Concentration of a random variable around its mean

RA-MIRI QT Curs 2020-2021

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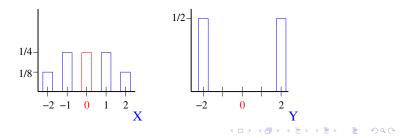
Expectation does not suffice

The expected value of a random variable is a nice single number to *tag* the random variable, but it leaves out most of the important properties of the r.v.

Consider r.v X with
$$X(\Omega) = \{-2, -1, 0, 1, 2\}$$
 with
 $\Pr[X = -2] = \frac{1}{8}, \Pr[X = -1] = \frac{1}{4}, \Pr[X = 0] = \frac{1}{4},$
 $\Pr[X = 1] = \frac{1}{4}, \Pr[X = 2] = \frac{1}{8}.$

and consider r.v. Y with
$$Y(\Omega') = \{-2, 2\}$$
 and PMF:
 $\Pr[Y = -2] = \frac{1}{2}, \Pr[Y = 2] = \frac{1}{2}.$

Note that $\mathbf{E}[X] = 0 = \mathbf{E}[Y]$, but p_X is totally different from p_Y .



Deviation of a r.v. from its mean

- Consider the deterministic Quicksort algorithm on *n*-size inputs. Let T(n) be a r.v. counting the number of steps of Quicksort on a specific input with size n
- Its worst case complexity is O(n²), but its average complexity is O(n lg n).
- It does not give information about the behavior of the algorithm on a particular input.
- ► Given an algorithm, for any input x of size |x| = n, how close is T(x) to E[T(n)].

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Deviation of a r.v. and Concentration

- For ex.: If E [T(n)] = 10, then 10 is an average running time on "most inputs" to the algorithm. We want to assure, that for most inputs, T(n) is concentrated around 10.
- ► That is, to make sure that the probability of having instances for which |E[T(n)] - T(n)| is large, is very small.
- Intuitively, it seems clear from the definition of E [], if for the above running time, we get an instance e for which T(e) = 10⁹, and E [T(n)] = 10, the probability of selecting that specific e is going to be quite small, so that its contribution to the average, 10⁹Pr [T(n) = 10⁹], is small.

Markov's inequality

Lemma If $X \ge 0$ is a r.v, for any constant a > 0,

$$\Pr\left[X \ge a\right] \le \frac{\mathsf{E}\left[X\right]}{a}.$$

Proof Given the r.v. $X \ge 0$ define the indicator r.v.

$$Y = egin{cases} 1 & ext{if } X \geq a ext{ true} \\ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Notice if Y = 1 then $Y \le X/a$, and if Y = 0 also $Y \le X/a$, so $\mathbf{E}[Y] = \mathbf{Pr}[Y = 1] = \mathbf{Pr}[X \ge a]$ and $\mathbf{E}[Y] = \mathbf{Pr}[Y = 1] \le \mathbf{E}\left[\frac{X}{a}\right] = \frac{\mathbf{E}[X]}{a}$.

Alternative expression for Markov: Taking $a = b\mathbf{E}[X]$ Corollary If X > 0 is a r.v. for any constant b > 0.

$$\Pr\left[X \ge b\mathsf{E}\left[X\right]\right] \le \frac{1}{b}.$$

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Markov could be too weak

Consider the randomized hiring algorithm. We computed that the expected number of pre-selected students is $\mathbf{E}[X] = \lg n$. We also know there are instances for which X = n.

We would like to show that the probability of selecting a "bad instance" is very small.

Using Markov, for any constant *b*, $\Pr[X \ge b \lg n] \le 1/b$. (for ex. b = 100)

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The problem with Markov is that it does not bound away the probability of *bad cases* as a function of the input size.

In the randomized algorithms, we aim to obtain results that hold with high probability: the probability that the complexity of the algorithm for any input is "near" the expected value, i.e., it tends to 1 as the size n grows.

An event that occurs with high probability (whp) is one that happens with probability $\geq 1 - \frac{1}{f(n)}$, so that it goes to 1 as $n \to \infty$.

The parameter n is usually the size of the inputs, or the size of the combinatorial structure,

Variance

Given a r.v. X, its variance measures the spread of its distribution. Given X, with $\mu = \mathbf{E}[X]$, the variance of X is:

Var $[X] = E[(X - \mu)^2]$

Usually it is more easy to use the expression: $Var[X] = E[X^2] - E[X]^2$ Proof

$$\operatorname{Var} [X] = \operatorname{\mathsf{E}} \left[(X - \mu)^2 \right] = \operatorname{\mathsf{E}} \left[X^2 - 2\mu \operatorname{\mathsf{E}} [X] + \mu^2 \right]$$
$$= \operatorname{\mathsf{E}} \left[X^2 \right] - 2\mu \underbrace{\operatorname{\mathsf{E}} [X]}_{\mu} + \mu^2 = \operatorname{\mathsf{E}} \left[X^2 \right] - \mu^2 \quad \Box$$

Further properties of the Variance

- Var [X] ≥ 0 as by Jensen's inequality, for any r.v X, E [X²] ≥ E [X]².
- ▶ Var [X] = 0 iff X = constant.Proof (\Leftarrow) If X = c then $\mathbf{E}[X] = c \Rightarrow \text{Var}[X] = 0$. (\Rightarrow) If Var $[X] = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{E}[X^2] = \mathbf{E}[X]^2 \Rightarrow \mathbf{E}[X] = c$.

► Var
$$[cX] = c^2 Var [X]$$
.
Proof
Var $[cX] = E [(cX)^2] - E [cX]^2 = c^2 E [X^2] - (cE[X])^2$

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Computing Var[X]

Given a r.v. X on Ω , such that $X(\Omega) = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$, we first compute

 $\mu = \mathbf{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \mathbf{Pr}[X = x_i]$. Then, use one of the following methods:

- 1. Use $\operatorname{Var}[X] = \operatorname{E}[(X \mu)^2]$: For each x_i compute $(x_i \mu)^2$, and then $\operatorname{Var}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 \operatorname{Pr}[X = x_i]$
- 2. Use $\operatorname{Var}[X] = \operatorname{E}[X^2] \operatorname{E}[X]^2$: For each x_i compute x_i^2 , then $\operatorname{E}[X^2] = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \operatorname{Pr}[X = x_i]$.

From now on, we use the probability mass function of X, $p_X : \Omega \to [0, 1]$, defined as $p_X(\omega) = \Pr[X = \omega]$.

Computing Var[X]: Examples

EX.: Consider r.v. X with $X(\Omega) = \{1, 3, 5\}$ and PMF: $p_X(1) = \frac{1}{4}, p_X(3) = \frac{1}{4}, P_X(5) = \frac{1}{2}$. Then $\mu = 7/2$. 1. Var $[X] = \frac{1}{4}(3 - \frac{7}{2})^2 + \frac{1}{4}(5 - \frac{7}{2})^2 + \frac{1}{2}(1 - \frac{7}{2})^2 = \frac{11}{4}$ 2. $X^2(\Omega) = \{1, 9, 25\}$, so $\mathbf{E}[X^2] = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{9}{4} + \frac{25}{2} = 15$ Var $[X] = 15 - (\frac{7}{2})^2 = \frac{11}{4}$

Consider r.v. Y with $X(\Omega) = \{-2, 2\}$ and PMF: $p_Y(-2) = \frac{1}{2}, p_Y(2) = \frac{1}{2}.$ Therefore, the values $(X - \mu)^2$ are $(-2 - 0)^2$ and $(2 - 0)^2$ \Rightarrow Var $[X] = \frac{1}{2}4 + \frac{1}{2}4 = 4$ Notice in this case Var $[X] = \mathbf{E} [X^2] = 4$

You win 100€ with probability = 1/10, otherwise you win 0€. Let X be a r.v. counting your earnings. What is Var [X]? $\mu = 100/10 = 10$. Therefore, $\mathbf{E} [X^2] = \frac{1}{10}(100^2) = 1000$, and as $\mu^2 = 100$, so Var [X] = 900.

Var [] is not necessarily linear

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be independent r.v., then

$$\operatorname{Var}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}\right] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Var}\left[X_{i}\right].$$

We prove the particular case that if X and Y are independent Var [X + Y] = Var [X] + Var [Y] $Var [X + Y] = E [(X + Y)^{2}] - (E[X + Y])^{2}$ $= E [X^{2}] + E [Y^{2}] + 2E[XY] - (E[X])^{2} - (E[Y])^{2} - 2E[X]E[Y]$ $= E [X^{2}] - (E[X])^{2} + E [Y^{2}] - (E[Y])^{2} + 2(E[XY] - E[X]E[Y])$ $= E [X^{2}] - (E[X])^{2} + E [Y^{2}] - (E[Y])^{2} + 2(E[XY] - E[X]E[Y])$

Variance of some basic distributions

- 1. If $X \in B(p, n)$ then $\operatorname{Var}[X] = pqn$, where q = (1 p).
- 2. If $X \in P(\lambda)$ then $Var[X] = \lambda$.
- 3. If $X \in G(p)$ then $\operatorname{Var}[X] = \frac{q}{p^2}$.

Proof

(1.-) Let $X = \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$, where X_i is an indicator r.v s.t. $X_i = 1$ with probability pThen, $\operatorname{Var}[X_i] = \operatorname{E}[X_i^2] - \operatorname{E}[X]^2 = (p \cdot 1^2 + q \cdot 0 - p^2 = p(1-p))$, as all X_i are independent, $\operatorname{Var}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Var}[X_i] = np(1-p)$.

Proof of 2

$$Var[X] = \mathbf{E}[X^2] - (\mathbf{E}[X])^2 = \mathbf{E}[(X)(X-1) + X] - (\mathbf{E}[X])^2$$

= $\mathbf{E}[(X)(X-1)] + \mathbf{E}[X] - (\mathbf{E}[X])^2 = \mathbf{E}[(X)(X-1)] + \lambda - \lambda^2.$

$$\mathbf{E}\left[(X)(X-1)\right] = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} (x)(x-1)\frac{e^{-\lambda}\lambda^{x}}{x!}$$

$$= \sum_{x=2}^{\infty} (x)(x-1)\frac{e^{-\lambda}\lambda^{x}}{x!} \text{ terms } x = 0 \text{ and } x = 1 \text{ are } 0$$

$$\sum_{x=2}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\lambda}\lambda^{x}}{(x-2)!} = \lambda^{2}e^{-\lambda}\sum_{x=2}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{x-2}}{(x-2)!}$$

$$= \lambda^{2}e^{-\lambda}\left(\frac{\lambda^{0}}{0!} + \frac{\lambda^{1}}{1!} + \frac{\lambda^{2}}{2!} + \dots\right)$$

$$= \lambda^{2}e^{-\lambda}e^{\lambda} = \lambda^{2}.$$

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Proof of 3

If $X \in G(p)$ want to compute $\operatorname{Var}[X] = \operatorname{E}[X^2] - (\operatorname{E}[X])^2 = \operatorname{E}[X^2] - \frac{1}{p^2}$. Need to compute $\operatorname{E}[X^2]$.

$$\mathbf{E}[X^{2}] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^{2} \mathbf{Pr}[X = k]$$

= $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^{2} p (1-p)^{k-1} = p \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k=1}}^{\infty} k^{2} (1-p)^{k-1}$

Recall Taylor: $\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k$. Differentiating $\frac{1}{(1-x)^2} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} kx^{k-1}$. Multiplying by x and differentiating $\frac{1-x}{(1-x)^3} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^2 x^{k-1}$ Making x = 1 - p then $\frac{2-p}{p^3} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^2 (1-p)^{k-1}$. By (*) $\mathbf{E} [X^2] = \frac{2-p}{p^2}$ Therefore: $\mathbf{Var} [X] = \frac{2-p}{p^2} - \frac{1}{p^2} = \frac{1-p}{p^2}$ A more natural measure of spread: Standard Deviation

Why we did not define **Var** $[X] = \mathbf{E} [|X - \mu|]$?

To be sure we are averaging only non-negative values.

But as we defined the variance, we are using squared units!

Recall the example X a r.v. counting the wins, when you win $100 \in$ with probability = 1/10, otherwise you win $0 \in$. We got $Var[X] = 900 \in^2$.

To convert the numbers back to re-scale, we take the square root.

The Standard Deviation of a r.v. X is defined as

$$\sigma\left[X\right] = \sqrt{\operatorname{Var}\left[X\right]}.$$

In the previous example, to convert the spread from \in^2 to \in , $\sigma[X] = \sqrt{900} = 30 \in$.

Chebyshev's Inequality

Pafnuty Chebyshev (XIXc)

If you can compute the **Var** [] then you can compute σ and get better bounds for concentration of any r.v. (positive or negative).

Theorem Let X be a r.v. with expectation μ and standard deviation $\sigma > 0$, then for any a > 0

$$\Pr\left[|X - \mu| \ge a\sigma\right] \le \frac{1}{a^2}.$$

Note that $|X - \mu| \ge a\sigma \Leftrightarrow (X \ge a\sigma + \mu) \cup (X \ge \mu - a\sigma)$. **Proof** As the r.v. $|X - \mu| \ge 0$, we can apply Markov to it:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{Pr}\left[|X - \mu| \ge a\sigma\right] &= \mathsf{Pr}\left[(X - \mu)^2 \ge a^2 \sigma^2\right] \quad \text{(by Markov)} \\ &\leq \frac{\mathsf{E}\left[(X - \mu)^2\right]}{a^2 \sigma^2} = \frac{\mathsf{Var}\left[X\right]}{a^2 \mathsf{Var}\left[X\right]} = \frac{1}{a^2} \quad \Box \end{aligned}$$

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More on Chebyshev's Inequality

We had: $\Pr[|X - \mu| \ge a\sigma] \le \frac{1}{a^2}$.

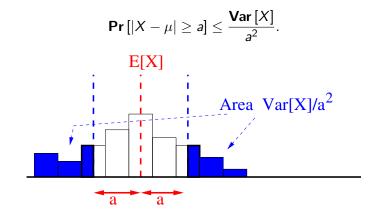
Alternative equivalent statement:

$$\forall b > 0, \Pr\left[|X - \mu| \ge b\right] \le \frac{\operatorname{Var}\left[X\right]}{b^2}.$$

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Proof As before: $\Pr\left[(X-\mu)^2 \ge b^2\right] \le \frac{\mathbb{E}\left[(X-\mu)^2\right]}{b^2}$.

Chebyshev's Inequality: Picture



An easy application

Let flip *n*-times a fair coin, give an upper bound on the probability of having at least $\frac{3n}{4}$ heads.

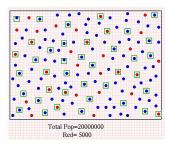
Let $X \in B(n, 1/2)$, then, $\mu = n/2$, **Var** [X] = n/4.

We want to bound $\Pr\left[X \ge \frac{3n}{4}\right]$.

• Markov: $\Pr\left[X \ge \frac{3n}{4}\right] \le \frac{\mu}{3n/4} = 2/3.$

• Chebyshev's: We need the value of a s.t. $\Pr\left[X \ge \frac{3n}{4}\right] \le \Pr\left[|X - \frac{n}{2}| \ge a\right] \Rightarrow a = \frac{3n}{4} - \frac{n}{2} = \frac{n}{4}.$ $\Pr\left[X \ge \frac{3n}{4}\right] \le \Pr\left[|X - \frac{n}{2}| \ge \frac{n}{4}\right] \le \frac{\operatorname{Var}[X]}{(n/4)^2} = \frac{4}{n}.$

Sampling



- Given a large population Σ, |Σ| = n, we wish to estimate the proportion p of elements in Σ, with a given property.
- Sampling: Take a random sample S with size m << n and observe p⁻ in S.
- Sometimes, if n is large, the obvious estimator m × p⁻ is sufficiently good, i.e. it is sharply concentrated.
- Many times getting the random sample S is non-trivial.

Finding the median of n elements

From MU 3.4

- Recall that, given a set S with n distinct elements, the median of S is the [n/2] larger element in S.
- We can use Quickselect to find the median with expected time O(n). Even there is a linear time deterministic algorithm, which in practice for large instance works worst than Quick-select.
- We present another randomized algorithm to find the median m in S, which is based in sampling.
- The purpose of this algorithm is to introduce the technique of filtering large data by sampling small amount of the data.

Finding the median of *n* elements: A Filtering Data algorithm

INPUT: An unordered set $S = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$, with n = 2k + 1 elements.

OUTPUT: The median, which is the k + 1 largest element in S. For any element y define the rank $(y) = |\{x \in S | x \le y\}|$.

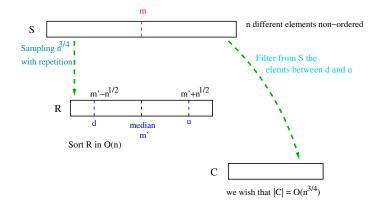
The idea of the filtering Algorithm is to sample with replacement a "small" subset of *C* elements from *S*, so we can order *C* in O(n) time (linear with respect to the size of *S*). Then the algorithm find the median of the elements in *C* and either return it as the median in *S* or return failure

We will prove that whp the algorithm finds the median m of S, in linear time.

Outline of the algorithm

- 1. Let \tilde{S} be the ordered set S (we do not know \tilde{S}). Let m be its median.
- 2. Find elements $d, u \in S$ s.t. d < m < u and distance between d and u in \tilde{S} is $< n/\lg n$.
- To find d and u sample with replacement S to get a multi-set R, with |R| = O(⌈n^{3/4}⌉). Notice ⌈n^{3/4}⌉ < n/ lg n. Find u, d ∈ R s.t. m will be close to median in R).
- 4. Filter-out the elements $x \in S$, which are < d or > u to form a set $C = \{x \in S | d \le x \le u\}$.
- 5. Sort elements in C in O(n), and find its median. This will be the algorithm's output
- 6. Prove that w.h.p. the algorithm succeeds.

Outline of the algorithm



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Things that can be wrong: C too large, $m \notin C$, $m \in C$ but no the median in C.

Randomized Median algorithm

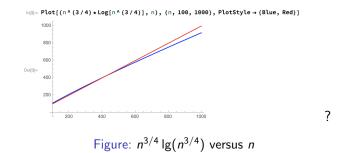
- 1. Sample $\lceil n^{3/4} \rceil$ elements from *S*, u.a.r., independently, and with replacement.
- 2. Sort R in O(n)
- 3. Set $d = \lfloor (\frac{n^{3/4}}{2} \sqrt{n}) \rfloor$ -smallest element in R
- 4. Set $d = \lfloor (\frac{n^{3/4}}{2} + \sqrt{n}) \rfloor$ -greatest element in R
- 5. Compute $C = \{x \in S | d \le x \le u\}$, $l_d = |\{x \in S | x < d\}|$ and $l_u = |\{x \in S | x > u\}|$ (cost = $\Theta(n)$).
- 6. If $I_d > \frac{n}{2}$ or $I_u < \frac{n}{2}$ OUTPUT FAIL $(m \notin C)$
- 7. If $|C| \le 4n^{3/4}$, sort C, otherwise OUTPUT FAIL.
- 8. OUTPUT the $\left(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor l_d + 1\right)$ -smallest element in sorted *C*, that should be *m*.

Complexity and correctness of the Randomized Median algorithm

Theorem: The Randomized Median algorithm terminates in O(n) steps. If the algorithm does not output FAIL, then it outputs the median m of S.

Proof: As asymptotically $n^{3/4} \lg(n^{3/4}) \le n$, using Mergesort on R takes $O(\frac{n}{\lg n} \lg(\frac{n}{\lg n})) = O(n)$.

The only incorrect answer is that it outputs an item, but $m \notin C$, but if so, it would fail in step 6, as either $l_d > n/2$ or $l_u < n/2$. \Box



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Bounding the probability of output FAIL

Theorem: The Randomized Median algorithm finds *m* with probability $\geq 1 - \frac{1}{n^{1/4}}$, i.e., whp. **Proof (Highlights):** Consider the following 3 events: $E_1: d > m$, $E_2: u < m$, $E_3: |C| > 4n^{3/4}$. Then, the algorithm outputs FAIL iff one of the three events occurs, i.e. **Pr** [FAILS] = **Pr** $[E_1 \cup E_2 \cup E_3] <$ **Pr** $[E_1] +$ **Pr** $[E_2] +$ **Pr** $[E_3]$

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Bounding $\Pr[E_1]$

Consider *R* ordered, where *R* is obtained by sampling $n^{3/4}$ elements from *S* Recall: $d = \lfloor (\frac{n^{3/4}}{2} - \sqrt{n}) \rfloor$ -th element



• d > m, when the green block has size $< \lfloor n^{3/4}/2 - \sqrt{n} \rfloor$.

• Let
$$Y = |\{x \in R \mid x \le m\}|$$
, then
 $\Pr[E_1] = \Pr[Y < n^{3/4}/2 - \sqrt{n}]$.

- For 1 ≤ j ≤ n^{3/4}, define Y_j = 1 iff the value in the j-th. position in R is ≤ m.
- Then $Y = \sum_{j=1}^{n^{3/4}} Y_j$, moreover as the sampling is with replacement, then each Y_j is independent.

As m = median of S(|S| = n), then we have $\frac{(n-1)}{2} + 1$ elements in S that are $\leq m$.

Bounding $\Pr[E_1]$

• $\Pr[Y_j = 1] = \frac{(n-2)/2+1}{n} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2n}$, as there are (n-1)/2 + 1 elements $\leq m$.

▶ so
$$Y \in B(n^{3/4}, \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2n}).$$

• Then $\mathbf{E}[Y_i] \ge 1/2 \Rightarrow \mathbf{E}[Y] \ge \frac{n^{3/4}}{2}$,

• Y is
$$B(n^{3/4}, 1/2 + 1/2n, \text{ so}$$

Var $[Y] = n^{3/4}(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2n})(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2n}) \le \frac{n^{3/4}}{4}$

Using Chebyshev:

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathsf{Pr}\left[E_{1}\right] = \mathsf{Pr}\left[Y < \frac{n^{3/4}}{4} - \sqrt{n}\right] \\ & \leq \mathsf{Pr}\left[|Y - \mathsf{E}\left[Y\right]| \ge \sqrt{n}\right] \le \frac{\mathsf{Var}\left[Y\right]}{(\sqrt{n})^{2}} = \frac{1}{4n^{1/4}} \ \Box \end{aligned}$$

Bounding $\Pr[E_2]$

In the same way as for E_1 , it holds $\Pr[E_2] \leq \frac{1}{4n^{1/4}}$



Bounding $\Pr[E_3]$

 E_3 : $|C| > 4n^{3/4}$.

C is obtained directly from S by filtering, using the values d and u obtained in R.

For C to have $> 4n^{3/4}$ keys either of the following events must happen:

- 1. A: At least $> 2n^{3/4}$ items in C are > m.
- 2. B: At least $> 2n^{3/4}$ items in C are < m.

Then,

$$\Pr[E_3] \le \Pr[A \cup B] \le \Pr[A] + \Pr[B].$$

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Bounding **Pr**[A]

Event A happens when there are at least $2n^{3/4}$ element in C which are > mIf so, the rank(u) in \tilde{S} is $\ge n/2 + 2n^{3/4}$. Let $F = \{x \in R \mid x > u\}, |F| \ge n^{3/4}/2 - \sqrt{n}$ Any element in F has rank $\ge n/2 + 2n^{3/4}$



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We will prove that $\mathbf{Pr}\left[\bar{A}
ight] = 1 - O(1/n)
ightarrow 1.$

Bounding **Pr**[A]

Let X = # selected items in R that are in F (have rank ≥ n/2 + 2n^{3/4})

• Then $\Pr[A] \leq \Pr[X \geq \lfloor n^{3/2}/2 - \sqrt{n} \rfloor].$

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• For $1 \le j \le n^{3/4}$, define $X_j = 1$ iff the *j*-th item in *R* is in *F*.

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{Pr}\left[A\right] \leq \mathbf{Pr}\left[X \geq \lfloor \frac{n^{3/2}}{2} - n^{1/2} \rfloor\right] \leq \mathbf{Pr}\left[X \geq \frac{n^{3/4}}{2} - 2n^{1/2} + n^{1/4}\right] \\ & \leq \mathbf{Pr}\left[X \geq \mathbf{E}\left[X\right] + n^{1/2} - 1 - n^{1/4}\right] \\ & \leq \mathbf{Pr}\left[|X - \mathbf{E}\left[X\right]| \geq n^{1/2} - 1 - n^{1/4}\right] = O(\frac{1}{n^{1/4}}). \quad \Box \end{aligned}$$

Bounding $\Pr[B]$ and finishing the proof

In the same way we can compute $\Pr[B] = O(\frac{1}{n^{1/4}})$

To end the whole proof, we also proved that $\Pr[E_3] \leq \Pr[A] + \Pr[B] = O(\frac{1}{n^{1/4}})$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{Pr} [\text{algorithm fails}] = \mathbf{Pr} [E_1 \cup E_2 \cup E_3] \leq^{\cup \mathsf{B}} O(\frac{1}{n^{1/4}}).$$

Therefore,

Pr [algorithm succeeds] = $1 - \mathbf{Pr}$ [algorithm fails] $\geq 1 - \frac{1}{n^{1/4}}$ i.e. w.h.p. the Randomized Median algorithm finds the correct *m*

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