

Theory of Computer Games: Concluding Remarks

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Abstract

- **Introducing practical issues.**
 - The open book.
 - The graph history interaction (GHI) problem.
 - Smart usage of resources.
 - ▷ *time during searching*
 - ▷ *memory*
 - ▷ *coding efforts*
 - ▷ *debugging efforts*
 - Opponent models
- **How to combine what we have learned in class together to get a working game program.**
- **How to test your program?**

The open book (1/2)

- During the open game, it is frequently the case
 - branching factor is huge;
 - it is difficult to write a good evaluating function;
 - the number of possible distinct positions up to a limited length is small as compared to the number of possible positions encountered during middle game search.
- Acquire game logs from
 - books;
 - games between masters;
 - games between computers;
 - ▷ *Use off-line computation to find out the value of a position for a given depth that cannot be computed online during a game due to resource constraints.*
 - ...

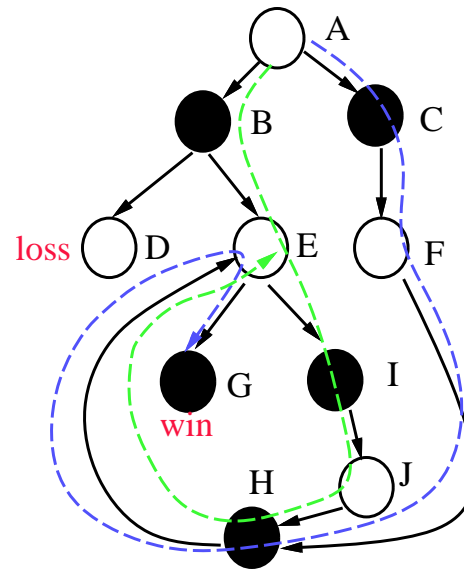
The open book (2/2)

- Assume you have collected r games.
 - For each position in the r games, compute the following 3 values:
 - ▷ *win*: the number of games reaching this position and then wins.
 - ▷ *loss*: the number of games reaching this position and then loss.
 - ▷ *draw*: the number of games reaching this position and then draw.
- When r is large and the games are **trustful**, then use the 3 values to compute an **estimated goodness** for this position.
- Comments:
 - Pure statistically.
 - Can build a static open book.
 - Your program may not be able to **take over** when the open book is over.
 - It is difficult to acquire large amount of “trustful” game logs.
 - Automatically analysis of game logs written by human experts. [Chen et. al. 2006]
 - Using high-level meta-knowledge to guide the way in searching:
 - ▷ *Dark chess: adjacent attack of the opponent’s Cannon.* [Chen and Hsu 2013]

Graph history interaction problem

- The graph history interaction (**GHI**) problem [Campbell 1985]:
 - In a game graph, a position can be visited by more than one paths.
 - The value of the position depends on **the path** visiting it.
 - ▷ *It can be win, loss or draw for Chinese chess.*
 - ▷ *It can only be draw for Western chess.*
 - ▷ *It can only be loss for Go.*
- In the transposition table, you record the value of a position, but not the path leading to it.
 - Values computed from rules on repetition cannot be used later on.
 - It takes a huge amount of storage to store all the paths visiting it.
- This is a very difficult problem to be solved in real time [Wu et al. '05].

GHI problem – example



- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow E \rightarrow I \rightarrow J \rightarrow H \rightarrow E$ is loss because of rules of repetition.
 - ▷ *Memorized H as a loss position.*
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D$ is a loss.
- $A \rightarrow C \rightarrow F \rightarrow H$ is loss because H is recorded as loss.
- A is loss because both branches lead to loss.
- However, $A \rightarrow C \rightarrow F \rightarrow H \rightarrow E \rightarrow G$ is a win.

Using resources

- **Time [Hyatt 1984] [Šolak and Vučković 2009]**
 - **For human:**
 - ▷ *More time is spent in the beginning when the game just starts.*
 - ▷ *Stop searching a path further when you think the position is **stable**.*
 - **Pondering:**
 - ▷ *Use the time when your opponent is thinking.*
 - ▷ *Guessing and then pondering.*
- **Memory**
 - **Using a large transposition table occupies a large space and thus slows down the program.**
 - ▷ *A large number of positions are not visited too often.*
 - **Using no transposition table makes you to search a position more than once.**
- **Other resources.**

Opponent models

- In a normal alpha-beta search, it is assumed that you and the opponent use the same strategy.
 - What is good to you is bad to the opponent and vice versa!
 - Hence we can reduce a minimax search to a NegaMax search.
 - This is normally true when the game ends, but may not be true in the middle of the game.
- What will happen when there are two strategies or evaluating functions f_1 and f_2 so that
 - for some positions p , $f_1(p)$ is **better** than $f_2(p)$
 - ▷ “better” means closer to the real value $f(p)$
 - for some positions q , $f_2(q)$ is **better** than $f_1(q)$
- If you are using f_1 and you know your opponent is using f_2 , what can be done to take advantage of this information.
 - This is called OM (**opponent model**) search [Carmel and Markovitch 1996].
 - ▷ In a MAX node, use f_1 .
 - ▷ In a MIN node, use f_2

Opponent models – comments

■ Comments:

- Need to know your opponent model precisely.
- How to learn the opponent on-line or off-line?
- When there are more than 2 possible opponent strategies, use a probability model (PrOM search) to form a strategy.

Search with chance nodes

■ Chinese dark chess

- Two player, zero sum, complete information
- **Perfect information**
- **Stochastic**
- There is a **chance** node during searching [Ballard 1983].
 - ▷ *The value of a node is a distribution, not a fixed value.*

■ Previous work

- Alpha-beta based [Ballard 1983]
- Monte-Carlo based [Lancoto et al 2013]

Basic ideas for searching chance nodes

- Assume a chance node x has a score probability distribution function $Pr(*)$ with the range of possible outcomes from 1 to N where N is a positive integer.
 - For each possible outcome i , there is a $score(i)$ to be computed.
 - The expected value $E = \sum_{i=1}^N score(i) * Pr(x = i)$.
 - The minimum value is $m = \min_{i=1}^N \{score(i) \mid Pr(x = i) > 0\}$.
 - The maximum value is $M = \max_{i=1}^N \{score(i) \mid Pr(x = i) > 0\}$.
- Example: in Chinese dark chess.
 - For the first ply, $N = 14 * 32$.
 - ▷ *Using symmetry, we can reduce it to 7*8.*
 - We now consider the chance node of flipping the piece at the cell a1.
 - ▷ $N = 14$.
 - ▷ *Assume $x = 1$ means a black King is revealed and $x = 8$ means a red King is revealed.*
 - ▷ *Then $score(1) = score(8)$.*
 - ▷ *$Pr(x = 1) = Pr(x = 8) = 1/14$.*

Bounds in a chance node

- Assume the various possibilities of a chance node is evaluated one by one in the order that at the end of phase i , $i = N$ is evaluated.
 - Assume $v_{min} \leq score(i) \leq v_{max}$.
- How do the lower and upper bounds, namely m_i and M_i , of the chance node change at the end of phase i ?
 - $i = 0$.
 - ▷ $m_0 = v_{min}$
 - ▷ $M_0 = v_{max}$
 - $i = 1$, we first compute $score(1)$, and then know
 - ▷ $m_1 \geq score(1) * Pr(x = 1) + v_{min} * (1 - Pr(x = 1))$, and
 - ▷ $M_1 \leq score(1) * Pr(x = 1) + v_{max} * (1 - Pr(x = 1))$.
 - ...
 - $i = i^*$, we have computed $score(1), \dots, score(i^*)$, and then know
 - ▷ $m_{i^*} \geq \sum_{i=1}^{i^*} score(i) * Pr(x = i) + v_{min} * (1 - \sum_{i=1}^{i^*} Pr(x = i))$, and
 - ▷ $M_{i^*} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{i^*} score(i) * Pr(x = i) + v_{max} * (1 - \sum_{i=1}^{i^*} Pr(x = i))$.

Example: Chinese dark chess

■ Assumption:

- The range of the scores of Chinese dark chess is $[-10,10]$ inclusive.
- $N = 7$.
- $Pr(x = i) = 1/N = 1/7$.

■ Calculation:

- $i = 0$,
 - ▷ $m_0 = -10$.
 - ▷ $M_0 = 10$.
- $i = 1$ and **if** $score(1) = -2$, then
 - ▷ $m_1 = -2 * 1/7 + -10 * 6/7 = -62/7 \simeq -8.86$.
 - ▷ $M_1 = -2 * 1/7 + 10 * 6/7 = 58/7 \simeq 8.26$.
- $i = 1$ and **if** $score(1) = 3$, then
 - ▷ $m_1 = 3 * 1/7 + -10 * 6/7 = -57/7 \simeq -8.14$.
 - ▷ $M_1 = 3 * 1/7 + 10 * 6/7 = 63/7 = 9$.

How to use these bounds

- The lower and upper bounds of the expected score can be used to do alpha-beta pruning.
 - Nicely fit into the alpha-beta search algorithm.
- Can do better by not searching the DFS order.
 - It is not necessary to finish search completely for the subtree of $x = 1$, and then start to look at the subtree of $x = 2$.
 - Assume it is a MAX chance node, e.g., the opponent takes a flip.
 - ▷ *Knowing some value v'_1 of a subtree for $x = 1$ gives an upper bound, i.e., $score(1) \geq v'_1$.*
 - ▷ *Knowing some value v'_2 of a subtree for $x = 2$ gives an upper bound, i.e., $score(2) \geq v'_2$.*
 - ▷ *These bounds can be used to make the search window further narrower.*
- For Monte-Carlo based algorithm, we need to use a sparse sampling algorithm to efficiently estimate the expected value of a chance node [Kearn et al 2002].

Putting everything together

- **Game playing system**
 - Use some sorts of open book.
 - Middle-game searching: usage of a search engine.
 - ▷ *Main search algorithm*
 - ▷ *Enhancements*
 - ▷ *Evaluating function: knowledge*
 - Use some sorts of endgame databases.
- **Debugging and testing**

Testing

- You have two versions P_1 and P_2 .
- You make the 2 programs play against each other using the same resource constraints.
- To make it fair, during a round of testing, the numbers of a program plays first and second are equal.
- After a few rounds of testing, how do you know P_1 is better or worse than P_2 ?

How to know you are successful

- Assume during a **self-play** experiment, two copies of the same program are playing against each other.
 - Since two copies of the same program are playing against each other, the outcome of each game is an independent random trial and can be modeled as a trinomial random variable.
 - Assume for a copy playing first,

$$Pr(game_{first}) = \begin{cases} p & \text{if win} \\ q & \text{if draw} \\ 1 - p - q & \text{if lose} \end{cases}$$

- Hence for a copy playing second,

$$Pr(game_{last}) = \begin{cases} 1 - p - q & \text{if win} \\ q & \text{if draw} \\ p & \text{if lose} \end{cases}$$

Outcome of self-play games

- Assume $2n$ games, g_1, g_2, \dots, g_{2n} are played.
 - In order to offset the initiative, namely first player's advantage, each copy plays first for n games.
 - We also assume each copy alternatives in playing first.
 - Let g_{2i-1} and g_{2i} be the i th pair of games.
- Let the outcome of the i th pair of games be a random variable X_i from the prospective of the copy who plays g_{2i-1} .
 - Assume we assign a score of x for a game won, a score of 0 for a game drawn and a score of $-x$ for a game lost.
- The outcome of X_i and its occurrence probability is thus

$$Pr(X_i) = \begin{cases} p(1 - p - q) & \text{if } X_i = 2x \\ pq + (1 - p - q)q & \text{if } X_i = x \\ p^2 + (1 - p - q)^2 + q^2 & \text{if } X_i = 0 \\ pq + (1 - p - q)q & \text{if } X_i = -x \\ (1 - p - q)p & \text{if } X_i = -2x \end{cases}$$

How good we are against the baseline?

- **Properties of X_i .**
 - The mean $E(X_i) = 0$.
 - The standard deviation of X_i is

$$\sqrt{E(X_i^2)} = x\sqrt{2pq + (2q + 8p)(1 - p - q)},$$

and it is a multi-nominally distributed random variable.

- **When you have played n pairs of games, what is the probability of getting a score of s , $s > 0$?**
 - Let $X[n] = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$.
 - ▷ *The mean of $X[n]$, $E(X[n])$, is 0.*
 - ▷ *The standard deviation of $X[n]$, σ_n , is $x\sqrt{n}\sqrt{2pq + (2q + 8p)(1 - p - q)}$,*
 - If $s > 0$, we can calculate the probability of $Pr(|X[n]| \leq s)$ using well known techniques from calculating multi-nominal distributions.

Practical setup

■ Parameters that are usually used.

- $x = 1$.
- **For Chinese chess, q is about 0.3161, $p = 0.3918$ and $1 - p - q$ is 0.2920.**
 - ▷ *Data source: 63,548 games played among masters recorded at www.dpxq.com.*
 - ▷ *This means the first player has a better chance of winning.*
- **The mean of $X[n]$, $E(X[n])$, is 0.**
- **The standard deviation of $X[n]$, σ_n , is**

$$x\sqrt{n}\sqrt{2pq + (2q + 8p)(1 - p - q)} = \sqrt{1.16n}.$$

Results (1/3)

$Pr(X[n] \leq s)$	$s = 0$	$s = 1$	$s = 2$	$s = 3$	$s = 4$	$s = 5$	$s = 6$
$n = 10, \sigma_{10} = 3.67$	0.108	0.315	0.502	0.658	0.779	0.866	0.924
$n = 20, \sigma_{20} = 5.19$	0.076	0.227	0.369	0.499	0.613	0.710	0.789
$n = 30, \sigma_{30} = 6.36$	0.063	0.186	0.305	0.417	0.520	0.612	0.693
$n = 40, \sigma_{40} = 7.34$	0.054	0.162	0.266	0.366	0.460	0.546	0.624
$n = 50, \sigma_{50} = 8.21$	0.049	0.145	0.239	0.330	0.416	0.497	0.571

Results (2/3)

$Pr(X[n] \leq s)$	$s = 7$	$s = 8$	$s = 9$	$s = 10$	$s = 11$	$s = 12$	$s = 13$
$n = 10, \sigma_{10} = 3.67$	0.960	0.981	0.991	0.997	0.999	1.000	1.000
$n = 20, \sigma_{20} = 5.19$	0.851	0.899	0.933	0.958	0.974	0.985	0.991
$n = 30, \sigma_{30} = 6.36$	0.761	0.819	0.865	0.902	0.930	0.951	0.967
$n = 40, \sigma_{40} = 7.34$	0.693	0.753	0.804	0.847	0.883	0.912	0.934
$n = 50, \sigma_{50} = 8.21$	0.639	0.699	0.753	0.799	0.839	0.872	0.900

Results (3/3)

$Pr(X[n] \leq s)$	$s = 14$	$s = 15$	$s = 16$	$s = 17$	$s = 18$	$s = 19$	$s = 20$
$n = 10, \sigma_{10} = 3.67$	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
$n = 20, \sigma_{20} = 5.19$	0.995	0.997	0.999	0.999	1.000	1.000	1.000
$n = 30, \sigma_{30} = 6.36$	0.978	0.986	0.991	0.994	0.997	0.998	0.999
$n = 40, \sigma_{40} = 7.34$	0.952	0.966	0.976	0.983	0.989	0.992	0.995
$n = 50, \sigma_{50} = 8.21$	0.923	0.941	0.956	0.967	0.976	0.983	0.988

Statistical behaviors

- Hence assume you have two programs that are playing against each other and have obtained a score of $s + 1$, $s > 0$, after trying n pairs of games.
 - Assume $Pr(|X[n]| \leq s)$ is say 0.95.
 - ▷ *Then this result is meaningful, that is a program is better than the other, because it only happens with a low probability of 0.05.*
 - Assume $Pr(|X[n]| \leq s)$ is say 0.05.
 - ▷ *Then this result is not very meaningful, because it happens with a high probability of 0.95.*
- In general, it is a very rare case, e.g., less than 5% of chance that it will happen, that your score is more than $2\sigma_n$.
 - For our setting, if you perform n pairs of games, and your net score is more than $2 * \sqrt{1.16} * \sqrt{n} \simeq 2.154\sqrt{n}$, then it means something statistically.
- You can also decide your “definition” of “a rare case”.

Concluding remarks

- **Consider your purpose of studying a game:**
 - It is good to solve a game completely.
 - ▷ *You can only solve a game once!*
 - It is better to acquire the knowledge about why the game wins, draws or loses.
 - ▷ *You can learn lots of knowledge.*
 - It is even better to discover knowledge in the game and then use it to make the world a better place.
 - ▷ *Fun!*
- **Try to use the techniques learned from this course in other areas!**

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