The complexity of interior point methods for solving discounted turn-based stochastic games

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Abstract

We study the problem of solving discounted, two player, turn based, stochastic games (2TB-SGs). Jurdziński and Savani showed that 2TBSGs with deterministic transitions can be reduced to solving \( P \)-matrix linear complementarity problems (LCPs). We show that the same reduction works for general 2TBSGs. This implies that a number of interior point methods for solving \( P \)-matrix LCPs can be used to solve 2TBSGs. We consider two such algorithms. First, we consider the unified interior point method of Kojima, Megiddo, Noma, and Yoshise, which runs in time \( O((1 + \kappa) n^{3.5} L) \), where \( \kappa \) is a parameter that depends on the \( n \times n \) matrix \( M \) defining the LCP, and \( L \) is the number of bits in the representation of \( M \). Second, we consider the interior point potential reduction algorithm of Kojima, Megiddo, and Ye, which runs in time \( O(-\delta \theta n^{4} \log \epsilon^{-1}) \), where \( \delta \) and \( \theta \) are parameters that depend on \( M \), and \( \epsilon \) describes the quality of the solution. For 2TBSGs with \( n \) states and discount factor \( \gamma \) we prove that in the worst case \( \kappa = \Theta(n/(1-\gamma)^{2}) \), \( -\delta = \Theta(\sqrt{n}/(1-\gamma)) \), and \( 1/\theta = \Theta(n/(1-\gamma)^{2}) \). The lower bounds for \( \kappa \), \( -\delta \), and \( 1/\theta \) are obtained using the same family of deterministic games.

1 Introduction

Two-player turn-based stochastic games (2TBSGs). A two-player turn-based stochastic game (2TBSG) consists of a finite set of states and for each state a finite set of actions. The game is played by two players (Player 1 and Player 2) for an infinite number of rounds. The states are partitioned into two sets \( S^{1} \) and \( S^{2} \), belonging to Player 1 and Player 2, respectively. In each round the game is in some state, and the player controlling the current state \( i \) chooses an action \( a \) available from state \( i \). Every action is associated with a probability distribution over states, and the next state is picked at random according to the probability distribution for \( a \). After every transition the game ends with probability \( 1 - \gamma > 0 \), where \( \gamma \) is the discount factor of the game. Every action has an associated cost, and the objective of Player 1 is to minimize the expected sum of costs, whereas the objective of Player 2 is to maximize the expected sum of costs, i.e., the game is a zero-sum game. Our main focus is the case where all states have two actions.

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The class of (turn-based) stochastic games was introduced by Shapley [20] in 1953 and has received much attention since then. For books on the subject see, e.g., Neyman and Sorin [16] and Filar and Vrieze [5]. 2TBSGs with a single player, i.e., one player controls all the states, are known as Markov decision processes; a problem that is important in its own right (see, e.g., Puterman [17]). Shapley showed that every state in a 2TBSG has a value that can be enforced by both players (a property known as determinacy). Solving a 2TBSG means finding the values of all the states, and the problem of solving 2TBSGs is the topic of this paper.

**Classical algorithms for solving 2TBSGs.** 2TBSGs form an intriguing class of games whose status in many ways resembles that of linear programming 40 years ago. They can be solved efficiently with strategy iteration algorithms, resembling the simplex method for linear programming, but at the same time no polynomial time algorithm is known. Strategy iteration algorithms were first described for discounted 2TBSGs by Rao et al. [18]. Building on a result by Ye [22], Hansen et al. [8] showed that the standard strategy iteration algorithm solves 2TBSGs with a fixed discount, γ, in strongly polynomial time. Prior to this result a polynomial bound by Littman [15] was known for the case where γ is fixed. Littman showed that Shapley’s value iteration algorithm [20] solves discounted 2TBSGs in time \( O\left(\frac{nmL}{1-\gamma} \log \frac{1}{1-\gamma}\right) \), where \( n \) is the number of states, \( m \) is the number of actions, and \( L \) is the number of bits needed to represent the game. For a more thorough introduction to the background of the problem we refer to Hansen et al. [8] and the references therein.

**Interior point methods.** Several polynomial time algorithms have been discovered for solving linear programs. Perhaps the most notable family of such algorithms is interior point methods. The first interior point method was introduced by Karmarkar [11] in 1984, and the technique has since been studied extensively and applied in other contexts. See, e.g., Ye [21]. In particular, interior point methods can be used to solve \( P \)-matrix linear complementarity problems (LCPs). One may hope that a polynomial time algorithm for solving 2TBSGs whose discount factor γ is not fixed (i.e., the discount factor is part of the input) can be obtained through the use of interior point methods. Indeed, this approach was suggested by Jurdziński and Savani [10] and Hansen et al. [8]. In this paper we study a reduction from 2TBSGs to \( P \)-matrix LCPs, and we study the complexity of two known interior point methods when applied to the resulting \( P \)-matrix LCPs.

**\( P \)-matrix linear complementarity problems.** A linear complementarity problem (LCP) is defined as follows: Given an \((n \times n)\)-matrix \( M \) and a vector \( q \in \mathbb{R}^n \), find two vectors \( w, z \in \mathbb{R}^n \), such that \( w = q + Mz \), \( w^Tz = 0 \), and \( w, z \geq 0 \). LCPs have also received much attention. For books on the subject see, e.g., Cottle et al. [4] and Ye [21].

Jurdziński and Savani [10] showed that solving a deterministic 2TBSG \( G \), i.e., every action leads to a single state with probability 1, can be reduced to solving an LCP \((M, q)\). Gärtner and Rüst [6] gave a similar reduction from simple stochastic games; a class of games that is polynomially equivalent to 2TBSGs (see [1]). Moreover, Jurdziński and Savani [10], and Gärtner and Rüst [6], showed that the resulting matrix \( M \) is a \( P \)-matrix (i.e., all principal sub-matrices have a positive determinant). We show that the reduction of Jurdziński and Savani also works for general 2TBSGs, and that the resulting matrix \( M \) is again a \( P \)-matrix.

Krishnamurthy et al. [14] gave a survey on various stochastic games and LCP formulations of those.

**The unified interior point method.** There exist various interior point methods for solving \( P \)-matrix LCPs. One algorithm we consider in this paper is the unified interior point method of Kojima, Megiddo, Noma, and Yoshise [12]. The unified interior point method solves an LCP whose
matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a $P_\kappa$-matrix in time $O((1 + \kappa)n^{3.5}L)$, where $L$ is the number of bits needed to describe $M$. A matrix $M$ is a $P_\kappa$-matrix, for $\kappa \geq 0$, if and only if for all vectors $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have that $x^T(Mx) + 4\kappa \sum_{i \in \delta_+(M)} x_i(Mx)_i \geq 0$, where $\delta_+(M) = \{ i \in [n] \mid x_i(Mx)_i > 0 \}$. If $M$ is a $P$-matrix then it is also a $P_\kappa$-matrix for some $\kappa \geq 0$. Hence, the algorithm can be used to solve 2TBSGs.

Following the work of Kojima et al. [12], many algorithms with complexity polynomial in $\kappa$, $L$, and $n$ have been introduced. For additional examples see [3, 2, 9].

**An interior point potential reduction algorithm.** The second interior point method we consider is the potential reduction algorithm of Kojima, Megiddo, and Ye [13]. (See also Ye [21].) The potential reduction algorithm is an interior point method that takes as input a $P$-matrix LCP and a parameter $\epsilon > 0$, and produces an approximate solution $w, z$, such that $w^Tz < \epsilon$, $w = q + Mz$, and $w, z \geq 0$. The running time of the algorithm is $O((\frac{\delta}{\theta})n^4 \log \epsilon^{-1})$, where $\delta$ is the least eigenvalue of $\frac{1}{2}(M + M^T)$, and $\theta$ is the positive $P$-matrix number of $M$, that is, $\theta = \min_{\|x\|_2=1} \max_{i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}} x_i(Mx)_i$. We refer to $\frac{\delta}{\theta}$ as the condition number of $M$. The analysis involving the condition number appears in Ye [21].

Rüst [19] showed that there exists a simple stochastic game for which the $P$-matrix LCPs resulting from the reduction of Gärtner and Rüst [6] has a large condition number. The example of Rüst contains a parameter that can essentially be viewed as the discount factor $\gamma$ for 2TBSGs, and he shows that the condition number can depend linearly on $\frac{1}{1-\gamma}$. To be more precise, Rüst [19] showed that the matrix $M$ resulting from the reduction of Gärtner and Rüst [6] has positive $P$-matrix number smaller than 1, and that the smallest eigenvalue of the matrix $\frac{1}{2}(M + M^T)$ is $-\Omega(\frac{n}{1-\gamma})$. This bound can be viewed as a precursor for our results.

### 1.1 Our contributions

Our contributions are as follows. We show that the reduction by Jurdziński and Savani [10] from deterministic 2TBSGs to $P$-matrix LCPs generalizes to 2TBSGs without modification. Although the reduction is the same, we provide an alternative proof that the resulting matrix is a $P$-matrix. Let $M_G$ be the matrix obtained from the reduction for a given 2TBSG $G$. We also show that for any 2TBSG $G$ with $n$ states and discount factor $\gamma$ we have:

(i) The matrix $M_G$ is a $P_\kappa(\kappa)$-matrix for $\kappa = O\left(\frac{n}{(1-\gamma)^2}\right)$.

(ii) The matrix $\frac{M_G + M_G^T}{2}$ has smallest eigenvalue $\delta$, where $-\delta = O\left(\frac{n}{1-\gamma}\right)$.

(iii) The reciprocal of the positive $P$-matrix number of $M_G$ is $\frac{1}{\theta(M_G)} = O\left(\frac{n}{(1-\gamma)^2}\right)$.

Item (i) implies that the running time of the unified interior point method of Kojima et al. [12] for 2TBSGs is at most $O((1 + \kappa)n^{3.5}L) = O\left(\frac{n^{3.5}L}{(1-\gamma)^2}\right)$. Items (ii) and (iii) together imply that the running time of the potential reduction algorithm of Kojima et al. [13] for 2TBSGs is at most $O\left(\frac{\delta}{\theta}n^4 \log \epsilon^{-1}\right) = O\left(\frac{n^{3.5} \log \epsilon^{-1}}{(1-\gamma)^2}\right)$.

Finally, we define a family of deterministic 2TBSGs $G_n$ for which we prove matching lower bounds: (i) $\kappa = \Omega\left(\frac{n}{(1-\gamma)^2}\right)$, (ii) $-\delta = \Omega\left(\frac{n}{1-\gamma}\right)$, and (iii) $\frac{1}{\theta(G_n)} = \Omega\left(\frac{n}{(1-\gamma)^2}\right)$.

Note that the upper bounds we prove for the two algorithms are worse than the $O\left(\frac{n^{3.5} L}{(1-\gamma)} \log \frac{1}{1-\gamma}\right)$ bound for the value iteration algorithm for the case where every state has two actions. Although our results for existing interior point methods for solving 2TBSGs are therefore negative, other
interior point methods may solve 2TBSGs efficiently. It is also possible that the known bounds for
the algorithms studied in this paper do not reflect their true running time. In fact, we believe that
interior point methods are the key to solving 2TBSGs efficiently, and that the study of interior
point methods in this context remains an important question for future research.

1.2 Overview
In Section 2 we formally introduce the various classes of problems under consideration. More
precisely, in Subsection 2.1 we define LCPs, and in Subsection 2.2 we define 2TBSGs. In Subsec-
tion 2.3 we show that the reduction by Jurdziński and Sivan [10] from determinstic 2TBSGs to
$P$-matrix LCPs generalizes to general 2TBSGs. In Section 3 we estimate the $\kappa$ for which the
matrices of 2TBSGs are $P^\ast(\kappa)$-matrices, thereby bounding the running time of the unified interior
point method of Kojima et al. [12]. In Section 4 we similarly bound the smallest eigenvalue and
the positive $P$-matrix number, proving a bound for the running time of the potential reduction
algorithm of Kojima et al. [13].

2 Preliminaries
2.1 Linear complementarity problems
Definition 1 (Linear complementarity problems) A linear complementarity problem (LCP)
is a pair $(M, q)$, where $M$ is an $(n \times n)$-matrix and $q$ is an $n$-vector. A solution to the LCP $(M, q)$
is a pair of vectors $(w, z) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that:

\[
\begin{align*}
    w &= q + Mz \\
    w^Tz &= 0 \\
    w, z &\geq 0
\end{align*}
\]

Definition 2 ($P$-matrix) A matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a $P$-matrix if and only if all its principal sub-
matrices have a positive determinant.

The following lemma gives an alternative definition of $P$-matrices (see, e.g., [4, Theorem 3.3.4]).

Lemma 3 A matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a $P$-matrix if and only if for every non-zero vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$
there is an $i \in [n] = \{1, \ldots, n\}$ such that $x_i(Mx)_i > 0$.

Definition 4 (Positive $P$-matrix number) The positive $P$-matrix number of a matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is
\[
\theta(M) = \min_{\|x\|_2=1} \max_{i \in [n]} x_i(Mx)_i
\]

Note that, according to Lemma 3 $\theta(M) > 0$ if and only if $M$ is a $P$-matrix.

Definition 5 ($P^\ast(\kappa)$-matrix) A matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a $P^\ast(\kappa)$-matrix, for $\kappa \geq 0$, if and only if
for every vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$:

\[
\sum_{i \in \delta_-(M)} x_i(Mx)_i + (1 + 4\kappa) \sum_{i \in \delta_+(M)} x_i(Mx)_i \geq 0
\]
where $\delta_-(M) = \{ i \in [n] \mid x_i(Mx)_i < 0 \}$ and $\delta_+(M) = \{ i \in [n] \mid x_i(Mx)_i > 0 \}$. We say that $M$ is a $P_*$-matrix if and only if it is a $P_*(\kappa)$-matrix for some $\kappa \geq 0$.

Kojima et al. [12] showed that every $P$-matrix is also a $P_*$-matrix. By definition, a symmetric matrix $M$ is a $P_*(0)$-matrix if and only if it is positive semi-definite.

2.2 Two-player turn-based stochastic games

Definition 6 (Two-player turn-based stochastic games) A two-player turn-based stochastic game (2TBSG) is a tuple, $G = (S^1, S^2, (A_i)_{i \in S^1 \cup S^2}, p, c, \gamma)$, where

- $S^k$, for $k \in \{1, 2\}$, is the set of states belonging to Player $k$. We let $S = S^1 \cup S^2$ be the set of all states, and we assume that $S^1$ and $S^2$ are disjoint.
- $A_i$, for $i \in S$, is the set of actions applicable from state $i$. We let $A = \bigcup_{i \in S} A_i$ be the set of all actions. We assume that $A_i$ and $A_j$ are disjoint for $i \neq j$, and that $A_i \neq \emptyset$ for all $i \in S$.
- $p : A \to \Delta(S)$ is a map from actions to probability distributions over states.
- $c : A \to \mathbb{R}$ is a function that assigns a cost to every action.
- $\gamma < 1$ is a (positive) discount factor.

We let $n = |S|$ and $m = |A|$. Furthermore, we let $A^k = \bigcup_{i \in S^k} A_i$, for $k \in \{1, 2\}$. We refer to Player 1 as the minimizer and to Player 2 as the maximizer. Figure 1 shows an example of a simple 2TBSG. The large circles and squares represent the states controlled by Player 1 and 2, respectively. The edges leaving the states represent actions. The cost of an action is shown inside the corresponding diamond shaped square, and the probability distribution associated with the action is shown by labels on the edges leaving the diamond shaped square.

We say that an action $a$ is deterministic if it moves to a single state with probability 1, i.e., if $p(a)_j = 1$ for some $j \in S$. If all the actions of a 2TBSG $G$ are deterministic we say that $G$ is deterministic.

Plays and outcomes. A 2TBSG is played as follows. A pebble is moved from state to state starting from some initial state $i_0 \in S$. When the pebble is at state $i \in S^k$, Player $k$ chooses an action $a \in A_i$, and the pebble is moved to a random new state according to the probability distribution $p(a)$. Let $a^t$ be the $t$-th chosen action for every $t \geq 0$. The sequence of chosen actions is called a play, and the outcome of the play, paid by Player 1 to Player 2, is $\sum_{t \geq 0} \gamma^t \cdot c(a^t)$.

To simplify notation, we next introduce a way to represent a 2TBSG with vectors and matrices. Figure 1 shows an example of this representation.

Definition 7 (Matrix representation) Let $G = (S^1, S^2, (A_i)_{i \in S^1 \cup S^2}, p, c, \gamma)$ be a 2TBSG. Assume without loss of generality that $S = [n] = \{1, \ldots, n\}$ and $A = [m] = \{1, \ldots, m\}$.

- We define the probability matrix $P \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ by $P_{a,i} = (p(a))_i$, for all $a \in A$ and $i \in S$.
- We define the cost vector $c \in \mathbb{R}^m$ by $c_a = c(a)$, for all $a \in A$.
- We define the source matrix $J \in \{0, 1\}^{m \times n}$ by $J_{a,i} = 1$ if and only if $a \in A_i$, for all $a \in A$ and $i \in S$. 

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$P = \begin{bmatrix}
0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\
1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 \\
\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3}
\end{bmatrix}$ 
$c = \begin{bmatrix}
7 \\
3 \\
-4 \\
2 \\
5 \\
-10
\end{bmatrix}$ 
$J = \begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{bmatrix}$ 
$I = \begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & -1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{bmatrix}$

$S^1 = \{2\}$
$S^2 = \{1, 3\}$
$\sigma^1 = \{a_4\}$
$\sigma^2 = \{a_1, a_5\}$
$\sigma = \{a_1, a_4, a_5\}$

We define the ownership matrix $I \in \{-1, 0, 1\}^{n \times n}$ by $I_{i,j} = 0$ if $i \neq j$, $I_{i,i} = -1$ if $i \in S^1$, and $I_{i,i} = 1$ if $i \in S^2$.

Note that $P_{a,i}$ is the probability of moving to state $i$ when using action $a$. For a matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and a subset of indices $B \subseteq [m]$, we let $M_B$ be the sub-matrix of $M$ consisting of rows with indices in $B$. Also, for any $i \in [m]$, we let $M_i \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times n}$ be the $i$-th row of $M$. We use similar notation for vectors.

**Definition 8 (Strategies and strategy profiles)** A strategy $\sigma^k : S^k \rightarrow A^k$ for Player $k \in \{1, 2\}$ maps every state $i \in S^k$ to an action $\sigma^k(i) \in A_i$ applicable from state $i$. A strategy profile
σ = (σ₁, σ²) is a pair of strategies, one for each player. We let Σₖ be the set of strategies for Player k, and Σ = Σ¹ × Σ² be the set of strategy profiles.

We view a strategy profile σ = (σ₁, σ²) as a map σ : S → A from states to actions, such that σ(i) = σₖ(i) for all i ∈ Sₖ and k ∈ {1, 2}.

A strategy σₖ ∈ Σₖ can also be viewed as a subset σₖ ⊆ Aₖ of actions such that σₖ ∩ Aᵢ = {σₖ(i)} for all i ∈ Sₖ. A strategy profile σ = (σ₁, σ²) ∈ Σ can be viewed similarly as a subset of actions σ = σ₁ ∪ σ² ⊆ A. Note that Pₙ is an n × n matrix for every σ ∈ Σ. We assume without loss of generality that actions are ordered such that Jₙ = I, where I is the identity matrix, for all σ ∈ Σ.

Figure 1 shows a strategy profile σ represented by solid lines, the corresponding matrix Pₙ, and the vector cₙ.

The matrix Pₙ defines a Markov chain. In particular, the probability of being in the j-th state after t steps when starting in state i is (Pₙᵗ)ᵢ,j. In Figure 1 such probabilities are shown in the table in the lower right corner, where e₁ is the first unit vector. We say that the players play according to σ if whenever the pebble is at state i ∈ Sₖ, Player k uses the action σ(i). Let i ∈ S be some state and t some number. The expected cost of the t-th action used when starting in state i is ∑₀⁺∞ vₙ(t) = γᵢ(Pₙᵗ)cₙ. The following lemma shows that this infinite series always converges.

**Lemma 9** For every strategy profile σ ∈ Σ the matrix (I − γPₙ) is non-singular, and

\[(I − γPₙ)^{-1} = ∑₀⁺∞ γᵢ Pₙᵢ\]

The simple proof of Lemma 9 has been omitted. For details we refer to, e.g., [7].

**Definition 10 (Value vectors)** For every strategy profile σ ∈ Σ we define the value vector vᵣ ∈ ℜⁿ by:

\[vᵣ = (I − γPₙ)^{-1}cₙ\]

The i-th component of the value vector vᵣ, for a given strategy profile σ, is the expected outcome over plays starting in i ∈ S when the players play according to σ.

It follows from Lemma 9 and Definition 10 that vᵣ is the unique solution to:

\[vᵣ = cₙ + γPₙvᵣ\] (1)

**Definition 11 (Lower and upper values)** We define the lower value vector v ∈ ℜⁿ and upper value vector v ∈ ℜⁿ by:

∀ i ∈ S : vᵢ = minᵦ₁ ∈ Σ¹ maxᵦ₂ ∈ Σ² vᵢ(ᵦ₁,ᵦ₂) ,

∀ i ∈ S : vᵢ = maxᵦ₂ ∈ Σ² minᵦ₁ ∈ Σ¹ vᵢ(ᵦ₁,ᵦ₂) .

Shapley [20] showed that v = v. Hence, we may define the optimal value vector uniquely as v* := v = v.
Definition 12 (Optimal strategies) A strategy $\sigma^1 \in \Sigma^1$ is optimal if and only if:

$$\forall i \in S : \max_{\sigma^2 \in \Sigma^2} v_i^{(\sigma^1, \sigma^2)} = v_i^* .$$

Similarly, a strategy $\sigma^2 \in \Sigma^2$ is optimal if and only if:

$$\forall i \in S : \min_{\sigma^1 \in \Sigma^1} v_i^{(\sigma^1, \sigma^2)} = v_i^* .$$

We say that a strategy profile $\sigma = (\sigma^1, \sigma^2) \in \Sigma$ is optimal if and only if $\sigma^1$ and $\sigma^2$ are optimal. Equivalently, $\sigma$ is a Nash equilibrium.

Note that an optimal strategy for Player 1 (Player 2) minimizes (maximizes) the values of all states simultaneously. Hence, it is not obvious that optimal strategies exist. This was shown, however, by Shapley [20]. Solving a 2TBSG means finding an optimal strategy profile, or equivalently the optimal value vector.

Definition 13 (Reduced costs) For every strategy profile $\sigma \in \Sigma$ we define the vector of reduced costs $\bar{c}^\sigma \in \mathbb{R}^m$ by:

$$\forall i \in S, a \in A_i : \bar{c}^\sigma_a = c_a + \gamma P_a v^\sigma - v_i^\sigma .$$

The following theorem establishes a connection between optimal strategies and reduced costs. For details see, e.g., [8, 7].

Theorem 14 (Optimality condition) A strategy profile $\sigma \in \Sigma$ is optimal if and only if $(\bar{c}^\sigma)_{A^1} \geq 0$ and $(\bar{c}^\sigma)_{A^2} \leq 0$.

2.3 LCPs for solving 2TBSGs

Jurdziński and Savani [10] showed how the problem of solving deterministic 2TBSGs can be reduced to the problem of solving $P$-matrix LCPs. We next show that the same reduction works for general 2TBSGs.

Throughout this section we let $G = (S^1, S^2, (A_i)_{i \in S}, p, c, \gamma)$ be some 2TBSG and $(P, c, J, I, \gamma)$ be the corresponding matrix representation. We assume that there are exactly two actions available from every state, i.e., $|A_i| = 2$ for all $i \in S$, and we partition $A$ into two disjoint strategy profiles $\sigma$ and $\tau$.

An LCP for solving $G$ can be derived as follows. Consider the following system of linear equations and inequalities, where $w, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are variables.

$$(I - \gamma P_\sigma)y - Jw = c_\sigma$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

$$(I - \gamma P_\tau)y - Jz = c_\tau$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

$$w^Tz = 0$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

$$w, z \geq 0$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

Lemma 15 The system (2), (3), (4), and (5) has a unique solution $w, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n$, where $y$ is the optimal value vector for $G$. Also, a strategy profile $\pi$ is optimal if and only if $\pi \subseteq \{\sigma(i) \mid i \in [n] \land w_i = 0\} \cup \{\tau(i) \mid i \in [n] \land z_i = 0\}$, and such a strategy profile exists.

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**Proof.** Observe first that if we let \( y = v^* \), then \( (2) \) and \( (3) \) ensure that \( w \) and \( z \) correspond to the reduced costs for an optimal strategy profile \( \pi^* \). More precisely, we have:

\[
\forall i \in S^1: \quad c_{\pi^*(i)}^w = w_i \quad \text{and} \quad c_{\pi^*(i)}^z = z_i
\]

\[
\forall i \in S^2: \quad c_{\pi^*(i)}^w = -w_i \quad \text{and} \quad c_{\pi^*(i)}^z = -z_i
\]

It then follows from definitions \( \ref{def11} \) and \( \ref{def13} \) that \( w^T z = 0 \), and from Theorem \( \ref{thm14} \) that \( w, z \geq 0 \). Hence the optimal value vector and the corresponding reduced costs are a solution to \( (2), (3), (4), \) and \( (5) \). We next show that for every solution \( w, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n \), \( y \) is the optimal value vector. Since the optimal value vector is unique it follows that the system has a unique solution.

Let \( w, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n \) be a solution to \( (2), (3), (4), \) and \( (5) \), and let \( B = \{ \sigma(i) \mid i \in [n] \land w_i = 0 \} \cup \{ \tau(i) \mid i \in [n] \land z_i = 0 \} \). Furthermore, let \( \Pi \) be the set of all strategy profiles contained in \( B \). Since \( w \) and \( z \) satisfy \( (1) \), we know that \( \Pi \neq \emptyset \).

Let \( a \in B \cap A_i \) for some \( i \in S \). It follows from \( (2) \) and \( (3) \) that \( y_i - \gamma P_{\tau} y = c_a \). Hence, we get from Equation \( (1) \) that \( y = v^\pi \), for every \( \pi \in \Pi \). Combining this with \( (2), (3), \) and \( (5) \) we get that:

\[
\forall i \in S^1, a \in A_i: \quad v_i^\pi - \gamma P_{\tau} v^\pi \leq c_a
\]

\[
\forall i \in S^2, a \in A_i: \quad v_i^\pi - \gamma P_{\tau} v^\pi \geq c_a
\]

It follows from Definition \( \ref{def13} \) and Theorem \( \ref{thm14} \) that \( \pi \) is an optimal strategy profile. \( \square \)

We know from Lemma \( \ref{lem9} \) that \( (I - \gamma P_{\tau}) \) is non-singular. Hence, \( (3) \) can be equivalently expressed as:

\[
y = (I - \gamma P_{\tau})^{-1}(c_{\tau} + Iz)
\]

Eliminating \( y \) in \( (2) \) we then get the following equivalent equation:

\[
(I - \gamma P_{\tau})(I - \gamma P_{\tau})^{-1}(c_{\tau} + Iz) - Iw = c_{\sigma} \iff
\]

\[
I(I - \gamma P_{\sigma})(I - \gamma P_{\tau})^{-1}z - w = Ic_{\sigma} - I(I - \gamma P_{\sigma})(I - \gamma P_{\tau})^{-1}c_{\tau} \iff
\]

\[
w = (I(I - \gamma P_{\sigma})(I - \gamma P_{\tau})^{-1}c_{\tau} - Ic_{\sigma}) + I(I - \gamma P_{\sigma})(I - \gamma P_{\tau})^{-1}Iz \quad \text{(6)}
\]

To simplify equation \( (6) \) we make the following definition.

**Definition 16 (\( M_{G,\sigma,\tau} \) and \( q_{G,\sigma,\tau} \))** Let \( G \) be a 2TBSG with matrix representation \((P, c, J, I, \gamma)\), and let the set of actions of \( G \) be partitioned into two disjoint strategy profiles \( \sigma \) and \( \tau \). We define \( M_{G,\sigma,\tau} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \) and \( q_{G,\sigma,\tau} \in \mathbb{R}^n \) by:

\[
M_{G,\sigma,\tau} = I(I - \gamma P_{\sigma})(I - \gamma P_{\tau})^{-1}I
\]

\[
q_{G,\sigma,\tau} = I(I - \gamma P_{\sigma})(I - \gamma P_{\tau})^{-1}c_{\tau} - Ic_{\sigma}
\]

Equation \( (6) \) can now be stated as \( w = q_{G,\sigma,\tau} + M_{G,\sigma,\tau}z \). It follows that \( (2), (3), (4), \) and \( (5) \) can be equivalently stated as \( y = (I - \gamma P_{\tau})^{-1}(c_{\tau} + Iz) \) and:

\[
w = q_{G,\sigma,\tau} + M_{G,\sigma,\tau}z \]

\[
w^Tz = 0
\]

\[
w, z \geq 0
\]
Hence, a solution to the LCP \((M_{G,\sigma,\tau}, q_{G,\sigma,\tau})\) gives a solution to (2), (3), (4), and (5), which, using Lemma 15 solves the 2TBSG \(G\). We say that \((M_{G,\sigma,\tau}, q_{G,\sigma,\tau})\) solves \(G\).

Jurdziński and Savani [10] showed that \(M_{G,\sigma,\tau}\) is a \(P\)-matrix when \(G\) is deterministic. To prove the same for general 2TBSGs we introduce the following lemma. The lemma is also used in the later parts of the paper. To understand the use of \(\mathbf{v}\) in the lemma observe that \(x^T(I - \gamma P_\sigma)(I - \gamma P_\tau)^{-1}x = x^T(I - \gamma P_\sigma)\mathbf{v}\).

**Lemma 17** Let \(x\) be a non-zero vector, \(\mathbf{v} = (I - \gamma P_\tau)^{-1}x\), and \(j \in \text{argmax}_i |\mathbf{v}_i|\). Then:

\[
|\mathbf{x}_j| \geq (1 - \gamma) |\mathbf{v}_j|, \quad (7)
\]
\[
\forall i : |\mathbf{x}_i| \leq (1 + \gamma) |\mathbf{v}_j|, \quad (8)
\]
\[
x_j((I - \gamma P_\tau)(I - \gamma P_\tau)^{-1})x_j \geq (1 - \gamma) |\mathbf{x}_j\mathbf{v}_j| > 0. \quad (9)
\]

**Proof** Observe first that \(\mathbf{v}\) is the unique solution to \(\mathbf{v} = x + \gamma P_\tau \mathbf{v}\). In fact, we can interpret \(\mathbf{v}\) as the value vector for \(\tau\) when the costs \(c_\tau\) have been replaced by \(x\). If \(\mathbf{v} = 0\) then this implies that \(0 = x + 0 \neq 0\) which is a contradiction. Thus, \(\mathbf{v} \neq 0\) and in particular \(\mathbf{v}_j \neq 0\). Since, for every \(i\), the entries of \((P_\tau)_i\) are non-negative and sum to one we have that \(|\gamma(P_\tau)\mathbf{v}| \leq \gamma |\mathbf{v}_j|\). The equations \(\mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{x}_i + \gamma(P_\tau)\mathbf{v}\), for all \(i\), then imply that:

\[
|\mathbf{x}_j| = |\mathbf{v}_j - \gamma(P_\tau)\mathbf{v}_j| \geq |\mathbf{v}_j| - |\gamma(P_\tau)\mathbf{v}| \geq |\mathbf{v}_j| - \gamma |\mathbf{v}_j| = (1 - \gamma) |\mathbf{v}_j|, \quad \text{and}
\]
\[
\forall i : |\mathbf{x}_i| = |\mathbf{v}_i - \gamma(P_\tau)\mathbf{v}| \leq |\mathbf{v}_i| + |\gamma(P_\tau)\mathbf{v}| \leq |\mathbf{v}_j| + \gamma |\mathbf{v}_j| = (1 + \gamma) |\mathbf{v}_j|.
\]

This proves (7) and (8).

We next observe that \(\mathbf{v}_j\) and \(\mathbf{x}_j\) have the same sign. This again follows from \(|\gamma(P_\tau)\mathbf{v}| \leq \gamma |\mathbf{v}_j|\) and \(\mathbf{v}_j = \mathbf{x}_j + \gamma(P_\tau)\mathbf{v}\). Using that \(\mathbf{v}_j\) and \(\mathbf{x}_j\) have the same sign we see that:

\[
x_j((I - \gamma P_\tau)(I - \gamma P_\tau)^{-1})x_j = x_j((I - \gamma P_\sigma)\mathbf{v}) = x_j\mathbf{v}_j - \gamma x_j(P_\sigma)\mathbf{v}
\]
\[
\geq x_j\mathbf{v}_j - \gamma x_j\mathbf{v}_j = (1 - \gamma) x_j\mathbf{v}_j > 0.
\]

This proves (9). \(\square\)

We know from Lemma 3 that the matrix \(M_{G,\sigma,\tau}\) is a \(P\)-matrix if and only if for every \(x \neq 0\) there exists a \(j \in [n]\) such that \(x_j(M_{G,\sigma,\tau}x)_j > 0\). Since \(Ix \neq 0\), inequality (9) in Lemma 17 shows that \(x_j(M_{G,\sigma,\tau}x)_j > 0\) for \(j \in \text{argmax}_i |((I - \gamma P_\tau)^{-1}Ix)_i|\). Hence, \(M_{G,\sigma,\tau}\) is a \(P\)-matrix.

The following theorem summarizes the main result of this section.

**Theorem 18** Let \(G\) be a 2TBSG, and let \(\sigma\) and \(\tau\) be two disjoint strategy profiles that form a partition of the set of actions of \(G\). Then the optimal value vector for \(G\) is \(\mathbf{v}^* = (I - \gamma P_\tau)^{-1}(\mathbf{c}_\tau + I\mathbf{z})\), where \((\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{z})\) is a solution to the LCP \((M_{G,\sigma,\tau}, q_{G,\sigma,\tau})\). Furthermore, \(M_{G,\sigma,\tau}\) is a \(P\)-matrix.

Recall that Kojima et al. [12] showed that every \(P\)-matrix is a \(P_\ast\)-matrix. Hence, we have shown that \(M_{G,\sigma,\tau}\) is a \(P_\ast\)-matrix.

### 3 The \(P_\ast(\kappa)\) property for 2TBSGs

Let \(G\) be a 2TBSG with matrix representation \((P, \mathbf{c}, J, I, \gamma)\), and let \(\sigma\) and \(\tau\) be two disjoint strategy profiles that form a partition of the set of actions of \(G\). Recall that \(G\) can be solved by solving the
LCP \((M_{G,\sigma,\tau},q_{G,\sigma,\tau})\). In this section we provide essentially tight upper and lower bounds on the smallest number \(\kappa\) for which the matrix \(M_{G,\sigma,\tau}\) is guaranteed to be a \(P_\ast(\kappa)\)-matrix. More precisely, we first show that for \(\kappa = \frac{n}{(1-\gamma)^2}\), the matrix \(M_{G,\sigma,\tau}\) is always a \(P_\ast(\kappa)\)-matrix. We then show that for every \(n > 2\) and \(\gamma < 1\) there exists a game \(G_n\), and two strategy profiles \(\sigma_n\) and \(\tau_n\), such that \(M_{G_n,\sigma_n,\tau_n}\) is not a \(P_\ast(\kappa)\)-matrix for any \(\kappa < \frac{\gamma^2(n-2)}{8(1-\gamma)^2} - \frac{1}{4}\). It follows that the unified interior point method of Kojima et al. \([12]\) solves the 2TBSG \(G\) in time \(O\left(\frac{n^3L}{(1-\gamma)^2}\right)\), where \(L\) is the number of bits required to describe \(G\), and that this bound cannot be improved further by bounding \(\kappa\).

Recall that \(M_{G,\sigma,\tau} = T(I-(1-\gamma)P_\sigma)(I-(1-\gamma)P_\tau)^{-1}T\), and define \(M := TM_{G,\sigma,\tau}T = (I-(1-\gamma)P_\sigma)(I-(1-\gamma)P_\tau)^{-1}\).

It is easy to see that \(M_{G,\sigma,\tau}\) is a \(P_\ast(\kappa)\)-matrix for some \(\kappa \geq 0\) if and only if \(M\) is. Indeed, the inequality of Definition \([13]\) must hold for all \(x \in \mathbb{R}^n\), and we can therefore substitute \(x\) by \(Tx\). Hence, for the remainder of this section we will bound the \(\kappa\) for which \(M\) is a \(P_\ast(\kappa)\)-matrix.

**Theorem 19** Let \(G\) be a 2TBSG with \(n\) states and discount factor \(\gamma\), where \(0 < \gamma < 1\). Furthermore, let \(\sigma\) and \(\tau\) be two strategy profiles that partition the set of actions of \(G\). Then the matrix \(M_{G,\sigma,\tau}\) is a \(P_\ast(\kappa)\)-matrix for \(\kappa = \frac{n}{(1-\gamma)^2}\).

**Proof** As discussed above we may prove the theorem by bounding \(\kappa\) for \(M = (I-(1-\gamma)P_\sigma)(I-(1-\gamma)P_\tau)^{-1}\). We thus need to find a number \(\kappa\), such that

\[
\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n: \sum_{i \in \delta_-(M)} x_i((I-(1-\gamma)P_\sigma)(I-(1-\gamma)P_\tau)^{-1} x)_i + (1+4\kappa) \sum_{i \in \delta_+(M)} x_i((I-(1-\gamma)P_\sigma)(I-(1-\gamma)P_\tau)^{-1} x)_i \geq 0,
\]

where \(\delta_-(M) = \{i \in [n] | x_i(Mx)_i < 0\}\) and \(\delta_+(M) = \{i \in [n] | x_i(Mx)_i > 0\}\).

Let \(x\) be any non-zero vector (the expression is trivially satisfied for \(x = 0\), \(v = (I-(1-\gamma)P_\tau)^{-1}x\), and \(j \in \text{argmax}_i |v_i|\). To prove the lemma we estimate \(\sum_{i \in \delta_-(M)} x_i((I-(1-\gamma)P_\sigma)v)_i\) and \(\sum_{i \in \delta_+(M)} x_i((I-(1-\gamma)P_\sigma)v)_i\) separately.

Using Lemma \([17]\) we see that:

\[
\forall i: |x_i((I-(1-\gamma)P_\sigma)v)_i| \leq |x_i|(|v_j| + \gamma |v_j|) \leq (1+\gamma)^2 |v_j|^2 < 4 |v_j|^2,
\]

which implies that:

\[
\left| \sum_{i \in \delta_-(M)} x_i((I-(1-\gamma)P_\sigma)v)_i \right| < 4n |v_j|^2.
\]

Similarly, from Lemma \([17]\) we have that:

\[
x_j(Mx)_j \geq (1-\gamma)x_jv_j = (1-\gamma)|x_j||v_j| \geq (1-\gamma)^2 |v_j|^2,
\]

which implies that:

\[
\sum_{i \in \delta_+(M)} x_i((I-(1-\gamma)P_\sigma)v)_i \geq (1-\gamma)^2 |v_j|^2.
\]

We conclude that:

\[
\sum_{i \in \delta_-(M)} x_i((I-(1-\gamma)P_\sigma)v)_i + (1+4\kappa) \sum_{i \in \delta_+(M)} x_i((I-(1-\gamma)P_\sigma)v)_i > -4n |v_j|^2 + (1+4\kappa)(1-\gamma)^2 |v_j|^2.
\]
It follows that $M$ is a $P_\gamma(\kappa)$-matrix when:

$$-4n|v_j|^2 + (1 + 4\kappa)(1 - \gamma)^2|v_j|^2 \geq 0 \iff 4\kappa(1 - \gamma)^2|v_j|^2 \geq (4n - (1 - \gamma)^2)|v_j|^2 \iff \kappa \geq \frac{n}{(1 - \gamma)^2} - \frac{1}{4}.$$

\[\square\]

We next present a lower bound that matches the upper bound given in Theorem 19. We establish the lower bound using the family of games $\{G_n \mid n > 2\}$ shown in Figure 2. The game $G_n$ consists of $n$ states that all belong to Player 2. Every state has two actions, and all actions are deterministic. The actions from states 1 and 2 form self-loops. The actions from state $i$, for $i > 2$, lead to state 1 and 2, respectively. Both actions from state 1 have cost 1, both actions from state 2 have cost $-1$, and all the remaining actions have cost $a \in \mathbb{R}$, where $a$ will be specified in the analysis. The discount factor $\gamma < 1$ is given along with $n$.

We also define two strategy profiles $\sigma_n$ and $\tau_n$ that partition the set of actions. Since all states belong to Player 2, $\sigma_n$ and $\tau_n$ are simply strategies for Player 2. The strategies $\sigma_n$ and $\tau_n$ are represented in Figure 2 by solid and dashed arrows, respectively. The strategies $\sigma_n$ and $\tau_n$ both contain self-loops at states 1 and 2. Furthermore, for every state $i > 2$, the strategy $\sigma_n$ contains the action leading to state 1, and the strategy $\tau_n$ contains the action leading to state 2. Observe that since all states belong to Player 2 we have $I = I$ such that:

$$M_{G_n,\sigma_n,\tau_n} = (I - \gamma P_{\sigma_n})(I - \gamma P_{\tau_n})^{-1}.$$

Note also that $M_{G_n,\sigma_n,\tau_n}$ is independent of the parameter $a$.

Since all our lower bounds use $G_n$ and many of the calculations are similar, we first establish the following lemma concerning various properties of the game.

**Lemma 20** Let $n$ be given and consider $G_n$. Let $v := v^\tau_n = (I - \gamma P_{\tau_n})^{-1}c_{\tau_n}$ be the value vector
for $\tau_n$ in the game $G_n$. Define $r := M_{G_n, \sigma_n, \tau_n} c_{\tau_n}$, and let $r' \in \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfy $r'_i = (c_{\tau_n})_i r_i$. Then,

$$
(c_{\tau_n})_i = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if } i = 1 \\
-1 & \text{if } i = 2 \\
a & \text{if } i > 2
\end{cases}
$$

$$
\nu_i = \begin{cases} 
\frac{1}{1 - \gamma} & \text{if } i = 1 \\
\frac{1}{1 - \gamma} & \text{if } i = 2 \\
a - \frac{\gamma}{1 - \gamma} & \text{if } i > 2
\end{cases}
$$

$$
r_i = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if } i = 1 \\
-1 & \text{if } i = 2 \\
a - \frac{2\gamma}{1 - \gamma} & \text{if } i > 2
\end{cases}
$$

$$
r'_i = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if } i = 1 \\
1 & \text{if } i = 2 \\
a^2 - \frac{2\gamma a}{1 - \gamma} & \text{if } i > 2
\end{cases}
$$

**Proof** The calculation of $\nu^T$ follows straightforwardly from (1), i.e., $\nu = c_{\tau_n} + \gamma P_{\tau_n} \nu$, which can be stated as:

$$
\nu_1 = 1 + \gamma \nu_1
$$

$$
\nu_2 = -1 + \gamma \nu_2
$$

$$
\forall i > 2 : \quad \nu_i = a + \gamma \nu_2
$$

Let $r_i = (M_{G_n, \sigma_n, \tau_n} c_{\tau_n})_i = ((I - \gamma P_{\sigma_n}) \nu)_i = \nu_i - \gamma (P_{\sigma_n} \nu)_i$ and observe that:

$$
r_1 = \frac{1}{1 - \gamma} - \gamma \frac{1}{1 - \gamma} = 1
$$

$$
r_2 = \frac{-1}{1 - \gamma} + \gamma \frac{1}{1 - \gamma} = 1
$$

$$
\forall i > 2 : \quad r_i = \left(a - \frac{\gamma}{1 - \gamma}\right) - \gamma \frac{1}{1 - \gamma} = a - \frac{2\gamma}{1 - \gamma}
$$

The value of $r'_i = (c_{\tau_n})_i r_i$ is computed straightforwardly as well. \qed

**Theorem 21** Let $n > 2$ and $0 < \gamma < 1$ be given. The matrix $M_{G_n, \sigma_n, \tau_n}$ is not a $P_\ast(\kappa)$-matrix for $\kappa < \frac{\gamma^2(n-2)}{8(1-\gamma)^2} - \frac{1}{4} = \Omega\left(\frac{\gamma^2 n}{(1-\gamma)^2}\right)$.

**Proof** To simplify notation we denote $M_{G_n, \sigma_n, \tau_n}$ by $M$. Recall that $M$ is a $P_\ast(\kappa)$-matrix if and only if

$$
\forall x : \sum_{i \in \delta_-(M)} x_i ((I - \gamma P_{\sigma_n}) (I - \gamma P_{\tau_n})^{-1} x)_i + (1 + 4\kappa) \sum_{i \in \delta_+(M)} x_i ((I - \gamma P_{\sigma_n}) (I - \gamma P_{\tau_n})^{-1} x)_i \geq 0
$$

where $\delta_-(M) = \{ i \in [n] | x_i (M x)_i < 0 \}$ and $\delta_+(M) = \{ i \in [n] | x_i (M x)_i > 0 \}$. We show that the inequality is violated when $\kappa < \frac{\gamma^2(n-2)}{8(1-\gamma)^2} - \frac{1}{4}$ and $x = c_{\tau_n}$ for an appropriate choice of $a$.

Let $r'_i = x_i (M x)_i$. From Lemma 20 we have that

$$
r'_i = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if } i = 1 \\
1 & \text{if } i = 2 \\
a^2 - \frac{2\gamma a}{1 - \gamma} & \text{if } i > 2
\end{cases}
$$

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We choose \( a = \frac{\gamma}{1 - \gamma} \) in order to minimize \( r'_i \) for \( i > 2 \), which gives \( r'_i = -\left(\frac{\gamma}{1 - \gamma}\right)^2 \). It follows that:

\[
\sum_{i \in \delta_-(M)} x_i(Mx)_i = -(n - 2) \left(\frac{\gamma}{1 - \gamma}\right)^2 \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i \in \delta_+(M)} x_i(Mx)_i = 2.
\]

Hence, we get:

\[
\sum_{i \in \delta_-(M)} x_i(Mx)_i + (1 + 4\kappa) \sum_{i \in \delta_+(M)} x_i(Mx)_i \geq 0 \iff 2(1 + 4\kappa) \geq (n - 2) \left(\frac{\gamma}{1 - \gamma}\right)^2 \iff \kappa \geq \frac{n - 2}{8} \left(\frac{\gamma}{1 - \gamma}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{4}.
\]

\[\square\]

## 4 Bounds for the potential reduction algorithm

The interior point potential reduction algorithm of Kojima et al. [13] for solving a P-matrix LCP \((M, q)\) takes as input a parameter \( \epsilon > 0 \) and produces a feasible solution \((w, z)\) for which

\[w^T z < \epsilon.\]

Following Ye [21], the running time of the potential reduction algorithm is upper bounded by

\[O\left(-\frac{\delta}{\theta} n^4 \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right),\]

where \( \delta \) is the smallest eigenvalue of \( M + M^T \), and \( \theta = \theta(M) \) is the positive P-matrix number of \( M \) (Definition 1). In this section we bound the running time of the potential reduction algorithm when applied to 2TBSGs by studying the two quantities \( \delta \) and \( \theta \).

Throughout the section we let \( G \) be a 2TBSG with matrix representation \((P, c, J, I, \gamma)\), and \( \sigma \) and \( \tau \) be two disjoint strategy profiles that form a partition of the set of actions of \( G \). To simplify notation we let \( M := M_{G,\sigma,\tau} \). We study the smallest eigenvalue \( \delta \) of \( M + M^T \) in Section 4.1, and the positive P-matrix number \( \theta(M) \) in Section 4.2. For both quantities we provide upper and lower bounds that are essentially tight.

Let \( \delta_n \) be the smallest eigenvalue of the matrix \( \frac{1}{2} (M_{G_n,\sigma_n,\tau_n} + M_{G_n,\sigma_n,\tau_n}^T) \), where \( M_{G_n,\sigma_n,\tau_n} \) is derived from the game in Figure 2. To be precise, we prove the two bounds for \( \delta \) and \( \delta_n \):

\[
\delta > -\frac{(1 + \gamma)\sqrt{n}}{1 - \gamma},
\]

\[
\delta_n \leq 1 - \gamma \sqrt{\frac{n - 2}{2(1 - \gamma)}}.
\]

For the positive P-matrix number we prove the two bounds:

\[
\theta(M) \geq \frac{(1 - \gamma)^2}{(1 + \gamma)^2 n},
\]

\[
\theta(M_{G_n,\sigma_n,\tau_n}) < \frac{(1 - \gamma)^2}{(2\gamma)^2(n - 2)}.\]

Note that the upper bounds for the smallest eigenvalue \( \delta_n \) and the positive P-matrix number \( \theta(M_{G_n,\sigma_n,\tau_n}) \) are obtained using the same matrix \( M_{G_n,\sigma_n,\tau_n} \), which was also used in the proof of Theorem 21. Hence, for the game \( G_n \) we achieve the worst-case ratio of \( -\frac{\delta}{\theta} = \Omega\left(\frac{\gamma n^{3/2}}{(1 - \gamma)^2}\right)\).
4.1 Bounds for the smallest eigenvalue

We first lower bound the smallest eigenvalue of \( \frac{M + M^T}{2} \), where \( M = \mathcal{I}(I - \gamma P_\sigma)(I - \gamma P_\tau)^{-1}\mathcal{I} \). We let \( \mathbb{R}_1^n \) be the set of vectors in \( \mathbb{R}^n \) such that each vector \( \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}_1^n \) has \( \|\mathbf{v}\|_\ell = 1 \).

**Theorem 22** The matrix \( \frac{M + M^T}{2} \) has smallest eigenvalue greater than \( -\frac{(1+\gamma)\sqrt{n}}{1-\gamma} = -O(\sqrt{n}) \).

**Proof** Consider the equation \( \lambda \mathbf{x} = \frac{M + M^T}{2} \mathbf{x} \), where \( \lambda \) is the smallest eigenvalue. We have that:

\[
\lambda \mathbf{x} = \frac{M + M^T}{2} \mathbf{x} = \frac{\mathcal{I}(I - \gamma P_\sigma)(I - \gamma P_\tau)^{-1}\mathcal{I} + \mathcal{I}(I - \gamma P_\sigma^T)^{-1}(I - \gamma P_\tau)\mathcal{I}}{2} \mathbf{x} = \frac{\mathcal{I}(I - \gamma P_\sigma)(I - \gamma P_\tau)^{-1} + (I - \gamma P_\tau)^{-1}(I - \gamma P_\tau^T)\mathcal{I}}{2} \mathbf{x}.
\]

By letting \( \mathbf{y} = \mathcal{I} \mathbf{x} \) we obtain the equation:

\[
\lambda \mathbf{y} = \frac{(I - \gamma P_\sigma)(I - \gamma P_\tau)^{-1} + (I - \gamma P_\tau^T)^{-1}(I - \gamma P_\sigma^T)}{2} \mathbf{y}.
\]

We can without loss of generality assume that \( \mathbf{y} \) has \( L^2 \)-norm equal to one, and by the triangle inequality we therefore have:

\[
|\lambda| = \|\lambda \mathbf{y}\|_2 = \left\| \frac{(I - \gamma P_\sigma)(I - \gamma P_\tau)^{-1} + (I - \gamma P_\tau^T)^{-1}(I - \gamma P_\sigma^T)}{2} \mathbf{y} \right\|_2 \\
\leq \frac{1}{2} \left\| (I - \gamma P_\sigma)(I - \gamma P_\tau)^{-1} \mathbf{y} \right\|_2 + \frac{1}{2} \left\| (I - \gamma P_\tau^T)^{-1}(I - \gamma P_\sigma^T) \mathbf{y} \right\|_2.
\]

We bound \( \| (I - \gamma P_\sigma)(I - \gamma P_\tau)^{-1} \mathbf{y} \|_2 \) and \( \| (I - \gamma P_\tau^T)^{-1}(I - \gamma P_\sigma^T) \mathbf{y} \|_2 \) separately. We first observe that:

\[
\| (I - \gamma P_\sigma)(I - \gamma P_\tau)^{-1} \mathbf{y} \|_2 \leq \max_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}_1^n} \left\| (I - \gamma P_\sigma)(I - \gamma P_\tau)^{-1} \mathbf{v} \right\|_2 \\
= \max_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}_1^n} \left\| (I - \gamma P_\sigma) \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t P_\tau^t \mathbf{v} \right\|_2 \\
\leq \max_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}_1^n} \left\| (I - \gamma P_\sigma) \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t \mathbf{v} \right\|_2 \\
= \max_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}_1^n} \left\| (I - \gamma P_\sigma) \mathbf{v} \right\|_2 \\
\leq \max_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}_1^n} \left\| \frac{(1 + \gamma)\mathbf{v}}{1 - \gamma} \right\|_2 \\
= \frac{1 + \gamma}{1 - \gamma} \max_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}_1^n} \left\| \mathbf{v} \right\|_2 \\
= \left( \frac{1 + \gamma}{1 - \gamma} \right) \sqrt{n}.
\]
Here, the first inequality follows from the fact that if \( v \in \mathbb{R}^n \) has \( L^2 \)-norm equal to 1, then it has \( L^\infty \)-norm equal to at most 1. The first equality follows from Lemma \([9]\). To prove the second inequality we use that \( \|P_t^T v\|_\infty \leq \|v\|_\infty \), for all \( t \geq 0 \), since the entries of \( P_t \) are in \([0, 1]\). The third inequality follows from the fact that \( \|(I - \gamma P_\sigma) v\|_\infty \leq (1 + \gamma) \|v\|_\infty \). The last equality follows from the fact that if a vector \( v \in \mathbb{R}^n \) has \( L^\infty \)-norm equal to 1 then it has \( L^2 \)-norm at most \( \sqrt{n} \).

We also have that:

\[
\left\| (I - \gamma P_\sigma^T)^{-1}(I - \gamma P_\sigma^T) v \right\|_2 \leq \max_{v \in \mathbb{R}^n_{\|v\|_1 = 1}} \left\| (I - \gamma P_\sigma^T)^{-1}(I - \gamma P_\sigma^T) \sqrt{n} v \right\|_2
\]

\[
\leq (1 + \gamma) \sqrt{n} \max_{v \in \mathbb{R}^n_{\|v\|_1 = 1}} \left\| (I - \gamma P_\sigma^T)^{-1} v \right\|_2
\]

\[
= (1 + \gamma) \sqrt{n} \max_{v \in \mathbb{R}^n_{\|v\|_1 = 1}} \left\| \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t (P_\sigma^t)^T v \right\|_2
\]

\[
\leq (1 + \gamma) \sqrt{n} \max_{v \in \mathbb{R}^n_{\|v\|_1 = 1}} \left\| \frac{v}{1 - \gamma} \right\|_2
\]

\[
= \frac{(1 + \gamma) \sqrt{n}}{1 - \gamma} \max_{v \in \mathbb{R}^n_{\|v\|_1 = 1}} \left\| v \right\|_2
\]

Here, the first inequality follows from the fact that if a vector \( v \in \mathbb{R}^n \) has \( L^2 \)-norm equal to 1 then it has \( L^1 \)-norm equal to at most \( \sqrt{n} \). The second inequality follows from the fact that the columns of \( P_\sigma^T \) sum to 1 such that \( \|(I - \gamma P_\sigma^T) v\|_1 \leq (1 + \gamma) \|v\|_1 \). The first equality follows from Lemma \([9]\). For the third inequality we again use that the columns of \( P_\sigma^T \) sum to 1, which implies that \( e^T P_\sigma^T v = e^T v \) such that \( \|P_\sigma^T v\|_1 \leq \|v\|_1 \). The last equality follows from the fact that if a vector \( v \in \mathbb{R}^n \) has \( L^1 \)-norm equal to 1 then it has \( L^2 \)-norm at most 1.

Hence,

\[
|\lambda| \leq \frac{1}{2} \frac{(1 + \gamma) \sqrt{n}}{1 - \gamma} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{(1 + \gamma) \sqrt{n}}{1 - \gamma} = \frac{(1 + \gamma) \sqrt{n}}{1 - \gamma},
\]

which completes the proof. \( \square \)

We next upper bound the smallest eigenvalue of \( \frac{M_{G_n, \sigma_n, \tau_n} + M_{G_n, \sigma_n, \tau_n}^T}{2} \), where \( G_n, \sigma_n, \) and \( \tau_n \) are defined in Section \([3]\) (Figure \([2]\).

**Theorem 23** Let \( n > 2 \) and \( 0 < \gamma < 1 \) be given, and let \( M := M_{G_n, \sigma_n, \tau_n} \). The matrix \( \frac{M + M^T}{2} \) has smallest eigenvalue at most \( 1 - \frac{\gamma \sqrt{n - 1}}{2(1 - \gamma)}. \)

**Proof** Recall that

\[
(c_\tau)_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = 1 \\ -1 & \text{if } i = 2 \\ a & \text{if } i > 2. \end{cases}
\]
We show that, for an appropriate choice of $a$, $x = c_\tau$ is an eigenvector for the matrix $\frac{M + M^T}{2}$ with eigenvalue $\lambda = 1 - \frac{\gamma \sqrt{n - 2}}{\sqrt{2(1 - \gamma)}}$. Hence, we prove that the following equation is satisfied:

$$\lambda x = \frac{M + M^T}{2} x = \frac{I(I - \gamma P_\sigma)(I - \gamma P_\tau)^{-1} I + I(I - \gamma P_\tau^T)^{-1} (I - \gamma P_\sigma^T) I}{2} x .$$

Recall that $I = I$. We evaluate the two terms on the right-hand-side separately and from right to left.

We first evaluate $r := (I - \gamma P_\sigma)(I - \gamma P_\tau)^{-1} x$. From Lemma 20 we get that

$$r_i = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if } i = 1 \\
-1 & \text{if } i = 2 \\
a - \frac{2\gamma}{1 - \gamma} & \text{if } i > 2 .
\end{cases}$$

We next evaluate $r'' := (I - \gamma P_\tau^T)^{-1} (I - \gamma P_\sigma) x$. Let $v' = (I - \gamma P_\tau) x$. Observe that no actions move to state $i$ for $i > 2$, which means that $(P_\tau^T)_i = 0$ and $(P_\tau)_i = 0$ for $i > 2$. By similarly considering the incoming actions for states 1 and 2, it is easy to check that

$$v_i' = \begin{cases} 
1 - \gamma - \gamma a(n - 2) & \text{if } i = 1 \\
-1 + \gamma & \text{if } i = 2 \\
a & \text{if } i > 2 .
\end{cases}$$

Since $r'' = (I - \gamma P_\tau^T)^{-1} v'$ we see that $r''_i = v_i' + \gamma (P_\tau^T)_i r''$. For $i > 2$, it follows that $r''_i = v_i' + 0 = a$. For $i = 1$, only the self-loop moves to state 1 in $\tau$, and we get that

$$r''_1 = v_1' + \gamma r''_1 = 1 - \gamma - \gamma a(n - 2) + \gamma r''_1 = 1 - \frac{\gamma a(n - 2)}{1 - \gamma} .$$

For $i = 2$, all actions in $\tau$, except the one from state 1, move to state 2. We therefore see that

$$r''_2 = v_2' + \gamma \sum_{j=2}^{n} r''_j = -1 + \gamma + \gamma a(n - 2) + \gamma r''_2 = -1 + \frac{\gamma a(n - 2)}{1 - \gamma} .$$

Hence, we have that

$$r''_i = \begin{cases} 
1 - \frac{\gamma a(n - 2)}{2(1 - \gamma)} & \text{if } i = 1 \\
-1 + \frac{\gamma a(n - 2)}{2(1 - \gamma)} & \text{if } i = 2 \\
a - \frac{\gamma a(n - 2)}{2(1 - \gamma)} & \text{if } i > 2 .
\end{cases}$$

We conclude that

$$\left( \frac{M + M^T}{2} x \right)_i = \frac{r_i + r''_i}{2} = \begin{cases} 
1 - \frac{\gamma a(n - 2)}{2(1 - \gamma)} & \text{if } i = 1 \\
-1 + \frac{\gamma a(n - 2)}{2(1 - \gamma)} & \text{if } i = 2 \\
a - \frac{\gamma a(n - 2)}{2(1 - \gamma)} & \text{if } i > 2 .
\end{cases}$$
It remains to show that \( \lambda x = \frac{r + r'}{2} \), which corresponds to the system of equations:

\[
\begin{align*}
\lambda &= 1 - \frac{\gamma a(n - 2)}{2(1 - \gamma)} \\
\lambda a &= a - \frac{\gamma}{1 - \gamma}.
\end{align*}
\]

By eliminating \( \lambda \), using the first equation, we get:

\[
\begin{align*}
\alpha - \frac{\gamma a^2(n - 2)}{2(1 - \gamma)} &= a - \frac{\gamma}{1 - \gamma} \quad \Longleftrightarrow \\
\frac{\gamma}{1 - \gamma} &= \frac{\gamma a^2(n - 2)}{2(1 - \gamma)} \quad \Longleftrightarrow \\
2 &= a^2(n - 2) \quad \Longleftrightarrow \\
a &= \pm \sqrt{\frac{2}{n - 2}}.
\end{align*}
\]

Thus for \( a = \sqrt{\frac{2}{n - 2}} \) we get that

\[
\lambda = 1 - \frac{\gamma \sqrt{n - 2}}{\sqrt{2} (1 - \gamma)}
\]

is an eigenvalue for \( \frac{M + M^T}{2} \) with eigenvector \( x = c_t \), and in particular the smallest eigenvalue for \( \frac{M + M^T}{2} \) is at most \( 1 - \frac{\gamma \sqrt{n - 2}}{\sqrt{2} (1 - \gamma)} \).

\[\square\]

4.2 Bounds for the positive \( P \)-matrix number

We next lower bound the positive \( P \)-matrix number for any 2TBSG.

**Theorem 24** Let \( n \) and \( 0 < \gamma < 1 \) be given. For any 2TBSG \( G \) with \( n \) states, the matrix \( M := M_{G, \sigma, \tau} \), where \( \sigma \) and \( \tau \) partition the actions of \( G \), has positive \( P \)-matrix number, \( \theta(M) \), at least \( \frac{(1 - \gamma)^2}{(1 + \gamma)^2}n = \Omega\left(\frac{(1 - \gamma)^2}{n}\right) \)

**Proof** Recall that the positive \( P \)-matrix number of \( M = M_{G, \sigma, \tau} \) is defined as:

\[
\theta(M) = \min_{\|x\|_2 = 1} \max_{i \in [n]} x_i (Mx)_i.
\]

Let \( x \in \mathbb{R}^n_{\| \cdot \|_2 = 1} \) be given. Let \( v = (I - \gamma P_t)^{-1}x \) and \( j \in \operatorname{argmax}_j |v_j| \). From Lemma 17 we know that \( x_j(Mx)_j \geq (1 - \gamma) |x_jv_j| \geq (1 - \gamma)^2(v_j)^2 \). We also know from Lemma 17 that \( v_j^2 \geq \frac{x_j^2}{(1 + \gamma)^2} \) for all \( i \in [n] \). Hence, we see that \( x_j(Mx)_j \geq \frac{(1 - \gamma)^2 x_j^2}{(1 + \gamma)^2} \) for all \( i \in [n] \). Since \( \|x\|_2 = 1 \) there must exist an index \( i \) such that \( |x_i| \geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \). It follows that \( x_j(Mx)_j \geq \frac{(1 - \gamma)^2 x_j^2}{(1 + \gamma)^2 n} \). Since this inequality holds for all \( x \in \mathbb{R}^n_{\| \cdot \|_2 = 1} \) we see that \( \theta(M) \geq \frac{(1 - \gamma)^2}{(1 + \gamma)^2 n} \).

\[\square\]

We next upper bound the positive \( P \)-matrix number of \( M_{G_n, \sigma_n, \tau_n} \), where once again \( G_n, \sigma_n, \) and \( \tau_n \) are from the construction shown in Figure 2.
Theorem 25  Let $n > 2$ and $0 < \gamma < 1$ be given. The matrix $M := M_{G_n,\sigma_n,\tau_n}$ has positive $P$-matrix number $\theta(M) < \frac{(1-\gamma)^2}{(2\gamma)^2(n-2)}$.

Proof  Recall that the positive $P$-matrix number of $M = M_{G_n,\sigma_n,\tau_n}$ is defined as:

$$\theta(M) = \min_{\|x\|_2 = 1} \max_{i \in [n]} x_i (Mx)_i.$$  

Recall also that

$$(c_\tau)_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = 1 \\ -1 & \text{if } i = 2 \\ a & \text{if } i > 2 \end{cases}.$$  

Define $x := c_\tau$ and $x' := \frac{x}{\|x\|_2}$. We show that, for an appropriate choice of $a$, $x'$ satisfies

$$\max_{i \in [n]} x'_i (Mx')_i < \frac{(1-\gamma)^2}{(2\gamma)^2(n-2)}.$$  

This implies that $\theta(M) < \frac{(1-\gamma)^2}{(2\gamma)^2(n-2)}$, completing the proof.

Let $r' \in \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfy $r'_i = x_i (Mx)_i$ for all $i \in [n]$. From Lemma 20, we then get that

$$(r')_i = x_i (Mx)_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } i = 2 \\ a^2 - \frac{2\gamma a}{1-\gamma} & \text{if } i > 2 \end{cases}.$$  

Since $\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{2 + (n-2)a^2}$ it follows that

$$x'_i (Mx')_i = \frac{x_i (Mx)_i}{\|x\|_2^2} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2 + (n-2)a^2} & \text{if } i = 1 \\ \frac{1}{a^2 - \frac{2\gamma a}{1-\gamma}} & \text{if } i = 2 \\ \frac{2 + (n-2)a^2}{2 + (n-2)a^2} & \text{if } i > 2 \end{cases}.$$  

and for $a = \frac{2\gamma}{1-\gamma}$ we see that:

$$x'_i (Mx')_i = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2 + (n-2)(2\gamma)^2/(1-\gamma)^2} & \text{if } i = 1 \\ \frac{1}{2 + (n-2)(2\gamma)^2/(1-\gamma)^2} & \text{if } i = 2 \\ 0 & \text{if } i > 2 \end{cases}.$$  

Since

$$\frac{1}{2 + (n-2)(2\gamma)^2/(1-\gamma)^2} < \frac{1}{(n-2)(2\gamma)^2/(1-\gamma)^2} = \frac{(1-\gamma)^2}{(2\gamma)^2(n-2)},$$  

there is a vector $x'$, with $\|x'\|_2 = 1$, such that

$$\max_{i \in [n]} x'_i (Mx')_i < \frac{(1-\gamma)^2}{(2\gamma)^2(n-2)}.$$
implying that

$$\theta(M) = \min_{\|x\|_2=1} \max_{i \in [n]} x_i(Mx)_i < \frac{(1 - \gamma)^2}{(2\gamma)^2(n - 2)}.$$ 

□

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