


Probability and Computing – Game Theory & Yao's Principle

Stefan Walzer | WS 2024/2025



Some of this lecture's content is covered in Thomas Worsch's notes from 2019. 

1. Nash Equilibria in 2-Player Zero-Sum Games

- Games and Nash Equilibria
- Two Player Zero Sum Games
- Loomis' Theorem for Two-Player Zero Sum Games

2. Yao's Minimax Principle

3. Applications of Yao's Principle

- Evaluation of $\overline{\Lambda}$ -Trees
 - Proof Sketch of Tarsi's Theorem (nicht prüfungsrelevant)
- The Ski-Rental Problem

4. Conclusion

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Nash Equilibria in 2-Player Zero-Sum Games

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Yao's Minimax Principle

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Applications of Yao's Principle

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Applications of Yao's Principle

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

Conclusion

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Prisoner's Dilemma

			
			
		-1\ -1	-3\ 0
		0\ -3	-2\ -2







Setting

- strategies  and  available to both players
- table shows *payoffs* for players depending on chosen strategies
- here: always better to choose 
↪ pair (, ) is unique *equilibrium*



















Definition: Equilibrium

Combination of strategies such that no one can profit by unilaterally switching his or her own strategy.

A cat and mouse game

		  	
		-4	2 ← -2 \ 1
		0 ↓	0 → 0 \ 1 ↑

Someone always regrets their decision

		reaction	
			should have played 
			should have played 
			should have played 
			should have played 

↪ No combination of *pure* strategies is an *equilibrium*.

Equilibrium

Combination of strategies such that no one can profit by unilaterally switching his or her own strategy.

What a Game is

- Finite sets S_1, S_2 of *pure strategies*.
- Utility functions $u_1, u_2 : S_1 \times S_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

How a Game is played

- Players pick a strategy simultaneously
↪ gives pair $(s_1, s_2) \in S_1 \times S_2$.
- player 1 gets payoff $u_1(s_1, s_2)$ and
player 2 gets payoff $u_2(s_1, s_2)$.

Existence of Mixed-Strategy Nash Equilibria







There exist distributions S_1^* on S_1 and S_2^* on S_2 , called *mixed strategies* such that (S_1^*, S_2^*) is an equilibrium:

player 1 cannot increase expected payoff: $\mathbb{E}_{s_1 \sim S_1^*, s_2 \sim S_2^*} [u_1(s_1, s_2)] = \max_{s_1 \in S_1} \mathbb{E}_{s_2 \sim S_2^*} [u_1(s_1, s_2)]$.

player 2 cannot increase expected payoff: $\mathbb{E}_{s_1 \sim S_1^*, s_2 \sim S_2^*} [u_2(s_1, s_2)] = \max_{s_2 \in S_2} \mathbb{E}_{s_1 \sim S_1^*} [u_2(s_1, s_2)]$.

Remark: Theorem holds for $n \geq 3$ players as well.

Nash Equilibrium in Cat & Mouse Game

			
			
		-4\2	2\1
		0\0	0\1



Equilibrium

$$S_{\text{Mouse}} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Cheese} : \frac{1}{2}, \\ \text{Ball of Yarn} : \frac{1}{2} \end{array} \right\}$$



$$S_{\text{Cat}} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Cheese} : \frac{1}{3}, \\ \text{Ball of Yarn} : \frac{2}{3} \end{array} \right\}$$

Verification of Equilibrium Property: Calculating Expected Payoffs

for :

- playing  gives expected payoff $\frac{1}{3} \cdot (-4) + \frac{2}{3} \cdot 2 = 0$
- playing  gives expected payoff $\frac{1}{3} \cdot 0 + \frac{2}{3} \cdot 0 = 0$
- playing S_{Mouse} is a mix of both
 \hookrightarrow also expected payoff 0.

for :

- playing  gives expected payoff $\frac{1}{2} \cdot 2 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 0 = 1$
- playing  gives expected payoff $\frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 = 1$
- playing S_{Cat} is a mix of both
 \hookrightarrow also expected payoff 1.

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Conclusion

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Two Player Zero Sum Games and their Matrix Formulation

- Finite sets of pure strategies
 - S_1 for player 1
 - S_2 for player 2
- utility function $u : S_1 \times S_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 - player 1 gets $u(s_1, s_2)$
 - player 2 gets $-u(s_1, s_2)$
- Implicit sets of pure strategies
 - $S_1 = [n]$ for the *row player*
 - $S_2 = [m]$ for the *column players*
- matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$
 - row player gets M_{s_1, s_2}
 - column player gets $-M_{s_1, s_2}$



				
				
		0	-1	1
		1	0	-1
		-1	1	0

Unique equilibrium of 

$$S_1 = S_2 = \left\{ \text{Rock} : \frac{1}{3}, \text{Paper} : \frac{1}{3}, \text{Scissors} : \frac{1}{3} \right\}$$

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		-1	1	-1
		1	-1	1

Equilibria of     

Work it out yourself!

Nash Equilibria for Two-Player Zero-Sum Games

Nash's Theorem (1950), Special Case

For any $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ there exist distributions \mathcal{S}_1^* on $[n]$ and \mathcal{S}_2^* on $[m]$ such that

$$\mathbb{E}_{s_1 \sim \mathcal{S}_1^*, s_2 \sim \mathcal{S}_2^*} [M_{s_1, s_2}] = \max_{s_1 \in [n]} \mathbb{E}_{s_2 \sim \mathcal{S}_2^*} [M_{s_1, s_2}] = \min_{s_2 \in [m]} \mathbb{E}_{s_1 \sim \mathcal{S}_1^*} [M_{s_1, s_2}].$$

Intuition

When the players play according to \mathcal{S}_1^* and \mathcal{S}_2^* , then no player can benefit by deviating from his strategy.

Corollary: Loomis (1946) Von Neumann (1928)

For any $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ we have

$$\max_{S_1} \min_{s_2 \in [m]} \mathbb{E}_{s_1 \sim S_1} [M_{s_1, s_2}] = \min_{S_2} \max_{s_1 \in [n]} \mathbb{E}_{s_2 \sim S_2} [M_{s_1, s_2}]$$

Intuition

No first-mover disadvantage if

- first player chooses mixed strategy
- second player answers with pure strategy

Proof of Corollary (“ \geq ”)

$$\max_{S_1} \min_{s_2 \in [m]} \mathbb{E}_{s_1 \sim S_1} [M_{s_1, s_2}] \geq \min_{s_2 \in [m]} \mathbb{E}_{s_1 \sim \mathcal{S}_1^*} [M_{s_1, s_2}] \stackrel{\text{Nash}}{=} \max_{s_1 \in [n]} \mathbb{E}_{s_2 \sim \mathcal{S}_2^*} [M_{s_1, s_2}] \geq \min_{S_2} \max_{s_1 \in [n]} \mathbb{E}_{s_2 \sim S_2} [M_{s_1, s_2}]$$

Nash Equilibria for Two-Player Zero-Sum Games

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$$\max_{S_1} \min_{s_2 \in [m]} \mathbb{E}_{s_1 \sim S_1} [M_{s_1, s_2}] = \max_{S_1} \min_{S_2} \mathbb{E}_{s_1 \sim S_1, s_2 \sim S_2} [M_{s_1, s_2}] \leq \min_{S_2} \max_{S_1} \mathbb{E}_{s_1 \sim S_1, s_2 \sim S_2} [M_{s_1, s_2}] = \min_{S_2} \max_{s_1 \in [n]} \mathbb{E}_{s_2 \sim S_2} [M_{s_1, s_2}]$$

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Algorithm Design as a 2-Player Zero-Sum Game

Setting

- P : a computational problem
- **Inputs**: *finite* set of inputs
- **Algos**: *finite* set of deterministic algorithms
- $C(A, I) \in \mathbb{R}$ cost of $A \in \mathbf{Algos}$ on $I \in \mathbf{Inputs}$.

Example: Sorting

- $P =$ “sort n numbers comparison-based”^a
- **Inputs** = S_n //permutations of $[n]$
- **Algos** = e.g. suitable set of decision trees
- $C(A, I) =$ # of comparisons of A for input I

^a n finite, though possibly $n \rightarrow \infty$ later.

A Two-Player Zero-Sum Game

- Designer chooses (randomised) algorithm, i.e. a distribution on **Algos**.
 \hookrightarrow Goal: Minimise (expected) cost.
- Adversary chooses (randomised) input, i.e. a distribution on **Inputs**.
 \hookrightarrow Goal: Maximise (expected) cost.

Sorting (x, y, z)

		Adversary			
		(1, 2, 3)	(3, 1, 2)	(2, 3, 1)	...
Algorithm Designer	$x < y$ then $y < z$ then* $z < x$	2	3	3	
	$y < z$ then $z < x$ then* $x < y$	3	2	3	
	...				

* Only if needed.

Definition: Randomised Complexity

$$\mathcal{C} := \min_{\mathcal{A} \text{ dist. on Algos}} \max_{I \in \text{Inputs}} \mathbb{E}_{A \sim \mathcal{A}} [C(A, I)] \quad \text{designer moves first}$$

$$\stackrel{\text{Loomis}}{=} \max_{\mathcal{I} \text{ dist. on Inputs}} \min_{A \in \text{Algos}} \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}} [C(A, I)] \quad \text{adversary moves first}$$

Yao's Principle: (Upper and) Lower Bounds on \mathcal{C}

Let \mathcal{A}_0 be a distribution on **Algos** and \mathcal{I}_0 a distribution on **Inputs**. Then

$$\max_{I \in \text{Inputs}} \mathbb{E}_{A \sim \mathcal{A}_0} [C(A, I)] \stackrel{\text{(old news)}}{\geq} \mathcal{C} \stackrel{\text{"Yao's Principle"}}{\geq} \min_{A \in \text{Algos}} \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_0} [C(A, I)].$$

Tightness: Loomis implies that “=” is possible.

↔ Can attain (tight) lower bounds on \mathcal{C} by thinking about deterministic algorithm only!

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Computational Problem: $\overline{\wedge}$ -Tree-Evaluation

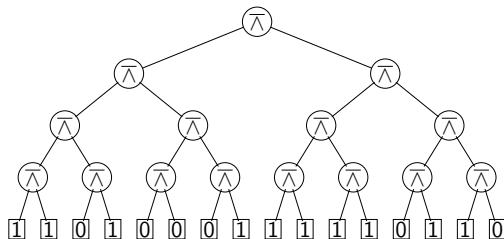
Problem: Evaluate $\overline{\wedge}$ -Tree of depth d

- **Inputs** = $\{0, 1\}^n$ for $n = 2^d$. Specify bits at leaves.
- **Algos** = Algorithms computing value at root.
- $C(A, I) = \#$ bits of I that A examines
↪ query complexity of A on I

Goal

Bound randomised query complexity

$$C = \min_{A \text{ dist. on Algos}} \max_{I \in \text{Inputs}} \mathbb{E}_{A \sim A} [C(A, I)].$$



Computational Problem: $\bar{\wedge}$ -Tree-Evaluation

Problem: Evaluate $\bar{\wedge}$ -Tree of depth d

- **Inputs** = $\{0, 1\}^n$ for $n = 2^d$. Specify bits at leafs.
- **Algos** = Algorithms computing value at root.
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Goal

Bound randomised query complexity

$$\mathcal{C} = \min_{\mathcal{A} \text{ dist. on Algos}} \max_{I \in \text{Inputs}} \mathbb{E}_{A \sim \mathcal{A}} [C(A, I)].$$

Example and possible formalisation of **Algos** (that we won't use)

Each $A \in \mathbf{Algos}$ corresponds to a *decision tree*. In the example:

- $C(A, (1, 0, 1, 0)) = 4$
- $C(A, (0, 1, 0, 1)) = 2$

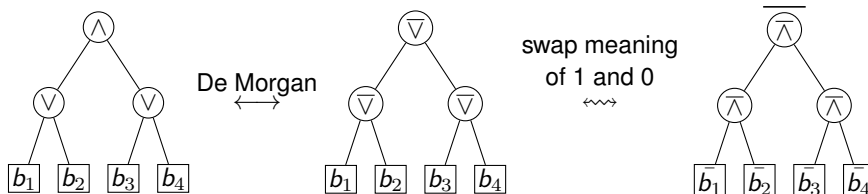
Each leaf queried at most once per path

⇒ $\text{depth} \leq n \Rightarrow |\mathbf{Algos}| < \infty$

What we already know

\wedge - \vee -trees are ∇ -trees are $\overline{\wedge}$ -trees

See exercise sheet 1 (“Die Wälder von NORwegen”)



What we already know

\wedge - \vee -trees are ∇ -trees are $\bar{\wedge}$ -trees

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Deterministic Query Complexity is n (Lecture 1, Slide 8)

For all $A \in \mathbf{Algos}$ there exists $I \in \mathbf{Inputs}$ such that $C(A, I) = n$.

Randomised Query Complexity is $\mathcal{O}(n^{\log_4(3)}) \approx \mathcal{O}(n^{0.792})$ (Lecture 1, Slide 10)

Let \mathcal{A} be the randomised algorithm that evaluates one of the two depth $d - 1$ subtrees at random (recursively) and, if that yields 1, also evaluates the other subtree (recursively).

$$\max_{I \in \mathbf{Inputs}} \mathbb{E}_{A \sim \mathcal{A}}[C(A, I)] = \mathcal{O}(3^{d/2}) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_4(3)}).$$

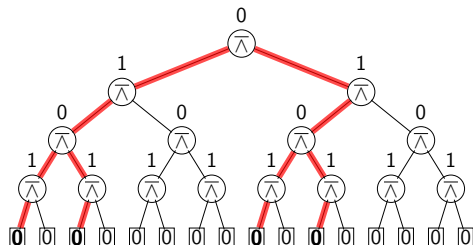
Goal: Show lower bound of $\Omega(\varphi^d) \approx \Omega(n^{0.694})$ using Yao's Principle (φ is the golden ratio).

Remark: actual complexity is $\Theta(n^{\log_4(3)})$, but that's more difficult.

Warm Up: A simple lower bound

Observation

For any even $d \in \mathbb{N}$ and $A \in \mathbf{Algos}$ we have $C(A, (0, \dots, 0)) \geq 2^{d/2}$.



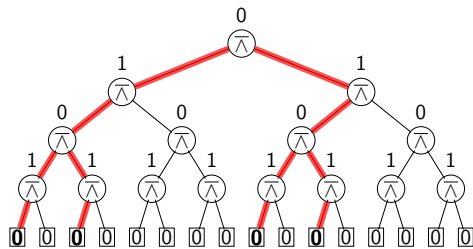
Proof

- in the end A knows that the root is 0.
 - knowing a 0 requires knowing that both children are 1.
 - Knowing a 1 requires knowing of one child that it is 0.
- $\Leftrightarrow A$ knows of $\geq 2^{d/2}$ leafs that they are 0 and must have checked them.

Warm Up: A simple lower bound

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For any even $d \in \mathbb{N}$ and $A \in \mathbf{Algos}$ we have $C(A, (0, \dots, 0)) \geq 2^{d/2}$.

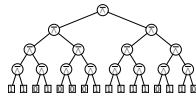


Corollary: Randomised Complexity is $\Omega(\sqrt{n})$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{C} &= \min_{A \text{ dist. on } \mathbf{Algos}} \max_{I \in \mathbf{Inputs}} \mathbb{E}_{A \sim \mathcal{A}} [C(A, I)] \\ &\geq \min_{A \text{ dist. on } \mathbf{Algos}} \mathbb{E}_{A \sim \mathcal{A}} [C(A, (0, \dots, 0))] \\ &= \min_{A \in \mathbf{Algos}} [C(A, (0, \dots, 0))] \\ &\geq 2^{d/2} = 2^{\log_2(n)/2} = n^{1/2}. \end{aligned}$$

Note Yao's spirit: Lower bound on *randomised complexity* from result on *deterministic algorithms*.

A stronger lower bound



Theorem (Tarsi 1984)

For any $p \in [0, 1]$ simpleEval is optimal for input distribution \mathcal{I}_p , i.e.

$$\min_{A \in \text{Algos}} \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_{p_0}} [C(A, I)] = \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_{p_0}} [C(\text{simpleEval}, I)].$$

Lemma

If $p_0 = \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2}$ and φ is the golden ratio then

$$\mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_{p_0}} [C(\text{simpleEval}, I)] = (1 + p_0)^d = \varphi^d.$$

Corollary: $\mathcal{C} = \Omega(\varphi^d) \approx \Omega(n^{0.694})$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{C} &\stackrel{\text{Yao}}{\geq} \min_{A \in \text{Algos}} \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_{p_0}} [C(A, I)] \stackrel{\text{Tarsi}}{=} \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_{p_0}} [C(\text{simpleEval}, I)] \\ &\stackrel{\text{Lemma}}{=} \varphi^d = \varphi^{\log_2 n} = n^{\log_2 \varphi} \approx n^{0.694}. \end{aligned}$$

Independent Bernoulli Inputs

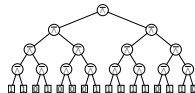
Let $\mathcal{I}_p = \text{Ber}(p)^n$ be the distribution where leafs are assigned independently values with distribution $\text{Ber}(p)$.

Deterministic Algorithm

```

Algorithm simpleEval( $T$ ):
  if  $T = \text{leaf}(b)$  then
    return  $b$ 
  else
     $(T_\ell, T_r) \leftarrow T$ 
    if simpleEval( $T_\ell$ ) = 0 then
      return 1
    else
      return  $\neg$ simpleEval( $T_r$ )
  
```

Proof of Lemma: Cost of simpleEval on \mathcal{I}_{p_0}



Lemma

If $p_0 = \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2}$ and φ is the golden ratio then

$$\mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_{p_0}} [C(\text{simpleEval}, I)] = (1 + p_0)^d = \varphi^d.$$

Proof.

- $p_0 = \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2}$ is the solution to $p = 1 - p^2$.
- If $a, b \sim \text{Ber}(p_0)$ then $a \bar{\wedge} b \sim \text{Ber}(1 - p_0^2) = \text{Ber}(p_0)$.
- For $I \sim \mathcal{I}_{p_0}$ the probability that an *internal* tree node evaluates to 1 is p_0 .
- Let $c_d := \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_{p_0}} [C(\text{simpleEval}, I)]$ for trees of depth d . Then
 - $c_0 = 1$ // tree of depth 0 is just the leaf
 - $c_d = c_{d-1} + p_0 \cdot c_{d-1} = (1 + p_0)c_{d-1} \stackrel{\text{Ind.}}{=} (1 + p_0)(1 + p_0)^{d-1} = (1 + p_0)^d$
// Always one recursive call, with probability p a second one.

Deterministic Algorithm

Algorithm simpleEval(T):

```
if  $T = \text{leaf}(b)$  then
  return  $b$ 
else
   $(T_\ell, T_r) \leftarrow T$ 
  if simpleEval( $T_\ell$ ) = 0 then
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Theorem (Tarsi 1984)

For any $p \in [0, 1]$ simpleEval is optimal for input distribution \mathcal{I}_p , i.e.

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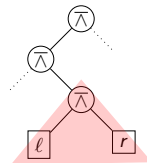
Proof idea:

- Take optimal Algorithm A .
- Transform A into simpleEval step by step.
- Show: Expected query complexity never increases.

Lemma: Evaluating Superleaves like simpleEval

Definition: Superleaves

A *superleaf* consists of two sibling leafs and their parent.



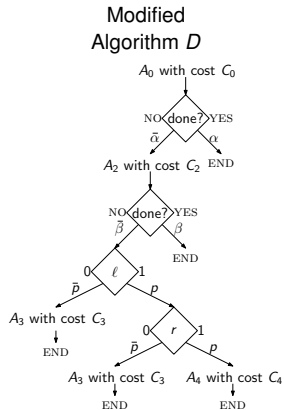
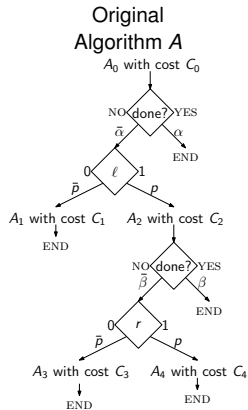
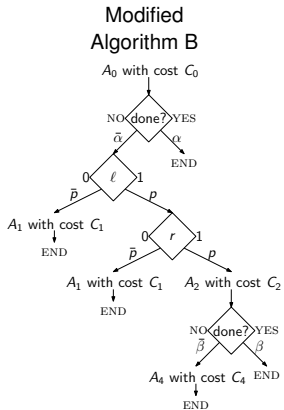
Lemma

For any $p \in [0, 1]$ and any $A \in \mathbf{Algos}$ there exists $A' \in \mathbf{Algos}$ such that

- $\mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_p}[C(A', I)] \leq \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_p}[C(A, I)]$
- A' behaves on any superleaf $T = (\ell, r)$ like simpleEval:
 - i never visits r before ℓ
 - ii never visits r if $\ell = 0$
 - iii immediately visits r after visiting ℓ if $\ell = 1$

Proof Idea

- We fix every superleaf one by one. Let T be superleaf that needs fixing.
- Property **i**: Switch roles of ℓ and r if needed. Does not change the expected cost.
- Property **ii**: r does not contribute to result. Not visiting r *reduces* expected cost.
- Property **iii**: More difficult. See next slide.



$$C_A := \mathbb{E}[C(A, I)] = \mathbb{E}[C_0 + \bar{\alpha} \cdot (1 + \bar{p}C_1 + p \cdot (C_2 + \bar{\beta}(1 + \bar{p}C_3 + pC_4)))]$$

$$C_B := \mathbb{E}[C(B, I)] = \mathbb{E}[C_0 + \bar{\alpha} \cdot (1 + \bar{p}C_1 + p \cdot (1 + \bar{p}C_1 + p(C_2 + \bar{\beta}C_4)))]$$

$$C_D := \mathbb{E}[C(D, I)] = \mathbb{E}[C_0 + \bar{\alpha} \cdot (C_2 + \bar{\beta}(1 + \bar{p}C_3 + p(1 + \bar{p}C_3 + pC_4)))]$$

$$(C_B - C_A) + p \cdot (C_D - C_A) = \dots = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow C_B - C_A \leq 0 \vee C_D - C_A \leq 0$$

$\Rightarrow B$ or D (or both) are at least as good as A
and both visit superleaf (ℓ, r) as desired.

Theorem (Tarsi 1984)

For any $p \in [0, 1]$ simpleEval is optimal for input distribution \mathcal{I}_p , i.e.

$$\min_{A \in \mathbf{Algos}} \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_p} [C(A, I)] = \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_p} [C(\text{simpleEval}, I)].$$

We use induction on d . For $d = 0$ simpleEval is clearly optimal. Let now $d \geq 1$.

Let $A \in \mathbf{Algos}$ be an algorithm minimising $\mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_p} [C(A, I)]$.

By Lemma: There exists $A' \in \mathbf{Algos}$ that behaves like simpleEval on superleaves such that

$$\mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_p} [C(A', I)] \leq \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_p} [C(A, I)].$$

Let L' be the number of superleaves visited by A' and L the number of superleaves visited by simpleEval.

Superleaves evaluate to 1 with probability $1 - p^2$ independently and are in a complete binary tree of depth $d - 1$.

Apply induction for $d' = d - 1$ and $p' = 1 - p^2$.

$$\mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_p} [L] \stackrel{\text{Ind.}}{\leq} \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_p} [L'].$$

The expected cost for evaluating a superleaf is $1 + p$. Hence

$$\mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_p} [C(A', I)] = (1 + p)\mathbb{E}[L']$$

$$\mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_p} [C(A, I)] = (1 + p)\mathbb{E}[L]$$

Finally we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_p} [C(\text{simpleEval}, I)] &= (1 + p)\mathbb{E}[L] \leq (1 + p)\mathbb{E}[L'] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_p} [C(A', I)] \leq \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_p} [C(A, I)]. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, simpleEval is optimal for \mathcal{I}_p . □

1. Nash Equilibria in 2-Player Zero-Sum Games

- Games and Nash Equilibria
- Two Player Zero Sum Games
- Loomis' Theorem for Two-Player Zero Sum Games

2. Yao's Minimax Principle

3. Applications of Yao's Principle

- Evaluation of $\bar{\Lambda}$ -Trees
 - Proof Sketch of Tarsi's Theorem (nicht prüfungsrelevant)
- The Ski-Rental Problem

4. Conclusion

Nash Equilibria in 2-Player Zero-Sum Games
○○○○○○○○○

Yao's Minimax Principle
○○○

Applications of Yao's Principle
○○○○○○○○○○●○○○○○○○○○

Conclusion
○○○○

Ski Rental – A Prototypical Online Problem

Setting: You are on a ski trip

Trip lasts for unknown number of days $I \in \mathbb{N}$
("as long as there is snow").

Every day, if no skis bought yet:

- RENT skis for one day for cost 1 *or*
- BUY skis for cost $B \in \mathbb{N}$.

Goal: Minimise Competitive Ratio

The *competitive ratio* of distribution \mathcal{A} on **Algos** is

$$C_{\mathcal{A}} = \sup_{I \in \text{Inputs}} \frac{\mathbb{E}_{A \sim \mathcal{A}}[C(A, I)]}{\text{OPT}(I)}.$$

Framing using Online Algorithms

- **Inputs** = \mathbb{N} : number of days
(not known in advance)
- **Algos** = \mathbb{N} : specify day for choosing BUY
- cost for $A \in \mathbf{Algos}$ on $I \in \mathbf{Inputs}$:

$$C(A, I) = \begin{cases} I & \text{if } I < A \\ A - 1 + B & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- cost of optimum *offline* solution

$$\text{OPT}(I) = \begin{cases} I & \text{if } I < B \\ B & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Break-Even is the best deterministic algorithm

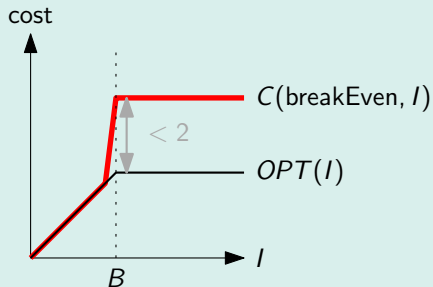
Observation

The algorithm `breakEven := B` has competitive ratio $\frac{2B-1}{B} \approx 2$.
All other $A \in \mathbf{Algos}$ have competitive ratio ≥ 2 .

Recall

B is the cost to BUY.

Proof



The worst ratio for `breakEven` is attained for input $I = B$.

$$\begin{aligned} C_{\text{breakEven}} &= \sup_{I \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{C(\text{breakEven}, I)}{OPT(I)} = \frac{C(\text{breakEven}, B)}{OPT(B)} \\ &= \frac{B - 1 + B}{B} = \frac{2B - 1}{B}. \end{aligned}$$

Break-Even is the best deterministic algorithm

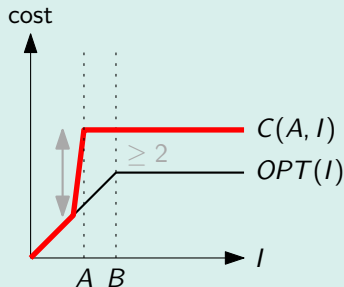
Observation

The algorithm `breakEven := B` has competitive ratio $\frac{2B-1}{B} \approx 2$.
All other $A \in \mathbf{Algos}$ have competitive ratio ≥ 2 .

Recall

B is the cost to BUY.

Proof



The worst ratio for $A \in \mathbf{Algos}$ with $A < B$ is attained for input $I = A$.

$$C_A = \sup_{I \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{C(A, I)}{OPT(I)} = \frac{C(A, A)}{OPT(A)} = \frac{A - 1 + B}{A} = 1 + \frac{B - 1}{A} \geq 1 + 1 = 2.$$

Break-Even is the best deterministic algorithm

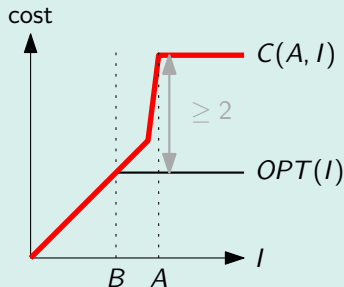
Observation

The algorithm `breakEven := B` has competitive ratio $\frac{2B-1}{B} \approx 2$.
All other $A \in \mathbf{Algos}$ have competitive ratio ≥ 2 .

Recall

B is the cost to BUY.

Proof



The worst ratio for $A \in \mathbf{Algos}$ with $A > B$ is attained for input $I = A$.

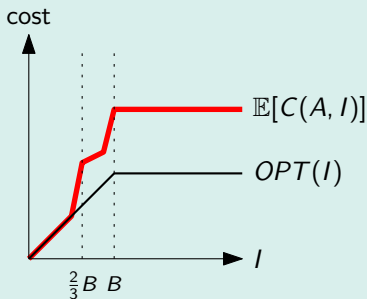
$$C_A = \sup_{I \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{C(A, I)}{OPT(I)} = \frac{C(A, A)}{OPT(A)} = \frac{A-1+B}{B} = 1 + \frac{A-1}{B} \geq 1+1 = 2.$$

A randomised algorithm can beat break-even

Observation (assuming wlog that B is a multiple of 3)

The randomised algorithm $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{U}(\{\frac{2}{3}B, B\})$ has competitive ratio $\approx 1 + \frac{5}{6}$.

Proof



The competitive ratio of \mathcal{A} “spikes” for inputs $\frac{2}{3}B$ and B . It is decreasing in between and constant after B .

$$\mathbb{E}_{A \sim \mathcal{A}}[C(A, \frac{2}{3}B)] = \underbrace{\frac{2}{3}B - 1}_{\text{rent}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(1 + B)}_{\text{rent or buy}} < \frac{7}{6}B, \quad \text{OPT}(\frac{2}{3}B) = \frac{2}{3}B,$$

$$\mathbb{E}_{A \sim \mathcal{A}}[C(A, B)] = \underbrace{B}_{\text{buy}} + \underbrace{\frac{2}{3}B - 1}_{\text{rent}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(\frac{1}{3}B)}_{\text{maybe rent}} < \frac{11}{6}B, \quad \text{OPT}(B) = B.$$

$$\text{Hence } C_{\mathcal{A}} = \sup_{I \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{\mathbb{E}_{A \sim \mathcal{A}}[C(A, I)]}{\text{OPT}(I)} \leq \max\left\{\frac{7/6}{2/3}, \frac{11/6}{1}\right\} = \max\left\{\frac{7}{4}, \frac{11}{6}\right\} = \frac{11}{6}.$$

What's next?

Goal: Lower bound

No randomised algorithm has competitive ratio better than ≈ 1.582 .

Theorem (see Online Optimization Lecture, Corollary 3.8, Prof. Yann Disser, Darmstadt, 2023)

For any distribution \mathcal{A}_0 on **Algos** and any distribution \mathcal{I}_0 on **Inputs** we have

$$C_{\mathcal{A}_0} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sup_{I \in \text{Inputs}} \frac{\mathbb{E}_{A \sim \mathcal{A}_0}[C(A, I)]}{\text{OPT}(I)} \geq \frac{\inf_{A \in \text{Algos}} \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_0}[C(A, I)]}{\mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_0}[\text{OPT}(I)]}.$$

Remark

- Yao's principle exists for other settings as well.
- Proof of “ \geq ” relatively easy to prove.
- Tightness typically follows from duality of optimisation problems or fixed point theorems.
(though I'm not sure how it works here)

A hard distribution for Ski-Rental: Intuition

$$\mathcal{I}_0 := \text{Geom}\left(\frac{1}{B}\right).$$

Why \mathcal{I}_0 ?

- distribution is **memoryless**.

Assume no skis bought on day i : Minimising expected *future* cost is the same problem as on day 1.

↪ wlog: either buy right away or not at all.

- **expectation** tuned such that

$$\mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_0} [C(\text{never buy}, I)] = \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_0} [C(\text{immediately buy}, I)] = B.$$

↪ all strategies equally good

A hard distribution for Ski-Rental: Analysis

Lemma

Let $\mathcal{I}_0 := \text{Geom}(\frac{1}{B})$ and $q := 1 - \frac{1}{B} = \text{Pr}[\text{☄}]$. Then

- i $\mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_0}[C(A, I)] = B$ for all $A \in \mathbb{N}$.
- ii $\mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_0}[\text{OPT}(I)] = B(1 - (1 - \frac{1}{B})^B)$.

Seen before:

Any random variable X with values in \mathbb{N} satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{j \geq 1} \text{Pr}[X \geq j].$$

Proof of (i)

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_0}[C(A, I)] &= \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_0} \left[\sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \text{cost on day } i \right] = \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_0} [\text{cost on day } i] = \sum_{i=1}^{A-1} \underbrace{\text{Pr}[I \geq i]}_{\text{rent}} \cdot 1 + \underbrace{\text{Pr}[I \geq A]}_{\text{buy}} \cdot B \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{A-1} q^{i-1} + q^{A-1} \cdot B = \sum_{i=0}^{A-2} q^i + q^{A-1} \cdot B = \frac{1 - q^{A-1}}{1 - q} + q^{A-1} \cdot B \\ &= (1 - q^{A-1})B + q^{A-1} \cdot B = B. \end{aligned}$$

A hard distribution for Ski-Rental: Analysis

Lemma

Let $\mathcal{I}_0 := \text{Geom}(\frac{1}{B})$ and $q := 1 - \frac{1}{B} = \text{Pr}[\text{❄}]$. Then

- i $\mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_0}[C(A, I)] = B$ for all $A \in \mathbb{N}$.
- ii $\mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_0}[\text{OPT}(I)] = B(1 - (1 - \frac{1}{B})^B)$.

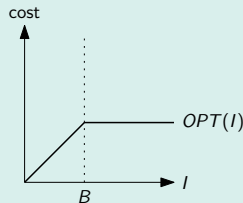
Seen before:

Any random variable X with values in \mathbb{N} satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{j \geq 1} \text{Pr}[X \geq j].$$

Proof of (ii)

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_0}[\text{OPT}(I)] &= \sum_{j \geq 1} \text{Pr}[\text{OPT}(I) \geq j] = \sum_{j=1}^B \text{Pr}[\text{OPT}(I) \geq j] \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^B \text{Pr}[I \geq j] = \sum_{j=1}^B q^{j-1} = \sum_{j=0}^{B-1} q^j \\ &= \frac{1 - q^B}{1 - q} = B(1 - (1 - \frac{1}{B})^B). \end{aligned}$$



Note: $\text{OPT}(I) = I$ for $I \in [B]$.

A hard distribution for Ski-Rental: Analysis

Lemma

Let $\mathcal{I}_0 := \text{Geom}(\frac{1}{B})$ and $q := 1 - \frac{1}{B} = \text{Pr}[\text{❄}]$. Then

- i $\mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_0}[C(A, I)] = B$ for all $A \in \mathbb{N}$.
- ii $\mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_0}[\text{OPT}(I)] = B(1 - (1 - \frac{1}{B})^B)$.

Seen before:

Any random variable X with values in \mathbb{N} satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{j \geq 1} \text{Pr}[X \geq j].$$

Lower bound for Ski-Rental

By Yao's theorem any randomised algorithm \mathcal{A} for ski-rental has competitive ratio at least

$$c_{\mathcal{A}} \geq \frac{\inf_{A \in \text{Algos}} \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_0}[C(A, I)]}{\mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_0}[\text{OPT}(I)]} = \frac{B}{B(1 - (1 - \frac{1}{B})^B)} = \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \frac{1}{B})^B}.$$

For large B the lower bound converges to $\lim_{B \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \frac{1}{B})^B} = \frac{1}{1 - 1/e} = \frac{e}{e-1} \approx 1.582$.

Upper bound for Ski-Rental

Remark: The lower bound is tight (Karlin et al. 1994)

There exists a distribution \mathcal{A} on $[B]$ such that $c_{\mathcal{A}} \leq \frac{e}{e-1}$.

Applications

Very basic online question:

Should I pay a small possibly recurring cost or a large one time cost?

Occurs in:

- Cache management.
- Networking.
- Scheduling.
- ...

Algorithm Design as a Two-Player Game

- “we” choose algorithm to minimise cost
- “adversary” chooses input to maximise cost
- Nash/Loomis: It does not matter who moves first
if mixed strategy is allowed for first player.

Yao's Principle

Lower bound on worst-case expected cost of *any randomised algorithm* \mathcal{A}_0 by analyzing *any deterministic algorithm* on specific input distribution \mathcal{I}_0 .

$$\max_{I \in \text{Inputs}} \mathbb{E}_{A \sim \mathcal{A}_0} [C(A, I)] \geq \mathcal{C} \geq \min_{A \in \text{Algos}} \mathbb{E}_{I \sim \mathcal{I}_0} [C(A, I)].$$

Can narrow down randomised complexity \mathcal{C} of underlying problem from both sides.

Anhang: Mögliche Prüfungsfragen I

Spieltheorie:

- Was ist ein Zwei-Spieler-Spiel im Sinne der Spieltheorie?
- Was ist ein Nash-Equilibrium?
- Gibt es immer ein Nash-Equilibrium?
- Was ist ein Nullsummenspiel?
- Was besagt der Satz von Nash (für Zwei-Spieler Nullsummenspiele)?
- Was besagt der Satz von Loomis?
- Beweise den Satz von Loomis! (anspruchsvolle Aufgabe)

Yaos Prinzip:

- Worin besteht die Verbindung zwischen Spieltheorie und dem Entwurf von Algorithmen?
- Wie ist die randomisierte Komplexität (bzgl. einer Kostenfunktion C) normalerweise definiert? Welche andere Sichtweise ergibt sich darauf durch den Satz von Loomis?
- Formuliere Yaos Prinzip! Wofür ist es nützlich?

Anhang: Mögliche Prüfungsfragen II

Anwendung auf $\bar{\Lambda}$ -Bäume:

- Welches Ziel haben wir uns bei der Auswertung von $\bar{\Lambda}$ -Bäumen gesetzt? (Anfragekomplexität minimieren)
- Welche Worst-Case Kosten lassen sich mit einem deterministischen Algorithmus erreichen?
- Können randomisierte Algorithmen das besser? Wie?
- Man kann sich recht leicht überlegen, dass die randomisierte Komplexität $\Omega(\sqrt{n})$ beträgt. Wie ging das?
- Wir haben auch eine schärfere Analyse gesehen. Welche Komponenten hatte diese? Insbesondere: Wie kommt dabei Yao Prinzip zur Anwendung?
- Was besagt der Satz von Tarsi?

Ski-Rental-Problem:

- Formuliere das Ski-Rental Problem.
- Wie nennt man diese Art von Problem? (*Online* Problem)
- Spielt das nur im Wintersport eine Rolle? (nur Stichworte)
- Wie ist der kompetitive Faktor definiert?

- Was ist der beste deterministische Algorithmus? Wie kann man das einsehen?
- Gibt es einen randomisierten Algorithmus der Break-Even schlagen kann? (nur die Idee)
- Formuliere Yaos Prinzip für Online Algorithmen.
- Welche Eingabeverteilung haben wir für die untere Schranke für Ski-Rental zugrunde gelegt? Was ist die Intuition?
- Welche Kosten ergeben sich für Online und Offline Algorithmen für diese Eingabeverteilung? Was lässt sich entsprechend über den kompetitiven Faktor sagen?