

Query Complexity of Mastermind Variants

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Abstract

We study variants of Mastermind, a popular board game in which the objective is sequence reconstruction. In this two-player game, the so-called *codemaker* constructs a hidden sequence $H = (h_1, h_2, \dots, h_n)$ of colors selected from an alphabet $\mathcal{A} = \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ (i.e., $h_i \in \mathcal{A}$ for all $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$). The game then proceeds in turns, each of which consists of two parts: in turn t , the second player (the *codebreaker*) first submits a query sequence $Q_t = (q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n)$ with $q_i \in \mathcal{A}$ for all i , and second receives feedback $\Delta(Q_t, H)$, where Δ is some agreed-upon function of distance between two sequences with n components. The game terminates when $Q_t = H$, and the codebreaker seeks to end the game in as few turns as possible. Throughout we let $f(n, k)$ denote the smallest integer such that the codebreaker can determine any H in $f(n, k)$ turns.[2] We prove three main results: First, we show that the Minimax algorithm from [3] identifies any H in at most nk queries. Second, when H is known to be a permutation of the alphabet $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, we prove that $f(n, n) \geq n - \log \log(n)$ for all sufficiently large n . Third, when feedback is not received until all queries have been submitted, we show that there exists a constant $c > 0$ such that $f(n, k) \geq c \cdot n \log(k)$.

1 Introduction

Variants of Mastermind are a family of two-player games centered around reconstruction of a hidden sequence. In all variants of the game, one player is given the role of *codemaker*, and the other is denoted the *codebreaker*. The codemaker begins the game by constructing a hidden sequence $H = (h_1, h_2, \dots, h_n)$ where each component is selected from an alphabet $\mathcal{A} = \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ of k colors (that is, $h_i \in \mathcal{A}$ for all $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$). The goal of the codebreaker is to uniquely determine the hidden sequence H through a series of queries, which are submissions of vectors of the form $Q_t = (q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n)$. The codebreaker always seeks to determine H with as few queries as possible, however the nature of these queries, the feedback received after a query, and the restrictions on H differ between variants.

The variants of Mastermind which we will study are differentiated by settings of the tuple (n, k, Δ, R, A) . These parameters are defined as follows:

- (i) (n) *Length of Sequence*. The parameter n denotes the length of the hidden sequence H created by the codemaker, hence $H = (h_1, h_2, \dots, h_n)$. The codebreaker is also required to submit query vectors of length n , so the t^{th} query vector takes the form $Q_t = (q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n)$.
- (ii) (k) *Size of Alphabet*. This parameter determines the number of possible values for components of H and Q_t . Associated with each game is an alphabet $\mathcal{A} = \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ from which the components of H and Q_t are selected. That is, $h_i \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ and $q_i \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$.

(iii) (Δ) *Distance Function*. Each variant of mastermind has an associated distance function Δ , which is employed as follows. For each query sequence $Q_t = (q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n)$ submitted by the codebreaker, the codemaker gives feedback $\Delta(Q_t, H)$, where Δ is the agreed-upon function of distance between two sequences of length n . The information yielded by $\Delta(Q_t, H)$ clearly influences the number of queries needed to identify the hidden vector H . For example, if Δ is defined by $\Delta(Q_t, H) = H$ then trivially the codebreaker can determine H in one query, or if we define $\Delta(Q_t, H) = 0$ then all sequences of length n must be queried to guarantee a winning query. We study the following distance functions:

- a. “*Black-peg and white-peg*.” Let Q_t and H be as above. The black-peg and white-peg distance function is defined by $\Delta(Q_t, H) = (b(Q_t, H), w(Q_t, H))$ where

$$b(Q_t, H) = |\{i \in \mathbb{Z} \mid q_i = h_i, 1 \leq i \leq n\}|, \quad (1)$$

and

$$w(Q_t, H) = \max_{\sigma} b(\sigma(Q_t), H) - b(Q_t, H),$$

where σ iterates over all permutations of Q_t . We note that this is the distance function used in the original game of Mastermind.

- b. “*Black-peg-only*.” When Δ is the black-peg-only distance function, it is defined by $\Delta(Q_t, H) = b(Q_t, H)$, where b is defined as in equation (1).

(iv) (R) *Repetition*. The parameter R is a Boolean restriction on the components of H . If R is true, we say that the variant game is *with repeats* or that repeats are allowed. In this case, the hidden vector H may have repeated colors, that is, we allow $h_i = h_j$ for any $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. When R is false, we say that the variant is *no repeats*, and we require $h_i \neq h_j$ when $i \neq j$, and so we necessarily require $k \geq n$. In particular, when R is false and $k = n$, we have that H must be a permutation of $(1, 2, \dots, n)$, and we refer to this variant as the *Permutation Game*.

(v) (A) *Adaptiveness*. The Boolean parameter A determines whether the codebreaker receives feedback after each query. If A is true, we say that the game is *adaptive*. In this case the game consists of two-part turns: on the t^{th} turn, the codebreaker first submits a query sequence Q_t , and then receives feedback $\Delta(Q_t, H)$. The codebreaker may use the feedback to inform the query Q_{t+1} made in turn $t + 1$, and the game ends in turn s if and only if $Q_s = H$.

When A is false, we say that the game is *non-adaptive*. In this case the codebreaker submits m queries Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_m all at once (where the codebreaker chooses m). The codemaker then reports a feedback vector of the form $(\Delta(Q_1, H), \Delta(Q_2, H), \dots, \Delta(Q_m, H))$, after which the codebreaker must submit the final query \bar{Q} . The codebreaker wins if and only if $\bar{Q} = H$.

Throughout we define $f(n, k, \Delta, R, A)$ to be the smallest integer such that the codebreaker can determine any hidden sequence H in $f(n, k, \Delta, R, A)$ queries during a game with the corresponding assignment of n, k, Δ, R , and A . We will denote true and false by T and F , respectively, for assignment of Boolean variables. For example, Donald Knuth’s result that the original game of Mastermind (four positions, six colors, black-peg and white-peg, with repeats, and adaptive) can always be determined after four turns is equivalently stated as $f(4, 6, \Delta = (b, w), R = T, A = T) \leq 4$ (in fact, this bound holds with equality). We will write simply $f(n, k)$ when the context is clear.

We focus only on analyzing the worst-case performance of query strategies for variants of Mastermind. That is, we always consider the number of queries necessary to guarantee identification of any hidden vector. We prove three main results, each of which builds on the previous work related to a given Mastermind variant.

Theorem 1. Consider the original variant of Mastermind (allowing arbitrary n and k), defined by $\Delta = (b, w)$, $R = T$, $A = T$. The Minimax algorithm, described by Donald Knuth in 1976, identifies any hidden sequence H in at most nk queries.

As a corollary, we have $f(n, k, \Delta = (b, w), R = T, A = T) \leq nk$. Knuth's Minimax algorithm is empirically the best method for solving small games of Mastermind (n and k less than 10) in as few guesses as possible. However, it has proven difficult to analyze the asymptotic performance of the Minimax algorithm, primarily because its behavior is determined by the distribution of possibilities for H , which is difficult to analyze in general terms (see [4] and [5]). To our knowledge, this is the first upper bound on the worst-case performance of the minimax algorithm, but if it performs near-optimally for large n and k , we would expect this bound to be much smaller. We know, for example, that $f(n, k) = O(n \log k)$ for k not too large (see [3] and [4]).

Our second main result concerns the Permutation Game, in which $n = k$ and $R = F$, thus restricting the hidden sequence H to be a permutation of the alphabet \mathcal{A} .

Theorem 2. Consider the Permutation Game defined by $n = k$ and $R = F$. Let $\Delta = b$ (black-peg-only distance function) and let A be fixed. Then for all sufficiently large n , we have

$$f(n, k = n, \Delta = b, R = F, A) \geq n - \log \log(n).$$

Explicit algorithms that take $O(n \log n)$ turns to solve this variant were developed by Ko and Teng in [4], and Ouali and Sutherland in [5]. Ko and Teng approach the problem with an algorithm akin to binary search. The algorithm queries a sequence Q_t , swaps two components, and queries again, doing so repeatedly until a previously unknown component of H is determined by the values of the distance function across these repeated queries. Ouali and Sutherland improve this algorithm primarily by altering the search routine after a single component of H has been identified. In this way, Ouali and Sutherland achieve an average factor of 2 reduction in the number of queries needed to identify H . In our notation, these results state that there exists a constant $c > 0$ such that $f(n, k = n, \Delta = b, R = F, A = T) \leq c \cdot n \log(n)$.

Via a basic information-theoretic argument, one can show that the Permutation Game also satisfies $f(n, n) \geq n - n / \log(n) + c$ for some constant $c > 0$. We improve this lower bound to $f(n, n) \geq n - \log(n)$ for small n , and $f(n, n) \geq n - \log \log(n)$ for sufficiently large n . To our knowledge, this constitutes the first improvement over the trivial information-theoretic lower bound for the Permutation Game variant of Mastermind.

Our third result relates to non-adaptive variants of Mastermind, which correspond to $A = F$ in our notation.

Theorem 3. Consider non-adaptive Mastermind, defined by $A = F$. Let Δ be the black-peg-only distance function, and let n , k , and R be fixed. Then there exists a constant $c > 0$ such that

$$f(n, k, \Delta = b, R, A = F) \geq c \cdot n \log(k).$$

This theorem was proved by Doerr et al for the case $R = T$, $k \geq n$ in [1]. They use an information-theoretic argument based on Shannon entropy by letting the hidden sequence be randomly chosen. Shannon entropy is discussed briefly in Section (3.1.1).

We use a similar argument to extend this to $R = F$.

These lower bounds together cover the case $n \geq k$. For neither choice of R do we have provably optimal upper bounds; when $R = T$ a corollary of a result by Doerr et al. in [1] gives an upper bound of $O(k \log k)$ guesses, and for $R = F$ no improvement over the nk bound is known. On the other hand, Doerr et al. are able to extend a result of Chvátal to provide tight bounds for $n \leq k$ with $R = T$.

2 Adaptive Variants of Mastermind

2.1 The Permutation Game

We begin by performing an analysis of the Permutation Game, defined by $n = k$ and $R = F$. These parameters together imply $H = \bar{\sigma}(\mathcal{A})$ for some permutation $\bar{\sigma} \in S_k$ (recalling that $\mathcal{A} = \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$). Moreover, recalling the definition of the white-peg distance function

$$w(Q_t, H) = \max_{\sigma \in S_{Q_t}} b(\sigma(Q_t), H) - b(Q_t, H),$$

and letting $Q_t = \tau(\mathcal{A})$ for some $\tau \in S_k$, we have that with $\sigma = \bar{\sigma} \circ \tau^{-1}$ we have $\sigma(Q_t) = \bar{\sigma} \circ \tau^{-1} \circ \tau(\mathcal{A})$ which is just H , and then $b(\sigma(Q_t), H) = b(H, H)$ is necessarily maximized with a value of n . Then $w(Q_t, H) = n - b(Q_t, H)$ and is uniquely determined by $b(Q_t, H)$ and the information provided by white-peg responses is therefore irrelevant. As such, for the permutation game, we will let $\Delta = b$ as $\Delta = bw$ is precisely the same game.

As stated in the introduction, an upper bound $f(n, n) \leq c \cdot n \log(n)$ was proved in 1986 by Ko and Teng, and again in 2013 for a smaller constant $c > 0$ by Ouali and Sutherland. Here we establish lower bounds for $f(n, n) = f(n, k = n, \Delta = b, R = F, A = T)$ concerning the Permutation Game.

2.1.1 Trivial Lower Bound

We begin by establishing the trivial information-theoretic result that

$$f(n, n) \geq \log_n(n!) = n - \frac{n}{\ln(n)} + O(1).$$

Proof. Consider an instance of the Permutation Game with the black-peg-only distance function Δ . To uniquely identify H after m turns, the query response vector $(\Delta(Q_1, H), \Delta(Q_2, H), \dots, \Delta(Q_m, H))$ must distinguish between all $n!$ permutations of the alphabet \mathcal{A} . In the t^{th} turn, the codebreaker submits a query sequence Q_t , which has n possible associated responses given by $\Delta(Q_t, H) \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-2, n\}$. We note that it is not possible to get $\Delta(Q_t, H) = n-1$ in the Permutation Game. Therefore there are n^m possible query response vectors of length m , hence to identify H in m queries requires that $n^m \geq n!$. This implies $m \geq \log_n(n!)$, and the result follows immediately. \square

2.1.2 Buckets

To improve upon the trivial lower bound, we first introduce terminology with which to analyze the distribution of the possible solutions after feedback $\Delta(Q_t, H)$ from a given query Q_t . Let Δ be the black-peg-only distance function. Given a query vector Q_t , the codebreaker may partition the set S_t of remaining solutions into subsets which we will call *buckets*; one bucket for each possible response given by the codemaker. We now formalize the notion of a bucket.

Consider the t^{th} turn in an instance of the Permutation Game. As described in the introduction, the codebreaker may use the responses $\Delta(Q_1, H), \Delta(Q_2, H), \dots, \Delta(Q_{t-1}, H)$ to construct a minimal set S_t of sequences such that $H \in S_t$. Suppose the codebreaker submits the query $Q_t = (q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n)$. Then we define the *bucket* $B_t(s)$ implied by response $\Delta(Q_t, H) = s$ to be

$$B_t(s) = \{X \in S_t \mid \Delta(Q_t, X) = s\}.$$

Such a construct is useful in that if $\Delta(Q_t, H) = s$, the codebreaker may deduce that if a sequence $X \in S_t$ satisfies $\Delta(Q_t, X) \neq s$, then $X \neq H$. Therefore the codebreaker may construct the set S_{t+1} of possible solutions after the t^{th} turn is complete by setting $S_{t+1} = B_t(s)$.

We now compute the size of a bucket $B_1(s)$ produced in the first turn of an instance of the Permutation Game. First we choose the s colors that are fixed points with respect to the query sequence Q_1 . We then permute the remaining $n - s$ colors without any fixed points, giving $D(n - s)$, the number of derangements of an $(n - s)$ -element vector. Hence we have

$$|B_1(s)| = \binom{n}{s} D(n - s),$$

for the bucket implied by response $\Delta(Q_1, H) = s$. Clearly the buckets $B_1(1), B_1(2), \dots, B_1(n)$ partition the set S_1 of $n!$ possible hidden vectors.

The above computation tells us the *initial* size of each bucket, which is independent of the initial query Q_1 . Now consider the evolution of bucket sizes, *i.e.*, the sequence $|B_1(s)|, |B_2(s)|, |B_3(s)|, \dots$ over the course of an instance of the Permutation Game. We claim that this is a non-increasing sequence. Since $|B_1(s)|$ is independent of Q_1 , assume that $Q_1 = Q_t$. Then the query Q_t , together with response $\Delta(Q_t, H)$, produces a bucket $B_t(s)$ defined by $B_1(s) \cap S_t$. Since $|S_1|, |S_2|, |S_3|, \dots$ is clearly a non-increasing sequence, it must be the case that $|B_t(s)| = |B_1(s) \cap S_t| \geq |B_1(s) \cap S_{t+1}| = |B_{t+1}(s)|$. Hence bucket sizes are bounded above by their initial size, *i.e.*,

$$|B_t(s)| \leq |B_1(s)| = \binom{n}{s} D(n - s).$$

2.1.3 Improved Lower Bound for the Permutation Game

We now employ the notion of a bucket to improve the trivial lower bound for $f(n, n)$ in the context of the Permutation Game.

Theorem 2. Consider the Permutation Game defined by $n = k$ and $R = F$. Let $\Delta = b$ (black-peg-only distance function) and let A be fixed. Then for all sufficiently large n , we have

$$f(n, k = n, \Delta = b, R = F, A) \geq n - \log \log(n).$$

Proof. Let n be fixed. We give a proof which analyzes the evolution of $L(t)$, which we define to be a lower bound on $|S_t|$. We recall that S_t is the minimal set of sequences guaranteed to contain H given the responses $\Delta(Q_1, H), \Delta(Q_2, H), \dots, \Delta(Q_{t-1}, H)$. We compute this lower bound by using a hypothetical set of queries $\{Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_{t-1}\}$, constructed such that Q_i maximizes the difference $|S_i| - |S_{i-1}|$. That is, each Q_i guarantees to “rule out” the maximal number possibilities for H in the i^{th} turn. The least rapidly decreasing sequence $|S_1|, |S_2|, |S_3|, \dots$ for this set of queries will converge to $|S_i| = |S_{i+1}| = 1$, and the turn in which this convergence is initially reached will provide a lower bound for $f(n, n)$. Our approach is to find a number r such that that $t \geq r$ implies $L(t) = 1$. We proceed by induction on t .

Consider the t^{th} turn in an instance of the Permutation Game. In the terminology of buckets, the codebreaker constructs the set S_t in turn t by setting $S_t = B_{t-1}(\Delta(Q_{t-1}, H))$. To choose an “optimal” query sequence Q_t (in the sense described above, which maximizes $|S_{t+1}| - |S_t|$), the codebreaker therefore must choose a sequence Q_t which minimizes

$$\max_{s \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}} |B_{t+1}(s)|.$$

Equivalently, the codebreaker chooses Q_t such that the size of the largest bucket is as small as possible. By the discussion in Section (2.1.2), we know that $|B_t(s)| \leq \binom{n}{s} D(n - s)$. The optimal query Q_t will partition S_t into buckets as evenly as possible, and some buckets will have size equal to their upper

bound, while others will be partially filled. This best-possible partition will partition S_t into two sets X and Y of buckets, such that $A \in X$ implies bucket A is incompletely filled, $B \in Y$ implies bucket B is completely filled, and $A \in X, B \in Y$ implies that the upper bound on $|A|$ is greater than the upper bound on $|B|$. Let $x = |X|$, so that x is the number of incompletely filled buckets.

We now give a recurrence which bounds $L(t)$. At the beginning of the t -th turn, we have at least $L(t-1)$ possible solutions remaining, so $|S_t| \geq L(t-1)$. Suppose that the codebreaker has selected the optimal query vector Q_t for submission in turn t . We then have

$$\begin{aligned}
L(t-1) &\leq \sum_{i=0}^n |B_i(t)| \\
&= \sum_{i=0}^{x-1} |B_i(t)| + \sum_{i=x}^n |B_i(t)| \\
&\leq \sum_{i=0}^{x-1} L(t) + \sum_{i=x}^n \binom{n}{i} D(n-i) \quad \text{for optimal } x \\
&= x \cdot L(t) + \sum_{i=x}^n \binom{n}{i} D(n-i). \tag{2}
\end{aligned}$$

Once we fix $L(t)$, we claim that the inequality in equation (2) holds for all x . Picking x larger than its optimal value increases the contribution of some of the entirely filled, smaller buckets up to $L(t)$, thus increasing the total sum. Picking x too small increases the contribution of some of the underfilled, larger buckets up to their full sizes, thereby increasing the total sum. So adjustment of x about its optimal value always preserves the inequality. Thus for all x we have

$$L(t-1) \leq x \cdot L(t) + \sum_{i=x}^n \binom{n}{i} D(n-i) \quad \forall x,$$

where t is the number of turns taken, $L(t)$ is a lower bound on $|S_{t+1}|$ (the number of possible solutions remaining after the t -th turn), and D is the derangements function.

We now prove the following lemma.

Lemma 1.

$$\sum_{i=x}^n \binom{n}{i} D(n-i) \leq \frac{n!}{x!}.$$

Proof. A combinatorial argument can be made as follows: The left-hand side denotes the number of permutations of an n -element vector which have at least x fixed points. Suppose we choose x fixed points and simply permute the rest of the vector. This gives $\binom{n}{x}(n-x)! = \frac{n!}{x!}$ possible permutations. Clearly this includes all vectors with at least x fixed points (and over-counts by some margin), so the inequality holds. \square

Using Lemma 1, we have

$$L(t-1) \leq x \cdot L(t) + \frac{n!}{x!},$$

which gives

$$L(t) \geq \frac{1}{x} \left(L(t-1) - \frac{n!}{x!} \right).$$

The following lemma will also be of use.

Lemma 2. We recall that n is fixed in defining $L(t)$. For any constant C_n , we have

$$\frac{L(t)}{n!} \geq \frac{C_n! - (H_{C_n+t} - H_{C_n})}{(C_n + t)!}$$

where $0 \leq t \leq n - C_n$ and $H_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i}$ is the n^{th} harmonic number.

Proof. This equation holds for all x , so to achieve a desirable bound, we will let $x = t + C_n$ for any positive constant C_n . We have

Base Case. When $t = 0$, we have $S_n(0) = n!$ and

$$\frac{L(0)}{n!} \geq \frac{C_n! - (H_{C_n} - H_{C_n})}{C_n!} = 1$$

Inductive Step. Assume the induction hypothesis holds for $t - 1$.

$$\frac{L(t)}{n!} \geq \frac{1}{x} \left(\frac{L(t-1)}{n!} - \frac{1}{x!} \right)$$

Let $x = C_n + t$.

$$\frac{L(t)}{n!} \geq \frac{1}{C_n + t} \left(\frac{L(t-1)}{n!} - \frac{1}{(C_n + t)!} \right)$$

Inductively,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{L(t)}{n!} &\geq \frac{1}{C_n + t} \left(\frac{C_n! - (H_{C_n+t} - H_{C_n})}{(C_n + t - 1)!} - \frac{1}{(C_n + t)!} \right) \\ &\geq \left(\frac{C_n! - (H_{C_n+t-1} - H_{C_n}) - \frac{1}{C_n+t}}{(C_n + t)!} \right) \\ &\geq \left(\frac{C_n! - (H_{C_n+t} - H_{C_n})}{(C_n + t)!} \right) \end{aligned}$$

□

Then for $t = n - C_n$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} L(n - C_n) &\geq n! \left(\frac{C_n! - (H_n - H_{C_n})}{n!} \right) \\ &\geq C_n! - (H_n - H_{C_n}). \end{aligned}$$

We choose C_n by the following reasoning: we want to achieve a lower bound of $n - C_n$ turns to solve the game. This would occur if $L(n - C_n)$ were greater than 1, as there would still be at least 2 possible solutions after $n - C_n$ turns, and thus the game would not yet be solved. Thus, we want

$$C_n! - (H_n - H_{C_n}) > 1.$$

When $C_n = \log \log n$, we have $C_n! - (H_n - H_{C_n}) > 1$ for $n \geq e^{198}$, and when $C_n = \log n$, this is true for $n \geq 10$.

In conclusion, when n is sufficiently large, the minimum number of remaining possible solutions after $n - \log \log n$ guesses is at least

$$\begin{aligned} L(n - \log \log n) &\geq (\log \log n)! - (H_n - H_{\log \log n}) \\ &> 1 \end{aligned}$$

Thus there is no strategy that can identify any hidden sequence in $n - \log \log(n)$ turns or fewer. Therefore, in the Permutation Game variant of Mastermind, we have $f(n, n) \geq n - \log \log(n)$ for all sufficiently large n . \square

2.2 Linear Algebra and the Minimax Algorithm

We now move on to an analysis of the Minimax algorithm. In order to discuss it, we first change our notation. We can represent all guess vectors and hidden vectors as $(0, 1)$ -vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$, which, for convenience, we write as matrices. A standard vector is converted into a matrix in the following manner: the i, j -th entry is 1 if the i -th spot of the original vector is the j -th color, and 0 otherwise. As such, each row will have exactly one 1, as each spot is exactly one color.

With this notation, the black-peg distance becomes the inner product of the representations of the guess and the solution, as there will be a contribution to the inner product exactly when both representations have a one in the same column in the same row, i.e. there is a color in the same spot.

As such, we want to find the (necessarily unique) valid matrix representation such that its inner product with the hidden vector is n , as this has to match in n spots and therefore must be the hidden vector. By linearity of the inner product, once we know the value of the inner product of the hidden vector with some set of guess vectors, we know the value of the inner product of the hidden vector with any vector in the span of the guess vectors. Therefore, it is an immediate consequence that a winning strategy can be found by querying a basis for the span of the valid guess vectors, which, as a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$, must be of size at most nk . Note that this strategy does not make use of adaptive feedback, of white-peg responses, or the condition on repeated colors. Thus, for any choice of Δ , A , and R , we have $f(n, k) \leq nk$.

However, this representation also allows us to bound the minimax algorithm. We claim that at each turn, the minimax either guesses the solution or guesses a vector whose representation is linearly independent of the previous guesses.

Proof. If the solution is known, the minimax algorithm will guess it. This will definitely occur when the solution's representation is a linear combination of the previous guess vectors, as by the logic above we can compute its inner product with the hidden vector, i.e. itself, so the inner product will be n . As there can be only one valid representation whose inner product with the hidden vector is n , we have found the solution.

Otherwise, the solution is linearly independent from the previous guess vectors. Assume this is the case. If it is still uniquely determined, the algorithm will guess it. Regardless, guessing a vector q that is a linear combination of the previous guesses returns no new information, as the response to that guess can already be computed. Since q is linearly dependent on the previous guesses, it cannot, by our assumption, be the solution, and so guessing it eliminates 0 vectors and doesn't solve the game. If we can find a new query r that is guaranteed to either eliminate at least 1 vector or solve the game, the minimax algorithm will choose r over q . Since the solution must exist and by our assumption is linearly independent of the guess vectors, there is at least one vector linearly independent of the previous guesses. Guessing such a vector is guaranteed to win the game with a black-peg response of n , or eliminate itself with any other response. Thus, according to the minimax algorithm, guessing any

vector linearly independent of the previous guesses will always be strictly better than guessing a linearly dependent vector, and so if the solution is unknown the best guess will be necessarily independent of the previous guesses. \square

Since these representations are in $R^{n \times k}$, the minimax algorithm can make at most nk linearly independent guesses. After that, the minimax cannot make a linearly independent guess and by the above lemma must then guess the solution, for an upper bound of $nk + 1$ turns.

3 Non-Adaptive Variants

This section follows closely the reasoning of Doerr et al. [1] as they analyze non-adaptive games. We perform an analysis of the Mastermind variant in which Δ is the black-peg-only distance function, $R = F$ and $A = F$ (i.e., no repeats and non-adaptive). We first introduce Shannon entropy, which we then employ to give a lower bound for $f(n, k)$ when no repeats are allowed. We conclude with a small extension of one of the proofs due to Doerr et al. to provide an upper bound on $f(n, k)$ for non-adaptive variants when $k \geq n$.

3.1 Non-Adaptive, No Repeats, and Black-peg-only Distance Function

3.1.1 Shannon Entropy

First we give a brief definition of entropy in the context of information theory, where it is often called *Shannon entropy*. Shannon entropy is intuitively the “expected level of surprise” of an event, and hence is based upon the definition of a surprise function S . Let X and Y be random variables and let $X = x$ and $Y = y$ be events. Then we define a surprise function S which satisfies that $S(X = x) = 0$ if $\mathbb{P}[x] = 1$, $S(X = x) = 1$ if $\mathbb{P}[x] = 1/2$, $S(X = x)$ is decreasing in $\mathbb{P}[x]$, and $S(X = x \wedge Y = y) = S(X = x) + S(Y = y \mid X = x)$. These four properties together uniquely determine that $S(X = x) = -\log_2(\mathbb{P}[x])$.

Let D be the domain of the random variable X . Then the *Shannon entropy* $N(X)$ of the random variable X is defined to be

$$\begin{aligned} N(X) &= \mathbb{E}[S(X)] \\ &= \sum_{x \in D} \mathbb{P}[X = x] \cdot (-\log_2(\mathbb{P}[X = x])). \end{aligned}$$

One can easily show that Shannon entropy is *subadditive*. That is, if X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are random variables, then

$$N(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n N(X_i). \quad (3)$$

We will use Shannon entropy in the following proofs.

3.1.2 Lower Bound: $f(n, k, \Delta = b, R = F, A = F)$

Theorem 3. Consider non-adaptive Mastermind, defined by $A = F$. Let Δ be the black-peg-only distance function, and let n , k , and R be fixed. Then

$$f(n, k, \Delta = b, R, A = F) = \Omega(n \log(k)).$$

Proof. Our proof draws substantially from techniques used in [1]. Consider a set $\{Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_s\}$ of s query sequences such that all $k!/(k-n)!$ possible hidden sequences are uniquely determined by the responses $\Delta(Q_1, H), \Delta(Q_2, H), \dots, \Delta(Q_s, H)$. That is, assume that if two possible hidden vectors H and H' satisfy $\Delta(Q_i, H) = \Delta(Q_i, H')$ for all i , then $H = H'$.

Let the hidden vector Z be sampled uniformly at random from the set of $k!/(k-n)!$ possibilities. Then consider the random variables $Y_i = b(Z, q_i)$ be the responses for each guess. Then the vector $Y = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_s)$ is a random variable and always uniquely determines, and is uniquely determined

by, Z . Therefore $N(Z) = N(Y)$ (which follows from the fourth property of the surprise function S). Since Z is a random variable with $k!/(k-n)!$ outcomes of equal probability, we have

$$N(Z) = \log_2 \left(\frac{k!}{(k-n)!} \right). \quad (4)$$

By (3), we have

$$H(Y) \leq \sum_{i=1}^s H(Y_i). \quad (5)$$

So now we bound $N(Y_i)$. By its definition,

$$N(Y_i) = - \sum_{x=0}^n \mathbb{P}[Y_i = x] \cdot \log_2(\mathbb{P}[Y_i = x]). \quad (6)$$

We now compute $\mathbb{P}[Y_i = x]$, namely the probability that X is a solution vector with x fixed points with respect to the query q_i . Using our previous terminology, this is the probability that X is in bucket x . Using the same logic as in Lemma 1 to bound the $|B(x)|$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}[Y_i = x] &= \frac{|B(x)|}{\left(\frac{k!}{(k-n)!} \right)} \\ &\leq \frac{\binom{n}{x} \frac{(k-x)!}{(k-n)!}}{\left(\frac{k!}{(k-n)!} \right)} \\ &= \frac{1}{x!} \cdot \frac{\left(\frac{n!}{(n-x)!} \right)}{\left(\frac{k!}{(k-x)!} \right)} \\ &= \frac{1}{x!} \cdot \frac{n(n-1) \cdots (n-x+1)}{k(k-1) \cdots (k-x+1)} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{x!}. \end{aligned}$$

We want to plug this upper bound into (6). For $\alpha < 1/e$, $f(\alpha) = -\alpha \log_2 \alpha$ is an increasing function. So we can plug in the upper bound of $\Pr[X = x] \leq 1/x!$ when $x \geq 3$ and still have an upper bound.

For the first three values, we will use the upper bound $f(\alpha) \leq 1/(e \log 2)$.

$$\begin{aligned}
H(Y_i) &\leq \frac{3}{e \log 2} + \sum_{x=3}^n -\frac{1}{x!} \cdot \log_2\left(\frac{1}{x!}\right) \\
&= \frac{3}{e \log 2} + \sum_{x=3}^n \frac{\log_2(x!)}{x!} \\
&\leq \frac{3}{e \log 2} + \sum_{x=3}^n \frac{x \log_2 x}{x!} \\
&\leq \frac{3}{e \log 2} + \sum_{x=3}^n \frac{x(x-1)}{x!} \\
&= \frac{3}{e \log 2} + \sum_{x=3}^n \frac{1}{(x-2)!} \\
&\leq \frac{3}{e \log 2} + e - 1 \\
&< 4.
\end{aligned}$$

Combining this with (5) gives $H(Y) \leq 4s$, and since $H(Z) = H(Y)$ we have $H(Z) \leq 4s$. Substituting in (4) as a lower bound for $H(Z)$ and solving for s gives

$$s \geq \frac{1}{4} \log_2 \left(\frac{k!}{(k-n)!} \right)$$

By Stirling's approximation, the right-hand side is $O(n \log k)$, so this gives us a lower bound of $O(n \log k)$ turns for any non-adaptive strategy for Mastermind with no repeats. \square

3.1.3 Extension to an Upper Bound for Non-Adaptive Variants with Repeats

Consider non-adaptive variants of Mastermind in which repetitions are allowed. First we note that when $k = n$, [1] showed the existence of a set of $O(n \log n)$ queries which uniquely identify any hidden sequence H . When $k > n$, one can simply extend H and all queries Q_t by $k-n$ “auxiliary” positions until $n = k$. We fill these auxiliary positions with arbitrary colors, and we adjust the responses accordingly to account for the auxiliary positions. By [1]’s result, there exists a set of $O(k \log k)$ queries which will uniquely identify any hidden sequence.

References

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