Complexity Theory
Games/Logarithmic Space

## Daniel Borchmann, Markus Krötzsch

## Games

Computational Logic

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## Games as Computational Problems

Many single-player games relate to NP-complete problems:

- Sudoku
- Minesweeper
- Tetris
- ...

Decision problem: Is there a solution?
(For Tetris: is it possible to clear all blocks?)
What about two-player games?

- Two players take moves in turns
- The players have different goals
- The game ends if a player wins

Decision problem: Does Player 1 have a winnings strategy?
In other words: can Player 1 enforce winning, whatever Player 2 does?

## Deciding the Formula Game

## Example: The Geography Game

## Formula Game

Input: A formula $\varphi$.
Problem: Does Player 1 have a winning strategy on $\varphi$ ?

Theorem 12.1
Formula Game is PSpace-complete.
Proof sketch.
Formula Game is essentially the same as True QBF.
Having a winning strategy means: there is a truth value for $X_{1}$, such that, for all truth values of $X_{2}$, there is a truth value of $X_{3}, \ldots$ such that $\varphi$ becomes true.
If we have a QBF where quantifiers do not alternate, we can add dummy quantifiers and variables that do not change the semantics to get the same alternating form as for the Formula Game.

A children's game:

- Two players are taking turns naming cities.
- Each city must start with the last letter of the previous.
- Repetitions are not allowed.
- The first player who cannot name a new city looses.

A mathematicians' game:

- Two players are marking nodes on a directed graph.
- Each node must be a successor of the previous one.
- Repetitions are not allowed.
- The first player who cannot mark a new node looses.

Decision problem (Generalised) Geography:
given a graph and start node, does Player 1 have a winning strategy?

## Geography is PSpace-hard

Let $\varphi$ with variables $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{\ell}$ be an instance of Formula Game.
Without loss of generality, we assume:

- $\ell$ is odd (Player 1 gets the first and last turn)
- $\varphi$ is in CNF


## We now build a graph that encodes Formula Game in terms of Geography

- The left-hand side of the graph is a chain of diamond structures that represent the choices that players have when assigning truth values
- The right-hand side of the graph encodes the structure of $\varphi$ : Player 2 may choose a clause (trying to find one that is not true under the assignment); Player 1 may choose a literal (trying to find one that is true under the assignment).
(see board or [Sipser, Theorem 8.14])


## More Games

The characteristic of PSpace is quantifier alternation
This is closely related to taking turns in 2-player games.
Are many games PSPACE-complete?

- Issue 1: many games are finite - that is: computationally trivial $\leadsto$ generalise games to arbitrarily large boards
- generalised Tic-Tac-Toe is PSPACE-complete
- generalised Reversi (Othello) is PSpace-complete
- Issue 2: (generalised) games where moves can be reversed may require very long matches
$\leadsto$ such games often are even harder
- generalised Go is ExpTime-complete
- generalised Draughts (Checkers) is ExpTime-complete
- generalised Chess is ExpTime-complete
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## Logarithmic Space

## Problems in L and NL

## Polynomial space

As we have seen, polynomial space is already quite powerful.
We therefore consider more restricted space complexity classes.

## Linear space

Even linear space is enough to solve Sat.

## Sub-linear space

To get sub-linear space complexity, we consider Turing-machines with separate input tape and only count working space.

Recall:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{L}=\operatorname{LOGSPACE} & =\mathrm{DSPACE}(\log n) \\
\mathrm{NL}=\operatorname{NLOGSPACE} & =\operatorname{NSPACE}(\log n)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Examples: Problems in L

## Example 12.3

The language $\left\{0^{n} 1^{n} \mid n \geq 0\right\}$ is in L .

## Algorithm

- Check that no 1 is ever followed by a 0 Requires no working space (only movements of the read head)
- Count the number of 0's and 1's
- Compare the two counters


## Example 12.4

Palindromes $\in L$ L.
Algorithm.

- Use two pointers, one to the beginning and one to the end of the input.
- At each step, compare the two symbols pointed to.
- Move the pointers one step inwards.


## Palindromes

Input: $\quad$ Word $w$ on some input alphabet $\Sigma$
Problem: Does $w$ read the same forward and

## Examples: Problems in L

```
backward?
        backward?
```

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## An Algorithm for Reachability

## Reachablity a.k.a. STCON a.k.a. РAth

Input: Directed graph $G$, vertices $s, t \in V(G)$
Problem: Does $G$ contain a path from $s$ to $t$ ?

## Example 12.5

Reachablity $\in$ NL.
Algorithm.

- Use a pointer to the current vertex, starting in $s$.
- Iteratively move pointer from current vertex to some neighbour vertex nondeterministically

```
CanReach(G,s,t) :
    c:= |V(G)| // counter
    p:=s // pointer
    while c>0 :
        if p=t :
            return TRUE
        else :
            nondeterministically select G-successor p' of p
            p:= p'
            c:=c-1
    // eventually, if no success:
    return FALSE
```

- Accept when finding $t$; reject when searching for too long


## Defining Reductions in Logarithmic Space

## Log-Space Reductions and NL-Completeness

To compare the difficulty of problems in P or NL, polynomial-time reductions are useless.

## Definition 12.6

A log-space transducer $\mathcal{M}$ is a logarithmic space bounded Turing machine with a read-only input tape and a write-only, write-once output tape, and that halts on all inputs.
$\mathcal{M}$ computes a function $f: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma^{*}$, where $f(w)$ is the content of the output tape of $\mathcal{M}$ running on input $w$ when $\mathcal{M}$ halts.
$f$ is called a log-space computable function.

## Definition 12.7

A log-space reduction from $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ to $\mathcal{L}^{\prime} \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ is a log-space computable function $f: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma^{*}$ such that for all $w \in \Sigma^{*}$ :

$$
w \in \mathcal{L} \Longleftrightarrow f(w) \in \mathcal{L}^{\prime}
$$

We write $\mathcal{L} \leq_{L} \mathcal{L}^{\prime}$ in this case.
Definition 12.8
A problem $\mathcal{L} \in \mathrm{NL}$ is complete for NL if every other language in NL is $\log$-space reducible to $\mathcal{L}$.

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| Detour: P-completeness |  |  |  | An NL-Complete Problem |  |  |  |

## Theorem 12.10

Reachability is NL-complete.
Proof idea.
Let $\mathcal{M}$ be a non-deterministic log-space TM deciding $\mathcal{L}$.
On input w:
(1) modify Turing machine to have a unique accepting configuration (easy)
(2) construct the configuration graph (graph whose nodes are configurations of $\mathcal{M}$ and edges represent possible computational steps of $\mathcal{M}$ on w)
(3) find a path from the start configuration to the accepting configuration

## NL-Completeness

Proof sketch.
We construct $\langle G, s, t\rangle$ from $\mathcal{M}$ and $w$ using a log-space transducer:

- A configuration $\left(q, w_{2},\left(p_{1}, p_{2}\right)\right)$ of $\mathcal{M}$ can be described in $c \log n$ space for some constant $c$ and $n=|w|$.
- List the nodes of $G$ by going through all strings of length $c \log n$ and outputting those that correspond to legal configurations.
- List the edges of $G$ by going through all pairs of strings $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$ of length $c \log n$ and outputting those pairs where $C_{1} \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} C_{2}$.
- $s$ is the starting configuration of $G$.
- Assume w.l.o.g. that $\mathcal{M}$ has a single accepting configuration $t$.
$w \in \mathcal{L}$ iff $\langle G, s, t\rangle \in \operatorname{Reachability}$

> (see also Sipser, Theorem 8.25)

## coNL

 coNLAs for time, we consider complement classes for space.

Recall Definition 9.6:
For a complexity class $C$, we define $\operatorname{coC}:=\{\mathcal{L}: \overline{\mathcal{L}} \in \mathrm{C}\}$.
Complement classes for space:

- CONL $:=\{\mathcal{L}: \overline{\mathcal{L}} \in \mathrm{NL}\}$
- CoNPSpace $:=\{\mathcal{L}: \overline{\mathcal{L}} \in$ NPSPace $\}$

From Savitch's theorem:
PSpace = NPSpace and hence conPSpace = PSpace, but merely NL $\subseteq$ DSpace $\left(\log ^{2} n\right)$ and hence CoNL $\subseteq$ DSpace $\left(\log ^{2} n\right)$

Another famous problem in complexity theory: is NL =coNL?

- First stated in 1964 [Kuroda]
- Related question: are complements of context-sensitive languages also context-sensitive?
(such languages are recognized by linear-space bounded TMs)
- Open for decades, although most experts believe NL $\neq$ CONL


## The Immerman-Szelepcsényi Theorem

Surprisingly, two independent people resolve the NL vs. coNL problem simutaneously in 1987

More surprisingly, they show the opposite of what everyone expected:
Theorem 12.11 (Immerman 1987/Szelepcsényi 1987)
NL $=$ coNL.
Proof.
Show that $\overline{\text { REACHABILTY }}$ is in NL.
Remark: alternative explanations provided by

- Sipser (Theorem 8.27)
- Dick Lipton's blog entry We All Guessed Wrong (link)
- Wikipedia Immerman-Szelepcsényi theorem


## Towards Nondeterminsitic Nonreachability

How could we check in logarithmic space that $t$ is not reachable from $s$ ?
Initial idea:

```
NaiveNonReach(G, s,t) :
    for each vertex v of G :
            if CanReach(G, s,v) and v=t :
                return FALSE
    // eventually, if FALSE was not returned above:
    return TRUE
Does this work?
```

No: the check $\operatorname{CanReach}(G, s, v)$ may fail even if $v$ is reachable from $s$ Hence there are many (nondeterministic) runs where the algorithm accepts, although $t$ is reachable from $s$.

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## Towards Nondeterminsitic Nonreachability

Things would be different if we knew
the number count of vertices reachable from $s$ :

```
CountingNonReach( \(G, s, t\), count) :
    reached \(:=0\)
    for each vertex \(v\) of \(G\) :
        if CanReach( \(G, s, v\) ) :
            reached \(:=\) reached +1
            if \(v=t\) :
                return FALSE
    // eventually, if FALSE was not returned above:
    return (count \(=\) reached)
```

Problem: how can we know count?

## Counting Reachable Vertices - Intuition

Idea:

- Count number of vertices reachable in at most length steps
- we call this number count ${ }_{\text {length }}$
- then the number we are looking for is count $=$ count $_{|V(G)|-1}$
- Use a limited-length reachability test:

CanReach( $G, s, v$, length): " $t$ reachable from $s$ in $G$ in $\leq$ length steps" (we actually implemented $\operatorname{CanREach}(G, s, v)$ as $\operatorname{CanReach~}(G, s, v,|V(G)|-1)$ )

- Compute the count iteratively, starting with length $=0$ steps:
- for length $>0$, go through all vertices $u$ of $G$ and check if they are reachable
- to do this, for each such $u$, go through all $v$ reachable by a shorter path, and check if you can directly reach $u$ from them
- use the counting trick to make sure you don't miss any $v$ (the required number count length was computed before)


## Completing the Proof of NL = CoNL

The count for length $=0$ is 1 . For length $>0$, we compute as follows:

```
01 CountReachable(G, s, length, count length-1) :
02 count :=1 // we always count }
03 for each vertex }u\mathrm{ of }G\mathrm{ such that }u\not=s\mathrm{ :
04 reached :=0
05 for each vertex v of G :
            for each vertex v of G :
                    reached := reached +1
            if G has an edge v 
                    count := count + 1
                    GOTO 03 // continue with next u
            if reached< count length-1 :
            REJECT // whole algorithm fails
    return count
if CanReach(G, s,v, length - 1) :
```

Putting the ingredients together:

Putting the ingredients together:

```
\(01 \operatorname{NonReachable}(G, s, t)\) :
02 count \(:=1 / /\) number of nodes reachable in 0 steps
    for \(\ell:=1\) to \(|V(G)|-1\) :
        count \(_{\text {prev }}:=\) count
        count \(:=\operatorname{CountReachable}^{(G, s}, \ell\), count \(\left._{\text {prev }}\right)\)
    return CountingNonReach( \(G, s, t\), count)
It is not hard to see that this procedure runs in logarithmic space, since we use a fixed number of counters and pointers.
use a fixed number of counters and pointers.
```

