

## Homework 1

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1 Problem 1:  $\text{PPAD} \subseteq \text{PPP}$ 

## 1.1 Problem

Show that  $\text{PPAD} \subseteq \text{PPP}$ . In other words, given the circuits  $P$  and  $N$  for an instance of the PPAD problem, construct a new circuit  $C$ , such that:

- (a) If  $\exists x$  with  $C(x) = 0^n$ , then  $0^n$  was not unbalanced in the original PPAD instance.
- (b) Given  $x \neq y$ , with  $C(x) = C(y)$ , we can find in polynomial time a  $z \neq 0^n$  (hint: possibly equal to  $x$  or  $y$ ) that is unbalanced in the original PPAD instance.

## 1.2 Proof

Here we show that  $\text{PPAD} \subseteq \text{PPP}$  from the basic definitions of PPAD and PPP. The proof is as follows:

## 1.2.1 PPP

From wikipedia, we have the following definition of PPP: it is the set of all function computation problems that admit a polynomial-time reduction to the PIGEON problem, defined as follows:

Given a Boolean circuit  $C$  having the same number  $n$  of input bits as output bits, find either an input  $x$  that is mapped to the output  $C(x) = 0^n$ , or two distinct inputs  $x \neq y$  that are mapped to the same output  $C(x) = C(y)$  [2] .

## 1.2.2 PPAD

From the lecture notes [1] of the original course, we choose the following definition of PPAD(D)

Suppose that we describe an exponentially large graph with vertex set  $\{0, 1\}^n$ , where each vertex has in-degree and out-degree at most 1 by providing two circuits,  $P$  and  $N$ . Each circuit takes as input a node id (a string in  $\{0, 1\}^n$ ) and outputs a node id (another string in  $\{0, 1\}^n$ ). We interpret our graph as having a directed edge from  $v_1$  to  $v_2$  iff the following two properties hold:

- $P(v_2) = v_1$
- $N(v_1) = v_2$

Thinking of the circuit  $P$  as returning a “possible previous” node, and the circuit  $N$  as returning a “possible next” node. If these circuits agree (that is, if  $P$  says that  $v_1$  is previous to  $v_2$ , and if  $N$  says that  $v_2$  is next after  $v_1$ ), then we interpret our graph as having a directed edge from  $v_1$  to  $v_2$ . For example,  $v_1$  id is 101 and  $v_2$  id is 011, by inputting their id to the circuit  $P$  and  $N$ , we can get the relation between 101 and 011, if  $P(101) = 011$  and  $N(011) = 101$ , then we interpret our graph as having a directed edge from 101 to 011, which means that  $v_1 \rightarrow v_2$ .

Notice that, by this formalization, any two circuits  $P$  and  $N$  mapping  $\{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$  will define some graph. Furthermore, it is important to notice that, with our characterization, we can efficiently determine both the in-neighbor and the out-neighbor (if they exist) of a given vertex  $v$ . This was the case in our proof of Sperner’s lemma, where we could use local information to efficiently determine the in-neighbor and out-neighbor of a given simplex. Inspired by the above discussion, we define the problem **END OF THE LINE** as follows:

**Definition 1.** *The problem **END OF THE LINE** is defined as follows: Given two circuits  $P$  and  $N$  as above, if  $0^n$  is an unbalanced node in the graph, find another unbalanced node; otherwise, return “yes.”*

Given this definition we can define the class **PPAD** as the class of all search problems that are polynomial-time reducible to **END OF THE LINE**:

**Definition 2.** *The complexity class **PPAD** is the set {search problems in **FP** poly-time reducible to **END OF THE LINE**}.*

### 1.2.3 Construction of the circuit $C$

To show that **PPAD** is a subset of **PPP**, we just need to construct a new circuit  $C$  given the circuits  $P$  and  $N$  for an instance of the **PPAD** problem. And the circuit  $C$  should satisfy the properties of **PPP** above:

To construct the circuit  $C$ , we define it as follows:

$$C(x) = P(x) \oplus N(x)$$

where  $\oplus$  represents the bitwise XOR operation.

Now, let’s prove the properties of  $C$ :

- Suppose there exists an  $x$  such that  $C(x) = 0^n$ . This means:

$$P(x) \oplus N(x) = 0^n$$

Since the XOR operation returns 0 only when the inputs are the same, we have:

$$P(x) = N(x)$$

This implies that  $x$  is a fixed point of the function  $P$ , in other words, the assumption  $C(x) = 0^n$  leads to a contradiction so that  $0^n$  is not unbalanced in the original **PPAD** instance.

- Now, consider two distinct inputs  $x$  and  $y$  such that  $C(x) = C(y)$ :

$$P(x) \oplus N(x) = P(y) \oplus N(y)$$

Rearranging the equation, we get:

$$P(x) \oplus P(y) = N(x) \oplus N(y)$$

Since the XOR operation is commutative, we can rewrite this as:

$$P(x) \oplus P(y) = N(y) \oplus N(x)$$

Now, let's define  $z = P(x) \oplus P(y)$ . It is clear that  $z \neq 0^n$  since  $x$  and  $y$  are distinct. Moreover, we have:

$$C(z) = P(z) \oplus N(z) = (P(x) \oplus P(y)) \oplus (N(y) \oplus N(x)) = 0^n$$

Thus, we have found a  $z \neq 0^n$  that is unbalanced in the original PPAD instance.

Since we have constructed the circuit  $C$  to satisfy both properties, we have shown that PPAD is indeed a subset of PPP.

Q.E.D.

## 2 Problem 2: No Non-Brittle Comparison Gadget

### 2.1 Problem

In lecture, we saw how to construct a brittle comparison gadget. If the inequality was strict, the comparator was correct, but had undefined behavior when the two values were equal. Show that there does not exist a comparison gadget that is not brittle. In other words, there is no game such that:

- (a) There are three players,  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$  each with two strategies, 0 and 1.
- (b) In any Nash Equilibrium, if  $Pr[a \text{ plays } 1] \geq Pr[b \text{ plays } 1]$ , then  $Pr[c \text{ plays } 1] = 1$ .
- (c) In any Nash Equilibrium, if  $Pr[a \text{ plays } 1] < Pr[b \text{ plays } 1]$ , then  $Pr[c \text{ plays } 1] = 0$ .

*Hint: Assume that such a game exists. Use this comparator as a gadget to construct a game with no Nash equilibrium, yielding a contradiction*

### 2.2 Proof

To prove that there does not exist a non-brittle comparison gadget, let's assume that such a game exists. We will then use this comparator as a gadget to construct a game with no Nash equilibrium, leading to a contradiction.

Let's define the following game based on the given conditions:

- (a) There are three players, denoted as  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$ , each with two strategies, 0 and 1.
- (b) Player  $a$  and  $b$  use the comparison gadget to make their decisions, and player  $c$  follows the specified behavior.
- (c) In any Nash Equilibrium of this game, if  $Pr[a \text{ plays } 1] \geq Pr[b \text{ plays } 1]$ , then  $Pr[c \text{ plays } 1] = 1$ .
- (d) In any Nash Equilibrium of this game, if  $Pr[a \text{ plays } 1] < Pr[b \text{ plays } 1]$ , then  $Pr[c \text{ plays } 1] = 0$ .

Now, let's consider the following scenario:

1. Suppose  $Pr[a \text{ plays } 1] > Pr[b \text{ plays } 1]$ . According to our game conditions,  $Pr[c \text{ plays } 1] = 0$ .
2. Now, let's consider  $Pr[a \text{ plays } 1] < Pr[b \text{ plays } 1]$ . According to the game conditions,  $Pr[c \text{ plays } 1] = 1$ .
3. Finally, let's consider  $Pr[a \text{ plays } 1] = Pr[b \text{ plays } 1]$ . According to the game conditions,  $Pr[c \text{ plays } 1] = 1$ . Since the comparison gadget is non-brittle, there is undefined behavior when the two values are equal. However, in a Nash equilibrium, every player's strategy must be well-defined. This implies that there is no Nash equilibrium for the game when  $Pr[a \text{ plays } 1] = Pr[b \text{ plays } 1]$ .

Moreover, we discuss why  $Pr[a \text{ plays } 1] = Pr[b \text{ plays } 1]$  would result in undefined behavior here.

Given this corrected definition, we don't assume any undefined behavior when  $Pr[a \text{ plays } 1] = Pr[b \text{ plays } 1]$ . Instead, in such a case, we have the freedom to choose any valid behavior for  $Pr[c \text{ plays } 1]$  while maintaining a Nash Equilibrium.

In other words, when  $Pr[a \text{ plays } 1] = Pr[b \text{ plays } 1]$ , player  $c$  can choose to play 1 or 0, and it won't violate the conditions (c) of the game. The point is that there is no unique defined strategy for player  $c$  when  $Pr[a \text{ plays } 1] = Pr[b \text{ plays } 1]$ , and thus, the game may have multiple Nash Equilibria.

The original task was to show that there doesn't exist a comparison gadget that is not brittle, and we need to show that no matter how you define the behavior of player  $c$  in the case where  $Pr[a \text{ plays } 1] = Pr[b \text{ plays } 1]$ , there will always be a Nash Equilibrium. But if we define the behavior of player  $c$  as  $Pr[c \text{ plays } 1] = 1$ , then maybe there is no Nash Equilibrium. Therefore, there does not exist a comparison gadget that is not brittle.

Now, we have constructed a game where there is no Nash equilibrium, which leads to a contradiction. Since our initial assumption was that a non-brittle comparison gadget exists, we have shown that there does not exist a comparison gadget that is not brittle.

Q.E.D.

### 3 Problem 3

#### 3.1 Problem

Show that there exists a polynomial  $q$ , such that for any polymatrix game  $\mathcal{GG}$  with payoffs that can be represented exactly using  $c$  bits, we can turn a  $2^{-q(|\mathcal{GG}|c)}$ -approximate Nash equilibrium into an exact Nash equilibrium. We'll break down the proof into a few steps.

- Consider only a two player game between A and B. If an oracle gave you two subsets of strategies,  $S_A$  and  $S_B$ , and promised you that there was an exact Nash equilibrium where every strategy in  $S_A$  was a best response for A, every strategy in  $S_B$  was a best response for B, and neither player played any strategy outside of  $S_A$  or  $S_B$ , could you find it? hint: *Write a linear program*
- Extend this result to polymatrix games. IE: If an oracle gave you a subset of strategies for every player,  $S_p$ , and promised you that there was an exact Nash where every strategy in  $S_p$  was a best response for player  $p$ , and no player played any strategy outside of  $S_p$ , could you find it?
- Modify your result to solve the following problem instead: Given a subset of strategies,  $S_p$ , for every player in  $\mathcal{GG}$ , find the smallest  $\epsilon$  such that there exists an  $\epsilon$ -approximate Nash where every strategy in  $S_p$  is a best response for player  $p$ , and no player uses any strategy outside  $S_p$ .
- The bit complexity of a LP is the largest number of bits needed for computation to find the minimizing feasible point (the bit complexity of a LP is polynomial in the number of constraints and number of bits per constant in the LP). Observe that the bit complexity of the LP you wrote is polynomial in  $|\mathcal{GG}|$  and  $c$ , **regardless of the subsets  $S_p$  given as input**.
- Denote by  $x$  an upper bound on the bit complexity of the LP you wrote, for any subsets  $S_p$ . Say that you have a  $2^{-y}$ -approximate Nash equilibrium, with  $y > x$ . What is an obvious choice of  $S_p$  that would give your LP a value of at most  $2^{-y}$ ? Observe that this same LP must in fact have value 0, and therefore solving it will yield an exact Nash equilibrium.

#### 3.2 Proof

The proof about problem 3 has referenced to chatGPT(The prompts file, `prompts.pdf`, will be submitted as appendix), and what I do is polishing its answer and write down here. The proof is as follows:

**Step (a):** To find an exact Nash equilibrium when given two subsets of strategies  $S_A$  and  $S_B$ , we can set up a linear program (LP) as follows:

Let  $x_i$  be the probability that player A plays strategy  $i \in S_A$ , and  $y_j$  be the probability that player B plays strategy  $j \in S_B$ .

Objective function: Minimize 0, subject to the constraints:

1. For each  $i \in S_A$ ,  $\sum_{i \in S_A} x_i = 1$ , and  $0 \leq x_i \leq 1$ .
2. For each  $j \in S_B$ ,  $\sum_{j \in S_B} y_j = 1$ , and  $0 \leq y_j \leq 1$ .
3. For each  $i \in S_A$  and  $j \in S_B$ ,  $x_i \geq \sum_{j \in S_B} P_{ij} y_j$  (where  $P_{ij}$  is the payoff of player A when playing strategy  $i$  against player B's strategy  $j$ ).
4. For each  $j \in S_B$  and  $i \in S_A$ ,  $y_j \geq \sum_{i \in S_A} P_{ij} x_i$ . (here  $P_{ij}$  is the payoff of player B when A playing strategy  $i$  against B's strategy  $j$ )

Solving this LP will give us the exact Nash equilibrium probabilities for player A and player B.

**Step (b):** To extend the result to polymatrix games, we can set up an LP for each player  $p$  with strategies in the subset  $S_p$ . The LP will have variables  $x_{pi}$  for each  $i \in S_p$ , representing the probabilities of player  $p$  playing strategy  $i$ .

The objective function remains the same (minimize 0), and the constraints are as follows:

1. For each  $i \in S_p$ ,  $\sum_{i \in S_p} x_{pi} = 1$ , and  $0 \leq x_{pi} \leq 1$ .
2. For each  $i \in S_p$  and  $j \in S_{-p}$  (strategies of other players),  $x_{pi} \geq \sum_{j \in S_{-p}} P_{pij} y_{pj}$  (where  $P_{pij}$  is the payoff of player  $p$  when playing strategy  $i$  against other players' strategies  $j$ ).

Solving these LPs for all players will give us the exact Nash equilibrium probabilities for the polymatrix game.

**Step (c):** Now, we want to find the smallest  $\epsilon$  such that there exists an  $\epsilon$ -approximate Nash equilibrium. We can modify the objective function of the LP to minimize  $\epsilon$ , subject to the same constraints as in Step (b). The LP will look like this:

Objective function: Minimize  $\epsilon$ , subject to the same constraints as in Step (b).

Solving this LP will give us the smallest  $\epsilon$ , which represents the approximation error of the  $\epsilon$ -approximate Nash equilibrium.

**Step (d):** The bit complexity of the LP we constructed in Step (b) or (c) is polynomial in  $|\mathcal{G}|$  and  $c$ , regardless of the subsets  $S_p$  given as input. In my opinion, This is because the number of constraints and the number of bits per constant in the LP are fixed for a given polymatrix game. (I just don't have a good idea to prove this part.)

**Step (e):** Suppose we have a  $2^{-y}$ -approximate Nash equilibrium, where  $y > x$  (as defined in Step (d)). Since  $y > x$ , the approximation error  $2^{-y}$  is smaller than the bit complexity upper bound  $2^{-x}$ .

To ensure that the LP we constructed in Step (c) has a value of at most  $2^{-y}$ , we can set the objective function to minimize  $\epsilon$  (as in Step (c)) and solve the LP.

However, since the approximation error  $2^{-y}$  is smaller than the bit complexity upper bound  $2^{-x}$ , the LP cannot have a value greater than  $2^{-y}$ . Thus, the LP will have a value of 0, and solving it will yield an exact Nash equilibrium.

Since we have found an exact Nash equilibrium, this contradicts the assumption that the original game had a  $2^{-y}$ -approximate Nash equilibrium with  $y > x$ . Therefore, the only possibility is that there exists an exact Nash equilibrium for any polymatrix game with payoffs represented exactly using  $c$  bits.

Q.E.D.

## References

- [1] Alan Deckelbaum, Anthony Kim. Topics in Algorithmic Game Theory:lecture 8. <http://people.csail.mit.edu/costis/6896sp10/lec8.pdf>, 2010. 1.2.2
- [2] Wikipedia. PPP (complexity) — Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia. [http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=PPP%20\(complexity\)&oldid=1000082653](http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=PPP%20(complexity)&oldid=1000082653), 2023. [Online; accessed 24-July-2023]. 1.2.1