
Game Playing

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Outline



1

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

games

Games vs. Search Problems



3

- “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)

Types of Games



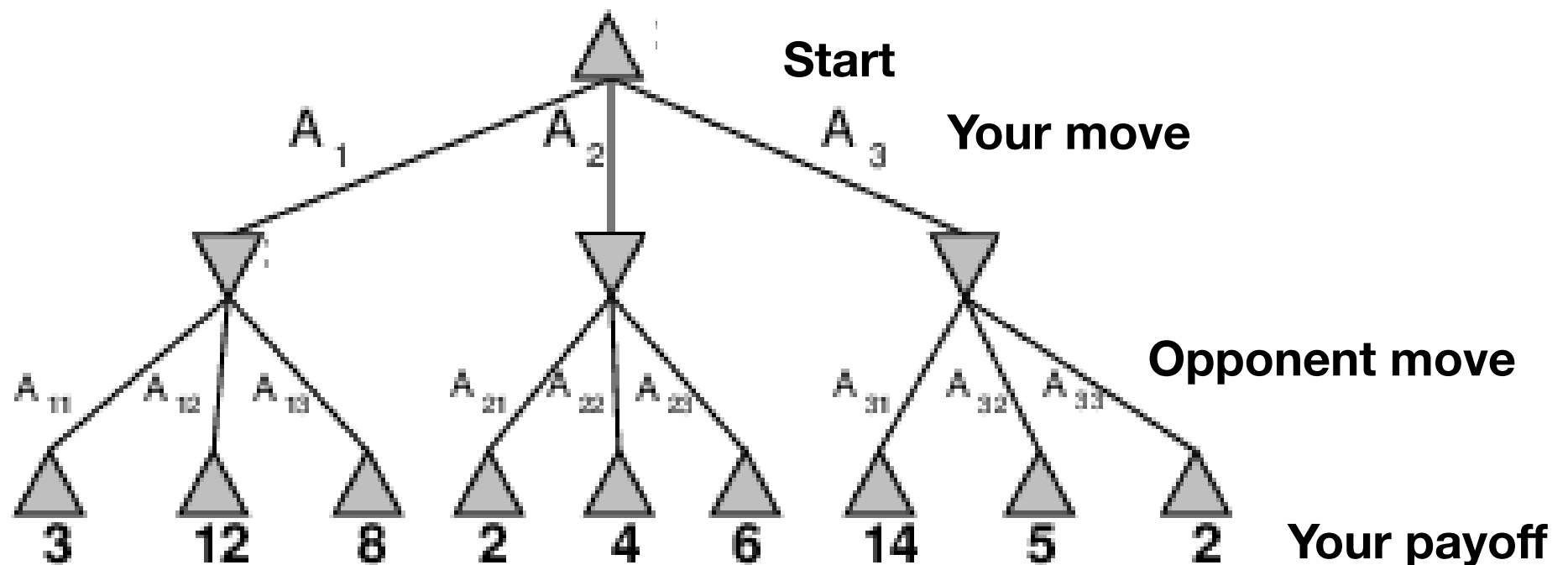
| | deterministic | chance |
|-----------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| perfect information | Chess Checkers Go Othello | Backgammon Monopoly |
| imperfect information | battleships Blind Tic Tac Toe | Bridge Poker Scrabble |

5



Simple Game Tree

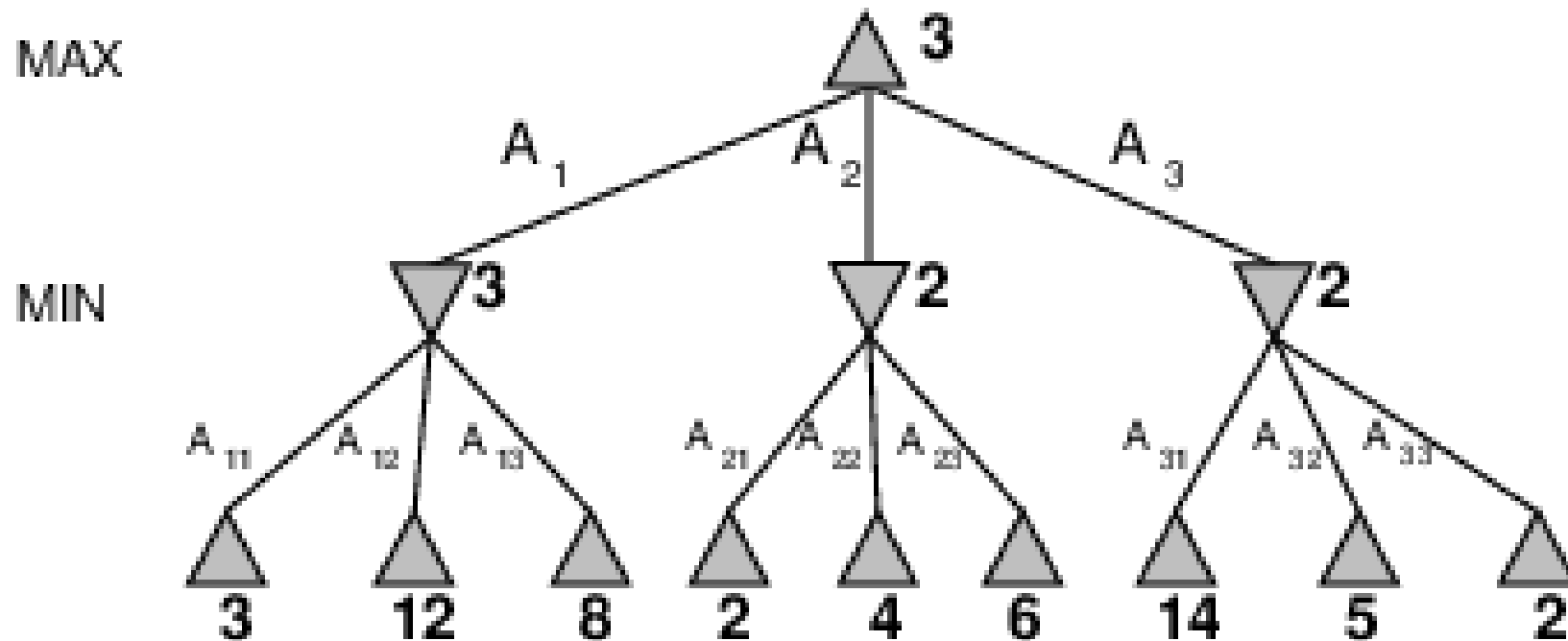
- 2 player game
- Each player has one move
- You move first
- Goal: optimize your payoff (utility)



minimax

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-player game, one move each:



Minimax Algorithm



9

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

inputs: *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*)

$V \leftarrow \infty$

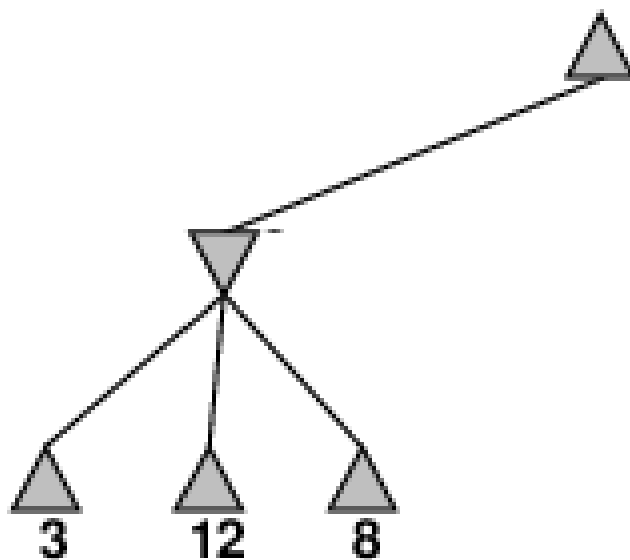
for *a, s* in SUCCESSORS(*state*) **do** $v \leftarrow \text{MIN}(v, \text{MAX-VALUE}(s))$

return v

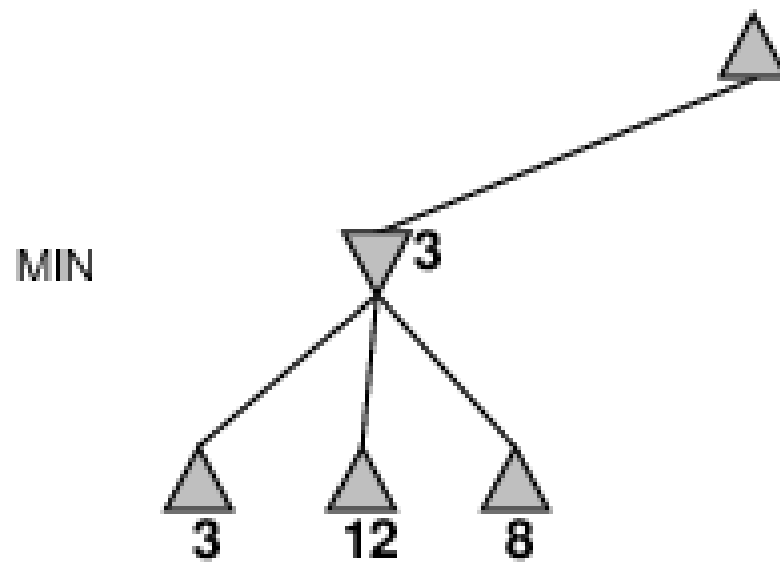
Properties of Minimax

- **Complete?** ■ Yes, if tree is finite
- **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?

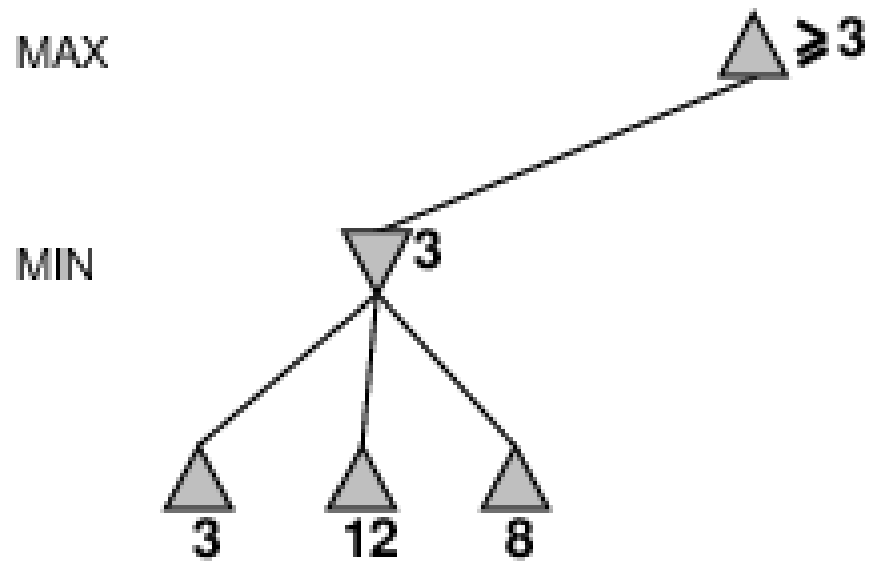
α - β Pruning Example



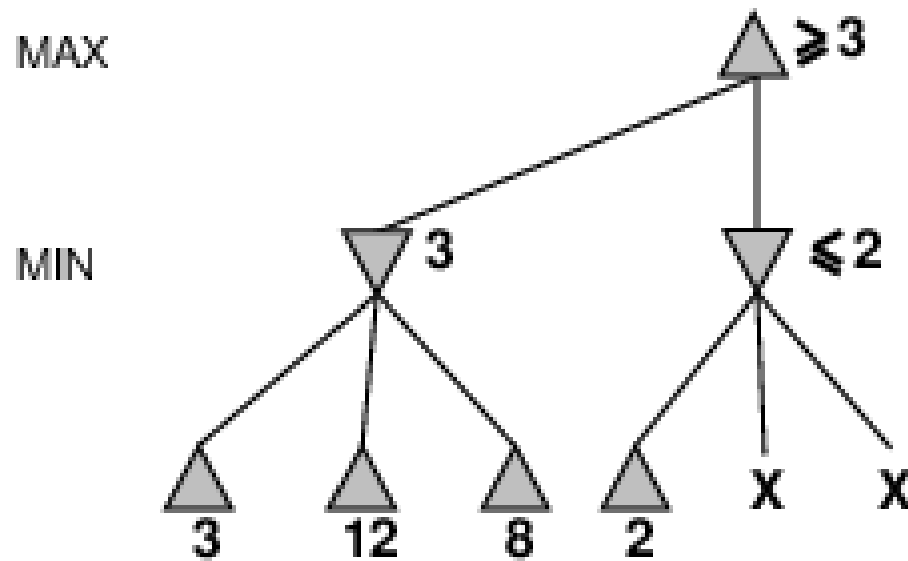
α - β Pruning Example



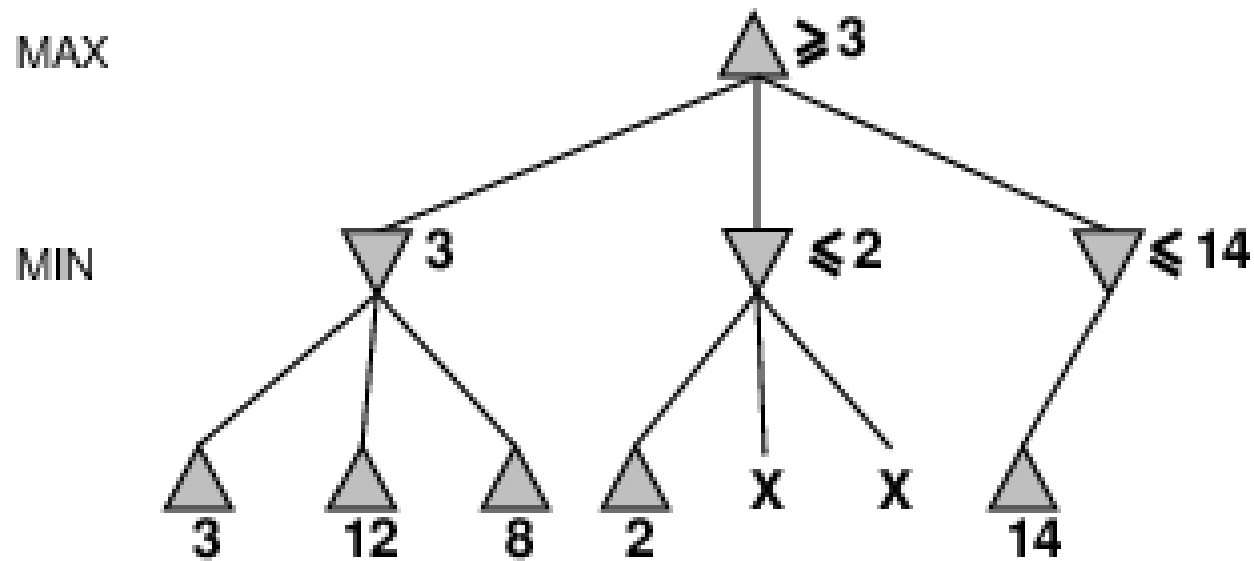
α - β Pruning Example



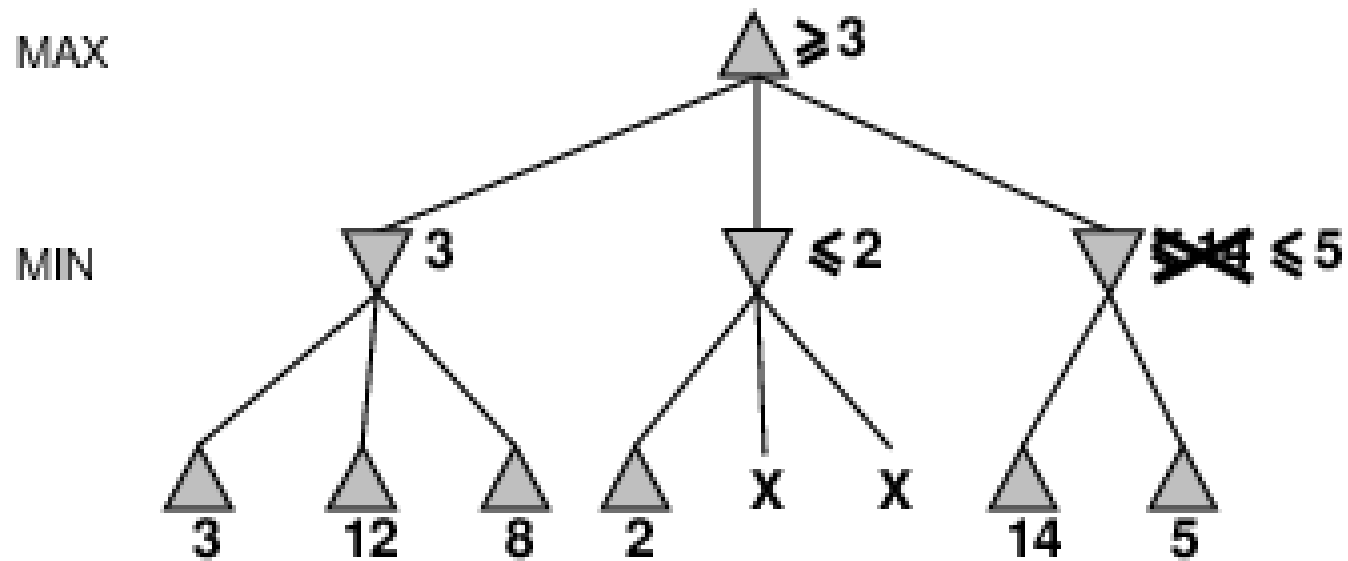
α - β Pruning Example



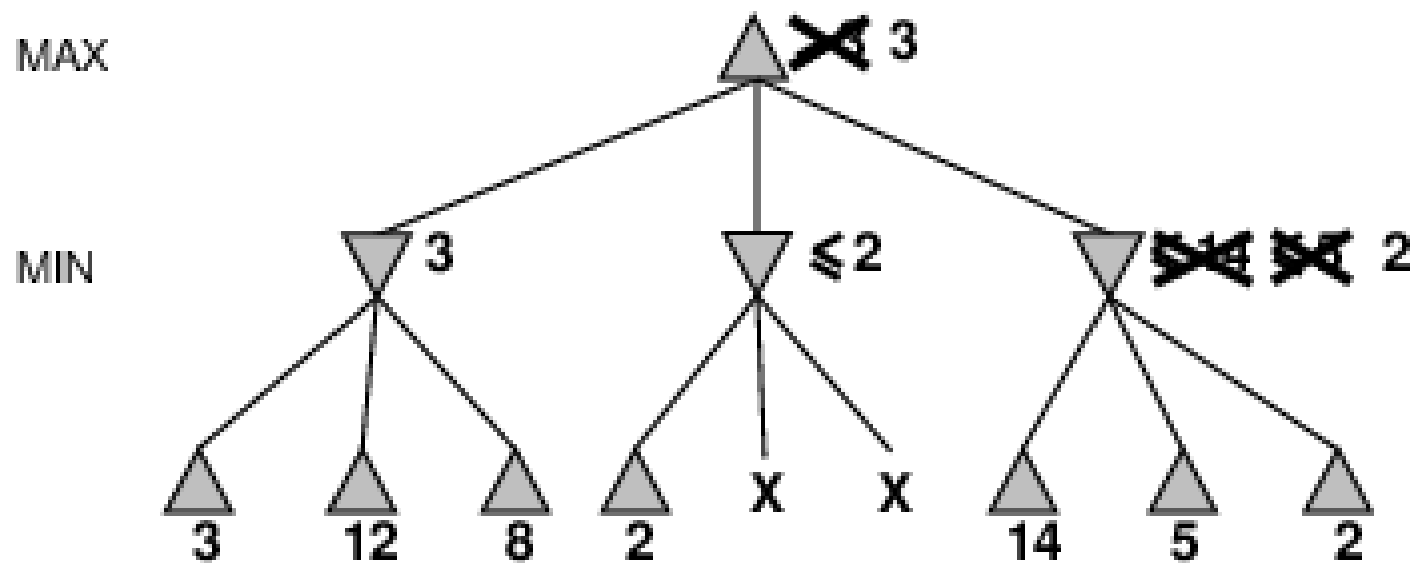
α - β Pruning Example



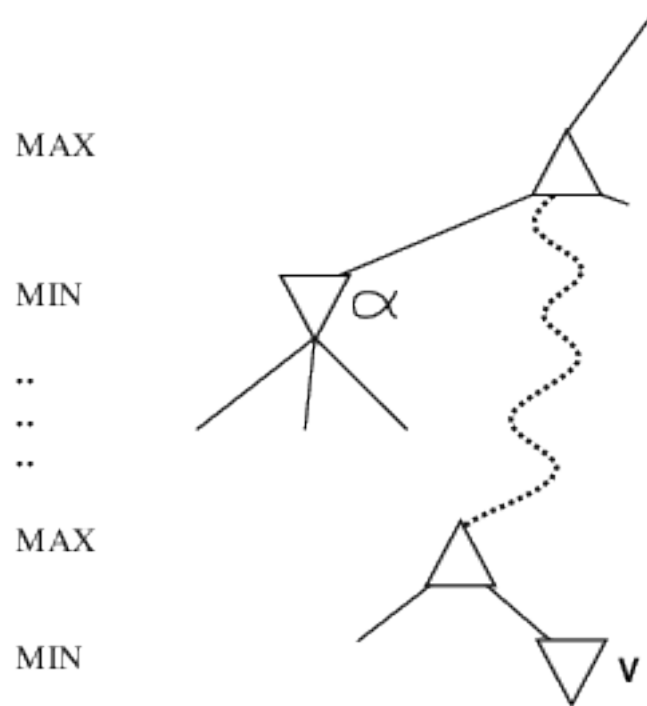
α - β Pruning Example



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

Properties of α - β

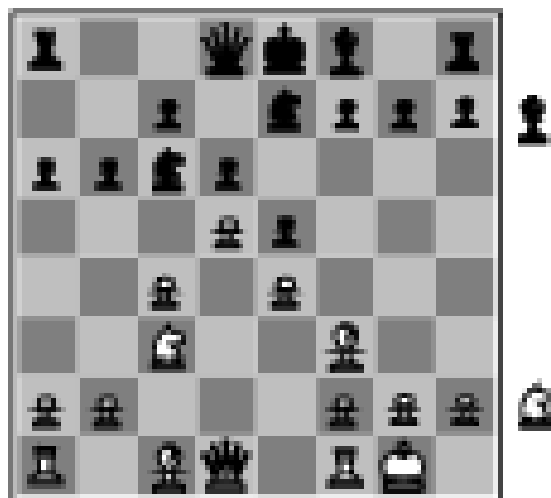
- Safe: Pruning **does not** affect final result■
- Good move ordering improves effectiveness of pruning
- With “perfect ordering,” time complexity = $O(b^{m/2})$
⇒ **doubles** solvable depth■
- A simple example of the value of reasoning about which computations are relevant (a form of **metareasoning**)
- Unfortunately, 35^{50} is still impossible!

- A game is solved if optimal strategy can be computed
- Tic Tac Toe can be trivially solved■
- Biggest solved game: Checkers
 - proof by Schaeffer in 2007
 - both players can force at least a draw■
- Most games (Chess, Go, etc.) too complex to be solved

resource limits

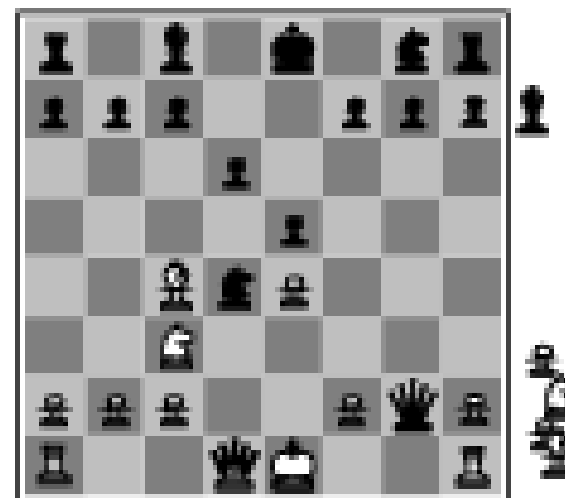
- Standard approach:
 - Use CUTOFF-TEST instead of TERMINAL-TEST
e.g., depth limit
 - Use EVAL instead of UTILITY
i.e., **evaluation function** that estimates desirability of position
- Suppose we have 100 seconds, explore 10^4 nodes/second
 - $\Rightarrow 10^6$ nodes per move $\approx 35^{8/2}$
 - $\Rightarrow \alpha\text{-}\beta$ reaches depth 8 \Rightarrow pretty good Chess program

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

Evaluation Function for Chess

- Long experience of playing Chess
- ⇒ Evaluation of positions included in Chess strategy books
- bishop is worth 3 pawns
 - knight is worth 3 pawns
 - rook is worth 5 pawns
 - good pawn position is worth 0.5 pawns
 - king safety is worth 0.5 pawns
 - etc.
- Pawn count → weight for features

Learning Evaluation Functions

- Designing good evaluation functions requires a lot of expertise
- Machine learning approach
 - collect a large database of games play
 - note for each game who won
 - try to predict game outcome from features of position

⇒ learned weights
- May also learn evaluation functions from self-play

Some Concerns

- Quiescence
 - position evaluation not reliable if board is unstable
 - e.g., Chess: queen will be lost in next move
 - deeper search of game-changing moves required
- Horizon Effect
 - adverse move can be delayed, but not avoided
 - search may prefer to delay, even if costly

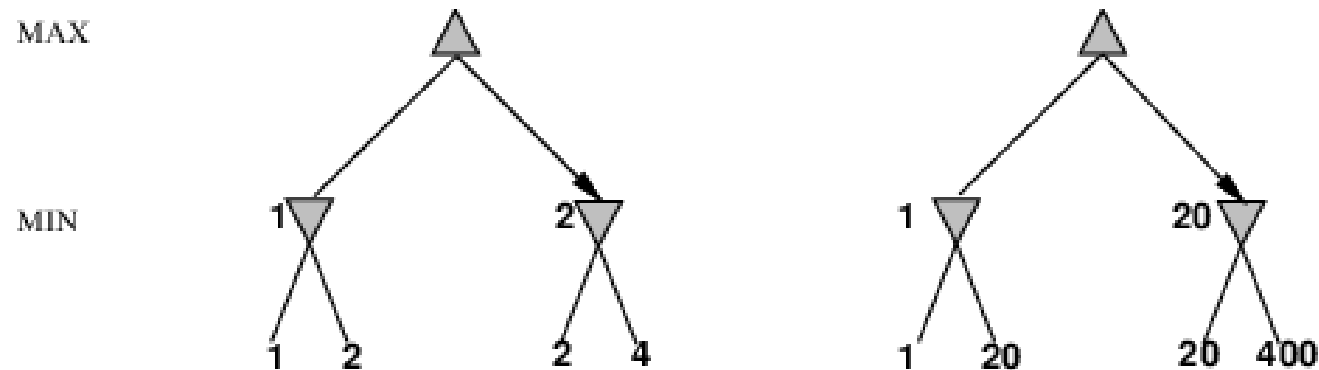
Forward Pruning

- Idea: avoid computation on clearly bad moves
- Cut off searches with bad positions before they reach max-depth■
- Risky: initially inferior positions may lead to better positions■
- Beam search: explore fixed number of promising moves deeper

Lookup instead of Search

- Library of opening moves
 - even expert Chess players use standard opening moves
 - these can be memorized and followed until divergence■
- End game
 - if only few pieces left, optimal final moves may be computed
 - Chess end game with 6 pieces left solved in 2006
 - can be used instead of evaluation function

Digression: Exact Values do not Matter



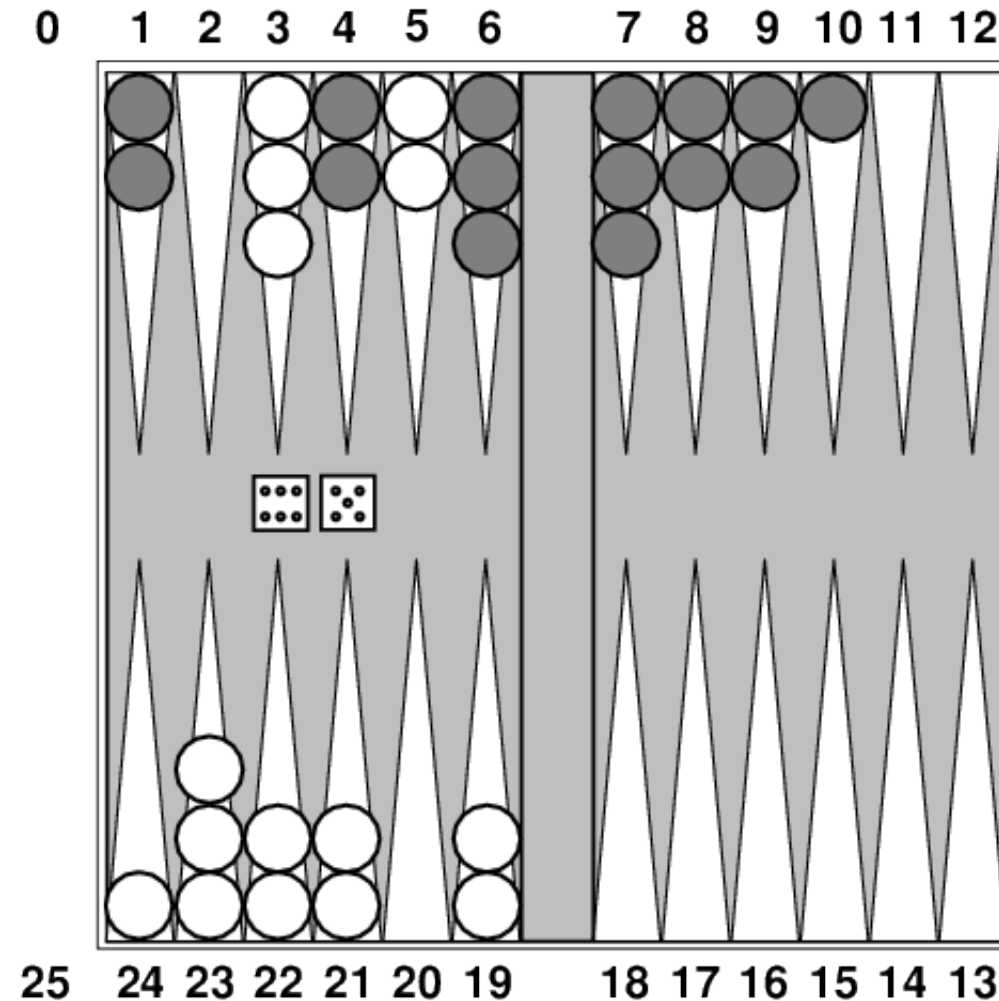
- Behaviour is preserved under any **monotonic** transformation of EVAL
- Only the order matters:
payoff in deterministic games acts as an **ordinal utility** function

- **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. Weakly solved in 2007 by Schaeffer (guaranteed draw).■
- **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.■
- **Go:** In 2016, computer using a neural network for the board evaluation function, was able to beat the human Go champion for the first time. Given the huge branching factor ($b > 300$), Go was long considered too difficult for machines. **We will have a dedicated lecture about this towards the end of the course**



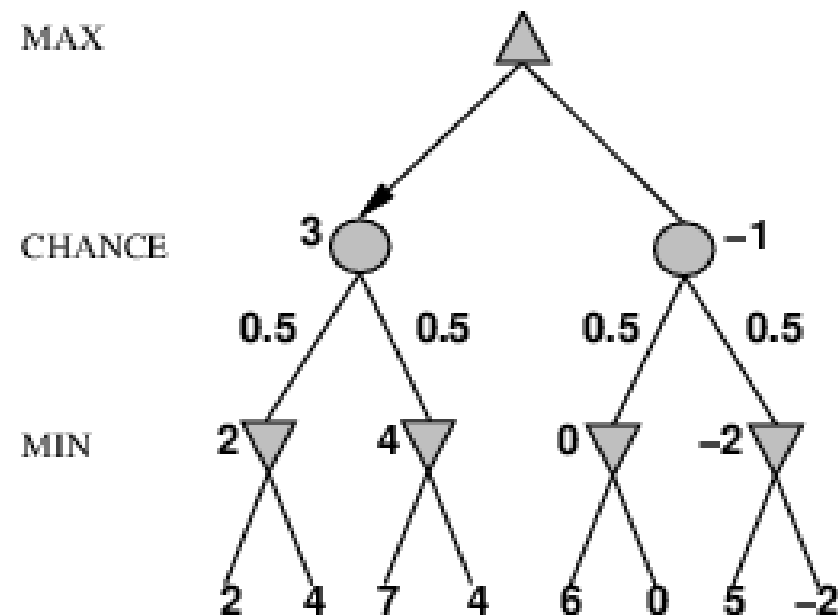
games of chance

Nondeterministic Games: Backgammon



Nondeterministic Games in General

- In nondeterministic games, chance introduced by dice, card-shuffling
- Simplified example with coin-flipping:



Algorithm for Nondeterministic Games

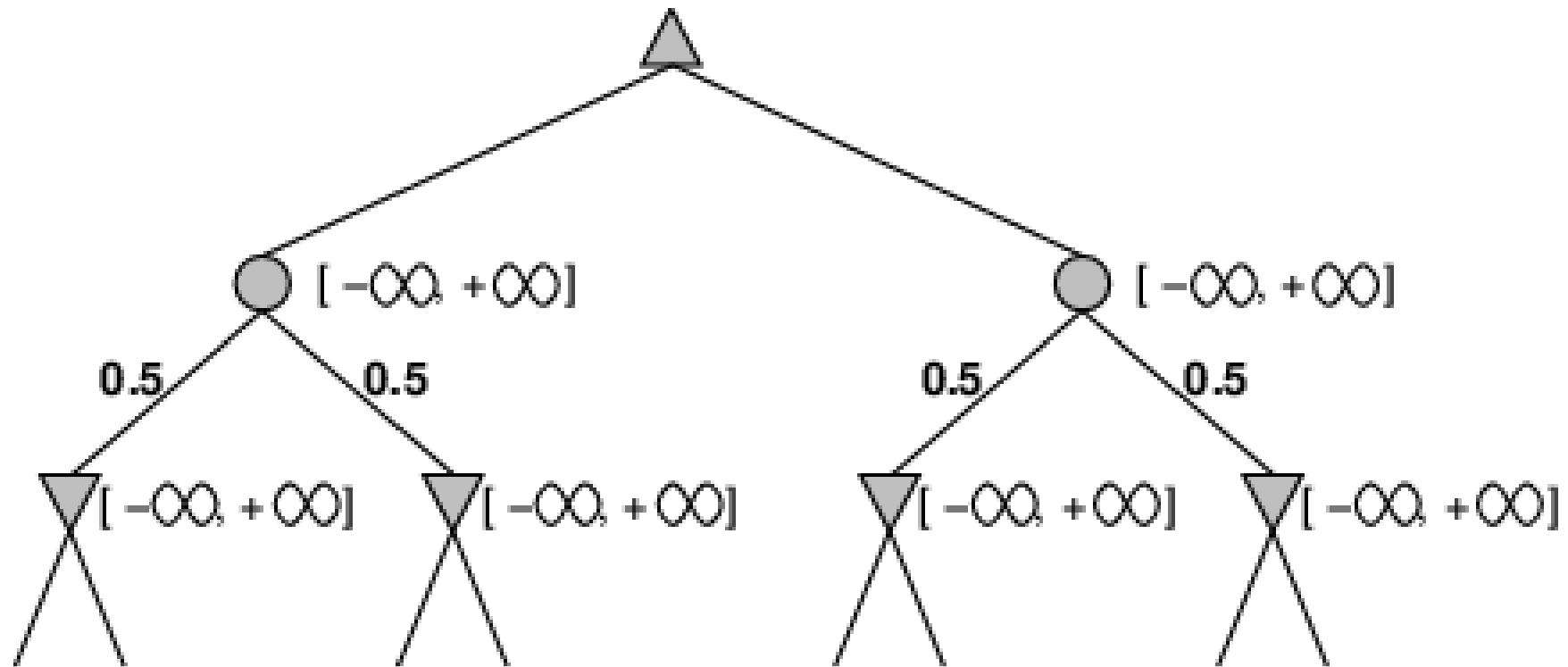
- EXPECTIMINIMAX gives perfect play
- Just like MINIMAX, except we must also handle chance nodes:
...
if *state* is a MAX node **then**
 return the highest EXPECTIMINIMAX-VALUE of SUCCESSORS(*state*)
if *state* is a MIN node **then**
 return the lowest EXPECTIMINIMAX-VALUE of SUCCESSORS(*state*)
if *state* is a chance node **then**
 return average of EXPECTIMINIMAX-VALUE of SUCCESSORS(*state*)
...

Pruning in Nondeterministic Game Trees

35



A version of α - β pruning is possible:

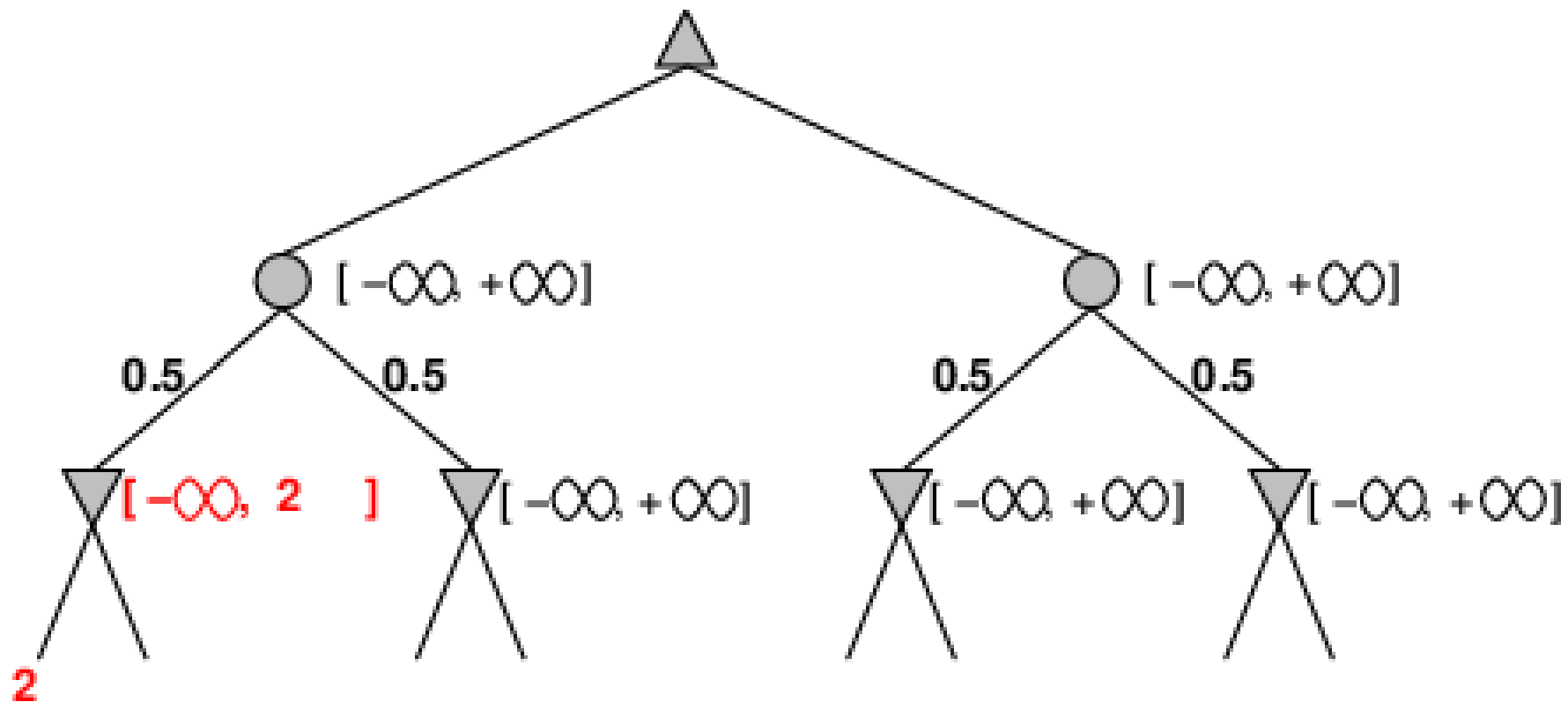


Pruning in Nondeterministic Game Trees

36



A version of α - β pruning is possible:

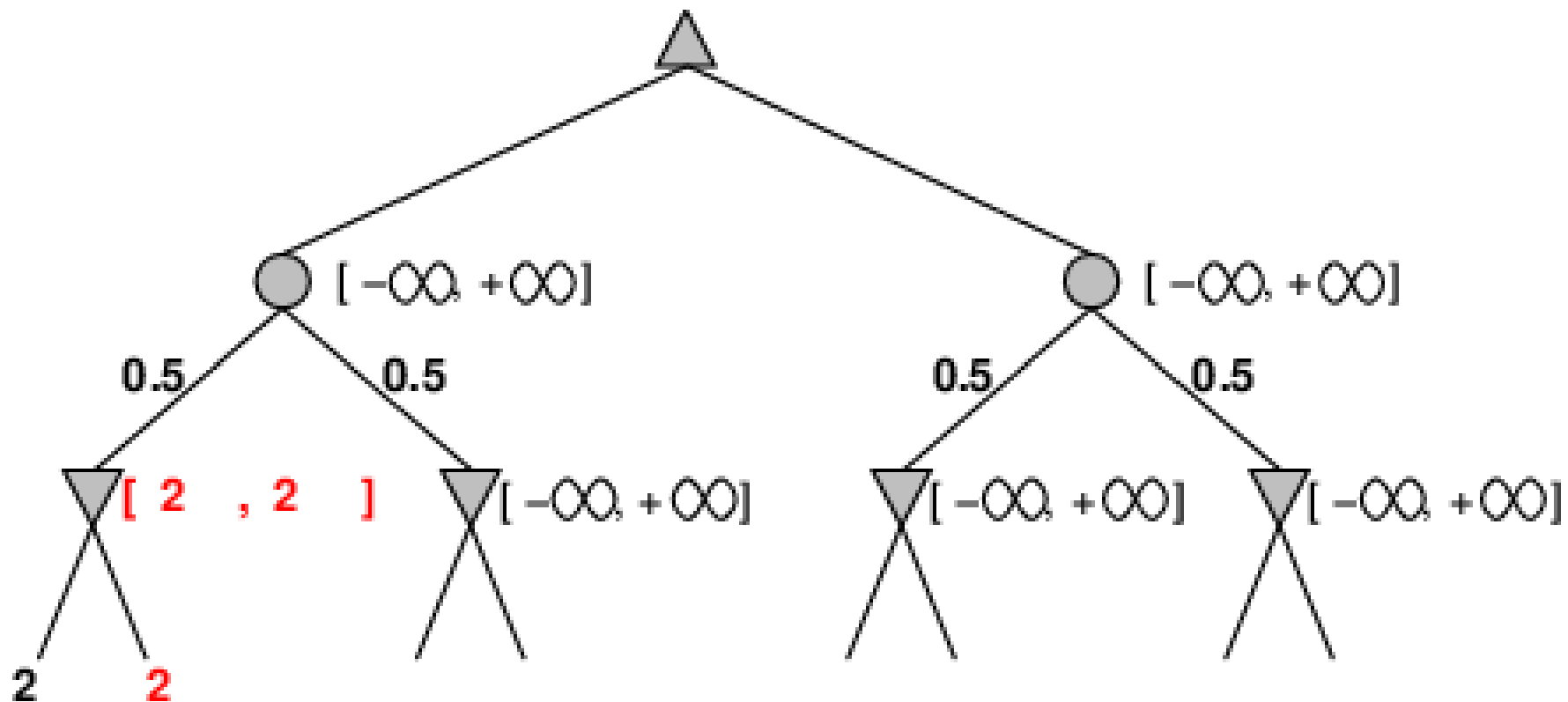


Pruning in Nondeterministic Game Trees

37

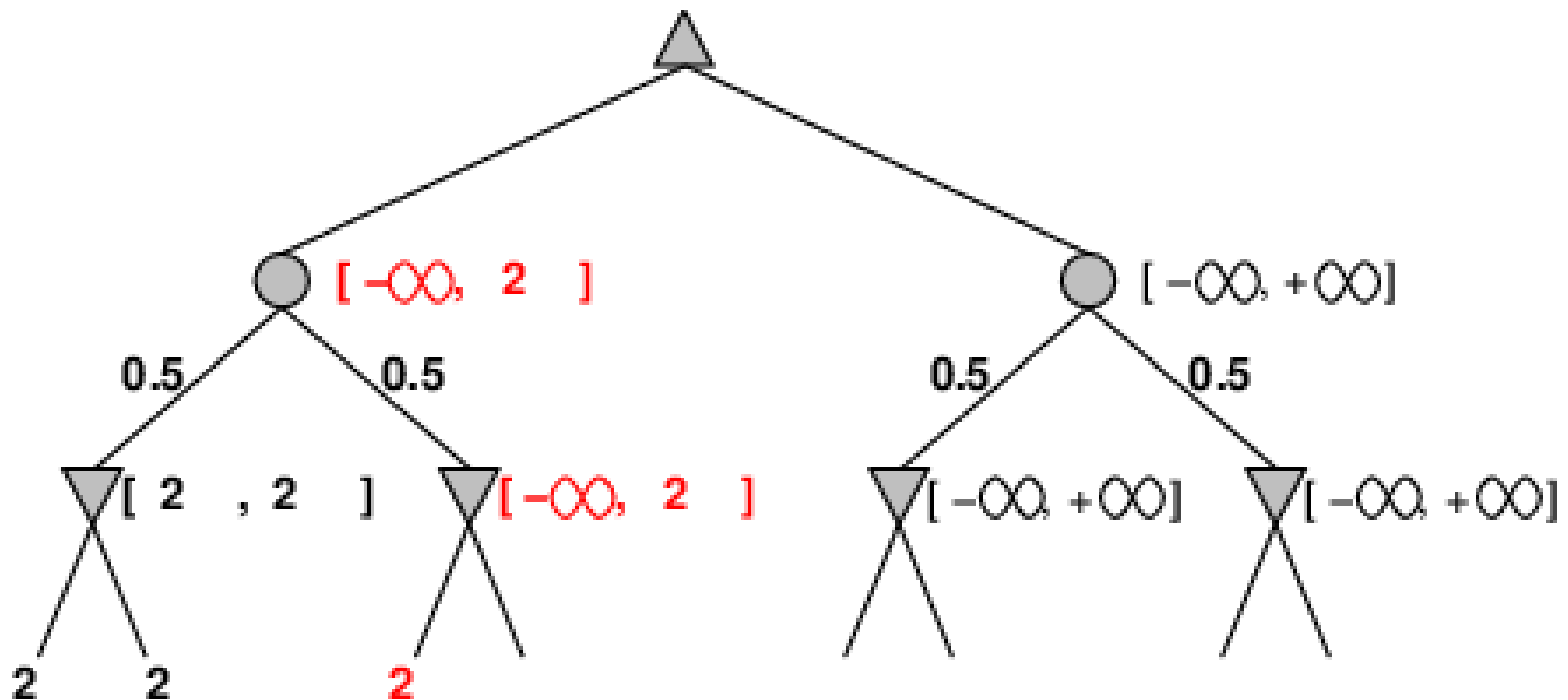


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Pruning in Nondeterministic Game Trees

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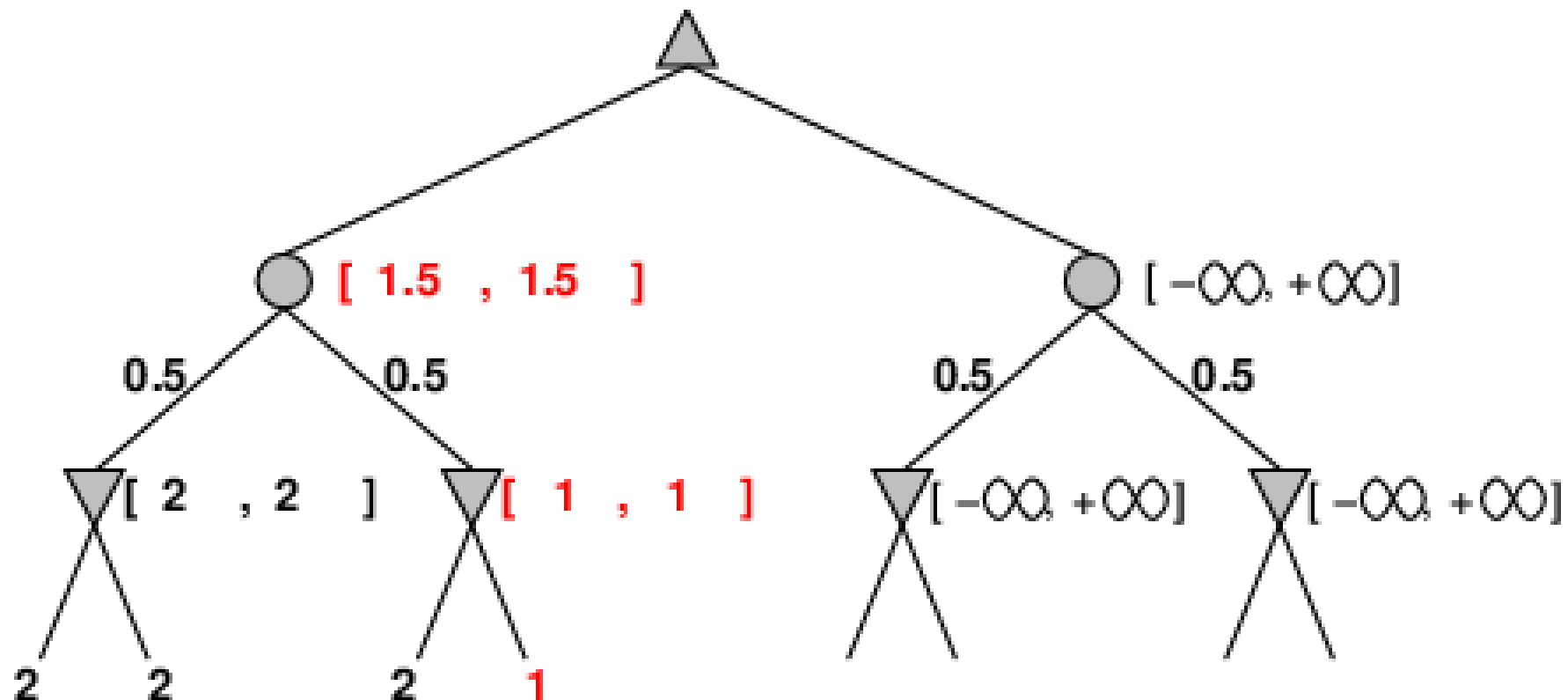


Pruning in Nondeterministic Game Trees

39



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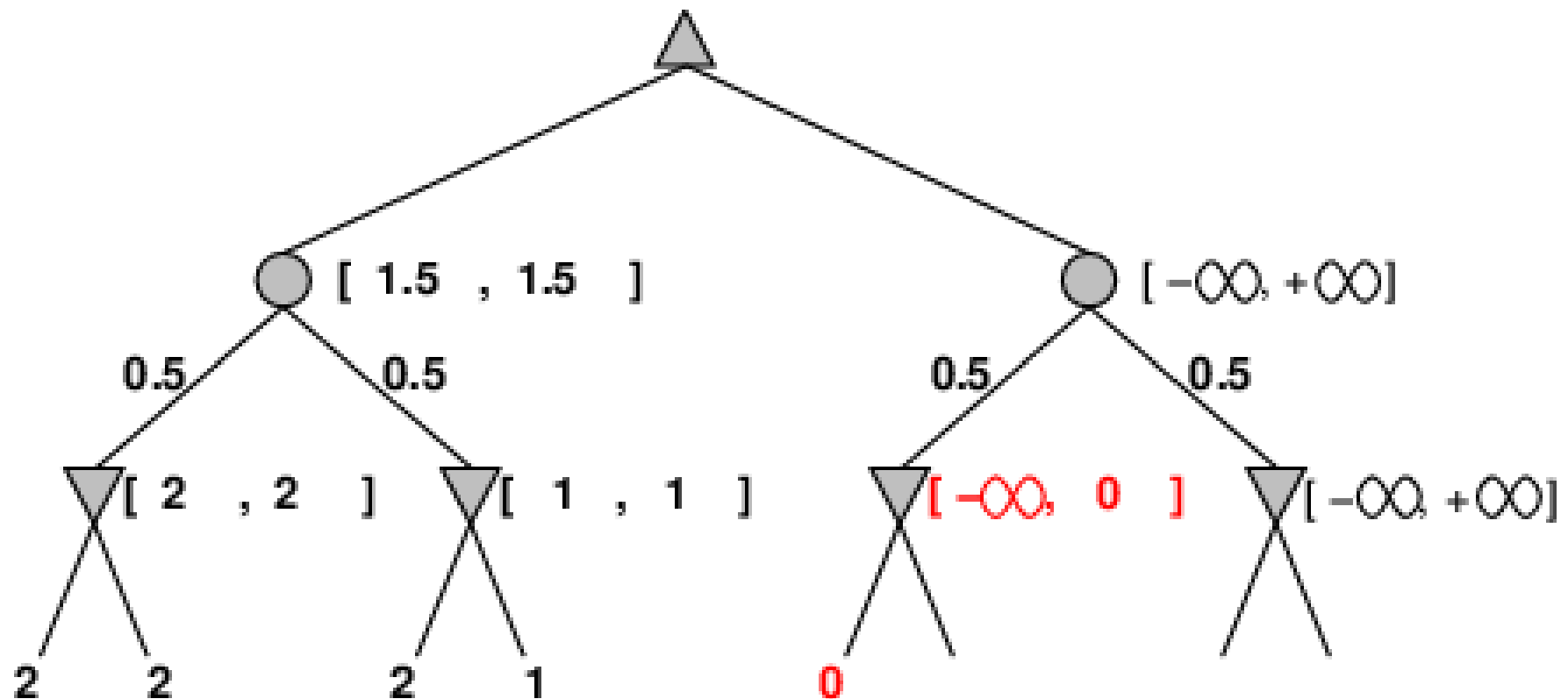


Pruning in Nondeterministic Game Trees

40



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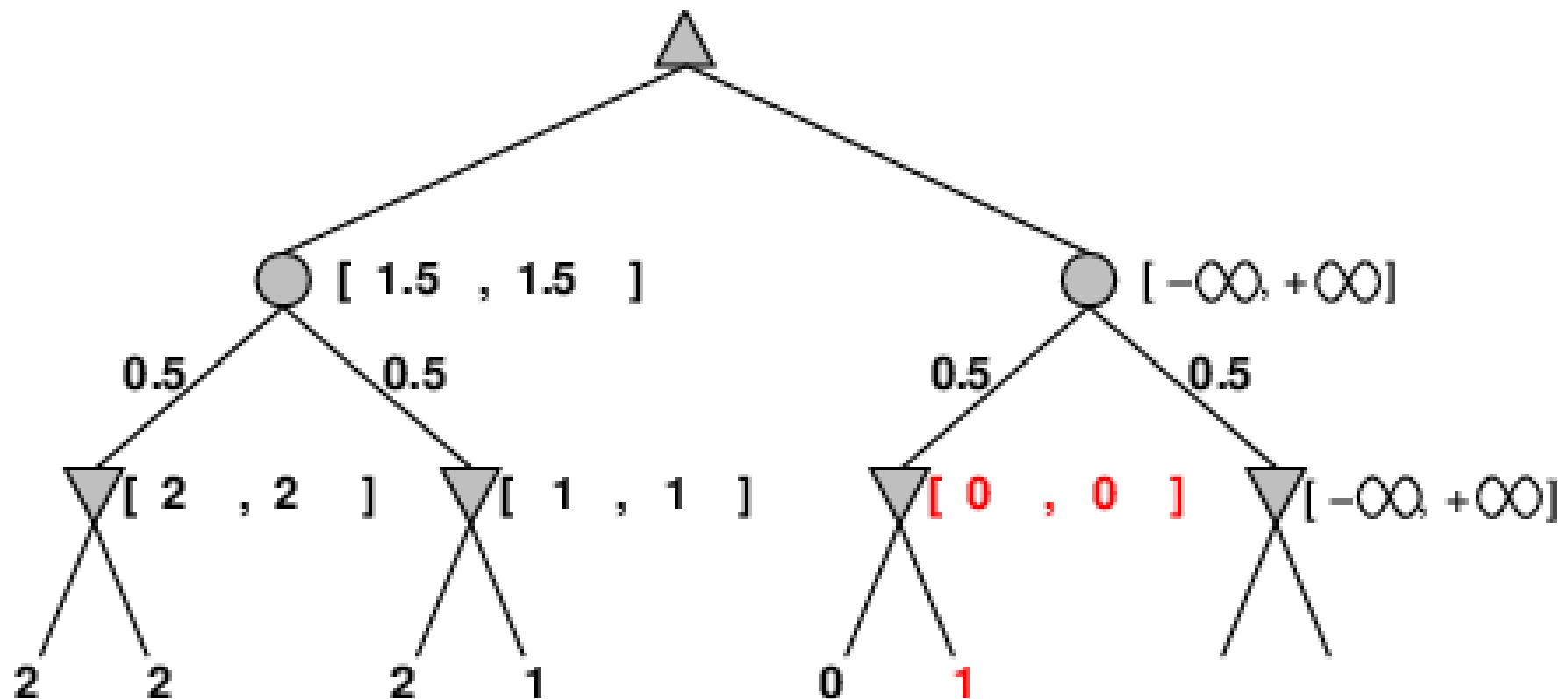


Pruning in Nondeterministic Game Trees

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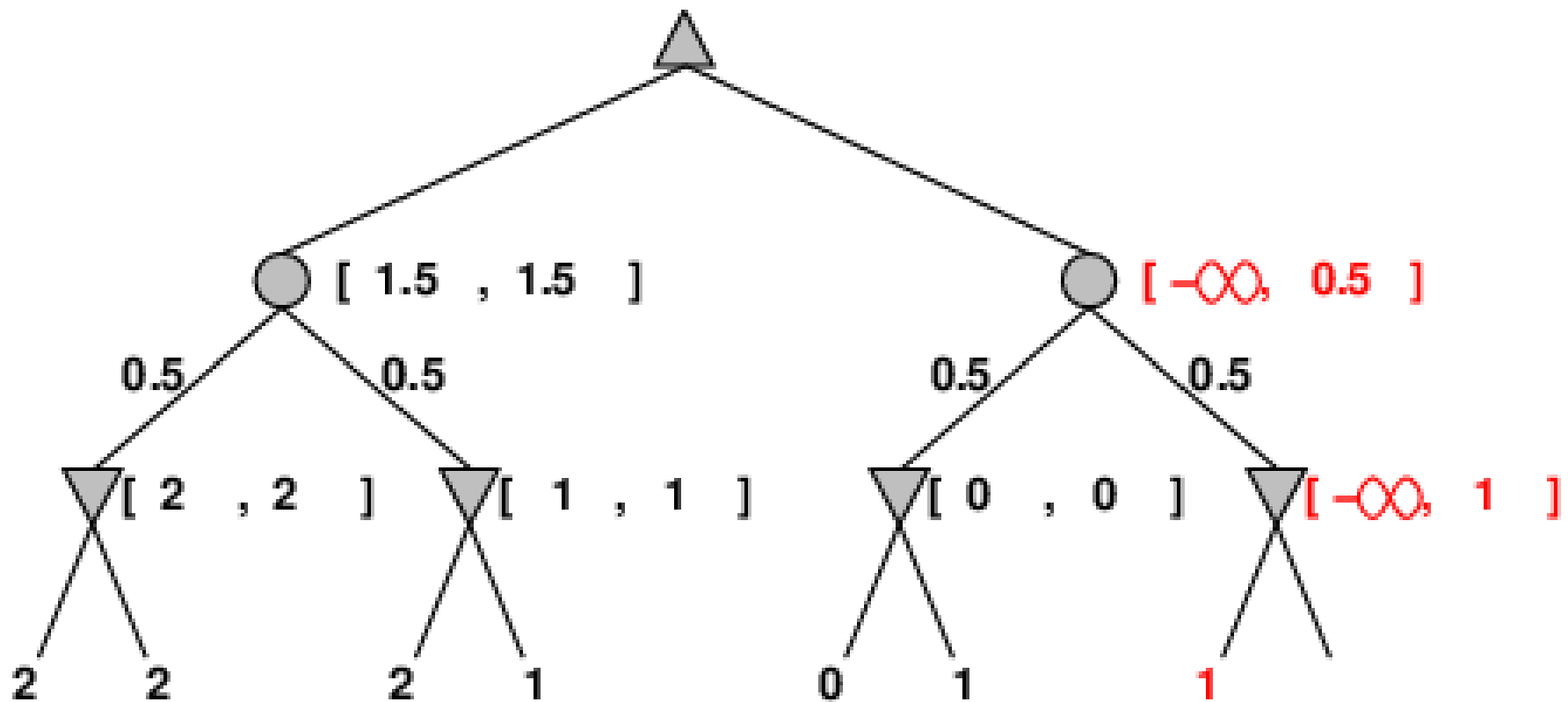


Pruning in Nondeterministic Game Trees

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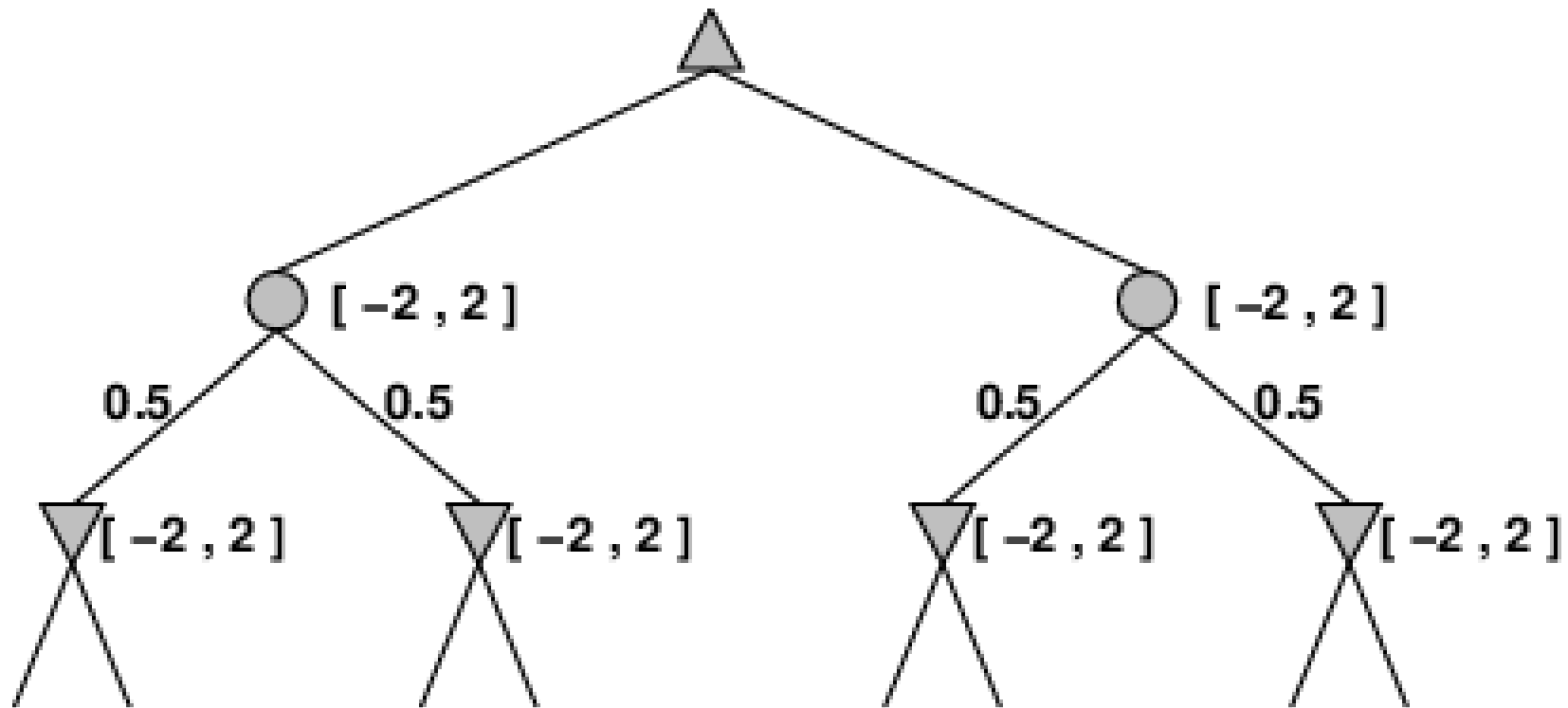


Terminate, since left path will be worth more on average.



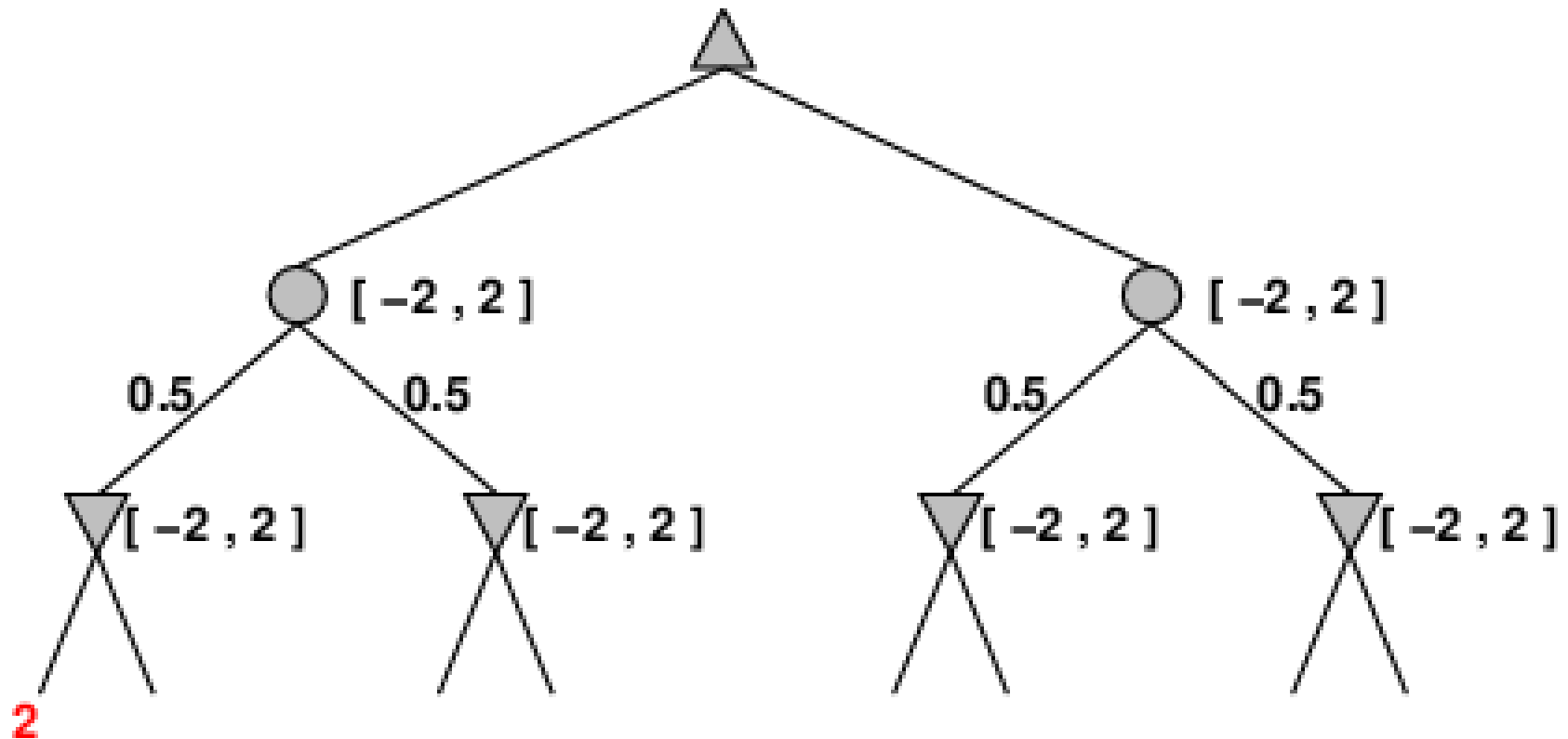
Pruning with Bounds

More pruning occurs if we can bound the leaf values (0,1,2)■



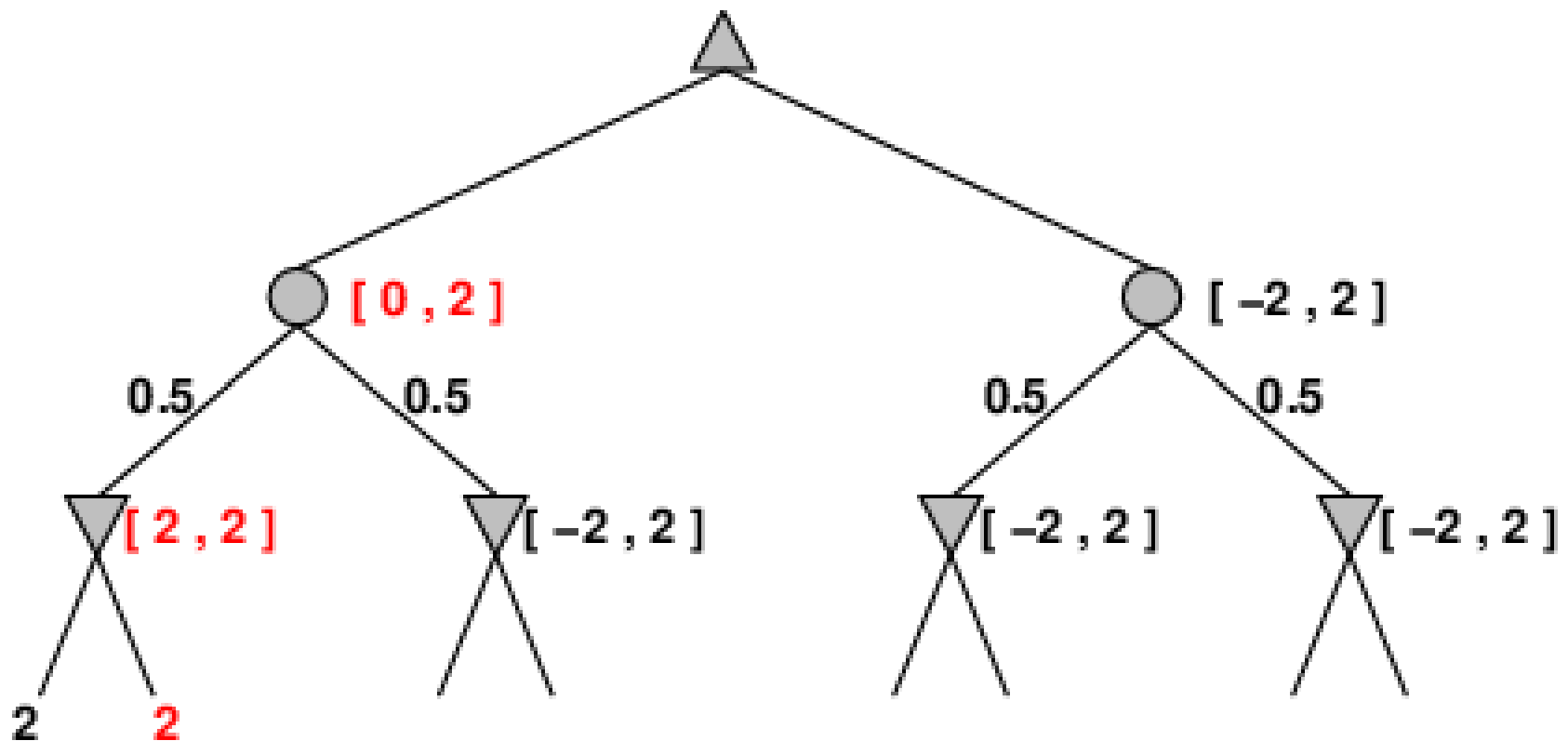
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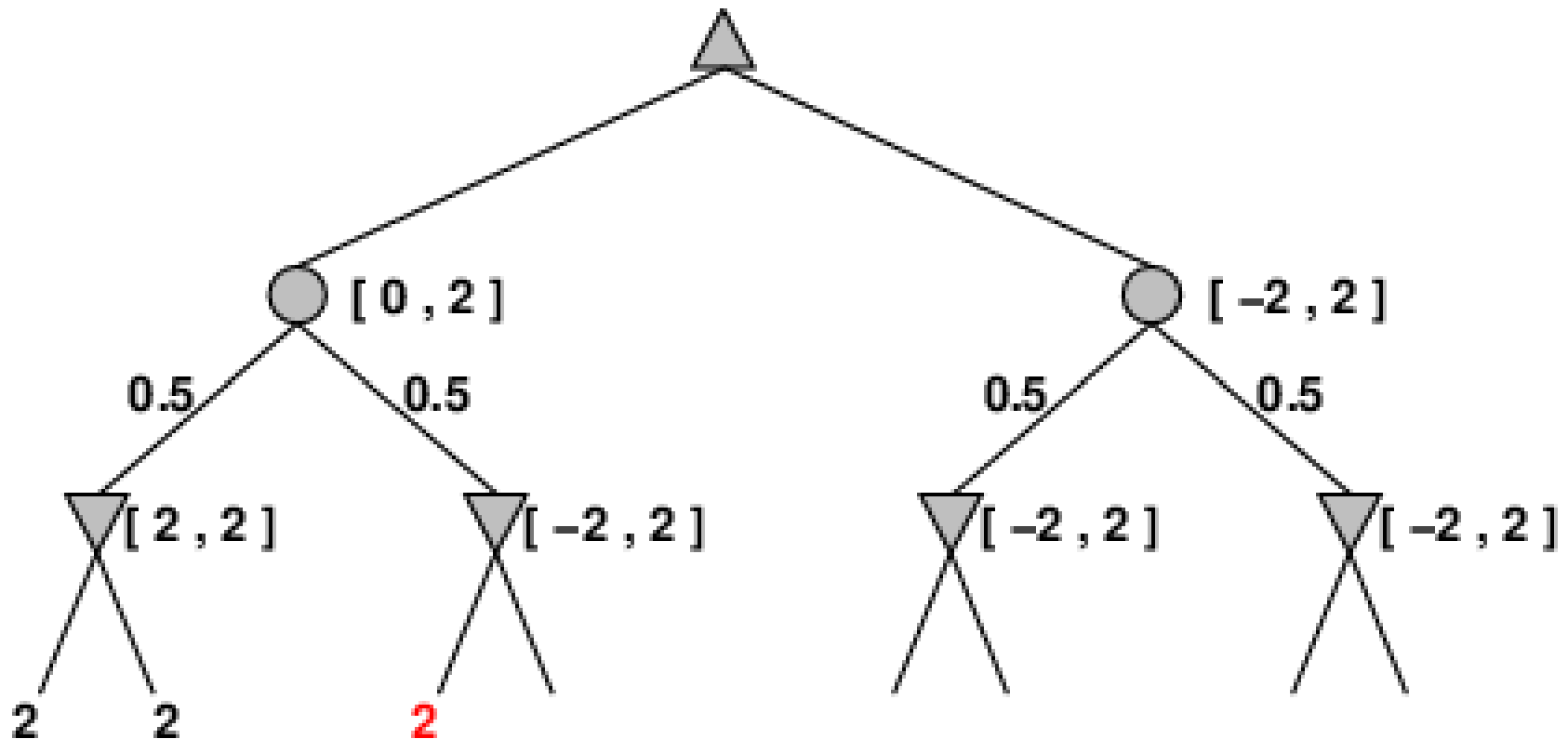
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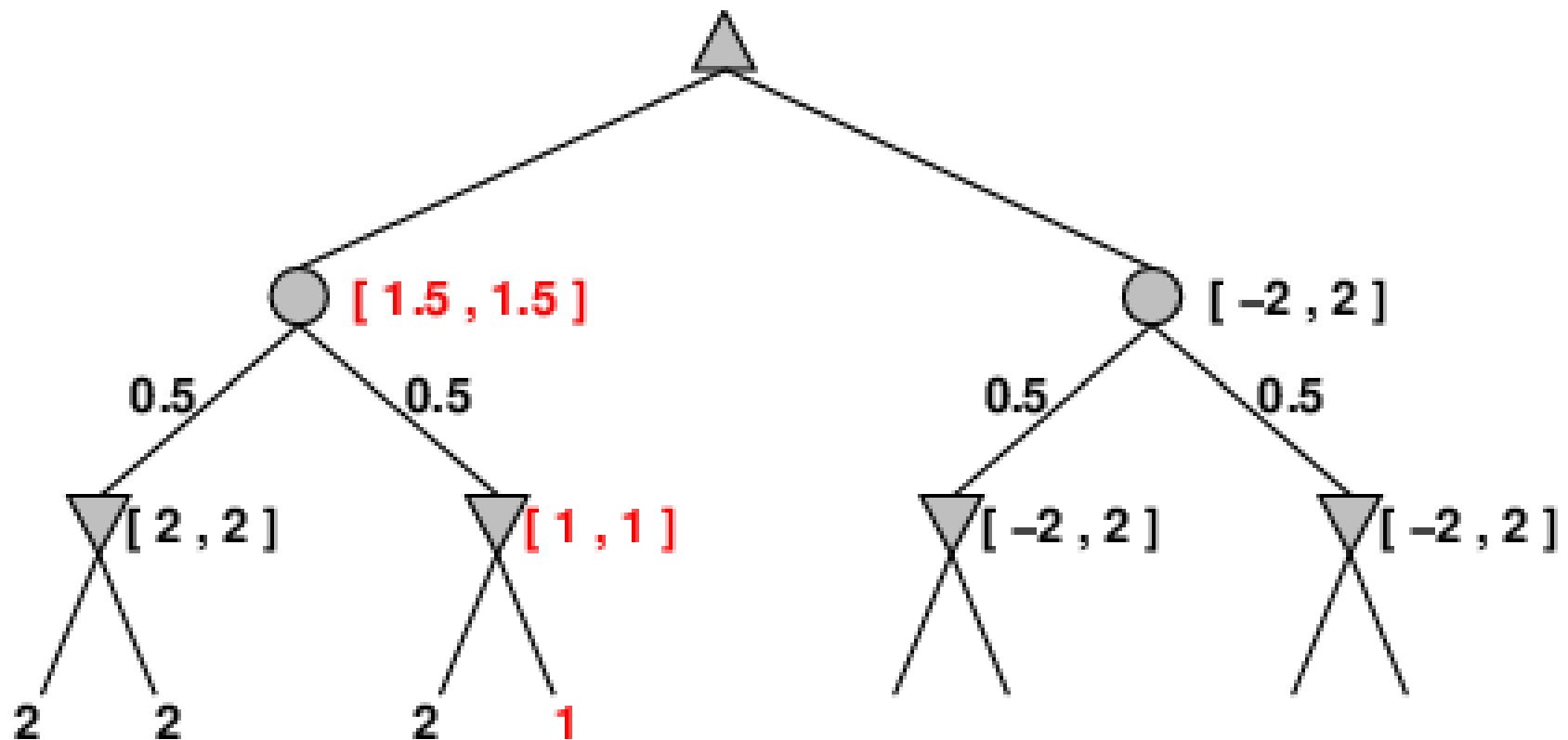
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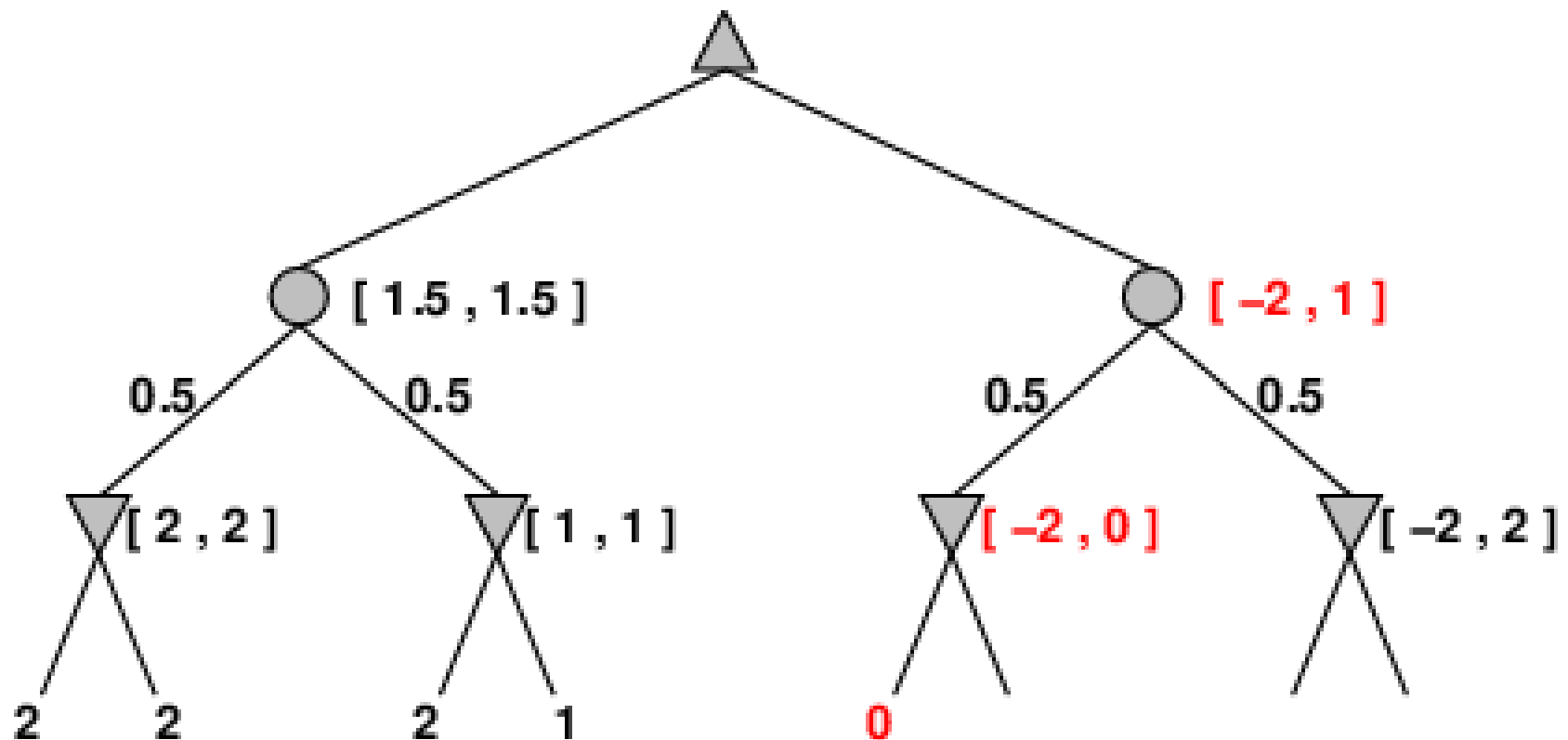
Pruning with Bounds

More pruning occurs if we can bound the leaf values (0,1,2)



Pruning with Bounds

Can already stop search: best expected value for right branch is 1

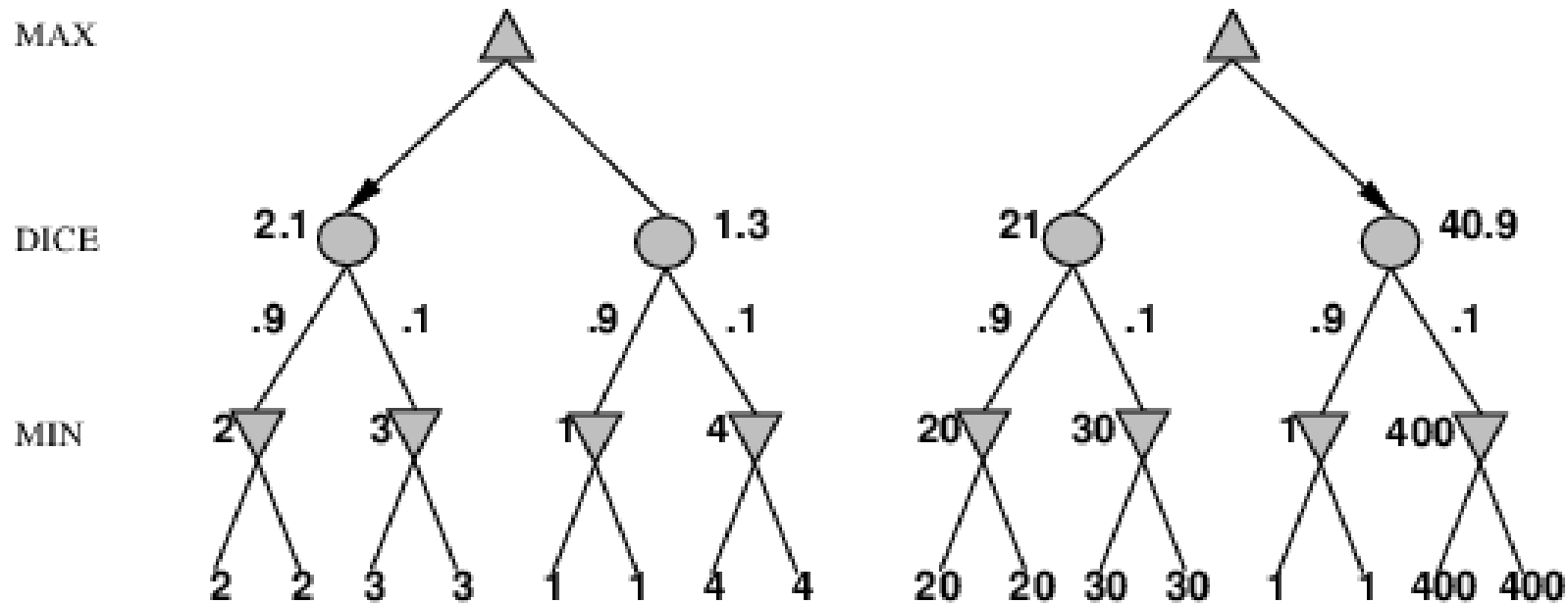


- Dice rolls increase b : 21 possible rolls with 2 dice
- Backgammon \approx 20 legal moves (can be 6,000 with 1-1 roll)

$$\text{depth } 4 = 20 \times (21 \times 20)^3 \approx 1.2 \times 10^9$$

- As depth increases, probability of reaching a given node shrinks
 \Rightarrow value of lookahead is diminished
- α - β pruning is much less effective
- TDGAMMON uses depth-2 search + very good EVAL
 \approx world-champion level

Digression: Exact Values Do Matter



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

imperfect information

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.

Commonsense Counter-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 (\$\$\$);■

⇒ *does not matter if jewels are left or right on road B, it's always better choice*■
- 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.■

⇒ *it does matter if we know where forks on road B lead to*■

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

- Hard game
 - imperfect information — including bluffing and trapping
 - stochastic outcomes — cards drawn at random
 - partially observable — may never see other players hand when they fold
 - non-cooperative multi-player — possibility for coalitions
 - Few moves (fold, call, raise), but large number of stochastic states
 - Relative balance of deception plays very important
also: when to bluff
- ⇒ There is no single best move
- Need to model other players (style, collusion, patterns)
 - Hard to evaluate (not just win/loss, different types of opponents)

Summary

- Games are fun to work on
- 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