It is tough to be a plumber

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Abstract

In the Linux computer game `KPlumber`, the objective is to rotate tiles in a raster of squares so as to complete a system of pipes. We give a complexity classification for the original game and various special cases of it that arise from restricting the set of six possible tiles.

Most of the cases are NP-complete. One polynomially solvable case is settled by formulating it as a perfect matching problem; other polynomial cases are settled by simple sweepline techniques. Moreover, we show that all the unsettled cases are polynomial time equivalent.

1 Introduction

The computer game `KPlumber` is included to standard packages of some of Linux distributions. `KPlumber` is a game for a single player. It is played on

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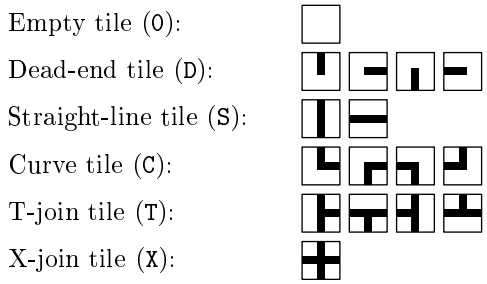

Figure 1: Different types of tiles and their possible rotations

a rectangular (chessboard-like) board consistining of a number of rows and a number of columns that structure the board into small *squares* or *cells*. Every cell has (up to) four *adjacent* cells to the north, south, east, and west of it. In the initial configuration, every such cell contains one of the six tiles depicted in Figure 1. Each of these six tiles contains several pipes that may cross each other, go around the corner, connect one side of the tile to the opposite side, and so on. If there is a pipe running from the center of a tile to the middle of one of its sides, then this side is called *open*. Otherwise, the side is called *closed*. If the pipes are filled with water, then the system will possibly leak at an open side of some tile. The only way of preventing this is to have another tile with an open side in the adjacent cell, so that the water can flow on into the open pipe in the adjacent cell. This motivates the following definition: Two tiles in adjacent cells form a *safe pair* if they either touch each other in open sides or touch each other in closed sides.

In the initial configuration, all the tiles are rotated arbitrarily. If the player clicks on one of the tiles, this tile makes a counter-clockwise rotation by 90 degrees. Note that four clicks on the same tile bring the tile back into its initial state. The goal of the game is to bring the pipe system into a *safe* state where all pairs of tiles in adjacent cells form safe pairs. The pipe system may consist of many connected components in a safe system; global connectivity is not required. An instance of the plumber problem consists of a rectangular board and of rotated tiles in the cells. The question is to decide whether the system can be brought into a safe state.

Since there is no global connectivity condition, the plumber problem can be formulated concisely as a simple constraint satisfaction problem (CSP):

For every cell C, there is a corresponding variable $v(C)$ in the CSP instance. This variable can take four values that correspond to the four possible rotated states of the corresponding tile; see Figure 1. For every pair of adjacent cells C_1 and C_2, there is a corresponding constraint that forbids that $v(C_1)$ and $v(C_2)$ take values such that an open side touches a closed side. Note that every constraint involves only two variables, and that every variable can only take four distinct values. Hence, the game forms a special case of $(4, 2)$-CSP which is known in general to be NP-complete. Eppstein [1] gives fast (but exponential time) exact algorithms for $(4, 2)$-CSP.

The computational complexity of the game `kplumber` is addressed in this paper. We prove that the decision problem whether the game can be won is NP-complete (Theorem 1). On the other hand, if the straight line tiles are not permitted, the problem becomes polynomial-time solvable (Theorem 2). Other "polynomial" sets of tiles are identified in Theorem 3 and Theorem 4 and some NP-complete sets of tiles in Theorem 5. Finally, we prove in Theorem 6 that the remaining sets of tiles, i.e., those which were not shown to give either an NP-complete version of the game or a polynomial time solvable one, have the same complexity.

2 Notation

The following tiling problem based on the game `kplumber` is studied in this paper: An instance of the problem is an $x \times y$ grid where each position in the grid has assigned one of six possible types of tiles (cf. Figure 1): an *empty tile* (`O`-tile), a *curve tile* (`C`-tile), a *dead-end tile* (`D`-tile), a *straight-line tile* (`S`-tile), a *T-join tile* (`T`-tile) and an *X-join tile* (`X`-tile). The *types of tiles* are denoted by `O`, `C`, `D`, `S`, `T` and `X`, respectively. An expression *Y-tiles* for $Y \subseteq \{\texttt{OCDSTX}\}$ means the tiles with types from Y.

Each of the tiles can be freely rotated in the grid (but not moved from its place). We refer to a grid with fixed rotations of its tiles as to a *tiling*. A tiling is *proper* if the tiles in each pair of the neighbouring tiles either touch by their close sides or their open sides (i.e. they form safe pairs) and the tiles at the boundary of the grid touch the boundary by their empty sides. The rotation of the tiles which gives a proper tiling is a *proper rotation*. The neighbouring tiles touching by their open sides are called *linked*.

In a *tiling problem*, you have to decide whether a given instance of the problem has a proper rotation. We also consider in the paper the tiling

problems where only some of tile types are allowed. An Y-*tiling problem* is a tiling problem where the types of tiles in a grid can be only from the set $Y \subseteq \{\mathtt{0}, \mathtt{C}, \mathtt{D}, \mathtt{S}, \mathtt{T}, \mathtt{X}\}$; e.g., the CDT-tiling problem is the tiling problem where the types of the tiles are restricted to the types C, D and T.

3 The General Case

We settle the complexity of the general tiling problem in the next theorem:

Theorem 1 *The* OCDSTX*-tiling problem is NP-complete.*

Proof: Obviously, the problem is in NP. To prove its NP-hardness, we reduce the problem of the planar $(1,3)$-satisfiability to the OCDSTX-tiling problem. The planar $(1,3)$-SAT is a satisfiability problem where the input formula is planar, all its clauses have sizes exactly three and we ask whether there is a variable assignment such that each clause contains exactly one true literal. A formula is said to be planar if its bipartite incidence graph is planar. The bipartite incidence graph of a formula is a graph whose vertices correspond to the variables and the clauses of the formula and a "variable vertex" is joined by an edge to a "clause vertex" if the corresponding variable is contained in the corresponding clause. The planar $(1,3)$-SAT is known to be NP-complete, see [4, 5, 7].

We construct various gadgets that are needed for the reduction. Throughout the proof, the straightforward and boring formal verification that the gadgets have the claimed properties is not presented in the full detail. In the figures, we always draw all possible proper orientations of the gadgets in order to assist the reader to figure out the omitted details. The "contact" points of the gadgets are drawn with bold lines in all the figures (see, e.g., Figure 2). The gadgets all have size even by even, and they are placed so that the contact areas are even distances from each other. Also, they are placed so that on all sides with the exception of sides containing the contact points their neighbors are empty tiles.

We first draw the incidence graph of the formula to a grid (the graph is planar and hence it can be also drawn in a grid). We replace the edges by "wires" from Figure 2. These wires distribute the value of the variable from the variable gadgets to the clause gadgets. We use the two possible orientations of the S-tiles in the wire to represent the truth values: Let the orientation perpendicular to the direction of the wire represent the false value and the orientation parallel with the direction of the wire the true

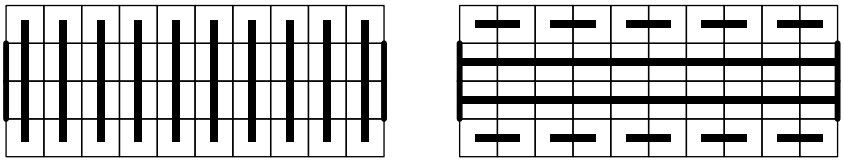

Figure 2: Wires transporting the false (the left one) and the true signal (the right one).

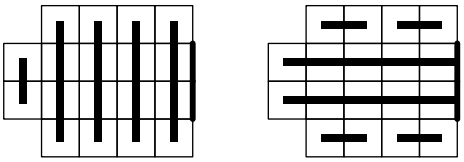

Figure 3: The signal generator gadget.

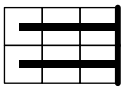

Figure 4: The true signal generator gadget.

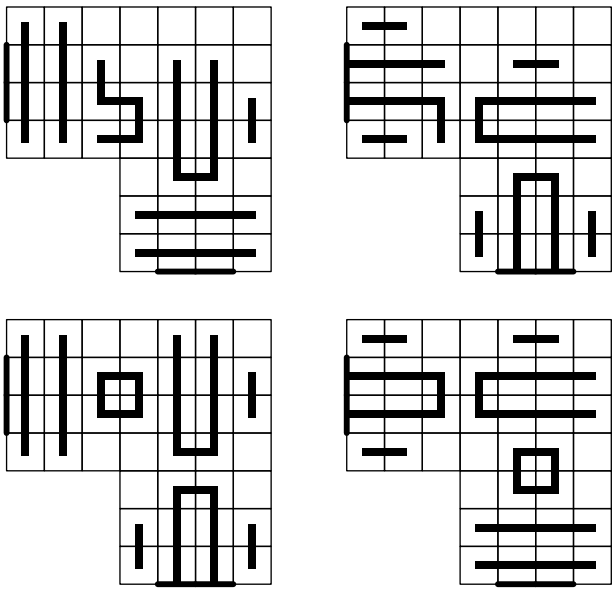

Figure 5: The identity turn (the top two figures) and the negating turn (the bottom two figures).

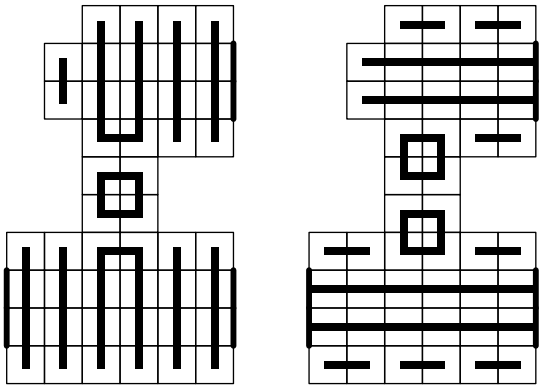

Figure 6: The signal split gadget.

value (cf. Figure 2). The wires guarantee that the signal is correct (i.e., all the S-tiles have the same orientation). In principle, the wires can be oriented so that their tiles adjacent to the contact areas also have a link to the adjacent gadgets. However, it can be verified that none of the other gadgets we use can be attached to such an orientation.

The wires can be terminated using the gadgets from Figures 3 and 4; we further refer to these gadget as to the generator and true gadgets. The wires can be turned using the gadgets from Figure 5; the top gadget in Figure 5 turns the wire and preserves its value, the bottom one turns the wire and negates its value. The wire can be split to two wires with the same value using the gadget from Figure 6. We can now describe the variable gadget: Start a "new" wire with the generator gadget, use several times the split gadget (that from Figure 6) to make sufficiently many copies of the value of the variable (i.e., as many as the degree of the variable vertex in the bipartite incidence graph of the formula) and then conduct the values through the wires using the turn gadgets (those from Figure 5) to the clause gadgets. If the variable is negated in the particular clause, negate it using the "negating turn gadget".

The clause gadget is constructed in this paragraph. The kernel of this gadget is the *triple gadget* from Figure 7. This gadget has only the four states (assuming that the coming signal is correct) depicted in Figure 7. The allowed states of the gadget are the following (the inputs of the gadget are denoted as in Figure 7): If both A and B are false, then exactly one of C and D is true. Otherwise, exactly one of A and B is false and both C and D are true. The clause gadget itself is in Figure 8: The rectangles are the triple gadgets Figure 7 and the lines between them are the wires from Figure 2 with the turn gadgets from Figure 5; the true signal is generated by a gadget from Figure 4.

Let us analyze the gadget: x and y cannot both be true because of the triple gadget to which they are connected. If exactly one of them is true and the other one is false, then α is true. The only possible configuration of the other triple gadget is that z is false. If both x and y are false, then α is false and z has to be true. Thus the gadget has a proper tiling if and only if exactly one of x, y, z is true.

The overview of the reduction is as follows: Construct for a given instance of the planar $(1,3)$-SAT an instance of the OCDSTX-tiling problem as shown above. This instance has polynomial size and can be constructed in polynomial time. If it can be properly oriented, then the values corresponding to the orientations of the wires give a satisfying assignment of the given

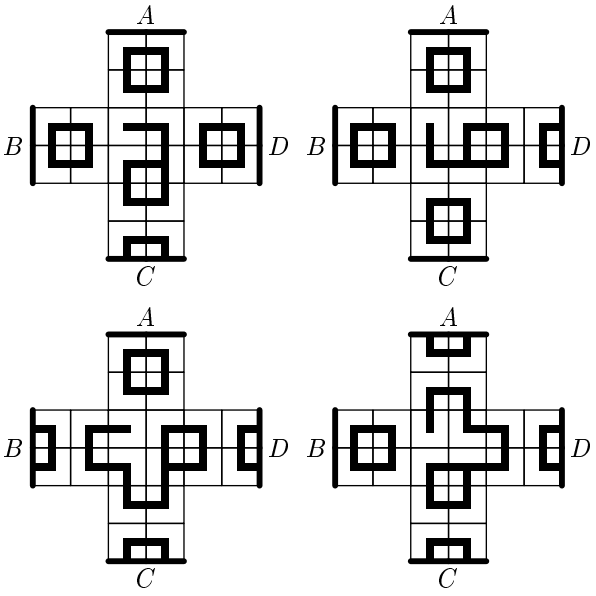

Figure 7: The triple gadget.

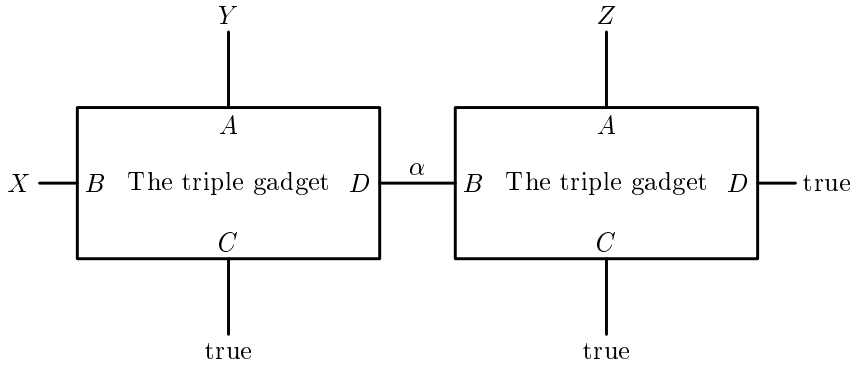

Figure 8: The clause gadget.

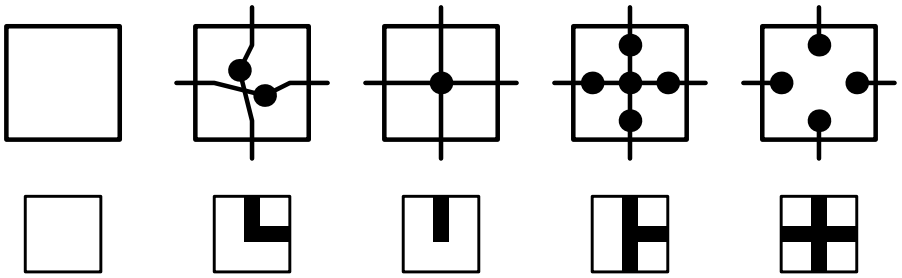

Figure 9: The matching gadgets for the OCDTX-tiling problem.

formula. On the other hand, a satisfying assignment of the input formula provides a proper orientation of the tiling problem. Hence the OCDSTX-tiling problem is NP-complete.

■

4 Polynomial Cases

It might be surprising that forbidding only the S-tiles in input instances drop the complexity of the problem:

Theorem 2 *The* OCDTX*-tiling problem can be solved in polynomial time; there is an algorithm which runs in time* $O((ab)^{3/2})$ *for an* $a \times b$ *grid.*

Proof: We reduce an instance of the OCDTX-tiling problem to the perfect matching problem in bipartite graphs which can be solved in polynomial time [3, 6]. We replace each of the tiles of types $\{\mathtt{C}, \mathtt{D}, \mathtt{T}, \mathtt{X}\}$ by a gadget from Figure 9. The edges in the formed graph correspond naturally to the pairs of neighbouring tiles which can be linked: If the edge is included to a matching, then the neighbouring tiles are linked. In order to decide whether a given instance of the OCDTX-tiling problem can be properly rotated, it is enough to construct the above described graph and check whether it contains a perfect matching. Its perfect matchings one-to-one correspond to the proper tilings.

We show that the constructed graph is bipartite: The tiles in the grid can be colored in white and black in such way that no two adjacent tiles

have the same color. The vertices in the gadgets are assigned the colors of the tiles which they replace with the following exception: The colors of the central vertices of the gadgets replacing the T-tiles are inverted. This is a proper coloring of the constructed graph and hence the graph is bipartite.

The estimate on the running time of the algorithm follows from the existence [3, 6] of an algorithm for perfect matchings in bipartite graphs which runs in time $O(n^{1/2}m)$ where n is the number of vertices of the input graph and m is the number of its edges.

■

The remaining two polynomial-time cases are rather easy:

Theorem 3 *The* OCSX*-tiling problem can be solved in linear time.*

Proof: Realize that the rotation of any tile whose type is among $\{\mathtt{O}, \mathtt{C}, \mathtt{S}, \mathtt{X}\}$ is determined by the fact whether the tile is linked to the tile above it and to the tile left from it. Hence it is possible to determine the only possible rotations of all the tiles in linear time by sweeping a given instance of the problem from left to the right and from up to down.

■

Theorem 4 *An instance of the* OSTX*-tiling problem can be properly rotated iff it contains only the empty tiles. Hence the* OSTX*-tiling problem can be solved in linear time.*

Proof: An instance which contains only the empty tiles can be trivially properly rotated. Take an instance of the OSTX-tiling problem which contains a tile which is not the O-tile and consider such a tile Z in the top most row and the left most column. This tile cannot be linked to the tile above and to the tile to the left (this neighbouring tile either is an O-tile or does not exist). But then the tile Z cannot be properly rotated.

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5 Reductions

In this section we use simulation of tiles by larger gadgets using fewer types of tiles to classify the remaining problems. First we show how to remove the empty tiles.

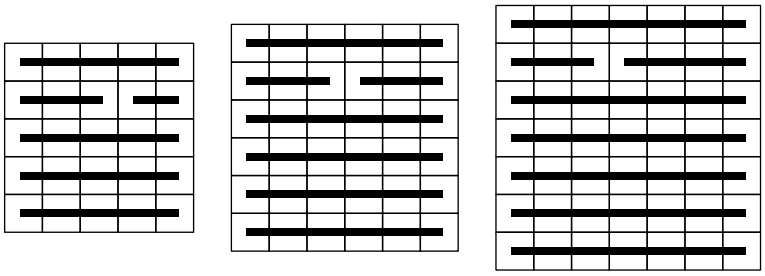

Figure 10: The DS-gadgets which simulate the empty tile.

Lemma 1 *For each integer $k \geq 5$, there exists a gadget from* DS*-tiles of size $k \times k$ which has only one proper rotation and furthermore this rotation has no links to outside.*

Proof: Consider the gadget from Figure 10; the construction of the gadget is extended for larger integers in a natural way. To prove that the gadgets simulate the empty tile, it is enough to prove that the configurations of the gadgets depicted in Figure 10 are the only possible ones. The rotations of all the S-tile have to be the same. They cannot be vertical, because in such case, the D-tile in the second row and the third column cannot be properly rotated. Hence, all the S-tiles are rotated as in the figure and the rotations of the remaining D-tiles are forced, too.

■

Next we define what type of simulation we use for other tiles. We say for an odd integer k that a $k \times k$ gadget G *simulates* a Z-tile, $Z \in \{0, C, D, S, T, X\}$ if

- In every proper rotation of the gadget (we do not demand by definition that only the empty sides of the tiles may touch the boundary of the gadget), each tile touches the boundary of the gadget by its empty side, with possible exceptions for the tiles in the middle row and in the middle column.
- For each rotation of a Z-tile, there is a proper rotation of G such that G can be linked in the same directions (up, down, right, left) as the Z-tile, and vice versa, for each proper rotation of G, there is a corresponding rotation of a Z-tile.

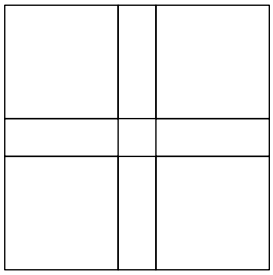

Figure 11: Regions in the $k \times k$ grid from the proof of Lemma 2.

A Z-tile *can be simulated* by $k \times k$ gadget if there exists a gadget G with the above described properties. If a gadget G contains only tiles of types from a set $Y \subseteq \{\mathtt{0}, \mathtt{C}, \mathtt{D}, \mathtt{S}, \mathtt{T}, \mathtt{X}\}$, G is a *Y-gadget*.

Lemma 2 *For each integer $k \geq 13$ such that $k \bmod 4 = 1$, the Z-tile can be simulated by a $\mathtt{DS}Z$-gadget of order k for any $Z \in \{\mathtt{0}, \mathtt{C}, \mathtt{D}, \mathtt{S}, \mathtt{T}, \mathtt{X}\}$.*

Proof: Let $k \geq 13$ be a fixed integer. We divide the $k \times k$ grid into 9 regions (see Figure 11): The corner regions have sizes $(k-1)/2 \times (k-1)/2$, the intermediate ones between them have sizes $1 \times (k-1)/2$ and $(k-1)/2 \times 1$ and the size of the middle one is just 1×1.

We place in each of the four corner regions one $(k-1)/2 \times (k-1)/2$ DS-gadgets which simulate the 0-tiles described in Lemma 1, we put in each of the four intermediate regions $(k-1)/2$ D-tiles and we place in the middle region the Z-tile. Since the gadgets in the corner regions have only one possible rotation, the whole gadgets behave like if there were only the empty tiles in the corner regions and the tiles in the intermediate regions just transport the linking signal from the middle tile to the boundary (it is important that $(k-1)/2$ is even in order not to negate the signal). Hence the gadget really simulates the Z-tile.

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Lemma 3 *The ODSTX-tiles can be simulated by ODS-gadgets of order 5. The C-tiles can be simulated by OCDS-gadgets of order 5.*

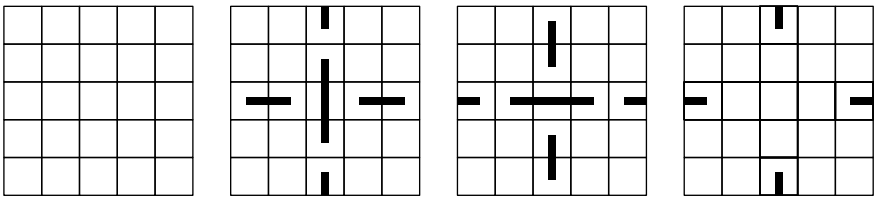

Figure 12: The ODS-gadgets of order 5 which simulate the O-tile (the left gadget), the S-tile (the two middle gadgets) and X-tile (the right gadget).

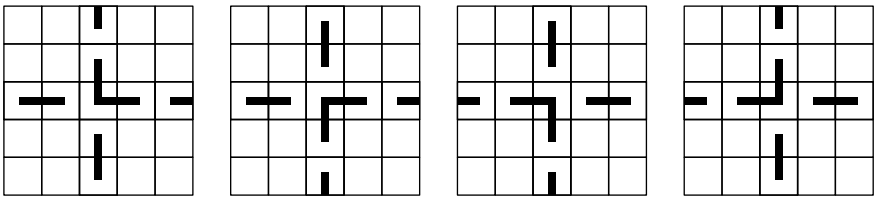

Figure 13: The OCDS-gadget of order 5 which simulates the C-tile.

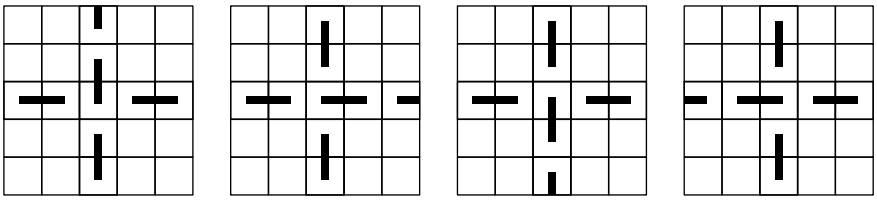

Figure 14: The ODS-gadget of order 5 which simulates the D-tile.

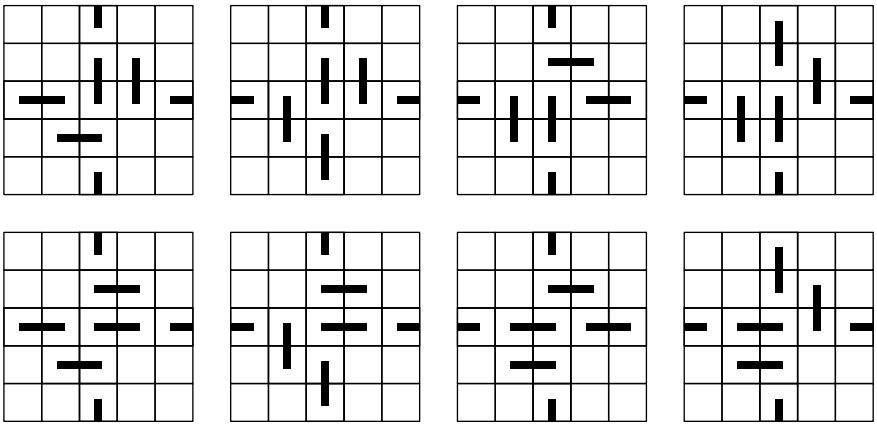

Figure 15: The ODS-gadget of order 5 which simulates the T-tile.

Proof: The simulation gadgets are depicted in Figure 12, Figure 13, Figure 14 and Figure 15. It is straightforward to verify that the configurations of the gadgets depicted in the figures are the only possible ones.

■

We are now ready to prove the main theorem of this section:

Theorem 5 *Both the* CDS*-tiling problem and the* CST*-tiling problems are NP-complete.*

Proof: The general OCDSTX-tiling problem is NP-complete due to Theorem 1. The OCDS-tiling problem is NP-complete due to Lemma 3 and finally the CDS-tiling problem is NP-complete due to Lemma 1 and Lemma 2 (used for $Z = \mathtt{C}$, $Z = \mathtt{D}$ and $Z = \mathtt{S}$).

We show how to reduce an instance of the CDS-tiling problem to an instance of the CST-tiling problem. First complement the tiles, i.e., replace the D-tiles with T-tiles and keep both the C-tiles and S-tiles. Next, create a boundary around the grid consisting of the C-tiles and the T-tiles as shown in Figure 16. The obtained instance of the problem has a proper rotation iff the original instance has one: It is enough to complement the tiles, e.g., if a curve tile is linked to the tiles above and to the right, then in the comple-

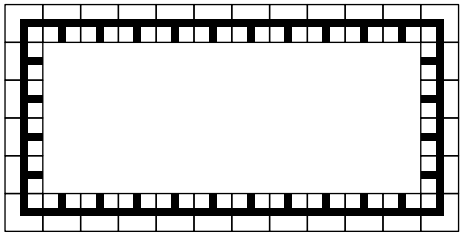

Figure 16: The border around the complementary grid formed by the C-tiles and the T-tiles.

ment, the tile is linked to the tiles down and to the left. Hence, the CST-tiling problem is NP-complete.

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6 The Unsettled Cases

What cases remain unsettled? If S-tiles are not allowed, the tiling problem can be solved in polynomial time due to Theorem 2. If neither D-tiles nor T-tiles are allowed, the problem can be solved in polynomial time due to Theorem 3. Hence the remaining cases are those where S-tiles are allowed together with D-tiles or T-tiles. If even C-tiles, besides S-tiles and D-tiles or T-tiles, are allowed, then the problem is NP-complete due to Theorem 5. Thus only the cases where C-tiles are not allowed remain. If neither C-tiles nor D-tiles are allowed, the problem can be solved in polynomial time due to Theorem 4, consult Table 1. Hence the unsettled problems are the Y-tiling problems where $\{\mathtt{D},\mathtt{S}\} \subseteq Y \subseteq \{\mathtt{O},\mathtt{D},\mathtt{S},\mathtt{T},\mathtt{X}\}$. We show that all these cases have the same complexity:

Theorem 6 *The complexity of the* DS*-tiling problem and the complexity of the* ODSTX*-tiling problem are the same.*

Proof: The ODSTX-tiling problem can be reduced to the ODS-tiling problem due to Lemma 3 and the ODS-tiling problem can be reduced to the DS-tiling problem due to Lemma 1 and Lemma 2 (used for $Z = \mathtt{D}$ and $Z = \mathtt{S}$).

■

O	C	D	S	T	X	Complexity
$\star$	$\star$	$\star$	$\times$	$\star$	$\star$	Polynomial (Theorem 2)
$\star$	$\star$	$\times$	$\surd$	$\times$	$\star$	Polynomial (Theorem 3)
$\star$	$\surd$	$\surd$	$\surd$	$\star$	$\star$	NP-complete (Theorem 5)
$\star$	$\surd$	$\star$	$\surd$	$\surd$	$\star$	NP-complete (Theorem 5)
$\star$	$\times$	$\times$	$\surd$	$\star$	$\star$	Polynomial (Theorem 4)
$\star$	$\times$	$\surd$	$\surd$	$\star$	$\star$	The same (unknown) complexity (Theorem 6)

Table 1: The summary of our complexity results. The sign $\surd$ means that the corresponding type of tiles is present, the sign $\times$ means that it is not present and $\star$ means that it does not matter.

7 Conclusion

The summary of the obtained complexity results can be found in Table 1. The unsettled case of the problem turns out to be suprisingly hard. We sketch the reasons why we think to be so.

First, we prove a claim which shows that a similar NP-completeness reduction based on gadgets is unlikely to exist, since we cannot construct non-trivial gadgets (in particular a negating gadget). This claim in fact seems to be pointing to some general invariant which we do not fully understand.

We sketch a proof of the following claim: Suppose we want to make a DS-gadget with two input points A and B belonging to different inputs of the gadget such that A and B are in even distance (cf. the proof of Theorem 1) and there is no other input point between A and B (i.e., going from A clockwise along the border of the gadget, B is the next input point). If there exist two proper orientations assigning to A/B values false/true and true/false (in the notation of the proof of Theorem 1), respectively, then there also exist two proper orientations assigning to A/B values false/false and true/true. (A similar claim can be shown for A and B on squares of the same color: if false/false and true/true configurations are both possible, then also false/true and true/false are possible.)

Take a false/true configuration and fill (draw) all the used pipes by blue and then take a true/false configuration and fill (draw) all the used pipes by red. A pipe which is both red and blue is purple. Erase all purple pipes. Each square either (i) is empty, or (ii) contains two crossing straight pipes

of distinct colors (it origins from an S-tile), or (iii) two dead ends of distinct colors (the square origins from a D-tile). Furthemore, both the input pipes entering A are red and both the input pipe entering B are blue (one can always extend the gadget by a wire from Figure 2 in order this to hold). Start at the input pipe to A and go left (i.e., in the direction to B) along the outside contour along the red and blue pipes. This gives you an alternating path: at a square of type (ii) you always turn and thus change color, on (iii) you change color no matter if you turn or not. By parity, the alternating path cannot end at B. Since it was the contour, it shows that the pipes of the input A and the input B are disconnected in the blue-red graph. This means that in each of the components we can switch the colors separately, and thus get the remaining configurations false/false and true/true.

On the other hand, our NP-completeness result can be extended to the case without C-tiles if we allow to "mutilate" the grid to a general square-board glued from a different grid-like pieces. More precisely, it is sufficient to allow to remove parts of a grid and to replace any $a \times b$ strip of a grid connected to other pieces of a grid only on the two sides of length a by an $a \times b'$ strip (note that the mutilated grid is still planar, i.e. some of its parts are only punctuared, condensed or spread; in particular, only planar graphs can be drawn on this grid). On such a board it is easy to construct a negating gadget and all the other needed gadgets. So any potential polynomial algorithm needs to make an essential use of the planar grid structure in the problem.

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