

Scalable Data Science
Prof. Anirban Dasgupta
Department of Computer Science and Engineering
Indian Institute of Technology, Gandhinagar

Lecture - 14b
Random Projection Applications and Fast JL

Welcome to the course on Scalable Data Science. My name is Anirban I am from IIT, Gandhinagar. Today's lecture is going to be on the ups looking at small application for random projections and look and then looking at some other algorithms for improving the type of random projections that we were looking, that we had looked at before, right.

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Johnson Lindenstrauss Lemma [JL84]

$\epsilon > 0, k \geq \frac{C}{\epsilon^2} \log(n)$. There exists a **linear mapping** A such that whp, for all (i, j)

$$(1 - \epsilon)|x_i - x_j| \leq |Ax_i - Ax_j| \leq (1 + \epsilon)|x_i - x_j|$$

$x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$

The slide features a diagram illustrating the Johnson-Lindenstrauss Lemma. On the left, a set of points is shown in a d -dimensional space, with axes labeled d . A blue arrow points to the right, where the same set of points is shown in a k -dimensional space, with axes labeled k . The diagram visually demonstrates how the pairwise distances between points are preserved up to a factor of $(1 \pm \epsilon)$ when mapped from a high-dimensional space to a lower-dimensional space.

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So, just to remind you we were studying this Johnson Lindenstrauss Lemma, right what it says is that if you are given a set of points x_1 to x_n in some d dimensional space and it does not really matter how big this d is. And what you are interested in is in creating a mapping that creates the images of these points in some lower dimensional space let me call that k , such that the pairwise distance between any two points is more or less preserved. So, it interested in coming upwards with representation with the representation of all the points such that the pairwise distances are more or less preserved. And the factor to which you want them reserved is given by this value epsilon, right.

So, every distance needs to be preserved to a factor $1 \pm \epsilon$ to a multiplicative factor $1 \pm \epsilon$, right. And when we talk about distances we always talk about L_2 distances here. So, Johnson and Lindenstrauss says is that there exists a linear mapping, right such that the target dimension a is C over $\epsilon^2 \log n$ and this mapping is created by the Gaussian by sort of filling it up by filling up the matrix with Gaussian, independent Gaussian random variables, ok. And what we will guarantee is that with very high probability for every pair ij the distance x_i the distance $\|A x_i - A x_j\|$ will be within a $1 \pm \epsilon$ factor of the distance $\|x_i - x_j\|$, ok.

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The slide is titled "Other properties" and contains the following text:

- The bound $k \geq \frac{C}{\epsilon^2} \log\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right)$ is tight
 - Alon03, JW11
- Target dimension depends only on ϵ, δ
- Such result cannot hold in distances other than Euclidean metric

Handwritten notes in red ink include: $x \rightarrow 1 - \delta$ and $\frac{C}{\epsilon^2} \log\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right)$. There is also a small video inset in the bottom right corner showing a person speaking.

So couple of things before we move on into looking at an application first of all it is known that the bound on the bound on k , that this theorem achieves which is this $\frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \log \frac{1}{\delta}$. Remember why this $\log \frac{1}{\delta}$ came, because improving the Johnson Lindenstrauss theorem the final result about the about n choose two pairs we were proving a core Lemma the core Johnson which is actually known as the j n Lemma in which we said that for a for a given for a given distance x or for a for a given point x its length is preserved with probability $1 - \delta$ if the target dimension is C over $\epsilon^2 \log \frac{1}{\delta}$, right. And then we were applying a union bound to preserve the distances of all n choose two pairs, ok.

So, and this what this theorem says well what these results show this result by Alon and the result by Jayaram and Woodruff is that this bound is tight, right that if we want such a mapping you need to it has to be has to take at least $1/\epsilon$, the target dimension has to be at least $1/\epsilon^2$ it also has to be at least $\log(1/\delta)$ and these are information theoretic bounds. You cannot really do much better however, smart your algorithm is, right.

It is also very interesting to know that the target dimension does not depend on the original dimension as we have mentioned before another very interesting and non trivial result is to show that that such a result cannot really hold in l_1 for instance, right. Then in some sense in a very strong sense that such a result more or less characterizes the Euclidean metric, ok. So, these are all pretty theoretical results that we are not going to go into the details, but they are I mean they are very insightful very good to know, ok.

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The slide is titled "Other constructions" and includes the following content:

- [Achlioptas '03]
- Sampling and storing Gaussian random variables is expensive
- $R_{ij} = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{with prob } \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & \text{with prob } \frac{2}{3} \\ -1 & \text{with prob } \frac{1}{3} \end{cases}$

Handwritten notes in red ink include:

- $E[R_{ij}^2] = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} = \frac{2}{3}$
- $A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} R$
- $E[R_{ij}^2] = k$
- $R_{ij} \sim N(0,1)$

A small video inset in the bottom right corner shows a man speaking.

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So, now let us talk about other ways of creating this matrix remember the way we were creating the matrix is by is by creating this matrix R such that R_{ij} is $N(0,1)$, ok. And then we made sure that every column of R is normally is has one norm that is more or less equal to 1, right.

So, the one, so has two norm that is more or less equal to that is more or less equal to 1 because the this norm of every column the expected norm of let us say the column 1 is equal to k , right. And if I divide by square root $1/\sqrt{k}$ if I take a equal to 1

over square root k times R then the expected norm of the of the first column of A becomes 1 and that is what I really wanted, right. So, therefore, I need to normalize it by 1 over square root in order to in order to actually get the JL matrix.

So, another way another interesting way and this was given by Achlioptas in 2003 of creating this matrix is to say that oh do not bother with normal random variables, because I need expensive to sort of sample from the expensive to create they are expensive to store because I need to store floating point numbers and so on, right. Instead create this R in the following way. For every entry independently toss a coin and now this is a 3 headed coin, right with probability two-third it gives you 0 with probability one-third it gives you plus 1, probability one-third it gives minus 1.

So, again it is unbiased. So, just like the original R_{ij} 's which say Gaussian is unbiased every R_{ij} is unbiased it has a variance that is bounded by expectation of R_{ij} that is expectation of R_{ij} square is one-third plus one-third which is equal to two-third, ok. And this is also fine we can show exactly the same kind of current is for this R as we can do for the for the original R , which is created out of normal random variables.

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Other constructions

[Achlioptas '03]

- Sampling and storing Gaussian random variables is expensive

$$A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} R$$

- $R_{ij} = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{with prob } \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & \text{with prob } \frac{2}{3} \\ -1 & \text{with prob } \frac{1}{3} \end{cases}$

$R_{ij} \sim$ any subgaussian distribution with variance 1

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Furthermore, any R_{ij} that is created from what is known as a sub Gaussian distribution with variance 1 would work. So, intuitively as a Gaussian distribution is 1 who still decays faster than the normal distribution, right that is that is the intuition of the Gaussian distribution. So, you could sample R_{ij} independently from any such

distribution you need to normalize it so that it has variance 1 and then and then you are fine, ok. You can prove the same kind of inequalities.

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Example Application: PCA

- Suppose we have $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$, want to get a rank- k approximation A' so that $\|A - A'\|_F$ is minimized. $\|A - A'\|_F^2 = \sum_{i,j} (A - A')_{ij}^2$
- Optimal low-rank approximation, $A_k = U_k \Sigma_k V_k^T$
 - Takes time $O(nd \min(n, d))$
 - $\approx O(n^3)$ $n \times d$

So, let us say a specific application of this random projection. So, suppose we have a matrix A in \mathbb{R}^n by d , right and we want to get a low rank approximation. Let us say a rank k approximation for a specific k . So, notice that I am sort of overloading k this k is disjoint is not the same as a k in the random projection that we talked about here we are using is it as a local variable.

We want to get a rank k approximation A' so that $\|A - A'\|_F$ the Frobenius norm is minimized, if you remember if you do not remember what the Frobenius norm is, so $\|A - A'\|_F^2$ is defined as the summation over all the entries $(A - A')_{ij}^2$, you take the ij th entry you sort of square it and then you sum up the squares, ok.

So, we know what the optimal such A' is if you have already seen it in previous lectures. The optimal low rank approximation is given by what is known as singular value decomposition. So, what you do is that you first do a singular value decomposition single singular vector singular value decomposition of A which is given by $U \Sigma V^T$, where U has orthogonal columns V and so does V , and Σ is the diagonal matrix. And then if you want a rank k approximation of the optimal rank k approximation if you want A_k if U' to be of rank k , right then you keep only k singular values in

sigma the corresponding singular vectors in U and the corresponding singular vectors in V transpose, right and this is denoted by U_k sigma k and V_k transpose, ok so, this is how we solve the problem.

The problem is that it takes time that is almost cubic in the data in the that is almost like $n \times d$ times $n \times d$ mean of $n \times d$, right. So, if n and d are the same it takes time n cubed more or less if n is close to d , right. So, that is cubic in the number of data points that is not acceptable, ok. So, you want to do this much faster, at least approximate this much faster.

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The slide is titled "Low rank Approximation" and contains the following content:

- Handwritten notes at the top left show two boxes labeled U_k and U_k^T with arrows indicating their relationship.
- Handwritten notes at the top right show $A_k =$ followed by a blank space.
- First bullet point: Projection $P_A^k = U_k U_k^T$, $\|A - P_A^k A\|_2 = \sigma_{k+1}$
- Second bullet point: For any B and P_B^k , $\sigma_{k+1} \leq \|A - P_B^k A\|_2 \leq \sigma_{k+1} + \sqrt{2\|AA^T - BB^T\|_2}$ (FKV04)
- Third bullet point: Want B that is
 - Efficiently computable and small
 - Leads to low error, $\|AA^T - BB^T\|_2 \leq \epsilon \|AA^T\|_2$

[Example courtesy Edo Liberty]

So, how do we do this? So, before we do this we need to look a little bit into in into some linear algebra. So, recall that this I mean we can write down the matrix A_k also in terms of a projection of the columns of A onto some space. So, what is this space? You create a projection matrix out of the first k singular vectors of A . So, U_k are the first k singular vectors of A and you create a projection matrix of rank k . So, U_k is of size n . So, U_k is of size n by k so, you create a project so, this projection matrix is of size n by n . So, it projects the columns of A onto the space spanned by the first k singular vectors of A , right. So, this is equal to A_k actually and we know that $\|A - P A_k\|_2$ norm of this equal to σ_{k+1} . So, notice this is the matrix two norm right.

We also know using results from Frieze Kannan Vempala that for any matrix B , right. That suppose we look at any other matrix P and instead of taking it instead of taking the

top k singular vectors of the matrix A , let me look at the top k singular vectors of the matrix B and project the columns of A onto that space, right. So, how close do we get from the error that we were getting when we are using A_k , right.

So, justifiably if B is close to A you can imagine that if B is close to A , right then this error the error on the left hand side should be similar to this error, right. In fact, if it is exactly equal to k then the two errors are obviously, equal, right. So, this result by Frieze Kannan Vempala shows that if B is close to A then the error that you see out here, while it is at most σ_{k+1} because this is the σ_{k+1} is the optimal error, right and we are looking at the 2 norm of the matrix here, while this error is at least σ_{k+1} it is at most σ_{k+1} plus term that depends on the difference between A and B . So, this difference is given by square root of the 2 norm of the matrix $A^T - PB^T$, ok.

So, if I can make B be close to A , I mean if I can make B such that this error is small, right then I get that the error obtained by $\|A - PB\|_2$ is also small, right it is not very far off from the optimal error which is σ_{k+1} . So, I want to create a B that is efficiently computable and small in size, right and it should lead to small low error. So, concretely what I want is that I want this quantity the term that is computing to the error to be at most ϵ times the error the two norm of the A^T , right why am I choosing this quantity because it is going to come up in my analysis, ok.

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The slide is titled "Cheap and effective low rank". It contains two bullet points:

- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$, create $R \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}$ as a JL matrix
- $B = AR \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$

Handwritten red annotations include underlines under the first bullet point, a red arrow pointing from the first bullet point to the second, and the expression $O(ndk)$ written in red next to the second bullet point. A small video inset in the bottom right corner shows a man speaking.

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So, how do I create such a B efficiently? It turns out that creating such a B is very easy, right and this is what I call cheap and effective low rank approximation. Given a matrix A which lies in n by d, right we just sample a d by k matrix JL matrix R. Remember what a JL matrix is, a JL matrix is something that satisfies the conditions of the JL theorem which means that it sort of preserves the distances to a certain point set to a factor 1 plus minus epsilon that is what we call a JL matrix, ok.


And specifically I can create a JL matrix by sort of taking a d by k frame and then filling it up with Gaussians and 0 1 entries or with plus minus 1s sample according to the algorithm (Refer Time: 13:00) and then I could normalize it. So, that the length of each column, so that the expected squared length of each column is 1, ok.


And now which is we obtain B by just multiplying A with R that is it that is my B, ok. So, you can imagine that this is pretty efficient, right this takes time order n d k, this multiplication.

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Cheap and effective low rank

- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$, create $R \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}$ as a JL matrix
- $B = AR \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$
- Note that $E[BB^t] = A E[RR^t] A^t = AA^t$





And also notice that just for sanity check if I calculate expectation of $B B^t$ that is equal to A times if I replace B by A times R , then this comes out to be expectation of $E[RR^t] A^t$. And it is not very hard for you to see that expectation of RR^t under the condition is identity because every entry has unit variance every R_{ij} has unit variance and because the R_{ij} s are independent of each other therefore, the covariance of any two entries is 0, right.

So, based on this you can say that that this expectation comes out to be AA^t . So, so the matrix transpose certainly has a right expectation, right.

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JL in low rank approximation

- Using the JL property

$$\Pr[|yR|^2 - |y|^2 > \epsilon|y|^2] < \exp(-ck\epsilon^2)$$

Using union bound over a ϵ -net, $k = \tilde{O}\left(\frac{\text{rank}(A)}{\epsilon^2}\right)$

$$\|A^t A - B^t B\|_2 = \sup_{|x|=1} |x A|^2 - |x A R|^2 \leq \epsilon \|A^t A\|_2$$

Time taken = $O(ndk)$

So, now we know that the matrix R. So, now I want to make sure that I want to make sure that the error $A^t A - B^t B$ is small, ok. So in fact, this should be $A^t A - B^t B$, ok.

And this is really again just a simple application of the of the JL property, what we can show is that. So, remember what is the two norm of $A^t A - B^t B$. It is really the supremum, so the two norm of a matrix A is really the supremum of Ax over all x that is two norm 1, right. So, therefore, with only a little bit of algebra the two norm of this of this of this particular matrix $A^t A - B^t B$ is given by you have to multiply it by x, let us say I mean an equivalent way would be to sort of, an equivalent way would be to just take maximum of $x^t (A^t A - B^t B) x$ such that the two norm of such that the two norm of x is 1, right. And once you apply this inequality you see this once you apply this equality you see this that what I need to bound is the supremum of Ax of this quantity under the condition of $|x|^2 = 1$. So, the length of Ax squared minus the length of AR squared, right under the condition that x has unique norm, and.

So, now, how do we bound this? Now, for a fixed x, right, so imagine x times A is y, x times A is y, right. So, then this is nothing, but bounding y the length of y minus the projected length of y minus the length of the projection y R, right. And by using the Johnson Lindenstrauss property this is exactly what we know to be small, right. We know that the probability that the length y R the length of y R lies between I mean

crosses one plus epsilon times the length of y is exponentially small, right is smaller than exp of minus c k epsilon square.

So, you have not written known exactly this form, right, but this is what the form that came out when we were actually doing the proof of Johnson Lindenstrauss and then in this form we plugged in k to be 1 by epsilon square log 1 by delta and then we get this quantity the, right hand side quantity to be less than delta k to be. I mean there has to be some hidden constants in there, right. So, now, we know. So, now, using the random projection the length preserving property of R we know that for a specific x this quantity is small, right. So, now, what do we do for the I mean small as in it lies it is of this order it is of the order of the length of y, it is of the order of the squared epsilon times the squared length of y.

So, but this is a supremum over a infinite set of vectors. So, what do we do? We have to take union bound, but we cannot really just take union down over infinite set of vectors, right. So, what a standard trick here is to do something like something called an epsilon net argument that is what we do is to say that, ok.

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The slide contains the following content:

- Title:** JL in low rank approximation
- Bullet point:** Using the JL property

$$\Pr[|yR|^2 - |y|^2 > \epsilon |y|^2] < \exp(-ck\epsilon^2)$$
- Text:** Using union bound over a ϵ -net, $k = \tilde{O}\left(\frac{\text{rank}(A)}{\epsilon^2}\right)$
- Equation:**

$$|A^p A^k - B^p B^k| = \sup_{|x|=1} | |xA|^2 - |xAR|^2 | \leq \epsilon |A^p A^k|$$
- Text:** Time taken = $O(ndk)$
- Logos:** IIT Gandhinagar Indian Institute of Technology Gandhinagar and NPTEL ONLINE CERTIFICATION COURSES.
- Inset:** A small video frame showing a man speaking.

It is actually enough to show this, right for all y that is unit norm, right. And so what we want to show is that let us take the unit ball and let us put points on it and I want to put points on it such that the distance I want to put enough points on it. So, that the distance between any two of them is not more than epsilon, right.

So, every point, so marking these red points and I want to make sure, I want to make sure that any point on this ball is has a red point not far off I mean a any point on this ball, right has a red point to it that is closer than epsilon, ok. So, just to frame it in a different way that if I were drawing epsilon radius ball around every red point, right there these balls will of course, overlap, but the union of these balls will be the entire surface of this sphere, ok. So, I will cover the entire surface of the spheres by drawing balls of radius epsilon around these red points, ok.

So, this is known as epsilon net, right and it is I mean using such an epsilon net argument, right. So, we need to draw an epsilon net in for a ball, right that has a dimension which is more or less the rank of A. We can actually do better later in later a later class we will see a better bound on that on the target dimension that we need, but for now it is enough for you to note, right that that if you take k to be let us say rank of A by epsilon square, right with some log factors then using this epsilon net argument we can show that that this quantity, we can show that this quantity $A^T A - B B^T$ is less than epsilon times A transpose, right. Using basically the Johnson Lindenstrauss theorem and some union bound some clever union bound arguments, ok.

So, this would then allow us to use B, this particular B in finding out a low rank approximation of A, and that is and that is very useful and we will see repetitions of this of this particular thing.

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The slide is titled "Summary" and contains the following bullet points:

- JL random projections a versatile tool
 - Tight bound on the number of target dimensions
- Number of ways to construct, will see more
- Saw a specific application

Handwritten notes in red ink on the right side of the slide include: $\delta \sim \frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \left(\frac{1}{\delta} \right) \sim \frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \dots$

The slide footer includes the IIT Gandhinagar logo and the NPTEL ONLINE CERTIFICATION COURSES logo. A small video inset in the bottom right corner shows a man speaking.

So, in summary Johnson Lindenstrauss projections are a very versatile pool. There is a typed bound on the number of target dimensions, right there are a number of ways to construct these that we need for Johnson Lindenstrauss and this bound depends on both the error parameter, right. As well as I mean on the confidence value delta that you want to have, right, in the yeah. If you want delta to be let us say like one by n or you wanted to hold for n square pairs of points, right you want to set the I mean you need to make a delta to be to be of the order of 1 by n then the target dimension needs to depend on 1 over epsilon square log 1 by delta which is 1 over epsilon square log n, ok.

We saw a very specific application of this random projection in creating low dimensional sort of factorizations of a matrix, and we will see a little more of these.

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Time taken for projection

- Matrix vector multiplication = $O(kd)$ k $d+100$
- $- k = \Omega\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon^2}\right)$
- We also know that there is a lower bound on the target dimension
- Can we make the projection faster?

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So, the time taken, so then let us look at a little more about how to create more efficient random projections, the time what is the time taken for creating a random projection of a vector of dimension d, ok. The matrix is of is a size k by d the vector as I mentioned d and therefore, the matrix multiplication takes time order k d. Because this k and, but this k is 1 over epsilon square. So, this is not a very nice quantity, right because if you set epsilon to be let us say like 0.1, ok. There are we already have d times 100 d itself was fairly big. So, this, so can I sort of make it faster can I create a random projection faster well we could have if we if the target dimension was smaller, but we know that it is not very small it is it cannot be smaller than this. So, can we make it faster while keeping the

target dimension to be the same this is a question that we investigate in this in the rest of this lecture ok. So, let us do a thought experiment.

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Thought Experiment


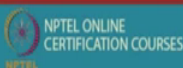
- Suppose projection matrix is very sparse

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{w.p. } 1-p \\ N\left(0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}}\right) & \text{w.p. } p \end{cases}$$

*Normalize columns
C(k d q) ~ O(k)*

- Set $p \sim \frac{1}{d}$. Time now is only $O(k)$. But....



And suppose we are not reducing the target dimension, but we are making the matrix very sparse, right. In the sense that suppose in the extreme case, right if the matrix has only one nonzero per a row, then matrix vector multiplication is very easy, right. It would take only time order k , because I need to store I mean if I happen to store in a matrix I need to be a little clever I cannot store the 0s I have to store a sparse representation of the matrix, right. And therefore, write up the matrix vector multiplication a little more cleverly and I can do the matrix I mean exploit the sparsity and to reduce this time.

So, specifically let us create a matrix like this, right. That suppose I put in a 0 with probability $1 - p$, and with probability p I sample I create a sample from this distribution $N(0, 1/\sqrt{p})$, right and then and then I put in the n value in any ij . So, why am I normalizing this? It is again to make each entry need variance that is why I have this $1/\sqrt{p}$ out here, right. So, now, most of the so $1 - p$ fraction of the entries are 0s and the rest have some Gaussian value put in them, right.

So, now imagine in the extreme that p is more or less like $1/d$, right and what I was saying that that is the case that happens before, that most rows have a constant number of entries. So, the time taken to do the matrix vector multiplication is now $k d q$, order $k d$

q, right which is order k only but is this really I mean a JL matrix, that does it satisfy the conditions of the Johnson Lindenstrauss projection? Well it might not, right.


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Thought Experiment


- Suppose projection matrix is very sparse

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{w.p. } 1-p \\ N\left(0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}}\right) & \text{w.p. } p \end{cases}$$

- Set $p \sim \frac{1}{d}$. Time now is only $O(k)$. But....
 - Fails to preserve norm, esp. for sparse vectors
 - Works fine if the vector is all dense!



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And this is and this is really the, this is really the problem. The problem is that that suppose you have a particular I mean because every row has only constant number of constant number of 1s there might be a column that is all 0. And imagine that if there is a column in a that is all 0 imagine just giving it a vector that has one only for that particular column and 0s everywhere else. So, then the norm of this vector is 1, but the norm of Ax is 0, right. So, therefore, Ax cannot be within a $1 \pm \epsilon$ approximation I mean factor of the input vector x , right.

So, then this does not work as a I mean we cannot hope to prove a Johnson Lindenstrauss bound for this matrix. However, imagine that if the matrix if the if the original vector was dense, if instead of this I had one over square root d for every entry, right then such a condition cannot happen and then and then we would be fine, right.

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Thought Experiment

- Suppose projection matrix is very sparse

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{w.p. } 1-p \\ N\left(0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}}\right) & \text{w.p. } p \end{cases}$$

$|Av||_2 = 1$

- Set $p \sim \frac{1}{d}$. Time now is only $O(k)$. But....
 - Fails to preserve norm, esp. for sparse vectors
 - Works fine if the vector is all dense!

So, can I only work with dense vectors? Well, I have to give the Johnson Lindenstrauss bound for all vectors. So, what can we do?

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Ingredients

Ailon Chazelle

- Hadamard matrices $d \sim 2^k$

$H_1 = (1)$

$H_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

$H_{2^{k+1}} = \begin{pmatrix} H_{2^k} & H_{2^k} \\ H_{2^k} & -H_{2^k} \end{pmatrix}$

$H_d = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

So, can I pre process my vector to make it dense, right. But I have to make sure that the time taken for pre processing is not more than the time taken for to do the projection itself, right and this is the algorithm that was proposed by Ailon and Chazelle called as fast Johnson Lindenstrauss transformation.

The main ingredient here is something on the Hadamard matrix. So, what is the Hadamard matrix? Well, a Hadamard matrix is a of dimension d , right it is a d by d matrix, right its only defined when d is 2 to the k and its defined in this recursive way you must have seen this before that the Hadamard matrix H_1 is nothing, but the matrix that contains only one, H_2 is the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$, right H_2 to the k plus 1 is defined recursively that you get 4 copies of H_2 , H_2 to the k , right and you place the copies side by side, right except that you put in a negative in one of the copies. So, basically H_4 would be you put in $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. So, I am just putting copies of H_2 1 minus 1 and then minus 1 minus 1, minus 1 1 this is H_4 and then you keep on going to H_8 , H_{16} and so on, ok.

(Refer Slide Time: 27:06)

The slide is titled "Hadamard Matrices" and contains the following text and diagrams:

- Defined only when dimension d is of the form 2^k
 - Assume this
- Multiplying a vector by H_d takes time $O(d \log d)$

Handwritten notes on the slide include:

- $H_d \times$ (written vertically)
- $O(d)$ (circled and underlined)
- A diagram showing a 2×2 block of $H_{d/2}$ matrices multiplied by a vector $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$ of size $d/2$.
- The recurrence relation: $T(d) = 2T\left(\frac{d}{2}\right) + O(d)$
- An approximation: $\sim O(d \log d)$

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So, why is this nice? So, first of all it is defined only when d the dimensions is of the form 2 to the k . So, let us assume this and this is not to this is not such a bad assumption because I mean if the dimension is not of size 2 to the k then by at most doubling it I can reach it a power 2 to the k , ok.

So, now, it is easy to see that multiplying H_d times x H_d . I mean H_d is let us say the d by d Hadamard matrix. So, I will refer to both H_d and H . So, multiplying H_d times x takes only instead of taking d squared time it takes only time $d \log d$. And why is that? Because of this of this recursive way, right because in order to multiply I needed to do H

d by 2 H d by 2, H d by 2 minus H d by 2 and then x_1 and x_2 , where x_1 is of dimension d by 2 and x_2 is of dimension d by 2.

So, then I need to multiply H d by 2 with x_1 H d by 2 with x_2 , but again in order to fill up the next one I need to multiply H d by 2 again with x_1 and minus H d by x_2 . So, I need to do only two multiplications, right that is of a matrix of size d by 2 by d by 2 with a vector of size d by 2, right and I can fill up the entire and I can do the multiplication of H d with x using only two multiplications of the form, H d by 2 with some vector of dimension d by 2. Therefore, if you write if you happen to, right there on the recursion it turns out to be like this the T of d which is the time taken to do the d by d matrix vector multiplication is here is $2 T_{d/2} + O(d)$ which if you roll off the recursion turns out to be order $d \log T$, right.

So, instead of d square for a general d by d matrix I mean d by d matrix vector multiplication its now order $d \log d$, ok.

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Densifying using Hadamard

$x \in \mathbb{R}^d$

$D \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ diagonal with $D_{ii} = \begin{cases} +1 \text{ w.p. } \frac{1}{2} \\ -1 \text{ w.p. } \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$

$y = HDx$

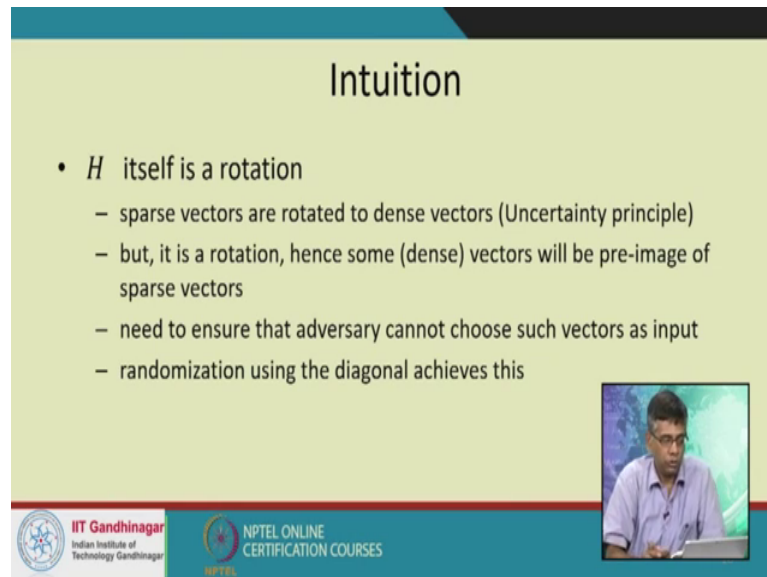
Calculating y takes time $O(d \log d)$

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So, now the next step what we will do is a densification using Hadamard. So, before I explain what it is I mean why it works, let me just show it show it to you what it is that we have a diagonal matrix D such that D_{ii} is plus 1 with probability half and minus 1 probability half. And then given m given a vector x_i first multiply it with the diagonal matrix d then I multiplied to the Hadamard matrix H and I get y . So, this y we will call it as the densified version of x . So, couple of things to note first is that this also takes time

$d \log T$ because multiplying by diagonal is only linear time. Secondly, H times d is an orthonormal matrix because H is orthonormal matrix and this particular d that we have defined is also an orthonormal matrix, ok.

(Refer Slide Time: 29:59)



The slide is titled "Intuition" and contains the following text:

- H itself is a rotation
 - sparse vectors are rotated to dense vectors (Uncertainty principle)
 - but, it is a rotation, hence some (dense) vectors will be pre-image of sparse vectors
 - need to ensure that adversary cannot choose such vectors as input
 - randomization using the diagonal achieves this

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So, the intuition behind this is that H itself is a rotation and by using something with uncertainty principle, right which basically says that H is a kind of Fourier transform. So, the uncertainty principle says that a signal cannot be sparse both in original domain as well as in the Fourier domain, which means that if I apply H to a sparse vector it becomes a dense vector. However, because H is a full rank matrix it is and because it is a rotation itself I mean some dense vector also be the pre-image of some sparse vector.

So, therefore, if an adversary gives me a dense vector my output of the H of x will be a dense vector and I cannot allow that to happen, I always want my output to be sparse, I always want my y to be sparse. So, therefore, I have to come up with this random diagonal matrix which sort of says that that adversary cannot without sort of knowing the random bits the adversary it does not really know how to come up with a pre image of a sparse vector, right and the way to formally sort of state this is as follows.

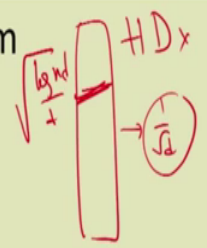

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Densification claim

$x \in \mathbb{R}^d, \|x\|_2 = 1$

Claim: $\max_i |(HDx)_i| \leq O\left(\frac{\log(nd)}{d}\right)^{1/2}$

Application of Chernoff style tail inequality per coordinate and union bound

Is that what you can say is that for any x that is that has 2 norm 1. If you look at the maximum entry in HDx , right. So, HDx is also has 2 norm 1. So, therefore, the average entry is $1/\sqrt{d}$, if it was completely dense all the entries would be $1/\sqrt{d}$. What it says? What this says is that the maximum entry is not much more than this average entry. So, the maximum entry is something like square root of $\log n/d$ by square root d the maximum entry which means that HDx is a pretty dense vector, right and this the getting I mean getting this bound is not I mean conceptually it is not very hard just application of Chernoff style tail inequality.

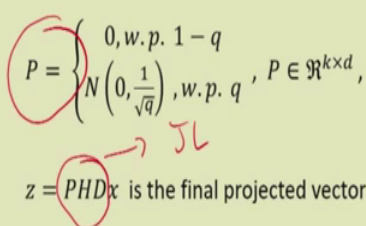

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Projecting a dense vector

$y = HDx, \max_i |y_i| \approx O(\sqrt{\log(nd)/d})$

$P = \begin{cases} 0, w.p. 1 - q \\ N\left(0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}}\right), w.p. q \end{cases}, P \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times d}, k = O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \log\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right)\right)$

$z = PHDx$ is the final projected vector

So, now, we are almost done because we have we have a dense vector y we can apply our previous sparse projection matrix, right on this dense vector y and my final matrix is this matrix P times H times d is my final projected vector, ok. So, and this is my JL matrix. So, first I will apply the diagonal matrix on x , then I will apply the Hadamard transformation, then I left like the sparse projection matrix, right.

(Refer Slide Time: 32:21)

The slide is titled "Fast JL Transform [AC09]". It contains the following text and annotations:

If $q = O(|x|_{\infty}^2) = O\left(\frac{\log(nd)}{d}\right)$, PHD satisfies JL property

Calculating $y = PHDx$ takes time $O(d \log d + k \log(nd))$, potentially much faster than original Gaussian construction

Handwritten annotations in red ink include: a horizontal line under the fraction in the first equation, the letters "dk" below the second equation, and the expression "(d+k)" to the right of the second equation.

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And this is the fast Johnson Lindenstrauss transformation given by Ailon and Chee, it says that if I happen to choose q . So, remember q was the how sparse I made the matrix q is that probability, right only I expect only I mean only q fraction of the entries to be nonzero.

So, if I choose q to be of the order of the of the maximum entry of maximum entry square of x which in this case turns out to be $\log n d$ by d then PHD satisfies the JL property which is the $1 \pm \epsilon$ length preservation. And setting this value of q makes that calculation of the of the $PHD x$ takes time order $d \log t$ plus $k \log nd$. Remember that the original time was order d times k and now we have boiled it down to something like d plus k with some log factors thrown in and potentially therefore, this is much faster than the Gaussian concentration, ok.

So, we will talk about the application of this locality sensitive hashing later. But just some references.

(Refer Slide Time: 33:19)

References:

- Primary references for this lecture
 - The Random Projection Method, Santosh Vempala, AMS.
 - Foundations of Data Science, Blum, Hopcroft, Kannan, <https://www.cs.cornell.edu/ieh/book.pdf>
 - Survey by Long Chen, <https://www.math.uci.edu/~chenlong/RNLA/JL.pdf>
- Fast Johnson Lindenstrauss Transform, Ailon and Chazelle, SIAM J Computing 2009.
- Fast Locality Sensitive Hashing, Dasgupta, Kumar, Sarlos, KDD 2011.

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There is a very nice book on The Random Projection Method by Santosh Vempala. You can also find this in chapter two, of the foundations of data science which is a free book by Blum, Hopcroft and Kannan. There is a Survey by Long Chen at this link, and the fast Johnson Lindenstrauss transformation is obtained from this paper by in the science journal of computing. In the next lecture we will talk about an application on fast locality sensitive hashing that is by that is from a paper of us and.

Thank you.