# 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.
$\triangleright$ time during searching
$\triangleright$ memory
$\triangleright$ coding efforts
$\triangleright$ debugging efforts
- Opponent models
- How to combine what we have learned in class together to get a working game 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;
$\triangleright$ Use offline 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:
$\triangleright$ win: the number of games reaching this position and then wins.
$\triangleright$ loss: the number of games reaching this position and then loss.
$\triangleright d r a w$ : 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 a value and use this value as the value of this position.
- Comments:
- Pure statistically
- You 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]


## Graph history interaction problem

- The graph history interaction (GHI) problem:
- 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.
- 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 the path visiting it.


## GHI problem - example



- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow E \rightarrow I \rightarrow J \rightarrow H \rightarrow E$ is loss because of rules of repetition. $\triangleright$ Memorized $H$ is loss.
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D$ 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 win.


## Using resources

- Time
- For human:
$\triangleright$ More time is spent in the beginning when the game just starts.
$\triangleright$ Stop searching a path further when you think the position is stable.
- Pondering:
$\triangleright$ Use the time when your opponent is thinking.
$\triangleright$ Guessing and then pondering.
- Memory
- Using a large transposition table occupies a large space and thus slows down the program.
$\triangleright$ 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 $f_{2}(p)$
$\triangleright$ "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.
$\triangleright$ In a MAX node, use $f_{1}$.
$\triangleright$ 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.


## Putting everything together

- Game playing system
- Use some sorts of open book.
- Middle-game searching: usage of a search engine.
$\triangleright$ Main search algorithm
$\triangleright$ Enhancements
$\triangleright$ Evaluating function: knowledge
- Use some sorts of endgame databases.


## How to know you are successful

- Assume during a selfplay 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,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\text { game }_{\text {first }}\right)= \begin{cases}p & \text { if won the game } \\ q & \text { if draw the game } \\ 1-p-q & \text { if lose the game }\end{cases}
$$

- Hence for a copy playing second,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\text { game }_{\text {last }}\right)= \begin{cases}1-p-q & \text { if won the game } \\ q & \text { if draw the game } \\ p & \text { if lose the game }\end{cases}
$$

## Outcome of selfplay games

- Assume $2 n$ games, $g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{2 n}$ 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 $g_{2 i-1}$ and $g_{2 i}$ 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 $g_{2 i-1}$.
- 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

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(X_{i}\right)= \begin{cases}p(1-p-q) & \text { if } X_{i}=2 x \\ p q+(1-p-q) q & \text { if } X_{i}=x \\ p^{2}+(1-p-q)^{2}+q^{2} & \text { if } X_{i}=0 \\ p q+(1-p-q) q & \text { if } X_{i}=-x \\ (1-p-q) p & \text { if } X_{i}=-2 x\end{cases}
$$

## How good we are against the baseline?

- Properties of $X_{i}$.
- The mean $E\left(X_{i}\right)=0$.
- The standard deviation of $X_{i}$ is

$$
\sqrt{E\left(X_{i}^{2}\right)}=x \sqrt{2 p q+(2 q+8 p)(1-p-q)}
$$

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 $X[n]=\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}$.
$\triangleright$ The mean of $X[n], E(X[n])$, is 0 .
$\triangleright$ The standard deviation of $X[n], \sigma_{n}$, is $x \sqrt{n} \sqrt{2 p q+(2 q+8 p)(1-p-q)}$,
- If $s>0$, we can calculate the probability of $\operatorname{Pr}(|X[n]| \leq s)$ using well known techniques from calculating multi-nominal distributions.


## Practical setup

- Parameters that are usually used.
- $x=1$.
- For Chinese chess, $q$ is about $0.5, p=0.3$ and $1-p-q$ is 0.2 .
$\triangleright$ 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 $X[n], \sigma_{n}$, is

$$
x \sqrt{n} \sqrt{2 p q+(2 q+8 p)(1-p-q)}=\sqrt{0.98 n}
$$

## Results

| $\operatorname{Pr}(\|X[n]\| \leq s)$ | $s=3$ | $s=4$ | $s=5$ | $s=6$ | $s=7$ | $s=8$ | $s=9$ |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $n=10, \sigma_{10}=3.1$ | 0.737 | 0.850 | 0.922 | 0.963 | 0.984 | 0.994 | 0.998 |
| $n=20, \sigma_{20}=4.4$ | 0.571 | 0.691 | 0.786 | 0.858 | 0.910 | 0.946 | 0.969 |
| $n=30, \sigma_{30}=5.4$ | 0.481 | 0.593 | 0.690 | 0.770 | 0.834 | 0.883 | 0.921 |
| $n=40, \sigma_{40}=6.3$ | 0.424 | 0.528 | 0.620 | 0.701 | 0.769 | 0.826 | 0.871 |
| $n=50, \sigma_{50}=7.0$ | 0.383 | 0.480 | 0.568 | 0.647 | 0.716 | 0.775 | 0.825 |


| $\operatorname{Pr}(\|X[n]\| \leq s)$ | $s=10$ | $s=12$ | $s=14$ | $s=15$ | $s=18$ | $s=21$ | $s=24$ |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $n=10, \sigma_{10}=3.1$ | 0.999 | 1.000 | 1.0000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |
| $n=20, \sigma_{20}=4.4$ | 0.983 | 0.996 | 0.999 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |
| $n=30, \sigma_{30}=5.4$ | 0.948 | 0.979 | 0.993 | 0.996 | 0.999 | 1.000 | 1.000 |
| $n=40, \sigma_{40}=6.3$ | 0.907 | 0.954 | 0.980 | 0.987 | 0.997 | 1.000 | 1.000 |
| $n=50, \sigma_{50}=7.0$ | 0.867 | 0.926 | 0.962 | 0.973 | 0.992 | 0.998 | 1.000 |

## 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 $\operatorname{Pr}(|X[n]| \leq s)$ is say $\mathbf{0 . 9 5}$.
$\triangleright$ 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 $\operatorname{Pr}(|X[n]| \leq s)$ is say 0.05 .
$\triangleright$ 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 $2 \sqrt{n}$, 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.
$\triangleright$ You can only solve a game once!
- It is better to acquire the knowledge about why the game wins, draws or loses.
$\triangleright$ 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.
$\triangleright$ Fun!


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