

#### CS 5/7320 Artificial Intelligence

#### Adversarial Search and Games AIMA Chapter 5

Slides by Michael Hahsler with figures from the AIMA textbook





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["Reflected Chess pieces"](https://www.flickr.com/photos/58182080@N04/6918664049) by [Adrian Askew](https://www.flickr.com/photos/58182080@N04)

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#### Games

- Games typically confront the agent with a competitive (adversarial) environment affected by an opponent (strategic environment).
- Games are episodic.
- We will focus on planning for
	- two-player zero-sum games with
	- deterministic game mechanics and
	- perfect information (i.e., fully observable environment).
- We call the two players:
	- **1) Max** tries to maximize his utility.
	- **2) Min** tries to minimize Max's utility since it is a zero-sum game.



## Definition of a Game

**Definition:**



## Example: Tic-tac-toe



 $S_0$  Empty board.

 $\textit{Actions}(s)$  Play empty squares.

 $Result(s, a)$  Symbol  $(x/o)$  is placed on empty square.  $Terminal(s)$  Did a player win or is the game a draw? Utility(s)  $y + 1$  if x wins, -1 if o wins and 0 for a draw. Utility is only defined for terminal states.

and player o is Min. **Note**: This game still uses a goal-based agent that plans actions to reach a winning terminal state!

Here player x is Max

#### Games as Search Problems

- Making a move is a **decision problem** that can be addressed as a **search problem.** We need to search for sequences of moves that lead to a winning position.
- **Search problems have a state space**: a graph defined by the initial state and the transition function containing all reachable states (e.g., chess positions).
- **For games we consider a game tree:** A complete game tree follows every sequence from the current state to the terminal state (the game ends). It consists of the set of paths through the state space representing all possible games that can be played.

#### Tic-tac-toe: Partial Game Tree



#### Methods for Adversarial Games

#### **Exact Methods**

- **Model as nondeterministic actions**: The opponent is seen as part of an environment with nondeterministic actions. Non-determinism is the result of the unknown moves by the opponent. We **consider all possible moves** by the opponent.
- **Find optimal decisions**: Minimax search and Alpha-Beta pruning where **each player plays optimally** to the end of the game.

#### **Heuristic Methods**

(game tree is too large)

- **Heuristic Alpha-Beta Tree Search**:
	- a. Cut off game tree and use heuristic for utility.
	- b. Forward Pruning: ignore poor moves.
- **Monte Carlo Tree search**: Estimate utility of a state by simulating complete games and average the utility.

## Nondeterministic Actions

Recall AND-OR Search from AIMA Chapter 4

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#### Recall: Nondeterministic Actions

For **planning**, we do not know what the opponents moves will be. We have already modeled this issue using nondeterministic actions.

Outcome of actions in the environment is nondeterministic = **transition model need to describe uncertainty about the opponent's behavior.**

> Each action consists of the move by the player and all possible (i.e., nondeterministic) responses by the opponent.

Example transition:

```
Results(s_1, a) = \{s_2, s_4, s_5\}
```
i.e., action  $a$  in  $s_1$  can lead to one of several states (which is called a belief state of the agent).

## Recall: AND-OR DFS Search Algorithm



## Tic-tac-toe: AND-OR Search

We play MAX and decide on our actions (OR). MIN's actions introduce non-determinism (AND).



# Optimal Decisions

Minimax Search and Alpha-Beta Pruning

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## Idea: Minimax Decision

• Assign each state <sup>a</sup>**minimax value** that reflects the utility realized if **both players play optimally** from to the end of the game:

$$
Minimax(s) = \begin{cases} Utility(s) & \text{if terminal}(s) \\ \max_{a \in Actions(s)} \text{Minimax}(\text{Result}(s, a)) & \text{if move = Max} \\ \min_{a \in Actions(s)} \text{Minimax}(\text{Result}(s, a)) & \text{if move = Min} \end{cases}
$$

- This is a recursive definition which can be solved from terminal states backwards.
- The **optimal decision** for Max is the action that leads to the state with the largest minimax value. That is the largest possible utility if both players keep playing optimally.

## Minimax Search: Back-up Minimax Values





## Exercise: Simple 2-Ply Game



- Compute all MV (minimax values).
- How do we traverse the game tree? What is the Big-O notation for time and space?
- What is the optimal action for Max?

#### Issue: Game Tree Size

• **Minimax search traverses the complete game tree using DFS!**

Space complexity:  $O(bm)$ Time complexity:  $O(b^m)$ 

- Fast solution is only feasible for very simple games with few possible moves (=small branching factor) and few moves till the game is over (=low maximal depth)!
- Example: Tic-tac-toe  $b = 9, m = 9 \rightarrow O(9^9) = O(387,420,489)$

b decreases from 9 to 8, 7, ... the actual size is smaller than:  $1(9)(9 \times 8)(9 \times 8 \times 7)$  ...  $(9!) = 986,409$  nodes

• We need to reduce the search space! → **Game tree pruning**

## Alpha-Beta Pruning

• **Idea**: Do not search parts of the tree if they do not make a difference to the outcome.

#### • **Observations**:

- min(3,  $x$ ,  $y$ ) can never be more than 3
- max(5, min(3, x, y, ...)) is always 5 and does not depend on the values of x or y.
- Minimax search applies alternating min and max.
- **Approach**: maintain bounds for the minimax value  $[\alpha, \beta]$  and prune subtrees (i.e., don't follow actions) that do not affect the current minimax value bound.
	- Alpha is used by Max and means " $Minimax(s)$  is at least  $\alpha$ ."
	- Beta is used by Min and means " $Minimax(s)$  is at most  $\beta$ ."

#### Example: Alpha-Beta Search

 $(f)$ 











(utility is at least) Min updates  $\beta$ 

(utility is at most)

Utility cannot be more than 2 in the subtree, but we already can get 3 from the first subtree. Prune the rest.

 $v = 3$  $[3, 3]$   $\triangle$  Max Once a subtree is  $v = 2$  $-\infty$ ,  $[4]$   $\nabla$  Min  $[3,3]$   $\nabla$   $[-\infty, 2]$   $\nabla$   $[2(2)$   $\nabla$  Min 12 8  $\overline{2}$  $14$ 5  $\overline{2}$ 3

fully evaluated, the interval has a length of 0  $(\alpha = \beta).$ 





- Find the  $[\alpha, \beta]$  intervals for all nodes.
- What is the optimal move sequence?
- What part of the tree can be pruned?

#### Move Ordering for Alpha-Beta Search

- **Idea:** Pruning is more effective if good alpha-beta bounds can be found in the first few checked subtrees.
- **Move ordering for DFS** = Check good moves for Min and Max first.
- We need expert knowledge or some heuristic to determine what a good move is.

**Issue:** Optimal decision algorithms still scale poorly even when using alpha-beta pruning with move ordering.

#### Exercise: Simple 2-Ply Game with Alpha-Beta Pruning and Move ordering

• Assume a heuristic shoes that we should order the moves:  $a_2$ ,  $a_1$ ,  $a_3$ 



- Find the  $[\alpha, \beta]$  intervals for all nodes using the move ordering.
- What is the optimal move sequence?
- What part of the tree can be pruned?

## Heuristic Alpha-Beta Tree Search

#### Methods for Adversarial Games

#### **Exact Methods**

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#### **Heuristic Methods**

(game tree is too large or search takes too long)

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## Cutting off search

Reduce the search cost by restricting the search depth:

- 1. Stop search at a non-terminal node.
- 2. Use a heuristic evaluation function  $Eval(s)$  to approximate the utility for that node/state.

Needed properties of the evaluation function:

- Fast to compute.
- $Eval(s) \in [Utility(\text{loss}), Utility(\text{win})]$
- Correlated with the actual chance of winning (e.g., using features of the state).

#### **Examples**:

1. A weighted linear function

 $Eval(s) = w_1 f_1(s) + w_2 f_2(s) + \cdots + w_n f_n(s)$ 

where  $f_i$  is a feature of the state (e.g., # of pieces captured in chess).

2. A deep neural network trained on complete games.



## Forward pruning

To save time, we can prune moves that appear bad.

There are many ways move quality can be evaluated:

- Low heuristic value.
- Low evaluation value after shallow search (cut-off search).
- Past experience.

**Issue**: May prune important moves.

## Heuristic Alpha-Beta Tree Search: Example for Forward Pruning



# Monte Carlo Tree Search (MCTS)

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## Idea

- **Approximate**  $Eval(s)$  as the average utility of several simulation runs to the terminal state (called playouts).
- **Playout policy**: How to choose moves during the simulation runs? Example playout policies:
	- Random.
	- Heuristics for good moves developed by experts.
	- Learn good moves from self-play (e.g., with deep neural networks). We will talk about this when we talk about "Learning from Examples."
- Typically used for problems with
	- High branching factor (many possible moves make the tree very wide).
	- Unknown or hard to define good evaluation functions.

## Pure Monte Carlo Search

Find the next best move.

- Method
	- 1. Simulate N playouts from the **current state**.
	- 2. Select the move that results in the highest win percentage.
- **Optimality Guarantee**: Converges to optimal play for stochastic games as *N* increases.
- Typical strategy for : **Do as many playouts as you can** given the available time budget for the move.

## Playout Selection Strategy



**Issue**: Pure Monte Carlo Search spends a lot of time to create playouts for bad move.

**Better:** Select the starting state for playouts to focus on important parts of the game tree (i.e., good moves).

This presents the following tradeoff:



## Selection using Upper Confidence Bounds (UCB1)



- $n \quad ...$  node in the game tree
- $U(n)$  ... total utility of all playouts going through node n
- $N(n)$  ... number of playouts through n

#### **Selection strategy**: Select node with highest UCB1 score.

## Monte Carlo Tree Search (MCTS)

**Pure Monte Carlo** search always start playouts from a given state.

**Monte Carlo Tree Search** builds a **partial game tree** and can start playouts from any state (node) in that tree.

Important considerations:

- We can use UCB1 as the **selection strategy** to decide what part of the tree we should focus on for the next playout. This balances exploration and exploitation.
- We typically can only store a small **part of the game tree**, so we do not store the complete playout runs.



## Online Play Using MCTS

- Search and update a partial tree to use up the time budget for the move.
- Keep the relevant subtree from move to move and expand from there.



# Stochastic Games

Games With Random Events

#### Stochastic Games

- Game includes a "random action"  $r$  (e.g., dice, dealt cards)
- Add **chance nodes** that calculate the expected value.



#### Expectiminimax

 $Expectrumima x(s) =$ 

- Game includes a "random action"  $r$  (e.g., dice, dealt cards).
- For **chance nodes** we calculate the expected minimax value.



- Options:
	- Use Minimax algorithm. Issue: Search tree size explodes if the number of "random actions" is large. Think of drawing cards for poker!
	- Cut-off search and approximate Expectiminimax with an evaluation function.
	- Perform Monte Carlo Tree Search.

## **Conclusion**

#### **Nondeterministic actions**:

• The opponent is seen as part of an environment with nondeterministic actions. Non -determinism is the result of the unknown moves by the opponent. *All possible moves are considered*.

#### **Optimal decisions**:

- Minimax search and Alpha -Beta pruning where *each player plays optimal* to the end of the game.
- Choice nodes and Expectiminimax for stochastic games.

#### **Heuristic Alpha -Beta Tree Search**:

- Cut off game tree and use *heuristic evaluation function* for utility (based on state features).
- Forward Pruning: ignore poor moves.
- Learn heuristic from data using MCTS

#### **Monte Carlo Tree search**:

- Simulate complete games and calculate proportion of wins.
- Use modified UCB1 scores to expand the partial game tree.
- Learn playout policy using self -play and deep learning.