# Random Projections

2IMW30 - Foundations of data mining TU Eindhoven, Quartile 3, 2016-2017

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### Why reduce the dimension?

Representation of input data often is often high dimensional (images, documents, etc.)

There are two main reasons to reduce the dimension:

- some algorithms have running time exponential in the dimension
- we want to **visualize** inherent structure in the data

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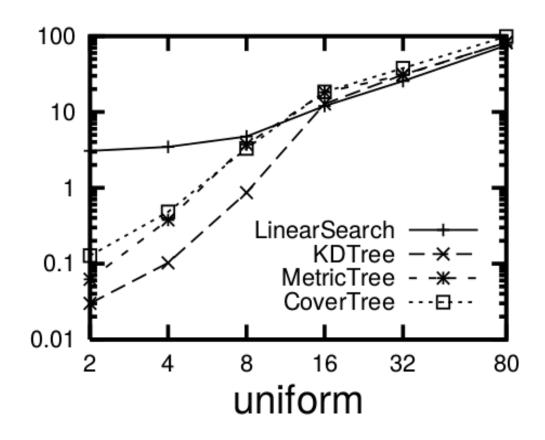
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#### Overview of this lecture

- Nearest-neighbor searching
- Embedding and Distortion
- Achlioptas' Random Projection
- Projection onto a subspace
- Random Rotation (Expectation)
- Analysis of a fixed distance (Expectation)
- Law of large numbers
- Concentration of measure
- Analysis of a fixed distance
- Analysis of the Distortion
- Alternative Projection Matrix

## Nearest neighbor searching

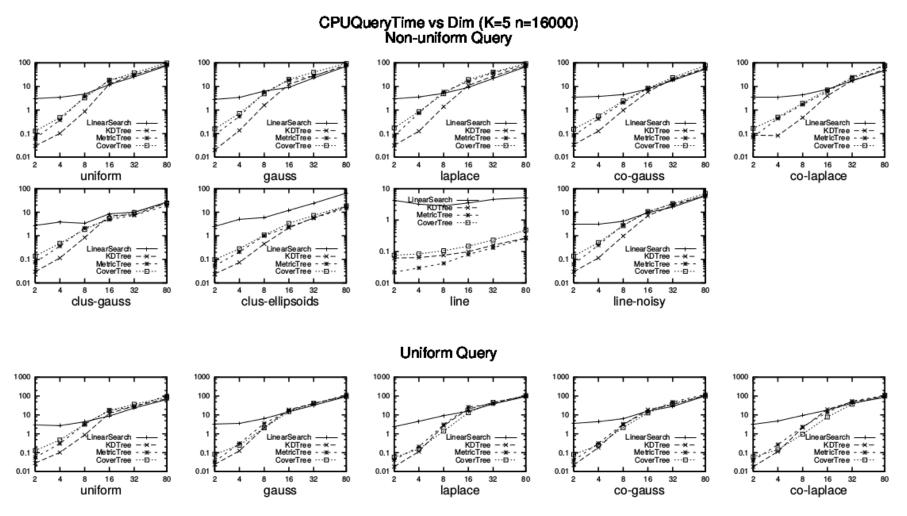
CPU-time to query the k-nearest neighbors vs. dimension of the data



**Source:** Ashraf M. Kibriya and Eibe Frank "An Empirical Comparison of Exact Nearest Neighbour Algorithms" PKDD 2007

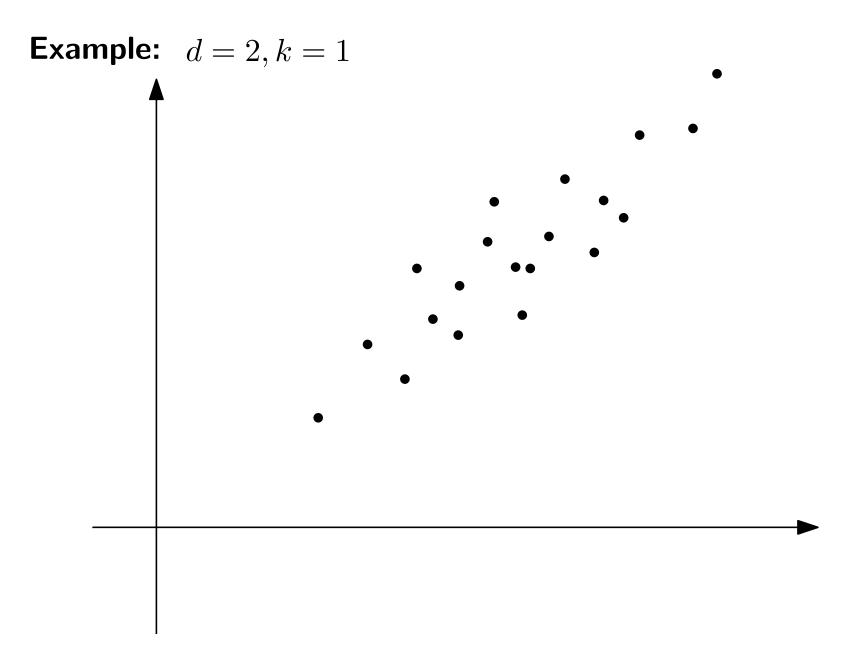
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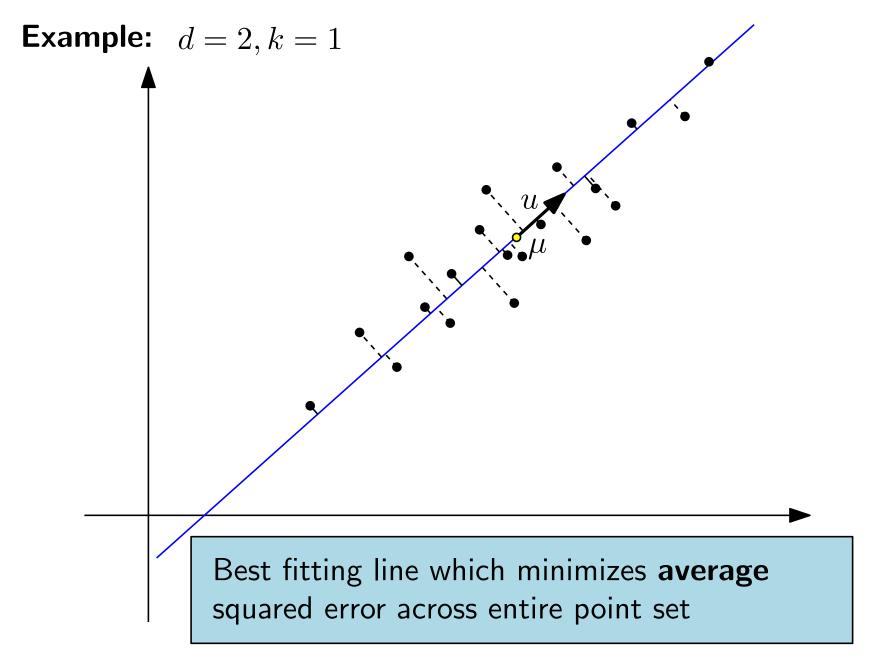


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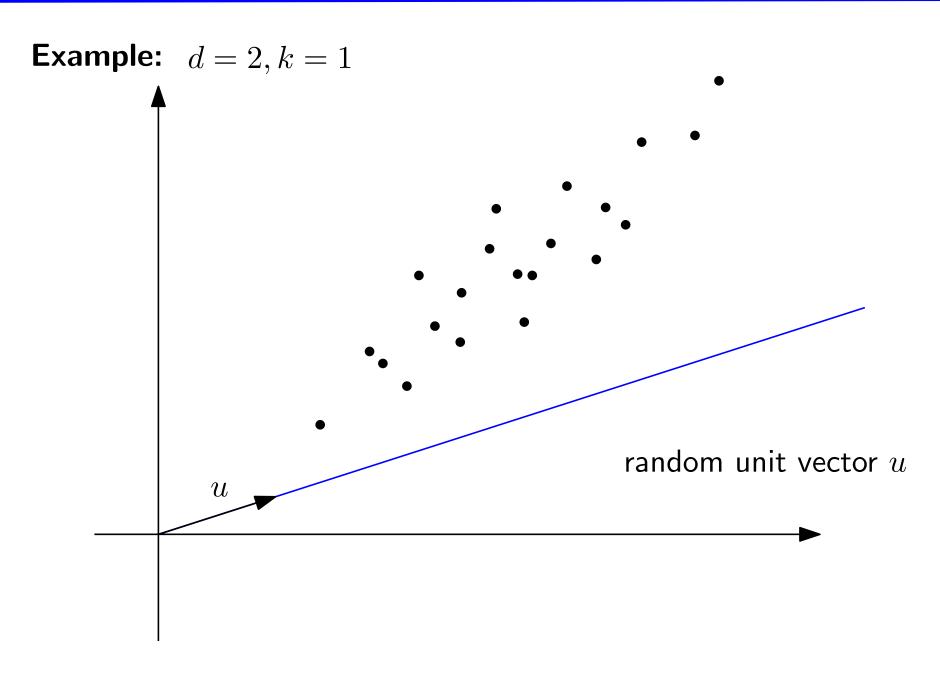
## Principal Component Analysis (PCA)



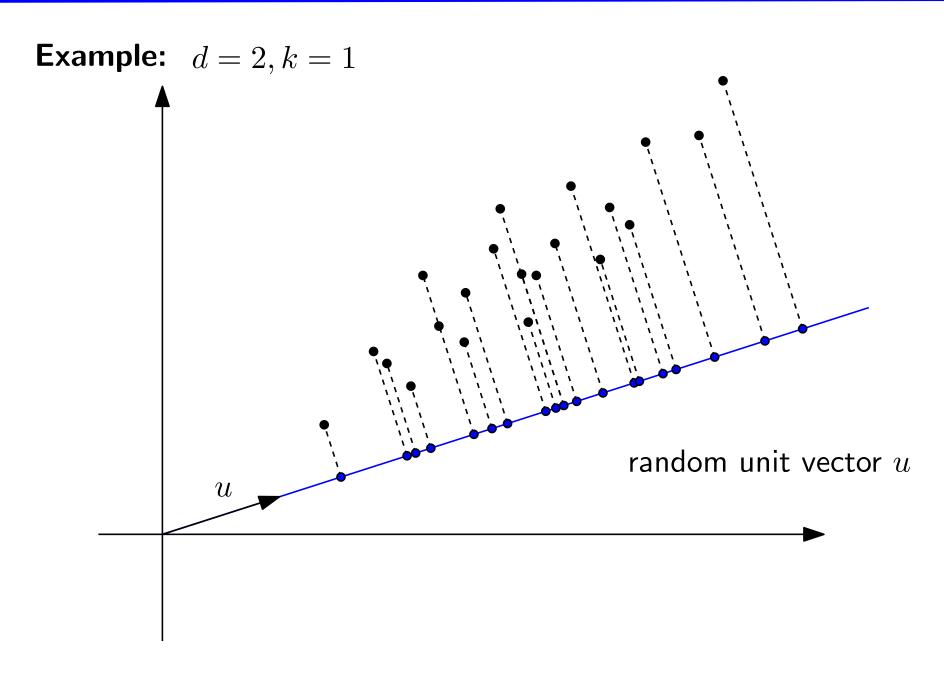
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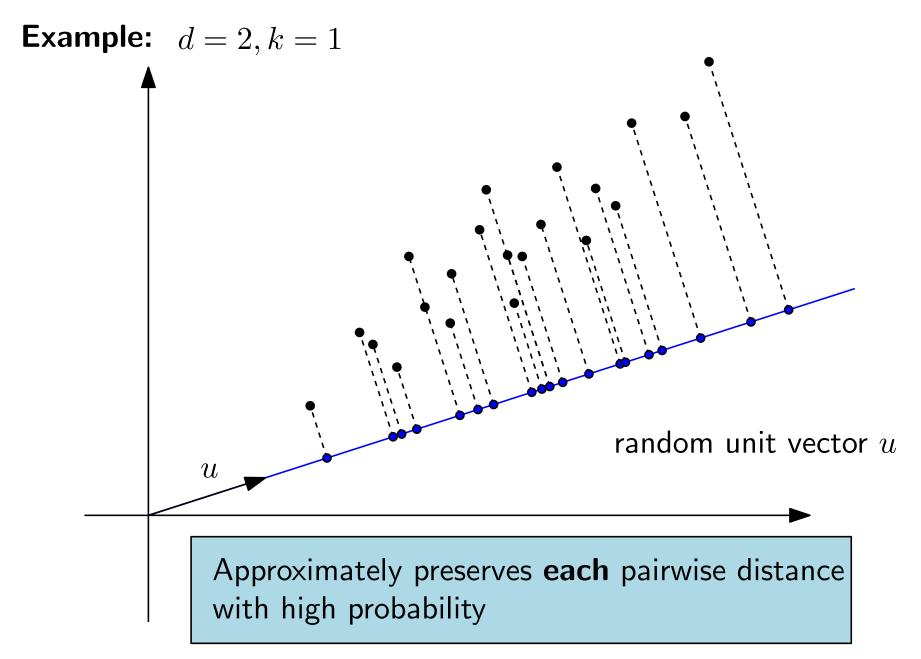
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### Random Projection



#### **Embedding and Distortion**

Given a point set  $X \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , we call a function  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}^k$  an **embedding** of X. We define

expansion
$$(f) = \max_{x,y \in X} \frac{\|f(x) - f(y)\|}{\|x - y\|}$$

contraction
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The **distortion** of f is defined as the product of the expansion and the contraction of f.

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The **distortion** of f is defined as the product of the expansion and the contraction of f.

Note that for all  $x, y \in X$  we have

$$\frac{1}{\beta} ||x - y|| \le ||f(x) - f(y)|| \le \alpha ||x - y||$$

where  $\alpha$  denotes the expansion and  $\beta$  denotes the contraction

## Achlioptas' Random Projection (Algorithm)

**Input:** set of points  $P = \{p_1, \dots, p_n\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ , value of k **Output:** set of points  $Q = \{q_1, \dots, q_n\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ 

#### **Algorithm:**

• Generate a random  $k \times d$  matrix  $\mathbf{R}$  by choosing

$$r_{i,j} = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{with probability } \frac{1}{2} \\ -1 & \text{with probability } \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$$

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#### Theorem:

Let  $k_0 = \frac{4+2\beta}{\varepsilon^2/2-\varepsilon^3/3}\log n$ , for given  $\varepsilon, \beta > 0$ . If  $k \ge k_0$  then with probability at least  $1 - \frac{1}{n^\beta}$ , we have for all  $p_i, p_j \in P$  that

$$|(1-\varepsilon)||p_i - p_j||^2 \le ||q_i - q_j||^2 \le (1+\varepsilon)||p_i - p_j||^2$$

### History: Embedding Lemma

Random projections were invented by Johnson and Lindenstrauss.

#### Lemma (Johnson and Lindenstrauss, 1984):

Given  $\varepsilon > 0$  and an integer n, let k be a positive integer  $k \ge k_0 = O\left(\frac{\log n}{\varepsilon^2}\right)$ . For every set of points

 $P = \{p_1, \dots, p_n\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  there exists  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^k$  such that for all  $p_i, p_j \in P$ 

$$(1 - \varepsilon) \|p_i - p_j\|^2 \le \|f(p_i) - f(p_j)\|^2 \le (1 + \varepsilon) \|p_i - p_j\|^2.$$

Note: The proof uses a random projection to show that f exists. For historical reasons, the JL-lemma only talks about the existence of f.

#### Linear Algebra: Rotation

#### In general:

A matrix is a rotation iff it is orthogonal

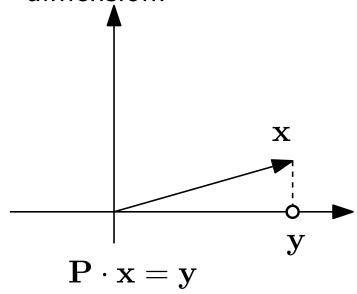
$$\mathbf{R} = \left( egin{array}{ccc} r_{1,1} & r_{1,2} & r_{1,3} \ r_{2,1} & r_{2,2} & r_{2,3} \ r_{3,1} & r_{3,2} & r_{3,3} \end{array} 
ight) = \left( egin{array}{c} \mathbf{r_1} \ \mathbf{r_2} \ \mathbf{r_3} \end{array} 
ight)$$

This means its row vectors are..

- (1) pairwise orthogonal:  $\mathbf{r_i} \cdot \mathbf{r_j} = 0$
- (2) unit vectors:  $\|\mathbf{r_i}\| = 1$

Furthermore, it holds that  ${f R^{-1}}={f R^T}$  and that the length of any vector is preserved under  ${f R}$ 

Project a vector **x** into first dimension:



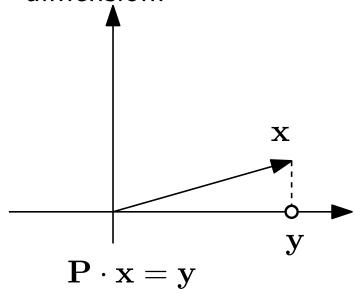
Transformation matrix:

$$\mathbf{P} = (1 \quad 0)$$

#### In general:

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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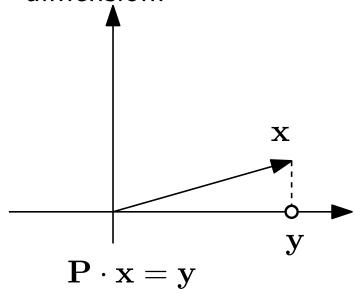


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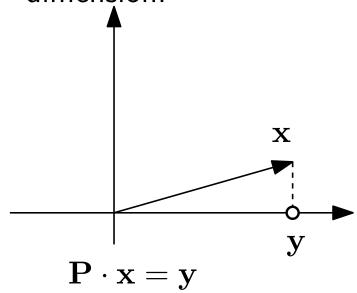
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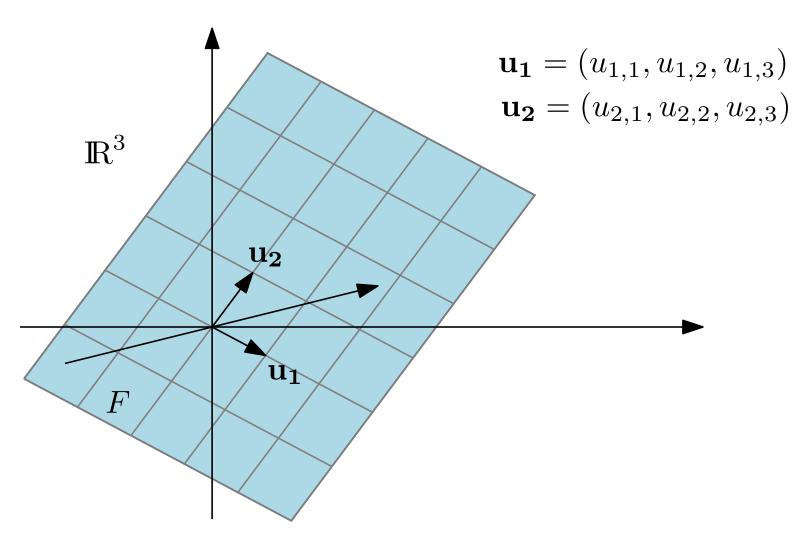
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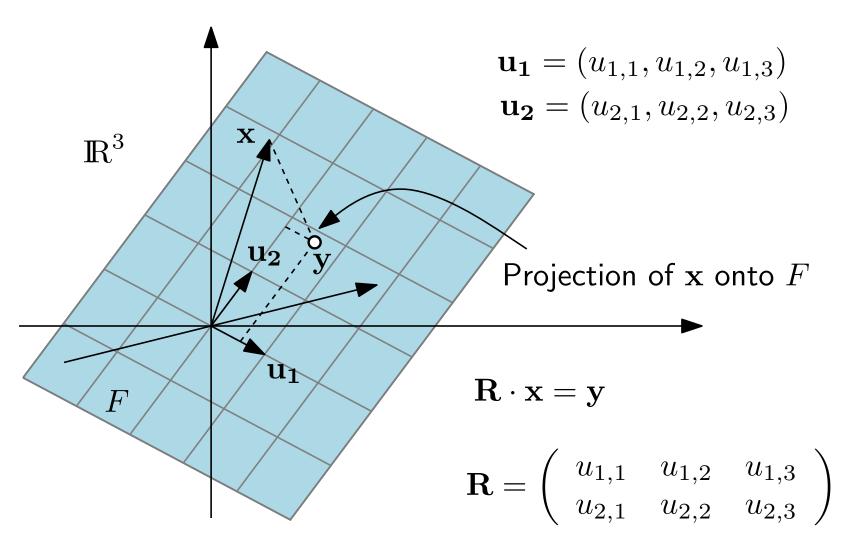
### Linear Algebra: Projection onto subspace

Let F be a k-dimensional linear subspace of  ${\rm I\!R}^d$  spanned by orthonormal vectors  $\mathbf{u_1}, \dots, \mathbf{u_k}$  and let  $\mathbf{R}$  be the projection onto F



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### Linear Algebra: Projection onto subspace

A projection onto a subspace can be viewed as rotation followed by an axis-orthogonal projection

To see this, let's rewrite  $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{P} \cdot \mathbf{M}$  with

- $-\mathbf{M}$ : rotation to align each  $\mathbf{u_i}$  with standard basis vector  $\mathbf{v_i}$
- $\bf P$ : orthogonal projection onto first k coordinates

To find the rotation matrix M, note that for  $i = 1, \ldots, k$ 

$$\mathbf{M} \cdot \mathbf{u_i} = \mathbf{v_i} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mathbf{M^{-1}} \cdot \mathbf{v_i} = \mathbf{u_i} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mathbf{M^T} \cdot \mathbf{v_i} = \mathbf{u_i}$$

- since  $v_i$  is the i'th standard basis vector,  $M^Tv_i$  is the ith column vector of  $\mathbf{M}^{\mathbf{T}}$
- thus,  $\mathbf{u_i}$  is the *i*th row vector of  $\mathbf{M}$  for  $i = 1, \dots, k$

We can think of Achlioptas transformation as a rotation  ${\bf M}$  followed by a projection  ${\bf P}$  onto the first k dimensions.

$$f(p) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} \mathbf{R} p = \frac{\sqrt{d}}{\sqrt{k}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} \mathbf{R} p = \frac{\sqrt{d}}{\sqrt{k}} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{M} p$$

**Example:** k = 2, d = 4

$$\mathbf{P} = \left(\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{array}\right)$$

$$\mathbf{M} = rac{1}{\sqrt{d}} \left( egin{array}{ccccc} r_{1,1} & r_{1,2} & r_{1,3} & r_{1,4} \ r_{2,1} & r_{2,2} & r_{2,3} & r_{2,4} \ r_{3,1} & r_{3,2} & r_{3,3} & r_{3,4} \ r_{4,1} & r_{4,2} & r_{4,3} & r_{4,4} \end{array} 
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But is M a rotation?

 ${\bf M}$  is a rotation if and only if the product of  ${\bf M}$  and its transpose is the identity (i.e.,  ${\bf M}$  is orthogonal)

$$\mathbf{M}\mathbf{M}^{\mathbf{T}} = \mathbf{I}$$

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- (1) each pair of row vectors is orthogonal
- (2) each row vector has unit length

Let  $\mathbf{r_i} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}}(r_{i,1}, \dots, r_{i,d})$  be the *i*th row vector of  $\mathbf{M}$ 

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Let  $\mathbf{r_i} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}}(r_{i,1}, \dots, r_{i,d})$  be the *i*th row vector of  $\mathbf{M}$ 

(continued)

Recall that each  $r_{i,j}$  is a discrete random variable:

$$r_{i,j} = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{with probability } \frac{1}{2} \\ -1 & \text{with probability } \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$$

Let's analyze expected values of the matrix entries of  $\mathbf{M}\mathbf{M}^{\mathbf{T}}$ 

We will need the expected value of  $r_{i,j}$ :

$$\forall i, j : \mathrm{E}[r_{i,j}] = -1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} = 0$$

(continued)

(1) the expected angle between each pair of row vectors is orthogonal:  $\forall i \neq j : \mathrm{E}\left[\langle \mathbf{r_i}, \mathbf{r_j} \rangle\right] = 0$ 

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#### **Proof:**

By linearity of expectation

$$\operatorname{E}\left[\langle \mathbf{r_i}, \mathbf{r_j} \rangle\right] = \operatorname{E}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{d} \frac{r_{i,t}}{\sqrt{d}} \cdot \frac{r_{j,t}}{\sqrt{d}}\right] = \frac{1}{d} \sum_{t=1}^{d} \operatorname{E}\left[r_{i,t} \cdot r_{j,t}\right]$$

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for  $i \neq j$  it holds that  $r_{i,t}$  and  $r_{j,t}$  are independent random variables, therefore

$$\mathrm{E}\left[\langle \mathbf{r_i}, \mathbf{r_j} \rangle\right] = \frac{1}{d} \sum_{t=1}^{d} \mathrm{E}\left[r_{i,t}\right] \cdot \mathrm{E}\left[r_{j,t}\right] = 0$$

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Note that  $r_{i,t}^2$  is also a random variable and its expected value is:

$$E[r_{i,t}^2] = (-1)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + (1)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} = 1$$

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Therefore,  $E[\langle \mathbf{r_i}, \mathbf{r_i} \rangle] = 1$ 

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- Therefore, we can think of f as a random rotation followed by an ordinary projection onto the first k coordinates.

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- Next we want to analyze the effect of the random projection on a distance between two points
- Therefore we analyze for fixed  $p_i, p_j \in P$  the expectation of its squared length in the projection

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\|f(p_i) - f(p_j)\|^2\right]$$

**Claim:** For fixed  $p_i, p_j \in P : E[\|f(p_i) - f(p_j)\|^2] = \|p_i - p_j\|^2$ 

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#### **Proof:**

Since f is a linear transformation, we have that

$$E[||f(p_i) - f(p_j)||^2] = E[||f(p_i - p_j)||^2] = E[||f(\alpha)||^2]$$

where  $\alpha = (a_1, \dots, a_d) = p_i - p_j$ .

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By the definition of 
$$f$$
 
$$\|f(\alpha)\|^2 = \left\|\frac{\sqrt{d}}{\sqrt{k}}\mathbf{P}\mathbf{M}\alpha\right\|^2 = \frac{d}{k}\|\mathbf{P}\mathbf{M}\alpha\|^2 = \frac{d}{k}\sum_{i=1}^k(\mathbf{r_i}\alpha)^2$$

where  $\mathbf{r_i} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}}(r_{i,1}, \dots, r_{i,d})$  is the *i*th row vector of  $\mathbf{M}$ , as defined earlier.

(continued)

by linearity of expectation

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$$E\left[ (\mathbf{r_i}\alpha)^2 \right] = E\left[ \left( \sum_{j=1}^d \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} r_{i,j} a_j \right)^2 \right] = E\left[ \frac{1}{d} \left( \sum_{j=1}^d r_{i,j} a_j \right)^2 \right]$$

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We recursively expand the inner quadratic expression

$$\left(\sum_{j=1}^{d} r_{i,j} a_{j}\right)^{2} = (r_{i,1} a_{1})^{2} + 2r_{i,1} a_{1} \left(\sum_{j=2}^{d} r_{i,j} a_{j}\right) + \left(\sum_{j=2}^{d} r_{i,j} a_{j}\right)^{2}$$

$$= \cdot \frac{1}{d} \cdot \sum_{j=1}^{d-1} \sum_{l=j+1}^{d} 2r_{i,j} a_{j} r_{i,l} a_{l}$$

(continued)

Plugging back into the equation..

$$E[(\mathbf{r}_{i}\alpha)^{2}] = E\left[\frac{1}{d}\sum_{j=1}^{d}(r_{i,j}a_{j})^{2} + \sum_{j=1}^{d-1}\sum_{l=j+1}^{d}2r_{i,j}a_{j}r_{i,l}a_{l}\right]$$

Note that  $\alpha=(a_1,\ldots,a_d)$  is a fixed vector, so it is not affected by randomness

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Therefore, by linearity of expectation

$$E[(\mathbf{r}_{i}\alpha)^{2}] = \frac{1}{d} \sum_{j=1}^{d} a_{j}^{2} E[r_{i,j}^{2}] + \sum_{j=1}^{d-1} \sum_{l=j+1}^{d} 2a_{j}a_{l} E[r_{i,j}r_{i,l}]$$

(continued)

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$$1 \text{ (as before)} \qquad \qquad 0 \text{ (as before)}$$

(continued)

Plugging back into the equation..

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(as before)

$$= \frac{1}{d} \sum_{j=1}^{d} a_j^2 = \frac{1}{d} \|\alpha\|^2$$

(continued)

Plugging back into the equation..

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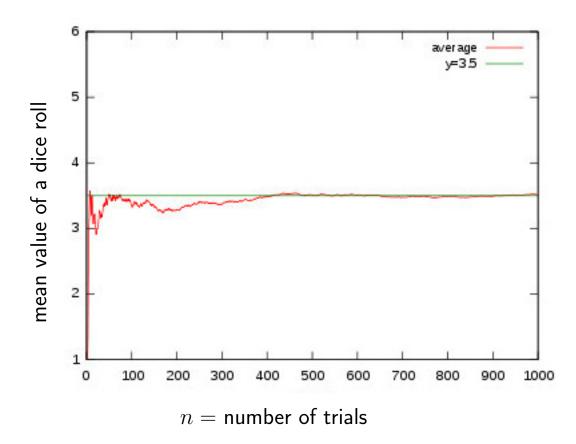
Now, plugging back the definition of  $\alpha$ 

$$E[||f(p_i) - f(p_j)||^2] = ||p_i - p_j||^2$$

### Law of Large Numbers

Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be n samples of a random variable X. The law of large numbers states that

$$\Pr\left[\left|\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}X_{i} - \operatorname{E}\left[X\right]\right| \geq \varepsilon\right] \leq \frac{\operatorname{Var}\left(X\right)}{n \cdot \varepsilon^{2}}$$



The unit hypercube:  $[0,1]^d = \{(x_1,\ldots,x_d) \mid x_i \in [0,1]\}$ 

Random vector  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_d) \in [0, 1]^d$ (choose  $x_i$  independently and uniformly random in [0,1])

Consider the squared length  $\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^d x_i^2$ 

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By the law of large numbers we have for high dimensions:

$$L := \frac{\|\mathbf{x}\|^2}{d} = \frac{1}{d} \sum_{i=1}^{d} x_i^2 \sim \frac{1}{3}$$

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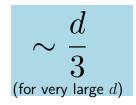
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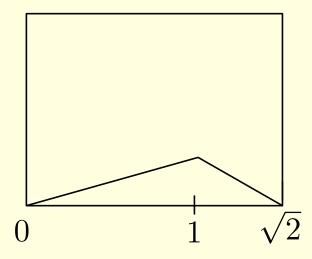
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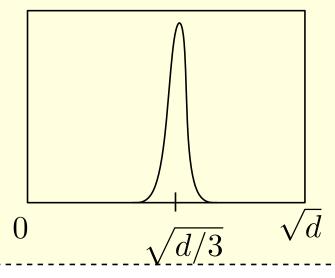
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Distribution of the length of x in low vs. high dimensions

$$d=2$$





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Failure probability for two fixed points  $p_i, p_j$ :

$$\Pr\left[\frac{\|f(p_i) - f(p_j)\|^2}{\|p_i - p_j\|^2} \notin [1 - \varepsilon, 1 + \varepsilon]\right]$$

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rewrite this term:

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define  $\alpha = \frac{p_i - p_j}{\|p_i - p_j\|}$  (note that  $\alpha$  is a fixed unit vector)

$$\Pr\left[\left\|f\left(\alpha\right)\right\|^{2}\notin\left[1-\varepsilon,1+\varepsilon\right]\right]$$

(continued)

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By the definition of f:

$$||f(\alpha)||^2 = \left\| \frac{\sqrt{d}}{\sqrt{k}} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{M} \alpha \right\|^2 = \frac{d}{k} ||\mathbf{P} \mathbf{M} \alpha||^2$$

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For simplicity, assume M is a proper random rotation.

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For simplicity, assume  ${\bf M}$  is a proper random rotation. In this case,  ${\bf M}\alpha$  is a random unit vector

squared length of a **random unit vector**, projected onto the first k coordinates

Using concentration of measure, Achlioptas shows the following lemma (we omit the full proof):

#### Lemma:

Let  $r_{i,j}$  be chosen uniformly random from  $\{-1,1\}$ , then for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  and any unit vector  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,

$$\Pr\left[\|f(\alpha)\|^2 \notin [1-\varepsilon, 1+\varepsilon]\right] < 2 \cdot e^{\left(-\frac{k}{2}(\varepsilon^2/2 - \varepsilon^3/3)\right)}$$

Therefore, choosing

$$k \ge \frac{4 + 2\beta}{\varepsilon^2 / 2 + \varepsilon^3 / 3} \log n$$

is sufficient to ensure

$$\Pr\left[\frac{\|f(p_i) - f(p_j)\|^2}{\|p_i - p_j\|^2} \notin [1 - \varepsilon, 1 + \varepsilon]\right] = \Pr\left[\|f(\alpha)\|^2 \notin [1 - \varepsilon, 1 + \varepsilon]\right] < \frac{2}{n^{2+\beta}}$$

### Analysis of the Distortion

#### Theorem:

Let  $k_0 = \frac{4+2\beta}{\varepsilon^2/2-\varepsilon^3/3}\log n$ , for given  $\varepsilon, \beta > 0$ . If  $k \ge k_0$  then with probability at least  $1 - \frac{1}{n^\beta}$ , we have for all  $p_i, p_j \in P$  that

$$(1-\varepsilon)\|p_i - p_j\|^2 \le \|f(p_i) - f(p_j)\|^2 \le (1+\varepsilon)\|p_i - p_j\|^2$$

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$$(1 - \varepsilon) \|p_i - p_j\|^2 \le \|f(p_i) - f(p_j)\|^2 \le (1 + \varepsilon) \|p_i - p_j\|^2$$

#### **Proof:**

- there are  $\binom{n}{2}$  pairs of points in P
- bound the failure probability for two fixed points:

$$\Pr\left[\frac{\|f(p_i) - f(p_j)\|^2}{\|p_i - p_j\|^2} \notin [1 - \varepsilon, 1 + \varepsilon]\right] < \frac{2}{n^{2+\beta}}$$

• apply the union bound:  $\binom{n}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{n^{2+\beta}} < \frac{n^2}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{n^{2+\beta}} = \frac{1}{n^{\beta}}$ 

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What would be the advantage of this?

This generates a sparser matrix

### Summary

- Nearest-neighbor searching
- Embedding and Distortion
- Achlioptas' Random Projection
- Projection onto a subspace
- Random Rotation (Expectation)
- Analysis of a fixed distance (Expectation)
- Law of large numbers
- Concentration of measure
- Analysis of a fixed distance
- Analysis of the Distortion
- Alternative Projection Matrix

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