

## Lecture 22

# Online Algorithms

Last time we looked at algorithms for finding approximately-optimal solutions for NP-hard problems. Today we'll be looking at finding approximately-optimal solutions for problems where the difficulty is not that the problem is necessarily *computationally* hard but rather that the algorithm doesn't have all the *information* it needs to solve the problem up front.

Specifically, we will be looking at *online algorithms*, which are algorithms for settings where inputs or data is arriving over time, and we need to make decisions on the fly, without knowing what will happen in the future. This is as opposed to standard problems like sorting where you have all inputs at the start. Data structures are one example of online algorithms (they need to handle sequences of requests, and to do well without knowing in advance which requests will be arriving in the future). We'll talk about some other kinds of examples today.

### 22.1 Rent or buy?

Here is a simple online problem that captures a common issue in online decision-making, called the rent-or-buy problem. Say you are just starting to go skiing. You can either rent skis for \$50 or buy them for \$500. You don't know if you'll enjoy skiing, so you decide to rent. Then you decide to go again, and again, and after a while you realize you have shelled out a lot of money renting and you wish you had bought right at the start.<sup>1</sup> The optimal strategy is: if you know you're going to end up skiing more than 10 times, you should buy right at the beginning. If you know you're going to go fewer than 10 times, you should just always rent. (If you know you're going to go exactly 10 then either way is equally good.) But, what if you don't know?

To talk about the quality of an online algorithm, we will look at what's called its *competitive ratio*:

**Definition 22.1** *The competitive ratio of an online algorithm  $ALG$  is the worst case (i.e., maximum) over possible futures  $\sigma$  of the ratio:  $ALG(\sigma)/OPT(\sigma)$ , where  $ALG(\sigma)$  represents the cost of  $ALG$  on  $\sigma$  and  $OPT(\sigma)$  is the least possible cost on  $\sigma$ .*

E.g., what is competitive ratio of the algorithm that says "buy right away"? The worst case is we only go skiing once. Here the ratio is  $500/50 = 10$ .

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<sup>1</sup>We are ignoring practical issues such as the type of ski you want depending on your ability level, etc.

What about the algorithm that says “Rent forever”? Now the worst case is that we keep going skiing. So the competitive ratio of this algorithm is unbounded.

Here’s a nice strategy: rent until you realize you should have bought, then buy. (In our case: rent 9 times, then buy). Let’s call this algorithm *better-late-than-never*. Formally, if the rental cost is  $r$  and the purchase cost is  $p$  then the algorithm is to rent  $\lceil p/r \rceil - 1$  times and then buy.

**Theorem 22.1** *The algorithm better-late-than-never has competitive ratio  $\leq 2$ . If the purchase cost  $p$  is an integer multiple of the rental cost  $r$ , then the competitive ratio is  $2 - r/p$ .*

**Proof:** We consider two cases. **Case 1:** if you went skiing fewer than  $\lceil p/r \rceil$  times (e.g., 9 or fewer times in the case of  $p = 500, r = 50$ ) then you are optimal. The algorithm never purchased and OPT doesn’t purchase either. **Case 2:** If you went skiing  $\lceil p/r \rceil$  or more times, then the optimal solution would have been to buy at the start, so  $\text{OPT} = p$ . The algorithm paid  $r(\lceil p/r \rceil - 1) + p$  (e.g.,  $\$450 + \$500$  in our specific case). This is always less than  $2p$ , and equals  $2p - r$  if  $p$  is a multiple of  $r$ . In Case 1, the ratio of the algorithm’s cost to OPT was 1, and in Case 2, the ratio of the algorithm’s cost to OPT was less than 2 ( $(2p - r)/p = 2 - r/p$  if  $p$  was a multiple of  $r$ ). The worst of these is Case 2, and gives the claimed competitive ratio. ■

**Theorem 22.2** *Algorithm better-late-than-never has the best possible competitive ratio for the ski-rental problem for deterministic algorithms when  $p$  is a multiple of  $r$ .*

**Proof:** Consider the event that the day you purchase is the last day you go skiing (this is a legitimate event, since (a) if the algorithm never purchases, we already know its competitive ratio is unbounded, so we may assume a purchase occurs, and (b) the algorithm is deterministic so this occurs after some specific number of rentals). Now, if you rent longer than *better-late-than-never*, then the numerator in Case 2 goes up (the algorithm’s cost is larger) but the denominator stays the same, so your ratio is strictly worse. If you rent fewer times (say you rent  $k$  fewer times than *better-late-than-never* for some  $k \geq 1$ ), then the numerator in Case 2 goes down by  $kr$  but so does the denominator, so again the ratio is worse. ■

## 22.2 The elevator problem

You go up to the elevator and press the button. But who knows how long it’s going to take to come, if ever? How long should you wait until you give up and take the stairs?

Say it takes time  $E$  to get to your floor by elevator (once it comes) and it takes time  $S$  by stairs. E.g, maybe  $E = 15$  sec, and  $S = 45$  sec.

How long should you wait until you give up? What strategy has the best competitive ratio?

Answer: wait 30 sec, then take the stairs (in general, wait for  $S - E$  time). This is exactly the *better-late-than-never* strategy since we are taking the stairs once we realize we should have taken them at the start. If elevator comes in less than 30 sec, we’re optimal. Otherwise,  $\text{OPT} = 45$ . We took 30+45 sec, so the ratio is  $(30 + 45)/45 = 5/3$ . Or, in general, the ratio is  $(S - E + S)/S = 2 - E/S$ .

You may have noticed this is really the *same* as rent-or-buy where stairs=buy, waiting for  $E$  time steps is like renting, and the elevator arriving is like the last time you ever ski. So, this algorithm is optimal for the same reason.

Other problems like this: whether it's worth optimizing code, when your laptop should stop spinning the disk between accesses, and many others.

## 22.3 An aside

Interesting article in NYT Sept 29, 2007: Talking about a book by Jason Zweig on how people's emotions affect their investing, called "Your money and your brain":

"There is a story in the book about Harry Markowitz, Mr. Zweig said the other day. He was referring to the renowned economist who shared a Nobel for helping found modern portfolio theory and proving the importance of diversification.... Mr. Markowitz was then working at the RAND Corporation and trying to figure out how to allocate his retirement account. He knew what he should do: I should have computed the historical co-variances of the asset classes and drawn an efficient frontier. (That's efficient-market talk for draining as much risk as possible out of his portfolio.)

But, he said, I visualized my grief if the stock market went way up and I wasn't in it or if it went way down and I was completely in it. So I split my contributions 50/50 between stocks and bonds. As Mr. Zweig notes dryly, Mr. Markowitz had proved incapable of applying his breakthrough theory to his own money."

So, he wasn't applying his own theory but he *was* using competitive analysis: 50/50 guarantees you end up with at least half as much as if you had known in advance what would happen, which is best possible Competitive Ratio you can achieve.

## 22.4 Paging

In paging, we have a disk with  $N$  pages, and fast memory with space for  $k < N$  pages. When a memory request is made, if the page isn't in the fast memory, we have a page fault. We then need to bring the page into the fast memory and throw something else out if our space is full. Our goal is to minimize the number of misses. The algorithmic question is: what should we throw out? E.g., say  $k = 3$  and the request sequence is 1,2,3,2,4,3,4,1,2,3,4. What would be the right thing to do in this case if we knew the future? Answer: throw out the thing whose next request is farthest in the future.

A standard online algorithm is LRU: "throw out the least recently used page". E.g., what would it do on above case? What's a bad case for LRU? 1,2,3,4,1,2,3,4,1,2,3,4... Notice that in this case, the algorithm makes a page fault every time and yet if we knew the future we could have thrown out a page whose next request was 3 time steps ahead. More generally, this type of example shows that the competitive ratio of LRU is at least  $k$ . In fact, you can show this is actually the worst-case for LRU, so the competitive ratio of LRU is exactly  $k$  (it's not hard to show but we won't prove it here).

In fact, it's not hard to show that you can't do better than a competitive ratio of  $k$  with a deterministic algorithm: you just set  $N = k + 1$  and consider a request sequence that always requests whichever page the algorithm *doesn't* have in its fast memory. By design, this will cause the algorithm to have a page fault every time. However, if we knew the future, every time we had a page fault we could always throw out the item whose next request is farthest in the future. Since there are  $k$  pages in our fast memory, for one of them, this next request has to be at least  $k$  time steps in the future, and since  $N = k + 1$ , this means we won't have a page fault for at least  $k - 1$  more steps (until that one is requested). So, the algorithm that knows the future has a page fault at most once every  $k$  steps, and the ratio is  $k$ .

Here is a neat *randomized* algorithm with a competitive ratio of  $O(\log k)$ . Specifically, for any request sequence  $\sigma$ , we have  $\mathbf{E}[ALG(\sigma)]/OPT(\sigma) = O(\log k)$ .

**Algorithm “Marking”:**

- Assume the initial state is pages  $1, \dots, k$  in fast memory. Start with all pages unmarked.
- When a page is requested,
  - if it's in fast memory already, mark it.
  - if it's not, then throw out a random unmarked page. (If all pages in fast memory are marked, unmark everything first. For analysis purposes, call this the end of a “phase”). Then bring in the page and mark it.

We can think of this as a 1-bit randomized LRU, where marks represent “recently used” vs “not recently used”.

We will show the proof for the special case of  $N = k + 1$ . For general  $N$ , the proof follows similar lines but just is a bit more complicated.

**Proof:** (for  $N = k + 1$ ). In a phase, you have  $k + 1$  different pages requested so  $OPT$  has at least one page fault. For the algorithm, the page not in fast memory is a *random* unmarked page. Every time a page is requested: if it was already marked, then there is no page fault for sure. If it wasn't marked, then the probability of a page fault is  $1/i$  where  $i$  is the number of unmarked pages. So, within a phase, the expected total cost is  $1/k + 1/(k - 1) + \dots + 1/2 + 1 = O(\log k)$ . ■