Game-Playing & Adversarial Search

This lecture topic:
Game-Playing & Adversarial Search (two lectures)
Chapter 5.1-5.5

Next lecture topic:
Constraint Satisfaction Problems (two lectures)
Chapter 6.1-6.4, except 6.3.3

(Please read lecture topic material before and after each lecture on that topic)
Overview

• **Minimax Search with Perfect Decisions**
  – Impractical in most cases, but theoretical basis for analysis

• **Minimax Search with Cut-off**
  – Replace terminal leaf utility by heuristic evaluation function

• **Alpha-Beta Pruning**
  – The fact of the adversary leads to an advantage in search!

• **Practical Considerations**
  – Redundant path elimination, look-up tables, etc.

• **Game Search with Chance**
  – Expectiminimax search
You Will Be Expected to Know

• Basic definitions (section 5.1)

• Minimax optimal game search (5.2)

• Alpha-beta pruning (5.3)

• Evaluation functions, cutting off search (5.4.1, 5.4.2)

• Expectiminimax (5.5)
## Types of Games

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfect Information</th>
<th>Deterministic</th>
<th>Imperfect Information</th>
<th>Chance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>chess, checkers, go, othello</td>
<td>battleship, Kriegspiel</td>
<td>backgammon, monopoly</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>bridge, poker, scrabble, nuclear war</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Not Considered: Physical games like tennis, croquet, ice hockey, etc.

(but see “robot soccer” [http://www.robocup.org/](http://www.robocup.org/))
Typical assumptions

- Two agents whose actions alternate
- Utility values for each agent are the opposite of the other
  - This creates the adversarial situation
- Fully observable environments
- In game theory terms:
  - "Deterministic, turn-taking, zero-sum games of perfect information"
- Generalizes to stochastic games, multiple players, non zero-sum, etc.
- Compare to, e.g., "Prisoner’s Dilemma" (p. 666-668, R&N 3rd ed.)
  - "Deterministic, NON-turn-taking, NON-zero-sum game of IMPerfect information"
Game tree (2-player, deterministic, turns)

How do we search this tree to find the optimal move?
Search versus Games

• **Search – no adversary**
  – Solution is (heuristic) method for finding goal
  – Heuristics and CSP techniques can find *optimal* solution
  – Evaluation function: estimate of cost from start to goal through given node
  – Examples: path planning, scheduling activities

• **Games – adversary**
  – Solution is strategy
    – strategy specifies move for every possible opponent reply.
  – Time limits force an *approximate* solution
  – Evaluation function: evaluate “goodness” of game position
  – Examples: chess, checkers, Othello, backgammon
Games as Search

• Two players: MAX and MIN

• MAX moves first and they take turns until the game is over
  – Winner gets reward, loser gets penalty.
  – “Zero sum” means the sum of the reward and the penalty is a constant.

• Formal definition as a search problem:
  – Initial state: Set-up specified by the rules, e.g., initial board configuration of chess.
  – Player(s): Defines which player has the move in a state.
  – Actions(s): Returns the set of legal moves in a state.
  – Result(s,a): Transition model defines the result of a move.
  – (2nd ed.: Successor function: list of (move,state) pairs specifying legal moves.)
  – Terminal-Test(s): Is the game finished? True if finished, false otherwise.
  – Utility function(s,p): Gives numerical value of terminal state s for player p.
    • E.g., win (+1), lose (-1), and draw (0) in tic-tac-toe.
    • E.g., win (+1), lose (0), and draw (1/2) in chess.

• MAX uses search tree to determine next move.
An optimal procedure: The Min-Max method

Designed to find the optimal strategy for Max and find best move:

1. Generate the whole game tree, down to the leaves.

2. Apply utility (payoff) function to each leaf.

3. Back-up values from leaves through branch nodes:
   - a Max node computes the Max of its child values
   - a Min node computes the Min of its child values

4. At root: choose the move leading to the child of highest value.
Figure 5.2  A two-ply game tree as generated by the minimax algorithm. The $\triangle$ nodes are moves by MAX and the $\triangledown$ nodes are moves by MIN. The terminal nodes show the utility value for MAX computed by the utility function (i.e., by the rules of the game), whereas the utilities of the other nodes are computed by the minimax algorithm from the utilities of their successors. MAX’s best move is $A_1$, and MIN’s best reply is $A_{11}$. 

Game Trees
Two-Ply Game Tree
Two-Ply Game Tree
Two-Ply Game Tree

Minimax maximizes the utility for the worst-case outcome for max
Pseudocode for Minimax Algorithm

function MINIMAX-DECISION(state) returns an action

inputs: state, current state in game

return arg \max_{a \in \text{ACTIONS}(state)} \text{MIN-VALUE}(\text{Result}(state,a))

function MAX-VALUE(state) returns a utility value

if TERMINAL-TEST(state) then return UTILITY(state)

\begin{align*}
v & \leftarrow -\infty \\
\text{for } a \text{ in ACTIONS(state) do} \\
v & \leftarrow \text{MAX}(v, \text{MIN-VALUE}(\text{Result}(state,a)))
\end{align*}

return v

function MIN-VALUE(state) returns a utility value

if TERMINAL-TEST(state) then return UTILITY(state)

\begin{align*}
v & \leftarrow +\infty \\
\text{for } a \text{ in ACTIONS(state) do} \\
v & \leftarrow \text{MIN}(v, \text{MAX-VALUE}(\text{Result}(state,a)))
\end{align*}

return v
Properties of minimax

• **Complete?**
  – Yes (if tree is finite).

• **Optimal?**
  – Yes (against an optimal opponent).
  – Can it be beaten by an opponent playing sub-optimally?
    • No. (Why not?)

• **Time complexity?**
  – $O(b^m)$

• **Space complexity?**
  – $O(bm)$ (depth-first search, generate all actions at once)
  – $O(m)$ (backtracking search, generate actions one at a time)
Game Tree Size

- **Tic-Tac-Toe**
  - $b \approx 5$ legal actions per state on average, total of 9 plies in game.
    - “ply” = one action by one player, “move” = two plies.
  - $5^9 = 1,953,125$
  - $9! = 362,880$ (Computer goes first)
  - $8! = 40,320$ (Computer goes second)
  - **exact solution quite reasonable**

- **Chess**
  - $b \approx 35$ (approximate average branching factor)
  - $d \approx 100$ (depth of game tree for “typical” game)
  - $b^d \approx 35^{100} \approx 10^{154}$ nodes!!
  - **exact solution completely infeasible**

- **It is usually impossible to develop the whole search tree.**
(Static) Heuristic Evaluation Functions

• **An Evaluation Function:**
  – Estimates how good the current board configuration is for a player.
  – Typically, evaluate how good it is for the player, how good it is for the opponent, then subtract the opponent’s score from the player’s.
  – Often called “static” because it is called on a static board position.
  – Othello: Number of white pieces - Number of black pieces
  – Chess: Value of all white pieces - Value of all black pieces

• **Typical values from** -infinity (loss) to +infinity (win) or [-1, +1].

• **If the board evaluation** is X for a player, it’s -X for the opponent
  – “Zero-sum game”
Evaluation functions

For chess, typically *linear* weighted sum of features

\[ \text{Eval}(s) = w_1 f_1(s) + w_2 f_2(s) + \ldots + w_n f_n(s) \]

e.g., \( w_1 = 9 \) with

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


**Cutting off search**

**MinimaxCutoff** is identical to **MinimaxValue** except
1. **Terminal?** is replaced by **Cutoff?**
2. **Utility** is replaced by **Eval**

Does it work in practice?

\[ b^m = 10^6, \quad b = 35 \quad \Rightarrow \quad m = 4 \]

4-ply lookahead is a hopeless chess player!

4-ply \(\approx\) human novice
8-ply \(\approx\) typical PC, human master
12-ply \(\approx\) Deep Blue, Kasparov
Applying MiniMax to tic-tac-toe

- The static heuristic evaluation function

\[ E(n) = M(n) - O(n) \]

where
- \( M(n) \) is the total of My possible winning lines
- \( O(n) \) is total of Opponent's possible winning lines
- \( E(n) \) is the total Evaluation for state \( n \)

**Figure 4.16** Heuristic measuring conflict applied to states of tic-tac-toe.
Figure 4.17 Two-ply minimax applied to the opening move of tic-tac-toe.
Figure 4.18  Two-ply minimax applied to X’s second move of tic-tac-toe.
Figure 4.19 Two-ply minimax applied to X's move near end game.
Digression: Exact values don’t matter

MAX

MIN

Behaviour is preserved under any \textit{monotonic} transformation of $\text{EVAL}$.

Only the order matters:

payoff in deterministic games acts as an \textit{ordinal utility} function.
Alpha-Beta Pruning
Exploiting the Fact of an Adversary

• If a position is provably bad:
  – It is NO USE expending search time to find out exactly how bad

• If the adversary can force a bad position:
  – It is NO USE expending search time to find out the good positions
    that the adversary won’t let you achieve anyway

• Bad = not better than we already know we can achieve elsewhere.

• Contrast normal search:
  – ANY node might be a winner.
  – ALL nodes must be considered.
  – (A* avoids this through knowledge, i.e., heuristics)
Tic-Tac-Toe Example with Alpha-Beta Pruning

Figure 4.17 Two-ply minimax applied to the opening move of tic-tac-toe.
Another Alpha-Beta Example

Do DF-search until first leaf
Alpha-Beta Example (continued)

MAX

MIN

$[-\infty, 3]$
Alpha-Beta Example (continued)

```
[\(-\infty, 3\)]
```

```
[-\infty, +\infty]
```

```
MAX
```

```
MIN
```

```
3
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```
12
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```
\leq 3
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```
\leq 3
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```
[-\infty, 3]
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\leq 3
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```
[-\infty, +\infty]
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Alpha-Beta Example (continued)

MAX

MIN

[3,3]

3

12

8

[3, +∞]

≥ 3
Alpha-Beta Example (continued)

This node is worse for MAX
Alpha-Beta Example (continued)

MAX

MIN

[3,3] 3 12 8 2

[3,14] ≥3, ≤14

[3,3] [-∞,2] 2

[3,14] ≤14
Alpha-Beta Example (continued)
Alpha-Beta Example (continued)
Alpha-Beta Example (continued)

MAX

MIN

[3,3]

[3,3]

[\(-\infty,2\)]

[2,2]

3

3

[3,3]

\[\leq 2\]

\[\leq 2\]

\[\leq 2\]

\[\leq 2\]

12

8

2

14

5

2
General alpha-beta pruning

• Consider a node $n$ in the tree ---

• If player has a better choice at:
  – Parent node of $n$
  – Or any choice point further up

• Then $n$ will never be reached in play

• Hence, when that much is known about $n$, it can be pruned.
Alpha-beta Algorithm

- Depth first search
  - only considers nodes along a single path from root at any time

\[ \alpha = \text{highest-value choice found at any choice point of path for MAX} \]
\[ (\text{initially, } \alpha = -\infty) \]
\[ \beta = \text{lowest-value choice found at any choice point of path for MIN} \]
\[ (\text{initially, } \beta = +\infty) \]

- Pass current values of \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) down to child nodes during search.
- Update values of \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) during search:
  - MAX updates \( \alpha \) at MAX nodes
  - MIN updates \( \beta \) at MIN nodes
- Prune remaining branches at a node when \( \alpha \geq \beta \)
When to Prune

• Prune whenever $\alpha \geq \beta$.
  
  – Prune below a Max node whose alpha value becomes greater than or equal to the beta value of its ancestors.
    • **Max nodes update alpha** based on children’s returned values.

  – Prune below a Min node whose beta value becomes less than or equal to the alpha value of its ancestors.
    • **Min nodes update beta** based on children’s returned values.
Alpha-Beta Example Revisited

Do DF-search until first leaf

\[ \alpha = -\infty, \quad \beta = +\infty \]

\[ \alpha, \beta, \text{initial values} \]

\[ \alpha = -\infty, \quad \beta = +\infty \]

\[ \alpha, \beta, \text{passed to kids} \]
MIN updates $\beta$, based on kids

$\alpha = -\infty$

$\beta = +\infty$

$\alpha = -\infty$

$\beta = 3$
Alpha-Beta Example (continued)

\[ \alpha = -\infty \]
\[ \beta = +\infty \]

MIN updates \( \beta \), based on kids.
No change.
MAX updates $\alpha$, based on kids.

$\alpha = 3$

$\beta = +\infty$

3 is returned as node value.
Alpha-Beta Example (continued)

\[ \alpha = 3 \]
\[ \beta = +\infty \]
MIN updates $\beta$, based on kids.

\[\alpha = 3\]
\[\beta = 2\]
Alpha-Beta Example (continued)

\[ \alpha = 3 \]
\[ \beta = +\infty \]

\[ \alpha \geq \beta, \text{ so prune.} \]
Alpha-Beta Example (continued)

MAX updates $\alpha$, based on kids. No change.

$\alpha = 3$

$\beta = +\infty$

2 is returned as node value.
Alpha-Beta Example (continued)

\[ \alpha = 3 \]
\[ \beta = +\infty \]

\( \alpha, \beta, \text{ passed to kids} \)
Alpha-Beta Example (continued)

\[ \alpha = 3 \]
\[ \beta = +\infty \]

MIN updates \( \beta \), based on kids.

\[ \alpha = 3 \]
\[ \beta = 14 \]
Alpha-Beta Example (continued)

MIN updates $\beta$, based on kids.

$\alpha = 3$

$\beta = +\infty$

$\alpha = 3$

$\beta = 5$
Alpha-Beta Example (continued)

\[ \alpha = 3 \]
\[ \beta = +\infty \]

2 is returned as node value.
Max calculates the same node value, and makes the same move!
Effectiveness of Alpha-Beta Search

• **Worst-Case**
  – branches are ordered so that no pruning takes place. In this case alpha-beta gives no improvement over exhaustive search

• **Best-Case**
  – each player’s best move is the left-most child (i.e., evaluated first)
  – in practice, performance is closer to best rather than worst-case
  – E.g., sort moves by the remembered move values found last time.
  – E.g., expand captures first, then threats, then forward moves, etc.
  – E.g., run Iterative Deepening search, sort by value last iteration.

• **In practice often get $O(b^{(d/2)})$ rather than $O(b^d)$**
  – this is the same as having a branching factor of $\sqrt{b}$,
    • $(\sqrt{b})^d = b^{(d/2)}$, i.e., we effectively go from $b$ to square root of $b$
  – e.g., in chess go from $b \sim 35$ to $b \sim 6$
    • this permits much deeper search in the same amount of time
Final Comments about Alpha-Beta Pruning

- Pruning does not affect final results
- Entire subtrees can be pruned.
- Good move *ordering* improves effectiveness of pruning
- Repeated states are again possible.
  - Store them in memory = transposition table
Example

-which nodes can be pruned?
Answer to Example

Which nodes can be pruned?

Answer: NONE! Because the most favorable nodes for both are explored last (i.e., in the diagram, are on the right-hand side).
Second Example
(the exact mirror image of the first example)

-which nodes can be pruned?
Answer to Second Example
(the exact mirror image of the first example)

-which nodes can be pruned?

Answer: LOTS! Because the most favorable nodes for both are explored first (i.e., in the diagram, are on the left-hand side).
Iterative (Progressive) Deepening

• In real games, there is usually a time limit $T$ on making a move

• How do we take this into account?
• using alpha-beta we cannot use “partial” results with any confidence unless the full breadth of the tree has been searched
  – So, we could be conservative and set a conservative depth-limit which guarantees that we will find a move in time $< T$
    • disadvantage is that we may finish early, could do more search

• In practice, iterative deepening search (IDS) is used
  – IDS runs depth-first search with an increasing depth-limit
  – when the clock runs out we use the solution found at the previous depth limit
Heuristics and Game Tree Search: limited horizon

• The Horizon Effect
  – sometimes there’s a major “effect” (such as a piece being captured) which is just “below” the depth to which the tree has been expanded.
  – the computer cannot see that this major event could happen because it has a “limited horizon”.
  – there are heuristics to try to follow certain branches more deeply to detect such important events
  – this helps to avoid catastrophic losses due to “short-sightedness”

• Heuristics for Tree Exploration
  – it may be better to explore some branches more deeply in the allotted time
  – various heuristics exist to identify “promising” branches
Eliminate Redundant Nodes

• On average, each board position appears in the search tree approximately $\sim 10^{150} / \sim 10^{40} \approx 10^{100}$ times.
  => Vastly redundant search effort.

• Can’t remember all nodes (too many).
  => Can’t eliminate all redundant nodes.

• However, some short move sequences provably lead to a redundant position.
  – These can be deleted dynamically with no memory cost

• Example:
  1. P-QR4 P-QR4;  2. P-KR4 P-KR4
  leads to the same position as
  1. P-QR4 P-KR4;  2. P-KR4 P-QR4
Nondeterministic games: backgammon
Nondeterministic games in general

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

Simplified example with coin-flipping:

```
          MAX
         /\  
        /   
       /     
      CHANCE  
     /\     /\   
    /   3   0.5 0.5   0.5 0.5
   /     
  /       
 MIN  2 4 7 4 0 5 -2
```
Algorithm for nondeterministic games

\textsc{Expectiminimax} gives perfect play

Just like \textsc{Minimax}, except we must also handle chance nodes:

\begin{verbatim}
\ldots
\textbf{if} \textit{state} is a \textsc{Max} node \textbf{then}
    \textbf{return} the highest \textsc{Expectiminimax-Value} of \textsc{Successors}(\textit{state})
\textbf{if} \textit{state} is a \textsc{Min} node \textbf{then}
    \textbf{return} the lowest \textsc{Expectiminimax-Value} of \textsc{Successors}(\textit{state})
\textbf{if} \textit{state} is a chance node \textbf{then}
    \textbf{return} average of \textsc{Expectiminimax-Value} of \textsc{Successors}(\textit{state})
\ldots
\end{verbatim}
The State of Play

• **Checkers:**

• **Chess:**

• **Othello:**
  – human champions refuse to compete against computers: they are too good.

• **Go:**
  – human champions refuse to compete against computers: they are too bad
  – $b > 300$ (!)

• **See (e.g.)** [http://www.cs.ualberta.ca/~games/](http://www.cs.ualberta.ca/~games/) for more information
PHILADELPHIA (Reuter) -
IBM chess computer Deep Blue made chess history Saturday when it defeated world champion Garry Kasparov, the first time a computer program has beaten a grandmaster under strict tournament conditions.

IBM Deep Blue - Kasparov,G [B22]
Philadelphia (1), 1996

Deep Blue

• 1957: Herbert Simon
  – “within 10 years a computer will beat the world chess champion”

• 1997: Deep Blue beats Kasparov

• Parallel machine with 30 processors for “software” and 480 VLSI processors for “hardware search”

• Searched 126 million nodes per second on average
  – Generated up to 30 billion positions per move
  – Reached depth 14 routinely

• Uses iterative-deepening alpha-beta search with transpositioning
  – Can explore beyond depth-limit for interesting moves
Moore’s Law in Action?
Summary

• Game playing is best modeled as a search problem

• Game trees represent alternate computer/opponent moves

• Evaluation functions estimate the quality of a given board configuration for the Max player.

• Minimax is a procedure which chooses moves by assuming that the opponent will always choose the move which is best for them

• Alpha-Beta is a procedure which can prune large parts of the search tree and allow search to go deeper

• For many well-known games, computer algorithms based on heuristic search match or out-perform human world experts.