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# Solving imperfect information games on heterogeneous hardware by operation aggregation

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## Abstract

1 Solving large-scale imperfect information game is one of the most challenging  
2 tasks in machine learning, the difficulties come both from algorithm design and  
3 system support. From the perspective of system, the computation pattern of  
4 existing algorithm for solving imperfect information is complex and irregular. As a  
5 result, despite GPU provides powerful computing power and becomes the standard  
6 on training neural networks, most algorithms for solving imperfect information  
7 games still only work on CPU clusters. In this paper, we present a two-phase  
8 aggregation procedure to refactor the execution plan for the algorithms designed to  
9 solve imperfect information games. This procedure first aggregates isolated scalar  
10 operations into vector operations, then it further combines some of those vector  
11 operations into matrix operations that can be expressed by Basic Linear Algebra  
12 Subprograms (BLAS). We evaluate our methods by running the Counterfactual  
13 Regret Minimization (CFR) algorithm to solve two games, Bluff and Heads-Up  
14 Flop Hold'em Poker. Results shown that, comparing with the single thread CPU  
15 implementation, our aggregation procedure achieved an acceleration ratio of more  
16 than 31 times. Furthermore, as the game size increase, the acceleration ratio  
17 become higher.

## 18 1 Introduction

19 Extensive-form game with imperfect information is a general framework that can model real-world  
20 sequential decision-making problems with imperfect information, like trading, auctions, negotiations,  
21 etc. Solving the imperfect information games can have great impact in the real world. Unlike in  
22 the research lab, real world problems have high requirements for computation resources due to the  
23 problem size. Thus, the implementation must exploit all the computation power of heterogeneous  
24 hardware, including CPU, GPU, FPGA and all the other special designed devices.

25 Currently, the state-of-the-art solution for solving imperfect information games are purely running on  
26 CPU clusters [Brown and Sandholm, 2017a]. The reason is that, heterogeneous hardware except CPU  
27 are specially designed for a certain type of task, e.g. fast matrix multiplication. Thus, they can not  
28 perform operations as efficient and flexible as the CPU. In contrast, in making full use of hardware  
29 computing power, systems for solving perfect information game doing very well. The most famous  
30 example is AlphaGo, which employs Neural Network (NN) for state generalization and Monte-Carlo  
31 Tree Search (MCTS) for searching [Silver *et al.*, 2016, 2017]. The MCTS part runs on CPUs and  
32 NN part runs on GPU or Tensor Processing Unit (TPU). In imperfect information games, due to the  
33 existence of hidden information, the outcome varies largely given the same history of public actions.  
34 NNs are not good at handling this situation, thus it is only used on small-scale games as research  
35 attempts [Brown *et al.*, 2018; Moravčík *et al.*, 2017]. Be specific, Libratus [Brown and Sandholm,  
36 2017a,b], the system which beats top human players in the Texas hold'em poker game, is trained

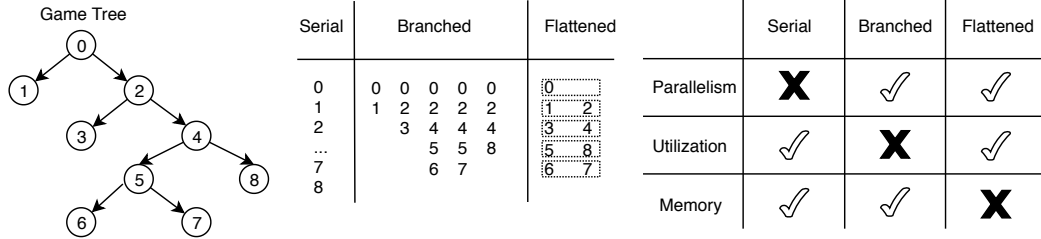


Figure 1: Execution Analysis

37 over 25 million of CPU hours which is rather time-consuming, while leaving the powerful GPU cards  
 38 idled.

39 An algorithm can be seen as a series of basic operations, and an execution plan refers to how to  
 40 perform those operations, such as on what hardware and in which order. <sup>1</sup> Our key observation  
 41 is that, on imperfect information games some states are indistinguishable, this character makes it  
 42 is possible to handle those states in a uniform manner. Based on this observation, we introduce a  
 43 two-phase aggregation procedure to refactor the default execution plan of the algorithm to exploit  
 44 the computation power of heterogeneous hardware. Be specific, each possible game situation in the  
 45 imperfect information game is called a state. Due to the existence of private actions, the player or  
 46 audience can only specify a set of indistinguishable states, named the information set (infoset), that  
 47 might be the current state. On the first phase, states belonging to the same infoset are aggregated  
 48 together, and scalar operations on those states are replaced by a vector operation on that infoset. On  
 49 the second phase, operations that can be expressed by a dot product or its variation, will be aggregate  
 50 together and replaced by a single BLAS operation. Thus, the first-phase aggregation exploits the  
 51 parallel computing power and the second-phase takes the advantage of the hardware’s acceleration on  
 52 BLAS operations. <sup>2</sup> Noteworthy, this procedure did not rely on any implementation level features,  
 53 such as memory access pattern. Thus, it can be widely used in various scenarios and keeps transparent  
 54 to the algorithm side researcher and practitioner.

55 We evaluate the performance of the operation aggregation by running the CFR algorithm on different  
 56 size of bluff and heads-up flop hold’em poker. We compare three different execution plan: the  
 57 serial, the flattened and the aggregated. The serial plan runs on a single CPU core, and flattened and  
 58 aggregated plans run on a single GPU card, details will be described in section2. Results shown that  
 59 the running time of each round of the aggregated plan is less than one-thirtieth of the serial plan,  
 60 while only requires the same amount of the GPU memory as the serial plan required for the main  
 61 memory. On the other hand, despite the flattened plan is as fast as the aggregated plan on the running  
 62 speed, its memory consumption is much larger, which also keeps it away from solving large-scale  
 63 problems. Thus, our aggregation procedure is the most suitable plan for solving large-scale imperfect  
 64 information games.

## 65 2 Execution Analysis

66 In this section, we adopt a subgame of the heads-up flop hold’em poker to analysis the detail of  
 67 different execution plans. The performance differences between different execution plans are rooted  
 68 in the hardware characteristics. Taking CPU and GPU as an example, CPU has the advantage of high  
 69 frequency and out-of-order execution supporting, but it only has several cores. In contrast, GPU has  
 70 thousands of cores but each of them is much slower and weaker than the CPU core. As a result, we  
 71 need to design targeted execution plan to make efficient use of the heterogeneous hardware.

72 We analysis three typical execution plans, namely serial, branched and flattened. On Fig.1, the left  
 73 part is the game tree of the subgame, the middle part illustrates the visiting sequence of each execution  
 74 plan on that subgame, and the right part compares the characteristics of these execution plans.

<sup>1</sup>The term “Execution plan” is used by the database community. On other research community e.g. program optimization or multi-threading, they use instance or schedule to name it.

<sup>2</sup>GPU provide special designed processing unit, Tensor Core, to accelerate the BLAS operations. <https://www.nvidia.com/en-us/data-center/tensorcore/>

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**Algorithm 1** Counterfactual Regret Minimization

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```
1: function TREE TRAVERSE(infoset, reaching_prob)
2:   if infoset is terminal then
3:     return utility(infoset)
4:   end if
5:   reward = [], reward_sum = 0
6:   for action ∈ valid actions(infoset) do
7:     next_reaching_prob = reaching_prob * strategy(infoset, action),
8:     next_infoset = simulate(infoset, action)
9:     reward[action] = TreeTraverse (next_infoset, next_reaching_prob)
10:    reward_sum = reward_sum + reward[a]
11:   end for
12:   oppo_reward = <reward · reaching_prob[opponent]>
13:   strategy(I) = RegretMatching(oppo_reward, reaching_prob)
14:   return reward_sum
15: end function
```

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75 A serial execution plan simply visits the tree node one by one. It is the by default execution plan,  
76 which does not have any parallelism, but are good at hardware utilization and the memory cost is  
77 small. In order to improve the parallelism, the most straightforward way is to assign each leaf node  
78 an independent execution flow, so different leaf node can be processed in parallel. The parallelism  
79 of branched execution plan is good, and the memory cost is acceptable. However, if the game tree  
80 is highly unbalanced, cores finished early have to wait for cores finished later to merge their results  
81 for back-propagation, which reduced the hardware utilization. The flattened execution plan adopts  
82 a Breadth First Search (BFS) to flatten the tree structure into several intervals. As shwon in Fig.1,  
83 operations inside an interval are naturally paralleled, and it does not introduce any synchronize  
84 barriers. Thus both the parallelism degree and hardware utilization of the flattened execution plan  
85 are pretty well. The drawback of the flattened execution plan is its memory consumption. The total  
86 size of all those intervals is as large as the size of the whole game tree, while the serial and branched  
87 execution plan only consumes the same amount of memory space as the tree depth.

### 88 3 Operation Aggregation

89 In order to solve those drawbacks of existing execution plans, we introduce the operation aggregation  
90 method. We first introduce two different descriptions of the imperfect information extensive game for  
91 the following discussion, namely game tree and public tree, and the full definition of extensive game  
92 are putted in Appendix A. Game tree and public tree are differed by the available information. Game  
93 tree describe the full game, where each node of the game tree represents a different state of the game.  
94 Public tree [Johanson *et al.*, 2011] describe the game from the perspective of the audience, which he  
95 can not distinguish state that only differed by the player’s private actions. Each node in public tree  
96 corresponds to an infoset that is a collection of all possible states. Fig. 2 illustrate the game tree and  
97 public tree.

98 The operation aggregation consists of two-phase : vectorization and BLAS replacement. The first  
99 phase, vectorization, is based on the natural intuition that we can traverse the public tree instead of  
100 traverse the monolithic game tree, thus the scalar operations performed on the game tree is equal to a  
101 vector operation performed on the public tree. The second phase, BLAS replacement, is to further  
102 aggregate the vector operations which can be expressed by the dot product or variation into matrix  
103 operations. Then use BLAS operations to perform those matrix operations.

104 In this section we first prove the invariance before and after applying the operation aggregation. Then,  
105 we discuss the detail of applying our two-phase operation aggregation on Counterfactual Regret  
106 Minimization (CFR) algorithm.

#### 107 3.1 Equivalence Prove

108 Here we first make a mild assumption on the statistics we need to solve the extensive games with  
109 imperfect information.

110 **Assumption 1** (Additive Property). For any info set  $I$  that each history  $h_i \in I$  are not distinguishable  
 111 for player  $p$ , the statistics we need satisfy the following equation:

$$T(I) = \sum_{h_i \in I} w_i T(h_i)$$

112 where  $T(I)$  is some statistics for  $I$  and  $T_i(h_i)$  are the corresponding statistics for  $h_i$ .

113 Moreover, for any history  $h$ , the statistics we need satisfy that

$$T(h) = \sum_{a \in A(h)} w_a T((h, a))$$

114 where  $a$  is a valid action on info set  $I$ , and  $T_a$  is the corresponding statistics for  $(h, a)$ .

115 It's a natural assumption for hierarchical structures like extensive games and several commonly used  
 116 statistics to solve the imperfect information game follow this assumption, e.g. the reaching probability  
 117  $\pi_\sigma(I)$  and utility  $u(\sigma, I)$ <sup>3</sup>. Under this assumption, we will further show that either traversing the  
 118 monolithic game tree or traversing the public tree will give us the same statistics we want.

119 **Corollary 1** (Invariance). Under Assumption 1, the statistics we get from traversing and back  
 120 propagate the game tree and public tree will be the same.

121 *Proof.* We proof this corollary with mathematical induction.

122 First it's obvious that for the terminal nodes of public tree, the statistics from both methods are the  
 123 same. Then for the non-terminal node  $I$ , if its children holds the invariance property, then with back  
 124 propagation,

$$T(I) = \sum_{a \in A(I)} w_a T(I, a) = \sum_{a \in A(I)} w_a \sum_{h_i \in I} w_i T((h_i, a)) = \sum_{h_i \in I} w_i T(h_i).$$

125 The second equation holds due to  $(h_i, a) \in (I, a)$ , and the last equation holds due to the sum operator  
 126 is exchangeable and our assumption. As the terminal nodes of public tree hold the invariance property,  
 127 all of the nodes in public tree hold the invariance property.  $\square$

128 As the statistics we collect and back propagate in the public tree are always the same, we need only  
 129 traverse the public tree, and enumerate all distinguishable states at the terminal node, then back  
 130 propagate the statistics we need on the public tree, which validates our methods.

### 131 3.2 Two-phase operation aggregation

132 In our method, the first-phase, vectorization, aggregates the scalar operations into vector operations  
 133 to exploit the parallel computing power. The second-phase, BLAS replacement, extracts the sharing  
 134 parts from different vector operations, then adopts the BLAS subroutine to replace them.

135 Given the invariance property, we aggregate operations to perform efficiently on GPU. Specifically,  
 136 Counterfactual Regret Minimization (CFR) algorithm is used to solve the imperfect information  
 137 extensive game, the pseudo code is presented in Alg.1. We use a small game as the example to  
 138 demonstrate the detail of vectorization, the game tree and public tree is shown in Fig. 2. At the  
 139 beginning of the game, each player gets a private card. The value of the private card is only known to  
 140 the player himself. Then on each round, each player has two valid actions, quit or bid. Quit will end  
 141 the game immediately and lose 1 point, bid will continue the game. Note that, all those actions are  
 142 visible to all players. At the end of the game, whoever has the higher face value of the private card  
 143 wins the game. The winner gets 2 points, and the opponent loses 2 points.

#### 144 3.2.1 Vectorization

145 The right part of Fig. 2 demonstrate the public tree. The public tree represents the game process in  
 146 the perspective of the audience, who only knows the public actions. Since the private cards of player0

<sup>3</sup>Notice that  $\pi_\sigma(I) = \sum_{h_i \in I} \pi_\sigma(h_i)$  and  $u(\sigma, I) = \sum_{h_i \in I} \pi_\sigma(h_i) u(\sigma, h_i)$

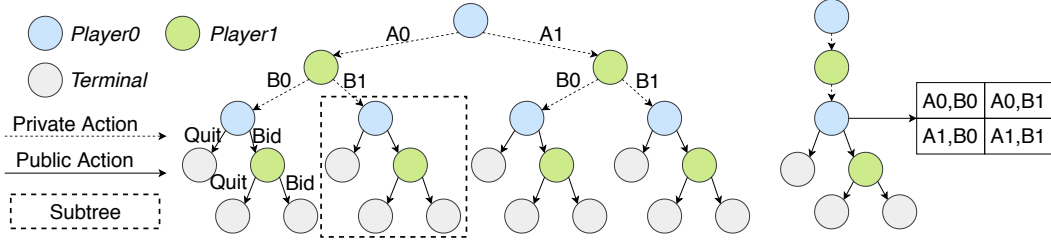


Figure 2: The game tree and public Tree

147 and player1 are invisible for the audience, all possible states are indistinguishable for the audience.  
 148 Thus, after each player gets their private cards, each node in the public tree indicates for four states,  
 149 namely the state matrix. And different sub-trees in the game tree are merged into a single sub-tree in  
 150 the public tree.

151 After the private card is deal, each node on the public tree maintains the reaching probability and  
 152 counterfactual value matrix instead of a scalar. Be specific, the update of the reaching probability  
 153 for each player is performed by multiply the old value with the strategy for current node. From the  
 154 perspective of player0, he is not able to distinguish states inside same row of the state matrix, so  
 155 his strategy for states in the same row remains the same. It makes it possible to use a single vector  
 156 operation to replace several scalar operations. In the same manner, scalar operations performed in  
 157 line 6 to line 11 in Alg. 1 are all replaced by equivalence vector operations.

### 158 3.2.2 BLAS Replacement

159 Based on the vectorization, we further aggregate the vector dot product operations into BLAS matrix  
 160 multiplication. The BLAS are routines that provide standard building blocks for performing the  
 161 fundamental linear algebra operations. Due to the universality of BLAS operations, various hardware  
 162 provides extra computing units to performs the BLAS operations. For example, modern GPU adopts  
 163 the Tensor Core to accelerate those large matrix operations. It is able to perform mixed-precision  
 164 matrix multiply and accumulate calculations in a single operation.

165 As shown in Fig. 2, each node in the public tree indicates for a matrix, where each element of  
 166 the matrix is a state. Since each terminal state is mapped to a reward by the utility function, each  
 167 terminal node of the public tree has a utility matrix. In most two player zero sum extensive games,  
 168 for a subgame, all the utility matrix can be decomposed into a scalar multiplied by a symbol matrix  
 169 (assume that positive means player0 wins, and negative means player1 wins). For example, in Fig. 2,  
 170 terminal nodes of the subtree (framed by the dotted line) share a same symbol matrix. Because all  
 171 cards are dealt, nodes in that subtree only differs by the total ante on the table. Thus we have the  
 172 following equation.

$$173 \quad \langle reaching\_prob \cdot utility\_matrix \rangle = \langle reaching\_prob \cdot (ante * symbol\_matrix) \rangle \quad (1)$$

$$= \langle (reaching\_prob * ante) \cdot symbol\_matrix \rangle \quad (2)$$

174 Line 12 and 13 in the Alg.1 perform a dot product between the utility matrix and the reaching  
 175 probability vector, then feed the result to the regret matching subroutine. They can be delayed until  
 176 the entire subtree for the subgame is traversed. Based on Eq. 3.2.2, those delayed vector-matrix  
 177 multiplication can be replaced by a matrix-matrix multiplication, which can be efficiently processed  
 178 by the BLAS operations.

## 179 4 Evaluation

180 In this section, we evaluate the performance of our method by running CFR to solve bluff and  
 181 heads-up flop hold'em poker. We use exploitability to measure the strength of the obtained strategy.  
 182 The exploitability of a strategy is how much utility it will lost when playing with an optimal opponent,  
 183 which is used to measure the strength of a strategy[Johanson *et al.*, 2011]. Our aggregated execution  
 184 plan (running on GPU, namely GPU aggregated) is compared with the serial (CPU serial) and  
 185 flattened (GPU flattened) execution plans.

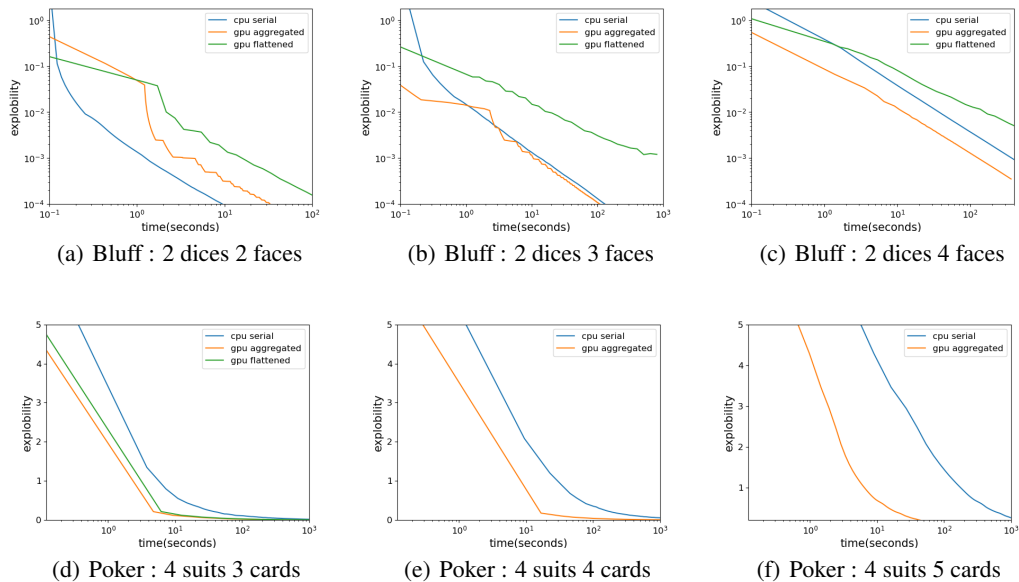


Figure 3: Convergence of different execution plan on different game and size.

186 The experiment result is shown Fig. 3. In general, the acceleration of GPU version over CPU version  
 187 increases as game size becomes larger. On small scale games, like 2 dices and 2 faces of the bluff  
 188 game, CPU serial version performs best. The reason is that the kernel launch will lead to extra time  
 189 consuming and the clock speed of the GPU is much lower than the clock speed of the CPU.

190 As the game grows in size, the number of states in each node of the public tree is getting bigger.  
 191 Operations on those states can be performed in parallel on the GPU. The execution plan who has  
 192 higher parallelism, e.g. the GPU flattened and GPU aggregated, runs much faster than the CPU serial.  
 193 However, the GPU flattened execution plan needs to expand the entire game tree before traverse  
 194 it, which consumes too much memory space. Thus, it failed on the heads-up flop hold'em poker  
 195 when the game size is bigger than 4 suits 3 card. GPU aggregated obtains additional performance  
 196 acceleration by the BLAS replacement, so it consumes less time then the GPU flatten.

	Serial	Flattened	Aggregation	Speedup
2 dices 2 numbers	0.00038	0.00090	0.00138	0.27
2 dices 3 numbers	0.00487	0.00374	0.00414	1.17
2 dices 4 numbers	0.13489	0.03229	0.04663	2.89
4 suits 3 cards	0.427	0.061	0.044	9.7
4 suits 4 cards	2.369	-	0.165	14.35
4 suits 5 cards	15.151	-	0.481	31.49

Table 1: The running time (in seconds) and the speedup of aggregated to serial. All measured in a single round.

## 197 5 Conclusion and Future Work

198 In this paper, we show that those naturally un-paralleled tasks, e.g. solving extensive game, can be  
 199 executed in parallel on GPU by operation aggregation. We propose a novel two-phase aggregation  
 200 procedure which is based on the algorithm's computation pattern and the operations character. Thus  
 201 this procedure is independent with the implementation and transparent to algorithm researchers.  
 202 The experiment result shown that after the operation aggregation, the algorithm runs tens of times  
 203 faster than before. And as the size of the game continues to increase, there is room for further  
 204 improvement in the speedup. Future work will focus on combining this operation aggregation  
 205 procedure with modern CFR variants to further improve the efficiency, while extend this work to  
 206 real-world large-scale applications.

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230 **A Definition and Notation**

231 We present the extensive game and Counterfactual Regret Minimization algorithm to introduce  
 232 concepts and notations used in our paper.

233 **A.1 Extensive Games with Imperfect Information**

234 Extensive game is a standard framework to describe the sequential decision-making problem with  
 235 multiple agents. We here firstly define an extensive game formally, introducing the notation we use  
 236 throughout the paper.

237 Formally, an extensive game has the following components [Osborne and Rubinstein, 1994]: a  
 238 finite player set  $N$ ; a chance player  $c$ . Chance player is introduced to handle the uncertainty in the  
 239 environment; a finite set  $H$  of sequence, each member of  $H$  is a history, which is an action sequence  
 240 taken by the players (including chance player),  $A(h) = \{a : (h, a) \in H\}$  are the available actions  
 241 after a non-terminal history. The empty sequence is in  $H$  and every prefix of a non-empty sequence  
 242 in  $H$  is also in  $H$ .  $Z \subseteq H$  denote the terminal history set, each of its elements is not a prefix of any  
 243 other sequences; a function  $P$  that assigns to each non-terminal history (each member of  $H \setminus Z$ ) a  
 244 member of  $N \cup \{c\}$ .  $P$  is the player function,  $P(h)$  being the player who takes an action after the  
 245 history  $h$ . If  $P(h) = c$  then chance player determines the action taken after the history  $h$ ; the utility  
 246 functions  $u_i$  for each player  $i \in N$  that mapping the terminal states  $Z$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ .

247 Notice that extensive games can be represented with the tree structure due to the hierarchical nature  
 248 of history set  $H$ . Each node on the this tree, namely a state  $s$ , corresponds to a history  $h$ <sup>4</sup>, and each  
 249 edge starts from a certain node represents for a valid action under the corresponding state. In this  
 250 paper, we use the term *game tree* to denote such tree structure.

251 In an extensive game, players select the action with their strategy i.e. a probability simplex over  
 252 available actions given their private information. Formally, a strategy of player  $i$  is a function  $\sigma^i$   
 253 which assigns  $h$  a distribution over  $A(h)$  if  $P(h) = i$ . A strategy profile  $\sigma$  consists of the strategy for  
 254 each player, i.e.  $\sigma^1, \dots, \sigma^N$ . We'll use  $\sigma^{-i}$  to denote all the strategies except  $\sigma^i$ .

255 In games with imperfect information, actions of other players are partially observable to a player  
 256  $i \in [N]$ . So for player  $i$ , the game tree can be partitioned into disjoint infosets,  $\mathcal{I}^i$ . That is, two  
 257 histories  $h, h' \in I \in \mathcal{I}^i$  are not distinguishable to player  $i$ . Thus,  $\sigma_i$  should assign the same  
 258 distribution over actions to all histories in an infoset  $I \in \mathcal{I}^i$ . So that, with little abuse of notations,  
 259 we let  $\sigma^i(I)$  denote the strategy of player  $i$  on infoset  $I \in \mathcal{I}^i$ .

260 For better understanding of infoset, here we introduce an intuitive example that, in Poker games, each  
 261 player is only able to see his own private cards and all played public cards, while the private card of  
 262 the opponent player is invisible to him. Thus the player can only make decision with his private card  
 263 and all played public cards.

264 Moreover, let  $\pi_\sigma(h)$  denote the probability of arriving at a history  $h$  if the players take actions  
 265 according to strategy  $\sigma$ . Obviously, we can decompose  $\pi_\sigma(h)$  into the product of each player's  
 266 contribution, i.e.,  $\pi_\sigma(h) = \prod_{[N] \cup \{c\}} \pi_\sigma^i(h)$ . Similarly, we can define  $\pi_\sigma(I) = \sum_{h \in I} \pi_\sigma(h)$  as the  
 267 probability of arriving at an infoset  $I$  and  $\pi_\sigma^i(I)$  denote the corresponding contribution of player  $i$ .  
 268 Let  $\pi_\sigma^{-i}(h), \pi_\sigma^{-i}(I)$  denote the product of the contributions of all players except player  $i$ .

269 **A.2 Counterfactual Regret Minimization**

270 Counterfactual regret minimization (CFR) is now the state-of-the-art algorithm for solving extensive  
 271 games with imperfect information. We first introduce the concept of regret for player  $i$ , which is  
 272 defined as:

$$R_T^i := \max_{\sigma^i} R_T^i(\sigma^i) := \sum_{t=1}^T u^i(\sigma^i, \sigma_t^{-i}) - \sum_{t=1}^T u^i(\sigma_t^i, \sigma_t^{-i})$$

273 Counterfactual regret minimization works based on the observation that, the time-averaged strategy  
 274  $\bar{\sigma}_T^i(I) = \frac{\sum_t \pi_{\sigma_t^i}(I) \sigma_t^i(I)}{\sum_t \pi_{\sigma_t^i}(I)}$  achieves  $\epsilon$ -NE if  $\frac{1}{T} R_T^i < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ , which is the objective of solving extensive

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<sup>4</sup>Unless otherwise specified, the term *state* denotes the node on the game tree in this paper.



275 games. Directly apply regret minimization algorithms need to deal with trajectories, which is  
 276 exponential in state number. [Zinkevich *et al.*, 2008] bounded the original regret by the summation of  
 277 immediate regret:

$$R_T^i < \frac{1}{T} \sum_t \sum_{I \in \mathcal{I}^i} \pi_{\sigma_t}^{-i}(I) (u^i(\sigma_t|_{I \rightarrow \sigma(I)}, I) - u^i(\sigma_t, I)),$$

278 where  $\sigma_t|_{I \rightarrow \sigma(I)}$  is the strategy which selects action according to  $\sigma$  at infoset  $I$  and according to  
 279  $\sigma_t$  at other infoset. Then CFR use a standard regret minimization algorithm called *regret matching*  
 280 to minimize this upper bound. Notice that to calculate the counterfactual regret and apply regret  
 281 matching, we need to traverse the whole game tree, which is still time-consuming and hard to execute  
 282 in parallel.