

## LECTURE 4

# Large Deviations and Nonprobabilistic Algorithms

**Large deviation.** Let us start with a beautiful proof of a result used in Lecture 1.

**THEOREM.** Let  $S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$  where

$$\Pr[X_i = +1] = \Pr[X_i = -1] = \frac{1}{2}$$

and the  $X_i$  are mutually independent. Then for any  $\lambda > 0$

$$\Pr[S_n > \lambda] < e^{-\lambda^2/2n}.$$

*Proof.* For any  $\alpha > 0$

$$E[e^{\alpha X_i}] = \frac{1}{2}[e^\alpha + e^{-\alpha}] = \cosh(\alpha) \leq e^{\alpha^2/2}.$$

(The inequality can be shown by comparing the Taylor Series.) As the  $X_i$  are mutually independent,

$$E[e^{\alpha S_n}] = E\left[\prod_{i=1}^n e^{\alpha X_i}\right] = \prod_{i=1}^n E[e^{\alpha X_i}] < \prod_{i=1}^n e^{\alpha^2/2} = e^{\alpha^2 n/2}.$$

Thus

$$\Pr[S_n > \lambda] = \Pr[e^{\alpha S_n} > e^{\alpha \lambda}] \leq E[e^{\alpha S_n}] e^{-\alpha \lambda} < e^{\alpha^2 n/2 - \alpha \lambda}.$$

We now choose  $\alpha = \lambda/n$ , optimizing the inequality

$$\Pr[S_n > \lambda] < e^{-\lambda^2/2n}. \quad \square$$

More generally, let  $Y_1, \dots, Y_n$  be independent with

$$\Pr[Y_i = 1] = p_i, \quad \Pr[Y_i = 0] = 1 - p_i$$

and normalize by setting  $X_i = Y_i - p_i$ . Set  $p = (p_1 + \dots + p_n)/n$  and  $X = X_1 + \dots + X_n$ . We give the following without proof:

$$\Pr[X > a] < e^{-2a^2/n},$$

$$\Pr[X < -a] < e^{-a^2/2pn},$$

$$\Pr[X > a] < e^{-a^2/2pn + a^3/2(pn)^3}.$$

The last two bounds are useful when  $p \ll 1$ . The  $a^3/2(pn)^3$  term is usually small in applications. When all  $p_i = p$ ,  $X = B(n, p) - np$  is roughly normal with zero mean and variance  $np(1-p) \sim np$ , explaining somewhat the latter two inequalities.

**Discrepancy.** Let  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq 2^\Omega$  be an arbitrary family of finite sets. Let  $\chi: \Omega \rightarrow \{+1, -1\}$  be a two-coloring of the underlying points. Define

$$\chi(A) = \sum_{a \in A} \chi(a),$$

$$\text{disc}(\chi) = \max_{A \in \mathcal{A}} |\chi(A)|,$$

$$\text{disc}(\mathcal{A}) = \min_{\chi} \text{disc}(\chi).$$

Note that  $\text{disc}(\chi) \leq K$  means that there is a two-coloring of  $\Omega$  so that every  $A \in \mathcal{A}$  has  $|\chi(A)| \leq K$ .

**THEOREM.** If  $|\mathcal{A}| = |\Omega| = n$ , then

$$\text{disc}(\mathcal{A}) \leq \sqrt{2n \ln(2n)}.$$

*Proof.* With  $\chi$  random and  $|A| = r$ ,  $\chi(A)$  has distribution  $S_r$ . As all  $A \subseteq \Omega$  have  $|A| \leq |\Omega| = n$

$$\Pr[|\chi(A)| > \lambda] < 2 e^{-\lambda^2/2n}.$$

Thus

$$\Pr[\text{disc}(\chi) > \lambda] < \sum_{A \in \mathcal{A}} \Pr[|\chi(A)| > \lambda] < 2n e^{-\lambda^2/2n} = 1$$

by taking  $\lambda = \sqrt{2n \ln(2n)}$ . Thus  $\Pr[\text{disc}(\chi) \leq \lambda] > 0$  and so there exists a  $\chi$  with  $\text{disc}(\chi) \leq \lambda$ .

We can also express this result in vector form.

**THEOREM.** Let  $u_j \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $|u_j|_\infty \leq 1$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq n$ . Then there exist  $\varepsilon_j \in \{-1, +1\}$  so that, setting  $u = \varepsilon_1 u_1 + \dots + \varepsilon_n u_n$ ,  $|u|_\infty \leq \sqrt{2n \ln(2n)}$ . (Note: With  $u = (L_1, \dots, L_n)$ ,  $|u|_\infty = \max |L_i|$ , the  $L^\infty$  norm.)

Here is the translation between the formulations. Given  $\mathcal{A} \subseteq 2^\Omega$ , number the elements  $1, \dots, n$  and the sets  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  and define the incidence matrix  $A = [a_{ij}]$  by  $a_{ij} = 1$  if  $j \in A_i$ ; 0 otherwise. Let  $u_j$  be the column vectors. A two-coloring  $\chi: \Omega \rightarrow \{+1, -1\}$  corresponds to  $\varepsilon_j = \chi(j)$ ,  $\text{disc}(A_i)$  to the  $i$ th coordinate  $L_i$  of  $u$  and  $\text{disc}(\chi)$  to  $|u|_\infty$ . Now, however, we allow  $a_{ij} \in [-1, +1]$  to be arbitrary. The proof of our first theorem can be easily modified to show that with  $\varepsilon_j$  random  $\Pr[|L_i| > \lambda] < 2 e^{-\lambda^2/2n}$  and the rest of the proof follows as before.

$$\begin{array}{rcc}
 & \begin{matrix} 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \end{matrix} \\
 \begin{matrix} S_1 \\ \vdots \\ S_n \end{matrix} & \left[ \begin{array}{cccc} & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \end{array} \right] & \begin{matrix} L_{11} = \chi(S_1) \\ \vdots \\ L_{1n} = \chi(S_n) \end{matrix} \\
 \begin{matrix} u_1 & & & u_n \\ + & - & & - \end{matrix} & & & u = \pm u_1 \pm \dots \pm u_n = (L_{11}, \dots, L_{1n})
 \end{array}$$

# LECTURE 10

## Six Standard Deviations Suffice

I suppose every mathematician has a result he is most pleased with. This is mine.  
**THEOREM.** Let  $S_1, \dots, S_n \subset [n]$ . Then there exists  $\chi: [n] \rightarrow \{-1, +1\}$  such that

$$|\chi(S_i)| < 6n^{1/2}$$

for all  $i, 1 \leq i \leq n$ .

The elementary methods of Lecture 1 already give  $\chi$  with all  $|\chi(S_i)| < cn^{1/2}(\ln n)^{1/2}$ . From our vantage point  $n^{1/2}$  is one standard deviation. With  $\chi$  random  $|\chi(S)| > 6n^{1/2}$  occurs with a small but positive probability  $\epsilon < e^{-6^2/2} = e^{-18}$ . There are  $n$  sets, so the expected number of  $i$  with  $|\chi(S_i)| > 6n^{1/2}$  is  $\epsilon n$ , which goes to infinity with  $n$ . A random  $\chi$  will not work; the key is to meld probabilistic ideas with the Pigeonhole Principle.

The constant 6 is simply the result of calculation, the essential point is that it is an absolute constant. In the original paper it is 5.32, in our proof here “6” = 11.

*Proof.* Let  $C$  be the set of  $\chi: [n] \rightarrow \{-1, +1\}$ . Call  $\chi \in C$  *realistic* if

- (1)  $|\chi(S_i)| > 10n^{1/2}$  for at most  $4(2e^{-50})n$   $i$ 's,
- (2)  $|\chi(S_i)| > 30n^{1/2}$  for at most  $8(2e^{-450})n$   $i$ 's,
- (3)  $|\chi(S_i)| > 50n^{1/2}$  for at most  $16(2e^{-1250})n$   $i$ 's,

and, in general,

- (s)  $|\chi(S_i)| > 10(2s-1)n^{1/2}$  for at most  $2^{s+1}(2e^{-50(2s-1)^2})n$   $i$ 's.

**CLAIM.** At least half the  $\chi \in C$  are realistic.

Pick  $\chi \in C$  at random. Let  $Y_i$  be the indicator random variable for  $|\chi(S_i)| > 10n^{1/2}$ . Set  $Y = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$ . Then

$$E[Y_i] = \Pr[|\chi(S_i)| > 10n^{1/2}] < 2e^{-50}$$

by the bound of Lecture 4. By linearity of expectation

$$E[Y] = \sum_{i=1}^n E[Y_i] = (2e^{-50})n.$$

(We do not know much about the distribution of  $Y$  since the dependence of the  $Y_i$  may be complex, reflecting the intersection pattern of the  $S_i$ . Fortunately,

linearity of expectation ignores dependency.) As  $Y \geq 0$

$$\Pr[Y > 4E[Y]] < \frac{1}{4}.$$

That is,

$$\Pr[\chi \text{ fails (1)}] < \frac{1}{4}.$$

Apply the same argument to (2), letting  $Y_i$  be one if  $|\chi(S_i)| > 30n^{1/2}$ . The  $10^2/2 = 50$  becomes  $30^2/2 = 450$ . Everything is identical except that 4 was changed to 8 so that

$$\Pr[\chi \text{ fails (2)}] < \frac{1}{8}.$$

In general,

$$\Pr[\chi \text{ fails (s)}] < 2^{-s-1}.$$

The probability of a disjunction is at most the sum of the probabilities.

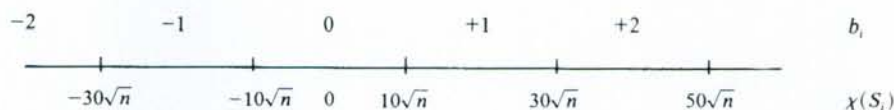
$$\Pr[\chi \text{ not realistic}] \leq \sum_{s=1}^{\infty} 2^{-s-1} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

A random  $\chi$  has probability at least  $\frac{1}{2}$  of being realistic. Each  $\chi$  was given equal weight  $2^{-n}$  in the probability space so at least  $2^{n-1}$   $\chi$  are realistic, completing the claim.

Now we define a map

$$T(\chi) = (b_1, \dots, b_n)$$

where  $b_i$  is the nearest integer to  $\chi(S_i)/20n^{1/2}$ . That is,



$$b_i = 0 \text{ means } |\chi(S_i)| \leq 10n^{1/2},$$

$$b_i = 0, \pm 1 \text{ means } |\chi(S_i)| < 30n^{1/2}, \text{ etc.}$$

Let  $B$  be the set of possible  $T(\chi)$  with  $\chi$  realistic. That is,  $B$  is all  $(b_1, \dots, b_n)$  such that

$$(1) \ b_i \neq 0 \text{ for at most } 4(2e^{-50})n \text{ } i\text{'s,}$$

$$(2) \ b_i \neq 0, \pm 1 \text{ for at most } 8(2e^{-450})n \text{ } i\text{'s,}$$

and, in general,

$$(s) \ |b_i| \geq s \text{ for at most } 2^{s+1}(2e^{-50(2s-1)^2})n \text{ } i\text{'s.}$$

(Let us pause for a geometric view. We are actually showing that if  $A = [a_{ij}]$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix with all  $|a_{ij}| \leq 1$ , then there exists  $x \in C = \{-1, +1\}^n$  so that  $\|Ax\|_{\infty} \leq Kn^{1/2}$ . We consider  $A: R^n \rightarrow R^n$  given by  $x \rightarrow Ax$ . We split the range into

cubes of size  $20n^{1/2}$ , centered about the origin. We want to prove that some  $x \in C$  is mapped into the central cube. We cannot do this directly, but we plan to find  $x, y \in C$  mapped into the same cube and examine  $(x-y)/2$ . We want to employ the Pigeonhole Principle, with the  $2^n x \in C$  mapped into the cubes. To do this we restrict attention to the  $2^{n-1}$  realistic  $x$  as they are mapped (shown by the next claim) into a much smaller number of cubes.)

CLAIM.  $|B| < (1.0000000000000001)^n$ .

We use the inequality, valid for all  $n$ , all  $a \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$\sum_{i < na} \binom{n}{i} < 2^{nH(a)}$$

where  $H(a) = -a \lg a - (1-a) \lg (1-a)$  is the entropy function. We can choose  $\{i: b_i \neq 0\}$  in at most  $2^{nH(8e^{-50})}$  ways. Then we can choose the signs of the nonzero  $b_i$  in at most  $2^{8e^{-50}n}$  ways. For each  $s$  there are at most  $2^{**[nH(2^{s+1}e^{-50(2s+1)^2})]}$  ways to choose  $\{i: |b_i| > s\}$ . These choices determine  $(b_1, \dots, b_n)$ . Thus  $|B| < 2^{\beta n}$  where

$$\beta = 8e^{-50} + H(8e^{-50}) + H(16e^{-450}) + H(32e^{-1250}) + \dots$$

This series clearly converges and the claim follows from a calculation.

Now apply the Pigeonhole Principle to the map  $T$  from the (at least)  $2^{n-1}$  realistic  $\chi$  to the (at most)  $(1+10^{-16})^n$  pigeonholes  $B$ . There is a set  $C'$  of at least  $2^{n-1}/(1+10^{-16})^n$  realistic  $\chi$  mapping into the same  $(b_1, \dots, b_n)$ .

Let us think of  $C$  as the Hamming Cube  $\{-1, +1\}^n$  with the metric

$$\rho(\chi_1, \chi_2) = |\{i: \chi_1(i) \neq \chi_2(i)\}|.$$

D. Kleitman has proved that if  $C' \subset C$  and  $|C'| \geq \sum_{i \leq r} \binom{n}{i}$  with  $r \leq n$  then  $C'$  has diameter at least  $2r$ . That is, the set of a given size with minimal diameter is the ball. In our case  $|C'| > 2^{n-1}/(1+10^{-16})^n$  so we may take  $r = \frac{1}{2}n(1-10^{-6})$  with room to spare and  $C'$  has diameter at least  $n(1-10^{-6})$ . Let  $\chi_1, \chi_2 \in C'$  be at maximal distance. (Kleitman's Theorem is not really necessary. The elementary argument at the end of Lecture 9 gives that  $C'$  has diameter at least  $.4999n$ . We could use this value and finish the proof with a much worse, but still absolute constant, value of "6".) Now set

$$\chi = (\chi_1 - \chi_2)/2;$$

then  $\chi$  is a partial coloring of  $[n]$ . As  $T(\chi_1) = T(\chi_2)$  both  $\chi_1(S_i)$  and  $\chi_2(S_i)$  lie in a common interval  $[(20b_i - 10)n^{1/2}, (20b_i + 10)n^{1/2}]$ . Then

$$(*) \quad |\chi(S_i)| = |(\chi_1(S_i) - \chi_2(S_i))/2| \leq 10n^{1/2}.$$

Also

$$(**) \quad |\{i: \chi(i) \neq 0\}| < 10^{-6}n.$$

Now iterate. We now have  $n$  sets on  $10^{-6}n$  points. If we had only  $10^{-6}n$  sets we could partially color all but a millionth of the points, giving all sets discrepancy of at most  $10(10^{-6}n)^{1/2} = .01n^{1/2}$ . Things are not quite so simple as we still have  $n$  sets. We actually need the following result: Given  $n$  sets on  $r$  points,  $r \leq n$ ,

there is a partial coloring of all but at most a millionth of the points so that all

$$|\chi(S)| < 10r^{1/2}[\ln(2n/r)]^{1/2}.$$

The argument is basically that given when  $r = n$  but the formulae are a bit more fierce. Let us assume the result (read the original paper!) and now iterate. On the second iteration

$$|\chi(S)| < 10(n10^{-6})^{1/2}[\ln(2 \times 10^6)]^{1/2} < .4n.$$

The future terms decrease even faster. The logarithmic term, while annoying, does not affect the convergence. At the end, with all points colored,

$$\begin{aligned} |\chi(S)| &\leq 10n^{1/2} + 10(n10^{-6})^{1/2}[\ln(2 \times 10^6)]^{1/2} \\ &\quad + 10(n10^{-12})^{1/2}[\ln(2 \times 10^{12})]^{1/2} \\ &\quad + \dots \\ &\leq 11n^{1/2}, \end{aligned}$$

completing the proof for “6” = 11.

From the reductions of Lecture 5 we derive the following.

**COROLLARY.**  $\text{disc}(\mathcal{A}) \leq K|\mathcal{A}|^{1/2}$ . That is, given any  $n$  finite sets there is a two-coloring of the underlying points so that each set has discrepancy at most  $Kn^{1/2}$ .

This result is best possible up to the constant. Here are two proofs. First, take an  $n \times n$  Hadamard Matrix  $H = (h_{ij})$  with the first row all ones. Set  $A = (a_{ij}) = (H+J)/2$  so that  $a_{ij} = 1$  when  $h_{ij} = 1$  and  $a_{ij} = 0$  when  $h_{ij} = -1$ . Let  $\bar{1} = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  be the columns of  $H$  and  $\bar{1} = w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n$  be the columns of  $A$ , so that  $w_i = (v_i + \bar{1})/2$ . For any choice of signs

$$u = \pm w_1 \pm w_2 \pm \dots \pm w_n = \frac{1}{2}v + s\bar{1}$$

where  $v = \pm v_1 \pm \dots \pm v_n$ . As the  $v_i$  are orthogonal and  $|v_i|_2 = n^{1/2}$ ,  $|v|_2 = [n(n-1)]^{1/2}$ . Also  $v \cdot \bar{1} = 0$  so  $|u|_2 \geq \frac{1}{2}|v|_2 = [n(n-1)]^{1/2}/2$  and thus

$$|u|_\infty \geq (n-1)^{1/2}/2.$$

The second proof involves turning the probabilistic method on its head. Let  $T_1, \dots, T_n$  be randomly chosen subsets of  $[n]$ . That is, for all  $i, j$   $\Pr[j \in T_i] = \frac{1}{2}$  and these events are mutually independent. Let  $\chi: [n] \rightarrow \{-1, +1\}$  be arbitrary but fixed. Let  $P = \{j: \chi(j) = +1\}$ ,  $N = \{j: \chi(j) = -1\}$ ,  $a = |P|$  so  $n - a = |N|$ . Then  $|T_i \cap P|$  has binomial distribution  $B(a, \frac{1}{2})$  while  $|T_i \cap N|$  has  $B(n - a, \frac{1}{2})$  and thus  $\chi(T_i)$  has distribution  $B(a, \frac{1}{2}) - B(n - a, \frac{1}{2})$ . When  $a = n/2$   $\chi(T_i)$  is roughly normal with zero mean and standard deviation  $\frac{1}{2}n^{1/2}$ . Then

$$\lim_n \Pr[|\chi(T_i)| \leq \frac{1}{2}c\sqrt{n}] = \int_{-c}^{+c} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-t^2/2} dt.$$

One can show that this probability is maximized essentially when  $a = n/2$ . Pick  $c \sim .67$  so that the above integral is .5. Decrease  $c$  slightly so that the inequality is strict:

$$\Pr[|\chi(T_i)| < .33\sqrt{n}] < .499.$$

Now since the  $T_i$  are chosen independently the events  $|\chi(T_i)| > .33n^{1/2}$  are mutually independent so that

$$\Pr[|\chi(T_i)| < .33n^{1/2}, 1 \leq i \leq n] < .499^n.$$

Let  $Y_x$  be one if  $|\chi(T_i)| < .33n^{1/2}$  for all  $i$  and let

$$Y = \sum_x Y_x$$

the sum over all  $2^n$  colorings  $\chi$ . Then

$$E[Y] = \sum_x E[Y_x] < 2^n (.499)^n \ll 1.$$

Thus the event  $Y=0$  has positive probability, actually probability nearly one. There is a point in the probability space (i.e. actual sets  $T_1, \dots, T_n$ ) so that  $Y=0$  which, when we unravel the definitions, means that the family  $\mathcal{A} = \{T_1, \dots, T_n\}$  has  $\text{disc}(\mathcal{A}) > .33n^{1/2}$ .

Let us restate our basic theorem of this Lecture in vector form.

**THEOREM.** *Let  $u_j \in R^n$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq n$ ,  $|u_j|_\infty \leq 1$ . Then for some choice of signs*

$$|\pm u_1 \pm \dots \pm u_n|_\infty \leq Kn^{1/2}.$$

To prove this we set  $u = (L_1, \dots, L_n) = \pm u_1 \pm \dots \pm u_n$ . Then each  $L_i$  has distribution  $L_i = \pm a_{i1} \pm \dots \pm a_{in}$  with all  $|a_{ij}| \leq 1$ . From the arguments of Lecture 4,  $\Pr[|L_i| > 10n^{1/2}] < e^{-50}$ , etc. and the proof goes through as before.

The methods of Lecture 5 also allow us to re-express our result in terms of simultaneous approximation. Given data  $a_{ij}$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq m$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq n$  with all  $|a_{ij}| \leq 1$ . Given initial values  $x_j$ ,  $1 \leq j \leq n$ . A simultaneous round-off is a set of integers  $y_j$ , each  $y_j$  either the "round-up" or "round-down" of  $x_j$ . Let  $E_i$  be the error

$$E_i = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}(x_j - y_j)$$

and  $E$  the maximal error,  $E = \max |E_i|$ .

**COROLLARY.** *There exists a simultaneous round-off with  $E \leq Km^{1/2}$ .*

Is there a polynomial time algorithm that gives the simultaneous round-off guaranteed by this corollary? Given  $u_1, \dots, u_n \in R^n$  with all  $|u_j|_\infty \leq 1$ , is there a polynomial time algorithm to find signs such that  $|\pm u_1 \pm \dots \pm u_n|_\infty < Kn^{1/2}$ ? The difficulties in converting these theorems to algorithms go back to the basic theorem of this Lecture and lie, I feel, in the use of the Pigeonhole Principle. In Lecture 4 we saw that there is a rapid algorithm giving  $|\pm u_1 \pm \dots \pm u_n|_\infty < cn^{1/2}(\ln n)^{1/2}$ . We also saw that no nonanticipative algorithm could do better. That is, a better algorithm could not determine the sign of  $u_j$  simply on the basis of  $u_1, \dots, u_{j-1}, u_j$  but would have to look ahead. Also we can show, standing the probabilistic method on its head, that there are  $u_1, \dots, u_n$  so that the number of choices of signs with  $|\pm u_1 \pm \dots \pm u_n|_\infty < Kn^{1/2}$  is less than  $(2-c)^n$  of the  $2^n$  possible choices. Hence a randomly selected choice of signs will not work. Let us rephrase back into the language of sets and conclude the Lectures with the following problem.

*Open Problem.* Is there a polynomial time algorithm which, given input  $S_1, \dots, S_n \subset [n]$ , outputs a two-coloring  $\chi: [n] \rightarrow \{-1, +1\}$  such that

$$|\chi(S_i)| \leq Kn^{1/2}$$

for all  $i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ?

#### REFERENCE

J. SPENCER, *Six standard deviations suffice*, Trans. Amer. Math. Soc., 289 (1985), pp. 679-706.