



Algorithms and Data Structures 2, 340300 **Lecture – 2023W** Univ.-Prof. Dr. Alois Ferscha, teaching@pervasive.jku.at

JOHANNES KEPLER UNIVERSITY LINZ Altenberger Straße 69 4040 Linz, Austria

iku.at

Introduction

Search trees

• Search (no adversary), analyse traversing strategies, evaluation of cost

Game trees

- Games (adversary), game states (board configurations) have utility, tree defines decision process (decision tree),
 find strategy
 - Example: **2-Player Games:** Two players, **fully observable** environments, **deterministic**, **turn-taking, zero-sum games** of **perfect information** (e.g., go, chess, backgammonm, tic-tac-toe, etc.)

Consideration of a **Game** as a **Search Problem**:

- States = board configurations
- Operators = legal moves
- Initial State = current configuration
- Goal = find winning configuration
- payoff function (utility) = gives numerical value of outcome of the game
- Two players, MIN and MAX taking turns
- MIN/MAX use search tree to find next move



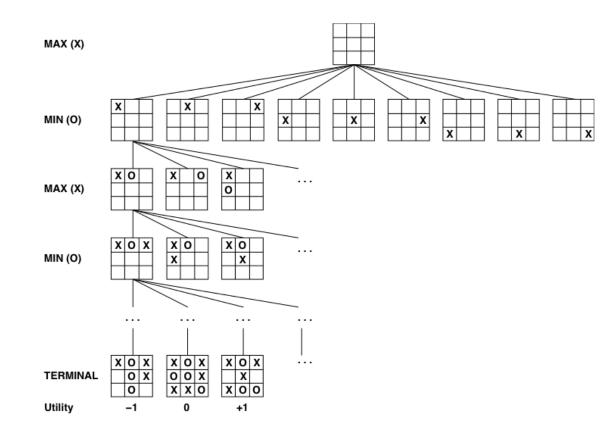
Game Trees and the Minimax Algorithm

How can MIN/MAX determine which move to pick to win the game?

We know for **each terminal state** the outcome of the game – this is called the **utility**.

In each turn, both players want to select a node which results in the best utility **for them.**

- 1. Generate whole game tree to leaves
- 2. Apply **utility function** to leaves
- 3. Back up values from leaves to root
 - MAX nodes compute maximum of children
 - MIN nodes compute minimum of children
- 4. When value **reaches root**: choose max value and the corresponding move



Deterministic, perfect information Tic-Tac-Toe game tree of 2 players (5,478 valid game states).

Games and Adversarial Search - Marco Chiarandini



Minimax Algorithm

Minimax value

Is the **best utility** that can be **reached from** a current **node** *n* onwards, assuming that **both players play optimally** from *n* to the end of the game:

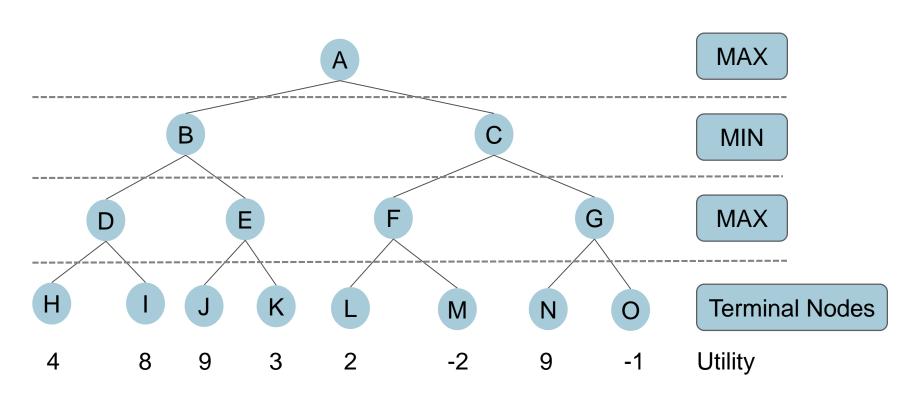
$$\mathsf{MINIMAX-VALUE} (\mathsf{n}) = \begin{cases} \mathit{Utility}(n) & \textit{if n is a terminal node} \\ \min_{s \in \mathit{Successor}(n)} \mathit{MINIMAX-VALUE}(s) & \textit{if n is a MIN node} \\ \max_{s \in \mathit{Successor}(n)} \mathit{MINIMAX-VALUE}(s) & \textit{if n is a MAX node} \end{cases}$$

MAX will try to move to states with maximum values.

MIN will try to move to states with minimum values.

Games and Adversarial Search - Marco Chiarandini

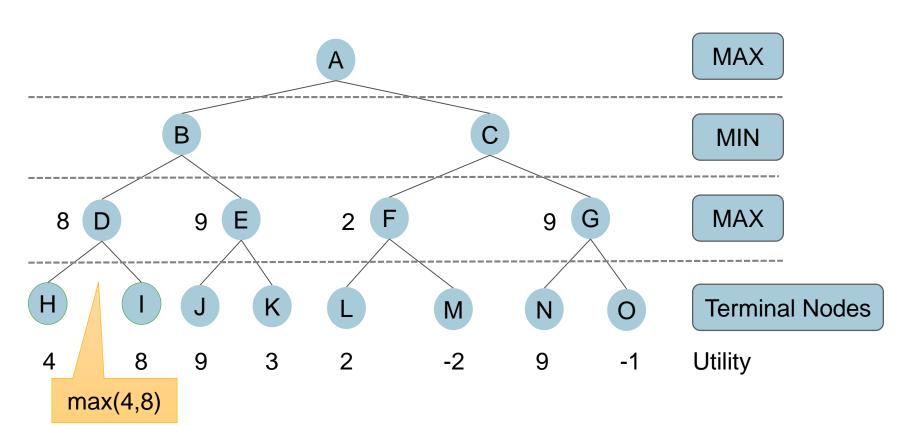




Step 1:

- The entire decision tree is generated (meaning we expand every possible move).
- The utility function is applied to get the terminal values for each node.

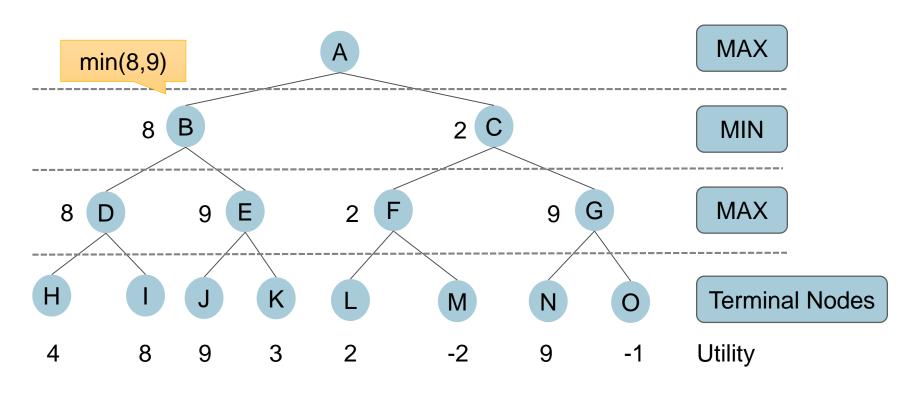




Steps 2-5:

- The first minimax values for MAX are determined.
- Node D: max(4, 8) = 8
- Node E: max(9, 3) = 9
- Node F: max(2, -2) = 2
- Node G: max(9, -1) = 9

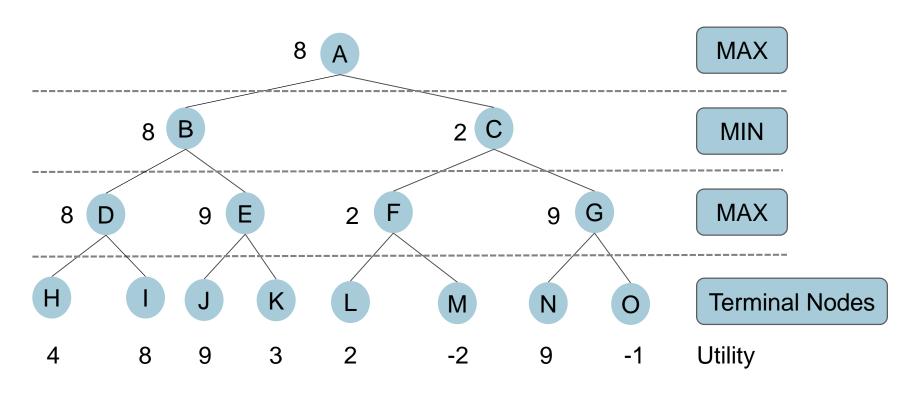




Steps 6-7:

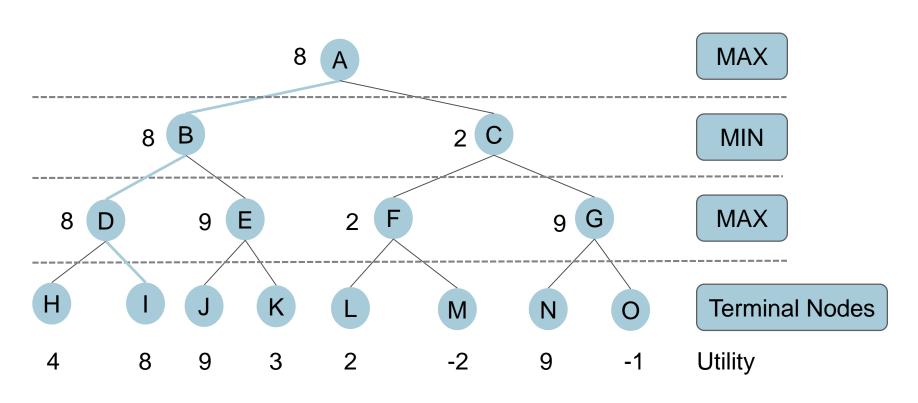
- The minimax values for MIN are determined.
- Node B: min(8, 9) = 8
- Node C: min(2, 9) = 2





Step 8:

- The minimax value for MAX in the root node is determined.
- Node A: max(8, 2) = 8



Result

- With this we found our optimal playing strategy.
- MAX moves to node B.
- MIN Moves to node D.
- MAX moves to node I.



Minimax Algorithm

Properties of Minimax

Completeness

Minimax is complete, if the game tree is finite.

Optimality:

• Optimal if **opponent** also plays optimally.

Time Complexity:

• O(**b**m)

Space Complexity:

• O(**bm**)

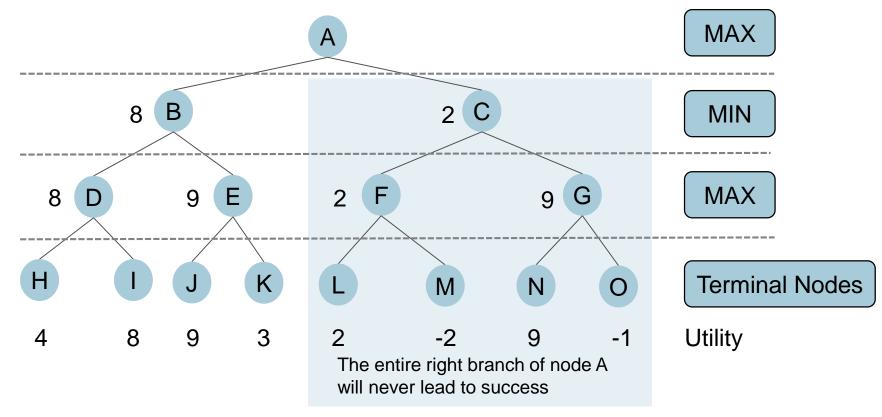
b ... **branching factor** (max. number of successors of any node). m ... **maximum length** of **any path** in the state space (may be infinite).

Games and Adversarial Search - Marco Chiarandini



Main disadvantage of Minimax

Minimax has to look into every node of the game tree.





Method

Propagate two parameters along the expansion of a path, and update them when backing up: $[\alpha, \beta]$.

- α ... best (largest) value found so far for MAX.
- β ... best (smallest) value found so far for MIN.

Pruning

- Whenever a Minimax value as a child of a MIN node is less than or equal to the current α:
 - → ignore remaining nodes (subtrees) below this MIN node.
- Whenever a Minimax value as a child of a MAX node is greater than or equal to the current β:
 - → ignore remaining nodes (subtrees) below this MAX node.

Games and Adversarial Search - Marco Chiarandini



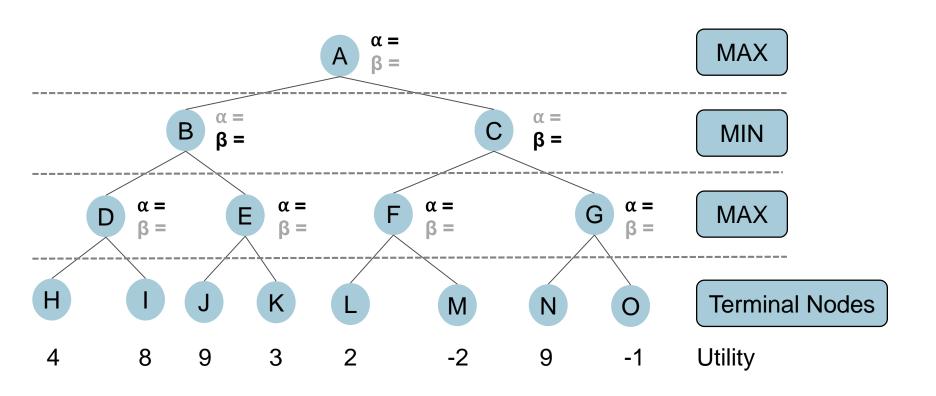
Basic algorithm outline

```
Max-Value(s, α, β):
 if terminal(s): return U(s)
 v = -∞
 for c in next-states(s):
   v' = min-value(c, α, β)
   if v' > v: v = v'
   if v' ≥ β: return v
   if v' > α: α = v'
 return v
```

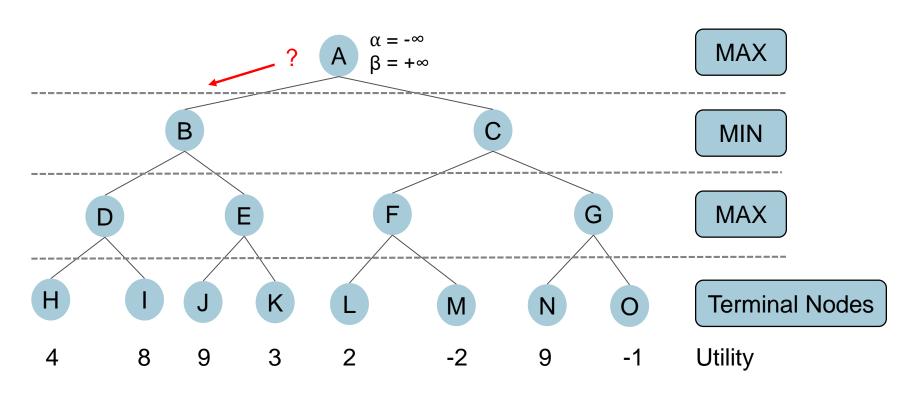
```
Min-Value(s, α, β):
  if terminal(s): return U(s)
  v = +∞
  for c in next-states(s):
     v' = max-value(c, α, β)
     if v' < v: v = v'
     if v' ≤ α: return v
     if v' < β: β = v'
     return v</pre>
```



Alpha-Beta Pruning :: Principle



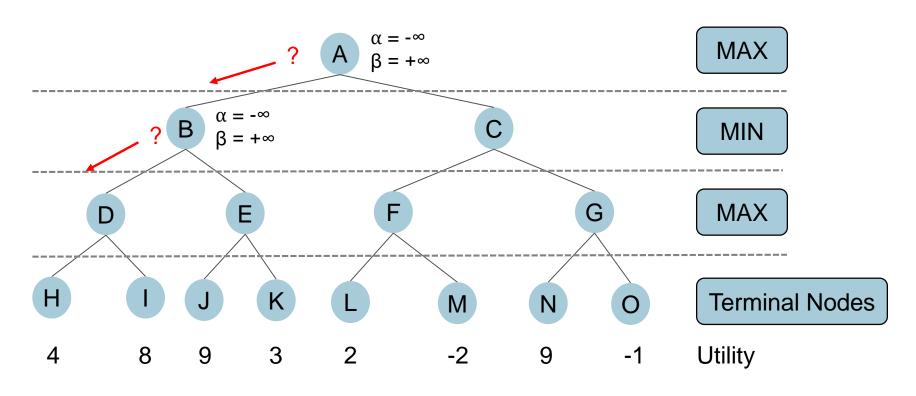




Step 1:

- The entire decision tree is generated.
- The utility function is applied to get the terminal values for each node.
- In node A α is set to -∞ and β is set to +∞ and propagated to node D.

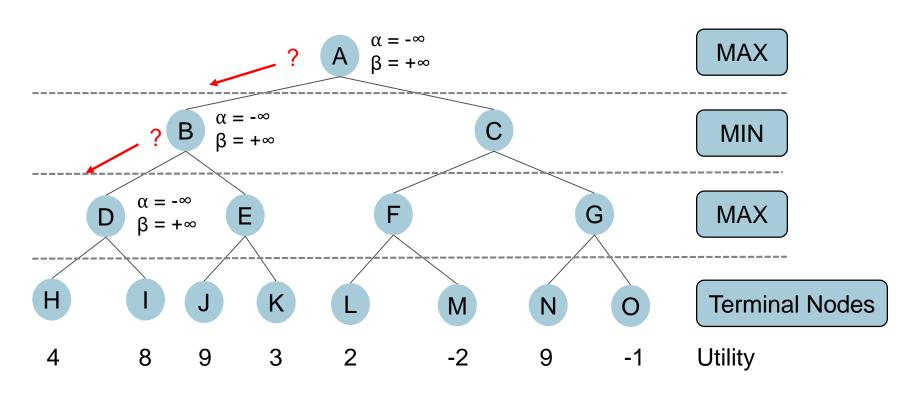




Step 1:

- The entire decision tree is generated.
- The utility function is applied to get the terminal values for each node.
- In node A α is set to -∞ and β is set to +∞ and propagated to node D.

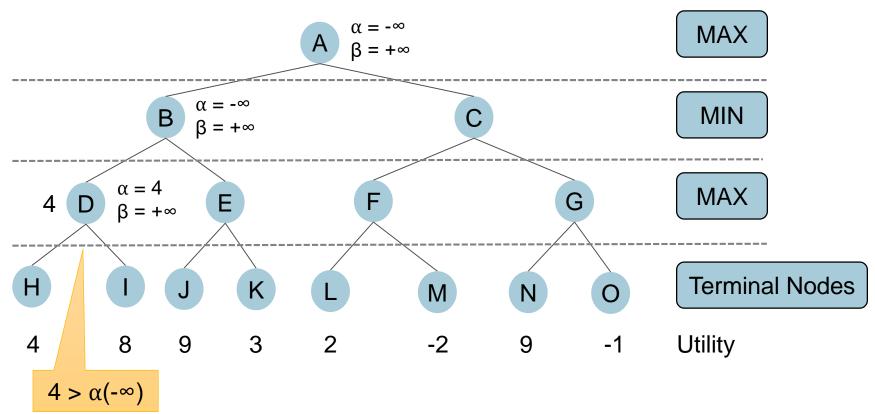




Step 1:

- The entire decision tree is generated.
- The utility function is applied to get the terminal values for each node.
- In node A α is set to -∞ and β is set to +∞ and propagated to node D.

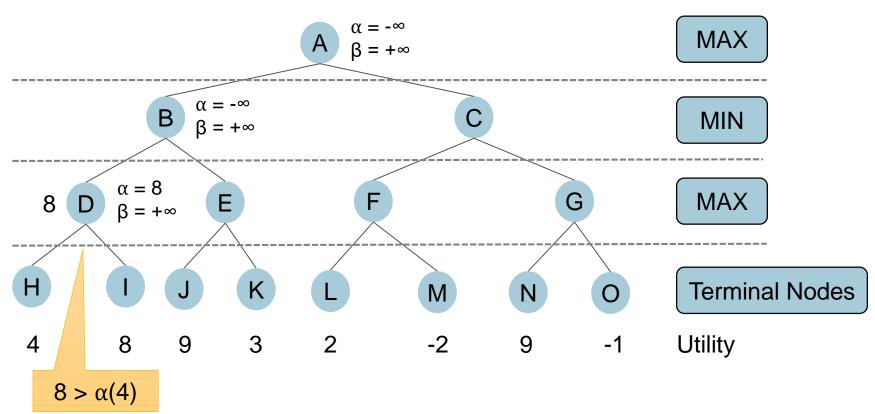




Step 2:

- In node D, MAX finds the value
 4 of node H.
- 4 > α(-∞): α is updated to 4 and the value of D is updated to 4.

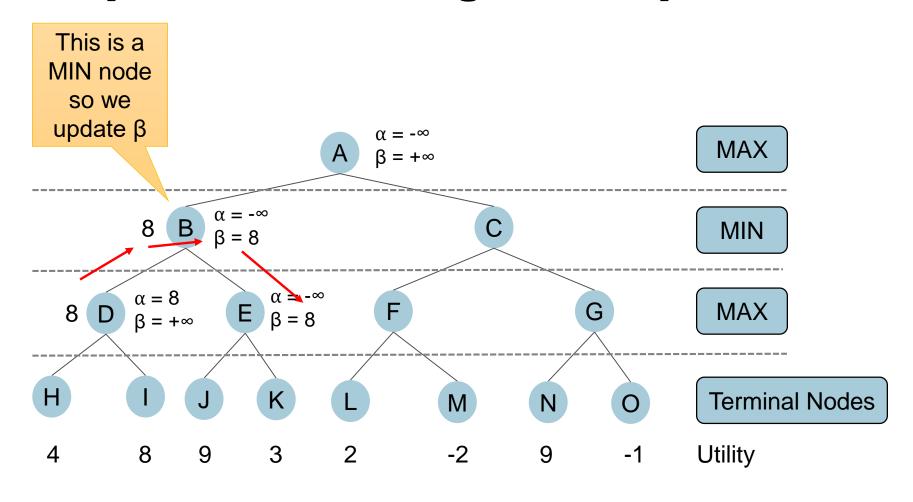




Step 3:

- In node D MAX finds the value
 8 of node I.
- 8 > α(4): α is updated to 8 and the value of D is updated to 8.

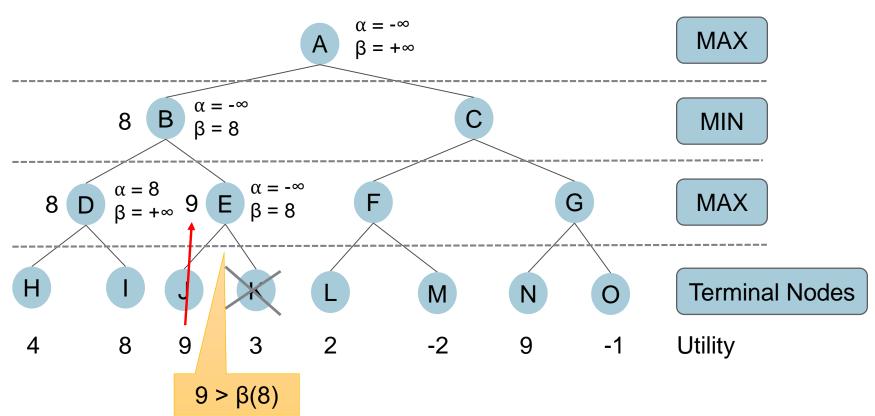




Step 4:

- In node B MIN finds the value 8 of node D.
- 8 < β(+∞): β is updated to 8 and the value of B is updated to 8.
- β is passed down to node E.

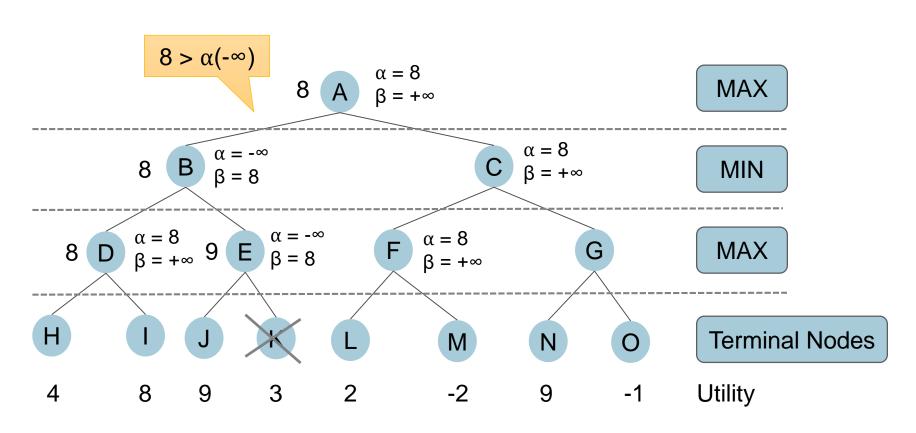




Step 5:

- In node E MAX finds the value
 9 of node J.
- 9 > β (8): the remaining
 branches of E are pruned.

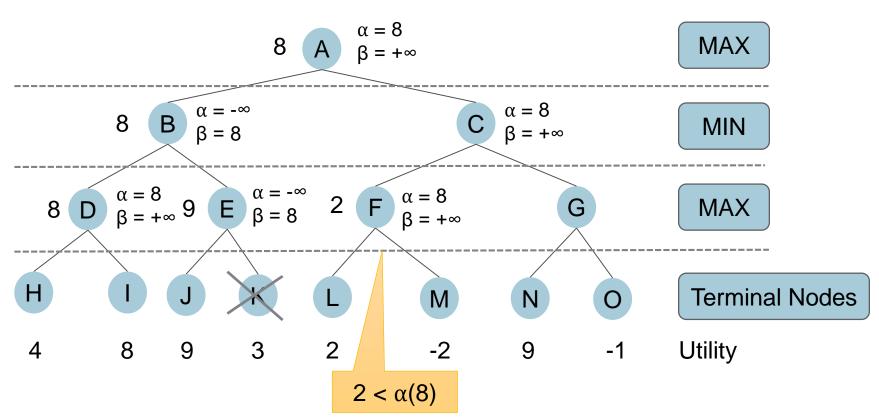




Step 6:

- In node A MAX finds the value
 8 of node B.
- 8 > α(-∞): α is updated to 8 and the value of node A is updated to 8.
- α is down propagated to node
 F.

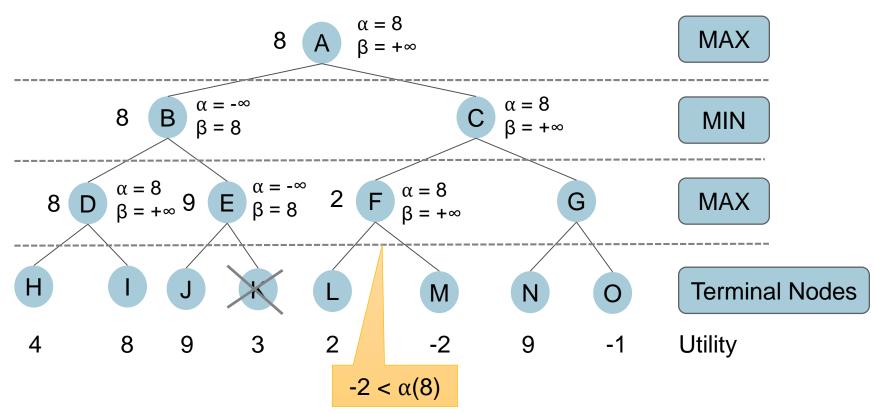




Step 7:

- In node F MAX finds the value
 2 of node L.
- $2 < \alpha(8)$: α is not updated.

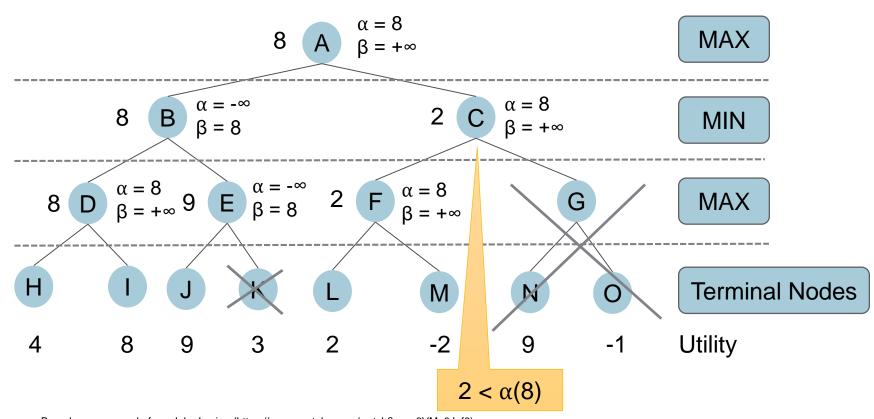




Step 8:

- Since we have not found a value >= α,
 MAX looks into node M to find a value of -2.
- $-2 < \alpha(8)$: α is not updated.

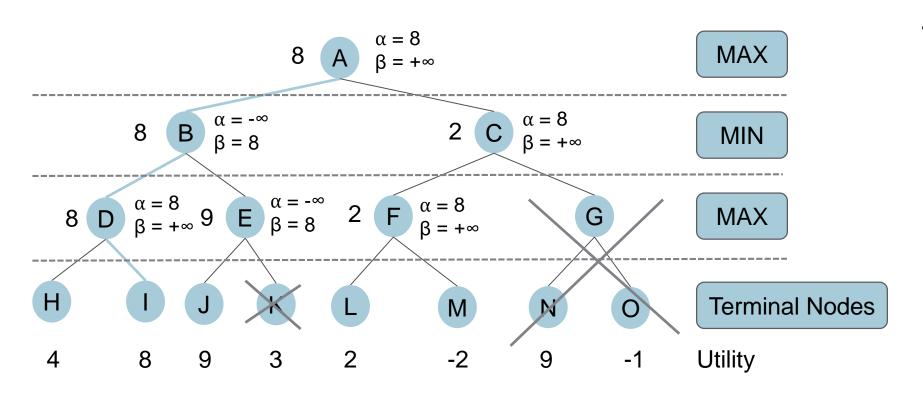




Step 9:

- In node C MIN finds the value
 2 of node F.
- 2 < α(8): the remaining branches of C are pruned.





Result

 The resulting path is the same as in Minimax, but fewer nodes had to be analyzed.



Properties of Alpha-Beta pruning

- Does not affect the final result.
- With perfect ordering, time complexity would be O(b^{m/2}).

Limitations of Minimax and Alpha-Beta Pruning

- Minimax traverses the entire game tree.
- Alpha-Beta pruning still has to search all the way to terminal states of many nodes.

Can we do better?

- While both algorithms have many applications, in certain scenarios they might reach their limits.
- This is where we can apply **Monte Carlo Tree Search**.

Games and Adversarial Search - Marco Chiarandini



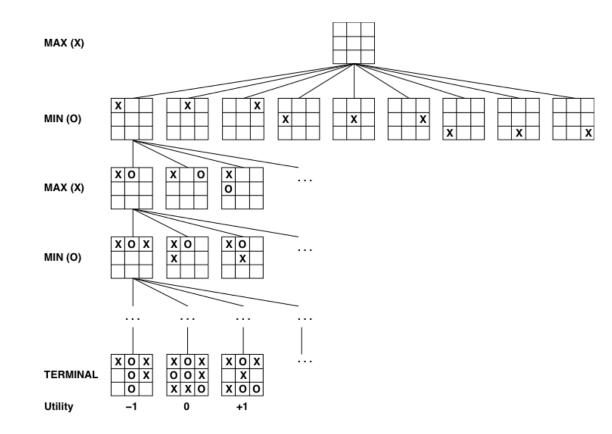
Game Trees and the Minimax Algorithm

How can MIN/MAX determine which move to pick to win the game?

We know for **each terminal state** the outcome of the game – this is called the **utility**.

In each turn, both players want to select a node which results in the best utility **for them.**

- 1. Generate whole game tree to leaves
- 2. Apply **utility function** to leaves
- 3. Back up values from leaves to root
 - MAX nodes compute maximum of children
 - MIN nodes compute minimum of children
- 4. When value **reaches root**: choose max value and the corresponding move



Deterministic, perfect information Tic-Tac-Toe game tree of 2 players (5,478 valid game states).

Games and Adversarial Search - Marco Chiarandini



Basic Algorithm Outline

The basic algorithm involves **iteratively building a search tree** until some **predefined computational budget** – typically a time, memory or **iteration constraint** – is **reached**.

At this point the search is **halted** and the **best performing root action** is returned.

Each **node** in the search tree represents a **state** of the domain.

Directed links to child nodes represent actions leading to subsequent states.



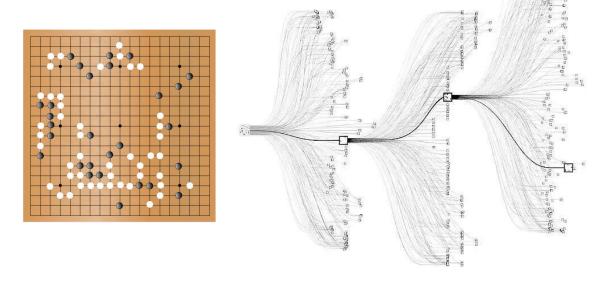
Motivation: the game of Go

Played on a **19x19 board** by **two players** in **alternating moves** by placing **black** stones and **white** stones respectively on the board.

Opponent's stones can be captured once they are fully surrounded by own stones.

No move can lead to a game state that has been present in the move directly before (no immediate repetitions).

The **goal** is to **occupy** a **larger area** of the game board than the opponent.



There are **2.08*10**¹⁷⁰ valid game sates in the game of Go.



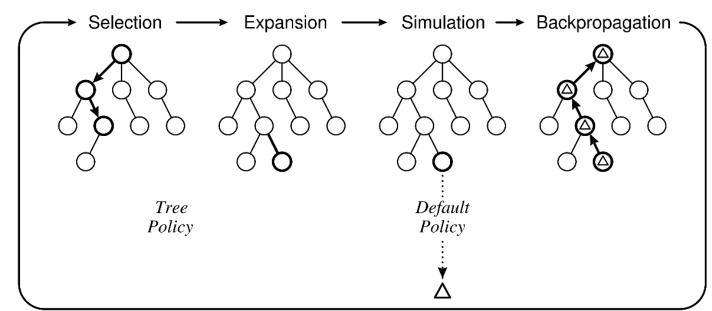
Basic algorithm Outline

Selection: **Find** a **leaf node** from which to traverse next.

Expansion: **Child nodes** are **added** to expand the tree.

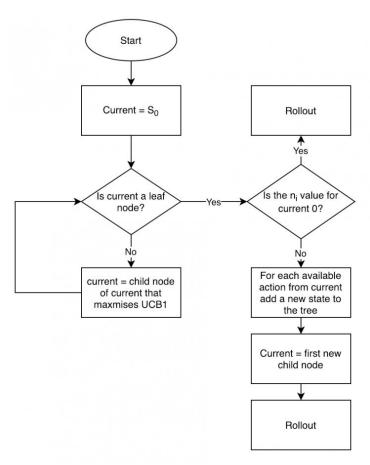
Simulation: A **rollout** from the new node(s) to a **terminal** node is done.

Backpropagation: The **simulation result** is "**backed up**" through the selected nodes to update their statistics.





Basic algorithm Outline



```
Rollout(S<sub>i</sub>):
loop forever:
  if S<sub>i</sub> is a terminal state:
     return value(S<sub>i</sub>)
  A<sub>i</sub> = random(available_actions(S<sub>i</sub>))
  S<sub>i</sub> = simulate(A<sub>i</sub>, S<sub>i</sub>)
```

Random decisions throughout the tree down to a terminal node v = 10 v = 10 v = 10



How to select a leaf node?

Similarly to Minimax, we need to find some value that gives the **branch** a **score**, determining the **most promising path**.

Tree Policy

In MCTS the most widely used utility function is called **Upper Confidence Bound** (UCB1).

A value of 2 for the tunable parameter C has been used in the past to yield promising results.



How to choose which route to follow in the expanded node?

Once we **decided which branch to expand**, we need to **find some strategy** to **traverse** through that branch down to its terminal node.

Default Policy

Play out the domain from a given non-terminal state to produce a **value estimate** (simulation). In the **simplest** case these are **just random moves**.



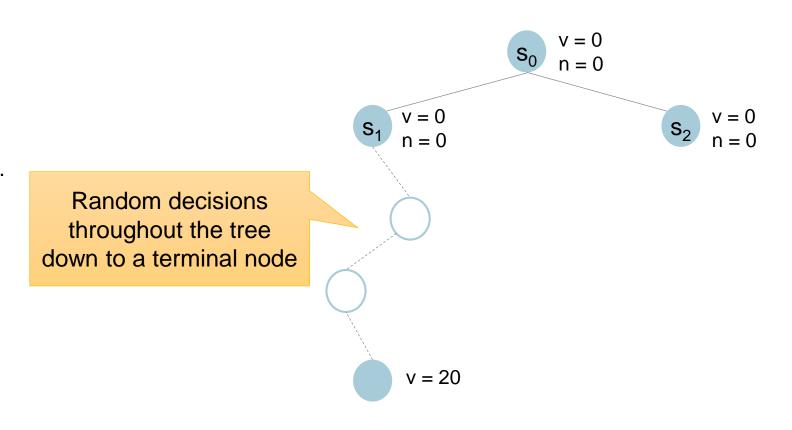


Monte Carlo Tree Search :: Example

Iteration 1 (Simulation Phase)

Since s₁ is a **leaf node** that has **not** been **visited yet**, we **perform** a **rollout** to a terminal state.

Via simulation we get a value estimate of 20. Remember, this is the result when playing out this branch to the end.



Based on an example from John Levine (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UXW2yZndl7U)

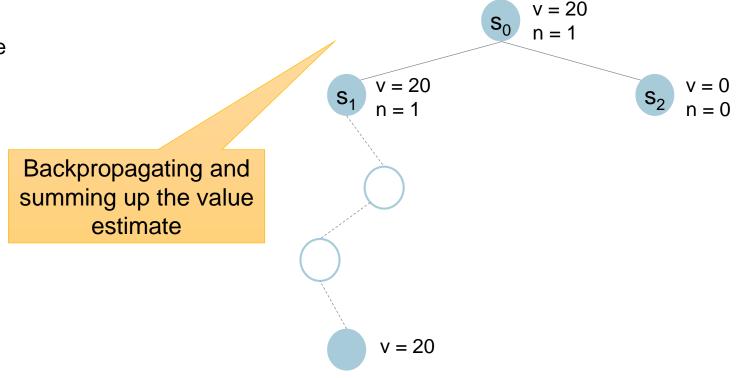


Monte Carlo Tree Search :: Example

Iteration 1 (Backpropagation Phase)

The value estimate is **backpropagated** up to the **root node**.

This **concludes** the **first iteration**.



Based on an example from John Levine (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UXW2yZndl7U)



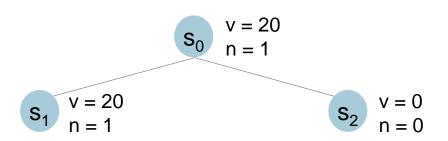
Iteration 2 (Selection Phase)

In the second iteration, again **starting** in s_0 , we calculate the **UCB1** (Upper Confidence Bound) scores for s_1 and s_2 .

UCB1(s₁) = 20 +2
$$\sqrt{\frac{\ln(1)}{1}}$$
 = 20

UCB1(s₂) is still infinite.

Since the UCB1 **score** of **s**₂ is **higher** we select this branch.

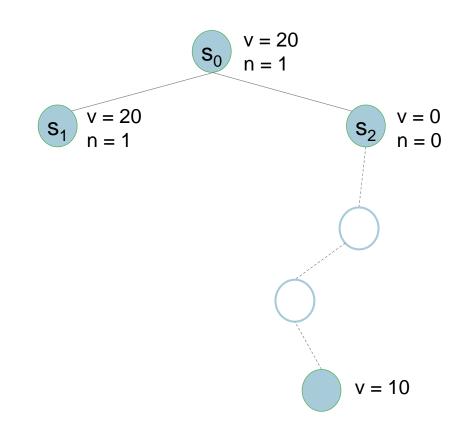




Iteration 2 (Simulation Phase)

Since s_2 is a leaf node which has **not been** visited yet, we perform a **rollout to** a **terminal** state.

Via simulation we get a value estimate of 10.

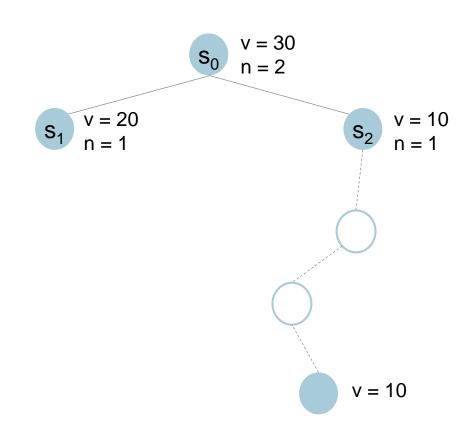




Iteration 2 (Backpropagation Phase)

The value estimate is backpropagated up to the root node.

This concludes the second iteration.





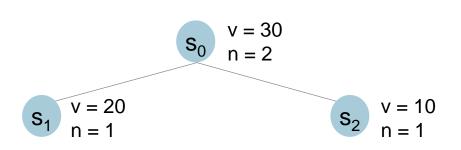
Iteration 3 (Selection Phase)

In the third iteration, again **starting** in s_0 , we **calculate** the **UCB1** scores for s_1 and s_2 .

UCB1(s₁) =
$$20 + 2\sqrt{\frac{\ln(2)}{1}}$$
 = 21.67

UCB1(
$$\mathbf{s_2}$$
) = 10 +2 $\sqrt{\frac{\ln(2)}{1}}$ = 11.67

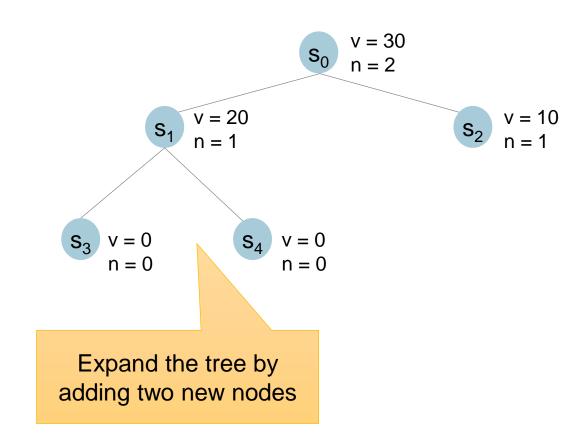
Since the UCB1 score of s_1 is **higher** we **expand** this branch.





Iteration 3 (Expansion Phase)

Since s_1 is a **leaf** node but has **already** been **visited**, we expand the tree.



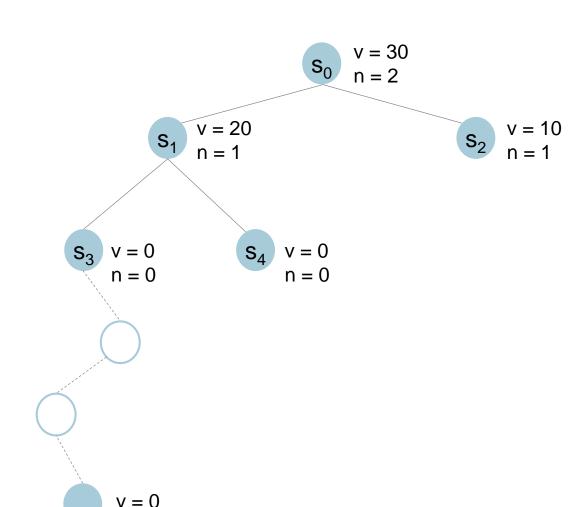


Iteration 3 (Simulation Phase)

We calculate the UCB1 score for both nodes, s_3 and s_4 .

Since the UCB1 score for both children **infinite** (no one has been visited before) we can again **choose** to start with the leftmost child which is s₃.

We perform the **rollout** and via **simulation** get a value estimate of **0**.

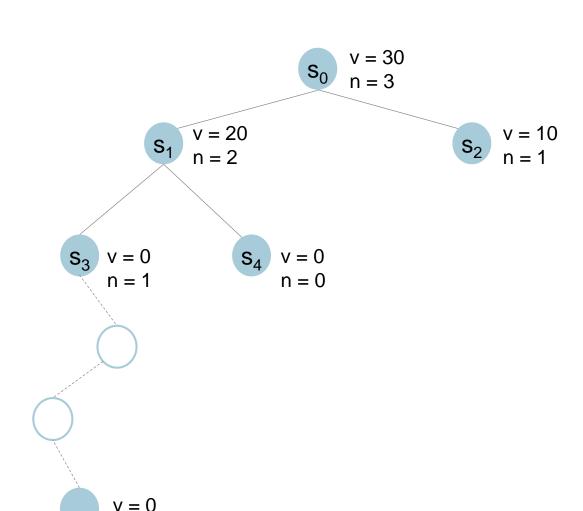




Iteration 3 (Backpropagation Phase)

The **value estimate** is now **backpropagated** up to the **root** node.

This concludes the third iteration.





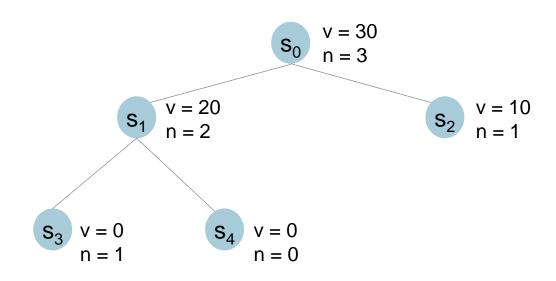
Iteration 4 (Selection Phase)

In the fourth iteration, again starting in s_0 , we calculate the UCB1 scores for s_1 and s_2 .

UCB1(s₁) =
$$20 + 2\sqrt{\frac{\ln(3)}{2}}$$
 = 11.48

UCB1(
$$\mathbf{s_2}$$
) = 10 +2 $\sqrt{\frac{\ln(3)}{1}}$ = **12.10**

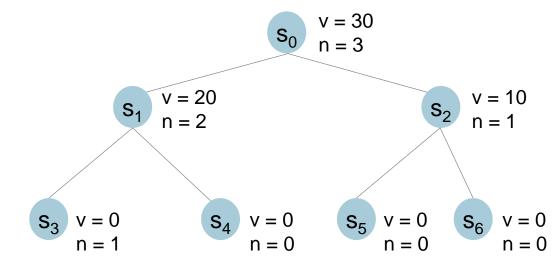
Since the UCB1 score of $\mathbf{s_2}$ is **higher** we explore this branch.





Iteration 4 (Expansion Phase)

Since s_2 is a leaf node but has **already** been **visited**, we **expand** the tree. (s_5, s_6)



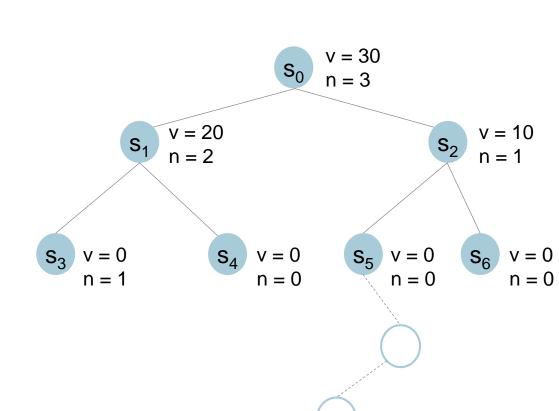


Iteration 4 (Simulation Phase)

We **calculate** the **UCB1** score for both nodes, $\mathbf{s_5}$ and $\mathbf{s_6}$.

Since the **UCB1 score** for **both** children is infinite (both have not been visited before) we can again **choose** to start with the **leftmost** node which is s_5 .

We **perform** a **rollout** and via **simulation** get a value estimate of **14**.



Based on an example from John Levine (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UXW2yZndl7U)

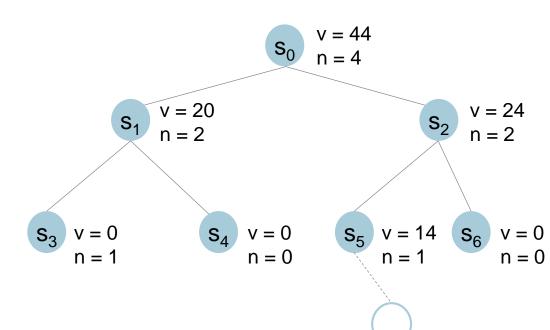


v = 14

Iteration 4 (Backpropagation Phase)

The value estimate is backpropagated up to the root node.

This concludes the fourth iteration.



Based on an example from John Levine (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UXW2yZndl7U)



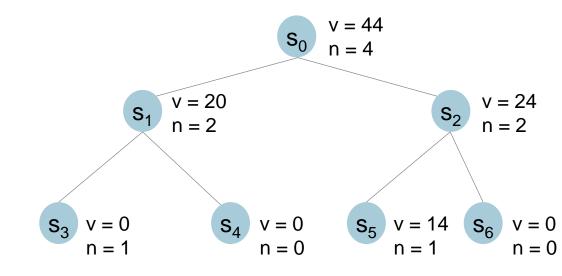
v = 14

Result

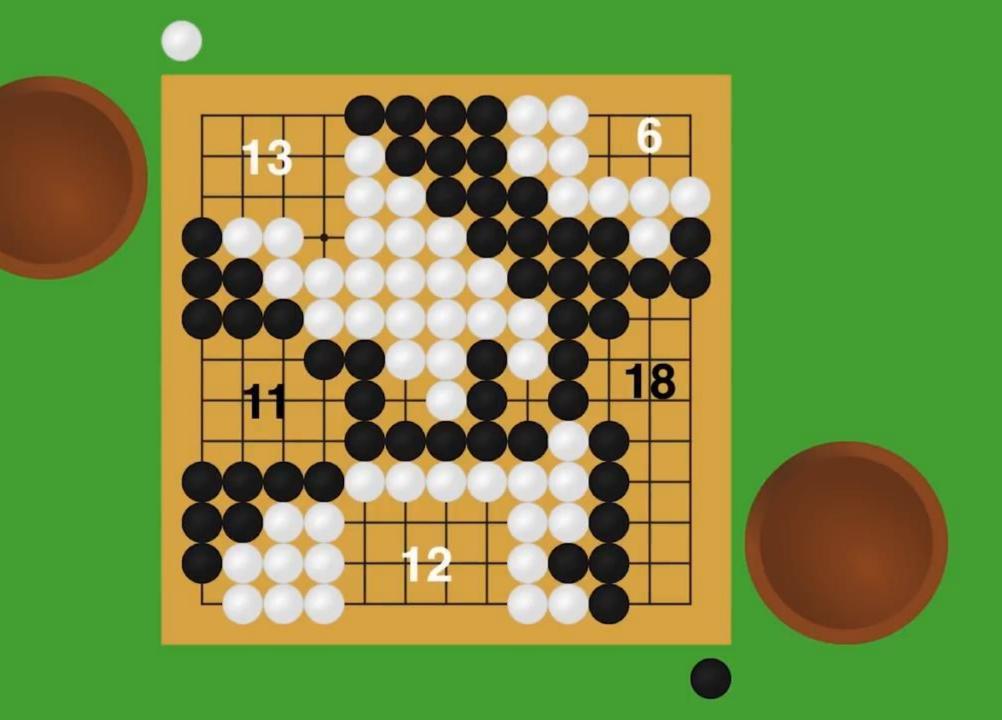
Following the design of the MCTS algorithm we could do as many iterations as we want.

However, if we were to **stop** now, the **branches** with the **highest total scores** would be optimal to choose (which is s_2 followed by s_5).

More iterations often improve results.







Background

- Remember, in a 19x19 Go board there are 2.08*10¹⁷⁰ valid game states.
- While boards with the size of 5x5 have successfully been solved in 2002,
 19x19 boards have long been assumed unsolvable.

Approach by DeepMind via AlphaGo

- In 2015 DeepMind realized their idea of solving Go via machine learning and MCTS.
- They combine two approaches in their implementation:
 - Value networks to evaluate board positions and policy networks to select moves.
 - A search algorithm that combines Monte Carlo simulation with value and policy networks.







Training pipeline of AlphaGo

Rollout policy and Supervised Learning (SL) policy

- A rollout policy trained on 8 million human expert moves (accuracy of 24.2% in just 2μ s).
- A 13-layer convolutional neural network trained on 30 million moves of human experts (accuracy of 57% while best result of other research groups was 44.4%).

Reinforcement Learning (RL) policy

- Aims to improve the **Supervised Learning** (SL-)policy **through self-play** by having the same architecture as the SL-policy but initializing it with the final RL-weights.
- This adjusts the policy towards the correct goal of winning games rather than maximizing predictive accuracy.

Silver, D., Huang, A., Maddison, C. et al. Mastering the game of Go with deep neural networks and tree search. Nature 529, 484-489 (2016).

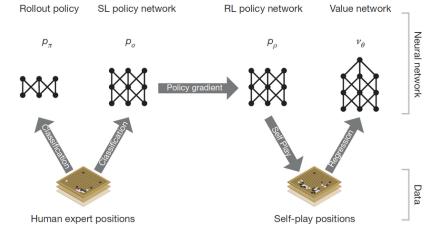


Training pipeline of AlphaGo (cont'd)

Value Networks

- A value network approximates the optimal value function.
- Trained by 30 million moves sampled from distinct games of self-play from RL-policy.
- While the policy networks reveal which moves are promising, the value network determines how good a board position is.

Network overview



Silver, D., Huang, A., Maddison, C. et al. Mastering the game of Go with deep neural networks and tree search. Nature 529, 484–489 (2016).



MCTS during live play

- Up until now the models are trained but still have to be processed.
- Right now the network does not play any better than any state-of-the-art MCTS algorithm.
- The key factor is combing the neural networks with MCTS in what is called asynchronous policy and value MCTS (APV-MCTS).

Evaluation of terminal nodes

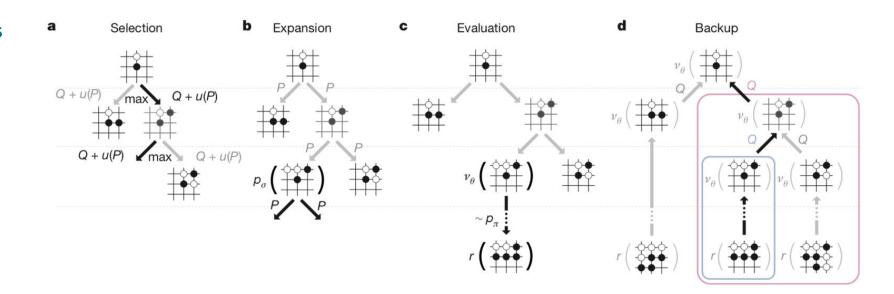
- (1) by the value network $v_{\theta}(s_L)$.
- (2) by the outcome of MCTS simulations z_L .

These evaluations are combined into a terminal node evaluation using a mixing parameter λ tuned to 0.5 : $V(s_L) = (1 - \lambda)v_{\theta}(s_L) + \lambda z_L$

Silver, D., Huang, A., Maddison, C. et al. Mastering the game of Go with deep neural networks and tree search. Nature 529, 484–489 (2016).



Evaluation of terminal nodes



Play strength of AlphaGo

When released in 2015, AlphaGo won against European Go champion *Fan Hui* followed by winning 4 out of 5 matches against 18 times world champion *Lee Se-dol*.

Silver, D., Huang, A., Maddison, C. et al. Mastering the game of Go with deep neural networks and tree search. Nature 529, 484-489 (2016).





Monte Carlo Tree Search



Algorithms and Data Structures 2, 340300 Lecture – 2023W Univ.-Prof. Dr. Alois Ferscha, teaching@pervasive.jku.at

JOHANNES KEPLER UNIVERSITY LINZ Altenberger Straße 69 4040 Linz, Austria iku.at