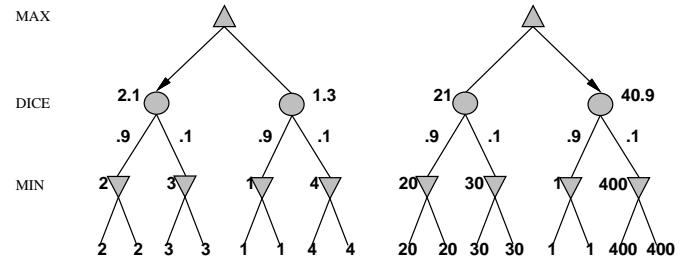
In nondeterministic games, chance introduced by dice, card-shuffling

Simplified example with coin-flipping:



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Digression: Exact values DO matter



Behaviour is preserved only by positive linear transformation of EVAL
Hence EVAL should be proportional to the expected utility

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Algorithm for nondeterministic games

EXPECTIMINIMAX gives perfect play

Just like MINIMAX, except we must also handle chance nodes:

```
...
if state is a MAX node then
    return the highest EXPECTIMINIMAX-VALUE of SUCCESSORS(state)
if state is a MIN node then
    return the lowest EXPECTIMINIMAX-VALUE of SUCCESSORS(state)
if state is a chance node then
    return average of EXPECTIMINIMAX-VALUE of SUCCESSORS(state)
...
```

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Games of imperfect information

E.g., card games, where opponent's initial cards are unknown

Typically we can calculate a probability for each possible deal

Seems just like having one big dice roll at the beginning of the game*

Idea: compute the minimax value of each action in each deal,
then choose the action with highest expected value over all deals*

Special case: if an action is optimal for all deals, it's optimal.*

GIB, current best bridge program, approximates this idea by

- 1) generating 100 deals consistent with bidding information
- 2) picking the action that wins most tricks on average

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Commonsense example

Road A leads to a small heap of gold pieces

Road B leads to a fork:

- take the left fork and you'll find a mound of jewels;
- take the right fork and you'll be run over by a bus.

Proper analysis

* Intuition that the value of an action is the average of its values in all actual states is **WRONG**

With partial observability, value of an action depends on the **information state** or **belief state** the agent is in

Can generate and search a tree of information states

Leads to rational behaviors such as

- ◊ Acting to obtain information
- ◊ Signalling to one's partner
- ◊ Acting randomly to minimize information disclosure

Commonsense example

Road A leads to a small heap of gold pieces

Road B leads to a fork:

- take the left fork and you'll find a mound of jewels;
- take the right fork and you'll be run over by a bus.

Road A leads to a small heap of gold pieces

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Commonsense example

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Road B leads to a fork:

- take the left fork and you'll be run over by a bus;
- take the right fork and you'll find a mound of jewels.

Road A leads to a small heap of gold pieces

Road B leads to a fork:

- guess correctly and you'll find a mound of jewels;
- guess incorrectly and you'll be run over by a bus.

Summary

Games are fun to work on! (and dangerous)

They illustrate several important points about AI

- ◊ perfection is unattainable \Rightarrow must approximate
- ◊ good idea to think about what to think about
- ◊ uncertainty constrains the assignment of values to states
- ◊ optimal decisions depend on information state, not real state

Games are to AI as grand prix racing is to automobile design