CSC384 Game Tree Search Part 1

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Winter 2020

These slides are drawn from or inspired by a multitude of sources including :

Faheim Bacchus Sheila McIlraith Andrew Moore Hojjat Ghaderi Craig Boutillier Jurgen Strum Shaul Markovitch

- Chapter 5
 - Chapter 5.1, 5.2, 5.3 cover some of the material we cover here.
 - Section 5.5 extends the ideas to games with uncertainty (We won't cover that material but it makes for interesting reading).
 - Section 5.6 has an interesting overview of State-of-the-Art game playing programs.

Generalizing Search Problem

- · So far our search problems have assumed agent has complete control of environment:
 - State does not change unless the agent changes it.
 - All we need to compute is a single **path to a goal** state.
- This assumption is not always reasonable:
 - **Stochastic** environment (e.g., the weather, traffic accidents).
 - Other agents whose interests conflict with yours.
 Search can find a path to a goal state, but the actions might not lead you to the goal as the state can be changed by other agents.
- We need to generalize our view of search to handle state changes that are not in the control of our agent.
 - 2 or more agents;
 - All agents acting to maximize their own profits.

General Games

What makes something a game?

- There are two (or more) agents making changes to the world (the state).
- Each agent has their own interests and goals.
 Each agent assigns different costs to different paths/states.
- Each agent independently tries to alter the world so as to best benefit itself.
- Co-operation can occur but only if it benefits both parties.

What makes games hard?

- How you should play depends on how you think the other person will play;
- How the other person plays depends on how they think you will play.

Hence, a joint-dependency.

Properties of Games

Two player:

Note: Algorithms presented can be extended to multiplayer games, but multi-player games can involve alliances where some players cooperate to defeat another player (see Chapter 5.2.2)

- Finite: Finite number of states and moves from each state.
 - Techniques can be extended to deal with infinite games by applying heuristic cutoffs.
 - When the game is too large finite becomes as bad as infinite and heuristic cutoffs need to be used.
- Zero-sum: Fully competitive, total payoff to all players is constant.
 If one player gets a higher payoff, the other player gets a lower payoff.
 Example: Poker you win what the other player lose
- Deterministic: No chances involved, no dice, or random deals of cards, or coin flips.
- Perfect Information: All aspects of the state are fully observable. Example: Chess.

Which of these are: 2-player zero-sum discrete finite deterministic games of perfect information







- · Two player: Duh!
- Zero-sum: In any outcome of any game, Player A's gains equal player B's losses.
- Discrete: All game states and decisions are discrete values.
- Finite: Only a finite number of states and decisions.
- Deterministic: No chance (no die rolls).
- Perfect information: Both players can see the state, and each decision is made sequentially (no simultaneous moves).











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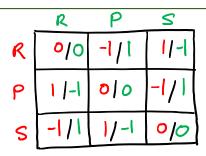
Multiplayer

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Not finite

Game 1: Rock, Paper, Scissors

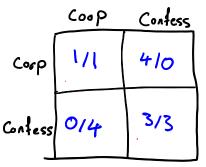
- · Scissors cut paper, paper covers rock, rock smashes scissors
- Represented as a matrix: Player I chooses a row, Player II chooses a column.
- 1: win
 - 0: tie
 - -1: loss



Game 2: Prisoner's Dilemma

- Two prisoners in separate cells.
 The sheriff doesn't have enough evidence to convict them.
 They agree ahead of time to both **deny** the crime (they will **cooperate**).
- If one confesses and the other doesn't:
 - Confessor goes free;
 - Other sentenced to 4 years.
- If both confess:
 - both sentenced to 3 years.
- If both cooperate (neither confesses):
 - both sentenced to 1 year.

Payoff: 4 minus sentence



Extensive Form Two-Player Zero-Sum Games

• The previous games are simple "one shot" games.

• Many games extend over multiple moves turn-taking: players act alternatively. Examples: chess, checkers, etc.

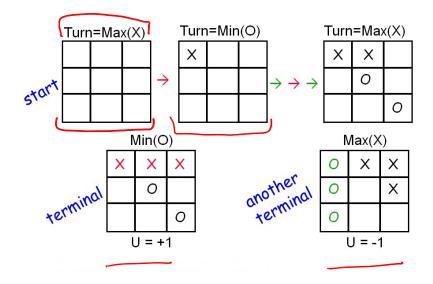
Two-Player Zero-Sum Game – Definition

A Two-Player Zero-Sum game consists of the following components:

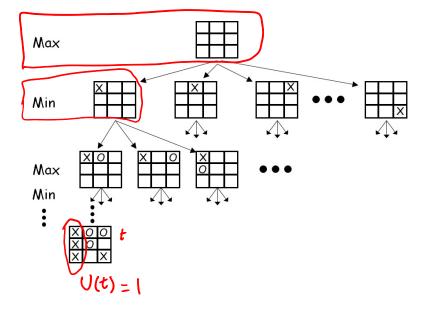
- Two players Max and Min.
- A set of **positions** *P* (states of the game).
- A starting position $p \in P$ (where game begins).
- A set of **Terminal positions** $T \subseteq P$ (where game can end).
- A set of directed edges E_{Max} between some positions, representing Max's moves.
- A set of directed edges E_{Min} between some positions, representing Min's moves.
- A utility (or payoff) function U : T → ℝ, representing how good each terminal state is for player Max.

Why don't we need a utility function for Min?

∪(†) −∪(†)



- A Game Tree consists of layers reflect alternating moves between Max and Min.
- · Root is start state.
- Starting with Max, players alternate moves.
- Game State: a state-player pair, specifies the current state and whose turn it is.
- Game ends when some terminal $p \in T$ is reached.
- Utility function and terminals replace goals:
 - Terminal nodes t are labeled with utilities U(t).
 - Max gets U(t), Min gets -U(t) for terminal node t.



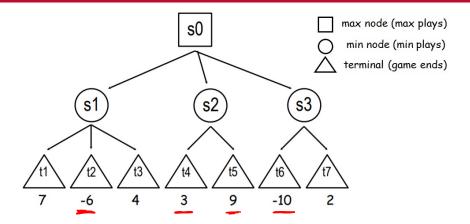
Game Playing Strategies

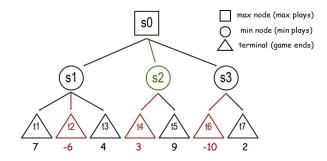
- · Max wants to maximize the terminal payoff.
- Min wants to minimize the terminal payoff.
- Max doesn't decide which terminal state is reached alone.
 After Max moves to a state, Min decides which subsequent state to move to.
- Thus Max must have a strategy:
 - Must know what to do for each possible move of Min.
 - One sequence of moves will not suffice: "What to do" will depend on how Min will play.

- Minimax Strategy: Assuming that the other player will always play its best move, play a move that will minimize the payoff that could be gained by the other player.
- Minimizing the other player's payoff to maximize yours.

Minimax plays it safe!

Minimax Strategy



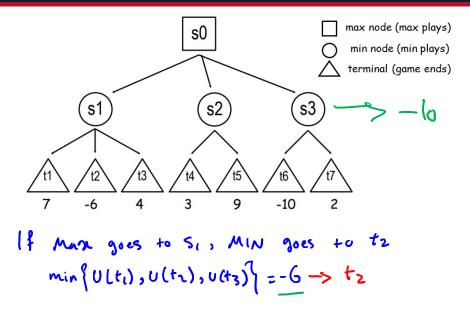


Minimax Strategy:

- Max always plays a move to change the state to the highest valued child.
- Min always plays a move to change the state to the lowest valued child.

If **Min plays poorly** (does not always move to lowest value child), Max could do better, but **never worse**.

Minimax Strategy



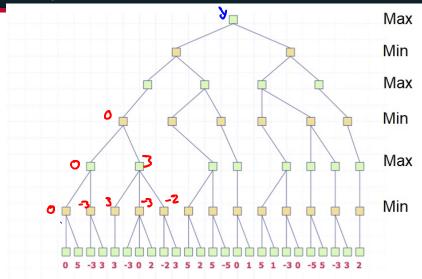
Minimax Strategy

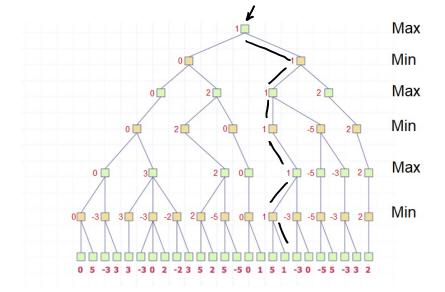
- We can compute a utility (aka MinMAx value) for the non-terminal states by assuming both players always play their best move.
- · Back the utility values up the tree:

 $U(s) = \begin{cases} U(s) & \text{if } s \text{ is a terminal } (U \text{ is defined} \\ (U \text{ is defined for all terminals} \\ as part of input) \\ \\ \hline min\{U(c):c \text{ is a child of } s\} & \text{if } s \text{ is a Min node.} \\ \\ \hline max\{U(c):c \text{ is a child of } s\} & \text{if } s \text{ is a Max node.} \end{cases}$

- The values U(s) labeling each state s are the values that Max will achieve in that state if both Max and Min play their best move.

Example

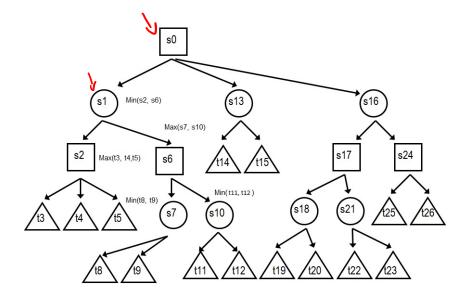




Depth-First Implementation of Minimax

- Building the entire game tree and backing up values gives each player their strategy.
- However, the game tree is exponential in size and might be too large to store in memory.
- We can save space by computing the minimax values with a depth-first implementation of minimax.
 Although run-time complexity is still exponential.
- We run the depth-first search **after each move** to compute what is the next move for the MAX player.
- This avoids explicitly representing the exponentially sized game tree: we just compute each move as it is needed.

```
def DFMiniMax(s, Player):
//Return Utility of state s given that Player is MIN or MAX
1. If s is TERMINAL
2.
        Return U(s) # Return terminal states utility,
                      # specified as part of game
//Apply Player's moves to get successor states.
    ChildList = s.Successors(Player)
3.
4.
    If Player == MIN
5.
        return minimum of DFMiniMax(c, MAX) over c \in ChildList
    Else # Player is MAX
6.
7.
        return maximum of DFMiniMax(c, MIN) over c \in ChildList
```



Depth-First Implementation of Minimax

- The game tree has to have **finite depth** for DF Implementation to work.
- We must traverse the entire search tree to evaluate all options.
- Time Complexity: O(b^d) (both a BEST and WORSE case scenario), where b is the number of legal moves at each state, and d maximum depth of the tree.

Space Complexity: O(bd).