

Probability for Computer Science
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Module - 4
Lecture - 15
Weak Linearity of Variance. Law of Large Numbers.

Last time we did Chebyshev inequality; and before that, we did Markov inequality. And we also defined the variance from the expectation. So, this is all part of concentration inequalities, to understand how far can a random variable go beyond the expectation. So, in particular, we learnt that, even 2 sigma away from the expectation, the probability is very low of that happening.

So, of course, it can happen, it is not impossible, but it is a low probability event. Now, once you have variance, let us prove some more interesting properties of that. So, variance was expectation of discrepancy square, X minus average, X minus expectation squared. So, let us continue with that formula. What we will show is weak linearity of expectation.

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$\Rightarrow \sigma$ tightly controls the deviation from the mean!

$P(X \geq E[X] + 2\sigma \text{ OR } X \leq E[X] - 2\sigma) \leq 1/4.$

Weak linearity of expectation (or pairwise)

Lemma: Let $\{X_i | i \in [n]\}$ be 2-wise independent random variables. Then $\text{Var}(\sum_i X_i) = \sum_i \text{Var}(X_i).$

Pf: • $\text{Var}(\sum_i X_i) = E[(\sum_i X_i)^2] - E[\sum_i X_i]^2$
 $= E[\sum_{i,j} X_i X_j] - \sum_{i,j} E[X_i] E[X_j]$
 $= \sum_{i,j} (E[X_i X_j] - E[X_i] E[X_j])$

So, the lemma will show what is weak linearity. So, let X_i 's be random variables, n of them; and say they are 2-wise independent. So, what is 2-wise? 2-wise or pairwise, it means that, if you take X_1 and X_2 , then they are independent. This notion of independence that you have already seen, just that, nothing new. So, say you have 2-wise independent random variables.

Then, the variance of sum is sum of variance, which is an amazing thing, because, variance was defined by a quadratic expression in X .

There was simply no chance that it will behave nicely under sum, but it does. And the cost; the price you pay is that, you have to have pairwise independent. If any of these X_i, X_j 's are dependent, then this formula fails. So, I am calling it weak linearity because it is not like expectation. Expectation did not need anything, but variance does. It needs this restriction. But anyways, in many applications, this holds; anyways, this holds true; so, it is a very useful property.

So, proof is quite straightforward. So, you take variance definition. And from that, it followed that expectation of X square minus expectation of X whole square. So, let us use that. It is expectation of sum of X_i . And that is what I wanted here also; sum of X_i , variance of sum of X_i is equal to expectation of this square minus expectation of this thing whole square. That is variance of $\sum X_i$, random variable.

Now, this is expectation of; so, when you square, what do you get? All possible products minus; so, this will be \sum expectation of X_i whole square, right? So, you will be multiplying expectation of X_i with expectation of X_j , and it goes over all the i, j 's. So, i, j , when they are equal, this is square; when they are different, then there are 2 ways, i less than j or the flip. So, you get the factor 2 in that case. And this is; how do I work with this now?

So, I will write this as $\sum_{i, j}$; by linearity of expectation, I get expectation of $X_i X_j$ minus the product. But what is this? How do I make sense of this? How do I simplify this? So, this is where I will use pairwise independence.

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Note: $E[X_1 X_2] = \sum_{k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{R}} P(X_1 = k_1 \wedge X_2 = k_2) \cdot k_1 k_2$

$= \sum_{k_1, k_2} P(X_1 = k_1) \cdot k_1 \cdot P(X_2 = k_2) \cdot k_2$ [by 2-wise indep.]

$= \left(\sum_{k_1} P(X_1 = k_1) \cdot k_1 \right) \cdot \left(\sum_{k_2} P(X_2 = k_2) \cdot k_2 \right) = E[X_1] \cdot E[X_2]$

↳ Exp. is multiplicative on indep. rand. var.!

-So,

$\text{var}(\sum_i X_i) = \sum_{i,j \in [n]} (E[X_i^2] - E[X_i]^2) \leftarrow \text{other terms } (i \neq j) \text{ cancel.}$

$= \sum_i \text{var}(X_i).$ □

So, here is the claim. I need the claim that expectation of X_1, X_2 ; since X_1, X_2 are independent by definition, what I get is probability of X_1 being k_1 and X_2 being k_2 times the value $k_1 k_2$, over all k_1, k_2 real numbers. This is expectation of the product, is basically the probability times the value; but since they are independent, the probability factors. So, what you get is, sum $X_1 k_1$ times k_1 with $X_2 k_2$ overall $k_1 k_2$.

This is by 2-wise independence. And so, that gives you the product. So, you have, clearly, if you see term by term, then this product gives you all these summons of which appear in expectation definition. So, this is then expectation of X_1 times expectation of X_2 . So, what you have shown is that expectation is multiplicative as long as the random variables are independent. So, expectation is multiplicative on independent variables.

That is what you have learnt. Now, with this learning, you can easily simplify the expression which we had before, because this expectation of $X_i X_j$ minus expectation of X_i times expectation of X_j , this is 0, except when i is equal to j . So, you get that variance of $\sum X_i$ is equal to expectation of X_i^2 minus expectation of X_i whole square. This is the only term which survives in that sum on variance. And what is this?

This is clearly $\sum_i \text{var}(X_i)$. That was the statement of the lemma, variance of sum is sum of variance; so, we have shown this. Other items have cancelled; that was the multiplicative property of expectation. So, that is a very nice property to have. And let me show you just 1 example which is already major.

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Weak Law of Large numbers

Corollary: Define $\bar{X} := (\sum_{i=1}^n X_i) / n$ as the average of 2-wise indep. rand. variables X_i 's (each identical to rand. variable X). Then, $\forall a > 0$,

$$P(|\bar{X} - E[X]| \geq a) \leq \text{Var}(X) / na^2.$$

Pf: • Apply Chebyshev's; linearity of Exp. & Variance.

$$\Delta E[\bar{X}] = \sum E[X_i] / n = E[X]$$

$$\Delta \text{Var}(\bar{X}) = \text{Var}\left(\frac{\sum X_i}{n}\right) = \frac{\text{Var}(\sum X_i)}{n^2} = \frac{n \cdot \text{Var}(X)}{n^2} = \text{Var}(X) / n.$$

• Now Chebyshev gives $\text{Var}(X) / na^2$. \square

It is called weak law of large numbers. So, what is this law of large numbers? So, it is the following statement. It is a corollary of what we just did; follow quite easily. So, define the mean of those pairwise random variables as \bar{X} ; and the random variables and sum divided by n , that is the mean; as the average of 2-wise independent random variables X_i 's. And each; so, recall the setting; setting of this was; no; this is something new.

So, each identical to a random variable X . So, these are just copies actually of the same X , but these experiments were done not completely independently, but just pairwise independently. So, if you look at X_i and some other X_j , they are independent. And then, you are looking at the average random variable \bar{X} . So, what you can show for all positive a : The probability that the average is away from the expectation of X , this discrepancy being larger than this a is given by variance.

So, the variance of X decides whether the discrepancy can be more than a . So, in fact, if the variance is small; and especially, when you keep increasing the number of experiments n ; as n tends to infinity, this tends to 0. So, the probability is very small that average is different from expectation. That is what you learn. That is what this corollary is saying. So, let us prove it. It is quite easy. So, just apply Chebyshev's inequality and linearity of variance.

So, what would Chebyshev say? So, Chebyshev says that you need expectation of \bar{X} and variance of \bar{X} . So, let us do that. So, expectation of \bar{X} is; by linearity, it is actually expectation of X_i 's summed up, divided by n , which is just expectation of X , because they

are all identical to X . And the second thing is variance, which we have just shown, weak linearity of variance.

So, variance of \bar{X} is summation of variance of X_i divided by n for all i , which is; let me do this in a proper way. So, this is variance of summation X_i by n . Now, you use the property of variance that variance of a times X is a square times variance. So, that is, in this case, 1 by n is the multiplier. So, it comes out and it becomes variance of the sum divided by n square.

Now, variance of the sum is sum of variance, which is n times variance of X divided by n square. So, this is nothing but variance of X divided by n . So, after this Chebyshev gives you variance of X by n a square. So, that is the full proof. It is just simple application of what you did till now. And the interpretation is, as I said, if you repeat an experiment again and again, many times; look at the average; that is basically expectation with very high probability.

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As $n \rightarrow \infty$, $\bar{X} \rightarrow E[X]$ whp.
Thus, repeating an experiment really takes you close to expectation!

Chernoff inequality (or bound).
Thm (Chernoff 1950s): Let X be a binary random variable with $P(X=1)=p$. Let X_1, \dots, X_n be identical to X & mutually independent. Consider the sum $S := \sum X_i$ & $\delta \in (0,1)$. Then,
 $P(S < (1-\delta) \cdot E[S]) < (e^{-E[X] \cdot \delta^2 / 2})^n$.

So, as n tends to infinity, \bar{X} tends to the expectation, with high probability. The average random variable is just the expectation with high probability. And thus, repetition; so, repeating an experiment really takes you close to expectation. So, repetition really takes you to expectation. That is what you have learnt from this. So, this is called weak law of large numbers.

And let us now move to the third and the strongest concentration bound which is called Chernoff inequality. So, you have seen Markov inequality, Chebyshev inequality and now,

Chernoff inequality. These are the 3 important concentration theorems, especially in computer science. So, the theorem is credited to Chernoff around 1950s. So, let X be a binary random variable; like a coin toss, head or tails, 0 or 1; with probability of being 1, is called p .

Let X_1 to X_n be identical to X and mutually independent. This keyword is very important. It is not pairwise, it is not 2-wise, it is mutually independent, which means that any of these X_i 's, given any of these X_j 's, even a subset of them, any subset of X_i 's, some other X_j is independent. So, it is not just between pairs, but it is for any subset. And similarly, any 2 disjoint subsets, if you partition X_1 to X_n into 2 subsets, disjoint subsets, they are independent.

This is a maximum kind of independence. This is being assumed. And then, you will get a powerful conclusion. What is that? So, look at their sum; $\sum X_i$ and a delta which is a fraction. Then, the probability that S is away from its expectation. What is the probability that the sum is significantly smaller than the expectation? By significant, I mean, $1 - \delta$; it is a fraction. So, say δ is half, then this is half.

So, what is the chance that S is half of expectation? So, this is $e^{-\frac{\delta^2}{2}}$ and the whole thing raised to n . So, what is so special about this statement is; compare it with the weak law of large numbers. So, in weak law of large numbers, you were getting, n was coming in the denominator, right? This $1/n$ was appearing. So, probability was falling like linearly, linear in n ; but here, the probability is falling exponentially in n . That is the difference. It is a qualitative difference.

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↳ This is the strongest inequality till now, as the decay is exponential in n = #repetitions of X .

Pf:

- Idea: Reduce it to Markov's, somehow?
- Let $u := E[S] = E[\sum X_i] = n \cdot E[X] = np$,
- $P(S < (1-\delta) \cdot u) = P(e^{-ts} > e^{-t(1-\delta)u})$
 where $t > 0$ is a parameter & $e :=$ base of natural log.
- Markov's $\Rightarrow P(e^{-ts} > e^{-t(1-\delta)u}) < \frac{E[e^{-ts}]}{e^{-t(1-\delta)u}}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \triangleright E[e^{-ts}] &= E[\prod e^{-tX_i}] \\ &= \prod E[e^{-tX_i}] = E[e^{-tX}]^n = (p \cdot e^{-t} + (1-p) \cdot 1)^n \\ &= (1-p \cdot (1-e^{-t}))^n \leq e^{-np(1-e^{-t})} \quad [\because 1-x \leq e^{-x}] \end{aligned}$$

So, this is the strongest till now, as the decay in the probability is exponential in n , which is number of repetitions of X . So, the same experiment, if you repeat again and again in an independent fashion, then, even this multiplicative, the value of S being multiplicatively smaller than the expectation, this probability is decaying exponentially in n . So, it becomes extremely small; it can be made very quickly, very small, as small as you want.

So, first let us prove it, then we will see more interpretations. So, what is the proof? Idea is, reduce it to the only thing you know, which is Markov's, definition of expectation. So, reduce it to Markov. So, let u be expectation of S , which is expectation of $\sum X_i$, which is actually n times expectation of X . That is what you know. That is what the random variable X is up against or S is up against.

You want to compare S with n times $E[X]$; you get the probability. So, that is, probability that S is less than $1 - \delta u$. So, let us change this to the Markov format, which is, you have to flip less than to greater than. How do you do that? You can do that by introducing, by multiplying it by minus; but there is a nice trick in the proof which will give you exponential decay, and that is use of exponentiation.

So, directly we will write e^{-ts} greater than $e^{-t(1-\delta)u}$, for a positive parameter t . And what is e ? e is the base of natural log. So, this is around 2.718 I think. So, base, it is given by power series $1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \dots$ and so on. So, why is this true? These 2 events are essentially the same; they are isomorphic, because, when S is small, then e^{-ts} is large.

S is small means, $-t$ is larger; and then you get e raised to that also larger. You can check this. So, in this way, we have converted less than to greater than; and then you invoke Markov's inequality. So, Markov's implies that probability of this random; view e raised to $-t$ is a random variable. This being more than e raised; the value, this value is less than the expectation of the random variable divided by this.

Now, the expectation of e raised to $-t$ is what? So, this is expectation of e raised to $-t \sum X_i$; product, right? S is a product. Now, the beauty of exponentiation is that sum becomes product. So, S was a sum. And because of exponentiation, you get actually product of e raised to $-t \sum X_i$. Now, since X_i 's were completely; so, they are mutually independent. You have seen a proof that this will completely factorise. So, you will get product outside.

Well, now, all the X_i 's are, essentially, they are the same, right; they are say isomorphic to X . So, we just have to compute the expectation of this and then raise it to n . So, let us do that. So, X is binary random variable. So, it is 1 with probability p . So, you get p times e raised to $-t$; and it is 0 with opposite probability; and this thing raised to n . So, that is a neat expression. So, you know the expectation of e raised to $-t$, and it will help us to simplify it further.

So, let us write it as $1 - p$, like this. And then it is less than equal to; I can write it using e again, like this. This is because of $1 - \epsilon$ being at most $e^{-\epsilon}$. For a fraction ϵ , you can use the screwed upper bound. And so, ultimately, the expectation is just e raised to $-np$ times this parameter $1 - e^{-t}$. So, let us now go back where we were, which is Markov application, right?

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$$\Rightarrow P(S < (1-\delta) \cdot u) < \frac{e^{-u(1-e^{-t}) + ut(1-\delta)}}{(e^{t(1-\delta)} + (e^{-t} - 1))}^u.$$

So, you get that probability of S being less than 1 minus δ u is less than expectation that we just calculated. Let me rewrite this. What is np ? np is; I should have said here that this is equal to np . So, u is actually np , and let us use that. So, it is $-u$ 1 minus e raised to $-t$ plus; in the denominator you have t 1 minus δ u , which is just e raised to t 1 minus δ plus e raised to $-t$ minus 1 , whole thing raised to u .

So, that is what we have done after this long calculation. We now have a handle, a good handle on probability of; than the expectation, by a multiple of 1 minus δ ; but t 's are unknown parameters, so, we have to now fix t as a function of δ , so that this right-hand side is minimised. So, that is what we will do next.