# **Randomised Algorithms**

Lecture 2-3: Concentration Inequalities

Thomas Sauerwald (tms41@cam.ac.uk)

Lent 2022



#### **Outline**

#### Introduction to Chernoff Bounds

How to Derive Chernoff Bounds

Application 1: Balls into Bins

Application 2: Randomised QuickSort

Extensions of Chernoff Bounds

Applications of Method of Bounded Differences

**Appendix** 

### **Concentration Inequalities**

 Concentration refers to the phenomena where random variables are very close to their mean

### **Concentration Inequalities**

- Concentration refers to the phenomena where random variables are very close to their mean
- This is very useful in randomised algorithms as it ensures an almost deterministic behaviour

#### **Concentration Inequalities**

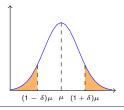
- Concentration refers to the phenomena where random variables are very close to their mean
- This is very useful in randomised algorithms as it ensures an almost deterministic behaviour
- It gives us the best of two worlds:
  - 1. Randomised Algorithms: Easy to Design and Implement
  - 2. Deterministic Algorithms: They do what they claim

#### Chernoff Bounds: A Tool for Concentration

- Chernoffs bounds are "strong" bounds on the tail probabilities of sums of independent random variables
- random variables can be discrete (or continuous)
- usually these bounds decrease exponentially as opposed to a polynomial decrease in Markov's or Chebyshev's inequality (see example)



Hermann Chernoff (1923-)

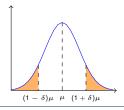


#### Chernoff Bounds: A Tool for Concentration

- Chernoffs bounds are "strong" bounds on the tail probabilities of sums of independent random variables
- random variables can be discrete (or continuous)
- usually these bounds decrease exponentially as opposed to a polynomial decrease in Markov's or Chebyshev's inequality (see example)
- easy to apply, but requires independence



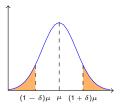
Hermann Chernoff (1923-)



#### Chernoff Bounds: A Tool for Concentration

- Chernoffs bounds are "strong" bounds on the tail probabilities of sums of independent random variables
- random variables can be discrete (or continuous)
- usually these bounds decrease exponentially as opposed to a polynomial decrease in Markov's or Chebyshev's inequality (see example)
- easy to apply, but requires independence
- have found various applications in:
  - Randomised Algorithms
  - Statistics
  - Random Projections and Dimensionality Reduction
  - Learning Theory (e.g., PAC-learning)







Hermann Chernoff (1923-)

Markov's Inequality ———

If X is a non-negative random variable, then for any a > 0,

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge a] \le \mathbf{E}[X]/a.$$

Chebyshev's Inequality -

If X is a random variable, then for any a > 0,

$$P[|X - E[X]| \ge a] \le V[X]/a^2$$
.

Markov's Inequality ——

If X is a non-negative random variable, then for any a > 0,

$$P[X \ge a] \le E[X]/a$$
.

Chebyshev's Inequality -

If X is a random variable, then for any a > 0,

$$P[|X - E[X]| \ge a] \le V[X]/a^2$$
.

■ Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \to [0, \infty)$  and increasing, then  $f(X) \ge 0$ , and thus

$$P[X \ge a] \le P[f(X) \ge f(a)] \le E[f(X)]/f(a).$$

Markov's Inequality -

If X is a non-negative random variable, then for any a > 0,

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge a] \le \mathbf{E}[X]/a.$$

Chebyshev's Inequality -

If X is a random variable, then for any a > 0,

$$P[|X - E[X]| \ge a] \le V[X]/a^2$$
.

■ Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \to [0, \infty)$  and increasing, then  $f(X) \ge 0$ , and thus

$$P[X \ge a] \le P[f(X) \ge f(a)] \le E[f(X)]/f(a).$$

• Similarly, if  $g: \mathbb{R} \to [0, \infty)$  and decreasing, then  $g(X) \geq 0$ , and thus

$$P[X \le a] \le P[g(X) \ge g(a)] \le E[g(X)]/g(a)$$
.

Markov's Inequality -

If X is a non-negative random variable, then for any a > 0,

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge a] \le \mathbf{E}[X]/a.$$

Chebyshev's Inequality

If X is a random variable, then for any a > 0,

$$\mathbf{P}[|X - \mathbf{E}[X]| \ge a] \le \mathbf{V}[X]/a^2.$$

■ Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \to [0, \infty)$  and increasing, then  $f(X) \ge 0$ , and thus

$$P[X \ge a] \le P[f(X) \ge f(a)] \le E[f(X)]/f(a).$$

■ Similarly, if  $g : \mathbb{R} \to [0, \infty)$  and decreasing, then  $g(X) \ge 0$ , and thus

$$\mathbf{P}[X \leq a] \leq \mathbf{P}[g(X) \geq g(a)] \leq \mathbf{E}[g(X)]/g(a).$$

Chebyshev's inequality (or Markov) can be obtained by chosing  $f(X) := (X - \mu)^2$  (or f(X) := X, respectively).

### From Markov and Chebyshev to Chernoff

Markov and Chebyshev use the first and second moment of the random variable. Can we keep going?

#### From Markov and Chebyshev to Chernoff

Markov and Chebyshev use the first and second moment of the random variable. Can we keep going?

Yes!

### From Markov and Chebyshev to Chernoff

Markov and Chebyshev use the first and second moment of the random variable. Can we keep going?

Yes!

We can consider the first, second, third and more moments! That is the basic idea behind the Chernoff Bounds

#### **Our First Chernoff Bound**

Chernoff Bounds (General Form, Upper Tail) =

Suppose  $X_1,\ldots,X_n$  are independent Bernoulli random variables with parameter  $p_i$ . Let  $X=X_1+\ldots+X_n$  and  $\mu=\mathbf{E}[X]=\sum_{i=1}^n p_i$ . Then, for any  $\delta>0$  it holds that

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge (1+\delta)\mu] \le \left[\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{(1+\delta)}}\right]^{\mu}.$$
 (\*\*\*)

#### **Our First Chernoff Bound**

Chernoff Bounds (General Form, Upper Tail)

Suppose  $X_1,\ldots,X_n$  are independent Bernoulli random variables with parameter  $p_i$ . Let  $X=X_1+\ldots+X_n$  and  $\mu=\mathbf{E}[X]=\sum_{i=1}^n p_i$ . Then, for any  $\delta>0$  it holds that

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge (1+\delta)\mu] \le \left[\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{(1+\delta)}}\right]^{\mu}.$$
 (\*\*\*)

While  $(\star)$  is one of the easiest (and most generic) Chernoff bounds to derive, the bound is complicated and hard to apply...

#### **Our First Chernoff Bound**

Chernoff Bounds (General Form, Upper Tail)

Suppose  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  are independent Bernoulli random variables with parameter  $p_i$ . Let  $X = X_1 + \ldots + X_n$  and  $\mu = \mathbf{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i$ . Then, for any  $\delta > 0$  it holds that

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge (1+\delta)\mu] \le \left[\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{(1+\delta)}}\right]^{\mu}.$$
 (\(\phi\))

This implies that for any  $t > \mu$ ,

$$\mathbf{P}[X \geq t] \leq e^{-\mu} \left(\frac{e\mu}{t}\right)^t.$$

While  $(\star)$  is one of the easiest (and most generic) Chernoff bounds to derive, the bound is complicated and hard to apply...

• Consider throwing a fair coin *n* times and count the total number of heads

- Consider throwing a fair coin *n* times and count the total number of heads
- $X_i \in \{0, 1\}, X = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \text{ and } \mathbf{E}[X] = n \cdot 1/2 = n/2$

- Consider throwing a fair coin n times and count the total number of heads
- $X_i \in \{0, 1\}, X = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \text{ and } \mathbf{E}[X] = n \cdot 1/2 = n/2$
- The Chernoff Bound gives for any  $\delta > 0$ ,

$$\mathbf{P}[X \geq (1+\delta)(n/2)] \leq \left[\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{(1+\delta)}}\right]^{n/2}.$$

- Consider throwing a fair coin n times and count the total number of heads
- $X_i \in \{0, 1\}, X = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \text{ and } \mathbf{E}[X] = n \cdot 1/2 = n/2$
- The Chernoff Bound gives for any  $\delta > 0$ ,

$$\mathbf{P}[X \geq (1+\delta)(n/2)] \leq \left[\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{(1+\delta)}}\right]^{n/2}.$$

■ The above expression equals 1 only for  $\delta=0$ , and then it gives a value strictly less than 1 (check this!)

- Consider throwing a fair coin n times and count the total number of heads
- $X_i \in \{0, 1\}, X = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \text{ and } \mathbf{E}[X] = n \cdot 1/2 = n/2$
- The Chernoff Bound gives for any  $\delta > 0$ ,

$$\mathbf{P}[X \geq (1+\delta)(n/2)] \leq \left[\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{(1+\delta)}}\right]^{n/2}.$$

- The above expression equals 1 only for  $\delta = 0$ , and then it gives a value strictly less than 1 (check this!)
- The inequality is **exponential in** n, (for fixed  $\delta$ ) which is much better than Chebyshev's inequality.

- Consider throwing a fair coin n times and count the total number of heads
- $X_i \in \{0, 1\}, X = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \text{ and } \mathbf{E}[X] = n \cdot 1/2 = n/2$
- The Chernoff Bound gives for any  $\delta > 0$ ,

$$\mathbf{P}[X \geq (1+\delta)(n/2)] \leq \left[\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{(1+\delta)}}\right]^{n/2}.$$

- The above expression equals 1 only for  $\delta = 0$ , and then it gives a value strictly less than 1 (check this!)
- The inequality is **exponential in** n, (for fixed  $\delta$ ) which is much better than Chebyshev's inequality.

What about a concrete value of 
$$n$$
, say  $n = 100$ ?

Consider 100 independent coin flips. We wish to find an upper bound on the probability that the number of heads is greater or equal than 75.

Consider 100 independent coin flips. We wish to find an upper bound on the probability that the number of heads is greater or equal than 75.

■ Markov's inequality: **E**[X] = 100/2 = 50.

$$P[X \ge 3/2 \cdot E[X]] \le 2/3 = 0.666.$$

Consider 100 independent coin flips. We wish to find an upper bound on the probability that the number of heads is greater or equal than 75.

■ Markov's inequality: **E**[X] = 100/2 = 50.

$$P[X \ge 3/2 \cdot E[X]] \le 2/3 = 0.666.$$

• Chebyshev's inequality:  $V[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{100} V[X_i] = 100 \cdot (1/2)^2 = 25$ .

$$\mathbf{P}[|X - \mu| \ge t] \le \frac{\mathbf{V}[X]}{t^2},$$

and plugging in t = 25 gives an upper bound of  $25/25^2 = 1/25 =$ **0.04**, much better than what we obtained by Markov's inequality.

Consider 100 independent coin flips. We wish to find an upper bound on the probability that the number of heads is greater or equal than 75.

■ Markov's inequality: **E**[X] = 100/2 = 50.

$$P[X \ge 3/2 \cdot E[X]] \le 2/3 = 0.666.$$

• Chebyshev's inequality:  $V[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{100} V[X_i] = 100 \cdot (1/2)^2 = 25$ .

$$\mathbf{P}[|X-\mu| \geq t] \leq \frac{\mathbf{V}[X]}{t^2},$$

and plugging in t = 25 gives an upper bound of  $25/25^2 = 1/25 = 0.04$ , much better than what we obtained by Markov's inequality.

■ The Chernoff bound: with  $\delta = 1/2$  gives:

$$P[X \ge 3/2 \cdot E[X]] \le \left(\frac{e^{1/2}}{(3/2)^{3/2}}\right)^{50} = 0.004472.$$

Consider 100 independent coin flips. We wish to find an upper bound on the probability that the number of heads is greater or equal than 75.

■ Markov's inequality: **E**[X] = 100/2 = 50.

$$P[X \ge 3/2 \cdot E[X]] \le 2/3 = 0.666.$$

• Chebyshev's inequality:  $V[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{100} V[X_i] = 100 \cdot (1/2)^2 = 25$ .

$$\mathbf{P}[|X-\mu| \geq t] \leq \frac{\mathbf{V}[X]}{t^2},$$

and plugging in t = 25 gives an upper bound of  $25/25^2 = 1/25 = 0.04$ , much better than what we obtained by Markov's inequality.

■ The Chernoff bound: with  $\delta = 1/2$  gives:

$$P[X \ge 3/2 \cdot E[X]] \le \left(\frac{e^{1/2}}{(3/2)^{3/2}}\right)^{50} = 0.004472.$$

Remark: The exact probability is 0.00000028 ...

Consider 100 independent coin flips. We wish to find an upper bound on the probability that the number of heads is greater or equal than 75.

■ Markov's inequality: **E**[X] = 100/2 = 50.

$$P[X \ge 3/2 \cdot E[X]] \le 2/3 = 0.666.$$

• Chebyshev's inequality:  $V[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{100} V[X_i] = 100 \cdot (1/2)^2 = 25$ .

$$\mathbf{P}[|X-\mu| \geq t] \leq \frac{\mathbf{V}[X]}{t^2},$$

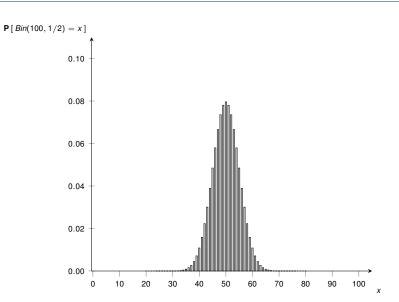
and plugging in t = 25 gives an upper bound of  $25/25^2 = 1/25 = 0.04$ , much better than what we obtained by Markov's inequality.

• The Chernoff bound: with  $\delta = 1/2$  gives:

$$P[X \ge 3/2 \cdot E[X]] \le \left(\frac{e^{1/2}}{(3/2)^{3/2}}\right)^{50} = 0.004472.$$

■ Remark: The exact probability is 0.00000028 ...

Chernoff bound yields a much better result (but needs independence!)



#### **Outline**

Introduction to Chernoff Bounds

#### How to Derive Chernoff Bounds

Application 1: Balls into Bins

Application 2: Randomised QuickSort

Extensions of Chernoff Bounds

Applications of Method of Bounded Differences

**Appendix** 

Recipe -

The three main steps in deriving Chernoff bounds for sums of independent random variables  $X = X_1 + \cdots + X_n$  are:

Recipe

The three main steps in deriving Chernoff bounds for sums of independent random variables  $X = X_1 + \cdots + X_n$  are:

1. Instead of working with X, we switch to the **moment generating** function  $e^{\lambda X}$ ,  $\lambda > 0$  and apply Markov's inequality  $\rightarrow \mathbf{E} \left[ e^{\lambda X} \right]$ 

Recipe

The three main steps in deriving Chernoff bounds for sums of independent random variables  $X = X_1 + \cdots + X_n$  are:

- 1. Instead of working with X, we switch to the **moment generating** function  $e^{\lambda X}$ ,  $\lambda > 0$  and apply Markov's inequality  $\sim \mathbf{E} \left[ e^{\lambda X} \right]$
- 2. Compute an upper bound for  $\mathbf{E} \left[ e^{\lambda X} \right]$  (using independence)

Recipe

The three main steps in deriving Chernoff bounds for sums of independent random variables  $X = X_1 + \cdots + X_n$  are:

- 1. Instead of working with X, we switch to the **moment generating** function  $e^{\lambda X}$ ,  $\lambda > 0$  and apply Markov's inequality  $\sim \mathbf{E} \left[ e^{\lambda X} \right]$
- 2. Compute an upper bound for  $\mathbf{E} \left[ e^{\lambda X} \right]$  (using independence)
- 3. Optimise value of  $\lambda$  to obtain best tail bound

Chernoff Bound (General Form, Upper Tail) -

Suppose  $X_1,\ldots,X_n$  are independent Bernoulli random variables with parameter  $p_i$ . Let  $X=X_1+\ldots+X_n$  and  $\mu=\mathbf{E}\left[X\right]=\sum_{i=1}^n p_i$ . Then, for any  $\delta>0$  it holds that

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge (1+\delta)\mu] \le \left[\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{(1+\delta)}}\right]^{\mu}.$$

Proof:

Chernoff Bound (General Form, Upper Tail) -

Suppose  $X_1,\ldots,X_n$  are independent Bernoulli random variables with parameter  $p_i$ . Let  $X=X_1+\ldots+X_n$  and  $\mu=\mathbf{E}\left[X\right]=\sum_{i=1}^n p_i$ . Then, for any  $\delta>0$  it holds that

$$\mathbf{P}[X \geq (1+\delta)\mu] \leq \left[\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{(1+\delta)}}\right]^{\mu}.$$

#### Proof:

1. For  $\lambda > 0$ ,

$$\mathbf{P}\left[\,X \geq (1+\delta)\mu\,\right] \underset{e^{\lambda X} \text{ is incr}}{\leq} \mathbf{P}\left[\,e^{\lambda X} \geq e^{\lambda(1+\delta)\mu}\,\right] \underset{\mathsf{Markov}}{\leq} e^{-\lambda(1+\delta)\mu} \mathbf{E}\left[\,e^{\lambda X}\,\right]$$

Chernoff Bound (General Form, Upper Tail) -

Suppose  $X_1,\ldots,X_n$  are independent Bernoulli random variables with parameter  $p_i$ . Let  $X=X_1+\ldots+X_n$  and  $\mu=\mathbf{E}\left[X\right]=\sum_{i=1}^n p_i$ . Then, for any  $\delta>0$  it holds that

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge (1+\delta)\mu] \le \left[\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{(1+\delta)}}\right]^{\mu}.$$

### Proof:

1. For  $\lambda > 0$ .

$$\mathbf{P}\left[\,X \geq (1+\delta)\mu\,\right] \underset{e^{\lambda X} \text{ is incr}}{\leq} \mathbf{P}\left[\,e^{\lambda X} \geq e^{\lambda(1+\delta)\mu}\,\right] \underset{\mathsf{Markov}}{\leq} e^{-\lambda(1+\delta)\mu} \mathbf{E}\left[\,e^{\lambda X}\,\right]$$

2. 
$$\mathbf{E}\left[\mathbf{e}^{\lambda X}\right] = \mathbf{E}\left[\mathbf{e}^{\lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}}\right] \underset{\text{indep}}{=} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{E}\left[\mathbf{e}^{\lambda X_{i}}\right]$$

Chernoff Bound (General Form, Upper Tail) -

Suppose  $X_1,\ldots,X_n$  are independent Bernoulli random variables with parameter  $p_i$ . Let  $X=X_1+\ldots+X_n$  and  $\mu=\mathbf{E}\left[X\right]=\sum_{i=1}^np_i$ . Then, for any  $\delta>0$  it holds that

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge (1+\delta)\mu] \le \left[\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{(1+\delta)}}\right]^{\mu}.$$

### Proof:

1. For  $\lambda > 0$ ,

$$\mathbf{P}\left[\,X \geq (1+\delta)\mu\,\right] \underset{e^{\lambda X} \text{ is incr}}{\leq} \mathbf{P}\left[\,e^{\lambda X} \geq e^{\lambda(1+\delta)\mu}\,\right] \underset{\mathsf{Markov}}{\leq} e^{-\lambda(1+\delta)\mu} \mathbf{E}\left[\,e^{\lambda X}\,\right]$$

2. 
$$\mathbf{E}\left[e^{\lambda X}\right] = \mathbf{E}\left[e^{\lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i}\right] = \prod_{\substack{i \text{ indep} \\ \text{indep}}} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{E}\left[e^{\lambda X_i}\right]$$

3.

$$\mathbf{E}\left[e^{\lambda X_i}\right] = e^{\lambda} p_i + (1 - p_i) = 1 + p_i(e^{\lambda} - 1) \leq e^{p_i(e^{\lambda} - 1)}$$

1. For  $\lambda > 0$ ,

$$\mathbf{P}\left[\,X \geq (1+\delta)\mu\,\right] \underset{e^{\lambda X} \text{ is incr}}{=} \mathbf{P}\left[\,e^{\lambda X} \geq e^{\lambda(1+\delta)\mu}\,\right] \underset{\mathsf{Markov}}{\leq} e^{-\lambda(1+\delta)\mu} \mathbf{E}\left[\,e^{\lambda X}\,\right]$$

2. 
$$\mathbf{E}\left[\mathbf{e}^{\lambda X}\right] = \mathbf{E}\left[\mathbf{e}^{\lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i}\right] = \prod_{\substack{i \text{indep} \\ \text{indep}}}^{n} \mathbf{E}\left[\mathbf{e}^{\lambda X_i}\right]$$

3.

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\,e^{\lambda X_i}\,\right] = e^{\lambda} p_i + (1-p_i) = 1 + p_i(e^{\lambda}-1) \underset{1+x \leq e^{\chi}}{\leq} e^{p_i(e^{\lambda}-1)}$$

1. For  $\lambda > 0$ ,

$$\mathbf{P}\left[\,X \geq (1+\delta)\mu\,\right] \underset{e^{\lambda X} \text{ is incr}}{=} \mathbf{P}\left[\,e^{\lambda X} \geq e^{\lambda(1+\delta)\mu}\,\right] \underset{\mathsf{Markov}}{\leq} e^{-\lambda(1+\delta)\mu} \mathbf{E}\left[\,e^{\lambda X}\,\right]$$

2. 
$$\mathbf{E}\left[\mathbf{e}^{\lambda X}\right] = \mathbf{E}\left[\mathbf{e}^{\lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i}\right] = \prod_{\substack{i \text{indep} \\ \text{indep}}}^{n} \mathbf{E}\left[\mathbf{e}^{\lambda X_i}\right]$$

3.

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\,e^{\lambda X_i}\,\right] = e^{\lambda} p_i + (1-p_i) = 1 + p_i(e^{\lambda}-1) \underset{1+x \leq e^{x}}{\leq} e^{p_i(e^{\lambda}-1)}$$

4. Putting all together

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge (1+\delta)\mu] \le e^{-\lambda(1+\delta)\mu} \prod_{i=1}^{n} e^{p_i(e^{\lambda}-1)} = e^{-\lambda(1+\delta)\mu} e^{\mu(e^{\lambda}-1)}$$

1. For  $\lambda > 0$ ,

$$\mathbf{P}\left[\,X \geq (1+\delta)\mu\,\right] \underset{e^{\lambda X} \text{ is incr}}{=} \mathbf{P}\left[\,e^{\lambda X} \geq e^{\lambda(1+\delta)\mu}\,\right] \underset{\mathsf{Markov}}{\leq} e^{-\lambda(1+\delta)\mu} \mathbf{E}\left[\,e^{\lambda X}\,\right]$$

2. 
$$\mathbf{E}\left[\mathbf{e}^{\lambda X}\right] = \mathbf{E}\left[\mathbf{e}^{\lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i}\right] = \prod_{\substack{i \text{ index} \\ \text{index}}} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{E}\left[\mathbf{e}^{\lambda X_i}\right]$$

3.

$$\mathbf{E}\left[e^{\lambda X_i}\right] = e^{\lambda} p_i + (1 - p_i) = 1 + p_i(e^{\lambda} - 1) \leq e^{\lambda p_i(e^{\lambda} - 1)}$$

4. Putting all together

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge (1+\delta)\mu] \le e^{-\lambda(1+\delta)\mu} \prod_{i=1}^n e^{p_i(e^{\lambda}-1)} = e^{-\lambda(1+\delta)\mu} e^{\mu(e^{\lambda}-1)}$$

5. Choose  $\lambda = \log(1 + \delta) > 0$  to get the result.

### **Chernoff Bounds: Lower Tails**

We can also use Chernoff Bounds to show a random variable is **not too** small compared to its mean:

Chernoff Bounds (General Form, Lower Tail) —

Suppose  $X_1,\ldots,X_n$  are independent Bernoulli random variables with parameter  $p_i$ . Let  $X=X_1+\ldots+X_n$  and  $\mu=\mathbf{E}[X]=\sum p_i$ . Then, for any  $\delta>0$  it holds that

$$\mathbf{P}[X \leq (1-\delta)\mu] \leq \left[\frac{e^{-\delta}}{(1-\delta)^{1-\delta}}\right]^{\mu},$$

and thus, by substitution, for any  $t < \mu$ ,

$$\mathbf{P}[X \leq t] \leq e^{-\mu} \left(\frac{e\mu}{t}\right)^t.$$

### **Exercise on Supervision Sheet**

Hint: multiply both sides by -1 and repeat the proof of the Chernoff Bound



Suppose  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  are independent Bernoulli random variables with parameter  $p_i$ . Let  $X = X_1 + \ldots + X_n$  and  $\mu = \mathbf{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i$ . Then,

"Nicer" Chernoff Bounds -

Suppose  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  are independent Bernoulli random variables with parameter  $p_i$ . Let  $X = X_1 + \ldots + X_n$  and  $\mu = \mathbf{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i$ . Then,

• For all t > 0,

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge \mathbf{E}[X] + t] \le e^{-2t^2/n}$$

$$\mathbf{P}[X \leq \mathbf{E}[X] - t] \leq e^{-2t^2/n}$$

"Nicer" Chernoff Bounds

Suppose  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  are independent Bernoulli random variables with parameter  $p_i$ . Let  $X = X_1 + \ldots + X_n$  and  $\mu = \mathbf{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i$ . Then,

• For all t > 0,

$$P[X \ge E[X] + t] \le e^{-2t^2/n}$$
  
 $P[X \le E[X] - t] \le e^{-2t^2/n}$ 

• For  $0 < \delta < 1$ .

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge (1+\delta)\mathbf{E}[X]] \le \exp\left(-\frac{\delta^2\mathbf{E}[X]}{3}\right)$$

$$\mathbf{P}[X \le (1 - \delta)\mathbf{E}[X]] \le \exp\left(-\frac{\delta^2\mathbf{E}[X]}{2}\right)$$

"Nicer" Chernoff Bounds

Suppose  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  are independent Bernoulli random variables with parameter  $p_i$ . Let  $X = X_1 + \ldots + X_n$  and  $\mu = \mathbf{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i$ . Then,

For all *t* > 0,

$$P[X \ge E[X] + t] \le e^{-2t^2/n}$$
  
 $P[X \le E[X] - t] \le e^{-2t^2/n}$ 

• For  $0 < \delta < 1$ ,

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge (1+\delta)\mathbf{E}[X]] \le \exp\left(-\frac{\delta^2\mathbf{E}[X]}{3}\right)$$

$$\mathbf{P}[X \le (1 - \delta)\mathbf{E}[X]] \le \exp\left(-\frac{\delta^2\mathbf{E}[X]}{2}\right)$$

All upper tail bounds hold even under a relaxed independence assumption: For all  $1 \le i \le n$  and  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{i-1} \in \{0, 1\}$ ,

$$P[X_i = 1 \mid X_1 = X_1, \dots, X_{i-1} = X_{i-1}] \le p_i.$$

#### **Outline**

Introduction to Chernoff Bounds

How to Derive Chernoff Bounds

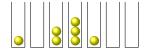
Application 1: Balls into Bins

Application 2: Randomised QuickSort

Extensions of Chernoff Bounds

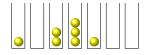
Applications of Method of Bounded Differences

**Appendix** 



Balls into Bins Model -

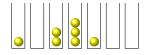
You have m balls and n bins. Each ball is allocated in a bin picked independently and uniformly at random.



Balls into Bins Model -

You have m balls and n bins. Each ball is allocated in a bin picked independently and uniformly at random.

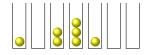
A very natural but also rich mathematical model



Balls into Bins Model

You have m balls and n bins. Each ball is allocated in a bin picked independently and uniformly at random.

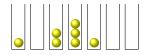
- A very natural but also rich mathematical model
- In computer science, there are several interpretations:



Balls into Bins Model

You have m balls and n bins. Each ball is allocated in a bin picked independently and uniformly at random.

- A very natural but also rich mathematical model
- In computer science, there are several interpretations:
  - 1. Bins are a hash table, balls are items
  - 2. Bins are processors and balls are jobs
  - 3. Bins are data servers and balls are queries



Balls into Bins Model

You have m balls and n bins. Each ball is allocated in a bin picked independently and uniformly at random.

- A very natural but also rich mathematical model
- In computer science, there are several interpretations:
  - 1. Bins are a hash table, balls are items
  - 2. Bins are processors and balls are jobs
  - 3. Bins are data servers and balls are queries



**Exercise:** Think about the relation between the Balls into Bins Model and the Coupon Collector Problem.



Balls into Bins Model -

You have m balls and n bins. Each ball is allocated in a bin picked independently and uniformly at random.



Balls into Bins Model -

You have m balls and n bins. Each ball is allocated in a bin picked independently and uniformly at random.

**Question 1:** How large is the maximum load if  $m = 2n \log n$ ?



- Balls into Bins Model -

You have m balls and n bins. Each ball is allocated in a bin picked independently and uniformly at random.

**Question 1:** How large is the maximum load if  $m = 2n \log n$ ?

• Focus on an arbitrary single bin. Let  $X_i$  the indicator variable which is 1 iff ball i is assigned to this bin. Note that  $p_i = \mathbf{P}[X_i = 1] = 1/n$ .



- Balls into Bins Model -

You have m balls and n bins. Each ball is allocated in a bin picked independently and uniformly at random.

**Question 1:** How large is the maximum load if  $m = 2n \log n$ ?

- Focus on an arbitrary single bin. Let  $X_i$  the indicator variable which is 1 iff ball i is assigned to this bin. Note that  $p_i = \mathbf{P}[X_i = 1] = 1/n$ .
- The total balls in the bin is given by  $X := \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$ .



Balls into Bins Model -

You have m balls and n bins. Each ball is allocated in a bin picked independently and uniformly at random.

**Question 1:** How large is the maximum load if  $m = 2n \log n$ ?

- Focus on an arbitrary single bin. Let  $X_i$  the indicator variable which is 1 iff ball i is assigned to this bin. Note that  $p_i = \mathbf{P}[X_i = 1] = 1/n$ .
- The total balls in the bin is given by  $X := \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$ .
- Since  $m = 2n \log n$ , then  $\mu = \mathbf{E}[X] = 2 \log n$



- Balls into Bins Model -

You have m balls and n bins. Each ball is allocated in a bin picked independently and uniformly at random.

## **Question 1:** How large is the maximum load if $m = 2n \log n$ ?

- Focus on an arbitrary single bin. Let  $X_i$  the indicator variable which is 1 iff ball i is assigned to this bin. Note that  $p_i = \mathbf{P}[X_i = 1] = 1/n$ .
- The total balls in the bin is given by  $X := \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$ .
- Since  $m = 2n \log n$ , then  $\mu = \mathbf{E}[X] = 2 \log n$

By the Chernoff Bound,

$$P[X \ge 6 \log n] \le e^{-2 \log n} \left(\frac{2e \log n}{6 \log n}\right)^{6 \log n} \le e^{-2 \log n} = n^{-2}$$



Balls into Bins Model -

You have m balls and n bins. Each ball is allocated in a bin picked independently and uniformly at random.

## **Question 1:** How large is the maximum load if $m = 2n \log n$ ?

- Focus on an arbitrary single bin. Let  $X_i$  the indicator variable which is 1 iff ball i is assigned to this bin. Note that  $p_i = \mathbf{P}[X_i = 1] = 1/n$ .
- The total balls in the bin is given by  $X := \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$ . here we could have used

the "nicer" bounds as well!

• Since  $m = 2n \log n$ , then  $\mu = \mathbf{E}[X] = 2 \log n$ 

$$\mathbf{P}[X \geq t] \leq e^{-\mu} (e\mu/t)^t$$

By the Chernoff Bound,

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge 6\log n] \le e^{-2\log n} \left(\frac{2e\log n}{6\log n}\right)^{6\log n} \le e^{-2\log n} = n^{-2}$$

• Let  $\mathcal{E}_j := \{X(j) \ge 6 \log n\}$ , that is, bin j receives at least  $6 \log n$  balls.

- Let  $\mathcal{E}_j := \{X(j) \ge 6 \log n\}$ , that is, bin j receives at least  $6 \log n$  balls.
- We are interested in the probability that at least one bin receives at least  $6 \log n$  balls  $\Rightarrow$  this is the event  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{E}_{i}$

- Let  $\mathcal{E}_j := \{X(j) \ge 6 \log n\}$ , that is, bin j receives at least  $6 \log n$  balls.
- We are interested in the probability that at least one bin receives at least 6 log n balls  $\Rightarrow$  this is the event  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{E}_{i}$
- By the Union Bound,

$$\mathbf{P}\left[\bigcup_{j=1}^n \mathcal{E}_j\right] \leq \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{P}\left[\mathcal{E}_j\right] \leq n \cdot n^{-2} = n^{-1}.$$

- Let  $\mathcal{E}_j := \{X(j) \ge 6 \log n\}$ , that is, bin j receives at least  $6 \log n$  balls.
- We are interested in the probability that at least one bin receives at least 6 log n balls  $\Rightarrow$  this is the event  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{E}_{i}$
- By the Union Bound,

$$\mathbf{P}\left[\bigcup_{j=1}^{n} \mathcal{E}_{j}\right] \leq \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbf{P}\left[\mathcal{E}_{j}\right] \leq n \cdot n^{-2} = n^{-1}.$$

■ Therefore whp, no bin receives at least 6 log n balls

- Let  $\mathcal{E}_j := \{X(j) \ge 6 \log n\}$ , that is, bin j receives at least  $6 \log n$  balls.
- We are interested in the probability that at least one bin receives at least 6 log n balls  $\Rightarrow$  this is the event  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{E}_{i}$
- By the Union Bound,

$$\mathbf{P}\left[\bigcup_{j=1}^{n} \mathcal{E}_{j}\right] \leq \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbf{P}\left[\mathcal{E}_{j}\right] \leq n \cdot n^{-2} = n^{-1}.$$

■ Therefore whp, no bin receives at least 6 log n balls

whp stands for with high probability:

An event  $\mathcal{E}$  (that implicitly depends on an input parameter n) occurs whp if  $\mathbf{P}[\mathcal{E}] \to 1$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

This is a very standard notation in randomised algorithms but it may vary from author to author. Be careful!

- Let  $\mathcal{E}_j := \{X(j) \ge 6 \log n\}$ , that is, bin j receives at least  $6 \log n$  balls.
- We are interested in the probability that at least one bin receives at least 6 log n balls  $\Rightarrow$  this is the event  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{E}_{i}$
- By the Union Bound,

$$\mathbf{P}\left[\bigcup_{j=1}^{n} \mathcal{E}_{j}\right] \leq \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbf{P}\left[\mathcal{E}_{j}\right] \leq n \cdot n^{-2} = n^{-1}.$$

- Therefore whp, no bin receives at least 6 log n balls
- By pigeonhole principle, the max loaded bin receives at least 2 log n balls.
   Hence our bound is pretty sharp.

whp stands for with high probability:

An event  $\mathcal{E}$  (that implicitly depends on an input parameter n) occurs whp if  $\mathbf{P}[\mathcal{E}] \to 1$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

This is a very standard notation in randomised algorithms but it may vary from author to author. Be careful!

**Question 2:** How large is the maximum load if m = n?

**Question 2:** How large is the maximum load if m = n?

Using the Chernoff Bound:

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge t] \le e^{-\mu} (e\mu/t)^t$$

**Question 2:** How large is the maximum load if m = n?

Using the Chernoff Bound:

$$\mathbf{P}[X \geq t] \leq e^{-\mu} (e\mu/t)^t$$

■ By setting  $t = 4 \log n / \log \log n$ , we claim to obtain  $P[X \ge t] \le n^{-2}$ .

**Question 2:** How large is the maximum load if m = n?

$$\mathbf{P}[X \geq t] \leq e^{-\mu} (e\mu/t)^t$$

- By setting  $t = 4 \log n / \log \log n$ , we claim to obtain  $P[X \ge t] \le n^{-2}$ .
- Indeed:

$$\left(\frac{e\log\log n}{4\log n}\right)^{4\log n/\log\log n} = \exp\left(\frac{4\log n}{\log\log n} \cdot \log\left(\frac{e\log\log n}{4\log n}\right)\right)$$

# **Question 2:** How large is the maximum load if m = n?

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge t] \le e^{-\mu} (e\mu/t)^t$$

- By setting  $t = 4 \log n / \log \log n$ , we claim to obtain  $P[X > t] < n^{-2}$ .
- Indeed:

$$\left(\frac{e\log\log n}{4\log n}\right)^{4\log n/\log\log n} = \exp\left(\frac{4\log n}{\log\log n} \cdot \log\left(\frac{e\log\log n}{4\log n}\right)\right)$$

The term inside the exponential is

$$\frac{4\log n}{\log\log n} \cdot (\log(4/e) + \log\log\log n - \log\log n)$$

**Question 2:** How large is the maximum load if m = n?

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge t] \le e^{-\mu} (e\mu/t)^t$$

• Using the Chernoff Bound: 
$$\boxed{ \mathbf{P}[X \geq t] \leq e^{-\mu} (\theta \mu/t)^t }$$
 
$$\mathbf{P}[X \geq t] \leq e^{-1} \left(\frac{e}{t}\right)^t \leq \left(\frac{e}{t}\right)^t$$

- By setting  $t = 4 \log n / \log \log n$ , we claim to obtain  $P[X > t] < n^{-2}$ .
- Indeed:

$$\left(\frac{e\log\log n}{4\log n}\right)^{4\log n/\log\log n} = \exp\left(\frac{4\log n}{\log\log n} \cdot \log\left(\frac{e\log\log n}{4\log n}\right)\right)$$

The term inside the exponential is

$$\frac{4\log n}{\log\log n} \cdot (\log(4/e) + \log\log\log n - \log\log n) \le \frac{4\log n}{\log\log n} \left( -\frac{1}{2}\log\log n \right),$$

This inequality only works for large enough n.

**Question 2:** How large is the maximum load if m = n?

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge t] \le e^{-\mu} (e\mu/t)^t$$

- By setting  $t = 4 \log n / \log \log n$ , we claim to obtain  $P[X \ge t] \le n^{-2}$ .
- Indeed:

$$\left(\frac{e\log\log n}{4\log n}\right)^{4\log n/\log\log n} = \exp\left(\frac{4\log n}{\log\log n} \cdot \log\left(\frac{e\log\log n}{4\log n}\right)\right)$$

The term inside the exponential is

$$\frac{4\log n}{\log\log n}\cdot (\log(4/e) + \log\log\log n - \log\log n) \le \frac{4\log n}{\log\log n} \left(-\frac{1}{2}\log\log n\right),$$

obtaining that  $\mathbf{P}[X \ge t] \le n^{-4/2} = n^{-2}$ . This inequality only works for large enough n.

We just proved that

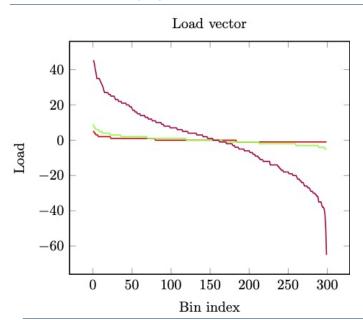
$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge 4 \log n / \log \log n] \le n^{-2},$$

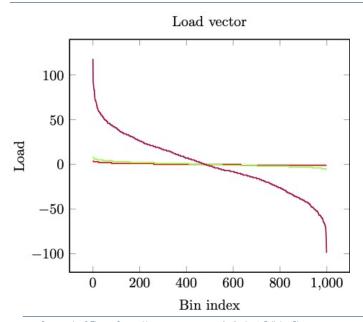
thus by the Union Bound, no bin receives more than  $\Omega(\log n/\log\log n)$  balls with probability at least 1-1/n.

### **Simulations**

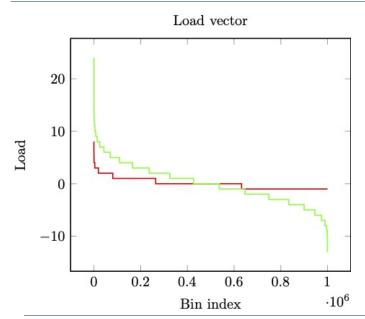
- We plot the load configuration for  $m \in \{n, n \log n, n^2\}$
- We consider  $n \in \{300, 1000, 100000\}$
- In plots, we take the normalised load, that is, actual bin load minus average load

Acknowledgements: experiments and plots created by Dimitris Los





# Balls-into-Bins Plot (3/3) (only $m \in \{n, n \log n\}$ )



• If the number of balls is  $2 \log n$  times n (the number of bins), then to distribute balls at random is a good algorithm

- If the number of balls is  $2 \log n$  times n (the number of bins), then to distribute balls at random is a good algorithm
  - This is because the worst case maximum load is whp.  $6 \log n$ , while the average load is  $2 \log n$

- If the number of balls is 2 log n times n (the number of bins), then to distribute balls at random is a good algorithm
  - This is because the worst case maximum load is whp. 6 log n, while the average load is 2 log n
- For the case m = n, the algorithm is not good, since the maximum load is whp.  $\Theta(\log n/\log \log n)$ , while the average load is 1.

- If the number of balls is 2 log n times n (the number of bins), then to distribute balls at random is a good algorithm
  - This is because the worst case maximum load is whp.  $6 \log n$ , while the average load is  $2 \log n$
- For the case m = n, the algorithm is not good, since the maximum load is whp.  $\Theta(\log n/\log\log n)$ , while the average load is 1.

### A Better Load Balancing Approach

For any  $m \ge n$ , we can improve the balls into bin process by sampling two bins in each step, then assigning the ball into the bin with lesser load.

- If the number of balls is 2 log n times n (the number of bins), then to distribute balls at random is a good algorithm
  - This is because the worst case maximum load is whp. 6 log n, while the average load is 2 log n
- For the case m = n, the algorithm is not good, since the maximum load is whp.  $\Theta(\log n / \log \log n)$ , while the average load is 1.

### A Better Load Balancing Approach

For any  $m \ge n$ , we can improve the balls into bin process by sampling two bins in each step, then assigning the ball into the bin with lesser load.  $\Rightarrow$  gives a (normalised) maximum load  $\Theta(\log \log n)$  w.p. 1 - 1/n.

- If the number of balls is 2 log n times n (the number of bins), then to distribute balls at random is a good algorithm
  - This is because the worst case maximum load is whp.  $6 \log n$ , while the average load is  $2 \log n$
- For the case m = n, the algorithm is not good, since the maximum load is whp.  $\Theta(\log n/\log\log n)$ , while the average load is 1.

### A Better Load Balancing Approach

For any  $m \ge n$ , we can improve the balls into bin process by sampling two bins in each step, then assigning the ball into the bin with lesser load.  $\Rightarrow$  gives a (normalised) maximum load  $\Theta(\log \log n)$  w.p. 1 - 1/n.

This is called the **power of two choices**: It is a common technique to improve the performance of randomised algorithms.

### **Outline**

Introduction to Chernoff Bounds

How to Derive Chernoff Bounds

Application 1: Balls into Bins

Application 2: Randomised QuickSort

Extensions of Chernoff Bounds

Applications of Method of Bounded Differences

**Appendix** 

```
QUICKSORT (Input A[1], A[2], \ldots, A[n])
 1: Pick an element from the array, the so-called pivot
 2: If |A| = 0 or |A| = 1 then
        return A
3.
4: else
 5.
        Create two subarrays A_1 and A_2 (without the pivot) such that:
6:
           A_1 contains the elements that are smaller than the pivot
            A<sub>2</sub> contains the elements that are greater (or equal) than the pivot
7:
        QUICKSORT(A_1)
8.
        QUICKSORT(A2)
9:
        return A
10.
```

```
QUICKSORT (Input A[1], A[2], \ldots, A[n])
 1: Pick an element from the array, the so-called pivot
 2: If |A| = 0 or |A| = 1 then
        return A
3.
4: else
 5.
        Create two subarrays A_1 and A_2 (without the pivot) such that:
6:
           A_1 contains the elements that are smaller than the pivot
            A<sub>2</sub> contains the elements that are greater (or equal) than the pivot
7:
        QUICKSORT(A_1)
8.
        QUICKSORT(A2)
9:
        return A
10.
```

• Example: Let A = (2, 8, 9, 1, 7, 5, 6, 3, 4) with A[7] = 6 as pivot.

```
QUICKSORT (Input A[1], A[2], \ldots, A[n])
1: Pick an element from the array, the so-called pivot
2: If |A| = 0 or |A| = 1 then
        return A
3.
4: else
        Create two subarrays A_1 and A_2 (without the pivot) such that:
5.
6:
           A_1 contains the elements that are smaller than the pivot
7:
           A_2 contains the elements that are greater (or equal) than the pivot
        QUICKSORT(A_1)
8.
        QUICKSORT(A2)
9:
        return A
10.
 • Example: Let A = (2, 8, 9, 1, 7, 5, 6, 3, 4) with A[7] = 6 as pivot.
```

 $\Rightarrow A_1 = (2, 1, 5, 3, 4) \text{ and } A_2 = (8, 9, 7)$ 

```
QUICKSORT (Input A[1], A[2], \ldots, A[n])
1: Pick an element from the array, the so-called pivot
2: If |A| = 0 or |A| = 1 then
        return A
3.
4: else
        Create two subarrays A_1 and A_2 (without the pivot) such that:
5.
6:
           A_1 contains the elements that are smaller than the pivot
7:
           A_2 contains the elements that are greater (or equal) than the pivot
        QUICKSORT(A_1)
8.
        QUICKSORT(A2)
9:
        return A
10.
```

- Example: Let A = (2, 8, 9, 1, 7, 5, 6, 3, 4) with A[7] = 6 as pivot.  $\Rightarrow A_1 = (2, 1, 5, 3, 4)$  and  $A_2 = (8, 9, 7)$
- Worst-Case Complexity (number of comparisons) is  $\Theta(n^2)$ ,

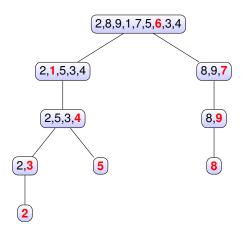
```
QUICKSORT (Input A[1], A[2], \ldots, A[n])
 1: Pick an element from the array, the so-called pivot
 2: If |A| = 0 or |A| = 1 then
        return A
3.
4: else
        Create two subarrays A_1 and A_2 (without the pivot) such that:
 5.
6:
           A_1 contains the elements that are smaller than the pivot
            A<sub>2</sub> contains the elements that are greater (or equal) than the pivot
 7:
        QUICKSORT(A_1)
8.
        QUICKSORT(A2)
9:
        return A
10.
```

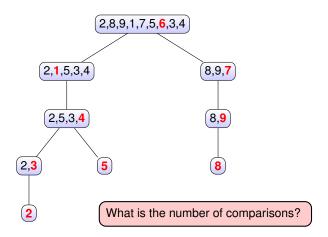
- Example: Let A = (2, 8, 9, 1, 7, 5, 6, 3, 4) with A[7] = 6 as pivot.  $\Rightarrow A_1 = (2, 1, 5, 3, 4)$  and  $A_2 = (8, 9, 7)$
- Worst-Case Complexity (number of comparisons) is  $\Theta(n^2)$ , while Average-Case Complexity is  $O(n \log n)$ .

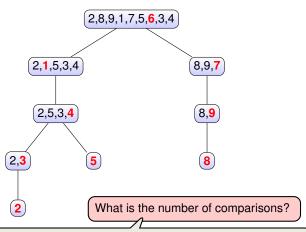
```
QUICKSORT (Input A[1], A[2], \ldots, A[n])
1: Pick an element from the array, the so-called pivot
2: If |A| = 0 or |A| = 1 then
        return A
3.
4: else
        Create two subarrays A_1 and A_2 (without the pivot) such that:
5.
6:
           A_1 contains the elements that are smaller than the pivot
7:
           A_2 contains the elements that are greater (or equal) than the pivot
        QUICKSORT(A_1)
8.
        QUICKSORT(A2)
9:
        return A
10.
```

- Example: Let A = (2, 8, 9, 1, 7, 5, 6, 3, 4) with A[7] = 6 as pivot.  $\Rightarrow A_1 = (2, 1, 5, 3, 4)$  and  $A_2 = (8, 9, 7)$
- Worst-Case Complexity (number of comparisons) is  $\Theta(n^2)$ , while Average-Case Complexity is  $O(n \log n)$ .

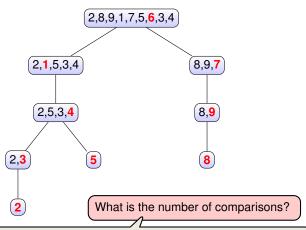
We will now give a proof of this "well-known" result!







Note that the number of comparison by QUICKSORT is equivalent to the sum of the height of all nodes in the tree (why?).



Note that the number of comparison by QUICKSORT is equivalent to the sum of the height of all nodes in the tree (why?). In this case:

$$0+1+1+2+2+3+3+3+4=19.$$

How to pick a good pivot? We don't, just pick one at random.

How to pick a good pivot? We don't, just pick one at random.

This should be your standard answer in this course ©

How to pick a good pivot? We don't, just pick one at random.

This should be your standard answer in this course  $\ensuremath{\texttt{\odot}}$ 

Let us analyse QUICKSORT with random pivots.

How to pick a good pivot? We don't, just pick one at random.

This should be your standard answer in this course ©

Let us analyse QUICKSORT with random pivots.

1. Assume *A* consists of *n* different numbers, w.l.o.g., {1, 2, ..., n}

How to pick a good pivot? We don't, just pick one at random.

This should be your standard answer in this course ©

Let us analyse QUICKSORT with random pivots.

- 1. Assume *A* consists of *n* different numbers, w.l.o.g., {1, 2, ..., n}
- 2. Let  $H_i$  be the deepest level where element i appears in the tree. Then the number of comparison is  $H = \sum_{i=1}^{n} H_i$

How to pick a good pivot? We don't, just pick one at random.

This should be your standard answer in this course ©

Let us analyse QUICKSORT with random pivots.

- 1. Assume A consists of n different numbers, w.l.o.g.,  $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$
- 2. Let  $H_i$  be the deepest level where element i appears in the tree. Then the number of comparison is  $H = \sum_{i=1}^{n} H_i$
- 3. We will prove that exists C > 0 such that

$$\mathbf{P}[H \le C n \log n] \ge 1 - n^{-1}.$$

How to pick a good pivot? We don't, just pick one at random.

This should be your standard answer in this course ©

Let us analyse QUICKSORT with random pivots.

- 1. Assume A consists of n different numbers, w.l.o.g.,  $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$
- 2. Let  $H_i$  be the deepest level where element i appears in the tree. Then the number of comparison is  $H = \sum_{i=1}^{n} H_i$
- 3. We will prove that exists C > 0 such that

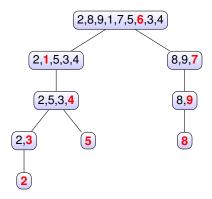
$$\mathbf{P}\left[H \leq C n \log n\right] \geq 1 - n^{-1}.$$

4. Actually, we will prove sth slightly stronger:

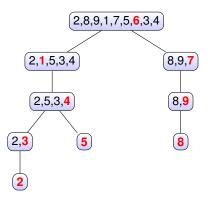
$$\mathbf{P}\left[\bigcap_{i=1}^n \{H_i \leq C \log n\}\right] \geq 1 - n^{-1}.$$

Let P be a path from the root to the deepest level of some element

Let P be a path from the root to the deepest level of some element

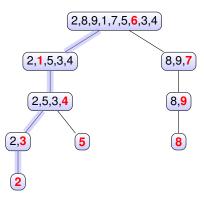


Let P be a path from the root to the deepest level of some element

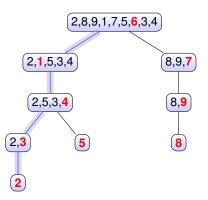


■ Element 2:  $(2,8,9,1,7,5,6,3,4) \rightarrow (2,1,5,3,4) \rightarrow (2,5,3,4) \rightarrow (2,3) \rightarrow (2)$ 

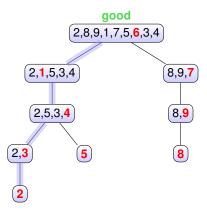
Let P be a path from the root to the deepest level of some element



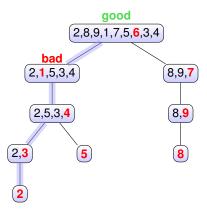
- Let P be a path from the root to the deepest level of some element
  - A node in P is called good if the corresponding pivot partitions the array into two subarrays each of size at most 2/3 of the previous one
  - otherwise, the node is bad



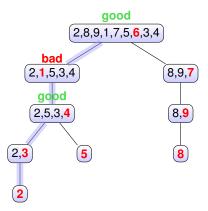
- Let P be a path from the root to the deepest level of some element
  - A node in P is called good if the corresponding pivot partitions the array into two subarrays each of size at most 2/3 of the previous one
  - otherwise, the node is bad



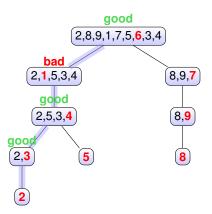
- Let P be a path from the root to the deepest level of some element
  - A node in P is called good if the corresponding pivot partitions the array into two subarrays each of size at most 2/3 of the previous one
  - otherwise, the node is bad



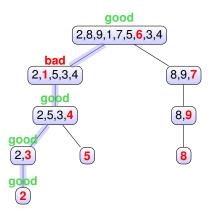
- Let P be a path from the root to the deepest level of some element
  - A node in P is called good if the corresponding pivot partitions the array into two subarrays each of size at most 2/3 of the previous one
  - otherwise, the node is bad



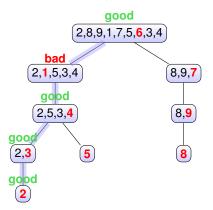
- Let P be a path from the root to the deepest level of some element
  - A node in P is called good if the corresponding pivot partitions the array into two subarrays each of size at most 2/3 of the previous one
  - otherwise, the node is bad



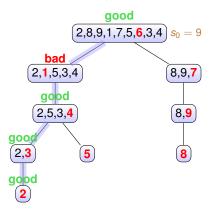
- Let P be a path from the root to the deepest level of some element
  - A node in P is called good if the corresponding pivot partitions the array into two subarrays each of size at most 2/3 of the previous one
  - otherwise, the node is bad



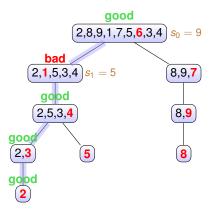
- Let P be a path from the root to the deepest level of some element
  - A node in P is called good if the corresponding pivot partitions the array into two subarrays each of size at most 2/3 of the previous one
  - otherwise, the node is bad
- Further let  $s_t$  be the size of the array at level t in P.



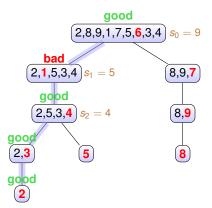
- Let P be a path from the root to the deepest level of some element
  - A node in P is called good if the corresponding pivot partitions the array into two subarrays each of size at most 2/3 of the previous one
  - otherwise, the node is bad
- Further let  $s_t$  be the size of the array at level t in P.



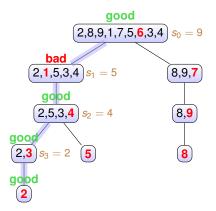
- Let P be a path from the root to the deepest level of some element
  - A node in P is called good if the corresponding pivot partitions the array into two subarrays each of size at most 2/3 of the previous one
  - otherwise, the node is bad
- Further let  $s_t$  be the size of the array at level t in P.



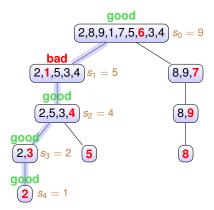
- Let P be a path from the root to the deepest level of some element
  - A node in P is called good if the corresponding pivot partitions the array into two subarrays each of size at most 2/3 of the previous one
  - otherwise, the node is bad
- Further let  $s_t$  be the size of the array at level t in P.



- Let P be a path from the root to the deepest level of some element
  - A node in P is called good if the corresponding pivot partitions the array into two subarrays each of size at most 2/3 of the previous one
  - otherwise, the node is bad
- Further let  $s_t$  be the size of the array at level t in P.



- Let P be a path from the root to the deepest level of some element
  - A node in P is called good if the corresponding pivot partitions the array into two subarrays each of size at most 2/3 of the previous one
  - otherwise, the node is bad
- Further let  $s_t$  be the size of the array at level t in P.



■ Consider now any element  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  and construct the path P = P(i) one level by one

- Consider now any element  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  and construct the path P = P(i) one level by one
- For P to proceed from level k to k + 1, the condition  $s_k > 1$  is necessary

- Consider now any element  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  and construct the path P = P(i) one level by one
- For *P* to proceed from level *k* to k + 1, the condition  $s_k > 1$  is necessary

- Consider now any element  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  and construct the path P = P(i) one level by one
- For *P* to proceed from level *k* to k + 1, the condition  $s_k > 1$  is necessary

How far could such a path P possibly run until we have  $s_k = 1$ ?

• We start with  $s_0 = n$ 

- Consider now any element  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  and construct the path P = P(i) one level by one
- For P to proceed from level k to k + 1, the condition  $s_k > 1$  is necessary

- We start with s<sub>0</sub> = n
- First Case, good node:  $s_{k+1} \leq \frac{2}{3} \cdot s_k$ .

- Consider now any element  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  and construct the path P = P(i) one level by one
- For P to proceed from level k to k + 1, the condition  $s_k > 1$  is necessary

- We start with  $s_0 = n$
- First Case, good node:  $s_{k+1} \leq \frac{2}{3} \cdot s_k$ .
- Second Case, **bad** node:  $s_{k+1} \le s_k$ .

- Consider now any element  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  and construct the path P = P(i) one level by one
- For P to proceed from level k to k + 1, the condition  $s_k > 1$  is necessary

- We start with  $s_0 = n$
- First Case, good node:  $s_{k+1} \leq \frac{2}{3} \cdot s_k$ .
- Second Case, **bad** node:  $s_{k+1} \le s_k$ .
- $\Rightarrow$  There are at most  $T = \frac{\log n}{\log(3/2)} < 3 \log n$  many good nodes on any path P.

- Consider now any element  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  and construct the path P = P(i) one level by one
- For P to proceed from level k to k + 1, the condition  $s_k > 1$  is necessary

- We start with s<sub>0</sub> = n
- First Case, good node:  $s_{k+1} \leq \frac{2}{3} \cdot s_k$ .
- This even holds always, i.e., deterministically!
- Second Case, **bad** node:  $s_{k+1} \le s_k$ .
- $\Rightarrow$  There are at most  $T = \frac{\log n}{\log(3/2)} < 3 \log n$  many good nodes on any path P.

- Consider now any element  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  and construct the path P = P(i) one level by one
- For P to proceed from level k to k + 1, the condition  $s_k > 1$  is necessary

- We start with  $s_0 = n$
- First Case, good node:  $s_{k+1} \leq \frac{2}{3} \cdot s_k$ .
- This even holds always, i.e., deterministically!
- Second Case, **bad** node:  $s_{k+1} \le s_k$ .
- $\Rightarrow$  There are at most  $T = \frac{\log n}{\log(3/2)} < 3 \log n$  many good nodes on any path P.
  - Assume  $|P| \ge C \log n$  for C := 24

- Consider now any element  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  and construct the path P = P(i) one level by one
- For P to proceed from level k to k+1, the condition  $s_k > 1$  is necessary

How far could such a path P possibly run until we have  $s_k = 1$ ?

- We start with s<sub>0</sub> = n
- First Case, good node:  $s_{k+1} \leq \frac{2}{3} \cdot s_k$ .
- Second Case, **bad** node:  $s_{k+1} \le s_k$ .

This even holds always,

i.e., deterministically!

- $\Rightarrow$  There are at most  $T = \frac{\log n}{\log(3/2)} < 3 \log n$  many good nodes on any path P.
  - Assume  $|P| \ge C \log n$  for C := 24
    - $\Rightarrow$  number of **bad** vertices in the first 24 log *n* levels is more than 21 log *n*.

- Consider now any element  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  and construct the path P = P(i) one level by one
- For P to proceed from level k to k + 1, the condition  $s_k > 1$  is necessary

How far could such a path P possibly run until we have  $s_k = 1$ ?

- We start with  $s_0 = n$
- First Case, good node:  $s_{k+1} \leq \frac{2}{3} \cdot s_k$ .
- Second Case, **bad** node:  $s_{k+1} \le s_k$ .

This even holds always,

i.e., deterministically!

- $\Rightarrow$  There are at most  $T = \frac{\log n}{\log(3/2)} < \overline{3} \log n$  many good nodes on any path P.
  - Assume  $|P| \ge C \log n$  for C := 24
    - $\Rightarrow$  number of **bad** vertices in the first 24 log *n* levels is more than 21 log *n*.

Let us now upper bound the probability that this "bad event" happens!

• Consider the first 24 log *n* vertices of *P* to the deepest level of element *i*.

- Consider the first 24 log n vertices of P to the deepest level of element i.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, ..., 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_j$ :

- Consider the first 24 log n vertices of P to the deepest level of element i.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_i$ :

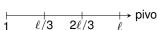
  - X<sub>j</sub> = 1 if the node at level j is bad
     X<sub>i</sub> = 0 if the node at level j is good.

- Consider the first 24 log n vertices of P to the deepest level of element i.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_i$ :

  - X<sub>j</sub> = 1 if the node at level j is bad
    X<sub>j</sub> = 0 if the node at level j is good.
- **P**[ $X_i = 1 \mid X_0 = X_0, ..., X_{i-1} = X_{i-1}$ ]  $\leq \frac{2}{3}$

- Consider the first 24 log n vertices of P to the deepest level of element i.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_i$ :

  - X<sub>j</sub> = 1 if the node at level j is bad
    X<sub>j</sub> = 0 if the node at level j is good.
- **P**[ $X_i = 1 \mid X_0 = X_0, \dots, X_{i-1} = X_{i-1}$ ]  $\leq \frac{2}{3}$



- Consider the first 24 log n vertices of P to the deepest level of element i.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_i$ :

  - X<sub>j</sub> = 1 if the node at level j is bad
     X<sub>i</sub> = 0 if the node at level j is good.

■ **P**[
$$X_j = 1 \mid X_0 = X_0, \dots, X_{j-1} = X_{j-1}$$
]  $\leq \frac{2}{3}$ 



- Consider the first 24 log n vertices of P to the deepest level of element i.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_i$ :

■ 
$$X_j = 1$$
 if the node at level  $j$  is **bad**
■  $X_j = 0$  if the node at level  $j$  is good.

■  $\mathbf{P}[X_i = 1 \mid X_0 = x_0, \dots, X_{i-1} = x_{i-1}] \le \frac{2}{2}$ 

bad good bad
1  $\ell/3$   $2\ell/3$   $\ell$  pivo

•  $X := \sum_{i=0}^{24 \log n - 1} X_i$  satisfies relaxed independence assumption (slide 16)

- Consider the first 24 log n vertices of P to the deepest level of element i.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_i$ :

  - X<sub>j</sub> = 1 if the node at level j is bad
     X<sub>i</sub> = 0 if the node at level j is good.

- $P[X_i = 1 \mid X_0 = X_0, ..., X_{i-1} = X_{i-1}] \le \frac{2}{3}$
- $X := \sum_{i=0}^{24 \log n 1} X_i$  satisfies relaxed independence assumption (slide 16)

**Question:** But what if the path *P* does not reach level *j*?

- Consider the first 24 log n vertices of P to the deepest level of element i.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_i$ :

  - X<sub>j</sub> = 1 if the node at level j is bad
     X<sub>i</sub> = 0 if the node at level j is good.

- $P[X_i = 1 \mid X_0 = X_0, ..., X_{i-1} = X_{i-1}] \le \frac{2}{3}$
- $X := \sum_{i=0}^{24 \log n 1} X_i$  satisfies relaxed independence assumption (slide 16)

**Question:** But what if the path *P* does not reach level *j*?

**Answer:** We can then simply define  $X_i$  as the result of an independent coin flip with probability 2/3.

- Consider the first 24 log n vertices of P to the deepest level of element i.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_i$ :

■ 
$$X_j = 1$$
 if the node at level  $j$  is **bad**
■  $X_j = 0$  if the node at level  $j$  is good.

■  $\mathbf{P}[X_i = 1 \mid X_0 = x_0, \dots, X_{i-1} = x_{i-1}] \le \frac{2}{2}$ 

bad good bad
1  $\ell/3$   $2\ell/3$   $\ell$  pivo

•  $X := \sum_{i=0}^{24 \log n - 1} X_i$  satisfies relaxed independence assumption (slide 16)

- Consider the first 24 log n vertices of P to the deepest level of element i.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_i$ :
  - X<sub>j</sub> = 1 if the node at level j is bad
     X<sub>i</sub> = 0 if the node at level j is good.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
 & \text{bad} & \text{good} & \text{bad} \\
1 & \ell/3 & 2\ell/3 & \ell
\end{array}$$
 pivot

- $P[X_i = 1 \mid X_0 = X_0, ..., X_{i-1} = X_{i-1}] \le \frac{2}{3}$
- $X := \sum_{i=0}^{24 \log n 1} X_i$  satisfies relaxed independence assumption (slide 16)

We can now apply the "nicer" Chernoff Bound!

- Consider the first 24 log n vertices of P to the deepest level of element i.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_i$ :
  - X<sub>j</sub> = 1 if the node at level j is bad
     X<sub>i</sub> = 0 if the node at level j is good.

- $P[X_i = 1 \mid X_0 = X_0, ..., X_{i-1} = X_{i-1}] \le \frac{2}{3}$
- $X := \sum_{i=0}^{24 \log n 1} X_i$  satisfies relaxed independence assumption (slide 16)

We can now apply the "nicer" Chernoff Bound!

• We have  $\mathbf{E}[X] < (2/3) \cdot 24 \log n = 16 \log n$ 

- Consider the first 24 log *n* vertices of *P* to the deepest level of element *i*.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, ..., 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_j$ :
  - X<sub>j</sub> = 1 if the node at level j is bad
     X<sub>i</sub> = 0 if the node at level j is good.

- $\begin{array}{c|c}
   & \text{bad} & \text{good} & \text{bad} \\
  1 & \ell/3 & 2\ell/3 & \ell
  \end{array}$  pivo
- $P[X_j = 1 \mid X_0 = X_0, ..., X_{j-1} = X_{j-1}] \le \frac{2}{3}$
- $X := \sum_{j=0}^{24 \log n 1} X_j$  satisfies relaxed independence assumption (slide 16)

- We have  $\mathbf{E}[X] \le (2/3) \cdot 24 \log n = 16 \log n$
- Then, by the "nicer" Chernoff Bounds

- Consider the first 24 log *n* vertices of *P* to the deepest level of element *i*.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, ..., 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_j$ :
  - X<sub>j</sub> = 1 if the node at level j is bad
    X<sub>i</sub> = 0 if the node at level j is good.

- $\begin{array}{c|c}
   & \text{bad} & \text{good} & \text{bad} \\
  1 & \ell/3 & 2\ell/3 & \ell
  \end{array}$  pivot
- **P**[ $X_j = 1 \mid X_0 = X_0, ..., X_{j-1} = X_{j-1}$ ]  $\leq \frac{2}{3}$
- $X := \sum_{j=0}^{24 \log n 1} X_j$  satisfies relaxed independence assumption (slide 16)

- We have  $\mathbf{E}[X] \le (2/3) \cdot 24 \log n = 16 \log n$
- Then, by the "nicer" Chernoff Bounds ∠

$$\left\{ \mathbf{P}[X \geq \mathbf{E}[X] + t] \leq e^{-2t^2/n} \right\}$$

- Consider the first 24 log *n* vertices of *P* to the deepest level of element *i*.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, ..., 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_j$ :
  - X<sub>j</sub> = 1 if the node at level j is bad
     X<sub>i</sub> = 0 if the node at level j is good.

- **P**[ $X_j = 1 \mid X_0 = X_0, \dots, X_{j-1} = X_{j-1}$ ]  $\leq \frac{2}{3}$
- $X := \sum_{j=0}^{24 \log n 1} X_j$  satisfies relaxed independence assumption (slide 16)

- We have  $\mathbf{E}[X] \le (2/3) \cdot 24 \log n = 16 \log n$
- Then, by the "nicer" Chernoff Bounds  $\sqrt{\mathbf{P}[X \ge \mathbf{E}[X] + t]} \le e^{-2t^2/n}$

$$P[X > 21 \log n] \le P[X > E[X] + 5 \log n]$$

- Consider the first 24 log n vertices of P to the deepest level of element i.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, ..., 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_i$ :
  - X<sub>j</sub> = 1 if the node at level j is bad
     X<sub>i</sub> = 0 if the node at level j is good.

- $P[X_i = 1 \mid X_0 = X_0, ..., X_{i-1} = X_{i-1}] \le \frac{2}{3}$
- $X := \sum_{i=0}^{24 \log n 1} X_i$  satisfies relaxed independence assumption (slide 16)

- We have  $\mathbf{E}[X] < (2/3) \cdot 24 \log n = 16 \log n$
- Then, by the "nicer" Chernoff Bounds  $\sqrt{\mathbf{P}[X \ge \mathbf{E}[X] + t]} \le e^{-2t^2/n}$

$$P[X > 21 \log n] \le P[X > E[X] + 5 \log n] \le e^{-2(5 \log n)^2/(24 \log n)}$$

- Consider the first 24 log n vertices of P to the deepest level of element i.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, ..., 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_i$ :
  - X<sub>j</sub> = 1 if the node at level j is bad
     X<sub>i</sub> = 0 if the node at level j is good.

- $P[X_i = 1 \mid X_0 = X_0, ..., X_{i-1} = X_{i-1}] \le \frac{2}{3}$
- $X := \sum_{i=0}^{24 \log n 1} X_i$  satisfies relaxed independence assumption (slide 16)

- We have  $\mathbf{E}[X] < (2/3) \cdot 24 \log n = 16 \log n$
- Then, by the "nicer" Chernoff Bounds  $\sqrt{\mathbf{P}[X \ge \mathbf{E}[X] + t]} \le e^{-2t^2/n}$

$$P[X > 21 \log n] \le P[X > E[X] + 5 \log n] \le e^{-2(5 \log n)^2/(24 \log n)}$$

$$= e^{-(50/24) \log n}$$

- Consider the first 24 log n vertices of P to the deepest level of element i.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_i$ :
  - X<sub>j</sub> = 1 if the node at level j is bad
     X<sub>i</sub> = 0 if the node at level j is good.

- $P[X_i = 1 \mid X_0 = X_0, ..., X_{i-1} = X_{i-1}] \le \frac{2}{3}$
- $X := \sum_{i=0}^{24 \log n 1} X_i$  satisfies relaxed independence assumption (slide 16)

- We have  $\mathbf{E}[X] < (2/3) \cdot 24 \log n = 16 \log n$
- Then, by the "nicer" Chernoff Bounds  $\sqrt{\mathbf{P}[X \ge \mathbf{E}[X] + t]} \le e^{-2t^2/n}$

$$P[X > 21 \log n] \le P[X > E[X] + 5 \log n] \le e^{-2(5 \log n)^2/(24 \log n)}$$
$$= e^{-(50/24) \log n} \le n^{-2}.$$

- Consider the first 24 log n vertices of P to the deepest level of element i.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, ..., 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_j$ :
  - X<sub>j</sub> = 1 if the node at level j is bad
     X<sub>i</sub> = 0 if the node at level j is good.

- $\begin{array}{c|c}
   & \text{bad} & \text{good} & \text{bad} \\
  1 & \ell/3 & 2\ell/3 & \ell
  \end{array}$  pivot
- $P[X_j = 1 \mid X_0 = X_0, ..., X_{j-1} = X_{j-1}] \le \frac{2}{3}$
- $X := \sum_{j=0}^{24 \log n 1} X_j$  satisfies relaxed independence assumption (slide 16)

# We can now apply the "nicer" Chernoff Bound!

- We have  $\mathbf{E}[X] \le (2/3) \cdot 24 \log n = 16 \log n$

$$P[X > 21 \log n] \le P[X > E[X] + 5 \log n] \le e^{-(50/24) \log n} \le e^{-(50/24) \log n} \le n^{-2}.$$

• Hence *P* has more than  $24 \log n$  nodes with probability at most  $n^{-2}$ .

- Consider the first 24 log *n* vertices of *P* to the deepest level of element *i*.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, ..., 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_j$ :
  - X<sub>j</sub> = 1 if the node at level j is bad
    X<sub>j</sub> = 0 if the node at level j is good.

- $P[X_j = 1 \mid X_0 = X_0, ..., X_{j-1} = X_{j-1}] \le \frac{2}{3}$
- $X:=\sum_{j=0}^{24\log n-1} X_j$  satisfies relaxed independence assumption (slide 16)

- We have  $\mathbf{E}[X] \le (2/3) \cdot 24 \log n = 16 \log n$
- Hence P has more than  $24 \log n$  nodes with probability at most  $n^{-2}$ .
- As there are in total n paths, by the union bound, the probability that at least one of them has more than  $24 \log n$  nodes is at most  $n^{-1}$ .

- Consider the first 24 log *n* vertices of *P* to the deepest level of element *i*.
- For any level  $j \in \{0, 1, ..., 24 \log n 1\}$ , define an indicator variable  $X_j$ :
  - X<sub>j</sub> = 1 if the node at level j is bad
    X<sub>j</sub> = 0 if the node at level j is good.

- $\begin{array}{c|c}
   & \text{bad} & \text{good} & \text{bad} \\
  1 & \ell/3 & 2\ell/3 & \ell
  \end{array}$  pivo
- **P**[ $X_j = 1 \mid X_0 = X_0, \dots, X_{j-1} = X_{j-1}$ ]  $\leq \frac{2}{3}$
- $X:=\sum_{j=0}^{24\log n-1} X_j$  satisfies relaxed independence assumption (slide 16)

- We have  $\mathbf{E}[X] \le (2/3) \cdot 24 \log n = 16 \log n$
- Hence P has more than  $24 \log n$  nodes with probability at most  $n^{-2}$ .
- As there are in total n paths, by the union bound, the probability that at least one of them has more than  $24 \log n$  nodes is at most  $n^{-1}$ .

• Well-known: any comparison-based sorting algorithm needs  $\Omega(n \log n)$ 

- Well-known: any comparison-based sorting algorithm needs  $\Omega(n \log n)$
- A classical result: expected number of comparison of randomised QUICKSORT is  $2n \log n + O(n)$  (see, e.g., book by Mitzenmacher & Upfal)

- Well-known: any comparison-based sorting algorithm needs  $\Omega(n \log n)$
- A classical result: expected number of comparison of randomised QUICKSORT is  $2n \log n + O(n)$  (see, e.g., book by Mitzenmacher & Upfal)

Supervision Exercise: Our upper bound of  $O(n \log n)$  whp also immediately implies a  $O(n \log n)$  bound on the expected number of comparisons!

- Well-known: any comparison-based sorting algorithm needs  $\Omega(n \log n)$
- A classical result: expected number of comparison of randomised QUICKSORT is  $2n \log n + O(n)$  (see, e.g., book by Mitzenmacher & Upfal)

Supervision Exercise: Our upper bound of  $O(n \log n)$  whp also immediately implies a  $O(n \log n)$  bound on the expected number of comparisons!

- It is possible to deterministically find the best pivot element that divides the array into two subarrays of the same size.
- The latter requires to compute the median of the array in linear time, which is not easy...
- The presented randomised algorithm for QUICKSORT is much easier to implement!

#### **Outline**

Introduction to Chernoff Bounds

How to Derive Chernoff Bounds

Application 1: Balls into Bins

Application 2: Randomised QuickSort

Extensions of Chernoff Bounds

Applications of Method of Bounded Differences

Appendix

 Besides sums of independent bernoulli random variables, sums of independent and bounded random variables are very frequent in applications.

- Besides sums of independent bernoulli random variables, sums of independent and bounded random variables are very frequent in applications.
- Unfortunately the distribution of the X<sub>i</sub> may be unknown or hard to compute, thus it will be hard to compute the moment-generating function.

- Besides sums of independent bernoulli random variables, sums of independent and bounded random variables are very frequent in applications.
- Unfortunately the distribution of the X<sub>i</sub> may be unknown or hard to compute, thus it will be hard to compute the moment-generating function.
- Hoeffding's Lemma helps us here:

- Besides sums of independent bernoulli random variables, sums of independent and bounded random variables are very frequent in applications.
- Unfortunately the distribution of the X<sub>i</sub> may be unknown or hard to compute, thus it will be hard to compute the moment-generating function.
- Hoeffding's Lemma helps us here:

Hoeffding's Extension Lemma -

Let X be a random variable with mean 0 such that  $a \leq X \leq b$ . Then for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\mathbf{E}\left[e^{\lambda X}\right] \leq \exp\left(\frac{(b-a)^2\lambda^2}{8}\right)$$

- Besides sums of independent bernoulli random variables, sums of independent and bounded random variables are very frequent in applications.
- Unfortunately the distribution of the  $X_i$  may be unknown or hard to compute, thus it will be hard to compute the moment-generating function.
- Hoeffding's Lemma helps us here:  $\begin{cases} You \text{ can always consider} \\ X' = X \mathbf{E}[X] \end{cases}$

Hoeffding's Extension Lemma —

Let X be a random variable with mean 0 such that  $a \le X \le b$ . Then for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ .

$$\mathbf{E}\left[e^{\lambda X}\right] \leq \exp\left(\frac{(b-a)^2\lambda^2}{8}\right)$$

- Besides sums of independent bernoulli random variables, sums of independent and bounded random variables are very frequent in applications.
- Unfortunately the distribution of the  $X_i$  may be unknown or hard to compute, thus it will be hard to compute the moment-generating function.

■ Hoeffding's Lemma helps us here:  $\begin{cases} You \text{ can always consider} \\ X' = X - \mathbf{E}[X] \end{cases}$ 

Hoeffding's Extension Lemma —

Let X be a random variable with mean 0 such that  $a \le X \le b$ . Then for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ .

$$\mathbf{E}\left[e^{\lambda X}\right] \leq \exp\left(\frac{(b-a)^2\lambda^2}{8}\right)$$

We omit the proof of this lemma!

Hoeffding's Inequality -

Let  $X_1,\ldots,X_n$  be independent random variable with mean  $\mu_i$  such that  $a_i \leq X_i \leq b_i$ . Let  $X = X_1 + \ldots + X_n$ , and let  $\mu = \mathbf{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i$ . Then for any t > 0

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge \mu + t] \le \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)^2}\right),\,$$

and

$$\mathbf{P}[X \leq \mu - t] \leq \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)^2}\right).$$

Hoeffding's Inequality -

Let  $X_1,\ldots,X_n$  be independent random variable with mean  $\mu_i$  such that  $a_i \leq X_i \leq b_i$ . Let  $X = X_1 + \ldots + X_n$ , and let  $\mu = \mathbf{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i$ . Then for any t > 0

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge \mu + t] \le \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)^2}\right),\,$$

and

$$\mathbf{P}[X \leq \mu - t] \leq \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)^2}\right).$$

#### Proof Outline (skipped):

• Let 
$$X_i' = X_i - \mu_i$$
 and  $X' = X_1' + \ldots + X_n'$ , then  $\mathbf{P}[X \ge \mu + t] = \mathbf{P}[X' \ge t]$ 

Hoeffding's Inequality -

Let  $X_1,\ldots,X_n$  be independent random variable with mean  $\mu_i$  such that  $a_i \leq X_i \leq b_i$ . Let  $X = X_1 + \ldots + X_n$ , and let  $\mu = \mathbf{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i$ . Then for any t > 0

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge \mu + t] \le \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)^2}\right),\,$$

and

$$\mathbf{P}[X \leq \mu - t] \leq \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)^2}\right).$$

#### Proof Outline (skipped):

• Let 
$$X_i' = X_i - \mu_i$$
 and  $X' = X_1' + \ldots + X_n'$ , then  $\mathbf{P}[X \ge \mu + t] = \mathbf{P}[X' \ge t]$ 

• 
$$\mathbf{P}[X' \ge t] \le e^{-\lambda t} \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbf{E} \left[ e^{\lambda X_i'} \right] \le \exp \left[ -\lambda t + \frac{\lambda^2}{8} \sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)^2 \right]$$

Hoeffding's Inequality -

Let  $X_1,\ldots,X_n$  be independent random variable with mean  $\mu_i$  such that  $a_i \leq X_i \leq b_i$ . Let  $X = X_1 + \ldots + X_n$ , and let  $\mu = \mathbf{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i$ . Then for any t > 0

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge \mu + t] \le \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)^2}\right),\,$$

and

$$\mathbf{P}[X \leq \mu - t] \leq \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)^2}\right).$$

#### Proof Outline (skipped):

• Let 
$$X_i' = X_i - \mu_i$$
 and  $X' = X_1' + \ldots + X_n'$ , then  $\mathbf{P}[X \ge \mu + t] = \mathbf{P}[X' \ge t]$ 

$$lackbox{ P}\left[X'\geq t
ight]\leq e^{-\lambda t}\prod_{i=1}^n\mathbf{E}\left[\,e^{\lambda X_i'}\,
ight]\leq \exp\left[-\lambda t+rac{\lambda^2}{8}\sum_{i=1}^n(b_i-a_i)^2
ight]$$

■ Choose  $\lambda = \frac{4t}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (b_i - a_i)^2}$  to get the result.

Hoeffding's Inequality -

Let  $X_1,\ldots,X_n$  be independent random variable with mean  $\mu_i$  such that  $a_i \leq X_i \leq b_i$ . Let  $X = X_1 + \ldots + X_n$ , and let  $\mu = \mathbf{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i$ . Then for any t > 0

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge \mu + t] \le \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)^2}\right),\,$$

and

$$\mathbf{P}[X \leq \mu - t] \leq \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)^2}\right).$$

#### Proof Outline (skipped):

• Let 
$$X_i' = X_i - \mu_i$$
 and  $X' = X_1' + \ldots + X_n'$ , then  $\mathbf{P}[X \ge \mu + t] = \mathbf{P}[X' \ge t]$ 

$$\bullet \ \mathbf{P}[X' \ge t] \le e^{-\lambda t} \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbf{E}\left[e^{\lambda X_i'}\right] \le \exp\left[-\lambda t + \frac{\lambda^2}{8} \sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)^2\right]$$

• Choose  $\lambda = \frac{4t}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (b_i - a_i)^2}$  to get the result.

This is not magic! you just need to optimise  $\lambda$ !

Framework —

Suppose, we have independent random variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ . We want to study the random variable:

$$f(X_1,\ldots,X_n)$$

Framework -

Suppose, we have independent random variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ . We want to study the random variable:

$$f(X_1,\ldots,X_n)$$

Some examples:

1. 
$$X = X_1 + \ldots + X_n$$

Framework -

Suppose, we have independent random variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ . We want to study the random variable:

$$f(X_1,\ldots,X_n)$$

Some examples:

- 1.  $X = X_1 + ... + X_n$
- 2. In balls into bins,  $X_i$  indicates where ball i is allocated, and  $f(X_1, \ldots, X_m)$  is the number of empty bins

Framework

Suppose, we have independent random variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ . We want to study the random variable:

$$f(X_1,\ldots,X_n)$$

#### Some examples:

- 1.  $X = X_1 + ... + X_n$
- 2. In balls into bins,  $X_i$  indicates where ball i is allocated, and  $f(X_1, \ldots, X_m)$  is the number of empty bins
- 3.  $X_i$  indicates if the i-th edge is present in a graph, and  $f(X_1, \ldots, X_m)$  represents the number of connected components of G

Framework

Suppose, we have independent random variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ . We want to study the random variable:

$$f(X_1,\ldots,X_n)$$

#### Some examples:

- 1.  $X = X_1 + \ldots + X_n$
- 2. In balls into bins,  $X_i$  indicates where ball i is allocated, and  $f(X_1, \ldots, X_m)$  is the number of empty bins
- 3.  $X_i$  indicates if the i-th edge is present in a graph, and  $f(X_1, \ldots, X_m)$  represents the number of connected components of G

In all those cases (and more) we can easily prove concentration of  $f(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$  around its mean by the so-called **Method of Bounded Differences**.

A function f is called Lipschitz with parameters  $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \dots, c_n)$  if for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ,

$$|f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{i-1}, \mathbf{x_i}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n) - f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{i-1}, \mathbf{y_i}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n)| \leq c_i,$$

where  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  are in the domain of the i-th coordinate.

A function f is called Lipschitz with parameters  $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \dots, c_n)$  if for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ,

$$|f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{i-1}, \mathbf{x}_i, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n) - f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{i-1}, \mathbf{y}_i, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n)| \leq c_i,$$

where  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  are in the domain of the *i*-th coordinate.

McDiarmid's inequality

Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be independent random variables. Let f be Lipschitz with parameters  $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \ldots, c_n)$ . Let  $X = f(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ . Then for any t > 0,

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge \mu + t] \le \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2}\right),\,$$

and

$$\mathbf{P}[X \le \mu - t] \le \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2}\right).$$

A function f is called Lipschitz with parameters  $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \dots, c_n)$  if for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ,

$$|f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{i-1}, x_i, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n) - f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{i-1}, y_i, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n)| \leq c_i$$

where  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  are in the domain of the *i*-th coordinate.

McDiarmid's inequality

Let  $X_1, ..., X_n$  be independent random variables. Let f be Lipschitz with parameters  $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, ..., c_n)$ . Let  $X = f(X_1, ..., X_n)$ . Then for any t > 0,

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge \mu + t] \le \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2}\right),\,$$

and

$$\mathbf{P}[X \le \mu - t] \le \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2}\right).$$

Notice the similarity with Hoeffding's inequality!

A function f is called Lipschitz with parameters  $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \dots, c_n)$  if for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ,

$$|f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{i-1}, \mathbf{x}_i, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n) - f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{i-1}, \mathbf{y}_i, x_{i+1}, \ldots, x_n)| \leq c_i,$$

where  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  are in the domain of the *i*-th coordinate.

McDiarmid's inequality -

Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be independent random variables. Let f be Lipschitz with parameters  $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \ldots, c_n)$ . Let  $X = f(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ . Then for any t > 0,

$$\mathbf{P}[X \ge \mu + t] \le \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2}\right),\,$$

and

$$\mathbf{P}[X \le \mu - t] \le \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2}\right).$$

- Notice the similarity with Hoeffding's inequality!
- The proof is omitted here (it requires the concept of martingales).

#### **Outline**

Introduction to Chernoff Bounds

How to Derive Chernoff Bounds

Application 1: Balls into Bins

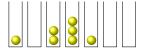
Application 2: Randomised QuickSort

Extensions of Chernoff Bounds

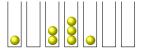
Applications of Method of Bounded Differences

**Appendix** 

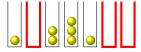
## Application 3: Balls into Bins (again...)



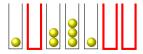
• Consider again *m* balls assigned uniformly at random into *n* bins.



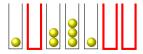
- Consider again m balls assigned uniformly at random into n bins.
- Enumerate the balls from 1 to m. Ball i is assigned to a random bin  $X_i$



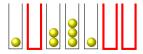
- Consider again m balls assigned uniformly at random into n bins.
- Enumerate the balls from 1 to m. Ball i is assigned to a random bin  $X_i$
- Let Z be the number of empty bins (after assigning the m balls)



- Consider again m balls assigned uniformly at random into n bins.
- Enumerate the balls from 1 to m. Ball i is assigned to a random bin  $X_i$
- Let Z be the number of empty bins (after assigning the m balls)
- $Z = Z(X_1, ..., X_m)$  and Z is Lipschitz with  $\mathbf{c} = (1, ..., 1)$

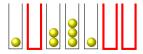


- Consider again m balls assigned uniformly at random into n bins.
- Enumerate the balls from 1 to m. Ball i is assigned to a random bin  $X_i$
- Let Z be the number of empty bins (after assigning the m balls)
- $Z = Z(X_1, \dots, X_m)$  and Z is Lipschitz with  $\mathbf{c} = (1, \dots, 1)$  (If we move one ball to another bin, number of empty bins changes by  $\leq 1$ .)



- Consider again m balls assigned uniformly at random into n bins.
- Enumerate the balls from 1 to m. Ball i is assigned to a random bin  $X_i$
- Let Z be the number of empty bins (after assigning the m balls)
- $Z = Z(X_1, ..., X_m)$  and Z is Lipschitz with  $\mathbf{c} = (1, ..., 1)$  (If we move one ball to another bin, number of empty bins changes by  $\leq 1$ .)
- By McDiarmid's inequality, for any  $t \ge 0$ ,

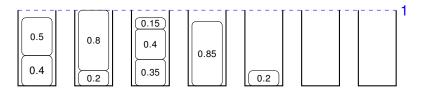
$$P[|Z - E[Z]| > t] \le 2 \cdot e^{-2t^2/m}$$



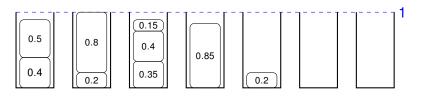
- Consider again m balls assigned uniformly at random into n bins.
- Enumerate the balls from 1 to m. Ball i is assigned to a random bin  $X_i$
- Let Z be the number of empty bins (after assigning the m balls)
- $Z = Z(X_1, ..., X_m)$  and Z is Lipschitz with  $\mathbf{c} = (1, ..., 1)$  (If we move one ball to another bin, number of empty bins changes by  $\leq 1$ .)
- By McDiarmid's inequality, for any  $t \ge 0$ ,

$$P[|Z - E[Z]| > t] \le 2 \cdot e^{-2t^2/m}$$

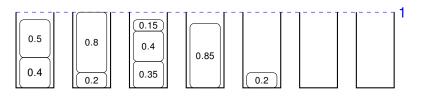
This is a decent bound, but for some values of m it is far from tight and stronger bounds are possible through a refined analysis.



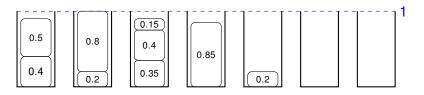
• We are given *n* items of sizes in the unit interval [0, 1]



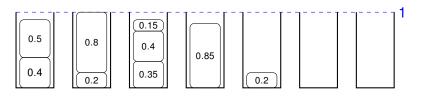
- We are given *n* items of sizes in the unit interval [0, 1]
- We want to pack those items into the fewest number of unit-capacity bins



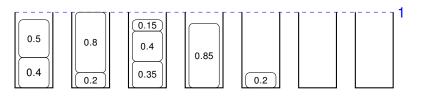
- We are given *n* items of sizes in the unit interval [0, 1]
- We want to pack those items into the fewest number of unit-capacity bins
- Suppose the item sizes  $X_i$  are independent random variables in [0, 1]



- We are given *n* items of sizes in the unit interval [0, 1]
- We want to pack those items into the fewest number of unit-capacity bins
- Suppose the item sizes  $X_i$  are independent random variables in [0, 1]
- Let  $B = B(X_1, ..., X_n)$  be the optimal number of bins

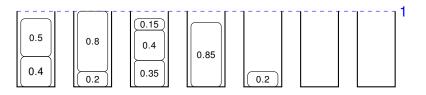


- We are given *n* items of sizes in the unit interval [0, 1]
- We want to pack those items into the fewest number of unit-capacity bins
- Suppose the item sizes  $X_i$  are independent random variables in [0, 1]
- Let  $B = B(X_1, ..., X_n)$  be the optimal number of bins
- The Lipschitz conditions holds with c = (1, ..., 1). Why?



- We are given *n* items of sizes in the unit interval [0, 1]
- We want to pack those items into the fewest number of unit-capacity bins
- Suppose the item sizes  $X_i$  are independent random variables in [0, 1]
- Let  $B = B(X_1, ..., X_n)$  be the optimal number of bins
- The Lipschitz conditions holds with c = (1, ..., 1). Why?
- Therefore

$$P[|B - E[B]| \ge t] \le 2 \cdot e^{-2t^2/n}$$



- We are given n items of sizes in the unit interval [0, 1]
- We want to pack those items into the fewest number of unit-capacity bins
- Suppose the item sizes  $X_i$  are independent random variables in [0, 1]
- Let  $B = B(X_1, ..., X_n)$  be the optimal number of bins
- The Lipschitz conditions holds with c = (1, ..., 1). Why?
- Therefore

$$P[|B - E[B]| \ge t] \le 2 \cdot e^{-2t^2/n}$$

This is a typical example where proving concentration is much easier than calculating (or estimating) the expectation!

#### **Outline**

Introduction to Chernoff Bounds

How to Derive Chernoff Bounds

Application 1: Balls into Bins

Application 2: Randomised QuickSort

**Extensions of Chernoff Bounds** 

Applications of Method of Bounded Differences

**Appendix** 

Moment-Generating Function ——

The moment-generating function of a random variable *X* is

$$\mathit{M}_{\mathit{X}}(t) = \mathbf{E}\left[\left.e^{t\mathit{X}}\right.
ight], \qquad ext{where } t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Moment-Generating Function =

The moment-generating function of a random variable *X* is

$$\mathit{M}_{\mathit{X}}(t) = \mathbf{E}\left[\left.e^{t\mathit{X}}\right.
ight], \qquad ext{where } t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Using power series of e and differentiating shows that  $M_X(t)$  encapsulates all moments of X.

Moment-Generating Function —

The moment-generating function of a random variable *X* is

$$extit{M}_{ extit{X}}(t) = \mathbf{E} \left[ \, e^{t extit{X}} \, 
ight], \qquad ext{where } t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Using power series of e and differentiating shows that  $M_X(t)$  encapsulates all moments of X.

Lemma

- 1. If X and Y are two r.v.'s with  $M_X(t) = M_Y(t)$  for all  $t \in (-\delta, +\delta)$  for some  $\delta > 0$ , then the distributions X and Y are identical.
- 2. If X and Y are independent random variables, then

$$M_{X+Y}(t) = M_X(t) \cdot M_Y(t).$$

Moment-Generating Function -

The moment-generating function of a random variable X is

$$extit{M}_{ extit{X}}(t) = \mathbf{E} \left[ \, e^{t extit{X}} \, 
ight], \qquad ext{where } t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Using power series of e and differentiating shows that  $M_X(t)$  encapsulates all moments of X.

Lemma

- 1. If X and Y are two r.v.'s with  $M_X(t) = M_Y(t)$  for all  $t \in (-\delta, +\delta)$  for some  $\delta > 0$ , then the distributions X and Y are identical.
- 2. If X and Y are independent random variables, then

$$M_{X+Y}(t) = M_X(t) \cdot M_Y(t).$$

#### Proof of 2:

$$\textit{M}_{\textit{X}+\textit{Y}}(\textit{t}) = \textbf{E}\left[\,\textit{e}^{\textit{t}(\textit{X}+\textit{Y})}\,\right] = \textbf{E}\left[\,\textit{e}^{\textit{t}\textit{X}}\cdot\textit{e}^{\textit{t}\textit{Y}}\,\right] \stackrel{(!)}{=} \textbf{E}\left[\,\textit{e}^{\textit{t}\textit{X}}\,\right] \cdot \textbf{E}\left[\,\textit{e}^{\textit{t}\textit{Y}}\,\right] = \textit{M}_{\textit{X}}(\textit{t})\textit{M}_{\textit{Y}}(\textit{t}) \quad \Box$$