KI-Programmierung

Game Playing

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Outline

- Perfect play
- Resource limits
- **\square** α-β pruning
- Games of chance
- Games of imperfect information

Game playing is a search problem

Defined by

- Initial state
- Successor function
- Goal test
- Path cost / utility / payoff function

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Characteristics of game playing

- "Unpredictable" opponent:
 Solution is a strategy specifying a move for every possible opponent reply
- Time limits: 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]

perfect	inform	ation
PO1001		

imperfect information

deterministic	chance
chess, checkers, go, othello	backgammon monopoly
	bridge, poker, scrabble nuclear war

Game Tree: 2-Player / Deterministic / Turns



Perfect play for deterministic, perfect-information games

Idea

Choose move to position with highest minimax value, i.e., best achievable payoff against best play

2-ply game



function MINIMAX-DECISION(game) returns an operator

```
for each op in OPERATORS[game] do
    VALUE[op] ← MINIMAX-VALUE(APPLY(op, game), game)
end
return the op with the highest VALUE[op]
```

function MINIMAX-VALUE(state, game) returns a utility value

if TERMINAL-TEST[game](state) then
 return UTILITY[game](state)
else if MAX is to move in state then
 return the highest MINIMAX-VALUE of SUCCESSORS(state)
else

return the lowest MINIMAX-VALUE of SUCCESSORS(*state*)

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Time	$O(b^m)$ (depth-first exploration)		
Space	O(bm) (depth-first exploration)		

Note

Finite strategy can exist even in an infinite tree

Complexity of chess

 $b \approx 35$, $m \approx 100$ for "reasonable" games Exact solution completely infeasible

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Standard approach

Cutoff test

e.g., depth limit (perhaps add quiescence search)

Evaluation function Estimates desirability of position

Estimate desirability of position



Black to move

White slightly better



White to move

Black winning

Typical evaluation function for chess

Weighted sum of features

EVAL(s) =
$$w_1 f_1(s) + w_2 f_2(s) + \dots + w_n f_n(s)$$

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Example

 $w_1 = 9$ $f_1(s) =$ (number of white queens) – (number of black queens)

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 **Does it work in practice?**

$$b^m = 10^6, \quad b = 35 \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad m = 4$$

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Not really, because ...

- 4-ply \approx human novice (hopeless chess player)
- 8-ply \approx typical PC, human master
- 12-ply \approx Deep Blue, Kasparov











Effects of pruning

- Reduces the search space
- Does not affect final result

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Effectiveness

Good move ordering improves effectiveness

Time complexity with "perfect ordering": $O(b^{m/2})$

Doubles depth of search

For chess:

Can easily reach depth 8 and play good chess

The Idea of α - β



 α is the best value (to MAX) found so far off the current path

If value x of some node below V is known to be less than α ,

then value of *V* is known to be at most *x*, i.e., less than α ,

therefore MAX will avoid node V

Consequence

No need to expand further nodes below *V*

```
function MAX-VALUE(state, game, \alpha, \beta) returns the minimax value of state
  inputs: state /* current state in game */
           game /* game description */
              /* the best score for MAX along the path to state */
           α
           β
               /* the best score for MIN along the path to state */
  if CUTOFF-TEST(state) then return EVAL(state)
  for each s in SUCCESSORS(state) do
      \alpha \leftarrow Max(\alpha, MIN-VALUE(s, game, \alpha, \beta))
      if \alpha \geq \beta then return \beta
  end
```

return α

end

return β

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.

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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



Chance introduced by dice, card-shuffling, etc.

Simplified example with coin-flipping



EXPECTMINIMAX gives perfect play

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 EXPECTIMINIMAX value of SUCCESSORS(state)

if state is a chance node then

return average of EXPECTMINIMAX value of SUCCESSORS(state)





























Problem

 $\alpha\text{-}\beta$ pruning is much less effective

Dice rolls increase b

21 possible rolls with 2 dice

Backgammon

pprox 20 legal moves

depth 4 =
$$20^4 \times 21^3 \approx 1.2 \times 10^9$$

TDGAMMON

Uses depth-2 search + very good \mathbf{EVAL} pprox world-champion level

Digression: Exact Values DO Matter



Behaviour is preserved only by positive linear transformation of EVAL

Hence EVAL should be proportional to the expected payoff

Typical examples

Card games: Bridge, poker, skat, etc.

Note

Like having one big dice roll at the beginning of the game

Idea for computing best action

Compute the minimax value of each action in each deal, then choose the action with highest expected value over all deals

Requires information on probability the different deals

Special case

If an action is optimal for all deals, it's optimal.

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Bridge

GIB, current best bridge program, approximates this idea by

- generating 100 deals consistent with bidding information
- picking the action that wins most tricks on average

Day 1Road A leads to a small heap of gold pieces10 pointsRoad B leads to a fork:10 points- take the left fork and you'll find a mound of jewels100 points- take the right fork and you'll be run over by a bus-1000 pointsBest action: Take road B (100 points)-1000 points

Day 1	
Road A leads to a small heap of gold pieces	10 points
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	100 points -1000 points
Best action: Take road B (100 points)	
Day 2	
Road A leads to a small heap of gold pieces	10 points
Road B leads to a fork:	
 take the left fork and you'll be run over by a bus 	-1000 points
 take the right fork and you'll find a mound of jewels 	100 points

Best action: Take road **B** (100 points)

Day 3

Road A leads to a small heap of gold pieces (10 points)

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

 $\begin{array}{c} 100 \text{ points} \\ -1000 \text{ points} \end{array}$

Best action: Take road A (10 points) NOT: Take road B ($\frac{-1000+100}{2} = -450$ points)

Note

Value of an actions is NOT the average of values for actual states computed with perfect information

With partial observability, value of an action depends on the information state the agent is in

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Leads to rational behaviors such as

- Acting to obtain information
- Signalling to one's partner
- Acting randomly to minimize information disclosure

- Games are to AI as grand prix racing is to automobile design
- Games are fun to work on (and dangerous)
- They illustrate several important points about AI
 - perfection is unattainable, must approximate
 - it is a good idea to think about what to think about
 - uncertainty constrains the assignment of values to states