IMPROVING ADAPTIVE GAME AI WITH EVOLUTIONARY LEARNING

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ABSTRACT
Game AI is defined as the decision-making process of computer-controlled opponents in computer games. Adaptive game AI can improve the entertainment provided by computer games, by allowing the computer-controlled opponents to fix automatically weaknesses in the game AI, and to respond to changes in human-player tactics online, i.e., during gameplay. Successful adaptive game AI is based invariably on domain knowledge of the game it is used in. Dynamic scripting is an algorithm that implements adaptive game AI. The domain knowledge used by dynamic scripting is stored in a rulebase with manually designed rules. In this paper we propose the use of an offline evolutionary algorithm to enhance the performance of adaptive game AI, by evolving new tactics that are able to deal with optimised tactics, which dynamic scripting cannot defeat using its original rulebase. We empirically validate our proposal by testing it on an adaptive game AI technique called “dynamic scripting”, used in a real-time-strategy (RTS) game.

1 INTRODUCTION
Traditionally, commercial game developers spend most of their resources on improving a game’s graphics. However, in the recent years, game developers have started to compete with each other by providing a more challenging gaming experience (Rabin 2004). For most games, challenging gameplay is equivalent to having high-quality game AI (Laird 2000). Game AI is defined as the decision-making process of computer-controlled opponents. Even in state-of-the-art games, game AI is, in general, of inferior quality (Schaeffer 2001, Laird 2001, Gold 2004). It tends to be predictable, and often contains weaknesses that human players can exploit.

Adaptive game AI, which implies the online (i.e., during gameplay) adaptation of the behaviour of computer-controlled opponents, has the potential to increase the quality of game AI. It has been widely disregarded by game developers, because online learning tends to be slow, and can lead to undesired behaviour (Manslow 2002). However, academic game AI researchers have shown that successful adaptive game AI is feasible (Demasi and Cruz 2002, Spronck 2004a, Johnson 2004).

To ensure the efficiency and reliability of adaptive game AI, it must incorporate a great amount of prior domain knowledge (Manslow 2002, Spronck 2004b). However, if the incorporated domain knowledge is incorrect or insufficient, adaptive game AI will not be able to generate satisfying results. In this paper we propose an evolutionary algorithm to improve the quality of the domain knowledge used for adaptive game AI. We empirically validate our proposal by testing it on an adaptive game AI technique called “dynamic scripting”, used in a real-time-strategy (RTS) game.

The outline of the remainder of the paper is as follows. Section 2 discusses RTS games, and the game environment selected for the experiments. Section 3 discusses the implementation of dynamic scripting for RTS games. Section 4 discusses the implementation of an evolutionary algorithm that generates successful tactics for RTS games. Section 5 shows how the tactics discovered in section 4 can be used to improve the dynamic scripting implementation discussed in section 3. Section 6 concludes and points at future work.

2 REAL-TIME-STRATEGY GAMES
RTS games are simple military simulations (war games) that require the player to control armies (consisting of different types of units), and defeat all opposing forces. In most RTS games, the key to winning lies in efficiently collecting and managing resources, and appropriately distributing these resources over the various game elements. Typical game elements in RTS games include the construction of buildings, the research of new technologies, and combat.

Game AI in RTS games determines the tactics of the armies controlled by the computer, including the management of resources. Game AI in RTS games is particularly challenging for game developers, because of two reasons: (1) RTS games are complex, i.e., a wide variety of tactics can be employed, and (2) decisions have to be made in real-time, i.e., under severe time constraints. RTS games
have been called “an ideal test-bed for real-time AI research” (Buro 2003).

For our experiments, we selected the RTS game WARGUS with STRATAGUS as its underlying engine. STRATAGUS is an open-source engine for building RTS games. WARGUS (illustrated in figure 1) implements a clone of the highly popular RTS game WAR CRAFT II. While the graphics of WARGUS are not to up-to-date with today’s standards, its gameplay can still be considered state-of-the-art.

3 ADAPTIVE GAME AI IN RTS GAMES

Game AI for complex games, such as RTS games, is mostly defined in scripts, i.e. lists of rules that are executed sequentially (Tozour 2002). Because the scripts tend to be long and complex (Brockington and Darrah 2002), they are likely to contain weaknesses, which the human player can exploit. Because scripts are static they cannot adapt to overcome these exploits. Spronck et al. (2004a) designed a novel technique called “dynamic scripting” that realises the online adaptation of scripted opponent AI. Experiments have shown that the dynamic scripting technique can be successfully incorporated in commercial Computer RolePlaying Games (CRPGs) (Spronck et al. 2004a, 2004b).

Because the game AI for WARGUS is defined in scripts, dynamic scripting should also be applicable to WARGUS. However, because of the differences between RTS games and CRPGs, the original dynamic scripting implementation cannot be transferred to RTS games unchanged.

In this section a dynamic scripting implementation for the game AI in RTS games is designed and evaluated. In subsection 3.1 we explain the basics of dynamic scripting. We highlight the changes made to dynamic scripting to apply it to RTS games in subsection 3.2. In subsection 3.3 the implementation of dynamic scripting in WARGUS is discussed. The evaluation of this implementation is discussed in subsection 3.4, and the results in subsection 3.5.

3.1 Dynamic Scripting

Dynamic scripting is an online learning technique for commercial computer games, inspired by reinforcement learning (Russel and Norvig 1995). Dynamic scripting generates scripted opponents on the fly by extracting rules from an adaptive rulebase. The rules in the rulebase are manually designed using domain-specific knowledge. The probability that a rule is selected for a script is proportional to a weight value that is associated with each rule, i.e., rules with larger weights have a higher probability of being selected. After every game, the weights of rules employed during gameplay are increased when having a positive contribution to the outcome, and decreased when having a negative contribution. The size of the weight changes is determined by a weight-update function. To keep the sum of all weight values in a rulebase constant, weight changes are executed through a redistribution of all weights in the rulebase. Through the process of punishments and rewards, dynamic scripting gradually adapts to the human player. For CRPGs, it has been shown that dynamic scripting is fast, effective, robust and efficient (Spronck et al., 2004a).

3.2 Dynamic Scripting for RTS games

Our design of dynamic scripting for RTS games has two differences with dynamic scripting for CRPGs. The first difference is that, while dynamic scripting for CRPGs employs different rulebases for different opponent types in the game (Spronck et al. 2004a), our RTS implementation of dynamic scripting employs different rulebases for the different states of the game. The reason for this deviation from the CRPG implementation of dynamic scripting is that, in contrast with CRPGs, the tactics that can be used in an RTS game mainly depend on the availability of different unit types. For instance, attacking with weak units might be the only viable choice in early game states, while in later game states, when strong units are available, usually weak units will have become useless.

The second difference is that, while dynamic scripting for CRPGs executes weight updates based on an evaluation of a fight, our RTS implementation of dynamic scripting executes weight updates based on both an evaluation of the performance of the game AI during the whole game (called the “overall fitness”), and on an evaluation of the performance of the game AI between state changes (called the “state fitness”). As such, the weight-update function is based on the state fitness, combined with the overall fitness. The use of both evaluations for the weight-updates increases the efficiency of the learning mechanism (Manslow 2004).

3.3 Dynamic Scripting in WARGUS

We implemented the dynamic scripting process in WARGUS as follows. Dynamic scripting starts by randomly selecting rules for the first state. When a rule is selected that spawns a state change, from that point on rules will be selected for the new state. To avoid monotone behaviour, we restricted each rule to be selected only once for each state. At the end of the scripts, a loop is implemented that initiates continuous attacks against the enemy.

Because in WARGUS the available buildings determine the unit types that can be built, we decided to distinguish game states according to the type of buildings possessed. Consequently, state changes are spawned by rules that comprise the creation of new buildings. The twenty states for WARGUS, and the possible state changes, are illustrated in figure 2.

We allowed a maximum of 100 rules per script. The rulebases for each of the states contained between 21 and 42 rules. The rules can be divided in four basic categories: (1) build rules (for constructing buildings), (2) research rules (for acquiring new technologies), (3) economy rules (for gathering resources), and (4) combat rules (for military activities). To design the rules, we incorporated domain knowledge acquired from strategy guides for WARCRAFT II.

The ‘overall fitness’ function $F$ for player $d$ controlled by dynamic scripting (henceforth called the “dynamic player”) yields a value in the range $[0,1]$. It is defined as:

$$
F = \begin{cases}
\min\left(\frac{S_d}{S_a + S_o}, b\right) & \{d \text{ lost}\} \\
\max\left( b, \frac{S_d}{S_a + S_o} \right) & \{d \text{ won}\}
\end{cases}
$$

(1)

$$
F = \begin{cases}
\min\left(\frac{S_d}{S_a + S_o}, b\right) & \{d \text{ lost}\} \\
\max\left( b, \frac{S_d}{S_a + S_o} \right) & \{d \text{ won}\}
\end{cases}
$$

(1)
For the dynamic player, the state fitness even point, weights remain unchanged. Defined as:

\[ S \times b \]

for player, opponent, and players in the game. For WARGUS, we defined the score \( S \times b \) to successfully reflect the relative strength of the two opposing players in the game.

The score function is domain-dependent, and should be adapted in state \( i \), and \( b \) is the break-even point. The equation indicates that we prioritise state performance over overall performance. The reason is that, even if a game is lost, we wish to prevent rules in states where performance is successful from being punished (too much). In our simulation we set \( P \) to 175, \( R \) to 200, \( W_{max} \) to 1250, \( W_{min} \) to 25 and \( b \) to 0.5.

### 3.4 Evaluating Dynamic Scripting in WARGUS

We evaluated the performance of dynamic scripting for RTS games in WARGUS, by letting the computer play the game against itself. One of the two opposing players is controlled by dynamic scripting (the dynamic player), and the other is controlled by a static script (the static player). Each game lasted until one of the players was defeated, or until a certain period of time had elapsed. If the game ended due to the time restriction (which was rarely the case), the player with the highest score was considered to have won. After the game, the rulebases were adapted, and the next game was started, using the adapted rulebases. A sequence of 100 games constituted one test. We tested four different tactics for the static player:

1. **Small Balanced Land Attack (SBLA):** The SBLA is a tactic that focuses on land combat, keeping a balance between offensive actions, defensive actions, and research. The SBLA is applied on a small map. Games on a small map are usually decided swiftly, with fierce battles between weak armies.

2. **Large Balanced Land Attack (LBLA):** The LBLA is similar to the SBLA, but applied on a large map. A large map allows for a slower-paced game, with long-lasting battles between strong armies.

3. **Soldier’s Rush (SR):** The soldier’s rush aims at overwhelming the opponent with cheap offensive units in an early state of the game. Since the soldier’s rush works best in fast games, we tested it on a small map.

4. **Knight’s Rush (KR):** The knight’s rush aims at quick technological advancement, launching large offensives as soon as strong units are available. Since the knight’s rush works best in slower-paced games, we tested it on a large map.
To quantify the relative performance of the dynamic player against the static player, we used the ‘randomization turning point’ (RTP). The RTP is measured as follows. After each game, a randomization test (Cohen 1995; pp. 168-170) is performed using the fitness values over the last ten games, with the null hypothesis that both players are equally strong. The dynamic player is said to outperform the static player if the randomization test concludes that the null hypothesis can be rejected with a probability of 90%. The RTP is the number of the first game in which the dynamic player outperforms the static player. A low value for the RTP indicates good efficiency of dynamic scripting.

If the player controlled by dynamic scripting is unable to statistically outperform the static player within 100 games, the test is stopped. For the SBLA we ran 31 tests. For the LBLA we ran 21 tests. For both the SR and KR, we ran 10 tests.

### 3.5 Results

The results of the evaluation of dynamic scripting in WARGUS are displayed in table 1. From left to right, the table displays (1) the tactic used by the static player, (2) the number of tests, (3) the lowest RTP found, (4) the highest RTP found, (5) the average RTP, (6) the median RTP, (7) the number of tests that did not find an RTP within 100 games, and (8) the average number of games won out of 100. From the low values for the RTPs for both the SBLA and the LBLA, we can conclude that the dynamic player efficiently adapts to these two tactics. Therefore, we conclude that dynamic scripting in our implementation can be applied successfully to RTS games.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tactic</th>
<th>Tests</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Avg</th>
<th>Med</th>
<th>&gt;100</th>
<th>Won</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SBLA</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>60.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LBLA</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>59.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KR</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Evaluation results of dynamic scripting in RTS games.

However, the dynamic player was unable to adapt to the soldier’s rush and the knight’s rush within 100 games. As the rightmost column in table 1 shows, the dynamic player only won approximately 1 out of 100 games against the soldier’s rush, and 1 out of 50 games against the knight’s rush. The reason for the bad performance of the dynamic player against the two rush tactics is twofold, namely (1) the rush tactics are optimised, in the sense that it is very hard to design game AI that is able to deal with them, and (2) the rulebase does not contain the appropriate knowledge to easily design game AI that is able to deal with the rush tactics. The remainder of this paper investigates how offline evolutionary learning can be used to improve the rulebase to deal with optimised tactics.

### 4 EVOLUTIONARY TACTICS

In this section we empirically investigate to what extent an evolutionary algorithm can be used to search for effective tactics for RTS games. Our goal is to use offline evolutionary learning to design tactics that can be used to defeat the two optimised tactics described in section 3, the soldier’s rush and the knight’s rush. In the following subsections we describe the procedure used (4.1), the encoding of the chromosome (4.2), the fitness function (4.3), the genetic operators (4.4), and the results (4.5).

#### 4.1 Experimental Procedure

We designed an evolutionary algorithm that evolves new tactics to be used in WARGUS against a static player using the soldier’s rush and the knight’s rush tactics. The evolutionary algorithm uses a population of size 50, that contains a fixed number of sample solutions (i.e., game AI scripts). Relatively successful solutions (as determined by a fitness function) are allowed to breed. To select parent chromosomes for breeding, we used size-3 tournament selection (Buckland 2004). This method prevents early convergence and is computationally fast. Newly generated chromosomes replace existing solutions in the population, using size-3 crowding (Goldberg 1989). Our goal is to generate a chromosome with a fitness exceeding a target value. When such a chromosome is found, the evolution process ends. This is the fitness-stop criterion. We set to the target value to 0.75 against the soldier’s rush, and to 0.7 against the knight’s rush. Since there is no guarantee that a solution exceeding the target value will be found, the evolution process also ends after it has generated a maximum number of solutions. This is the run-stop criterion. We set the maximum number of solutions to 250. The choices for the fitness-stop and run-stop criteria were determined during preliminary experiments.

#### 4.2 Encoding

Solutions are encoded in chromosomes. A chromosome represents a game AI script. We distinguish four different gene types, corresponding to the four basic rule categories, namely (1) build genes, (2) research genes, (3) economy genes, and (4) combat genes. Of the combat gene, there are actually 20 variations, one for each possible state. Each gene contains a marker that indicates the type of gene (B, R, E and C, respectively), followed by values for the parameters needed by the gene. The genes are grouped by states, and the start of a state is indicated by a separate marker (S), followed by the state number. A more detailed description of the genes can be found in (Ponsen 2004).

An example of the chromosome design we use is shown in figure 3. In the figure, the shaded block shows the chromosome, and each number in the chromosome represents a gene. Each of the white blocks ‘zooms in’ to one of the states.

![Figure 3: An example chromosome.](Image)
Chromosomes for the initial population are generated randomly, in a way that ensures that only legal game AI scripts can be created, namely by taking into account state changes spawned by build genes.

4.3 Fitness Function

To measure the success of a game AI script represented by a chromosome, the following fitness function \( F \) for the dynamic player \( d \), yielding a value in the range \([0,1]\), is defined:

\[
F = \begin{cases} 
\min \left( \frac{GC}{EC} \cdot \frac{M_d}{M_d + M_e}, b \right) & \text{if lost} \\
\max \left( \frac{b}{M_d}, \frac{M_d}{M_d + M_e} \right) & \text{if won} 
\end{cases}
\]

In equation (5), \( M_d \) represents the military points for the dynamic player, \( M_e \) represents the military points for the dynamic player’s opponent, and \( b \) is the break-even point. \( GC \) represents the game cycle, i.e., the time it took before the game is lost by one of the players. \( EC \) represents the end cycle, i.e., the longest time a game is allowed to continue. When a game reaches the end cycle and neither army has been completely defeated, scores at that time are measured and the game is aborted. The factor \( GC/EC \) ensures that losing solutions that play a long game are awarded higher fitness scores than losing solutions that play a short game.

4.4 Genetic Operators

We designed four genetic operators for the evolution of tactics in RTS games, namely the following.

1. **State Crossover** selects two parents, and copies states from either parent to the child chromosome.
2. **Rule Replace Mutation** selects one parent, and replaces economy, research or combat rules with a 25% chance. Building rules are excluded here, both for and as replacement, because these could spawn a state change and thus could possibly corrupt the chromosome.
3. **Rule Biased Mutation** selects one parent and mutates parameters for existing economy or combat rules with a 50% chance. The mutations are within a predefined range.
4. **Randomization** generates a random new chromosome.

Randomization has a 10% chance of being used during evolution, and the other genetic operators a 30% chance.

4.5 Results

The results of ten tests of the evolutionary algorithm against each of the two optimised tactics are shown in table 2. From left to right, the columns show (1) the tactic used by the static player, (2) the number of tests, (3) the lowest fitness value found, (4) the highest fitness value found, (5) the average fitness value, and (6) the number of tests that ended because of the run-stop criterion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tactic</th>
<th>#Tests</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Avg</th>
<th>&gt;250</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SR</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KR</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Evolutionary algorithm results.

From table 2 we conclude that the evolutionary algorithm was successful in rapidly discovering tactics able to defeat both optimised tactics used by the static player.

5 IMPROVING ADAPTIVE AI

In section 3, we discovered that dynamic scripting did not achieve satisfying results against the two rush tactics. In section 4 we evolved new tactics that were able to defeat the two rush tactics. In this section we discuss how the evolved tactics can be used to improve the rulebase used by dynamic scripting, to enable it to deal with the rush tactics with more success. In subsection 5.1 we discuss how the evolved tactics were translated to rulebase improvements. In subsection 5.2 the new rulebase is evaluated by repeating the experiment described in section 3.

5.1 Improving the Rulebase for Dynamic Scripting

We closely examined all evolved solutions found in section 4. Against both the soldier’s rush and the knight’s rush, we observed that the evolved solutions had a strong preference for a specific building priority. Eight out of ten solutions found against the soldier’s rush, constructed a ‘blacksmith’ very early in the game, and then acquired the technologies affiliated with the blacksmith. Seven out of ten solutions found against the knight’s rush, were designed to reach state 11 or 12 very quickly. These two states are important, as they are the first states that allow fighting with powerful units (namely knights). Furthermore, we noticed that almost all evolved solutions emphasised resource gathering.

Based on our observations we decided to create four new rules for the rulebase, and to (slightly) change the parameters for several existing combat rules. One example of a new rule is the ‘AntiSoldiersRush’ rule, that combines three actions, namely (1) constructing a blacksmith, (2) researching better weaponry and armour, (3) building large armies of heavily armed soldiers. More details on the original and revised rulebases can be found in (Ponsen, 2004).

5.2 Evaluating improved Rule-base in Wargus

We repeated the experiment described in section 3, but with dynamic scripting using the new rulebase, and with the values of the maximum reward and maximum penalty both set to 400 (to encourage high weights). Table 3 summarises the achieved results. The columns in table 3 are equal to those in table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tactic</th>
<th>#Tests</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Avg</th>
<th>Med</th>
<th>&gt;100</th>
<th>Won</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SBLA</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>72.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LBLA</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>66.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KR</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Evaluation results of dynamic scripting in RTS games using an improved rulebase.

A comparison of table 1 and table 3 shows that the performance of dynamic scripting is considerably improved with the new rulebase. Against the two balanced tactics, SBLA and LBLA, the average RTP is reduced by more than 50%. Against the two optimised tactics, the soldier’s rush and the knight’s rush, the number of games won out of 100
has increased enormously. The improved performance can be attributed to the new rules, since we observed that dynamic scripting assigned them large weights.

Note that, despite the improvements, dynamic scripting is still unable to statistically outperform the two rush tactics. The explanation is as follows. The two rush tactics are ‘super-tactics’, that can only be defeated by very specific counter-tactics, with little room for variation. By design, dynamic scripting generates a variety of tactics at all times, thus it is unlikely to make the appropriate choices enough times in a row to reach the RTP.

6 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

We set out to show that offline evolutionary learning can be used to improve the performance of adaptive game AI, by improving the domain knowledge that is used by the adaptive game AI. We implemented an adaptive game AI technique called ‘dynamic scripting’, which uses domain knowledge stored in a rulebase, in the RTS game WARGUS. We tested the implementation against four manually designed tactics. We observed that, while dynamic scripting was successful in defeating balanced tactics, it did not do well against two optimised rush tactics. We then used evolutionary learning to design tactics able to defeat the rush tactics. Finally, we used the evolved tactics to improve the rulebase of dynamic scripting. From our empirical results we were able to conclude that the improved rulebase resulted in significantly improved performance of dynamic scripting against all four tactics.

We draw three conclusions from our experiments. (1) Dynamic scripting can be successfully implemented in RTS games. (2) Offline evolutionary learning can be used to successfully design counter-tactics against strong tactics used in an RTS game. (3) Tactics designed by offline evolutionary learning can be used to improve the performance of adaptive game AI.

In future work we will test dynamic scripting in RTS games played against humans, to determine if adaptive game AI actually increases the entertainment value of a game. Furthermore, we will attempt to design an automated mechanism that translates tactics evolved by offline evolutionary learning into an improved rulebase for dynamic scripting. The addition of such a mechanism would enable us to completely automate the process of designing successful rulebases for dynamic scripting.

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