Abstract—We present the design of a competitive artificial intelligence for Scopone, a popular Italian card game. We compare rule-based players using the most established strategies (one for beginners and two for advanced players) against players using Monte Carlo Tree Search (MCTS) and Information Set Monte Carlo Tree Search (ISMCTS) with different reward functions and simulation strategies. MCTS requires complete information about the game state and thus implements a cheating player while ISMCTS can deal with incomplete information and thus implements a fair player. Our results show that, as expected, the cheating MCTS outperforms all the other strategies; ISMCTS is stronger than all the rule-based players implementing well-known and most advanced strategies and it also turns out to be a challenging opponent for human players.

I. INTRODUCTION

Scopone is a popular Italian card game whose origins date back to (at least) 1700s. Originally, the game was played by poorly educated people and as any other card game in Italy at the time was hindered by authority. Later, being considered intellectually challenging, the game spread among highly educated people and high rank politicians\(^1\) achieving, nowadays, a vast popularity and a reputation similar to Bridge (for which it is often referred to as Scopone Scientifico, that is, Scientific Scopone). The first known book about Scopone was published in 1750 by Chitarella \(^2\) and contained both the rules of the game and a compendium of strategy rules for advanced players. Unfortunately, there are no copies available of the original book and the eldest reprint is from 1937. The first original book about Scopone, that is still available, was written by Capecelatro in 1855, “Del giuoco dello Scopone”.\(^2\) At that time, Capecelatro wrote that the game was known by 3-4 generations, therefore it might have been born in the eighteenth century; however several historians argue that Scopone was known centuries before Chitarella \[^2\]. Although dated, the rules by Chitarella \[^1\] are still considered the main and most important strategy guide for Scopone; only recently Saracino \[^2\], a professional bridge player, proposed additional rules to extend the original strategy \[^1\]. The second most important strategy book was written by Cicuti and Guardamagna \[^3\] who enriched \[^2\] by introducing advanced rules regarding the play of sevens.

In this paper, we present the design of a competitive artificial intelligence for Scopone and we compare the performance of three rule-based players that implement well-established playing strategies against players based on Monte Carlo Tree Search (MCTS) \[^4\] and Information Set Monte Carlo Tree Search (ISMCTS) \[^5\]. The first rule-based player implements the basic greedy strategy taught to beginner players; the second one implements Chitarella’s rules \[^1\] with the additional rules introduced by Saracino \[^2\], and represents the most fundamental and advanced strategy for the game; the third rule-based player extends the previous approach with the additional rules introduced in \[^3\]. MCTS requires the full knowledge of the game state (that is, of the cards of all the players) and thus, by implementing a cheating player, it provides an upper bound to the performance achievable with this class of methods. ISMCTS can deal with incomplete information and thus implements a fair player. For both approaches, we evaluated different reward functions and simulation strategies. We performed a set of experiments to select the best rule-based player and the best configuration for MCTS and ISMCTS. Then, we performed a tournament among the three selected players and also an experiment involving humans. Our results show that the cheating MCTS player outperforms all the other strategies while the fair ISMCTS player outperforms all the rule-based players that implement the best known and most studied advanced strategy for Scopone. The experiment involving human players suggests that ISMCTS might be more challenging than traditional strategies.

II. MONTE CARLO TREE SEARCH

Monte Carlo Tree Search (MCTS) identifies a family of decision tree search algorithms that has been successfully applied to a wide variety of games \[^6\] ranging from classic board games \[^7\], \[^8\], modern board games or Eurogames\(^3\) \[^9\], \[^10\], video games \[^11\], \[^12\], General Video Game Playing \[^13\], \[^14\], \[^15\], and card games \[^16\], \[^17\], \[^18\], \[^5\].

MCTS algorithms iteratively build partial and asymmetric decision trees by performing several random simulations. The basic MCTS algorithm comprises four steps: (i) selection, (ii) expansion, (iii) simulation, and (iv) backpropagation.

Selection: a tree policy is used to descend the current search tree by selecting the most urgent node to explore until either a leaf (representing a terminal state) or a not fully expanded node is reached; the tree policy typically uses the Upper Confidence Bound for Trees (UCB1 for Trees or UCT) \[^19\].

---

\(^{1}\)E.g., http://tinyurl.com/ThePresidentAndScopone

\(^{2}\)http://tinyurl.com/Scopone

\(^{3}\)https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Eurogame
[20] to descend the child node that maximizes the UCT value computed as,

\[
UCT(v') = \frac{Q(v')}{N(v')} + c \sqrt{\frac{2 \ln N(v)}{N(v')}}
\]  

(1)

where \(v\) is the parent node, \(v'\) is a child node, \(N(v)\) is the number of times \(v\) (the parent of \(v'\)) has been visited, \(N(v')\) is the number of times the child node \(v'\) is visited, \(Q(v')\) is the total reward of all playouts that passed through \(v'\), and \(c > 0\) is a constant that controls the amount of exploration.

**Expansion:** if the node does not represent a terminal state, then one or more child nodes are added to expand the tree. A child node represents a state reached by applying an available action to the current state.

**Simulation:** a simulation is run from the current position in the tree to evaluate the game outcome by following a default policy (typically random); this results in a reward computed according to a reward function.

**Backpropagation:** the reward received is finally backpropagated to the nodes visited during selection and expansion to update their statistics.

Cowling et al. [5], [21] introduced Information Set Monte Carlo Tree Search (ISMCTS) to extend MCTS to decisions with imperfect information about the game state and performed actions. ISMCTS builds asymmetric search trees of information sets containing game states that are indistinguishable from the player’s point of view. Each node represents an information set from the root player’s point of view and arcs correspond to moves played by the corresponding player. The outgoing arcs from an opponent’s node represent the union of all moves available in every state within that information set, because the player cannot know the moves that are really available to the opponent. The selection step is changed because the probability distribution of moves is not uniform and a move may be available only in fewer states of the same information set. Thus, at the beginning of each iteration, a determinization is sampled from the root information set and the following steps of the iteration are restricted to regions that are consistent with that determinization. The probability of a move being available for selection on a given iteration is precisely the probability of sampling a determinization in which that move is available. The set of moves available at an opponent’s node can differ between visits to that node, hence UCT (Eq. 1) is modified as [21],

\[
ISUCT(v') = \frac{Q(v')}{N(v')} + c \sqrt{\frac{\ln N'(v')}{N(v')}}
\]  

(2)

where \(N'(v')\) is the number of times the current node \(v\) (the parent of \(v'\)) has been visited and node \(v'\) was available for selection. Cowling et al. [5], [21] introduced three ISMCTS algorithms: Single-Observer ISMCTS (SO-ISMCTS) deals with problems involving partial information about the current state; SO-ISMCTS With Partially Observable Moves (SO-ISMCTS+POM) extends SO-ISMCTS to the case of partially observable moves; Multiple-Observer ISMCTS (MO-ISMCTS) improves opponents modeling by maintaining separate trees for each player searching them simultaneously.

### III. Related Work

Card games are challenging testbeds for artificial intelligence algorithms involving computationally complex tasks [22], imperfect information, and multi-player interactions. Poker has been extensively studied in this context with an annual competition run since 2006 at AAAI. In addition to imperfect information and non-cooperative multi-playing, the central element in Poker is the psychological factor of the bluff.

During the 2017 competition, Brown and Sandholm’s Libratus [23], [24] (the successor of Claudico [25]) has achieved an historical result by beating four top-class human poker players. Rubin and Watson [26] provide a recent overview of the field. More information is available in proceedings of the Computer Poker and Imperfect Information Games workshop that is held during the annual competition [27], [28].

Bridge also provided many ideas for research in this field [29] with a Computer Bridge championship running since 1997. In the early ‘80s Throop et al. [30] developed the first version of Bridge Baron which used a planning technique called hierarchical task network (HTN) [31], based on the decomposition of tasks [31]. In 1999, Ginsberg et al. [32] developed a program called GIB (Ginsberg’s Intelligent Bridgeplayer), which won the world championship of computer bridge in 2000. Over the years, stronger players have been developed including Jack6 and Wbridge5; a short survey of some of these programs is available in [33].

Mahjong has also been used as a testbed. In 2009, Wan Jing Loh [34] developed an artificial intelligence to play Mahjong. More recently, Mizukami and Tsuruoka [35] developed an approach to build a Mahjong program that models opponent players and performs Monte Carlo simulations with the models. Their program achieved a rating that was significantly higher than that of the average human players.

Monte Carlo Tree Search (MCTS) attracted the interest of researchers in this area due to the results obtained with Go [7]. However, MCTS cannot deal with imperfect information, therefore it requires the integration with other techniques to play typical card games. For example, Ponsen et al. [16] integrated MCTS with a Bayesian classifier, which is used to model the behavior of the opponents, to develop a Texas Hold’em Poker player. The Bayesian classifier is able to predict both the cards and the actions of the other players. Ponsen’s program was stronger than rule-based artificial intelligence, but weaker than the program Poki [36]. In 2011, Nijssen and Winands [9] used MCTS in the artificial intelligence of the board game Scotland Yard. In this game the players have to reach with their pawns a player who is hiding on a graph-based map. The escaping player shows his position at fixed intervals, the only information that the

---

4http://www.computerpokercompetition.org
5https://bridgerobotchampionship.wordpress.com/
6http://www.jackbridge.com/
7http://www.wbridge5.com/
other players can access is the type of location (called station) where they can find the hiding player. In this case, MCTS was integrated with Location Categorization, a technique which provides a good prediction on the position of the hiding player. Nijssen and Winands showed that their program was stronger than the artificial intelligence of the game Scotland Yard for Nintendo DS, considered to be one of the strongest player. Whitehouse et al. [21] analyzed the strengths and weaknesses of determinization coupled with MCTS on Dou Di Zhu, a popular Chinese card game of imperfect information, and introduced Information Set UCT.

In 2012, Cowling et al. [18] applied MCTS with determinization approaches on a simplified variant of the game Magic: The Gathering. They later extended the approach [5] and introduced Information Set Monte Carlo Tree Search (ISMCTS) an extension of MCTS to games with partial information on the user state and/or on the users’ actions. Cowling et al. [37], [38] applied ISMCTS to the design of an artificial intelligence for Spades, a four players card game. The program demonstrated excellent performance in terms of computing time. Sephton et al. [39] investigated move pruning in Lords of War and later compared different selection mechanisms for MCTS to produce more entertaining opponents in the same game. Robilliard et al. [40] applied MCTS using determinization to 7 Wonders a well-known card game involving partially observable information, multiplayer interactions, and stochastic outcomes. They showed convincing results, both against a human designed rule-based artificial player and against experienced human players. Cowling et al. [41] extended MCTS with mechanisms for performing inference and bluffing and tested the algorithm on The Resistance, a card game based around hidden roles.

Recently, Walton-Rivers et al. [17] studied agent modeling in the card game Hanabi and compared rule-based players with an ISMCTS player, which showed poor performance. Accordingly they developed a predictor player using a model of the players with which it is paired and show significant improvement in game-playing performance in comparison to ISMCTS. Canezave [42] developed ILLUSION, a Phantom Go player for a 9x9 board, that uses Monte-Carlo simulations to reach the level of experienced Go players who only played few Phantom Go games. Later, Borsboom et al. [43] presented a rather comprehensive comparison of several Monte-Carlo based players for Phantom Go using both simulation and tree-search. Ciancarini and Favini [44] compared the best available minimax-based Kriegspiel (or invisible chess) program to three MCTS approaches. Their results show better performance with less domain-specific knowledge. Recently, Wang et al. [45] presented an extension of Monte Carlo Tree Search in which nodes are belief states. The Belief-State MCTS (BS-MCTS) has an additional initial sampling step and uses belief states also during selection and when the opponent strategy is considered.

### IV. Scopone

In this section, we provide a brief overview of the rules of Scopone and refer the reader to [1], [2] for a detailed description and playing strategies.

#### A. Cards

Scopone is played with the traditional Italian deck composed by 40 cards, divided in four suits (coins or Denari, swords or Spade, cups or Coppe, and batons or Bastoni). Each suit contains, in increasing order, an ace (or one), numbers two through seven, and three face cards: the knave (Fante or eight); the horse (Cavallo or nine) or mistress (Donna or nine); and the king (Re or ten). The deck is not internationally well-known as the 52 cards French deck, probably because each region of Italy has its own cards style. Accordingly, an official deck (Figure 1) that merges the Italian and French suits was later introduced (Figure 1) in which coins correspond to diamonds (♦), swords to spades (♠), cups to hearts (♥), and batons to clubs (♣).

#### B. Game Rules

Scopone is played by four players divided into two teams. The players are positioned in the typical North-East-South-West positions and teammates are in front of each other. At the right of the dealer there is the eldest hand (in Italian “primo di mano”), followed by the dealer’s teammate and then by the third hand. The team of the dealer is called deck team, whereas the other is called hand team. A game consists of one or more matches and each match consists of nine rounds; a game ends when a team reaches a target score (either 11, 16, 21 or 31). If both the teams reach the target score, then the game continues until one team scores more than the other one.

#### C. Cards Distribution

Initially, the dealer is randomly chosen through some procedure, because being the last player to play has some advantages [1]. At the beginning of each match, the dealer shuffles the deck and offers it to the third hand for cutting. Then, it deals the cards counterclockwise three by three, starting with the dealer's teammate. After this, the other three players receive three cards each from the deck. Afterwards, the cards are distributed in four suits as follows: the dealer and his teammate receive a suit each, starting with clubs, while the other two receive a suit each, starting with diamonds. The first card of each suit is discarded (not considered in the deck), and the remaining cards are distributed to the players starting with the dealer through the third hand.

---

8 [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hanabi_(card_game)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hanabi_(card_game))
eldest hand (the person to the right of the dealer), for a total of nine cards for each player. The dealer must not reveal the cards, if this happens it must repeat the process. During the first distributions, the dealer also leaves twice on the table a pair of face-up cards, for a total of four cards. If at the end of the distribution on the table there are three kings, the dealer must repeat the process. At the end of the distribution the table looks like in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Initial configuration of a match. Each player holds nine cards and there are four cards on the table.

D. Gameplay

A match consists of nine rounds in which each player draws one card and potentially captures some of the cards on the table; accordingly, a round consists of four players’ turns and a match consists of 36 turns. The eldest hand plays first, then it is the turn of the dealer’s teammate and so on counterclockwise. At each turn the player must play a card from his hand. The chosen card can either be placed on the table or capture one or more cards from the table. A capture is made by matching a card in the player’s hand to a card of the same value on the table, or if that is not possible, by matching a card in the player’s hand to the sum of the values of two or more cards on the table. In both cases, both the card from the player’s hand and the captured card(s) are removed and placed face down in a pile in front of the player. Teammates usually share the same pile that is placed in front of one of them. These cards are now out of play until the end of the match when scores are calculated. For example, in Figure 2, the player may choose to place on the table the 3♠ or capture the 3♠ with 3♦ or capture the 3♠ and 5♦ with the 7♥. Note that it is not legal to place on the table a card that has the ability to capture: in Figure 2, the player cannot place on the table the Q♢, because it can capture the Q♠. In case the played card may capture either one or more cards, the player is forced to capture only the single card. For example, in Figure 2, the Q♢ cannot capture the 4♣ and 5♦ because it is forced to capture the Q♠. When the played card may capture multiple cards with different combinations, the player selects the combination she prefers. When a capture removes all the cards on the table, the player has completed a *scopa*, gaining one point, and the card from the player’s hand is placed face up under the player’s pile in order to take it into account when the scores are calculated; note that, at the last turn, *scopa* is not allowed. This move is called *scopa* (in Italian it means *broom*) because all the cards in the table are swept by the played card. At the end of the match, when all the nine rounds have been completed, all cards that are still on the table go to the last player who did a capturing move.

E. Scoring

When the match ends, the score of each team is calculated and added to the team overall game score. There are five ways to gain points: (i) *Scopa*, one point is awarded for each scopa; (ii) *Cards*, the team who captured the largest number of cards receives one point; (iii) *Coins*, the team who captured the largest number of cards in the suit of coins gets one point; (iv) *Settebello*, the team who captured the seven of coins gets one point; (v) *Primiera*, the team who obtained the highest *prime* gets one point. The prime for each team is determined by selecting the team’s best card in each of the four suits, and summing those four cards’ point values. Table I shows the cards’ values used in this calculation. If a team has no cards in a suit, the point is awarded to the opponents, even if they have a minor sum.

The four points awarded with *Cards, Coins, Settebello, and Primiera* are called *deck points*. Note that, for both *Cards, Coins, and Primiera*, in case of a tie, the point is not assigned. Table II shows an example of a round’s scores calculation. The hand team’s primiera is calculated on the cards 7♦ 7♠ 5♦ 7♠ (21 + 21 + 15 + 21 = 78), whereas the deck team’s primiera is calculated on the cards 6♦ 6♠ 7♥ A♣ (18 + 18 + 21 + 16 = 73).

| Rank | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | J | Q | K |
|------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Value | 21 | 18 | 16 | 15 | 14 | 13 | 12 | 10 | 10 |

Table I: Cards values for the calculation of primiera.

Table II: Example of scores calculation. Table (a) shows the cards in the pile of each team at the end of a match. Table (b) shows the points of each team and the final scores.
V. RULE-BASED PLAYERS FOR SCOPONE

We developed three rule-based artificial players (Greedy, Chitarrella-Saracino, and Cicuti-Guardamagna) implementing strategies of increasing complexity taken from the most important Scopone strategy books [3], [2]. The first one implements the basic strategy taught to beginners and, at each turn, tries to perform the best capture available or it plays the least valuable card if a capture is not available. The second one encodes a union of the rules written by Chitarrella and Saracino as reported in [2], therefore it implements an expert strategy. The third one encodes the rules written by Cicuti and Guardamagna [3] that extend [2] by introducing additional rules to handle of sevens.

A. Greedy Strategy

The greedy strategy implements a beginner player using the basic rules of the game and whenever possible it captures the most important cards available, otherwise it plays the least important ones. We defined card importance using a modified version of the cards’ values for the primiera (Section IV) which ensures that the greedy player will try (i) to achieve the highest possible primiera score and to capture the $7\spillo$ which alone gets one point for the settebello; (ii) to capture as many coins cards as possible to get the coin point. The greedy player has a specific strategy to gain scopa points that tries (i) to block the opponents from doing a scopa; (ii) to decide whether to force or not the scopa when it is possible. To deal with the former objective, the greedy player gives a higher priority to the moves that do not leave on the table a combination of cards which could be captured by a card that is still in play (but it is in the hand of another player which is unknown to the greedy player). With respect to the latter issue, a scopa move is never forced since often it may be better to skip it in favor of the capture of some important cards (e.g., coin cards, primiera cards). However, even if not explicitly forced, a scopa move is usually performed as a defensive move not to leave on a table a combination of cards that might allow a scopa by the opponent players.

B. Chitarrella-Saracino Strategy

The Chitarrella-Saracino (CS) strategy aims to behave like an expert player. It implements the 44 rules of Chitarrella and the most important playing strategies from the 110 advices contained in the book by Saracino [2], that have been summarized in [46]. In the following, we summarize the main aspects of the strategy, the detailed description of all the rules with the pseudo-code is available in [47].

Basic Rules. Scopone players are not allowed to speak and players have only the information they can gather from the cards that the other players have drawn. Accordingly, Chitarrella and Saracino [2] include basic strategies to deal with the selection of the card to draw when little or no information is available. Examples of such rules include, (i) in general, when it is possible to capture some cards, one has to do it; (ii) if it is not possible, one has to play a double card, i.e. a card of which one also holds another card of the same rank; (iii) if the opponent captures such double card, and the teammate has the other card of the same rank, the player’s teammate must play the double card in order to create the mulinello on that card (in fact, the player is the only one who can capture the card played by the teammate, since the other two were captured by the opponent).

Spariglio (decoupling in English) is one of the most important aspects of Scopone and consists in playing a card that matches to the sum of the values of two or more cards on the table. For example, if we capture 3 and 2 with 5, then we did the spariglio $3 + 2 = 5$. Each card rank appears four times in the deck therefore, at the beginning of a match, all the cards are coupled, in the sense that, by doing moves not involving the spariglio, each card is taken by its copy until there are no more cards on the table at the end of the round. This advantages the deck team, because they always play after the opponents and also simplifies the choice of which cards to play. When a player does a spariglio move, the involved cards that were coupled, or even, will become decoupled. Conversely, the involved cards that were decoupled, or odd, will return coupled. Spariglio moves make the selection of the best move more complex as the number of available options dramatically increases and, for human players, it makes more difficult to remember what cards have been played and what cards remain [2]. An example of rules by Chitarrella and Saracino [2] for spariglio include: the hand team should play the last decoupled card of the highest rank, this will limit the capturing options of the dealer who play last in the round;

Mulinello (eddy in English) is a play combination in which two players continuously capture while their opponents are forced to draw cards without performing any capture. Mulinello often happens at the beginning of the match, when the eldest hand can do a good capture on the four cards on the table. For example, let us assume that the table is $1\spillo 3\spillo 3\spillo 6\spillo$. The eldest hand, who has another 3 in her hand, captures $1\spillo 3\spillo 6\spillo$ with $K\spillo$, challenging the fourth 3 because it holds the other one. The dealer’s teammate, to avoid a scopa, plays $Q\spillo$ that the third hand captures with $Q\spillo$. The dealer follows the teammate and plays $Q\spillo$ that is captured by the eldest hand with $Q\spillo$, and so on; mulinello often happens when the deck team does not have double or triple cards. An example of strategic rules for mulinello [2] is: if it is possible to do the mulinello either on a low-rank or face card, then the hand team must always prefer to do it on the low-rank card.

The play of sevens is very important as 7s count both for the primiera and the settebello points. Accordingly, Scopone is mostly played around these cards that hence deserve special rules. Examples of rules devoted to the sevens include: (i) the dealer’s teammate must always capture the 7 played either by the dealer or by the opponents; (ii) when the dealer’s teammate has the chance to capture a 7 on the table or do a spariglio involving it, e.g. $7 + 1 = 8$, it must always do the spariglio if it holds only one 7; (iii) if the dealer’s teammate does not hold any 7 and has the chance to capture a 7 on the table with a spariglio, e.g. $7 + 1 = 8$, it must always do it even if it decouples three cards.
Player Modeling. Some of the Chittarella and Saracino rules assume that the player has memorized the cards played so far and based on the action of the players can guess what cards another player may or may not have. For example, if a player did not do a scopa move, we can fairly assume that the card required for the scopa was not in her hand; or if a player to capture a card did not use a coin seed, we can assume she does not have the corresponding coin card. Accordingly, we implemented a card guessing module that memorizes all the cards played by each player and estimates what card may and may not be available to each player. The estimates are updated every time a player performs a move.

C. Cicuti-Guardamagna Strategy

The book of Cicuti and Guardamagna [3] refined the strategy of Saracino [2] by introducing advanced rules regarding the play of sevens [46], [3]. Some of such additional rules include: (i) the player, who holds three 7s with the settebello, must immediately play one of them; (ii) the player, who holds two 7s without the settebello, must play the 7 as late as possible; (iii) the player, who holds the last two 7s with the settebello, if it belongs to the hand team, it must play the settebello while if it belongs to the deck team, it must play the other 7.

VI. MONTE CARLO TREE SEARCH FOR SCOPONE

We evaluated several players for Scopone using MCTS and ISMCTS with different configurations. We started with the basic MCTS algorithm that needs full knowledge of the current game state and thus knows all the cards in the players' hand. This cheating player provided an upper bound of the performance achievable using an MCTS approach. Next, we focused on Information Set Monte Carlo Tree Search that deals with imperfect information and implements a fair player.

A. Basic Monte Carlo Tree Search

In the basic version of the MCTS algorithm for Scopone, each node represents a single state of the game and memorizes: (i) the incoming move, (ii) the visits count, (iii) the total rewards, (iv) the parent node, and (iv) the child nodes. Each state memorizes the list of cards on the table, in the players hands, and the cards captured by each team. It also memorizes the cards that caused a scopa, the last player to move, and the cards captured by each team. It also memorizes the list of cards on the table, in the players hands, and the cards captured by each team. The simulation step the game is played randomly until a terminal state. The backpropagated reward is a vector containing the score of each team. During the selection step, UCT considers only the team's score of the player acting in that node.

B. Basic Information Set Monte Carlo Tree Search

In the basic version of the ISMCTS player for Scopone, each node represents an information set from the root player's point of view. The only additional information required to each node, with respect to MCTS, is the availability count. The ISMCTS algorithm applies the same steps of MCTS, but it uses the ISUCT (Eq. 2). It also creates a determinization of the root state at each iteration by randomizing the cards held by the other players.

C. Reward Function

When a terminal state is reached (a match is ended), a reward function is applied to compute a reward that is then backpropagated to the nodes visited during the selection and expansion steps. In this study, we considered four reward functions: Raw Scores (RS) returns the score of each team as reward; Scores Difference (SD), for each team returns the difference between the score of that team and the opponent team (for example, if the final scores of a game were 4 and 1, the reward for the first team would be 3 and −3 for the other one); Win or Loss (WL) returns a reward of 1 to the winning team, −1 to the other one, and 0 in case of a tie. Positive Win or Loss (PWL) returns a reward of 1 for the winning team and a reward of 0 for the losing team; in case of a tie, both teams receive a reward of 0.5. Note that players using RS and SD will try to achieve the maximum score even if they are going to lose the game, following a more human-like behavior. PWL is similar to WL, but we want to exploit the fact that, for rewards between [0, 1], the optimal UCT constant is known [6].

D. Simulation Strategy

The simulation strategy is responsible to play the moves from a given state until a terminal state. In this study, we considered four simulation strategies. Random Simulation (RS) simulates opponents’ moves by selecting random actions from the ones available in the current state. We also introduced three heuristic strategies which according to previous studies might increase the performance of MCTS approaches [18]. Card Random Simulation (CRS) plays a card at random, but applies the Greedy strategy to decide which capturing move to do in case there are more than one; Greedy Simulation (GS) applies the Greedy strategy (Section V-A); Epsilon-Greedy Simulation (EGS), at each turn, plays at random with probability \( \epsilon \), otherwise it plays the move selected by the Greedy strategy.

E. Determinization with the Cards Guessing System

To reduce the complexity of the ISMCTS tree, we can decrease the number of states within an information set by removing the states that are less likely to happen so that the search will be focused only in the most likely states. Accordingly, in the determinization step of ISMCTS, we integrated the cards guessing system that we designed for the Chitarrella-Saracino strategy (Section V). Therefore, at each iteration of ISMCTS, in the generated determinization each player holds the cards suggested by the cards guessing system.
VII. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

We performed a set of experiments to evaluate all the artificial players we developed for Scopone. At first, we evaluated the game bias towards deck and hand teams using players adopting a random strategy. Next, we performed a set of experiments to determine the best player for each type of artificial intelligence (rule-based, MCTS, and ISMCTS). At the end, we performed a tournament to rank the players selected in the previous steps and an experiment involving human players.

A. Experimental Setup

To provide consistency among different sets of experiments and to reduce the variance of the results, we randomly generated 1000 initial decks (that is, initial game states) using a uniform distribution and used these 1000 decks in all the experiments presented in this paper. Moreover, when using MCTS and ISMCTS, we played each match 10 times to further reduce the variance due to the stochastic nature of the algorithms. In each experiment, first we assigned one artificial intelligence to the hand team and the other one to the deck team, next we repeated the same experiment switching the hand/deck roles, finally we compared the winning rate for each team and the percentage of ties. For each experiment, we report the winning rate for each team and the 95% confidence interval in square brackets.

B. Random Players

As the very first step, we used players following a random strategy for both the hand and deck teams to evaluate how much the game is biased towards one of the roles. The results show that the deck team has an advantage over the hand team, winning 45.7% [45.3 – 46.1] of the matches, while the hand team wins 41.7% [41.3 – 42.1] of the matches and 12.6% [12.4 – 12.8] of the matches end with a tie. Such advantage was known and already mentioned in the historical strategy books [1], [2], but was not estimated quantitatively before. Note however that the reported difference is not statistically significant for a 95% confidence level (p-value is 0.071).

C. Rule-Based Artificial Intelligence

The second set of experiments was aimed at selecting the best rule-based AI among the ones considered in this study (Section V). For this purpose, we performed a tournament between all three rule-based AIs we developed: Greedy, Chitarrella-Saracino (CS), and Ciciuti-Guardiamagna (CG). The greedy strategy behaves like the typical human player who has just been introduced to the game and basically tries to capture as many valuable cards as possible while trying to block scopa moves. CS and CG represent expert players of increasing complexity (CG extends CS with additional rules for the play of sevens). Table III shows the results of the tournament involving 1000 matches played for each showdown (i.e., 1000 matches for each table position); Table IV shows the final scoreboard. Unsurprisingly, the Greedy strategy performs worst, but it turns out to be stronger than one might expect. In fact, the Greedy strategy wins the 39.83% of the games and there is only a difference of about 4% of wins from the other two AIs. Probably, the scopa prevention and the playing of the best move considering only the importance of the cards are sufficient to obtain a good strategy for Scopone. This is also why Scopone is more popular than other card games among young players: in fact, as our results show, a beginner can easily win several games even against more expert players just by applying the basic rules and a rather elementary defensive strategy against opponents’ scopa. Furthermore, we note that when Greedy plays against a Greedy opponent, it ties more matches than against CS and CG (Table IIIc): 17.3% versus 14.7 and 13.6% (although the difference is not statistically significant). This may be explained by the fact that the Greedy strategy seeks to capture as much and as best cards as possible, and this leads to more frequent ties since the points are equally distributed.

The results also show that the CS and CG strategies have

Table III: Tournaments involving the three rule-based players. The hand team is listed in the left column while the deck team is listed at the top. The first table shows the percentage of wins of the hand team, the second table shows the percentage of losses of the hand team, and the third table shows the percentage of ties. The corresponding 95% confidence intervals are reported in square brackets.

| Hand Team/Deck Team | Greedy | CS | CG |
|----------------------|-------|----|----|
| Greedy               | 39.3% [38.9% - 39.7%] | 36.5% [36.1% - 36.9%] | 37.7% [37.3% - 38.1%] |
| CS                   | 46.7% [46.3% - 47.1%] | 38.7% [38.3% - 39.1%] | 37.5% [37.1% - 37.9%] |
| CG                   | 43.7% [43.3% - 44.1%] | 37.9% [37.5% - 38.3%] | 37.3% [36.9% - 37.7%] |

Table IV: Percentage of wins, losses, and ties for each artificial intelligence involved in the final tournament. The corresponding 95% confidence intervals are reported in square brackets.

| AI     | Wins | Losses | Ties |
|--------|------|--------|------|
| CS     | 44.4% [44.1% - 44.7%] | 42.0% [40.9% - 43.1%] | 13.6% [13.2% - 14.0%] |
| CG     | 43.7% [43.3% - 44.3%] | 42.0% [41.7% - 42.3%] | 13.9% [13.5% - 14.2%] |
| Greedy | 39.8% [39.6% - 40.1%] | 45.0% [44.7% - 45.3%] | 15.2% [14.8% - 15.6%] |
almost the same playing strength, they win about the 44% of the games. This was kind of unexpected since CG is supposed to be an improvement over the CS strategy as it adds advanced rules for the play of sevens. These results suggest once more that special rules for the play of sevens might not be needed since CS somehow already handles them. Thus, we selected CS as the best rule-based AI to be used in the final tournament against MCTS and ISMCTS approaches.

### D. Monte Carlo Tree Search

The next set of experiments was aimed at selecting the best setup for the MCTS player that is (i) the UCT constant, (ii) the reward function, and (iii) the simulation strategy. In all the experiments, MCTS played 1000 matches as the hand team and then 1000 matches as the deck team. As usual, 95% confidence intervals are reported in square brackets.

**Upper Confidence Bounds for Trees Constant.** At first, we performed a set of experiments to select the best UCT constant for all the reward functions considered in this work namely, *Win or Loss* (WL), *Positive Win or Loss* (PWL), *Scores Difference* (SD), and *Raw Score* (RS). We compared the performance of MCTS using the four reward functions, 1000 iterations,\(^9\) and different values of the UCT constant (0.1, 0.25, 0.35, 0.5, 0.70, 1.0, 2.0, 4.0, and 8.0) against the Greedy strategy. Figure 3 reports the winning rate as a function of the UCT constant when MCTS plays as (a) the deck team and as (b) the hand team; bars report standard error values. The plots are similar apart from the higher winning rate of the deck teams, which was expected as we already showed that the game has a bias in favor of the deck team. *Raw Score* (RS) is the worst performing reward function and thus we did not include it in the following experiments. When playing as the deck team (Figure 3a), PWL achieved its best performance at 0.35 with a winning rate of 89.8% [87.9 – 91.7] and the difference with the performance for 0.25 and 0.5 is statistically significant; WL between 0.5 and 1.0 with a winning rate of 87.5% [85.5 – 89.5] for 0.7; and SD at 2.0 with 89.0% [87.1 – 90.9]. The results for the hand team (Figure 3b) are similar apart that there is no peak for PWL at 0.35 (75.5% [72.8 – 78.2]) which has a similar performance for 0.50 (76.2% [73.6 – 78.8]); PWL still performs similarly when the UCT constant is set to 0.7 or 1.0 while drops for 0.5.

At the end, for the next experiment, we selected (i) *Scores Difference* (SD) with an UCT constant of 2; (ii) *Win or Loss* (WL) with an UCT constant of 0.7; (iii) *Positive Win or Loss* (PWL) with an UCT constant of 0.35.

**Reward Functions.** Next, we compared the performance of MCTS using the three reward functions using the UCT constants previously selected. Figure 4 reports the winning rate of the three versions of MCTS as a function of the number of iterations when MCTS plays as (a) the deck team and (b) the hand team. The plots show that, as the number of iterations increases the three reward functions perform similarly with no statistically significant difference beyond 1000 iterations.

When playing as the deck team, the three approaches reach an average winning rate of 91.8% [90.1 – 93.5] with 4000 iterations and 93.8% [92.3 – 95.3] with 32000 iterations (not reported in the figure); when playing as the hand team, they reach an average winning rate of 84.0% [81.8 – 86.3] with 4000 iterations and 86.2% [84.0 – 88.3] with 32000 iterations. With 500 iterations, when playing as the deck team, SD reaches a winning rate of 85.3% [83.11 – 87.49] performing significantly better than WL (80.5% [78.0 – 83.0]) with a p-value of 0.004; the difference between SD and PWL (82.0% [79.6 – 84.4]) is much smaller and its statistical significance is borderline with a p-value of 0.046, while the difference in performance between WL and PWL is not statistically significant. With 100 iterations, SD still performs significantly better than PWL and WL. Overall, the results suggest that, given enough iterations, the three reward functions perform similarly and that, with fewer iterations, SD might perform slightly better than PWL and WL; accordingly, we selected SD for the next experiments. Finally, we note that MCTS outperforms CS when facing greedy players (see Section VII-C) which was expected as MCTS implements a cheating player that has a complete knowledge of the game state.

**Simulation Strategies.** MCTS requires the estimation of the state’s value of a leaf node. The simulation strategy is responsible to play a game from a given state until the end and obtain an approximation of the state’s value. Previous studies [18] suggested that using heuristics in the simulation step can increase the performance of the algorithm. Therefore, we performed a set of experiments to compare four simulation strategies: *Random Simulation* (RS), *Card Random Simulation* (CRS), *Greedy Simulation* (GS), and *Epsilon-Greedy Simulation* (EGS). In particular, we used the standard simulation strategy (RS) as the baseline to compare the improvement provided by the other three heuristics.

At first, we performed an experiment to select the best value of \(\epsilon\) for EGS. We matched MCTS using SD and Epsilon-Greedy simulation (EGS) with different values of \(\epsilon\) (0.0, 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, and 0.9) against the same MCTS using Random simulation (RS). Note that, in contrast with the previous experiments, in this case we did not use the Greedy strategy as the baseline because, when using EGS simulation, we would have implicitly provided a model of the opponent to MCTS and this would have biased our evaluation. Figure 5 compares the performance of MCTS using EGS (solid markers) with that of MCTS using random simulation (white markers) when playing as the deck team (circle markers) and the hand team (square markers). EGS outperforms plain random simulation for values of \(\epsilon\) between 0.3 and 0.7 both when playing as the deck team (upper solid line) and as the hand team (lower solid line); when \(\epsilon\) is 0.9, EGS selects a random action 90% of the times and thus its behavior becomes almost identical to RS; when \(\epsilon\) is 0.0, EGS always uses the deterministic Greedy player for simulations and, as the results show, this dramatically harms EGS performance. EGS reaches its best performance at 0.3 both when playing for the deck team (60.9% [57.9 – 63.9]) and for the hand team (37.1% [34.1 – 40.1]) and therefore we selected it for the next comparison. Note however that, EGS
performance for 0.3 is not statistically significantly different than what achieved with an $\epsilon$ of 0.5 (58.9%[55.9 – 62.0] and 35.4%[32.4 – 38.4]) and 0.7 (59.6%[56.6 – 62.6] and 34.9%[32.0 – 37.9]). Finally, we note that the winning rates of the hand players (Figure 5) are much lower than the ones reported for random and rule-based players (Section VII-B and Table III) suggesting that having an advanced deck player increases the existing game bias toward this role.

Figure 6 compares the performance of random simulation against Card Random Simulation (CRS), Greedy Simulation (GS), and Epsilon-Greedy Simulation (EGS) with $\epsilon = 0.3$ when playing as (a) the deck and (b) the hand team. All the experiments employed the SD reward function with a UCT constant of 2. EGS outperforms plain random strategy both when playing as the hand and as the deck team. Greedy strategy always performs worse than random simulation, confirming the results in Figure 5 when $\epsilon$ was 0; CRS includes some knowledge about the game, but probably it is not sufficient to give some advantages, in fact it is almost equivalent to RS. For these reasons, we fixed the EGS strategy with $\epsilon = 0.3$ for the final tournament.

E. Information Set Monte Carlo Tree Search

We repeated the same experiments using ISMCTS. In this case, ISMCTS does not know the other players’ hands (it does not cheat like MCTS) and it bases its decisions solely on a tree search, where each node is an information set representing all the game states compatible with the information available to the ISMCTS player.
Figure 5: Winning rate of MCTS using SD with a UCT constant of 2 as a function of the $\epsilon$ value used by the Epsilon-Greedy Simulation strategy when it plays against the same MCTS using random simulation. Bars report the standard error.

Figure 6: Winning rate of MCTS using CRS, GS and EGS with an epsilon of 0.3 compared to MCTS using random simulation when playing as (a) the deck and (b) the hand team. Bars report the standard error.

**Upper Confidence Bounds for Trees Constant.** Figure 7 reports the winning rate as a function of the ISUCT constant when ISMCTS plays as (a) the deck team and as (b) the hand team using 4000 iterations against the Greedy strategy. The trends are similar to the ones reported for MCTS (Figure 3) and the plots basically confirm the results for MCTS: the best ISUCT constant for PWL is 0.35 and it is 2 for SD while RS still leads to the worst performance and thus it was dropped for the subsequent experiments. The performance for WL shows different behavior when playing as the deck team or the hand team for the values 0.5, 0.7, and 1.0. However, when considering the average performance the three constants lead to similar (not statistically different) values. Accordingly, for WL we selected the same constant used for MCTS, that is, 0.7.

**Reward Functions.** Figure 8 reports the winning rate as a function of the number of iterations when playing against the Greedy strategy. The plots are similar to what reported for MCTS: as the number of iterations increases, the three reward functions perform similarly and there is no statistically significant difference beyond 4000 iterations. With 1000 iterations, SD performs significantly better than WL both as the deck team and as the hand team (p-value is 0.035 and 0.031 respectively); with 2000 iterations SD performs significantly better than WL when playing for the deck team; all the other differences in Figure 8 are not statistically significant. Furthermore, for all the reward functions, the increase of performance beyond 4000 iterations becomes statistically significant when the number of iterations are at least quadrupled, e.g., from 4000 to 16000 or from 8000 to 32000. Finally, the results show that ISMCTS with 4000 iterations outperforms the Greedy strategy by winning 66.6\% (63.68 – 69.52) of the matches as deck team (when using SD) and the 53.0\% (49.91 – 56.09) as hand team against the Greedy strategy. Moreover, they suggest that ISMCTS can better exploits the advantages of playing for the deck team.

**Simulation Strategies.** As we did with MCTS, we compared four different simulation strategies for ISMCTS: Random Simulation (RS), Card Random Simulation (CRS), Greedy Simulation (GS), and Epsilon-Greedy Simulation (EGS). As before, we used the standard random simulation strategy (RS) as the baseline to compare the improvement provided by the other three heuristics. Figure 9 compares the performance of ISMCTS using 4000 iterations, SD and EGS (solid dots) with different value of $\epsilon$ (0.0, 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, and 0.9) against the same ISMCTS using RS (white dots). EGS outperforms random simulation both when playing as the deck (circle dots) and as the hand team (square dots). Compared to the results for MCTS (Figure 5), the plots for ISMCTS are flattened and EGS performs only slightly better for 0.3 when playing as the deck team although the difference is not statistically significant when compared to the other values of $\epsilon$. Note that, plain greedy simulation ($\epsilon = 0$) does not harm performance as it did for MCTS. Figure 10 compares the performance of

---

Note that, ISMCTS needs four times more iterations before its performance stabilizes.
ISMCTS using plain random simulation against Card Random Simulation (CRS), Greedy Simulation (GS), and Epsilon-Greedy Simulation (EGS) with $\epsilon = 0.3$ when playing as (a) the deck and (b) the hand team. Greedy strategy performs surprisingly well when considering the results for MCTS (Figure 6) while CRS still performs similarly to random simulation. EGS outperforms plain random strategy both when playing as the hand and as the deck team; it performs slightly better than GS when playing as the deck team and the hand team but the difference is not statistically significant (p-values are 0.224 and 0.088 respectively). Overall, EGS results in the highest improvement over default random strategy, accordingly, we selected it with $\epsilon = 0.3$ for the final tournament.

**Determinizators.** We compared two methods to determinize the root information set at each iteration using the parameters selected in the previous experiments, that is, an ISUCT constant of 2.0, Score Difference reward function, and epsilon-Greedy Strategy with $\epsilon = 0.3$. The Random determinizator [5] samples a state within the root information set, while the Cards Guessing System (CGS) determinizator restricts the sample to the states in which each player holds the cards guessed by the cards guessing system (Section V). Figure 11 compares Random and CGS determinizators, with ISMCTS playing both as hand team and deck team. Random determinizator performs slightly better than CGS but the difference is not statistically significant (p-value is 0.5046 and 0.3948 respectively). The analysis of specific matches showed that CGS allows ISMCTS to avoid moves that bring the opponents to an easy scopa, since with CGS can guess the cards that the opponents might hold. For this reason, we selected CGS as the determinizator for the final tournament.
ISMCTS - Epsilon Greedy vs Random Simulation

Figure 9: Winning rate of ISMCTS using SD with a ISUCT constant of 2 as a function of the $\epsilon$ value used by the Epsilon-Greedy Simulation strategy when it plays against the same ISMCTS using random simulation. Bars report the standard error.

CRS, GS, and EGS vs Random Simulation (Deck)

(a)

Figure 10: Winning rate of ISMCTS using CRS, GS and EGS with an epsilon of 0.3 compared to ISMCTS using random simulation when playing as (a) the deck and (b) the hand team. Bars report the standard error.

Card Guessing vs Random Determinizators

Figure 11: Winning rates of the Card Guessing System determinizator (stripped bars) and the Random determinizator (white bars) when they play against each other as the hand and the deck team. Bars report the standard error.

F. Final Tournament

At the end, we performed a tournament among the random strategy and the best players selected with the previous experiments, namely: (1) Chitarella-Saracino (CS), that resulted as the best rule-based player; (2) Monte Carlo Tree Search (MCTS) using Scores Difference (SD) rewards, an UCT constant equals to 2, the $\epsilon$-Greedy Simulation strategy with $\epsilon = 0.3$, and 1000 iterations; (3) Information Set Monte Carlo Tree Search (ISMCTS) using Scores Difference (SD) rewards, an ISUCT constant equals to 2, the $\epsilon$-Greedy Simulation strategy with $\epsilon = 0.3$, the Cards Guessing System determinizator, and 4000 iterations. Note that we set the number of iterations to 1000 for MCTS and 4000 for ISMCTS since, as we noted before, a series of preliminary experiments showed that is when MCTS and ISMCTS reach a plateau. Table V reports the results of the tournament, and Table VI shows the final scoreboard. Unsurprisingly, playing at random is the worst strategy: it loses the 84.8% of times and wins only the 10.3% of games, the majority of them against itself. MCTS confirms to be the best strategy winning 79.0% of the games and loosing 12.6% of games (mostly when playing against itself). This result was also expected, since MCTS has complete knowledge of the cards of all the other players. The comparison between CS and ISMCTS is more interesting, since they play fair and have a partial knowledge of the game state. ISMCTS outperforms CS by winning 55.8% of the games and losing 34.1% of games, whereas CS wins 41.7% of the games and loses 47.9% of the games. Thus, ISMCTS proved to be stronger than an artificial intelligence implementing the most advanced strategy for Scopone that was firstly designed by expert players centuries ago and updated ever since. Finally, the results confirm that the deck team has an advantage over the hand team and that such advantage increases with the ability of the player. In fact, if we consider the matches between the same artificial intelligence (the diagonal values
of Table V), we note that the winning rate of the hand team decreases as the player’s strength increases: 38.0% of the random strategy, 38.1% of CS, 34.7% of ISMCTS, and 29.5% of MCTS.

Increasing the Number of Iterations. ISMCTS generally needs more iterations than MCTS [5], accordingly, we run an experiment to compare the performance of ISMCTS using 32000 iterations against the players used in the previous experiment. Table VII reports the percentage of matches that the new version of ISMCTS won, lost, and tied. As expected, the higher number of iterations improves ISMCTS performance. The percentage of wins against Random, CS, and MCTS increased (from 96.2% to 96.8% against Random, from 56.3% to 64.8% against CS, and from 5.5% to 13.2% against MCTS) and the result is statistically significant for CS and MCTS. Similarly, the percentage of lost matches decreased (from 1.1% to 0.8% against Random, from 31.0% to 23.3% against CS, and from 84.6% to 77.7% against MCTS) and the results are statistically significant for CS and MCTS. When comparing the performance of ISMCTS using 32000 with that of ISMCTS using 4000 iterations, the higher number of iterations results in more wins (46.1% against 34.7%) and fewer losses (40.2% instead of 50.8%). However, this increase in performance has a cost. Figure 12 plots the average time and the median time needed to select an action using MCTS and ISMCTS as a function of the number of iterations; the averages and medians are computed over 1000 measurements that were performed with a Intel Core i5 3.2Ghz with 16 GB. As the number of iterations increases, the average time needed to perform a move dramatically increases and rapidly becomes infeasible for interacting with players. In fact, our implementation of MCTS and ISMCTS can take an average of 20 seconds to select a move using 32000 iterations and as the number of iterations increases, the variance increases (see the larger bars for higher numbers of iterations). We profiled our implementation (based on the Mono\(^{11}\) C#) and noted that most of the time is spent to compute the available admissible moves given a player’s cards and the cards on the table. Our analysis suggests that the variance increase is mainly due to memory management and optimization overhead introduced by the C# runtime environment.

Human Players. We performed a final experiment with human players using a simple prototype we developed with Unity.\(^{12}\) Our goal was to get a preliminary evaluation of the performance of the strategies we developed when they faced human players. We asked amateur Scopone players to play against an artificial player randomly selected from (i) Greedy strategy, (ii) Chitarella-Saracino (CS), (iii) the cheating MCTS using 1000 iterations; (iv) ISMCTS using 1000 iterations; and (v) ISMCTS using 4000 iterations. At the start of a match, one of the five strategies was randomly selected and assigned both to the human player’s teammate and to the opponent players; then, the starting player would be randomly selected. Note that, human players did not know how the artificial players were implemented nor the strength of the players they were facing and could not guess it from the time taken for selecting a move since we added a random delay to the move selection procedure.

We collected data of 218 matches involving 32 people but after cleaning some incomplete data we ended up with 105 matches recorded (21 for each one of the five artificial players included in the prototype). The data show that human players won 30.5% of the matches, tied 12.4% of the matches, and lost the remaining 57.1%. Table VIII reports the percentage of matches that human players won, lost and tied for each strategy considered. Unsurprisingly, the cheating MCTS player won most of the matches (90.5%). Human players found it easier to play against the basic Greedy strategy than the slightly more advanced Chitarella-Saracino (CS), winning 47.6% of the matches against Greedy but only 42.9% against CS; human players also lost more matches against CS than Greedy. ISMCTS is a more challenging opponent for human players that lost only 33.3% of the matches with 1000 iterations and 23.8% with 4000 iterations. Accordingly, ISMCTS outperforms all the fair players (Greedy and CS) but the difference is statistically significant at a 95% confidence level for Greedy (p-value is 0.0212) and it is borderline for CS (p-value is 0.0623).\(^{13}\) We allowed players to submit comments about their experience. Some reported that they were puzzled by their teammate’s behavior; when we checked the game logs we noted that these comments were mainly related to advanced strategies (MCTS and ISMCTS). In our opinion, this suggests that amateur player can connect to more intuitive strategies (like Greedy and CS) but might be unable to grasp an advanced strategy that does not follow what is perceived as the traditional way to play but simply focuses on optimizing the final outcome.

---

\(^{11}\)http://www.mono-project.com/

\(^{12}\)http://www.unity3d.com

\(^{13}\)Note that given the few data points the confidence interval are rather broad and these are the only statistically significant differences together to the ones involving MCTS.
Table V: Result of the final tournament. The artificial intelligence used by the hand team is listed on the left, the one used by the deck team is listed at the top. (a) percentage of wins by the hand team; (b) percentage of losses by the hand team; (c) percentage of ties.

| Hand Team/Deck Team | Random | CS | MCTS | ISMCTS |
|---------------------|--------|----|------|--------|
| Random              | 38.0%  | 3.5%| 0.0% | 0.3%   |
| CS                  | 91.1%  | 38.1%| 2.4% | 20.9%  |
| MCTS                | 99.0%  | 85.4%| 29.5%| 70.0%  |
| ISMCTS              | 96.2%  | 56.5%| 3.3% | 34.7%  |

(a)

Table VI: Percentage of wins, losses, and ties for each artificial intelligence during the tournament.

| AI       | Wins | Losses | Ties  |
|----------|------|--------|-------|
| Random   | 10.3%| 84.8%  | 4.9%  |
|          | [9.0 - 11.7] | [83.2 - 86.4] | [3.9 - 5.8] |
| CS       | 41.7%| 47.7%  | 10.4% |
|          | [39.6 - 43.9] | [45.7 - 50.1] | [9.0 - 11.7] |
| MCTS     | 79.0%| 12.6%  | 8.3%  |
|          | [77.3 - 80.8] | [11.2 - 14.1] | [7.1 - 9.5] |
| ISMCTS   | 85.5%| 34.1%  | 10.4% |
|          | [53.6 - 57.9] | [32.1 - 36.2] | [8.8 - 11.4] |

(b)

Table VII: Performance of ISMCTS using 32000 iterations playing against the four strategies used in the previous experiment (Random, CS, MCTS, and ISMCTS using 4000 iterations) reported as the percentage of wins, losses, and ties.

| AI       | ISMCTS (32000 Iterations) |
|----------|---------------------------|
|          | Wins | Losses | Ties  |
| Random   | 96.8%| 0.8%   | 2.4%  |
|          | [96.1 - 97.6] | [0.4 - 1.2] | [1.7 - 3.0] |
| CS       | 64.8%| 23.3%  | 11.8% |
|          | [62.7 - 66.9] | [21.5 - 25.2] | [10.4 - 13.3] |
| MCTS     | 13.2%| 77.7%  | 9.2%  |
|          | [11.7 - 14.6] | [75.9 - 79.5] | [7.9 - 10.4] |
| ISMCTS   | 46.1%| 40.2%  | 13.7% |
|          | [43.9 - 48.2] | [38.1 - 42.4] | [12.2 - 15.2] |

(c)

Table VIII: Percentage of matches that human players won, lost, or tied when playing with a teammate and two opponents based on the same strategy.

| AI       | Wins | Human Players |
|----------|------|---------------|
|          | Human Players | Wins | Losses | Ties  |
| Greedy   | 47.6% | 38.1% | 14.3% |
|          | [26.3 - 69.0] | [17.3 - 58.9] | [0.0 - 29.3] |
| CS       | 42.9% | 47.6% | 9.5%  |
|          | [21.7 - 64.0] | [26.3 - 69.0] | [0.0 - 22.1] |
| MCTS     | 1.8%  | 90.5% | 4.8%  |
|          | [0.0 - 13.9] | [77.9 - 100.0] | [0.0 - 13.9] |
| ISMCTS(1000) | 33.3% | 62.4% | 14.3% |
|          | [13.2 - 53.5] | [31.0 - 73.7] | [0.0 - 29.3] |
| ISMCTS(4000) | 23.8% | 57.1% | 19.0% |
|          | [5.6 - 42.0] | [36.0 - 78.3] | [2.3 - 35.8] |

VIII. CONCLUSIONS

We investigated the design of a competitive artificial intelligence for Scopone, a traditional and very popular Italian card game whose origins date back to 1700s. We developed three rule-based artificial players corresponding to three well-known strategies: the Greedy player (GS), implementing the strategy taught to beginners; a player implementing the rules of Chitarrella-Saracino (CS) described in the most important and historical Scopone books [1], [2]; and a player implementing the rules of Ciciti-Guardamagna (CG), the second most important strategy book [3] that extends [1], [2]. We also developed a players based on MCTS and one based on ISMCTS. The former requires the full knowledge of the opponent cards and thus, by implementing a cheating player, provided an upper bound of the performance achievable using MCTS approaches. The latter implements a fair player that only knows what has been played and tries to guess (via determinization) the opponents’ cards. We used a set of experiments to determine the best configuration for MCTS and ISMCTS and then performed a tournament involving the best rule-based player (CS), MCTS, and ISMCTS. Our results show that, as expected, the cheating MCTS player outperforms all the other strategies. ISMCTS outperforms CS both when playing as the hand and as the deck team. Interestingly, the rules of Chitarrella-Saracino, which are still considered the most important expert guide for the game, provide a very good strategy leading the hand team to victory around the 20% of the time against ISMCTS and the advantaged deck team to victory around the 31% of the time. At the end, we performed an experiment with human players to get a preliminary evaluation of how well our artificial players perform when facing
human opponents. Overall, human players won 30.5% of the matches, tied 12.4% of them and lost the remaining 57.1%; they won more matches against simpler strategies (47.6% against Greedy and 42.9% against CS), lost or tied almost all the matches against the cheating MCTS players, and won only the 23.8% of the matches against the fair ISMCTS player. It thus confirms that ISMCTS outperforms the most studied and well-established strategies for Scopone.

There are several areas for potential future research. Following the footsteps of Whitehouse et al. [37], we plan to develop a reliable implementation of Scopone for mobile platforms since most of the available apps focus on multiplayer features and provide rather basic single player experiences. Our results show that ISMCTS is a challenging opponent to human players but our analysis also show that our current ISMCTS might be too inefficient, accordingly, we plan to work on the optimization of our implementation and investigate well-known MCTS enhancements (like AMAF and RAVE [6]) and the more recent one that constraints memory usage [48]. Finally, since in Scopone players cannot exchange any sort of information, player modeling techniques [17], [49], [50] might be introduced to improve the card guessing module that is used by rule-based AIs and for ISMCTS determination.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT
Stefano and Pier Luca wish to thank the three anonymous reviewers for their invaluable comments and the people who volunteered to play the game.

REFERENCES
[1] Chitarrella, Le regole dello scopone e del tressette, ser. Fuori collana. Dedalo, 2002. [Online]. Available: http://books.google.it/books?id=1yjapi2XO68C
[2] G. Saracino, Lo scopone scientifico con le regole di Chitarrella, Ugo Mursia Editore, 2011, first edition published in 1963. [Online]. Available: http://books.google.it/books?id=SCXavUQAACAAJ
[3] A. Cicuti and A. Guardamagna, I segreti dello scopone, ser. I giochi, Giochi vari, Ugo Mursia Editore, 1978. [Online]. Available: http://books.google.it/books?id=3QpAAACAAJ
[4] R. Coulom, “Efficient selectivity and backup operators in monte-carlo tree search,” in Computers and Games, 5th International Conference, CG 2006, Turin, Italy, May 29-31, 2006. Revised Papers, ser. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, H. J. van den Herik, P. Ciancarini, and M. L. H. M. Donkers, Eds., vol. 4630. Springer, 2006, pp. 72–83. [Online]. Available: https://doi.org/10.1007/11781842_29
[5] P. I. Cowling, E. J. Powley, and D. Whitehouse, “Information set monte carlo tree search,” IEEE Trans. Comput. Intellig. and AI in Games, vol. 4, no. 2, pp. 120–143, 2012. [Online]. Available: http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/TCIAIG.2012.2208094
[6] C. Browne, E. J. Powley, D. Whitehouse, S. M. Lucas, P. I. Cowling, P. Rohlfshagen, S. Tavenor, D. P. Liebana, S. Samothrakis, and S. Colton, “A survey of monte carlo tree search methods,” IEEE Trans. Comput. Intellig. and AI in Games, vol. 4, no. 1, pp. 1–43, 2012. [Online]. Available: http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/TCIAIG.2012.2186810
[7] Computer Go Group at the University of Alberta, “Fuego,” http://fuego.sourceforge.net/.
[8] F. Frydenberg, K. R. Andersen, S. Risi, and J. Togelius, “Investigating MCTS modifications in general video game playing,” in 2015 IEEE Conference on Computational Intelligence and Games, CIG 2015, Tainan, Taiwan, August 31 - September 2, 2015, pp. 107–113. [Online]. Available: http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/IEEE.CIG.2015.7379377
[9] A. Khalifa, A. Isaaksen, J. Togelius, and A. Nealen, “Modifying MCTS for human-like general video game playing,” in Proceedings of the Twenty-Fifth International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence, IJCAI 2016, New York, NY, USA, 9-15 July 2016, S. Kambhampati, Ed. IJCAI/AAAI Press, 2016, pp. 214–250. [Online]. Available: http://www.ijcai.org/Abstract/16/358
[10] M. J. Nelson, “Investigating vanilla MCTS scaling on the GVG-AI game corpus,” in IEEE Conference on Computational Intelligence and Games, CIG 2016, Santorini, Greece, September 20-23, 2016. IEEE, 2016, pp. 1–7. [Online]. Available: http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/IEEE.CIG.2016.7860443
[11] M. J. Ponsen, G. Gerritsen, and G. Chaslot, “Integrating opponent models with monte-carlo tree search in poker,” in Interactive Decision Theory and Game Theory, 2010.
[12] J. Walton-Rivers, P. R. Williams, R. Bartle, D. P. Liebana, and S. M. Lucas, “Evaluating and modelling hanabi-playing agents,” CoRR, vol. abs/1704.07069, 2017. [Online]. Available: http://arxiv.org/abs/1704.07069
[13] P. I. Cowling, C. D. Ward, and E. J. Powley, “Ensemble determinization in monte carlo tree search for the imperfect information card game cards,” in Proceedings of the 8th International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Games, AI in Games, vol. 4, no. 4, pp. 241–257, 2012. [Online]. Available: http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/IEEE.CIG.2012.2204883
[14] P. Auer, N. Cesa-Bianchi, and P. Fischer, “Finite-time analysis of the multiarmed bandit problem,” Machine Learning, vol. 47, no. 2-3, pp. 235–256, 2002. cited By 1266.
[15] L. Kocsis and C. Szepesvári, “Bandit based monte-carlo planning,” in Machine Learning: ECML 2006, 17th European Conference on Machine Learning, Berlin, Germany, September 18-22, 2006, Proceedings, ser. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, J. Fürnkranz, T. Scheffer, and M. Spiliopoulou, Eds., vol. 4212. Springer, 2006, pp. 282–293. [Online]. Available: https://doi.org/10.1007/11781842_29
[16] D. Whitehouse, E. J. Powley, and P. I. Cowling, “Determinization and information set monte carlo tree search for the card game du zhi,” in 2011 IEEE Conference on Computational Intelligence and Games, CIG 2011, Seoul, South Korea, August 31 - September 3, 2011, S. Cho, S. M. Lucas, and P. Hingston, Eds. IEEE, 2011, pp. 87–94. [Online]. Available: http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/IEEE.CIG.2011.6031993
[17] J.-F. Baffier, M.-K. Chiu, Y. Diez, M. Korman, V. Mitsou, A. van der Woude, and I. Zang, “A closer look at the pokerai corpus,” in Proceedings of the 2016 AAAI Workshop on Computer Poker and Imperfect Information Games, 2016.
[18] B. Spence and G. Allen, “Upping the ante: Top poker pros face off vs. artificial intelligence.” [Online]. Available: http://www.cmu.edu/news/stories/archives/2017/january/poker-pros-vs-AI.html
[19] N. Brown and T. Sandholm, “Safe and nested endgame solving for imperfect-information games,” in Proceedings of the 2017 AAAI workshop on Computer Poker and Imperfect Information Games, 2017.
[20] I. Szita, G. Chaslot, and P. Sprowske, “Monte-Carlo Tree Search in Settlers of Catan,” in Advances in Computer Games, 12th International Conference, ACG 2009, Pamplona, Spain, May 11-13, 2009. Revised Papers, ser. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, H. J. van den Herik and P. Sprowske, Eds., vol. 6048. Springer, 2010, pp. 21–32. [Online]. Available: http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-12993-3_3
[21] A. Khalifa, A. Isaaksen, J. Togelius, and A. Nealen, “Modifying MCTS for human-like general video game playing,” in Proceedings of the Twenty-Fifth International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence, IJCAI 2016, New York, NY, USA, 9-15 July 2016, S. Kambhampati, Ed. IJCAI/AAAI Press, 2016, pp. 214–250. [Online]. Available: http://www.ijcai.org/Abstract/16/358
[22] J.-F. Baffier, M.-K. Chiu, Y. Diez, M. Korman, V. Mitsou, A. van der Woude, and I. Zang, “A closer look at the pokerai corpus,” in Proceedings of the 2016 AAAI Workshop on Computer Poker and Imperfect Information Games, 2016.
[28] S. Ganzfried, Ed., Computer Poker and Imperfect Information, Papers from the 2015 AAAI Workshop, Austin, Texas, USA, January 26, 2015, ser. AAAI Workshops, vol. WS-15-07. AAAI Press, 2015. [Online]. Available: http://www.aaai.org/Library/Workshops/ws15-07.php

[29] Wikipedia, “Contract bridge — wikipedia, the free encyclopedia,” 2014, http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Contract_bridge.

[30] P. M. Bethe, “The state of automated bridge play,” January 2010. [Online]. Available: http://cs.nyu.edu/~pmbethe/bridgeReview200908.pdf

[31] S. J. Smith, D. Nau, and T. Throop, “Computer bridge: A big win for AI planning,” AI magazine, vol. 19, no. 2, p. 93, 1998.

[32] S. Russell and P. Norvig, Artificial Intelligence: A Modern Approach, ser. Prentice Hall series in artificial intelligence. Prentice Hall, 2010. [Online]. Available: http://books.google.it/books?id=8jZIksh-bUMC

[33] “Participating computer bridge software for the world computer bridge championship and the history of these software programs,” [Online]. Available: http://www.bridgeguys.com/CGlossary/Computer/ CBProgrammers.pdf

[34] W. J. Loh, “Ai mahjong,” 2009. [Online]. Available: http://cs229.stanford.edu/proj2009/Loh.pdf

[35] N. Mizukami and Y. Tsuruoka, “Building a computer mahjong player based on monte carlo simulation and opponent models,” in 2015 IEEE Conference on Computational Intelligence and Games, CIG 2015, Taoyuan, Taiwan, August 31 - September 2, 2015, pp. 275–283. [Online]. Available: http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/CIG.2015.7317929

[36] D. Robilliard, C. Fonlupt, and F. Teytaud, “Monte-carlo tree search for phantom games,” in 2015 IEEE Conference on Computational Intelligence and Games, CIG 2015, Tainan, Taiwan, August 26-29, 2014, IEEE, 2014, pp. 1–7. [Online]. Available: http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/CIG.2014.6932892

[37] D. Billings, A. Davidson, J. Schaeffer, and D. Szafron, “The challenge of poker,” Artificial Intelligence, vol. 134, no. 1, pp. 201–240, 2002.

[38] S. Ganzfried, Ed., Computer Poker and Imperfect Information, Papers from the 2015 AAAI Workshop, Austin, Texas, USA, January 26, 2015, ser. AAAI Workshops, vol. WS-15-07. AAAI Press, 2015. [Online]. Available: http://www.aaai.org/Library/Workshops/ws15-07.php

[39] P. I. Cowling, E. J. Powley, and J. Rollason, “Integrating monte carlo tree search with knowledge-based methods to create engaging play in a commercial mobile game,” in AIIDE, 2013.

[40] P. I. Cowling, S. Devlin, E. J. Powley, D. Whitehouse, and J. Rollason, “Player preference and style in a leading mobile card game,” IEEE Trans. Comput. Intellig. and AI in Games, vol. 7, no. 3, pp. 233–242, 2015. [Online]. Available: http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/TCIAIG.2014.2357174

[41] N. Sephton, P. I. Cowling, E. J. Powley, and N. H. Slaven, “Heuristic move pruning in monte carlo tree search for the strategic card game lords of war,” in 2014 IEEE Conference on Computational Intelligence and Games, CIG 2014, Dortmund, Germany, August 26-29, 2014, IEEE, 2014, pp. 1–7. [Online]. Available: http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/CIG.2014.6932892

[42] J. Borsboom, J.-T. Saito, G. M. J.-B. Chaslot, and J. Uiterwijk, “A comparison of Monte-Carlo methods for phantom Go,” in Proceedings of the Benelux Conference on Artificial Intelligence, 2007, pp. 57–64.

[43] P. Ciancarini and G. P. Favini, “Monte carlo tree search in kriegspiel.” Artificial Intelligence, vol. 174, no. 11, pp. 670 – 684, 2010. [Online]. Available: http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/ pii/S0004370210000536

[44] E. J. Powley, P. I. Cowling, and D. Whitehouse, “Memory bounded monte carlo tree search,” in Proceedings of the Thirteenth AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Interactive Digital Entertainment (AIIDE-17), October 5-9, 2017, Snowbird, Little Cottonwood Canyon, Utah, USA, B. Magerko and J. P. Rowe, Eds. AAAI Press, 2017, pp. 94–100. [Online]. Available: https://aaai.org/ocs/index.php/AIIDE/AIIDE17/paper/view/15856

[45] C. Holmgård, A. Liapis, J. Togelius, and G. N. Yannakakis, “Monte-carlo tree search for persona based player modeling,” in Proceedings of the AIIDE workshop on Player Modeling, 2015.

[46] G. N. Yannakakis, P. Sprock, D. Loiacono, and E. André, “Player modeling,” in Artificial and Computational Intelligence in Games, ser. Dagstuhl Follow-Ups, S. M. Lucas, M. Mateas, M. Preuss, P. Sprock, and J. Togelius, Eds. Schloss Dagstuhl - Leibniz-Zentrum fuer Informatik, 2013, vol. 6, pp. 45–59. [Online]. Available: https://doi.org/10.4230/DFU.Vol6.12191.45