On hats and other covers

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I. INTRODUCTION

The following game puzzle has recently received attention from mathematicians, computer scientists, coding theorists, and even from the mass press [1]: A team of n players is fitted with hats, which are either red or green. A player can see the other players' hat colors, but not his own. Each player is then asked to declare his hat color, or pass. All the players must declare simultaneously, with no inter-player communication allowed during the game. They are permitted, however, to hold a strategy coordination meeting before the game starts. The team wins if at least one player declares the correct color, and no player declares incorrectly. The goal of the team is to devise a strategy that maximizes the winning probability, under an assumption of uniform probability distribution on the hat color combinations.

A winning probability of 50% is guaranteed by a trivial strategy in which a designated player declares "red," and the rest "pass." The puzzle is popularly posed for n = 3. In that case, the following strategy yields a 75% winning probability, which turns out to be optimal: Upon observing the hats of the teammates, if a player sees two identical colors, he declares the opposite color, otherwise he passes. Clearly, the team wins whenever the color configuration consists of two hats of the same color and one of the opposite color, and it loses when the three hats are of the same color. Moreover, the following property holds: In winning configurations, one player declares the correct color, and the rest pass; in losing configurations all the players declare a wrong color. For any value of n, a strategy satisfying this property is said to be perfect. We will be interested in the behavior of the winning probability for the best strategies as a function of n, and in its asymptotic behavior as n → ∞. We start with the binary (two-color) game just defined, and then generalize the problem to an arbitrary number q ≥ 2 of colors.

II. COVERINGS FOR THE BINARY GAME

Let 0 and 1 represent the colors in the binary hats game, let N = {1, 2, ..., n}, and let Vn = {0, 1}n denote the n-dimensional binary space. A deterministic n-player strategy is a vector S = (f1, f2, ..., fn), where the function fi : Vn-1 → {0, 1, pass}, i ∈ N, encodes the instructions for player i, i.e., upon observing u ∈ Vn-1, player i declares fi(u). Clearly, given a hats configuration v ∈ Vn and a strategy S, it is uniquely determined whether S wins on v or not. For a given strategy S, let Ws ⊆ Vn denote the set of winning configurations for S. A 1-covering of Vn (in the Hamming metric) is a set C ⊆ Vn such that for all v ∈ Vn there is a vector c ∈ C that differs from v in at most one coordinate [2].

Proposition 1 There is a one-to-one correspondence between strategies for the binary hats game and 1-coverings of Vn. For each strategy S, C = Vn \ Ws is a 1-covering and, conversely, each 1-covering C is the losing set of a strategy C. Moreover, S is perfect if and only if C is a perfect code. A strategy S corresponding to a 1-covering C has losing probability Ps = |C|/|Vn| = 2-n |C|. For values n = 2m - 1, the (perfect) binary Hamming code of length n defines a strategy with P0 = (n + 1)-1, and the winning probability 1 - P0 converges to 1 at the fastest possible rate. When n is not a Hamming length, a shorter Hamming code can be trivially lengthened to obtain P0 < 2(n + 1)-1. The factor of 2 relative to the optimal convergence is inevitable in the case of linear codes, but it follows from the results in [3] that one can construct sequences of non-linear 1-coverings with P0 approaching, asymptotically, the ideal (n + 1)-1.

III. STRONG COVERINGS FOR THE q-ARY GAME

We now consider a game where the hat colors are drawn from a q-ary alphabet Q, for an arbitrary integer q ≥ 2. The playing rules remain the same as before. In this case, an approach based on q-ary 1-coverings quickly leads to disappointment, e.g., in the case of perfect codes. Strategies derived from q-ary 1-coverings approach a winning probability of (q - 1)-1, which is fine when q = 2, but leaves room for improvement otherwise. As before, we characterize a deterministic strategy S in terms of its set W ⊆ Qn of winning configurations, and its complement C = Qn \ W.

Proposition 2 Let w = (w1, w2, ..., wn). If w ∈ W, then there exists a coordinate i ∈ N such that for all x ∈ Q such that {x1, x2, ..., xi-1, xi+1, ..., xn} ∈ C. Conversely, any set C satisfying this condition defines a strategy for the q-ary game.

We call a set C as in Proposition 2 a strong covering of Qn. A sphere-packing-type bound exists for strong coverings, as well as a notion of a perfect strong covering, which corresponds to a perfect strategy as defined in Section I (the definition carries to q > 2). However, the following proposition holds.

Proposition 3 There are no perfect strong coverings for q>2 and n>1.

Assume Q is endowed with an abelian group law. Then, we can efficiently construct C in the following proposition.

Proposition 4 There is a strong covering C of Qn, with PL = |C|q-n = O(n-n), with c ≥ (1 - q-1)(1 + (2(q-1)/e log(q-1))))-1.

For 0 ≤ q ≤ n, the dominant term in the exponent c is of the form 1/(e log(q-1)). Noga Alon [4], using a non-constructive random-coding argument, showed the existence of strong coverings with PL = O((q log n)/n). The full paper will expand on these results and their proofs, as well as on deterministic, probabilistic, and symmetric variants of the basic game.

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