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# 1 Uninformed and Informed Search

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## 1.1 Problem Formulation

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Problem-solving agents are result-driven. They always focus on satisfying their goals, i.e., solving the problem. While problems are often given in a human-understandable way, we need to reformulate the problem for our agent. These agents employ algorithms to find solutions.

Steps to formulate a solvable problem:

1. **Formulate the goal**
2. **Formulate the problem** given the goal

### 1.1.1 Key Terminology

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#### The State Space / States

A state describes a possible situation in our environment. The **state space** is a set of all possible situations (states).

#### Transition / Action

Transitions describe possible actions to take between one state and another. We only count direct transitions between two states (single actions).

#### Costs

Often transitions aren't alike and differ. We express this by adding a "cost" to each action. Often the goal in search algorithms is to **minimize the cost** to reach the goal.

A **single state problem** is defined by 4 items:

1. **State space and Initial state** Description of all possible states and the initial environment as state.
2. **Description of actions** Typically a function that maps a state to a set of possible actions in this state.
3. **Goal test** Typically a function to test if the current state fulfills the goal definition.
4. **Costs** A cost function that maps actions to its cost. An easy way is to have additive costs (sum of costs for all actions taken).

### 1.1.2 The State-Space Graph

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The state space is the set of all states reachable from the initial state. It is implicitly defined by the initial state and the successor function, forming a **state-space graph**.

- **Path:** A sequence of states connected by a sequence of actions.
- **Solution:** A path that leads from the initial state to a goal state.
- **Optimal Solution:** A solution with the minimum path cost.

### 1.1.3 Core Search Definitions

## Planning Problem

A planning problem is one in which we have an initial state and want to transform it into a desired goal, considering future actions and their outcomes.

## Search

The process of finding the (optimal) solution for such a problem in the form of a sequence of actions.

## 1.2 Search Fundamentals

### 1.2.1 Tree Search vs. Graph Search

The state-space graph can be explored by building a **search tree**.

- **Tree Search:** Treats the state space as a tree. It does not keep track of visited states, so it might re-explore the same state via a different path. This can lead to exponential work for problems with loops or redundant paths.
- **Graph Search:** Remembers states that have been visited in an **explored set** (or "closed set"). It avoids expanding states that are already in the explored set, thus handling loops and redundant paths efficiently.

### 1.2.2 States vs. Nodes

#### State

Representation of a physical configuration. Describes a specific situation in our environment (e.g., "in Arad").

#### Node

A data structure to represent a part of a search tree. It includes a **state**, a **parent node**, the **action** taken, the **path cost** ( $g(n)$ ), and the **depth** (e.g., "the path Arad  $\rightarrow$  Sibiu").

### 1.2.3 Key Search Tree Terminology

#### Fringe

The set of all nodes at the end of all visited paths is called the fringe. (Also known as **frontier** or "open set"). These are the nodes available for expansion.

#### Depth

Number of levels in the search tree.

### 1.2.4 Evaluating Search Strategies

Search strategies are evaluated along the following dimensions:

- **Completeness:** Does it always find a solution if one exists?
- **Time Complexity:** Number of node expansions.
- **Space Complexity:** Maximum number of nodes in memory.
- **Optimality:** Does it always find the optimal (least-cost) solution?

Complexity is measured in terms of:

- $b$ : maximum **branching factor** of the search tree.
- $d$ : the **depth** of the optimal solution.
- $m$ : the **maximum depth** of the state space (may be  $\infty$ ).

### 1.3 Uninformed Search Strategies

#### Uninformed Search

Do not have any information about the problem except the problem definition. (Also called **Blind Search**).

#### Breadth-First Search (BFS)

A special case of Uniform-Cost Search where all step costs are equal. It starts at the tree root and explores the tree **level by level**. It uses a FIFO (First-In-First-Out) queue for the fringe.

- **Completeness:** Yes.
- **Time:**  $O(b^d)$  (The summary table uses  $O(b^{d+1})$ ).
- **Space:**  $O(b^d)$ . Memory consumption is its biggest drawback.
- **Optimality:** Yes (if all costs are equal).

#### Uniform-Cost Search (UCS)

Each node is associated with a cost, which accumulates over the path. UCS expands the node with the **lowest cumulative path cost** ( $g(n)$ ). It is often implemented with a **priority queue**.

- **Completeness:** Yes (if step costs are positive, i.e.,  $> \epsilon > 0$ ).
- **Time:**  $O(b(1 + \lfloor C^*/\epsilon \rfloor))$ , where  $C^*$  is the cost of the optimal solution.
- **Space:**  $O(b(1 + \lfloor C^*/\epsilon \rfloor))$ .
- **Optimality:** Yes.

#### Depth-First Search (DFS)

Starts at the tree root and explores as far as possible along one branch before backtracking. It uses a LIFO (Last-In-First-Out) stack for the fringe.

- **Completeness:** No. Fails in infinite-depth spaces or spaces with loops.
- **Time:**  $O(b^m)$ , where  $m$  is the max depth. Can be terrible if  $m \gg d$ .
- **Space:**  $O(b \times m)$ . This linear space complexity is its key advantage.
- **Optimality:** No.

#### Depth-limited Search (DLS)

A variation of DFS where the search is limited to a predetermined depth  $l$ . Nodes at depth  $l$  are not expanded.

- **Completeness:** No (if  $l < d$ ).
- **Time:**  $O(b^l)$ .

- **Space:**  $O(b \times l)$ .
- **Optimality:** No.

### Iterative Deepening Search (IDS)

Combines the benefits of BFS and DFS. It runs DLS repeatedly with increasing depth limits:  $l = 0, 1, 2, \dots, d$ .

- **Completeness:** Yes.
- **Time:**  $O(b^d)$  (Despite re-generating upper levels, the overhead is small).
- **Space:**  $O(b \times d)$ .
- **Optimality:** Yes (if costs are uniform).

### Bidirectional Search

Performs two searches simultaneously: one forward from the initial state, one backward from the goal state. Stops when the two searches meet.

- **Completeness:** Yes.
- **Time:**  $O(b^{d/2})$ .
- **Space:**  $O(b^{d/2})$ .
- **Notes:** Only possible if actions can be reversed.

#### 1.3.1 Summary of Uninformed Strategies

Criterion	Breadth-First	Uniform-Cost	Depth-First	Depth-Limited	Iterative Deepening
Complete?	Yes*	Yes*	No	Yes, if $l \geq d$	Yes
Time	$O(b^{d+1})$	$O(b^{\lceil C^*/\epsilon \rceil})$	$O(b^m)$	$O(b^l)$	$O(b^d)$
Space	$O(b^{d+1})$	$O(b^{\lceil C^*/\epsilon \rceil})$	$O(bm)$	$O(bl)$	$O(bd)$
Optimal?	Yes*	Yes	No	No	Yes*

**Table 1:** Comparison of uninformed search strategies. (\* Assumes uniform step costs or  $l \geq d$  where applicable).

## 1.4 Informed Search Strategies

### Informed Search

Have additional knowledge about the problem (beyond the definition) and an idea of where to "look" for solutions.

This "hint" is provided by a heuristic function.

#### 1.4.1 Heuristics

### Heuristic $h(n)$

Informally denotes a "rule of thumb". In tree-search, a heuristic is a function  $h(n)$  that **estimates the remaining cost** to reach the goal from node  $n$ .

### 1.4.2 Greedy Best-first Search

#### Greedy Best-first Search

Uses an evaluation function  $f(n) = h(n)$  to estimate the cost from node  $n$  to the goal. It expands the node that appears to be closest to the goal, according to the heuristic. It does not care about the actual cost/distance.

- **Completeness:** No. Can get stuck in loops. (Complete in finite spaces with loop detection).
- **Time:** Worst case  $O(b^m)$ .
- **Space:** Worst case  $O(b^m)$  (keeps all nodes in memory).
- **Optimality:** No. The solution depends entirely on the heuristic.

### 1.4.3 A\* Search

#### A\* Search

An informed tree search algorithm, building on best-first search. It is the "best-known" form. It avoids expanding paths that are already expensive.

A\* evaluates nodes using the function:  $f(n) = g(n) + h(n)$ .

- $g(n)$  = **true cost** so far to reach node  $n$ .
- $h(n)$  = **estimated cost** to get from  $n$  to the goal.
- $f(n)$  = **estimated cost** of the cheapest solution path that goes through node  $n$ .
- **Completeness:** Yes (unless there are infinitely many nodes with  $f(n) \leq f(G)$ ).
- **Time:** Can be exponential unless the error of the heuristic  $h(n)$  is bounded.
- **Space:** Has to keep all nodes in memory. This is the primary drawback of A\*.
- **Optimality:** Yes, if the heuristic  $h(n)$  is **admissible**.

### 1.4.4 Heuristic Properties

#### Admissible Heuristics

A heuristic is **admissible** if it **never overestimates** the true cost to reach a goal. Formally:

$$h(n) \leq h^*(n) \quad \text{for all nodes } n,$$

where  $h(n)$  is the heuristic estimate and  $h^*(n)$  is the actual optimal cost from  $n$  to the goal. (For example, the straight-line distance heuristic  $h_{\text{SLD}}$  is admissible in route-finding problems.)

#### Consistent Heuristics

A heuristic is **consistent** if for every node  $n$  and every successor  $n'$  generated by action  $a$ , the "triangle inequality" holds:  $h(n) \leq c(n, a, n') + h(n')$ . This means the heuristic difference between adjacent nodes never overestimates the actual step cost.

- **Lemma 1:** Every **consistent** heuristic is also **admissible**.
- **Lemma 2:** If  $h(n)$  is consistent, then the values of  $f(n)$  along any path are **non-decreasing**.

## Relaxed Problems

A problem with fewer restrictions on the actions is called a relaxed problem. The cost of an optimal solution to a relaxed problem is an **admissible heuristic** for the original problem.

Example (8-puzzle):

- $h_1(n)$  = Number of misplaced tiles. (Relaxed rule: tile can move anywhere).
- $h_2(n)$  = Total Manhattan distance. (Relaxed rule: tile can move to any adjacent square).
- Both  $h_1$  and  $h_2$  are admissible.

## Dominance

If  $h_1$  and  $h_2$  are both admissible and  $h_2(n) \geq h_1(n)$  for all  $n$ , then  $h_2$  **dominates**  $h_1$ .

$A^*$  will expand fewer nodes with a dominant heuristic. (e.g., for the 8-puzzle,  $h_2$  (Manhattan) dominates  $h_1$  (misplaced tiles)).

**Combining Heuristics** If we have several admissible heuristics  $h_1(n), \dots, h_m(n)$ , we can combine them.  $h(n) = \max h_1(n), h_2(n), \dots, h_m(n)$  is also admissible and dominates all of its components.

### 1.4.5 Optimality of A

A (using Tree Search) is optimal if its heuristic  $h(n)$  is admissible.

**Proof (Informal):**

1. Let  $G$  be an optimal goal state, with path cost  $C^*$ .
2. Assume for contradiction that A is about to return a suboptimal goal  $G_2$ , with path cost  $g(G_2) > C^*$ .
3. At this moment,  $G_2$  is in the fringe. Because  $A^*$  chose  $G_2$ , its  $f$ -value must be the lowest, so  $f(G_2) \leq f(n)$  for all other fringe nodes  $n$ .
4. Let  $n$  be any unexpanded node on a true optimal path to  $G$ . This node  $n$  must be in the fringe.
5. **Analyze  $f(G_2)$ :** For a goal state,  $h(G_2) = 0$ . So,  $f(G_2) = g(G_2) + h(G_2) = g(G_2)$ . Since  $G_2$  is suboptimal,  $f(G_2) = g(G_2) > C^*$ .
6. **Analyze  $f(n)$ :**  $f(n) = g(n) + h(n)$ . Because  $h$  is admissible,  $h(n) \leq h^*(n)$  (where  $h^*(n)$  is the true cost from  $n$  to  $G$ ). The true cost of the optimal path is  $C^* = g(n) + h^*(n)$ . Therefore,  $f(n) = g(n) + h(n) \leq g(n) + h^*(n) = C^*$ .
7. **Contradiction:** We have shown  $f(n) \leq C^*$  and  $f(G_2) > C^*$ . This means  $f(n) < f(G_2)$ . A would be forced to expand  $n$  (on the optimal path) *before* it could ever expand  $G_2$ . Thus,  $A^*$  can never select a suboptimal goal. It is optimal.

### 1.4.6 Memory-Bounded Heuristic Search

The main problem with  $A^*$  is its space complexity. Alternatives include:

1. **Iterative-deepening  $A^*$  (IDA):** Like IDS, but the "depth" cutoff is the  $f$ -cost ( $g + h$ ).
2. **Recursive best-first search (RBFS):** Mimics best-first search using linear space by recursively re-expanding nodes and updating  $f$ -values from ancestors.
3. **(Simple) Memory-bounded A ((S)MA\*):** When memory is full, drops the worst (highest  $f$ -value) leaf node.

## 1.5 Tree Search vs. Graph Search (Revisited)

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Failure to detect repeated states can turn a linear problem into an exponential one!

### Graph Search

Uses an **explored set** (or "closed set") to store all states that have been expanded. When expanding a node, its successors are only added to the fringe **if they are not in the fringe or explored set**.

### Optimality of A\* Graph Search

- If  $h(n)$  is only **admissible**, Graph Search A\* is not guaranteed to be optimal. It might find a suboptimal path to a node first, add it to the explored set, and never find the optimal path.
- If  $h(n)$  is **consistent**, Graph Search A\* **is optimal**.
- **Why?** A consistent heuristic guarantees that  $f$ -values are non-decreasing along any path. This means the *first* time A\* expands a node  $n$ , it is *guaranteed* to have found the shortest possible path to it. Therefore, we never need to re-expand any node in the explored set.