

Theory of Computer Games: Selected Advanced Topics

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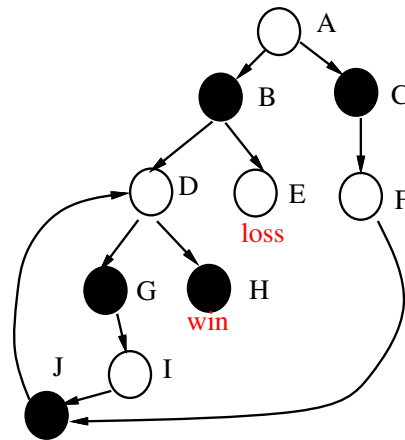
Abstract

- **Some advanced research issues.**
 - The graph history interaction (GHI) problem.
 - Opponent models.
 - Searching chance nodes.
 - Proof-number search.
- **More research topics.**

Graph history interaction problem

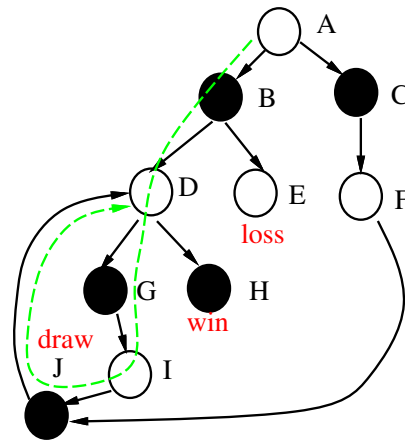
- The graph history interaction (**GHI**) problem [Campbell 1985]:
 - In a game graph, a position can be visited by more than one paths from a starting position.
 - The value of the position depends on **the path** visiting it.
 - ▷ *It can be win, loss or draw for Chinese chess.*
 - ▷ *It can only be draw for Western chess and Chinese dark 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] [Kishimoto and Müller '04].

GHI: when loop draws



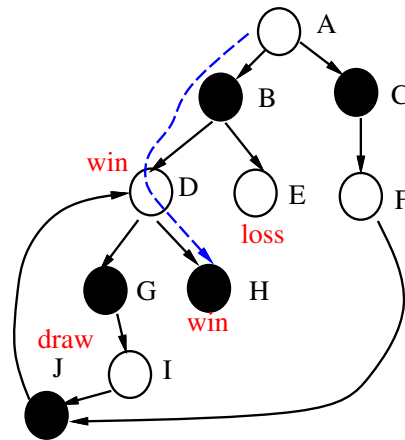
- Assume if the game falls into a loop, then it is a draw.

GHI: when loop draws



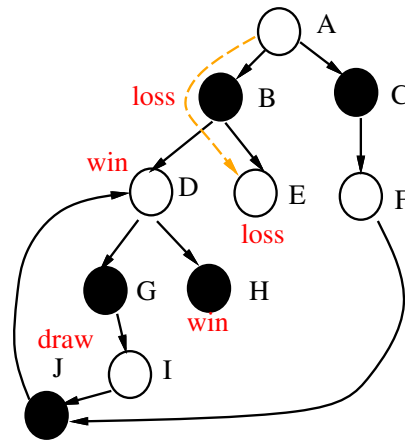
- Assume if the game falls into a loop, then it is a draw.
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow G \rightarrow I \rightarrow J \rightarrow D$ is draw by **rules of repetition**.
 - ▷ *Memorized J as a draw position.*

GHI: when loop draws



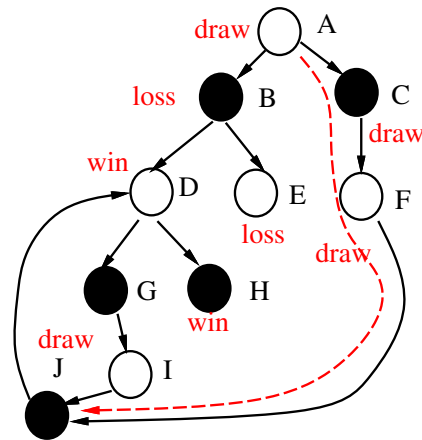
- Assume if the game falls into a loop, then it is a draw.
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow G \rightarrow I \rightarrow J \rightarrow D$ is draw by **rules of repetition**.
 - ▷ *Memorized J as a draw position.*
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow H$ is a win. Hence D is win.

GHI: when loop draws



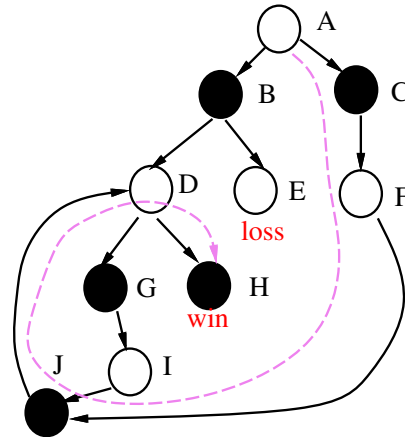
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- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow G \rightarrow I \rightarrow J \rightarrow D$ is draw by **rules of repetition**.
 - ▷ Memorized J as a draw position.
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow H$ is a win. Hence D is win.
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow E$ is a loss. Hence B is loss.

GHI: when loop draws



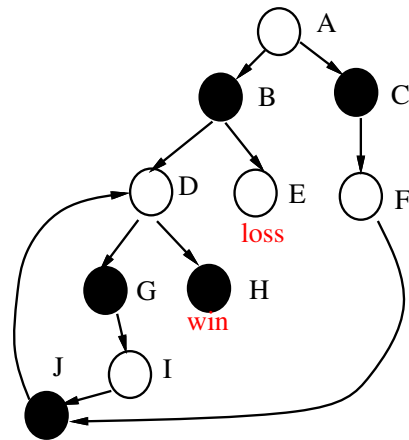
- Assume if the game falls into a loop, then it is a draw.
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow G \rightarrow I \rightarrow J \rightarrow D$ is draw by **rules of repetition**.
 - ▷ *Memorized J as a draw position.*
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow H$ is a win. Hence D is win.
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow E$ is a loss. Hence B is loss.
- $A \rightarrow C \rightarrow F \rightarrow J$ is draw because J is recorded as draw.
- A is draw because one child is loss and the other child is draw.

GHI: when loop draws



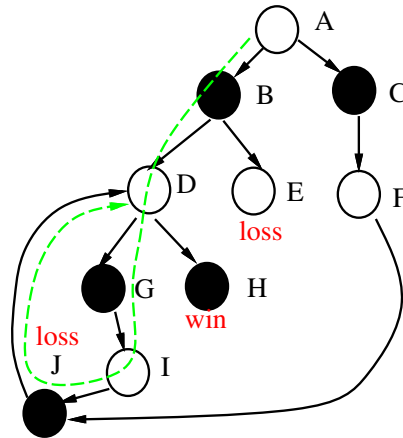
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- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow G \rightarrow I \rightarrow J \rightarrow D$ is draw by **rules of repetition**.
 - ▷ *Memorized J as a draw position.*
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow H$ is a win. Hence D is win.
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow E$ is a loss. Hence B is loss.
- $A \rightarrow C \rightarrow F \rightarrow J$ is draw because J is recorded as draw.
- A is draw because one child is loss and the other child is draw.
- However, $A \rightarrow C \rightarrow F \rightarrow J \rightarrow D \rightarrow H$ is a win (for the root).

GHI: when loop wins



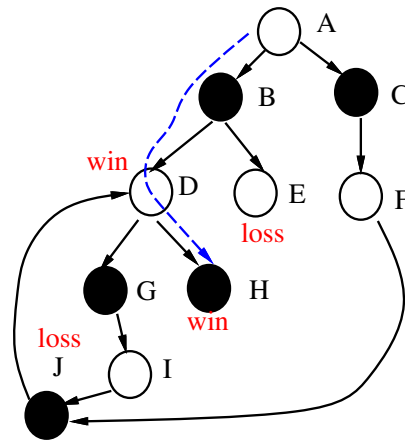
- Assume the one causes loops wins the game.

GHI: when loop wins



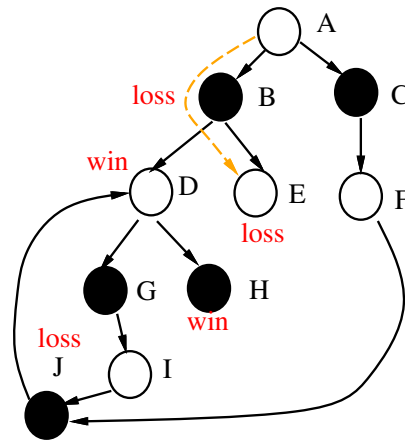
- **Assume the one causes loops wins the game.**
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow G \rightarrow I \rightarrow J \rightarrow D$ is **loss** because of **rules of repetition**.
 - ▷ *Memorized J as a loss position (for the root).*

GHI: when loop wins



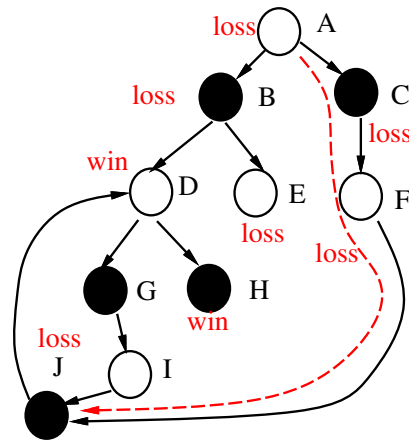
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- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow G \rightarrow I \rightarrow J \rightarrow D$ is **loss** because of **rules of repetition**.
 - ▷ *Memorized J as a loss position (for the root).*
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow H$ is a **win**. Hence D is **win**.

GHI: when loop wins



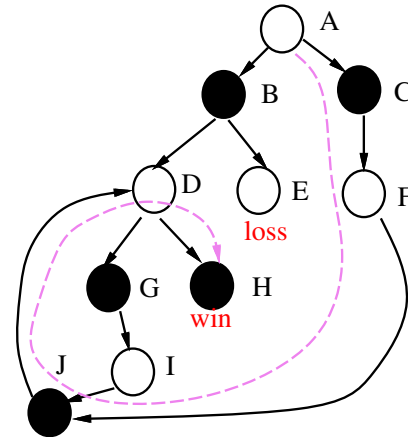
- **Assume the one causes loops wins the game.**
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow G \rightarrow I \rightarrow J \rightarrow D$ is **loss** because of **rules of repetition**.
 - ▷ *Memorized J as a loss position (for the root).*
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow H$ is a **win**. Hence D is **win**.
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow E$ is a **loss**. Hence B is **loss**.

GHI: when loop wins



- **Assume the one causes loops wins the game.**
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow G \rightarrow I \rightarrow J \rightarrow D$ is loss because of **rules of repetition**.
 - ▷ *Memorized J as a loss position (for the root).*
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow H$ is a win. Hence D is win.
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow E$ is a loss. Hence B is loss.
- $A \rightarrow C \rightarrow F \rightarrow J$ is loss because J is recorded as loss.
- A is loss because both branches lead to loss.

GHI: when loop wins



- **Assume the one causes loops wins the game.**
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow G \rightarrow I \rightarrow J \rightarrow D$ is **loss** because of **rules of repetition**.
 - ▷ *Memorized J as a loss position (for the root).*
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow H$ is a **win**. Hence D is **win**.
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow E$ is a **loss**. Hence B is **loss**.
- $A \rightarrow C \rightarrow F \rightarrow J$ is **loss** because J is recorded as **loss**.
- A is **loss** because both branches lead to **loss**.
- **However, $A \rightarrow C \rightarrow F \rightarrow J \rightarrow D \rightarrow H$ is a win (for the root).**

Comments

- Using DFS to search the above game graph from left first or from right first produces two different results.
- Position A is actually a win position.
 - Problem: memorize J being draw is only valid when the path leading to it causes a loop.
- Storing the path leading to a position in a transposition table requires too much memory.
 - Maybe we can store some forms of hash code to verify it.
- It is still a research problem to use a more efficient data structure.

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 .

Other usage of the opponent model

- Depend on strength of your opponent, decide whether to force an easy draw or not.
 - This is called the **contempt factor**.
- Example in CDC:
 - It is easy to chase the king of your opponent using your pawn.
 - Drawing a weaker opponent is a waste.
 - Drawing a stronger opponent is a gain.
- It is feasible to use a learning model to “guess” the level of your opponent as the game goes and then adapt to its model in CDC [Chang et al 2021].

Opponent models – comments

■ Comments:

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

■ Remark: A common misconception is if your opponent uses a worse strategy f_3 than the one, namely f_2 , used in your model, then he may get advantage.

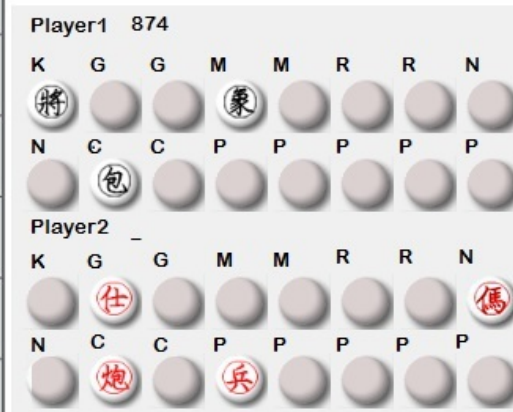
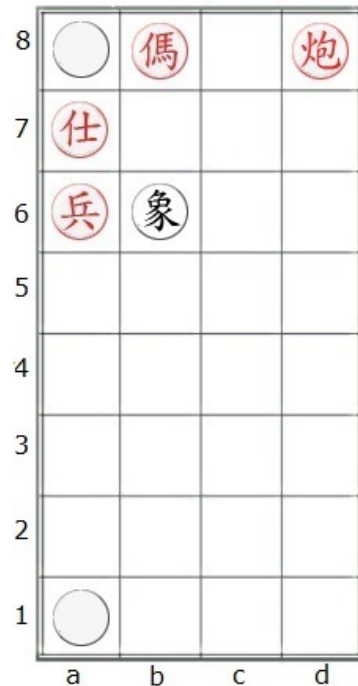
- **This is impossible** if f_2 is truly better than f_3 .
- If f_1 can beat f_2 , then f_1 can sure beat f_3 .

Search with chance nodes

- Many stochastic games have nodes whose outcome cannot be decided ahead of time in the game tree.
 - A priori chance node: you make a decision first and then followed by a random toss.
 - ▷ *EinStein Wrfelt Nicht (EWN): you make a random toss to decide what pieces that you can move, and then you make a move.*
 - A posteriori chance node: a random toss is made first and then you make a decision.
 - ▷ *Chinese dark chess: you pick a dark piece to flip, and then the piece is revealed decided by a random toss*
- Example: Chinese dark chess (CDC)
 - Two-player, zero sum
 - Complete information
 - Perfect information
 - Stochastic
 - There is a **chance** node during searching [Ballard 1983].
- Previous work
 - Alpha-beta based [Ballard 1983]
 - Monte-Carlo based [Lancoto et al 2013]

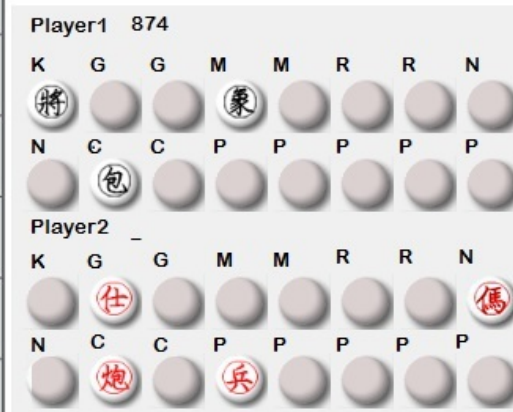
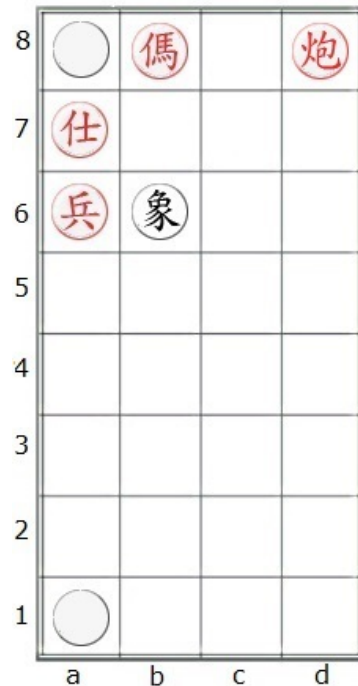
Example (1/4)

- It's BLACK turn and BLACK has 6 different possible legal moves which includes the four different moving made by its elephant and the two flipping moves at a1 or a8.
 - It is difficult for BLACK to secure a win by moving its elephant along any of the 3 possible directions, namely up, right or left, or by capturing the RED pawn at the left hand side.



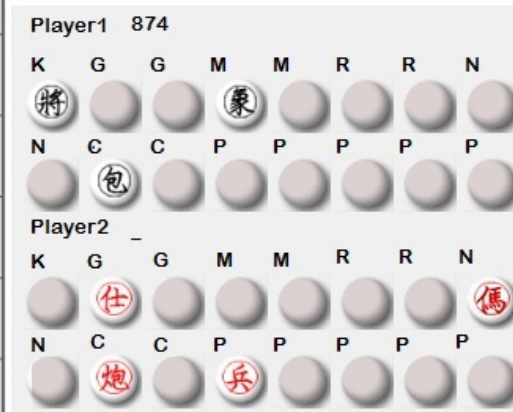
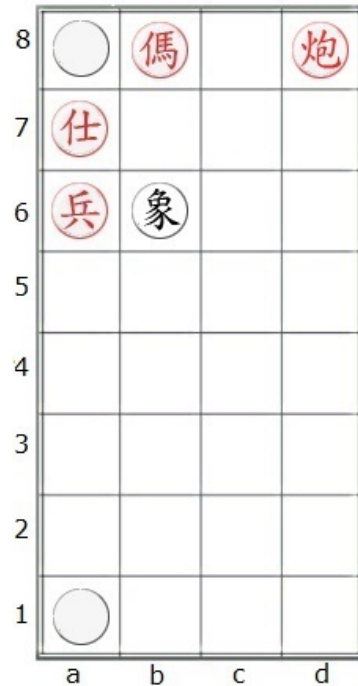
Example (2/4)

- If BLACK flips a1, then there are 2 possible cases.
 - If a1 is BLACK cannon, then it is difficult for RED to win.
 - ▷ RED guard is in danger.
 - If a1 is BLACK king, then it is difficult for BLACK to lose.
 - ▷ BLACK king can go up through the right.



Example (3/4)

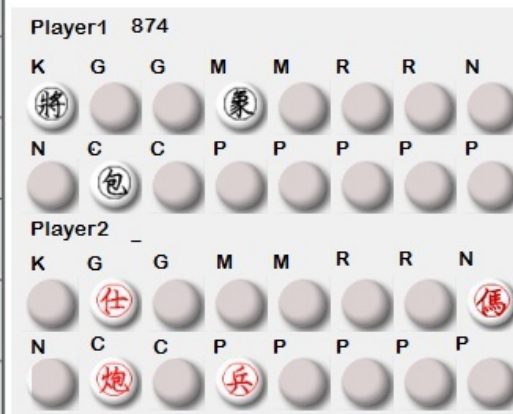
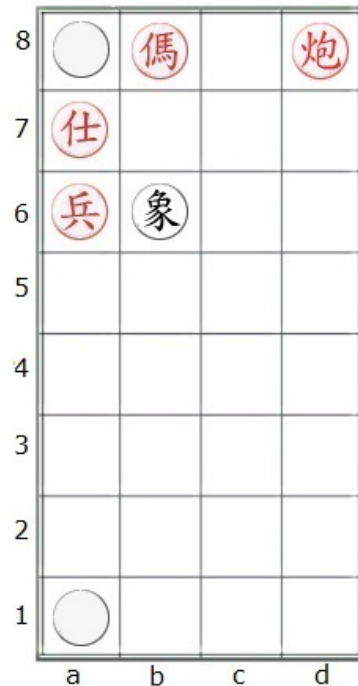
- If **BLACK** flips a8, then there are 2 possible cases.
 - If a8 is **BLACK** cannon, then it is easy for **RED** to win.
 - ▷ *RED* cannon captures it immediately.
 - If a8 is **BLACK** king, then it is also easy for **RED** to win.
 - ▷ *RED* cannon captures it immediately.



Example (4/4)

■ Conclusion:

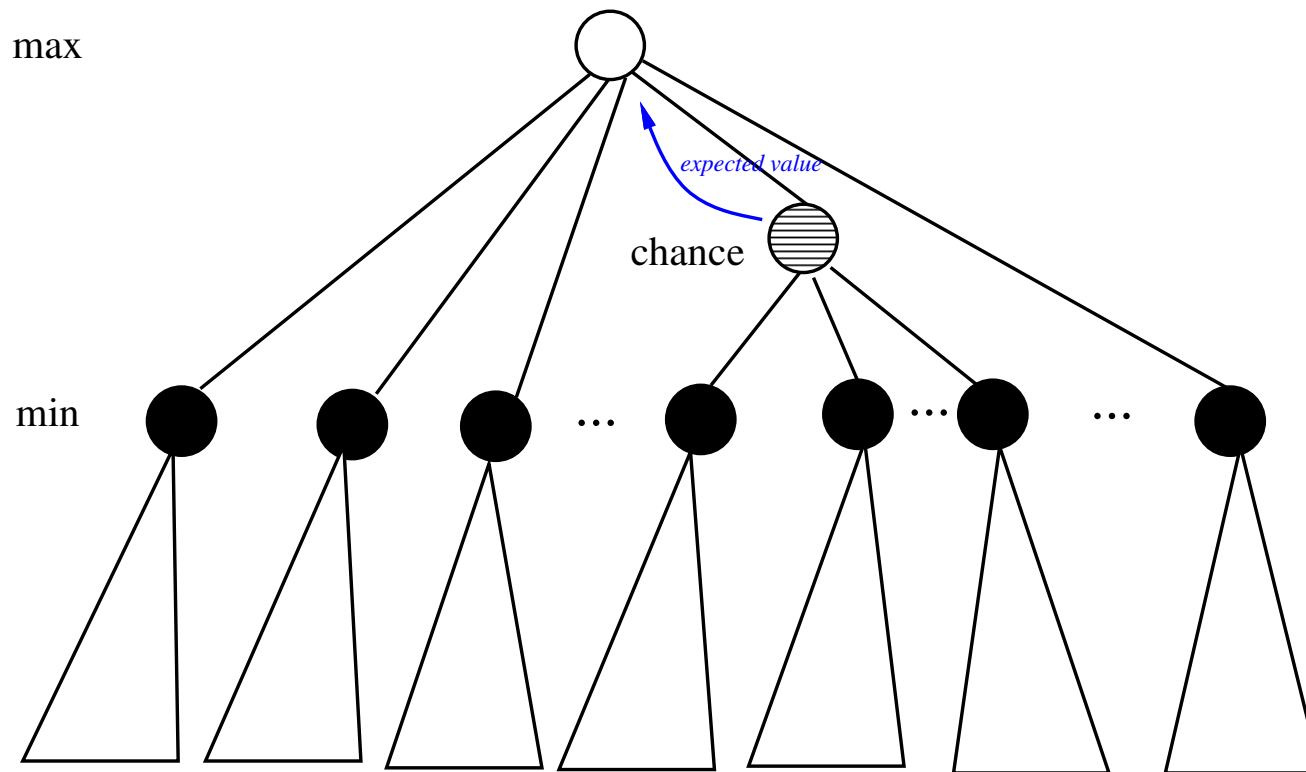
- It is vary bad for BLACK to flip a8.
- It is bad for BLACK to move its elephant.
- It is better for BLACK to flip a1.



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 , we need to compute $score(i)$.
 - 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: open game 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 $score(1) = score(8)$ since the first player owns the revealed king no matter its color is.*
 - ▷ $Pr(x = 1) = Pr(x = 8) = 1/14$.

Illustration



Algorithm: Chance_Search (MAX node)

- **Algorithm** $F3.0'$ (position p , value $alpha$, value $beta$, integer $depth$)
 - // max node
 - determine the successor positions p_1, \dots, p_b
 - if $b = 0$ // a terminal node
or $depth = 0$ // remaining depth to search
or time is running up // from timing control
or some other constraints are met // add knowledge here
 - then return $f(p)$ else begin
 - ▷ $m := -\infty$
 - ▷ for $i := 1$ to b do
 - ▷ begin
 - ▷ if p_i is to play a chance node x
then $t := Star0_F3.0'(p_i, x, \max\{alpha, m\}, beta, depth - 1)$
 - ▷ else $t := G3.0'(p_i, \max\{alpha, m\}, beta, depth - 1)$
 - ▷ if $t > m$ then $m := t$
 - ▷ if $m \geq beta$ then return(m) // beta cut off
 - ▷ end
 - end;
 - return m

Algorithm: Chance_Search (MIN node)

- **Algorithm** $G3.0'$ (**position** p , **value** $alpha$, **value** $beta$, **integer** $depth$)
 - // min node
 - **determine the successor positions** p_1, \dots, p_b
 - **if** $b = 0$ // **a terminal node**
 - or** $depth = 0$ // **remaining depth to search**
 - or** **time is running up** // **from timing control**
 - or** **some other constraints are met** // **add knowledge here**
 - **then return** $f(p)$ **else begin**
 - ▷ $m := \infty$
 - ▷ **for** $i := 1$ **to** b **do**
 - ▷ **begin**
 - ▷ **if** p_i **is to play a chance node** x
 - then** $t := Star0_G3.0'(p_i, x, alpha, \min\{beta, m\}, depth - 1)$
 - ▷ **else** $t := F3.0'(p_i, alpha, \min\{beta, m\}, depth - 1)$
 - ▷ **if** $t < m$ **then** $m := t$
 - ▷ **if** $m \leq alpha$ **then return**(m) // **alpha cut off**
 - ▷ **end**
 - **end;**
 - **return** m

Algorithm: *Star0*, uniform case (MAX)

- version when all choices have equal probabilities
- max node
- Algorithm *Star0_EQU_F3.0'*(position p , node x , value $alpha$, value $beta$, integer $depth$)
 - // a chance node x with c equal probability choices k_1, \dots, k_c
 - // exhaustive search all possibilities and return the expected value
 - determine the possible values of the chance node x to be k_1, \dots, k_c
 - $vsum = 0$; // current sum of expected value
 - for $i = 1$ to c do
 - begin
 - ▷ let p_i be the position of assigning k_i to x in p ;
 - ▷ $vsum += G3.0'(p_i, -\infty, +\infty, depth)$;
 - end
- return $vsum/c$; // return the expected score

Algorithm: *Star0*, uniform case (MIN)

- version when all choices have equal probabilities
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Star0: note

- *depth* stays the same since we are unwrapping a chance node.
- The search window from normal alpha-beta pruning cannot be applied in a chance node search since we are looking at the average of the outcome.
 - It is okay for one choice to have a very large or small value because it may be evened out by values from other choices.

With a probability distribution: MAX node

- MAX node
- Algorithm *Star0_F3.0'*(position p , node x , value $alpha$, value $beta$, integer $depth$)
 - // a chance node x with c choices k_1, \dots, k_c
 - // the i th choice happens with the probability Pr_i
 - // exhaustive search all possibilities and return the expected value
 - determine the possible values of the chance node x to be k_1, \dots, k_c
 - $vexp = 0$; // current sum of expected value
 - for $i = 1$ to c do
 - begin
 - ▷ let p_i be the position of assigning k_i to x in p ;
 - ▷ $vexp += Pr_i * G3.0'(p_i, -\infty, +\infty, depth)$;
 - end
- return $vexp$; // return the expected score

With a probability distribution: MIN node

- MIN node
- Algorithm *Star0_G3.0'*(position p , node x , value $alpha$, value $beta$, integer $depth$)
 - // a chance node x with c choices k_1, \dots, k_c
 - // the i th choice happens with the probability Pr_i
 - // exhaustive search all possibilities and return the expected value
 - determine the possible values of the chance node x to be k_1, \dots, k_c
 - $vexp = 0$; // current sum of expected value
 - for $i = 1$ to c do
 - begin
 - ▷ let p_i be the position of assigning k_i to x in p ;
 - ▷ $vexp += Pr_i * F3.0'(p_i, -\infty, +\infty, depth)$;
 - end
- return $vexp$; // return the expected score

Ideas for improvements

- During a chance search, an exhaustive search method is used without any pruning.
- Ideas for further improvements
 - When some of the best possible cases turn out very bad results, we know lower/upper bounds of the final value.
 - When you are in advantage, search for a bad choice first.
 - ▷ *If the worst choice cannot is not too bad, then you can take this chance.*
 - When you are in disadvantage, search for a good choice first.
 - ▷ *If the best choice cannot is not good enough, then there is not need to take this chance.*
- Examples: the average of 2 drawings of a dice is similar to a position with 2 possible moves with scores in [1..6].
 - The first drawing is 5. Then bounds of the average:
 - ▷ *lower bound is 3*
 - ▷ *upper bound is 5.5.*
 - The first drawing is 1. Then bounds of the average:
 - ▷ *lower bound is 1*
 - ▷ *upper bound is 3.5.*

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 , the i th choice is evaluated.
 - Assume $v_{min} \leq score(i) \leq v_{max}$.
- What are the lower and upper bounds, namely m_i and M_i , of **the expected value** of the chance node immediately after 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
 - ▷ $M_{i^*} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{i^*} score(i) * Pr(x = i) + v_{max} * (1 - \sum_{i=1}^{i^*} Pr(x = i))$.

Changes of bounds: uniform case (1/2)

- **For simplicity, let's assume** $Pr(x = i) = \frac{1}{c}$.
- For all i , and the evaluated value of the i th choice is v_i .
- Assume the search window entering a chance node with $N = c$ choices is $(alpha, beta)$.
- The **value** of a chance node after the first i choices are explored can be expressed as
 - an expected value $E_i = vsum_i/i$;
 - ▷ $vsum_i = \sum_{j=1}^i v_j$
 - ▷ This value is returned **only** when all choices are explored.
⇒ **The expected value of an un-explored child shouldn't be** $\frac{v_{min}+v_{max}}{2}$.
 - a range of possible values $[m_i, M_i]$.
 - ▷ $m_i = (\sum_{j=1}^i v_j + v_{min} \cdot (c - i))/c$
 - ▷ $M_i = (\sum_{j=1}^i v_j + v_{max} \cdot (c - i))/c$
 - **Invariants:**
 - ▷ $E_i \in [m_i, M_i]$
 - ▷ $E_c = m_c = M_c$

Changes of bounds: uniform case (2/2)

- Let m_i and M_i be the current lower and upper bounds, respectively, of the **expected value** of this chance node immediately after the evaluation of the i th node.
 - $m_i = (\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} v_j + v_i + v_{min} \cdot (c - i))/c$
 - $M_i = (\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} v_j + v_i + v_{max} \cdot (c - i))/c$
- How to incrementally update m_i and M_i :
 - $m_0 = v_{min}$
 - $M_0 = v_{max}$
 - $m_i = m_{i-1} + (v_i - v_{min})/c$
 - $M_i = M_{i-1} + (v_i - v_{max})/c$
- The current search window is $(alpha, beta)$.
 - No more searching is needed when
 - ▷ $m_i \geq beta$, **chance node cut off I**;
 - ⇒ The lower bound found so far is good enough.
 - ⇒ Similar to a beta cut off.
 - ⇒ The returned value is m_i .
 - ▷ $M_i \leq alpha$, **chance node cut off II**.
 - ⇒ The upper bound found so far is bad enough.
 - ⇒ Similar to an alpha cut off.
 - ⇒ The returned value is M_i .

Chance node cut off: uniform case (1/3)

- The above two cut offs comes from each time a choice is completely searched.
 - When $m_i \geq \text{beta}$, **chance node cut off I**,
 - ▷ which means $(\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} v_j + v_i + v_{\min} \cdot (c - i))/c \geq \text{beta}$.
 - When $M_i \leq \text{alpha}$, **chance node cut off II**,
 - ▷ which means $(\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} v_j + v_i + v_{\max} \cdot (c - i))/c \leq \text{alpha}$.
- Further cut off can be obtained before when that choice is in searching.
 - Assume after searching the first $i - 1$ choices, no chance node cut off happens.
 - Before searching the i th choice, we know that if v_i is large enough, then it will raise the lower bound of the chance node and it will have a chance of getting a chance node cut off I.
 - How large should v_i be for this to happen?
 - ▷ **chance node cut off I:**
 $(\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} v_j + v_i + v_{\min} \cdot (c - i))/c \geq \text{beta}$
 - ▷ $\Rightarrow v_i \geq B_{i-1} = c \cdot \text{beta} - (\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} v_j - v_{\min} * (c - i))$
 - ▷ B_{i-1} is the threshold for cut off I to happen.

Chance node cut off: uniform case (2/3)

■ Similarly,

- Assume after searching the first $i - 1$ choices, no chance node cut off happens.
- Before searching the i th choice, we know that if v_i is small enough, then it will lower the upper bound of the chance node and it will have a chance of getting a chance node cut off II.
- How small should v_i be for this to happen?
 - ▷ *chance node cut off II:*
$$\left(\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} v_j + v_i + v_{max} \cdot (c - i)\right) / c \leq \alpha$$
 - ▷ $\Rightarrow v_i \leq A_{i-1} = c \cdot \alpha - \left(\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} v_j - v_{max} * (c - i)\right)$
 - ▷ A_{i-1} is the threshold for cut off II to happen.

Chance node cut off: uniform case (3/3)

- Hence set the window for searching the i th choice to be (A_{i-1}, B_{i-1}) which means no further search is needed if the result is not within this window.
 - (A_{i-1}, B_{i-1}) is the window for searching the i th choice instead of using $(alpha, beta)$.
- How to incrementally update A_i and B_i ?
 - $A_0 = c \cdot (alpha - v_{max}) + v_{max}$
 - $B_0 = c \cdot (beta - v_{min}) + v_{min}$
 - $A_i = A_{i-1} + v_{max} - v_i$
 - $B_i = B_{i-1} + v_{min} - v_i$
- Comment:
 - May want to use zero-window search to test first.

Changes of bounds: non-uniform case (1/3)

- Assume the search window entering a chance node with $N = c$ choices is (α, β) .
- The i th choice happens with the probability $Pr(x = i) = Pr_i$.
- For all i , the evaluated value of the i th choice is v_i .
- The **value** of a chance node after the first i choices are explored can be expressed as
 - an expected value $E_i = vexp_i$;
 - ▷ $vexp_i = \sum_{j=1}^i Pr_j * v_j$
 - ▷ This value is returned **only** when all choices are explored.
⇒ **The expected value of an un-explored child shouldn't be $\frac{v_{min} + v_{max}}{2}$.**
 - a range of possible values $[m_i, M_i]$.
 - ▷ $m_i = vexp_i + \sum_{j=i+1}^c Pr_j * v_{min}$
 - ▷ $M_i = vexp_i + \sum_{j=i+1}^c Pr_j * v_{max}$
 - Invariants:
 - ▷ $E_i \in [m_i, M_i]$
 - ▷ $E_c = m_c = M_c$

Changes of bounds: non-uniform case (2/3)

- Let m_i and M_i be the current lower and upper bounds, respectively, of the **expected value** of this chance node immediately **after** the evaluation of the i th node.

- $m_i = v_{exp_{i-1}} + Pr_i * v_i + \sum_{j=i+1}^c Pr_j * v_{min}$
- $M_i = v_{exp_{i-1}} + Pr_i * v_i + \sum_{j=i+1}^c Pr_j * v_{max}$

- **How to incrementally update m_i and M_i :**

- $m_0 = v_{min}$
- $M_0 = v_{max}$

-

$$m_i = m_{i-1} + Pr_i * (v_i - v_{min}) \quad (1)$$

-

$$M_i = M_{i-1} + Pr_i * (v_i - v_{max}) \quad (2)$$

Changes of bounds: non-uniform case (3/3)

- The current search window is (α, β) .
- No more searching is needed when
 - $m_i \geq \beta$, **chance node cut off I**;
 - ⇒ The lower bound found so far is good enough.
 - ⇒ Similar to a beta cut off.
 - ⇒ The returned value is m_i .
 - $M_i \leq \alpha$, **chance node cut off II**.
 - ⇒ The upper bound found so far is bad enough.
 - ⇒ Similar to an alpha cut off.
 - ⇒ The returned value is M_i .

Chance node cut off: non-uniform case (1/2)

- **When $m_i \geq \text{beta}$, chance node cut off I,**
 - which means $v_{exp_{i-1}} + Pr_i * v_i + \sum_{j=i+1}^c Pr_j * v_{min} \geq \text{beta}$
 - $\Rightarrow v_i \geq B_{i-1} = \frac{1}{Pr_i} \cdot (\text{beta} - (v_{exp_{i-1}} + \sum_{j=i+1}^c Pr_j * v_{min}))$
- **When $M_i \leq \text{alpha}$, chance node cut off II,**
 - which means $v_{exp_{i-1}} + Pr_i * v_i + \sum_{j=i+1}^c Pr_j * v_{max} \leq \text{alpha}$
 - $\Rightarrow v_i \leq A_{i-1} = \frac{1}{Pr_i} \cdot (\text{alpha} - (v_{exp_{i-1}} + \sum_{j=i+1}^c Pr_j * v_{max}))$
- **Hence set the window for searching the i th choice to be (A_{i-1}, B_{i-1}) which means no further search is needed if the result is not within this window.**

Chance node cut off: non-uniform case (2/2)

■ How to incrementally update A_i and B_i ?

- $$A_0 = \frac{1}{Pr_1} \cdot (\text{alpha} - v_{max} * \sum_{i=1}^c Pr_i) + v_{max} \quad (3)$$

- $$B_0 = \frac{1}{Pr_1} \cdot (\text{beta} - v_{min} * \sum_{i=1}^c Pr_i) + v_{min} \quad (4)$$

- $$A_i = \frac{1}{Pr_{i+1}} * (Pr_i * A_{i-1} + Pr_{i+1} * v_{max} - Pr_i * v_i) \quad (5)$$

- $$B_i = \frac{1}{Pr_{i+1}} * (Pr_i * B_{i-1} + Pr_{i+1} * v_{min} - Pr_i * v_i) \quad (6)$$

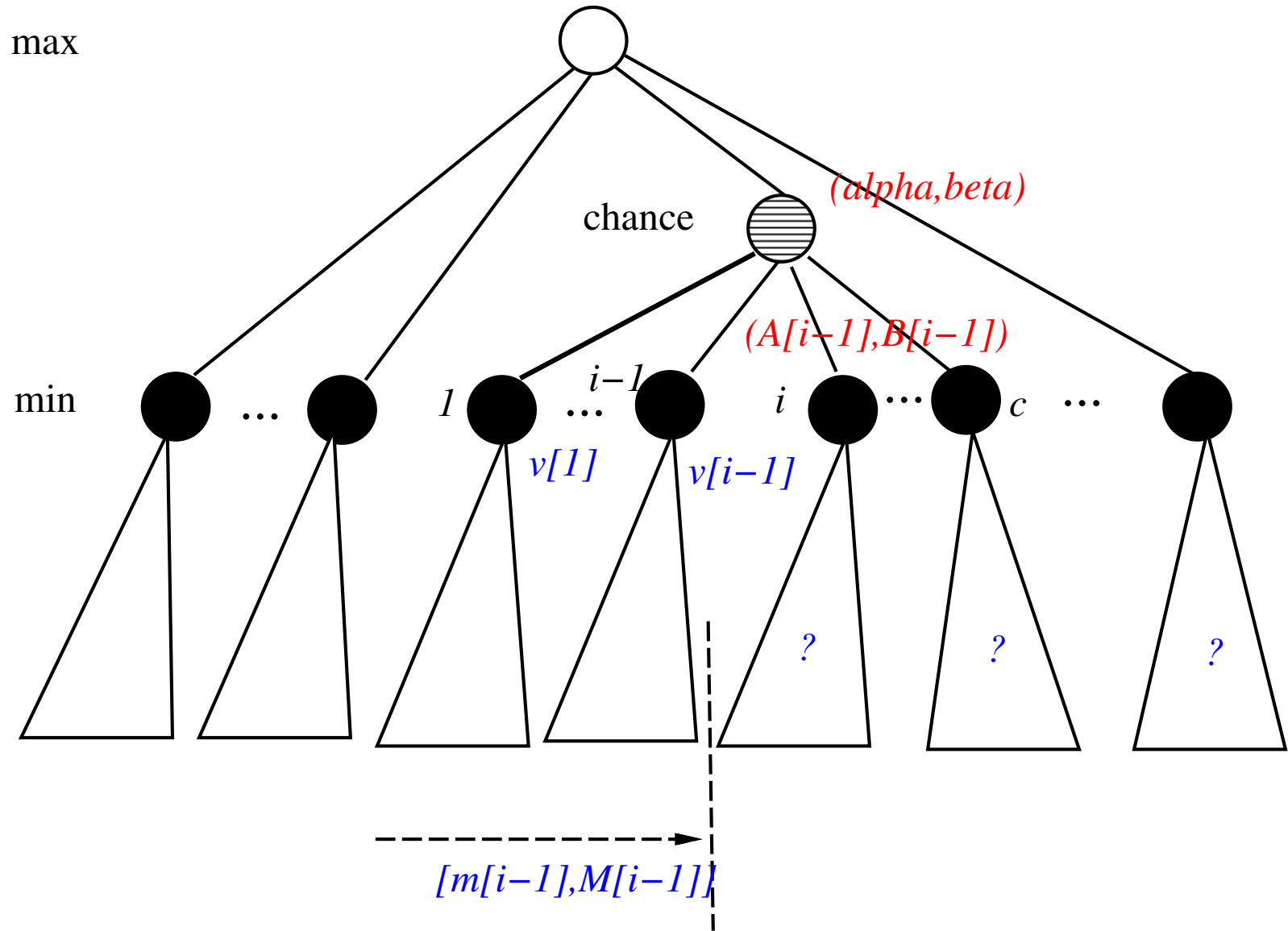
Algorithm: Chance_Search

- **Algorithm $F3.1'$ (position p , value $alpha$, value $beta$, integer $depth$)**
 - // max node
 - determine the successor positions p_1, \dots, p_b ;
 - if $b = 0$ // a terminal node
or $depth = 0$ // remaining depth to search
or time is running up // from timing control
or some other constraints are met // add knowledge here
 - then return $f(p)$; else begin
 - ▷ $m := -\infty$;
 - ▷ for $i := 1$ to b do
 - ▷ begin
 - ▷ if p_i is to play a chance node x
then $t := Star1_F3.1'(p_i, x, \max\{alpha, m\}, beta, depth - 1)$;
 - ▷ else $t := G3.1'(p_i, \max\{alpha, m\}, beta, depth - 1)$;
 - ▷ if $t > m$ then $m := t$;
 - ▷ if $m \geq beta$ then return(m); // beta cut off
 - ▷ end;
 - end;
 - return m ;

Star1: uniform case

- **Algorithm** *Star1_EQU_F3.1'*(position p , node x , value $alpha$, value $beta$, integer $depth$)
 - // a chance node x with c equal probability choices k_1, \dots, k_c
 - determine the possible values of the chance node x to be k_1, \dots, k_c
 - $A_0 = c \cdot (alpha - v_{max}) + v_{max}$, $B_0 = c \cdot (beta - v_{min}) + v_{min}$;
 - $m_0 = v_{min}$, $M_0 = v_{max}$ // current lower and upper bounds
 - $vsum = 0$; // current sum of expected values
 - for $i = 1$ to c do
 - begin
 - ▷ let p_i be the position of assigning k_i to x in p ;
 - ▷ $t := G3.1'(p_i, \max\{A_{i-1}, v_{min}\}, \min\{B_{i-1}, v_{max}\}, depth)$
 - ▷ $m_i = m_{i-1} + (t - v_{min})/c$, $M_i = M_{i-1} + (t - v_{max})/c$;
 - ▷ if $t \geq B_{i-1}$ then return m_i ; // failed high, chance node cut off I
 - ▷ if $t \leq A_{i-1}$ then return M_i ; // failed low, chance node cut off II
 - ▷ $vsum += t$;
 - ▷ $A_i = A_{i-1} + v_{max} - t$, $B_i = B_{i-1} + v_{min} - t$;
 - end
- return $vsum/c$;

Illustration: Star1



Star1: non-uniform case

- **Algorithm *Star1_F3.1'***(position p , node x , value $alpha$, value $beta$, integer $depth$)
 - // a chance node x with c choices k_1, \dots, k_c
 - // the i th choice happens with the probability Pr_i
 - determine the possible values of the chance node x to be k_1, \dots, k_c
 - initialize A_0 and B_0 using formulas (3) and (4)
 - $m_0 = v_{min}$, $M_0 = v_{max}$ // current lower and upper bounds
 - $vexp = 0$; // current weighted sum of expected values
 - for $i = 1$ to c do
 - begin
 - ▷ let Pr_i be the position of assigning k_i to x in p ;
 - ▷ $t := G3.1'(p_i, \max\{A_{i-1}, v_{min}\}, \min\{B_{i-1}, v_{max}\}, depth)$
 - ▷ incrementally update m_i and M_i using formulas (1) and (2)
 - ▷ if $t \geq B_{i-1}$ then return m_i ; // failed high, chance node cut off I
 - ▷ if $t \leq A_{i-1}$ then return M_i ; // failed low, chance node cut off II
 - ▷ $vexp += Pr_i * t$;
 - ▷ incrementally update A_i and B_i using formulas (5) and (6)
 - end
- return $vexp$;

Example: Chinese dark chess

■ Assumption:

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

■ 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
 - ▷ $m_1 = 3 * 1/7 + -10 * 6/7 = -57/7 \simeq -8.14$.
 - ▷ $M_1 = 3 * 1/7 + 10 * 6/7 = 63/7 = 9$.

General case

- Assume the i th choice happens with a chance w_i/c where

$c = \sum_{i=1}^N w_i$ and N is the total number of choices.

- $m_0 = v_{min}$
- $M_0 = v_{max}$
- $m_i = (\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} w_j \cdot v_j + w_i \cdot v_i + v_{min} \cdot (c - \sum_{j=1}^i w_j))/c$
 - ▷ $m_i = m_{i-1} + (w_i/c) \cdot (v_i - v_{min})$
- $M_i = (\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} w_j \cdot v_j + w_i \cdot v_i + v_{max} \cdot (c - \sum_{j=1}^i w_j))/c$
 - ▷ $M_i = M_{i-1} + (w_i/c) \cdot (v_i - v_{max})$
- $A_0 = (c/w_1) \cdot (\alpha - v_{max}) + v_{max}$
- $B_0 = (c/w_1) \cdot (\beta - v_{min}) + v_{min}$
- $A_{i-1} = (c \cdot \alpha - (\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} w_j \cdot v_j - v_{max} \cdot (c - \sum_{j=1}^i w_j)))/w_i$
 - ▷ $A_i = (w_i/w_{i+1}) \cdot (A_{i-1} - v_i) + v_{max}$
- $B_{i-1} = (c \cdot \beta - (\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} w_j \cdot v_j - v_{min} \cdot (c - \sum_{j=1}^i w_j)))/w_i$
 - ▷ $B_i = (w_i/w_{i+1}) \cdot (B_{i-1} - v_i) + v_{min}$

The probability distribution

- Assume a chance node x has c choices k_1, \dots, k_c .
- The i th choice happens with the probability Pr_i and $\sum_{i=1}^c Pr_i = 1$.
- Special case 1, called uniform (EQU): $Pr_i = 1/c$.
 - All choices happen with a equal chance.
 - Example: EinStein Wrfelt Nicht (EWN) when all pieces are not captured.
- Special case 2, called GCD: $Pr_i = w_i/D$ where each w_i is an integer and $\sum_{i=1}^c w_i = D$.
 - example: Chinese dark chess.
- The above two special cases usually happen in game playing and can use the characteristics to do some optimization in number calculations.

Algorithm: *Star0*, GCD case, MAX node

- An GCD version for a MAX node.
- Algorithm *Star0_GCD_F3.0'*(position p , node x , value $alpha$, value $beta$, integer $depth$)
 - // a chance node x with c choices k_1, \dots, k_c
 - // whose occurrence probability are $w_1/D, \dots, w_c/D$
 - // and each w_i is an integer
 - // exhaustive search all possibilities and return the expected value
 - determine the possible values of the chance node x to be k_1, \dots, k_c
 - $vsum = 0$; // current sum of weight values
 - for $i = 1$ to c do
 - begin
 - ▷ let p_i be the position of assigning k_i to x in p ;
 - ▷ $vsum += w_i * G3.0'(p_i, -\infty, +\infty, depth)$;
 - end
- return $vsum/D$; // return the expected score

Algorithm: *Star0*, GCD case, MIN node

- An GCD version for a MIN node.
- Algorithm *Star0_GCD_G3.0'*(position p , node x , value $alpha$, value $beta$, integer $depth$)
 - // a chance node x with c choices k_1, \dots, k_c
 - // whose occurrence probability are $w_1/D, \dots, w_c/D$
 - // and each w_i is an integer
 - // exhaustive search all possibilities and return the expected value
 - determine the possible values of the chance node x to be k_1, \dots, k_c
 - $vsum = 0$; // current sum of weight values
 - for $i = 1$ to c do
 - begin
 - ▷ let p_i be the position of assigning k_i to x in p ;
 - ▷ $vsum += w_i * F3.0'(p_i, -\infty, +\infty, depth)$;
 - end
- return $vsum/D$; // return the expected score

Comments (1/2)

- We illustrate the ideas using a fail soft version of the alpha-beta algorithm.
 - Original and fail hard version have a simpler logic in maintaining the search interval.
 - The semantic of comparing an exact return value with an expected returning value is something that needs careful thinking.
 - May want to pick a chance node with a lower expected value but having a hope of winning, not one with a slightly higher expected value but having no hope of winning when you are in disadvantageous.
 - May want to pick a chance node with a lower expected value but having no chance of losing, not one with a slightly higher expected value but having a chance of losing when you are in advantage.
 - Do not always pick one with a slightly larger expected value. Give the second one some chance to be selected.

Comments (2/2)

- **Need to revise algorithms carefully when dealing with the original, fail hard or NegaScout version.**
 - What does it mean to combine bounds from a fail hard version?
- **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.
 - Not only we can terminate the searching of choices earlier, but also we can terminate the searching of a particular choice earlier.
- **Exist other improvements by searching choices of a chance node “in parallel” .**

Implementation hints (1/2)

- Fully unwrap a chance node takes more time than that of a non-chance node.
 - If you set your depth limit to d for a game without chance nodes, then the depth limit should be lower for that game when chance node is introduced.
 - Technically speaking, a chance node adds at least one level.
 - ▷ *Depending on the number of choices you have compared to the number of non-chance children, you may need to reduce the search depth limit by at least 3 or 5, and maybe 7.*
 - ▷ *Estimate the complexity of a chance node by comparing the number of choices of a chance node and the number of non-chance-node moves.*
- Without searching a chance node, it is easy to obtain not enough progress by just searching a long sequence of non-chance nodes.
 - In CDC, when there are only a limited number of revealed pieces, there is not much you can do by just moving around.

Implementation hints (2/2)

- **Practical considerations, for example in Chinese Dark Chess (CDC), are as follows.**
 - **You normally do not need to consider the consequence of flipping more than 2 dark pieces.**
 - ▷ *Set a maximum number of chance node searching in any DFS search path.*
 - **It makes little sense to consider ending a search with exploring a chance node.**
 - ▷ *When depth limit left is less than 3 or 4, stop exploring chance nodes.*
 - **It also makes little sense to consider the consequence of exploring 2 chance nodes back to back.**
 - ▷ *Make sure two chance nodes in a DFS search path is separated by at least 3 or 4 non-chance nodes.*
 - **It is rarely the case that a chance node exploration is the first ply to consider in move ordering unless it is recommended by a prior knowledge or no other non-chance-node moves exists.**

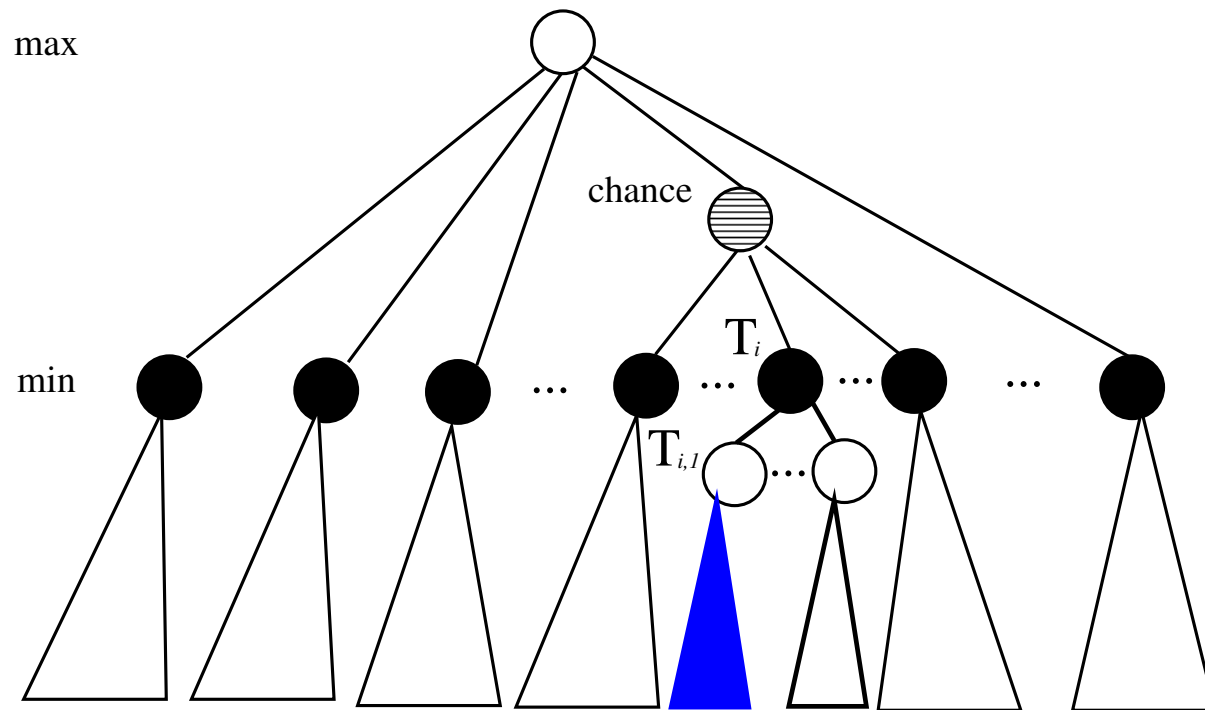
Ideas for furthermore improvements (1/2)

- Can do better by not searching the DFS order.
 - It is not necessary to search completely the subtree of $x = 1$ first, and then start to look at the subtree of $x = 2, \dots$ etc.
 - partially search a subtree gives you some information about the possible range of this chance node.
- Assume p is a MAX chance node, e.g., root makes a flip.
 - T_i is the tree of p when for the i th choice, namely, with the root p_i which is a MIN node.
 - $T_{i,j}$ is the j th branch of T_i , namely, with the root $p_{i,j}$.
 - v_i is the evaluated value of T_i .
 - $v_{i,j}$ is the evaluated value of $T_{i,j}$.
- We have completely searched $T_{1,s}$ and obtained a value $v_{1,s}$.
 - Since p_i is a MIN node, $v_{1,s}$ is an upper bound of v_1 which is usually lower than the maximum possible value.
 - The upper bound of v_1 is thus lowered.
 - It is possible because of this probe, an alpha cut can be performed.
- The above process is called an **exact probe**.
 - We can first probe each T_i .
 - It is better to probe the worse possible branch of T_i first.

Ideas for furthermore improvements (2/2)

- Assume p is a MIN chance node, e.g., the opponent makes a flip.
 - T_i is the tree of p when for the i th choice, namely, with the root p_i which is a MAX node.
 - $T_{i,j}$ is the j th branch of T_i , namely, with the root $p_{i,j}$.
 - v_i is the evaluated value of T_i .
 - $v_{i,j}$ is the evaluated value of $T_{i,j}$.
- We have completely searched $T_{1,s}$ and obtained a value $v_{1,s}$.
 - Since p_i is a MAX node, $v_{1,s}$ is a lower bound of v_1 which is usually larger than the minimum possible value.
 - The lower bound of v_1 is thus raised.
 - It is possible because of this probe, a beta cut can be performed.
- The above process is called an **exact probe**.
 - We can first probe each T_i .
 - It is better to probe the best possible branch of T_i first.

Illustration: Probe



The first child of T_i is probed.

Star2

- **Algorithm *Star2_F3.2'*(position p , node x , value $alpha$, value $beta$) // MAX node**
 - **// a chance node x with c choices k_1, \dots, k_c**
 - **// the i th choice happens with the probability Pr_i**
 - **determine the possible values of the chance node x to be k_1, \dots, k_c**
 - **// Do some probings to decide whether some cut off can be performed.**
 - **for each choice i from 1 to c do**
 - ▷ *Let p_i be the position obtained from p by making x the choice k_i .*
 - ▷ *do an **exact probe** on the first child of p_i*
 - ▷ *If p is a MAX chance node, then p_i is a MIN node and you may get an alpha cut off for p_i since the probe returns an upper bound for p_i .*
 - ▷ *If p is a MIN chance node, then p_i is a MAX node and you may get an beta cut off for p_i since the probe returns a lower bound for p_i .*
 - **// normal exhaustive search phase**
 - **If no cut off is found in the above, do the normal Star1 search.**
 - ▷ *Additional alpha/beta cut off from searching a particular choice.*
 - ▷ *Chance node cut off I that is similar to beta cut off.*
 - ▷ *Chance node cut off II that is similar to alpha cut off.*
 - **return $vexp$;**

More ideas for probes

- Move ordering in exploring the choices is critical in performance.
- Picking which child to do the probe is also critical.
- Can do exact probes on h children, called **probing factor** $h > 1$, of a choice instead of fixing the number of probings to be exactly one.
 - When $h = 0$, $\text{star2} == \text{star1}$.
 - Sequential probing
 - ▷ Probe h children of a choice at one time.
 - ▷ for $i = 1$ to c do
 probe h children of the i th choice
 - Cyclic probing
 - ▷ Probe 1 child of a choice at one time for all choices, and do this for h rounds.
 - ▷ for $j = 1$ to h do
 for $i = 1$ to c do
 probe the j th child of the i th choice
 - When $h = 1$, cyclic probing == sequential probing.
- May decide to probe different number of children for each choice.

Star2.5: cyclic probing

- Using a cyclic probing order in Star2 with a probing factor h .
- Algorithm *Star2.5_F3.2'* (position p , node x , value $alpha$, value $beta$, integer h) // MAX node, h is the probing factor
 - // a chance node x with c choices k_1, \dots, k_c
 - // the i th choice happens with the probability Pr_i
 - determine the possible values of the chance node x to be k_1, \dots, k_c
 - // Do a cyclic probing to decide whether some cut off can be performed.
 - for j from 1 to h do
 - for each choice i from 1 to c do
 - ▷ Let p_i be the position obtained from p by making x the choice k_i .
 - ▷ do an **exact probe** on the j th child of p_i
 - ▷ If p is a MAX chance node, then p_i is a MIN node and you may get an alpha cut off for p_i since the probe returns an upper bound for p_i .
 - ▷ If p is a MIN chance node, then p_i is a MAX node and you may get an beta cut off for p_i since the probe returns a lower bound for p_i .
 - If no cut off is found in the above, do the normal Star1 search.
 - ▷ Additional alpha/beta cut off from searching a particular choice.
 - ▷ Chance node cut off I that is similar to beta cut off.
 - ▷ Chance node cut off II that is similar to alpha cut off.

Comments

- Experimental results provided in [Ballard '83] on artificial game trees.
- Star1 may not be able to cut more than 20% of the leaves.
- Star2.5 with $h = 1$ cuts more than 59% of the nodes and is about twice better than Star1.
- Sequential probing is best when $h = 3$ which cuts more than 65% of the nodes and roughly cut about the same nodes as Star2.5 using the same probing factor.
- Sequential probing gets worse when $h > 4$. For example, it only cut 20% of the leaves when $h = 20$.
- Star2.5 continues to cut more nodes when h gets larger, though the gain is not that great. At $h = 3$, about 70% of the nodes are cut. At $h = 20$, about 72% of the nodes are cut.

Approximated Probes

- We can also have heuristics for issuing **approximated** probes which returns approximated values.
- **Strategy I: random probing of some promising choices**
 - Do a move ordering heuristic to pick one or some promising choices to expand first.
 - These promising choices can improve the lower or upper bounds and can cause beta or alpha cut off.
- **Strategy II: fast probing of all choices**
 - Possible implementations
 - ▷ *do a static evaluation on all choices*
 - ▷ *do a shallow alpha-beta searching on each choice*
 - ▷ *do a MCTS-like simulation on the choices*
 - Use these information to decide whether you have enough confidence to do a cut off.

Using MCTS with chance nodes (1/2)

- Assume a chance node x has c choices k_1, \dots, k_c and the i th choice happens with the probability Pr_i
- Selection
 - If x is picked in the PV during selection, then a random coin tossing according to the probability distribution of the choices is needed to pick which choice to descent.
 - ▷ *It is better to even the number of simulations done on each choice.*
 - ▷ *Use random sampling without replacement. When every one is picked once, then start another round of picking.*
- Expansion
 - If the last node in the PV is x , then expand all choices and simulate each choice some number of times.
 - ▷ *Watch out the discuss on maxing chance nodes in a searching path such as whether it is desirable to have 2 chance nodes in sequence ... etc.*

Using MCTS with chance nodes (2/2)

■ Simulation

- When a chance node is to be simulated, then be sure to randomly, according to the probability distribution, pick a choice.
 - ▷ *Use some techniques to make sure you are doing an effective sampling when the number of choices is huge*
 - ▷ *Watch out what are “reasonable” in a simulated plyout on the mixing of chance nodes.*

■ Back propagation

- The UCB score of x is $w_i + c\sqrt{(\ln N/N_i)}$ where w_i is the weighted winning rate, or score, of the children, N_i is the total number of simulations done on all choices. and N is the total number of simulations done on the parent of x .

Sparse sampling (1/2)

- Assume in searching the number of possible outcomes in a, maybe chance, node is too large. A technique called **sparse sampling** can be used [Kearns et al 2002].
 - Can also be used in the expansion phase of MCTS.
- Ideas:
 - The number of choices, $a = |\mathcal{A}|$, considered is enlarged as the number of visits to the node increases.
 - Use the current choice set as an estimation of its goodness.
 - Only consider k_t randomly selected choices, called \mathcal{S}_t , in the first t visits where $k_t = \lceil c * t^\alpha \rceil$, and c and α are constants.
- Algorithm *SS* for sparse sampling
 - $t := 1$
 - Initial k_t to be a small constant, say 1.
 - Initial the candidate set \mathcal{S} to be an empty set.
 - Randomly pick k_t children from \mathcal{A} into \mathcal{S}
 - loop: Performs some t' samplings from \mathcal{S} .
 - ▷ Add randomly $k_{t+t'} - k_t$ new children from \mathcal{A} into \mathcal{S}
 - ▷ $t += t'$
 - goto loop

Sparse sampling (2/2)

- The estimated value is accurate with a high probability [Kearns et al 2002] [Lanctot et al 2013]
- Theorem:

$$Pr(|\tilde{V} - V| \leq \lambda \cdot d) \geq 1 - (2 \cdot k_t \cdot c)^d \exp\left\{\frac{-\lambda^2 \cdot k_t}{2 \cdot v_{max}^2}\right\},$$

where

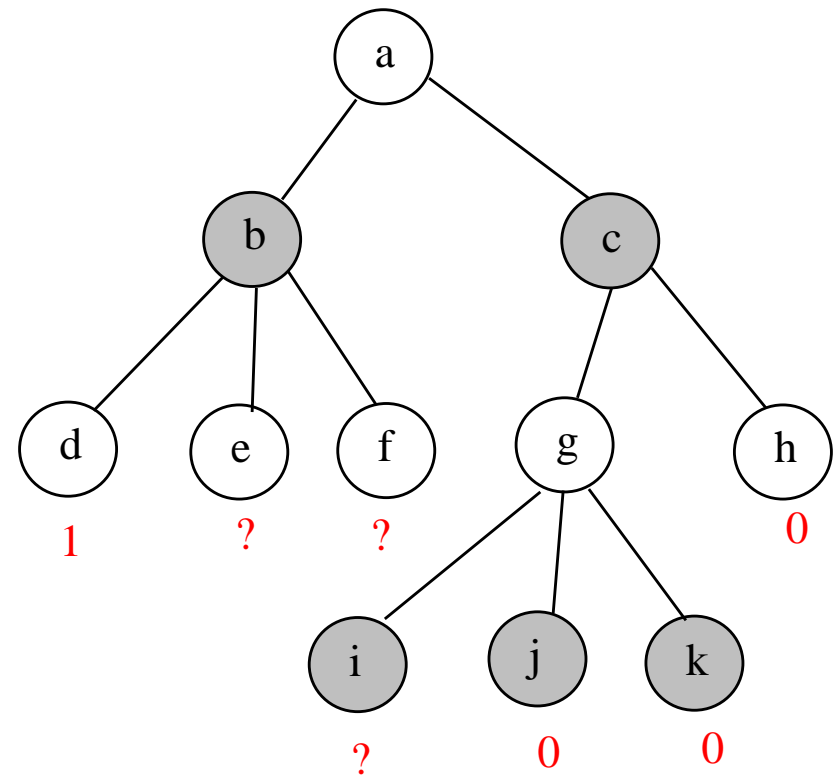
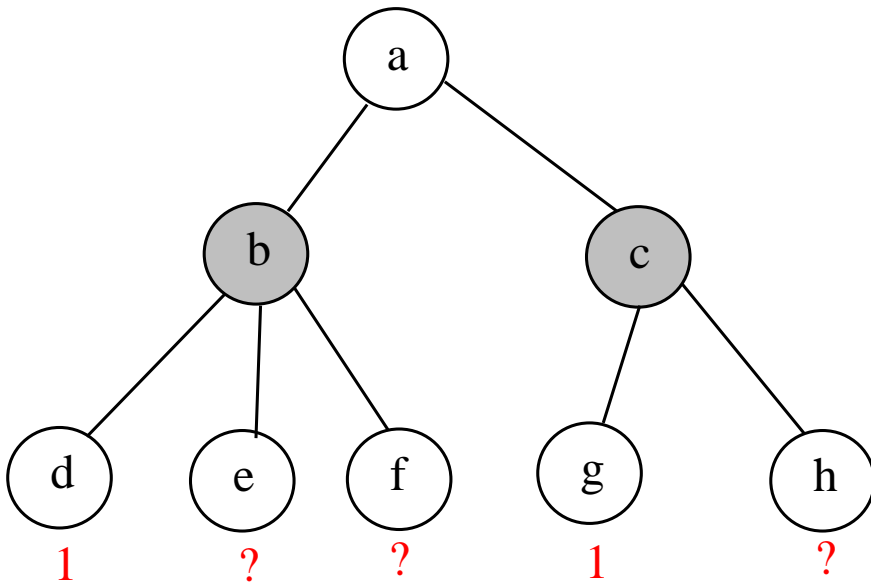
- ▷ k_t is the number of choices considered with t samplings,
 - ▷ \tilde{V} is the estimation considering only k_t choices,
 - ▷ V is the value considering all choices,
 - ▷ c is the actual number of choices,
 - ▷ d is the depth simulated,
 - ▷ $\lambda \in (0, 2 \cdot v_{max}]$ is a parameter chosen, and
 - ▷ v_{max} is the maximum possible value.
- Note: the proof is done by making sampling with replacement, while the algorithm asks for sampling without replacement.

Proof number search

- Consider the case of a 2-player game tree with either 0 or 1 on the leaves.
 - win, or not win which is lose or draw;
 - lose, or not lose which is win or draw;
 - Call this a **binary valued game tree**.
- If the game tree is known as well as the values of some leaves are known, can you make use of this information to search this game tree faster?
 - The value of the root is either 0 or 1.
 - If a branch of the root returns 1, then we know for sure the value of the root is 1.
 - The value of the root is 0 only when all branches of the root returns 0.
 - An AND-OR game tree search.

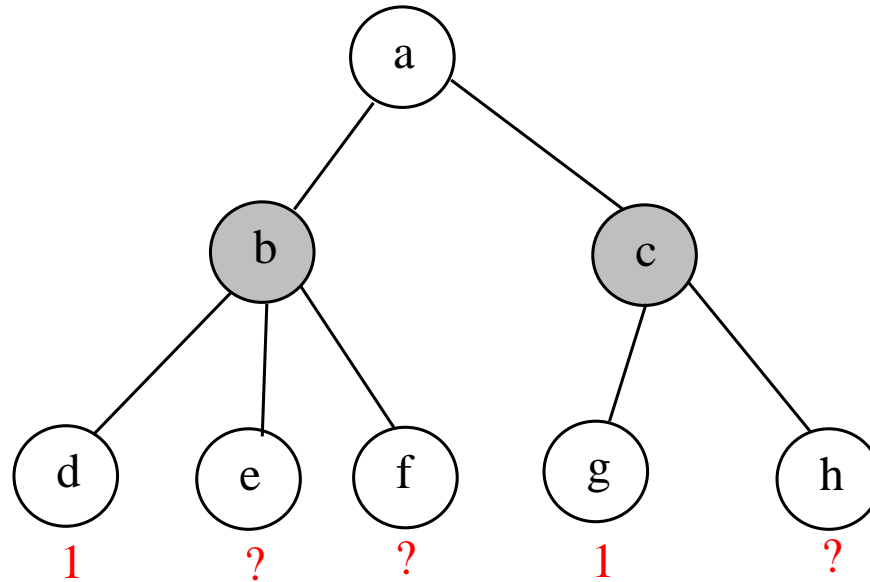
Which node to search next?

- A **most proving node** for a node u : a descendent node if its value is 1, then the value of u is 1.
- A **most disproving node** for a node u : a descendent node if its value is 0, then the value of u is 0.



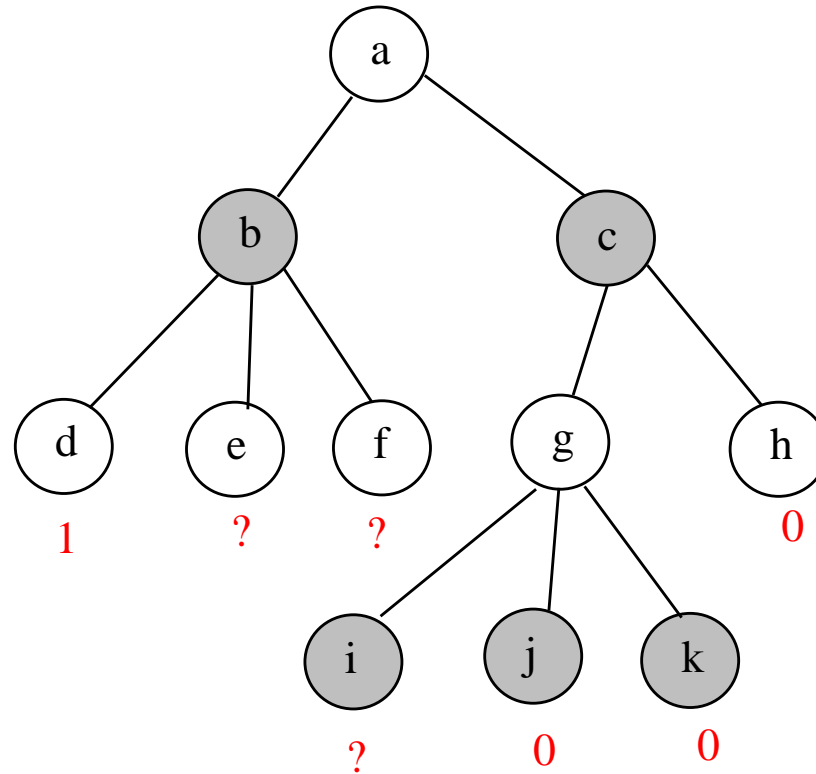
Most proving node

- Node h is a most proving node for a .



Most disproving node

- Node e or f is a most disproving node for a .



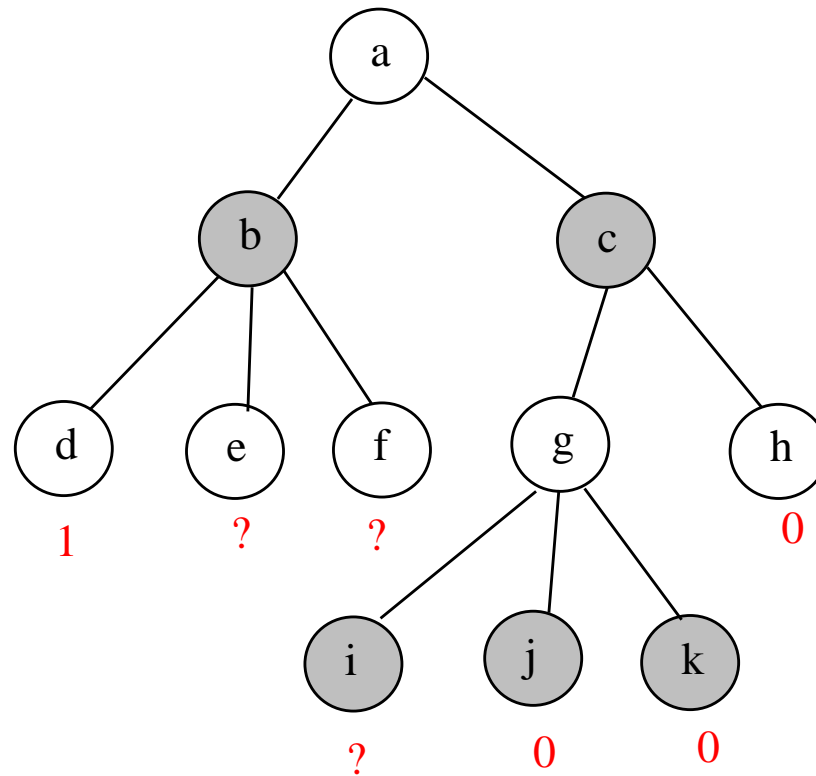
Proof or Disproof Number

- Assign a **proof number** and a **disproof number** to each node u in a binary valued game tree.
 - $proof(u)$: the minimum number of **leaves** needed to visited in order for the value of u to be 1.
 - $disproof(u)$: the minimum number of **leaves** needed to visited in order for the value of u to be 0.
- The definition implies a bottom-up ordering.

Proof number

- Proof number for the root a is 2.

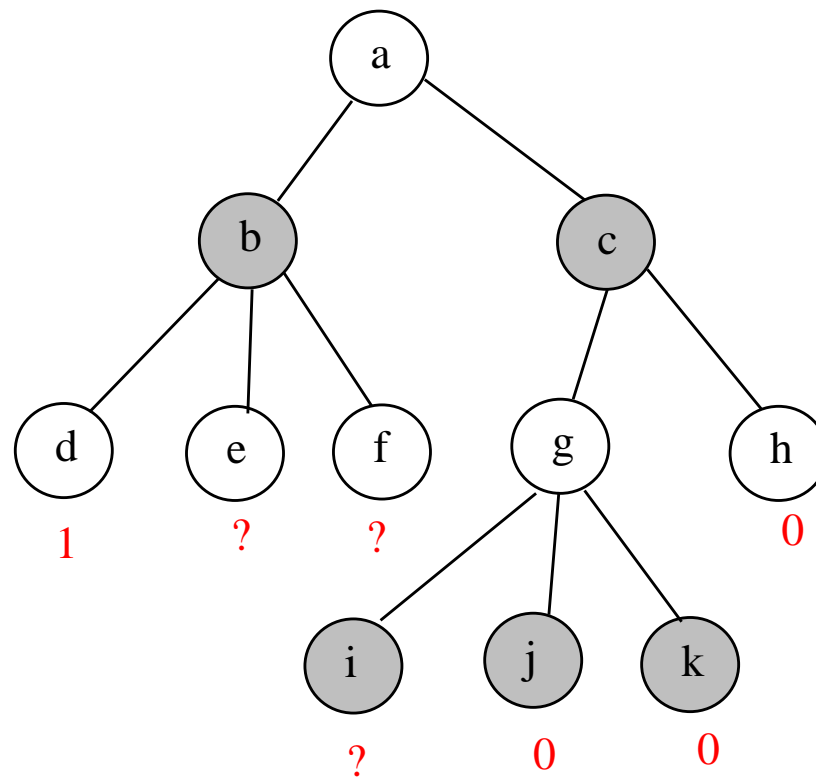
▷ Need to at least prove e and f .



Disproof number

- Disproof number for the root a is 2.

▷ Need to at least disprove i , and either e or f .



Proof Number: Definition

- u is a leaf:
 - If $value(u)$ is unknown, then $proof(u)$ is the cost of evaluating u .
 - If $value(u)$ is 1, then $proof(u) = 0$.
 - If $value(u)$ is 0, then $proof(u) = \infty$.
- u is an internal node with all of the children u_1, \dots, u_b :
 - if u is a MAX node,

$$proof(u) = \min_{i=1}^{i=b} proof(u_i);$$

- if u is a MIN node,

$$proof(u) = \sum_{i=1}^{i=b} proof(u_i).$$

Disproof Number: Definition

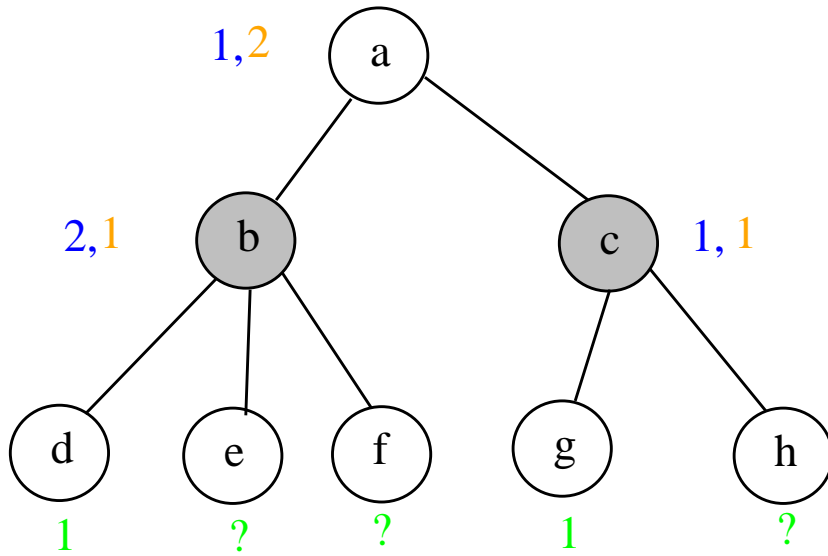
- u is a leaf:
 - If $value(u)$ is unknown, then $disproof(u)$ is cost of evaluating u .
 - If $value(u)$ is 1, then $disproof(u) = \infty$.
 - If $value(u)$ is 0, then $disproof(u) = 0$.
- u is an internal node with all of the children u_1, \dots, u_b :
 - if u is a MAX node,

$$disproof(u) = \sum_{i=1}^{i=b} disproof(u_i);$$

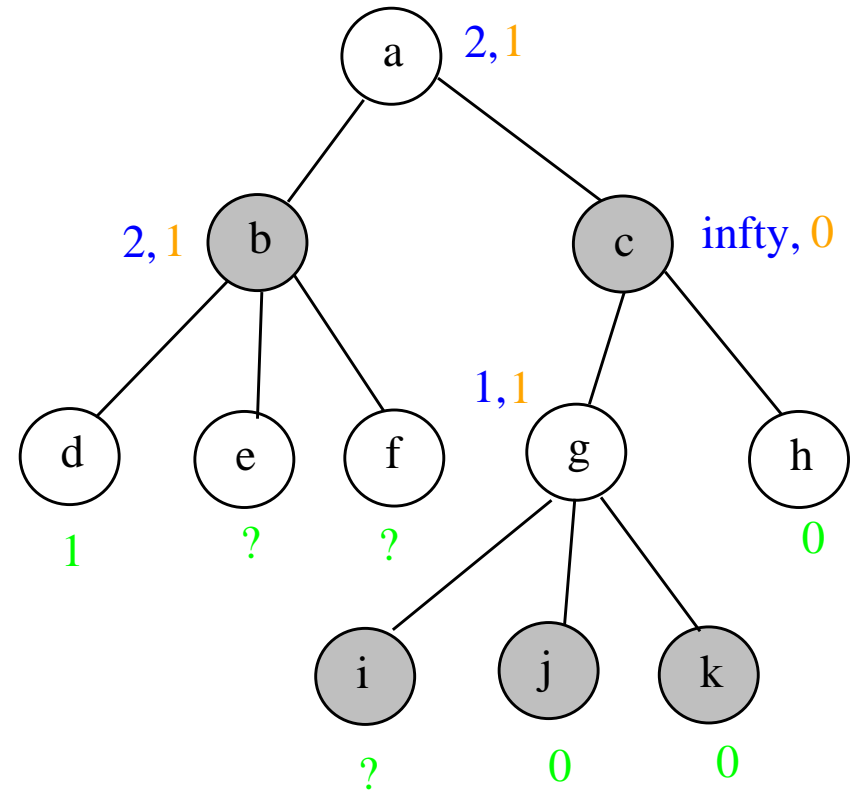
- if u is a MIN node,

$$disproof(u) = \min_{i=1}^{i=b} disproof(u_i).$$

Illustrations



proof number, disproof number



proof number, disproof number

How these numbers are used (1/2)

■ Scenario:

- For example, the tree T represents an open game tree or an endgame tree.
 - ▷ *If T is an open game tree, then maybe it is asked to prove or disprove a certain open game is win.*
 - ▷ *If T is an endgame tree, then maybe it is asked to prove or disprove a certain endgame is win o loss.*
 - ▷ *Each leaf takes a lot of time to evaluate.*
 - ▷ *We need to prove or disprove the tree using as few time as possible.*
- Depend on the results we have so far, pick a leaf to prove or disprove.

■ Goal: solve as few leaves as possible so that in the resulting tree, either $proof(root)$ or $disproof(root)$ becomes 0.

- If $proof(root) = 0$, then the tree is proved.
- If $disproof(root) = 0$, then the tree is disproved.

■ Need to be able to update these numbers on the fly.

How these numbers are used (2/2)

- **Let** $GV = \min\{proof(root), disproof(root)\}$.
 - GT is “**prove**” if $GV = proof(root)$, which means we try to prove it.
 - GT is “**disprove**” if $GV = disproof(root)$, which means we try to disprove it.
 - In the case of $proof(root) = disproof(root)$, we set GT to “**prove**” for convenience.
- **From the root, we search for a leaf whose value is unknown.**
 - The leaf found is a **most proving** node if GT is “**prove**”, or a **most disproving** node if GT is “**disprove**”.
 - To find such a leaf, we start from the root downwards recursively as follows.
 - ▷ *If we have reached a leaf, then stop.*
 - ▷ *If GT is “**prove**”, then pick a child with the least proof number for a MAX node, and any node that has a chance to be proved for a MIN node.*
 - ▷ *If GT is “**disprove**”, then pick a child with the least disproof number for a MIN node, and any node that has a chance to be disproved for a MAX node.*

PN-search: algorithm (1/2)

- **{* Compute and update proof and disproof numbers of the root in a bottom up fashion until it is proved or disproved. *}**
- *loop:*
 - **If $proof(root) = 0$ or $disproof(root) = 0$, then we are done, otherwise**
 - ▷ *$proof(root) \leq disproof(root)$: we try to prove it.*
 - ▷ *$proof(root) > disproof(root)$: we try to disprove it.*
 - **$u \leftarrow root$; {* find a leaf to prove or disprove *}**
 - **if we try to prove, then**
 - ▷ *while u is not a leaf do*
 - ▷ *if u is a MAX node, then*
 - $u \leftarrow$ leftmost child of u with the smallest non-zero proof number;*
 - ▷ *else if u is a MIN node, then*
 - $u \leftarrow$ leftmost child of u with a non-zero proof number;*
 - **else if we try to disprove, then**
 - ▷ *while u is not a leaf do*
 - ▷ *if u is a MAX node, then*
 - $u \leftarrow$ leftmost child of u with a non-zero disproof number;*
 - ▷ *else if u is a MIN node, then*
 - $u \leftarrow$ leftmost child of u with the smallest non-zero disproof number;*

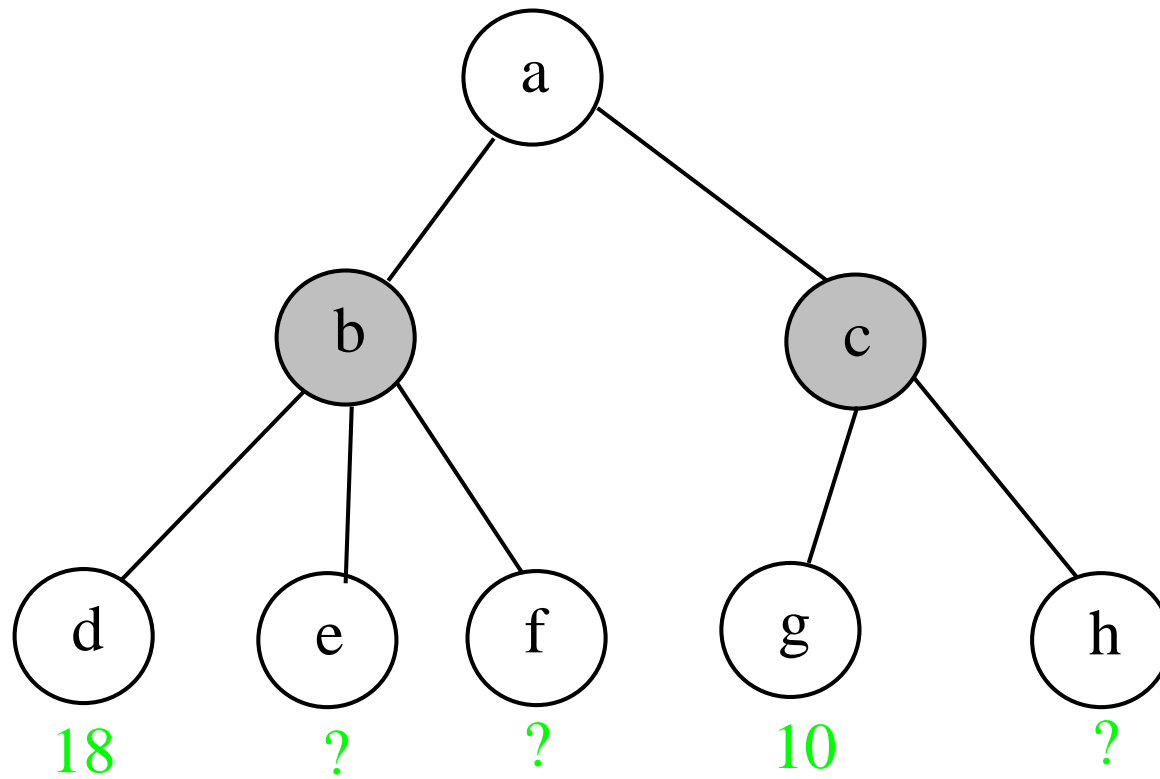
PN-search: algorithm (2/2)

- **{* Continued from the last page ***
- **solve u ;**
- **repeat {* bottom up updating the values ***
 - ▷ *update $proof(u)$ and $disproof(u)$*
 - ▷ *$u \leftarrow u$'s parent*
- until u is the root**
- **go to *loop*;**

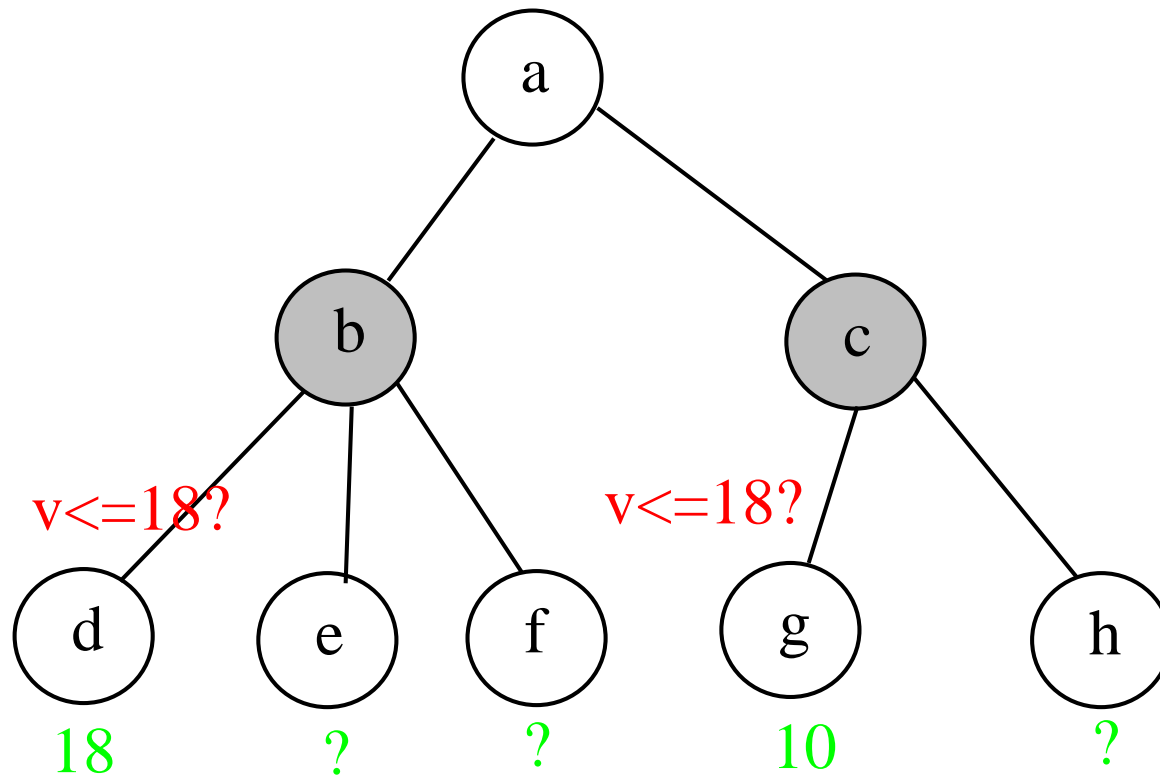
Multi-Valued game Tree

- The values of the leaves may not be binary.
 - Assume the values are non-negative integers.
 - Note: it can be in any finite countable domain.
- Revision of the proof and disproof numbers.
 - $proof_v(u)$: the minimum number of leaves needed to visited in order for the value of u to $\geq v$.
 - ▷ $proof(u) \equiv proof_1(u)$.
 - $disproof_v(u)$: the minimum number of leaves needed to visited in order for the value of u to $< v$.
 - ▷ $disproof(u) \equiv disproof_1(u)$.

Illustration



Illustration



Multi-Valued proof number

- u is a leaf:
 - If $value(u)$ is unknown, then $proof_v(u)$ is cost of evaluating u .
 - If $value(u) \geq v$, then $proof_v(u) = 0$.
 - If $value(u) < v$, then $proof_v(u) = \infty$.
- u is an internal node with all of the children u_1, \dots, u_b :
 - if u is a MAX node,

$$proof_v(u) = \min_{i=1}^{i=b} proof_v(u_i);$$

- if u is a MIN node,

$$proof_v(u) = \sum_{i=1}^{i=b} proof_v(u_i).$$

Multi-Valued disproof number

- u is a leaf:
 - If $value(u)$ is unknown, then $disproof_v(u)$ is cost of evaluating u .
 - If $value(u) \geq v$, then $disproof_v(u) = \infty$.
 - If $value(u) < v$, then $disproof_v(u) = 0$.
- u is an internal node with all of the children u_1, \dots, u_b :
 - if u is a MAX node,

$$disproof_v(u) = \sum_{i=1}^{i=b} disproof_v(u_i);$$

- if u is a MIN node,

$$disproof_v(u) = \min_{i=1}^{i=b} disproof_v(u_i).$$

Revised PN-search(v): algorithm (1/2)

- **{* Compute and update $proof_v$ and $disproof_v$ numbers of the root in a bottom up fashion until it is proved or disproved. *}**
- *loop:*
 - **If $proof_v(root) = 0$ or $disproof_v(root) = 0$, then we are done, otherwise**
 - ▷ *$proof_v(root) \leq disproof_v(root)$: we try to prove it.*
 - ▷ *$proof_v(root) > disproof_v(root)$: we try to disprove it.*
 - **$u \leftarrow root$; {* find a leaf to prove or disprove *}**
 - **if we try to prove, then**
 - ▷ *while u is not a leaf do*
 - ▷ *if u is a MAX node, then*
 - $u \leftarrow$ leftmost child of u with the smallest non-zero $proof_v$ number;*
 - ▷ *else if u is a MIN node, then*
 - $u \leftarrow$ leftmost child of u with a non-zero $proof_v$ number;*
 - **else if we try to disprove, then**
 - ▷ *while u is not a leaf do*
 - ▷ *if u is a MAX node, then*
 - $u \leftarrow$ leftmost child of u with a non-zero $disproof_v$ number;*
 - ▷ *else if u is a MIN node, then*
 - $u \leftarrow$ leftmost child of u with the smallest non-zero $disproof_v$ number;*

PN-search: algorithm (2/2)

- **{* Continued from the last page *}**
 - solve u ;
 - repeat **{* bottom up updating the values ***
 - ▷ *update $proof_v(u)$ and $disproof_v(u)$*
 - ▷ *$u \leftarrow u$'s parent*
 - until u is the root
 - go to *loop*;

Multi-valued PN-search: algorithm

- When the values of the leaves are not binary, use an open value binary search to find an upper bound of the value.
 - Set the initial value of v to be 1.
 - *loop*: $\text{PN-search}(v)$
 - ▷ *Prove the value of the search tree is $\geq v$ or disprove it by showing it is $< v$.*
 - If it is proved, then double the value of v and go to *loop* again.
 - If it is disproved, then the true value of the tree is between $\lfloor v/2 \rfloor$ and $v - 1$.
 - **{* Use a binary search to find the exact returned value of the tree. *}**
 - $low \leftarrow \lfloor v/2 \rfloor$; $high \leftarrow v - 1$;
 - **while** $low \leq high$ **do**
 - ▷ *if $low = high$, then return low as the tree value*
 - ▷ $mid \leftarrow \lfloor (low + high)/2 \rfloor$
 - ▷ $\text{PN-search}(mid)$
 - ▷ *if it is disproved, then $high \leftarrow mid - 1$*
 - ▷ *else if it is proved, then $low \leftarrow mid$*

Comments

- Can be used to construct opening books.
- Appear to be good for searching certain types of game trees.
 - Find the easiest way to prove or disprove a conjecture.
 - A dynamic strategy depends on work has been done so far.
- Performance has nothing to do with move ordering.
 - Performances of most previous algorithms depend heavily on whether good move orderings can be found.
- Searching the “easiest” branch may not give you the best performance.
 - Performance depends on the value of each internal node.
- Commonly used in verifying conjectures, e.g., first-player win.
 - Partition the opening moves in a tree-like fashion.
 - Try to the “easiest” way to prove or disprove the given conjecture.
- Take into consideration the fact that some nodes may need more time to process than the other nodes.

More research topics

- **Do variations of a game make it different?**
 - Whether Stalemate is draw or win in chess.
 - Japanese and Chinese rules in Go.
 - Chinese and Asia rules in Chinese chess.
 - ...
- **Why a position is easy or difficult to human players?**
 - Can be used in tutoring or better understanding of the game.

Unique features in games

- Games are used to model real-life problems.
- Do unique properties shown in games help modeling real applications?
 - Chinese chess
 - ▷ *Very complicated rules for loops: can be draw, win or loss.*
 - ▷ *The usage of cannons for attacking pieces that are blocked.*
 - Go: the rule of Ko to avoid short cycles, and the right to pass.
 - Chinese dark chess: a chance node that makes a deterministic ply first, and then followed by a random toss.
 - EWN: a chance node that makes a random toss first, and then followed with a deterministic ply later.
 - Shogi: the ability to capture an opponent's piece and turn it into your own.
 - Chess: stalemate is draw.
 - Promotion: a piece may turn into a more/less powerful one once it satisfies some pre-conditions.
 - ▷ *Chess*
 - ▷ *Shogi*
 - ▷ *Chinese chess: the mobility of a pawn is increased once it advances twice, but is decreased once it reaches the end of a column.*

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