Optimal Satisficing Tree Searches

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Abstract
We provide an algorithm that finds optimal search strategies for AND trees and OR trees. Our model includes three outcomes when a node is explored: (1) finding a solution, (2) not finding a solution and realizing that there are no solutions beneath the current node (pruning), and (3) not finding a solution but not pruning the nodes below. The expected cost of examining a node and the probabilities of the three outcomes are given. Based on this input, the algorithm generates an order that minimizes the expected search cost.

Introduction
Search for satisfactory solutions rather than optimal ones is common in many reasoning tasks. For example, a theorem prover may search for an acceptable proof although that proof is not necessarily the shortest possible. Similarly, planning the way home from a friend's house does not require us to look for the shortest path, any reasonable path suffices.

Simon and Kadane (1975) examine satisficing search using a simple gold-digging example: An unknown number of treasure chests are randomly buried at some of \( n \) sites, but neither the sites nor the depth of burial are known with certainty. At each site, a sequence of one-foot slices can be excavated, and a treasure may be disclosed by the removal of any one of these slices. The probability that a treasure lies just below each slice is known as is the cost of excavating that slice. The respective probabilities of the three outcomes for the slice \( s \) are \( p^+(s) \), \( p^-(s) \), and \( p^0(s) \). These outcomes are assumed to be mutually-exclusive and exhaustive and, hence, \( p^+(s) + p^-(s) + p^0(s) = 1 \). Simon and Kadane exclude the second outcome because they do not model pruning.

Metaphorically, if a treasure is not found at a slice, then either (1) some "doors" to new slices open—a situation that corresponds to exposing the immediate children of a node in a search tree or (2) no doors open—a situation that corresponds to either reaching a leaf node or pruning deeper search through that node. We assume that each slice is part of a single site and that each slice can be reached by only one path from the surface. Consequently, a site is a metaphor for a tree and multiple sites for a forest. More general searches are discussed later.

Search of OR Trees: Preliminaries
We extend Simon and Kadane's search model to allow three rather than two outcomes for excavating a slice: (1) a treasure is found, (2) a treasure is not found and it is realized that there are no treasures beneath the current slice (pruning), and (3) a treasure is not found but one can still be found below. In the later case, several alternatives are revealed for further digging. The respective probabilities of the three outcomes for the slice \( s \) are \( p^+(s) \), \( p^-(s) \), and \( p^0(s) \). These outcomes are assumed to be mutually-exclusive and exhaustive and, hence, \( p^+(s) + p^-(s) + p^0(s) = 1 \). Simon and Kadane exclude the second outcome because they do not model pruning.

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1The word-pairs, site/tree, slice/node, and excavation/search are used interchangeably throughout this article to emphasize the analogy between the gold-digging example and tree searches.
A sequence of slices \( b = s_1 \ldots s_r \) is a (search) strategy when (1) the \( s_i \) are distinct slices and (2) all slices above each \( s_i \) are in \( b \) and all precede \( s_i \).

Define \( \phi^+(s) = p^+(s)/c(s) \) as a benefit-to-cost ratio with the assumption that \( p^+(s) \neq 1 \) and \( c(s) \neq 0 \). These assumptions entail, respectively, that no slice contains a treasure with certainty and that no slice is excavated for free. Assume, also, that the probabilities and cost for one slice are independent of the outcome excavated for each slice.

The cost of a strategy \( b = s_1 \ldots s_r \), denoted \( c(b) \), is computed by

\[
c(b) = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \beta(s_i | s_1 \ldots s_{i-1}) \cdot c(s_i),
\]

where \( \beta(s_i | s_1 \ldots s_{i-1}) \) stands for the probability that slice \( x \) is excavated given the strategy starts with \( s_1 \ldots s_{i-1} \).

Similarly, the probability that a strategy \( b \) unearths a treasure, denoted \( p^+(b) \), is computed by

\[
p^+(b) = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \beta(s_i | s_1 \ldots s_{i-1}) \cdot p^+(s_i).
\]

Formulas for \( \beta \) are developed below. For each strategy \( b \), define \( \phi^+(b) = p^+(b)/c(b) \) and \( q^+(b) = 1 - p^+(b) \).

The problem is to find a strategy having the least expected cost, i.e., to find a strategy \( b^\circ \) such that \( c(b^\circ) \leq c(b) \) for every strategy \( b \).

In Simon and Kadane's search model, a slice \( s_i \) in a strategy \( b = s_1 \ldots s_r \) is excavated if and only if none of \( s_1 \ldots s_{i-1} \) contain a treasure. In this case, the expected cost of \( b \) is derived from Eq. (1) by substituting

\[
\beta(s_i | s_1 \ldots s_{i-1}) = \prod_{j=1}^{i-1} \phi^+(s_j).
\]

This equation states that the probability that \( s_i \) is excavated equals the probability that no treasure is found in slices \( s_1 \ldots s_{i-1} \).

In our search model where pruning is permitted, the expected cost of a strategy is still given by Eq. (1), however, the expression for \( \beta \) is more complex. A slice is excavated if and only if every slice above it opens its doors (i.e., the path to that slice is unearthed) and no treasure is found by prior excavation.

When there is only one site, a tree \( T \), then \( \beta \) is defined by

\[
\beta(s_i | s_1 \ldots s_{i-1}) = \prod_{j=1}^{n} p^0(a_j) \prod_{d \in K(a_j)} Q^+(d) \prod_{x \in K(d)} Q^+(x),
\]

where \( K(d) \) is the set of children of node \( d \) that are in \( \{s_1 \ldots s_{i-1}\} \) and \( a_1 \ldots a_n \) is the path from the root of \( T \) to \( s_i = a_{n+1} \). The formula for \( Q^+(d) \) computes the probability that a subtree rooted at node \( d \) does not contain a treasure; when \( d \) is a leaf node, then \( Q^+(d) = p^-(d) + p^0(d) = q^+(d) \).

When there are several sites, i.e., a forest, the expression for \( \beta(s_i | s_1 \ldots s_{i-1}) \) in Eq. (3) is multiplied by \( Q^+(r) \) for each root node, \( r \), in \( s_1 \ldots s_{i-1} \) besides the root of \( T \). The original formula calculates the probability that a path to \( s_i \) is unearthed and that no treasure is found in \( T \) prior to excavating \( s_i \). The additional factors account for the assertion that no treasure is found at the other sites either.

Thus, the calculation of \( \beta \) in Eq. (3) depends on the topology of the sites as just described and on \( s_i \) itself because its ancestors, \( a_1 \ldots a_n \), are distinguished in the formula. Eq. (2) depends on neither.

**Search of OR Trees: An Algorithm**

A brute force approach for choosing the best excavation strategy computes the cost of each strategy and chooses the least expensive. Fortunately, when two strategies are identical except that two adjacent slices are switched, one can choose between the two strategies without computing their expected costs; merely compare the benefit-to-cost ratios, \( \phi^+ \), of the slices that are switched, and choose the strategy where the slice with the highest ratio is excavated first. This local property facilitates a polynomial-time algorithm to find an optimal strategy. The next theorem spells out this property.

**Theorem 1** If \( b = s_1 \ldots s_r \) is a strategy and \( b' \) is a strategy obtained from \( b \) by switching two adjacent slices, \( s_i \) and \( s_{i+1} \), then

\[
c(b) < c(b') \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \phi^+(s_i) > \phi^+(s_{i+1})
\]

\[
c(b) = c(b') \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \phi^+(s_i) = \phi^+(s_{i+1}).
\]

**Proof:** Let \( \gamma \) be the subsequence of \( b \) that precedes \( s_is_{i+1} \). The expected costs of \( \gamma \) and \( s_i \) and \( s_{i+1} \) are divided into contributions from three mutually exclusive situations: (1) neither \( s_i \) nor \( s_{i+1} \) can be excavated because either an ancestor of each failed to open its doors or a treasure was found in one of \( \gamma \)'s slices, (2) only one of the two slices is excavated, and (3) both slices can be excavated.

The expected costs of \( \gamma s_i s_{i+1} \) and \( \gamma s_{i+1} s_i \) are identical in the first two cases because changing the position of slices that are not excavated cannot change the expected cost of a strategy. In the third case, the expected costs are given by

\[
c(\gamma s_is_{i+1}) = c(\gamma) + c(s_i) + q^+(s_i)c(s_{i+1})
\]

\[
c(\gamma s_{i+1}s_i) = c(\gamma) + c(s_{i+1}) + q^+(s_{i+1})c(s_i).
\]

The first equation stems from the assumption that \( s_i \) is excavated with certainty after \( \gamma \) is excavated and from the fact that slice \( s_{i+1} \) is excavated after \( s_i \) with probability \( q^+(s_i) \). The probability of excavating \( s_{i+1} \) after \( s_i \) is \( q^+(s_i) = p^-(s_i) + p^0(s_i) \), and not just \( p^0(s_i) \), because slice \( s_i \) is not on top of \( s_{i+1} \). Otherwise, \( b \) and
by taking the difference between these holds by symmetry of i and i + 1. The theorem follows

The basis for our algorithm to find optimal excavation sequences lies in the observation that a slice with the highest \( \phi^+ \) should be excavated immediately after the slice above it is excavated.

**Theorem 2** If \( s_j \) is a slice with the highest \( \phi^+ \) and \( s_j \) has an immediate parent \( s_i \), then there exists an optimal strategy that includes the subsequence \( s_i, s_j \). If \( s_j \) is a top slice (root node), then there exists an optimal strategy that starts with \( s_j \).

**Proof:** If \( s_i \) is an immediate parent of \( s_j \), then \( s_i \) must be excavated before \( s_j \). Suppose \( s_i r_1 \ldots r_m s_j \) is a subsequence in some optimal strategy. Note that no \( r_k \) can be an ancestor of \( s_j \) because \( s_i \) is the immediate parent of \( s_j \). Hence, we can repeatedly switch \( s_j \) with each \( r_i \) to obtain a new strategy in which \( s_j \) directly follows \( s_i \). By Theorem 1, the cost of this strategy is less than or equal to the cost of the original. If \( s_j \) is a root node that follows \( r_1 \ldots r_m \) in an optimal strategy, it can be switched to the front because no \( r_i \) can be its parent. Theorem 1 entails that the transformed strategy is at least as good as the original one. Hence, either \( s_j \) can start the strategy or immediately follow its parent. \( \square \)

Theorem 2 implies that whenever a slice with the highest \( \phi^+ \) is a top slice it can be placed first in a strategy. The remaining sequencing problem is smaller. If the best slice is not a top slice, it can be combined with its parent to form a single slice. Again, the remaining problem is smaller. Thus, each step reduces the number of slices by \( 1 \) until no slices are left and an optimal strategy is obtained. This algorithm is summarized in Figure 1.

It remains to explicate how to compute the cost and probabilities for the combined node, \( b' \). When pruning is not modeled, the parameters are computed by

\[
c(b'b) = c(b') + q+(b') \cdot c(b)
\]

\[
p+(b'b) = p+(b') + q+(b') \cdot p+(b),
\]

where \( b \) and \( b' \) are subsequences and not necessarily single nodes (Garey 1973). The expected cost of an optimal strategy is preserved by these transformations due to Eqs. (1) and (2).

However, when pruning is modeled, the combining equations depend on the topology of the tree. Suppose \( b' \) in the algorithm is the result of combining a subtree \( T' \) and \( b \) is the result of combining a subtree \( T \). Since \( b' \) is a parent of \( b \),

\[
c(b'b) = c(b') + \beta(b', b) \cdot c(b)
\]

\[
p+(b'b) = p+(b') + \beta(b', b) \cdot p+(b),
\]

where \( \beta(b', b) \) is the probability that it is necessary to execute \( b \) after \( b' \) is executed. Moreover, \( \beta(b', b) \) equals \( \beta(r|s_1 \ldots s_2) \), where \( b' = s_1 \ldots s_2 \) and \( r \) is the first node in \( b \).

**Input:** A collection of trees, with nodes \( N \).

**Output:** An optimal search strategy stored in \( \gamma \).

1. Set \( \gamma \) to the empty sequence.
2. Find a node \( b \in N \) having the highest \( \phi^+ \).
3. If \( b \) is a root node, then set \( \gamma = \gamma b \) and remove \( b \) from \( N \).
4. Otherwise, \( b \) has a parent \( b' \) in \( N \). Combine nodes \( b' \) and \( b \) into a single node denoted by \( b'b \). Place node \( b'b \) in \( N \) and remove \( b' \) and \( b \) from \( N \). Compute \( \phi^+(b'b) \).
5. If some nodes are left in \( N \), go to Step 2.

**Figure 1:** Algorithm to find optimal strategies.

The complexity of the algorithm is \( O(n^2) \). On each iteration, finding the node with the highest \( \phi^+ \) is \( O(\log n) \) using a priority heap, and the calculation of \( p^+ \) and \( c \) for a merged node is \( O(n) \). Since the algorithm iterates \( n \) times, the bound follows.

Our algorithm is similar to one described by Garey (1973). Both algorithms repeatedly transform a search tree by merging pairs of nodes into single nodes. They differ in the type of transformations applied; Garey's transformations always involve a leaf node while our transformation involves a node with the highest \( \phi^+ \) value. Further, our algorithm deals with three possible outcomes of node exploration while Garey's deals with two. Nevertheless, Garey's algorithm can be amended to account for three-outcome evaluation as well and its complexity is the same as ours.

**An Example**

Consider three sites having the structure depicted in Figure 2 and the parameters given by Table 1. The optimal strategy for this example is calculated next using our algorithm.

Node \( s_3 \) has the highest \( \phi^+ \). It is therefore combined with \( s_1 \). The parameters of the combined node are

\[
c(s_1 s_3) = c(s_1) + p^0(s_1) p+(s_3) = 10.8
\]

\[
p+(s_1 s_3) = p+(s_1) + p^0(s_1) p+(s_3) = .74
\]

and, thus, \( \phi^+(s_1 s_3) = .069 \). Now the node with the highest \( \phi^+ \) is \( s_4 \). Its \( \phi^+ \) is highest among all nodes including the newly created node \( s_1 s_3 \). Hence, nodes \( s_4 \) and \( s_3 \) are combined and the resulting parameters are \( c(s_2 s_4) = 5.5 \), \( p^+(s_2 s_4) = .55 \), and \( \phi^+(s_2 s_4) = .1 \). Node \( s_2 s_4 \) now has the highest \( \phi^+ \). It is therefore combined with its parent \( s_1 s_3 \). The new parameters are

\[
c(s_1 s_3 s_2 s_4) = c(s_1 s_3) + p^0(s_1) q+(s_3) c(s_2 s_4) = 11.68
\]
Figure 2: Search sites.

Table 1: Search sites parameters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s</th>
<th>c</th>
<th>p⁺</th>
<th>p⁰</th>
<th>φ⁺</th>
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<td>.3</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>.5</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>s₇</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ p⁺(s₁s₀s₂s₄) = p⁺(s₁s₀) + p⁺(s₁s₄)φ⁺(s₁s₂s₄) = .828 \]

and the resulting \( φ⁺ \) is .071.

Node \( s₁s₀s₂s₄ \) is a root node and it has the highest \( φ⁺ \). Thus, it is added to \( γ \) as a bloc. The next node is \( s₃ \). It is also a root node with the highest \( φ⁺ \) and is therefore added to \( γ \) as a bloc. Now node \( s₇ \) is combined with its parent \( s₅ \). The resulting node \( s₅s₇ \) has a lower \( φ⁺ \) value (0.018) than \( s₃ \). Thus, \( s₈ \) is the next bloc added to \( γ \) and \( s₅s₇ \) is the fourth and last.

Notably, any strategy produced by our algorithm consists of a sequence of blocs with decreasing \( φ⁺ \) values. In this example, the blocs are \( s₁s₀s₂s₄, s₆, s₈, s₅s₇ \) with the respective decreasing \( φ⁺ \) values, .071, .025, .02, and .018. This bloc structure coincides with Simon and Kadane's characterization of optimal strategies. It is not clear, however, whether this structure extends to strategies for OR graphs when three rather than two evaluation outcomes are possible.

The Dual Problem: AND Trees

We can think about search of OR trees as a procedure for proving the root node true: a node is proven true if and only if it is proven true by its own evaluation or at least one of its children is proven true. The algorithm of Figure 1 with a minor change, switch the roles of \( p⁻ \) and \( p⁺ \), finds optimal search strategies for AND trees.

Dynamic vs. Static Sequencing

Previous sections provide an algorithm that finds optimal search sequences for OR trees and AND trees. In these two cases, optimal search sequences can be determined before search starts. However, this property does not hold in general. Next, we provide two examples where optimal sequences must be revised during search.

Consider the OR graph shown in Figure 3. There are three surface slices \( x, y, \) and \( z \), and two deeper slices, \( v \) and \( w \), each of which can be reached from two distinct surface slices. The rule is that a slice cannot be excavated until all of its parents are excavated. Thus, the graph encodes a partial order constraint on slice excavations.

Suppose \( x \) is a node with extremely high \( φ⁺ \). Then \( x \) is excavated first. How should the rest of the nodes be ordered for excavation? If no treasure is found at \( x \), then there are two options: (1) the digger learns with probability \( p⁻(x) \) that there is no gold beneath \( x \) in which case \( v \) and \( w \) will not be excavated, or (2) he learns with probability \( p⁺(x) \) that there may be gold in \( v \) and \( w \). In the first case the decision about which slice to excavate next depends only on \( φ⁺(y) \) while in the second case the decision depends on \( φ⁺(yv) \) and \( φ⁺(zw) \) as well. Hence, an optimal sequence cannot be determined until the result of excavating \( x \) is known, i.e., it must be determined dynamically.

Optimal searches of AND-OR trees require dynamic strategies as well. The interpretation of AND-OR trees is consistent with the definitions used previously for AND trees and OR trees. In particular, the tree of Figure 4 evaluates to true iff either node \( s₁, s₂, \) or \( s₆ \) evaluates true. Node \( s₂ \) (an AND node) evaluates to true iff \( s₂ \) is true or \( s₃ \) and \( s₄ \) evaluate to true. Node \( s₃ \) evaluates to true iff \( s₃ \) is true or \( s₅ \) is true.

Assume that the \( φ⁺ \) values of \( s₁ \ldots s₆ \) are, respectively, 1, 900, 100, 200, 50, 130, that \( φ⁺(s₃s₄) = 150, \)

\[ \text{if it is proven false by its own evaluation or at least one of its children is proven false.} \]

\[ \text{The algorithm of Figure 1 with a minor change, switch the roles of } p⁻ \text{ and } p⁺, \text{ finds optimal search strategies for AND trees.} \]

In the gold-digging metaphor this assumption is made to (say) prevent the collapse of a parent slice on its child if the child were excavated first.
and that $\phi^+(s_4s_5) = 110$. If one must commit to an execution order before search starts, then the choice would be either $s_1s_2s_3s_4s_5s_6$ or $s_1s_2s_4s_3s_6s_5$. Nodes $s_2$, $s_3$ and $s_4$ appear before $s_6$ because $\phi^+(s_2)$ and $\phi^+(s_3s_4)$ are higher than $\phi^+(s_6)$ and $s_6$ is placed before $s_5$ because its $\phi^+$ is higher.

The ordering between descendants of AND nodes is determined by their $p^-/c$ ratios: those with higher values execute first. Assume for this example, that $s_3$ is executed before $s_4$ based on this criterion, i.e., the best a priori strategy is $s_1s_2s_3s_4s_5s_6$.

Evaluating $s_3$ can produce three results: If $s_3$ evaluates true as expected, it is best to continue with the predetermined strategy. If $s_3$ evaluates false, then $s_4$ and $s_5$ are not evaluated and, hence, the expected cost of the remaining work is not affected by their relative location in the strategy. Otherwise, $s_3$ opens its doors and the strategy profits from a change: node $s_6$ should now be evaluated before node $s_4$, because its $\phi^+$ value is higher than that of $s_4s_5$. Thus, the best ordering of $s_4$ and $s_6$ is contingent on the results obtained by evaluating $s_3$.

**Summary**

We have presented an algorithm that finds optimal search strategies of AND trees and OR trees where pruning is modeled. Further, we have shown that optimal search strategies of AND-OR trees, AND graphs, and OR graphs cannot be represented as static permutations of the nodes. Consequently, to represent an optimal search strategy for these latter cases, one must construct a decision diagram that indicates the node to search next as a function of the outcomes of previous searches. The construction of such dynamic strategies is addressed by Slagle (1964) assuming there are no constraints on the order of node examination. Finding optimal search strategies subject to order constraints remains an open problem.

**References**

