

Artificial Intelligence

ENCS 3340

Adversarial Search & Games

Game Playing and AI

👉 Why would game playing be a good problem for AI research?

➡ Game-playing is non-trivial

- Need to display “human-like” intelligence
- Some games (such as chess) are very complex
- Requires decision-making within a time-limit
 - More realistic than other search problems

➡ Games are played in a controlled environment

- Can do experiments, repeat games, etc
- Good for evaluating research systems

➡ Can compare humans and computers directly

- Can evaluate percentage of wins/losses to quantify performance

➡ All the information is available

- Human and computer have equal information

How Does a Computer Play a Game?

❑ A way to play a game is to:

- ➡ Consider all the legal moves you can make
- ➡ Compute the new position resulting from each move
- ➡ Evaluate each resulting position and determine which is best
- ➡ Make that move
- ➡ Wait for your opponent to move and repeat

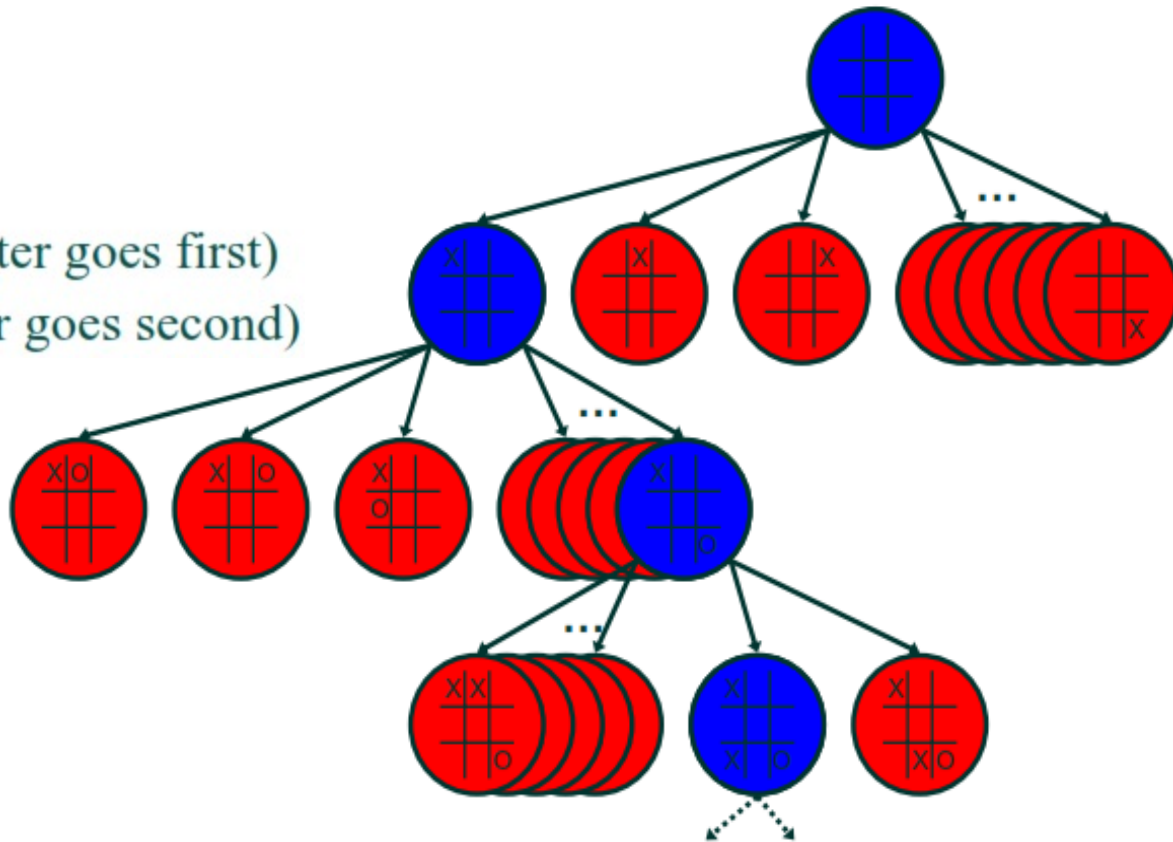
❑ Key problems are:

- ➡ Representing the “board”
- ➡ Generating all next legal boards
- ➡ Evaluating a position

Tic-Tac-Toe Game (X-O)

➡ Tic-Tac-Toe

- $b \sim 5$ legal moves,
- $d \sim$ total of 9 moves
- $5^9 = 1,953,125$
- $9! = 362,880$ (Computer goes first)
- $8! = 40,320$ (Computer goes second)



Game Playing: Adversarial Search

❑ Introduction

❑ **Adversarial:** involving two people or two sides who oppose each other

- Different kinds of games:

	Deterministic	Chance
Perfect Information	Chess, Checkers Go, Othello	Backgammon, Monopoly
Imperfect Information	Battleship	Bridge, Poker, Scrabble,

- Games with perfect information. No randomness is involved.
- Games with imperfect information. Random factors are part of the game.

Games as Adversarial Search

- many games can be formulated as search problems
- **Zero sum: my win is your loss, my loss is your win!**
- the zero-sum utility function leads to an adversarial situation
 - in order for one agent to win, the other necessarily has to lose
- factors complicating the search task
 - potentially huge search spaces
 - elements of chance
 - multi-person games, teams
 - time limits
 - imprecise rules

Difficulties with Games

- games can be very hard search problems
 - yet reasonably easy to formalize
 - finding the *optimal* solution may be impractical
 - a solution that beats the opponent is “good enough”
 - unforgiving
 - a solution that is “not good enough” not only leads to higher costs, but to a loss to the opponent
- example: chess
 - size of the search space
 - branching factor around 35
 - about 50 moves per player
 - about 35^{100} or 10^{154} nodes
 - about 10^{40} *distinct* nodes (size of the search graph)

Single-Person Game

- conventional search problem
 - identify a sequence of moves that leads to a winning state
 - examples: Solitaire, dragons and dungeons, Rubik's cube
 - little attention in AI
- some games can be quite challenging
 - some versions of solitaire
 - a heuristic for Rubik's cube was found by the Absolver program

Searching in a two player game

- Traditional (single agent) search methods only consider how close the agent is to the goal state (e.g. best first search).
- In two player games, decisions of both agents have to be taken into account: a decision made by one agent will affect the resulting search space that the other agent would need to explore.
- Question: Do we have randomness here since the decision made by the opponent is NOT known in advance?
- 😊 No. Not if *all* the moves or choices that the opponent can make are finite and can be known in advance.

Searching in a two player game: Strategies

- Your Strategy for a move: you use the best strategy you can think of: depends on how “smart” you are
- What about opponent strategy?
- We don’t know exactly: could be a **NOVICE**, could be a **MASTER**
- Which is safer:
 - To assume that the opponent is a novice and may make dumb moves?
 - To assume that the opponent is very smart?
- Which is safer in a war:
 - To assume your opponent is weak
 - To assume your opponent is very strong?
- We assume that the opponent is as smart as possible, or as smart as we can think
- The opponent uses my own strategy for search (but in reverse):
 - If I try to **maximize MY** future choices in XO he tries to **minimize MY** chances.
 - ~~▪ If I try to **minimize HIS** future choices in XO he tries to **maximize HIS** chances.~~
 - I am **MAX**, he is **MIN**

Two Player Games: Evaluation Functions

- What an evaluation function could be: an assessment of my chances to win:
 - Chess: # of my figures - # of opponent figures (maybe weighted)
 - Tic_tac_Toe: number of open chances for me – number of opponent's chances
 - General: Something that is good for me when higher and good for opponent when lower: recall: I am MAX and he is MIN and we have **ONLY ONE** Evaluation Function!
 - Evaluation function is supposed to give an impression of how close MAX is to the goal: the higher the closer:
 - do you agree that the above have this property?

Two Player Games: Evaluation Functions

- **The deeper you go: the more steps you imagine searching, the more accurate your evaluation function gets (getting closer to goal).**
- So it is good to do the computation (of evaluation function) at the deepest possible level and then see how to act now to reach there: but that is costly and time consuming
- We need a compromise! Look ahead at a limited depth!: modest computation, modest knowledge about position:
- Can be better, can be worse: a COMPROMISE!

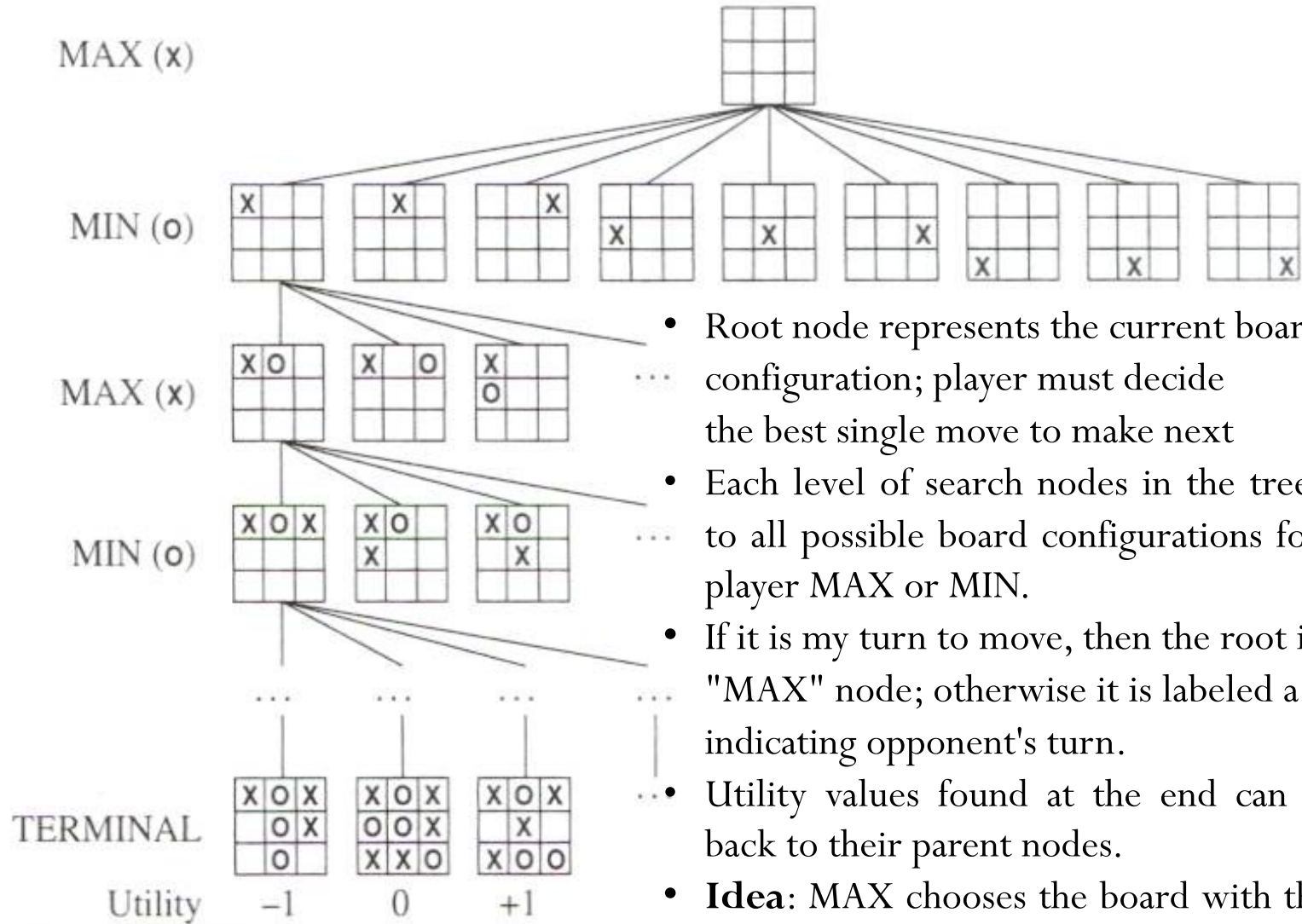
Searching in a two player game

To formalize a two player game as a search problem an agent can be called **MAX** and the opponent can be called **MIN**.

Problem Formulation:

- **Initial state:** board configurations and the player to move.
- **Successor function:** list of pairs (move, state) specifying legal moves and their resulting states. (moves + initial state = game tree)
- **A terminal test:** decide if the game has finished.
- **A utility function:** produces a numerical value for (only) the terminal states. Example: In chess, outcome = win/loss/draw, with values +1, -1, 0 respectively.
- Players need search tree to determine next move.

Partial game tree for Tic-Tac-Toe



- Root node represents the current board configuration; player must decide the best single move to make next
- Each level of search nodes in the tree corresponds to all possible board configurations for a particular player MAX or MIN.
- If it is my turn to move, then the root is labeled a "MAX" node; otherwise it is labeled a "MIN" node, indicating opponent's turn.
- Utility values found at the end can be returned back to their parent nodes.
- **Idea:** MAX chooses the board with the max utility value, MIN the minimum.

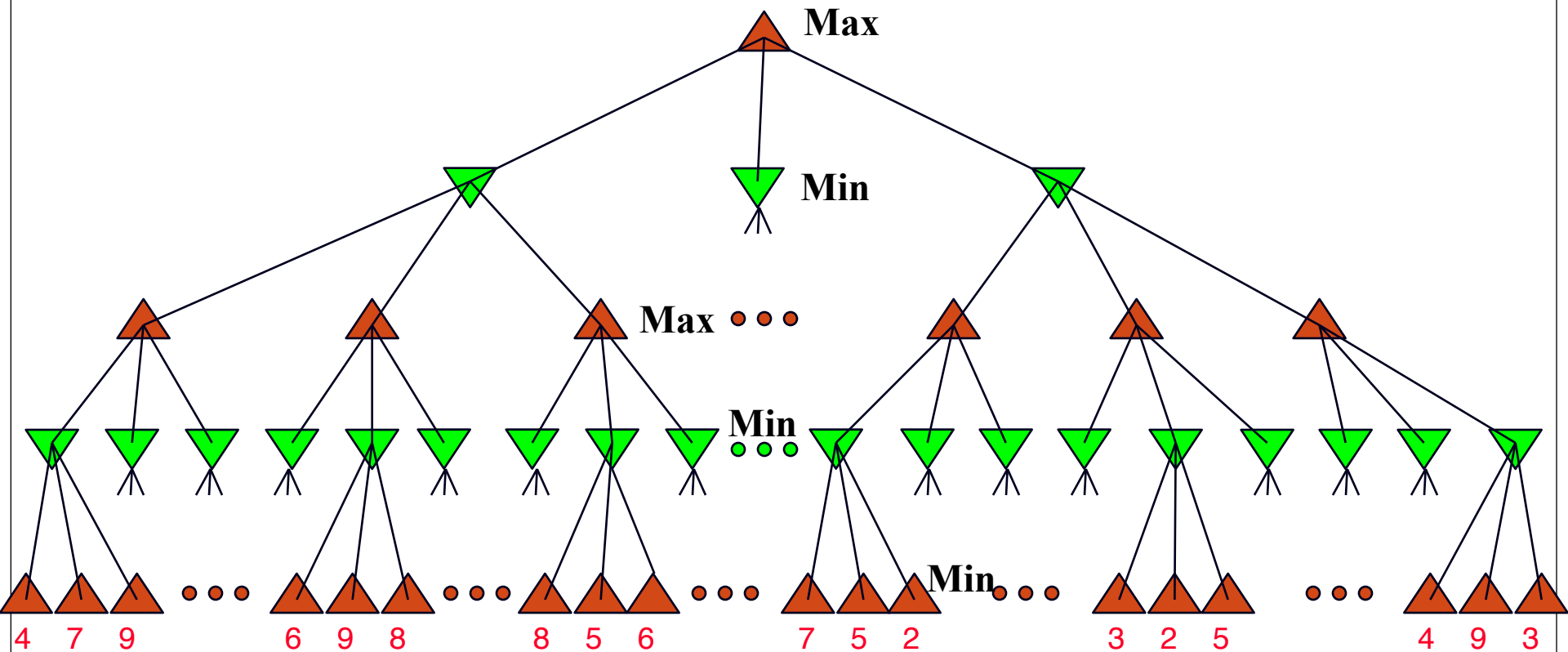
MiniMax (MinMax, MM) Algorithm

- *An algorithm to search trees representing two-player zero-sum (my gain your loss) games.*
- *Goal: minimizing the possible loss for a worst case (maximum loss) scenario.*
- *Or maximize the minimum gain. Guaranteed: no matter what: how opponent plays: worst case scenario: gain can be MORE, never less*
- *Result: one move (one level down) then the process starts again.*
- *For this one move you may explore as many nodes as you have time for!*
- *MIN works in opposite direction to MAX*
- *Then work is repeated*

MiniMax Algorithm

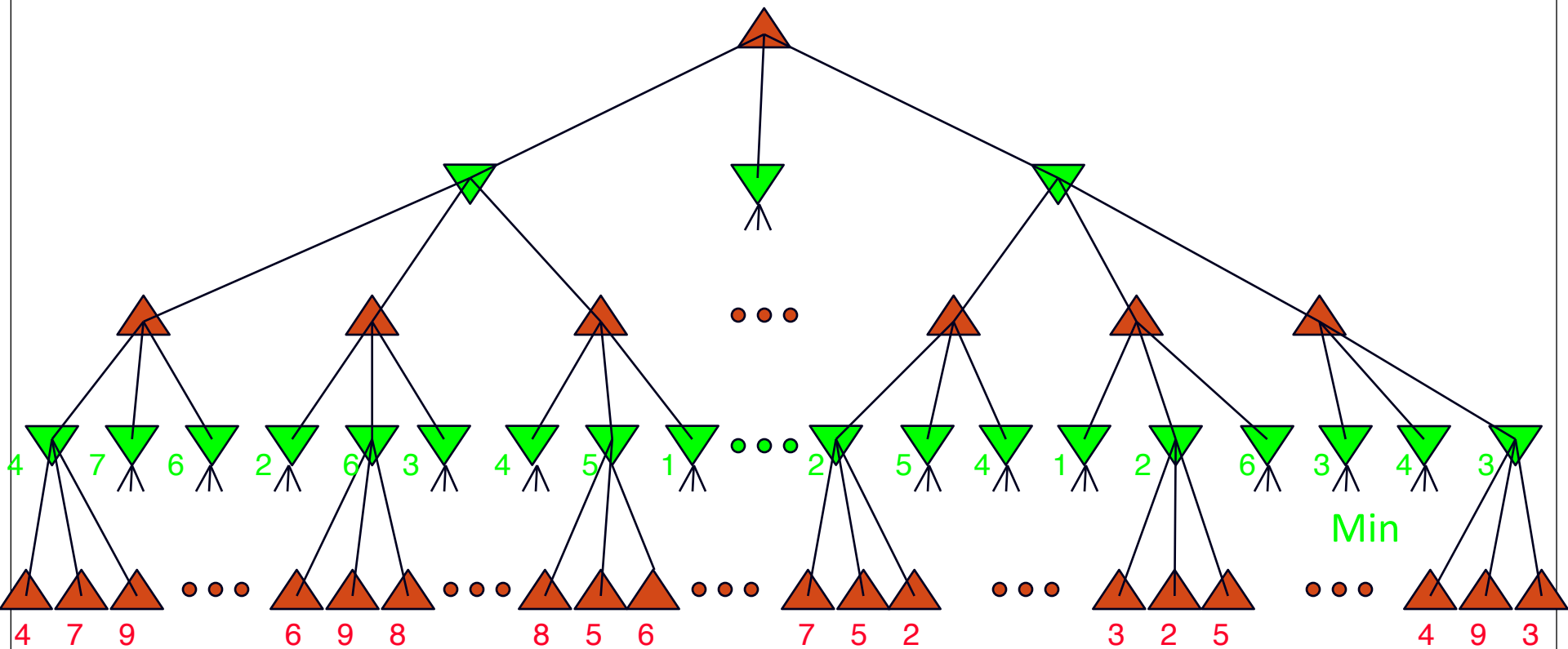
- ❑ Create start node as a **MAX** node with current board configuration
- ❑ Expand nodes down to some **depth** of lookahead in the game
- ❑ Apply the evaluation function at each of the leaf nodes
- ❑ “**Back up**” values for each of the non-leaf nodes until a value is computed for the root node.
 - At **MIN** nodes, the backed-up value is the **minimum** of the values associated with its children.
 - At **MAX** nodes, the backed-up value is the **maximum** of the values associated with its children.
- ❑ Pick the operator associated with the child node whose backed-up value determined the value at the root.

MiniMax Example



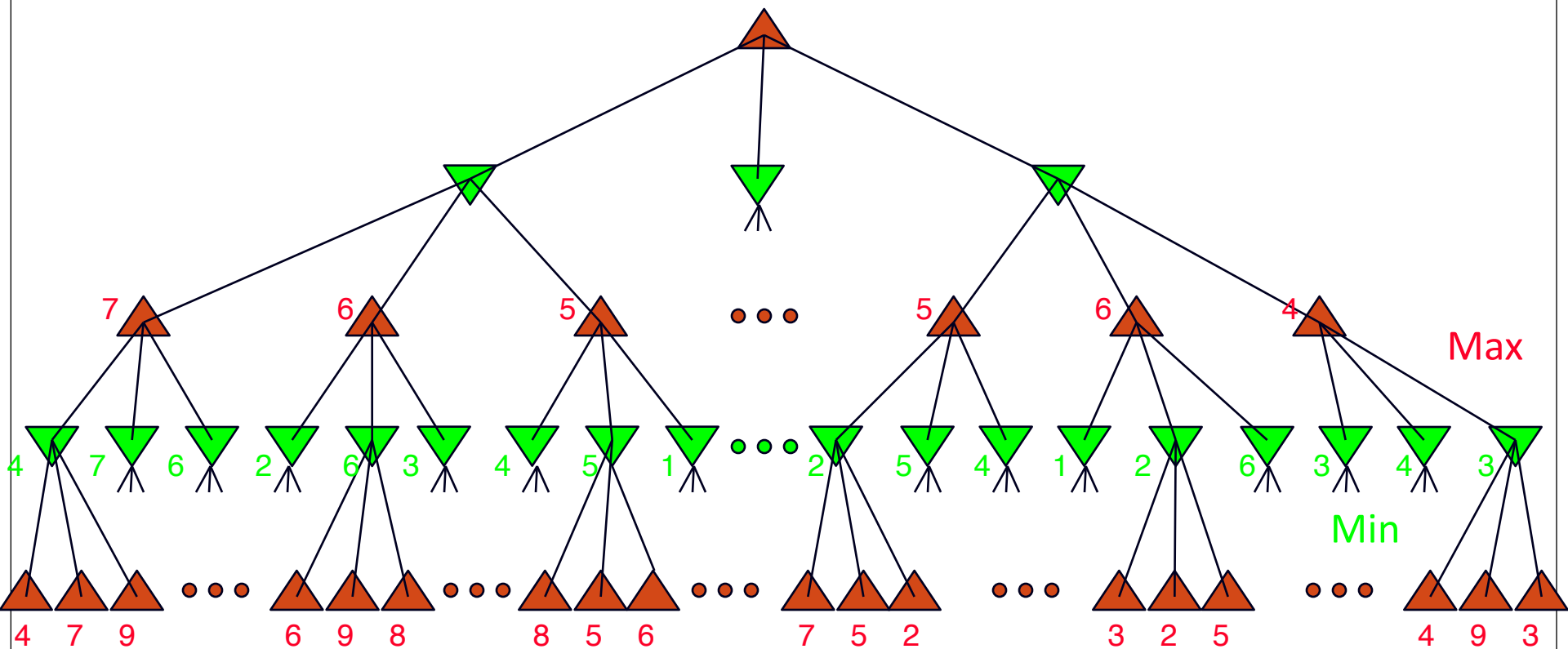
terminal nodes: values calculated from the utility function

MiniMax Example

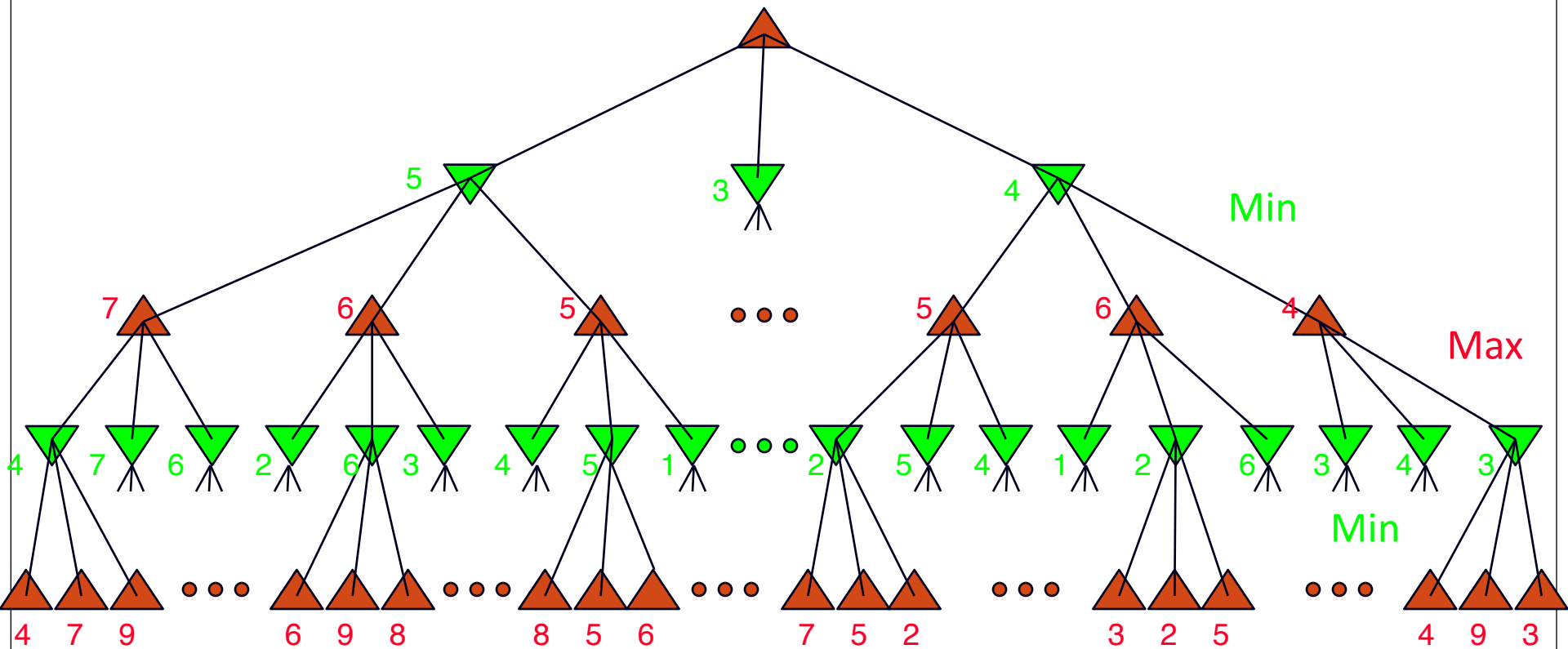


other nodes: values calculated via minimax algorithm

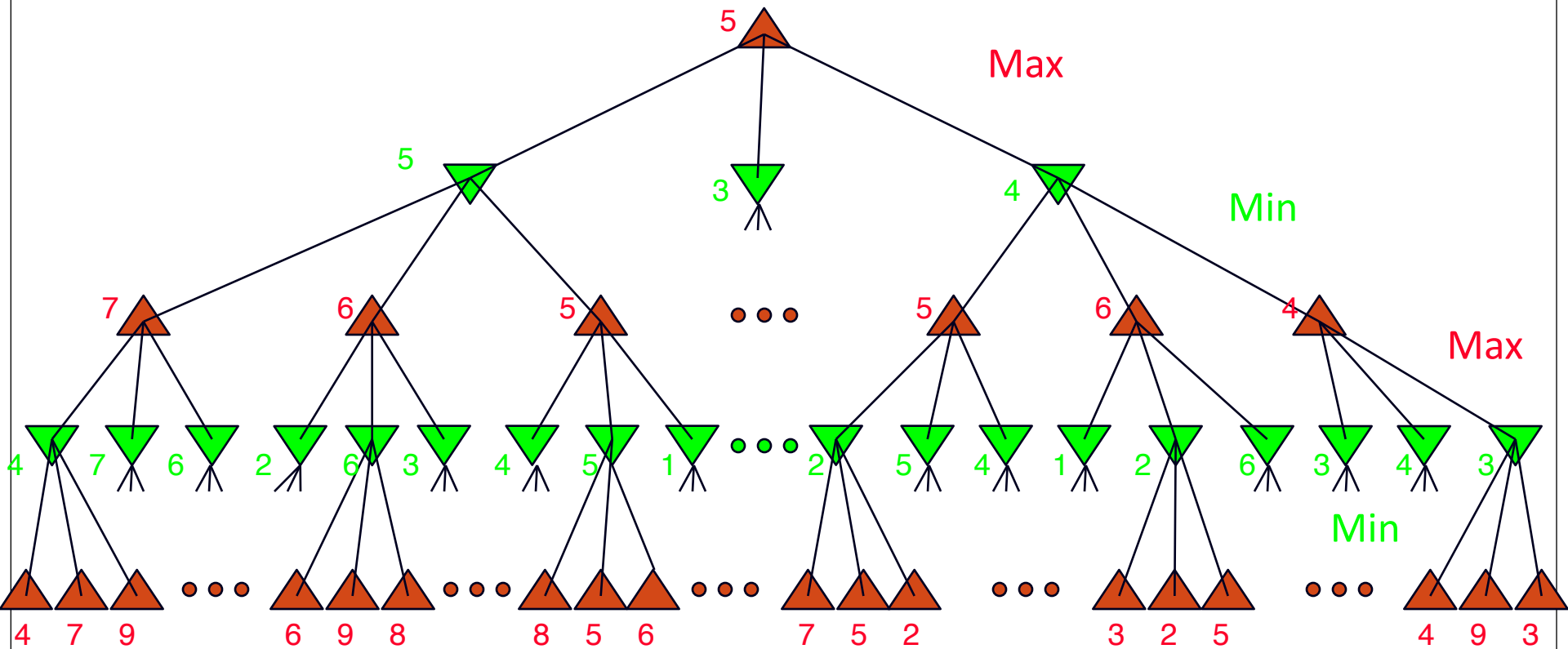
MiniMax Example



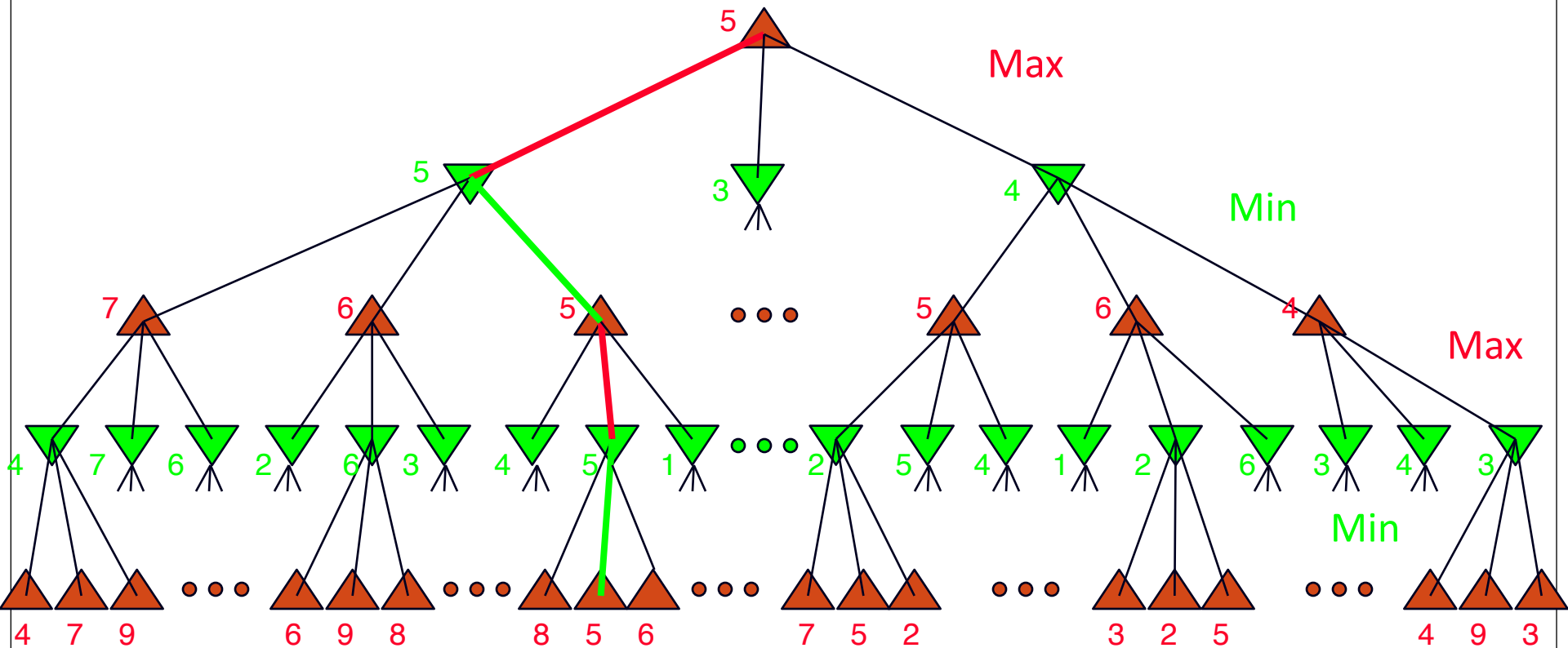
MiniMax Example



MiniMax Example



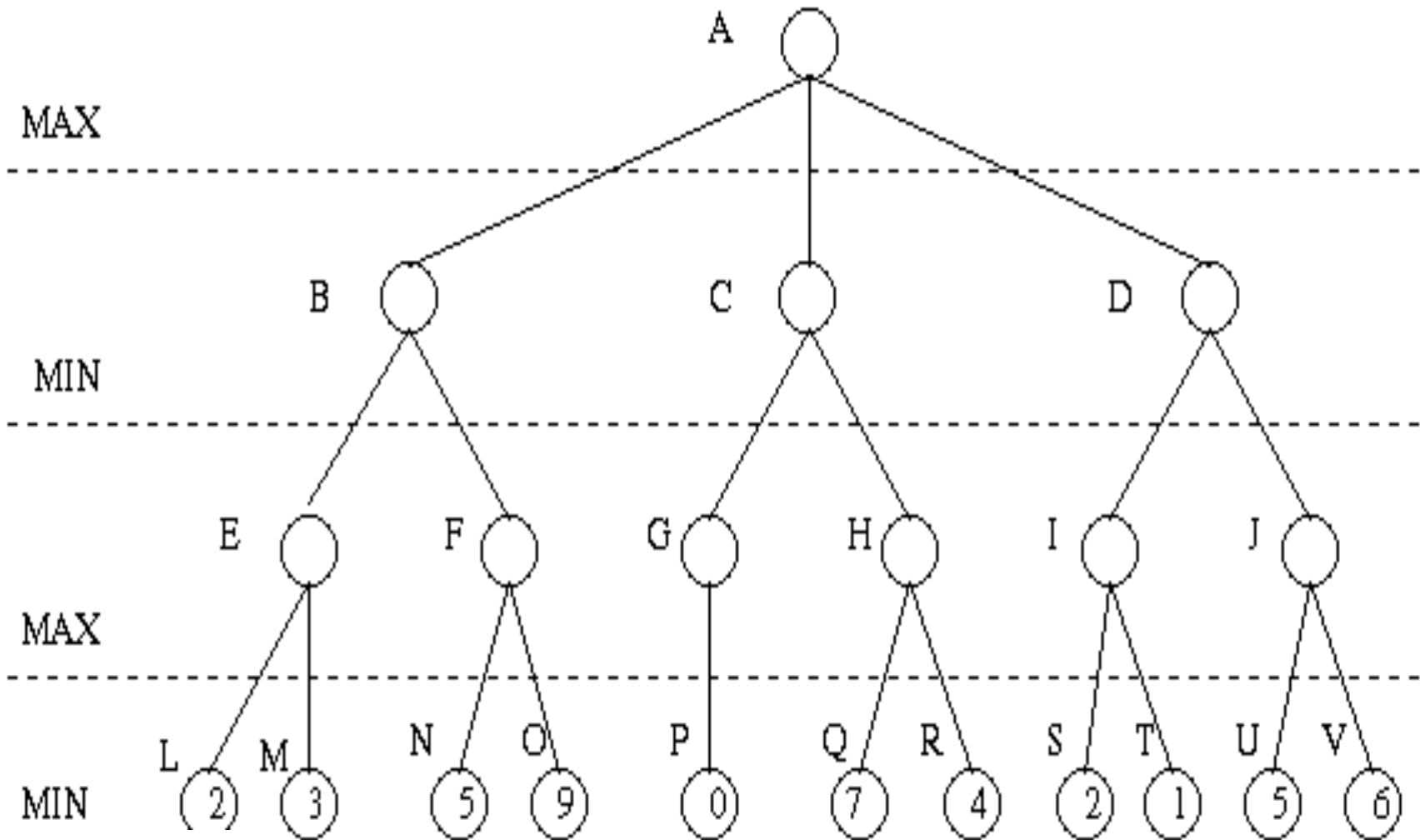
MiniMax Example



moves by Max and countermoves by Min

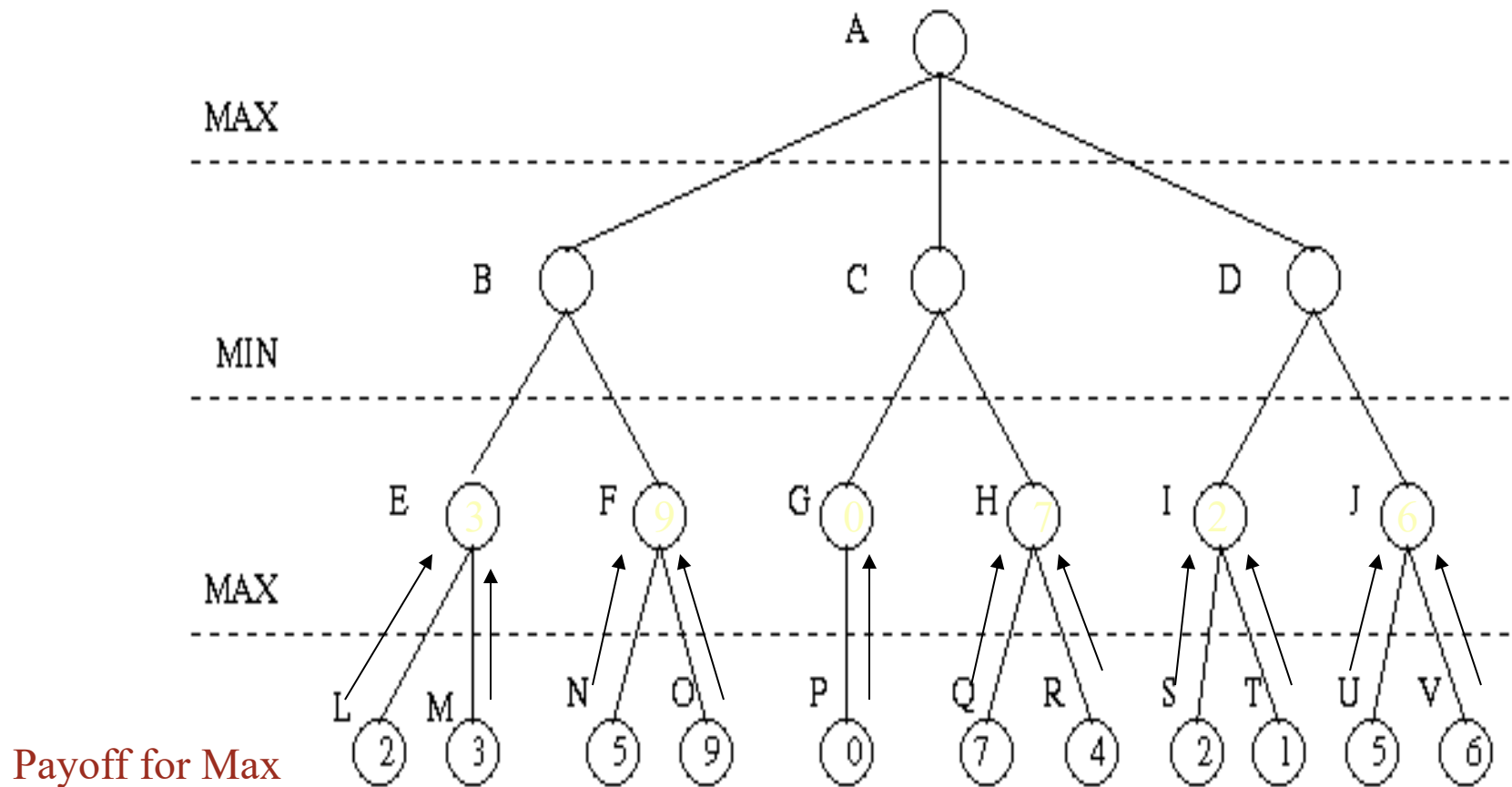
Question: can I gain less than 5 if I take a move?

Minimax Algorithm

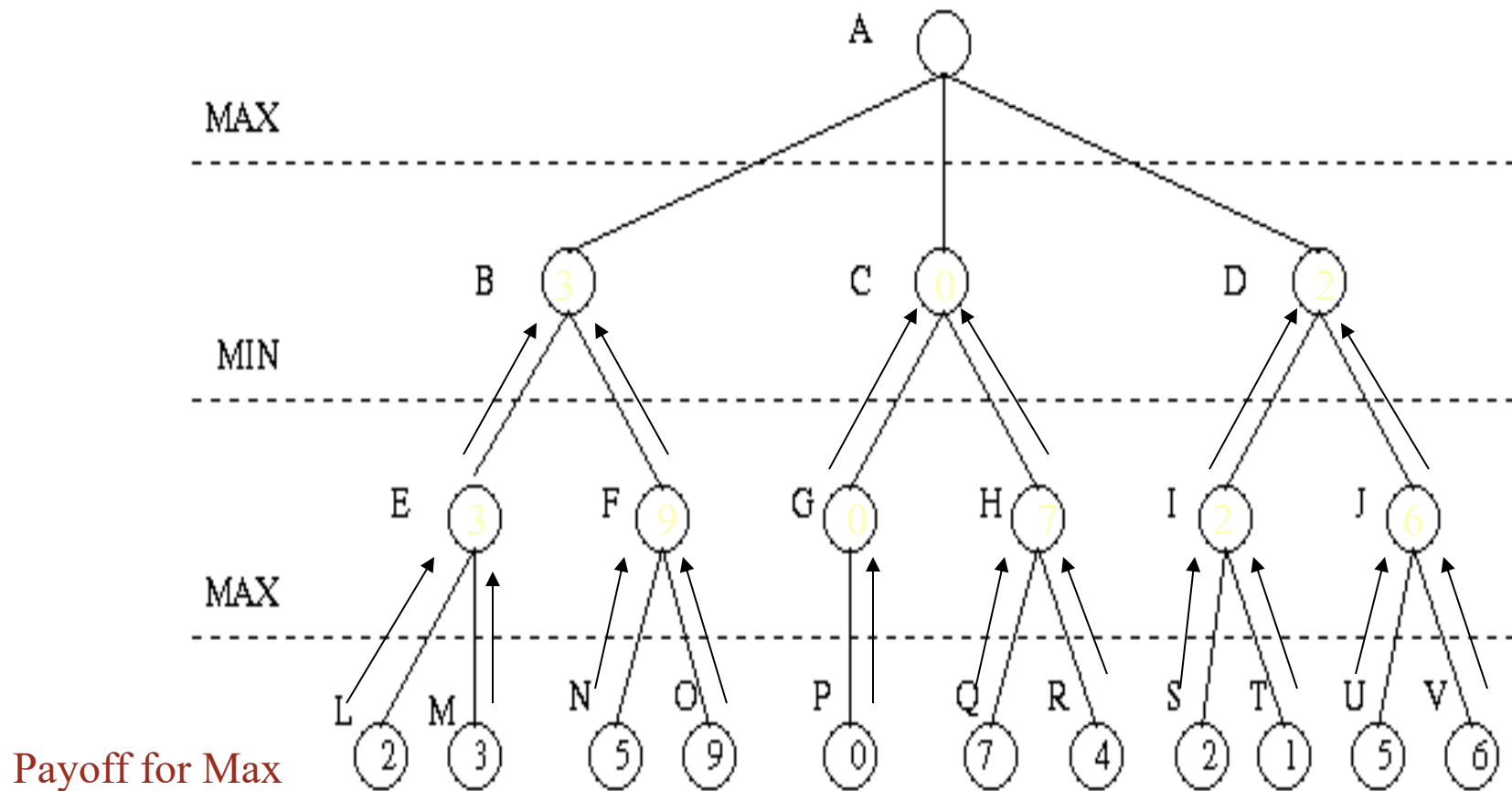


Payoff for Max

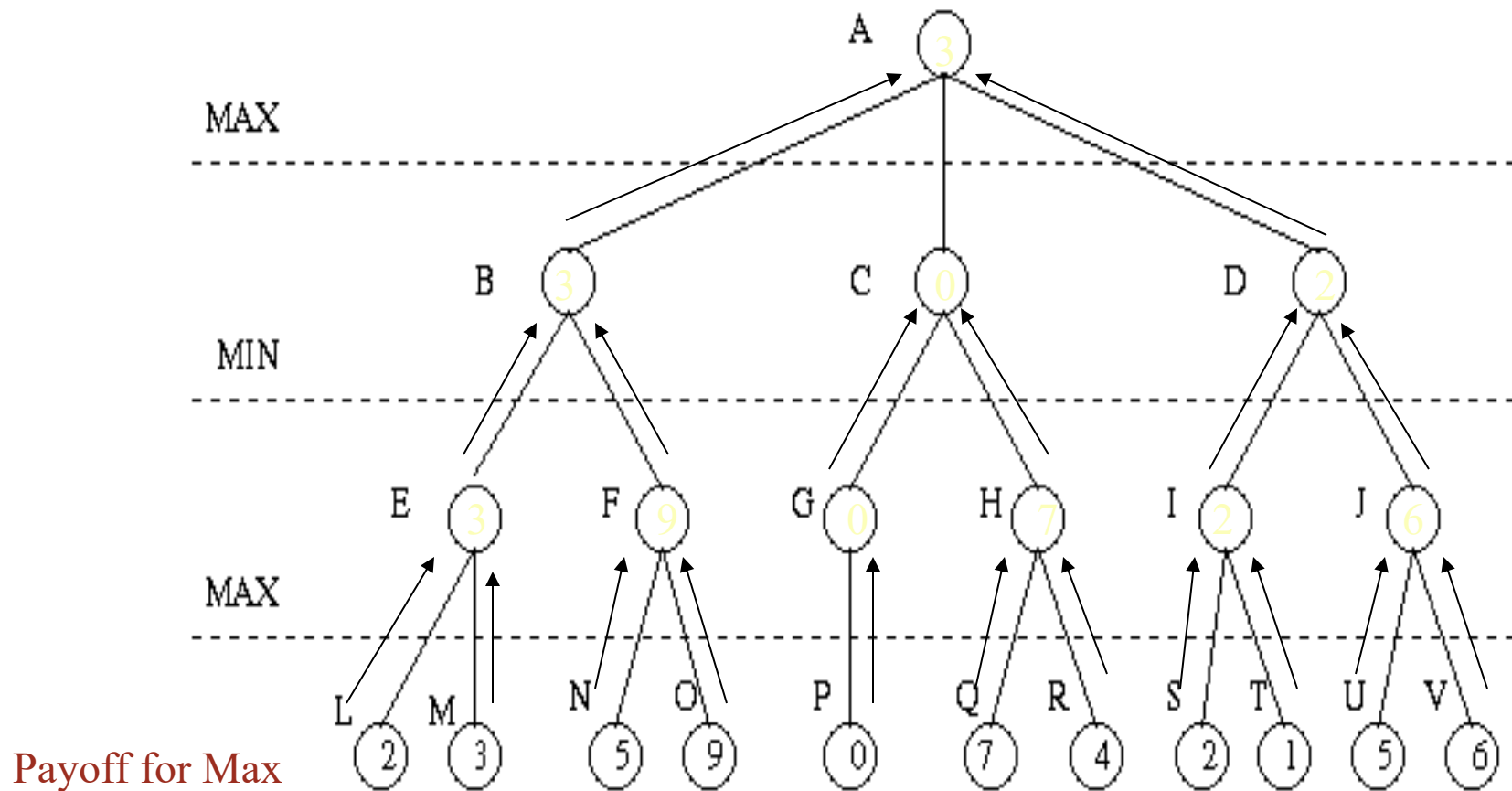
Minimax Algorithm (cont'd)



Minimax Algorithm (cont'd)



Minimax Algorithm (cont'd)



MiniMax Properties

Assume all terminal states are at depth d

👉 Space complexity?

Depth-first search, so $O(bd)$

👉 Time complexity?

Given branching factor b , so $O(b^d)$

* Time complexity is a major problem!

Computer typically only has a finite amount of time to make a move.

❑ Direct mini-max also is impractical in practice

* **Static Board Evaluator (SBE)** function

Uses heuristics to estimate the value of non-terminal states.

Pruning

- ❑ **Discards parts of the search tree**
 - Guaranteed not to contain good moves
 - Guarantee that the solution is not in that branch or sub-tree
 - If both players make optimal decisions, they will never end up in that part of the search tree
- ❑ **Use **pruning** to ignore those branches.**
- ❑ **Certain moves are not considered**
 - Won't result in a better evaluation value than a move further up in the tree
 - They would lead to a less desirable outcome
- ❑ **Applies to moves by both players**
 - α (**alpha**) indicates the best choice for Max so far never decreases
 - Highest Evaluation value seen so far (initialize to -infinity)
 - β (**beta**) indicates the best choice for Min so far never increases
 - Lowest Evaluation value seen so far (initialize to +infinity)

Alpha-Beta Pruning

□ **Beta cutoff** pruning occurs when **maximizing**

if *child's alpha* \geq *parent's beta*

Stop expanding children. Why?

⇒ Opponent won't allow computer to take this move

□ **Alpha cutoff** pruning occurs when **minimizing**

if *parent's alpha* \geq *child's beta*

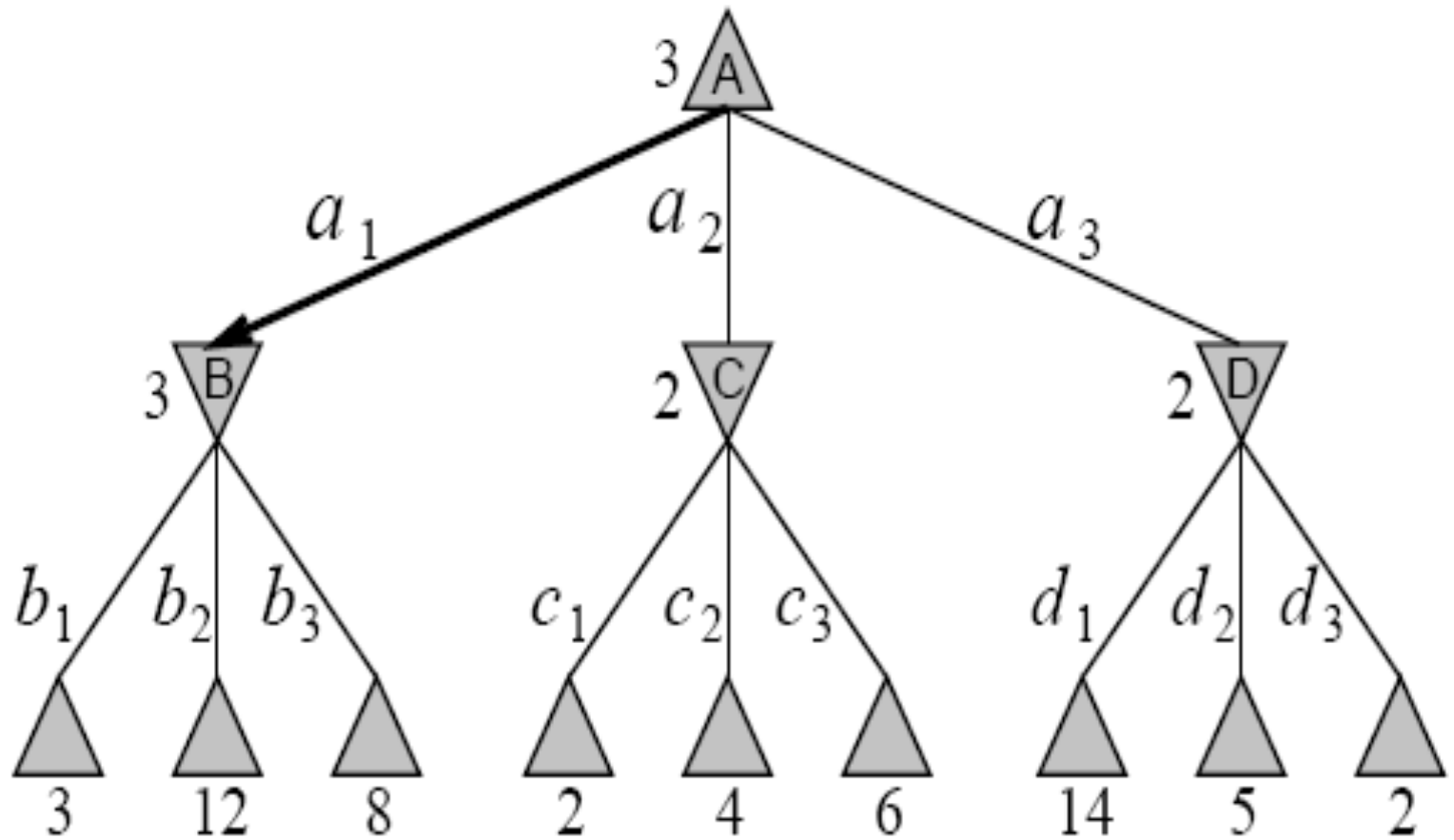
Stop expanding children. Why?

⇒ Computer has a better move than this

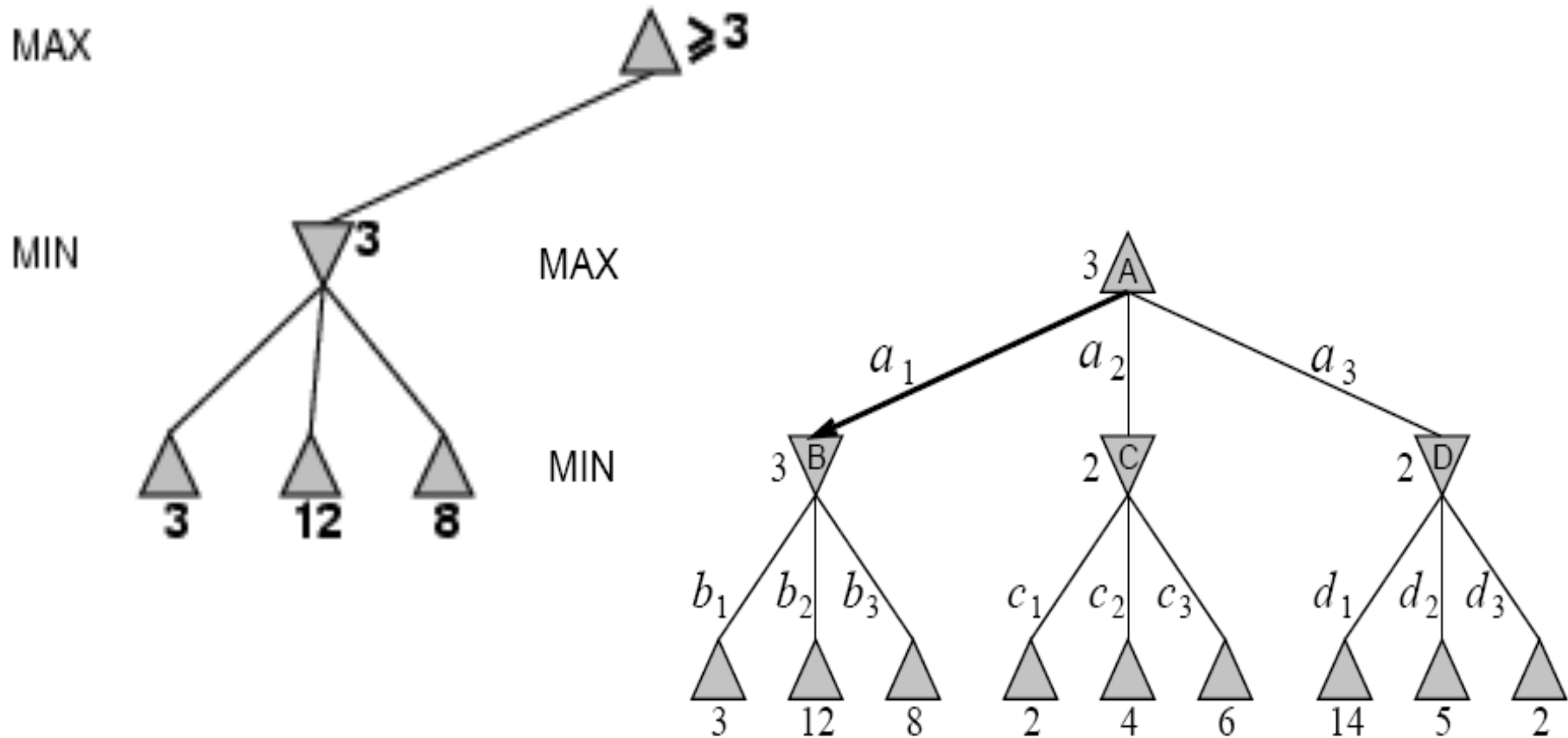
α - β Pruning Example

MAX

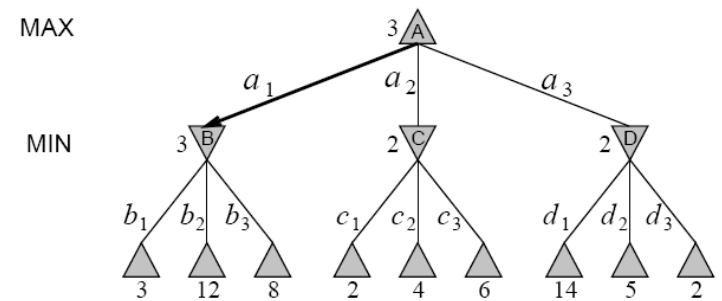
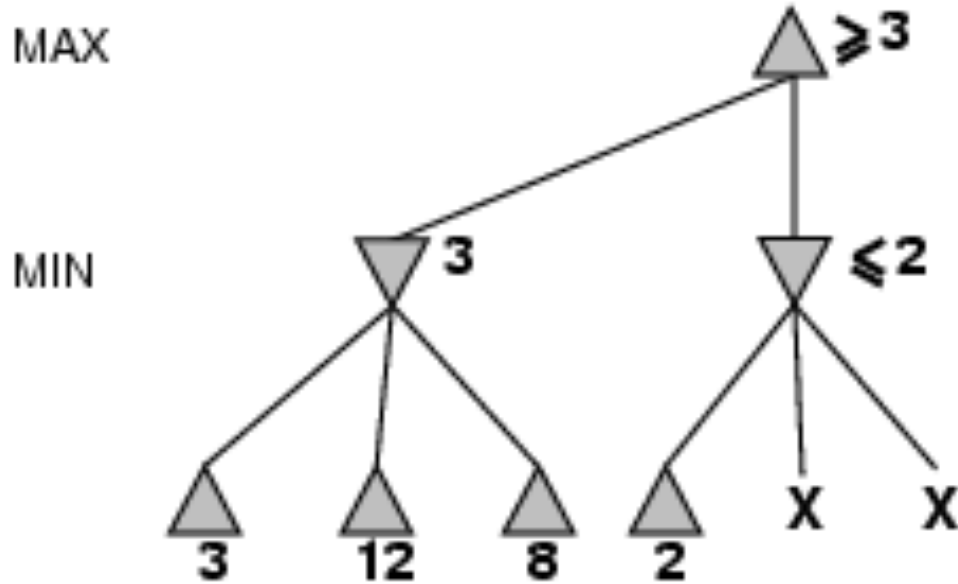
MIN



α - β Pruning Example



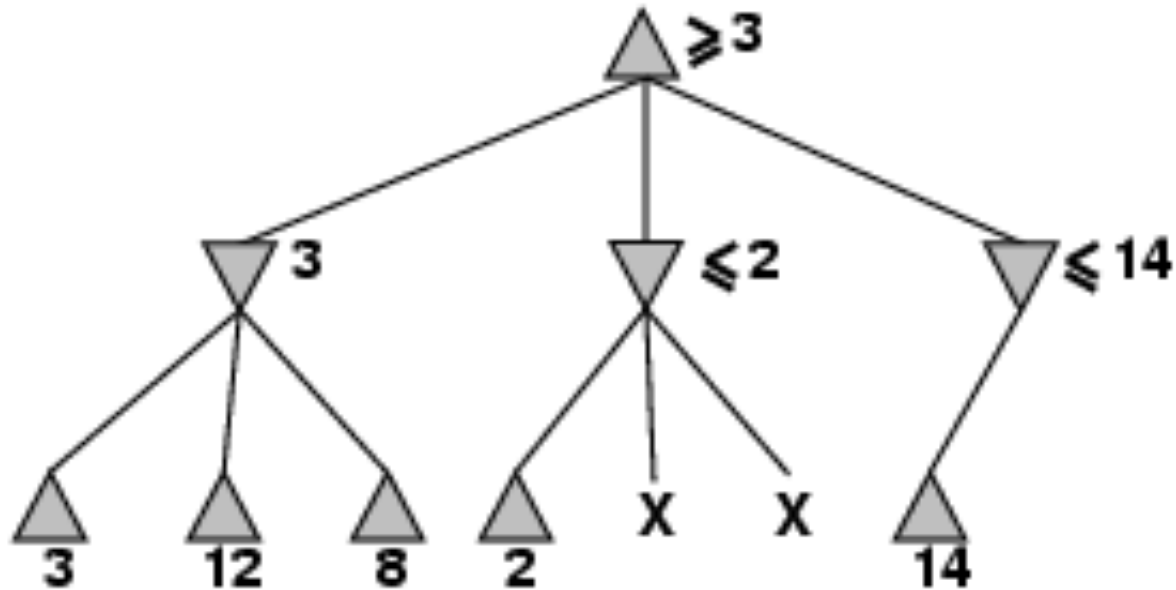
α - β Pruning Example (cont'd)



α - β Pruning Example (cont'd)

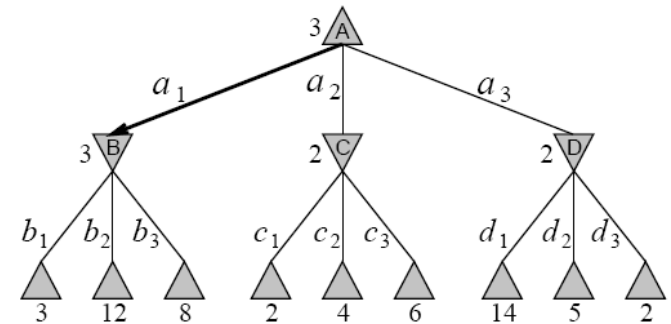
MAX

MIN

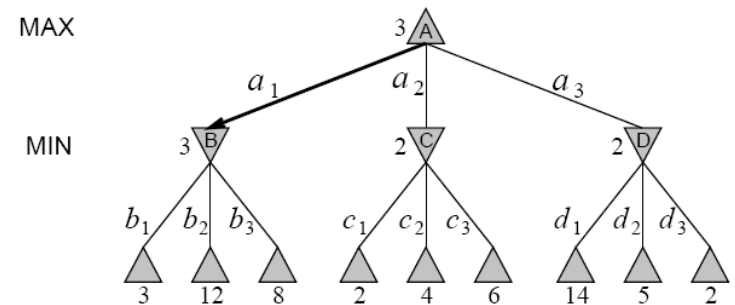
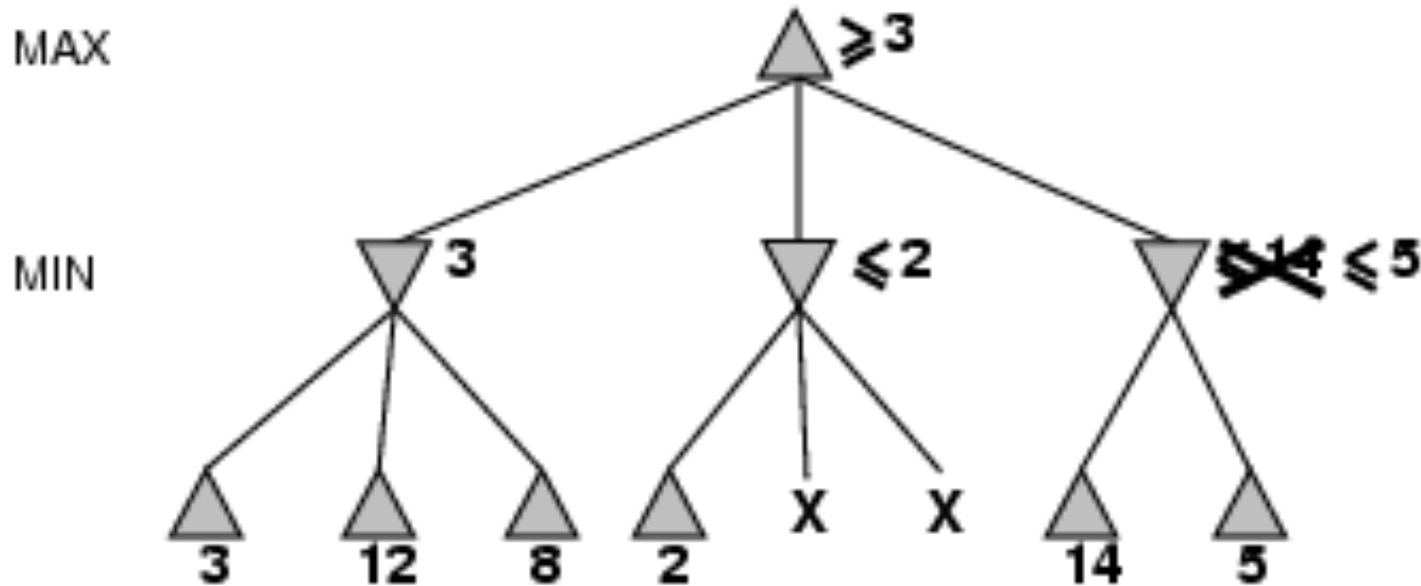


MAX

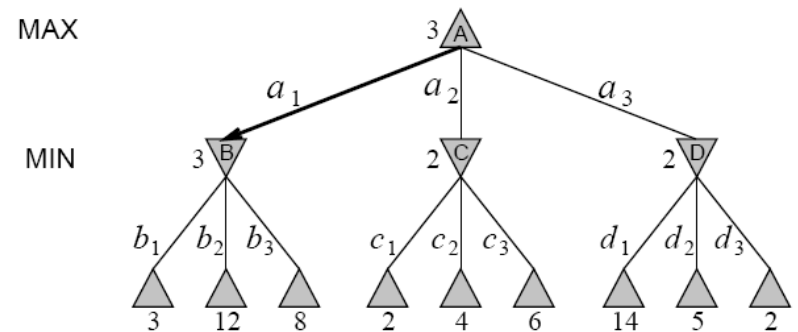
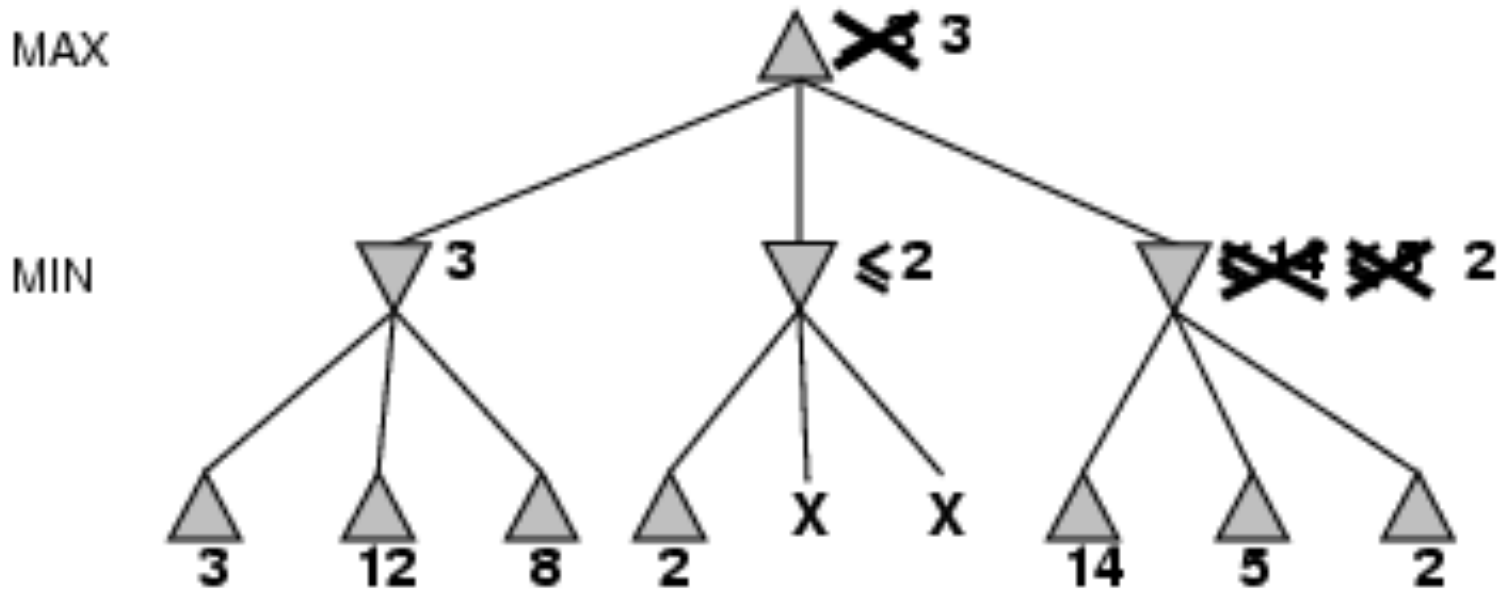
MIN



α - β Pruning Example (cont'd)



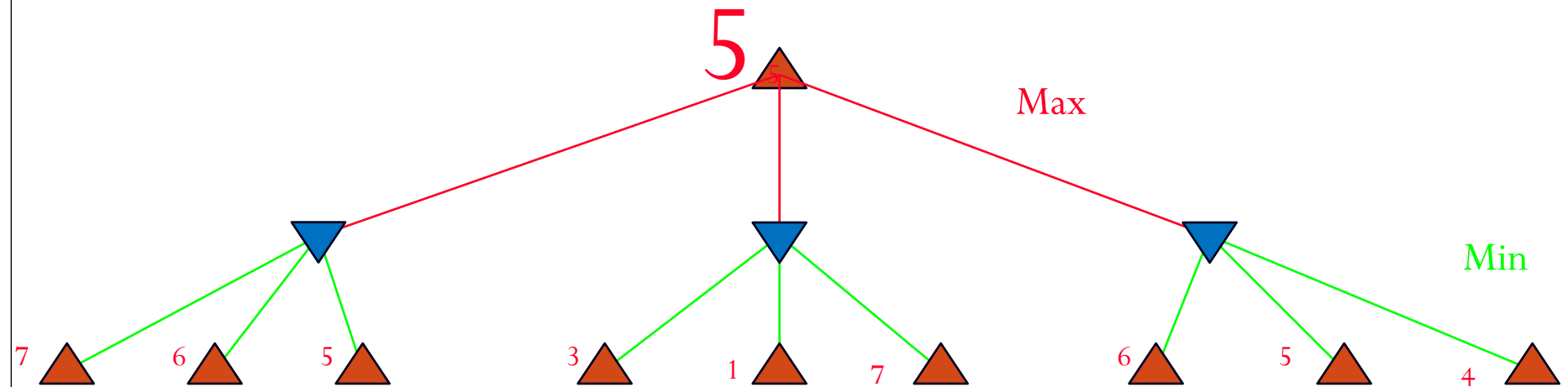
α - β Pruning Example (cont'd)



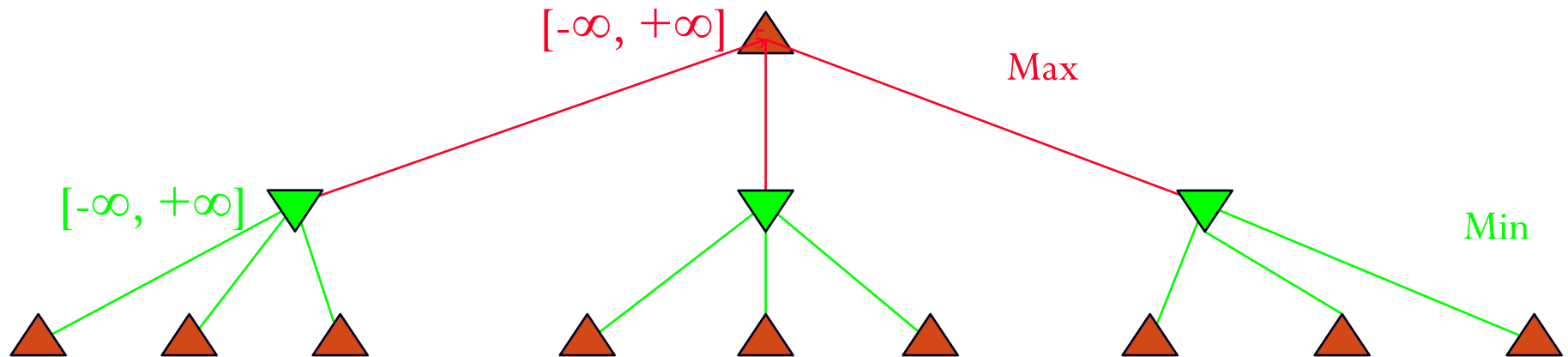
Alpha-Beta Pruning ($\alpha\beta$ prune)

- Rules of Thumb
 - α is the best (highest) found so far along the path for **Max**
 - β is the best (lowest) found so far along the path for **Min**
 - Search below a **MIN** node may be **alpha-pruned** if the its $\beta \leq \alpha$ of some **MAX** ancestor
 - Search below a **MAX** node may be **beta-pruned** if the its $\alpha \geq \beta$ of some **MIN** ancestor.

Consider this Example



Alpha-Beta Example 1

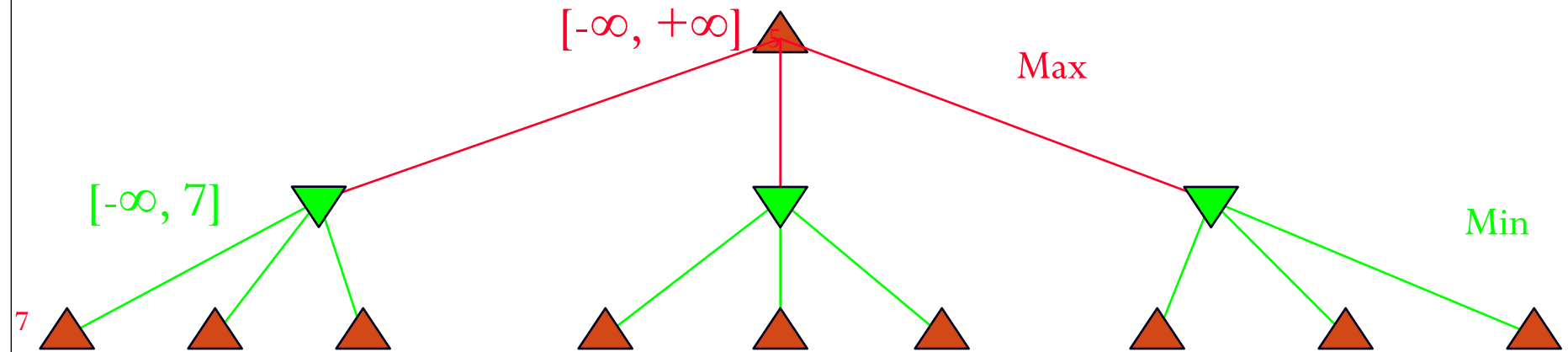


α best choice for Max ?

β best choice for Min ?

- we assume a depth-first, left-to-right search as basic strategy
- the range of the possible values for each node are indicated
 - initially $[-\infty, +\infty]$
 - from Max's or Min's perspective
 - these *local* values reflect the values of the sub-trees in that node; the *global* values α and β are the best overall choices so far for Max or Min

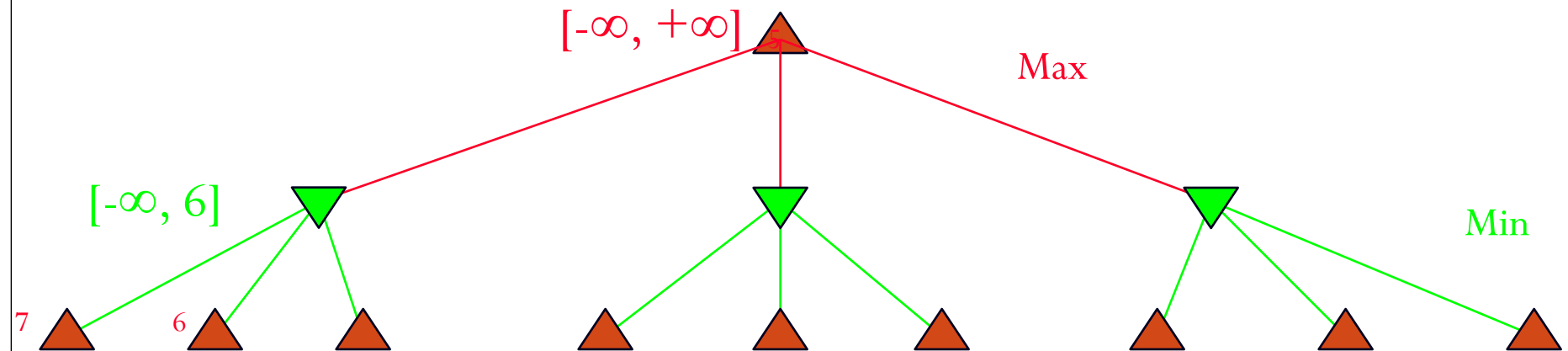
Alpha-Beta Example 2



α best choice for Max ?
 β best choice for Min 7

- Min obtains the first value from a successor node

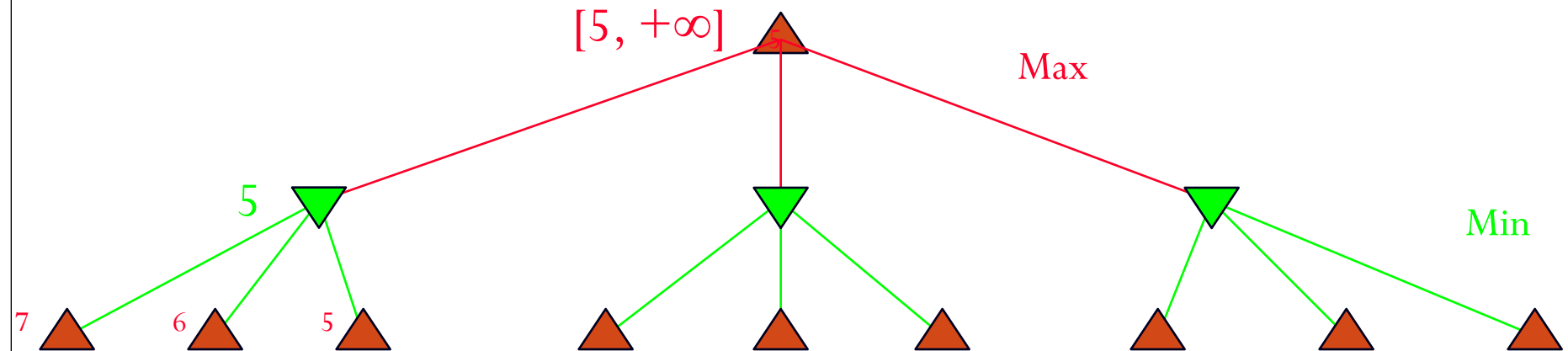
Alpha-Beta Example 3



α best choice for Max ?
 β best choice for Min 6

- Min obtains the second value from a successor node

Alpha-Beta Example 4

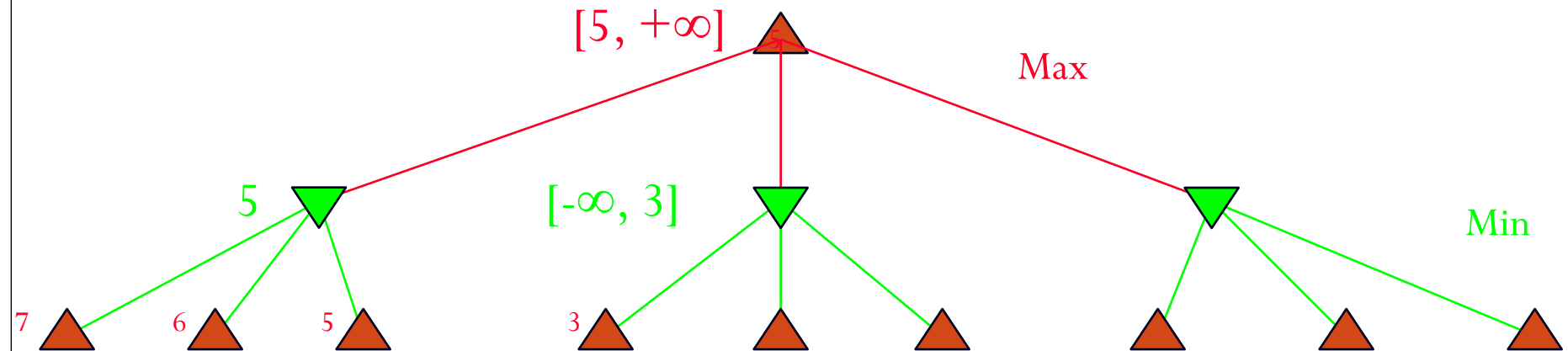


α best choice for Max 5

β best choice for Min 5

- Min obtains the third value from a successor node
- this is the last value from this sub-tree, and the exact value is known
- Max now has a value for its first successor node, but hopes that something better might still come

Alpha-Beta Example 5

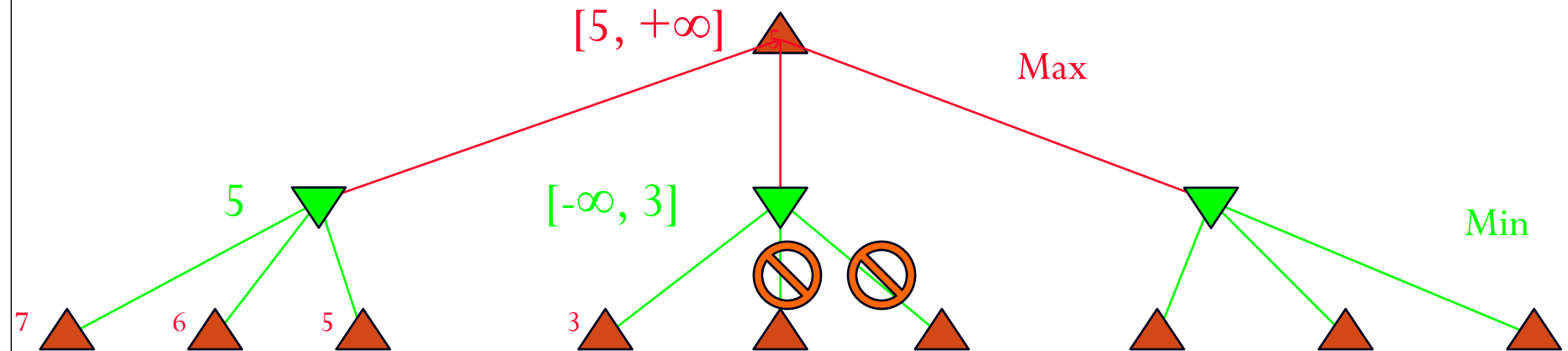


α best choice for Max 5

β best choice for Min 3

- Min continues with the next sub-tree, and gets a better value
- Max has a better choice from its perspective, however, and will not consider a move in the sub-tree currently explored by Min
 - initially $[-\infty, +\infty]$

Alpha-Beta Example 6



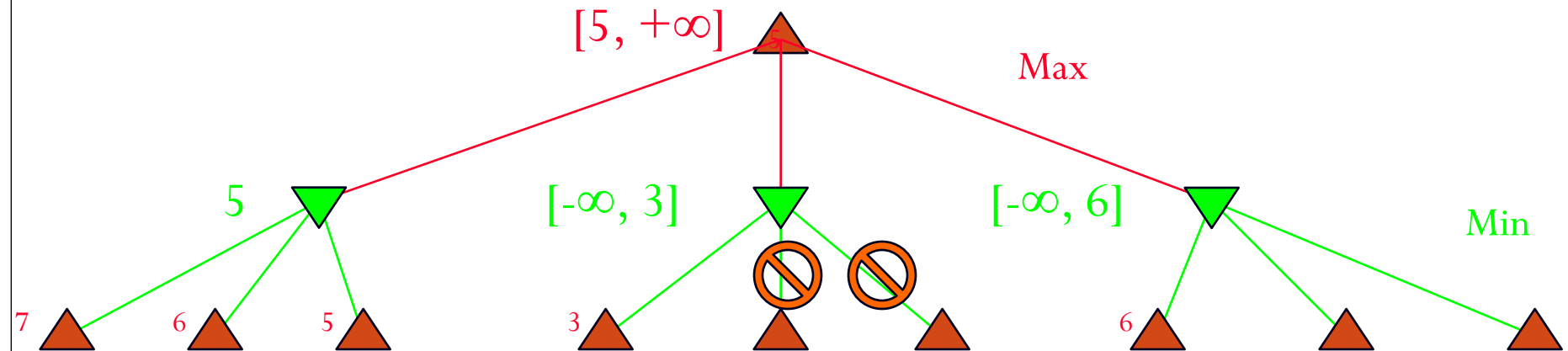
α best choice for Max 5

β best choice for Min 3

- Min knows that Max won't consider a move to this sub-tree, and abandons it
- this is a case of *pruning*, indicated by



Alpha-Beta Example 7

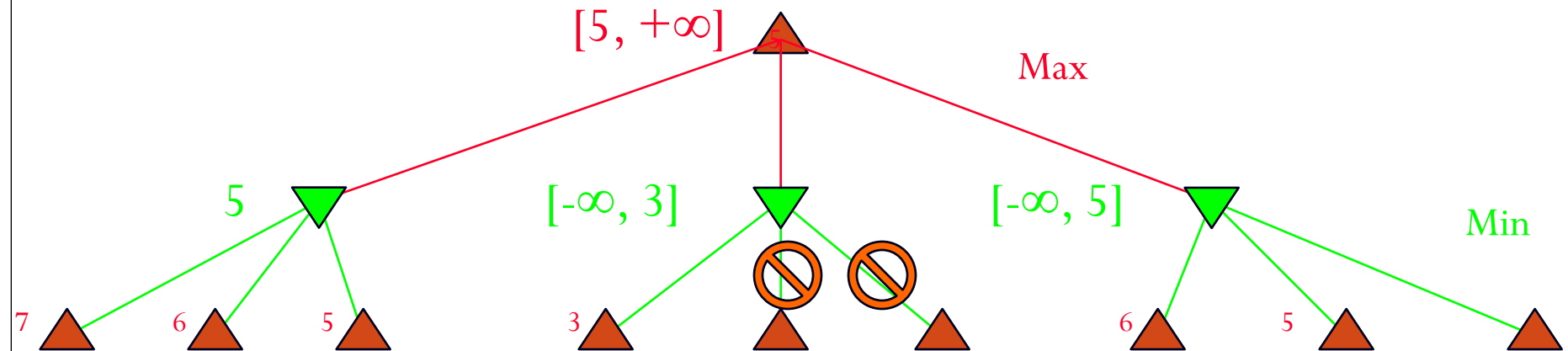


α best choice for Max 5

β best choice for Min 3

- Min explores the next sub-tree, and finds a value that is worse than the other nodes at this level
- if Min is not able to find something lower, then Max will choose this branch, so Min must explore more successor nodes

Alpha-Beta Example 8

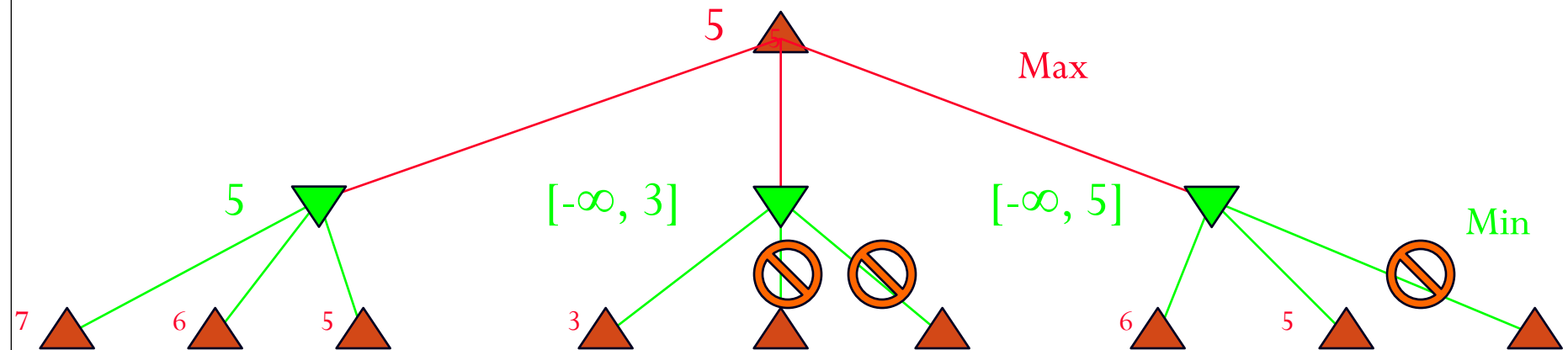


α best choice for Max 5

β best choice for Min 3

- Min is lucky, and finds a value that is the same as the current worst value at this level
- Max can choose this branch, or the other branch with the same value

Alpha-Beta Example 9



α best choice for Max 5

β best choice for Min 3

- Min could continue searching this sub-tree to see if there is a value that is less than the current worst alternative in order to give Max as few choices as possible
 - this depends on the specific implementation
- Max knows the best value for its sub-tree

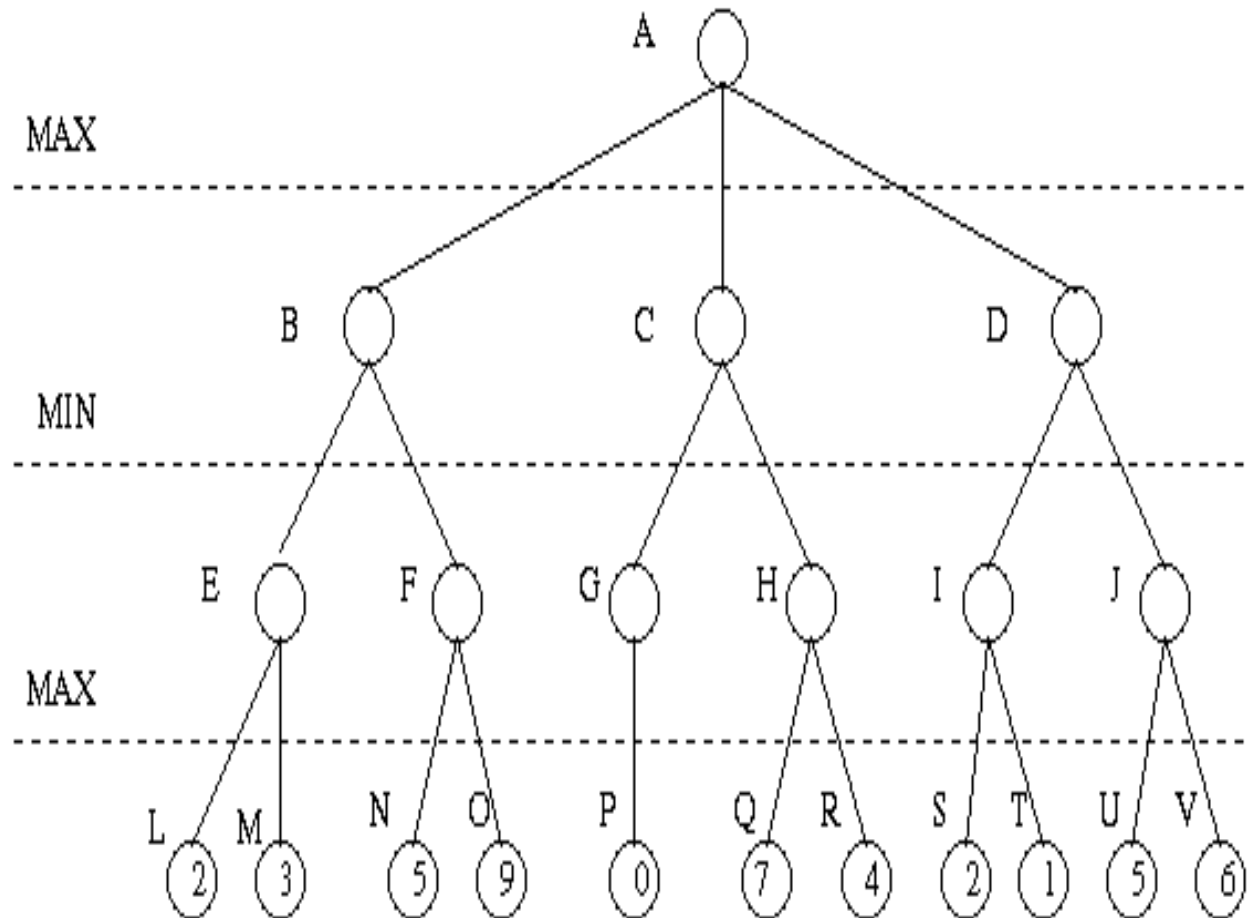
Properties of Alpha-Beta Pruning

- in the ideal case, the best successor node is examined first
 - results in $O(b^{d/2})$ nodes to be searched instead of $O(b^d)$
 - alpha-beta can look ahead twice as far as minimax
 - in practice, simple ordering functions are quite useful
- assumes an idealized tree model
 - uniform branching factor, path length
 - random distribution of leaf evaluation values
- transpositions tables can be used to store permutations
 - sequences of moves that lead to the same position
- requires additional information for good players
 - game-specific background knowledge
 - empirical data

Alpha-Beta Pruning Example

1. Search below a MIN node may be alpha-pruned if the beta value is \leq to the alpha value of some MAX ancestor.

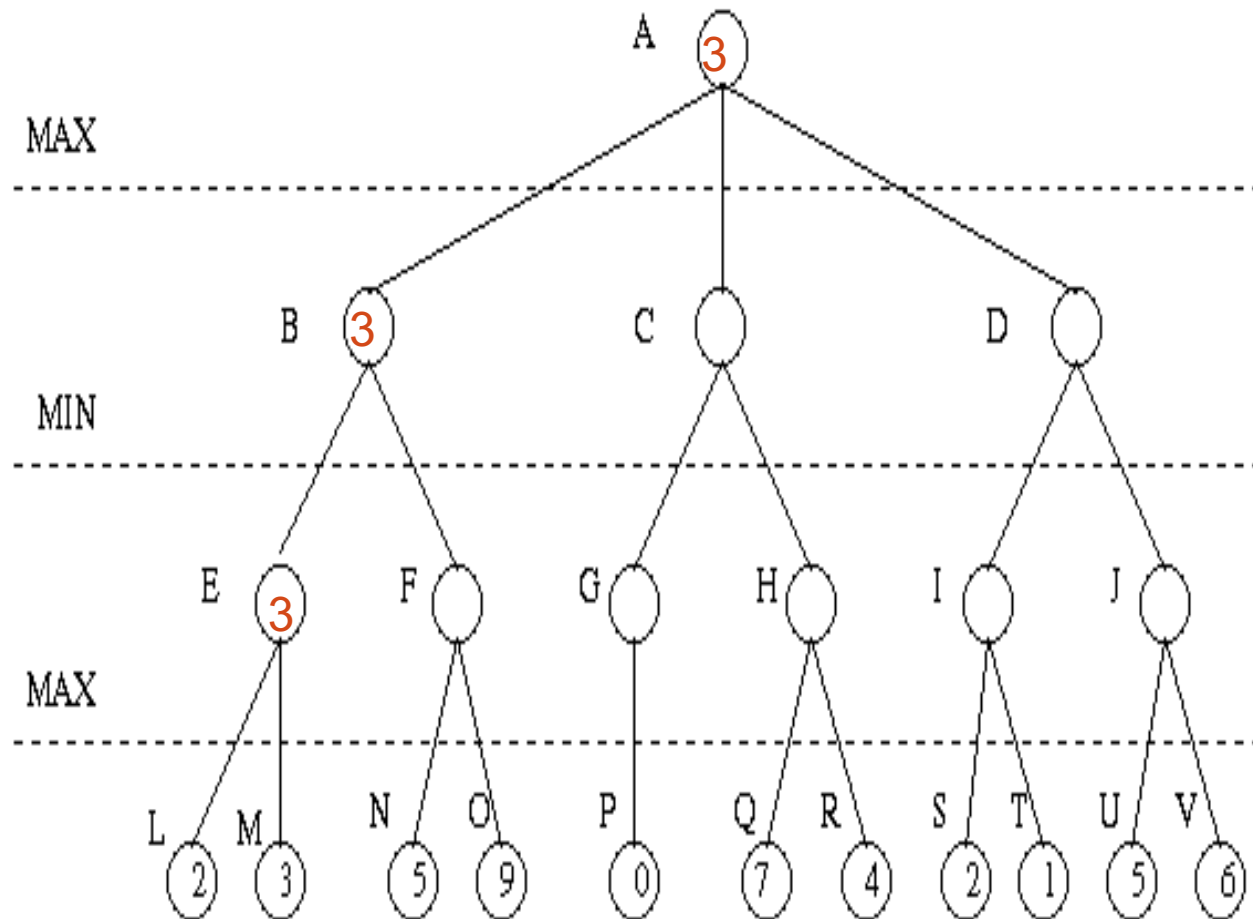
2. Search below a MAX node may be beta-pruned if the alpha value is \geq to the beta value of some MIN ancestor.



Alpha-Beta Pruning Example

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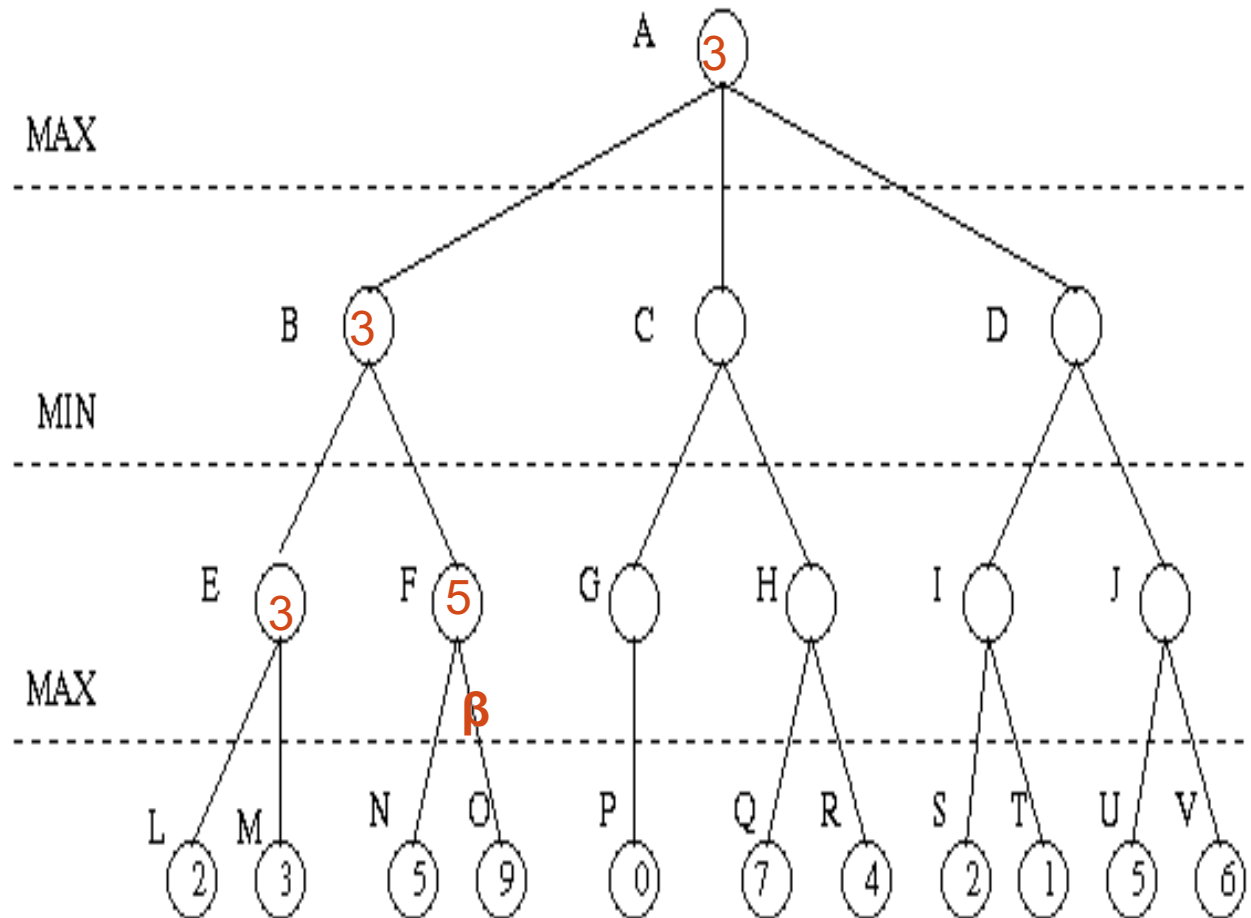
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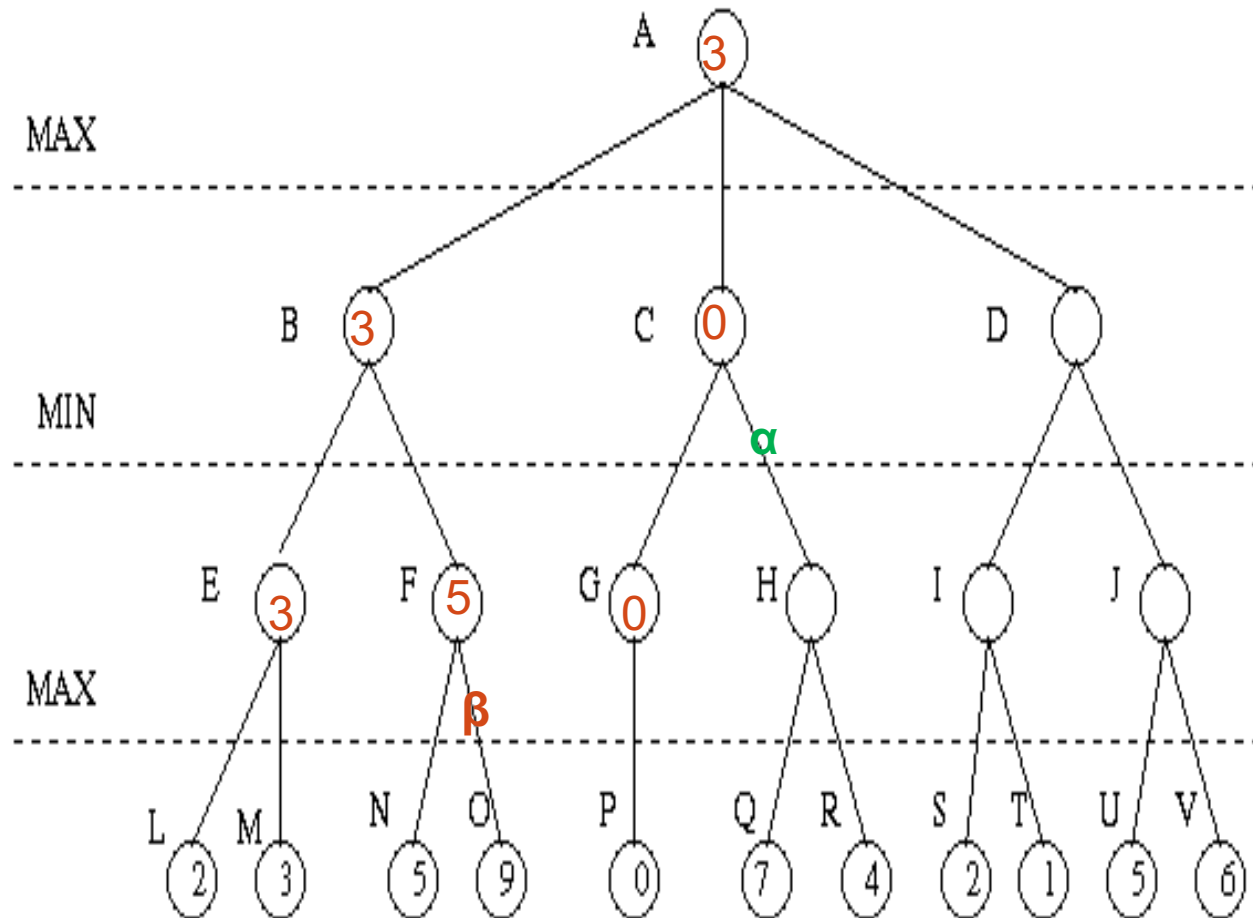
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Alpha-Beta Pruning Example

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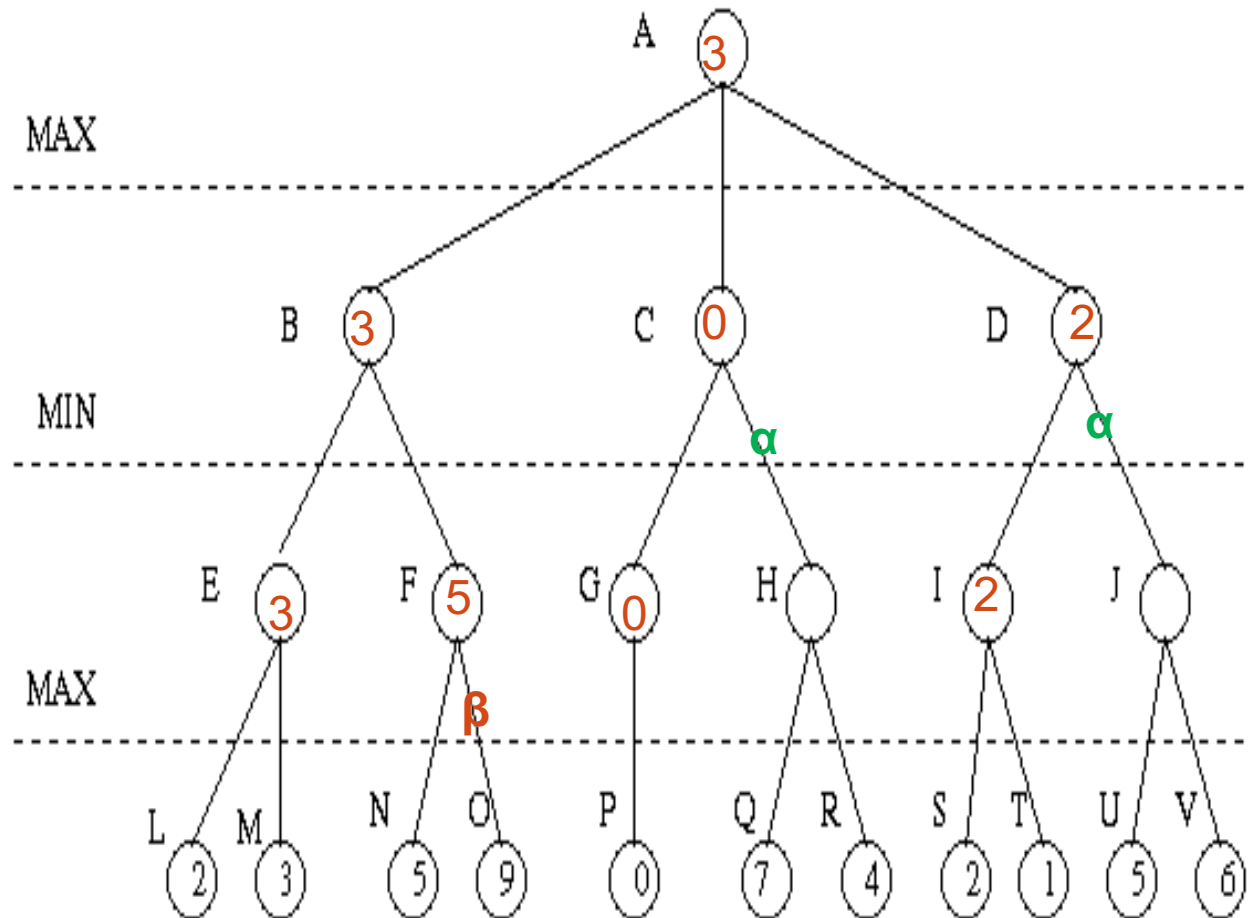
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Alpha-Beta Pruning Example

1. Search below a MIN node may be alpha-pruned if the beta value is \leq to the alpha value of some MAX ancestor.

2. Search below a MAX node may be beta-pruned if the alpha value is \geq to the beta value of some MIN ancestor.



α - β Search Algorithm

1. If terminal state, compute $e(n)$ and return the result.
 2. Otherwise, if the level is a **minimizing** level,
 - Until no more children or $\beta \leq \alpha$  pruning
 - $v_i \leftarrow \alpha - \beta$ search on a child
 - If $v_i < \beta$, $\beta \leftarrow v_i$.
 - Return $\min(v_i)$
 3. Otherwise, the level is a **maximizing** level:
 - Until no more children or $\alpha \geq \beta$,  pruning
 - $v_i \leftarrow \alpha - \beta$ search on a child.
 - If $v_i > \alpha$, set $\alpha \leftarrow v_i$
 - Return $\max(v_i)$
- See page 170 R&N

Imperfect Decisions

- Complete search is impractical for most games
- Alternative: search the tree only to a certain depth
 - requires a cutoff-test to determine where to stop (e.g. # of levels)
 - replaces the terminal test
 - the nodes at that level effectively become terminal leaf nodes
 - uses a heuristics-based evaluation function to estimate the expected utility of the game from those leaf nodes [not win/lose/draw but measure of closeness to the goal.

Evaluation Function

- determines the performance of a game-playing program
- must be consistent with the utility function
 - values for terminal nodes (or at least their order) must be the same
- tradeoff between accuracy and time cost
 - without time limits, minimax could be used
- should reflect the actual chances of winning
- frequently weighted linear functions are used
 - $E = w_1f_1 + w_2f_2 + \dots + w_nf_n$
 - combination of features, weighted by their relevance

Example: Tic-Tac-Toe

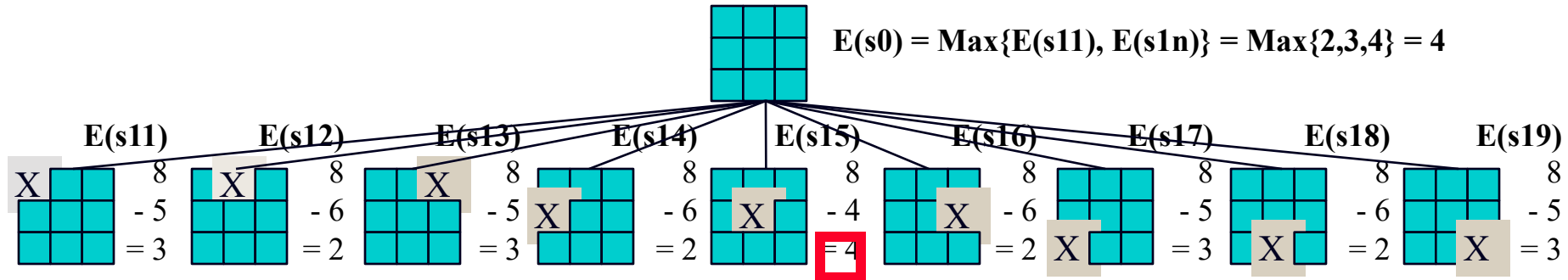
- simple evaluation function

$$E(s) = (rx + cx + dx) - (ro + co + do)$$

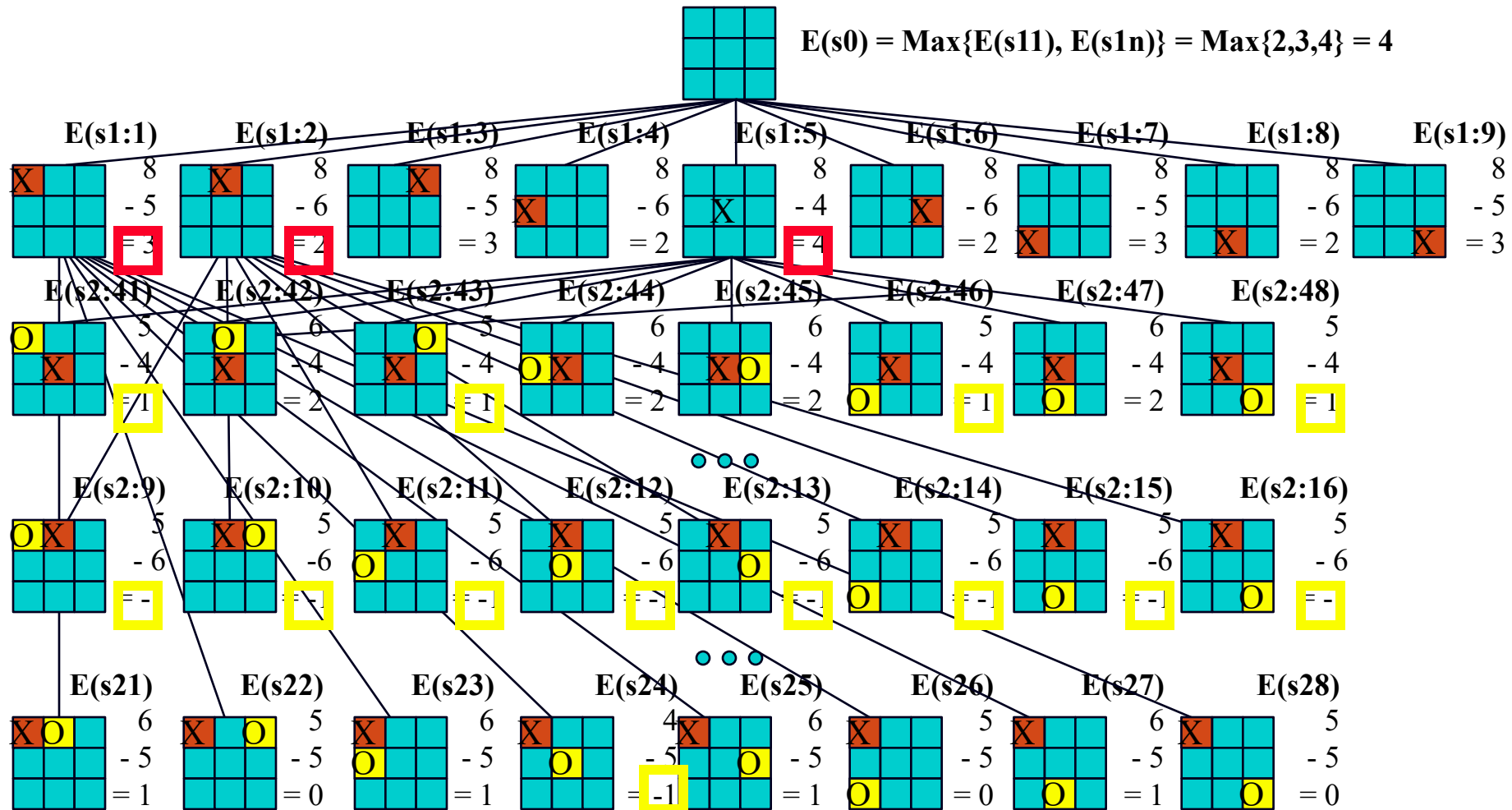
(number of rows, columns, and diagonals open for MAX) – (number of rows, columns, and diagonals open for MIN)

- 1-ply lookahead
 - start at the top of the tree
 - evaluate all 9 choices for player 1
 - pick the maximum E-value
- 2-ply lookahead
 - also looks at the opponents possible move
 - assuming that the opponents picks the minimum E-value

Tic-Tac-Toe 1-Ply



Tic-Tac-Toe 2-Ply



Checkers Case Study (how to play: Link below)

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yFrAN-LFZRU>

- initial board configuration

- Black
 - single on 20
 - single on 21
 - king on 31
- Red
 - single on 23
 - king on 22

- evaluation function

$$E(s) = (5x_1 + x_2) - (5r_1 + r_2)$$

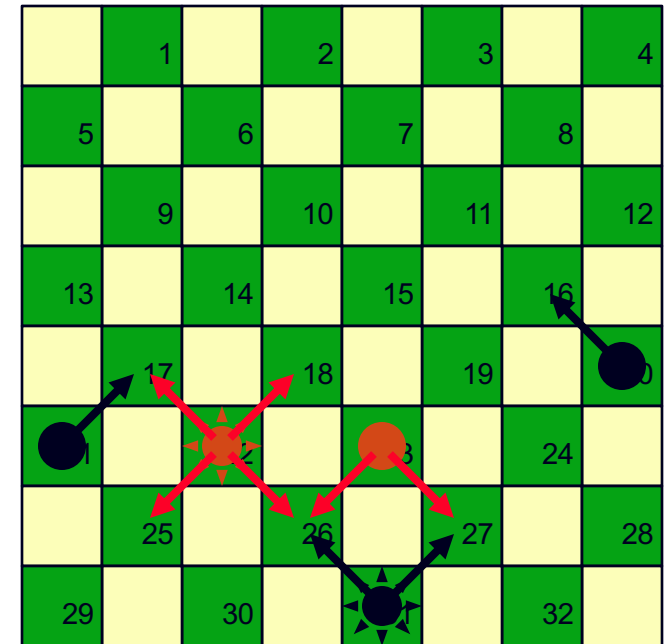
where

x_1 = black king advantage,

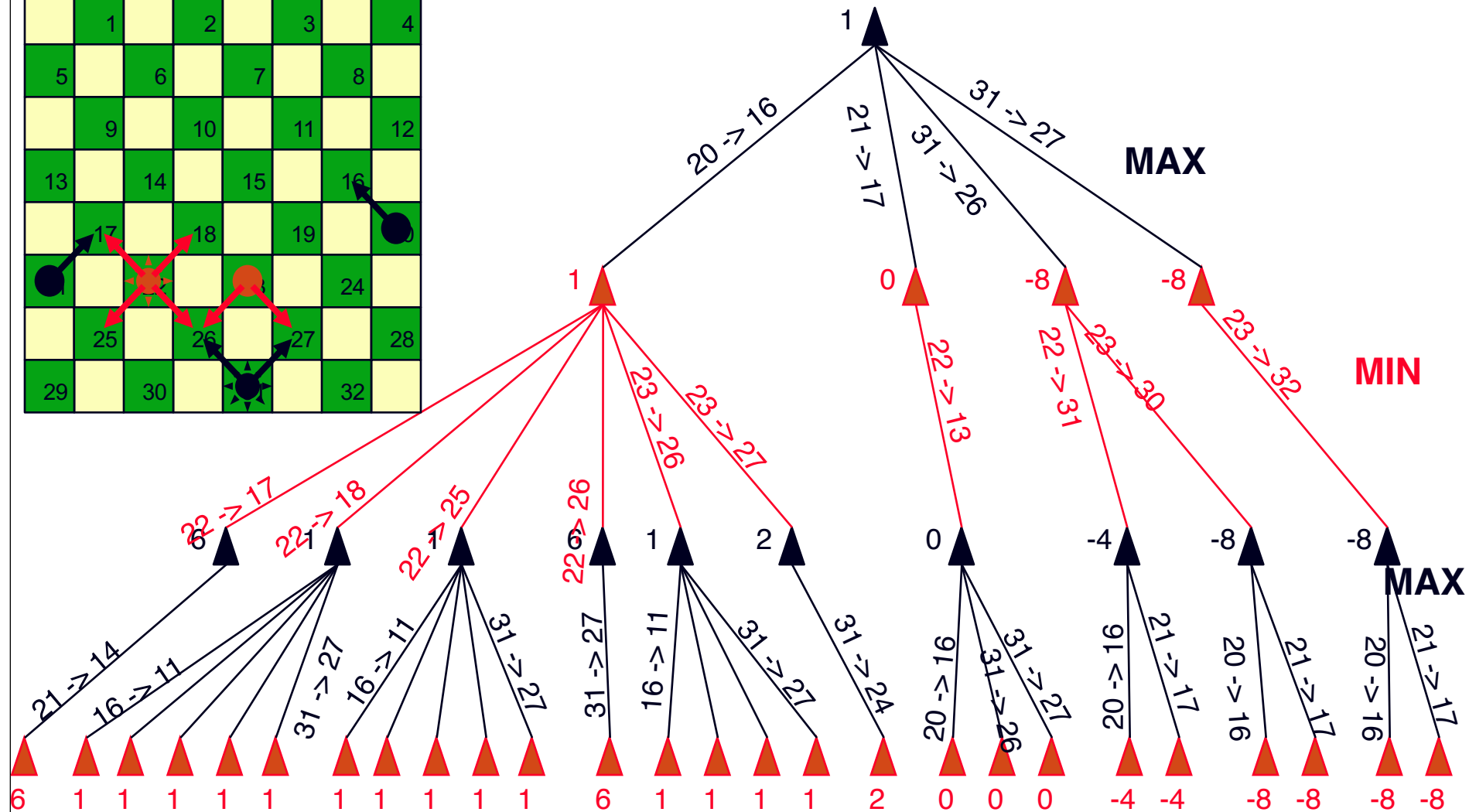
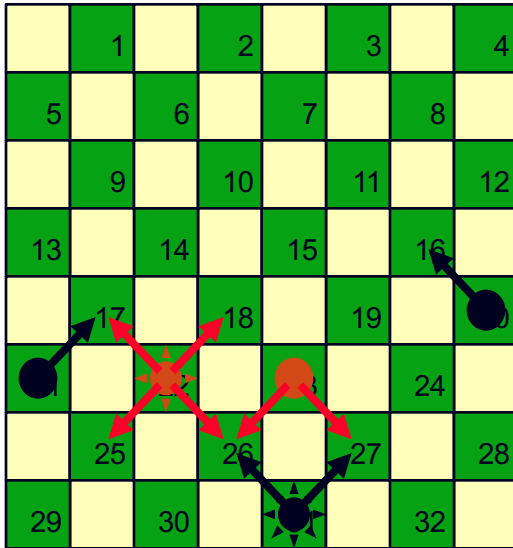
x_2 = black single advantage,

r_1 = red king advantage,

r_2 = red single advantage

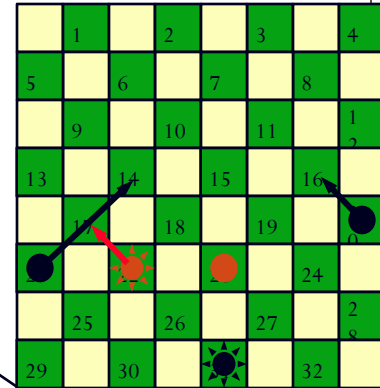
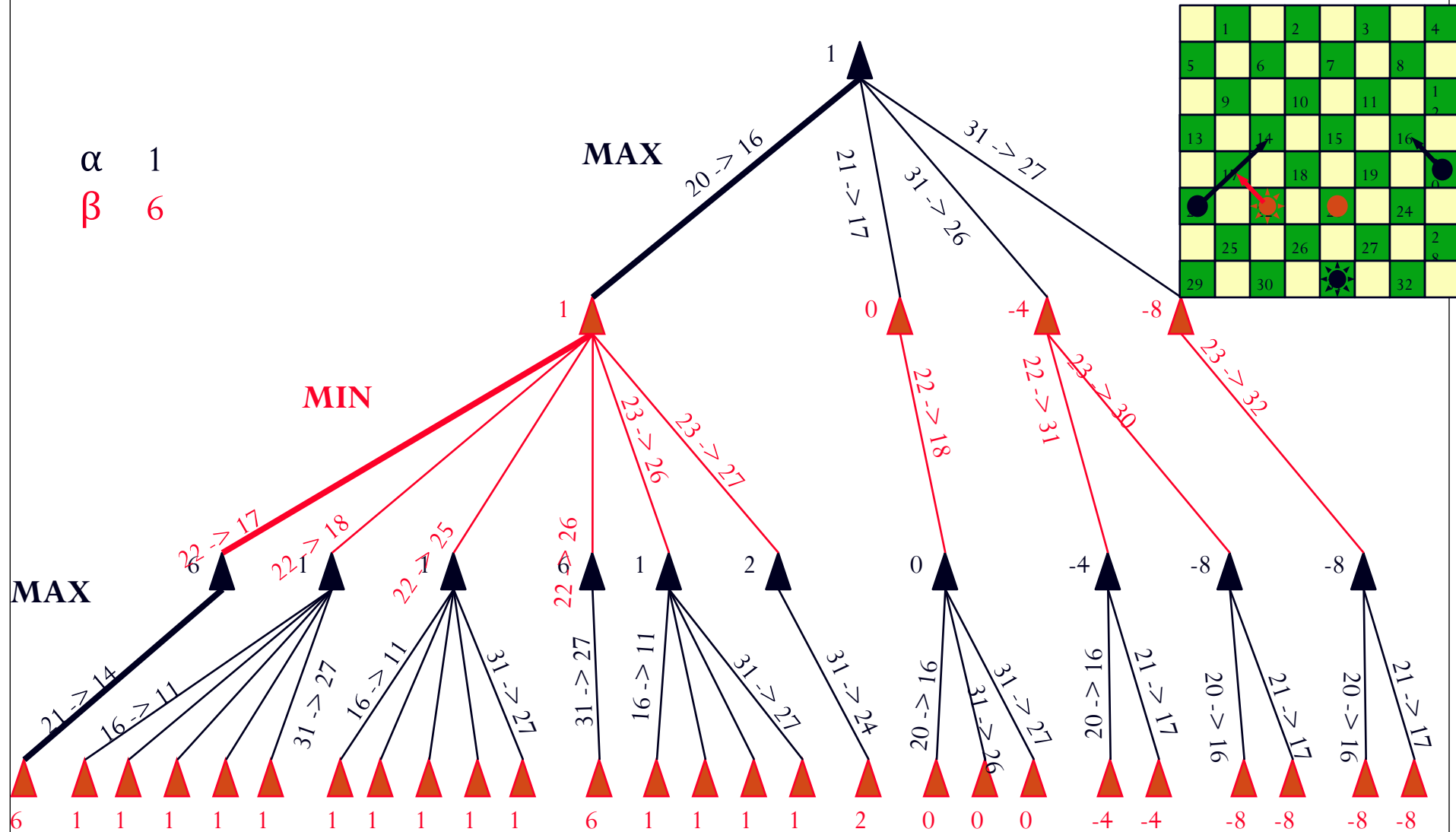


Checkers MiniMax Example

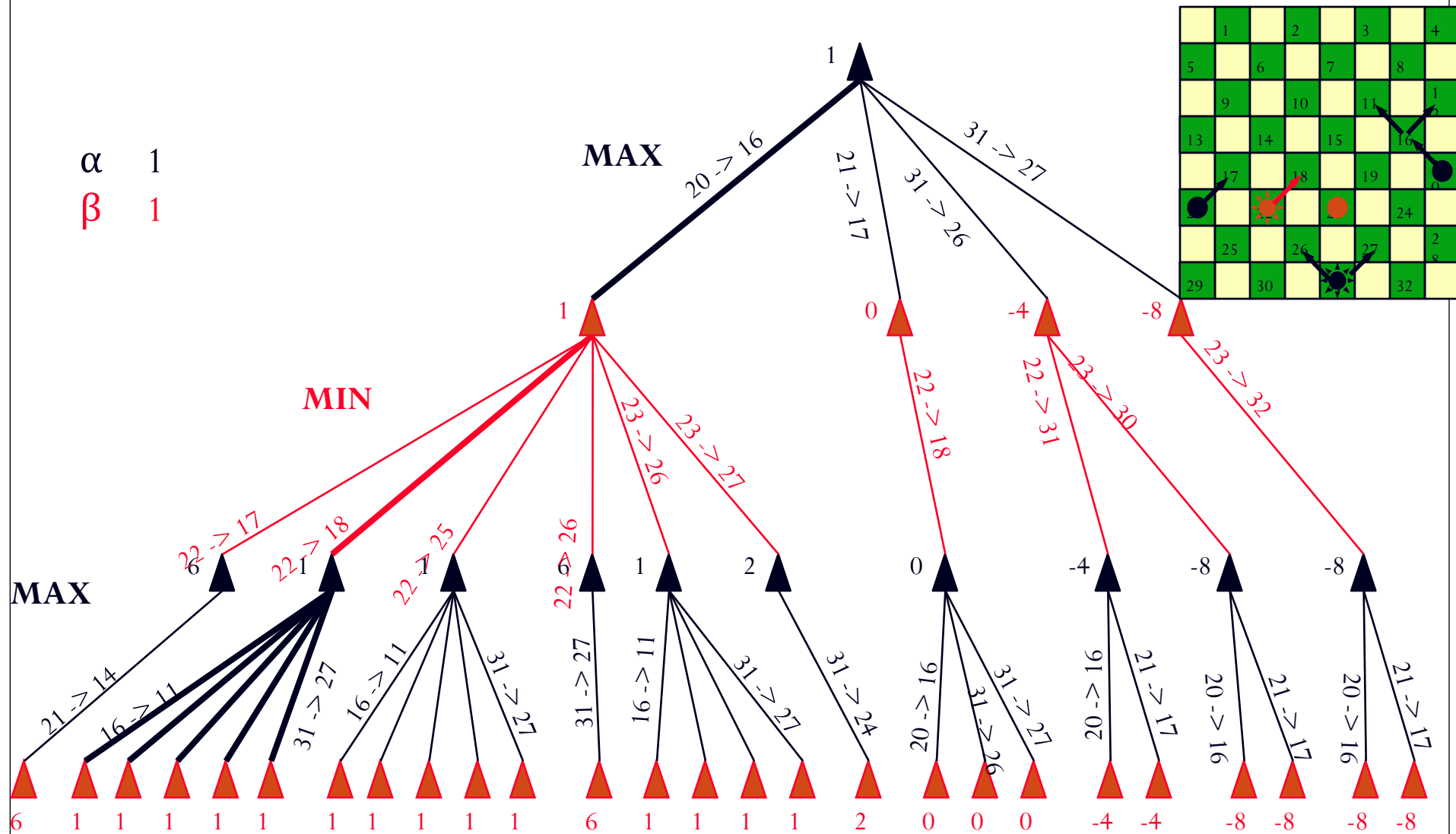


Checkers Alpha-Beta Example

α 1
 β 6



Checkers Alpha-Beta Example

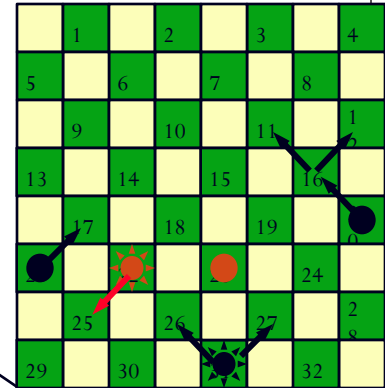


α	1
β	1

MAX

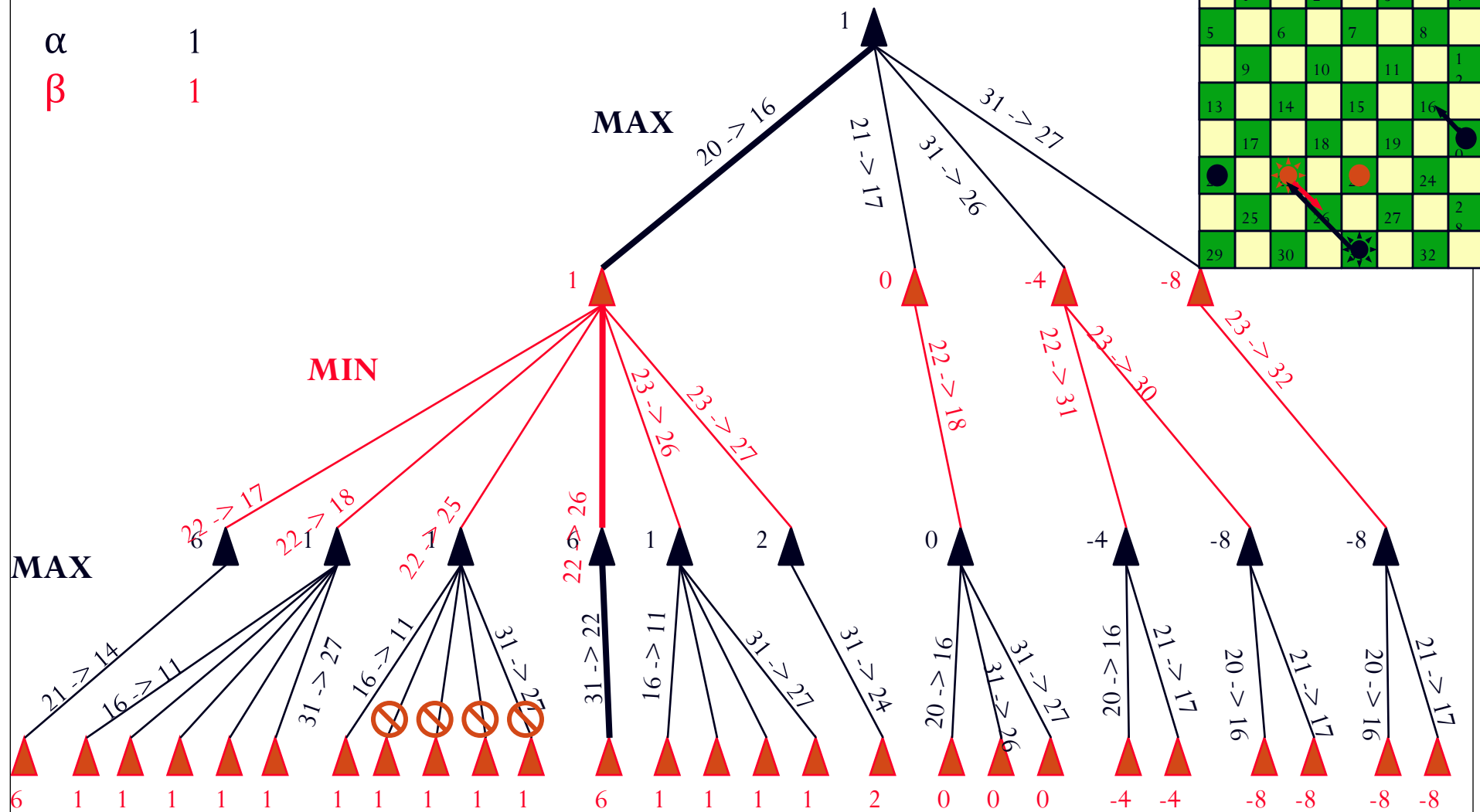
MIN

MAX



Checkers Alpha-Beta Example

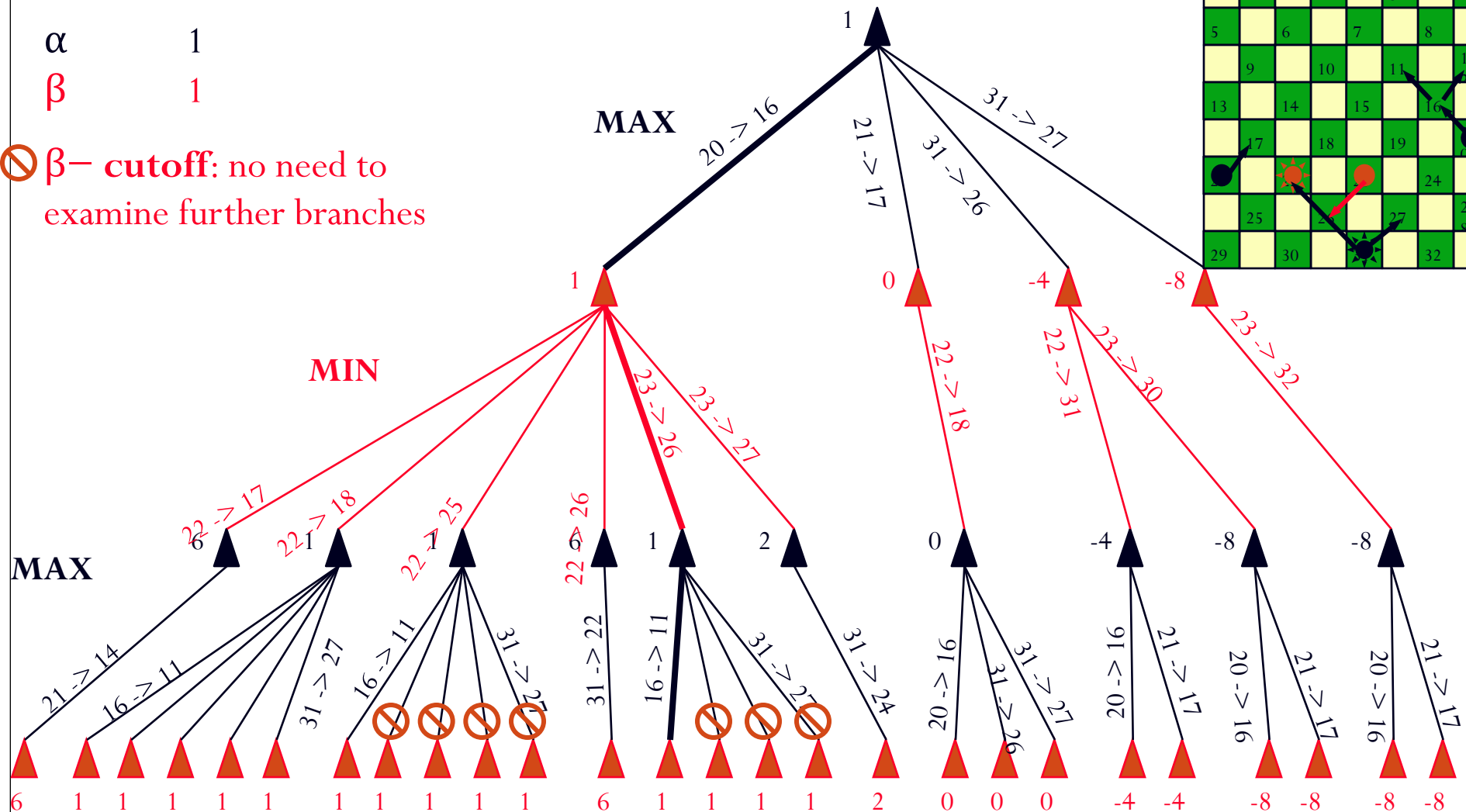
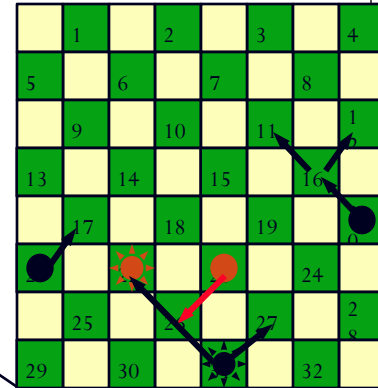
α 1
 β 1



Checkers Alpha-Beta Example

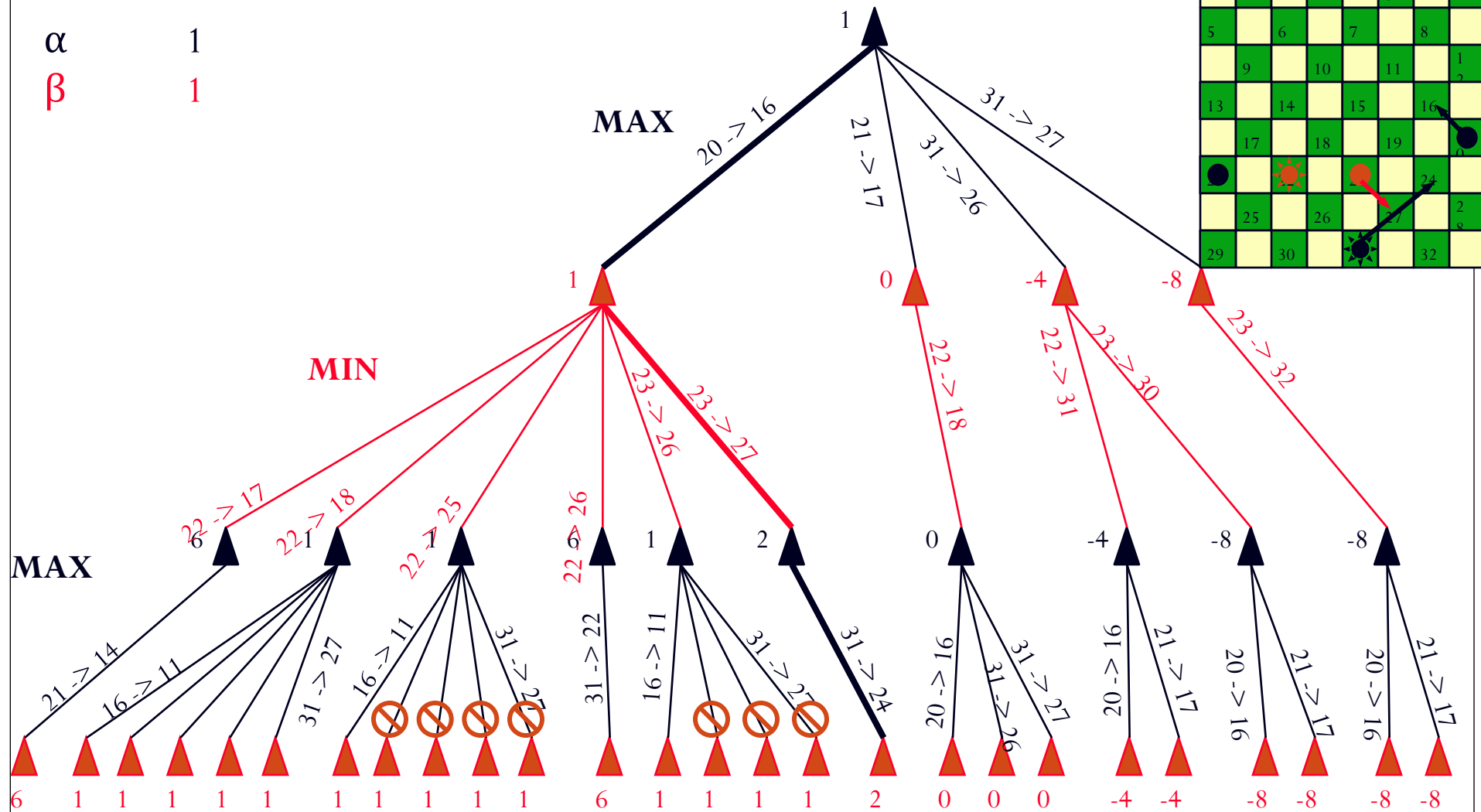
α 1
 β 1

⊘ β -cutoff: no need to examine further branches



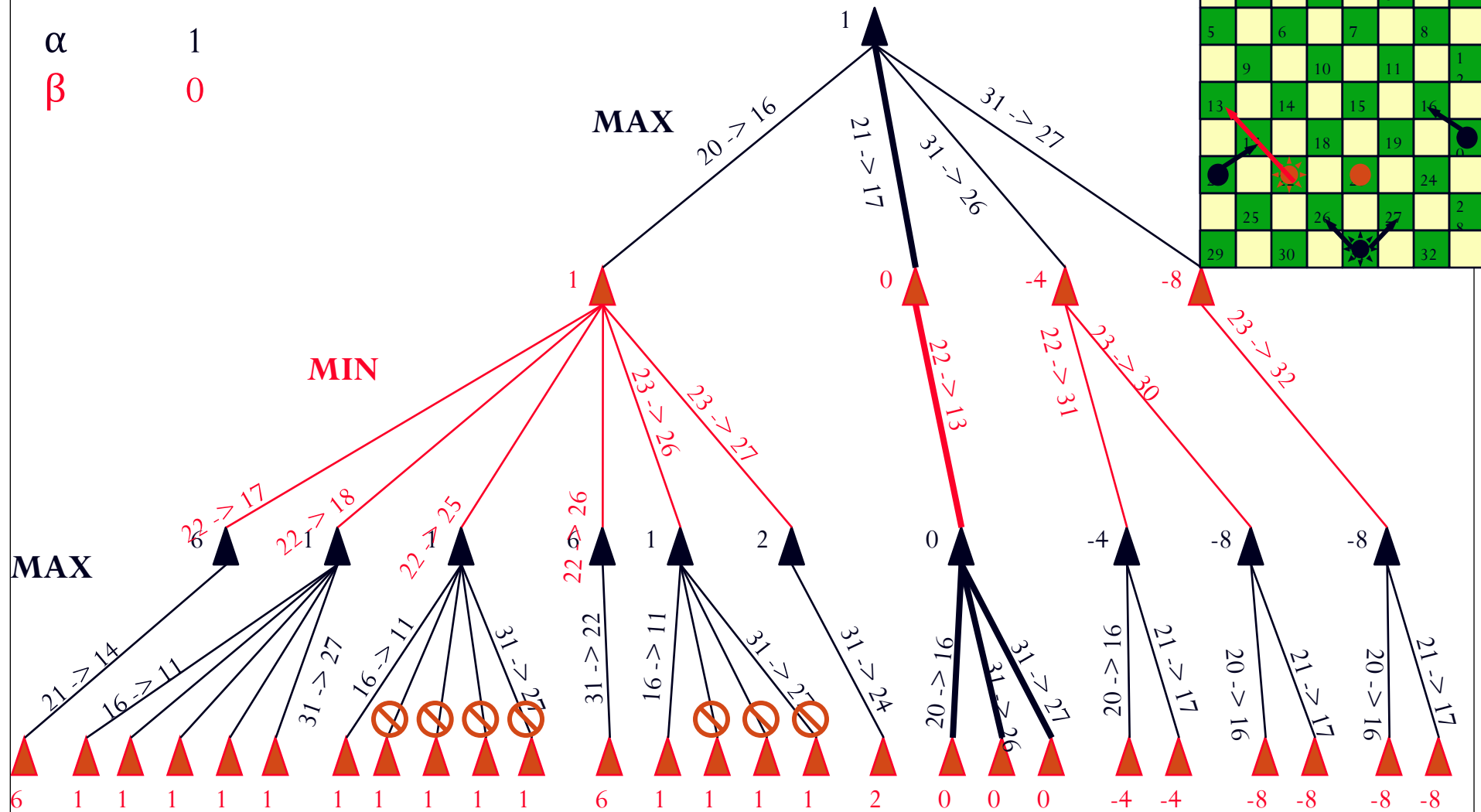
Checkers Alpha-Beta Example

α 1
 β 1



Checkers Alpha-Beta Example

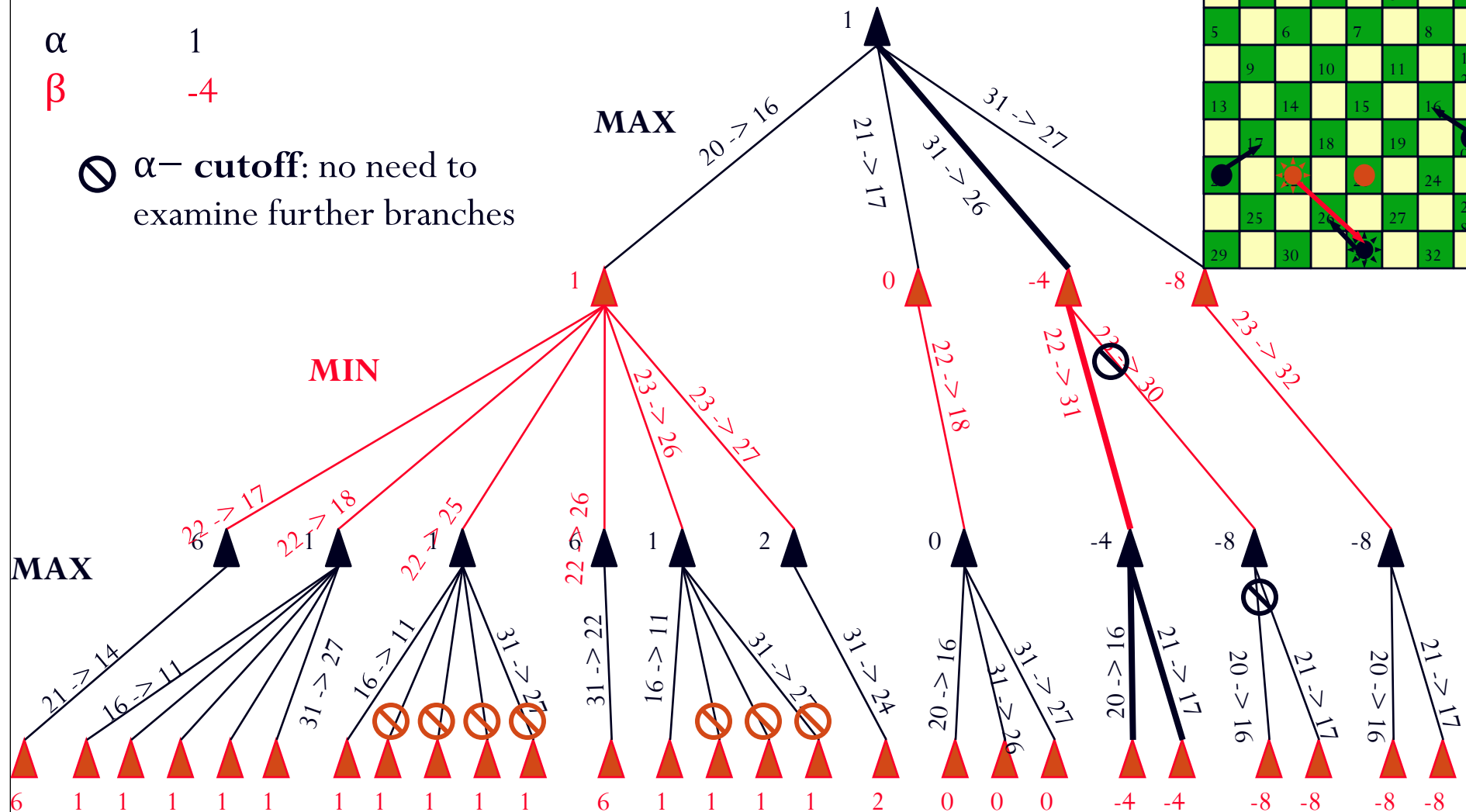
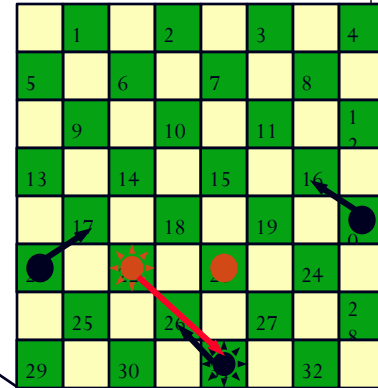
α 1
 β 0



Checkers Alpha-Beta Example

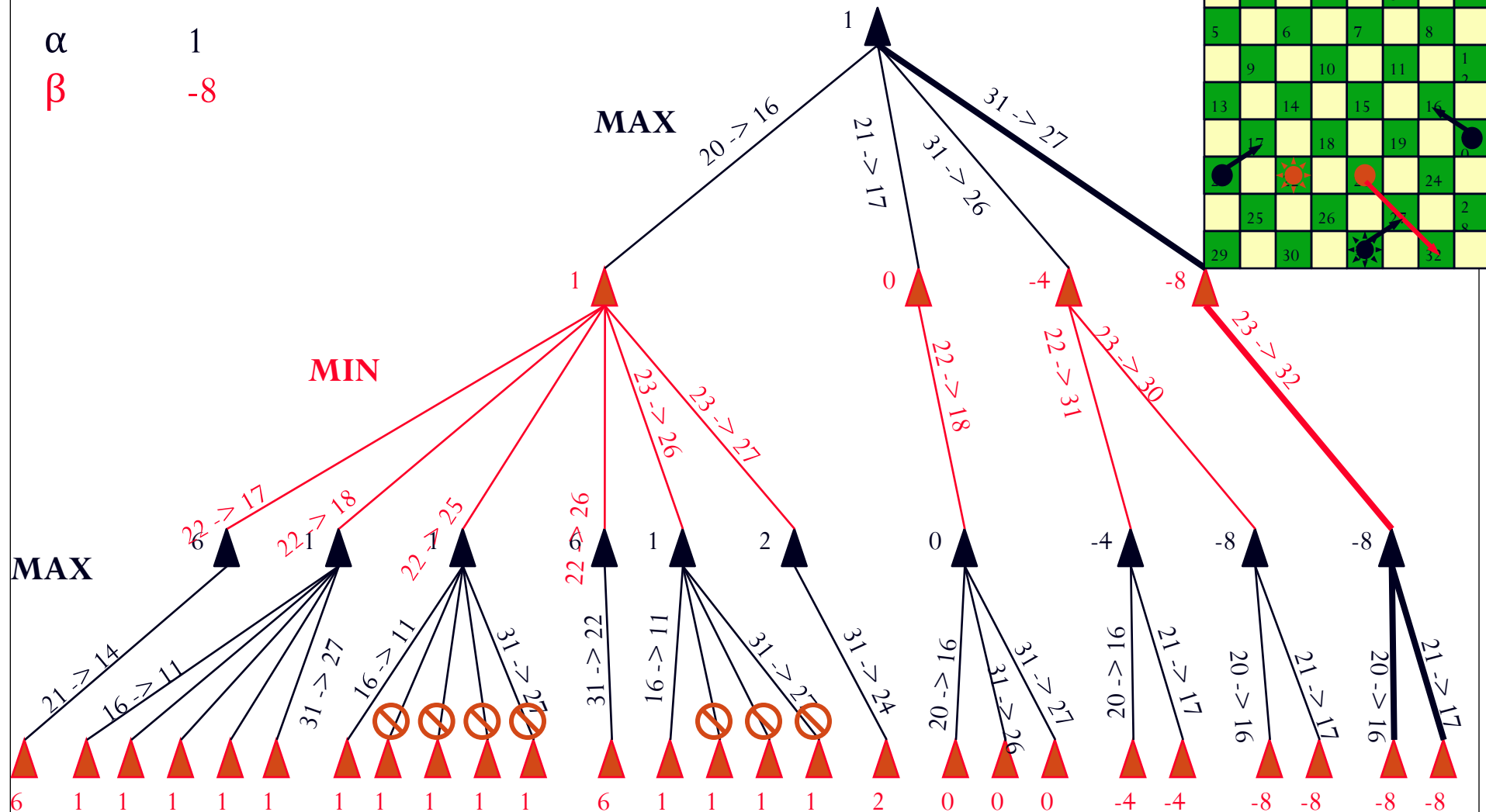
α 1
 β -4

⊗ α -cutoff: no need to examine further branches



Checkers Alpha-Beta Example

α 1
 β -8



Search Limits

- search must be cut off because of time or space limitations
- strategies like depth-limited or iterative deepening search can be used
 - don't take advantage of knowledge about the problem
- more refined strategies apply background knowledge
 - quiescent search
 - cut off only parts of the search space that don't exhibit big changes in the evaluation function

Horizon Problem

- moves may have disastrous consequences in the future, but the consequences are not visible
 - the corresponding change in the evaluation function will only become evident at deeper levels
 - they are “beyond the horizon”
- determining the horizon is an open problem without a general solution
 - only some pragmatic approaches restricted to specific games or situation



Games with Chance

- in many games, there is a degree of unpredictability through random elements
 - throwing dice, card distribution, roulette wheel, ...
- this requires *chance nodes* in addition to the **Max** and **Min** nodes
 - branches indicate possible variations
 - each branch indicates the outcome and its likelihood

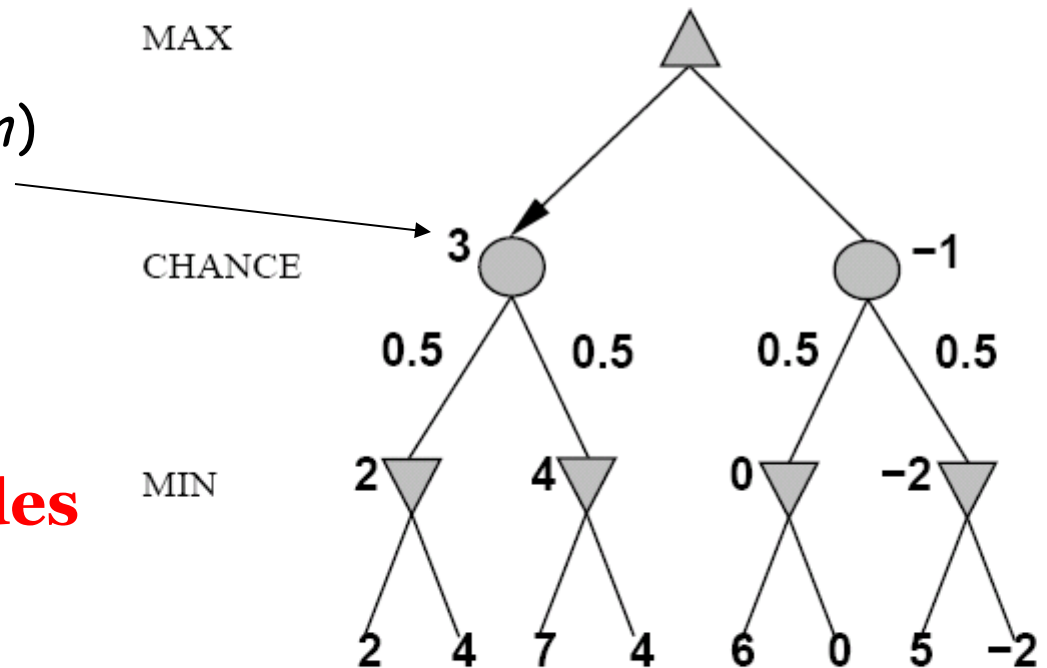
Expected Minimax

$$v = \sum_{\text{chance nodes}} P(n) \times \text{Minimax}(n)$$

$$3 = 0.5 \times 4 + 0.5 \times 2$$

**Interleave chance nodes
with min/max nodes**

**Again, the tree is
constructed
bottom-up**



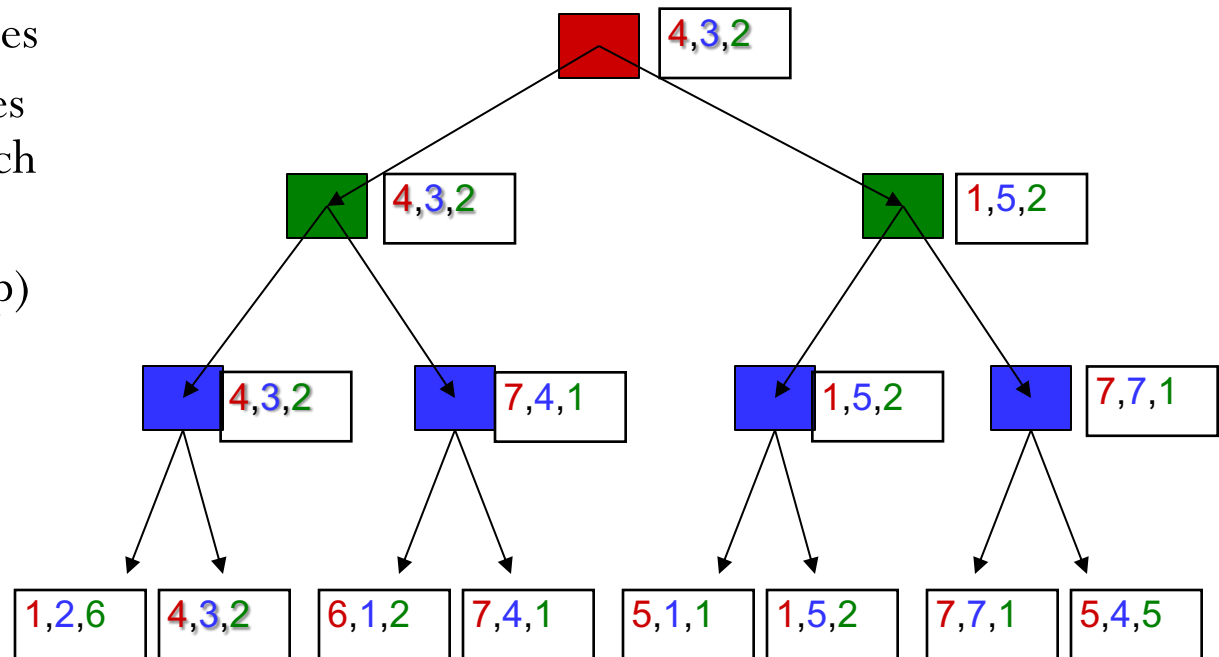
Decisions with Chance

- the utility value of a position depends on the random element
 - the definite minimax value must be replaced by an expected value
- calculation of expected values
 - utility function for terminal nodes
 - for all other nodes
 - calculate the utility for each chance event
 - weigh by the chance that the event occurs
 - add up the individual utilities

Multi-player Non-Zero-Sum Games

- Similar to minimax:

- Utilities are now tuples
- Each player maximizes their own entry at each node
- Propagate (or back up) nodes from children
- Can give rise to cooperation and competition dynamically...
- Pruning?????



Chapter Summary

- many game techniques are derived from search methods
- the minimax algorithm determines the best move for a player by calculating the complete game tree
- alpha-beta pruning dismisses parts of the search tree that are provably irrelevant
- an evaluation function gives an estimate of the utility of a state when a complete search is impractical
- chance events can be incorporated into the minimax algorithm by considering the weighted probabilities of chance events