Space-Efficient Algorithms for Reachability in Surface-Embedded Graphs

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Abstract

This work presents a log-space reduction which compresses a directed acyclic graph with m sources embedded on a surface of genus g to a graph on O(m + g) vertices while preserving reachability between a given pair of vertices. Applying existing algorithms to this smaller graph gives improved space bounds as well as improved simultaneous time-space bounds for the reachability problem for a large class of directed acyclic graphs. Specifically, it significantly extends the class of surface-embedded graphs with log-space reachability algorithms: from planar graphs with $O(\log n)$ sources, to graphs with $2^{O(\sqrt{\log n})}$ sources embedded in a surface of genus $2^{O(\sqrt{\log n})}$. Additionally it also yields sublinear space $(n^{1-\epsilon} \text{ space})$ algorithms with polynomial running time for graphs with $n^{1-\epsilon}$ sources embedded on surfaces of genus $n^{1-\epsilon}$.

1 Introduction

Graph reachability problems are central to space-bounded computations. Different versions of this problem characterize several important space complexity classes. The problem of deciding whether there is a path from a given vertex u to a vertex v in a directed acyclic graph is the canonical complete problem for non-deterministic log-space (NL). The recent breakthrough result of Reingold implies that the undirected reachability problem characterizes the complexity of deterministic log-space (L) [13]. It is also known that certain restricted promise versions of the directed reachability problem characterize randomized log-space computations (RL) [14]. Clearly, progress in space complexity studies is directly related to progress in understanding graph reachability problems. We refer the readers to a (two decades old, but excellent) survey by Avi Wigderson [19] and a recent update by Eric Allender [1] to further understand the significance of reachability problems in complexity theory.

In this paper we focus on designing deterministic algorithms for reachability with improved space complexity. For the general directed graph reachability problem the best known result remains the 40-year old $O(\log^2 n)$ space bound due to Savitch [16] (where n is the number of vertices in the graph). Designing a deterministic algorithm for the directed graph reachability problem that asymptotically beats Savitch's bound is the most significant open questions in this topic. While this remains a difficult open problem, investigating classes of directed graphs for which we can design space efficient algorithms that beat Savitch's bound is an important research direction with some outstanding results, including Saks and Zhou's $O(\log^{3/2} n)$ bound for reachability problems

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characterizing RL computations [15] and Reingold's log-space algorithm for the undirected reachability problem [13]. In this paper we consider the reachability problem over *directed acyclic graphs* that are embedded on topological surfaces. We present the best (to date) space complexity upper bounds for the reachability problem over this class of directed graphs.

Prior Results

Jakoby, Liśkiewicz, and Reischuk [8] and Jakoby and Tantau [9] show that various reachability and optimization questions for *series-parallel* graphs admit deterministic log-space algorithms. Series-parallel graphs are a very restricted subclass of planar DAGs. In particular, such graphs have a single source and a single sink. Allender, Barrington, Chakraborty, Datta, and Roy [2] extended the result of Jakoby *et al.* to show that the reachability problem for Single-source Multiple-sink Planar DAGs (SMPDs) can be decided in logarithmic space. Building on the work of Allender *et al.* [2], in [17], the present authors show that reachability for planar DAGs with $O(\log n)$ sources can be decided in logarithmic space. Theorem 1 below is implicit in [17].

Theorem 1 ([17]). Let $\mathcal{G}(m)$ denote the class of planar DAGs with at most m = m(n) sources, where n is the number of vertices. The reachability problem over $\mathcal{G}(m)$ can be solved by a log-space nondeterministic machine using a one-way certificate of O(m) bits. In particular, reachability over $\mathcal{G}(m)$ can be decided deterministically in min $\{O(\log n + m), O(\log n \cdot \log m)\}$ space.

The $O(\log n + m)$ space bound is obtained by a brute-force search over all certificates of length O(m). Setting $m = O(\log n)$ we get a deterministic log-space algorithm for reachability over planar graphs with $O(\log n)$ source nodes. The $O(\log n \cdot \log m)$ bound is obtained by first converting the nondeterministic algorithm to a layered graph with m layers and poly(n) vertices in each layer, and then applying Savitch's algorithm on this layered graph. The second bound leads to a deterministic algorithm that beats Savitch's bound for reachability over DAGs with $2^{o(\log n)}$ sources (for example, setting $m = 2^{\log^{1-\epsilon} n}$, it gives a $\log^{2-\epsilon} n$ space algorithm for reachability over planar graphs with $2^{\log^{1-\epsilon} n}$ source nodes).

However, if we are aiming for deterministic algorithms with $O(\log n)$ space complexity, the above theorem could not handle asymptotically more than $\log n$ sources. In this paper we improve the upper bound from $\min\{O(\log n + m), O(\log n \cdot \log m)\}$ to $O(\log n + \log^2 m)$. This yields a new deterministic log-space algorithm for reachability over planar DAGs with $m = 2^{O(\sqrt{\log n})}$ source nodes. We also extend our results to graphs embedded on higher genus surfaces. In addition, techniques of this paper also leads to new results on simultaneous time-space bounds for reachability which are not implied by [17].

The main technique of [17] (that leads to $O(\log n \cdot \log m)$ bound) can be viewed as a log-space reduction that takes $\langle G, u, v \rangle$ where $G \in \mathcal{G}(m)$ and outputs $\langle G', u', v', \rangle$ so that (a) there is a directed path from u to v in G if and only if there is a directed path from u' to v' in G', (b) G' is a layered graph with m layers and poly(n) vertices per layer. This poly(n) factor in the size of G' makes it useless for obtaining a logarithmic space bound. We get rid of this poly(n) factor by avoiding the intermediate nondeterminism and giving a direct reduction to a new reachability instance. This requires a more careful analysis of the topological interaction of paths in surface-embedded graphs.

New Results

Let n be the number of vertices in the input graph. Let $\mathcal{G}(m, g)$ denote the class of DAGs with at most m = m(n) source vertices embedded on a surface (orientable or non-orientable) of genus at

most g = g(n). Our main technical contribution is the following log-space reduction that *compresses* an instance of reachability for such surface-embedded DAGs.

Theorem 2. There is a log-space reduction that given an instance $\langle G, u, v \rangle$ where $G \in \mathcal{G}(m, g)$ and u, v vertices of G, outputs an instance $\langle G', u', v' \rangle$ where G' is a directed graph and u', v' vertices of G', so that (a) there is a directed path from u to v in G if and only if there is a directed path from u' to v' in G', (b) G' has O(m + g) vertices.

By a direct application of Savitch's theorem on the reduced instance we get the following result.

Theorem 3. The reachability problem for graphs in $\mathcal{G}(m, g)$ can be decided in deterministic $O(\log n + \log^2(m+g))$ space.

This improves the earlier-known space bound of $\min\{O(\log n + m), O(\log n \cdot \log m)\}$ and also extends it to higher genus graphs. By setting $m = g = 2^{O(\sqrt{\log n})}$ we get a deterministic log-space algorithm for reachability over graphs in $\mathcal{G}(2^{O(\sqrt{\log n})}, 2^{O(\sqrt{\log n})})$.

Corollary 4. The reachability problem for directed acyclic graphs with $2^{O(\sqrt{\log n})}$ sources embedded on surfaces of genus $2^{O(\sqrt{\log n})}$ can be decided in deterministic logarithmic space.

By setting m and g to be $n^{o(1)}$ we get $o(\log^2 n)$ bound. The following corollary as stated is implicit in [17]. However, the space bound we get for any specific function $n^{l(n)}$ where $l(n) \in o(1)$ is better than what is implied by the results of [17].

Corollary 5. The reachability problem for directed acyclic graphs embedded on surfaces with subpolynomial genus and with sub-polynomial number of sources can be decided in deterministic space $o(\log^2 n)$.

Theorem 2 leads to new simultaneous time-space bound for the reachability problem. Designing algorithms for reachability with simultaneous time and space bound is another important direction that has been of considerable interest in the past. Since a depth first search can be implemented in linear time and linear space, the goal here is to improve the space bound while maintaining a polynomial running time. The most significant result here is Nisan's $O(\log^2 n)$ space, $n^{O(1)}$ time bound for RL [12]. The best upper bound for general directed reachability is the 20-year old $O(n/2^{\sqrt{\log n}})$ space, $n^{O(1)}$ time algorithm due to Barnes, Buss, Ruzzo and Schieber [4]. Combining our reduction with a simple depth-first search gives better simultaneous time-space bound for reachability over a large class of graphs that beats the Barnes *et al.* bound.

Theorem 6. The reachability problem for graphs in $\mathcal{G}(m,g)$ can be decided in polynomial time using $O(\log n + m + g)$ space.

Note that Theorem 6 has a space bound which matches to $O(\log n + m)$ space bound of Theorem 1, except it guarantees polynomial time, where the previous bound gave $2^{O(m)} \operatorname{poly}(n)$ running time. For any $\epsilon < 1$, we get a polynomial time algorithm for reachability over graphs in $\mathcal{G}(O(n^{\epsilon}), O(n^{\epsilon}))$ that uses $O(n^{\epsilon})$ space.

Corollary 7. For any ϵ with $0 < \epsilon < 1$, the reachability problem for graphs in $\mathcal{G}(O(n^{\epsilon}), O(n^{\epsilon}))$ can be decided in polynomial time using $O(n^{\epsilon})$ space.

We note that the upper bound on space given in Theorem 6 can be slightly improved to $O\left((m+g)2^{-\sqrt{\log(m+g)}}\right)$ by using the Barnes *et al.* algorithm instead of depth-first search, which will give a $o(n^{\epsilon})$ space bound in the above corollary.

Theorem 8. The reachability problem for graphs in $\mathcal{G}(m,g)$ can be decided in deterministic polynomial time using $O\left(\log n + \frac{m+g}{2^{\sqrt{\log(m+g)}}}\right)$ space.

Before we go into further details, we note that throughout this paper certain known log-space primitives are frequently used as subroutines without explicit reference to them. In particular, Reingold's log-space algorithm for undirected reachability is often used, for example to identify connected components in certain undirected graphs.

1.1 Outline

Theorem 2 is proven in several parts. We begin in Section 2 by reviewing some concepts of topological embeddings including log-space algorithms on embedded graphs. In Section 3, we present a simple structural decomposition called the *forest decomposition* of the given directed acyclic graph. Based on this decomposition, we classify the edges as local and global. We present log-space algorithms of Allender, Barrington, Chakraborty, Datta, and Roy [2] to decide reachability using local edges. In order to control how the global edges interact, we define the notion of *topological* equivalence among global edges in Section 4. We show that the number of possible equivalence classes is bounded by O(m + g). Then, Section 5 describes a finite list of patterns that characterize how paths use edges in these equivalence classes. We also analyze the structure of these patterns. In particular, for each pattern type we identify a pair of log-space computable edges in the corresponding equivalence class that has certain canonical properties. In Section 6, we describe a graph on O(m + g) vertices called the pattern graph whose vertices are described by patterns on equivalence classes. The edges in the pattern graph are defined by a very restricted reachability condition between equivalence classes. We finally show that this pattern graph is computable in log-space and preserves reachability between a given pair of vertices.

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1.2 Notation

We mainly deal with directed graphs. A directed edge e = xy has the direction from x to y and we call x the *tail* denoted by Tail(e), and y the *head* denoted by Head(e).

We assume that the given graph is acyclic. Lemma 9 gives a technique for converting a sourcebounded reachability algorithm on graphs promised to be acyclic into a cycle-detection algorithm without asymptotically increasing the space requirement.

Lemma 9. Let $s(n,m,g) = \Omega(\log n)$. If there exists an O(s(n,m,g))-space bounded algorithm for testing uv-reachability over graphs in $\mathcal{G}(m,g)$ then there exists an O(s(n,m,g))-space bounded algorithm to test if a graph is acyclic, given that it has at most m sources and is embedded in a surface of genus at most g.

Proof. Let A(G, u, v) be the algorithm for testing uv-reachability on $G \in \mathcal{G}(m, g)$. Fix an incoming edge at each non-source vertex, making a set $F \subseteq E(G)$. By taking reverse walks from each vertex, it can be verified that F has no cycles.

Order the edges E(G) as $\{e_1, \ldots, e_{|E(G)|}\}$. For each $i \in \{0, 1, \ldots, |E(G)|\}$, let G_i be the subgraph of G where an edge e_j is present in G_i if $e_j \in F$ or $j \leq i$. Iterate through all such i and test if $A(G_i, \text{Head}(e_{i+1}), \text{Tail}(e_{i+1}))$ ever returns with success. If any returns **True**, then there is a cycle including the edge e_{i+1} . Note that A gives the correct response, since G_0 was cycle free and by iteration, G_i is cycle free. Each G_i is acyclic for $i \in \{1, \ldots, |E(G)|\}$ if and only if G is acyclic and all queries $A(G_i, \text{Head}(e_{i+1}), \text{Tail}(e_{i+1}))$ return **False**.

2 Topological Embeddings and Algorithms

We assume that the input graph G is embedded on a surface S where every face is homeomorphic to an open disk. Such embeddings are called 2-cell embeddings. We assume that such an embedding is presented as a combinatorial embedding where for each vertex v the circular ordering of the edges incident to v is specified. In the case of a non-orientable surface, the signature of an edge is also given, specifying if the orientation of the rotation switches across this edge. Since computing or approximating a low-genus embedding of a non-planar graph is an NP-complete problem [5,18], we require the embedding to be given as part of the input and we consider reachability in $\mathcal{G}(m,g)$ to be a promise problem. In the case of genus zero, we can compute a planar embedding in log-space and the promise condition can be removed.

Let G be a graph with n vertices and e edges embedded on a surface S with f faces. Then by the well known Euler's Formula we have $n - e + f = \chi_S$, where χ_S is the Euler characteristic of the surface S. The number of faces in a graph is log-space computable from a combinatorial embedding (for a proof, see [10]), so χ_S is also computable in log-space. The genus g_S of the surface S is given by the equation $\chi_S = 2 - 2g_S$ for orientable surfaces and $\chi_S = 2 - g_S$ for non-orientable surfaces.

Let C be a simple closed curve on S given by a cycle in the underlying undirected graph of G. C is called *surface separating* if the removal of C disconnects G. A surface separating curve C is called *contractible* if removal of the nodes in C disconnects G where at least one of the connected components has an induced embedding homeomorphic to a disc.

In order to perform log-space algorithms on curves in the graph, we must be able to represent these curves in log-space. A curve C is *log-space walkable* if there is a log-space algorithm which outputs the edges of C in order. Examples of such curves are given in the following section. Given a log-space walkable curve C, it is possible to detect the type (separating, contractible, or neither) of C in log-space.

First, note that if C is not orientable (i.e. there are an odd number of negatively-signed edges in C) then C cannot be separating or contractible. By first checking the parity of such edges, we can assume that C is orientable.

Given an orientable curve $C = x_1 x_2 \dots x_k$ (indices taken modulo k), we can create (in log-space) an auxiliary graph G_C where each vertex x_i is copied to two vertices $x_{i,1}, x_{i,2}$ with edges $x_i x_{i+1}$ copied to two edges $x_{i,1} x_{i+1,1}$ and $x_{i,2} x_{i+1,2}$. However, an edge from a vertex y in $V(G) \setminus C$ to a vertex x_i in C maps to one of two edges:

1. yx_i maps to $yx_{i,1}$ if yx_i appears between $x_{i-1}x_i$ and x_ix_{i+1} in the clockwise order about x_i .

2. yx_i maps to $yx_{i,1}$ if yx_i appears between x_ix_{i+1} and $x_{i-1}x_i$ in the clockwise order about x_i .

There is a natural combinatorial embedding of G_C induced from the embedding of G by using the same cyclic relations for vertices $y \in V(G) \setminus C$ and for split vertices $x_{i,1}$ and $x_{i,2}$, use the orientation of x_i but skip the edges which are not incident to the new vertex. See Figure 1 for an example of such a split. The following properties are simple to prove:

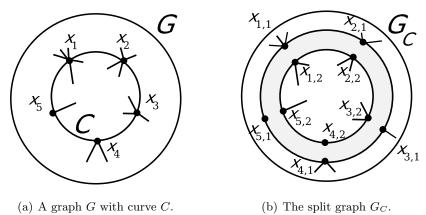


Figure 1: Splitting G at a curve C.

- 1. C is separable if and only if G_C is disconnected. In this case, G_C has two components.
- 2. C is contractible if and only if G_C is disconnected and at least one of the components is embedded with characteristic zero.

Moreover, using Reingold's undirected reachability algorithm we can detect that C is separable. Given a vertex $y \notin C$, we can also detect which connected component of G_C contains y. We shall exploit both of these properties in the following two sections as we partition the edge set using topological information.

3 Forest Decomposition

A simple structural decomposition, called a *forest decomposition*, of a directed acyclic graph forms the basis of our algorithm. This forest decomposition has been utilized in previous works [2, 17].

Let G be a directed acyclic graph and let u, v be two vertices. Our goal is to decide whether there is a directed path from u to v. Let u, s_1, \ldots, s_m be the sources of G. If u is not a source, make it a source by removing all the incoming edges. This will not affect uv-reachability, increases the number of sources by at most one, and only reduces the genus of the embedding.

Definition 10 (Forest Decomposition). Let A be a deterministic log-space algorithm that on input of a non-source vertex x, outputs an incoming edge yx (for example, selecting the lexicographicallyfirst vertex y so that yx is an edge in G). This algorithm defines a set of edges $F_A = \{yx : x \in V(G) \setminus \{u, v, s_1, \ldots, s_m\}, y = A(x)\}$, called a *forest decomposition* of G.

Since G is acyclic, the reverse walk x_1, x_2, \ldots , where $x_1 = x$ and $x_{i+1} = A(x_i)$, must terminate at a source s_j , u, or v, so the edges in F_A form a forest subgraph. For the purposes of the forest decomposition, v is treated as a source since no incoming edge is selected. If a vertex x is in the tree with source v, then all non-tree edges entering x are deleted. This will not affect uv-reachability, since G is acyclic and does not increase the number of sources or the genus of the surface. Each connected component in F_A is a tree rooted at a source vertex, called a *source tree*. The forest forms a typical *ancestor* and *descendant* relationship within each tree. For the remainder of this work, we fix an acyclic graph $G \in \mathcal{G}(m, g)$ embedded on a surface S (defined by the combinatorial embedding) and $F = F_A$ a log-space computable forest decomposition. **Definition 11** (Tree Curves). Let x and y be two vertices in some source tree T of F. The *tree* curve at xy is the curve on S formed by the unique undirected path in T from x to y. If xy is an edge, then the closed curve formed by xy and the tree curve at xy is called the *closed tree curve* at xy.

Definition 12 (Local and Global Edges). Given an S-embedded graph G and a forest decomposition F, an edge xy in $E(G) \setminus F$ is classified as $local^1$ if (a) x and y are on the same tree in F, (b) the closed tree curve at xy is contractible (i.e. the curve cuts S into a disk and another surface), and (c) No sources lie on the interior of the surface which is homeomorphic to a disk. If S is the sphere, then the curve cuts S into two disks and xy is local if one of the disks contains no source in the interior. Otherwise, the edge xy is global.

3.1 Paths within a single tree

Definition 13 (Region of a tree). Let T be a connected component in the forest decomposition F along with the local edges between vertices in T. The *region* of T, denoted $\mathcal{R}[T]$ is the portion of the surface S given by the faces enclosed by the tree and local edges in T.

The faces that compose $\mathcal{R}[T]$ are together homeomorphic to a disk, since $\mathcal{R}[T]$ can contract to the source vertex by contracting the disks given by the local edges into the tree, and then contracting the tree into the source vertex. This disk is oriented using the combinatorial embedding at the source by the right-hand rule. Reachability in such subgraphs T can be decided using the SMPD algorithm [2], in log-space. Note that the restriction of a 2-cell embedding implies all global edges are incident to vertices on the outer curve of the disk $\mathcal{R}[T]$. Our figures depict source trees as circles, with the source placed in the center, with tree edges spanning radially away from the source². We can also assign a clockwise or counter-clockwise direction to all local edges in a source tree region $\mathcal{R}[T_{s_i}]$.

Definition 14 (Rotational Direction within $\mathcal{R}[T]$). For a local edge xy, the closed tree curve at xy is cyclicly oriented by the direction of xy. The edge xy is considered clockwise (counter-clockwise) if this cyclic orientation is clockwise (counter-clockwise) with respect to the orientation of $\mathcal{R}[T]$.

Definition 15 (Irreducible Path). A path $P = x_1 x_2 \dots x_k$ in G is *F*-irreducible if for each i < j so that x_i is an *F*-ancestor of x_j , then $x_i x_{i+1} \dots x_{j-1} x_j$ is the path in *F* from x_i to x_j . We say *P* is *irreducible* when the forest decomposition *F* is implied from context.

Lemma 16. If there is a path from x to y in G, there is an F-irreducible path from x to y.

Proof. Replace the violating subpaths with the given tree paths.

A very useful property of irreducible paths is that they travel in a single rotational direction within each source tree.

Lemma 17. Let P be an irreducible local path from x to y in a source tree T, where y is on the boundary of $\mathcal{R}[T]$. There is a unique direction (clockwise or counter-clockwise) so that all non-tree edges of P follow this direction.

¹This definition of *local* differs from the use in [2] and [17].

²This visualization of source trees was crucial to the development of this work, and is due to [2].

Proof. Let e be the first local edge in P. Without loss of generality, we assume it takes a clockwise orientation. Assume for the sake of contradiction there exists a local edge in P that takes a counterclockwise orientation. Let f be the first such edge. Consider how P travels from the head of e to reach the tail of f. Note that all non-tree edges in this path have a clockwise orientation. This gives three cases:

Case 1: P passes through the ancestor path of Head(f) at a vertex a. In this case, P is not irreducible, since f is not a tree edge and an irreducible path would take the tree edges from a to Head(f).

Case 2: P passes through the descendants of Head(f) at a vertex b. In this case, following P from a to Head(f) then the tree path from Head(f) to a creates a cycle, contradicting that G is a DAG.

Case 3: P travels around the descendants of Head(f) using a local edge e'. Now, Head(f) is properly contained within the tree cycle given by e'. In order for P to reach y on the boundary of $\mathcal{R}[T]$, P must cross this curve. This must cross the descendants of Tail(e') or Head(e'), creating a cycle, contradicting that G is acyclic.

Therefore, such an f does not exist and all edges take the same orientation.

3.2 Reachability within a single tree

We now focus on the reachability problem within a single tree T_{s_j} . By the definition of local edges, we have the subgraph given by local edges within a single tree is a single-source multiple-sink planar DAG. Allender *et al.* [2] solved the reachability problem in this class of graphs. We review their method as well as adapt the method to test directional reachability.

Definition 18 (Step and Jump Edges). A local edge $e \notin F$ is a *jump* edge if the tree curve C_e partitions $V(G) \setminus C_e$ into two non-trivial parts. Otherwise, e is a *step* edge.

First, we discuss how to solve reachability when restricted to tree and step edges.

Theorem 19 (Allender *et al.* [2]). Let s_j be a source in G. Reachability within $\mathcal{R}[T_{s_j}]$ using tree and step edges is log-space computable.

Proof. Here, we consider the subgraph in $\mathcal{R}[T_{s_j}]$ given by the tree and step edges to be a planar graph with a single source. Since we have removed the jump edges in $\mathcal{R}[T_{s_j}]$, all sinks in this graph are on the boundary of $\mathcal{R}[T_{s_j}]$. By adding a new global sink t to the outer face, the graph $\mathcal{R}[T_{s_j}] + t$ becomes a Single-source Single-sink Planar DAG (SSPD).

The cyclic orientation of edges at each vertex must have the outgoing edges and incoming edges in two consecutive blocks. If not, suppose that the edges e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4 appear in clockwise order at a vertex x, with e_1, e_3 are outgoing edges and e_2, e_4 are incoming edges. Since there is a single source s_j , there are paths P_2 and P_4 from s_j to x using the edges e_2 and e_4 , respectively. Likewise, there are paths P_1 and P_3 from x to t starting with edges e_1 , and e_3 , respectively. This gives two closed curves C_1 (composed of P_1 and P_3) and C_2 (composed of P_2 and P_4) which cross at x. Thus, they must cross at another point y. By following C_1 from x to y and C_2 from y to x, there is a cycle in G, a contradiction.

Given that the outgoing edges at any vertex x are in a single block of the cyclic orientation, we can define the notion of *left-most* and *right-most* outgoing edges of x as those appearing as the first and last (respectively) outgoing edges of the block with respect to the clockwise ordering. This defines a *left-most walk* and a *right-most walk* from a vertex x by following the left-most and right-most edges, starting at x and terminating at t. The left-most and right-most walks define a closed curve C_x that includes x and t.

A vertex y is inside this curve C_x if and only if it is reachable from x: if y is within C_x , any path from s_j to y must cross the curve C_x , creating a path from x to y, and if y is reachable from x via a path P, the edges of P must appear between the left-most and right-most walks from x. Hence, by splitting $\mathcal{R}[T_{s_j}] + t$ along C_x and computing if y is within C_x , we can detect reachability. \Box

Using the step-reachability algorithm as a subroutine, we now discuss directional reachability using all local edges.

Theorem 20 (Allender et al. [2]). Given vertices x, y on the boundary of $\mathcal{R}[T_{s_j}]$ and a direction d (left or right), reachability from x to y in $\mathcal{R}[T_{s_j}]$ using local edges using an irreducible path in direction d is log-space computable.

Proof. We shall define a log-space data structure called an *explored region* which in turn defines a set of vertices in $\mathcal{R}[T]$. The crucial property of these vertices is that all jump edges with tail in the set and head outside the set are reachable from x. We will then use these edges to modify the explored region while maintaining this property. When complete, the explored region will contain y if and only if y is reachable from x via an irreducible path with rotational direction d, with respect to the orientation of the source s_j .

We shall assume that the direction d is Right (clockwise). The other direction follows by symmetry.

Given a vertex w in T_{s_j} , define ReachStep(w) to be the vertices in T_{s_j} , reachable from w by tree and step edges. Define functions StepLeft(w) and StepRight(w) to be the vertices within ReachStep(w) which appear most counter-clockwise and clockwise, respectively, breaking ties by selecting vertices closer to the source s_j along T.

We shall define two log-size variables ReachLeft and ReachRight and initialize them as StepLeft(x) and StepRight(x). These two variables store enough information for the explored region. The vertex set Between(ReachLeft, ReachRight) is defined as the vertices which are strictly between ReachLeft and ReachRight in the clockwise order of T_{s_j} and the descendants of ReachLeft and ReachRight. Note that this does *not* include the ancestors of ReachLeft and ReachRight.

Of particular interest to the explored region are jump edges with tail in the explored region Between(ReachLeft, ReachRight) and head *not* in the explored region. We call these edges *exiting* edges. Note that a jump edge e is exiting if and only if the tree curve at e contains ReachRight.

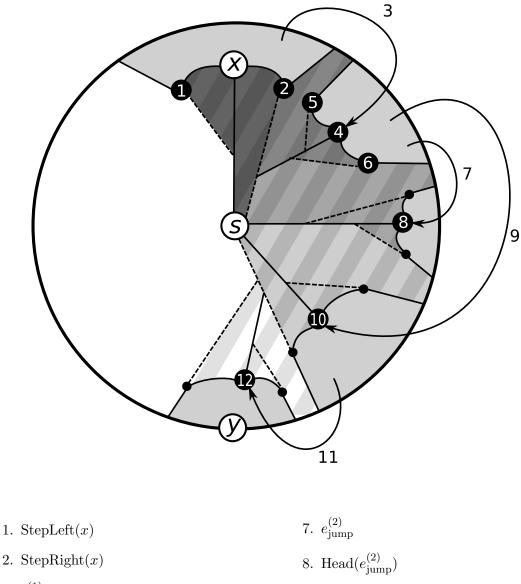
Since each *d*-directional exiting edge contains ReachRight, the exiting edges form a linear order e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_r where e_i is contained within the tree curve on e_j if and only if i < j. We shall extend the explored region by using the minimal exiting edge, denoted e_{jump} , and setting ReachRight to StepRight(Head(e_{jump})).

Proceed to extend the explored region until one of two situations arise: if the vertex y is within ReachStep(Head(e_{jump})), we return True; if there are no exiting edges, stop and return False. This process is detailed in Algorithm 1.

The correctness of ReachLocal(x, y, d) requires the following claim regarding the explored region.

Claim 21. At every stage of Algorithm 1, every exiting edge e has Tail(e) reachable from x using a d-directional irreducible path.

Proof of Claim. Without loss of generality, we assume d = R. We proceed by induction on the number of iterations in the execution of ReachLocal(x, y, d). When ReachLeft and ReachRight are



2. $\operatorname{StepRight}(x)$	8. Head $(e_{jump}^{(2)})$
3. $e_{jump}^{(1)}$	9. $e_{jump}^{(3)}$
4. Head $(e_{\text{jump}}^{(1)})$	10. Head $(e_{jump}^{(3)})$
5. StepLeft(Head $(e_{jump}^{(1)}))$	11. $e_{jump}^{(4)}$
6. StepRight(Head($e_{jump}^{(1)}$))	12. Head $(e_{jump}^{(4)})$

The shaded region is the explored region. The flat gray areas are reachable while the striped areas are not. The striped area is darker depending on how many iterations that region was in the explored region.

Figure 2: An example execution of $\operatorname{ReachLocal}(x, y, \mathbb{R})$.

Algorithm 1 ReachLocal(x, y, d) — Returns True if and only if y reachable from x

 $\begin{array}{l} \operatorname{ReachLeft} \leftarrow \operatorname{StepLeft}(x) \\ \operatorname{ReachRight} \leftarrow \operatorname{StepRight}(x) \\ i \leftarrow 1 \\ \textbf{while there exists a d-directional exiting edge do} \\ e_{jump}^{(i)} \leftarrow \operatorname{the minimal} d-directional exiting edge \\ \textbf{if } y \in \operatorname{ReachStep}(\operatorname{Head}(e_{jump}^{(i)})) \ \textbf{then} \\ \textbf{return True} \\ \textbf{else if } d = \operatorname{Right then} \\ \operatorname{ReachRight} \leftarrow \operatorname{StepRight}(\operatorname{Head}(e_{jump}^{(i)})) \\ \textbf{else if } d = \operatorname{Left then} \\ \operatorname{ReachLeft} \leftarrow \operatorname{StepLeft}(\operatorname{Head}(e_{jump}^{(i)})) \\ \textbf{end if} \\ i \leftarrow i+1 \\ \textbf{end while} \\ \textbf{return False} \end{array}$

initialized, the explored region consists of vertices within $\operatorname{ReachStep}(x)$ and vertices strictly within the curve given by concatenating the following paths:

$$s_j \xrightarrow{T} \text{ReachLeft} \xrightarrow{(\text{local})} x \xrightarrow{(\text{local})} \text{ReachRight} \xrightarrow{T} s_j.$$

If a jump edge e has tail within the explored region, then either (1) it is within ReachStep(x) and is reachable, or (2) it is bound by the curve and must not be an exiting edge. Thus, the claim holds for the first iteration.

Assume the claim holds for the kth iteration. Consider the next iteration's selection of e_{jump} and let e be a jump edge with tail within the new explored region. If the tail of e is in the previous explored region, the induction step shows the claim holds. Otherwise, there are only two cases. First, the tail of e is within ReachStep(Head(e_{jump})) and e is reachable since e_{jump} was reachable by induction. Second, the tail of e is strictly within the curve given by concatenating the following paths:

$$s_j \xrightarrow{T} \text{Tail}(e_{\text{jump}}) \xrightarrow{e_{\text{jump}}} \text{Head}(e_{\text{jump}}) \xrightarrow{(local)} \text{ReachRight} \xrightarrow{T} s_j,$$

and hence the edge e is not exiting. This proves the claim.

Given the above claim, observe that when ReachLocal(x, y, d) returns True it is correct, as there is some subset of the e_{jump} edges which can be combined with local paths to create a path from x to y.

To finish, we must prove that if there is a *d*-directional irreducible path from x to y in $\mathcal{R}[T_{s_j}]$, then ReachLocal(x, y, d) returns True. Fix a path from x to y that uses the minimum number jump edges and consider the sequence e_1, \ldots, e_t of jump edges within this path. The minimum number of jump edges guarantees that $\operatorname{Tail}(e_i) \in \operatorname{ReachStep}(\operatorname{Head}(e_{i-1}))$ and $\operatorname{Tail}(e_{i+1}) \notin$ ReachStep $(\operatorname{Head}(e_{i-1}))$ for all suitable $i \in \{2, \ldots, t-1\}$. The first jump edge e_1 is an exiting edge for the first explored region.

We claim that at each iteration where y is not in ReachStep(Head(e_{jump})), there is an edge e_i of the path that is an exiting edge. This is given by the choice of e_{jump} as the minimal d-directional

exiting edge. In the previous iteration, there was some e_i that was exiting. If e_i was selected as e_{jump} , then $Tail(e_{i+1})$ is within $ReachStep(e_{jump})$ and $Head(e_{i+1})$ is not. Since all jump edges are d-directional, the edge e_{i+1} is an exiting edge and the claim holds for another iteration.

Suppose that e_{jump} was not selected to be e_i . Then, the tree curve at e_{jump} is contained within the tree curve at e_i . This provides two cases: (1) Head $(e_i) \notin$ ReachStep $(\text{Head}(e_{jump}))$ and e_i is still an exiting edge, or (2) Head $(e_i) \in$ ReachStep $(\text{Head}(e_{jump}))$ and hence Tail $(e_{i+1}) \in$ ReachStep $(\text{Head}(e_{jump}))$. In the latter case it is not immediate that e_{i+1} is an exiting edge, but some edge $e_{i'}$ with i' > i will be an exiting edge, since y is not in ReachStep $(\text{Head}(e_{jump}))$. \Box

4 Topological Equivalence

The following notion of topological equivalence plays a central role in our algorithms. It was originally presented in [17] for planar graphs, but we extend it to arbitrary surfaces.

Definition 22 (Topological Equivalence). Let G be a graph embedded on a surface S. Let F be a forest decomposition of G. We say two (undirected) global edges xy and wz are topologically equivalent if the following two conditions are satisfied: (a) They span the same source trees in F (assume x and w are on the same tree), (b) The closed curve in the underlying undirected graph formed by (1) the edge xy, (2) the tree curve from y to z, (3) the edge zw, and (4) the tree curve from w to x bounds a connected portion of S, denoted D(xy, wz), that is homeomorphic to a disk and no source lies within D(xy, wz).

Topological equivalence is an equivalence relation. For the sake of the reflexive property, we take as convention that a single edge is topologically equivalent to itself. The symmetry of the definition is immediate. Transitivity is implied by the following lemma, which is immediate from the definitions.

Lemma 23. Let e_1, e_2 be topologically equivalent global edges and e_3 a global edge.

- 1. If e_3 has an endpoint in $D(e_1, e_2)$, then e_3 is equivalent to both e_1 and e_2 .
- 2. If e_3 is equivalent to e_2 , then one of the following cases holds:
 - (a) e_1 is in $D(e_2, e_3)$.
 - (b) $D(e_1, e_2)$ and $D(e_2, e_3)$ intersect at the curve given by e_2 and the ancestor paths from its endpoints to their respective sources, and $D(e_1, e_3) = D(e_1, e_2) \cup D(e_2, e_3)$.

In both cases (a) and (b), e_1 is topologically equivalent to e_3 .

Let E be an equivalence class of global edges containing an edge e, where e spans two different source trees. Consider the subgraph of G given by the vertices in the source trees containing the endpoints of e, along with all local edges in those trees and the edges in E. This subgraph is embedded in a disk on S, as given in the following corollary.

Corollary 24. Given an equivalence class E of global edges, let $S_E = \bigcup_{e_1, e_2 \in E} D(e_1, e_2)$. The surface S_E is a disk.

Proof. Lemma 23, implies that for any triple $e_1, e_2, e_3 \in E$ and any pair of the disks $D(e_1, e_2)$, $D(e_1, e_3)$, and $D(e_2, e_3)$ are either adjacent or have a containment relationship. There is an ordering e_1, \ldots, e_k of the edges of E so that the disks $D(e_i, e_{i+1})$ pairwise intersect only at boundaries. Gluing the disks $D(e_{i-1}, e_i)$ and $D(e_i, e_{i+1})$ along e_i constructs S_E as a disk.

We shall make explicit use of this locally-planar embedding. For an equivalence class of global edges spanning vertices in the same tree, a similar subgraph and embedding is formed by considering the ends of the equivalence class to be different copies of that source tree.

The lexicographically-least edge e in a topological equivalence class of global edges is log-space computable. By counting how many global edges which are lexicographically smaller than e and are the lexicographically-least in their equivalence classes, the equivalence class containing e is assigned an index i. The class E_i is the ith equivalence class in this ordering. We shall use this notation to label the equivalence classes.

Definition 25 (The Region of an Equivalence Class). Let E_i be an equivalence class of global edges. Define the region enclosed by E_i as $\mathcal{R}[E_i] = \bigcup_{e_1, e_2 \in E_i} D(e_1, e_2)$.

The region $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ has some properties which are quickly identified. There are two edges $e_a, e_b \in E_i$ so that $\mathcal{R}[E_i] = D(e_a, e_b)$. These outer edges define the sides of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$. The boundary of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ is given by these two edges and their ancestor paths in F on all four endpoints. All vertices in a source tree T are contained in the region $\mathcal{R}[T]$. Let T_A and T_B be the two source trees containing the tail and head, respectively, of the representative edge in E_i . The vertices within the boundary of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ are within $\mathcal{R}[T_A]$ and $\mathcal{R}[T_B]$. The vertices in $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ are partitioned into two ends, A and B, where the vertices are placed in an end determined by containment in $\mathcal{R}[T_A] \cap \mathcal{R}[E_i]$ and $\mathcal{R}[T_B] \cap \mathcal{R}[E_i]$ when the trees T_A and T_B are different or by the two connected components of $\mathcal{R}[T_A] \cap \mathcal{R}[E_i]$ when the trees T_A and T_B are equal. Note that the endpoints of edges in E_i lie on the boundary of the regions $\mathcal{R}[T_A]$ and $\mathcal{R}[T_B]$. There is an ordering $e_a = e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_k = e_b$ of E_i so that the endpoints of the e_j on the A-end appear in a clockwise order in that tree. Two regions $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ and $\mathcal{R}[E_j]$ on different classes E_i and E_j intersect only on the boundary paths. The vertices on the boundary are not considered *inside* the region, since they may be in multiple regions.

Since global edges appear on the boundary of $\mathcal{R}[T]$ for a given source tree T, there is a natural clockwise ordering on these edges, with respect to the orientation of T. Further, we can order the incident equivalence classes (with possibly a single repetition, in the case of global edges with both endpoints in T) by the clockwise order the ends $\mathcal{R}[E_i] \cap \mathcal{R}[T]$ appear on the boundary of $\mathcal{R}[T]$.

The resource bounds we prove directly depends on the number of equivalence classes. The following lemma bounds the number of equivalence classes.

Lemma 26. Let G be a graph embedded on a surface S with Euler characteristic χ_S with a forest decomposition F with m sources. There are at most $3(m + |\chi_S|)$ topological equivalence classes of global edges. If g_S is the genus of S, $|\chi_S| = O(g_S)$ and there are $O(m + g_S)$ equivalence classes of global edges.

Proof. Consider a graph G which has a maximal number of equivalence classes and remove all but one representative of each class. Create a new multigraph H on the m sources with edges given by the representatives of each class, with the edges embedded in S by following the undirected path composed of the tree path from the first source to the edge, the edge, then the tree path from the edge to the second source. There are m vertices, and let e be the number of edges, f the number of faces. Subdivide these edges twice to get a simple graph embedded in S. Note that Euler's formula holds in this graph on m + 2e vertices, 3e edges, and f faces. Hence,

$$\chi_S = (m+2e) - (3e) + f$$
$$= m - e + f.$$

Moreover, each face must have at least three equivalence classes, and each edge is incident to two faces, so $2e \leq 3f$ and $f \leq \frac{2}{3}e$. This gives

$$\chi_S = m - e + f \le m - \frac{1}{3}e$$

$$\Rightarrow e \le 3m - 3\chi_S \le 3(m + |\chi_S|).$$

Now that all tree and local edges are embedded in disks of the form $\mathcal{R}[T]$ and global edges are in O(m + g) disks of the form $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$, we are able to abandon all other portions of S. The important information from S is that the ends of regions incident to a given source tree appear in a clockwise order on the boundary of $\mathcal{R}[T]$ and that there are O(m + g) equivalence classes of global edges. Each source tree looks like a disk ($\mathcal{R}[T]$) with strips ($\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ for incident classes E_i) stretching radially away from it (as long as the other end of the strip $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ is not considered). Hence, the regions $\mathcal{R}[T_{s_j}]$ and $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ form a ribbon graph, which encodes the entire surface but has only m vertices and O(m + g) edges.

Consider an equivalence class E_i between source trees T_A and T_B , a rotational direction d (clockwise or counterclockwise), and a vertex x in T_A outside the region $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$. We say that the vertex x fully reaches E_i in the direction d if there is an irreducible d-directional local path from x to an endpoint of each edge in E_i . If x does not fully reach E_i in direction d, but there is a local path from x to an endpoint of some edge of E_i , then we say x partially reaches E_i in this direction. If such a path is irreducible, then the path follows a clockwise or counter-clockwise direction within T_A and we say x fully (or partially) reaches E_i using a clockwise (or counter-clockwise) rotation.

Lemma 27. Let x be a vertex in a source tree T_A . For each rotational direction (clockwise or counter-clockwise), there is an ordering $E_{i_0}, E_{i_1}, \ldots, E_{i_\ell}$ of the edge classes reachable via irreducible paths in that direction so that

- 1. x fully reaches each E_{i_j} for $j \in \{1, \ldots, \ell 1\}$.
- 2. x either fully or partially reaches E_{i_0} and $E_{i_{\ell}}$.
- 3. If x is not in the interior of $\mathcal{R}[E_{i_0}]$, x fully reaches E_{i_0} .

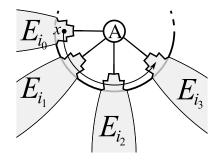


Figure 3: A vertex x with three counter-clockwise reachable classes, E_{i_1} , E_{i_2} , and E_{i_3} , as in Lemma 27.

Proof. Construct the list using all reachable classes in the given rotational direction and order by their appearance. The irreducible path P from x to the class $E_{i_{\ell}}$ must intersect the tree paths from the source to the edges in each class E_{i_j} for all $j < \ell$, with $x \notin \mathcal{R}[E_{i_j}]$, since the edges in P lie in $\mathcal{R}[T]$, but the endpoints of the edges in E_{i_j} are on the boundary of $\mathcal{R}[T]$. Hence, x fully reaches these classes.

5 Global Edges and Patterns

At this point, we take a very different approach than [17]. The algorithm described in [17] focused on reachability within the regions $\mathcal{R}[T]$ on the source trees T. Here, we focus on reachability within and between equivalence classes E_i . We create a constant number of vertices derived from each equivalence class. This constant is given by the number of distinct ways a path can enter the region $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$, use edges in E_i , then leave the region $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$. We call these *patterns*.

Definition 28 (The Pattern Set). Let E_i be an equivalence class of global edges. An irreducible path P that involves an edge of the class E_i induces a pattern on E_i defined by $\langle abc \rangle$ with $a, c \in \{L, R\}$, $b \in \{S, X\}$ where a is the clockwise (R) or counter-clockwise (L) direction the path takes as it enters $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$, c is the direction the path takes as it leaves $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$, and if b = S, the path enters and leaves $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ on the same end and if b = X, the path enters and leaves $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ on opposite ends ³. Define the pattern set, $\mathcal{P} = \{\langle RSR \rangle, \langle LSL \rangle, \langle RXR \rangle, \langle RXL \rangle, \langle LXR \rangle, \langle LXL \rangle \}$.

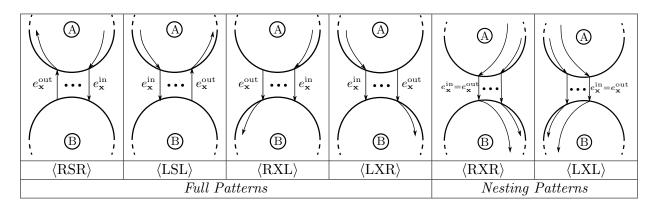


Table 1: Different patterns using an edge class E_i , entering from the A-end of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$.

Let E_i be an edge class and $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ be the enclosed region. Let t be an end of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ (either A or B) and fix an orientation on that end and a pattern p that involves E_i . Then the entrance (exit) of the pattern at the t-end is the ancestor path on the boundary of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ on the t-end that a path must cross before (respectively, after) using the edges in E_i that induce the pattern p with the given orientation. (See Figure 4 for a visual representation of the entrance and exit of a pattern.)

We can now define *pattern descriptions* which are the vertices of the pattern graph that we will define in the next section.

Definition 29 (Pattern Descriptions). Let k be the number of topological equivalence classes of edges of G. A pattern description is a tuple $\mathbf{x} = (i, t, o, p)$ where $i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}, t \in \{A, B\}, o \in \{+1, -1\}$, and $p \in \mathcal{P}$. Here i represents the equivalence class E_i , t represents the end of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ that contains the entrance, $o \in \{+1, -1\}$ specifies if the orientation of the path is in agreement with (or opposite to, respectively) the local orientation of the tree on the t-side of E_i , and $p \in \mathcal{P}$ represents the pattern used in E_i . The set $\{1, \ldots, k\} \times \{A, B\} \times \{+1, -1\} \times \mathcal{P}$ of all pattern descriptions is denoted by $V_{\rm P}$.

For example, the description $(i, B, +1, \langle \text{RXL} \rangle)$ is an element in V_{P} corresponding to a $\langle \text{RXL} \rangle$ pattern, using at least one edge of the class E_i starting at the *B*-side and leaving the *A*-side, oriented

 $^{^{3}}$ The interested reader will find the notation for patterns derived from move sequences in the Coin Crawl Game from [17].

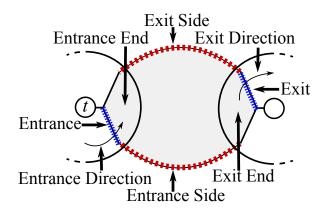


Figure 4: Terminology for the entrance and exit of a pattern and the modifiers of direction, end, and side. This example is an $\langle LXR \rangle$ pattern.

to agree with the *B*-side. Lemma 26 implies the number of descriptions is $O(m + g_S)$ where *m* is the number of sources and *g* the genus of the surface. A pattern description can be represented with $\lceil \log k \rceil + 5 = O(\log(m + g_S))$ bits⁴.

We now investigate some properties of paths that induce these pattern descriptions. We focus on a path which uses local edges and global edges in a single equivalence class and induces a single pattern on that class. These single-pattern paths will be concatenated to make larger paths once the structure of the shorter paths is understood.

An important property of these patterns is that if the pattern is of full type or the equivalence class is fully reachable, we can assume without loss of generality that the path used two special edges, which we call the *canonical edge pair*.

Definition 30 (Canonical Edge Pair). Let $\mathbf{x} = (i, t, o, p)$ be a pattern description centered at the edge class E_i . There are two edges (*incoming* and *outgoing*) in E_i , called the *canonical edge pair* for \mathbf{x} . The *outgoing edge*, $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$, is the edge $e \in E_i$ with head on the exit end that is farthest from the exit side so that there exists a local path from Head(e) to the exit of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$. The *incoming edge*, $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{in}}$, is the edge $e \in E_i$ with the tail on the entrance end that is closest to the entrance side so that either $e = e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$ or Tail($e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$) is reachable from Head(e) using local paths and edges in E_i .

5.1 Full Patterns

Full patterns are named so because a path which induces a full pattern intersects the ancestor path of at least one endpoint of every edge in the class. Hence, every edge is reachable. This leads to the property that if an irreducible path induces such a pattern, then the path might as well use the canonical edges in the corresponding equivalence class.

Lemma 31. Let \mathbf{x} be a pattern description of full type centered at an edge class E_i . Let $y, z \in V(G)$ be vertices not inside $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$, where y is in the source tree on the entrance end of \mathbf{x} and z is in the source tree on the exit end of \mathbf{x} . Then there is a path from y to z in G using only local paths and edges of the class E_i that induces the pattern \mathbf{x} if and only if $\mathrm{Tail}(e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\mathrm{in}})$ is reachable from y using a local path in the entrance direction of \mathbf{x} and z is reachable from $\mathrm{Head}(e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\mathrm{out}})$ using a local path in the exit direction of \mathbf{x} .

⁴This bland fact is in fact very important for the later use of Savitch's Theorem.

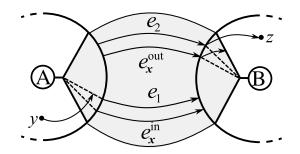


Figure 5: The edges used in the proof of Lemma 31 in an $\langle LXR \rangle$ pattern.

Proof. Note that if the tail of $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{in}}$ is reachable from y using a local path in the entrance direction, and z is reachable from the head of $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$ using a local path in the exit direction, then there is a path from y to z that induces the pattern \mathbf{x} using the path between $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{in}}$ and $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$ given by the definition of the canonical pair.

If a path exists from y to z that induces the pattern \mathbf{x} , then there is at least one edge of the class E_i in the path. Let e_1 be the first edge of class E_i used in the path and e_2 be the last. Consider where e_1 and e_2 are in comparison to the canonical pair $(e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{in}}, e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}})$ in the ordering of the edges in E_i . An example of the edges e_1 and e_2 are shown in Figure 5.

If e_1 is closer to the entrance side of E_i compared to $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{in}}$, then (by the definition of $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{in}}$) there is no path from the head of e_1 to the tail of $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$ using local paths and edges in E_i . Hence, a path from e_1 that leaves $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ in the exit direction can not cross the ancestor path of the tail of $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$, so it must cross the ancestor path of the head of $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$. This implies there is an edge e in E_i in the direction of $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$ that is farther from the exit direction and whose head reaches the head of $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$. This contradicts the definition of $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$, since there is now a local path from the head of e_1 that reaches the boundary of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ in the exit direction.

Therefore, the edge e_1 appears after $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{in}}$ in the order on E_i starting from the entrance side. This implies that y has a local path that crosses the ancestor path from the tail of $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{in}}$ and hence reaches the tail of $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{in}}$. If $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$ is on the exit side of E_i compared to e_2 , then by the definition of $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$, there is no local path from the head of e_2 that reaches the boundary of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ in the exit direction. So, e_2 is on the exit side of E_i compared to $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$. The local path that reaches the boundary of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ from the head of $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$ crosses the ancestor path to the head of e_2 , so z is reachable from the head of $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$ using a local path.

Lemma 32. Let \mathbf{x} be a pattern description of full type. The canonical edge pair $(e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{in}}, e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}})$ is log-space computable.

Proof. The outgoing edge, $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$, is computed by enumerating the set of edges in the class E_i with head on the exit end of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ which reach the boundary of the region $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ using local edges in the exit direction of the pattern.

The incoming edge is computed by an iterative procedure. Store two edge pointers, e_1 and e_2 . These edges will always be in the class E_i or null. The edge e_1 will have tail in the entrance end of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ and e_2 with have tail in the exit end of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$. Initialize $e_1 = e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$ and set e_2 to be null.

Proceed by iterating through the edges in E_i starting at $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$ to the last edge in E_i on the entrance side of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$. Each edge is a candidate to update e_1 and e_2 .

If the tail is in the entrance side of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$, check if the head reaches the tail of e_2 or $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$ using a local path. If so, then update e_1 to this edge.

If the tail is in the exit side of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$, check if the head reaches the tail of e_1 or $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$ using a local path. If so, then update e_2 to this edge.

After all edges have been tested, set $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{in}} = e_1$. There is a path from e_1 to $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$ using local paths and edges in E_i by considering the reverse sequence of e_1 and e_2 updates that allowed $\text{Tail}(e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}})$ to be reachable from $\text{Head}(e_1)$. Further, no edge beyond e_1 in the proper direction can reach $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$ because it must cross the ancestor paths from e_1 to the sources on each endpoint.

5.2 Nesting Patterns

Nesting patterns are named so because irreducible paths which induce such patterns use exactly one edge of this class, and we may assume that the edge used is the one farthest from the entrance that is reachable (and that a local path exists from its head to the exit). The following lemmas describe properties of nesting patterns.

Lemma 33. If an irreducible path using local paths and edges in a global edge class E_i induces a nesting pattern, then the path uses exactly one edge in the class E_i .

Proof. Let x and y be vertices outside E_i with a path from x to y that induces a nesting pattern on E_i . Let e_1 be the first edge in E_i used and e_2 be the second. Note that e_2 cannot be closer to the entrance direction than e_1 , or else the head of e_2 is a descendant of the local path from x to the tail of e_1 , contradicting irreducibility. Also, e_2 cannot be farther from the entrance direction than e_1 or else the path from the head of e_2 to y must cross the ancestor path at the head of e_1 , creating a cycle, contradicting that the graph is acyclic.

Lemma 34. Let **x** be a pattern description of nesting type centered at a global edge class E_i . Then, $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{in}} = e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$, and $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$ is log-space computable.

Proof. By the definition of $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$, there is a local path P from the head of $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$ to the boundary of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ in the exit direction (which is also the entrance direction). All edges in E_i closer to the boundary in the entrance direction from $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$ have at least one endpoint reachable from P. If any of these edges could reach $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$, then there would be a cycle. Therefore, $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{in}} = e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$.

Iterate through the edges in E_i starting on the exit side. Then, $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$ is the last edge in this order with a local path from the head to the boundary of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ in the exit direction.

Lemma 35. Let \mathbf{x} be a nesting pattern centered at an edge class E_i . Let y and z be vertices not inside $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$. If there exists an irreducible path from y to z using local paths and edges in the global edge class E_i which induces \mathbf{x} , then z is reachable from Head $(e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}})$.

While it would be useful to have a property similar to Lemma 31 for nesting patterns, there may exist a vertex w from which there are paths that induce a nesting pattern without reaching the canonical incoming edge. We can define a new edge in the class that is similarly canonical, except with respect to the vertex w.

Definition 36 (Most-Interior Edge). Let $\mathbf{x} = (i, t, o, p)$ be a pattern description of nesting type and w be a vertex not in the interior of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$. The most-interior edge of \mathbf{x} reachable from w, denoted $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{int(w)}$, is the edge e in the class E_i that is farthest from the entrance side of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ so that (a) there is a local path from w to Tail(e) in the entrance direction, and (b) there is a local path from Head(e) to the exit boundary of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$.

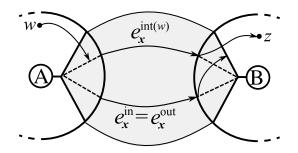


Figure 6: The most-interior edge from a vertex w in a pattern description x with an $\langle RXR \rangle$ pattern.

Lemma 37. Let \mathbf{x} be a pattern description of nesting type and w a vertex not in the interior of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$. The most-interior edge, $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{int(w)}$, is log-space computable. For any vertex z not in $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$, there is a path from w to z that induces the pattern \mathbf{x} if and only if there is an irreducible local path from Head $\left(e_{\mathbf{x}}^{int(w)}\right)$ to z in the exit direction of \mathbf{x} . If w fully reaches E_i , then $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{int w} = e_{\mathbf{x}}^{out}$.

Proof. The edges in the class E_i have an order using the rotation given by the entrance direction of the pattern description \mathbf{x} , where two edges in E_i can be compared using this order in log-space. Let $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{int(w)}$ be the edge e of class E_i farthest from the entrance side of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ with tail reachable from w and the head has a local path reaching the exit boundary of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ in the exit direction of \mathbf{x} . Note that this edge is computable in log-space using the SMPD algorithm and pairwise comparison of the rotational order of edges.

Consider an irreducible path P from w that induces the pattern description \mathbf{x} to reach a vertex z outside $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$. By Lemma 33, the path P uses exactly one edge e of the class E_i . The edge cannot farther from the entrance side of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$ than $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{int(w)}$ or else either w does not reach Tail(e) or Head(e) does not reach the exit of $\mathcal{R}[E_i]$. The path that exits the class E_i from the head of $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{int(w)}$ must pass through the tree path from the source to the head of e. Therefore, the head of $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{int(w)}$ and so is anything reachable from the head of e, including z.

Since $\operatorname{Tail}(e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\operatorname{int}(w)})$ is reachable from w using a local path in the entrance direction, anything reachable from $\operatorname{Head}(e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\operatorname{int}(w)})$ using a local path in the exit direction is reachable from w using a path that induces the pattern description \mathbf{x} .

6 The Pattern Graph

We now describe a graph on $O(m + g_S)$ vertices that preserves *uv*-reachability.

Definition 38 (The Pattern Graph). Given G and F as above, the *pattern graph*, denoted $P(G, F) = (V'_P, E'_P)$ is a directed graph defined as follows. The vertex set $V'_P = \{u', v'\} \cup V_P = \{u', v'\} \cup (\{1, \ldots, k\} \times \{A, B\} \times \{+1, -1\} \times \mathcal{P})$. For two pattern descriptions $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V_P$, an edge $\mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{y}$ is in E'_P if and only if there exists a (possibly empty) list of nesting pattern descriptions $\mathbf{z}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{z}_\ell$ (called an *adjacency certificate*), so that the following two conditions hold:

- 1. There is an irreducible path from $\text{Head}(e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}})$ to $\text{Tail}(e_{\mathbf{y}}^{\text{in}})$ which induces the sequence $\mathbf{z}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{z}_\ell$ of nesting pattern descriptions.
- 2. For each $j \in \{1, \ldots, \ell\}$, Tail $(e_{\mathbf{z}_j}^{\text{in}})$ is not reachable from $\text{Head}(e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}})$ using irreducible paths that induce the pattern descriptions $\mathbf{z}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{z}_{j-1}$.

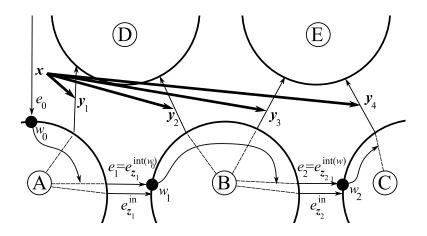


Figure 7: The nesting patterns \mathbf{z}_1 and \mathbf{z}_2 satisfy the adjacency conditions in Definition 38 from \mathbf{x} to each \mathbf{y}_j . The pattern adjacencies are enumerated during the algorithm of Lemma 40 where e is assigned to e_0 , e_1 , and e_2 , sequentially. Note that $e_0 = e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$, $e_1 = e_{\mathbf{z}_1}^{\text{int}(\text{Head}(e_0))}$, and $e_2 = e_{\mathbf{z}_2}^{\text{int}(\text{Head}(e_1))}$. The pattern \mathbf{y}_1 is reachable from w_0 with no internal nesting patterns. The patterns \mathbf{y}_2 and \mathbf{y}_3 are reachable from w_0 using the nesting pattern \mathbf{z}_1 . The pattern \mathbf{y}_4 is reachable from w_0 using the nesting patterns \mathbf{z}_1 and \mathbf{z}_2 . The algorithm from Lemma 40 terminates at e_2 , since e_2 does not give a partially-reachable class.

In addition, for a description $\mathbf{x} = (i, t, o, p)$ there is an edge $u' \to \mathbf{x}$ in $E'_{\rm P}$ if and only if \mathbf{x} has the *t*-end in the tree T_u . Also, for a pattern description $\mathbf{x} = (i, t, o, p)$ there is an edge $\mathbf{x} \to v'$ in $E'_{\rm P}$, if and only if the class E_i is incident to v, t is the other end of the class, and $p \in \{\langle \text{RXL} \rangle, \langle \text{LXR} \rangle\}$.

Theorem 39. There exists a path from u to v in G if and only if there exists a path from u' to v' in P(G, F).

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Let *P* be an irreducible path from *u* to *v* in *G*. *P* induces a sequence of pattern descriptions $\mathbf{x}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_\ell$. Note that \mathbf{x}_1 is centered at an edge class that is incident to T_u and the entrance end is on T_u . Note also that \mathbf{x}_ℓ is centered at an edge class where the edges have head *v*. Thus, in P(G, F), $u' \to \mathbf{x}_1$ and $\mathbf{x}_\ell \to v'$ are edges.

For full pattern descriptions \mathbf{x}_i , Lemma 31 implies that we may assume the first edge in the global edge class of \mathbf{x}_i used by P is $e_{\mathbf{x}_i}^{\text{in}}$ and the last such edge is $e_{\mathbf{x}_i}^{\text{out}}$.

Fix $i \in \{1, \ldots, \ell - 1\}$ and let \mathbf{x}_j be the next full pattern induced after \mathbf{x}_i . If j = i + 1, then the path P takes a local path between the edges that induce the patterns \mathbf{x}_i and \mathbf{x}_{i+1} . By Lemma 31, $e_{\mathbf{x}_j}^{\text{in}}$ is reachable from $e_{\mathbf{x}_i}^{\text{out}}$ by a local path and an adjacency exists from \mathbf{x}_i to \mathbf{x}_{i+1} in P(G, F), using an empty list of nesting patterns as the adjacency certificate.

Otherwise, j > i+1 and there are j-i nested patterns between \mathbf{x}_i and \mathbf{x}_j . Rename the nesting patterns between \mathbf{x}_i and \mathbf{x}_j as $\mathbf{z}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{z}_{j-i}$ where $\mathbf{z}_{i'} = \mathbf{x}_{i+i'}$. If $\mathbf{z}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{z}_{j-i}$ compose an adjacency certificate for $\mathbf{x}_i \to \mathbf{x}_j$, then this edge exists in P(G, F). Otherwise, there exists such a k that violates the adjacency condition between \mathbf{x}_i and \mathbf{x}_j , then let i' be the smallest such index. There is an edge in P(G, F) from \mathbf{x}_i to the nesting pattern description $\mathbf{z}_{i'}$, since $\operatorname{Tail}(e_{\mathbf{z}_{i'}}^{\mathrm{in}})$ is reachable from $\operatorname{Head}(e_{\mathbf{x}_i}^{\mathrm{out}})$ by a path using the nesting patterns $\mathbf{z}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{z}_{i'-1}$ as the adjacency certificate. By Lemma 37, $\operatorname{Tail}(e_{\mathbf{x}_j}^{\mathrm{in}})$ is reachable from $\operatorname{Head}(e_{\mathbf{z}_{i'}}^{\mathrm{out}})$ using an irreducible path which induces the patterns $\mathbf{z}_{i'+1}, \ldots, \mathbf{z}_{j-i}$. By iteration, there is a path from $\mathbf{z}_{i'}$ to \mathbf{x}_j in P(G, F), and hence a path from \mathbf{x}_i to \mathbf{x}_j in P(G, F). Connecting all of the edges between the full patterns in $\mathbf{x}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_\ell$ gives a path from u' to v' in P(G, F). (\Leftarrow) Given a path $P = u', \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{\ell}, v'$ in P(G, F), let $\mathbf{x}_j = (i_j, t_j, o_j, p_j)$ for each $j \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$. Since $u' \to \mathbf{x}_1$ in P(G), E_{i_1} is a class incident to T_u and all edges are reachable from u. Specifically, there is a tree path P_0 from u to $e_{\mathbf{x}_1}^{\text{out}}$. Similarly, since $\mathbf{x}_\ell \to v'$ in P(G, F), E_{i_k} is a class incident to T_v and all edges have v as a head. For each $j \in \{1, \dots, \ell-1\}$, Lemmas 31 and 37 imply there is an irreducible path P_i in G from the head of $e_{\mathbf{x}_j}^{\text{out}}$ to the tail of $e_{\mathbf{x}_{j+1}}^{\text{in}}$ that is either a local path or induces a list of nesting pattern descriptions which form an adjacency certificate. Also, by Definition 30, there exist (possibly empty) paths Q_j from $e_{\mathbf{x}_j}^{\text{in}}$ to $e_{\mathbf{x}_j}^{\text{out}} P_2 e_{\mathbf{x}_3}^{\text{out}} \dots e_{\mathbf{x}_\ell}^{\text{out}} P_{\ell-1} e_{\mathbf{x}_\ell}^{\text{in}} v$ from u to v in G.

Lemma 40. The pattern graph P(G, F) is log-space computable.

Proof. Given a pattern description \mathbf{x} , we describe a log-space algorithm for enumerating the pattern descriptions reachable by an edge in P(G, F). It is simple to find the pattern descriptions \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} so that $u \to \mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y} \to v$.

A necessary subroutine takes a global edge e and enumerates all pattern descriptions reachable from Head(e) using local paths in the exit direction of \mathbf{x} . By Lemma 27, there is an ordered list of topological equivalence classes $E_{i_0}, E_{i_1}, \ldots, E_{i_\ell}$ reachable by local paths from the head of e. E_{i_0} is the class containing e, so e is in $\mathcal{R}[E_{i_0}]$. All other classes E_{i_j} (for $j \ge 1$, except possibly $j = \ell$) are fully reachable. Hence, each pattern description \mathbf{y} centered at a class E_{i_j} with $j \in \{1, \ldots, \ell - 1\}$ (where the entrance direction of \mathbf{y} , orientation, and end all match the exit direction of \mathbf{x}) has $e_{\mathbf{y}}^{\text{in}}$ reachable from Head(e) using a local path. Each pattern description \mathbf{y} with entering direction the same as the exit direction of \mathbf{x} and centered at E_{i_ℓ} can be checked if $e_{\mathbf{y}}^{\text{in}}$ is reachable from e. The only pattern that could be used without having $e_{\mathbf{y}}^{\text{in}}$ reachable is a nesting pattern.

To enumerate all neighbors of \mathbf{x} in P(G, F), perform the above subroutine on $e_{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{out}}$, adding edges from \mathbf{x} to each reachable pattern description \mathbf{y} . If the nesting pattern \mathbf{z} on $E_{i_{\ell}}$ is not fully reachable (i.e. there is no local path from e to $e_{\mathbf{z}}^{\text{in}}$ in the proper direction) then compute the most-interior edge $e_{\mathbf{z}}^{\text{int(Head}(e))}$. Repeat the subroutine on this edge, continuing until the class $E_{i_{\ell}}$ is fully reachable (or the list is empty). In the *j*th iteration, let $w_{j-1} = \text{Head}(e)$ and $\mathbf{z}_j = \mathbf{z}$. See Figure 7 for an example of this iterative procedure.

It is clear this algorithm takes log-space. It enumerates all neighbors of \mathbf{x} in P(G, F), since a neighbor \mathbf{y} requires a list of nesting classes $\mathbf{z}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{z}_\ell$ so that there is an irreducible path from \mathbf{x} to \mathbf{y} inducing these classes. Each class \mathbf{z}_j has the edge $e_{\mathbf{z}_j}^{\text{in}}$ not reachable from \mathbf{x} using the patterns $\mathbf{z}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{z}_{j-1}$. This means that the pattern \mathbf{z}_j is centered at the class E_{i_ℓ} computed by the iteration of the subroutine on the edge $e_{\mathbf{z}_{j-1}}^{\text{int}(w_{j-1})}$. Moreover, \mathbf{y} appears as a reachable class from the most-interior edge computed at \mathbf{z}_ℓ , so \mathbf{y} is enumerated. Finally, any pattern enumerated by this procedure can reconstruct the list of $\mathbf{z}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{z}_\ell$ by using the nesting patterns used in the subroutine iterations.

Theorem 41 (Main Theorem). There is a log-space reduction that given an instance $\langle G, u, v \rangle$ where $G \in \mathcal{G}(m,g)$ and u, v vertices of G, outputs an instance $\langle G', u', v' \rangle$ where G is a directed graph and u', v' vertices of G', so that

- (a) there is a directed path from u to v in G if and only if there is a directed path from u' to v' in G',
- (b) G' has O(m+g) vertices.

Proof. Fix a forest decomposition F and let G' be the pattern graph P(G, F). Theorem 39 shows that there is a path from u to v in G if and only if there is a path from u' to v' in P(G, F) if and only if there is a path from u' to v' in P(G, F). Lemma 40 gives that G' is log-space computable. By Lemma 26, there are at most O(m+g) equivalence classes in G (with respect to F), and there is a constant multiple of pattern descriptions per equivalence class, so G' has O(m+g) vertices. \Box

7 Discussion

We have succeeded in enlarging the class of surface-embedded DAGs which admit deterministic logspace algorithms for reachability. By extending the concept of topological equivalence from [17], we have shown that this is a useful algorithmic construct. Perhaps the structures built in this paper have application to other problems. Placing planar DAG reachability within L will likely require significant new ideas since the source-to-genus tradeoff hints that an algorithm for *m*-source planar DAGs will also apply to *m*-genus DAGs.

Further, the algorithms developed in this work improve upper bounds for the class $\mathcal{G}(m,g)$ for sub-polynomial values of m and g. See Table 2 for a list of space bounds of different algorithms for reachability in certain classes of graphs. Table 3 describes which results give which space bounds with simultaneous polynomial-time algorithms.

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We thank Jeff Erickson for sharing his knowledge on topological embeddings of graphs. We also thank Jonathan F. Buss for discussions on simultaneous time-space bounds for reachability at the 2010 Conference on Computational Complexity.

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⁴SMPD: Single-source Multiple-sink Planar DAG

⁵LMPD: Log-source Multiple-sink Planar DAG

⁶It is a quick observation that reachability in reach-poly graphs is decidable by a LogDCFL machine.

Ealier known graph class	Space bound s	New graph class given by Theorem 3
Undirected Graphs [13]		
$SMPD^4$ [2]	$O\left(\log n\right)$	$\mathcal{G}\left(2^{O(\sqrt{\log n})}, 2^{O(\sqrt{\log n})}\right)$
$LMPD^5$ [17]		
Poly-mixing time [14, 15]	$O\left(\log^{\frac{3}{2}}n\right)$	$\mathcal{G}\left(2^{O(\log^{\frac{3}{4}}n)}, 2^{O(\log^{\frac{3}{4}}n)}\right)$
Reach-poly graphs [3,7]	$O\left(\frac{\log^2 n}{\log\log n}\right)$	$\mathcal{G}\left(2^{O\left(\frac{\log n}{\sqrt{\log \log n}}\right)}, 2^{O\left(\frac{\log n}{\sqrt{\log \log n}}\right)}\right)$
	$o(\log^2 n)$	$\mathcal{G}(n^{o(1)}, n^{o(1)})$
All directed graphs [16]	$O(\log^2 n)$	

Table 2: A table of graph classes (old and new) for which reachability can be solved using space s, for various interesting values of s.

Earlier known graph class	Space bound s with poly-time	New graph class given by Theorem 8
Poly-mixing time [12, 14] Reach-poly graphs ⁶ [6, 11]	$O(\log^2 n)$	
	$2^{O\left(\log^{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon}n\right)}$	$\mathcal{G}\left(2^{O\left(\log^{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon}n\right)}, 2^{O\left(\log^{\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon}n\right)}\right)$
	$o(n^{\varepsilon})$	$\mathcal{G}(O(n^{\varepsilon}), O(n^{\varepsilon})).$
All directed graphs [4]	$O\left(\frac{n}{2^{\sqrt{\log n}}}\right)$	

Table 3: A table of graph classes (old and new) with simultaneous time-space bound $(n^{O(1)}, s)$ for reachability for various values of s.

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