#### University of Edinburgh

### INFR11156: Algorithmic Foundations of Data Science (2019)

Lecture 3: High-Dimensional Spaces (2)

## 1 Generating points uniformly at random from a ball

There are various methods for generating values from the normal distribution, and here we review the Box-Muller method: (1) Let U, V be two independent random numbers distributed uniformly on (0, 1); (2) compute

 $X = \sqrt{-2\ln U}\cos(2\pi V), \qquad Y = \sqrt{-2\ln U}\sin(2\pi V).$ 

Then both of X and Y are the standard normal distribution, and are independent.

Now we study generating points uniformly at random on the surface of the unit ball in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . The algorithm is described as follows: (1) generate  $x_1, \ldots, x_d$  where each  $x_i \sim N(0, 1)$ ; (2) define  $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_d)$ , and return  $\frac{x}{||x||}$ . This gives a distribution that is uniform on the surface of the sphere.

# 2 Dimensionality reduction

In the last week's lecture we saw the concentration behaviours of high dimensional data through the application of the Law of Large Numbers. On the other side, through a motivating example we also saw that low dimensional data is easier to analyse. What remains is to analyse the data points in the Euclidean space whose dimension is "medium". In particular, ideally we would like to see whether these data points can be embedded into a lower dimensional space while their pairwise distances are still preserved, see the formulation below:

Given a set  $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  of n points, describe the points in X in fewer dimensions  $k \ll n$  such that their pairwise distances are almost preserved.

This question and the techniques developed to solve the question, a.k.a. dimensionality reduction, plays fundamental roles in Data Science due to the following reasons: (1) Low dimensional datasets are more space-efficient to be stored; (2) algorithms for low dimensional points usually run faster.

In today's lecture, we study the Johnson-Lindenstrauss lemma, which states that any n points in high dimensional Eucliean space can be mapped onto k dimensions where  $k = O(\log n/\varepsilon^2)$  without distorting the Euclidean distance between any pair of points more than a factor of  $1 \pm \varepsilon$ .

**Lemma 1** (Johnson-Lindenstrauss, 1984). Let  $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  be a set of n points,  $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/5)$ . Then, there is a random matrix  $\Phi \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times d}$ , such that it holds with constant probability that

$$\forall x, y \in X: \qquad (1 - \varepsilon) \|x - y\|_2 \le \|\Phi x - \Phi y\|_2 \le (1 + \varepsilon) \|x - y\|_2, \tag{1}$$

where  $k = O\left(\frac{\log n}{\varepsilon^2}\right)$ .

#### Remark:

- The statement above holds for *all pair* of points, instead of most pairs of points.
- The number of dimensions in the projection is only a logarithmic function of n, and independent of d. Since k is usually much less than d, we sometimes call this lemma dimension reduction lemma. In applications, the dominant term is typically the  $1/\varepsilon^2$  term.

- The matrix  $\Phi$  is independent of the input points.
- The number of dimensions needed is shown to be optimal. It is known that there is a set of points in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  such that, in order to have (1),  $k = \Omega\left(\frac{\log n}{\varepsilon^2}\right)$ .

The key to prove the Johnson-Lindenstrauss lemma is the following technical lemma.

**Lemma 2.** Given the same hypothesis, there exists a matrix  $\Phi \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times d}$  such that it holds for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  that

$$\mathbf{Pr}[\|\Phi x\|_{2} \le (1-\varepsilon)\|x\|_{2} \text{ or } \|\Phi x\|_{2} \ge (1+\varepsilon)\|x\|_{2}] \le 2 \cdot e^{-k \cdot \varepsilon^{2}/5}$$

Proof of Lemma 1. For any  $x, y \in X$  we define  $z_{x,y} = x - y$ . We apply Lemma 2 on all possible  $z_{x,y}$ . Hence, using the union bound the total "failure" probability is at most

$$\frac{n(n-1)}{2} \cdot 2 \cdot \mathrm{e}^{-k \cdot \varepsilon^2/5},$$

which is a constant if  $k = O\left(\frac{\log n}{\varepsilon^2}\right)$ .

We list several facts about the normal distributions that will be used in our proof.

Fact 3. The following statements hold:

1. If  $X_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$  and  $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$  for any  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , then it holds that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i \sim N\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mu_i, \sum_{i=1}^n (a_i \sigma_i)^2\right).$$

2. If  $X_1, \ldots, X_k$  are independent, standard normal random variables, then the sum of their squares

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^{k} X_i^2$$

is distributed according to the  $\chi^2$  distribution with k degree of freedom, denoted as  $Q \sim \chi^2(k)$ .

3. The moment generating function of a random variable is  $M_x(t) = \mathbf{E}\left[e^{tX}\right]$  for  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . If  $X \sim \chi^2(k)$ , then it holds that  $\mathbf{E}\left[e^{tX}\right] = (1-2t)^{-k/2}$ .

*Proof of Lemma 2.* Let us define  $\Phi$  as a matrix

$$\Phi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} \begin{bmatrix} g_{11} & g_{12} & g_{13} & \dots & g_{1d} \\ g_{21} & g_{22} & g_{23} & \dots & g_{2d} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ g_{k1} & g_{k2} & g_{k3} & \dots & g_{kd} \end{bmatrix},$$

where every  $g_{i,j} \sim N(0,1)$ . Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  be an arbitrary vector, and we assume without loss of generality that ||x|| = 1. We define  $y = \Phi \cdot x$ . By definition, we have for each  $1 \leq i \leq k$  that

$$y_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} \sum_{j=1}^d g_{i,j} x_j.$$

We apply Fact 3 and obtain that

$$y_i \sim N\left(0, \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^d x_j^2\right),$$

i.e.  $y_i \sim N(0, 1/k)$  due to the fact that ||x|| = 1. This gives us that  $\sqrt{k}y_i \sim N(0, 1)$ , and therefore

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} \left( \sqrt{k} y_i \right)^2 = k \sum_{i=1}^{k} y_i^2 \sim \chi^2(k).$$

For ease of analysis we introduce  $h_1, \ldots, h_k$ , which are independent and identically distributed random variables such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} h_i^2 = k \sum_{i=1}^{k} y_i^2.$$
 (2)

Hence, it holds that

$$\mathbf{Pr}\left[\|\Phi x\| \ge 1+\varepsilon\right] \le \mathbf{Pr}\left[\|\Phi x\|^2 \ge 1+\varepsilon\right] = \mathbf{Pr}\left[\sum_{i=1}^k y_i^2 \ge 1+\varepsilon\right].$$

By (2) we have for any  $\lambda > 0$  that

$$\mathbf{Pr}\left[\left\|\Phi x\right\| \ge 1+\varepsilon\right] \le \mathbf{Pr}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{k} h_i^2 \ge (1+\varepsilon) \cdot k\right] = \mathbf{Pr}\left[e^{\lambda \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{k} h_i^2} \ge e^{\lambda(1+\varepsilon) \cdot k}\right].$$

Since the  $h_i$ 's are independent to each other, we apply Markov's inequality and obtain

$$\mathbf{Pr}\left[e^{\lambda \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{k} h_{i}^{2}} \ge e^{\lambda(1+\varepsilon) \cdot k}\right] \le \frac{\mathbf{E}\left[e^{\lambda \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{k} h_{i}^{2}}\right]}{e^{\lambda(1+\varepsilon) \cdot k}} = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{k} \mathbf{E}\left[e^{\lambda \cdot h_{i}^{2}}\right]}{e^{\lambda(1+\varepsilon) \cdot k}}$$

Since  $h_i \sim N(0,1)$  and  $\mathbf{E}\left[e^{\lambda h_i^2}\right] = (1-2t)^{-1/2}$  by using the moment generating function of  $\chi^2$  distributions, we have

$$\mathbf{Pr}\left[e^{\lambda \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{k} h_{i}^{2}} \ge e^{\lambda(1+\varepsilon) \cdot k}\right] \le \frac{\left(1/\sqrt{1-2\lambda}\right)^{k}}{e^{\lambda(1+\varepsilon) \cdot k}} = \frac{e^{-\frac{k}{2} \cdot \log(1-2\lambda)}}{e^{\lambda(1+\varepsilon) \cdot k}}$$

Since  $\log(1-x) \ge -x - x^2/2 - x^3/2$  for  $x \in (0, 1/5)$ , we assume  $\lambda \le 1/10$  and have

$$\mathbf{Pr}\left[e^{\lambda \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{k} h_{i}^{2}} \ge e^{\lambda(1+\varepsilon) \cdot k}\right] \le \frac{e^{\frac{k}{2} \cdot (2\lambda+2\lambda^{2}+4\lambda^{3})}}{e^{\lambda(1+\varepsilon) \cdot k}} \le e^{-k\varepsilon^{2}/5}$$

by setting  $\lambda = \varepsilon/2$ . Combining all the calculations above gives us that

$$\mathbf{Pr}\left[\left\|\Phi x\right\| \ge 1 + \varepsilon\right] \le e^{-k\varepsilon^2/5}.$$

By the symmetry of random variables  $y_i$ 's and the union bound, we have

$$\Pr[\|\Phi x\|_{2} \le (1-\varepsilon)\|x\|_{2} \text{ or } \|\Phi x\|_{2} \ge (1+\varepsilon)\|x\|_{2}] \le 2 \cdot e^{-k\varepsilon^{2}/5}.$$

which finishes the proof.