Theory of Computer Games: Concluding Remarks

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Abstract

Practical issues.

- The open book.
- Smart usage of resources.
 - ▷ time during searching
 - ▶ memory
 - ▷ coding efforts
 - ▷ debugging efforts
- Putting everything together.
- Some advanced research issues.
 - The graph history interaction (GHI) problem.
 - Opponent models.
 - Searching chance nodes.
- 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.

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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 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.
- 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]
- Using high-level meta-knowledge to guide the way in searching:
 - ▶ Dark chess: adjacent attack of the opponent's Cannon. [Chen and Hsu 2013]

Example: Chinese chess open book (1/3)

A total of 28,591 (Red win)+21,072 (Red lose)+55,930 (draw) games.



Example: Chinese chess open book (2/3)

• Can be sorted using different criteria.

- Win-lose
- winning rates
- • •



Example: Chinese chess open book (3/3)

• A tree-like structure.



Using resources: time and others

- Time is the most critical resource [Hyatt 1984] [Šolak and Vučković 2009].
- Watch out different timing rules.
 - An upper bound on the total amount of time can be used.
 - ▶ It is hard to predict the total number of moves in a game in advance. However, you can have some rough ideas.
 - Fixed amount of time per ply.
 - An upper bound T_1 on the total amount of time is given, and then you need to play X plys every T_2 amount of time.
- Thinking style of human players.
 - Using almost no time while you are in the open book.
 - More time is spent in the beginning immediately after the program is out of the book.
 - Stop searching a path further when you think the position is stable in the middle game.
 - In the endgame phase, use more time in critical positions or when you try to initiate an attack.
 - Do not think at all if you have only one possible logical move left.

Pondering

Pondering:

- Use the time when your opponent is thinking.
- Guessing and then pondering.

How pondering is done.

- In your turn, keep the first 2 plys m_1 and m_2 in the PV you obtained.
- You choose to play m_1 , and then it's the opponent's turn to think.
- In pondering, you can assume the opponent plays m_2 .
- Then you continue to think at the same time your opponent thinks.
- If the opponent plays m_2 , then you can continue the pondering search in your turn.
- If the opponent plays other moves, then you restart a new search.

Using other resources

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.

CPU

- Do not fork a process to search branches that have little hope of finding the PV even you have more than enough hardware.
- Other resources.

Putting everything together

Game playing system

- GUI
- Use some sorts of open books.
- Middle-game searching: usage of a search engine.
 - ▷ Evaluating function: knowledge.
 - ▷ Main search algorithm.
 - Enhancements: transposition tables, Quiescent search and possible others.
- Use some sorts of endgame databases.
- Debugging and testing

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.
 - \triangleright 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



- Assume the one causes loops loses the game.
- A → B → E → I → J → H → E is loss because of rules of repetition.
 Memorized H as a loss position.
- $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow D$ is a loss.
- $A \to C \to F \to H$ is loss because H is recorded as loss.
- A is loss because both branches lead to loss.
- However, $A \to C \to F \to H \to E \to G$ is a win.

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 [Carmel and Markovitch 1996].
 - \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.

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]

Example

Black to flip a1.

- If a1 is black cannon, then black can win.
- If a1 is black king, then it is difficult for black to win.



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.
 - \triangleright Using symmetry, we can reduce it to 7*8.

• We now consider the chance node of flipping the piece at the cell a1.

- \triangleright N = 14.
- ▷ Assume x = 1 means a black King is revealed and x = 8 means a red King is revealed.
- \triangleright 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?

•
$$i = 0$$
.

 $\triangleright \ m_0 = v_{min}$ $\triangleright \ M_0 = v_{max}$

• i = 1, we first compute score(1), and then know

▷
$$m_1 \ge score(1) * Pr(x = 1) + v_{min} * (1 - Pr(x = 1))$$
, and
▷ $M_1 \le score(1) * Pr(x = 1) + v_{max} * (1 - Pr(x = 1))$.

• • • •

• $i = i^*$, we have computed $score(1), \ldots, score(i^*)$, and then know • $m_{i^*} \ge \sum_{i=1}^{i^*} score(i) * Pr(x = i) + v_{min} * (1 - \sum_{i=1}^{i^*} Pr(x = i))$, and • $M_{i^*} \le \sum_{i^*}^{i^*} score(i) * Pr(x = i) + v_{min} * (1 - \sum_{i=1}^{i^*} Pr(x = i))$

$$M_{i^*} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{i} score(i) * Pr(x=i) + v_{max} * (1 - \sum_{i=1}^{i} Pr(x=i))$$

Algorithm: Chance_Search

- Algorithm F4.8' (position p, value alpha, value beta, integer depth)
 - determine the successor positions p_1, \ldots, p_b
 - • •
 - for h = 1 to b do
 - if p_h is not a chance node, then search normally
 - else we searching a chance node p_h with N choices such that with a probability Pr_i it will be k_i
 - $m_0 = alpha;$
 - $M_0 = beta;$
 - for each possible choice k_i from 1 to N do

▷
$$t := G4.8'(k_i, m_{i-1}, M_{i-1}, depth - 1);$$

▷ $m_i = m_{i-1} + (t - alpha) * Pr_i;$
▷ $M_i = M_{i-1} + (t - beta) * Pr_i;$

• • • •

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:

•
$$i = 0$$
,

 $\triangleright m_0 = -10.$

$$\triangleright M_0 = 10.$$

- 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 search completely the subtree of x = 1 first, 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., $score(1) \ge v'_1$.
 - ▷ Knowing some value v'_2 of a subtree for x = 2 gives another upper bound, i.e., $score(2) \ge v'_2$.
 - ▶ 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].

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,

$$Pr(game_{last}) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 1-p-q & \text{if win} \\ q & & \text{if draw} \\ p & & \text{if lose} \end{array} \right.$$

Outcome of self-play games

- Assume 2n games, g_1, g_2, \ldots, 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 $Pr(|X[n]| \le s)$ 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)

$\Pr(X[n] \le s)$	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)

$\Pr(X[n] \le s)$	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)

		-					
$\Pr(X[n] \le s)$	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 $Pr(|X[n]| \le s)$ 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 $Pr(|X[n]| \le s)$ 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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