

COMENIUS UNIVERSITY IN BRATISLAVA
FACULTY OF MATHEMATICS, PHYSICS AND INFORMATICS



ARTIFICIAL NEURAL NETWORK AS AN OPPONENT IN QUORIDOR

Bachelor Thesis

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Aim:

1. Naštudujte a urobte stručný prehľad existujúcich, nie nutne konekcionistických, prístupov pri tvorbe agentov hrajúcich stolné hry.
2. Naprogramujte inteligentného agenta postaveného na báze neurónových sietí, ktorý sa bude učiť hrať Quoridor.
3. Otestuje a vyhodnotíte správanie agenta.

Literature: Kvasnička V., Beňušková., Pospíchal J., Farkaš I., Tiňo P. a Král' A. (1997). Úvod do teórie neurónových sietí. Iris: Bratislava

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Declaration of Authorship

I do solemnly declare that I have written the presented thesis by myself under careful supervision of my thesis advisor without undue help from a second person other than that specified.

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I would like to thank my advisor Mgr. Peter Gergel' for suggestions, help, guidance and friendly approach.

Abstract

Quoridor is a two/four-player competitive game whose objective is to reach opposite side of gameboard sooner than opponents. Till today no satisfying artificial intelligent system exists that could challenge advanced players. In this work, we summarize existing strategies for designing intelligent agents and propose connectionist-based solution with combination of reinforcement learning. Considering no dataset of expert human-player games exists we have designed simple heuristic to act as a teacher in supervised learning. Our agent has been able to successfully imitate behaviour of heuristic player which offers potential for mastering the game providing expert-game dataset.

Abstrakt

Quoridor je kompetitívna hra dvoch/štyroch hráčov, ktorých cieľom je dostať sa na opačnú stranu hernej dosky skôr ako súper. Do dnešného dňa stále neexistuje priateľná umelá inteligencia, ktorá by bola výzvou pre skúsených hráčov. V tejto práci sumarizujeme existujúce stratégie pre návrh inteligentných agentov a navrhujeme konekcionistické riešenie v kombinácii s učením posilňovaním. Pretože neexistuje žiadna databáza odohratých hier skúsených hráčov, navrhli sme jednoduchú heuristiku, ktorá slúžila ako učiteľ pri trénoch. Náš agent sa dokázal úspešne naučiť imitovať správanie heuristického hráča, čo ponúka potenciál, aby sa naučil hrať ako expert v prípade poskytnutí databázy hier skúsených hráčov.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Since it is in our nature to play games, we seek for better opponents to improve ourselves. There are variety of games where we can enhance our mental abilities and many of them are well known for centuries.

However, there were found optimal strategies for some games, which may sometimes seem either less challenging or even less interesting. Nevertheless, game Quoridor is not among these yet. Considering it has been invented relatively recently (1997), attempts realized to create a computer agent have been scarce. Additionally, there has been no success with the use of artificial neural networks. Also, game complexity estimation created by mertens has not been properly addressed to the authors knowledge.

In this work, we will make brief overview of existing approaches to the production of agents playing games in the background section. Game itself with history will be described in latter section together with closer upper bound complexity estimation.

Within the scope of this thesis, we have implemented a simple console application where Quoridor can be played. As part of this application we have tried implementing and training neural network, for which an opponent with simple heuristics will be created as an reference point to the improvement of the trained network. Moreover, we will try to combine reinforcement learning method 'Q-learning' with networks ability to generalize to estimate the best action.

In the last section we demonstrate results achieved.

Chapter 2

Background

In this chapter, we will introduce Python programming language and different existing approaches in solving board games with agent based model.

2.1 Python

Python is widely used and popular programming language. It is interpreted, high-level, dynamic programming language supporting multiple programming paradigms, including functional, object-oriented and procedural style. It has been designed with regard to readability, easy adoption for novices and scalability of programs. Python offers a lot of utilities as part of its comprehensive standard library. It is possible to work in Python under multiple operating systems and it is often standard component among many linux distributions.

2.2 Agent based model, Markov decision process and Game theory

Agent based model (ABM) is a paradigm in modeling systems comprised of autonomous agents. Also, it is a class of computational models for simulations of the actions and interactions between agents. There are multiple definitions of agents [1], often, agent is an identifiable component with reaction rules being able to make independent decisions (or behaviours) and sometimes with ability to learn and adapt to the environment.

Markov decision process (MDP) is a mathematical model for describing stochastic discrete time decision processes. Important property that the process must have is a memorylessness, which means that the next state depends only on current state and action but no other preceding states.

Game theory studies conflict or cooperation between rational decision makers and also different strategies for given problems. Computational complexity theory is used

to determine or estimate game complexity. Here, MDP is often used to describe such rational decision makers.

When finding the optimal strategy for a game with large number of states it is not feasible to use brute-force, instead following techniques are commonly used:

- Heuristic methods - Minimax, Alpha-beta pruning
- Reinforcement learning - Monte-carlo algorithms, Temporal difference methods, Q-learning
- Evolutionary methods - genetic algorithm
- Artificial neural networks
- Combination of different techniques

2.3 Minimax

The principle of the algorithm is to find the best action for an agent by traversing a game tree while minimizing maximum possible losses. The algorithm requires a heuristic function capable of evaluating arbitrary state in the game. It is also assumed that there are no infinite sequences of positions allowed.

Algorithm walks through all possible moves, performing heuristic evaluation of subsequent positions and picking up the action offering the most advantageous position. Evaluation is done by static evaluation function with combination of recursive call for the opponent. Often, recursion has limited depth to ensure the algorithm ends in a reasonable time.

2.3.1 Alpha-beta pruning

Alpha-beta pruning is enhancement of minimax algorithm. On average, it speeds up the minimax algorithm by eliminating branches of a game tree which will be certainly left off from choosing. Initially, alpha is set to negative infinity and beta to positive infinity. When there is a node

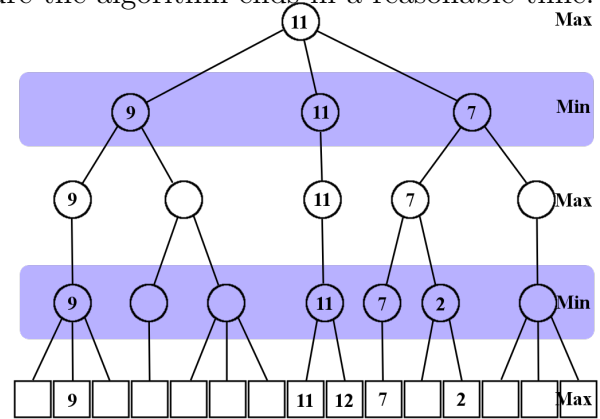


Fig. 2.1: alpha-beta pruning

being evaluated, where it is checked whether value for maximizing players is at least as value for minimizing player ($\alpha \geq \beta$), and if that is the case, all subsequent branches will not be explored, since it would make outcome on the parent node worse.

In example scenario at figure 2.1, middle branch has been evaluated first, with value of 11 for minimizing player. This has been back-propagated to the top node as $\alpha=11$. Next, evaluation of the right branch yielded with value 2. Minimizing parent branch is then assured to have minimum of $\beta \leq 2$, which is certainly less than maximizing top

node can choose from, so the remaining leaves is not explored. Then, traversal reaches leaf node with value 7, which is back-propagated to the uppermost minimizing player. Since his $\beta \leq 7$ other branches are left off because root node would not pick this branch having $\alpha = 11$ as a better choice. At last, traversal ends up in the leaf with value 9. Minimizing parent node is now certain to have $\beta \leq 9$ while $\alpha > \beta$, therefore, other nodes are not explored. Value 9 is back-propagated through the parent maximizing to the uppermost β value and so, this whole branch is cut off from further exploration. Since, there are no other branches to explore for the root maximizing player, maximum value 11 is chosen as a result.

In the end, 15 out of 31 nodes were not explored. With higher branching factor, it could be even better ratio in the best case scenario. Despite that alpha-beta pruning may be improvement to minimax, with its exponential time complexity it is less likely to be used for problems, where game complexity is large and there is no well known evaluation function for that particular problem.

2.4 Reinforcement learning

Reinforcement learning (RL) methods are often proposed in cases with large game decision trees where there would be necessary to create complex behaviours and rules otherwise. Commonly, it allows agent to learn best policy based on feedback from the game environment in form of reward or punishment. Agent updates its behaviour to maximize long term reward or to minimize overall punishment. It is done by estimating value of a particular game state or by estimating values of actions available in the state.

2.4.1 Q-Learning

Q-Learning belongs to class of RL methods. It learns an action-value (q-value) function for any finite Markov decision process used to find optimal policy for an agent. After it has learned the q-value function, it can follow the optimal strategy simply by choosing action with the best q-value. Algorithm uses following value iteration update for every observed state[2]:

$$Q_{t+1}(s_t, a_t) \leftarrow Q_t(s_t, a_t) + \alpha \cdot (R_{t+1} + \gamma \cdot \max_a Q_t(s_{t+1}, a) - Q_t(s_t, a_t)) \quad (2.1)$$

where $Q_t(s_t, a_t)$ is old value, α is learning rate, R_{t+1} is reward after performing action a_t in state s_t , γ is discount factor and $\max_a Q_t(s_{t+1}, a)$ is maximum optimal future value.

2.5 Artificial neural networks

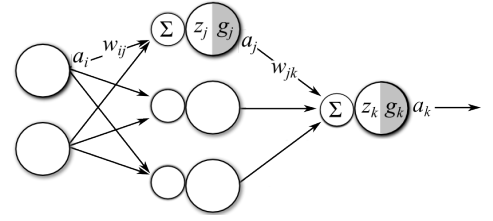


Fig. 2.2: ANN

Artificial neural network (ANN) is a family of models inspired by biological neural networks used in computer science to approximate functions with large number of inputs. Generally, artificial neural network is presented as a system of interconnected neurons exchanging activations between each other. These connections uses weights that are adjusted based on experience which makes the network capable of learning.

Simple perceptron is an algorithm for supervised learning of binary classifiers where one neuron has multiple weighted inputs and single output. Single layer perceptron (SLP) is made by stacking simple perceptron to each other and can learn to classify linearly separable patterns.

Multi layer perceptron is extension of SLP with arbitrary number of hidden layers using nonlinear activation functions. This model is able to classify reasonably good on non-separable classes and is able to approximate arbitrary continuous function.

2.6 Perceptron estimating Q-values

Main advantage of ANN is its ability to generalize. They have been used in game Othello [3] with combination of Q-learning (Eq. 2.2) so

$$\hat{Q}^{new} \leftarrow r_t + \gamma \max_a \hat{Q}(s_{t+1}, a) \quad (2.2)$$

network was able to learn to estimate q-values for each state. Learning rate α for Q-learning iteration update was set to 1.0 since ANN has its own learning rate which was adjusted there.

Chapter 3

Quoridor

3.1 History

Game Quoridor was invented by Mirko Marchesi based on game Blockade and has been published and sold (fig. 3.1) by french company Gigamic Games in 1997. Since it has been developed relatively early compared to other games such as Chess or Go, there have been only few attempts of analysing the game and creating game agents.

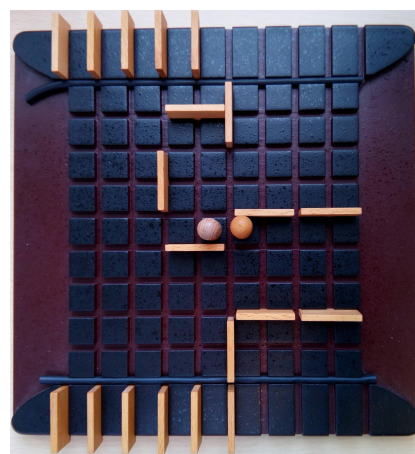


Fig. 3.1: real board

3.2 Rules

Quoridor is abstract board strategy game for 2 or 4 players with size of $9 \times 9 = 81$ squares. This thesis covers 2 player version of the game.

Each player starts (Fig. 3.2) with a single pawn in the center of the edge on the opposite side as the opponent. The goal for each player is to reach the opposite edge.

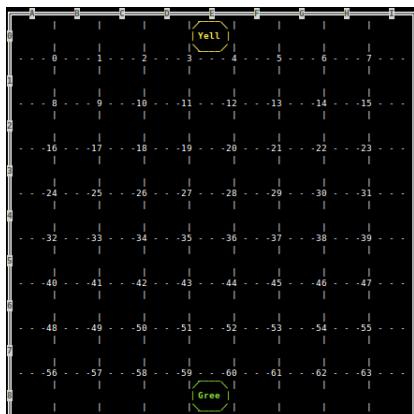


Fig. 3.2: game start

Player also starts with 10 walls (fences) in the stock. Walls are two space wide and can be placed in the groove that runs between the spaces. Wall in pawn's path forces him to go around it. Once placed walls can not be moved nor removed. They can not be placed to the position already occupied or when crossing other wall. Final rule is, wall can not cut off the only remaining path of any pawn to his goal.

Upon player's on turn, he may place wall, if he has left some, or move his pawn to adjacent (not diagonal and occupied) space. If opponent's pawn stands on an adjacent space, current player

can jump with his pawn to all the places where the opponent pawn can move.

3.3 State Complexity

Upper bound for estimation of game state complexity was $3.9905 \cdot 10^{42}$ [4] (eq. 3.1). However, this is very rough estimate, since it includes many states multiple times where it counts with permutations instead of combinations of walls. Author used following formula to estimate:

$$\begin{aligned} S_p &= 81 \cdot 80 = 6480 \\ S_f &= \sum_{i=0}^{20} \prod_{j=0}^i (128 - 4j) = 6.1582 \cdot 10^{38} \\ S &= S_p \cdot S_f = \mathbf{3.9905 \cdot 10^{42}} \end{aligned} \tag{3.1}$$

S_p represents number of possible pawn placement combinations, S_f represents estimate of walls permutations possible and S is final estimate including possibilities combining pawn placements combinations with permutations of walls.

Our approach (eq. 3.2) for estimating state complexity shares the similar idea. Moreover, this estimate will differ between states when different player is on the move, and also, when there is different number of walls in players stocks. Both of these could make the game very different in the outcome.

$$\begin{aligned} S_p &= 81 \cdot 80 - 9 \cdot 9 = 6399 \\ f(i) &= \begin{cases} i + 1 & \text{if } i \leq 10 \\ 21 - i & \text{if } i > 10 \end{cases} \\ S_f &= \sum_{i=0}^{20} f(i) \binom{128}{i} = 1.7796 \cdot 10^{23} \\ S &= 2 \cdot S_p \cdot S_f = \mathbf{2.2775 \cdot 10^{27}} \end{aligned} \tag{3.2}$$

S_p was corrected to not include both pawns in the winning positions. $f(i)$ stands for different wall counts in the stocks. $\binom{128}{i}$ are all (valid and invalid) combinations of walls. 2 in $2 \cdot S_p \cdot S_f$ represents different players on turn. Also note that this estimate includes impossible states such as:

- walls crossing each other
- pawns not having the path to the winning position
- pawn in the winning position where it could not end due to walls

The result is maximum number of possible states, which is significantly less than former estimate. However, even if it was possible to evaluate 10^6 states in one second, it would take around $7.2172 \cdot 10^{13}$ years to evaluate this many states. Also, let's assume it takes on average 50B of memory per state. Then it would need approximately $1.1387 \cdot 10^{29}$ bytes of memory to store all states in the computer. This is the reason why simple Q-learning is not feasible.

It is worth to note, that if invalid wall combinations with walls crossing could be removed from $\binom{128}{i}$, this estimate would be very precise.

3.4 Game Tree Complexity

Average branching factor of the game has been experimentally measured to be 60.4 and average game length to be 91.1 [5]. Mertens [4] used this to compute game-tree size G :

$$G = 60.4^{91.1} = 1.7884 \cdot 10^{162} \quad (3.3)$$

To create our own estimate of branching factor, we will estimate number of states where decision can be made and also number of different decisions possible. Branching factor will be simply division of these.

To count every possible pawn move, board is divided into three areas (fig. 3.3), where A and C are positions from the first and last row respectively and B are positions from 7 rows from the middle. So, position AC means, first pawn is in the first row and second pawn is in the last row or BB means, both pawns are in the middle 7 rows. Then, for each pattern (fig. 3.4), possible positions for making decision and possible decisions are counted.

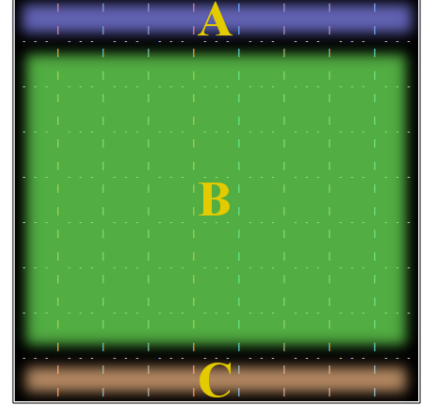


Fig. 3.3: board areas

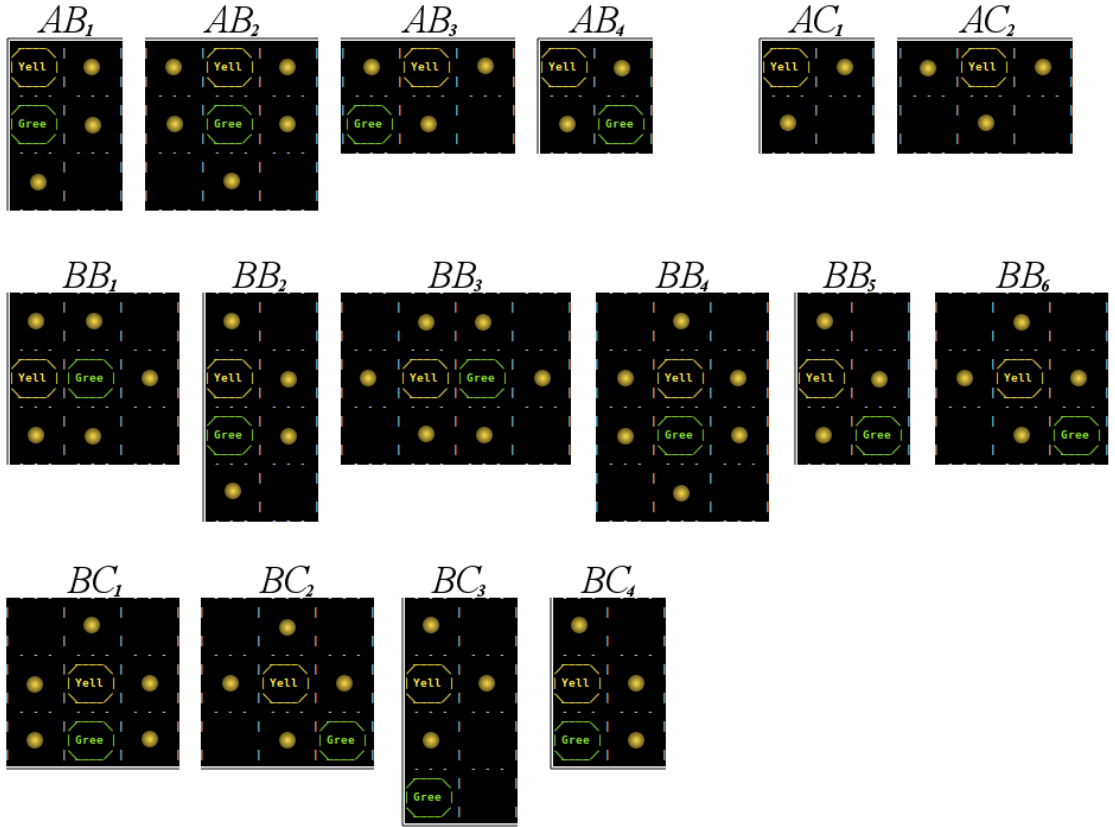


Fig. 3.4: decision patterns

In total, there are 3168 different positions where pawns can make decision and from that, there are 11309 different decision that pawns can make (Tab. 3.1).

	Positions	Decisions		Positions	Decisions
AB_1	2	$2 \cdot 3 = 6$	AC_1	$2 \cdot 9 = 18$	$18 \cdot 2 = 36$
AB_2	7	$7 \cdot 5 = 35$	AC_2	$7 \cdot 9 = 63$	$63 \cdot 3 = 189$
AB_3	$7 \cdot 62 = 434$	$434 \cdot 3 = 1302$	BB_1	$7 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 = 28$	$28 \cdot 5 = 140$
AB_4	$2 \cdot 62 = 124$	$124 \cdot 2 = 248$	BB_2	$6 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 = 24$	$24 \cdot 4 = 96$
BC_1	7	$7 \cdot 5 = 35$	BB_3	$6 \cdot 2 \cdot 7 = 84$	$84 \cdot 6 = 504$
BC_2	$42 \cdot 9 + 7 \cdot 8 = 434$	$434 \cdot 4 = 1736$	BB_4	$6 \cdot 2 \cdot 7 = 84$	$84 \cdot 6 = 504$
BC_3	$6 \cdot 9 \cdot 2 + 2 \cdot 8 = 124$	$124 \cdot 3 = 372$	BB_5	$2 \cdot 2 \cdot 60 + 5 \cdot 2 \cdot 59 = 830$	$830 \cdot 3 = 2490$
BC_4	2	$2 \cdot 2 = 4$	BB_6	$\binom{7 \cdot 9}{2} - \sum_{i < 6} BB_i = 903$	$903 \cdot 4 = 3612$

Tab. 3.1: positions and decisions

Next, maximum numbers of possible wall placement N relative to walls already placed i are shown in table 3.2:

i	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
N	128	125	123	120	118	115	113	111	109	107	105	103	101	98

i	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
N	96	94	92	90	88	86	0

Tab. 3.2: wall placement possibilities

Optimal pattern for taking as least as possible from future wall placement possibilities is shown in figure 3.5. Naturally, placement starts in the corner and the following walls are placed adjacent to each other.

Now, we can estimate all different states S_d for making decision (eq. 3.5), where $f(i)$ is the same function for stock factors from equations 3.2, $\binom{128}{i}$ is top estimate of different wall placement combinations.

Number of different decisions possible D are sum of all possible movements and all possible wall placements. For wall placements (eq. 3.4), there are different stock factors $g(i)$, since state where player moving has no walls in stock cannot place the wall.

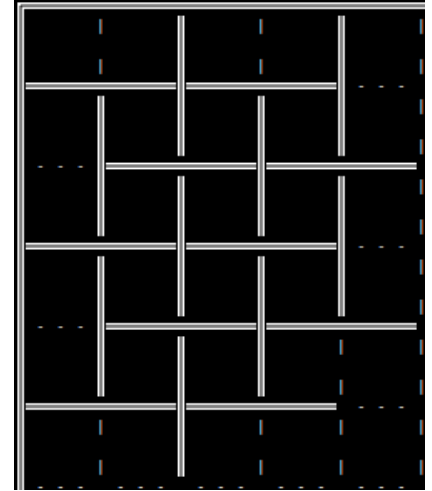


Fig. 3.5: min. tessellation example

$$g(i) = \begin{cases} i + 1 & \text{if } i \leq 9 \\ 20 - i & \text{if } i > 9 \end{cases} \quad (3.4)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
S_d &= 3168 \sum_{i=0}^{20} \binom{128}{i} f(i) = 5.6379 \cdot 10^{26} \\
D &= \sum_{i=0}^{20} \left[11309 f(i) \binom{128}{i} + 3168 g(i) N(i) \binom{128}{i} \right] = 1.0766 \cdot 10^{28}
\end{aligned} \tag{3.5}$$

However, S_d and D include states where there are walls crossing each other and pawns not having path to the winning position. Moreover, D does not count with number of movement possibilities taken by placed walls.

$$b = \frac{D}{S_d} = \frac{1.0766 \cdot 10^{28}}{5.6379 \cdot 10^{26}} = 19.0974 \tag{3.6}$$

The resulting estimate of branching factor b is significantly lower than the former estimate. But, it may be biased a little towards smaller number. It would be caused by more combinations in situations with all walls placed having more impossible positions than the other.

Game tree complexity C calculated with new branching factor estimate and with former average game length:

$$C = 19.0974^{91.1} = \mathbf{4.9758 \cdot 10^{116}} \tag{3.7}$$

Chapter 4

Implementation

4.1 Structure of our implementation

Our implementation consists of several classes, each explained in its own subsection.

4.1.1 Game

When implementing various games, class `Game` is often implemented as a set of tools operating on provided state. With this approach, tests can be easily designed to verify functionality. In many cases, following methods or attributes are available:

- `initial_state` - initial state of the game
- `is_terminal` - indicates, whether the given state is terminal
- `valid` - validates given state or action on the given state
- `actions` - lists all possible actions in the given state
- `execute_move` - returns new state after executing given action
- `utility` - value representing how the given state is beneficial for given player

We also consider following methods as it turned out they play important role in designing intelligent agents:

- `undo` - previous state before provided action and state
- `shortest_path` - shortest path to goal row for the given player
- `path_blockers` - set of wall positions that could block the given path
- `crossing_actions` - set of invalid actions that would cross already placed walls

4.1.2 State

Class `State` is the smallest possible representation of the game state where it can be easily distinguished between any two different states. Mathematically, state S can be defined as:

$$S = (c, p_y, p_g, s_y, s_g, w) \quad (4.1)$$

On the right side of the game board along the options possible, user can see some of the last moves in the HISTORY section. Below the board, there are displayed information such as move number, wall stocks, current distances from the goal and currently moving player.

4.2 Opponents

4.2.1 PathPlayer

PathPlayer is an agent that only follows shortest path to the goal row. I have used this agent as a reference to compare number of won games against HeuristicPlayer and QlearningNetworkPlayer. User cannot choose to play against this player.

4.2.2 HeuristicPlayer

HeuristicPlayer's algorithm is following:

- if no walls in stock, follow the shortest path
- if one step left to goal row, move to win
- if standing on the starting line, follow the shortest path
- if there are more than 2 possibilities to block (prolong) opponents path then with 60% probability follow the shortest path
- if there are wall positions blocking opponent's path and not blocking it's own path and it would not cut opponent from goal row, place one such wall
- in all other cases, follow the shortest path

4.2.3 NNPlayer

This player utilizes artificial neural network and was designed to learn from other players actions by watching their games.

4.2.4 QLNNPlayer

QLNNPlayer also uses artificial neural network and evaluates every action in the current state, takes action with maximum value and tries to play it. If move is not possible, it tries to play next best action.

4.3 Training NNPlayer and QLNNPlayer

To speed up the learning proccess, I have created TrainingStateGenerator class which provides states to start the training. As a game count rises, less trivial states are returned, until only standard initial state is used.

Each time `QLNNPlayer` plays during the training game (by eq. 2.2), desired output vector $\hat{Q}_{new}(s, t)$ is a copy of current output vector $\hat{Q}(s, t)$, where only value representing action performed by `QLNNPlayer` is updated to be either one of rewards r_{t+1} , r_{t+2} or maximum of the new q-value estimates $\max_a \hat{Q}(s', t+2)$ in the position, where `QLNNPlayer` is on the move again.

In the training, `QLNNPlayer` has probability of playing random move decreasing over time, so that there is a chance to explore and find better moves.

Function `handle_training` running the training along with `TrainingStateGenerator` and `TRAINING_STATES` resides in module `quoridor.ai.training`. It is started through the game menu and it is possible to run training against `PathPlayer` or `HeuristicPlayer`.

On the other side, `NNPlayer` tries to mimic an opponent. It receives the reward for every move the opponent does.

Chapter 5

Results

Our agent is based on multilayer perceptron with one hidden layer consisting of 1000 neurons. As an activation function we have used logistic sigmoid for hidden layer and linear function for output layer. Learning rate was set to $\alpha = 0.001$. In our experiments we let both heuristic players to play against each other and had neural network to observe one of them. For each state desired output was action executed by heuristic player.

Each plot shows relationship between number of observed actions and success rate against player. All games were set to maximum 1000 actions – upon crossing this limit, we consider this as a loss.

5.1 ANN vs Random player

To test whether our agent is learning anything at all, we let him played against pure random player that selects among all actions with uniform probability. This is of course not meaningful opponent, but it can tell us how many epochs are required to master this opponent.

We can see that agent was able to learn reasonably fast with less than 10^7 observed actions. Agent does not wins against random all times, because it tends to get stucked in dead end and moving there back and forth.

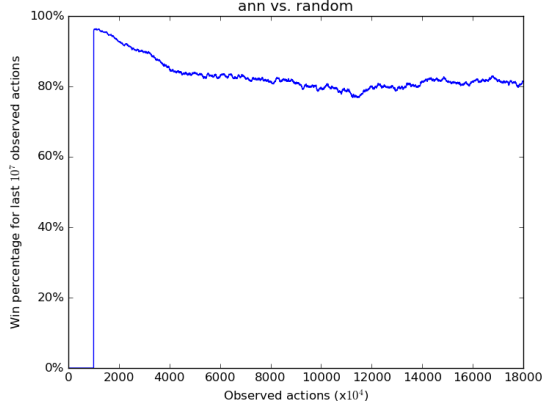


Fig. 5.1: ANN vs random player

5.2 ANN vs Path player

In this experiment we let play our agent against player that follows shortest path without ever placing wall. We can see agent was able to master the game and win every time. Tendency of getting stucked in dead end did not occur in this scenario because after some number of epochs all games became 100% deterministic, there was no random.

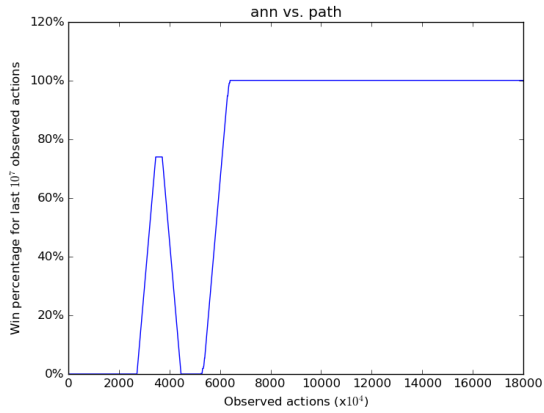


Fig. 5.2: ANN vs path player

5.3 ANN vs Heuristic player

In this last experiment we let play our agent against heuristic player. This was most challenging task for agent, but we can see tendency of learning was clearly still increasing, although was far from perfect.

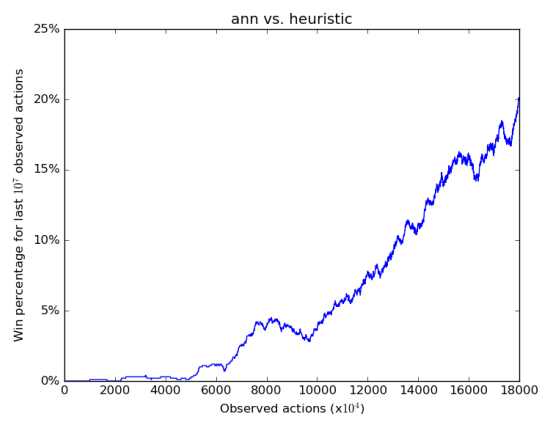


Fig. 5.3: ANN vs heuristic player

Chapter 6

Conclusion

In this work we have focused on game Quoridor. Particularly we have lowered the upper bound for state complexity and we have designed and implemented neural network based agent. Although efficacy of trained agent is far from excellent, it is clear that agent was able grasp strategy simply by observing various players actions during the game. Useful ability that agent gained during training was ability to find and follow shortest path in most cases.

One major problem that we encountered was agent getting stucked in dead end and moving back and forth. What could be done in future work could be elimination of this problem by remembering previous actions and disallowing selection of same actions. We also tried using combination of neural networks with Q-learning, but that turned out not to be successful. Since the training requires several parameters to be chosen (number of epochs, number of layers, learning rate, discount factor, input representation, decay rates), it is likely that we were not able to find optimal ones.

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