

GAME PLAYING

CHAPTER 6

Chapter 6 1

Outline

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

Chapter 6 2

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)

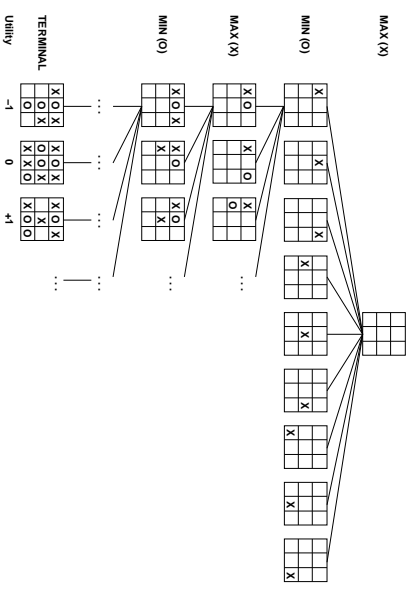
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Types of games

deterministic	chance
perfect information	imperfect information
chess, checkers, go, othello	backgammon monopoly
battleships, blind tic-tac-toe	bridge, poker, scrabble nuclear war

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Game tree (2-player, deterministic, turns)



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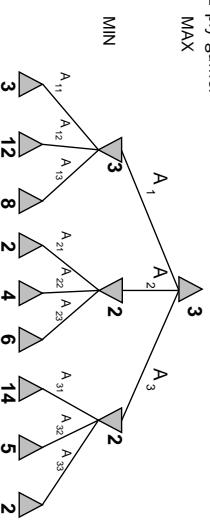
Minimax

Perfect play for deterministic, perfect-information games

Idea: choose move to position with highest **minimax value**

= best achievable payoff against best play

E.g., 2-ply game:



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Minimax algorithm

function **MINIMAX-DECISION**(*state*) returns an action

input: *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 $v \leftarrow \text{MAX}(v, \text{MIN-VALUE}(s))$

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 $v \leftarrow \text{MIN}(v, \text{MAX-VALUE}(s))$

return *v*

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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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Properties of minimax

Complete??

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??

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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

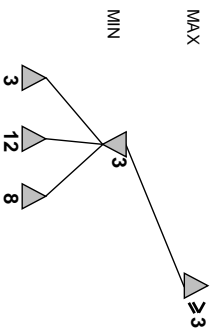
⇒ exact solution completely infeasible

But do we need to explore every path?

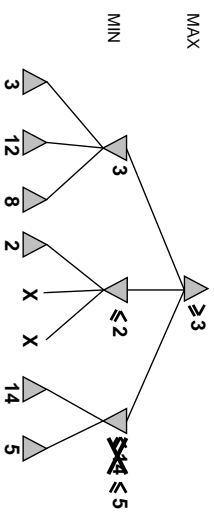
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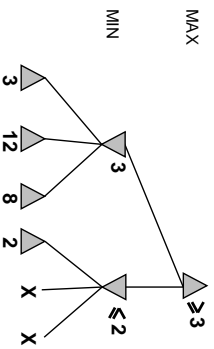
α - β pruning example



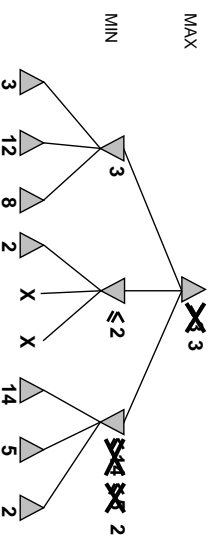
α - β pruning example



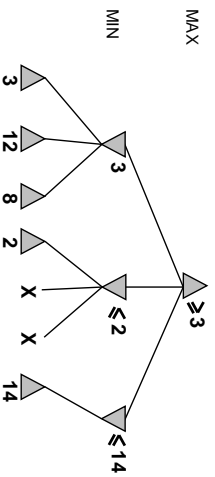
α - β pruning example



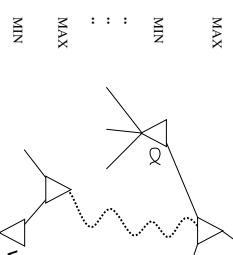
α - β pruning example



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

The α - β algorithm

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

function MAX-VALUE(*state*, α , β) returns a utility value

inputs: *state*, current state in game

α , the value of the best alternative for MAX along the path to *state
 β , 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

$v \leftarrow \text{MAX}(v, \text{MIN-VALUE}(s, \alpha, \beta))$

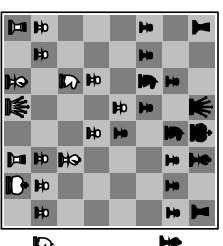
if $v \geq \beta$ then return v

$\alpha \leftarrow \text{MAX}(\alpha, v)$

return v

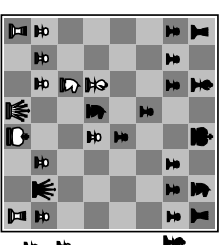
function MIN-VALUE(*state*, α , β) returns a utility value
 same as MAX-VALUE but with roles of α, β reversed

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.

Properties of α - β

Pruning **does not** affect final result

Good move ordering improves effectiveness of pruning

With "perfect ordering," time complexity = $O(b^{m/2})$

⇒ **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!

Resource limits

Standard approach:

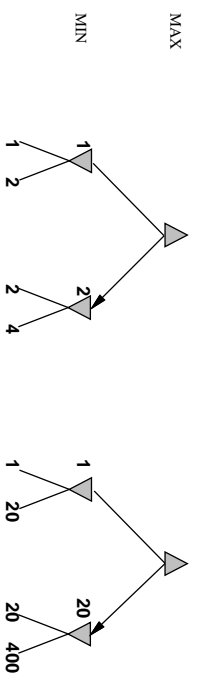
- Use CUTOFF-TEST instead of TERMINAL-TEST
 e.g., depth limit (perhaps add quiescence search)
- Use EVAL instead of UTILITY
 i.e., evaluation function that estimates desirability of position

Suppose we have 100 seconds, explore 10^4 nodes/second

⇒ 10^6 nodes per move $\approx 35^{9/2}$

⇒ α - β reaches depth 8 ⇒ pretty good chess program

Digression: Exact values don't matter



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

Only the order matters:

payoff in deterministic games acts as an ordinal utility function

Deterministic games in practice

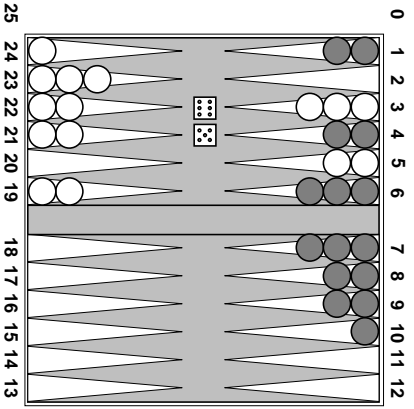
Checkers: Chinook ended 40-year-reign of human world champion Marion Tinsley in 1994. Used an endgame database defining perfect play for all positions involving 8 or fewer pieces on the board, a total of 443,748,401,247 positions.

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

Ohello: 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.

Nondeterministic games: backgammon



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Nondeterministic games in practice

Dice rolls increase b : 21 possible rolls with 2 dice

Backgammon ≈ 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

TTDGAMMON uses depth-2 search + very good EVAL

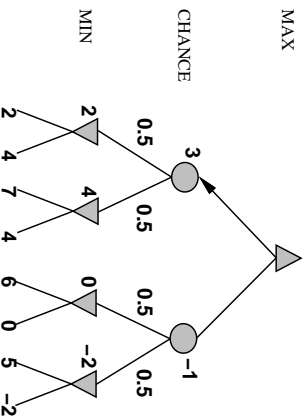
\approx world-champion level

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Nondeterministic games in general

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

Simplified example with coin-flipping:



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Algorithm for nondeterministic games

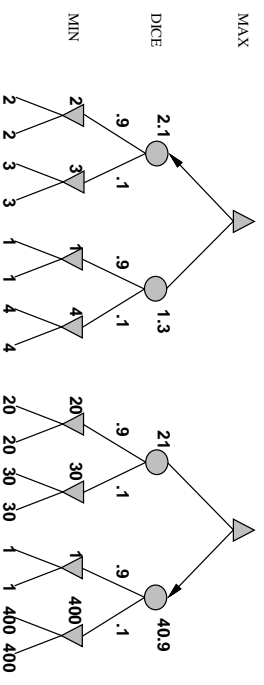
EXPECTMINIMAX gives perfect play

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

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

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Digression: Exact values DO matter



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

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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Example



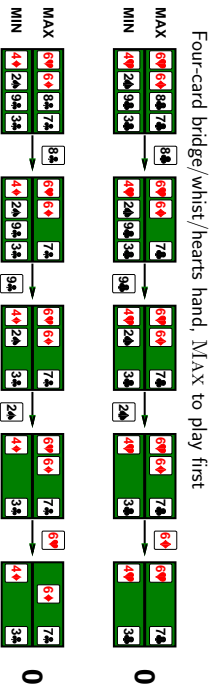
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Commonsense example

- 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.

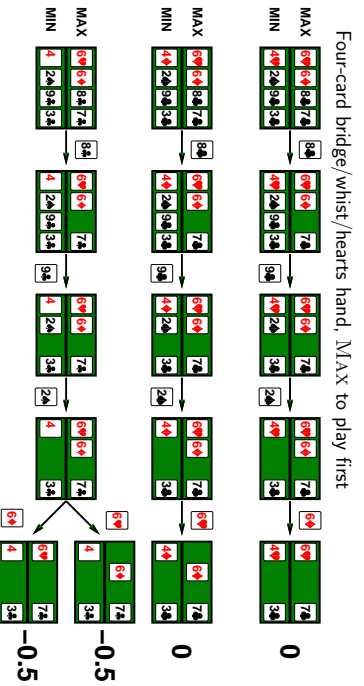
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Example



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Example



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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.
- Road A leads to a small heap of gold pieces
- 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.

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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.
- Road A leads to a small heap of gold pieces
- 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.

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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

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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

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